

Regina Egetenmeyer / Paula Guimarães /
Balázs Németh (eds.)

Joint Modules and Internationalisation in Higher Education

This volume places the development of the Joint Module “Comparative Studies in Adult Education and Lifelong Learning” (COMPALL, ERASMUS+ Strategic Partnership) in the context of international development in higher education and adult education. Based on this framework, the authors discuss the development of the joint module in terms of its institutional and didactical structure as well as participants’ motivation and diversity. The book is divided into three parts: (1) Internationalisation in Higher Education, (2) Internationality of Higher Education: The Case of Adult Education, and (3) Internationalisation of Higher Education: The Example of COMPALL.

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Joint Modules and Internationalisation in Higher Education
Reflections on the Joint Module
“Comparative Studies in Adult Education and Lifelong Learning”

STUDIES IN PEDAGOGY, ANDRAGOGY AND GERONTOLOGY

Founded by Franz Pöggeler

Edited by Bernd Käßlinger and Steffi Robak

VOLUME 71

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Bibliographic Information published by the Deutsche Nationalbibliothek

The Deutsche Nationalbibliothek lists this publication in the Deutsche Nationalbibliografie; detailed bibliographic data is available in the internet at <http://dnb.d-nb.de>.

Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

A CIP catalog record for this book has been applied for at the Library of Congress.



DAAD

This project is funded with support from the European Commission within the ERASMUS+ Strategic Partnerships (project number: 2015-1-DE01-KA203-002203). This communication reflects the views only of the author, and the Commission cannot be held responsible for any use which may be made of the information contained therein.

Proofreading: Carsten Bösel (consult US)

Graphik at cover illustration: Dr. Andreas Rauh, Human Dynamics Centre

ISSN 0934-3695

ISBN 978-3-631-73625-8 (Print)

E-ISBN 978-3-631-73641-8 (E-PDF)

E-ISBN 978-3-631-73642-5 (EPUB)

E-ISBN 978-3-631-73643-2 (MOBI)

DOI 10.3726/b12110



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Internationaler Verlag der Wissenschaften

Frankfurt am Main 2017

Peter Lang Edition is an Imprint of Peter Lang GmbH.

Peter Lang – Frankfurt am Main · Bern · Bruxelles · New York ·
Oxford · Warszawa · Wien

This publication has been peer reviewed.

www.peterlang.com

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Bernd Käpplinger & Steffi Robak

Preface

Lifelong learning is an international topic that has been put on the political agenda and serves as a framework for decision-making processes and increasingly also for academic exchanges and research. As a discourse, it has spread across Europe and many other parts of the world over the past ten years. The ideas of lifelong learning form a spirit and influence national policy strategies, although they vary in interpretation and are carried out differently by each nation. Partly because of this political interest in lifelong learning, adult education as a system and as an academic discipline has seen rapidly growing interest in more international exchange in terms of teaching, academic discourse, and research. Associations such as ESREA and ASEM can be considered driving forces in these exchange processes. The ERASMUS+ programme is one of many programmes providing opportunities for developing and running collaborative projects.

Looking at the international activities on an academic level, we now see discussion and research not only on lifelong learning policies, which have been one focus during the last decade, but also on professionalisation in areas such as teaching, curriculum development, programme planning, and educational management.

One big challenge that many countries are facing is securing the organisational forms of adult and continuing education and securing professionalisation and professionalism. International programmes are one way to strengthen exchange, understanding, and scientific standard building. They are quite rare in the field of adult education, and they are very difficult to carry out, because they need funding, commitment, and close cooperation. Issues of cooperation and joint teaching touch substantial questions of the institutionalisation of adult and continuing education in the world. Cooperation needs shared interests and at the national level may range from joint projects to issues of national lifelong learning policies and strategies, system building in terms of institutions, providers and stakeholders, and financial support. At the academic level, cooperation requires institutionalisation processes, the discussion of shared contents, learning approaches, and outcomes. It needs a balance of shared contents and national specialties that fit into the history of the different countries. It needs aspects to share and an appreciation of differences but also a willingness to value special developments in each country.

There are certain challenges on the students' side: They must be motivated to learn English and practice it as a shared international language. This is connected to more challenges: Studying in a foreign language requires a motivation to explain more and more intensively, to understand 'the others' and to put more emphasis on interpretation activities, because people do not necessarily have the same understanding and shared interpretation patterns.

At the level of teaching staff, it is to be highly appreciated that experts and colleagues from different universities in different countries come together to develop contents, quality standards, and learning approaches.

This book reflects a special part of the Würzburg Winter School: the Joint Module COMPALL. The contributions in it reflect the activities of everybody involved in this Joint Module. Putting the module together has been a challenge, especially for the teaching staff.

Furthermore, the book combines two substantial perspectives: internationalisation in higher education and in adult education. Using various examples, it shows how important it is to combine these perspectives when trying to professionalise adult education as a field and especially as a discipline.

COMPALL is an innovative and unique approach that uses comparison as a basis for reflection and analysis in teaching. The contributions give interesting insights into the curriculum including modern forms of digital learning and shared standards of content.

The evaluation provides inside views of the interests, challenges, and differences of students from different countries.

The volume is divided into three chapters: (1) Internationalisation in higher education, (2) Internationalisation of higher education: The case of adult education, and (3) Internationality of higher education: The example of COMPALL.

It is already the second book to come out of the EU-funded project Winter School in Würzburg, which has been very successful in many ways.

Regina Egetenmeyer, Paula Guimarães & Balázs Németh

Joint Modules and Internationalisation in Higher Education: Reflections on the Joint Module ‘Comparative Studies in Adult Education and Lifelong Learning’

Abstract: This paper places the development of the Joint Module ‘Comparative Studies in Adult Education and Lifelong Learning’ (COMPALL) in the context of international developments in higher education and in adult education. Based on this framework, the development of the joint module is reflected regarding its institutional and didactical structure as well as participants’ motivation and diversity.

Introduction

In recent times, owing to globalisation and the Bologna Process, higher education institutions have been making relevant efforts towards internationalisation. These efforts have involved research projects aimed at implementing and improving knowledge and skills in specific areas relevant to teams from different countries. Apart from research, higher education institutions have progressively enrolled more international students than ever before (cf. Varghese, in this volume). Additionally, several international teaching programmes have been conceived and developed, enrolling teaching staff and students from multiple regions and academic traditions, raising new opportunities and challenges for institutions and participants.

Of these international teaching programmes, some have specifically approached adult education and lifelong learning as their main subjects (cf. Németh, in this volume). These programmes foster debates on issues influenced by international trends and organisations, discourses and programmes. In fact, adult education and lifelong learning specifically show dimensions that go beyond the nation state, which is why they have been referred to by many authors to stress the international character of these matters.

Among these teaching programmes, the Joint Module “Comparative Studies in Adult Education and Lifelong Learning” (*Joint Module COMPALL*) includes different teaching approaches to reach students from several countries and disciplinary traditions. The COMPALL joint-module methodology programme has been referred to as an innovative teaching practice because of the opportunities

provided to students and teaching staff in adult education and lifelong learning (Tino, Guimarães, Frison, & Fedeli, in this volume). Based on a preparatory phase (online and/or on campus) featuring an intensive programme in Würzburg (the winter school), the *Joint Module COMPALL* has been an interesting challenge for everybody involved in its activities. That experience needs to be reflected on. Therefore, this book analyses the challenges of internationalisation in higher education in general and in the academic discipline of adult education specifically. Using the *Joint Module COMPALL* as an example for reflecting on international developments in higher education, the book identifies the lessons learned in its development.

Internationalisation in higher education

Internationalisation in higher education is not a new phenomenon. Several contributions in this volume show that internationalisation has been the basis of all academic activities since medieval times, when the first universities in Europe were founded (cf. Boffo & Gioli, in this volume; Varghese, in this volume). Travelling to academic institutions, exchanging ideas with experts at other universities, and communicating in a common academic language – Latin during medieval times – was a regular feature of academic life. Boffo and Gioli (in this volume) refer to the pilgrimage of academics (de Ridder-Symoens, 1992) to pursue their academic interests and improve their knowledge. This only changed during the post-war period, when nation states emerged and the national language became the teaching language at universities. Lane (2015) identifies internationalisation during that time as a means of diplomatic engagement with developing countries. Varghese (in this volume) outlines the various internationalisation programmes in the academic field of adult education in different countries. Varghese emphasises the ongoing internationalisation of higher education in the context of economic globalisation, which he analyses as “major incentives to promote cross-border education in the context of globalisation”.

Focussing on students’ personal means of internationalisation in higher education, especially on a common international language of instruction, is another starting point for further research. To think of English as the new Latin in the academic context would surely be a simplification. But it is true for many students that studying in English means that they do not study in their native language. Studying in a foreign language creates a distance between students and their object of study. Distance becomes normal (Hunfeld, 2014), resulting in the possibility that students develop a distance to their own thinking. This allows them to take a

new perspective on their own thinking and understanding. Studying in a foreign language requires students to build interpretive bridges between their native language and the language of instruction. Ideally, an additional shared terminology of understanding will emerge during their studies. The shared terminology is always placed next to the one in students' native language and asks for interpretive bridges. Studying in a foreign language obviously includes the possibility of non-understanding and hence requires students to work on their understanding. This includes

[...] to continue the never-ending journey of personal efforts to try to understand each other. [...] to be aware of the always existing boundaries of our own understanding while developing an attitude of "constantly trying". [...] [It] [...] explicitly includes emotional and cognitive aspects of non-understanding. (Egetenmeyer, 2016, p. 19)

Studying in an international common language also creates an international network and a community of experts in a field. Participants of the *Joint Module COMPALL* have experienced this, according to their mid-term evaluation (cf. Lattke & Egetenmeyer, 2017). This promotes international openness and the awareness that there is knowledge that is not directly accessible via one's own mother tongue or via an international common language of instruction. This fact is valued not only by European students but especially by students coming to European universities from outside of Europe (Alves & Guimarães, in this volume).

Internationalisation in higher education means more than student mobility and teaching in a common international language, as Boffo and Gioli point out in this volume. It also means mobility of university lecturers, the development of joint study programmes, and joint research. In a discipline such as adult education, which is very interlinked with its local contexts, comparative research figures prominently from an international perspective (cf. Egetenmeyer, 2017). Varghese (in this volume) stresses that cross-border mobility is also a reality in online learning provision and in institutional internationalisation in higher education, realised through branch campuses and franchising agreements.

The examples in this volume support the stakeholder function of the European Union with its ERASMUS+ programme. Dang (in this volume) as well as Alves and Guimarães (in this volume) show that the programme is essential for Asian-European joint master's programmes, and Szuka and Garcua Blesa (in this volume) highlight an impressive example of the combination of e-learning and physical mobility in legal studies. International programmes that started as ERASMUS programmes seem to have a substantial impact on the way universities design their study programmes.

Internationalisation in adult education

Although adult education is a young academic discipline that was not found at most universities until the 1970s, the roots of cooperation between experts in adult education go back to the beginning of the last century (cf. Németh, in this volume). It seems that the early roots of cooperation also lay in an academic interest in and knowledge of the developments in other countries. International role models raised an interest in cooperation and exchange. The limited availability of experts and practical role models made the necessity for international exchange obvious. It is an interesting phenomenon that later on, countries that saw the establishment of a certain number of chairs and professorships in adult education (e.g. Germany, India, United States) seem to have seen times with a reduced international focus, unlike other countries with a more limited number of academic positions in the field of adult education. Some authors have claimed that this difference was justified by the lack of national adult education policies in countries with a weaker tradition in this field. As a consequence, these countries looked at internationalisation and international academic arenas as a space for discussions that could not be held in national settings (Lima & Guimarães, 2011; Lima, Guimarães, & Touma, 2016).

Nowadays, internationalisation in the academic discipline of adult education may not only be understood through an international perspective of disciplinary needs and interests. Moreover, adult education as a discipline is integrated into international higher education developments on the one hand and internationalisation in the field of practice on the other hand (Egetenmeyer, in this volume). Adult education as field of practice is highly interlinked with international and European educational policies, the internationalisation of societies, the rising diversity of target groups, and the development of an international market for continuing education. The GLOBALE curriculum (cf. Popovic, in this volume; Avramovska & Czerwinski, 2017) represents an activity that is growing out of adult education practice for the qualification of teachers in the field. It outlines the need for professionalisation in adult education practice, but it also outlines the internationalisation in adult education by identifying global joint perspectives of professionalisation in the field.

The Joint Module COMPALL

The *Joint Module COMPALL* reflects these aspects of internationalisation in higher education and in adult education. By developing a comparative research approach in adult education, it is supporting joint research between partner universities (Egetenmeyer & Fedeli, forthcoming). It is designed as a joint teaching

programme, carried out by a consortium of international universities. Even if recognition is handled somewhat differently at each institution, students at all partners are prepared at their home universities concerning the content but also concerning English as the language of instruction. To that end, students use online tutorials and online guidance developed and provided by the consortium. During the subsequent winter school, students and university lecturers meet for two weeks on the Würzburg campus to study European policies in lifelong learning and comparative research in adult education together. The recognition of the *Joint Module COMPALL* as part of the curricula of partner universities can be understood as a first step towards the institutionalisation of the joint teaching offer (cf. Tino et al., in this volume).

A central aspect of the *Joint Module COMPALL* is the non-profit perspective, where background funding is understood as an issue to ensure a higher quality of teaching in adult education study programmes. Another important aspect is the mission of bringing young people together for exchange and the development of an international community of adult education students to contribute to the next generations of international open-minded experts in the academic, practice, and policy fields of adult education.

The analysis of students' motivation to participate in the *Joint Module COMPALL* (cf. Alves & Guimarães, in this volume; Lattke & Egetenmeyer, in this volume) outlines participants' interest. One key motivation, of course, is students' interest in international exchanges and intercultural experiences. This is found to be the case in other studies on student mobility, too. But the evaluation of the *Joint Module COMPALL* shows that students are also motivated by a serious academic interest in the internationalisation of adult education and by academic insights into the situation and discourse in other countries – insights they cannot get in equal quality without the international setting of the joint module.

During the development of the *Joint Module COMPALL* and the open and critical discussions between the partners, the different backgrounds of participants became obvious. These differences are not limited to differences in academic level (master's, doctoral) but also include different experiences in using English as the language of instruction, differences in students' disciplinary backgrounds at the bachelor's and master's level, and differences in their practical insights into adult education and in their peer learning possibilities during the preparation period (cf. Tino et al., in this volume). This is why preparation using the online tutorials is a central element of the *Joint Module COMPALL* – because it can be adapted to the individual needs of participants (cf. Fodorné Tóth, in this volume).

Overview of this volume

This volume is divided into three chapters addressing the key topics outlined above.

Internationalisation in higher education

The first chapter comprises four contributions that outline the context of internationalisation in higher education.

Varghese analyses new ways of cross-border education, which has formerly been understood mainly as student mobility. He argues that “cross-border higher education, institutional and programme mobility have become important modes of trade in this century”. As a consequence, economic globalisation plays a crucial role in the internationalisation of higher education.

Kovács and Tarrósy reflect on the internationalisation of higher education in the context of a global world. They provide a critical analysis of the academic and cultural benefits of internationalisation. But they also discuss the difficulties of internationalisation in the context of an economically driven understanding of globalisation.

Dang discusses two ERASMUS Mundus Joint Master’s Programmes involving Asian and European universities with regard to their contribution to internationalisation in higher education. She argues that “university consortia construct a ‘third space’ where these programmes shift the boundaries between regional, national and institutional regulatory environments in order to sustain the partnerships and improve learning and teaching experiences”. Thereby, she stresses the important influences of European programmes on the realisation of internationalisation in higher education.

Szuka and Garcia Blesa present a highly complex approach for internationalisation in legal studies programmes at three European Open Universities. Due to their students’ limited opportunities for physical mobility, these programmes combine e-learning and short-term physical mobility. The short-term mobility programme, which evolved from an ERASMUS+ strategic partnership, is offered at all three academic levels (bachelor, master, doctorate).

Internationalisation of higher education: The case of adult education

The second chapter looks at internationalisation in adult education. *Boffo and Gioli* frame internationalisation in adult education as part of internationalisation in higher education. They analyse master’s courses in adult education, arguing for

internationalisation as a “central strategy for the construction of a global scientific community and labour market” in adult education.

Németh provides an overview of milestone aspirations and innovative actions of higher education institutions to open up to the development of modern adult education. This author focuses on the internationalisation of adult education and its influence on higher education by pointing out the impact of specific historical phases of this particular evolution, enhancing research and development collaborations for professionalisation in an emerging internationally organised environment (Németh, 2017).

Popovic discusses the GLOBALE curriculum, which was developed by DVV International for the professionalisation of teachers in adult education. As the institute for international cooperation of the German Adult Education Association, DVV International supports the development of adult education worldwide. The GLOBALE curriculum can be understood as a professionalisation activity to not only improve the quality of teaching in adult education but also to support the identification of adult education teachers through joint professionalisation.

Internationality of higher education: The example of COMPALL

In the last chapter of this volume, the development of the *Joint Module COMPALL* is analysed against the background of these internationalisation frames. The contributions show the reflections guiding the *Joint Module COMPALL* and provide a detailed analysis of its development.

Egetenmeyer presents the overall structure of the *Joint Module COMPALL*. Her contribution integrates this structure into internationalisation trends in higher education and adult education. For that purpose, she analyses the competences developed as part of the joint module, shows how they are supported by the module’s structure, and identifies the lessons the partner consortium has learned during its development.

Alves and Guimarães discuss participants’ motivations for attending the *Joint Module COMPALL* and compare them with general findings on student mobility. The results of the evaluation of the *Joint Module COMPALL* show academic, intercultural, career-related, and personal reasons for participating in the joint module.

Tino, Guimarães, Frison, and Fedeli analyse the diversity of participants and the curricular implementation of the *Joint Module COMPALL*. The analysis shows that a high degree of flexibility is necessary for adapting the curriculum to the diversity of participants’ backgrounds and to institutional needs for curricular implementation.

Fodorné Tóth discusses the blended learning pathway implemented in COMPALL, referring to it as a flipped learning classroom process. Besides learning possibilities, the *Joint Module COMPALL* also offers possibilities for open learning and professional networking.

Latke and Egetenmeyer analyse the benefits and potential of an international intensive programme. The contribution is based on the data of the external evaluation, which is carried out by the German Institute for Adult Education. Based on the insights from the *Joint Module COMPALL*, the authors stress competence aspects situated between a motivational, cognitive, and social-communicative dimension on the one hand and between a subject-specific and generic dimension on the other hand.

Conclusion

The development of joint modules has to be reflected against the background of internationalisation in higher education and against the background of the disciplines involved. Developing a joint study programme allows for making synergetic use of the expertise of stakeholders in the disciplines involved. Using this approach, all universities improve their teaching quality by broadening their teaching and research perspectives.

Realising and implementing joint modules requires a high degree of institutional support and trust. The framework of the ERASMUS+ programmes, especially the strategic partnerships, is essential to ensure not only sufficient funding but also the institutionalisation of the projects and the sustainable transformation of teaching in higher education.

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Internationalisation in Higher Education

N.V. Varghese

Internationalisation and Cross-Border Mobility in Higher Education

Abstract: The modes of trade in cross-border education under the GATS framework are the mobility of programmes, students, institutions, and teachers. Although student mobility traditionally has been the most common form of cross-border higher education, institutional and programme mobility have become important modes of trade in this century. The emergence of education hubs and the fast expansion of MOOCs is a reflection of the changing landscape of cross-border higher education.

Introduction

Cross-border education refers to the mobility of students, institutions, teachers, and programmes across countries. Traditionally, cross-border higher education was associated more with study abroad programmes for students. Although student mobility continues to be an important form, the scope and meaning of cross-border education became wider with other forms of cross-border mobility becoming evident. For example, institutional mobility in the form of branch campuses and education hubs is a phenomenon of this century, and programme mobility in the form of Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs) emerged in this decade. These two forms of cross-border mobility – institutional and programme mobility – occupy an important place in the current discourses on internationalisation and cross-border mobility in higher education. The changing forms and the widening scope of cross-border education are indications of an expanding role of globalisation in higher education. With the emergence of knowledge economies, the premium attached to knowledge production increased, and institutions producing knowledge became dear to investors. ‘International knowledge’ has become a powerful determinant in the globalised competition for talented students, resources, and reputation (Weiler, 2001). The globalisation of higher education, especially under the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) framework, legitimised the market-mediated cross-border activities in higher education. Cross-border education has become a multi-million-dollar enterprise drawing profits in billions. The competition among providers to invest in cross-border institutions, programmes, and the recruitment of foreign students to generate income and maximise profit has become a common phenomenon among the global players in education. This paper attempts to analyse the cross-

border flows in higher education in the context of the internationalisation and globalisation of higher education. The next section draws a distinction between internationalisation and globalisation of higher education, followed by a discussion on the modes of trade under GATS in section 3. Sections 4, 5, and 6 discuss different forms of cross-border flow, namely, student mobility, institutional mobility, and programme mobility in higher education. The final section makes some concluding observations.

Internationalisation and globalisation of higher education

Internationalisation can be seen in terms of different phases based on its major motivations and orientations. In the beginning, universities were global institutions attracting international faculty and students. They became national entities in the post-World-War period, when new nation states were born. With the onset of the globalisation processes, internationalisation became a strategy to mobilise additional resources for higher education institutions. It can be argued that although academic interest was a major motivation for internationalisation in the beginning, diplomatic and financial interests became more important in subsequent phases.

Internationalisation at home and abroad

Internationalisation implies integrating international, intercultural, and global dimensions into the scope and purpose of higher education (Knight, 2004). Internationalisation brings about changes in national higher education institutions by orienting them to global contexts and by developing relevant skills and competencies demanded in the global market. Such reorientation is expected to make higher education more relevant, improve the quality of teaching and learning, enhance learning outcomes, and develop global citizens.

Internationalisation has now become a stated mission in the strategic development plans of many universities. For many higher education institutions, it is part of their efforts to improve quality, to enhance prestige and global competitiveness, and to generate revenue. The development of global citizenship has become an important objective of internationalisation in the context of conflicts and terrorism becoming major social concerns. Global citizenship in the present context implies a deeper understanding of emerging international inter-connections, a higher level of social responsibility, comparable skills and global competencies, and increased civic engagement. These objectives of internationalisation cannot be achieved if the effort is centred around the small share of students crossing

borders. In fact, the scope of internationalisation should be extended to all students, including those who do not go abroad for studies.

The internationalisation of higher education can take place both at home and abroad. Internationalisation at home is a process whereby students acquire an international understanding and outlook through the courses offered. This does not involve moving institutions, persons, and courses across borders. Although 98 per cent of students can experience internationalisation at home, this aspect is less emphasised in policy discussions. Internationalisation at home is an approach in which the curriculum and learning outcomes have an international outlook without cross-border mobility of students and institutions. Internationalisation abroad implies cross-border movement of persons, study programmes, and institutions (Knight, 2006). The emphasis in discussions is more on internationalisation abroad, although it accounts for only 2 per cent of the global enrolment in higher education, since it involves the cross-border flow of students.

Phases of internationalisation

The medieval period represents the first phase in the internationalisation of universities and higher education. Universities by definition were conceived as international institutions attracting international faculty and students. The use of Latin as the common language of academic discourse during this period helped the inflow of students and faculty to universities such as Sorbonne (Altbach, 1998). During this phase, the major motivation for internationalisation seemed to be academic interests and the pursuit of knowledge.

The post-World-War-II period represents the second phase in the internationalisation of higher education. The emergence of nation states in the post-war period re-oriented higher education institutions towards national priorities and national development. Public funding and support in the form of scholarships were forthcoming during this period. This period also saw the moving away from international languages to national languages as the medium of instruction in many countries. Internationalisation was motivated more by diplomatic engagement with developing countries (Lane, 2015), especially with former colonies that became independent during the post-war period, and as a means for building relationships with developing countries.

The governments in the developed countries offered fellowships and financial support through cooperation projects and academic exchange programmes. The United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and the Fulbright programme, Colombo Plan, British Council and Commonwealth scholarship programme, and the German Academic Exchange Service, commonly known

as DAAD, are examples of national efforts to promote cross-border education (Altbach & Knight, 2006). The next phase in the internationalisation of higher education is in the context of economic globalisation. During this period, internationalisation was motivated by commercial interests and profit-making considerations. Cross-border higher education became a market-mediated process to produce the skills to suit the requirements of a global labour market and to generate income and profit. Recent estimates indicate that the United States earns \$27 billion from cross-border education, the United Kingdom earns around \$26 billion, Australia \$12 billion, and Canada \$6 billion (Lane et. al., 2015). The perceived role of universities changed from promoting national development to producing graduates for the global market. Universities became autonomous, less reliant on state funding, and market-oriented in their operations. Economic rationality and commercial interests act as major incentives to promote cross-border education in the context of globalisation (Varghese, 2013). Producing for the global market implies focusing on producing standardised skills, revising education content to suit global market requirements, improving interpersonal interaction skills in multi-cultural contexts, and promoting a world language as the medium of instruction.

In fact, many countries reformed curricular contents, recruited foreign faculty members, and introduced courses offered in English, which is increasingly becoming the language of globalisation, 'the premier language of business and professions and the only global language of science, research and academic publication' (OECD, 2008, p. 20). English has become the 'Latin of the 21st century' – proficiency in English empowers, whereas a lack of proficiency 'seriously disenfranchises' (Mathews, 2013) people in the globalised world.

Modes of trade in cross-border education

Higher education has become a market-driven activity and a commodity to be traded across borders. The profitability of the sector attracts millions of students, a multiplicity of providers, and billions of dollars. In fact, higher education institutions compete in terms of attracting students, establishing branch campuses, and expanding cross-border study programmes. Cross-border mobility in higher education has become an item traded within the framework of GATS.

Trade in education under the GATS framework takes place in four modes (Knight, 2002).

- a) Cross-border supply of services. Under this mode of trade, the programmes cross borders while the consumers remain inside the country. E-learning-

based distance education programmes are good examples of this type of cross-border education.

- b) Technological developments have widened the scope for establishing online universities and massive open online courses (MOOCs).
- c) Consumption abroad: The consumers (students) cross the border and travel to other countries for pursuing higher studies. This is the most visible traditional form of cross-border education.
- d) Commercial presence of providers in another country: Branch campuses, twinning and franchising arrangements between universities from the developed and the developing world belong to this category. This is a new form of cross-border education.
- e) The presence of persons in another country: The most visible form of this mode of cross-border education is the mobility of teachers and professors from one country to another as an employee of a foreign university, as part of an academic partnership, or to teach at branch campuses.

The most common form of cross-border education takes place through student mobility, institutional mobility, and programme mobility. Cross-border education has traditionally implied student mobility and teacher mobility. The other two forms of mobility are of recent origins in this century.

Internationalisation: Cross-border student mobility

The most visible and most discussed form of cross-border mobility in higher education is student mobility. The number of students crossing borders has more than doubled, from 1.9 million in 2000 to 4.6 million in 2015 (UIS, 2016). The most familiar pattern of cross-border student flow is from developing to developed countries. North America and Western Europe continue to be favourite destinations for most cross-border students.

The relative share of cross-border students hosted in North America and Western Europe declined over the years from around two-thirds in 2000 to around three-fifths in 2010. In 2000, nearly 90 per cent of students from North America and Europe crossed borders to study in another country of the same region; 80 per cent of students from Latin America travelled to North America and Western Europe for their studies (Varghese, 2008). By 2010, these percentages declined to 86.4 per cent and 75 per cent, respectively. East Asia and the Pacific have become a more attractive place for student mobility in 2015 than in 2000. This region hosted more than one-fifth of the global mobile student population in 2015. This region

has increased its share primarily due to the increased student flow to Australia, China, Japan, and South Korea.

A good share of cross-border students are hosted by limited number of countries. A group of nine countries account for nearly 60 per cent of international students (Table 1). Among these countries, the United States continues to host the largest share of international students. However, its share declined from 25 per cent in 2000 to 19.7 per cent in 2015. The US is followed by the UK, Australia, France, and Germany. There has been a decline in the relative share of foreign students in many of the North American and Western European countries.

The flow of students from each region shows some interesting features (UIS, 2012). The most favourite destination for Arab students is France (29%); for Central and Eastern Europe, it is Germany (16%); for Central Asia, it is the Russian Federation (46%); for East Asia and the Pacific, it is the US (28%); for Latin America and the Caribbean, it is the US (33%); for North America and Western Europe, it is the UK (23%), for South and West Asia, it is the US (38%), and for Sub-Saharan Africa, it is France (19%).

The share of foreign students in the total domestic higher education enrolment is less than 4 per cent in the US, compared to more than 15 per cent in countries such as the UK, Australia, and New Zealand. Hosting a larger share of international students has implications for the diversification of study programmes and curricula to suit the needs of international students. Efforts have been made in this respect, as evident in the results of the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE) in these countries. The NSSE survey contains the records of students who participated in defined learning activities and the amount of teacher and institutional support they received in doing so.

Whereas nine countries (Table 1) together accounted for 73 per cent of foreign students hosted worldwide in 2000, their share declined to 59.6 per cent in 2015. This reflects the fact that a larger number of countries are now attracting international students. In fact, many countries have adopted internationalisation strategies to attract more students. For example, the number of international students hosted by China increased from 36,000 in 2006 to nearly 123,000 in 2015, accounting for nearly 2.9 per cent of the total international student population. The biggest increase was experienced by the Republic of Korea, from nearly 8,000 in 2004 to 55,000 in 2015 – an increase of nearly seven times. Malaysia remains an important country, although there has been a decline in the number of students hosted in the country, from 65,000 in 2010 to 60,000 in 2015. This may be partly due to difficulties in attracting larger numbers of students to the branch campuses.

Table 1: Distribution of foreign students by host countries, in percent

Host Country	2000	2005	2010	2015
USA	25.0	21.9	19.2	19.7
UK	12.0	11.8	10.9	10.0
Germany	10.0	9.6	5.6	5.0
France	7.0	8.7	7.3	5.5
Australia	6.0	7.7	7.6	6.5
Canada	6.0	4.9	2.7	3.7
Japan	4.0	4.7	4.0	3.1
New Zealand	0.0	1.5	1.1	1.2
Russian Federation	3.0	3.3	3.6	4.9
Others	27.0	27.4	38.0	40.4
Total (millions)	1.9	2.7	3.6	4.6

Source: UIS, various years

The largest sending countries in 2015 were China (800,000), India (254,000), and the Republic of Korea (108,000). These three countries together accounted for one-fourth of the international student population in 2015. Of these countries, 22.5 per cent of Chinese students, more than 50 per cent of Indian students, and 56.6 per cent of Korean students were hosted by the US in 2010. What is important to note here is that China has made the highest increase in sending students abroad for studies – an increase from 6.8 per cent in 1995 to 17.4 per cent in 2015 (Table 2). India, too, has increased its share of international students from 2.3 per cent to 5.5 per cent. The share of cross-border Chinese students nearly tripled, whereas the share of cross-border Indian students nearly doubled.

Table 2: Share of international students by country of origin, in per cent

Country	1995	Country	2015
China	6.8	China	17.4
Korea	4.0	India	5.5
Japan	3.7	Korea	2.3
Germany	2.7	Germany	2.5
Greece	2.6	S. Arabia	1.9
Malaysia	2.4	France	1.4

Country	1995	Country	2015
India	2.3	USA	1.7
Turkey	2.2	Malaysia	1.7
Italy	2.1	Japan	0.8
Hong Kong	2.1	Others	63.1
Total (millions)	1.7 mn	Total (millions)	4.6 mn

Source: UIS, various years

A degree from a university of repute from the developed world is valued very highly by students and is considered a premium in the labour market. These graduates have better access to high paying jobs and enjoy social prestige attached to the degree and the jobs that these degrees fetch. Therefore, investing in a foreign degree is rewarding, and households do invest in degrees from foreign universities.

The choice of a country of study seems to be influenced by several factors. Some of the common factors include the academic reputation of the university, the language of instruction, the cost of education, and the visa rules. A large share of international students opt for countries such as the US, the UK, Canada, and Australia. In fact, these four countries accounted for more than 50 per cent of international students in 2000 and for more than 40 per cent in 2015 (Table 1). Another point of attraction is that all four countries use English as the language of instruction, although Canada offers courses in both English and French. As discussed earlier, higher education in English offers better opportunities for higher-paying jobs in a globalised labour market.

The cost of education is another important factor when choosing a country for higher studies. The emergence of Australia as an important player in the first decade of the present century and New Zealand in the latter half of the previous decade are good examples because of the low cost of education and relaxed visa regimes. In fact, a good share of cross-border students from China shifted their destination from the US to Australia. Indian students followed a similar pattern, although the US continues to be the first choice for Indian students.

Visa rules are a major factor influencing cross-border students' choice of study destination. What matters in this decision is not only the visa regulations for the study period but also the immigration policies in the post-study period, that is, the opportunities to stay and look for employment. There is a positive association between flexible visa rules, easy availability of employment opportunities, and choice of country for higher studies. In the recent past, Germany implemented the European Union (EU) blue card system, which permits foreign students who

graduated from German universities to work and take residence in Germany. When the visa rules became very strict and were restricted mostly to visa for the study period only, the cross-border student flow to Australia and UK declined. However, Australia revised the visa rules to make them more flexible for employing foreign students graduating from Australian universities. There is a sharp decline in the number of Indian students seeking admissions in the UK after the country restricted the visa for the study period only. One of the reasons for New Zealand emerging as a favourable destination for cross-border students is its low cost of education and flexible post-study visa rules.

Several countries have relaxed visa rules also to meet shortages of highly skilled workers in the domestic labour market. Many of them find foreign students graduating from their universities to provide a more reliable regular supply of highly skilled personnel in the future. One of the earlier estimates indicated that nearly 90 per cent of Chinese and Indian doctoral students would like to stay in the US after their studies (Kapur & McHale, 2005). This situation has changed with accelerated economic growth in India and China at a time when many of the mature economies were in a state of crisis. The fact remains that the cross-border student flow is seen as providing a reliable regular supply of highly skilled from the developing to the developed countries (Tremblay, 2002).

Internationalisation: Institutional mobility and education hubs

Institutional mobility emerged as a new phenomenon in the globalisation of higher education in the 2000s. Institutional mobility takes place through branch campuses and through franchising or twinning arrangements. Franchising denotes the delivery of courses of a foreign university inside the country by an authorised domestic institution, whereas twinning refers to joint ownership and delivery by institutions in the home and host countries. A branch campus is an 'off-shore operation of a higher education institution operated on its own or through a joint-venture which, upon successful completion of the study programme, award students a degree from the foreign institution' (Knight, 2006). The branch campuses award foreign degrees through face-to-face instruction-based teaching-learning process (ACE, 2009; Cao, 2011).

International branch campuses are becoming a new form of providing cross-border education. They act as education hubs attracting students from within the country and abroad. Countries and cities such as Malaysia, Singapore, Hong Kong, Abu Dhabi, Dubai, Doha, Qatar, Mauritius, and the like are good examples of the successful operation of education hubs.

Malaysia is developing an international education hub targeting the undergraduate education market. Abu Dhabi has campuses of the Sorbonne (France)

and New York University (US). Dubai Knowledge Village (DKV), established in 2003, hosts several international universities from Australia, India, Pakistan, Iran, Russia, Belgium, the UK, Ireland, and Canada. Dubai also has an education city called Dubai International Academic City (DIAC). The DIAC is the world's largest free zone dedicated to higher education and has a large number of international branch campuses (IBCs) enrolling more than 20,000 students.

Education City in Doha has six branch campuses by international institutions. Singapore's Global Schoolhouse (GS) initiative, launched in 2002, houses over 16 leading foreign tertiary institutions. The aim of the Global Schoolhouse is to make the country a global talent hub. It is estimated that the GS has already attracted over 86,000 international students. Hong Kong is emerging as a regional education hub. Bhutan is planning to build a US\$1-billion education city to encourage prestigious universities and colleges worldwide to establish affiliated institutions in the country. Mauritius has already developed collaborations with prestigious foreign universities in the US, UK, France, India, South Africa, and others to establish a 'knowledge hub'.

According to the CBERT database (CBERT, 2016) there are a total of 249 international branch campuses in operation. In 2016, a group of five countries accounted for more than 70 per cent of international branch campuses (Table 3). The largest exporters of branch campuses are the US (78), UK (39), Russia (21), France (28), and Australia (15). The largest importers of branch campus are China (32), United Arab Emirates (31), Singapore (12), Malaysia (12), and Qatar (11). Together, these countries host 98 international branch campuses, or 39 per cent of total branch campuses worldwide. The international branch campuses initially established in small countries and Gulf countries attracted a large share of students. This trend is changing now with China emerging as the country hosting the largest number of international branch campuses in 2016.

Table 3: Distribution of international branch campuses by country in 2016

Export Country	Number	Host Country	Number
USA	78 (31.3)	China	32 (12.9)
UK	39(15.7)	UAE	31 (12.4)
France	28 (11.2)	Singapore	12(4.8)
Russia	21(8.4)	Malaysia	12(4.8)
Australia	15(6.0)	Qatar	11(4.4)

Source: CBERT (2016); Note: Figures in parentheses are percentages of the total

Initially, the branch campuses were exported by the developed countries. This trend is changing. India is taking the lead in exporting international branch campuses, although India does not permit international branch campuses to operate in India. Many private universities from India are establishing branch campuses in other countries. Amity has branch campuses in the US, UK, China, Singapore, United Arab Emirates (UAE), and Romania and plans to have branch campuses in 50 countries by 2025. The Manipal group has campuses in Malaysia (2), Dubai, Antigua, and Nepal. The JSS Academy of Technical Education has established an independent institution in Mauritius. DY Patil Post-Graduate School of Medicine established a partnership with the University of Technology in Mauritius (UTM) in 2009. Four Indian private institutions are represented in the Dubai International Academic City. China also plans to export international branch campuses. For example, the Xiamen University of China plans to establish a branch campus in Malaysia; Soochow University of China wants to open one in Vietnam (Lane & Kisner, 2013).

The ownership patterns of international branch campuses vary. Some are wholly owned by the parent institution; others are run in a partnership mode whereby the national government subsidises the cost and acts as a co-owner; ownership of international branch campuses by a private partner is also common. A survey (ACE, 2009) found that a majority of branch campuses had a local partner in the host country. Most of the local partners in Asia and Europe are colleges and universities, whereas those in the Middle East are businesses, local governments, and non-profit organisations. Another survey (Lane & Kisner, 2013) found that there were broadly five types of branch campus ownership patterns; i) fully owned by the home campus; ii) rented from a private party; iii) owned by the local government; iv) owned by a private partner; and v) owned by an educational partner.

Some branch campuses receive financial or material support from their host countries except in Europe. The support very often comes in the form of facilities, such as land leases at a discount or rent-free facilities. Some of the branches in the Middle East received financial support from the government. Students attending three of the seven branch campuses in the Middle East were eligible to receive financial aid from the local government.

The ACE survey (ACE, 2009) showed that business programmes continue to dominate in Asia and Europe. IT courses occupy the second position, followed by international courses common in Europe and computer courses in the Middle East. The field of international relations was common in Europe but not in other regions. Almost half of all degree programmes in the Middle East were offered in the STEM¹ fields.

1 STEM stands for science, technology, engineering, and mathematics.

A recent survey among students at branch campuses in the UAE found that students prefer studying at a branch campus in the UAE over studying at Western universities because of the financial benefits (less expensive), a 'hassle-free' life, personal safety, religion, familiarity, comfort with the local culture and lifestyle, and improved prospects in the local/regional labour market after graduation (Wilkins & Balakrishnan, 2012).

There are people who caution about education hubs and branch campuses, as they can lead to fierce competition, and the impact of foreign competition on domestic institutions may not be favourable to the latter. Furthermore, some believe that higher education hubs can be dangerous to local institutions since money goes to the foreign universities, and their presence can be used as an argument by the government to justify investing less in higher education. And in response to this increasing trade, there are likely to be complaints about the impact of foreign competition on domestic institutions (Lester, 2013).

The other view is that education hubs stop the outflow of students and money from developing countries. For example, India spent around US\$4 billion on foreign exchange for Indian students studying abroad. It can be argued that the country could have save around US\$4 billion in foreign exchange had the students stayed in India and received a foreign education (Tilak, 2008) through education hubs.

Internationalisation: Cross-border programme mobility

Correspondence courses offered by the brick-and-mortar system have long existed as a form of distance education programme. Open universities, which focus only on distance education, emerged in the 1960s. They became popular with the Open University in UK, which was followed by similar institutions in many countries, including the Open University in Thailand, the University of South Africa (UNISA) in South Africa, Indira Gandhi National Open University in India, Wawasan University in Malaysia, the African Virtual University, and many others. Beginning around the turn of the century, the next stage in the development of distance education was online courses and fully accredited online universities. The Open Educational Resources (OER) facilitated the provision of digitised materials free of cost to all. The 2002 Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) Open Course Ware project and the 2006 OpenLearn programme at the Open University in the UK extended free online access to their courses and popularised OER. Massive open online courses (MOOCs) emerged as the major form of learning without boundaries and as an alternative to the brick-and-mortar system of higher education. MOOCs are changing the landscape

of global higher education provision (Yuan et al., 2008) and even lead some to predict that MOOCs mark the ‘end of university as we know it’ (Harden, 2013).

The growth in MOOC enrolments was exponential. Within a year of their launch, 3.1 million users were enrolled in MOOCs. MOOC enrolments in doubled each year in 2014, 2015, and 2016 to reach 58 million (Table 4). Coursera, with an enrolment of 23 million, accounting for nearly 40 per cent of total enrolment, led the league in 2016, followed by edX. France Uni Numerique accounts for more than 16 per cent of total enrolment (Table 4).

Table 4: Enrolment in MOOCs 2016

MOOCs Platforms	Enrolment (in million)	Share of Enrolment (in per cent)
Coursera	23.0	39.6
edX	10.0	17.2
Canvas.net	6.0	10.3
FutureLearn	5.3	9.13
Miriada	4.0	6.89
France Uni.Numerique	9.7	16.72
Total in millions	58.0	

Source: ICEF Monitor, January 2016

It may be interesting to see who benefits from MOOCs. It seems that MOOCs have tremendous potential to change the higher education scene, not only by enrolling large numbers but also by using MOOCs to improve teaching and learning and by encouraging other institutions to use these courses to reinforce their courses to think creatively and innovatively and to explore new pedagogical practices, business models, and flexible learning paths in their provision (Yuan & Powell, 2013). In fact, many universities are compelled to rethink how to make their curriculum delivery models and courses truly flexible and accessible (Carr, 2012). The blending of virtual classrooms with real classrooms will be a process of reinventing education and changing the landscape of higher education globalisation.

Early on, MOOCs were seen as an American phenomenon, because the provider platforms and most users of these platforms were based in the US. Other countries soon joined to develop MOOCs platforms. FutureLearn (UK), iVersity (Germany), UniMOOC (Spain), Open2Study (Australia), and Université Numé-

rique (France) are initiatives to explore possibilities for international visibility and attractiveness (Gaebel, 2014).

MOOCs are penetrating higher education markets in the developing world. Many developing countries in South and Southeast Asia, as well as in Latin America and Southern Africa, have already made major investments in distance and online education. The technological infrastructures in the urban centres of the developing countries are more comparable to those available in the developed world. This is one of the factors fueling the spread of MOOCs in the urban areas of developing countries.

Developing countries such as Brazil (Veduca), China (XuetangX and Ewant), and Rwanda (Kepler from Generation Rwanda) are examples of countries relying on higher education provisions through MOOC platforms. India launched an Indian MOOC platform called SWAYAM (Study Webs of Active-learning for Young Aspiring Minds). It is an online platform developed by the All India Council of Technical Education (AICTE) and built by Microsoft. Indian MOOCs offer courses in English and in several Indian languages. They are expected to offer 2,000 courses for 30 million students by 2020. As of July 2017, SWAYAM offers 323 courses in India.

Internet connectivity is improving in the developing countries. However, regular access to reliable broadband internet connectivity is not easily available at affordable prices in many developing countries (Trucano, 2013), and it will remain a constraint for the fast expansion of MOOCs in many countries. Similarly, the language of communication in many of the MOOCs is another constraint. The dominant language of communication in MOOCs is English. Many students in the developing world do not have the proficiency level expected to pursue and complete MOOCs. Although efforts are made by countries such as India, China, and countries in the Arab world to offer MOOCs in local languages, access to MOOCs will be better for those who can communicate in English.

The limited number of studies and surveys available indicate that MOOCs at present serve the relatively well-to-do, who already possess a university degree (Gebel, 2014). Many of them are young professionals who are already employed. Many of them see MOOCs as an opportunity to gain additional knowledge and skills for their professional advancement, since online courses offer opportunities to study at the world's top universities and be taught by the best teachers.

Another issue related to offering MOOCs is the mechanisms in place for the proper evaluation and assessment of student performance. This is especially relevant if the course is to be accredited by existing accrediting agencies. Students are also keen to get a certification after completion of the courses. A promise of

certification may also improve completion rates of courses offered on MOOC platforms.

The expansion of MOOCs is very fast. Will they replace the brick-and-mortar system of higher education? Professors such as Sebastian Thrun, the founder of Udacity, predict that MOOCs will replace existing universities, and that by 2060, there will only be 10 universities in the world. Some think that MOOCs bring near-universal access to the highest-quality teaching and scholarship at a minimal cost. Consequently, ‘we may lose the gothic arches, the bespectacled lecturers, dusty books lining the walls of labyrinthine libraries-wonderful images from higher education’s past’ (Harden, 2013, p. 3).

It seems many countries are relying on MOOCs to supplement existing classrooms and teaching-learning processes. It is more realistic to argue that MOOCs are seen by educational leaders in the developing world more as a reliable source to reinforce quality in the study programmes than as a threat. MOOCs may help institutions to think creatively and innovatively and to explore new pedagogical practices, business models, and flexible learning paths in their provision (Yuan & Powell, 2013). It seems that hybrid courses and blended courses may become more widespread, which may strengthen the courses offered by the existing universities. In fact, MOOCs provide an opportunity for brick-and-mortar universities to restructure their academic activities and pedagogical practices and to transit to new ways of offering and organising their study programmes (Varghese, 2014).

Concluding remarks

The internationalisation of higher education in the context of globalisation has become a market-mediated process, where internationalisation is an item of cross-border trade. The new providers of higher education are more often investors than educators, and cross-border trade in education is a lucrative business involving billions of dollars.

Although there are four modes of trade in education under the GATS framework, this paper focused on three important modes, namely trade through the cross-border mobility of students, institutions, and programmes. The paper shows that although the student flow used to be the most common form of cross-border education, institutional and programme mobility, which emerged in this century, are expanding very fast. The student flow is mostly from developing to developed countries, whereas institutional and programme mobility are from developed to developing countries. In all three types and forms of cross-border higher education flows, the financial flow is from the developing to developed countries.

Higher education remains an expanding sector, especially in the developing world, even during the recent period of economic crisis. Cross-border higher education continues to see unabated growth. Cross-border education, especially in terms of programme mobility, shows the extensive possibilities of expanding the system. It is also relied upon to reinforce teaching and learning, and to improve the quality of higher education in many countries. The strategies to develop higher education need to focus on making use of cross-border education opportunities to improve quality in an expanding system at an affordable cost.

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István Vilmos Kovács & István Tarrósy

The Internationalisation of Higher Education in a Global World

Abstract: This contribution looks at what drives the internationalisation of higher education in a global context. To that end, we begin by describing the place and role of universities in our global world. Internationalisation is an obvious knowledge and energy source to find adequate responses to new expectations. The contribution offers an analysis of the circumstances and working features that can contribute to preparing and implementing an internationalisation strategy, also addressing the usual risks.

The context of globalisation

International education specialist Jane Knight is right when she explains that “[t]he world of higher education is changing and the world in which higher education plays a significant role is changing” (2008, p. 2.). In any region of our globalising world, higher education institutions are dominant actors regarding development. Every university or college belongs to a region that has its own characteristic system of institutions, processes, and culture, which reflect its particular history and the actual functional division of labour. Universities are born within such a unique environment, and thus they cannot be taken into consideration alone, as sole players, taken out of their given milieu. There is an obvious interconnectedness and interdependence of regions and their institutions (see Tóth & Tarrósy, 2002, pp. 66–71).

Universities have always had a – minimum – role to communicate with the regional government, later with labour market agencies and politicians. Today [they] also work as entrepreneurial organisations, attracting fee-paying students and participating in lifelong learning movements for adults. (Dobay, 2007, p. 11)

In addition, as of today, the environment is part of a truly global, transnational picture. ‘Globalisation is probably the most pervasive and powerful feature of [this] changing environment.’ (Knight, 2008, p. 3) It is essential, therefore, to first look at and understand the realities of this global context so that the complexities of the internationalisation of universities can be grasped.

The creation, sharing, and application of knowledge has become a major factor in the economic development of most countries. Since knowledge has gained a primary role in driving industry and shaping society, universities are to meet

more and more related challenges. A 2002 World Bank report entitled *Constructing Knowledge Societies* found that aside from the increasing role of knowledge, technological change, including the revolution in ICT, is the major global driver of change in higher education (World Bank, 2002).

Higher education institutions (HEIs) have also experienced an intense demographic transition in three dimensions. The accelerated enrolment growth, the extension of the learning age to a lifelong learning perspective, and the decline of the age groups completing secondary education are common features in a number of industrial countries (OECD, 2008).

Higher education enrolment in the OECD countries exceeds 50 per cent. Between 2002 and 2015, the number of EU tertiary graduates almost doubled from 23.6 million to 38.7 million (Eurostat, 2016). Their learning needs are much more diverse than those of their predecessors, who prepared for roles in a narrow scientific and intellectual elite. The decline of public finances and the mobilisation of alternative resources are also key issues of institutional strategies in most countries.

Globalisation is different from other processes such as internationalisation or modernisation. As George and Wilding (2002, p. 2) point out, it is widely accepted that globalisation involves at least the following main strands:

- increasing and deepening interconnectedness of societies in different parts of the world;
- almost unimpeded flows of financial capital, news and cultural images across the world;
- rising activity and power of multinational companies (MNCs);
- rising economic growth accompanied by rising inequalities in many countries;
- a global consumer culture in the making;
- more travel and migration by more people from more countries to more countries;
- faster methods of transport and electronic communication so that time and space are increasingly being compressed;
- greater awareness by the public of what is happening in the world and of the possible implications for their own country;
- rapid growth of governmental and non-governmental supranational organisations that supplement, supplant, and support the activities of the nation state.

In an interconnected transnational system. ‘Globalisation is transforming rather than superseding the state’ (Lawson, 2012, p. 142) by driving political, economic, and social processes, and affecting information and communication technologies together with the creation and transmission of knowledge. The ‘network

state' (Castells, 1997) differs from the nation state of the Westphalian order in that it needs to position itself in a setting with a multitude of other types of power-holding entities (or those aspiring to gain power). But although the international policy-making arena has become crowded, the tasks of the state 'have not changed. [States, therefore, governments] still have to manage, with respect to their domestic constituencies, the dual relationship between domination and legitimation, and between development and redistribution' (Stalder, 2006 p. 122).

As 'globalisation makes us more vulnerable because we are more interdependent with one another' (Li, Jiagang, Xiaoyuan, & Hairong, 2012, p. 104), collaboration is encoded in the world. Simply because in certain issues and instances, there is no other way but to cooperate so that states do not 'get hurt', which is their ultimate national goal at the same time. Having said that, national survival, and consequently national interest, will determine state behaviour, strategy, and action – both for cooperation and competition.

As the OECD sums up in its 'Higher Education to 2030' scenario on globalisation, the responses are articulated in national and local contexts, and even the common features are reflected in several ways. The nation state remains the site of sectoral policy formation with its impact on the global competitiveness of national higher education institutions. At the same time, globalisation, with its open information environment, with the role of global education and research networks, made global connections and co-operation more strategic than ever. The OECD concludes that mapping the global landscape in a comprehensive manner could properly assist national policy makers, institutions, and higher education professionals (OECD, 2009, p. 32).

Competition on the higher education market, due to the increasing number of public and private higher education institutions as well as the Bologna process as a driving power of the European Higher Education Area, [and in many countries of the economically advanced North, as a result of demographic pressures] are forcing institutional changes. (Pausits, 2007, p. 85)

In parallel with the above-mentioned convergence of national systems, there remains considerable room for national and institutional policies and measures. Globalisation and internationalisation in higher education have different directions, while at the same time they are interrelated. Internationalisation is a response to the globalisation of our societies, and an intake of measures targeting a more controlled adaptation process. It is a conscious response to global challenges in order to exploit its opportunities. OECD argues that for a single government, the medium of internationalisation might be the proper field for managing the

impact of globalisation. Multi-lateral collaborations, such as the Bologna Process and the regional higher education associations, can help national governments comply with this strategic challenge (OECD, 2009, p. 23). Within the global realm, we are witnessing the rise of new regional structures, together with both intra- and inter-regional activities.

Once a regional agenda and architecture is constructed (e.g. the EU), regions often reach out to other regions to facilitate the development process via the building of linkages. [...] All signs point to a continued relevance of regional engagement and cooperation. (Robertson, 2017, p. 11)

Institutional challenges

Today's universities face several challenges. The traditional standards of their operation are no longer a guarantee for excellence. Research is overrated compared to teaching, and other activities that promote internal and external relations, structures, and processes leading to social impact. Research itself is challenged by competing expectations. Mode-one research is confronted with mode two (Gibbons et al., 1995). The first mode defines the 'issue' as the result of the researcher's curiosity, for the most part keeps disciplinary identity intact, leads to peer-reviewed scientific publications, and is assessed by citations by other mode-one researchers. The second mode tries to respond to social and economic problems and needs, values interdisciplinarity, and the elaborated responses and proposed solutions are assessed by their applicability in practice. The interpretation of what research means is further enriched by the fact that the links between education and research are multifaceted, and the potential of new combinations is often underestimated. Traditionally, research feeds the content of teaching, provides theoretical foundations and evidence supporting the delivered content. However, the supremacy of research is not anymore unanimously supported. Learning can be organised as research; learning and teaching can be the object of scientific inquiry and vice versa.

Higher education traditionally follows simple protocols for teaching and learning: lectures, seminars, tests, exams, matching subjects, teachers, classes, and auditoriums. Subjects (courses) are basically derived from what the team of lecturers are capable of and get used to teach. Making study programmes more relevant to real-life situations is a growing demand, as is the call for curricula to meet the ever-changing present and future needs of the labour market. These issues can be part of pedagogical discussions. The principles of the *universitas spirit* can also be interpreted as the hesitation to serve the expectations of the labour market

or any other utilitarian purposes. Supporting scientific discovery, the holistic development of the personality, or sustaining cultural continuity seem a more attractive intellectual challenge for many traditional universities than meeting the needs of students.

The teacher and teaching-centred education are invited to become student and learning-centred. This profoundly reshapes the role of higher education teachers (Weimer, 2002). The one-way knowledge transfer is replaced or diversified by mutual learning opportunities, triggered by the different expectations of heterogeneous groups of students. Higher education has recognised the need of professionalising teaching and learning in higher education.

Aligned with the above changes, the third mission of higher education institutions is to open up to the external environment in order to increase the social impact of both research and education. Due to the often-decreasing state financing, new channels of funding also imply changes in basic functions. 'Entrepreneurial-type' universities are born with a new role, 'with a new paradigm: "serving the region", instead of (or simply alongside) "serving science"' (Dobay, 2007, p. 15).

Internationalisation

International partnership in research and in the design and delivery of training programmes has a vitalising role. Internationalisation is an obvious knowledge and energy source to find adequate responses to the above-described expectations. International cooperation of both students and teachers multiplies the richness of perspectives, the available knowledge and resources. Internationalisation is a broader concept. It has been an overwhelming trend in higher education worldwide, and 'a vehicle for the development of top-notch talent in innovation,' according to the University of Electronic Science and Technology of China (UESTC) in the city of Chengdu. It is certainly not a new term, not even a new phenomenon. Its 'popularity in the education sector has soared since the early eighties. Prior to this time, international education and international cooperation were the favoured terms and still are in some countries' (Knight, 2008, p. 4).

The new terms we use today include borderless education, cross-border education, virtual education, internationalisation 'abroad' and internationalisation 'at home', as well as networks, twinning and franchise programmes, corporate universities, education providers, or branch campuses. (Knight, 2008, p. 5). According to Halász,

the changes affect essentially all aspects and functions of higher education from the transformation of the institutional management, the structure and content of qualifications through the funding of education to research and sectoral governance (Halász, 2010, p. 3).

As Knight (2003a, p. 2) summarises, internationalisation is a process in which an international, intercultural, or global dimension is integrated into the goals, functions, and the implementation of higher education activities.

According to the OECD study *Internationalisation and Trade in Higher Education*, there are two approaches of internationalisation. Enriching the national education and research activities of higher education institutions with international, intercultural dimensions is only one direction of internationalisation activities, referred to as ‘internationalisation at home’ in the related literature (Knight, 2004). The other direction is transnational education, which involves border-crossing by students, trainers, programmes, and institutions (OECD, 2004). The mobility of students, instructors, and programmes, outsourced trainings and faculties set up in other countries belong to this category (Knight, 2003b).

If strategic thinking about internationalisation is an accepted part of everyday work, then internationalisation encompasses the whole institution and becomes an integral and organic part of all activities. The question of coordination is how to mobilise or help those who can promote the international dimension of education, research, and the development of the related services.

Global competition requires that institutions explore and utilise the knowledge they gained through international relations, which can contribute to the quality and efficiency of its functions in a complex way.

Content of the internationalisation strategy

While internationalisation has become an indicator of high-quality higher education, dialogue on the quality and content of internationalisation is beneficial as well. This dialogue can be inspired effectively by launching the design of an internationalisation strategy. According to Hénard and colleagues, the institution’s international strategy should align with national policies, involve stakeholders in the entire process, and set an evaluation framework to assess the impacts of the strategy (Hénard, Diamond, & Roseveare, 2012, pp. 10–14).

Higher education institutions are actors in the global economy, and Barakonyi (2004) highlights the fact that higher education institutions, like business organisations, require professional management, development programmes, and new organisational models based on a ‘new public management’ paradigm.

Internationalisation may have an impact on the following areas:

- the curriculum of the training programmes;
- the development of HR functions according to the aspects of internationalisation, from recruitment to internal training, performance evaluation, organisational development, and contacts with former staff;
- the strengthening of the language skills of the institution's entire staff;
- exploring the positive energies of the international exchange of good practices of pedagogical innovation and intercultural media;
- the development of student services;
- improve the feedback system of stakeholders so that international students and trainers can study and work in an appropriate development environment;
- professional and proactive management of international tenders and projects;
- exploring unexplored resources capable of facilitating internationalisation;
- strengthening student participation;
- strengthening reflection on their own internationalisation process (diploma theses, PhD researches, action researches, exchange of working practices, joint projects with successful partner institutions);
- internationalisation-related internal knowledge-sharing, the institutionalisation of the (international) professional development of the staff;
- exploring international learning opportunities for internationalisation, understanding good examples and models;
- exploring the possibilities of experimentation and adaptation;
- strategic solutions ensuring successful implementation, such as the development of a system of responsibilities, resources, follow-up and feedback, must be the part of decisions.

Partnership is an effective form of creating long-term engagement in strategy-making. Table 1 helps identify the areas where preparatory work can involve a wide range of stakeholders. The following 10 topics show that internationalisation can be approached from so many aspects (Table 1).

Table 1: Strategy in the making: Topics for partnership

University functions	Incoming mobility	Outgoing mobility	Joint projects	Institutional presence abroad
R+D	Incoming research mobility working group	Outgoing research mobility working group	Joint R & D project working group (organised by the bidding office)	Working group on presence abroad opportunities
Teaching and learning	Incoming student and teacher mobility working group	Outgoing student and teacher mobility working group	Dual, plural, common graduate full training working group	
Relationship with the environment, business orders, marketing	Working group for incoming service provision and discussion on development demands	Working group on exploiting opportunities for outgoing mobility	Working group on analysing infrastructure and service needs for joint projects	
Infrastructure, internal services, administration, milieu				
Management, organisation development, leadership, HR, student involvement				

Source: Kovács & Tarrósy, 2015, pp. 2–8

Efforts to renew the teaching and learning process

The reason for reshaping higher education services also concerns the teaching and learning function of higher education institutions in several ways:

- There is an increased emphasis on the future skill needs of students exceeding the traditional scope of the learned disciplinary area in order to respond to the changing features of the labour market as well as to enable them to play prospective social roles.
- The learning outcomes-based approach helps reshape the programme and the course designs aligned with the new expectations. To harmonise learn-

ing outcomes with the design of tailored learning and assessment remains a demanding professional challenge.

- The professionalisation of teaching needs easier access to the findings of learning research and more tools to support the professional development and appraisal of teachers.
- More cooperation is needed, at least among those higher education teachers involved in a relevant study programme. Cooperation is inevitable in the cases of programmes jointly delivered by different faculties (as often happens to ITE) or by different universities even if they are not from the same countries.
- The potential of the active involvement and role of students in the entire processes across all university functions can hardly be overestimated. Students, with their diverse backgrounds, are not only learners but partners for research and providers of knowledge, especially due to the intense involvement of practitioners who start higher education in a later phase of their life or return to upscale their knowledge. The mutual benefit of validating prior learning and experience and building on it is an increasing challenge.

One specific form of internationalised study programmes is when they are jointly designed and delivered and possibly even result in multiple degrees. Research has found that these study programmes have a positive impact on students' motivation to learning, improve their career options and employability, generate revenue, and help create access to further funding sources. Some higher education institutions and systems use these programmes for sharing knowledge on how to improve the quality and efficiency of third programmes (Hénard et al., 2012, pp. 19–22). Another benefit, according to Asgary and Robbert, is that 'international dual degree models are significantly superior in terms of academic, intellectual and experiential learning; therefore, graduates of these programmes will be better prepared to lead international ventures and serve as global citizens' (Asgary & Robbert, 2010, p. 317).

On the other hand, dual degree programmes need proper leadership and commitment from staff. The involved higher education institutions have to be culturally open, inventive, and future-oriented. Students also need to have some specific characteristics. They must be prepared to manage a higher level of uncertainty and engage in performance. International study programmes may face difficult learning and implementation periods and challenges during their evolving provision. Their potential for outstanding impacts is their obvious driving force (Asgary & Robbert, 2010)

Is internationalisation the good, the bad, or the ugly, then?

Although all the global, transnational challenges and opportunities mentioned earlier cannot be bypassed, Peter Scott draws our attention to the different aspects (and understandings) of internationalisation. The ‘good’ aspect has always accompanied international higher education in the form of exchanges, scientific collaboration, or contributions to the social and economic performance of a given region. The ‘bad’ aspects are, as Scott (2011, n.p.) argues, ‘the mainstream drivers [...] First is the pressure to recruit international students, almost entirely because they can be charged higher fees. [...] Second is the drive for geopolitical and commercial advantage. [...] Third is global positioning.’

All this may indicate that we can extend our knowledge and perception about the notion of geopolitics, and include also the geopolitics of higher education into our narratives. The ‘ugly’ aspect, finally, is linked with strategies that subvert core responsibilities, as institutions struggle to recruit students – in many parts of Central and Eastern Europe, for instance, as a result of demographic challenges resulting from ageing and shrinking populations – from abroad, ‘less discerning international students to fill their places’ (Scott, 2011). The ‘foreign adventures’ that institutions are involved in may also carry financial and reputational risks. Therefore, according to Scott,

there is an urgent need to reset the compass of internationalisation, to steer towards the good and away from the ugly. Not only is this morally right, it is also probably in the best long-term interests of the sector. At the very least, it provides firm ground on which to stand against the rising wind of anti-immigrant, anti-foreigner, anti-‘other’ populism. (Scott, 2011, n. p.)

This is especially true in our current times, when growing xenophobia also hits higher education as a result of the ongoing refugee crisis in Europe.

When looking further at the ‘good’ and the ‘bad’ sides of internationalisation, a 2010 IAU study can also reveal certain important ideas. As Marmolejo (2010, n. p.) points out:

When asked about the most important benefits of internationalisation, the top three reasons at the global level listed in order of relevance were [for the universities asked]: increasing international awareness of students; strengthening research and knowledge production; and fostering international cooperation and solidarity.

Obviously, as global tendencies have been pulling all the corners of the world more closely together, higher education and research become more closely linked, too. However, the IAU survey also highlights regional disparities, which seem to have stabilised rather than disappeared. This is definitely not the ‘good’ side of the story.

When institutions prioritise their partnerships, they may not look beyond their own regions and the traditional contexts of connections. For instance,

in the Asia-Pacific region the first geographic priority for the internationalisation policy in the majority of their institutions is Asia-Pacific, followed by Europe. For European institutions the first priority is placed on Europe itself and the second one on Asia-Pacific. For North America the first priority is Asia-Pacific, followed by Europe. (Marmolejo, 2010, n. p.)

Marmolejo even takes this further by pointing out that

Sadly, the only region considering Africa as the principal priority is precisely Africa, but aside from that, none of the regions even consider Africa as a second or third priority. Even worse, Latin America is not even considered a priority by those Latin American institutions, which participated in the study, and none of the other regions of the world considers Latin America among their top three choices. If a region of the world is completely off the radar of international educators from all over the world, it provides at least a good 'wake-up' call.

Fostering regional dialogues, therefore, has become a key prerequisite for successful and even more, meaningful internationalisation.

There are several risks, adding to the challenges explained earlier, that HEIs have to reckon with when ambitiously committing themselves to amplify the process internationalisation:

- lack of consensus;
- resource dependence;
- too much complexity;
- ignoring or misjudging cultural differences;
- shortage of capacities.

Concluding thoughts

As Marijk van der Wende (2017, p. 6) points out:

Critical voices rail against internationalisation as an elite cosmopolitan project; against the use of English as a second or foreign language for teaching and learning; against global rankings and the resulting reputation race with its annual tables of losers and winners; against the recruitment of international students for institutional income; and other forms of 'academic capitalism'.

Despite these reservations, there is obvious support behind the internationalisation of higher education as one of the most powerful drivers of innovation and change. Therefore, internationalisation is ever so significant in the development of teaching and learning in higher education institutions and in most aspects of

university policy. Via newly developed teaching programmes and methodologies, such as the COMPALL joint-module methodology programme, the different cultural and disciplinary traditions and advancements can be overarched and re-connected. Such re-connection then may contribute to a refined definition and interpretation of what internationalisation can and should mean for higher education locally, regionally, and transnationally.

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Que Anh Dang

Crossing Borders and Shifting Boundaries in Joint Master's Programmes between Asia and Europe

Abstract: This contribution addresses the complexity in establishing Erasmus Mundus joint master's programmes between European and Asian universities. It analyses the rationales of collaboration, governance model, and sustainability of the programmes. It argues that university consortia construct a 'third space' where they shift the boundaries between regional, national, and institutional regulatory environments in order to sustain the partnerships and improve learning and teaching experiences.

Why are European-Asian joint master's programmes desirable?

Joint programmes have increasingly been seen as a means to achieve multiple goals of the internationalisation of higher education. In addition to classic academic and intellectual exchange, there is a global awareness of the economic and diplomatic importance of international joint programmes. Higher education institutions are becoming key players in the global knowledge society, and they are increasingly driven by economically oriented rationales (Rizvi & Lingard, 2010), which may be related to enhancing the international reputation and quality of an institution or to improving the competitive position of a country or a region. Approaches chosen to achieve these goals range from institutional, national strategies to regional cooperation policies. Consequently, various forms of joint programmes emerge in different parts of the world, especially in Europe, where supranational political, financial, and technical support is made available for the internationalisation of higher education.

Two important European strategies, the Bologna Process launched in 1999 and the European Union (EU) Lisbon Strategy launched in 2000, are aimed at strengthening the role of universities and building a 'Europe of Knowledge' (Wright, 2004). The Bologna Process emphasises the cooperation, networking, and commensurability of higher education across Europe, whereas the Lisbon Strategy, particularly its competitive agenda, aims at making the European education and training systems 'a world quality reference' and the Union 'the most-favoured destination of students, scholars and researchers from other world regions' (EC, 2006, p. 240). Joint programmes, hence, have been seen

as an innovative way to materialise these objectives, loaded with expectations of becoming a hallmark of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) and contributing to Europe as a competitive economic region. Precisely for these reasons, the EU in 2004 launched a new outward-looking programme, known as Erasmus Mundus (EM), which attracted international talent and promoted cooperation with countries beyond the EU borders. Whereas other European aid programmes specify and limit the eligible countries and establish a kind of donor-recipient relationship with non-European countries, Erasmus Mundus was open to all partner universities and students in the whole world. This implies the complexity in establishing partnerships, mediating different interests, negotiating multi-level rules, designing international curricula, and delivering joint courses to students of diverse backgrounds (Dang, 2007). Joint programmes are neither new nor unique; however, very scant scholarly attention is paid to how they work in practice and what lessons could be gleaned from developments in an Asia-Europe collaborative context.

This contribution, therefore, examines two cases of EM joint programmes in the field of education. Each of these two-year master's courses is jointly offered by a consortium of European and Asian universities and mainly financed by the European Commission in the form of partnership development and management funds and study grants for students and visiting scholars. First, the Master Programme in Lifelong Learning: Policy and Management (MALLL) was offered from 2006 to 2017 by a consortium of four universities from Denmark, England, Spain, and Australia. Second, the Master in Research and Innovation in Higher Education (MARIHE) ran from 2011 to 2016 and involved four universities from Austria, Finland, Germany, and China. The cases are chosen because they both are in the field of education and involve non-European partners. They both were successful in offering unique programmes to a large number of students and in obtaining two rounds of funding from the European coffers. However, the Master Programme in Lifelong Learning is closed down, and the Master in Research and Innovation in Higher Education suspended its intake in 2017. Hence, the trajectories of their partnership developments present interesting cases to explore.

The chapter seeks to explain how these international partnerships were established and developed over time, what processes of negotiation took place, and what factors affect the operation and sustainability of the joint programmes in this specific field of education. Drawing on the primary empirical data from the author's six-year experience of studying and working in the Master Programme in Lifelong Learning and five interviews with the Master in Research and Inno-

vation in Higher Education students and professors, the chapter will analyse the advantages and constraints encountered in the development of partnerships. It is also argued that these EU-funded joint programmes tend to construct themselves as a 'third space' where they move in and out on an ongoing basis and shift the boundaries between this supranational 'third space' and different national and institutional regulatory environments in order to maintain the partnerships and pursue their superordinate educational purposes, such as improving student learning experiences and professional networks among academics, rather than the competitiveness or financial gains of their member institutions.

Crossing borders and shifting boundaries

Joint programmes are defined differently in the literature. Some definitions specify technical aspects, such as a single joint qualification awarded at the end of an international collaborative programme, that determine the type of joint degree programme and distinguish it from other types of cooperation (Knight, 2011; Schüle, 2006). Such narrow definitions fail to capture other important characteristics, such as the 'jointness' and 'cohesion' in the course design, curriculum, learning and teaching experience, admission criteria, assessment of student work. As the case studies show, this jointness can only be achieved through various processes of crossing not only physical borders between countries and universities but also shifting intangible boundaries, such as culture, discipline, institutional norms and rules. Boundaries are 'conceptual distinctions' constructed by people and organisations to categorise reality and recognise a collective identity, such as distinctive characters of a higher education system or a university (Amaral, Tavares, Cardoso, & Sin, 2015). Although higher education institutions increasingly interact with external environments and international partners, they maintain their identity through the concept of boundaries, which are influenced by cultural, legislative, and political contexts.

In developing joint programmes, boundaries are often viewed as sources of potential obstacles, but they can also be a source of deep learning when they force collaborators to take a fresh look at their long-standing practices (Tsui & Law, 2007). As a result, collaborators may create opportunities for the transformation of conflicting ideas and practices into a rich zone of learning. Tsui et al. (2007) also argue that in the course of resolving contradictions, very often, a more encompassing motive is constructed for the joint actions of collaborators, thus shifting boundaries. Consequently, collaborators create a 'third space' temporally or physically where different ideas meet and form new meanings – where negotiations, learning, and changes take place. Precisely for these reasons, the joint

programmes examined in this chapter emerged as a ‘third space’ – a new territory mediating between academic, cultural, and regulative systems and between regional, national, and institutional levels. But the joint programmes alone cannot construct themselves into a ‘third space’. The next section will analyse how the regional initiative, Erasmus Mundus, serves as a mechanism that enables the emergence of such a ‘third space’.

Governance model and the creation of a ‘third space’

Erasmus Mundus joint programmes have a unique form of governance. The most noticeable feature is that the dominant source of funding comes from the European Commission. In the first phase (2004–2009), Erasmus Mundus scholarships were granted to non-European students only, and courses were designed and delivered by consortia consisting of three European universities (at least one partner university from a EU member country). However, in its second phase (2009–2013), a number of Erasmus Mundus scholarships (with a lesser amount of money per scholarship) were added for European students. At the same time, the consortia were required to engage non-European universities to diversify mobility opportunities and to make the Erasmus Mundus programme more attractive, truly international, and less ‘Eurocentric’. As observed by Dale (2016), Erasmus Mundus joint programmes are sponsored by *transnational* funding and implemented by *subnational* institutions that operate *internationally*. Here *trans* means *cross* nations, *sub* refers to *below* nations, and *inter* denotes *between* nations. All these prefixes connote various borders and boundaries and different levels of governance in the structure of Erasmus Mundus. This joint programme model requires border-crossing and boundary-shifting, thus facilitating the creation of a ‘third space’ where the members move in and out on an ongoing basis, actively learning to recognise and shift the boundaries between multilevel regulatory environments in order to sustain the partnerships.

Both the Master Programme in Lifelong Learning and the Master in Research and Innovation in Higher Education institutional partnerships were built on personal relationships between individual academics who knew each other before. Between 2006–2010, the Master Programme in Lifelong Learning was jointly offered by the Danish University of Education, the London Institute of Education (England), and Deusto University (Spain). In 2010, the University of Melbourne (Australia) joined the consortium. Students could study the first two semesters in either Denmark or England but they were required to complete the third semester in Spain. The semester in Australia was mainly for the European students.

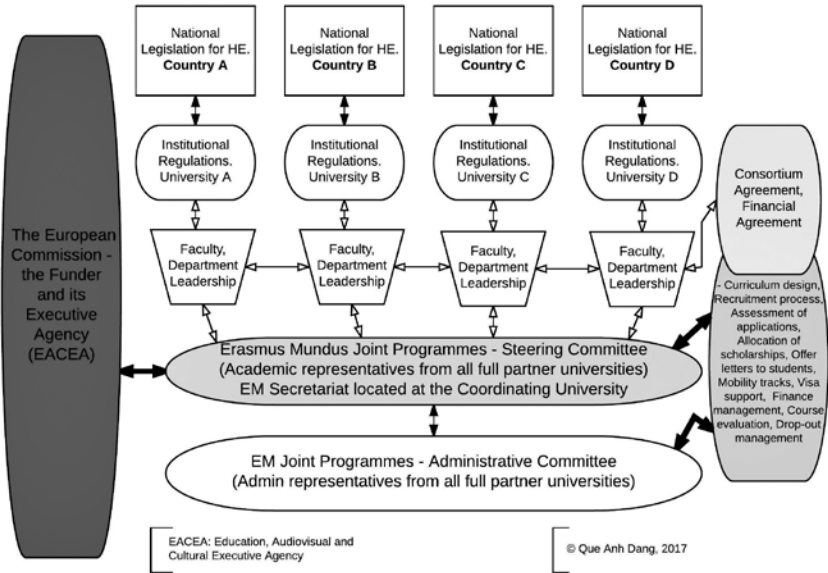
Dissertations in the final semester had to be written and assessed at one of the three European universities. The choice of university for the dissertations was determined by the availability of supervisors and expertise at each place and visa requirements.

The Master in Research and Innovation in Higher Education was founded in 2011; from the beginning, the consortium included Beijing Normal University (China) alongside Danube University Krems (Austria), University of Tampere (Finland), and University of Applied Sciences Osnabrück (Germany). All students started in Austria, then moved together to Finland for the second semester and to China for the third semester. The three European universities supervised and assessed the dissertations in the fourth semester.

The consortia were managed by a Steering Committee made up of academic representatives from all member universities and supported by a secretariat located at the coordinating university and an administrative committee consisting of administrators from all member universities. The committee met face-to-face three times per year. An overall governance model of the Master Programme in Lifelong Learning and the Master in Research and Innovation in Higher Education, at the time of writing, is illustrated in Figure 1 below, raising the questions of which entity regulates what, and according to which rules?

The main funder (the European Commission) devises its own rules (Erasmus Mundus Programme Guide) on how to run Erasmus Mundus joint programmes. This funder and its executive agency maintain close contacts with the Steering Committee (via the Coordinator/Manager of the Consortium) for all matters ranging from student recruitment, their mobility tracks to finance management. Although the department leaders (deans) sign the consortium and finance agreements, the Steering Committee – a special international unit created to mediate between different practices and regulations (e.g. the Danish law on free tuition vs. the English law on full tuition fees, different grading systems and grade conversions between China, Australia, and Europe) – makes a new set of rules to run the joint programme. For example, each consortium set their own selection/admission criteria, common tuition fee, and student assessment criteria which are different from other domestic courses at each member university. This shared institutional regulatory space is created and legitimised by the Commission as a 'new and distinct space of regional educational governance' (Dale, 2016, p. 78). However, this space may at times become detached or isolated from their host universities, especially when organisational changes occur due to university mergers and staff turnover, or even due to the personal agendas of the programme coordinators who want to create their own space.

Figure 1: A governance model of an Erasmus Mundus joint programme



Source: Author’s compilation

The power of the funder

Since the launch of the EU Lisbon Strategy in 2000, the European Commission has extended its involvement in the higher education sector through various European initiatives (Keeling, 2006), such as supporting structural reform under the umbrella of the Bologna Process/European Higher Education Area, Erasmus Mundus for strengthening European integration, and enhancing the competitiveness and global reach of European higher education. This involvement has also increased the European Commission’s power in its various forms. Lukes (2005) conceptualises those forms in three dimensions. In the first dimension, power is visible in decision-making processes. In the Erasmus Mundus programme, not only the outcomes of such process count but also other aspects of power, such as the power to keep certain issues off the table, or to exclude certain groups, or to limit their access to decision-making processes. As observed in the two cases, national ministries of education were not directly included in the flow of information. The second dimension consists of the power to set and control the agenda, in the form of the structure, governance, organisation, and evaluation of the joint programmes. The third and perhaps

most powerful dimension incorporates and transcends the first two dimensions. This third face of power is not directly visible because it is the capacity to shape preferences and to secure consent and compliance to domination without the explicit exercise of power. Not only is the European Commission able to set criteria for participation in the consortia and the selection of joint programmes for funding, it can also use the prestigious status of the Erasmus Mundus programme to steer the action of participating universities. For instance, Beijing Normal University (BNU) has convinced the Chinese Ministry of Education to give permission and recognise the 2-year Master's in Research and Innovation in Higher Education, although the national law requires 3 years for a master's degree.

Dang: How to get the permission to run a 2-year master's degree?

BNU: [...] I said it is an Erasmus Mundus programme [...] It is a real challenge for us because joint degree programme is not allowed by the Chinese law. I don't use the word 'joint programme' but a kind of student mobility. I am not telling lie, but only part of the truth. I told them all the good things I know about the project. If I tell them it is for student learning/understanding, they will not believe me, but I tell them that the programme is contributing to the socio-economic development through mobility activity, developing creative talent of diverse backgrounds. I use the word 'creative talent'. I have to link the European programme to the Chinese discourse. (Interview 3, May 2014)

This answer explains how a partner mediates between different regulative contexts and also demonstrates that power works most effectively and insidiously when it is hidden.

Motivations for collaboration

In the two cases, both internal and external factors motivate universities to collaborate. Internal factors such as developing a specialised subject area (e.g. life-long learning), pooling and developing talent (recruiting international teachers and students), leveraging resources, and building and expanding professional networks act as incentives for engaging in a partnership. Internal factors vary across the partner universities and over time. For example, the Master in Research and Innovation in Higher Education consists of three European specialised universities/faculties of education with relatively limited resources (expertise, teaching staff), meaning the partnership enables them to design and offer programmes and learning experiences that were not possible at individual universities alone (interview 1, 3 in May 2014). As for Beijing Normal University, the main motivation for participating in an Erasmus Mundus programme was to increase their prestigious position nationally and internationally. In

the case of the Master Programme in Lifelong Learning, despite the fact that Denmark has a long tradition of lifelong learning, the joint programme was established as the first international master's course specialised in this subject and taught in English at the Danish University of Education. International lecturers were recruited to develop the modular curricula and to teach alongside the Danish lecturers, many of whom were reluctant to teach in English. Joining the Master Programme in Lifelong Learning, Melbourne University was keen to attract more European students to their campus which has mainly been populated by Asian students. They also need partners for sending their students to Europe. In both cases, internal factors also include the academics' individual motivations to expand their capacities (international teaching and research experience) and professional networks. Although the partner universities and their staff have their own motivations and priorities for participating, the partnership can still be established and developed as long as it is mutually beneficial.

In terms of external factors, perhaps the strongest pressure comes from the requirements for cross-border partnership set by the European Commission. Another external factor is the perception that employers value the inter-cultural competences and international experience of students graduating from joint programmes (interviews 2, 3, 4 in May 2014). The internal and external motivations shape the options and behaviours of the participating universities and individuals nested under the joint programme.

The role of champions

The success of the Master Programme in Lifelong Learning and the Master in Research and Innovation in Higher Education depends considerably on having an overall consortium leader as well as coordinators at each university. They are members of the Steering Committee in the figure above. They can be seen as champions who play a key role in developing enthusiasm and ensuring support for the joint project (Chapman, Pekol, & Wilson, 2014; de Róiste, Breetzke, & Reitsma, 2015). Some of these champions in the Master Programme in Lifelong Learning and the Master in Research and Innovation in Higher Education were deans of the participating academic faculties, others were senior academics or rising star academics with vast professional networks. These champions are important but they are also in a delicate position: they need to constantly and actively move between their institutional environment and the 'third space', mediating between their long-term institutional attachment and the temporary project-based joint programme.

The sustainability of partnership

Although Erasmus Mundus joint programmes can expand resources and capacities, they also increase operational complexity. There is an immense time commitment required to establish and maintain a partnership and make it thrive. While the international partnership may be personally and professionally rewarding for those involved, the commitment may be too high if the work is not valued by the management and academic community within the host institution. That was the case with the Master Programme in Lifelong Learning in its last five years due to university mergers and a change of leadership at the Danish and English partners. The enthusiasm of the people involved and the energy invested in the partnership gradually diminished. At the same time, the European funding came to an end. Lack of institutional support at all participating universities, huge administrative burdens, and staff changes ruined the idea of putting together a new funding application. Consequently, the Master Programme in Lifelong Learning is closed down after ten years of operation. In the case of the Master in Research and Innovation in Higher Education, enthusiasm and commitment remain high, but the competition for European funding is so fierce that the joint programme had to suspend its operation in 2017. Unlike other high-tech or commercial subjects, the nature of an educational programme and its low 'return on investment' make it more challenging to recruit self-paying students to sustain the costly international joint programmes.

Concluding remarks

Using the case studies of the Master Programme in Lifelong Learning and the Master in Research and Innovation in Higher Education, this chapter has explained how European-Asian joint programmes work in practice. While recognising the importance of economic rationale of joint programmes in general, the focus of this chapter is on the development rationale and the challenges faced by individual partners and the consortia. The institutional partnerships are built on personal friendships. The explicit benefits of the partnership are the learning from one another and the collegiality that bonds partners together. Although such a development rationale is well suited to the field of education, it does cause financial vulnerability and affect the viability of joint programmes.

In order to sustain the partnerships, the partners have to negotiate and mediate between different and even conflicting regulations of the main funder, national laws, and member universities. Using Lukes' three-dimensional concept

of power (decision-making, agenda-setting, manipulation/latent authority), the chapter argues that the European Commission shapes the processes and practices at institutional and national levels. Such influence also encourages boundary-shifting and facilitates the creation of a ‘third space’ in temporal, spatial, and physical terms. The sustainability of joint programmes also depends significantly on the role of leader-champions who believe strongly in the partnerships and have the ability to generate effective cohesiveness and support to maintain the commitment of all members through different stages of partnership development.

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Nils Szuka & Juan J. Garcia Blesa

Activating Students in Distance Education: The Integration of E-Learning Scenarios into Short Learning Programmes

Abstract: This article offers a self-reflective account of the ways in which the European Distance Education in Law Network (EDELNet) has tackled the challenge of combining e-learning modules with face-to-face intensive study programmes or Short Learning Programmes in order to enhance the activating and student-centred learning effects of its activities.

Problem outline

The role of distance education in higher education – content is dead!

At a time when quick, cheap, and easy access to almost unlimited content resources is available virtually to anyone in the West, the role of higher education programmes in law, social sciences, and humanities is shifting dramatically. In the past, universities usually acted as a conveyor belt for ready-made knowledge, transporting it from relatively exclusive circles of knowledge production to the mass of students. The goal of the process was generally to secure a more or less accurate reproduction of ideas officially labelled as knowledge. Twenty-first-century democratic societies, however, demand that universities become training centres for autonomous, competent learning for knowledge producers across the whole social spectrum.

This is also true of legal studies. Traditionally structured as an authority-based preparation for social hierarchy (Kennedy, 1983; 1998), the relevance and the legitimacy of legal studies are decreasing today across Europe. The modern lawyer's identity is trapped in a technocratic spiral of frustration, cynicism, and irrelevance in view of the overwhelming challenges modern democracies are currently facing. Barely transparent, costly, slow, and sometimes hardly effective legal remedies and procedures are pushing millions in Europe to rely on arbitration and mediation rather than on publicly administered justice for the solution of vital social problems. This is not necessarily a negative phenomenon. But it is beyond doubt that one of its main causes is the type of legal education that the operators of the legal system go through and the kind of professional culture that

it generates among them, making them unable to channel adequately many of the important changes society is demanding.

From this point of view, mainstream, authority-based didactic approaches in law have become obsolete. The view that learning consists of filling the vessel of students' minds with large amounts of content needs to be combined, if not superseded, with programmes focused on competence and skills training. This shift is not without risk. If the goal of allowing students to become autonomous knowledge producers, and thus more relevant social actors, is to be achieved, the transformation must be accompanied by a strong emphasis on critical thinking and the transfer of learning outcomes.

A different understanding of the potential advantages of distance teaching today is beginning to open new scenarios of improvement for higher education at large. In this context, the adequate combination of student-centred approaches and blended learning scenarios can allow distance universities to bridge the gap in legal education (Gerdy, 2002–04; Grealy, 2015; Hewitt, 2015; O'Neill & McMahon, 2005; White & Crowley, 2015).

Special needs of specific target groups in distance education – the problem of activating students

Campus universities are usually focused on a very limited type of student. Generally, anyone above the age of 21 is considered to be a 'mature student' and hence somewhat out of place at a campus university. Students with children, with full time jobs, living in distant or rural areas or just socially removed from the higher education system (due to economic or cultural reasons) need to be given a better chance to get access to good quality higher education that can improve their professional perspectives and their lives in general. Again, distance universities are better suited to fill this gap.

New didactic approaches in distance education enable instructors and students to concentrate face-to-face learning time in short, intensive units that allow for high-quality learning experiences.

Obstacles to internationalisation in legal studies in general and in respect of the target group

Legal education has proven to be especially resistant to internationalisation. Owing to its strong ties to the state sovereignty doctrine, law is still presented in the average classroom as a Cartesian series of almost watertight compartments. This view, however, turns a blind eye on the current European legal reality furthering

a rigid legal mind and somehow giving students the sense that national law can after all be used at convenience to ignore the implications of European integration.

The different requirements to practice law in EU countries, institutional reluctance and lack of resources, understanding, commitment, or expertise in key areas, like language skills or intercultural communication, represent further obstacles. All this makes it a challenge to bring together law students from different EU countries in the same classroom and achieve meaningful results.

Intercultural complexities in international distance education processes

The philosophy of the EDELNet Partnership is based on the idea that ‘internationalisation cannot be based on mobility only. It must also promote the comprehensive and purposeful competence to deal with cultural diversity’ (Bosse, 2010). Consequently, any international learning activity is conceived as an opportunity to help both students and instructors develop their own intercultural competence. For this reason, EDELNet has developed a student-centred blended learning programme in intercultural communication for both students and teachers, including online and face-to-face activities embedded in the regular law learning programme.

The EDELNet Partnership

How an idea took shape

The first contact between the EDELNet partners was built up in the years 2003 and 2004 at meetings of the Law Teachers Association of the United Kingdom and led to a first approach for cooperation in the field of ERASMUS-Intensive Study Programmes in the years 2007/2008. The three partners subsequently organised ten intensive programmes with more than 300 students in the years 2008–2017. Until 2014, these Short Learning Programmes were solely organised for students at the bachelor’s level; since 2015, the partners have organised Short Learning Programmes at the bachelor’s, master’s, and doctoral level.

As a steady and reliable basis for their partnership, all partners can provide a distinguished profile and the expertise of longstanding stakeholders in the higher distance education sector with a high degree of professionalism and possible benefits for the scientific community. All three partners have many years of expertise in distant teaching, especially in modern and highly innovative fields of blended learning in respect of legal education as well as excellent technical facilities and expertise in the implementation of blended learning teaching concepts.

Structure of the partnership

Within the previously mentioned partnership agreement, the establishment of an executive board and a supervisory board was stipulated. These boards, which meet face-to-face and online on a regular basis, consist of different members of the academic and management staff of the partner universities, including different hierarchical levels, and have different tasks and responsibilities in the academic and administrative management of the partnership. The executive board organises, plans, and monitors the activities, the system of evaluation and quality assurance and, if appropriate, drafts proposals on changes and project applications of the network to be put before the supervisory board. Every year, it presents to the supervisory board a draft for an annual plan of activities and for an annual report that includes the outcome of the quality assurance. The supervisory board oversees the activities of the executive board and appoints the president of that board. Furthermore, the cooperation agreement governs other organisational questions such as copyright issues, use of names, confidentiality, and dispute resolution mechanisms. Regarding dispute resolution, alternative dispute resolution mechanisms are strongly preferred by all partners.

Learning and teaching activities

All partner universities base their overall learning and teaching activities on a 'blended-learning' format. 'Blended learning' refers to the range of possibilities presented by combining internet and digital media with established classroom forms that require the physical co-presence of teacher and students (Frisen, 2012). As part of their blended learning concepts, all partners use a broad range of these possibilities to meet the challenges and obstacles their diverse student body and its needs impose on them. Due to the analysis in section I of this article, the partners cannot rely on long-term classroom settings, but need to use the format of 'Short Learning Programmes'. Within these condensed Short Learning Programmes, the partners combine the benefits of classroom meetings with an accurate and well-designed preparatory phase to use the classroom time as profitably as possible.

Within the partnership, Short Learning Programmes are conducted annually for students in all learning cycles. Details about these Short Learning Programmes will be laid down in section III of this article:

- Bachelor of Laws (210 ECTS study programme), conducted in the summer months of each year with around 30 students from the partner universities
- Master of Laws (90 ECTS study programme), conducted in the summer months of each year with around 20 students from the partner universities

- Doctoral School, conducted in the winter months of each year with around 15 students from the partner universities

A central part of the EDELNet Project is innovation and the quality of teaching. Knowledge and experience in online activating education vary among the group of teachers. To prepare the teaching staff of the participating universities for meeting the project goals in this field, all partners agreed to conduct annual courses in the field of student-oriented teaching. Within the project, there are annual face-to-face seminars, each featuring 15 participants and 3 instructors, in which participants work together with experts from the partner universities, learn from experience, wrap up results and, in the following years, hand them over to a new group of professors and the academic learning community at large. The seminars are prepared with course materials structured in accordance with the concept of blended learning. All seminars will be designed to incorporate the latest knowledge about attractive and effective distant teaching.

Additionally, since EDELNet is not a temporary, isolated project, the partners were aware that their academic activities not only require cross-cultural cooperation. They also knew that the exchange is not only between different types of knowledge but also between different cultures, that is, between ‘different and incommensurable universes of meaning’. In order to meet the challenge imposed by this, the partners train their teaching and management staff in the intercultural aspects that affect communication in both their scientific and their administrative roles. Thus, there are annual face-to-face staff training activities with preparatory materials.

As a solid groundwork for all further activities and as high-quality outputs, scientists of all partners are to develop various blended-learning course materials to be used by students and teaching staff in all learning cycles. These course materials comprise the following topics:

- Legal English eCourse I
- Legal English eCourse II
- Intercultural Communication eCourse
- Doctrinal Legal Research Materials
- Research Design and Management Materials
- Academic Attitude and Ethics Materials
- Interdisciplinary Legal Research Materials
- Research Methods in International Law Materials
- Research Methods in EU Law Materials

Short Learning Programmes of the EDELNet and the integration of e-Learning scenarios

Purpose and scope of Short Learning Programmes: the EDELNet LL.B. and LL.M Summer Schools

The use of Short Learning Programmes within the EDELNet partnership varies significantly from the doctoral level to the master's and bachelor's levels. While on the doctorate level, Short Learning Programmes are utilised as an enhancing complement to a larger online programme, the master- and bachelor-level Short Learning Programmes represent the main component of the EDELNet cooperation at these two levels. This means that the main learning experience is intended to happen during the face-to-face activity. The goal, therefore, is to apply this tool to key transversal elements of the regular curriculum of all participating institutions, making sure that students can later connect that experience to a significant part of the rest of the programme at their home institutions. Consequently, the online courses offered at these levels are a complement to the face-to-face activity rather than the other way around. Yet the use of the online courses in these scenarios has proven to be of great importance.

Advantages of the introduction of e-learning scenarios in Short Learning Programmes

By introducing e-learning scenarios into Short Learning Programmes, the project can benefit students and teachers in several fields:

- In the first instance, the actual contact time used in face-to face-meetings can be reduced. Short Learning Programmes, which are prepared with e-learning scenarios, allow students to gain professional experiences in a foreign language with an intercultural background in short periods without any loss of quality. Students with limited possibilities of living abroad for longer terms can prepare themselves online, so the actual face-to-face times can be reduced.
- Students and teachers gain additional ICT competences by using e-learning scenarios and applications. They learn from the opportunities, challenges, and obstacles that e-learning scenarios provide for students and teachers.
- The use of e-learning scenarios gives room for the inclusion of disadvantaged students in transnational learning processes. E-learning scenarios enable students from abroad, students on parental leave, or disabled students to take part in the international learning experience.

- The possible workload and thus the awardable ECTS credits for students can be enhanced without the need for inserting unrealistic resources, neither by the students nor by the teaching staff.
- The use of e-learning scenarios in Short Learning Programmes fosters the possibility for teachers to experiment with modern and didactical approaches and modern ICT technology.

The LL.B. Summer School

The LL.B. Summer School was the nucleus of the EDELNet Project, held annually since 2008 and boasting more than 300 alumni by 2017. The Summer School started as a pure face-to-face activity; the only surrounding activity was the provision of textbooks about the basics of each participating country's legal system. The partners eventually shifted contents to the ICT-based preparation period and surrounded a shortened one-week face-to-face phase with virtual classroom activities to prepare the actual classes. Altogether, the LL.B. Summer School partners can award up to 10 ECTS credits to the participating students. As a result, the LL.B. Summer School now runs through three phases:

a) Phase I: Specialised preparation

aa) Legal reading: Introduction to law

To gain a basic understanding of supranational legal principles, all participating students are asked to read and prepare some chapters of the book *Introduction to Law* edited by Jaap Hage and Bram Akkermans. This book is 'special in the sense that it introduces students to law in general and not to the law of one specific jurisdiction' (Hage & Akkermans, 2014, p. 1). With this approach, the book meets the demands of the project, which aims not just at enhancing students' knowledge of their own legal system but to foster their understanding of supranational legal interrelations.

bb) Legal English I

In accordance with the transnational approach of EDELNet, both distant and face-to-face learning activities are offered to all students in English. In order to ensure active participation and effective learning, the face-to-face phase of all Short Learning Programmes is preceded by a Legal English e-course that prepares students for participation in meetings and discussions. Firstly, the course covers the grammar structures of legal English. Secondly, the course familiarises participants with the main vocabulary for the concepts of constitutional law, criminal law, and

private law that will be addressed in the e-learning preparations for the Summer School. Mastering these Legal English grammar structures and vocabulary enables participants to effectively interact and communicate with their foreign peers in formal and informal interaction.

cc) Intercultural Communication e-course

As mentioned earlier, all participants – students and teaching staff – need basic intercultural communication skills to be able to benefit from the transnational setting of all learning and teaching activities. Therefore, all participants are asked to take part in the project's Intercultural Communication e-course. This highly innovative intellectual e-course consists of materials on the application of intercultural communication structures. The e-course was developed together with academics based at the Faculty of Psychology at FernUniversität in Hagen. The e-course serves as a basis for achieving one of the project goals: the development of an interculturally sensitive work community of law students and instructors trained in interdisciplinary thinking.

dd) Preparation of case studies

The case studies, as explained in the next section, deal with the fictional state of Transdanubia. In one part of the programme, students have to participate in a parliamentary debate in the fictional state. In preparatory group work, several groups of students have to discuss via virtual means the standing rules of the fictional parliament, that is, rules concerning speaking times, voting rules, and so forth. The proposals drafted by the different groups via virtual classrooms are discussed in the face-to-face meeting and then adopted by a majority of students. By introducing an ICT-based group work format, students discuss with each other, get to know each other, and work together before meeting in person for the first time. As a secondary effect, the case study produces a set of rules that students have discussed and adopted themselves. From a pedagogical point of view, therefore, they have taken an active part in the learning process.

b) Phase II: Face-to-face meeting

aa) Wrap-up sessions for Legal English I and Intercultural Communication

As a first step towards transporting all learning outcomes of the preparatory phase to the face-to-face phase, students are provided with wrap-up sessions concerning the e-courses. In these wrap-up sessions, all students have the possibility to ask questions and make first use of the things they have learned. The knowledge gained in the e-courses is sustained and consolidated by the wrap-up.

bb) Role plays 'Transdanubia'

Since all teachers are engaged in the idea of activating learning processes – that is, processes where students take an active part in their education, as opposed to passively absorbing lectures – the LL.B. Summer School uses case studies and role plays to give students an active part in their own learning process. With this setting, the programme aims at opening up students' minds for the challenges and opportunities of transnational legal collaboration and at giving diverse student groups the chance to discuss legal problems and their implications in an international framework. For that purpose, after some short input by members of the teaching staff, students work on three case studies dealing with the fictional state of 'Transdanubia'. The idea for this state was developed by Prof Dr Huub Spoormans of the OU NL. All case studies use the learning platform Moodle for organising group work and distributing materials and results.

The fictional state of Transdanubia is a landlocked republic in Central Europe, which until 1989 was part of the socialist bloc. In recent years, the state moved towards full membership in the European Union and is now a full member of the Council of Europe. In the first case study, students get some additional information on the population, the economy, and other aspects of Transdanubia and are asked by the country's Ministry of the Interior to give advice regarding the basic outline of a possible constitution. Students are split up into groups to discuss the possible reform of Transdanubia's constitution. Each group is expected to come up with proposals on the electoral system, the executive system, judicial review, the protection of basic rights, and minority protection. During these discussions, students get a broad overview of the possibilities that different constitutions provide. They learn not to take everything they know for granted and discuss ways to enhance the quality of their own constitutions' provisions.

In the second case study, students are put in the position of members of parliament of the state of Transdanubia. They discuss, and in the end maybe decide on, a draft bill the government introduces to parliament. The draft bill deals with controversial proposals on the media infrastructure and the composition of the constitutional court of Transdanubia, showing similarities to recent developments in a Central European state. The fictional parliament consists of 300 members (each Summer School student represents 10 votes in the house). The majority of votes needed to pass the law is 160 (or 16 students). The seats in parliament are divided along three political parties: the Party of the People (governing party) with 140 members (14 students), the Democratic Party (opposition) with 110 members (11 students), and the Independent Party with 50 members (5 students). The students conduct their discussions under their own regulations, which they agreed on based on their preparatory work. In the end, they vote on the draft

bill. With this case study, students on the one hand learn to organise discussion processes and on the other hand reflect on the topics set in this case study from their own and the intercultural point of view.

The third case study deals with a possible ‘Traxit’, that is, the exit of the state of Transdanubia, now a member of the European Union, from the EU. After getting input from the Central European, Spanish, and Greek perspectives (the latter as an example of a disadvantaged state), students discuss the implications and dangers of member states leaving the European Union.

c) Phase III: Post-processing

In the post-processing of the Short Learning Programmes, the different participating countries have the possibility of asking students to complete an assignment to wrap up the programme and to justify the awarding of further ECTS credits. The German FernUniversität Hagen, for example, asks students for a written assignment of up to 10 pages. Including this assignment, the workload of FernUniversität Hagen students amounts to 300 hours for the whole SLP in all three phases; therefore, 10 ECTS credits may be awarded.

The LL.M. Summer School

The master-level summer school lasts five days and follows a similar logic as the undergraduate programme. During the preparatory phase, students get basic information on key aspects of the face-to-face programme that brings them closer to each other in terms of their background knowledge as well as their linguistic and intercultural communication skills. The programme itself revolves around a moot court where students are the main players.

a) Phase I: Specialised preparation

The preparatory phase takes two months and consists of a series of online courses and meetings accompanied by permanent support from both instructors and administrative staff.

aa) Legal reading: Moot court materials

A mandatory online course has been developed to provide students with knowledge about national and international contract law. Since the moot case deals with the international sale of goods, the basic concepts of this topic are presented, accompanied by basic references in this field. This course has an online environment where students can contact the instructors or their fellow students at all times to get clarifications or further information they might need.

bb) Legal English II

Participants must complete an advanced legal English course before they may attend the LL.M. Summer School. Part of the course focuses on advocacy skills; the rest is devoted to the writing skills necessary for court proceedings. LL.M. students are also allowed to take the basic legal English I e-course.

cc) Intercultural Communication e-course

A mandatory basic e-course on intercultural competence is also offered to the LL.M. Summer School students. This course is the same as the one offered to undergraduate students.

*b) Phase II: Face-to-face programme**aa) Wrap up sessions for Legal English II and Intercultural Communication*

The online courses on advanced legal English and intercultural competence are coupled with one face-to-face unit each. These sessions aim to reinforce the learning process by dealing with the practical application of the targeted skills. Simulations, teamwork, and individual coaching are included in these sessions.

bb) Moot Court

The moot court allows students to experience the real work of a lawyer by confronting a rather ordinary case of arbitration with international elements. In the morning of the first day, right after being split into plaintiff and defendant teams, students are presented with the moot case they will have to process together in order to stand before the moot court at the end of the activity. To prepare for the case, they can consult with the team of instructors regarding subject-matter issues, procedure, or court rhetoric.

*c) Phase III: Post-processing**aa) Evaluation*

Once the moot court is concluded, students receive both group and individual feedback from the instructors involved in the activity. Feedback on their performance in the other activities of the face-to-face programme, like Legal English or Intercultural Communication, is provided immediately upon completion of these units.

After all face-to-face learning and networking activities are finished, students are invited to participate in a written evaluation of the programme, which is complemented by a face-to-face feedback discussion on the programme. This feedback is later analysed by the managing board of the partnership; the results are used to introduce improvements every year.

Conclusion

After several years of trial-and-error learning, the experience gathered in the EDELNet programme has been overwhelmingly positive. Most students evaluate their experience as very positive and share a clear view that it helps them achieve their learning goals and improve their chances of successfully completing their studies.

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Internationality of Higher Education: The Case of Adult Education

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Internationalisation and Higher Education: The Case Study of a Master's Degree Course in Adult Education

Abstract: The paper provides an overview of the concept of internationalisation and of how it is challenging higher education policies. Through the case study developed by the Universities of Florence and Würzburg, the authors reflect on internationalisation as a central strategy for the construction of a global scientific community and labour market.

Introduction

Why internationalisation? This could be considered the research question that guides the work on which the following short contribution is based. It is not a research question that involves only one specific sector of studies in the field of adult and continuing education, but it is the theme of the great space of European Higher Education. We might deal with the discourse from multiple points of observation: at the macro, meso, and micro levels. Each of these perspectives address different aspects. The macro level concerns university policies and the ability to create a supranational space involving research, teaching, and the third mission; the meso level affects the actual programs that the universities build to develop the transnational level in concrete terms, such as Erasmus; the micro level relates to specific study courses and hence people, students, professors, and administrative staff to create personal but also local, regional, and national knowledge.

However, at the heart of national and local university policies that affect, through good practices, the virtuous behaviour of students and professors, there has been a radical economic change that has accelerated and modified study paths and the way people follow them. In the beginning, the university as an institution was born as a universal institution, as a global place of research and of the highest knowledge, as will be discussed later. The Italian Universities of the High Middle Ages were born open to the world, to a borderless territory. The research itself had no affiliation, and the top scholars passed from one court to the other, crossing borders before nation states were even born. Today, the international dimension has become a necessary imperative if we want to support the future, develop new professions, expand the sense of democracy, and guide human well-being. If we really want to work for the growth of countries, if we want to cut down on cultural

and linguistic barriers, if we want peace to be an achievable goal, then internationalisation will be accessible to the highest number of citizens in the world and synonymous with a better life for all. In a recent paper, Paolo Federighi (2014), with extreme clarity, emphasised how the relationship between material goods production, the global value chain, knowledge innovation, process and product transfer, and the improvement of human well-being conditions is related to the global context in which the whole world has found itself at least since the end of the twentieth century. It seems very important to stress the link between production and internationalisation and between internationalisation and globalisation, because without this connection, we will not understand the fundamental reasons for the strategic importance of internationalising higher education.

Concerning educational research, Federighi writes:

Globalisation processes take on a more pervasive dimension when, at the end of the last century, the strong decline in commodity costs and freight transport allows a different and more integrated organisation of production activities on global scale and, then, the globalisation of the value chain [...]. Production of the same product is subdivided according to the phases and the components between many countries and companies.

Consequently, they do not trade the products only, but the tasks, the functions that lead to their realisation. Organisations and people play a role in the Global Value Chain in reason of the tasks which they have acquired in the global comparison and know how to play better than others. It does not matter what a country exports, the production of that good is the result of the competition of various companies of different nationalities. Almost everything is “Made in the World” and little “Made in Italy”. What matters is the added value that every single enterprise (and hence each country) brings to the Global Value Chain and how it can work with other partners. The interdependence of national economies is increased and the competition is played on the ground of the competence of persons and organisations, on their ability to attract those that ensure the best performance. If a country or an undertaking are not capable of enhancing a person’s skills, it is the worker who must engage himself in growth and mobility paths. The activities which lead to the production of a product are dispersed in the world and create a global labour market in which circulate both immigrants and expatriates brought by their skills (the more efficient Italian companies of local transport have the management of the RATP, French). (Federighi, 2014, p. 31).

In fact, what applies to markets, products, and companies also applies to the educational and training processes that underlie the internationalisation policies which the world’s universities have looked at and which European universities in particular are looking at.

From the meso to the micro level is a short step. With this in mind, we want to propose a case study of a transnational character that has both micro and meso-effects, and therefore we think is suitable for some reflections on educational research.

Overview of the internationalisation process at the European level

As many authors point out, the impulse to internationalise higher education has its roots in the Middle Ages and the Renaissance period, when professors and students were ‘pilgrims or travellers (*peregrini*) of another kind also a familiar sight of the roads of Europe. [...] Their pilgrimage (*peregrination*) was not to Christ’s or a saint’s tomb, but to a university city where they hoped to find learning, friends, and leisure.’ (de Ridder-Symoens, 1992, p. 280)

This description emphasises many of the points that are still brought forth today to promote mobility: the broadening of experience and research, new ideas, the search of a common language, new networks, and collaborations. Because nations did not exist at the time as we now consider them, we can talk about a ‘medieval European space’ (Neave, 1997, p. 6) characterised by some basic and common principles.

The use of Latin as a common language, and of a uniform program of study and system of examinations, enabled itinerant students to continue their studies in one ‘stadium’ after another, and ensured recognition of their degrees throughout Christendom. Besides their academic knowledge they took home with them a host of new experiences, opinions, and political principles and views. (de Ridder-Symoens, 1992, pp. 302–303)

It is not by chance that the European Commission named its most famous mobility program after the philosopher Erasmus, who was a medieval pilgrim.

Indeed, the process of the internationalisation of higher education is not new in the global scenario. After its initial phase, it emerged as a process and strategy in the 1950s when ‘the international dimension of higher education began to move from the incidental and individual into organised activities, projects and programs, based on political reasons and driven more by national governments than by higher education itself’ (de Wit & Merckx, 2012, pp. 52–53). Later, it dramatically expanded in the 1980s and 1990s thanks to the educational policies and initiatives that pushed in this direction, especially the Erasmus and Research Framework programmes funded by the European Commission, which aimed to develop a common and diffused European identity.

The process of the internationalisation of higher education can be interpreted in many ways (Yang, 2002; Deardorff, De Wit, Heyl, & Adams, 2012; De Haan, 2014), as experts in the field of internationalisation have identified numerous different definitions and nuances. For example, it can overlap with the process of globalisation because the difference between the two concepts ‘cannot be regarded as categorical. They overlap and are intertwined in all kinds of ways’ (Scott, 2005, p. 14). The definitions proposed in this work are in line with De Wit and

Hunter (p. 343) and Knight (2008), who see globalisation as ‘a social, economic and political process to which higher education responds and in which it is also an actor. Internationalisation is the way in which higher education responds and acts.’ (De Wit & Hunter, p. 343)

According to Jane Knight’s definition, globalisation is

the process that increases the flow of people, culture, ideas, values, knowledge, technology, and economy across borders, resulting in a more interconnected and interdependent world [...] Education is one of the sectors impacted by globalisation. (Knight, 2008, pp. x–xi)

Internationalisation, by contrast, is

the intentional process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions and delivery of post-secondary education, in order to enhance the quality of education and research for all students and staff, and to make a meaningful contribution to society. (Knight, 2008, p. 21)

This latter definition can be called a working definition, since it gives the higher education system some input intentionally on how to properly implement internationalisation.

Knight’s definition is based on four main concepts and terms carefully chosen:

- 1) ‘Process’: Internationalisation is seen as a continuous effort. The concept of ‘process’ refers to a tri-partite model of education made up of input, process, and output – terms that are intentionally not used in the definition to maintain a flexible and general approach that can be adapted to any country, institution, or stakeholders, without reflecting any particular priority or viewpoint.
- 2) ‘International, intercultural, and global dimension’: These terms are intentionally used as a triad, where ‘international’ refers to the relationship between and among nations, cultures, or countries; ‘intercultural’ refers to the diversity of cultures that exists within countries, communities, and institutions (i.e. at home); ‘global’ refers to a worldwide scope.
- 3) ‘Integrating’: The term refers to the will of embedding the international and intercultural dimension into policies and programmes.
- 4) ‘Purpose, function, and delivery’: These terms are intentionally used as a triad, where ‘purpose’ refers to the mission or mandate of a single institution; ‘function’ refers to the tasks of a national postsecondary education system; ‘delivery’ refers to education courses and programmes offered domestically or in other countries by higher education institutions or by companies. (Knight, 2004, pp. 11–12)

Indeed, the definition focuses not only on mobility but on the integration of education and research at a global level. The ideal tools can be seen in curricula, mobility, and learning outcomes that, intertwined, can help to link the concept of formation to the development of the human being and society. Internationalisation is not a goal in itself but a means to the development of the human being.

The internationalisation of higher education is a central strategy for the formation and the construction of a global scientific community. The steps that can lead to that goal can be identified as (1) construction of international links for cooperation among European institutions; (2) modification of higher education curricula in order to reach a common educational path for the formation of future professionals; (3) activation of common study paths.

Internationalisation processes are based on two main pillars: internationalisation at home and abroad.

The term 'Internationalisation at Home' (IaH) was published for the first time by Bengt Nilsson (1999), who tried to find an answer to the fact that even though ten years had passed since the introduction of the ERASMUS programme, only 10 per cent of students went to study abroad. He did not identify Internationalisation at Home as a didactical concept but rather as an instrument, created on didactical concepts and comparative methodology,

to give greater prominence to campus-based elements such as the intercultural and international dimension in the teaching learning process, research, extra-curricular activities, relationships with local cultural and ethnic community groups, as well as the integration of foreign students and scholars into campus life and activities (Knight, 2008a, p. 19).

In other words, in his vision, Internationalisation at Home could guarantee staff and professors an ad-hoc training, and the mobile minority an education that could embrace an international dimension, a better understanding of people from different countries and cultures, and respect for society-at-large as a multicultural context in order to introduce to the curriculum an embedded intercultural education that could increase students' interest for experiences abroad.

Internationalisation at Home could guarantee the mobile minority an education that could embrace international curricula and programmes/activities, teaching and learning processes based on international elements or persons, ad-hoc faculty education, internationally related extracurricular activities, and a connection with the various aspects of society.

Internationalisation at Home was later defined as 'any internationally related activity with the exception of outbound student and staff mobility' (Wächter, 2000, p. 5) and as

a system of international education [that] offers the possibility of finding a new way in which higher education mainstreams the international dimension in all segments of the universities, reforms the curriculum, mobilises community resources, institutionalises international education and focuses on relevance to the global job market (Mestenhauer, 2006, p. 70).

Both definitions identify Internationalisation at Home as a matter for the individual higher education institution that, while preparing students to study abroad, can enhance the quality of students’ learning experience in a very flexible way.

‘Internationalisation abroad’, by contrast, refers to exchange mobility programmes that may involve students, staff, and professors in the medium and long term at a partner university linked via scientific and/or cultural agreements to the home university.

The strategies for internationalisation

The strategies for the internationalisation of European universities have developed in recent decades as a result of the need to integrate the international dimension into the policies and strategies that lie behind curriculum development. Knight (2004, pp. 14–15) summarised them in four programme strategies (categories defined in the table below).

Table 1: Programme strategies for internationalisation (based on Knight, 2004, pp. 14–15)

Programme strategies/ categories	Examples
1) Academic programmes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • student exchange programmes • foreign language study • internationalised curricula • work/study abroad (e.g. internships) • international students (e.g. presence on campus) • <i>joint/double degree programmes</i> • study programmes in languages of international circulation • cross-cultural/intercultural training programmes (e.g. orientation for foreign students, etc.) • faculty/staff mobility programmes • guest lectures and visiting scholars (fellowships) • link between academic programmes and other strategies

<i>Programme strategies/ categories</i>	<i>Examples</i>
2) Research and scholarly collaboration (e.g. activities and common research projects)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Area and theme centres • Joint research projects • International conferences and seminars • Published articles and papers • International research agreements (e.g. PhD in cotutelle) • Research exchange programmes (e.g. with universities and companies)
3) External collaboration: domestic and cross-border (e.g. international relations)	<p><u>Domestic</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Community-based partnerships with non-governmental organisation groups or public/private sector groups (e.g. NGOs) • Community service and intercultural project work <p><u>Cross-border</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • International development assistance projects (e.g. strategic partnerships with universities abroad) • Cross-border delivery of education programmes (commercial and non-commercial) (e.g. joint teaching activities in winter and summer schools, distance courses, development of campuses abroad) • International linkages, partnerships, and networks (e.g. membership and active participation in international academic consortia and associations) • Alumni abroad programmes
4) Extracurricular activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • student clubs and associations • international and intercultural campus events • liaison with community-based cultural and ethnic groups • peer support groups and programmes (e.g. international summer schools)

The first category, 'academic programmes', is the easiest to understand and the one that has received most attention, especially when thinking about the Bologna Process and the convergence towards the creation of a European Higher Education Area. It is linked to the creation of cultural and exchange programmes, double and joint modules, double and joint degrees, and the like.

The second category, 'research and scholarly collaboration', refers to international academic research, its methodology, channels (international partnerships, agreements), and tools (conferences, seminars, workshops).

The third category, 'external collaboration', is linked to an institution's international relations, collaborations that can be developed in house and across borders with foreign universities and other international organisations, possibly resulting in joint projects, winter and summer schools, online courses, and the like.

'Extracurricular activities' are complementary to the scope of internationalisation and support students in the concretisation of a full and satisfying international experience at home and abroad (Agoston & Dima, 2012, p. 52).

The aforementioned categories are examples and not exhaustive of the process and tools for curriculum internationalisation. Indeed, if we refer to Schuller and Vincent-Lancrin (2009), we can identify other internationalisation categories, recently adopted by the OECD, which are: internationalisation (1) among people (students and university personnel), (2) among higher education institutions, and (3) by programmes and projects.

In conclusion, it is important to point out that there are no clear indications on how to internationalise the curriculum; there is not one way that fits all universities, although most universities are aware that international experience can foster the development of specific international competences requested and acknowledged in the labour market and required for the long-term employability of graduates (PRIN EMP&Co. project).

The COMPALL project: How to foster internationalisation at a global level

Internationalisation, abroad or at home, is becoming an essential part of higher education. Academic partnerships at the global and European level are essential to reach this goal, which is in line with the European Commission's strategy 'European Higher Education in the World'.

The activities that can be developed within partnerships are manifold and may include mobility exchanges, research cooperation, the development of common curricula, joint or double degrees, international projects, and all the other activities indicated in Table 1.

Indeed, as indicated by European legislation, universities can work together in the development of special degrees, such as double and joint degrees. The process is facilitated if universities share a strong tradition of cooperation, because such a background can strengthen the mutual interest in signing an agreement for the definition and activation of a common educational path.

Double degrees should follow some simple and basic rules:

- Double degrees should be developed on the basis of strong international collaborative links and of a common will to develop a study programme shared between two higher education institutions from different countries.
- A double degree corresponds to two qualifications issued by the two institutions offering the shared study programme.
- The double degree is a tool for encouraging the effective implementation of the Bologna Process at all levels (institutional, political, strategic, individual), strengthening international, inter-institutional cooperation and innovation in curriculum development and research.
- Double degrees must receive legal recognition in all European member states, as mandated by the Bologna Process.

The Winter School in ‘Comparative Studies in Adult and Lifelong Learning’ (COMPALL) goes in this direction. It takes place every year at Julius Maximilian University of Würzburg as part of its internationalisation strategy and that of the universities of Lisbon (Portugal), Padua (Italy), Florence (Italy), Pécs (Hungary), Aarhus (Denmark), and Helmut Schmidt University (Germany), all members of the COMPALL strategic partnership.

All the above-mentioned universities offer master’s degrees and PhD programmes in adult and lifelong learning. The Winter School is part of these study programmes.

At the same time, the Winter School is supported by some important associate partners, which collaborate in the study programme¹.

From a didactical point of view, the winter school can be seen as a joint module organised in two different phases:

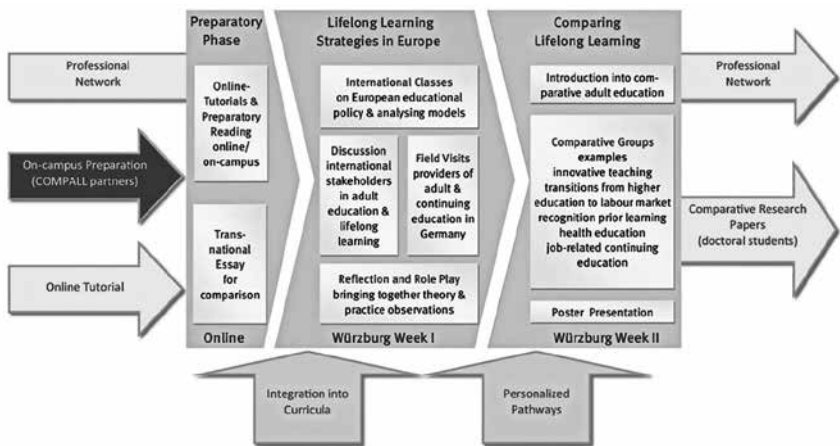
- 1) a first preparatory phase organised as an online and/or on-campus preparation guided by partner universities, supported by specific materials (online tutorials), and aimed at the composition of a transnational paper to be discussed in the second phase;
- 2) a two-week intensive phase at the Würzburg campus in Germany, during which, based on the transnational papers written by participants, international policies in adult and lifelong learning are discussed, field visits to adult and continuing education providers are arranged, and comparisons between selected issues in the field of adult and lifelong learning are made. The comparisons

1 The associate partners are: Universidade do Minho (Portugal), University of Delhi (India), Jawaharlal Nehru University (India), International Institute of Adult & Lifelong Education, New Delhi (India), Pädagogische Hochschule Ludwigsburg (Germany), Obafemi Awolowo University (Nigeria).

are organised in two main parts. The first part focuses on theories and approaches to European and international lifelong learning strategies, directly by key European stakeholders in lifelong learning (e.g. EAEA, Cedefop, etc.). The second part focuses on small work groups comparing specific aspects of adult education (e.g. professionalisation, policies and practices for the development of young adults' employability, etc.).

The COMPALL partners have included the joint module in their own study programmes. In particular, the University of Florence and Julius Maximilian University of Würzburg worked towards the construction of a Double Degree in Adult Education as an extended version of the joint module, or as the natural extension of exchange and mobility programmes.

Figure 1: Structure of the International Winter School



Source: https://www.hw.uni-wuerzburg.de/compall/joint_module/ (07/2017)

In other words, starting from the principles that guide the COMPALL joint module – integration into the curricula and personalised pathways – they developed a degree programme designed and delivered by both of them based on an agreed international curriculum that includes a mandatory mobility experience for all students in their third semester as well as classes, workshops, seminars taught in English in both countries, and the like. At the end of the programme, and after its completion, students receive two individual qualifications (one from each partner university) having the same value (Knight, 2008b).

The action of the two universities was based on three main components: 1. community of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991), 2. curriculum, 3. strategies and procedures, tools that help professors to connect to the curriculum internationalisation activity and to focus it on embedding internationalised inputs and learning outcomes in the study program.

For a conclusion, but not in conclusion

As we pointed out at the beginning of the essay, the problem of internationalisation interferes with higher education policies far beyond what one can think of. And it is not only a matter of changing the language of instruction or adopting texts in a community language, it is not even a question of implementing the good practice of the ERASMUS, which was, in reality, the model of internationalisation at European universities.

It is, once again, important to understand that:

[t]he Global Value Chain entails a growing mobility of tasks between companies and people – especially of talents – within supranational labour markets. Policies and systems must acquire a growing openness to the global dimension of training, in all their joints. Globalisation affects all professional figures. From early childhood, the growth of interdependence on a global scale requires young people to live and grow in a world that asks them to adapt to new cultures and traditions and to manage all kinds of diversity. (Federighi, 2014, p. 32)

In the words above lies the real and profound reason for the importance of internationalisation. The COMPALL project has been the interpreter of this emergency and of this need. For almost five years, dozens of students have come together for a few weeks to study the themes of lifelong learning, adult and learning education topics in a myriad of English language descriptions, trying in a handful of days to share a project and ideas. This is a great challenge addressed through a multiplicity of small but no less important victories.

The Winter School project, which is part of the COMPALL project, is a good practice case for the internationalisation of adult and continuing education and lifelong learning because it 1) welcomes students from around the world, not only from Europe but also from India, Korea, Russia, the United States; 2) creates a space for dialogue and sharing ideas on topics, problems, and research of common interest; 3) allows for using English as the common language for exchange and communication; 4) builds bridges of theoretical and practical knowledge; 5) supports the development of communicative skills; 6) involves the activation of flexibility and problem solving; 7) fosters an entrepreneurial mind-set in each

participant; 8) opens up new horizons of different knowledge shared with each other; 9) implements innovative research methodologies; 10) broadens the outlook on adult and learning education.

Another benefit already mentioned, aside from the extensive but profoundly diverse construction and communication relationship, is about comparing research methodologies, behaviours, ways of being, and approaches to the study. There is nothing more gratifying than knowing how to build new communications. Indeed, we can really invoke the strength of the relationship, overcoming barriers, both spatial and linguistic.

Indeed, internationalisation is a problem for men and women who decide to come together to face the thorny theme of human understanding and the ethics of behaviour. If we do not look at the problem from this point of view, we will not be able to cope with the scope of education and training actions that will change our world of human beings into a world of automation and robots. Tomorrow is already among us, and we must act as citizens of the world, of time, and of space.

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Balázs Németh

International Adult Learning and Education: Trends reflected through Collaborative Actions of Higher Education in Research Programmes and Development Initiatives – an Evolutionary Scope

Abstract: This paper will provide a short overview of milestone efforts of higher education institutions to open up to the development of modern adult education. The paper will focus on the internationalisation of adult education and its influence on higher education to enhance research and development collaborations for professionalisation.

Short introduction

In an age of instability and a weakening impact of values and discipline, higher education has an enormously difficult role in the development of adult learning and education. Moreover, it has to make use of the potential of international academic collaborations. But this role is still surrounded by lots of challenges and demands. This paper will address some of those demands and challenges in the scope of adult and lifelong learning (Kálmán, 2016). One general issue for higher education institutions in this respect is how to balance the promotion of quality academic work of education and research and the growing demand for social engagement by higher education in association with local and regional stakeholders to promote and enhance adult and lifelong learning. This paper will analyse the impacts and roles of particular phases of modern adult education and, also, the changing missions of higher education in its development.

Why did adult education become important for higher education in its international dimensions? The early modern period (1870s–1920s)

Adult education first became an important issue for higher education institutions in the second half of the nineteenth century, when some leading universities in Britain and Germany formed academically led associations for urban communities in order to introduce higher-level lectures and related dialogues focusing on skills development for citizens facing emerging social and economic challenges.

This particular historical era reflected the growing roles of higher education in making modern nations and communities by extending the provision of education to groups of adults previously excluded from formal systems of education. That emerging wave of popular adult education reached the universities and, more particularly, university professors and lecturers, who played a significant role in effective knowledge-transfer, economic and social modernisation and, consequently, community development (Steele, 2007).

However, one must recognise that the impacts of internationalisation and transnational collaborations, as well as cross-border adult education movements, moved predominantly those kinds of institutions and organisations that were not rigidly tied up to national contexts and environments. Religious communities, labour movements, and bourgeois formations initiated a great variety of adult education offerings, both formal and non-formal. They moved across borders in case the learner and community development focus was strongly represented in their values and aspiration, enabling change and development by preparations for the new needs of traditional and new adult learners (Pöggeler, 1996).

The rise and fall of adult education organisations, movements, and institutions teaches us about the challenges of an ever-changing picture in which the preservation of some particularly solid values and principles towards humanism was affected by having to recognise cross-sectoral, cross-cultural and, accordingly, inter-regional and international influences in order to survive.

The survival of adult education meant and still means having to adapt to the needs and demands of people living in a local or regional environment. On the other hand, we should not forget that despite the many attempts in the promotion of adult education, it could not prevent nationalism and political extremes: fascism, Nazism and communist internationalism. The rise of liberal, democratic, and welfare-oriented societies was soon pushed aside after World War I, yet it took a decade for antidemocratic forces to take power on the continent.

The birth of modern adult education in international contexts (1918–1938)

British university extension and the German Urania movement clearly built on the principle of extramural knowledge transfer led by academic groups and profoundly helped establish a relatively solid ground for quality improvement in adult education – improvements that were channelled into academic discourses and reflections in the first half of the twentieth century. In the context of education and modern educational science, the teaching and learning of adults became the

focus of a growing number of researches. Relevant approaches were supported by the results and challenging factors of modern psychology and those of sociology.

The new understanding of adult education was represented, amongst other distinguished scholars, by Lindeman (1926, 1991), Thorndike (1928), and Rosenthal (1926). This indicated the impact of academic cycles engaged in the development of education and growing research activities in educational science using an interdisciplinary approach. The 1920s and early 1930s enabled universities mostly in Western and Northern Europe, but also in some countries of Central and Central-East Europe, to step forward in adult education-related research and innovative actions. Those regions in Europe were strongly influenced by modern scientific thinking, and innovative dimensions in the social sciences were clearly reflected in these regions' opening up to a liberal mind-set, collaborative social constructions, and critical thinking. These impacts were collectively channelled into the first aspiration in Britain and the Commonwealth to establish and develop adult education through the Commonwealth Association in Education and Training of Adults (CAETA) in the second half of the 1920s across nations in that community (Duke, 1996).

Efforts in this period to educate and train professional adult educators were relatively isolated and embryonic because academic recognition of adult education as a profession and as a scientific field was at a rather early stage. However, university-based research activities emerged throughout the 1920s and 1930s in Chicago and New York, soon leading to contacts with some universities in the UK, including Oxford, Glasgow, London, and Manchester. Another influential wave was the integration of liberal adult education into the academic missions of higher education institutions in Scandinavia, such as the cities of Lund, Stockholm, Copenhagen, Turku, and Helsinki. The Scandinavian road of integrating practice with scientific research and development work enabled universities to effectively open up to new dimensions of educational science in order to raise the professionalisation and quality skills development of educators providing planning and achievements in organised adult education (Toiviainen, 1998).

A special trend in developing the professional skills of adult educators was the quality improvement of social work and community development in order to address the needs of masses of people having difficulties in their lives because of migration and immigration, marginalisation, job loss, or broken families because of the negative impacts of World War I. The sector of social work grew rather quickly, reaching a point when national policies on social work organisations employing trained staff were needed. These efforts were also blocked both by emerging political extremism in continental Europe and by the esca-

lation of World War II. It did not take too long until social work orientations were embedded in the foundation and rise of andragogy, understood as social work, especially in Dutch adult education – for instance at the University of Amsterdam through the valuable efforts and scientific work of Professor Ten Have and the establishment of the Department of Social Work (van Gent, 1996). The Dutch, later ‘BeNeLux’ orientations signalled a strong influence of some academic groups to underline the importance of interdisciplinary approaches to theorizing the teaching and learning of adults with regard to socially marginalised groups, connecting this issue with emerging questions of social and economic developments and stability.

Another dimension in the development of adult education by higher education institutions was the systemic development of extramural activities to raise the knowledge and skills of the masses of people who, right after World War I, had to understand the complexity of the economy, society and, especially, the changing nature and contents of labour, vocations, and employment. In the Western world, many universities turned towards combining their traditional educational and research efforts with new focuses, such as special training programmes, public campaigns for democracy, and an understanding of welfare. But such activities were made difficult by challenging social, political, and economic times throughout the 1930s. The realities of that era did not support the spreading of those open, liberal approaches.

The rebirth and short-lived phase of the welfare state and its impact on modern adult education: New roles for higher education (1945–1975)

Nearly the whole world changed after the end of World War II. In many countries, this period generally meant the rebirth of democracy, humanism, and survival to rebuild countries and to reorganise nations, cities, localities, and families.

Adult education was slowly but surely integrated into national educational programmes. It is also well known that formal education institutions – namely, schools for adults – were established and re-established from the primary to the secondary level in order to realise a concrete second-chance form of education for those formerly excluded or those having left schools before completing their studies. Universities also had to start supporting this wave of modern adult education, a fact that was strongly emphasised by the new or reborn welfare-state and its various formations in Western and Northern or in Central and Central-Eastern Europe, regardless of political orientations. The shared approach to adult education, contrary to Nazi and fascist regimes, was to open up public, higher, and adult

education to masses of people. This welfare perspective became a common ground for democratic development in education, although it is also a fact that communist regimes soon moved away from this mutual platform by excluding learners from the abovementioned educational sectors by sex, social status, family background, and so on. Internal phases of this period clearly show that the emergence of the bipolar world made it rather difficult to insist on a common international ground. However, UNESCO was an exceptional body to make members of the international community step forward in the development of adult education. Countries in the Soviet bloc had to take a separate route in welfare orientations and lost most constitutive elements of democracy (Németh, 2013).

It was UNESCO that established an international platform through CONFINTEA in 1949 to indicate the importance of development in adult education and, moreover, to show a direction for adult educators fighting global illiteracy amongst adults. In the following quarter of a century, most countries in Europe, North America, and Japan could achieve relative success in the development of adult education, while the need for professional development and for the implementation of modern information and communication technologies accelerated the involvement of higher education to provide necessary responses to those challenges occurring in and around adult education to reduce illiteracies and to continue modernising adult education with effective theoretical, methodological, and practical innovations (Pöggeler, 1996).

Higher education institutions started to strengthen their activities in the development of adult education by the following dimensions:

- opening new grounds for academic discourse and theoretical modelling by founding new departments and institutes to research the teaching and learning of adults;
- initiating interdisciplinary research actions to investigate the changing nature of adult education and adult education practices;
- responding to governmental calls to develop the skills and methods of adult educators engaged in the development of schools, programmes, and other identical community activities for adult learners;
- participating in collaborative actions to extend the provision of adult education through extramural courses in regular and irregular forms of education and training;
- initiating local and regional events to collect and share valuable knowledge in the community.

This period, however, was also constrained by the limits of a nation-state focus and its impacts on the realisation of international recommendations and declarations.

UNESCO's first real 'break-through' conference in adult education was in Montreal in 1960, where CONFINTEA II indicated a significant step forward towards systemic developments in adult education. There was a clear commitment amongst UNESCO member states that they should have a responsibility and a key role in the achievements of CONFINTEA goals and aspirations (UNESCO, 1960; Németh, 2015).

It is also obvious that the first internationally driven analytical work to investigate education, involving several university partners, was launched in the second half of the 1960s in order to understand post-work education and its relation to time (Ottesen & Eide, 1969).

Likewise, UNESCO invited some distinguished researchers and developers from several universities to work on its literacy campaigns and thematic conferences in and after 1965. This era was rather challenging because of many regional conflicts, wars, and tensions, which lead to more difficulties and obstacles. But the biggest obstacle for adult learners to overcome was the economic crisis of 1973, which put welfare programmes and reforms in education on hold and re-oriented adult education and the roles of higher education directly towards new methodologies, towards non-formal and informal directions, resulting in less attention being paid to school-based adult education. In the Federal Republic of Germany, this period was reflected in the introduction of more laws in adult education and structural planning to move adult education closer to non-formal grounds, calling for training programmes based on labour market needs (Nuissl, 2000).

Still in 1972, UNESCO directly geared up the role of higher education in the development of adult education and through its CONFINTEA III declaration at its Tokyo world conference. (UNESCO, 1972). The declaration gave a clear signal that adult education needs the professional input of universities in order to reach a better performance in learning through quality education. Unfortunately, most governments of Western democracies thought that they should move most of their development funds from education to training programmes because of the impacts of the economic crisis and because of obvious technological changes affecting industries, agriculture, and the service sector, too.

The appearance of the OECD in the world of adult education also indicated a shift in the traditional roles of adult education at the beginning of the 1970s. UNESCO's famous Faure Report (Faure-UNESCO, 1972) and the mind-boggling papers of Lengrand and Husén about understanding lifelong education were very influential (Lengrand, 1972; Husén, 1974) in their educational dimensions, reflecting the fact that a new era would have to start. But higher education institutions also indicated that many of them had come into a crisis period and were

looking for new dimensions in their educational and research focuses. It is not at all a surprise that the Faure Report demonstrated how much the language and the topics of policy may influence educational thinking and the way the problems of the sector are understood.

It is one of the key arguments in this paper that it was the crisis period of the early 1970s that made the sector of education, and higher education as part of that sector, respond to new needs of society and the economy by designing new and complex majors in order to educate and train professionals as adult educators, trainers, and mentors helping adults to achieve quality adult learning in challenging learning situations.

Another factor that accelerated professionalisation in adult education was the emergence of critical thinking, which considered the problems of education a result of overestimated beliefs in institutional constructions, the loss of learner-centred approaches and, as a rewind perspective, the devaluation of humanistic principles. We should recognise that the critical voices of Illich, Freire, and later of the Club of Rome (Illich, 1973; Freire, 1970; Club of Rome, 1979) resembled the rejection of over-institutionalised ways of education. The Club of Rome and its learning-centred paper, contrary to programmes, systems and policies, critically signalled unlimited perspectives for learning to open new directions for educational and brain research with a need to rethink the human dimensions and the benefits of education and learning.

Researchers dealing with this period also note that the European Economic Community, established in 1957 by the Treaty of Rome, turned its attention towards education and training and, accordingly, established its Council of Education as part of its Council of Ministers in order to respond to challenges brought on by the crisis. The Council started its activities in 1973 and opened some new routes for European training programmes, such as PETRA and FORCE in 1976, and later initiated collaborative actions amongst the member states of that time. With the participation of Denmark, Ireland, and the UK, several programmes started to fight unemployment, social exclusion, and poverty, and began to raise participation and performance in learning.

This particular political dimension of European integration helped trigger concrete transnational research and development programmes in adult education involving the participation and commitment of some distinguished universities across Europe in comparative studies. One such partnership for developing adult education research was a collaborative action initiated by Franz Pöggeler from Aachen Hochschule and Walter Leirman from the Catholic University of Leuven. They were joined by several other distinguished colleagues from universi-

ties across Germany, the Netherlands, Austria, Switzerland, Belgium, the United Kingdom, Denmark, Sweden, Finland, and Italy. This kind of collaboration helped improve and advance interdisciplinary studies and discourses on both theoretical and methodological problems in adult education and curriculum development.

The term 'andragogy' was also revisited and reconfigured for several reasons. But terminology issues mostly reflected a clear but stormy shift from traditional school-based adult education towards non-formal and informal, more concretely, a rather vocationally oriented and training-centred focus, which started to dominate the international discourse in and after 1973. This was plainly reflected in the development of adult education laws, institutional changes, and post-1973 regulations in most Western and Northern European countries, from France to Finland and from Austria to Ireland.

In the Soviet bloc countries, adult education was still tied to state monopolies and hegemony. However, some countries, including Poland, Hungary, and the non-aligned county of Yugoslavia, allowed higher education institutions to develop research and professionalisation in adult education under the term of andragogy in the late 1960s and early 1970s (Sewczuk, 1964; Durkó, 1968; Savicevic, 1985) This umbrella term had to unite approaches to adult teaching and learning either on a formal, non-formal, or informal basis. In those communist countries, universities, although under strict state control, enjoyed relative autonomy in promoting general adult education and vocational education and training for adults, together with cultural and community developments. The theory and practice of adult education was influenced by major international trends in the second half of the 1970s and throughout the 1980s, when communist rule obviously underwent radical changes.

From Nairobi to Hamburg: Major steps of internationalisation in adult and lifelong learning through the involvement of universities (1976–1997)

This period of adult learning and education was greatly influenced by the 1976 UNESCO Recommendation on Adult Education, issued when UNESCO held a special session in Nairobi, Kenya, to demonstrate the need for concentrated action both in terms of fighting illiteracy and in terms of further developing adult education programmes for special groups in adult learning who were marginalised by economic changes, political upheavals, civil wars, or simply conflicts in the regions, local communities, or settlements where they lived (UNESCO, 1976).

This recommendation highlighted the roles of higher education institutions in the professional development and institutional modernisation of adult education

with an emphasis on research activities to be conducted by universities and other higher education institutions (UNESCO, 1976). At the same UNESCO meeting, the International Council for Adult Education (ICAE) was established and became a flagship non-governmental organisation to coordinate intercontinental actions of aid and development work, together with professional developments in adult education from the developed West and North, geared especially towards the underdeveloped South and East in global perspectives (ICAE described by Németh, 2017).

The UNESCO Recommendation of 1976 and the 'No Limits to Learning' paper of the Club of Rome increased nation-state attention to the development of adult education and training. In Europe, welfare services were formally extended, but the VET focus and labour market demands successfully dominated policy discourses, in which the OECD became a key player, shaping the actions related to education and training in the European Economic Community. Yet the European Community created a balanced set of programmes for partnership-based developments amongst national educational systems. The Socrates, Lingua, Comenius, and Tempus programmes were launched in 1987 to promote collaboration between member states and associate members to enhance the compatibility of national systems of education and training with the aim of developing exchanges and mobility among European citizens.

On the other hand, we have to recognise the influence of the special climate of that era, namely, that academic people were still had the power and influence to move adult education research and development focuses towards becoming an integral part of educational and training policy discourses. European and international conferences referred to opening access and opportunities to both traditional and new groups of adult learners and, likewise, to strengthening their social positions through the right to learning. The 1985 UNESCO CONFINTEA IV helped some engaged nations and NGOs to fight for expanding participation in education and learning. The Paris Declaration insisted on the role of universities in leading research and development work in adult education and kept the problem of special groups at the forefront of adult education debates (UNESCO, 1985).

This was a very special period, since nearly all milestone actions happened in Europe, and Europe did make use of this advantageous situation in order to get adult education integrated into educational and training policy planning and programmes. That particular process was formulated by advanced leaders of UNESCO and its Institute for Education (UIE), OECD CERI (Centre for Educational Research and Innovation – both headquartered in Paris), the European Commission (led by Jacques Delors for two terms of office), and the leadership of EAEA

(European Association for the Education of Adults). Many leading figures of those organisations, especially professional experts working with those organisations, had enough significant academic expertise in research and development practice to be aware of the realities of adult education in different parts of Europe and in different regions of the world.

The European Commission represented not only the educational orientation but also a strong belief in the positive social and economic benefits and rewards of education, especially in the making of a new Europe – a Union to unite Europe to become strong and competitive in a globalised world.

The global context has not only enabled but also forced us to recognise that today we are not talking simply about adult education – we are talking today about adult learning and education. This – a more inclusive way of understanding the collection and sharing of knowledge and skills – makes us reflect on the importance that universities and academic researchers and educators have in raising professional levels and research standards in adult learning and education.

Although the emergence of lifelong learning started with the founding approach of the OECD in 1973 (OECD, 1973), an overall policy perspective was established by the European Union when it chose lifelong learning in 1995 to indicate that lifelong learning should be put into the focus of debate around how to make European citizens engage in learning throughout their lives in order to develop their communities in peace and prosperity (EC, 1995). This orientation was first established legally in the Maastricht Treaty and its focus on quality, accessible, and partnership-based education and training across Europe (European Council, 1992), and secondly in the White Paper on Education to indicate how Europe could become a learning society (EC, 1995).

At the same time, the European Association of the Education of Adults (EAEA) and its leadership, comprised of some distinguished academic personalities, including Federighi and Carlsen, was pressured by academic groups and universities to raise the quality of professionally managed adult education and to provide collaborative actions amongst civil society groups in adult education and at the universities.

By this time, several university-oriented groups were actively engaged in the promotion of research and training programmes to promote adult education-related professional developments and, at the same time, to increase research in adult education. To provide some examples, let us mention that the efforts of Pöggeler and his involvement in the research on the history of adult education with a group of distinguished scholars (e.g. Zdarzill, Siebert, de Keyser, Leirman, and later Jarvis, Fieldhouse, van Gent, Reischmann, Jug, and Friedenthal-Haase)

were very influential through the Peter Lang series in *Andragogy*, *Pedagogy*, and *Gerontology*. The Dutch-British-German research partnership was also strong through academically driven themes represented by Hake, Steele, Marriott, Titmus, and Taylor, who produced the so-called cross-cultural studies in the education of adults in the 1980s and early 1990s (Leeds Studies in Continuing Education).

Likewise, Belgian, German, and Austrian universities became strongly involved in developing a curriculum for the education and training of adult educators. Moreover, the rise of this focus could be observed at some influential universities in the UK, Sweden, and Finland, across universities in Estonia and Lithuania but also in Poland, the Czech Republic, Hungary, and in the former Yugoslavia, especially in Belgrade, Zagreb, and Ljubljana.

A new Central and Eastern European university partnership started to emerge between university-based researchers in adult education, which formed the basis for later generations to build on with the help of European funds and exchange programmes. In Central Europe, researchers such as Lenz, Gruber, Kips, Bezensek, Koltai, Medic, Sz. Tóth, Jelenc, Mohorcic-Spolar, and Krajnc, together with the support of DVV International, and Horn, Hinzen, Filla, and others influenced each other, and most of them were actively involved in the development of adult education studies at universities, action researches, and publications in their home countries. From the mid-1980s until 2014, another influential cycle of scientific discourse was the so-called 'Salzburg-talks' in adult education, in which several researchers and professionals with a university background could reflect on their activities in the development of adult education in transnational, national, regional, or local contexts.

National institutes of adult education have also been rather influential in the representation of research and development projects in association with universities in their own national contexts and beyond. NIACE in the UK, DIE in Germany, SVEB in Switzerland, and SIAE in Slovenia initiated projects in research and development and, accordingly, involved many university-based scholars and researchers with both national and international backgrounds to investigate the theory and practice of adult learning and education.

The Institute for International Cooperation of the German Adult Education Association (IIZ-DVV, later DVV International) played a key role in professionalising the field of adult education and, from the early 1990s onwards, helped to develop partnerships with countries in need of modernising their adult education provision and services. In that context, it helped partnerships to emerge not only with adult education providers but also with universities researching adult educa-

tion and developing professionalisation in national contexts. Examples of those efforts are described in the organisation's publications (DVV International – IPE and AED series).

UNESCO's famous Delors Report from 1996 and CONFINTEA V. in Hamburg in 1997 resulted in preparations for a new era with a special focus on learning and the adult learner (Delors-UNESCO 1996 and UNESCO, 1997). The Hamburg Declaration and the Agenda for the Future reflected the special role of higher education in the development of quality adult learning and education. The roles of universities were again tied to both lifelong learning and, especially, to adult learning and education. In this respect, university-based lifelong learning started to mean that universities had to move forward towards a new dimension of education involving a more profound use of ICT, already called for by Arnold in 1991, and towards improving the social dimensions of higher education, for example, in the context of third-age learning and in the area of community and citizenship development.

This latter aspect became rather influential in Belgian adult education research through the input of Wildemeersch, Baert and their BeNeLux research community, which started researching active citizenship, identity, and governance. Those orientations were channelled into some key European surveys on education and training in governance and active citizenship (Wildemeersch & Bron, 2005; Baert, 2003; ETGACE, 2003 and RE-ETGACE, 2006 projects).

This kind of collaboration was also active and became much wider in ESREA, the European research society dealing with adult education and its professional development. In the following period, it facilitated university-led discourses on relevant research topics of the network through conferences, projects, and publications (ESREA website).

Towards professionalisation in adult education: Universities working for quality adult educators in a European project environment (1997–2017)

The newly formed European development programmes in education, Erasmus in higher education, and Grundtvig in adult education enabled some distinguished universities to participate in several research and development projects in order to develop common European curricula for adult education at both the BA and MA levels.

There were two EU-funded programmes to develop university curricula for the education of adult learning professionals: one in Erasmus, focusing on a European Masters in Adult Education (EMAE), and another in Grundtvig to develop both

a BA and an MA curriculum for studying adult education (EMAE – Pätzold & Bruns, 2006; TEACH, 2006). The aim of the European Commission was to form a purely university-based project and a project with mixed partners in order to look into the potential of innovation with regard to theory and practice. When the two projects came to an end, the idea was to merge the useful outcomes of both project into a later project.

It is necessary to mention the influence of specific comparative European surveys on adult learning and education in Europe that the European Commission ordered from Research voor Beleid about several topics, including the development of adult learning professionals (Research voor Beleid, 2006, 2008). There were also some distinguished university researchers who provided research know-how to provide an overall insight into the conditions and criteria of how to develop the profession of the adult educator with the help and input of higher education institutions with regard to the key competencies of adult educators.

We also have to point out that there have been some other types of innovation to develop non-academic training programmes for adult education providers and professionals. In this respect, the AGADE project's curriculum and the Curriculum GlobALE programme are significant. (AGADE, 2007; Curriculum GlobALE, 2016) Curriculum GlobALE (CG) is a cross-cultural core curriculum for the training of adult educators worldwide. It was developed jointly by the German Institute for Adult Education (DIE) and DVV International. In five modules, it describes the relevant skills needed to lead successful courses and provides guidance on their practical implementation (DVV International website).

The development of adult learning and education was rather ambitious after the year of 2000, and the so-called Lisbon goals clearly reflected those sometimes unrealistic dimensions of European integration. Although lifelong learning was connected to employment and citizenship development, adult learning and education were not given enough time and resources to get effectively integrated into education and training systems. Again, the rise of adult education slowed down relatively quickly when the financial and economic crisis hit Europe in 2008.

While the lifelong learning agenda accelerated significant research activities on specific dimensions of learning (e.g. basic skills, guidance, and counselling), human resources development, assessment and measuring, local and regional developments, ICT and e-learning, financing, quality measures, and the roles of higher education were also analysed to investigate the changing climate for learning, which was dramatically constrained by new social and economic challenges of migration, mobility, demography, and skills mismatches (Council of the EU 2011; CEDEFOP, 2014)

In closing this short overview of the evolution of higher education participation in adult education research and development, two specific project-based efforts must be mentioned. The first one is a recent European project that tried to continue EMEA (.). This was the Erasmus ESRALE project (European Studies and Research in Adult Learning and Education). This project was co-ordinated by TU Kaiserslautern and provided not only a renewed curriculum for a European Masters in Adult Education, it also published three manuals of studies in adult education research and a special series of ESRALE webinars dealing with the theory and practice of adult learning and education across Europe (ESRALE website).

The other innovative endeavour is the European Erasmus+ COMPALL project, which is a combination of studies in a Winter School format and the development of a Joint module involving several member universities. Those are valuable examples of international collaboration amongst universities or partnerships with several types of practitioners, including universities (COMPALL website).

The recent impact of CONFINTEA VI in 2009 in Belém, Brazil, and the influence of the renewed UNESCO recommendations on adult learning and education from 2015 still support the direct involvement of universities in the development of adult learning, because the obvious challenges of skills shortages and illiteracies may involve difficulties and traps when it comes to attaining growth, at least sustainable growth (UNESCO 2009; UNESCO 2016).

Conclusion

In order to expand the roles of higher education in the development of adult learning and education, the conditions of three 'Ps' have to be recognised: place, people, and purpose. After examining the evolution of how great university-based scholars tried to help adult education get modernised, one may come to the conclusion that university engagement in relevant research and development is beneficial if universities provide a good place for collaborative actions and encourage researchers to engage in such work. A second aspect is people, without whom there is no living place and no foundation for academic work creating an adventurous intellectual climate. And the third aspect is purpose, or in other words, courage, which makes universities a mystical place of scientific advancement. Several recent developments have been collected by UIL in its recent collection dealing with the role of higher education in promoting lifelong learning (Yang, Schneller, & Roche, 2015)

What makes it possible? If we want to get a good answer, we only have to visit the EPAL platform and find lots of inspiring examples of adult learning across

Europe. Universities can help to develop this further and take their messages to our own localities to understand that learning is just the beginning of a great journey. And, at the same time, we should not forget about our recent European past. The Grundtvig initiative and programme helped integrate adult learning and education into lifelong learning policy thinking both at national and transnational levels, and university scholars, researchers, and students have done a lot to reach its valuable achievements (Lima & Guimaraes, 2011).

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OECD CERl: <http://www.oecd.org/edu/ceri/>

DVV International: <https://www.dvv-international.de/en/>

ASEM LLL HUB: <http://asemlllhub.org/>

ESREA: <http://www.esrea.org/?l=en>

EAEA: <http://www.eaea.org/>

eucen: <http://eucen.eu/>

Katarina Popović

Teaching Curriculum GlobALE: Mission Impossible or United in Diversity

Abstract: ‘Curriculum GlobALE – Curriculum for Global Adult Learning and Education’ is a transnationally compatible training programme for adult educators that was created as a joint project of DIE and DVV International. Curriculum GlobALE is meant to address a shortcoming in the global agenda, which does not recognise adult education as a specific field of practice and professional activity.

Purpose of the programme

The professionalisation of adult education in the 1970s and 1980s, during the ‘golden age’ of adult education, had its important moments – based on a series of research results, it was defined as an autonomous area and constituted as a scientific discipline and an academic field. UNESCO and especially UIL, OECD, World Bank, and other global policy actors recognised the importance of adult education and the role of professional staff and trained personnel in the development of the field. Even at the beginning of twenty-first century, professionalisation was seen as a crucial factor for quality assurance and for fostering a culture of quality in adult learning, as mentioned specifically in the Belem Framework for Action (UNESCO, 2009, p. 6). With the ‘shift’ from adult education to the concept of lifelong learning, the professionalisation of adult education is experiencing a decline, and employees in this area started losing their professional role and identity.

The current global agenda, featured in the Sustainable Development Goals, including SDG 4 and the Education 2030 programme, gives great importance to teachers – their role, professional preparation, continuous education, and working conditions (UN, 2015). Their key role in achieving the quality of education that the global agenda seeks is very much emphasised. However, this applies mainly, or almost exclusively, to teachers in formal education and teachers involved in the education and upbringing of children. It does not recognise the need for professional preparation and professional standards in adult education. Education 2030 formulates goal 4 and target 4.c. as follows:

4.c By 2030, substantially increase the supply of qualified teachers, including through international cooperation for teacher training in developing countries, especially least developed countries and small island developing States [...] [Training should be measured as:] Proportion of teachers in: (a) pre-primary; (b) primary; (c) lower secondary;

and (d) upper secondary education who have received at least the minimum organised teacher training (e.g. pedagogical training) pre-service or in-service required for teaching at the relevant level in a given country (Tawil, Sachs-Israel, Le Thu, & Eck, 2016, p. 32).

The strong focus on early childhood and formal, school education has completely eliminated concern not only for staff working in adult education but also for informal education: the global agenda does not recognise trainers, facilitators, and instructors either. Only ‘educators’ are mentioned sporadically. The indicators for the global targets are developed only for teachers up to the level of upper secondary education, and even when non-formal and informal learning are mentioned, the professionals in these areas are not considered at all.

It is only at the European level that we still find some efforts to improve the field through professionalisation, but even in the EU, there are cuts for programmes and initiatives of this kind. In the previous period, numerous projects were conducted with the objective to identify common ground, common values, or common competencies among adult educators. Now, there are no attempts to approach the topic more systematically and to try some more systematic solutions. Likewise, there are almost no attempts to connect some of the existing experiences at the global level, to enable an exchange of knowledge, and to achieve more impact on the professionalisation and improvement of practice.

This tendency to neglect adult educators as a group in the Education 2030 agenda may have drastic implications for the further development of adult education, which is already experiencing massive cuts in funding and a lack of recognition. As far as global policy is concerned, adult education is in a process of retrogression – in terms of discourses, concepts, strategy, and finances (including its absence from the agenda of development cooperation), which is detrimental also for the quality of staff and personnel in adult education worldwide. Therefore, additional efforts are needed to overcome the shortcomings in the global education agenda with regard to adult educators and to prevent a further decline of the field.

GlobALE: Characteristics of the programme

There are plenty of researches on the professionalisation of adult education and many programmes and projects, especially in Europe. Curriculum GlobALE – Curriculum for global adult learning and education, which will be presented in this paper, is the training programme that provides a basic qualification for adult educators. It is a transnationally compatible curriculum that was created as a joint project of the German Institute for Adult Education – Leibniz Centre for Lifelong Education (DIE) and the Institute for International Cooperation in Adult Education (DVV International).

The objective of the project [...] was to develop, test and disseminate a core curriculum for training adult educators outside of the university sector which, being in line with the basic principles of Adult Education, satisfies international scientific standards and is suitable for use on a transnational scale (Lattke, Popović, & Weickert, 2013, p. 5).

The benefits of this programme were seen in its potential to (1) enhance the professionalisation of adult educators by providing a common reference framework, and by specifying core competencies as a framework for the qualification of adult educators, which would help in creating standards and references in the knowledge and competencies adult educators should have; (2) support adult education providers in the design and implementation of train-the-trainer programmes, thus contributing to the practice of adult education provision; (3) foster knowledge exchange and mutual understanding between adult educators worldwide and to support the creation of a global adult educators' learning and professional community.

The starting point of the curriculum was the idea that adult educators, trainers, and facilitators have a lot in common, despite the diversity that characterises adult education worldwide. Based on numerous projects, initiatives, and activities, a set of knowledge and competencies was identified that might be recognised as crucial for adult educators wherever they work and whatever the geographical or institutional context of their educational activities is. But it was of utmost importance to be explicit about the underlying values – as there is no neutral education, and hence, no neutral adult education. Curriculum GlobALE thus needed a clear value basis, which at on the one hand makes it universally applicable (based on the values that are common across the countries) and on the other hand creates limitations in applicability (through the limits set by cultural differences related to these values). It includes emancipatory, humanistic, and democratic values and is designed to develop participants' ability to work in a democratic, open-minded, interculturally open and sensitive manner, including a strong ability to contextualise the concrete educational work with adults and to consider framework conditions.

Curriculum GlobALE is unambiguous about the idea of the adult educator who stands at the end of the training process. It is not a neutral location, but is based on a clear value system, with roots in a human rights-based approach. These values are mentioned several times in Curriculum GlobALE – sustainable development, peace and democracy, gender and cultural sensitivity, etc. The values are visible not only in the description of the curriculum, but also in the cross-cutting issues and in the set of competencies, and they are expressed in the basic principles Curriculum GlobALE is based upon competency-oriented, action-oriented, participant-oriented, and aimed at sustainability (Käpplinger, Popović, Shah, & Sork, 2015, p. 434).

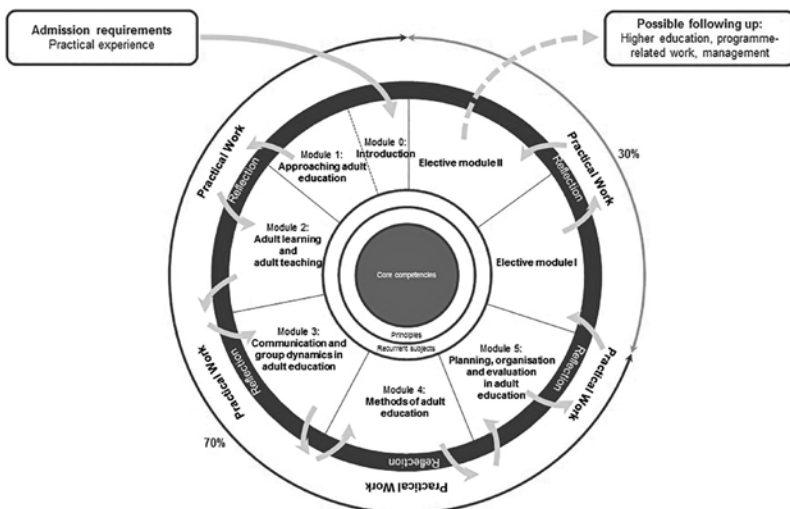
Curriculum GlobALE is structured through one optional introductory module, five thematic core modules, and one to three optional elective modules. Core modules

start with an overall introduction to the field of adult education, its main ideas and concepts, the variety and diversity of adult education, issues related to adult education in the national and global context, and adult education as a profession. The second module is mainly devoted to learning theories and the psychological understanding of adult learning that serves as the basis for didactical actions, and the motivation for and barriers to adult education. The third module develops communication competencies as well as competencies needed for group dynamics. The fourth module is the most practical one, as it offers a variety of methods for different subject areas, different groups and phases of trainings, and other educational activities. The last module brings together previous competencies and uses them for other phases of andragogic cycles – needs assessment, planning, organisation, and evaluation – and additionally deals with quality assurance in adult education.

One of the main characteristics of the curriculum is the combination of (1) core topics and competencies that should be common and universal and (2) content and competencies that are flexible, optional, and specific to the country, region, target group, or content type. It allows for an adaptation to local needs by offering 70 per cent core content, leaving 30 per cent to specifics, such as regional-geographic aspects, target group-specific aspects, subject-specific aspects, management tasks, situation-specific and regulation-specific aspects (Lattke, Popović, & Weickert, 2013, pp. 16–17)

The whole curriculum is structured in the following way:

Figure 1: Curriculum GlobALE



Source: Lattke, Popovic, & Weickert, 2013

There are also some cross-cutting topics that may be explored in greater depth in the elective modules, but they are important for the whole curriculum and should be considered whenever possible: the human rights approach, the gender-sensitive approach, the development of critical thinking, sustainable development and environmental protection, and the contribution of adult education to the development of peaceful and democratic societies.

Self-reflection is among the most essential characteristics of adult educators and should be included in each module and in different phases of the training.

In practical terms, the curriculum's modular and outcome-based character enables flexible implementation, a combination with other programmes, and the recognition of previously gained competencies.

Curriculum GlobALE can also be considered to include a kind of meta competence framework for adult educators: The learning outcomes defined in the curriculum represent exactly those competences which all adult educators should possess, no matter in what geographical, institutional or domain-specific context they work (Lattke, Popović, & Weickert, 2013, p. 6).

The defined topics, clearly formulated principles, notes on implementation, and suggestions for practical application and reflection after each module ensure that the process of implementing the curriculum also becomes important, together with the outcomes and competencies that need to be achieved.

The challenges of implementation

There is hardly a book, research, or speech that does not mention the diversity of adult education in some way. This is a common perception, a standard, and a fact that adult educators and activists are proud of. Comparative approach in particular offers a range of arguments to prove it and to illustrate how much adult education depends on the context, on the cultural, social, political, and even religious framework, on the regional, national, and local circumstances, culture and habits.

With that in mind, the idea of creating a common curriculum that presumes a common understanding of the profession (tasks, knowledge, competences, identity) may seem like a 'mission impossible'. If adult education is so diverse, multifaceted, and specific, what could be possible common features? Is the work of every adult educator and trainer so specific and different from the other's? What could be the universal core and common denominator? Does the universal global approach run counter to culturally specific efforts to improve adult education – are they on the same side, or opposing each other?

Cultural differences seem to be a particular obstacle. The main questions are: Which elements and dimensions of regional and national cultures should be taken into account and reflected in the common curriculum? Which are more relevant than others? Are we dealing only with the top of the ‘cultural iceberg’ and looking for commonalities among the visible (and thus easier-to-deal-with) cultural dimensions? And the main question that each curriculum has to answer, because of its prescriptive and normative character, is: what are the values that will be respected in each individual culture, and what changes is the curriculum aiming at? What should be done in the case of a clear conflict of values, norms, and practices? Is ‘cross-culturality’ still possible in the field of adult education?

Andragogic principles say that the trainer’s work and teaching should be flexible and adapted to learners’ needs, life, and work experience, to personal and institutional circumstances. Is insisting on commonalities a betrayal of scientific principles?

All these questions were not a ‘blind spot’ for the authors of the curriculum; they were the challenge – but a challenge of the kind that has to be accepted and worked on if any improvement of the field is wanted. The answers to these questions were not easy, but they pave the way for an approach that might make a change.

In view of the very different background conditions for Adult Education in the different countries and regions, this standard consciously refers only to the output factors – the competencies that are to be developed and are defined non-specifically in the curriculum as regards context. With regard to the input factors, i.e. specific content and examples, when implementing a training programme, the curriculum offers enough room to incorporate local, cultural and other specific details into the conceptual design. The variable parts of the curriculum help to contribute towards this (Lattke, Popović, & Weickert, 2013, p. 12).

Some solutions for the cultural challenges are given through the formal structure of the curriculum: 30 per cent variable content, possibilities for adding further modules, the open character of the introductory module (where social, political, and economic framework conditions can be discussed with the implementing partners), and the ways of including and considering these conditions in the implementation. Furthermore, Curriculum GlobALE is flexible in terms of ‘input’: competencies previously obtained in other contexts can be recognised and combined with those in the Curriculum GlobALE. Likewise, the ‘output’ is left to the country level: EQF level 5 is recommended, but it may be positioned very differently in other regions. So formally, ‘cross-cultural mobility’ is not a possibility, but through the clearly described competencies it is enabled.

The values, principles and competencies should enable worldwide application, but also the fact that Curriculum GlobALE offers, besides the common core, sufficient scope for variability, allowing for different needs to be met in individual cases, for various fields and dependent on the social, political and economic framework. The scope of design freedom within the five core modules is broad [...] (Käpplinger et al., 2017, p. 435).

Next, and maybe even more importantly, the authors of the Curriculum GlobALE recommend that dealing with cultural issues in the implementation should be left to the teacher and trainers, which makes them crucial for the success of the implementation. But are they not always crucial – as proven by numerous researches and pointed out in policy documents? The methods that teachers and trainers apply in the trainings, the examples they use, the tasks they give to participants, the materials they bring, recommend, and share, and of course, the whole field of discussion, reflections, dialogues, and debates is a huge space for all specific issues, views, topics, and understandings. The trainer can very much add local ‘colour’ to the trainings, not only to the ‘visible’ parts but also to the deeper layers that influence the learning culture, communication, use of methods, group dynamics, and broader issues like setting goals and objectives and working with diverse participants and target groups. Trainers can add specific content, while at the same time developing competencies defined in the curriculum. This enables them to follow andragogic principles, to be flexible and adaptable, while keeping the focus on the main content and the core competencies.

Of course, the question of ‘clashing values’ remains, but Curriculum GlobALE is very clear about it. Since there cannot be a ‘neutral curriculum’, this one is based on the values that are the precondition for its full implementation. They are about human rights, equality, emancipation, respect, empowerment, democracy, and the like. Some elements of the curriculum could be used in any context (such as methods or learning theories), but only a valued-loaded implementation can claim to be a universally valid, common approach as defined in the Curriculum GlobALE. Thus, its universality is *de facto* limited to the cultures that would embrace these values as part of their educational agenda, or that recognise them and try to shape their development guided by these values.

The potential of implementation

The abovementioned diversity of adult education – described, pointed out, and celebrated – at the same time became ‘the sacred cow’ and therewith the curse of adult education. It hindered more connections, cooperation, solidarity, and joint actions among adult educators, researchers, and activist worldwide. It was

also a serious obstacle to advocacy and lobby actions at the global level. The lack of some common approach, understanding, and definitions, and the insistence on differences and nationally or regionally valid concepts led to weaker argumentations and a particularisation of interest. A strong presence in the advocacy arena was impossible, and a united global voice of adult education was missing.¹ Unfortunately, all efforts aiming at professionalisation were limited, and there were hardly any common global actions, researches (as in Europe), and appearances in the global advocacy arena. Individual areas of adult education made improvements, came together, and cooperated, but the general ‘body’ of adult education, which comprises various field and areas, was seldom seen. Professionals in the field – even less so. The idea of a common approach and common efforts towards professionalisation was rejected even by actors and representatives of the field, which, surprisingly, could even be observed in civil society – undermining the role of adult educators, only implicitly mentioning them under ‘other education workers’: ‘Despite the apparent consensus around the centrality of the teaching profession to quality education, undervaluing of teachers and other education workers continues to prevail across the continents.’ (UNESCO, CCNGO 2017, par. 9).

Overall acceptance of and enthusiasm about the concept of lifelong learning did not improve the situation with regard to training personnel or increasing their competencies. It turned out to be the Trojan horse that resulted in the factual disappearance from the global agenda.

Supposed to be based on inclusive, emancipatory, humanistic and democratic values, lifelong learning remains a content-empty phrase, decorative notion, an empty shell in the function of the neoliberal discourses. Such concept, emptied of the critical blade, emancipatory potential, solidarity and power for social transformation, reduces learning to an individual psychological process and responsibility (Koulazides & Popović, 2017).

Such lifelong learning became a very vague concept, more suited for rhetorical use than for identifying a specific field of practice, an ‘elastic concept tailorable to any needs’ (Dehmel, 2006). For professionalisation, it was a knockout – even with the best possible understanding of the concept of lifelong learning, and with the recognition of its main messages, it is impossible to imagine a professional for lifelong learning. It would be difficult to define (and to standardise) the competencies valid across all fields and target groups that ‘lifelong learning’ covers and to describe the job; it is even more difficult to think about a common profes-

1 The International Council for Adult Education was and still is the only representative body of comprehensive adult education at the global level.

sional identity and to claim the rights related to the professional group. As much as 'lifelong learning' embraced the idea of ability and the right of every person to gain knowledge and competencies throughout the lifespan, it dissolved the idea of a specific field of practice and a profession. Accompanied by the broad deprioritisation of adult education in the policy sphere, this development results in the worrisome fact that adult education faces serious crises at the global level, and adult educators are confronted with the disappearance of professional understanding, concept, and recognition.

This is exactly where the biggest potential of Curriculum GlobALE comes from – it has the unifying power of a common professional identity based on a solid foundation, enabling joint actions, activities, projects, and advocacy. As much as actors in adult education stick to the idea of diversity, it is possible, without giving it up, to have a strong connecting field, a base for advocacy, for a powerful presence in global advocacy arenas. To train people through Curriculum GlobALE and to connect them in the global learning community or the advocacy network would strengthen the voice of adult education at the national, regional, and global levels – it would be the voice of a clearly defined professional group, supported by practical experiences and grassroots level actions, as well as research data and evidence.

A set of globally accepted traits and features of a professional group, recognised knowledge and competencies, and a clear profile based on certain values –all that would help to distinguish adult education as a profession, to lobby for improving its position on the global agenda, and to increase the visibility of the whole field, which is now jeopardised through the replacement of adult education by lifelong learning.

Furthermore, such a common approach has the potential to foster a transnational process of exchange and mutual learning, to enable countries and regions to benefit from experiences and developments in other countries, to cooperate and to be more independent in the context of international cooperation and fundraising. Equally important, this would enable more solidarity and cooperation among adult educators worldwide.

At the national level, it means investing in capacity development and networking, which is the most sustainable way of supporting adult education in the country. Finally, the curriculum itself is based on numerous existing programmes that were carefully consulted before it was created, and it is based on the experiences of the best implemented programmes and on scientifically proven approaches.

Perspectives of Curriculum GlobALE

Still in the piloting phase, Curriculum GlobALE is a ‘work in progress’. But several years of implementation proved its contribution to the improvement of national adult education and its potential for global networking.² Some experiences and lessons learned are already available, and some possible steps of further improving it: cutting some of the topics, for the example, since it is a very ambitious programme, creating two versions of it (two levels), and – most importantly – including topics, authors, theories, and experiences from non-European countries and regions. This was identified as one of the important tasks at the very beginning, but there was a need to create a starting point, a milestone that will help explore the next steps and pave one of the best ways of global support to adult education. Although the implementation is going on, there is a need for careful monitoring, revisions, and improvements, as well as for further support. The ambitious goal of improving adult education globally requires ambitious tools. Curriculum GlobALE has the potential to be one of those tools.

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2 See: <https://www.dvv-international.de/en/materials/curriculum-globale/>

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Internationality of Higher Education: The Example of COMPALL

Regina Egetenmeyer

Comparative Studies in Adult Education and Lifelong Learning: The Joint-Module Methodology and its Context

Abstract: This paper analyses international contexts of adult education and higher education as a framework for the COMPALL Joint Module. The module is designed to develop international knowledge, comparative research methods, intercultural competences, didactical insights, and networking experiences. The lessons learned also inform joint modules for other subjects.

Introduction

Building on long-standing cooperation between researchers in adult education and universities focussing on research and studies in adult education, the *Joint Module for Comparative Studies in Adult Education and Lifelong Learning* (COMPALL) is being developed as part of the ERASMUS+ Strategic Partnership COMPALL (2015–2018)¹. The origins of the *Joint Module* go back to an initiative developed by Prof Licínio Lima (University of Minho/Portugal) in a seminar on *European Strategies for Lifelong Learning*. This seminar was offered for adult education students at the universities of Duisburg-Essen and Mainz (both in Germany). It was combined with field visits to European stakeholders in Brussels. The seminar was designed to analyse the policy activities of European stakeholders in the field of adult education and lifelong learning. Students were introduced to a policy analysis scheme that was used as an observation tool during the field visits. It helped students understand theoretical models and empirical reality in practice. As part of this project, a study text was developed (Lima & Guimarães, 2011). The need for exchanges between students in adult education from different countries also became obvious. This insight led to the application for an ERASMUS Intensive Programme, in which universities from Chemnitz/Germany, Florence/Italy, Glasgow/Scotland, Lisbon/Portugal, Minho-Braga/Portugal, Pécs/Hungary, and Würzburg/Germany organised a first Winter School on *Comparative Studies in Adult Education and Lifelong Learning* in February

1 Cf COMPALL homepage: <https://www.hw.uni-wuerzburg.de/compall/startseite/>, retrieved 19.09.2017.

2014 at Julius-Maximilian University in Würzburg/Germany. This ERASMUS Intensive Programme was developed in parallel to several international teaching projects in the field of adult and continuing education. The European Master in Adult Education (2004–2017) (Egetenmeyer & Latke, 2017), as well as European Studies and Research in Adult Education (2013–2016)², were both ERASMUS Curriculum Development Projects initiated by the German Institute for Adult Education (Prof Ekkehard Nuissl von Rein). Based on its practical experiences, DVV International developed and implemented the GLOBALE curriculum for the professionalisation of teachers and trainers in adult education in different countries during that time (Avramoska & Czerwinski, 2017). The need for internationalising adult education studies on the one hand and the strong commitment of the partner universities on the other hand led to a follow-up Winter School in 2015 (Németh, 2017).

Against this background, a partner consortium of seven European universities (Aarhus/Denmark, Florence/Italy, Helmut-Schmidt-University in Hamburg/Germany, Lisbon/Portugal, Padua/Italy, Pécs/Hungary, Würzburg/Germany) took the initiative to develop a Joint-Module-Methodology designed to allow universities to provide an international study programme for their master's and doctoral students in adult education according to their different needs. The consortium was created by universities and adult education professors who strongly appreciated the value of a joint module from an institutional perspective as well. This allowed the deep institutional integration of the *Joint Module* into the curricula of master's and doctoral studies.

This paper places the *Joint Module COMPALL* in its societal contexts: What are developments in the internationalisation of the *Joint Module COMPALL*? Which learning objectives are developed based on this analysis for participants? How is it structured to reach the outlined learning objectives? To answer these questions, the paper analyses the context of internationalisation in adult and continuing education as well as internationalisation in university contexts in Europe. Based on this analysis, it outlines learning objectives for various participants of the *Joint Module COMPALL*. Afterwards, the structure of the *Joint Module Methodology* is analysed with regard to its contribution to these learning objectives. Finally, the paper reflects on the transferability of these results to joint modules in other subjects.

2 Cf ESRALÉ homepage, <https://www.esrale.org>, retrieved 19.09.2017.

The internationalisation of adult and continuing education

This paper understands current political and societal developments as a background for adult and continuing education research and practice, which makes single phenomena in adult and continuing education only understandable as parts of international contexts. Internationalisation in education, adult education, and continuing education – and hence comparisons with other countries – originally provided an impetus for ‘learning from the other’ (Reischmann, 2008). A classic example in the German context is using the perspective of the English University Extension initiative to consider the development of this activity at Germany universities, too. This differentiation between self and the other (country/context/case) is no longer given in this clear-cut fashion. Moreover, international phenomena are now interwoven into ‘national’ situations, cases, and contexts of adult education. Cultural theory discusses concepts of transculturality (Welsch, 2010) or hybrid subjects (Reckwitz, 2006). These concepts support the deconstruction of the dualism between national and international perspectives, emphasising the interwoven perspective of influences of different contexts on a phenomenon. For adult and continuing education, three arguments can be found for this interwoven situation, which are presented in the following. These arguments represent the background in which the employment opportunities of graduates in adult education are integrated.

International and European education policies

Educational issues have traditionally been a national issue and in some countries even a regional one. The 1992 Maastricht treaties (European Communities, 1992), which regulated collaboration in the European Union, even contain a harmonisation ban for educational issues. However, education is understood by international organisations such as the European Union, OECD, and UNESCO as a very important instrument for developing societies. This is why international organisations act in so-called ‘soft-laws’ (Marcussen, 2004; Bieber & Martens, 2011) in educational issues. They convince member countries to agree on the formulation of policies (joint targets) in educational issues. Realising and implementing these targets, however, is the responsibility of the member countries. European policies on adult and continuing education can be found in several EU documents that target lifelong learning and education in general (European Union, 2012) or adult education as a specific area of learning and education (European Union, 2011). But they can also be found in policies, programmes, and benchmarking studies of UNESCO and OECD (e.g. GRALE-Report, PIAAC study). These activities created

some kind of transparency in education between its member countries. But furthermore, the international policies govern national policies. Local developments on qualification frameworks, on the recognition of prior and informal learning, credit systems, on literacy activities or quality management systems are only some examples that are realized at the local level but agreed on at the international level. This is why local activities are interrelated with international developments and only understandable in their international interdependence.

The internationalisation of societies

Local communities and societies as a whole are going through an enormous internationalisation process. On the one hand, this is brought on by the digitalisation of peoples' daily lives. Neither communication nor social relationships, online reading and research, or markets and sale are local or national in nature. Moreover, they are localized through online access and available digital resources. This should not eliminate the borders of duty-free markets, which do not benefit people from all countries. Rather, this argument should focus on other kinds of boundaries and non-boundaries. Furthermore, the free movement of persons between several countries allows citizens of these countries easier mobility. The free movement of persons in the European Union also raises the numbers of people who move to different places for employment reasons (OECD, 2015). But international refugee situations, too, raise migration of people to other places inside and outside of countries. For adult and continuing education, this means that the population becomes more international. But it also means that non-mobile people have more possibilities to interact with people with a migration background. Thereby, the target group of adult and continuing education is becoming more diverse. As adult and continuing education has to adapt deeply to the needs and background of the target group, taking internationalisation into account is a fundamental basis for successful work in adult and continuing education.

The international market for continuing education

The development of international trade agreements and duty-free markets also enables and supports the provision of services as continuing education. As part of the iMove project, the German Federal Ministry for Education and Research has initiated a platform to support German providers of continuing education to offer (and sell) their services outside Germany as well. Frequently, there are target providers who sell technical products and who, along with these products, also provide continuing education to help customers use and repair them. The iMove project can illustrate the increase of initial vocational and continuing edu-

cation, which is 'exported' from Germany to other countries. The trend reports name China and India as the places with the highest demand for German education exports (BIBB, 2016). Developing continuing education opportunities for an 'international market' may become a career field for graduates in adult and continuing education.

The internationalisation of higher education in Europe

Concurrent with these internationalisation developments in adult education, there has also been international development in higher education, where adult education is found as a field of study. As a result, adult education as a field of study is part of international developments at universities that affect all academic subjects.

In Europe, the ERASMUS programme has provided mobility opportunities for university students for 30 years, and for several years also for teachers and staff of European higher education institutions (DAAD, 2017). As the mobility budget is raised every year, European mobility becomes an instrument to support many students. Student mobility has created a so-called 'generation ERASMUS' of mobile university graduates with international experiences. Besides the mobility programmes for staff and teachers, development programmes support the institutional development of educational activities. Within all these activities, joint developments became a respected but also broad activity of European universities. Today, joint international activities are less unique but more acknowledged and requested than a decade ago.

The international policies in education outlined above have brought intensive development to European higher education institutions. Bologna-compliant study programmes were developed in the last fifteen years. In a broad way, a three-cycle degree structure (bachelor, master, doctorate) is now in place throughout Europe (European Commission, EACEA, & Eurydice, 2015). Modular structures, credit points, the recognition of internationally acquired credits, and learning agreements are just some examples of this process. Beside the legitimate criticism of the structure and the reforms, the Bologna Process developed a system that makes mobility, joint activities, and the mutual recognition of credits formally possible as an integrated part of university studies. The development of a joint module can build on these structures, which ensures the formal and legal basis for the joint activity.

In this context, universities' explicit and implicit internationalisation strategies may support international activities. These strategies can include raising international student enrolment, facilitating the recognition of internationally

acquired credits, supporting international summer or winter schools, increasing the number of courses held in English, or providing additional funding for long-/short-term mobility. Support may not mainly be financial. But a university's commitment makes administrative and committee work easier, especially in terms of administrative and legal structures for international work. When it comes to the development of international programmes, a university's digital, technical, and media services may substantially support the development of digital and online support for international collaboration activities in teaching and research.

The educational objectives of the Joint Module COMPALL

The *Joint Module COMPALL* is developed in response to the growing need for international insights among graduates in adult and continuing education on the one hand and a growing commitment of universities to international teaching activities on the other hand. It understands international insights as a need for international experiences that can neither be limited to academic subjects nor to selected competences. Rather, holistic and – as far as possible – broad-based experience in thinking, acting, and reflecting within an international learning environment is necessary to receive these insights. The goal is to cultivate

[...] a process of understanding international and intercultural phenomena. Comparisons in international groups provide new insights into other countries and into new aspects and variations of new models. They also facilitate a better and more detailed understanding of the situation in one's own home country. Furthermore, they give participants a sense of how difficult it is to compare situations in other countries, [...] to understand in a cognitive, emotional, and social way the limitations of our understanding of our own and other phenomena. Ideally, this insight leads to an attitude of further questioning one's own understanding in an ongoing endeavour to working on deeper understanding. An ideal 'result' of the Winter School is to never have a final result, but to continue the never-ending journey of personal efforts to try to understand each other. This also means searching for the things that link us to each other: to be aware of the always existing boundaries of our own understanding while developing an attitude of 'constantly trying'. (Egetenmeyer, 2016, p. 19)

Against this background, the following educational objectives should be understood as interdependent rather than isolated objectives.

The academic objective of the *Joint Module COMPALL* is to analyse European policies in lifelong learning that refer to adult education and the relevant policies of other international organisations. The analysis includes an insight into the diversity of forms in which international policies may appear and be implemented. It should make participants aware of the fact that European educational policies

must be adapted to diverse local situations, and that there are diverse forms of appearance inside and outside the European Union. The second academic objective is to provide participants with in-depth insights into one current research issue in adult and continuing education and its international forms of appearance. These issues change each year according to the current research questions of international experts teaching in the *Joint Module COMPALL*. This approach allows participants to study and research current trends and to gain an insight into cutting-edge research questions in adult and continuing education.

The research methodology objective is to cultivate participants' skills for analysing relationships between theories, policies/politics, and empirical practice in adult and continuing education. As there seem to be wide gaps between these fields, participants learn how to use a theoretical model to analyse policies/politics as well as empirical practice. In this way, they practice making analytical use of educational theories in general. Participants will be equipped with analytical skills to analyse practical contexts of their future employment contexts, too. Furthermore, participants apply comparative research skills in adult education in a research-based learning context. In this way, they are introduced to the comparative-interpretative research method of the *Joint Module COMPALL* and are guided to use it. Doctoral students are introduced to writing a joint comparative research paper. Furthermore, they are guided in the writing process and the quality assurance process (e.g. adaption to peer review, proofreading, publication).

Beside the academic and methodological objectives, the development of **intercultural competences** plays a crucial role in the *Joint Module COMPALL*. One aspect of this objective is to develop the ability to use English as a language for international communication in adult education. This includes knowing specialised and professional English terminology, but it also means being willing and prepared to interact with colleagues in English – colleagues for whom English is not the native language either. Interacting in English means disclosing one's own limitations in communicating in a foreign language. But it also cultivates an interest in each other and helps getting to know oneself and other fellows in a new mutually respectful way. The aforementioned cultivation of an 'attitude of further questioning one's own understanding in an ongoing endeavour to working on deeper understanding' (ibid.) also needs a cultivation of distance to each other – respect for the 'normality of the other' (Hunfeld, 2004, translation by the author). The cultivation of distance allows for continuously asking what can be understood from the other and one's own and where further efforts at mutual understanding are necessary. Distance supports respect for the other, willingness to learn from each other, and a working climate of awareness about the differences.

This is essential for intercultural competence and shows why the cultivation of asking and re-asking is necessary for international work.

A further educational objective is the implicit development of *didactical insights* into the development of educational settings for adults. The *Joint Module COMPALL* is developed through intensive didactical reflections between the partner universities and serves as a kind of didactical model for education with adults. Participants gain insights into online learning settings, interactive learning settings, theory-practice learning settings, and programme design learning settings. The goal is to respect the diversity of learning settings of partner universities and participants.

Networking experiences are a further educational objective of the *Joint Module COMPALL* and stress the need for the development of international networks and partnerships. Participants are systematically brought into contact with each other during the whole joint module. In this way, a basis for the further internationalisation of practice and research in adult education is developed. Doctoral students have the possibility to write a paper in an international joint authorship, which is still a rare phenomenon in adult education (Fejes & Nylander, 2014; Käpplinger, 2015).

On the structure of the Joint Module COMPALL

Partnership and target group

The *Joint Module COMPALL* is developed as a partnership of seven universities from five different European countries with different emphases and expertise in the academic field of adult and continuing education. The joint module approach allows universities to also provide their students with academic opportunities based on the expertise of the partner universities. This is especially valuable for those partner universities that have only very limited teaching capacity in adult and continuing education. Furthermore, all partner universities can build on a context that appreciates the collaborative international development and provision of studies in adult and continuing education. Partner universities have integrated the joint module in different ways into their master's and doctoral programmes related to adult and continuing education (cf. Guimarães, Concetta, & Fridson, in this volume).

The *Joint Module COMPALL* is targeted at master's and doctoral students pursuing an academic emphasis in adult and continuing education. The *Joint Module COMPALL* consists of three parts: a preparatory part, the Winter School in Würzburg, and a follow-up part. As students have different backgrounds in

terms of their undergraduate fields of study but also in terms of their academic and research experiences (cf. Guimarães, Concetta, & Fridson, in this volume), *COMPALL* provides intensive possibilities but also requires rigorous preparation. This preparation part of the *Joint Module COMPALL* ensures that participants of the Winter School have a knowledge base that allows them take full advantage of the in-depth study and international experience during the two-week on-campus phase in Würzburg.

The preparation phase

For the preparation phase, the Strategic Partnership *COMPALL* has developed several online tutorials, which on the one hand introduce participants to the structure of the *Joint Module COMPALL* and on the other hand guide them in a didactical way through the preparatory material, which consists of preparatory readings. To that end, a Moodle course has been developed, which allows participants to interact with each other and with lecturers. Furthermore, a participant booklet outlining the structure has been designed. In addition, all online tutorials are available as open educational resources via the project website³.

The second part of participants' preparation work is developing a transnational essay relating to one of the comparative groups in which participants practice comparative research during the Würzburg Winter School. Each comparative group is guided by an international expert in the respective topic. Experienced doctoral students act as co-moderators supporting the international experts in preparing group participants. Each participant is assigned to one comparative group, which consists of about two students from each country. If possible, comparative groups represent between three and five different countries. During the preparation part, the Moodle course is used for communication between comparative group participants and moderators to agree on the topic of the transnational essay and its structure. The Strategic Partnership *COMPALL* provides participants with a guide for preparing the transnational essay. On top of that, partner universities offer on-campus meetings or seminars with students to prepare for the Winter School together.

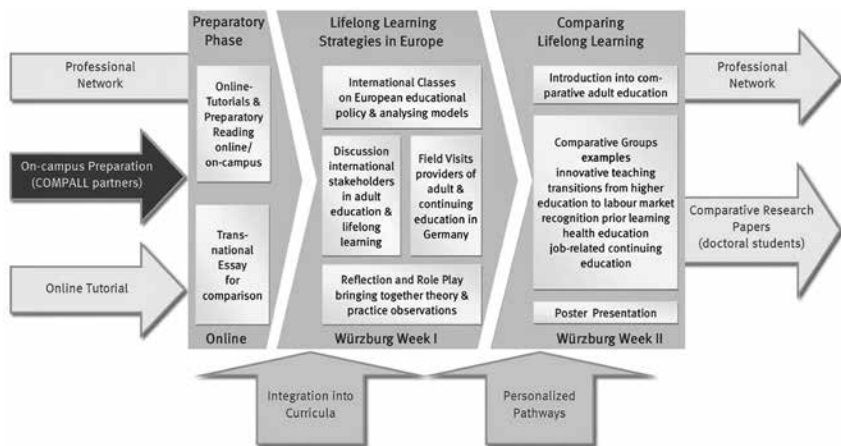
This preparation phase takes place from November until January each year. The concurrent online and on-campus preparation as well as the guides allow for developing a preparatory phase adapted to the different needs of participants. It also allows for a differentiation between participants who have studied adult education

3 Cf *COMPALL* homepage: <https://www.hw.uni-wuerzburg.de/compall/startseite/>, retrieved 19.09.2017.

in a broad way and newcomers in adult education, between master’s and doctoral students, and between internationally experienced and non-experienced participants. Coordinators at the local partner universities can decide according to the needs of their participants. Although such a level of heterogeneity among students has nowadays become uncommon in academic contexts, the experiences within the *Joint Module COMPALL* have been very positive. Differences in knowledge levels can be addressed mainly during the preparatory phase. Heterogeneity also provides a diverse reflection basis for intercultural communication, and it is used systematically for creating additional learning settings between participants. In a didactical way, it represents the diversity of participants typically encountered in adult and continuing education.

To enable participants of the *Joint Module COMPALL* to communicate with each other, they are invited to join an open and a closed LinkedIn network⁴. Via the participant profiles in LinkedIn, the network also serves as a long-term networking tool between participants. Furthermore, the COMPALL information tool provides participants with additional preparatory material in the field of comparative adult education.

Figure 1: Structure of the COMPALL Project



Source: COMPALL project

4 Cf COMPALL subpage: https://www.hw.uni-wuerzburg.de/compall/information_tool/, retrieved 19.09.2017.

The two Würzburg weeks

During the first week in Würzburg, participants study a theoretical model that can be used for analysing educational policies. They explore European policies in adult education and the structure of adult and continuing education providers in Germany. Besides being introduced to the model, students practice applying the model to international policies and using it during their discussions with adult education stakeholders and during their field visits to adult and continuing education providers. For that purpose, participants collaborate in international groups, giving each other insights into each other's contexts. Participants serve as information resources for their own countries of origin. To strengthen the exchange between participants from different universities and countries, participants are placed in the seminar rooms next to participants from other universities. This approach reinforces participants' international experience, because communication can happen in this way in informal settings as well. By the end of the week, participants reflect on their observations and, against the background of the theoretical model, develop an understanding of the interdependencies between theories, policies, and practice.

During the second week in Würzburg, the comparative groups are introduced to comparative research in adult and continuing education. Each participant acts as a representative of his/her country of origin, and the comparative groups work to identify comparative categories that work for their case. Comparative groups look at the different cases (e.g. countries or other contexts) in juxtaposition and try to come up with an interpretation by contextualising the differences between the compared cases. The second week ends with an open-space presentation, in which each group presents their comparison to all other groups.

Follow-up part

Doctoral students are offered the exclusive possibility to co-author a comparative paper together with other doctoral students in their comparative group and possibly also with the group moderator. To that end, the authors select a few categories and cases for their comparison. The doctoral students receive guidance from the moderators with structuring the paper and with the writing process. Papers are subject to peer review, and successful papers are published joint volumes at international publishers (Egetenmeyer, 2016a; Egetenmeyer, Schmidt-Lauff, & Boffo, 2017; Egetenmeyer & Fedeli, forthcoming).

Lessons learned: Outlook for developing other joint modules

The experiences in the development the *Joint Module COMPALL* show that ***institutional support*** is essential for developing a joint module and integrating it into existing degree structures. Written and unwritten strategies facilitate administrative but also financial support. This does not mean that smooth administrative ways for implementing the joint module into local curricula are already in place. Moreover, experience suggests that long-term planning and a flexible adaption to the situations at the different universities may be most successful for integrating the project into local curricula (cf. Guimarães, Concetta, & Fridson in this volume). But getting there requires a strong commitment to internationalisation by the universities.

Joint modules enable universities with ***limited teaching capacity in some subjects*** to broaden their course offerings. Therefore, it is essential to involve partners with varying degrees of expertise that can be connected to each other. Developing a module together allows for a broad adaption to the different needs and an in-depth ***reflection of subject-specific didactics in higher education***. With this approach, the joint module can contribute to an overall increase in subject-specific teaching quality at all partner universities.

The design of the joint module ***supports an insight into the diversity of research in adult education*** in other universities and countries. The joint module thereby supports joint and internationally adaptable research and the development of a joint international terminology in a field characterised by wide-ranging diversity and different forms of local institutionalisation. In fact, the comparative groups challenge their own research perspective by looking at the others' perspectives. By this approach, moderators benefit from comparative group work as well regarding their research perspective. Another aim of supporting doctoral students in international comparative adult education research is to strengthen that research field overall.

A joint module has the potential of acting as ***catalyst for further internationalisation activities*** at the partner universities. At some partner universities, we can observe an overall increase of seasonal schools offered during the project period. In the COMPALL project, we observe not only an overall increase in international exchange students attracted by the joint module but also an increase in visiting professors at the partner universities and in the number of courses taught in English. Currently, even the possibilities of a double-degree master's programme and dual doctoral programmes between some universities are being discussed.

The *Joint Module COMPALL* requires ***rigorous preparation from all participants*** (completion of six online tutorials with readings; preparation of a transna-

tional essay). We observe that all participants fulfil the preparatory requirements before meeting during the Winter School. Most importantly, we observe that it is highly advisable to support master's students in particular with their preparations in regular meetings at their home campus. In this context, the COMPALL project experienced that providing guidance material for the partner universities is very helpful, as it will enable new partners or invited teachers to gain a detailed understanding of the joint module methodology as well.

Regarding the **job placement of graduates, the partners observe a high need for international competences**, which students acquire during the *Joint Module COMPALL* (cf. Schmidt-Lauff, Semrau, & Egetenmeyer, forthcoming). This need is especially evident in explicitly internationally oriented fields in adult and continuing education. But it is also evident in the mobility of graduates, who sometimes move to one of the partner countries for employment or further studies (e.g. doctoral studies).

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COMPALL Winter School Students' Motivations

Abstract: Based on a questionnaire-based survey supported and interviews, we discuss students' motivations to be involved in the 2016 COMPALL Winter School, an ERASMUS mobility programme aimed at promoting scientific, cultural, professional, and personal experiences and the internationalisation of higher education policies and institutions.

Introduction

Comparative Studies on Adult and Lifelong Learning (COMPALL) is an ERASMUS + project, which started in September 2015 and will end in August 2018. COMPALL aims at developing and implementing a joint module on Comparative Studies on Adult and Lifelong Learning targeted at master's and doctoral students from several European Union member states and non-European countries. The project intends to contribute to the training of highly qualified researchers and practitioners in the field of adult education by providing students with the knowledge and skills that enable them to incorporate an international dimension into their future work, studies, or research. It is also expected that the acquisition of skills in international comparison and work will improve students' employability¹.

The *Joint Module COMPALL* is based on online and on-campus teaching paths at each partner university, as well as an intensive face-to-face course: the International Winter School. Participation in the International Winter School requires students' engagement in a very short-term mobility programme and involves three parts. The first part takes place at students' home university. It consists of a preparatory phase during which participants prepare themselves by reading scientific literature made available on the server of the University of Würzburg and by writing a transnational essay on one selected topic linked to one of the several comparative groups offered. The International Winter School *Comparative Studies in Adult and Lifelong Learning* takes place at the University of Würzburg and lasts for two weeks. During the first week, which corresponds to the second part of the International Winter School, students attend courses focussing on lifelong learning concepts, strategies, and policies in Europe, and are introduced

1 Cf COMPALL homepage: <https://www.hw.uni-wuerzburg.de/compall/startseite/>, retrieved 16.06.2017.

to a conceptual model of policy analysis. They also participate in field visits to different adult education organisations, where they have the opportunity to learn from German experience and to get in touch with local stakeholders. The second week is devoted to comparative work group and corresponds to the third part of participating in the intensive course. During this week, and based on the individual transnational essays previously written, participants develop a comparative analysis on a selected topic. The results of each comparative work group are presented to all participants at the end of the second week (Schmidt-Lauff, Semrau, & Egetenmeyer, forthcoming).

Since the launch of the ERASMUS programme, a significant number of research studies have focussed on higher education students' motivations (Lesjak, Juvan, Ineson, Yap and Axelsson, 2015; Fombona, Rodríguez, & Sevillano, 2013; Doyle et al., 2010; Pietro & Page, 2008) and on the political and individual outcomes of short-term international mobility (EC, 2015, 2014; Teichler, 2012, 2007, 2004; Mitchell, 2012; Oborune, 2013; Janson, Schomburg, & Teichler, 2009). However, very few focus on the motivation factors and perceptions of the students engaged in intensive courses. This is what the present paper aims to do.

The ERASMUS programme: A brief overview

Influenced by student mobility policies in the United States, European countries and the European Commission in the 1970s started to promote temporary mobility programmes for university students aiming at increasing intercultural dialogue and understanding, and improving foreign language proficiency (Teichler & Janson, 2007). The Joint Study Programmes supported by the European Commission from 1976 to 1986 proved to be highly successful initiatives on which the ERASMUS Programme would be built. Targeted at university students, the Joint Study Programmes supported study periods from 6 months to one year at a European university.

The ERASMUS Programme was established in 1987 to support international students' wide-scale mobility within the European Union ensuring equality of opportunities for male and female students; to promote cooperation among higher education institutions; to harness the intellectual potential of universities; and to strengthen the interaction among the European member states' citizens (EEC, 1987). As González, Bustillo Mensanza, and Mariel (2011, p. 412) stated, the ERASMUS programme 'has been one of the first initiatives to implement the fundamentals of the European Space for Higher Education and lies at the heart of the Bologna Process'. Curiously, and contrary to what we may think, the name of the programme is not related to the famous Latin scholar Desiderius

Erasmus of Rotterdam. It is an acronym for *European [Region] Action [Scheme] for University Students* (Corradi, 2015).

In 2006, the European Parliament and the European Council approved a decision² establishing an action programme in the field of lifelong learning. Under this action programme framework, changes were introduced to the ERASMUS programme, giving rise to what could be labelled as a second-generation programme. The range of individuals and organisations eligible to apply was diversified. The second generation of the ERASMUS programme was not only directed at tertiary education and training students and aimed at promoting higher education institutions' dialogue but also at teachers, trainers, and other staff working at these institutions, associations, and representatives. It involved higher education, enterprises, social partners, and other representatives of working life, public and private bodies responsible for the organisation and delivery of education, research centres, and bodies providing guidance, counselling, and information services relating to lifelong learning (EC, 2006). In addition, ERASMUS programme could also play a role in pursuing the objectives of the Lifelong Learning Action programme. Furthermore, being established by the Bologna Declaration, it was to support the achievement of a European Area of Higher Education by the year 2010 and to reinforce the contribution of higher education and advanced vocational education to the process of innovation. Beyond these more general objectives, operational ones were defined: to raise students' and teachers' mobility to 3.3 million students by 2012; to enhance the quality and the volume of multilateral cooperation between higher education institutions and between higher education institutions and enterprises; to increase the transparency and compatibility of the qualifications acquired; to facilitate the development of innovative higher education practices and their transfer between countries; and finally, to support the development of innovative ICT-based contents, services, pedagogies, and practices (EC, 2006). To achieve these objectives, the programme was to support the following actions: the mobility of students, teaching staff, and other staff at higher education institutions or enterprises; intensive programmes; and multi-lateral projects and networks.

In 2013, a Regulation of the European Parliament and the Council³ established a new programme named ERASMUS+, to be implemented from 1 January 2014

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- 2 Decision no 1720/2006/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 15 November 2006 establishing an action programme in the field of lifelong learning.
 - 3 Regulation (EU) no 1288/2013 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 11 December 2013 establishing ERASMUS+¹: The Union programme for education, training, youth and sport.

to the 31 December 2020. This programme brings together former European programmes such as: Comenius, Leonardo da Vinci, Grundtvig, ERASMUS, ERASMUS Mundus and Youth in Action. The ERASMUS+ programme covers three different fields: education and training including school education, vocational education and training, adult education and higher education; youth and sports. Contrary to what happened with Decision no 1720/2006/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council, which kept the ERASMUS programme autonomous, the present regulation makes higher education one among other education and training domains. There are, however, some specific objectives related to higher education that are worth mentioning. The ERASMUS+ programme is to: enhance the international dimension of education and training, in the field of vocational education and training and in higher education, by increasing the attractiveness of European higher education institutions; increase the mobility of students and teaching staff in all cycles of higher education; promote cooperation for innovation and the exchange of good practices by supporting strategic partnerships between education and training organisations, in particular higher education institutions, and between them and the world of work; and improve the use of ICT platforms allowing for collaborative learning, virtual mobility, and the exchange of good practices (EU, 2013).

Since the ERASMUS programme launch, the number of higher education students enrolled in short-term transnational mobility has not stopped increasing. In 1987, they were 3,244; in 2014, 270,000 students spent a period studying or training abroad. By the end of the 2013–2014 academic year, the ERASMUS programme had supported 3.3 million students, and it is expected that by 2020, at least 20 per cent of all graduates should have been involved in some kind of short-term mobility (EC, 2015).

A key issue with respect to the ERASMUS programme is the extent to which the programme objectives have been achieved. From a policy viewpoint, empirical evidence shows that ERASMUS plays a central role in

- implementing a European Higher Education Area and increasing internationalisation, cooperation, and innovation among higher education institutions (EU, 2014; Teichler & Jansen, 2007; CHEPS, INCHER, & ECOTEC, 2008);
- strengthening the European Union's position as a knowledge-based society (Rodríguez et al. 2011);
- enhancing social inclusion (EU, 2015);
- fostering European identity and citizenship (Oborune, 2013; Mitchell, 2012).

From an individual viewpoint, short-term transnational mobility helps

- equip students with transferable and soft skills, in particular, the eight key competencies for lifelong learning⁴ (Kumpikaittė & Duoba, 2013; Vaicekauskas, Duoba, & Kumpikaittė-Valiunienne, 2013; Marques & Almeida, 2014);
- improve foreign language skills (Mitchell, 2012; Teichler, 2004, 2012);
- develop intercultural awareness (EU, 2015; Conradi, 2015; Williams, 2005);
- enhance job search process and graduates' professional careers (Paweł, 2015; EU, 2014; Teichler, 2004, 2009).

However, in recent years, some empirical research has questioned the direct effects of participation in short-term mobility on the emergence of a European identity and on graduates' employability. The relationship between ERASMUS and European identity and citizenship became one of the most controversial issues in the academic community. Whereas some scholars presented empirical evidence supporting the idea that short-term mobility induces a European identity (van Moll, 2013), others show that students who identify themselves as Europeans are not more likely to engage in ERASMUS (Wilson, 2011; Sigalas, 2010). The assumption that ERASMUS enhances graduates' employability is strongly supported by empirical evidence. Nevertheless, the 'distinct professional value of temporary study in another country is declining over time' (Teichler & Janson, 2007, p. 486). Two related reasons are pointed out for this decline. The massification of the ERASMUS programme, one of its most successful results, produced a mismatch between the competences acquired through 'massive' participation in transnational mobility and the demand for these competences from employers. Additionally, the diffusion of international competences among European youth made them less exclusive and hence less valuable in the labour market (Rivza & Teichler, 2007; Teichler, 2007).

ERASMUS students' motivations

There is not much research about ERASMUS students' motivations and even less when intensive courses are concerned. Maiworn and Teichler (2002) are among the few researchers who developed an analysis on students' motivations to get in-

4 According to the Recommendation of the European Parliament and of the Council of 18 December 2006 on key competences for lifelong learning, these competencies are: communication in the mother tongue; communication in foreign languages; mathematical competence and basic competences in science and technology; digital competence; learning to learn; social and civic competences; sense of initiative and entrepreneurship; cultural awareness and expression.

volved in short-term mobility. Under the scope of the evaluation of the conditions, processes and outcomes of ERASMUS student mobility in 1998/1999, a representative survey was undertaken. The questionnaire named 'Experiences of ERASMUS Students 1998/99' included questions that asked the students to select the motives that influenced their decision and to prioritise them⁵. As the authors point out, there were many reasons to study abroad, but the motives with the highest scores were: the opportunity for self-development and learning a foreign language – 87 per cent of the respondents considered these motives to have a 'strong' or a 'rather strong' influence on their decision; the wish to gain academic learning experience in another country (82%); the wish to improve understanding of the host country (73%); the wish to improve career prospects (71%); and the wish to travel (71%), (Maiworn & Teichler, 2002, p. 88). Two years later, Teichler (2004, p. 397), referring to these results claimed that 'students expect the four major benefits of temporary study abroad frequently quoted by experts, namely, academic, cultural, linguistic and professional benefits'.

In the 2006 ESN Survey (Krzaklewska & Krupnik, 2007, p. 14), students were asked to point out the importance of each motive listed⁶. The most 'important' or 'very important' motivations indicated by the respondents were: to have new experiences (98%); to practice a foreign language (90%); to learn about different cultures (90%); to meet new people (90%). These results were similar to the findings of Maiworn and Teichler (2002). However, Krzaklewska and Krupnik's research showed that there were important differences when age, gender, income, and country or region were taken into account (Krzaklewska & Krupnik, 2007, pp. 14–15).

The quantitative research conducted by Lesjak, Juvan, Ineson, Yap, and Axelson (2015) used an ERASMUS mobility motives scale. The scale was composed

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- 5 The suggested motives were the following: wish to become familiar with subjects that are not offered at your institution; hope to obtain better marks/examination results after your return from the study period abroad; wish to become acquainted with teaching methods that are not used at your institution; wish to gain academic learning experience in another country; wish to have access to specific laboratories and equipment; learning a foreign language; wish to travel (e.g. ERASMUS offered convenient/cheap means of going abroad); other friends were going; wish to have another perspective on your home country; wish to improve career prospects; wanted a break from your usual surroundings; opportunity for self-development; and you did not think much about it (e.g. it was required for the degree programme) (Maiworn & Teichler, 2002, p. 88).
 - 6 The motives used in this research were: to have new experiences; to practice a foreign language; to learn about different cultures; to meet new people; to live in a foreign country; to have fun; to enhance future employment prospects; to improve my academic knowledge; and to be independent (Krzaklewska & Krupnik, 2007, p. 14).

of fourteen items⁷ and measured on a 5-point scale from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. The most important motives to get involved in ERASMUS mobility were consistent with previous research findings, presented above. The respondents wanted 'to experience something new' (mean=4.67), 'to grow personally' (mean=4.55), 'to learn about different cultures' (mean=4.5), 'to meet new people' (mean=4.5), 'to have a semester away from home' (mean=4.41), 'to improve foreign language' (mean=4.32), and 'to experience European identity' (mean=4.01) (Lesjak et al., 2007, p. 854).

Based on autobiographical narratives and interviews with ERASMUS students, Krzaklewska (2008) identified four motivational areas and eleven different motives to get involved in short-term international mobility⁸. Three of the motivational areas are similar to the major benefits identified by experts (Teichler, 2004): academic, cultural, and linguistic. However, when students were asked to freely write about their motivations, the professional motives lost importance and were replaced by personal ones. This finding, along with the relatively low scores of the items related to employability motives used in the quantitative research mentioned above, allows us to question the importance given to the employment and professionally related motives by some scholars and European policy-makers.

Methodology

The aim of this article is to answer to the following question: What were the motivations of the students that attended the International Winter School in 2016 (Lattke & Egetenmeyer, 2016)⁹? The analysis of this article is based on a qualita-

7 The items were: experience something new; grow personally; to learn about different cultures; meet new people; to have a semester away from home; improve foreign language; experience European identity; experience different educational system; to improve my academic knowledge; enhance employment opportunities; new contacts in field of studies; academic support for my thesis; take advantage of ERASMUS grant; it was compulsory (Lesjak, Juvan, Ineson, Yap, & Axelsson, 2015, p. 854).

8 The eleven motives are distributed by the four motivational areas as follows: '1. Academic (improving academic knowledge, studying in a different system, hoping that it will be useful for future employment/work) 2. Linguistic (practicing a foreign language); 3. Cultural (learning about different cultures, living in a foreign country); 4. Personal (having new experiences, having fun, meeting new people, being independent, developing as a person) (Krzaklewska, 2008, p. 9).

9 The data are based on an external evaluation carried out within the ERASMUS+ Strategic partnership COMPALL, performed by the German Institute for Adult Education (Lattke & Egetenmeyer, 2016).

tive and comprehensive approach (Lichtman, 2006). To this end, the discussion focuses on empirical data collected by the evaluation of the 2016 International Winter School. It aimed at collecting data on students' motivations. The evaluation was supported by a survey, namely a paper questionnaire filled out by 82 of the 91 participants and on short interviews of 8 selected students, both master's and doctoral. A content analysis (Neuendorf, 2002) of data concerning students' motivations was performed to identify the main features discussed in next section.

Data discussion

Demographics

Students attending the COMPALL Winter school were 68.3 per cent female and 31.7 per cent male. The gender balance is consistent with other findings on ERASMUS students (EU, 2015; Lesjak et al., 2015; Krzaklewska & Krupnik, 2007; Maiworn & Teichler, 2002), confirming the higher participation rates of female students observed since the launch of the programme (Maiworn & Teichler, 2002).

In accordance with the Winter School target groups, 67.1 per cent of the participants were enrolled in a master's course at their home university, 30.3 per cent were doctoral students, and 2.6 per cent were enrolled in other study programmes. Students were from 17 different countries of origin: 66.6 per cent from European countries and 33.4 per cent from non-European ones. The most represented countries were Germany, Italy, and India with 51.2 per cent of all participants.

For the majority of participants (53.7%), the Winter School was the first international mobility experience. Those who did have a previous mobility experience attended an international conference, completed an exchange semester or/and an intensive international course, participated in a study excursion abroad or, more rarely, in an international internship or volunteering activity.

COMPALL students' motivational factors

Winter School participants were asked to rank the importance of each of seven motives presented to them, using a 5-point scale (1- not at all, 5- very much). All the motives received high ratings, with means ranging from 3.72 to 4.65. The top motivations to participate were related to culture and academics. To meet lecturers and students from other countries were the most important motives to attend the Winter School (meeting lecturers from other countries, mean = 4.65; meeting students from other countries, mean = 4.50). Students were also motivated by the opportunity of improving their academic knowledge in the topics 'Comparative Studies' and 'European Lifelong Learning Strategies', the core topic

of the course (interest in the topic 'Comparative Studies', mean = 4.26; interest in the topic 'European Lifelong Learning Strategies', mean = 3.93), as already emphasised by Schmidt-Lauff, Semrau, and Egetenmeyer (forthcoming). To improve career prospects was another important motivational factor (improvement of your career prospects, mean = 4.14). This last result was similar to other findings (Krzaklewska & Krupnik, 2007; Maiworn & Teichler, 2002), revealing once more the belief in one of most important expected benefits of transnational mobility (Teichler, 2004). Further motives were related to language and culture (interest in travelling to Germany, mean = 3.74; improving English language skills = 3.72).

The motives to participate in the Winter School were strongly influenced by two educational and demographic attributes: the participants' educational level and country origin. Doctoral students' motives were consistently more academic and career-related than those of master's students. They were motivated by the specific Winter School topics, by interacting with researchers from other countries, and by improving their career prospects.

Table 1: Motives to participate in the Winter School 2016 (cf. Lattke & Egetenmeyer, 2016)

Motives	Educational Level		Country origin		Global
	MA	PhD	Eur	Non-Eur	
Interest in 'Comparative Studies'	4.08	4.52	4.08	4.71	4.26
Interest in 'European LLL Strategies'	3.70	4.22	3.68	4.42	3.93
Improving English language skills	3.84	3.74	4.12	3.26	3.72
Interest in travelling to Germany	3.71	3.75	3.61	3.92	3.74
Improving career perspectives	3.96	4.30	3.88	4.63	4.14
Meeting students from other countries	4.58	4.39	4.55	4.54	4.50
Meeting lecturers from other countries	4.52	4.83	4.70	4.54	4.65

However, the strongest differences in motivational factors were found between European and non-European participants. The latter were much more motivated by strictly academic motives – their interest in Comparative Studies and European Lifelong Learning strategies – and career perspectives than their European colleagues. Among others, two reasons may explain the importance attributed by non-European participants to these motives. Janson, Schomburg,

and Teichler (2009, p. 25) point out that one of the benefits of studying abroad is the ‘acquisition of academic knowledge (theories, methods and basic disciplinary knowledge) in areas of expertise which are not taught in the home country at all or only on a substantially lower level’. If this benefit can be perceived as one reason for getting involved in short-term mobility by European students, we can hypothesise that this reason was even more important for students coming from non-European countries, where most probably European lifelong learning strategies are not taught and comparative studies are less developed. The enhancement of career prospects has been presented as one of the benefits of mobility programmes and as one of the important motives indicated by ERASMUS students for being involved in transnational mobility (Krzaklewska & Krupnik, 2006; Krzaklewska, 2008; Maiworn & Teichler, 2002). If European students valorise the professional value of ERASMUS in the labour market, it is not surprising that non-European students value it even more and mention improving their career prospects as the second most important motive to attend the intensive course.

The answers to the open questions about learning and personal outcomes were consistent with participants’ motivations to attend the Winter School, as argued by Schmidt-Lauff, Semrau, and Egetenmeyer (forthcoming) as well. Students stated that they learnt about adult education policies and strategies in different countries:

‘I learnt about politics, policies and strategies in Adult Education and Lifelong Learning’;
 ‘I learnt about Adult Education and Lifelong Learning in different countries in terms of structures, demand and needs, funding, programmes, policies and frameworks of the programmes.’

Students also referred to learning about comparative research methodologies and skills

‘How to compare different aspects in different countries’;
 ‘I learnt to do a comparative study, the procedure, the methodology’.

In terms of what is referred to as academic learning outputs, we can add the improvement of English language skills mentioned by several participants.

Contrary to the learning outputs, which were concentrated in three main topics, participants’ personal motivations were much more diversified. Similar to Krzaklewska’s (2008) findings, participants referred to their development as persons. Some claimed they became more self-confident and more tolerant when cultural differences were at stake:

‘To be more open-minded towards other people’;
 ‘To reduce my prejudice’;

'Confidence in oneself';

'I met international friends. They raise my self-confidence'.

Others emphasised the acquisition of cultural skills and knowledge:

'I got in touch with so many cultures so I learnt to know and interact with them';

'I gained intercultural competencies through dialogue and an understanding awareness';

'Marriage in different cultures, religion, food, weather, language, behaviour, transport, education, clothes: intercultural experience!';

'While interacting with students from other countries, I learnt some words in their language and their national dishes (food), cultures'.

To sum up, students presented several motives to attend the Winter School. Our findings showed that participants engaged in this intensive course primarily for cultural and academic reasons (to meet students and colleagues from other countries) and secondly for the specific academic topics taught ('Comparative Studies' and 'European Lifelong Learning Strategies'). These results corroborate previous findings, reinforcing the idea of academically oriented motivations among ERASMUS students. Along with academically oriented motivations, career motives were also very important to these participants, as they were for most ERASMUS students.

When comparing participants' motivation factors with the most important outcomes they reported, we found that there was a high level of consistency between them concerning the acquisition of academic knowledge and skills. However, we also would like to stress the importance attributed to several aspects of personal development and to the acquisition of cultural skills and knowledge.

Final remarks

Considered a successful programme, ERASMUS has a long history of promoting students' mobility in the last decades. Recent data concerning students' participation reinforce the idea that it facilitates relevant occasions for promoting intercultural dialogue and foreign language proficiency, among other aims. Additionally, ERASMUS is an important opportunity for increasing internationalisation and cooperation among higher education institutions.

In this article, students' motivations to participate in the intensive course COMPALL Winter School were analysed. Although most of existing research focused on short-term mobility, that is, one or two semesters abroad, very few studies looked at intensive courses, which usually last no more than two weeks, such as the one discussed in this article. Like many other studies, the COMPALL survey stressed students' personal academic, cultural, and linguistic motivations. These motivations were more pronounced among non-European students. Ow-

ing to the aims and extent of the COMPALL survey, it was not possible to get in-depth data about students' motivations. Therefore, it is important to note that data analysis for the purpose of this article alerts us to the need to include items related to cultural and personal dimensions in the list of motives. This proposal will allow us to, on the one hand, add complexity to the study of Winter School students' motivational factors, and on the other hand, to compare them with the motives of those engaged in short-term international mobility.

Complementarily, when considering the main aims of the ERASMUS programme, data analysis of COMPALL students' motivations revealed the wish to share academic knowledge, skills, and values for developing research on adult education and lifelong learning policies. Future studies on student motivation could explore how the ERASMUS programme has contributed to standardisation in higher education and to the reduction of adult education and lifelong learning policies to European perspectives, even though knowledge and research traditions in adult education policies are quite diverse around the world. This concern is very much linked to the fact that non-European students expressed higher motivations for attending the Winter School than European students. Such differences might also be studied by further research and evaluation surveys.

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COMPALL-Joint Module: Diversity of Participants and Models of Curricular and Local Implementation

Abstract: The chapter provides an insight into the diversity of participants as a target group of the joint module COMPALL. It further outlines possibilities for personalised pathways and a range of options for an implementation of joint modules in local curricula and study programmes.

Introduction: Challenges of joint modules

The debate on the internationalisation of higher education became a serious issue during the 1990s. Internationalisation is to be understood as ‘policies and practices undertaken by academic systems and institutions – and even individuals – to cope with global academic environment’ (Altbach & Knight, 2007, p. 290). The main motivations for internationalisation were enhancing commercial advantage, promoting knowledge and language acquisition, and developing curricula with an international content. These motivations were strongly connected to globalisation processes (Teichler, 2004). These became more evident in recent decades, involving economic, political, and societal forces pushing twenty-first-century higher education towards deeper international involvement. This involvement included the investment in knowledge industries, in which higher education institutions are relevant players, especially in Western countries; the emergence of the knowledge society was supported by several international organisations such as the European Union; the rise of the service sector and the high dependence of societies on highly educated workers for economic growth was noticed (Altbach & Knight, 2007).

Internationalisation has involved an increase in mobility in higher education, which is now a common activity. Universities, still mainly nationally based bodies, can draw on international funding programmes, such as ERASMUS, as important resources for international mobility (Byram & Dervin, 2009). ERASMUS is one of the best-known funding programmes in the European Union. It was created in 1987, following a first generation of European policies from the 1970s. This first generation of mobility policies was intended to promote

higher education mobility programmes such as the ones existing in the United States at that time. They aimed at increasing intercultural dialogue and improving foreign languages proficiency. ERASMUS, a ‘trigger to internationalisation of higher education’ (Teichler, 2009), was conceived as a wide-scale mobility programme, ensuring equality of opportunities for all students, promoting co-operation among higher education institutions, strengthening intellectual potential as well as dialogue and interaction among European citizens. In 2006, the Lifelong Learning Programme included ERASMUS, extending the target groups of international mobility to teachers and staff of higher education institutions, research centres, enterprises, counselling services, and organisations designed to enhance knowledge and innovation. This funding programme became an essential pillar for building the European Area of Higher education as part of the Bologna Process (Byram & Dervin, 2009). Today, ERASMUS+ 2014–2020 additionally covers a wide range of educational areas (from higher education to advanced education, vocational education and training, youth and sports, among others). Therefore, it fosters the international dimension of education and training, increasing mobility and promoting co-operation for innovation and the exchange of good practices. Complementarily, it is intended to improve the use of information and communication technology (ICT), enabling collaborative learning and the building of networks of institutions or individuals (European Union, 2017).

Within ERASMUS+, several actions can be developed. Within intensive programmes, a joint module can be broadly defined as a strategy combining different educational steps and didactic approaches based on shared aims and directed at specific groups of students. Additionally, a joint-module intensive programme structure must be created and developed by multiple higher education institutions in order to involve a diverse range of academic staff and students coming from various countries and sharing several academic and research traditions. Owing to its characteristics, a joint module involves a high degree of creativity and innovation. The development of a joint programme involving higher education institutions from different countries has become more common but is still a rare phenomenon. Joint modules face several challenges: On the one hand, they face the challenge of implementing joint modules in higher education curricula structures. On the other hand, they face the challenges of diversity in such programmes, which also includes a high diversity of participants (Lattke, 2012). This diversity is not limited to the study level.

This paper analyses the diversity of participants in the *Joint Module COM-PALL*, outlining options for addressing this diversity. On the one hand, the paper

outlines the design of personalised pathways to accommodate the diversity of participants. On the other hand, it outlines models for the integration of the *Joint Module COMPALL*, which are implemented at the partner universities of the COMPALL project (cf. Egetenmeyer, in this volume). Finally, the paper reflects on lessons learned from the development and implementation of the *Joint Module COMPALL*.

Diversity of participants

The *Joint Module COMPALL* is designed for master's and doctoral students studying subjects related to adult education and lifelong learning. The joint module is part of a degree programme at each university (see below), from which most students are selected. Participants for the joint module are selected by each partner university based on their academic performance in the field of adult education and lifelong learning and based on suitable English language skills (minimum B2). Despite this common framework, local strategies are implemented to collect students' requests and interests and to select the group that will join the Winter School experience.

For example, at the universities of Würzburg and Hamburg, students are invited, first of all, to self-register for the Winter School through the COMPALL platform. Furthermore, in case there are more registrations than seats, students are selected by the programme coordinators, even though the universities make the effort to include all interested students in the course.

The University of Padova gives priority to first-year master's students and PhD students, followed by second-year master's students, due to an internal agreement concerning the programmes of study. Finally, at the University of Florence, students are asked to self-register through the COMPALL platform and through the 'Albo ufficiale di Ateneo' (university register). Selections are made on the basis of an excellent academic performance and/or practical experience in the field of adult education.

Despite the integration of the module into adult education and lifelong learning programmes, the partner consortium experienced a high level of diversity among participants, which is influenced by a wide variety of factors:

Disciplinary background of students

At the various partner universities, studies in adult education and lifelong learning are situated in very different study structures and disciplines. Whereas some partner universities already have a broad spectrum of adult education offerings

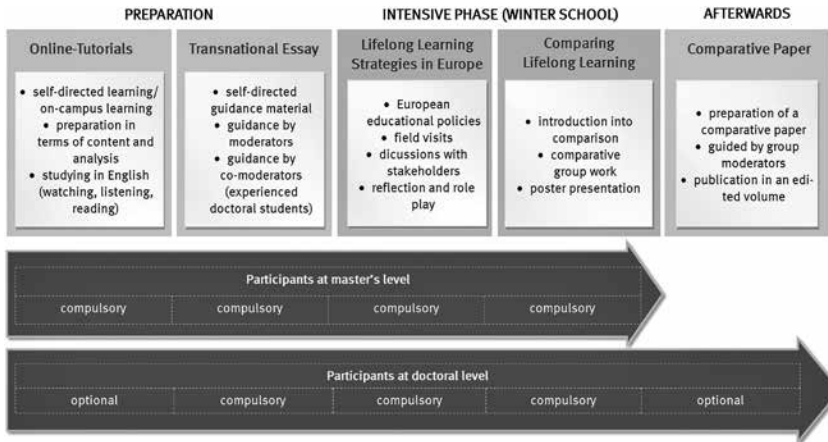
at the undergraduate level, other partner universities only offer some lectures and modules in adult and continuing education at the master's level. At other universities, it is common to focus on adult education only during doctoral studies. As a consequence, knowledge about discourses and research results in the adult education sector of their home contexts (frequently from a national basis) varies strongly between participants. Diversity is found with regard to

- English language skills: students' English skills and confidence in writing and talking in English based on their cultural and educational tradition;
- on-campus preparation at partner universities: the structure and organisation of preparation at each home university;
- previous participation in the COMPALL Joint Module: students' previous enrolment in a former Winter School that allows them to face the experience with more self-confidence and readiness;
- peer experience and learning: the presence of former students allows for implementing peer learning experiences beginning during the on-campus preparation phase at their own universities;
- extent of ECTS recognition: each university awards a different number of ECTS credits, according to local rules and policies;
- participants' study level of participants: as mentioned before, master's or doctoral level.

Personalised pathways

Owing to the differences between students joining the *Joint Module COMPALL* in terms of previous disciplinary background, knowledge of lifelong learning and adult education policies, English skills, essay-writing experience, and so forth, the need of having personalised pathways becomes clear. The establishment of such pathways involves requirements, such as considering the fact that students have different learning biographies which have an impact on the knowledge they will develop and on their performance while preparing themselves for the intensive programme, as well as during the intensive programme and afterwards, when writing the comparative education article.

Figure 1: Personalised pathways within the Joint Module COMPALL



Source: COMPALL 2017

Joining the *Joint Module COMPALL* involves three steps. After registering, students are asked to prepare themselves for attending the intensive programme. The preparation phase includes diverse strategies aimed at supporting students. Several universities have developed different preparation pathways, including various steps of learning and discussion. Professors at students' home universities, whether joining the COMPALL project or not, guide students in their exploration of topics concerning adult education and lifelong learning. This phase generally starts in September and October of the year prior to the intensive programme. This preparation phase includes watching online tutorials available via the Moodle course of the *Joint Module COMPALL* and as open educational resources at the project website (COMPALL, 2017). These online tutorials are aimed at promoting on-campus preparation at students' home universities through self-directed learning tutorials (such as videos asking students to read books, articles, and anthologies and to perform specific tasks). These tutorials prepare students in terms of both content and analysis. There is also an attempt to enhance students' English skills by having them watch and listen to videos and read existing materials (PowerPoint slides, articles, anthologies, etc.). This preparation phase is compulsory for master's students but optional for doctoral students. Apart from the work based on the online tutorials, both master's and doctoral students have to prepare a transnational essay of 5–6 pages on one specific issue to be debated

in small comparative groups during the second week of the intensive programme. This transnational essay is a written document, structured and written according to academic writing criteria, on a specific problem or issue significant for an understanding of adult education and lifelong learning policies. It is also a document that somehow reflects the debate on this specific problem or issue in students' home country. This document is used in the second week of the intensive programme in the comparison of national approaches in adult education and lifelong learning.

In this transnational essay, information and evidence are presented, analysed, and applied to a particular problem or issue. This problem or issue has previously been identified as a subtopic to which the group work is devoted. This transnational essay has to be a response to the general questions, drawing on the defined contexts and categories of comparison provided previously by the intensive programme. It has to follow the structure identified by the participant guide for writing the transnational essay: students must include a cover page, a summary, a table of contents, an introduction, some chapters, conclusions, references, and an appendix. For this transnational essay, master's students can be expected to need more guidance than doctoral students. For the purpose of writing this transnational essay, the Moodle course of the *Joint Module COMPALL* provides self-directed guidance materials. Additionally, students may receive guidance from the moderators of the comparative groups under development during the second week of the intensive programme. Experienced doctoral students may also give additional guidance to students.

Attending the intensive programme in face-to-face sessions during two weeks in February each year is the second phase of the *Joint Module COMPALL*. In the first week, students are asked to join classroom sessions directed at debating lifelong learning strategies in Europe. In addition, students discuss issues concerning adult education and lifelong learning policies, make field visits, and debate relevant matters with guest speakers. This first week includes classes aiming at debating transnational issues such as European education policies and analytical models to be used in these discussions. Students are joined by scholars and stakeholders in adult education and lifelong learning as well as providers of adult and continuing education in Germany. Apart from that, reflection is the preferred pedagogic strategy for combining theory and practice based on the observations made during the field visits and the input from guest speakers. Finally, students are invited to join a role play on adult education and lifelong learning policies.

In the second week, students join small groups on specific topics related to the transnational essays they wrote during the preparation phase. The aim of these

groups involves comparing lifelong learning and adult education policies. For achieving comparison, this second week includes discussion on how to compare and what to compare when considering adult education and lifelong learning policies. Afterwards, students work in small groups based on their previously written transnational essays. The transnational essay is presented by students during the second week in their respective comparative groups. It is discussed by comparative group professors and other colleagues in order to further prepare the authors for writing a comparative scientific article on a specific topic to be published after peer review.

Students' attendance of the intensive programme, the second step of the joint module methodology, is quite different from the first step. It is intended to encourage debates on lifelong learning strategies in Europe and to foster comparison between the different countries represented. This group work is directed at finding similarities and differences between adult education and lifelong learning policies. Each student analyses these similarities and differences as well as the contextual and historical dimensions that justify comparison. During this second week, students are asked to prepare a poster presentation for all students attending the intensive programme. They use the posters to present the content of the discussions held and the results of comparing national educational and learning policies.

The two face-to-face weeks are attended by master's and doctoral students. These are different students in terms of the level of higher education they attend. However, the face-to-face weeks follow a similar path for both groups of students, even if the evaluations by professors supervising the first week or by those supervising the comparative group work may identify differences in the quality of discussion and comprehension of the problems and issues debated. During these two weeks, students are asked to attend lectures, complete tasks, and develop various activities, regardless of whether they are master's or doctoral students.

The third step is the post-campus phase. This phase is optional. It consists of preparing a comparative paper to be submitted and published. Students are organised into smaller groups for writing a comparative paper. Guided by comparative group moderators, the writing involves comparisons of different adult education and lifelong learning policies, according to a specific topic raised in the second week of the intensive programme. The academic papers are to be published in an edited volume.

Therefore, the aim of the third phase of the intensive programme is to write research papers to be presented to academic journals or books. It is specifically directed at doctoral students. This phase happens in the months following the face-to-face phase of the intensive programme. The papers to be written are comparative re-

search papers that follow general academic criteria. These papers are informed by the transnational essays written by the doctoral students, the debates and tasks completed during the face-to-face phase, and by further readings, writings, and guidelines provided by the professors supervising the writing of each of these papers.

The post-campus strategies include activities to value, share, and disseminate the intensive programme experiences, for example through peer tutoring activities after the intensive programme or through strategies to integrate the results of the *Joint Module COMPALL* in the local curriculum and dissemination actions. The University of Würzburg devotes specific attention to this phase. After the intensive programme, participants are asked to elaborate the results of their group work in a paper of about 10–15 pages. A former participant of the intensive programme presents his or her experiences to future participants in one of the preparatory sessions. Students can contact that former participant for advice and guidance.

After attending the *Joint Module COMPALL*, the doctoral students are made aware of other international study possibilities and get the opportunity to report their experiences to other doctoral students during their colloquia.

Curricular implementation of the Joint Module COMPALL

The implementation and local recognition of the *Joint Module COMPALL* are influenced by local situations. In fact, it had to be adapted to the characteristics of each specific context, defined by universities' purposes, policies, and constraints, as well as meso-level factors. Therefore, even if there has been a high level of sharing among partners in the process of defining and implementing the *Joint Module COMPALL*, there are various levels of integration into local curricula, resulting in varying degrees of ECTS recognition at each university partner.

As shown in Table 1, there are four main models of integration within the COMPALL consortium and four related ways of awarding ECTS credits for the various local degree programmes:

1. Modular integration into master's studies in education: this mode of integration is realised when the *Joint Module COMPALL* is part of the local study courses;
2. Recognition as part of qualification programmes at the doctoral level (e.g. in graduate schools): For doctoral students, no ECTS recognition is possible, but the programme is included in the doctoral learning path;
3. Issuing of extracurricular certificates, which represent evidence of in-depth studies of international adult education and which students can receive next to their regular studies (e.g. International Adult Education at the University of Würzburg);

4. Opportunity for exchange students, who do not have to follow local curricula that closely, and for whom the intensive programme provides additional value as part of their international studies.

Table 1: Modular integration of the Joint Module into local curricula

University partners	Courses of study	ECTS
Julius-Maximilians-University Würzburg Germany	First year of master's degree course: <i>Bildungswissenschaft</i> (Education); it is realised in the module of <i>Bildungsmanagement</i> (Educational management)	6
Helmut-Schmidt-University Hamburg Germany	First and second year of master's degree course: <i>Bildungs- und Erziehungswissenschaft</i> (Education) realised in the module of <i>Theoretical and methodological approaches to research in adult education/ further education: Project learning</i>	2-6
University of Florence Italy	First and second year of master's degree in <i>Adult Education. Lifelong Learning and Pedagogical Science of the University of Florence</i> ; students can ask for recognition of the Joint Module	12
University of Padua Italy	Part of the master's degree course in <i>Management of Educational Services and Lifelong Education</i> . It includes two different courses: i) <i>Development and management of educational services</i> ; ii) <i>Adult and continuing education</i>	2+2
University of Pécs Hungary	The Joint Module is part of the new curriculum of the master's programme in <i>Andragogy/Adult education</i>	4

Source: Authors' own

At all university partners, the *Joint Module COMPALL* includes the preparatory phase and the intensive programme organised every year in Würzburg, but the information summarised in Table 1 shows both the different levels of recognition of the *Joint Module COMPALL* (owing to the diverse characteristics of local and national contexts and policies) and the fact that doctoral studies are not organised in terms of ECTS at any partner university.

At the University of Pécs in Hungary, Joint Module credits were recognised by the M.A. programmes in *Adult Education* and the M.A. in *Human Resources Counselling* for the 2016 academic year. In the 2017 academic year, a new aca-

demic curriculum was established, in which the *Joint Module COMPALL* is recognised by the M.A. programme in *Andragogy/AE*. In addition, the COMPALL Joint Module is integrated as a subject addressing adult learning and education research. This shows that the *Joint Module COMPALL* also has to adapt to regular changes within the master's programmes at the partner universities.

The different levels of *Joint Module COMPALL* recognition are connected to grading criteria when master's students gain ECTS and have to show a grade. But there are several participants who do not target a formal recognition within their studies. Their priority is developing their English language and essay-writing skills, being part of an international experience, and learning about comparative methodology. These are the really important aspects of the learning experience for all participants.

The most important and common grading criteria are related to the preparation of the transnational essay and the presentation of the results of their pre-campus work. In addition to these grading criteria, the universities of Hamburg and Würzburg also consider the subsequent and compulsory delivery of a 10–15-page paper about the results of students' comparative group work, including some reflections that emerged during and after the intensive programme phase.

The case of University of Florence deserves special attention because it awards 12 ECTS credits, showing how the *Joint Module COMPALL* is relevant to the students who choose to participate. It represents a specific unit of analysis (see the box below).

A brief presentation of the case of the University of Florence

This box is devoted to the way the Joint Module COMPALL is integrated into the curricula of the University of Florence, because the processes of promotion, participation/selection, pre-campus preparation, post-campus experience, evaluation, and recognition of the Joint Module COMPALL are quite substantial.

- i) The process of promotion requires that the Joint Module COMPALL is presented on the website of the Department of Education and Psychology starting in August each year; then during the classes Methodology of research, Adult education, Pedagogy of educational and social policies, and Laboratory of educational project management, during which some feedback by former participants is provided.

This first process is also supported by the Albo ufficiale of the university, a public register of competitive bursaries or scholarships, which also provides useful information on the COMPALL scholarship for students. The purpose is to comply with academic rules, according to which all scholarships must be awarded in a public and transparent manner.

- ii) The second process refers to the selection criteria for the participation in intensive programme. Among those criteria for students who choose to attend the pre-campus preparation phase and the intensive programme in Würzburg is that they must be enrolled in the first or second year of the master's degree in Adult education. In addition, students must be attending or have attended the classes Methodology of research in education and Adult education. The participation requires that students apply for the intensive programme scholarship both via the Winter School website and via the Albo ufficiale di Ateneo.

The possibility to participate in the whole project depends on some specific selection criteria such as: a) students' ability to write a paper of quality for presentation during the Winter School; b) good or excellent academic performance; c) knowledge of or practical experience in adult education; d) at least B1-level English language skills; e) strong motivation.

- iii) The selection process leads students to the third important phase of pre-campus preparation, realised through scheduled meetings. This phase is generally common at all university partners, but at the University of Florence, the explicit focus is both on essay writing, with proper attention devoted to the theoretical framework of comparative studies, and on the soft skills needed for the group work activities.
- iv) The evaluation phase is another relevant aspect at the University of Florence, because students have to write a paper of at least 30 pages in English about their Winter School experience. The paper assessment criteria are related to the level of accuracy and the use of scientific terms, as well as the structure of the paper. The grading criteria of the whole experience also include students' regular and active participation in the on-campus preparation activities.
- v) During the post-campus phase, students are asked to write a 10-page paper about the Winter School experience; it includes a description of their motivation for participating; a presentation of the Winter School experience including a comparison of their expectations, learning outcomes, and future perspectives. The purpose of this paper is to show the level of improvement in students' English language, writing, and analytical skills.

To receive 12 ECTS credits for the Joint Module COMPALL for their local curricula, Florence students must complete the entire process: from pre-campus preparation to the post-intensive programme experience, including all the tasks presented in the previous paragraphs.

Conclusion

One of the most important aims of European policies is to support the internationalisation process and to promote dialogue and co-operation among higher education institutions, as required by the necessity of young people's mobility, and enforced by globalisation and innovation. The COMPALL consortium has attempted to face that challenge, requiring all partners to be able to share their expertise, their knowledge, and to create new knowledge, questioning their teaching and didactics, their traditions, identifying their strengths and their weaknesses, and implementing a strong process of peer-learning among them. The output of this process is the development and the implementation of a common joint module involving students with different educational and cultural backgrounds to take part in the intensive programme in Würzburg as a place of learning and peer-learning.

The success of the COMPALL consortium can be identified in the possibility to mitigate the differences between the various teaching, didactical, and cultural perspectives by bridging them through the *Joint Module COMPALL* while at the same time respecting personal and local traditions and being aware of the constraints of contexts and policies.

Another important result has been the commitment registered among partners to advocate for some changes in their local contexts and to obtain increasing ECTS recognition as part of their local degree programmes.

In conclusion, the aspects outlined above are the most important lessons learned from the whole project, because the implementation of shared knowledge (*Joint Module COMPALL*), built on the responsibility, commitment, availability of understanding contexts, cultures, policies, the willingness of learning and exchanging expertise, welcoming the diversity of participants, and thinking about the relevance of a personalised learning pathway, need to be interpreted as the possibility to connect the differences, to find out a common language, and a common ground on which higher education institutions can build the process of co-operation, innovation, and exchange good practices.

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Krisztina Fodorné Tóth

The COMPALL Blended Learning Path: Online, On-campus, and Intensive Phases

Abstract: Blended learning is a suitable learning form for several kinds of learners, including international groups made up of students from different levels, countries, and institutions. The COMPALL blended learning path is a combination of different approaches and tools, which contains also a certain possibility of flipped classroom process.

Blended learning definitions and framework

Blended learning is one of the most flexible forms of learning: it is suitable for multiple learning groups (Garison, Vaughan, & Norman, 2008), it is good for differentiation modes, and it can maintain the required levels of ICT support. There is more than one definition of blended learning, depending on the specific approach. There are four main concepts, each based on a different point of view (Stacey & Gerbic, 2008):

1. To combine forms of instructional technology with face-to-face, instructor-led training.
2. To mix modes of web-based technology (learning management system, live virtual classroom, streaming video, audio, and text, interactive online games) to accomplish a certain educational goal.
3. To combine different pedagogical theories/approaches to produce an optimal learning outcome.
4. To combine instructional technology with job tasks to create a real-world effect of learning and working.

The two most common approaches are 1 and 2, which put instructional technology at the centre of learning support. Nowadays, as web-based or even web 2.0 and mobile internet technologies have become the dominant technologies, we can combine those approaches into one, based on various forms of digital (online) instructional technologies mixed with face-to-face, instructor-led training.

In e-learning history (Holmes & Gardner, 2006), there are many examples of approaches 1 or 2 in the area formerly known as computer-supported instruction or computer-supported learning. After ICT and internet penetration reached a certain level (in terms of the numbers of regular users and websites), it was called web-based education. One form of this was spread mainly through higher education

institutions, where educators and students started to use learning management systems, learning content management systems, and later community-based websites. Regular classes were still held still face to face, but between sessions, educators and students communicated via learning management systems and/or community portals, and assignments and other assessment tools were mostly transferred to digital channels. This is how traditional means of education were supplemented by digital network tools. But as these tools came to the front not only as learning supporters but also as essential parts of everyday life, electronic learning support started to produce its own methods and aspects (Bonk & Graham, 2006). One aspect is based on a very old pedagogical approach known as learning by doing (or learning by activity). Networked users can identify themselves and fellow users mainly by their visible activities, so learning by doing in the digital space is not one of the competing educational approaches but the natural way of learning. Accordingly, in digital and networked learning, we can build more on students' activities than when using traditional instruction materials (like textbooks and lecture notes) or multimedia-based approaches that mostly consist of providing study materials (like recorded class lectures). That is why educational games and apps became extremely popular in the last few years. Besides, a relatively recent and not very widespread educational method, the flipped classroom, found its way to the spotlight.

Although there is not an exclusive model for it, the basic idea of the flipped classroom (Tucker, 2012) is to flip the traditional instructional approach: with the help of teacher-created interactive study materials (quite strongly built on recorded online videos), instruction that used to occur in a classroom setting is now accessed at home, in advance of class. As a result, class can be the place to work on issues, problems, and advanced concepts, and to engage in collaborative learning. Both online study time and face-to-face classes can be resourceful and activity-based in a most effective way. Although originally created to help absent students catch up with class lessons, the flipped classroom approach proved much more useful for present students as well. Today, many forms of flipped classroom are known from early high school to higher education. It seems particularly suitable for intensive courses and trainings where a short, very rich and busy face-to-face phase is combined with other learning phases when participants and contributors do not actually meet (Herreid & Schiller, 2013).

COMPALL blended learning model

At first glance, the COMPALL model of blended learning is a typical example of approach 1 of blended learning: a combination of online learning forms (via a learning management system and professional online network sites) and face-to-

face instruction phases. Beyond that, however, its main pedagogical approach is closer to the flipped classroom than to ‘traditional’ blended forms. In the so-called joint-module methodology, adult education professionals adopted various teaching approaches to reach out to students from several European and even non-European countries (Egetenmeyer, Schmidt-Lauff, & Boffo, 2017). The Strategic Partnership COMPALL developed a joint module in “Comparative Studies in Adult Education and Lifelong Learning”. Seven European partner universities are integrating the joint module into their master’s and doctoral study programmes on adult education and lifelong learning; in addition, participants from various non-EU universities help enrich content, methodology, and research results.

The learning process has three different sections:

1. Preparatory phase: on-campus preparation completed with an online tutorial phase through a commonly used learning management system (Moodle – WueCampus) for students at all partner universities.
2. Intensive phase: a two-week face-to-face instructional phase (Winter School at the Würzburg, Germany, campus), based mainly on international seminars and group work.
3. On-campus activities at each partner institution; optional publication by doctoral students and colleagues.

Each phase of learning support works with a different methodology based on different content. The sections have their own methodological toolkit designed to serve the pedagogical goals of each phase.

The Winter School, as a central part of the learning process, offers topics on international policies in adult education and lifelong learning as well as comparisons on selected issues within adult education and lifelong learning. During the preparatory phase, students are taught through on-campus sessions in four main areas:

- introduction to and overview of the *Joint Module COMPALL*;
- issues in European and international policies in adult education;
- issues in adult education in their local and national contexts;
- analytical strategies for performing comparative studies in the field of adult and continuing education.

The areas represent the primary goal of this phase: to equip students with suitable preparatory content and analytical skills for their comparative study and assignment, the required comparative essay. During the preparatory phase, each student is asked to choose more issues within the field of (comparative) adult and continuing education that they would like to investigate in more depth.

This session has a face-to-face and a distance learning part. The former is a preparatory course built into the curricula of the partner institutions; the latter is supported by online tutorials, which are currently being developed in a joint effort by all partner universities. The COMPALL expert group developed a certain content structure and multimedia design pattern for all online tutorials, based on pilot pieces and student evaluations. Each online tutorial provides an introduction to a basic topic (e.g. European policies regarding adult education) in the form of an introductory video, a reading assignment (a policy document or scientific paper), and a reflection video. They are designed to build on students' current knowledge, including their actual language skills. The introductory video is designed to get students interested in/curious about the reading assignment¹.

To this end, the video is connected to the text but does not repeat its content. It frames the text by giving students an idea about the broader discourse around the topic into which the text gives an insight. It also provides guidance for analytical reading by offering questions or tasks for students to keep in mind when reading the text. The video includes many graphical elements (slides based on pictures, figures, graphs, and animations), also showing the instructor (professor, educator). After watching this video, students read the text and answer the tasks/questions provided with the text. The texts help students reflect on the specific topic and serve as analytical material for answering the questions or working on the task. The reflection video wraps up students' work and helps them understand what they have learned. It leads them through the result of their analysis, giving them an impression of their learning results (not by providing answers but by outlining the main learning outcome students have achieved). Based on this, all participants prepare on campus by writing a transnational essay on one of the selected issues in adult and comparative education.

The Würzburg Winter School is made up of two main parts (Egetenmeyer, Schmidt-Lauff, & Boffo, 2017)

- Lifelong Learning Strategies in Europe (first week): participants learn through international classes, discussions, field visits, and reflections based on role plays. Online tutorials serve as preparation and starting points for this phase.
- Comparing Lifelong Learning (second week): participants attend one comparative group session on a selected issue in adult education and lifelong learning. These issues include learning cities, learning regions, and learning communities and competencies in formal, informal, and vocational education and

1 All videos are available as Open Educational Resources over <https://www.hw.uni-wuerzburg.de/index.php?id=196082>

are moderated by international experts. Transnational essays are written for supporting this section. Results of these comparisons are presented to other groups at the end of the week.

Participants can be master's and doctoral students. Doctoral students integrate the results arising from the comparative groups into their research for more in-depth comparison.

For help students and educators get oriented, the COMPALL project offers three online guides: one for universities about on-campus preparation, one for moderators and co-moderators about comparative groups, and one for participants about the whole learning process.

As an additional component, for developing and supporting group-based learning both in face-to-face and in distance learning settings, COMPALL uses a professional online network. This includes two types of community portal groups and the COMPALL website. The latter² is a central navigation and starting point to help students get acquainted with the project and the learning process itself. Its information tool section³ is especially helpful in this regard, containing not only professional contents in adult and lifelong learning as well as comparative research material in that area but also a starting kit of specially selected preparation materials for the Winter School. Besides, students, educators, and partner experts can use the website to log in to learning management systems for online preparation, collaborative spaces, or professional online network community portal groups.

LinkedIn has been chosen as the online networking site for COMPALL. Here, the project maintains one public group for students, professors/educators, and experts working in the area of adult and lifelong learning to connect and collaborate, and one non-public group for the students, educators, and organisers of each Winter School. Besides these public and non-public LinkedIn groups, partner institutions or groups of students can contact each other through ad-hoc institutional or national community portal groups, but these are temporary and do not involve many participants. The LinkedIn groups are the platforms providing sustainable information, communication, networking, exchange, and research for participants and other individuals (especially experts) interested in international studies in adult and lifelong learning. The more specific targets of these groups are to create

2 Cf COMPALL homepage: <https://www.hw.uni-wuerzburg.de/compall/startseite/>, retrieved 19.09.2017.

3 Cf COMPALL subpage: https://www.hw.uni-wuerzburg.de/compall/information_tool/, retrieved 19.09.2017.

- sustainable (online) contacts based on (changing) professional profiles;
- a communication space for short-term announcements;
- an information space with sustainable information on international study and research opportunities in adult education;
- the possibility to use profile information to get an overview of Winter School participants;
- the possibility for participants to connect right away during the Winter School and to exchange information only between participants (without) professors;
- networking opportunities within and beyond individual winter schools;
- the possibility to connect COMPALL to other relevant stakeholders and networks, to ensure updated information.

The public LinkedIn group *Professional Network for Adult Education and Lifelong Learning*⁴ is used quite frequently by project members, mostly by students and other partner institutions. At the time of writing (July 2017), the group had 606 members with more than one hundred posts. Obviously, membership includes more than all past Winter School participants (students and educators), and participant numbers increase every day, regardless of the current phase of the learning process. There is at least one daily update (sometimes even more) of group posts, which ensures the group's visibility in everyday LinkedIn data traffic. Apart from important links (to the project website, the information tool, other LinkedIn groups, etc.), contents shared in the group are related not only to the Winter School and other COMPALL events but also to international conferences, information about fellowships/scholarships, research projects, papers, professional newsletters, online presentations, and group members' professional thoughts, comments, or even brief discussions about various adult education and lifelong learning topics.

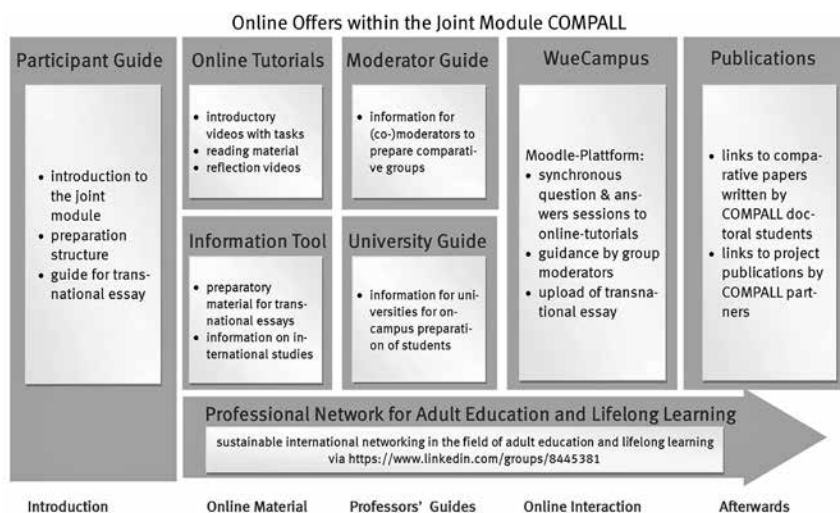
Non-public groups, in terms of their content, members, and activities, are more closely and exclusively related to current Winter School cycles. Students and educators start joining during the preparatory phase, and the group exclusively consists of current Winter School participants, educators, and organisers. Although it is uncommon for participants to leave the group, group activity fluctuates depending on which phase of the learning process students and educators are in. In the preparatory phase, this is the second (or sometimes first) platform for students to get in touch with each other and to get acquainted with the project. Therefore, every piece of practical information regarding the learning process and especially Winter School events are shared here in advance. Questions are also

4 Cf. LinkedIn group: <https://www.linkedin.com/groups/8445381>, retrieved 19.09.2017.

answered here by the coordinators. During and shortly after the intensive phase, the Winter School LinkedIn group is also busy with participants' communication. After the end of the Winter School cycle, the group is still maintained (meaning there are more Winter School groups on LinkedIn: one for each year), but activity levels eventually go down – participants contact each other more regarding specific issues such as a current project, research, or other type of professional cooperation (for example, there is a very successful long-term collaborative project between Delhi and Pécs participants).

To make further opportunities for collaboration more effective, participating students are encouraged to fill in their community (LinkedIn) profile regarding professional data in as much detail as possible. Coordinators suggest a structure for participants' profile, including particular data types such as institution, location, research topics, language proficiency, and contact information. Although sharing profile data effectively facilitates cooperation, making students aware of personal data protection is very important, too. That is why students may also choose not to create a personal LinkedIn profile. Students are asked to be aware that sharing information online means losing some control over it, and to consider whether sharing their particular data is safe enough for them or not.

Figure 1: COMPALL Online Offers



Source: COMPALL, 2017

Flipped classroom elements in the COMPALL blended learning process

As stated above, the flipped classroom methodology has a few common elements independent of the particular circumstances and individual methods of each learning process (Bishop & Verleger, 2013). These are noticeable in the COMPALL blended learning model as well, although this model is not an explicit form of flipped classroom. One of these elements is flipping the processing of primary content and the work on tasks: the former is done by students mainly during the preparatory phase and through online channels. Online tutorials are a pure expression of this approach, with additional interactive use of professional online network groups. The latter takes place in the intensive phase in the form of expert-moderated comparative groups. As a result, the combination of content-based interactive online preparation and task- and communication-based face-to-face learning leads blended learning methodology towards an extended flipped classroom process.

According to participants' feedback and evaluations, the COMPALL model of learning and instruction, by trying to articulate different teaching approaches, channelling them into a flexible and activity-based learning process, and maintaining a sustainable cooperation pattern, seems to succeed in reaching students and professionals from multiple countries and disciplinary traditions. Furthermore, it has become a working model for supporting efficient project-based learning and group work across various cultures and institutions.

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Susanne Lattke¹ & Regina Egetenmeyer²

Benefits and Potential of an International Intensive Programme: Insights from an Evaluation of the Joint Module COMPALL

Abstract: This paper presents some findings from an evaluation that has accompanied the implementation of an annual winter school as part of the Joint Module ‘Comparative Studies in Adult Education and Lifelong Learning’ (*Joint Module COMPALL*). The focus is on the benefits and outcomes of this module as perceived by the participants. Drawing on these findings, some reflections on the particular format of an international short-term programme such as the COMPALL Winter School will be proposed.

Introduction

The *Joint Module COMPALL*, which is the key focus of this paper, is part of the ERASMUS+ strategic partnership COMPALL, which aims to address the need for more highly qualified researchers and practitioners in adult learning, who are able and motivated to work in international environments and engage with international issues. The *Joint Module COMPALL* is designed to contribute towards this aim. Following a short presentation of the *Joint Module COMPALL* framework, this paper presents, in the first part, some selected results from the external evaluation of the module. In the second part, some general reflections on the potential of this particular didactical format in the context of adult education studies are proposed.

The evaluation of the Joint Module COMPALL

The evaluation context

The *Joint Module COMPALL* includes an on-campus international intensive programme that targets master’s and doctoral students in the field of adult education and lifelong learning (Egetenmeyer, 2016; Egetenmeyer, Schmidt-Lauff, & Boffo, 2017; Németh, 2017; Egetenmeyer, forthcoming; Schmidt-Lauff,

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Semrau, & Egetenmeyer, forthcoming). During the preparatory phase of the *Joint Module COMPALL*, participants are required to do some preparatory reading. Additionally, all participants write an essay on a selected aspect of adult education and lifelong learning in their home country as a contribution to one of the comparative groups that are organised later during the on-campus phase. During the preparation phase, students are further supported through online tutorials offered by the COMPALL partner consortium³ and through special preparatory courses at their home universities. In February, participants meet in Würzburg for the Winter School, which lasts for 10 workdays. The intensive phase is structured in two parts: During part 1, 'Lifelong Learning Strategies in Europe', students are offered various classes and activities. They are introduced to basic concepts of lifelong learning strategies and policies in Europe and to a model of policy analysis. In addition, they learn about adult education structures in Germany and have the opportunity to do various field visits, attend guest lectures, and engage in discussions with German and European stakeholders in adult education.

Part 2 is dedicated to comparative group work. After having received an introduction to methodological issues for this group work, students work in groups on a pre-selected topic on which they have previously written a transnational essay during the preparatory phase. The group work results are presented on the final days of the Winter School. Doctoral students also have the possibility to contribute to an edited volume, published after the Winter School based on some of its outcomes. The Winter School programme is supplemented by a range of social activities (guided visits, social evening, intercultural role plays). An additional offer includes two LinkedIn networks (one closed, one open), set up by the organisers to support the professional networking of participants among themselves and with a broader specialist audience in the field of adult education.

First pilots of the Winter School were run in 2014 and 2015. Since 2016, in the frame of the COMPALL project, the winter school has been further developed as part of a joint study module on comparative studies in adult education and lifelong learning within a strategic partnership of seven European universities. All Winter School participants are enrolled as master's or doctoral students at one of the COMPALL partner universities. Due to the enrolment of exchange students at the partner universities, however, participants' countries of origin vary more

de Lisboa, Portugal: Prof Paula Guimarães; Università di Padova, Italy: Prof Monica Fedeli; Pécsi Tudományegyetem, Hungary: Prof Balázs Németh; Julius-Maximilians-University Würzburg, Germany (Coordination): Prof Regina Egetenmeyer.

3 The online tutorials are provided to all interested students as open educational resources over the webpage <https://www.hw.uni-wuerzburg.de/compall/startseite/>

widely, including additional countries from Europe as well as countries from Asia and Africa. Also since 2016, the winter school has been supported through an ongoing external evaluation with both formative and summative purposes. Regarding the formative aspect, the evaluation is interested in how participants assess the quality and usefulness of (different parts of) the Winter School, which elements they like best, and what changes they suggest. Regarding the summative aspect, the evaluation is interested in assessing the impact of the Winter School with regard to the project aims, in particular regarding the school's impact on developing participants' motivation and competencies for international work.

The evaluation design relies exclusively on participants' own perceptions and, in terms of methodology, on their feedback, which is gathered through questionnaire surveys as well as individual participant interviews.

Sample and data base

The quantitative data presented in this paper relate to a paper questionnaire given to all Winter School participants in the years 2016 and 2017 on the final day of the event. The total number of questionnaires received was $n=166$, corresponding to a response rate of 90 per cent (2016) and 100 per cent (2017). Roughly two-thirds of participants in each year came from European countries, one-third from countries outside Europe⁴. Similarly, about two-thirds of participants were studying at the master's level; one-third were PhD students (Table 1). Respondents came from 17 (2016) and 14 (2017) different countries, of which 9 were European countries in both years.

Table 1: Characteristics of the sample

<i>n</i>	2016	2017	Total
<i>All responses</i>	82	84	166
<i>By country group</i>			
<i>from Europe*</i>	50	51	101
<i>from outside Europe</i>	25	27	52
<i>no answer</i>	7	6	13

4 Here and elsewhere in this paper, 'country' refers to participants' countries of origin, not the place of the university at which the participants were enrolled at the time of their participation in the Winter School.

<i>n</i>	2016	2017	Total
By study level			
<i>Master</i>	51	50	101
<i>PhD</i>	23	32	55
<i>Other/no answer</i>	5	1	6

*includes EU and non-EU countries, including Russia and Turkey

Source: Lattke's own, based on COMPALL external evaluation data

Data from both years were analysed separately, but since the response patterns are very alike with regard to the questions of interest here, in the following only the total numbers for 2016 and 2017 together are reported.

The evaluation findings

In the questionnaire, participants were asked to rate on a 5-point scale how they perceived the Winter School's impact on their own interests and motivations on the one hand (Table 2) and on the development of a number of skills on the other hand (Table 3).

Looking at the results, it is striking at first sight that all single items score rather high, with almost all of them scoring above 4.0 or only slightly below. The first thing to conclude, therefore, is that participants obviously gained a very positive overall impression from the Winter School (which is also confirmed by equally high satisfaction ratings in the questionnaire) and that they attribute a rather high and multifaceted impact to the Winter School. This impression is further corroborated by the open comments given in the questionnaire as well as by statements from the interviews.

It also seems that this perception is quite uniform across different groups of students. As a general trend, students from countries outside Europe tended to give higher (more positive) ratings than their counterparts from Europe – a finding that was consistent throughout the questionnaire and may possibly be attributed at least partly to cultural reasons and different mentalities. In any case, these differences were of a limited extent, and even considering the 'European' scores only, the lowest value to be found across the items reported in Tables 2 and 3 would still be as high as 3.73 (item 'The winter school improved my methodological skills for comparative research work'). Doctoral students furthermore tended to give slightly higher ratings than master's students, but again, these differences were usually not very prominent and, in addition, this finding may also be due to the

fact that in the PhD group the proportion of non-European students was higher than in the master's group.

Table 2: *Impact of Winter School on participants' interest and motivation*

	Question: "Did the winter school increase the following?" (5-point scale, 1=Not at all, 5 = Very much)				
	<i>Your interest in adult education/ LLL in general</i>	<i>Your interest in trans-/ international and comparative adult education/ LLL in particular</i>	<i>Your motivation to do more mobility abroad in the context of your studies</i>	<i>Your motivation to focus on trans-/ international aspects in your further studies</i>	<i>Your motivation to have a trans-/ international focus in your future professional activities</i>
Valid n	166	164	162	165	161
Mean	4.08	4.05	4.35	4.02	4.17
SD	.09304	.9609	.8595	.9968	.9236

* n includes only master's students

** n includes only PhD students

Source: Lattke's own, based on COMPALL external evaluation data

Table 3: *Impact of Winter School on participants' competence development, as estimated by the participants themselves*

	"How much do you agree: The winter school improved my ..." (5-point scale, 1=Not at all, 5 = Very much)						
	<i>English language competencies</i>	<i>Analytical competencies</i>	<i>Methodological skills for comparative research work</i>	<i>Helped me to see adult and lifelong learning in my own country in a new light/from a different perspective.</i>	<i>Professional networking competencies</i>	<i>Competencies in interacting with people from other cultural backgrounds</i>	<i>Understanding of adult and lifelong learning in other countries</i>
n	161	164	165	165	163	163	166
Mean	3.67	3.91	3.87	4.14	3.99	4.37	4.32
SD	1.2236	.9387	.9142	.9747	.9263	.9227	.7710

Source: Lattke's own, based on COMPALL external evaluation data

This participant feedback indicates above all that the Winter School was highly valuable in the eyes of participants. As regards student satisfaction and motivation, the Winter School's impact can be seen very clearly directly from the feedback. Regarding its impact on students' actual competence development, the limitations of an evaluation based only on students' feedback are equally obvious. Certainly, the reported figures alone cannot claim to provide 'hard' evidence of an actual increase in respondents' competence. To collect such evidence, more sophisticated research designs involving pre-post competence tests would be required but are beyond the scope of the COMPALL project. Nevertheless, the students' perceived impact on their own competence development does provide a basis for proposing some exploratory reflections on the potential of an educational format such as the Winter School in the context of a degree programme in adult education. This is elaborated in the remaining part of this paper.

Reflections on the Winter School format

The Winter School of the *Joint Module COMPALL* can be considered an example of the specific educational format, meaning an (in this case: international) intensive programme for higher education students that is characterised by a particular temporal and didactical structure.

Based on the insights from the evaluation, I suggest that a) this format is particularly well-suited to respond to the complex claims and demands being made upon higher education in the context of contemporary policy reforms; and b) that in order to fully exploit the potential of such a format, it is necessary to widen its scope, as it needs to be systematically linked to other offers or services in the context of a degree programme.

The Winter School as an engine of internationalisation

A core feature of the Winter School is its international focus, which not only refers to the composition of the target group but also to its central topic (comparative studies). In the field of (adult) education studies, this international focus can still be considered an innovation in both senses. Compared with other disciplines, (adult) education studies still show a lesser degree of internationalisation (cf. Nuissl, Lattke & Pätzold, 2010 p. 10; Lattke & Jütte, 2014, p. 9; Egetenmeyer, 2016, p. 156), thus trailing behind a trend that is being powerfully promoted through European policy agendas, first and foremost the Bologna Process, and through general globalisation.

There are good reasons for this delay, because the field of education in general and adult education in particular are very much rooted in national traditions and linked to regulatory frameworks at the national level. Nevertheless, current trends of internationalisation have an increasing impact on the education sector as well, offering new opportunities for adult education professionals – both practitioners and scholars – but also placing new demands on them. Thus, adult education professionals today may have to deal with multinational student groups, become involved in international networks, go to work or look for employment in other countries, keep up to date with international policy developments, and understand their implications for their own work – to name just some of the challenges.

Against this background, the Winter School seems to be able to make a significant contribution to enhancing the international dimension in the field of adult education. For half of the participants, the Winter School represented their first academic mobility experience ever. Other participants had attended conferences abroad before but never before had such an intensive international experience as the Winter School provides. This added value of the Winter School also emerges very strongly from the open answers in the questionnaire, in which the encounters and intensive interactions with fellow students and lecturers from a broad range of countries were very much stressed as a particular highlight. And to quote from the interviews, one participant put the difference between Winter School and ‘normal’ conferences in this way:

I participated in some conferences abroad in recent years, but this was the first like really not only a conference that you are sitting and listening and somebody is presenting, but you are actually producing something. And also various and really different people that you meet here, that’s something that’s really really good for the winter school. (PhD student, external evaluation of the 2017 Winter School)

The Winter School itself is an outstanding opportunity for student mobility – one of the main concerns of the Bologna Process – but its impact in this regard does not stop there. As seen above (Table 2), increased participants’ motivation to undertake even more mobility activities in the future was among the highest-rated perceived effects of the Winter School. Several participants were also attending the Winter School for a second time – or expressed their intention to do so in the next year(s). Some of the interviewed participants even stated that they were considering going abroad for work after their studies and that they had been able to make relevant contacts through the Winter School which might be useful for them in this regard.

It is also interesting to note that the learning outcomes most frequently stated in the questionnaire’s open comments included increased self-confidence in as-

serting oneself in an international and multicultural environment and increased intercultural competencies, including in particular a more open mind set and tolerance.

Considering all these indicators, it can be concluded that the Winter School promotes internationalisation in adult education not only – and maybe not even primarily – through its academic outcomes (competence for international comparative studies) but to a considerable extent also through its impact on motivational and attitudinal aspects, as well as through its support for building relevant social networks in the form of international contacts.

The Winter School as a multifunctional microcosm of higher education

The Winter School format, with its intensive, two-week on-campus phase, differs significantly from the standard teaching provision at universities, where most teaching formats are either intensive over a few days (e.g. weekend block seminars) or with lessons distributed in smaller portions over a longer period of time (e.g. two hours per week over a semester).

Due to this prolonged as well as intensive schedule, the Winter School format presents a very suitable opportunity to combine a broad range of different types of teaching-learning activities within one complex overall learning experience. Teacher-centred activities (e.g. lectures) are combined with a variety of more learner-centred activities (e.g. group work); knowledge-centred activities (inputs) are combined with practical application exercises (e.g. comparative analysis) and forms of social learning (e.g. role plays). Field trips, furthermore, provide an opportunity to make connections between the ‘real world’ and theory and to apply analytical and reflective skills in making this connection. Besides those explicit and planned learning activities, the Winter School format provides many opportunities for informal learning (e.g. intercultural encounters during breaks and free time). These informal learning opportunities are not completely incidental – they were deliberately included by the organisers in the Winter School concept. However, they differ from the other explicit learning activities, as the Winter School only provides the broader setting for the learning to take place but does not intervene to shape and structure the learning processes in more detail.

In that sense, a short-term intensive programme like the Winter School can be somehow considered a microcosm of higher education, combining in a compact way all kinds of didactical approaches commonly applied in this sector.

This character of a microcosm, which can be found on the input side (didactical arrangements), is also mirrored on the outcome side (students' competence development). According to the evaluation, participants attribute to the Winter School a high and at the same time multifaceted impact on their competence development. This becomes visible when the evaluation items are placed in a matrix along two axes representing different facets (cognitive, social-communicative, motivational) and scopes (specific vs. generic) of competence (Figure 1). The Winter School thus seems to have a good impact on both cognitive and social-communicative skills, on both subject-specific and generic skills, and, added to that, on motivational aspects as well.

Figure 1: Competence facets addressed by the Winter School

motivational		cognitive ←	→	social-communicative
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>interest in AE/LLL in general</i> • <i>interest in international/comparative AE/LLL</i> 	subject-specific	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>understanding of adult and lifelong learning in other countries</i> • <i>methodological skills for comparative research work</i> 		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>motivation for further study mobility experiences</i> • <i>motivation for further international studies</i> • <i>motivation for further international work</i> 		generic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>see adult and lifelong learning in one's own country in a new light/from a different perspective</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>English language</i>
			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>analytical competence</i> 	

Note: Several evaluation items do not belong to one single category of competence aspects but represent a mixture of cognitive/social-communicative and subject-specific/generic elements respectively; e.g. 'English language' includes cognitive understanding as well as communication skills, everyday language as well as subject-specific terminology. The relevant axes of the matrix should therefore be understood to represent a continuum rather than distinct categories.

Source: Lattke's own design

The Winter School thus not only presents itself as a multifunctional didactical format but also seems to fulfil in an almost ideal-typical way the demands placed on higher education as a whole. According to these demands, higher education is supposed to develop not only students' subject-specific expertise but also their generic and personal skills to enable them to deal with varied and complex challenges in the labour market and in society (Brinker, 2015, p. 10). The Bologna Process in particular has contributed to establishing these high expectations of higher education as a guiding objective (cf. European Ministers Responsible for Higher Education, 2007, para 1.4).

In fulfilling this multifunctional purpose, the Winter School follows an 'integrative' – as opposed to an 'additive' – didactical approach that aims to promote generic skills (or 'key competences') in parallel with subject-specific skills through the same learning activities at a time. This approach is considered to be especially apt for ensuring the practical relevance of the competences gained (In der Smiten & Jaeger, 2010, p. 7), thus also contributing to students' employability.

Conclusion

In the previous sections, I have argued that the Winter School, thanks to its special characteristics as an international intensive format, is particularly suited to successfully address all kinds of demands placed on higher education in general. But obviously, the Winter School as a single event has its limitations. One Winter School lasts for a certain time (e.g. two weeks), and this time frame alone confines its potential regarding both comprehensive and sustainable competence development. Its intensive character, which allows for a particularly complex and multifaceted learning experience, can be seen as a clear strength, but it is obvious that this intensity cannot be extended over the whole course of a study programme. A short-term intensive programme such as the Winter School therefore needs to be seen as a building block that can make a significant contribution to the aims of a given (degree) programme of study in adult education, but which also needs to be linked in a meaningful way to other parts of this programme. Otherwise, there might be a danger of the Winter School remaining an isolated addendum, which will provide an individually inspiring experience to the participants each time, but whose impact in terms of sustained competence development is likely to remain limited.

The *Joint Module COMPALL* has addressed this issue in various ways in order to realise a systematic integration of the Winter School with local curricula in adult education studies. Central elements of this integration are:

- the integration of the Winter School in a comprehensive joint module, giving participants the possibility to earn ECTS credits for their master’s studies;
- the inclusion of an extended preparatory phase prior to the Winter School, with mandatory assignments for students and related support services;
- provision of follow-up activities, which help to maintain the Winter School’s momentum and allow participants to study in-depth the subjects discussed during the Winter School (one example is the involvement of Winter School participants as co-authors in the COMPALL follow-up publication);
- in individual cases: support of students’ long-term engagement through repeated active involvement in winter schools in increasingly responsible roles, such as co-teachers, co-moderators, or co-organisers.

It is certainly possible to think of further options for extending and deepening the impact of a short-term intensive programme such as the Winter School (e.g. links with internships or research projects). And in a longer-term perspective, it might be a worthwhile task to perform career-tracking studies to explore how such integrated approaches have impacted on the professional pathways of former graduates.

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Studien zur Pädagogik, Andragogik und Gerontagogik

Begründet von Franz Pöggeler

Herausgegeben von Bernd Käßplinger und Steffi Robak

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