Successful Study Abroad –

The Significance of Global Mobility Program Designs

Bachelor-Arbeit

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1. Introduction

Study abroad has become a very popular extra for students to add to their resumes. The number of students worldwide studying abroad was 4.3 million in 2011 and is estimated to double by 2025 (cf. Worldwide, Institute of International Education, OECD, 2013 in: Statista). Numerous academic stays abroad can vary between short- and long-term so-journs, and the former becomes increasingly popular. In order to study abroad, students are being offered various opportunities and programs either from their universities or from the Internet. The selection is enormous enough to consider the question, which ones of these programs are efficient and how should these programs be designed for providing students with successful experiences in their study abroad? What exactly makes study abroad successful? Regarding the high number of opportunities, it is nearly impossible to search for all the study-related programs there are worldwide and investigate all of them concerning their efficiency. However, it is significant and the goal of this paper to determine general standards or conditions, study abroad programs should implement and aim for, so that study abroad does not just stay a trend, but actually contains valuable experiences students benefit from the rest of their lives.

Therefore, in the beginning, this paper means to look at the historical background on student mobility, which falls under the umbrella term of the 'internationalization of higher education', to look at the first intentions and reasons student mobility became established and the process and development it went through until today, also regarding the context of the two forces, globalization and marketisation. These two phenomena have brought many changes to the international education field and countries have developed their perspective from cooperation to competition. The concept of the internationalization of higher education began about 40 years ago, in the 1980s, when due to several factors international education became not only a main focus of universities, but also a matter of interest for countries and governments. The internationalization concept covers two categories, focusing on the internationalization at home and abroad. In the end of the second chapter of this paper some statistics and contemporary trends are demonstrated about different countries in the world to give an overview of global effects international education has had so far. Some of these effects have brought serious challenges for the whole globe and converted into a competition among countries and continents of gaining brain power by attracting sophisticated laborer. Future outlooks on the internationalization of higher education show, especially in regard to the COVID-19 pandemic, there is not only one way globalization could go. That is why global mobility programs should consider global issues and have a positive impact on the global cooperation of countries.

Referring to the second kind, the education abroad, the essence of study abroad is examined, with its different types in the third chapter. Nowadays, students do not have to travel

themselves anymore in order to experience international education, but programs, providers and even campuses are being delivered into students' home countries. Concerning these opportunities, the question arises about the effectiveness of student mobility without traveling to a foreign country. Hence, this paper focuses on study abroad as an experience of physical mobility and the confrontation of studying in a different country with a foreign culture. Global citizenship has become a promise institutions and mobility programs easily give to students nowadays without further defining this term or working out activities for the achievement of global citizenship. Thus, chapter 3 focuses on the diverse potential outcomes of studies abroad on an intercultural, linguistic and personal level and how these competences can be achieved and promoted by mobility programs. Nevertheless, there are also challenges and difficulties of study abroad trips, global mobility programs should be aware of in order to guide and support students appropriately. This paper examines difficulties happening on a psychological level, involving stress, culture shock and reverse culture shock. These challenges should be taken seriously and cannot be expected similarly on students but occur individually. Nonetheless, it is helpful and advisable to inform study abroad students about these potential challenges.

The fourth chapter comprises the conceptualization of study-related mobility programs, in particular, looking at the characteristics of study abroad programs. What is the definition and purpose of a global mobility program and what role can a program portray concerning the various factors that should be kept in mind in study abroad? Are there any general guidelines, academic objectives and even suggestions for improvement in the style of mobility programs? Developing specific requirements mobility programs should incorporate and defining goals will help generating potential standards for mobility programs with the aim of constructing successful experiences in study abroad for students. When planning to study abroad students might have innumerable questions on the process of this experience and on how to decide on the right mobility program. Therefore, the fourth chapter contains a short overview on the two possibilities for studying abroad which can be choosing a partner institution or becoming a 'free mover'. Subsequently, key elements and goals for global mobility program designs follow. Concerning the academic aspect about studying abroad, undergraduate research is becoming more popular but still requires more research and an extension for study abroad programs to be implemented. At last, the chapter focuses on the significance and the implementation of preparation and post-processing into the study abroad experience.

Finally, the conclusion summarizes the sustained results and aspects of the previous chapters to clarify the dependency of a successful study abroad experience on the design of a global mobility program. How does a successful study abroad look like and what should a global mobility program offer to students? These questions shall be answered, too.

2. Internationalization of Higher Education

The twenty-first century is marked with a fast-moving process of changes through the umbrella of globalization. The world's population has grown more and more interdependent. Population growth, urbanization, technological changes, greater mobility, and many other structural shifts are occurring (cf. Nederveen Pieterse, 2021, 3). Personal mobility of any kind has become accessible to nearly everyone due to the transgression of language barriers, the establishment of cheap mobility devices and the overbearing of political borders. Academic mobility is therefore also affected, but its roots recall back to the time of the Middle Ages and Renaissance period (cf. De Wit, 2018, 1). Universities have had an interest in internationalization ever since and not only them, but also national governments gradually found their profit in the 'internationalization of higher education' which is, due to Hans de Wit, a concept "driven by a dynamic combination of political, economic, socio-cultural and academic rationales and stakeholders" (De Wit, 2019, 10). He further defines this term as "the intentional process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions and delivery of postsecondary education in order to enhance the quality of education and research for all students and staff and to make a meaningful contribution to society" (De Wit, 2018, 1). This term will be looked at in this chapter before passing on to the core of student mobility, for the overall frame of academic mobility underlies national and global movements and developments which have a strong impact on study-related stays abroad.

2.1 Historical Background

As mentioned before, student mobility is not a recent phenomenon and higher education has already been international in medieval times. Due to some publications from that time, not only religious pilgrims, but also students and professors would travel on European roads. In the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries most universities originated. During that time academic mobility would not be promoted as much and Latin was seen as the universal language of instruction. Universities themselves were rather passive towards international cooperation and there was no European policy for internationalization on an institutional level (cf. De Wit, 2002, vii). Nevertheless, universities gradually expanded their focus from the national level by engaging in international projects among Europe. Through the circumstances of the two World Wars in the first half of the 20th century, peace and mutual understanding were sought by cooperating on an international level. In 1919 the *American Institute of International Education* (IIE) was founded. Afterwards the *Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst* (DAAD) in 1925 in Germany and the British Council in the United Kingdom in 1934 were established. During that time, the United States represented the leading role in international education, even after

the second World War in 1945, because of the high number of immigrants of scholars from Europe and the recovering Europe had to deal with from the war. Something similar happened after the Cold War with the Soviet Union (cf. De Wit, 2018, 2). The two superpowers, the United States and the Soviet Union, "became active in international education for reasons of national security and foreign policy, the rest of Europe played a more marginal role" (ibid: 3). A shift transpired from universities' interest in international affairs to national governments actively organizing international education programs. Although the European Community gained economic and political power between 1950 and 1970, it was not until the 1980s Europe engaged in programs for education and research (cf. De Wit, 2002, viii). In 1986 smaller groups and initiatives from Germany and Sweden grew to a broad program called *Erasmus,* short for "**EuR**opean Community **A**ction **S**cheme for the **M**obility of **U**niversity **S**tudents" (Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst e.V.) under the extensive program of *Socrates* and further developed into *Erasmus+*, which arose in 2014 incorporating seven existing EU programs in the fields of education, training, youth, and sport (cf. ibid, 2017). Erasmus has been a strong power unit for the internationalization of higher education in the last years, for instance, through the management of the *European Credit Transfer System* (ECTS) and in the services for mobile students and professors (cf. ibid.). Thereby, it also enabled the formation of the Bologna Process[1], the *European Higher Education Area* (EHEA)[2] and the first internationalization strategy from the European Commission: *European Higher Education in the World* (2013) (cf. De Wit, 2018, 3). Through Erasmus and the Bologna Process big milestones could be accomplished and they have become global role models in the internationalization of higher education (cf. ibid.).

The United Kingdom and Australia followed another strategy. The conceptualization of internationalization can be divided into two areas: 'internationalization at home' and 'cross-border education', which will be explained further henceforth (cf. Knight, 2012, 22). Focusing on the latter, the United Kingdom and Australia count as pioneers of the education abroad, which also implies student mobility. However, the two areas of internationalization are interdependent, hence student mobility is also closely related to the 'at home' pillar (cf. ibid.). In 1989 Australia launched enrollment fees with the commitment of demanding at least the average total costs of the supplied programs from international students. The reason for that was the decline of governmental funds for Australian universities, which should then be

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[1] The Bologna Process is an intergovernmental higher education reform process that includes 49 European countries and a number of European organisations, including EUA. Its main purpose is to enhance the quality and recognition of European higher education systems and to improve the conditions for exchange and collaboration within Europe, as well as internationally (European University Association, n.d.). In Germany, this launched the adjustment of bachelor- and master-degrees in 1999 (cf. Bachelor Studium, n.d.).

[2] The EHEA "is a unique international collaboration on higher education and the result of the political will of 49 countries with different political, cultural and academic traditions, which, step by step during the last twenty years, built an area implementing a common set of commitments: structural reforms and shared tools" (EHEA, n.d.).

covered by the enrollment fees of international students. Of course, it was in the universities' best interest thenceforth to recruit new international students. Unfortunately, they could not afford the risen costs, which left no chance for the Australians to offer cheaper degree programs offshore. Other industrialized countries followed this example, e.g. the United Kingdom and the United States. The focus on competitiveness due to the decisions from the government gave universities an increasing autonomy and they started using new opportunities to enhance their international image (cf. DAAD, 2012, 4 ff.). From the middle of the 1990s on, this competitiveness replaced the previous cooperative style of internationalization and affected several areas (cf. De Wit, 2018, 4). As De Wit observed:

"Competition for students, for scholars, for talents for the knowledge economy, for funding of complex research, for access to the top 500 in global rankings, and for access to high impact publications. Recruitment, excellence in research and reputation are driving the internationalization agenda of institutions and national governments, at the cost of the large majority of tertiary education institutions and their students and staff." (De Wit, 2019, 12)

In the last three decades, institutions of higher education and national governments have highly been conducted by international dimensions of the global knowledge society and the importance of higher education (cf. De Wit, 2018, 4). Likewise, the demand for higher education has also expanded globally in the last years and keeps rising. Job opportunities ask for more requirements of knowledge, but some countries do not have the capacity to offer enough learning opportunities. Consequently, the need for university places abroad has been increasing. However, the capacity of university places cross-border is also limited regarding the entry and stay of international students (visa etc.) (cf. DAAD, 2012, 5). Despite the popularity of higher education and its internationalization, an opposite side has been on the rise, which could have large negative implications, visible through "nationalist-populist movements and governments, immigration bans, attack on academic freedom, antiglobalism, and in Europe anti-integration (Brexit)" (De Wit, 2018, 4). In the following, the internationalization of higher education at its current state moves into the focus, with its opportunities and risks concerning the rising marketisation to which it has evolved.

2.2 The Dominating Forces on Higher Education

The internationalization of higher education has evolved to a complexity of multiple forms and approaches (cf. De Wit, 2019, 10). "Student mobility is often seen as the 'face' for internationalization", but it is more than that (Knight, 2012, 21). Several changes throughout the years have led higher education to become a highly wanted global good and with the potential of gaining academic, economic, political and socio-cultural advantages (cf. De Wit, 2019, 10). Before looking at the intricacy hiding behind the term of internationalization of higher education and at different forces, like globalization and the market, which had a significant impact on it, De Wit collected some key characteristics from the internationalization process of

the previous 30 years. In general, of the two pillars of internationalization, the area of internationalization abroad gained higher attention than the one at home (cf. De Wit, 2019, 13). The whole process has not really been strategic yet, aiming at specific policies, but it has been fragmented and provisional. Although the student-being has lost its status of an elite-group, there is more interest in a subset of students rather than on global and intercultural outcomes for the majority. The same goes for some countries, which are more concerned with their own economic development than the ones from countries relying on outer support. Economic motivations have become major due to national, regional, and global rankings, eclipsing the three core functions of higher education: education, research, and service to society. (cf. ibid.)

2.2.1 Marketisation

Cooperation transformed into competition in the 1990s, as mentioned above. The internationalization of higher education has developed into a marketplace, as Peters further states: "intense marketing, commissions for student acquisition, strong centralised financial control, complex group structures to maximise income, minimisation of costs, tax avoidance, and work-force flexibility through hourly paid lecturers and the related precariat" (Peters, 2021, 2 in: Branch & Christiansen, 2021). Even though the government policy has participated in the marketisation of higher education, there are also other responsible powers involved. Peters highlights the role of rankings. To him, the event in 1988, when business school rankings appeared in the American magazine *Business week*, was the starting point from markets to marketisation. These were not the first rankings of business schools, nevertheless they were responsible for alterations in the higher educational landscape for good, but also many bad ways (cf. ibid: 2). These so-called 'Master of Business Administration (MBA) rankings' became extremely popular and other national and international MBA rankings followed, e.g. by the *U.S. News & World Report* and the *Financial Times*. Obviously, the benefit of these rankings has been the increased demand and ability to raise prices, which is also why their validity, reliability, and value is questioning (cf. Knight, 2012, 30). University rankings began in the early 2000s and have grown to a key feature of higher education. As Peters describes: "There are lists for pretty much everything an institution does, from undergraduate through postgraduate research, and from research through to student experience, which ranks institutions on, among other things, the price of a pint of beer, and how good the parties are." (ibid: 4). The impact of rankings gave universities and business schools more complexity adding several campuses, faculties, locations, and audiences to keep up with the marketisation process. Although these rankings have helped universities to develop and enhance themselves in some way, the focus is more economically oriented. Through mergers many institutions grew together to multi-campuses, which are multi-activity universities. Their goal is, among other objectives, to optimize management (cf. ibid: 6). Looking at one of these university rankings from the *Times*

Higher Education (THE) the University of Cambridge from the United Kingdom was in 2020 on the very top with a number of 20,664 Full Time Equivalent (FTE) students, from which 41 per cent were international students (cf. Times Higher Education, 2020). In general, many of the universities from these kind of rankings are either located in the United States or the United Kingdom.

2.2.2 Globalization

Other responsible powers, which changed the internationalization of higher education and supported the marketisation, are massification, the global knowledge economy, and the force of globalization. Referring to the earlier mentioned statement, that student being has transformed from an elite-status to a mass-activity, the number of students globally has immensely risen in the last decades from 100 million in 2000 to more than 200 million in 2014 (cf. Global Education Monitoring Report Team, 2017). This enormous boost is changing higher education as well. Scott even calls it a "social and academic enterprise" (Scott, 2015, 2). He warns of international education simply being defined as a mass activity and advocates academic mobility and international education to be tested. Nevertheless, elite universities and higher education in general can still not be accessed by anyone, but the scale of the social transformation is rising, due to globalization, the revolution of gender relations and the changing status of women. Globalization can be seen as an irresistible force on the internationalization of higher education and comprises people, cultures, values, ideas, knowledge, economy and technology streaming across borders resulting the world to be more interconnected and interdependent (cf. Knight, 2008, 4). Knight even points to globalization as the most powerful feature of the changing environment, due to its effects on countries economically, culturally, politically, and technologically. It has a major impact on the education sector in positive and negative ways. It can become mixed up with the term of internationalization, even though these two are no synonyms. Nonetheless, globalization does impact internationalization. This is visible through five key elements of globalization, which all relate to aspects of internationalization, e.g. curriculum and teaching, student and academic mobility, cross-border delivery of education programs etc. These five key elements are: the knowledge society, information and communication technologies, the market economy, trade liberalization, and changes in governance structures, which are illustrated in Table 1 (*The implications of five elements of globalization for the internationalization of higher education*). Although the table only presents highlights of the major environmental changes on internationalization and globalization, it also picks up the relation between globalization and marketization. (cf. Knight, 2008, 4 ff.)

Scott warns looking at globalization as a single path, towards "free-market capitalism, mass-media culture, global brands, and multiparty democracy" (Scott, 2015, 4), for there are several

forms of globalization and the future is more complex than most people might think. Even the assumed single path of globalization contains changing winners and losers. Structural inequalities will remain in free-market globalization, but there are several ways resisting that kind, like worldwide environmental or other social movements. Scott pleads for alternative forms of globalization by the development of new global social movements and forms of political action, generated by internationally mobile students and staff (cf. Scott, 2015, 6). Another power influencing the higher education development and the internationalization has been the global knowledge economy, "the increasingly technology and science based globalized set of economic relations that requires high levels of knowledge, skills, and sophisticated international relations" (De Wit, 2019, 11). The global knowledge economy is especially enriched by contributions from research-intensive universities, due to their productions of basic research internationally (cf. ibid.).

From the current number of 200 countries in the world, many of them participate in international student mobility (cf. Peters, 2021 in: Branch & Christiansen, 2021, 5). Due to several factors the internationalization of higher education has taken on complex forms and has become marketized in many ways. Economic and social expectations weigh on the shoulders of universities, while on the opposite side many voices cry out for a change of focus onto the things that matter actually – education, research, and service to society (cf. De Wit, 2019, 13). In the following, the two pillars of internationalization are being demonstrated and the complex forms higher education has generated so far.

2.3 The Two Pillars of Internationalization

The conceptualization of internationalization can be separated into two pillars, as mentioned before, which are the 'internationalization at home' and the 'crossborder education' (cf. Knight, 2012, 22). Although the focus has mainly been on the internationalization crossborder in the last decades, as De Wit pointed out, there has been increasing development in the internationalization at home recently (cf. De Wit, 2019, 13). It is significant to see both pillars and their subitems as overlapping areas, for instance, even though student mobility counts to the crossborder education, it does also have close connections to the internationalization at home, because the research experiences students make during study abroad, can have implications on the curriculum at home (cf. Knight, 2012, 22). Figure 1 (*Two pillars of internationalization: at home and crossborder)* demonstrates this concept of internationalization. Globalization represents the catalyst for internationalization, which reacts back to it. The dependency internationalization has towards globalization could support Scott's

theory of multiple ways of globalization and that there is not only one single path (cf. Scott, 2015, 4).

As mentioned above, more recently, there has been a call for comprehensive internationalization, integrating all aspects of education (cf. De Wit, 2019, 13). This implies more attention being paid to the integration of an "international dimension into tertiary education quality assurance mechanisms, institutional policies related to student learning outcomes, and the work of national and discipline-specific accreditation agencies" (ibid.). De Wit prompts for enhancing efforts by working together across national boundaries, within universities, but also beyond the academy. The goal should be to strive towards a more equal and fairer world by improving the quality of education for all students and staff worldwide and solving global issues. For that integrated policy and strategies are necessary "as well as cooperation and partnership within and between institutions across the globe" – from competition back to cooperation (ibid: 14).

2.3.1 Internationalization at Home

The internationalization at home might have been secondary, but with rising numbers of international students around the globe, most countries should not only focus on their role as exporters, but also as importers. It does not matter whether students or faculty leave their country or not, international, and intercultural understanding is now necessary in a connected world like this. The 'at-home' or campus-based strategies focus on the integration of foreign students and scholars into campus life, intercultural and international implications into the curriculum, extracurricular activities, and research. Universities are responsible to provide students with international, intercultural and comparative experiences through campus-based and virtual activities, and not only rely on international academic mobility experiences (cf. Knight, 2012, 23). For this more attention should be paid on campus- and curriculum-based efforts to gain more interconnection and interculturality in the world. International changes in the curriculum have already been visible in the last decades, when the concepts of area studies, regional studies or background studies developed to intercultural-learning approaches aiming for intercultural communicative and transcultural competences (cf. Grimm et al., 2015, 155-167).

2.3.2 Cross-border Education

The pillar of cross-border education obtains the mobility of people, programs, providers, policies, projects, and services. The complexity of the internationalization of higher education can especially be visible in this field, for crossborder education does not only include study abroad, but also twinning, franchising, and branch campuses. The term of crossborder education is often equalized with other terms, like transnational, offshore, or borderless

education. Despite student mobility being a key part of people mobility, both program and provider mobility are becoming more involved (cf. Knight, 2012, 23). This development in program and provider mobility is interesting, taking into account, that the original purpose for them was to deliver education programs to students into their home country, but now these programs even offer short-term student mobility opportunities themselves (cf. ibid.). Due to the rising demand for international education, there will also be growth in this field. However, the complexity in this pillar of internationalization can cause some confusion, therefore in the next chapter the different forms of student mobility will be summarized and demonstrated utilising a table. Nevertheless, Knight lists three generations of crossborder education and points to one of the latest developments, called international education hubs. In Table 2 (*Three generations of cross-border education*) she organized three different levels or generations as part of cross-border education. The first generation refers to the people mobility, which includes students, scholars, experts, and leaders. They can engage in various kinds of mobility, which will be illustrated later on in this paper. As mentioned before, the number of mobile students around the world keeps rising and is estimated to reach 8 million by 2025 (cf. Worldwide, Institute of International Education, OECD, 2013 in: Statista). Forecasters say, this mobility might become more regional-based, and international and intra-regional mobility may become more popular. This estimated number does not only refer to students and people themselves, but program and provider mobility does also increase immensely (cf. Knowledge & Space, 2015). Therefore, the second generation represents the academic programs and providers that move globally, which began to boost in the early 1990s. For the delivery of education and training, programs, institutions, or companies, move across jurisdictional borders (cf. Knight, 2018 in: Meusburger, 2021, 639). The programs include many types, like twinning, franchising, joint-, double-, or multiple-degree, online, or distance programs. The nub of these programs is primarily to deliver education to students in their home countries and the qualifications of the provider which is located in a different country. For instance, Malaysia offered 3,000 of these programs in 2008. The reason some of these models might sound unfamiliar for Germans is that they have not been implemented in Germany, yet. The numbers of these programs have risen so much in the last years, that their popularity might be even stronger than the actual student moving (cf. Knowledge & Space, 2015). The providers imply international branch campuses (IBC), which consist of one or more partnering institutions being physically present in a foreign country to expand global outreach and student exchange (cf. Universities of Canada in Egypt, n.d.). Table 3 (*Increase in the number of branch campuses, 2002 – 2015*) shows that from the year 2002 to 2015 the total number of branch campuses rose from 24 to 249; 83 of these campuses come from Asia and 74 from Europe (cf. Knight, 2018, in: Meusburger, 2021, 643). The number of European campuses started in 2009 because of the German coalition agreement of the governing parties, with the goal to equip

the internationalization of German universities and the export of learning opportunities (cf. DAAD, 2012, 3). The third and last generation Knight lists, is the earlier mentioned area of education hubs. An education hub can be defined as "a concerted and planned effort by a country, zone, or city to assemble a critical mass of local and international actors to support its efforts to build the higher education sector, expand the talent pool, or contribute to the knowledge economy" (Knight, 2018 in: Meusburger, 2021, 643). Concretely, this means that whole countries, cities, or zones attract people and programs for educational purposes, building on the other two generations. Some countries see and use the term of an education hub for marketing reasons to attract more mobile students and programs. However, there is no general model for this yet, which is why each country has its own understanding of it (cf. ibid.).

Germany is one of the pioneers, next to the United States, when it comes to cross-border or transnational education. Their university partnerships have evolved to shared and common study programs and foreign-backed universities, which are independent universities abroad supported by German investors, e.g. the German University in Cairo (GUC) or the German University of Technology (GUtech) in Oman. German universities rely on governmental funds beside enrollment fees. Hitherto, Germany has been hesitant on offering German qualifications internationally, like it is with programs (cf. DAAD, 2012, 6). In the next chapter a future forecast will be given and statistics on contemporary trends in the field of internationalization.

2.4 Trends, Challenges and Outlook on the Future

The essence of student mobility has changed in the last years and the complexity of internationalization of higher education has expanded in many ways. The history of academic mobility from the previous 40 years has shown, which countries are high achiever in that field already, but as unknown the future of globalization is, as unknown are the ways and roads internationalization could go in the close future. Countries, which are not visible on the radar yet, could soon be newcomers and rule the global mobility market, while others might have to deal with the phenomenon of *brain drain*. There is lots of pattern changing. Some unexpected countries and areas have recently expanded their enrolment rates and demand for higher education, e.g. China, India, Latin America, the Caribbean, and Africa (cf. De Wit, 2019, 11). Knight also mentions that traditional destinations as Australia and Japan received new competitors, like China, Malaysia, the Republic of Korea, Singapore, and New Zealand (cf. Knight, 2018 in: Meusburger, 2021, 640). From Table 4 (*Top 10 countries for number of inbound internationally mobile tertiary students studying abroad, 2004-2013*) and Table 5 (*Top 10 countries for students going abroad for tertiary education, 2004-2013*) it can easily be said,

that the United States and the United Kingdom have been the most favored destinations of mobile students from other countries. Notwithstanding, China, India, and even Germany have been the ones sending out most students to study abroad in the years until 2013. The growth of the number of students being send out from Saudi Arabia within nine years is also remarkable and their status as a destination seems to raise (cf. Kenway, 2018 in: Meusburger, 2021, 620f.). Some of the numbers might still be small, but there could be big changes in the upcoming years (cf. Knight, 2018 in: Meusburger, 2021, 640). Table 6 (*Anzahl der deutschen Studierenden im Ausland von 2000 bis 2018*) shows numbers of students, from 2000 until 2018, participating in international mobility. It is visible that the German boost of student mobility occurred between 2005 and 2010 (cf. Statistisches Bundesamt, 2020). Kenway discloses that there is a trend of student flows coming from formerly colonized countries either going to former colonizing countries, or to the United States, the global imperial power, and to these countries' satellites (cf. Kenway, 2018 in: Meusburger, 2021, 623f.). Shockingly, the survival of university sectors are now increasingly dependent on mobile students' fees and thus university education systems in the richer countries are financed by the enrollment fees of students from poorer countries, which could be seen as a contemporary echo of colonialism (cf. ibid: 624). The current geographies of the global university are not firm, and looking at *The Three Generations* from Knight again, some other opportunities and ways are on the rise. Especially, through the circumstances of the COVID-19 pandemic much more might change faster than expected:

"Offshore campuses allow students to study "abroad" while remaining in their home countries. Mixed modes of study, which combine online and face-to-face teaching, may involve no, or little, physical presence on the campus of origin. This virtual and embodied mobility of people (students, staff) and knowledge (curriculum and research) is accompanied by other mobility—the mobility of ideologies, images, and imaginations; of finance, feelings, and fantasies. Such mobilities have been facilitated by the space-and-timealtering technologies of cheap transport and instantaneous information communication technologies. Hence university relationships that would otherwise have been stretched out over extended literal space have been both compressed and reconfigured with great consequence for the geography of the university." (Kenway, 2018 in: Meusburger, 2021, 624)

The pandemic might have pushed higher education into a virtual mobility more rapid and slowed down global mobility physically. In June 2020 DAAD states:

"At three-quarters of the universities, international students were unable to begin or continue their studies in Germany as planned in the 2020 summer semester due to travel restrictions. 27% of the universities state that this problem affected more than half of the international students, while 35% assume that half or less was affected. More than half of the universities (57%) anticipate a decline in interest among international students in the 2020/21 winter semester. However, most (36%) expect a rather moderate decline, while only 21% expect a very strong decline. More than a fifth (22%) expect little or no change. Nearly half of the universities (49%) expect a decrease in the international mobility of their own students in the winter semester 2020/21. However, most of them (31%) expect a rather moderate decrease, while only 18% expect a very strong decrease. More than a third of the universities (36%) expect little or no change." (DAAD, 2020, 4).

Before the pandemic, institutions have already been facing various challenges. Through the pressure of marketization, rankings, international research, recruitment of students and scholars, on the one hand and the well-being of own students and staff on the other, there are strains between approaching internationalization through short-term opportunities, focusing

primarily on mobility and research, and a comprehensive quality approach through long-term periods to provide global learning for everyone (cf. De Wit, 2019, 15).

A result of the competitiveness between nations through the marketization of higher education is the existence of winners and losers of brain power. Popular mobility destinations try their best to attract not only many students and scholars, but the best and brightest talents to study and work in their country to gain human resources. This is called *brain gain* for the countries, which acquire these resources. The countries, that lose their students and scholars and thus limit their talent pool, they experience *brain drain*, and also jeopardized national economic and social development, for instance, Africa. These two concepts of brain drain, and gain evolve to a term called *brain train*, which includes students and researchers to travel among multiple countries with the intention to earn multiple degrees and work experiences. More recently the term *brain sharing* is being used, but rather to cover the inequality between countries (cf. Knight, 2012, 28; Knight, 2018 in: Meusburger, 2021, 640). Beside attracting high skilled talents, there is a tension of the wish to decrease immigration flows (cf. De Wit, 2019, 11). Brazil and South Africa are rather conservative towards cross-border education for they see it as a new form of colonialism. Hence, general minimum standards and a code of ethics is necessary in the field of cross-border education (cf. DAAD, 2012, 15).

There are also still some question marks on the field of granting and recognition of qualifications. Students trying to earn only one or multiple degrees from different countries need to think of the challenge of the recognition of the awarded qualification by institutions and employers in other countries. Many countries do not have the capacity yet to expand their mandate and improve their expertise in the assessment of qualifications (cf. Knight, 2012, 25). Thus, UNESCO's General Conference adopted the *Global Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education* in November 2019. It has not been fully approved yet, but it could be the first legally binding United Nations treaty on higher education, by complementing the five UNESCO regional conventions on the recognition of higher education qualifications. This framework is to ensure the recognition of higher education qualifications in a fair, transparent and non-discriminatory way (cf. UNESCO, 2019). The Global Convention is also supposed to prevent brain drain and accordingly has established a *Qualifications Passport* for the mobility and recognition of qualifications from refugees, which is being piloted in Zambia at the moment. So far, 260 technical and legal experts from around 150 member states have approved the draft (cf. ibid.).

The internationalization of higher education, globalization, the movement of people, programs, and cultures across nations are catalysts for blending cultures (cf. Knight, 2012, 29). Some countries are concerned of the impact on their own cultures, leading to cultural

homogenization, especially westernization[3]. Looking at globalization, the establishment of English as a lingua franca and the history of colonization, one may understand these concerns. (cf. ibid.)

The future of the internationalization of higher education holds many opportunities and not only student mobility, but also its complexity is expected to rise. The COVID-19 pandemic might have also had tremendous consequences on the future of student mobility. It is conceivable, that the intentions of academic mobility have changed to economic and social gaining. Global cooperation turned into competition. Although the institution of a university now needs to acknowledge its institutional, national, and subnational roots, it should also be a place of global, regional, and transnational routes (cf. Kenway, 2018 in: Meusburger, 2021, 14). The global responsibility one country has towards other countries needs to be taken seriously. Knight suggests to learn from the past in the process of internationalization of higher education and set goals for student mobility (cf. Knight, 2012, 32). What were the goals of the previous 40 years and what should be the goals for the next 10 years? As Knight asks:

"What are the core principles and values underpinning academic mobility that in ten or twenty years from now will make us look back and be proud of the track record and contribution that international higher education has made to the more interdependent world we live in, the next generation of citizens, and the bottom billion people living in poverty?" (ibid.).

Regarding the topic of global mobility program designs, it can be said that before looking at particular programs and their motives, the overall objectives of academic mobility worldwide should include not to look for national and regional benefits, but to provide students and staff with opportunities to support them and also look for a healthy balance among countries, without exploiting some of them. The intention of a program or provider facilitating student mobility should be considered in terms of student recruitment or national profit through rankings and more. The same goes for potential universities, students consider enrolling abroad. For that it can also be helpful to keep in mind the destination of the university and what the recognition of certain qualifications looks like. Students trying to achieve multiple degrees from various countries are advised to inform themselves beforehand about the recognition of qualifications of their destinations. There are numerous ways of international higher education, as illustrated above, but in the following chapter the essence of study abroad will be unrolled, and potential outcomes students could face entering a foreign culture abroad.

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[3] "Westernization, the adoption of the practices and culture of western Europe by societies and countries in other parts of the world, whether through compulsion or influence. Westernization reached much of the world as part of the process of colonialism and continues to be a significant cultural phenomenon as a result of globalization" (Britannica, 2020). For more information also: Kenway, 2018 in: Meusburger, 2021, p.624-633

3. Study Abroad

Student mobility has become one of the core elements in the internationalization of higher education. It has also become very attractive for students to add study abroad experiences to their resumes due to the rising competitiveness around the world intending to become 'world citizens'. The essence of student mobility does not stay untouched and has underlain some alterations in the last few years, in which the trend of shortening these study abroad stays as much as possible has occurred. Globalization and marketization have also highly affected the concept of study abroad. Student mobility can happen in various ways, it does not even have to include travelling to another country for students anymore, for the programs and campuses are being delivered to the students into their home countries. Nevertheless, this paper focuses on student mobility with the core activity of students leaving their home country to become acquainted with a foreign country and its culture in the form of study abroad. Experts have questioned the term 'study abroad' due to these changes in recent years and have found various alternatives, e.g. 'education abroad' or 'international education'. Contemporary alternatives can be 'global studies' or 'global education' (cf. Lewin, 2009, xviii). In this chapter, the diverse ways of international student experiences will be looked at in the beginning, before focusing on academic residences abroad, expectations towards global citizenship and outcomes and challenges for students during stays abroad.

3.1 Typology of Student Mobility

International students can be defined as 'sojourners'. A sojourn is a temporary voluntarily stay at a new place. The period of time staying at this new place can vary from a few weeks or months, to several years. However, sojourners plan to return home at some point. They are more committed to the new location as tourists, but less involved than immigrants or resettled refugees. Sojourners can also be businesspeople, missionaries, and others. Most sojourn research has yet focused on international students and international businesspeople. Although student mobility or international higher education experiences can by now exclude leaving the home country, sojourners can only be called the students, who actually leave their home country for study-related reasons. (cf. Ward et al., 2001, 142)

The term 'student mobility' has been expanded in the last years and does not only imply the physical act of traveling to a foreign country and culture anymore, but the possibility of staying at home and letting international educational programs be delivered. In the past, students, who took a full degree abroad or participated in short-term programs abroad were represented by this term. The latter has been primarily on the rise in the last years to increase numbers

especially by promoting quickly implemented international study initiatives like educational travel programs or short-term summer sessions (cf. Engle & Engle, 2003, 2). Supposedly, these type of programs are not as cost effectively as long-term stays, for they require less linguistic and cultural preparation, and do also fall under the umbrella term of 'study abroad' (cf. ibid.).

Looking at the European angle, the earlier mentioned EHEA established a framework of qualifications, which was adopted in 2005, comprising a three-cycle system: bachelor, master, doctorate. For each of these cycles generic descriptors have been arranged based on learning outcomes and competences. The bachelor and master cycles comprise specific credit ranges, for the bachelor period typically 180 to 240 ECTS credits are necessary and for the master period 90 to 120 ECTS credits, with a minimum of 60 credits at the level of the second cycle (cf. Bologna Working Group, 2005). Furthermore, the European Qualification Framework (EQF), developed by the EU, contains an eight-level-system, which is also composed of descriptors for learning outcomes. Bringing these two qualification frameworks together the EQF levels 6, 7 and 8 are comparable to the three cycles of the EHEA (cf. Europass - European Union, n.d.).

As mentioned before, collaborative degree programs nowadays offer students the chance of participating in international higher education even in their home country. Figure 2 (*International Higher Education Experiences*) demonstrates the various opportunities of international higher education experiences in the students' perspective. It is troublesome to put all of these experiences under the term 'student mobility' for it is not the student moving in some of these scenarios. Besides studying abroad for one, multiple or less than a year, there are other options for students integrating international experiences into their academic period of life, for instance, participating in internships, study tours, workshops, language courses, or summer schools. The grey-colored boxes illustrate the opportunities falling under the term of study abroad, which are focused on in this paper. Experiencing international higher education from home can either consist of visiting a branch campus[4] (provider mobility) or participating in a collaborative degree program (program mobility). In this case, it is not the student moving, but the program or provider from a foreign country to the home country of the student. The difference between provider and program mobility is that a foreign program usually relies on support by the source institution/ country, e.g. with teaching and accommodations, while the foreign provider moves to the source country and establishes a satellite campus or even a full institution (cf. Knight, 2008, 100). There are other opportunities for provider mobility as well,

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[4] Branch Campus = "Provider in country A establishes a satellite campus in country B to deliver courses and programs to students in country B (may also include country A students taking a semester/courses abroad). The qualification awarded is from provider in country A" (Knight, 2008, 106).

like a stand-alone institution or a study centre (cf. Knight, 2008, 92). The different types are demonstrated and further explained on Table 7 (*Typology of Crossborder Provider Mobility*). Collaborative degree programs can be defined as "the movement of individual education/training courses and programs across national borders through face-to-face, distance, or a combination of these modes" (ibid: 104). Table 8 (*Typology of Crossborder Program Mobility*) shows the different options of program mobility and how they individually work. Even though traveling to a different country is not included in this type of programs, it is strongly recommended (cf. Knight, 2012, 24). Knight points out that the original objective of collaborative degree programs, such as twinning and franchising, was to extend new and foreign programs and degrees, which were not available at home institutions (cf. ibid: 26). Previous arrangements of twinning comprised a 'two plus two' model, in which students would spend their first two years at the home institution and the other two years at the partner institution abroad. After several changes of form and function, the model changed to a 'three plus one' model and has mainly become a 'four plus zero' model today. This means students are capable of taking a full foreign degree in their home country without ever leaving it. The question is though, can this be called 'student mobility' or 'study abroad' and replace the experience of indeed studying in a foreign country?

When talking about the trade of educational services, many different terms are being used, as seen before. Transnational, offshore, borderless, or crossborder education, they all generally mean the delivery of education between countries, but they have small differences in their understanding, depending on, where the individual term comes from. Some stakeholders have published and agreed on a common definition and key elements on crossborder education, like the *General Agreement on Trade in Services* (GATS). It is a global arrangement conducted by the World Trade Organization with the goal to further liberalize trade in services from 1994 and has introduced specific rules and principles for the regulation of the import and export of any service, like education. In their understanding, crossborder education focuses "primarily on distance education and therefore has a much narrower interpretation than transnational or crossborder education as used by the education sector" (Knight, 2008, 88). Some other definitions followed in the subsequent years from other stakeholders, as the *Global Alliance for Transnational Education* (GATE), the "Code of Practice for Transnational Education" by the UNESCO and Council of Europe Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications, or the "Guidelines for Quality Provision in Crossborder Higher Education" by the UNESCO and OECD. Nevertheless, in the following the focus is set on study abroad, by students verily moving to another country and the aspired outcomes of this experience. (cf. Knight, 2008, 88f.)

3.2 Global Citizenship

The experience of study abroad has brought many expectations for individuals, global organizations, and governments throughout the last decades, and programs have blended the terms 'study abroad' and 'global citizenship' without distinguishing and considering both terms individually. Unrealistic beliefs and a lack of defining global citizenship in general have occurred under the conception of the world already being interconnected through globalization. Global Citizenship (GC) is often being promised inconsiderately by programs without further explanation or guidance (cf. Streitwieser, 2009, 3) because since the 1990s it has become a key strategic principal in higher education to motivate young people thinking and living as global citizens (cf. Schattle, 2009 in: Lewin, 2009, 3). The idea of a 'global citizen' derives from ancient Greece and describes "a person who was endowed with membership in both their community of birth but also defined by membership in a larger community of humans sharing fundamental capacities to engage in rational and enlightened thinking" (Streitwieser, 2009, 3). Today, GC comprises the membership in an even larger community:

Global citizenship is the umbrella term for social, political, environmental, and economic actions of globally minded individuals and communities on a worldwide scale. The term can refer to the belief that individuals are members of multiple, diverse, local and non-local networks rather than single actors affecting isolated societies. Promoting global citizenship in sustainable development will allow individuals to embrace their social responsibility to act for the benefit of all societies, not just their own. (United Nations, n.d.)

The higher education sector is not the only place for establishing GC. Due to UNESCO Global Citizenship Education (GCED) serves as a strategic area to inform learners of all ages about global issues and to motivate them to take responsibility and actively engage in promoting peace, tolerance, inclusion, security and sustainability among societies (cf. UNESCO, n.d. a). The goal is the development of appropriate knowledge, skills, values, and attitudes (UNESCO, n.d. b). The same expectation counts for study abroad contexts.

International experiences are increasingly anticipated on the academic path of life, due to the competitiveness and the expectation of several competences coming out of going abroad, especially greater global awareness, and international understanding (cf. Streitwieser, 2009, 3). Although student mobility is increasingly on the rise, study abroad is still an expensive activity and only available to the minority of students. Nevertheless, economic backgrounds of international students have widened, and it is not only the privilege for elite students anymore (cf. Lewin, 2009, xiii). Study abroad has been criticized a lot lately, due to commercialization and the loss of opportunities for undergraduates to engage in cultural acquisition. There is high pressure on colleges and universities from upper administration to gain numbers of applying students. Unfortunately, often at the expense of academic integrity. As mentioned before, programs offer more and more short-term stays in English-speaking and non-English-speaking countries, where classes are still taught in English mostly. Study abroad has developed to

commercial travel instead of academic experience, where students collect study abroad destinations like consumer products (cf. ibid: xiv - xv). The question is, if study abroad programs are still able to guide and facilitate valuable global citizenship or if all students end up being global consumers? GC requires students to argue critically, but still show empathy towards others and individually act instead of consuming (cf. ibid: xvii). Students should not be expected to think critically and find solutions to global problems if they are not prepared and guided appropriately to become global citizens. Fortunately, the development of GC through study abroad has turned into a high priority for institutions of higher education. This is most effectively being achieved through a mutual relation between theory and practice (cf. ibid: xviii). Through the interconnectedness around the world global organizations have contributed to increased attention on human rights, environment treatment and a growing global mindedness (cf. Streitwieser, 2009, 3). Lewin points out, that beside the significance of GC, especially in higher education, it is still being defined and at the starting point of overcoming barriers. Study abroad can be democratized to generate critical individuals, who take care of the world by deconstructing power structures, establishing global community, or enhancing the lives of people around the world and like democratisation itself, GC is a process (cf. Lewin, 2009, xv).

Streitwieser criticises that GC has often functioned as the basic argument to participate in study abroad and as a guaranteed outcome, disregarding the length of the stay abroad (cf. Streitwieser, 2009, 3). Although there is lots of room for improvement and experimenting left, GC starts with educating students to become critical thinkers and view world issues as their own. Besides global awareness and international understanding, universities and colleges claim that there are many other benefits coming out of experiencing study abroad. The following subchapter focuses on potential outcomes and competences of study abroad with a critical view on their long-term effectiveness.

3.3 Potential Outcomes and Competences

One of many potential outcomes of a study abroad experience has already been discussed in the previous chapter. The easy promise of GC should be considered critically, but what about the other outcomes? Going abroad has often been seen as a chance to develop advanced skills in a foreign language (cf. Dewey, 2007, 245; Iwasaki, 2019 in: Howard, 2019, 237) or to adopt another culture (cf. Sam & Berry, 2010, 472). Before looking at these specific assumptions of potential outcomes, it has to be mentioned, that it is nearly impossible to manifest general outcomes applying for all students participating in study abroad because the desired and real outcomes are as individual as the students (cf. Engle & Engle, 2003, 5). Outcomes can happen in various areas, such as in linguistic, intercultural, academic, educational, personal, social, and professional ones (cf. Howard, 2019, 3). The individual

outcomes of students participating in study abroad do not only depend on internal, but also on external variables, which will be looked at in the following. Afterwards three areas of outcomes will be focused on more in particular. These are intercultural competence, language acquisition and growth in personhood.

3.3.1 Internal and External Components

The complexity of academic experiences abroad implicates multiple differences regarding the outcomes of studying abroad. In comparison to the second language (L2) classroom, study abroad comprises more opportunities due to students being able to determine the method, the people, the frequency, the place and the content of communication (cf. DeKeyser, 2014, 320). Various factors impact the effects of studying abroad, which can be divided into internal and external components. Internal factors depend on the individual learner, like on his or her motivation, personality, learning styles, or language learning ability. Researchers have also added other variables besides psychological or cognitive ones: gender, age, and the experience with foreign language learning of the individual learner. External factors beyond individual learners comprise the accommodation, social networks, and opportunities for target language use (cf. Iwasaki, 2019, in: Howard, 2019, 237). These two groups can also be distinguished into pre and intra study abroad (SA) variables, from which intra-SA variables increasingly appear to be the source of differences in outcomes due to recent studies (cf. ibid: 241).

External factors are usually dependent on the mobility program hosting the study abroad experience. Engle & Engle (2003, 8) have developed seven defining components of such mobility programs: 1) The length of a student sojourn, 2) the entry target-language competence, 3) the language used in course work, 4) the context of academic work, 5) types of student housing, 6) provisions for guided or structured cultural interaction and experiential learning, and 7) the guided reflection on cultural experience. Due to them, the key organizing factor is the degree of compatibility of these program components for the purpose of participants experiencing thoughtful interactions with the host culture (cf. ibid.). However, there are still more components playing a role in the outcomes of a study abroad experience, influencing the following three potential effects.

3.3.2 Intercultural Competence

Traveling to a foreign country contains the encounter of different cultures. Ward et al. describe the contact between people from different cultures as the phenomenon of intercultural contact (cf. Ward et al., 2001, 4). Due to Hammer, intercultural competence (IC) comprises the adaption of cultural context and its appropriate behavior and perceptions (cf. Hammer, 2004, 2). Watson and Wolfel further describe necessary requirements and the complexity of IC:

Intercultural competence is seen as three dimensional, including a body of knowledge to be learned, such as basic facts about a specific place and understanding cultural norms and taboos. It also includes a set of skills, such as flexibility, language and negotiation skills, among others. Finally, the third dimension is a set of attitudinal attributes which allow someone to successfully engage with people from another culture. This includes empathy, self-efficacy and tolerating ambiguity as examples of a long list of attitudinal traits that help someone successfully navigate a foreign culture. (Watson & Wolfel, 2015, 58)

The acquirement of global citizenship and intercultural competence are closely connected for both require respectful interaction with people despite their cultural backgrounds in order to analyze and comprehend global issues. The idea of the strange and the stranger appears to be less frightening, and students become more open-minded (cf. Skrefsrud, 2021 in: Cairns, 2021, 63).

Previous research on intercultural gains during study abroad have not only provided an extensive review of the learning issues surrounding the study abroad experience, ways of measuring IC or program evolvement, but also a growth of IC as an outcome of studying abroad (cf. Watson & Wolfel, 2015, 58). For instance, Engle and Engle (2004, 230) emphasized that more than half of their SA subjects reported about substantial gain on the Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI), a survey measuring IC. Other studies have found good adaption outcomes on a psychological and sociocultural level (cf. Sam & Berry, 2010, 478).

The demand for generating IC has become more significant recently, due to international migration into and within the European Union and the increased skepticism it has created in many minds. In this comeback from nationalists and right-wing populist parties, students who study abroad are capable of spreading tolerance towards diversity and ambiguity (cf. Skrefsrud, 2021 in: Cairns, 2021, 64). Skrefsrud substantiates this hypothesis by arguing that "the experience of being a minority and the challenges of adaptation that follow from this then, in theory, allow the students to better develop intercultural understanding" (ibid.).

As mentioned before, there are more components impacting the outcomes of a study abroad experience. Ward et al. (2001, 26) describe the territory on which the interaction takes place, as a significant factor. Some places might substitute completely different notions on the relation between the individual and society. This can apply to a family's structure, education system, politics, criminal justice services, industrial relations and the delivery of health (cf. ibid: 11). Due to the UNESCO's definition of culture, these aspects can all be seen as parts of culture and even more: Culture can be explained "as the set of distinctive spiritual, material, intellectual and emotional features of society or a social group, that encompasses, not only art and literature, but lifestyles, ways of living together, value systems, traditions and beliefs" (UNESCO, 2001). Hofstede developed four bipolar dimensions along which countries could be classified: Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, Individualism-Collectivism, Masculinity-Femininity (cf. 1983, 295 ff.). Some years later, he added a fifth dimension on long-term

orientation versus short-term thinking (Hofstede, 1994). Up until then, the greatest empirical attention has been on Individualism/Collectivism (I-C) (cf. Ward et al., 2001, 11). Due to Hofstede's model North American countries can be considered very individualistic, which means that the focus is on the rights and interests of the individual (cf. Britannica, 2007). Countries from Asia or Latin America on the other hand can be determined as collectivistic. In this case the individual has to subordinate to a social collectivity, for instance, a state, a nation, a race, or a social class" (cf. ibid.).

Focusing on one more of many components influencing SA outcomes, especially in regard to cultural gain, the time span or length of the interaction can also vary and have diverse effects (cf. Ward et al, 2001, 26; Engle & Engle, 2003, 8; Cubillos & Ilvento, 2018, 250). Short-term stays of less than eight weeks have become more popular, while the numbers of students studying abroad for a traditional one-year term has decreased, due to the Institute for International Education (IIE) (cf. IIE, 2003). These kind of stays have been criticized, for creating a superficial understanding of cultural contexts (cf. Skrefsrud, 2021 in: Cairns, 2021, 64). Although, there are also some researchers having an optimistic outlook on the cultural gain during short-term stays, Cubillos and Ilvento (2018) discovered no higher levels of IC from participants of short-term SA programs in their statistical analysis (cf. Cubillos & Ilvento, 2018, 250-260). They rather observed negative effects and a decline of IC experienced by participants (cf. ibid: 260). Skrefsrud also fears that being confronted with a foreign culture cannot guarantee intercultural learning and might even go into the opposite direction (cf. Skrefsrud, 2021 in: Cairns, 2021, 64).

Figure 3 (*The Acculturation Process*) demonstrates the internal and external components of SA outcomes in regard to the acculturation process, which comprises "processes of change in artifacts, customs, and beliefs that result from the contact of two or more cultures" (Britannica, 2018). The process contains the important event of cross-cultural transition[5] and might most likely be followed by challenging, confusing, and disorienting experiences, referring to the phenomenon of culture shock, which will be explained later on. These experiences "involve cognitive, behavioural and affective responses for both stress management and the acquisition of culture-specific skills" (Ward et al., 2001, 43). The psychological and sociocultural outcomes following in the end are influenced by the internal (individual) and external (societal) variables.

3.3.3 Language Acquisition

Empirical studies on study abroad experiences highlight the significant linguistic gains coming out of it (cf. Howard, 2021, 3). Language contact is a significant issue in SA abroad contexts

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[5] Cross-cultural transition is the process by which the exotic of a foreign culture becomes something familiar and 'natural' (cf. Nolan, 1990, 2)

because it is potentially much more intensive and 'present' than in the foreign language classroom (cf. Rast, 2019 in: Howard, 2019, 179). The interaction with native speakers offers authentic communication opportunities, which are sighted by the foreign language classroom.

However, as Skrefsrud mentioned before, study abroad cannot guarantee intercultural learning as well as foreign language development. Foreign language outcomes can be highly variable and depend again on specific components (cf. Sutton & Rubin, 2004, 69). It is still insufficient to draw any firm conclusion about the impact of SA outcomes on the individual in terms of linguistic or sociocultural competence (cf. Dewey, 2007, 245). Again, dividing into internal and external variables, it becomes clear, how many aspects may affect the development of linguistic skills during SA. Linguistic development cannot occur without language contact, which is why the country or place and the linguistic input available there, play a big role. Referring to Engle and Engle, the instructed exposure in the foreign language is especially important in SA contexts and thus the naturalistic exposure in the target language community. Although the input comprehension depends similarly on the individual learner, external characteristics, like frequency, transparency, and salience issues need to be considered (cf. Howard, 2019, 4ff.). At this stage, it is very significant to consider the choices and guiding of the selected program. As Engle and Engle mentioned it earlier, the type of housing for the students for instance depends on the mobility program. The following example demonstrates the significance of offering in this case the appropriate type of housing for the individual student, due to his or her language proficiency level:

A student possessing an elementary or low-intermediate entry level in the host language, for example, can manage a very successful host-family visit of a weekend to about three weeks. Everyone is on best behavior because the stay is short, and cultural faux pas or misunderstandings are overlooked or forgiven for the same reason. Feelings often remain intensely positive, and life-long contacts may be established in this short but emotionally rewarding time. Place the same student in a semester-long home stay, though, and chances are great that after the initial euphoria the student will drift away from the family with whom she cannot communicate and seek comfort with her American friends from the program, even refusing invitations to extended family gatherings in exchange for "safe time" with other program participants. Not only is the rich resource of a host-family contact wasted on an ill- prepared student, but the mismatch can lead to such perversions as the student insisting that the family speak English because, after all, "I pay to stay here and deserve to be understood." (Engle & Engle, 2003, 9)

Of course, many components are at play in this scenario. The length of stay did not match the type of housing, language proficiency level of the student at the time and possibly his or her motivation, attitude, and personality. Nevertheless, this gives insight into the responsibility mobility programs need to accept in order to help students experience a successful stay abroad. Dewey picks up on this by counting prior language learning, pre-program reading and grammar, and the amount of writing while abroad as important predictors of language gains during SA (cf. Dewey, 2007, 249). The homestay scenario (staying with a host family in their home) in SA contexts usually gives the impression that homestay participants likely have more regular opportunities to interact with native speakers than dormitory participants. The language exposure can yet be limited, depending on the frequency of contact with the host family or the

individual student being overwhelmed by the constant language input and therefore avoids further conversations (cf. ibid: 252). The time during study abroad is no guarantee for giving an advantage concerning rising language skills, it is also up to the student utilizing the opportunity (cf. ibid: 253.). The learner's language activities abroad can vary from passive to active activities, from which the latter contains engagement with members of the host community. The social integration and participation of the student is crucial and necessary for the contact with native speakers and language input. Additionally, the frequency, duration, intensity of contact, the quantity and quality of input exposure impact the language gain of a student during SA (cf. Howard, 2019, 6).

As seen before, the length of stay can also impact the foreign language acquisition. Since short-term SA stays become more popular and usually last less than eight weeks, it is questionable if these kind of programs can really be seen as efficient for linguistic development. However, regarding research on linguistic gains, Cubillos and Ilvento observed, that some studies examining linguistic ability either reported substantial increase or failed to identify significant improvements (cf. Cubillos & Ilvento, 2018, 250). This observation can be attributed to the quality of SA experiences, depending on the way students use the opportunity of being abroad and on the work of the selected program. In the past, linguistic development represented the primary criterion for 'success' regarding SA outcomes, but second language acquisition (SLA) research has increasingly shifted to social orientation, which means that the social process in a social context is crucial for language learning (cf. Iwasaki, 2019 in: Howard, 2019, 257).

A seminal series of studies assembled by the *American Council of Teachers of Russian* (ACTR) regarding significant predictors of language learning gains observed that the lower the pre-SA oral proficiency level was, the larger gains were observable in oral proficiency after SA (cf. ibid: 240). "Language learning aptitude, pre-SA knowledge of grammar, reading ability and knowledge of other foreign languages" were found as additional predictors (ibid.). The studies also examined the effects of different durations of immersion on learning outcomes across skills for periods of 2, 4, and 9 months over the course of the past 15 years (cf. Davidson, 2010, 6). They focused on listening, reading and oral proficiency outcomes (cf. Iwasaki, 2019 in: Howard, 239). For summer students ACTR programs recommend a minimum of 2 years of college Russian and a minimum of 3 years for semester and academic year students (cf. Davidson, 2010, 14). Students participating in the academic year showed the highest development of effective listening comprehension strategies. All three groups demonstrated gains in reading proficiency. The levels for the semester and academic year programs on speaking outcomes stayed nearly identical over time, which contains that the effect of semester versus academic year-long duration is readily noticeable (cf. ibid: 11). Pre-program

control of language structure and pre-program listening proficiency appeared as predictors of gain in speaking for the semester and the academic year program students. In general, the studies demonstrated that it is nearly impossible for a study abroad student to register null gain in all three measured skills (cf. ibid: 23).

3.3.4 Personal Development

Besides investigating linguistic and intercultural outcomes of SA experiences, researchers have also analysed changes and outcomes on the personality of SA participants. Cubillos and Ilvento (2013) investigated the impact of study abroad experiences on self-efficacy perceptions among foreign language (FL) learners. Self-efficacy belongs to the field of psychology and defines the degree to which a person believes that they can be successful in a specific task (cf. Cambridge Dictionary, n.d.). In their investigation, the statistical analysis of student responses showed that SA experiences enhanced self-efficacy beliefs among FL learners and across all language subskills. The receptive skills (reading and listening) gained the highest lift. Although all participants (short-term and semester-long) experienced significant increases in self-efficacy perceptions, Cubillos and Ilvento associate the highest benefits with longer stays. Self-efficacy could especially be associated with local community interaction. (cf. Cubillos & Ilvento, 2013, 505)

Niehoff et al. (2017) examined the relations between studying abroad and a sojourner's personality as measured by the Big Five personality traits: extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness. In the past, these personality traits counted as fixed patterns, but recent research has shown their inconstancy. The data revealed that participants with high levels of agreeableness and openness were more likely to study abroad. Extraversion and agreeableness were positively affected by the SA experience. Two surprising results showed that neuroticism decreased by the SA experience, but conscientiousness and openness stayed unchanged against expectations from researchers. Researchers assume that students might lower the perception of their own level of openness, due to the confrontation with their own prejudices against a foreign culture. Concerning the upcoming topic of challenges abroad, this might also be linked to the event of culture shock. Research made on that data relinquished, that neuroticism was not only negatively influenced by the SA experience, but positively predicted by age. At the second measurement occasion older students rated higher in neuroticism than younger students, which made the researchers suspect that the pressure to finish education might increase neuroticism for older students. Nonetheless, to truly identify these effects of SA on the Big Five more research is needed. The SA experience can still be seen as an important life event able to provoke personality change. The following subchapter focuses on potential challenges and difficulties during SA. (cf. Niehoff et al., 2017, 505ff.)

3.4 Potential Difficulties

In the previous subchapter potential outcomes were demonstrated on a linguistic, intercultural, and personal level. Although the experience of SA gains lots of improvement and might offer academic and personal growth, researchers plead for further research studies due to the diverse results and the individuality of participants studying abroad. Notwithstanding, leaving the home culture, being confronted with a foreign culture, and trying to adjust to a new culture, can cause negative outcomes on SA participants, which should receive more attention. Although difficulties can appear on several levels, this chapter takes account of challenges appearing on the participants' psychological level. Approaches for the recovery of these challenges will also scarcely be given as in the next chapter the role of mobility programs will be concentrated on, also in respect of preparation and post-processing.

3.4.1 Stress and Coping

One difficulty, due to previous research, has been the experience of stress while traveling abroad. A study from students studying abroad at Loyola University's Rome Center during the 2004 fall semester and the 2007 spring semester showed that psychological distress and more loneliness caused students to function on lower levels while studying abroad (cf. Hunley, 2009, 386). The stress occurring during SA is due to the loss of a familiar environment, with friends and family, familiar language, culture, and a way of life, and can be defined as 'culture shock' (cf. Oberg, 1960, 142). The phenomenon of culture shock will be further explained in the following subchapter. Being lonely can lead to psychological stress as well, which can also affect the functioning level of the individual student. Referring to the distinction between individualistic and collectivistic countries, students being confronted with cultures differing immensely to their home culture can be higher affected of stress. Even though the effects of stress on health could be demonstrated in the general population, only few empirical studies have investigated the psychological variables affecting SA students. Although psychological stress and loneliness may have harmful effects on student functioning, enhanced mental health and social functioning can help reduce the experienced stress. Unfortunately, mental health information and resources for students participating in SA is lacking. This means that mobility programs do also not have the resources for the sake of dealing or helping with mental health issues, which is fatal concerning appropriate guidance and support mobility programs should offer their participants. Social functioning can only occur with active engagement from students and the promotion of mobility programs to educate students about the importance of positive coping. Hunley advises SA programs to review these results and offer intercultural training and mental health resources for students abroad. (cf. Hunley, 2009, 390ff.)

The stress and coping approach traces back to negative emotional reactions towards culture contact and change (cf. Ward et al., 2001, 71). Looking back at Figure 3 (*The Acculturation*

Process) "the stress and coping framework highlights the significance of life changes during cross-cultural transitions, the appraisal of these changes, and the selection and implementation of coping strategies to deal with them" (ibid: 72). The precipitating stress is caused by changes associated with cross-cultural transition and results in affective, behavioral, and cognitive coping responses. Hence, stress is part of the process to adjust to a different culture. Individual characteristics and characteristics of the situation can also affect stress and coping, but similarly cause adjustive outcomes. The factors influencing cross-cultural adjustment and adaption to other transitional experiences are very alike. Expectations of potentially stressful life changes can be of avail for psychological preparation in order to cope, build confidence and alleviate anxiety. As Ward et al. adequately puts it:

"Sojourners are powerless to change entire cultures, and in many cases they have limited resources for modifying the troublesome features of their new cultural milieux. In these instances, cognitive reframing strategies may be more effective in reducing stress." (Ward et al., 2001, 80)

Significant influences on stress coping during cross-cultural transitions constitute of cognitive appraisal, personality, and social support. The stress and coping framework therefore offers an appropriate way of processing intercultural contact leading to cross-cultural adaption.

3.4.2 Culture Shock and Reverse Culture Shock

As mentioned above, culture shock consists of anxiety due to the loss of all familiar signs and symbols of social intercourse (cf. Oberg, 1960, 142). Furnham and Bochner expanded this definition by defining culture shock as the "unfamiliarity with any or all aspects of a new society (physical, technological, climatic, political, legal, educational, linguistic and socio-cultural)" (cf. Furnham & Bochner, 1982 in: Ward et al., 2001, 65). Regardless, the most emersed difficulties for SA students occur in social situations. The social competence of a person can be of great help concerning social interactions with people from foreign cultures because there can be large distinctions between the communication styles from different cultures. Low context cultures comprise direct information and strong verbal communication, while high context cultures contain limited information in coded messages. There are many other differences in the way communication works in diverse cultures, concerning the polite usage, non-verbal signals, mutual gaze, bodily contact, and gestures. Culture travellers can also be confronted with embarrassing predicaments, for instance in Mexican culture it is shameful and insulting to be criticised publicly, while in American culture feedback on the performance of staff is regarded as normal (cf. ibid: 55). Interpersonal behavior can even carry different rules in intercultural communication, like punctuality or forms of address in terms of using first, last names or titles. Referring to culture shock, the absence or distortion of familiar environment and especially social cues can cause problems for sojourners. Culture contact is inherently stressful because it is the sojourners duty to acquire culturally relevant social knowledge and skills in order to survive in the new society. This process can be defined as 'culture learning'.

The unfamiliarity with the surrounding environment and the duty of learning rules of a foreign culture, can cause symptoms of culture shock, which can appear in forms of anxiety, confusion, depression, hostility, and even physical illness (cf. Nolan, 1990, 2). Withal, Oberg points to the difference of degree to which individuals are affected of culture shock (cf. Oberg, 1960, 143). The symptoms of culture shock do not appear at once (cf. ibid.). There are four phases of emotional reactions, visible on Figure 4 (*U-shaped Curve of Culture Shock*). The first one can be seen as the 'honeymoon phase' in which individuals experience euphoria, enchantment, fascination, enthusiasm and tend to only focus on favorable data from the new environment. After that follows a crisis, in which frustration, anxiety and anger appear. As mentioned before, unconscious emotions build up gradually and come out in form of culture shock. This stage is essential for the recovery phase and the adjustment stage, in which the individual successfully adjusts to the foreign culture and culture learning occurs. As mentioned above, social support can be of great help in times of culture shock. Oberg suggests for the individual to meet and get to know people from the host country intending to adjust gradually. The phenomenon of 'reverse culture shock' might appear, once the individual returns to the culture of origin. In this case, the U-curve changes into a W-curve, in which the same stages appear all over again. The U-curve has gained lots of criticism in the past and cannot be seen as a general model appealing to every SA student. However, it has exerted strong influence in the field of SA since there could not be offered another model to explain sojourner adjustment over time. (cf. Ward et al., 2001, 81-84)

In this chapter, looking at the essence of studying abroad, with its diverse types, potential outcomes, and challenges, has shown significant information to apply for the design of global mobility programs. In the following chapter, the findings of SA need to be applied to appropriate requirements for programs as a means to provide SA students with successful experiences.

4. Global Mobility Programs

The complexity of opportunities to study abroad nowadays is immense. Looking at the endless list of programs offered to students to spend a period of time abroad, might cause confusion and bring up questions like: Which program is the right choice for me? What do the different programs offer? How can I find a program, which represents my interests in a study abroad experience? Although limits and a lack of research in that field exist, this chapter analyses several aspects of programs and aims to set significant issues on the design of global mobility programs adapting substances from the previous chapters. In a time of globalization and marketization affecting the field of international education, it is especially advisable to consider looking at the motives of such programs. Study abroad comprises many potential outcomes, both positively and negatively, for which mobility programs carry the opportunity and responsibility to appropriately support and guide students in their international experiences.

4.1 Program Characteristics

Figure 2 (*International Higher Education Experiences*) illustrates the various forms of student mobility, discussed in the previous chapter. It is therefore possible for students to study abroad for a few weeks, a semester, a full academic year or even more than that. Referring to Engle and Engle (2003), the length belongs to the decisions of a study abroad program among others.

Due to Teichler, there are four characteristics of study abroad programs. "Study abroad programmes are negotiated arrangements between two or more institutions of higher education in two or more countries (rather than ad-hoc cooperation[6])" (Teichler, 1991, 325 ff.). They regularly offer students of any institution the chance to study at one or more of the partner institution. SA programs pursue to provide students with successful educational experiences abroad and to facilitate mobility, by comprising an organizational and educational infrastructure. "The study period abroad, at least in part, should comprise a component of the course or degree programme in which each student was regularly enrolled at the home institution (successful study abroad is at least partially recognized as a substitute for study at the home institution)" (ibid.).

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[6] An ad-hoc cooperation describes a temporary cooperation, not intended to be permanent, for a specific project between two partners (cf. Gabler Wirtschaftslexikon n.d.).

4.2 Partner Institution or Free Mover

The idea of a mobility program is to provide students with institutional study support, organizational and financial assistance and to assure a certain quality of the educational experience abroad (cf. Teichler, 1991, 326). Once students consider spending a period of time abroad, they usually have two main options: choosing one of the partner institutions from their home university or studying abroad as a so-called 'free mover' (cf. PH Karlsruhe, n.d.). Choosing one of the partner institutions involves a few advantages. The student does not have to pay an enrollment fee, due to a reciprocal exchange. This means a student from the chosen partner institution abroad would not have to pay an enrollment fee at the institution in Germany as well. Additionally to that, there are options of sponsorship. For the Pädagogische Hochschule in Karlsruhe, there are Erasmus+, Baden-Württemberg STIPENDIUM, PROMOS-Stipendium and AuslandsBAföG (cf. ibid.). The Erasmus program celebrated its 30th anniversary in 2017 and has seen over three million university students participate for a semester or a full academic year (cf. Howard, 2019, 1). Erasmus+ is a program from the European Union "to support education, training, youth and sport in Europe" (European Commission, n.d.), as mentioned before. It provides financial support, online language courses, organizational assistance and confirms the acquired academic achievements through the 'transcript of records', ensuring that study credits will be transferred (cf. Erasmus_DAAD, 2018). Participating in SA as a free mover gives students the ability to choose their preferred host university in case there is no existing partnership at their home university. Although students have more options acting as a free mover, they are confronted with an enrollment fee at their host university. However, they can still decide on a different program supporting their SA experience – there are multiple options – and additionally receive promotion, just not from Erasmus+ anymore.

4.3 Key Elements and Goals

Researchers cannot take off the burden from students to choose the right mobility program. There is no existing classification system describing the advantages and disadvantages of all the SA programs there are worldwide. Anyway, researchers have been able to give valuable insights to some fundamental and necessary substances global mobility programs should contain and focus on. Engle and Engle highlight the basic comprehension of programs being educators not service providers (cf. Engle & Engle, 2003, 5). It is a program's duty not to comfort a client or satisfy a customer, but to challenge, stimulate, and push students "to push themselves toward the greatest possible personal growth, intellectually and emotionally. […] Gain only comes at the expense of a certain pain" (ibid.). Students should not be deprived of unfamiliarity and ambiguity because it is the troubling interaction that makes a sojourn

successful and allows personal growth to occur. This is visible through the acculturation process. In this field, the type of housing or integrated activities can be very significant and can have crucial effects on the outcomes of the SA experience. Engle and Engle further propose integrating key initial interactions with the surrounding environment and later offer a valuable emotional space for reflective growth. Rast points out that the ambient language input is available to students in a variety of forms abroad and programs need to recognize these forms and use them appropriately for students' benefit (cf. Rast, 2019 in: Howard, 2019, 179). Although it is also up to students' engagement and motivation to participate in social interactions, Cubillos and Ilvento suggest:

However, it would be desirable to enhance opportunities for purposeful interaction with the local community in all study abroad programs (interaction that is not solely dependent on chance or on the personality type of the student). Well-designed service-learning tasks could provide that kind of context for the desired interaction, but program directors should explore other options available in their target destinations (conversation partners, team sports, etc.) (Cubillos & Ilvento, 2012, 506).

Summarizing the two sides, global mobility programs should enhance possibilities for students to have valuable interactions and still leave enough room for participants to explore the unknown, possibly be frustrated, but recover and grow from the experience. Cross-cultural and linguistic competences are wanted in studying a language, as well as in SA contexts, therefore desired goals should be communicated between programs and participants. Engle and Engle fittingly state:

We are comfortable stating that the presiding goal of study abroad, la raison d'être, distinguishing it from study on the home campus should be to present participants with a challenge—the emotional and intellectual challenge of direct, authentic cultural encounters and guided reflection upon those encounters. (Engle & Engle, 2003, 6ff.)

Haynes confirms that intercultural understanding and second-language acquisition can be increased by students meaningfully engaging with members of the host country (cf. Haynes, 2011, 21). Engle and Engle point out a divergence between academic and cultural experiences offered by SA programs. Thus, there is international education based on culture and education focusing on knowledge-transfer while studying abroad. Although both experiences are valuable, "knowledge-transfer study targets a form of learning which, while taking place abroad, remains distinct from the interculturalist perspective of culture-based study abroad. […] The complementary interface of in-class and on-site experience is, on the contrary, vital." (Engle & Engle, 2003, 4). Eventually, the difference between studying abroad and studying at home is the focused and reflective interaction with the host culture and "the degree to which program design facilitates such experience is what most distinguishes one study abroad program from another". (cf. ibid: 4ff.)

Haynes compiles six components for the quality of SA programs. First, programs should establish specific learning outcomes and goals and communicate these to their participants. It is also important on one hand to focus on activities provoking these learning outcomes and on

the other hand to reflect on the experiences and see whether expectations were met or not. Secondly, offering a diversity of programs within a program, an agency, or an organization, provides several options for students and can depend on the length, location, and type of purpose. These components were demonstrated in the previous chapter by Engle and Engle (2003). Thirdly, the accessibility of a program decides whether all students can participate in it or if there are distinctions between men and women, rich and poor, or African Americans and Native Americans for instance. Offering intercultural experiences for students, but making distinctions about their heritage, look, or social background would be inconsistent. Further, mobility programs are advised to comprise curriculum integration, which does not only imply costly pre- or post-departure courses, but an expansion of general coursework preparing students for their SA experience. Therefore, a critical reflection is also needed, which will be focused on in the following, and meaningful engagement. Haynes calls for a critical analysis of the value of SA and suggests placing "support mechanisms to promote high-quality transformative learning" (Haynes, 2011, 22).

4.4 Undergraduate Research

The concept of study abroad aims at providing students with successful educational experiences abroad, as mentioned above by Teichler (1991). The educational aspect is decisive for SA experiences. Nowadays, students get the chance of conducting research abroad. The field and scope of undergraduate research during SA and its academic inquiry have not yet been fully described. There is a debate about what can be considered 'real' research from student research, especially from academics. Streitwieser and Sobania define undergraduate research as independent inquiry made by a student involving data collection, analysis, and writing, in such manner that it embodies an individual student achievement (cf. Streitwieser & Sobania, 2015, 2). Formal research requires Institutional Review Board (IRB) oversight and does not include observations, informal interviews with local people or short research assignments. The IRB can be explained as "a body whose resources, consent-giving mechanisms, and research-training programs provide proper guidance on the complexities that should be taken into account" (ibid: 3). Currently some institutions already have IRB requirements in place for undergraduates involved in research but may not have extended these requirements to SA programs yet. Only a small number of institutions and SA programs officially offer guidelines for undergraduate research. On the one hand IRB reviews of undergraduate research abroad can be seen as unnecessary for several reasons:

First, few faculty [sic] and administrators expect short-term undergraduate research projects to result in generalizable or original findings. Further, there is a perception that few undergraduates have sufficient background to define an appropriate research project prior to the start of an overseas experience, thus leaving the issue of IRB approval to the study abroad program to resolve while the student is abroad. Although some universities and study

abroad providers may encourage or include independent research as part of their general curriculum, few require that students first have their research plans approved by their home campus IRB or program IRB. (Streitwieser & Sobania, 2015, 4 ff.)

Despite everything, there are some institutions handling it differently and reviewing every student research project that involves direct interaction with human subjects. Ultimately, students participating in undergraduate research require appropriate training and tools because of potential risks and opportunities. There are also other options for students to do research without an institutional review: participant observation research or unobtrusive methods, including the examination of local media, institutional records, or social artifacts – as long as there is no questionnaire added, otherwise it requires IRB approval. In any program that supports undergraduate research, some degree of IRB standards, or at least IRB-influenced standards should be considered for the safety of research subjects and beneficial to the students involved. (cf. ibid: 9-14)

4.5 Preparation and Post-Processing

In an attempt to create a maximum immersion experience for SA students, Kruse and Brubaker advice SA programs to offer student preparation, immersion and post-processing for the international experience abroad (cf. Kruse & Brubaker, 2007, 147). Usually, universities and institutions provide their SA students with one or more pre-departure orientations. Regardless, typical issues of health, safety, and academic aspects might be included with no further preparation. Skrefsrud warns that negative stereotypes and prejudices might appear or even be strengthened without SA preparation and scaffolding before, during and after the exchange (cf. Skrefsrud, 2021 in: Cairns, 2021, 70). Introducing students to global and cultural issues before their departure gives them the chance to deepen the knowledge gained from the SA experience with more advanced internationally focused courses and engagement opportunities (cf. Haynes, 2011, 21). Hence, students should be prepared before their departure of their SA experience. This could even start in the foreign language classroom. Kruse and Brubaker suggest for language instructors to guide students in learning about cultural principles and becoming efficient culture learners. They could discover their own values and attitudes, reflect on them and practice changing perspectives (cf. Kruse & Brubaker, 2007, 148).

During their SA experience, students should receive enough support from their mobility program. A variety of immersion elements helping students to interact and integrate themselves into the host culture, can be of great help and is necessary. The implementation of post-processing is very significant for global mobility programs. It helps students to reflect on their SA experience and to articulate their learning outcomes. This could be done by

providing returnees with a place and a time to unpack their personal experiences abroad through academic reading and discussions (cf. ibid: 150f.).

Table 9 (*Mapping Service-Learning Reflection Activities*) offers different activities of reflecting before, during and after the SA experience and how to reflect alone, with classmates and with community partners. In times of culture shock, it is also very important to communicate with other people and look for social support. Considering the possibility of reverse culture shock to occur, reflection as part of post-processing becomes even more essential. Brubaker gives seven ideas to SA programs on guiding students through the re-entry transition. Re-entry should be seen as an important part of the whole SA experience, just like the pre-departure and in-country phase. Pre-departure and in-country programming can already help raising students' cognitive awareness of the potential challenges and opportunities when re-entering the home country and culture. These potential challenges and opportunities should be viewed from a positive and a negative perspective. It is significant to inform students about the complexity and individuality concerning the re-entry experience. Students should be able to identify their own unique challenges and opportunities. When talking about re-entry or reverse culture shock, students might be more interested when pointing at these phenomena as part of personal growth and development. Once students reflect on their SA time, it is advisable to motivate them to verbalize to others their feelings, emotions, and thoughts about the experience. Re-entry should not be regarded as one single event for reflection. Students are individually affected by their SA adventures and experience re-entry differently. Therefore, there should be several opportunities for reflection, processing, and discussion. Study abroad staff and faculty leaders should also be involved in processing their own re-entry experiences, even if these returns are several years ago. Sometimes it takes time to process everything and to understand one's own feelings and thoughts. This is a personal benefit for staff and faculty leaders, and it might inspire them in the way they support and coach students. (cf. Brubaker, 2017, 111 ff.)

Although it is quite elaborate and probably impossible to analyse all global mobility programs worldwide and their motives, required key elements and goals were presented in this chapter. There are different kinds of mobility programs, and each program, agency or organization might even offer diverse programs. This chapter focused on mobility programs, which can either be seen as agreements between two or more institutions or independent agencies or organizations offering SA programs for students. In the following conclusion the specific requirements for global mobility program designs will be summarized.

5. Conclusion

In the beginning, this paper has paid attention to the historical background and the contemporary state of the internationalization of higher education, affected by the two global phenomena of globalization and marketization. The rootage of study abroad leads back to the idea of intentionally connecting the world by integrating international and intercultural dimensions into the education system and hence, improve the quality of education and research for students and staff all over the world. The process has indicated positive as well as negative outcomes on global societies and will continue to bring unsuspected surprises and opportunities, for there are many ways student mobility might pursue. Nonetheless, the future not only of student mobility, but of the entire global society requires a changing perspective from competition back to cooperation for the greater good. Global mobility programs maintain the chance of planting seeds into the generation of young adults exploring the world and becoming aware of global issues. Their motives of providing students with international experiences carry great responsibility and significance surrounding the quality of these experiences abroad and the engagement students continue to possess towards interculturality. The impact of study abroad programs and students' abroad experiences does not only apply to students themselves and their attitudes but can positively generate solidarity and global mutual support for the future world.

Student mobility nowadays offers multiple opportunities for students to experience international education even without traveling to foreign countries. Study abroad comprises the physical mobility of students into foreign cultures and countries. The so-called intercultural contact affects sojourners before, during and especially after their experiences. This paper looked at some competences as well as difficulties study abroad can implicate. There are assumptions about intercultural, linguistic, and personal growth which are highly dependent on internal and external variables.

The goals of this paper were to identify determinants which make a study abroad experience successful and detecting the role and significance of the design of global mobility programs for this matter. There is no general definition of what makes study abroad successful, but looking at the aspired or anticipated competences, it is desirable for students to successfully adjust to a foreign culture and mediate between the insights of the foreign and the culture of origin when returning home. Referring to the acculturation process, it is important to know that experiencing stress and culture shock abroad is part of the whole adjustment process and students need to process and recover from this stage appropriately. At this point, global mobility programs should be aware of the potential outcomes, positively and negatively, students could experience abroad and inform them properly about the potential progress and that each

student handles these outcomes individually. There are frequent appearances which should nonetheless not become universalized. In terms of instruction, global mobility programs are advised to set clear goals and learning outcomes to operate accordingly and give students accurate conceptions of study abroad. The same goes for global citizenship which should be clearly defined by mobility programs and endowed with the aim of students achieving it.

The successfulness of a study abroad experience does of course depend on internal variables concerning the individual student, but external factors, like Engle and Engle illustrated, should be chosen wisely by programs. Offering variable program opportunities can help for students to have more options and for programs to compare the individual outcomes between different program variables.

For global mobility programs to efficiently support and guide students in their study abroad experiences, preparation, immersion, and reflection are key elements. There are manifold ways for mobility programs to prepare students for studying abroad in terms of providing information about potential outcomes, specific cultural differences, helpful activities, and attitudes towards the foreign culture and more. Programs are even advised to prepare students for intercultural, linguistic, and personal development and growth. As mentioned before, students require social support during their stay abroad, at best from their local community in the foreign country to learn about the culture. Here, mobility programs can provide students with opportunities and interaction activities, involving team sports or other communities. The reflection part after the study abroad experience is very significant for students to reflect, collect all thoughts, emotions and feelings and verbalize them to others.

Eventually, the design of global mobility programs is essential for the experiences of students' study abroad. There are many factors at play, and nothing can ultimately guarantee a successful study abroad. Nonetheless, it is not the duty of global mobility programs to treat their participants as customers but educate and challenge them. On many topics in study abroad contexts more research and studies are needed. In the end, a student might experience in his or her view a rather unsuccessful study abroad trip but properly reflect and learn from it with the help of a thoughtfully designed global mobility program. Could that not be called 'successful'?

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Appendix

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Figure 1: *Two pillars of internationalization: at home and crossborder.* (Knight, 2012, 22)
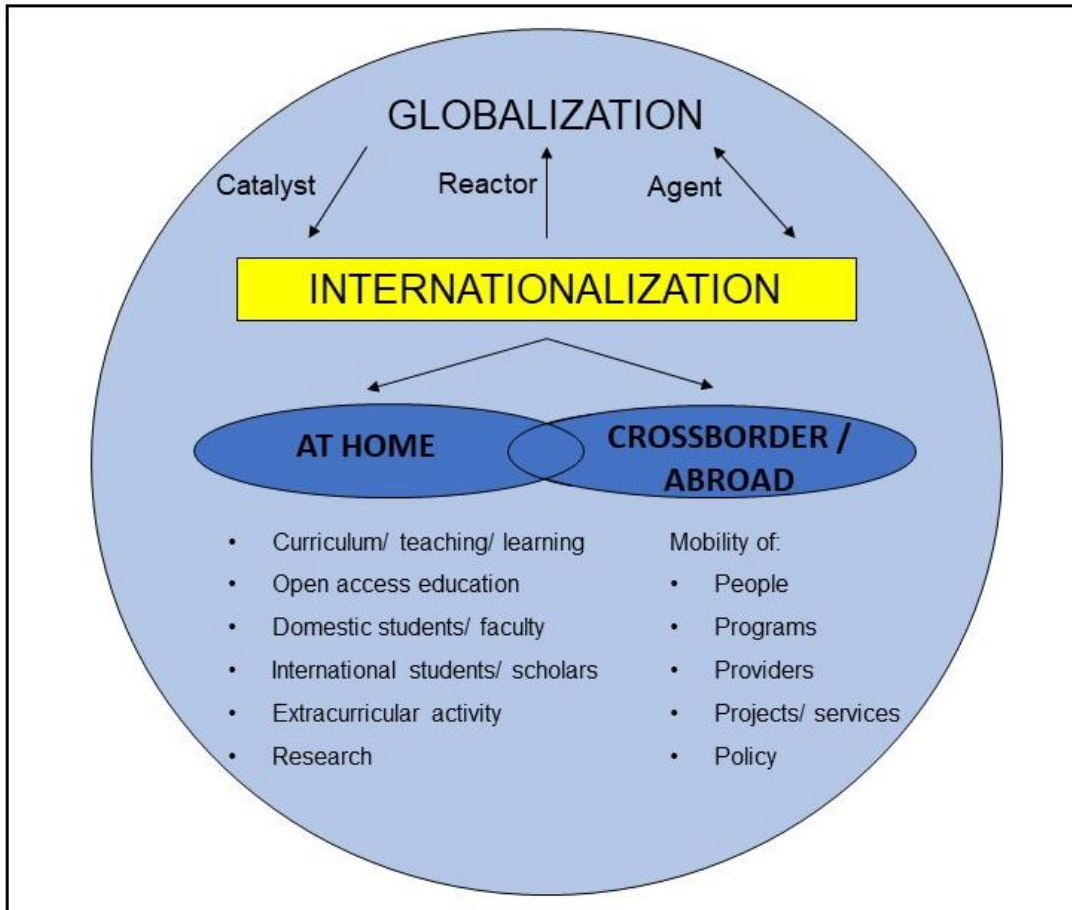
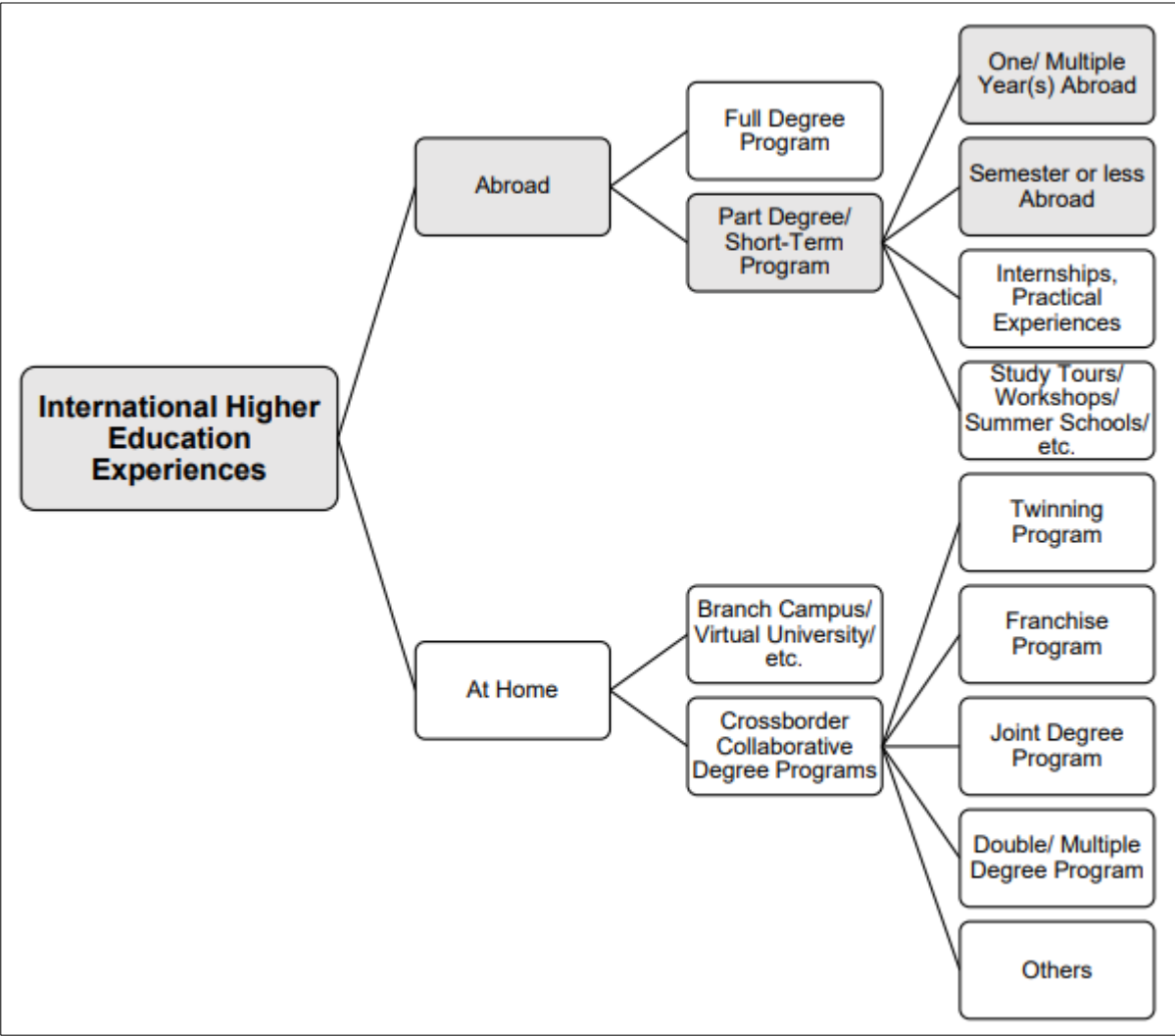Figure 2: *International Higher Education Experiences.* (cf. Knight, 2012, 25; Knight, 2008, 91f.)

Figure 3: *The Acculturation Process.* (Ward et al., 2001, 44 adapted from Ward, 1996)
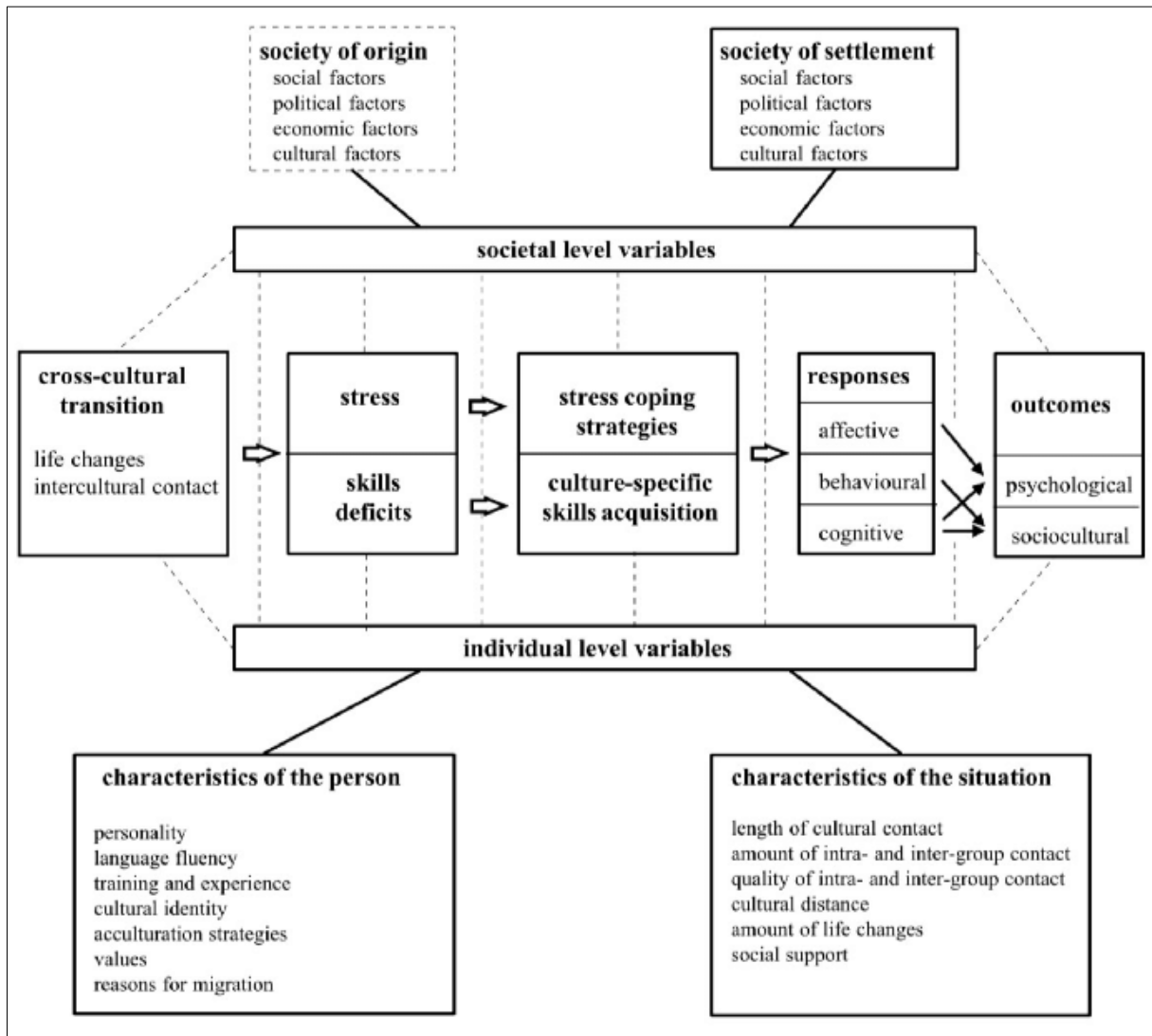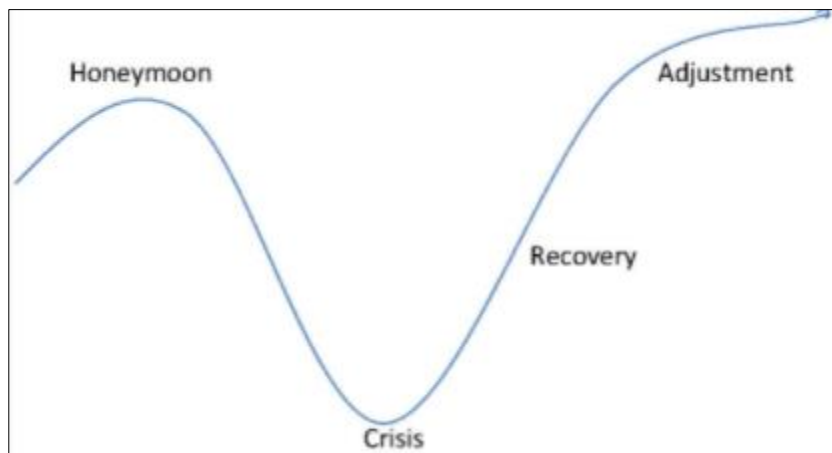

Figure 4: *U-shaped Curve of Culture Shock.* (Missouri State, n.d.)

List of Tables

Table 1: *The implications of five elements of globalization for the internationalization of higher education.* (Knight, 2008, 6 adapted from Knight, 2006 updated 2008).

Element of Globalization	Impact on Higher Education	Implications for the International Dimension of Higher Education
Knowledge Society Increasing importance is attached to the production and use of knowledge as a wealth creator for nations.	A growing emphasis on continuing education, life-long learning, and continual professional development; creates a greater unmet demand for post-secondary education. The need to develop new skills and knowledge results in new types of programs and qualifications. Universities' role in research and knowledge production alters, becomes more commercialized.	New types of private and public providers deliver education and training programs across borders—e.g., private media companies, networks of public/private institutions, corporate universities, multinational companies. Programs become more responsive to market demand. Specialized training programs are developed for niche markets and professional development and distributed worldwide. The international mobility of students, academics, education/training programs, research, providers, and projects increases. Mobility is both physical and virtual.
ICTS –Information and Communication Technologies New developments in information and communication technologies and systems.	New delivery methods are used for domestic and cross-border education, especially online and satellite-based forms.	Innovative international delivery methods are used, including e-learning, franchises. Satellite campuses require more attention to accreditation of programs/providers, more recognition of qualifications.
Market Economy Growth in the number and influence of market-based economies around the world.	The commercialization and commodification of higher education and training at domestic and international levels increases.	New concerns emerge about the appropriateness of curriculum and teaching materials in different cultures/ countries. New potential develops for homogenization and hybridization.
Trade Liberalization New international and regional trade agreements develop to decrease barriers to trade.	Import and export of educational services and products increases as barriers are removed	The emphasis increases on the commercially oriented export and import of education programs; international development projects continue to diminish in importance.
Governance The creation of new international and regional governance structures and systems.	The role of national-level education actors both government and non-government is changing New regulatory and policy frameworks are being considered at all levels.	Consideration is given to new international/regional frameworks to complement national and regional policies and practices, especially in quality assurance, accreditation, credit transfer, recognition of qualifications , and student mobility.

Table 2: *Three generations of cross-border education.* (Knight, 2018, 639 in: Meusburger, 2021, adapted from: Knight, 2014, 43-58)

Primary Focus	Description
First Generation	
People Mobility	*Students* move to engage in full degree or short-term study, research, field work, internships, exchange programs.
Students, faculty, and scholars move to a foreign country for education and research purposes.	*Faculty* moves to teach, engage in professional development, and pursue research.
	Scholars move to strengthen international research collaboration and networks.
Second Generation	
Program and Provider Mobility Programs, institutions, or companies move across jurisdictional borders to deliver education and training.	*Programs* Types include twinning and franchise, joint-, double-, or multiple-degree, online, or distance programs.
	Providers Types include branch campuses, franchise universities, codeveloped universities, independent institutions.
Third Generation	
Education Hubs	*Student Hub*: Students, programs, and providers move to a foreign country for education purposes.
Countries, cities, or special zones attract foreign students, researchers, employees, programs, providers, and research and development (R&D) companies for purposes of education, training, knowledge production, and innovation.	*Talent Hub*: Students and workers move to a foreign country for education and training and stay for employment purposes
	Knowledge and *Innovation Hub*: Education researchers, scholars, higher education institutions, and research and development centers move to a foreign country to produce knowledge and innovation.

Table 3: *Increase in the number of branch campuses, 2002 – 2015.* (Knight, 2018, 643 in: Meusburger, 2021. Data from Garrett, Kinser, Lane, & Merola (2016, pp. 51–52) and Lawton & Katsomitros (2012). Copyright by Observatory on Borderless Education and C-BERT)

	2002	2006	2009	2011	2015
Total number of branch campuses	24	82	162	200	249
Number of source countries		17	22	24	33
Number of host countries		36	51	67	76
Number of branch campuses hosted by region					
Africa			5	18	19
Asia Pacific			44	69	83
Europe			32	48	74
Latin America			18	10	9
Middle East			55	55	51
North America			8	10	12
Branch closures		6	5	12	15

Table 4: *Top 10 countries for number of inbound internationally mobile tertiary students studying abroad, 2004-2013.* (Kenway, 2018 in: Meusburger, 2021, 620 adapted from: UNESCO (2015), Copyright 2016 by UNESCO)

Country	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
United States	572,509	590,158	584,719	595,874	624,474	660,581	684,807	709,565	740,482	784,427
United Kingdom	300,056	318,399	330,078	351,470	341,791	368,968	389,958	419,946	427,686	416,693
Australia	166,954	177,034	184,710	211,526	230,635	257,637	271,231	262,597	249,588	249,868
France	237,587	236,518	247,510	246,612	243,436	249,143	259,935	268,212	271,399	239,344
Germany	260,314	..	..	..	..	..	..	207,771	206,986	196,619
Russian Federation	75,786	90,450	77,438	60,288	136,791	129,690	..	165,910	173,627	138,496
China	..	..	36,386	42,138	51,038	61,211	71,673	79,638	88,979	96,409
Austria	33,707	..	39,329	43,572	53,396	59,705	68,619	70,558	58,056	70,852
Netherlands	26,154	26,387	27,037	27,449	30,052	23,674	27,968	38,367	57,506	68,943
Saudi Arabia	12,199	12,999	13,687	17,716	18,725	19,906	26,871	34,922	46,566	62,143

Table 5: *Top 10 countries for students going abroad for tertiary education, 2004-2013.* (Kenway, 2018 in: Meusburger, 2021, 621 adapted from: UNESCO (2015), Copyright 2016 by UNESCO)

Country	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
China	365,916	403,527	407,280	430,355	459,892	517,335	568,578	650,632	693,972	712,157
India	133,849	146,033	145,539	161,492	183,646	203,217	208,723	204,246	188,791	181,872
Germany	57,564	64,213	70,750	78,222	83,023	92,753	104,853	113,795	117,691	119,123
Republic of Korea	96,937	100,800	104,763	109,872	117,929	127,054	126,822	127,832	121,023	116,942
France	46,573	49,154	53,352	54,611	46,076	52,946	57,174	60,135	63,713	84,059
Saudi Arabia	11,704	12,398	13,765	20,123	24,828	31,366	42,651	51,679	63,833	73,548
United States of America	50,629	52,699	54,419	57,455	55,294	57,017	57,506	59,759	60,297	60,292
Malaysia	48,294	47,395	49,000	52,654	56,285	59,892	59,539	59,855	58,485	56,260
Viet Nam	17,030	20,801	23,330	28,012	36,514	43,945	47,268	52,029	53,004	53,546
Nigeria	23,476	26,906	27,969	30,185	34,105	42,535	45,062	49,492	49,568	52,066

Table 6: *Anzahl der deutschen Studierenden im Ausland von 2000 bis 2018.* (Statistisches Bundesamt, 2020)
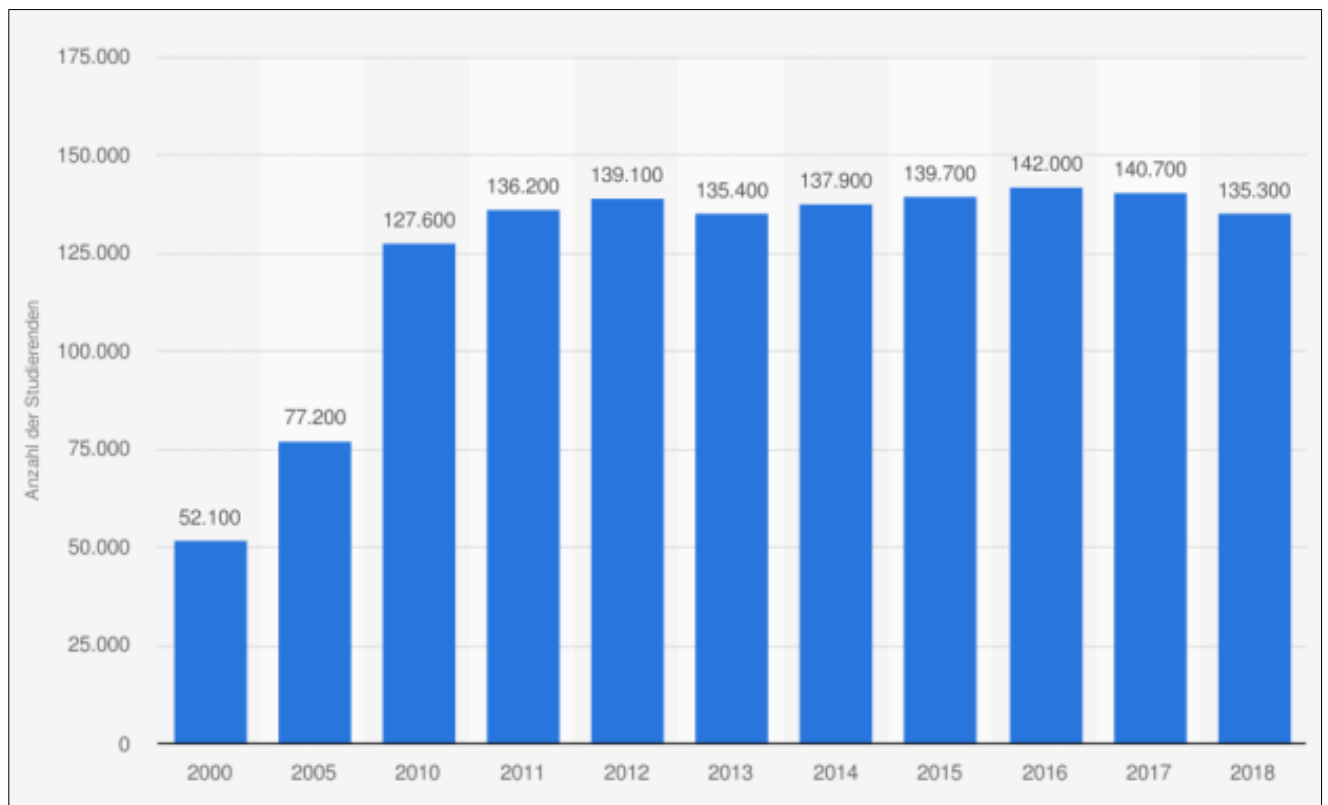
Table 7: *Typology of Crossborder Provider Mobility*. (Knight, 2008, 106 adapted from Knight, 2005b)

Branch Campus	Provider in country A establishes a satellite campus in country B to deliver courses and programs to students in country B (may also include country A students taking a semester/courses abroad). The qualification awarded is from provider in country A.	Monash University from Australia has established branch campuses in Malaysia and South Africa. University of Indianapolis has a branch campus in Athens.
Independent Institution	Foreign provider A (a traditional university, a commercial company or alliance/network) establishes in country B a stand-alone HEI to offer courses/programs and awards.	The German University in Cairo, Phoenix Universities in Canada, and Puerto Rico (Apollo Group).
Acquisition/ Merger	Foreign provider A purchases a part of or 100% of local HEI in country B.	Laureate (formerly Sylvan Learning Systems) has merged with and/or purchased local HEIs in Chile, Mexico, and other LA countries.
Study Center/ Teaching Site	Foreign provider A establishes study centers in country B to support students taking their courses/programs. Study centers can be independent or in collaboration with local providers in country B.	Texas A&M has a "university center" in Mexico City. Troy University (USA) has MBA teaching site in Bangkok.
Affiliation/ Networks	Different types of "public and private," "traditional and new" providers from various countries collaborate through innovative types of partnerships to establish networks/institutions to deliver courses and programs in local and foreign countries through distance or face-to-face modes	Partnership between the Caparo Group and Carnegie Mellon University to establish campus in India. Netherlands Business School branch campus in Nigeria in partnership with African Leadership Forum (NGO).
Virtual University	Provider that delivers credit courses and degree programs to students in different countries through distance education modes and that generally does not have face-to-face support services for students	International Virtual University, Hibernia College, Arab Open University.

Table 8: *Typology of Crossborder Program Mobility*. (Knight, 2008, 105 adapted from Knight, 2005b)

Category	Description
Franchise	An arrangement whereby a provider in source country A authorizes a provider in another country B to deliver its course/program/service in country B or other countries. The qualification is awarded by provider in country A.
Twinning	A situation whereby a provider in source country A collaborates with a provider located in country B to develop an articulation system allowing students to take course credits in country B and/or source country A. Only one qualification is awarded by provider in source country A.
Double/Joint Degree	An arrangement whereby providers in different countries collaborate to offer a program for which a student receives a qualification from each provider or a joint award from the collaborating providers.
Articulation	Various types of articulation arrangements between providers in different countries permit students to gain credit for courses/programs offered/delivered by collaborating providers.
Validation	Validation arrangements between providers in different countries allow provider B in receiving country to award the qualification of Provider A in source country.
Virtual/ Distance	Arrangements where providers deliver courses/program to students in different countries through distance and online modes. May include some face-to-face support for students through domestic study or support centers.

Table 9: *Mapping Service-Learning Reflection Activities*. (Eyler, 2002, 523 from "Creating your Reflection Map" by J. Eyler, in M. Canada (Ed.), Service Learning: Practical Advice and Models, 2001, San Francisco: Jossey Bass. Copyright 2001 by Jossey-Bass. Adapted with permission)

	Before Service	During Service	After Service
Reflect Alone	Letter to self Goal statement	Reflective journal	Individual paper Film, Artwork
Reflect with Classmates	Explore "hopes and fears" Contrast expert views	List serve discussions Critical incident analysis	Team presentation
Reflect with Community Partners	Create contract Needs assessment	"Lessons learned"—on site debriefing	Presentation to community partner

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