TREATISES AND DOCUMENTS JOURNAL OF ETHNIC STUDIES
RAZPRAVE IN GRADIVO REVIJA ZA NARODNOSTNA VPRAŠANJA
83 / 2019, p. 21–34

DOI: 10.36144/RiG83.dec19.21-34

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Cross-Border Higher Education for Primary School Teachers: The Case at the Italo-Slovene Border

The aim of the paper is to discuss the mobility patterns of university students in the context of a border area, taking into consideration the unique characteristics of this region. Special attention is given to the area between Italy and Slovenia where research was conducted among cross-border students attending the study programme for primary school teachers in Slovenia. In the introduction, a distinction is made between cross-border, transnational and overseas education. The following presents the reality of the Italo-Slovene border, an analysis of the factors influencing cross-border mobility and the outcome of the EDUKA2 project.

Keywords: cross-border students, cross-border higher education, transnational students, Slovene schools in Italy.

Čezmejno univerzitetno izobraževanje za učitelje razrednega pouka: primer na italijansko-slovenski meji

Namen prispevka je prikazati model čezmejnih študentov, ki se je razvil v mejnih regijah, s posebnim poudarkom na obmejnem prostoru med Italijo in Slovenijo, kjer je bila izvedena študija med čezmejnimi študenti razrednega pouka v Sloveniji. V uvodnem poglavju so prikazane konceptualne razlike med čezmejnimi in mednarodnimi študenti, v nadaljevanju pa realnost obmejnega prostora, dejavniki vplivanja na čezmejno mobilnost študentov in rezultati projekta EDUKA2.

Ključne besede: *čezmejni študenti, čezmejni visokošolski študij, mednarodni študenti, slovenske šole v Italiji.*

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ISSN 0354-0286 Print/ISSN 1854-5181 Online

DOI: 10.36144/RiG83.dec19.21-34

1. Introduction

The aim of the article is to examine the models of cross-border student mobility developing in the European border regions, with special attention on the area between Italy and Slovenia, where research was conducted among cross-border students attending the study programme for primary school teachers in Slovenia (Baloh & Mezgec 2017; Krmac 2019).

In this introductory section, the use of the term cross-border education will be analysed to see how the term in used in the scientific literature. In a European context, cross-border mobility has different connotations often not included in a more overseas-oriented understanding of this concept.

There is considerable confusion regarding the meaning and use of the three terms transnational, cross-border and borderless education (Knight 2006). Cross-border education highlights the presence of national borders central to many of the regulations, quality and financial issues related to the new mobility of programmes and providers (Knight 2006, 104). In fact, "cross-border education is a term that refers to the movement of education (students, researchers, professors, learning materials, programmes, providers, knowledge and so on) across national/regional jurisdictional or geographic borders" (Knight 2006, 104). Knight's analysis offers a framework wherein there are several categories that refer to the "'who/what' moves. These are: people (students, professors/scholars, researchers, expert/consultants), programmes, providers, institutions, organisations and companies, projects/services" (Knight 2006, 104).

Cross-border higher education has become a significant issue in the higher education agenda and it is often related to the globalisation and internationalisation of higher education.

In fact, as Knight (2015) suggests, the international, intercultural and global dimensions are three terms used as a triad that complement one another. In the definition she proposed, internationalisation refers to the process of integrating an international, intercultural and global dimension into postsecondary education. While in the UNESCO publication on the globalisation of higher education and cross-border student mobility "the internationalisation of education implies the imparting of knowledge, skills and values which have universal appeal and application" (Varghese 2008, 10). It also implies that curriculum becomes cross-national and intercultural in nature. Moreover, the globalisation of higher education can be seen as part of internationalisation. The globalisation of higher education implies becoming an activity designed to introduce an international and multicultural outlook to suit the requirements of a global labour market centred on knowledge production (Varghese 2008, 10). Within this fame of analysis, higher education institutions have become a market-driven activity.

Cross-border education in the literature refers more generally to education in another country, across borders where the geographical proximity is not a

DOI: 10.36144/RiG83.dec19.21-34

relevant factor and therefore even overseas student flow is considered cross-border in the literature. In the above-mentioned UNESCO publication, it is stated that "cross-border education entails mobility of provisions and services in foreign countries" (Varghese 2008, 11). Currently a new pattern has emerged showing an increase in the concentration of transnational providers offering courses in several countries. The border itself maintains its relevance since it influences above all, accreditation, funding, quality assurance (Knight 2015) and other aspects related to national regulations.

This introductory overview of the concept makes clear that cross-border higher education, as it appears in the literature, refers to a phenomenon much broader than what will be dealt with in this paper, and that the use of the term cross-border education is rather inappropriate as it is too broad in scope. For the aim of the present paper, the term transnational mobility will be adopted to describe the above mentioned concept, and furthermore, another context of cross-border student mobility will be presented, one that refers to a more European tradition, pattern, practice and vision.

2. Transnational and Cross-Border Mobility Patterns

Transnational student mobility has its own developmental patterns. In its early stages, transnational student mobility referred to the supportive policies developed during the colonial period to encourage the pursuit of higher education in the imperial capital. The flow of students was mainly from developing to developed countries (Varghese 2008). From that perspective, North America and Western Europe continue to be the favourite destinations for most foreign students, except for students from Central Asia, who go to the Russian Federation or other Eastern European countries (Varghese 2008, 16).[1] Currently, the dominant stream of transnational student mobility is from less developed and newly-industrialised countries to western industrialised countries (Li & Bray 2007). This paper, however, will show that continental Europe has another, different tradition of cross-border education related to a different historical evolution, in addition to the mobility patterns of the colonial period, although the current literature focuses more on student mobility to the UK and USA, making it more difficult to collect data on other areas. Even the aggregation of data in the above mentioned UNESCO publication related to North America and Western Europe in one category, and Central and Eastern Europe in a separate category, makes it difficult to differentiate the European dimension of cross-border students.

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3. Towards a New Working Definition That Includes European Patterns and the Historical Evolution of Cross-Border Student Mobility

Since practice influences definition, it is reasonable that the English term refers to the Anglo-American evolution of cross-border education, which in reality, is more related to overseas education, overseas students and transnational students and transnational education, than to the European context where, in continental Europe, the term cross-border includes the neighbouring country. Within this context, in the Slovene and Italian languages there is an adjective translated into English as cross-border (*transfrontaliero* in Italian and *čezmejni* in Slovene) but in practice it refers to the reality of crossing the border of the neighbouring country/ies. Following a similar logic and terminology, the EU commission has adopted that meaning of the term cross-border and developed special policies and regulations for cross-border workers. In the terminology adopted by the European Commission cross-border workers are persons who work in one Member State but live in another (European Parliament 1997). In fact, in the European Migration Network Glossary we find the definition that "a cross-border worker is a person who works as an employee or self-employed person in one EU Member State but is recognised as residing in another (neighbouring) EU Member State" (EMN 2018). The terms cross-border workers and frontier workers are used synonymously. Further on:

> what distinguishes frontier workers from traditional migrant workers is the fact of living in one State and working in another. The migrant worker leaves his country of origin completely, with or without his family, to live and work in a different country. The frontier worker, by contrast, has a dual national allegiance, stemming from his place of residence and his place of work (European Parliament 1997).

Data from the European Employment Service (EURES) shows that in 2016, more than 1.4 million people in the EU lived in one country and worked in another. EU internal border regions cover 40 per cent of EU territory and are home to almost 2 million cross-border commuters.

4. EU Student Mobility and Cross-Border Students in the EU

As cross-border workers are those who migrate from the country of residence to the neighbouring country of employment on a daily or weekly basis, similarly, cross-border students (for the aim of this paper) are students who study in the neighbouring country and return home daily or at weekends. This is a pattern

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typical of border regions where there is more linguistic and cultural contact among the bordering territories and populations that facilitate certain patterns and decisions at the individual level. There are students from the Italian region of South Tyrol studying in Austria, students from the Slovenian and Croatian coastal area studying in north east Italy, students from the Italian region of Friuli Venezia Giulia studying in Slovenia etc.. Often these patterns involve individuals familiar with the realities, languages and cultures of both countries and who are frequently members of national minorities.

This phenomenon should not be confused with the international mobility schemes promoted by the EU Commission, although the development of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) might have some positive secondary effect on cross-border student mobility. Within the EHEA the European Union has pursued a top-down strategy with the aim of creating a strong higher education region that can compete with other parts of the world and weaken student flow to overseas destinations (Roberston 2009; Slaughter & Cantwell 2012). Within these strategies, an important role is played by the Erasmus scheme. Although patterns of mobility differ across geographic regions within Europe (influenced by the attractiveness of particular European nations to mobile students, in general moving from east to west and from more marginal to more central points (Brooks 2018)), these patterns of intra-European student mobility differ from the cross-border mobility analysed herein. Mobility programmes take place under formally established programmes (top-down) and students seldom don't opt for geographically proximate nations as they are not interesting target destinations for an exchange experience (i.e. the Erasmus scheme), instead choosing more distant or attractive destinations.

5. The Reality of the Slovenes in Italy

Slovenes living in Italy are one of the autochthonous minorities living outside Slovenia. The legal framework granting cultural autonomy to the Slovene national community in Italy with the right to the public use of Slovene, a bilingual and Slovene-language educational system, and an autonomous organisational structure of its culture and economy encompasses the following laws: Norme a tutela della minoranza linguistica slovena della regione Friuli-Venezia Giulia (Regulations on the Protection of Slovene Linguistic Minority in the Region of Friuli-Venezia Giulia), Norme regionali per la tutela della minoranza linguistica slovena (Regional Law Governing the Protection of the Slovene Linguistic Minority) and Norme in materia di tutela delle minoranze linguistiche storiche (Regulations on the Protection of Historical Linguistic Minorities) (Vidau 2017, 50–51).

The minority is settled in the provinces of Trieste, Udine (Videm or Viden) and Gorizia (Gorica), all belonging to the region of Friuli-Venezia Giulia (Furlanija - Julijska krajina or FVG).

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The first schools with Slovene as the language of instruction (hereafter Slovene schools) were established in the provinces of Trieste and Gorizia by the Austro-Hungarian administration which was receptive to the other languages of the Empire. After World War I, Trieste and Gorizia was allocated to Italy, along with their hinterland, which also included a part of the present-day Republic of Slovenia and Val Canale (Kanalska dolina), the northernmost part of the present day province of Udine, near the three borders between Italy, Slovenia and Austria. Soon after the end of the war, the Italian authorities launched a denationalisation policy, which became increasingly systematic and cruel after the establishment of the Fascist regime that, among the other provisions against Slovene minority abolished Slovene schools. After World War II, Gorizia and Trieste were annexed to Italy, while their hinterland became part of the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia. Already in the period of the Habsburg Empire, the Slovenes in the territory of Trieste and Gorizia were well organised (with a capilar infrastucturue of cultural associations, economic associations, sport associations, religious facilities, media etc.). Fascist authorities put an end to all these activities, which, however, were slowly reestablished after Word War II (Bogatec 2019a; Čavdek et al. 2018).

The Slovene schools in Italy constitute an integral part of the Italian school system and function under the same rules that apply to state schools of the majority population. As determined by the Italian school system, there are two school cycles, namely the primary cycle (ages 3 to 11) and the secondary cycle (ages 11 to 19). The primary cycle is further subdivided into pre-primary school (ages 3 to 6) and primary school (ages 6 to 11), while the secondary cycle is divided into lower secondary school (ages 11 to 14) and upper secondary school (ages 14 to 19). The primary cycle and lower secondary schools are the same for all pupils, while upper secondary schools are divided into lyceums and technical and vocational institutes. A state examination is taken upon the completion of all upper secondary schools and allows access to any university or institution of higher education (Bogatec 2019a; Bogatec 2017).

Slovene schools differ from Italian schools in terms of the language of instruction (Slovene) and the curriculum (in addition to the mother tongue, the language of the environment – Italian – is also taught). All other elements, including learning and teaching objectives, programmes and content fully conform with the applicable national programmes, with the necessary adaptations and additions. The provinces of Trieste and Gorizia have schools with Slovene as the language of instruction of all kinds and levels, ranging from pre-primary schools to upper secondary schools (Bogatec 2017, 2019).

Specific legislation regulating the Slovene minority schools in Italy is twofold: a) international agreements and b) internal regulations. The Slovene schools in Italy (like the Italian schools in Slovenia) are crucial to the relations between the two neighbouring states, since it is the main educational institution of an

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ethnic community. On the basis of existing agreements, part of the responsibility for Slovene schools in Italy is also born by the Republic of Slovenia (Bogatec 2019a).

6. Cross-Border Flow and Cross-Border Students from Italy to Slovenia

As a consequence of the process of European integration, there is an evident increase in several patterns that reflect the fact that cross-border flow into the border zone has grown more intense since Slovenian independence (1991), entrance into the European Union (2004) and Schengen area (2007). In fact, in the geographic proximal areas one can note the rising permeability of the frontier which is reflected in the following: an increase in the number of cross-border workers (Mezgec 2008), families who reside in Italy and then acquire real estate in Slovenia because of more convenient prices (Jagodic 2014), moving small businesses from the bordering region of Italy in the industrial areas just across the border into Slovenia in order to take advantage of the more convenient conditions such as less bureaucracy, lower taxes and the possibility to offer services and products to the whole cross-border area. Even the frequency of cross-border visits of the population has seen a significant increase, although it has always been high, confirming the strong functional cross-border co-dependence of the area (Bufon 2014). Following the admission of Slovenia to the Schengen zone, positive changes in the inhabitants' perception about cross-border cohesion can be noticed, not only in the classic area of shopping opportunities, i.e. buying goods cross-border, but in terms of cross-border work opportunities, study, real estate, personal contacts and attending cultural events (Bufon 2014).

University study in Slovenia is nearly free of charge as it is almost fully financed by the state, while in Italy there are tuition fees, the amount of which varies among different universities, faculties and study programmes. In the region of Friuli Venezia Giulia, which borders Slovenia, there are two public universities with several campuses: the University of Trieste (Università degli studi di Trieste) and the University of Udine (Università degli studi di Udine). On the Slovene side in the proximity of the border there is a University on the coast – the University of Primorska/Università del Litorale and more to the north, a private, ministry accredited institution –Univerza v Novi Gorici. In addition, in the capital of Ljubljana, there is also the oldest Slovene university – the University of Ljubljana (Univerza v Ljubljani)[2]. For the bilingual high school population, the option to study in Slovenia free of charge is very reasonable, even taking into consideration the geographic proximity (ex. Koper/Capodistria lies approx. 23 km from the city of Trieste and Ljubljana is a distance of approx.

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90 km). Students graduating from Slovene schools in Italy do not need to take any linguistic entrance examination in order to study in Slovenia, due to special agreements with the Slovene Ministry of Education. Data collected among the population who graduated from Slovene schools in Italy in 2018 shows that 51 per cent of those graduates are currently attending university in Slovenia (Bogatec 2019b). Other official data are not available. This category of students has certain specific features: firstly, they are bilingual and can confidently navigate both systems and therefore use both experiences (Slovenian and Italian) to their advantage, secondly, their plans for career development are not limited to one state, but they can gain study and work experience in both states, thirdly, they are accustomed to crossing the border daily and therefore are often overlooked from statistics and other classification systems, lastly, these patterns are influenced by bottom-up dynamics that are harder to track.

Within the EDUKA2 project,[3] special attention was given to cross-border students in particular to improve the administrative workflows for the recognition of academic and professional qualifications in the field of education that are held by cross-border students and graduates. Within the project, tools were created to support students and graduates in the procedures necessary for the recognition of university and professional qualifications acquired in the neighbouring country, including a guide for students, joint-training courses for university staff responsible for student offices, career guidance and mentoring, and the development of a model for guidance for cross-border university students[4].

7. Factors Influencing Student Flow in Transnational Education and the Analysed Case Study of Students Attending the Study Programme for Primary School Teachers

Within the Faculty of Education of the University of Primorska, data were collected among cross-border students attending the study programme for primary school teachers: a preliminary study was first conducted (Baloh & Mezgec 2017), followed by a pilot study (Krmac 2019). Data from the preliminary study (Baloh & Mezgec 2017) has shown interesting push and pull factors. Push factors indicate the less favourable conditions of pursuing higher education in a given country while the pull factors refer mainly to the funding support for studying abroad (Varghese 2008; Altabach 1997). Among the pull factors listed by cross-border students are geographic proximity and economically favourable conditions, the language of instruction, the curriculum of the study program and positive feedback from older students. As regards the geographic proximity, on the Italian side, the closest study programme for primary school teachers is

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offered in Udine (approx. 80 km from Trieste), while Koper/Capodistria lies approx. 23 km from Trieste. The difference in distance renders it possible to drive to Koper on a daily basis, while the journey to Udine is longer and therefore renting a flat or a room in Udine could be a better solution, but one that is not economically convenient. The Slovenian government offers scholarships to study in Slovenia within The Public Scholarship, Development, Disability and Maintenence Fund of the Republic of Slovenia (2019). These scholarships are granted to members of Slovenian minorities in the neighbouring countries and Slovenians around the world for study at first- or second-cycle degree programs in Slovenia. The basic purpose of the scholarship programme is to promote the connection of young Slovenians living abroad with their homeland. Recipients of these scholarships are generally entitled to subsidised lodging in student dormitories. On the other side at the University of Udine the only institutional scholarships are offered by The regional agency ARDISS (2019). To be eligible for the scholarship, students' families must fulfil certain criteria, particularly with regards to financial status.

Even language was a push factor: respondents attended Slovene schools, so it is a natural choice to continue their education in the Slovene language. The study programme for teachers offered at the University of Udine has a special study programme for teachers in Slovene schools, where certain courses are taught in Slovene (3 courses, which total 21 ECTS[5] credits out of 300) (Università degli studi di Udine 2019), while the rest is in Italian. Respondents attended Slovene medium high schools and reported not feeling comfortable studying all subjects in Italian, with the exception of Slovene language and literature. There is another language related reason mentioned by respondents: the option to continue to study in the Slovene language, attending university in Slovenia is related to their vision of career development: they are pursuing a diploma in order to teach in Slovene schools in Italy and therefore it is reasonable to try to get as much education as possible in that language in order to gain language proficiency. Studying in Slovenia means a full immersion in a Slovene speaking environment. One can note that the choice to study in Slovenia is not related to a plan to gain employment in Slovenia, but more to a plan to return to Italy to find a teaching engagement in Slovene schools.

Another interesting push factor was that in the opinion of the respondents, and compared to the Italian format, the same study programme for primary school teachers in Slovenia is less theoretically oriented since there is a great deal of seminar work, and teaching practice. Actually comparing the two curriculums, one can note that the number of ECTS credits devoted to the teaching practice is similar, but there are more seminars and laboratories in the Slovenian curriculum (Università degli studi di Udine 2019; Pedagoška fakulteta Univerze na Primorskem 2019). Moreover, respondents reported hearing positive feedback from previous generations of students, which was a significant influence on their decision making.

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Among the negative aspects is the fact that respondents are preparing for a regulated profession which means that access to the profession is regulated by national law and is not automatically recognised in another country. Graduates must first fulfil all the requirements to obtain a professional qualification in Slovenia and then, following EU directive (Directive 2005/36/ES; Directive 2013/55/ES), they can apply to have their professional qualification recognised in Italy in order to teach in the Slovene schools there (Mezgec 2018). Secondly, in the enrolment procedure, as in the post-graduate procedure of the recognition of the professional qualification, students complain about the administrative procedures related to the provision of the official documents issued in the other countries and having these documents officially translated. All these factors were confirmed in a second study carried out in the same Faculty (Krmac 2019). It can be assumed that under these circumstances, if at present the faculty has approximately 50 cross-border students enrolled, this number may rise in the coming years.

Within the context of this paper, the aim of which was to analyse a particular category of cross-border students, it is interesting to compare the pull and push factors mentioned above with these detected among the transnational students. Cummins (1993) stated that since transnational student mobility began, one can note that the major reasons for overseas study fall into three categories: a lack of domestic facilities, the commercial value of a foreign degree and gaining experience in another country and culture. Comparing the two realities, several similarities come to the fore. The greater geographic distance to the closest faculty in Italy offering the same study programme can be considered, at least in part, as a factor that belongs to the first category regarding a lack of domestic facilities. Secondly, the commercial value of the foreign degree is, in this case, twofold: students who opt to study in Slovenia get the same professional qualification of a primary school teacher free of charge, i.e. without paying the tuition fees charged in Italy. In addition, pursuing the study in the Slovene language represents an added value when planning to teach in a Slovene school because of language proficiency. Thirdly, in case, upon graduation, the plan to go back to Italy to work fails for any reason, there remains the possibility to look for employment in Slovenia, which represents a back-up plane. It can be assumed that these factors are not strictly related only to students qualifying to be primary school teachers, but can be generalised to all teaching professions and also to other professional categories and students choosing different study programmes in Slovenia. In the above-mentioned UNESCO paper (Varghese 2008) there are even more factors influencing student choices when deciding to study abroad. Students choose the country and subject area of the study based on their calculations regarding monetary factors and the status of a foreign degree. Among the factors influencing the country of choice for transnational education Varghese (2008) lists: the cost of education (tuition fees and levels of living expenses),

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ideological affinity, language proficiency, perceived academic superiority of the institutions in the host countries, acquisition of foreign language and culture, employment opportunities, increasing income levels in the country of origin, easy visa formalities. Even considering these factors, there are several analogies with the target group presented above: cost of education, ideological affinity, language proficiency, employment opportunities, easy entry formalities etc. As previously mentioned, studying in Slovenia is almost free of charge, as for ideological affinity, students who have attended Slovene medium high school are relatively confident with Slovene culture and society, nor is language proficiency a problem. As for employment opportunities, an extra steep is necessary in order to have one's professional qualifications officially recognised, but there are, in fact, more employment opportunities available, i.e. the possibility of finding a position in two countries. Visas and other related formalities are at a minimum, since both states are EU members and in the Schengen area, therefore allowing the free movement of citizenship and workers as regulated by European law.

8. Concluding Remarks

The aim of the article is to examine the models of cross-border student mobility developing in European border regions, with special attention to the area between Italy and Slovenia.

In the introductory section, the use of the term cross-border education was analysed and a different, more European paradigm to understand the concept of cross-border students was presented, as in a European context, cross-border mobility has different connotations often not included in a more overseas-oriented understanding of this concept. The introductory overview clearly indicates that cross-border higher education, as it appears in the literature, refers to a wide-spread phenomenon and that the use of the term cross-border education is rather inappropriate and too broad in scope as it more generally refers to transnational mobility. In the interpretation of cross-border students that has been formulated in the paper, the geographical proximity represents an important factor. The interpretation suggested considers the European patterns and the historical evolution of cross-border student mobility in Europe.

Considering the results of the pull and push factors examined in the second part of the paper, one can conclude that cross-border students represent a separate category from transnational students, but with similar dynamics in terms of the push and pull factors that shape these patterns; the cost of education (tuition fees and levels of living expenses), ideological affinity, language proficiency, perceived academic superiority of the institutions in the host countries, employment opportunities, easy visa formalities. Their flow reflects the broader changes in society and represents an interesting sub-category of students who are less visible, numerically weaker and less common, but nevertheless, relevant.

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There is little data or research currently available on this topic, as it is often overlooked and frequently represents a bottom-up phenomenon not easy to track since it does not follow any top-down policy scheme. Within the EDUKA2 project, this category of students was examined and a pilot study was carried out (Krmac 2019) in order to develop useful tools such as a manual for cross-border students, training for university staff and thirdly a model for guidance.

Since EU internal border regions cover 40 per cent of EU territory (EURES 2019) we can suppose that the topic is not related to a negligible part of the population, but can affect a considerable part of the population of the EU, in particular those who live in border regions. There are no official statistics regarding the number of inhabitants in border regions who engage in cross-border studies, nor on how many develop a cross-border career, as data on this phenomenon is difficult to track. A significant effort has been made on the part of the cross-border workers to regulate that sphere of activity in order to guarantee free movement as a basic right of EU citizenship. Cross-border student mobility, however, is even more difficult to track and regulate compared to worker mobility. It is a bottom-up phenomenon that is difficult to regulate with policy scheme. The pull and push factors that influence individual decisions are subject to possible changes and the current trend is the result of the integration process of the border area between Italy and Slovenia, visible in a more intense cross-border flow. The young, bilingual generation act as consumers who evaluate products available on both sides of the border i.e. educational markets, and choose the product/service that better suits their needs. There are still jurisdictional barriers and regulations that affect the choices and patterns at the beginning and end of the students' careers. We can presume that the barriers at the end of the study career facilitate the phenomenon of brain drain. A lack of automatic recognition of professional qualifications in the case of regulated professions could put obstacles in the path of a young person who has studied abroad and could render it more likely that an individual would settle abroad, developing a career and therefore facilitating the brain drain.

It would be interesting to perform a longitudinal study to monitor the impact of this pattern of cross-border student flow on career opportunities and development.

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Notes

[1] Data refer to 2004.

[2] The third public university in Slovenia (Univerza v Mariboru) is located in Maribor.

[3] EDUKA2 – For a Cross-Border Governance of Education – is a project funded by the European Regional Development Fund under the Interreg Cooperation Programme V-A Italy-Slovenia 2014–2020 . The project addresses the shared challenge of poor cross-border cooperation in the field of education. The overall objective of the project is to strengthen cross-border cooperation and change the current situation by establishing common governance tools and shared educational and teaching models.

[4] The output of the project EDUKA2 are available on the project home page www.eduka2.eu.

[5] European Credit Transfer System.