

nuffic

# Mapping Mobility 2011

International Mobility in  
Dutch Higher Education





# **Mapping Mobility 2011**



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# 1

## Introduction and summary



## 1.1 Introduction

Nuffic has produced the annual *Mapping Mobility* report since 2010. The aim of this publication is to inform you about recent developments in the internationalisation of Dutch higher education.

In this report we provide an update on recent developments in student mobility from and to the Netherlands and, where possible, offer additional information on other types of internationalisation. This publication therefore contains multiple diagrams and tables reflecting internationalisation developments. We also aim to put Dutch internationalisation in an international context. Every year we therefore analyse what is going on in other countries. This provides insight into how the Netherlands is performing as well as into any emerging trends. Moreover, each year we explore one specific theme in greater depth. This year's theme is internationalisation and mobility between neighbouring countries and in border regions.

The supply of data on mobility flows and other types of internationalisation continues to be an area of concern. We still frequently encounter problems in our endeavours to collect accurate data that can also be compared at an international level. Issues relating to definitions and a lack of records mean that charting international mobility remains a matter of meticulously interpreting information and making careful decisions based on the available data. These issues are explained in greater detail in the appendix.

## 1.2 Mobility from a Dutch perspective

Owing to incomplete data, the previous issue of *Mapping Mobility* (2010) was not able to illustrate the increase in the number of international students between 2007-08 and 2008-09. It has since become clear that the number of international enrolments continued to grow and that this trend will also continue into 2010-11. In the current academic year, more than 52,000 international students are enrolled in government-funded Dutch higher education, representing 8% of the total student population in that sector of education.

The percentage that international students make up of the student population in academic higher education (research universities) has risen in the last five years from 7% to 10%. In the same period, the percentage of international students in higher professional education (universities of applied sciences) rose from 6% to 6.5%. In terms of numbers, however, this still meant as many as 6,750 additional students in higher professional education as opposed to 10,000 additional students in academic higher education.

Germany still is the main country of origin for international students. With a share of 46%, Germany accounts for nearly half of all international enrolments. Chapter 6 discusses the imbalance in mobility between neighbouring countries in further detail.



## Major developments

- The number of international students is growing worldwide. The Netherlands is part of this trend and is catching up with the European average.
- Worldwide, Europe remains the hub of international student mobility, although the importance of East Asia is growing.
- The number of international students coming to the Netherlands is rising faster than the number of Dutch students enrolling at institutions abroad.
- There is a rising trend in the number of Dutch students abroad. This is partly due to the later introduction of the bachelor's-master's degree structure and other Bologna measures in surrounding countries. With the introduction of portable student grants and loans, Dutch students have enrolled at 1,450 institutions in nearly 80 countries since 2007.
- Students from Germany form the largest group of international students in the Netherlands. The imbalance in student mobility between the Netherlands and Germany is growing. This type of imbalance between neighbouring countries is not restricted to the Netherlands and Germany, however. Chapter 6 examines this Europe-wide problem.
- The number of international students enrolling at Dutch research universities is increasing faster than the numbers entering Dutch universities of applied sciences, as is the number registering for master's degree programmes as opposed to bachelor's degree programmes. By contrast, outbound credit mobility has continued to decline and looks as though it will fall short of the Bologna target of 20%.

The number of German enrolments is trailed at some distance by enrolments from China and Belgium, which are themselves still well ahead of the growing numbers of students from Bulgaria, Turkey, Greece and Poland. This group of 'new' countries is followed by the United Kingdom, France and Italy, countries from which the influx of students is growing less rapidly.

Based on residence permit data, the total number of students who came to study in the Netherlands from Neso target countries and regions<sup>1</sup> between 2006 and 2010 increased by almost 2,100 students to over 9,900.

The difference between the percentages of female and male students of foreign nationality is steadily increasing in favour of female students. In higher professional education, 60% of international students are women; in academic higher education, this figure is 54%.

More than three quarters of international students in government-funded education enrolled in a bachelor's degree programme. While this is especially the case for students in higher professional education, in academic higher education there are also more bachelor's students than master's students.

Although Agriculture still is the most internationalised field of study in academic higher education – recording the highest percentage of international students among the total number of students pursuing this field of study –

the majority of international students in higher education can be found in the field of Economics. In higher professional education, the most international field of study is Language & Culture, thanks to the contribution of arts disciplines; here too, however, the majority of international students are enrolled in the much wider field of Economics. Maastricht University has the highest percentage of international students. Codarts, the Gerrit Rietveld Academie, University of the Arts, The Hague and Design Academy Eindhoven rank second, third, fourth and fifth respectively. Maastricht University also ranks number one in terms of absolute numbers of international students, followed at a distance by Fontys University of Applied Sciences, Saxion University of Applied Sciences, HAN University of Applied Sciences, Delft University of Technology and Stenden University. In terms of nationalities, Delft University of Technology reflects the greatest diversity among its international student population.

In 2007-08 more Dutch students enrolled at foreign universities, with their numbers that year exceeding 16,000. The proportion these students form of the total student population in the Netherlands also grew, from 2.5% to 2.7%, which moreover reflects a growing trend. The major destination countries are the United Kingdom, Belgium, the United States and Germany.

The growth in the number of students taking advantage of the possibility offered by the Dutch student grants and loans system to study abroad

<sup>1</sup> Nuffic operates a number of Netherlands Education Support Offices (Nuffic Neso offices) to support Dutch higher education abroad. There are Nuffic Neso offices in Brazil, China, Indonesia, Mexico, Russia, Thailand, Vietnam and Korea, and Nuffic Neso Desks in India and Taipei.

appears to be levelling off, as is the number of countries where they are studying. The preferred countries are Belgium, the United Kingdom, the United States and Germany. These countries received 85% of students who were funded by the Dutch student grants and loans system. Still, the portability of student grants and loans has resulted in a very broad range of international experiences: since 2007 Dutch students have departed for 80 different countries and enrolled at 1,450 different foreign institutions.

Credit mobility, and outbound credit mobility in particular, is a key indicator of the level of internationalisation of a study programme. In accordance with the Bologna agreements, credit mobility is preferably determined among graduates.

The Netherlands is one of the few countries where this actually happens: once a year among graduates from higher professional education (*hbo, hoger beroepsonderwijs*) and once every two years among graduates from academic higher education (*wo, wetenschappelijk onderwijs*).

Following a previous rise, the most recent figures for higher professional education show a sudden drop to under 20%. Assuming an unchanged percentage, the average for higher education graduates would be 22% in 2008-09. Given the developments in recent years, the current percentage of graduates with experience abroad is probably lower than that, approaching the agreed Bologna target of 20%.

<sup>2</sup> EFTA countries: Iceland, Norway, Liechtenstein and Switzerland.

The institutions where students gained the most international experience were Hotelschool The Hague – University of Hospitality Management and HAS Den Bosch University of Applied Sciences. Approximately 90% of graduates from these institutions can claim to have gained international experience during their studies. Unfortunately, there are no comparable figures for inbound credit mobility.

### 1.3 Mobility from an international perspective

According to UNESCO data, the worldwide number of students studying abroad rose from 1.7 million in 1995 to almost 3.2 million in 2008. In 2008, half of these students travelled to five countries: 19% to the United States, 10% to the United Kingdom and 7% to Germany, France and Australia. More than 41% of those 3.2 million students had a connection with the EU: they either went there to study, originated from the EU or had travelled from one EU country to another for the purpose of study.

The Netherlands' market share in the international student market, measured as the percentage of all international students worldwide studying in the Netherlands, rose from 0.7% to 1.2% between 2000 and 2008. Despite this increase, the percentage of international students as a portion of the Netherlands' total student population is still under the EU average. Compared with other Western European countries, however, the Netherlands receives a relatively high



percentage of international students from within the EU and the EFTA countries.<sup>2</sup> This is mainly on account of the large influx of German students to the Netherlands.

In comparison with other EU countries the Netherlands does not score high either on outbound diploma mobility, which refers to the number of students following an entire study programme abroad expressed as a percentage of the student population in their own country. However, this percentage has been rising since 2004. This rise is mostly determined by supply given the fact that Dutch students – at least until recently – were fairly satisfied with education and general circumstances in the Netherlands. On the one hand, supply has increased owing to the – somewhat slower – introduction of the bachelor’s-master’s degree structure in many surrounding countries. On the other hand, the portability of student grants and loans that has existed since 2007 facilitates the option to study abroad.

The lack of data on inbound credit mobility referred to in section 1.2 also applies to other countries. In terms of outbound credit mobility, the Netherlands falls within the middle bracket for all EU countries.

With the exception of Indonesia and Thailand, the number of students from the Neso countries who travel abroad for study purposes has risen since 2003. Demand for higher education in (and from) these countries is generally increasing.

The proportion of Indonesian, Taiwanese, Brazilian, South Korean, Mexican and Russian students who choose the Netherlands as their study-abroad destination is on the increase.

#### **1.4 Neighbouring countries: internationalisation and mobility between neighbouring countries and in border regions**

There are also disadvantages attached to open borders and education mobility as stimulated in the Bologna process and within the EU.

For example, various countries experience an imbalance in student flows. The flow of German students to the Netherlands is a case in point. Other examples are Denmark, Belgium and Austria, which draw large groups of students from just one or a few neighbouring countries. These countries have responded by implementing various measures whose viability and effectiveness are not always clear.

Much of the mobility is generated as part of or in relation to cross-border cooperative ventures, which in turn are part of desired regional development. At the EU level there are also countries that send fewer of their own students to other EU countries than the number they receive from abroad. The United Kingdom is the ultimate example: in 2007-08 almost 160,000 students from other EU countries were studying in the UK while only 10,000 British students were studying in other EU countries (a compensation rate of just 6%). Similarly, Austria and Belgium show fairly low compensation rates of 28%

and 31% respectively. The imbalance in the Netherlands amounts to 14,000 more incoming students than outgoing. The 26,600 incoming EU students are compensated at a rate of 47% by the 12,600 students who leave the Netherlands to study elsewhere in the EU.

## **1.5 Reference guide**

Chapters 2, 3 and 4 provide an overview of developments in credit mobility to and from the Netherlands using explanatory diagrams. Chapter 5 describes Dutch mobility from an international perspective. Chapter 6 analyses internationalisation and mobility between neighbouring countries and in border regions.





# 2

## Total mobility



How many international students are there in the Netherlands and how many Dutch students are there abroad? These simple questions are not simple to answer. It is only possible to make an estimate based on various sources. However, due to the use of various sources and the lack of information collected in a consistent manner abroad it is not possible to compare these figures at an international level. Such international comparisons can only be made for centrally recorded diploma mobility, EU programme mobility and internationally organised ad-hoc surveys, such as the EUROSTUDENT surveys.<sup>3</sup>

Subject to the limitations described above, we will first provide an estimate of total inbound and total outbound mobility.

## 2.1 International students in the Netherlands

We can only estimate the number of international students who are in the Netherlands to obtain either a higher education diploma or credits (credit mobile students) on the basis of highly divergent sources of information.<sup>4</sup> If the inbound flow of credit mobile students is 85% of the outbound group<sup>5</sup> the entire group may comprise 81,700 students. This therefore accounts for approximately 59,200 international students who are in the Netherlands for the purpose of obtaining a diploma and 22,500 incoming credit mobile students.

With respect to the first group of 59,200 students, we have more information derived from their

registrations in government-funded higher education and from student residence permit records. The latter applies to students from outside EU and EFTA countries. This concerns a total of almost 56,600 students (see diagram 01). With respect to the second group of 22,500 students, we have more information through participation in the European Erasmus Programme and student trainee residence permit records. This applies to 8,400 students.

This takes the total number of international students about whom a larger amount of information is available to 65,000 (56,600 plus 8,400). Inbound mobility is rising compared with the same group in previous academic years (diagram 02).

Map 01

Diagram 01

Diagram 02 (see page 16)

### Indicators for higher education

There are two types of higher education institutions in the Netherlands: government-funded and private institutions. Government-funded study programmes are by definition accredited by the Accreditation Organisation of the Netherlands and Flanders (NVAO), but not all accredited study programmes are government funded.

Government-funded institutions are financed by the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science. In the 2010-11 academic year, there were 39 universities of applied sciences with

3 See section 5.3, p. 86.  
4 For the methodological background to these statistics see Appendix 7.2, and specifically the note on p. 122.  
5 See section 4.1.1 and, for the number of outgoing credit mobile students, section 4.2.1, p. 51.

Map 01  
International students in the Netherlands, origin, 2010-11\*

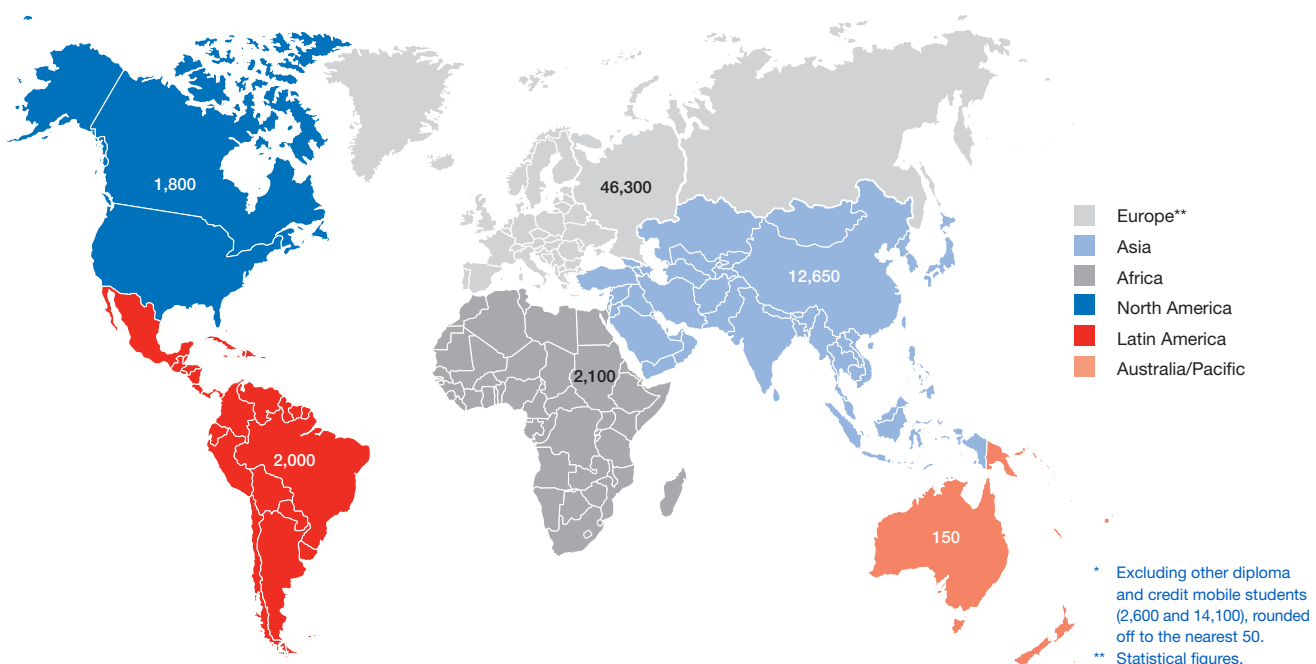
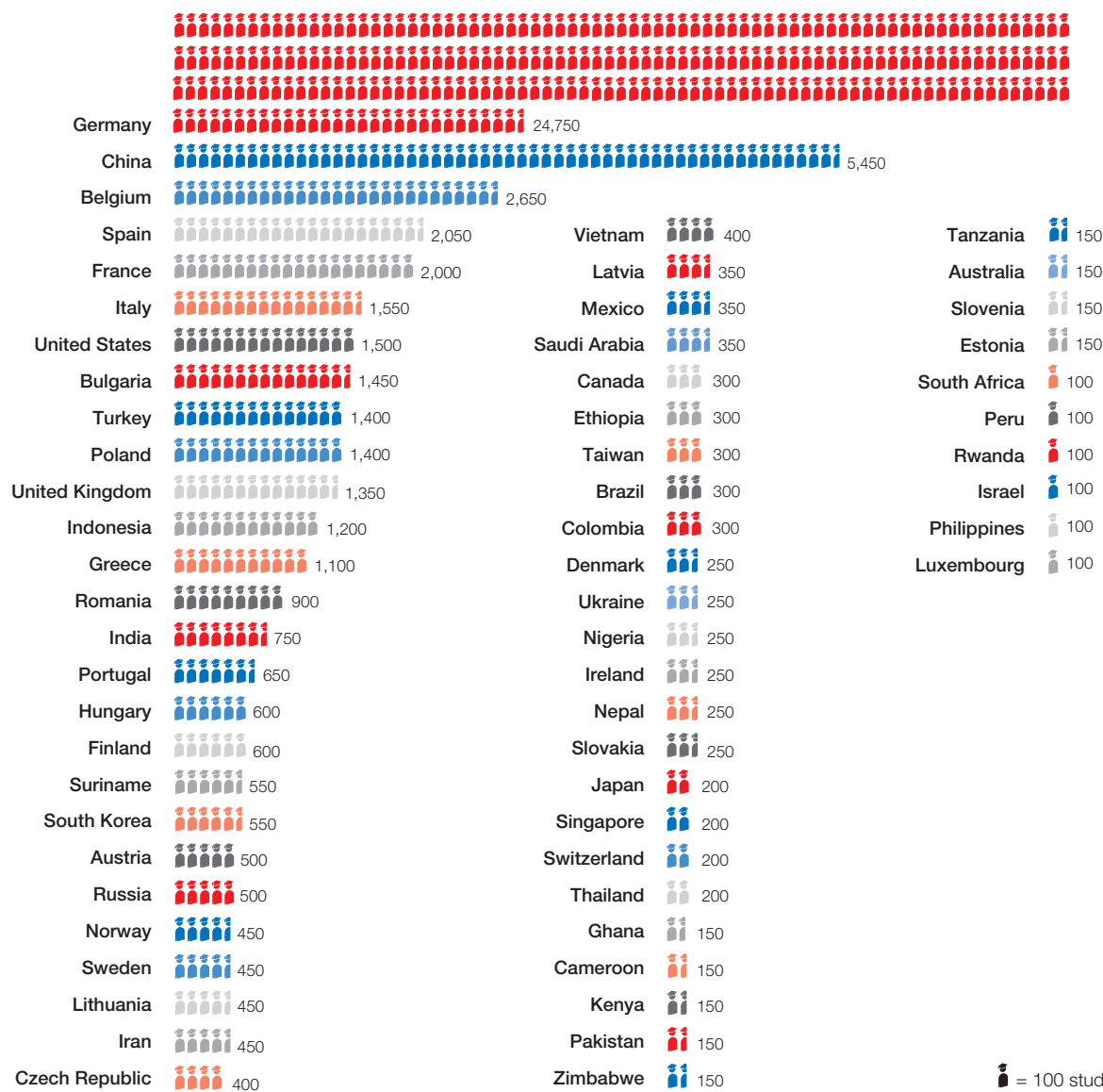
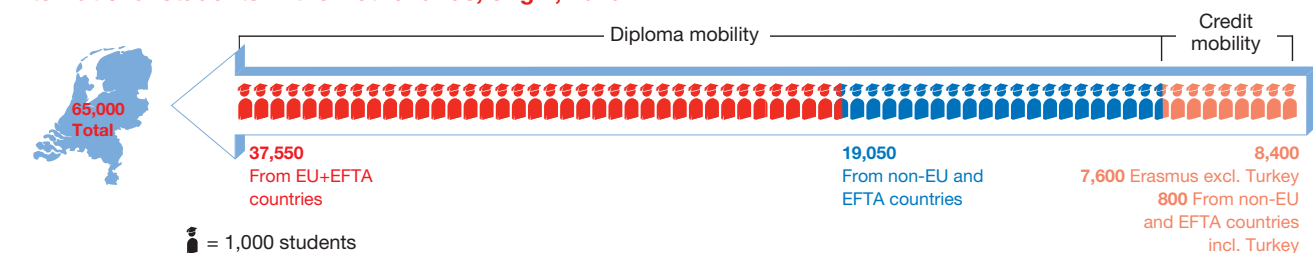


Diagram 01

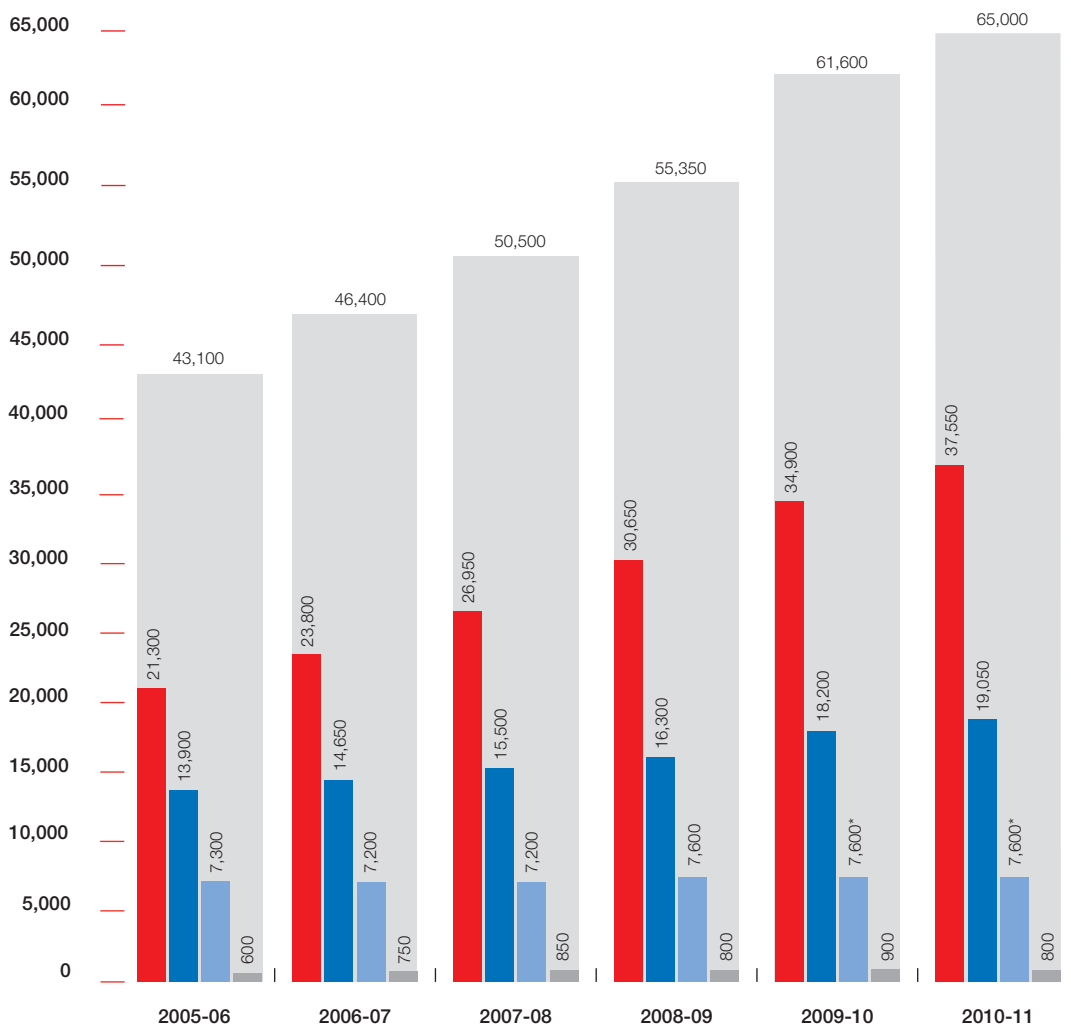
**International students in the Netherlands, origin, 2010-11\***



\* Excluding other diploma and credit mobile students (2,600 and 14,100), more than 100 students, rounded off to the nearest 50.

Diagram 02

**International students in the Netherlands, origin, 2006-2011**



- From EU+EFTA countries in Dutch government-funded higher education
- From non-EU+EFTA countries in Dutch higher education
- With Erasmus (excl. Turkey)\*
- From non-EU+EFTA countries for work placement (incl. Turkey)\*
- Total incoming student mobility

\* Erasmus data for the 2008-09 academic year.

416,200 students<sup>6</sup>, 13 research universities<sup>7</sup> with 240,159 students, and the Open University of the Netherlands. In 2010-11, a total of 656,359 students were enrolled at the education institutions referred to above, an increase of 3.5% in the total student population compared with the previous year. The increase in students in higher professional education was slightly lower than this percentage, while the increase in the number of students in academic higher education was slightly higher.

This publication focuses mainly on mobility within government-funded higher education. This concerns mainstream higher education which, being government funded, has most of its data recorded centrally and updated on a regular basis. This publication does not include any statistics on the Open University of the Netherlands.

the EU). Students not enrolled in centrally recorded education have not been included, nor have diploma mobile students travelling to non-OECD countries.

Map 02

Diagram 03 (see page 18)

Diagram 04 (see page 18)

## 2.2 Dutch students abroad

OECD data and data from annual surveys among graduates shows that an estimated 42,500 Dutch students studied abroad in the 2007-08 academic year: 16,000 Dutch nationals who enrolled for a diploma at a foreign higher education institution and 26,500 credit mobile students.<sup>8</sup> Of the latter group, 6,000 students participated in the European Erasmus Programme. Together with the 16,000 diploma mobile students, they form a group about which we have more information. Of this total of 22,000 students, 19,000 stayed in Europe (18,200 within the EU) and 3,000 outside of Europe. Of the 16,000 diploma mobile students, 13,200 were enrolled at a higher education institution in another European country (12,600 within

6 In the Netherlands, higher professional education (*nbo*, *hoger beroepsonderwijs*) is offered at universities of applied sciences.

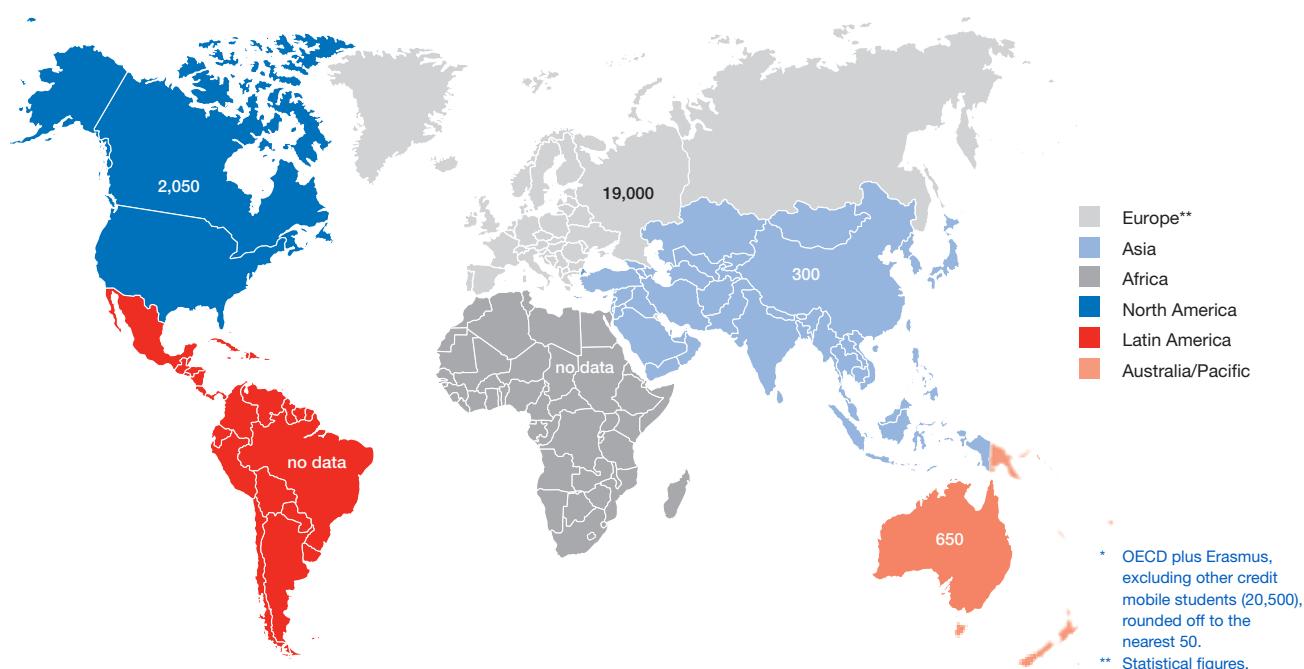
7 In the Netherlands research-oriented or academic higher education (*wo*, *wetenschappelijk onderwijs*) is offered at research universities.

8 See also section 4.2.1, p. 51.

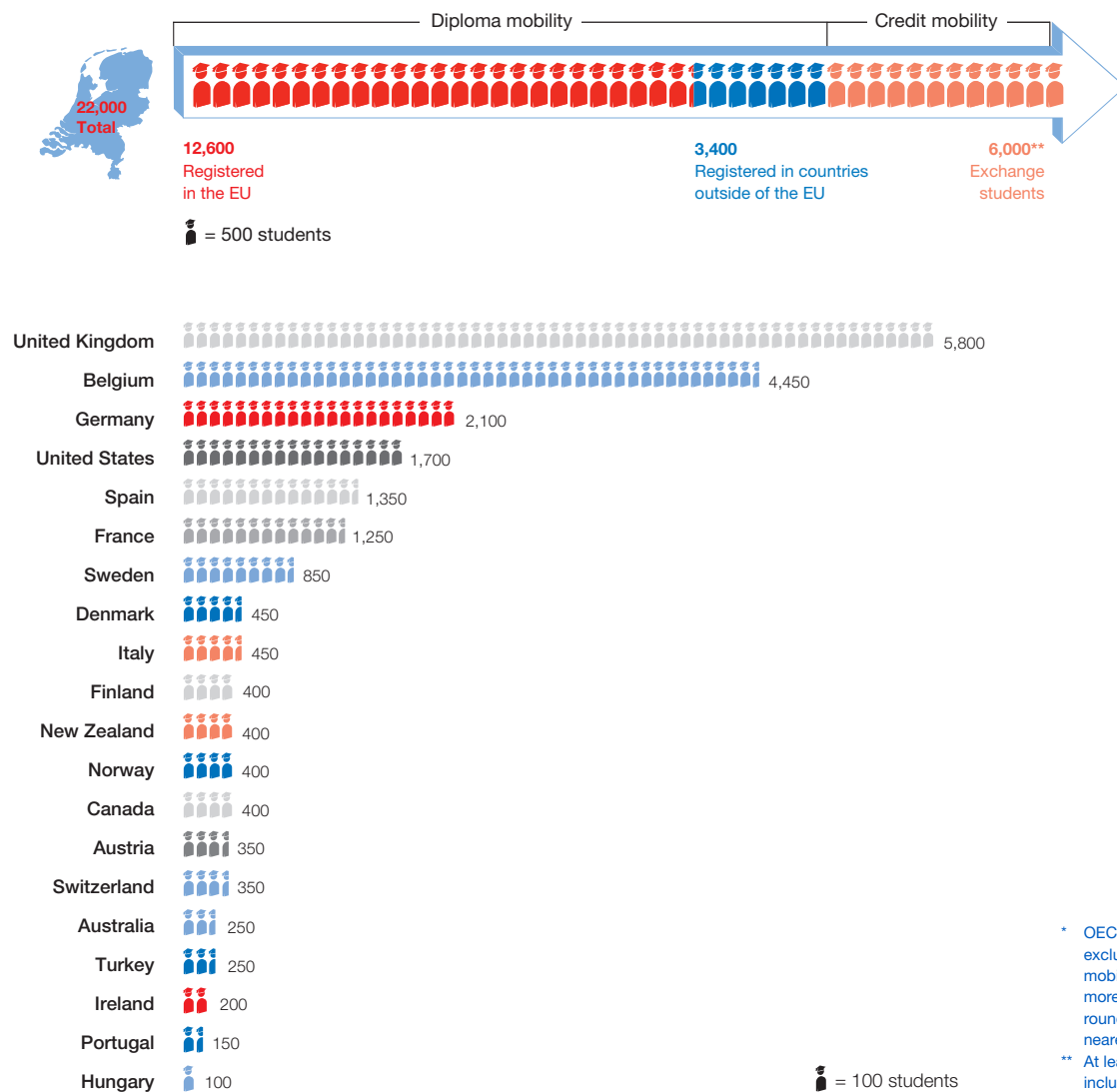


Map 02

### Dutch students abroad, destination, 2007-08\*

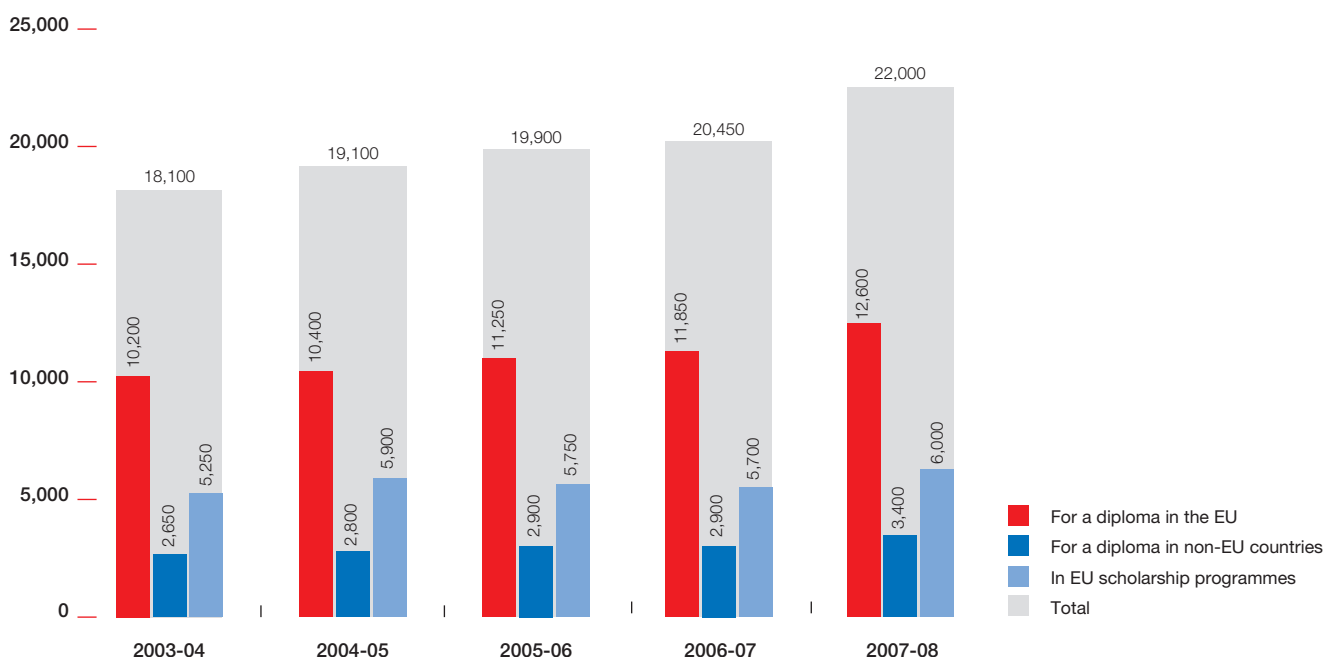


**Dutch students abroad, destination, 2007-08\***



Source: OECD, Nuffic, 2011

**Dutch students abroad, 2003-2008**



Source: OECD, Nuffic, 2011



# 3

## Diploma mobility to and from the Netherlands



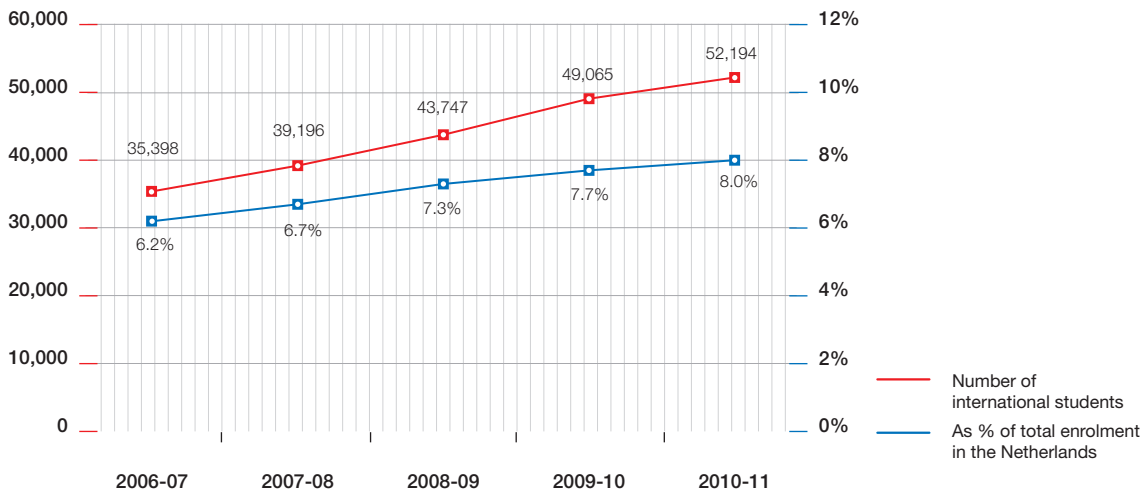
# 3.1

## Inbound diploma mobility

20

Diagram 05

### International students in government-funded higher education in the Netherlands, 2006-2011



### 3.1.1 Developments in inbound diploma mobility

*Mapping Mobility 2010* was unable to provide a clear picture of developments between 2008-09 and 2009-10 owing to a relatively large number of students of unknown origin. The figures have since been revised and completed and, with an additional 5,300 international students revealed, it appears that growth also continued in those years. The number of international students in every hundred students in government-funded higher education also rose, from 7.3 to 7.7. In 2010-11 we are again faced, to a lesser degree, with the issue of the unknown origin of students. However, it has already become clear that there is an increase, both in absolute numbers and percentages, relative to 2009-10. In any event, the number of international students rose to 52,194 (8%).

The growth in the percentage of international students in higher professional education has fallen since the 2005-06 academic year. In 2010-11, 6.7% of students at universities of applied sciences were non-Dutch citizens. In academic higher education, growth has been constant since 2005-06 and, in 2010-11, 10.1% of university students were non-Dutch citizens. Currently 54% of international students in government-funded higher education are following a higher professional education study programme, and 46% an academic higher education study programme.

Diagram 05  
Diagram 06

### Mobility from countries whose citizens are required to hold a residence permit

Since 2004, information has been available on the number of students who come to the Netherlands from countries whose citizens are required to hold a residence permit as well as on the percentage of this group that stay in the Netherlands for a prolonged period of time. Diagram 07 shows that the number of residence permits issued between 2009 and 2010 did not rise as sharply as between 2008 and 2009, with 770 permits issued instead of almost 2,000. The recent increase therefore corresponds more closely with increases that took place prior to 2009.

Diagram 07: (see page 23)  
Diagram 08: (see page 23)

### 3.1.2 Countries of origin

#### Enrolled students

Germany is the most important supplier of international students who are enrolled in regular government-funded higher education in the Netherlands. Forty-six per cent of international students now come from Germany. Furthermore, German students are responsible for a large portion of the growth in the number of international students.

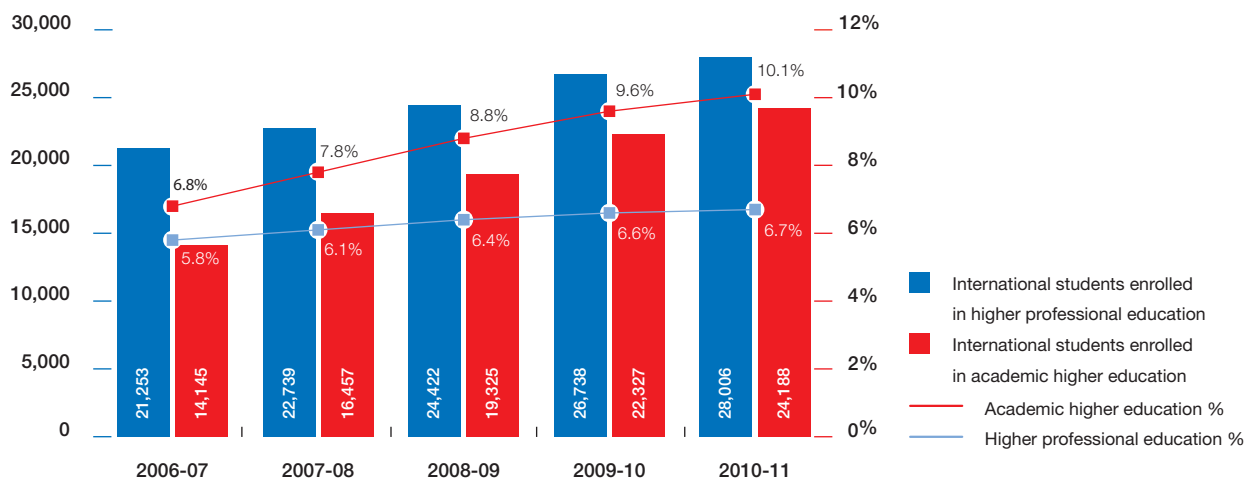
The Netherlands has also been the most important destination country for German students since 2005. In 2007, 18% of the outbound German diploma mobility headed for the Netherlands, while 16% departed for Austria in the same year. The United Kingdom is the third destination country for German students.<sup>9</sup>

<sup>9</sup> DAAD, HIS, WBV. (2008, 2009, 2010). *Wissenschaft weltoffen, Daten und Fakten zur Internationalität von Studium und Forschung in Deutschland*. Bielefeld: DAAD.



Diagram 06

**International students in government-funded academic higher education and higher professional education, in numbers and as a percentage of the respective total student populations, 2006-2011**



The number of students from the most important country of origin after Germany, China, fell between 2005 and 2008 and subsequently started rising again. Belgium remains stable in third place.

Diagram 9 (see page 24)

Diagram 10 (see page 24)

Indonesia, the fourth country of origin for many years, was surpassed by Bulgaria and Turkey two years ago and has now dropped out of the top eight. The numbers of Bulgarian and Turkish students have tripled and doubled, respectively, over the past five years. The number of Greek students has also grown strongly during that same period. These developments have increased the diversity among international students in Dutch higher education. Poland is now in seventh place, followed by the United Kingdom in eighth position. The UK is followed by France, Italy, Indonesia, Romania and Spain, each with more than 800 students in government-funded higher education.

For an insight into short-term developments, we will now examine changes that have occurred since last year (in terms of percentage). Within the EU, the number of students from Malta and the Baltic States grew the strongest, with increases of 113% (Malta), 49% (Lithuania), 46% (Latvia) and 41% (Estonia). The number of students from Romania saw an increase of 22%. This is followed by Luxembourg, Greece, Finland, Bulgaria and Slovakia, with growth rates ranging between 10% and 20%. With regard to students from Denmark, France, Ireland, Austria and Hungary, there was a very slight decrease (less than 6%)

which, given the lack of clarity regarding last year's figures, may in reality be negligible.

The past six years have seen a catch-up effort by students from the twelve newest EU member states. Their numbers grew by more than 80% compared with 60% for the EU27 in general. Thirteen percent of students from the EU27 come from the twelve member states to have most recently joined the EU.<sup>10</sup> These are students enrolled in government-funded higher education. There is no information available on EU (and EFTA) students in private higher education.

#### **Students with a residence permit**

We looked at countries for which at least 100 residence permits were issued in 2010. From this group, the number of students from Saudi Arabia and Singapore increased by more than 50% between 2009-10 and 2010-11. There was an increase of between 20% and 50% among students from Peru, South Africa, South Korea and Colombia, and an increase of between 10% and 20% among students from Rwanda, Canada, Mexico, India, Ukraine, Russia, Zimbabwe, Iran and Turkey.

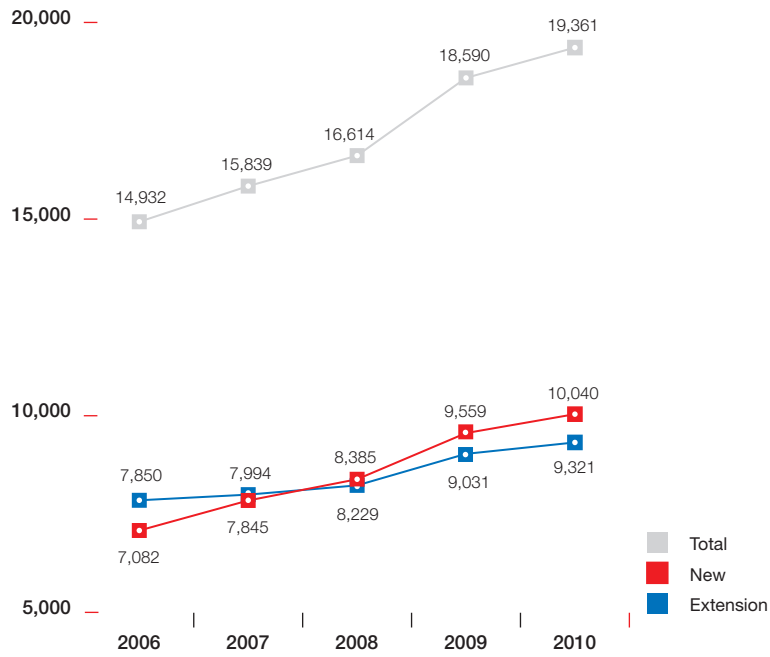
The numbers of students from Pakistan and Thailand, on the other hand, have fallen the most (between 50% and 20%) since 2009-10, followed by students from Nepal, Japan, Tanzania, the Philippines, Australia and Cameroon, where the decreases ranged from -20% to -10%.

<sup>10</sup> Cyprus, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovenia, Slovakia and the Czech Republic acceded in 2004; Bulgaria and Romania acceded in 2007.



Diagram 07

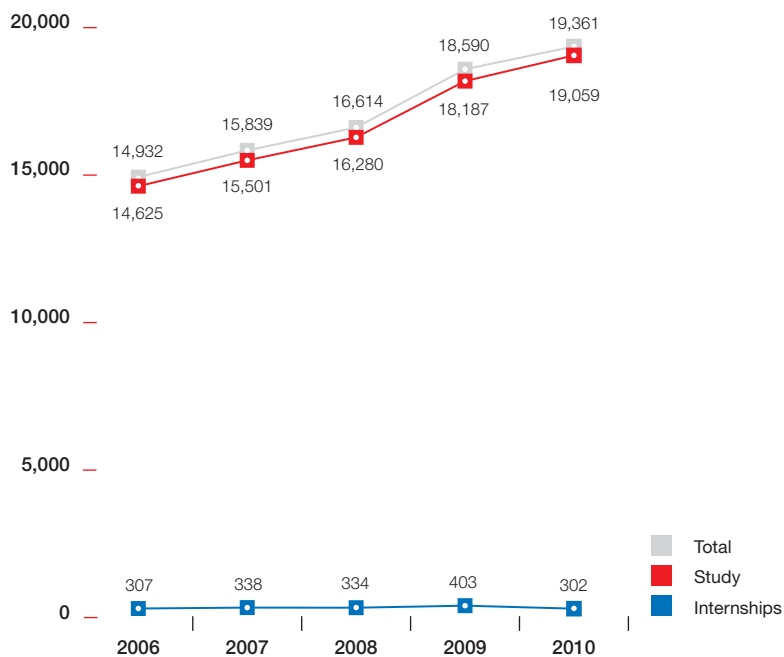
**Number of new residence permits issued or extensions granted to students or student trainees from outside the EU27 and EFTA, 2006-2010**



Source: IND, 2011 (revised figures; purpose of stay: study, including a supplementary examination)

Diagram 08

**Number of residence permits issued to students or student trainees from outside the EU27 and EFTA, 2006-2010**



Source: IND, 2011 (revised figures; purpose of stay: study, including a supplementary examination)

Diagram 09 & diagram 10

**Countries of origin for diploma mobility, 2006-2011**

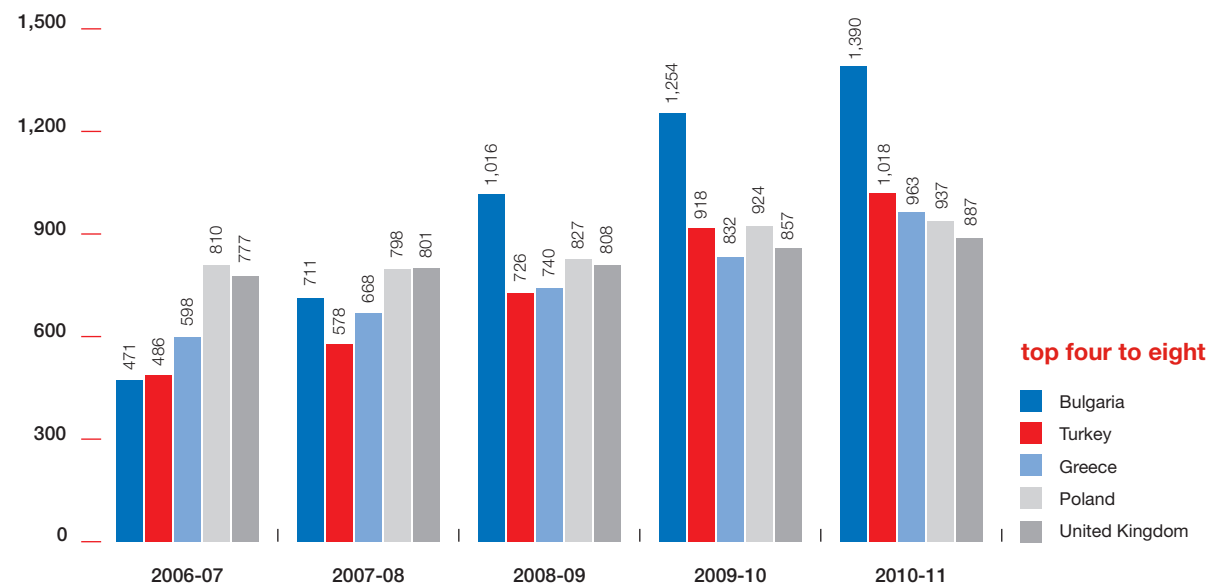
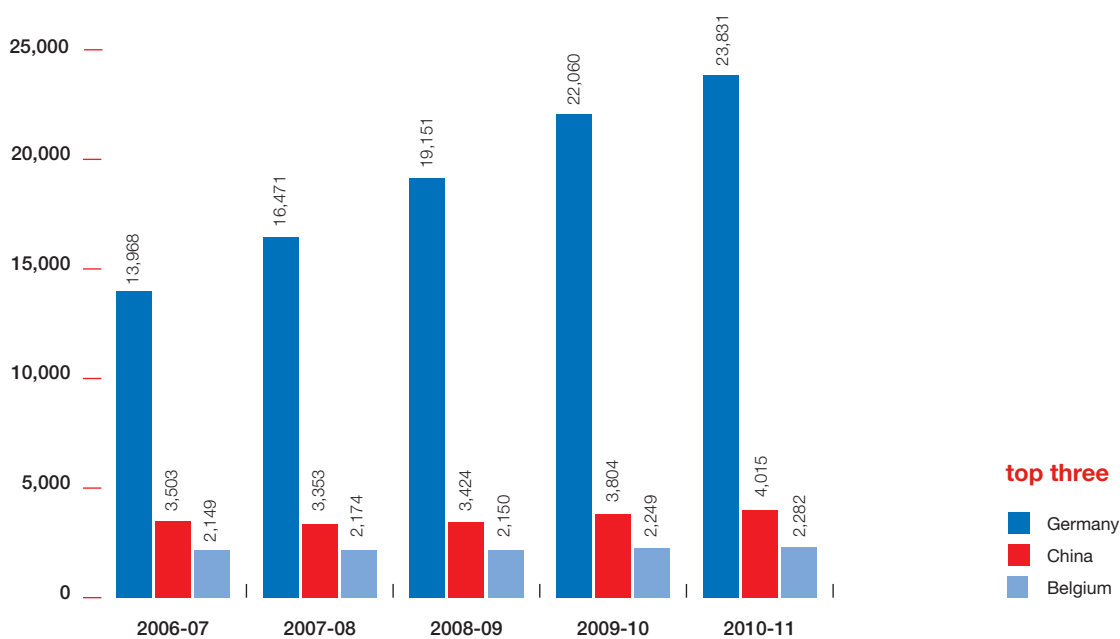
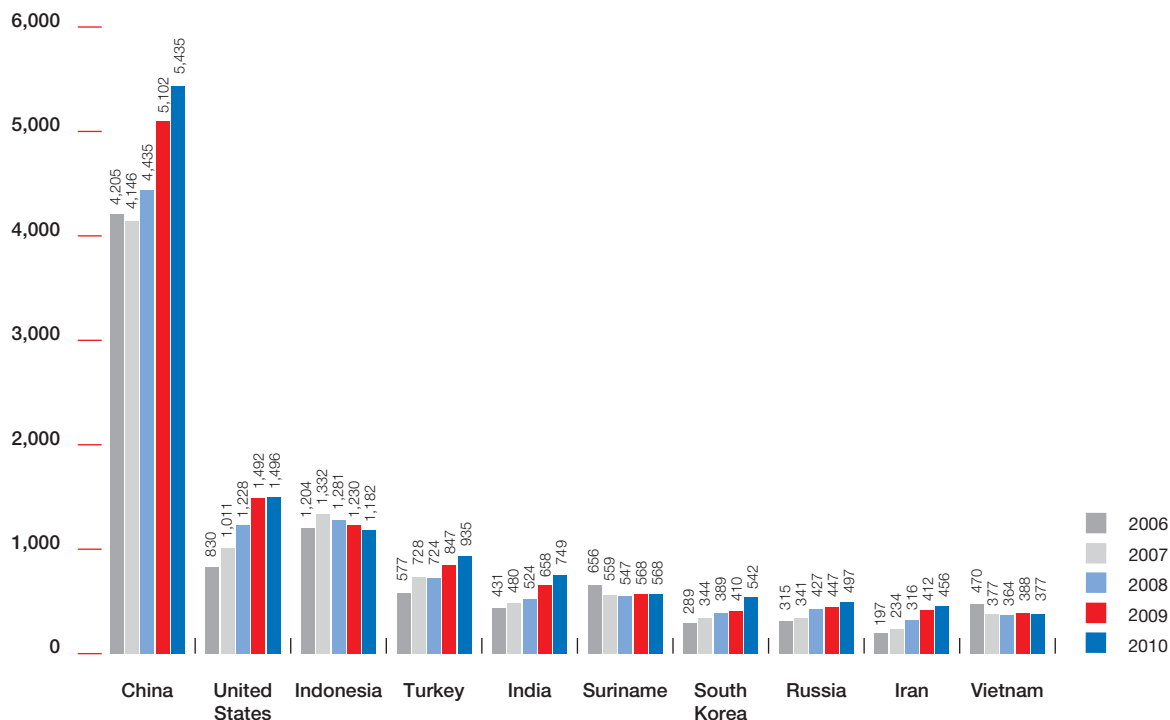


Diagram 11

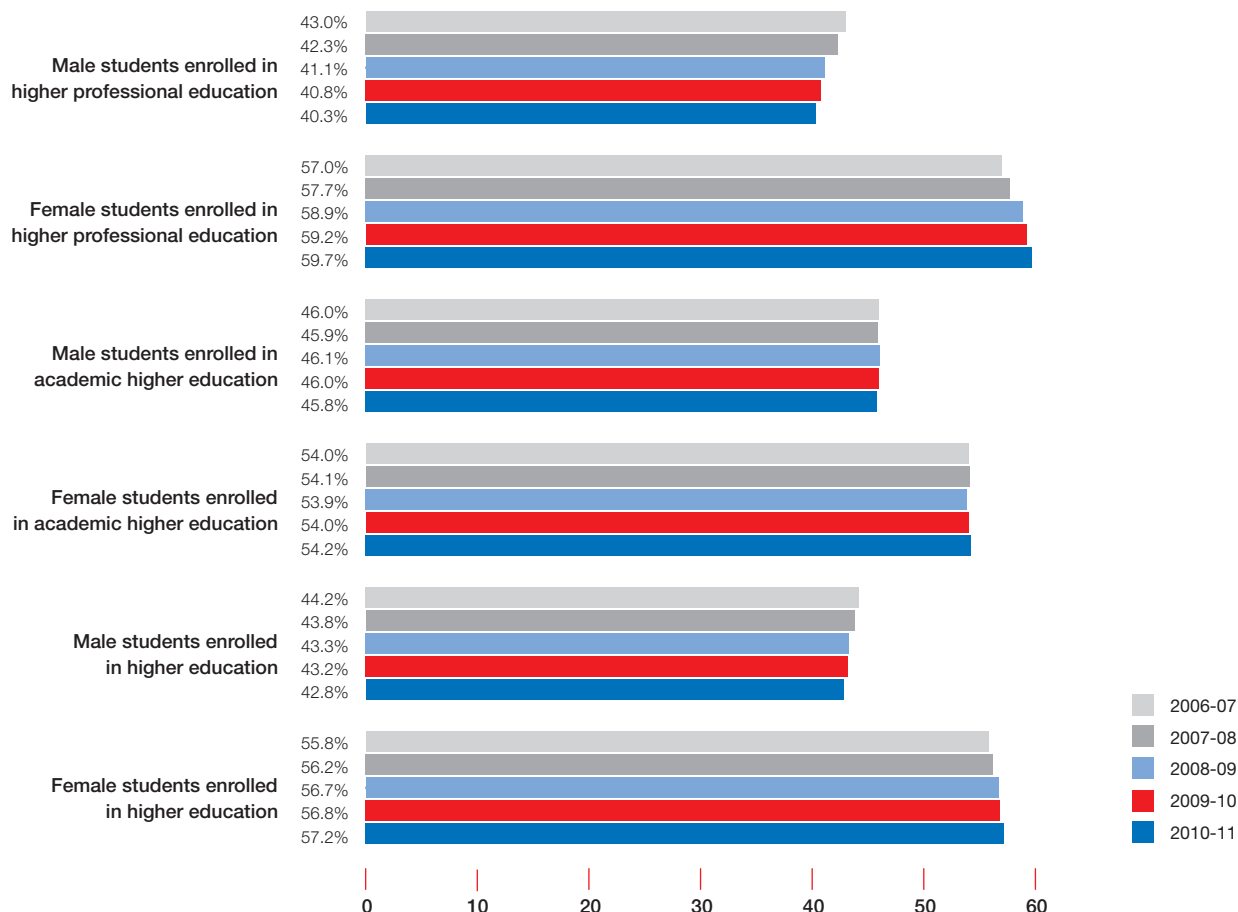
**Residence permits issued: top ten countries of origin in 2006-2010**



Source: IND, 2011 (revised figures)

Diagram 12

**International students in government-funded education according to gender, 2006-2011**



Source: DUO-CFI, 2011 (revised figures)

From a regional perspective, the past six years have seen the number of residence permits for students from the United States and Canada rise by nearly 235%. With respect to Oceania, this figure is nearly 135%, for Asia more than 30% and for Africa 18%.

Diagram 11 (see page 25)

### 3.1.3 Ratio of male to female students

The ratio of men to women has changed over the past decade or so. In the 1998-99 academic year, the ratio was 54% men to 46% women. The 2000-01 academic year marked a turning point, and the ratio in the 2010-11 academic year was 57% female to 43% male students. In higher professional education, nearly 60% of students are female while women account for 54% of students in academic higher education.

Diagram 12 (see page 25)

### 3.1.4 Bachelor's or master's degree programmes

The majority of international students in government-funded education follow a bachelor's degree programme. While this is especially the case for students in higher professional education, in academic higher education there are also more bachelor's students than master's students.

Diagram 13

Diagram 14

Diagram 15

Per CROHO<sup>11</sup> component, the Nature component comprises mostly master's students in academic higher education and the Education component is made up largely of bachelor's students in higher professional education.

Diagram 16 (see page 28)

Eighty-six per cent of students from Ethiopia are doing a master's degree programme in academic higher education while 85% of students from Morocco are pursuing a bachelor's degree programme in higher professional education.

Diagram 17 (see page 29)

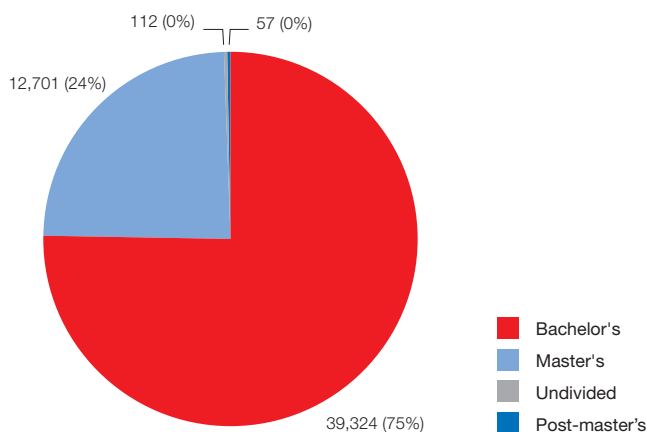
### 3.1.5 Fields of study

Looking at the *numbers* of international students in government-funded academic higher education, the CROHO components of Economics and Behaviour & Society are especially popular. Since 2009-10, the number of international students fell slightly only in the CROHO components of Language & Culture and Nature.

The *percentage* of international students as a share of the CROHO component population as a whole, which is an indicator of the degree of international orientation, presents a completely different picture. The Cross-sector category is most striking here: a new CROHO component that refers to the University Colleges. In Agriculture & Natural Environment too, the percentage of international students is above 20%, while the percentage in the CROHO component of Economics is approaching 20%. Behaviour & Society

11 CROHO: Central Register of Higher Education Programmes

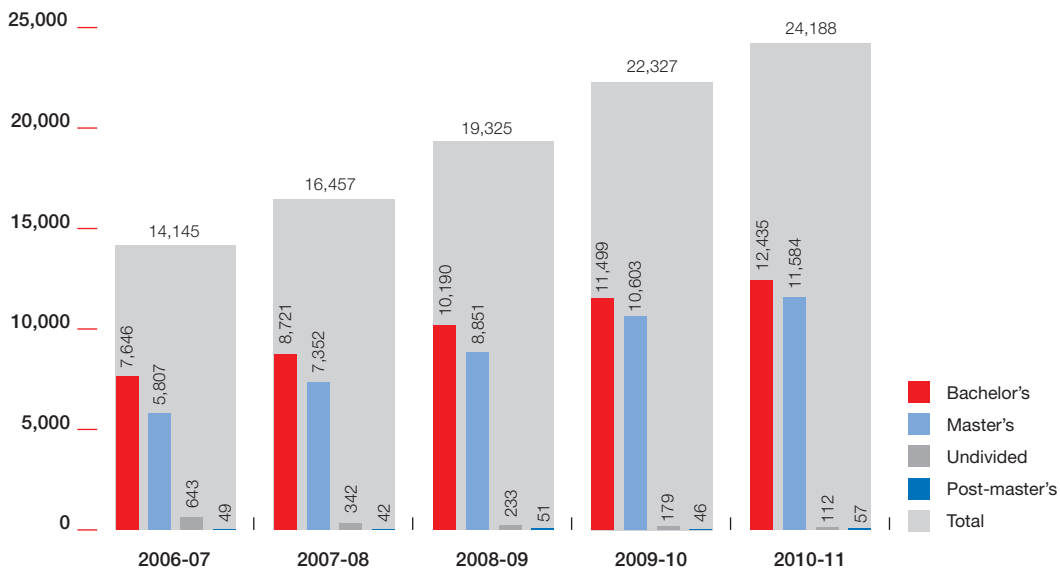
Diagram 13  
International students in government-funded higher education per phase, 2010-11



IND figures show that of the students who obtained a student residence permit for the first time in 2005, by 2011 80% had departed, 5% were still studying and 15% had obtained a different residency status (including 7% as knowledge workers).

Diagram 14

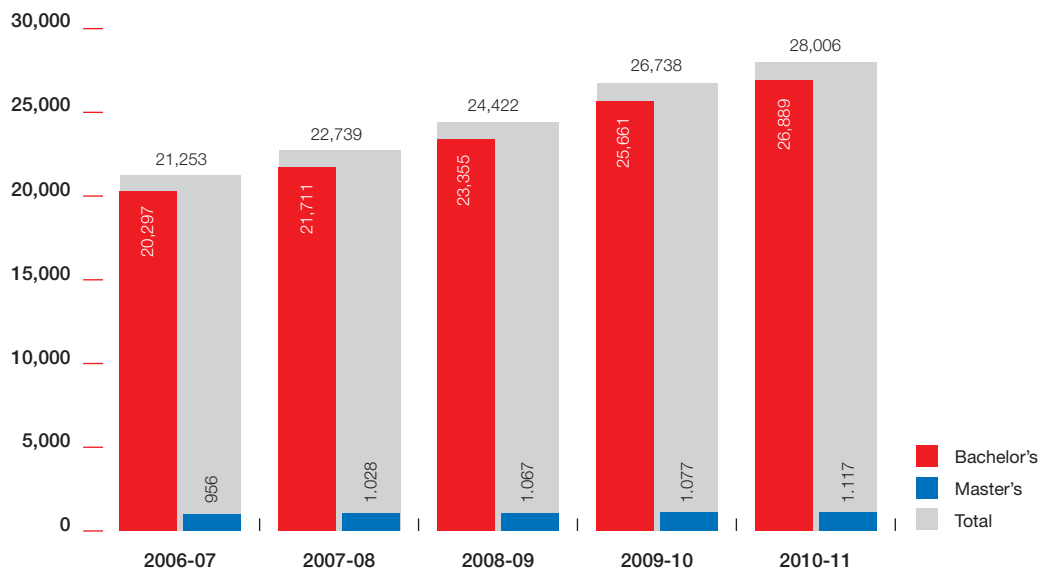
**International students in government-funded academic higher education per phase, 2006-2011**



Source: DUO-CFI, 2011 (revised figures)

Diagram 15

**International students in government-funded higher professional education per phase, 2006-2011**



Source: DUO-CFI, 2011 (revised figures)

Diagram 16

**Diagram 16: International students in government-funded higher education per type of study, phase per CROHO component, 2010-11**

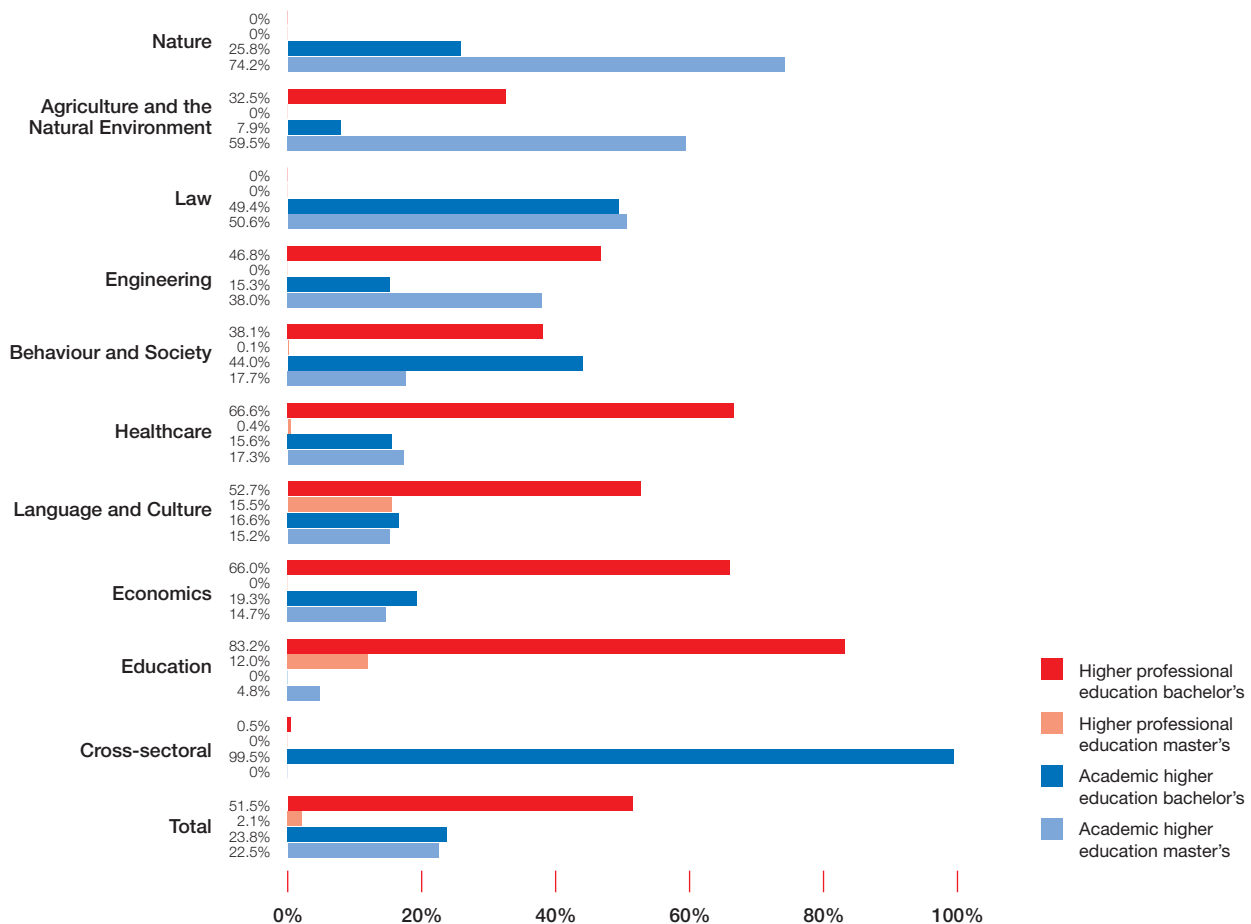


Diagram 17

**International students in government-funded higher education, phase per country of origin, 2010-11**

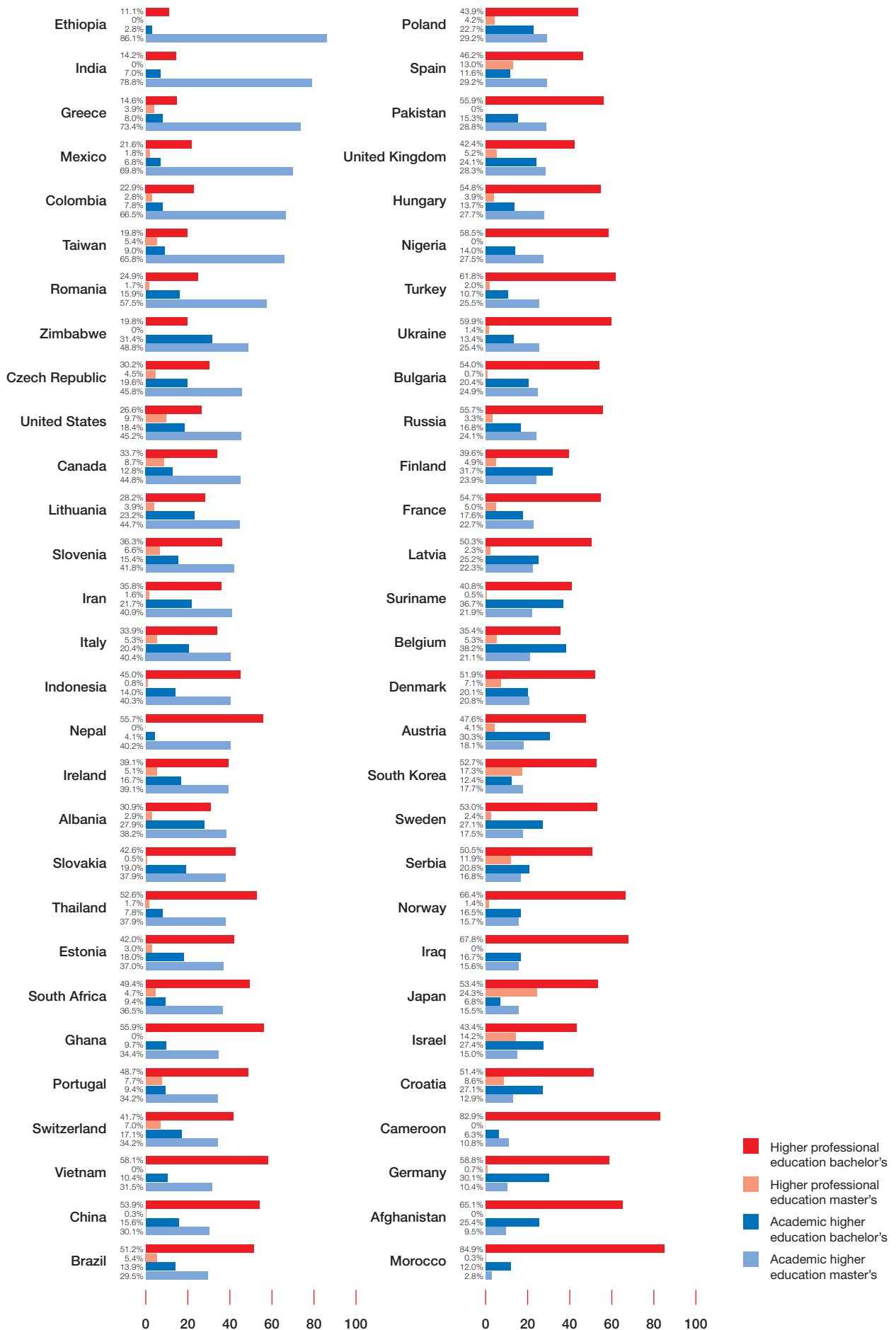
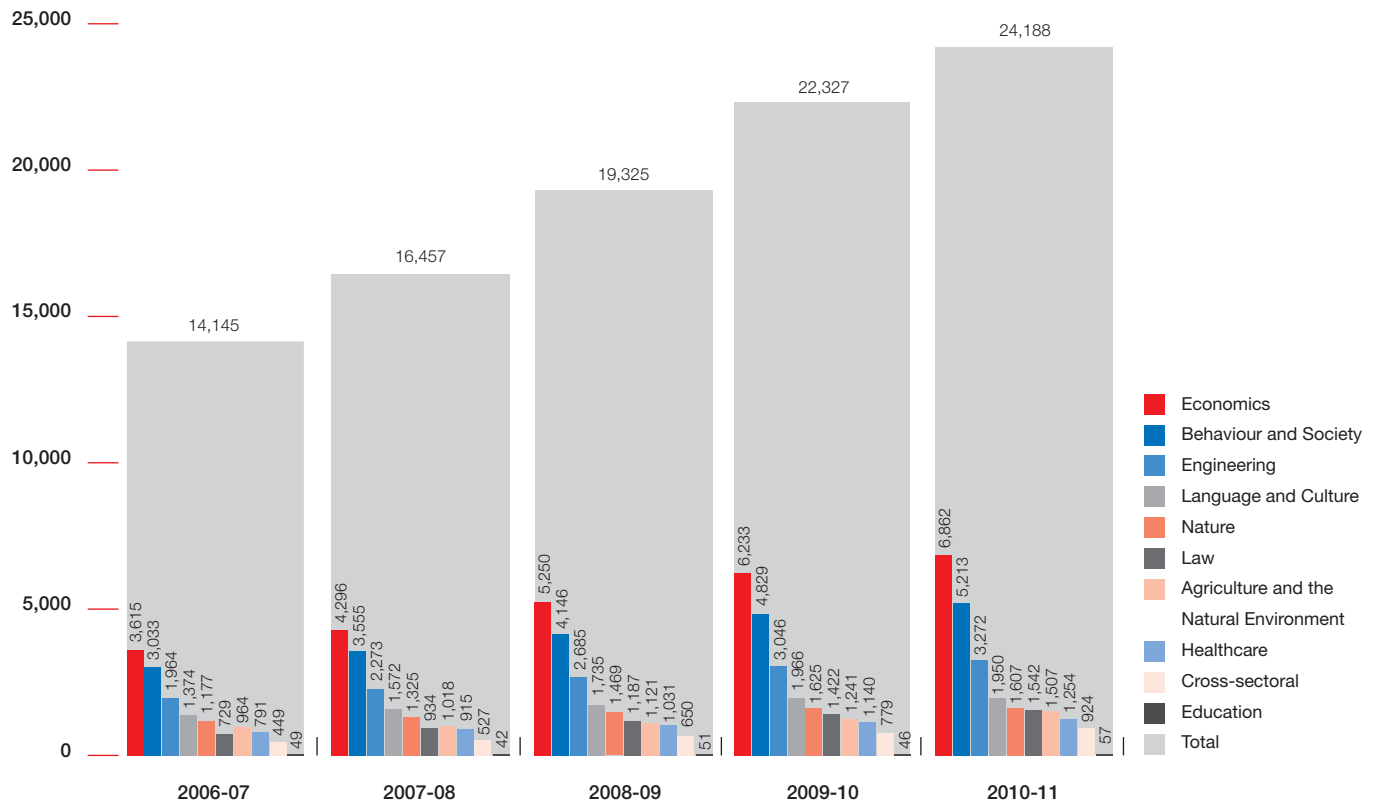


Diagram 18

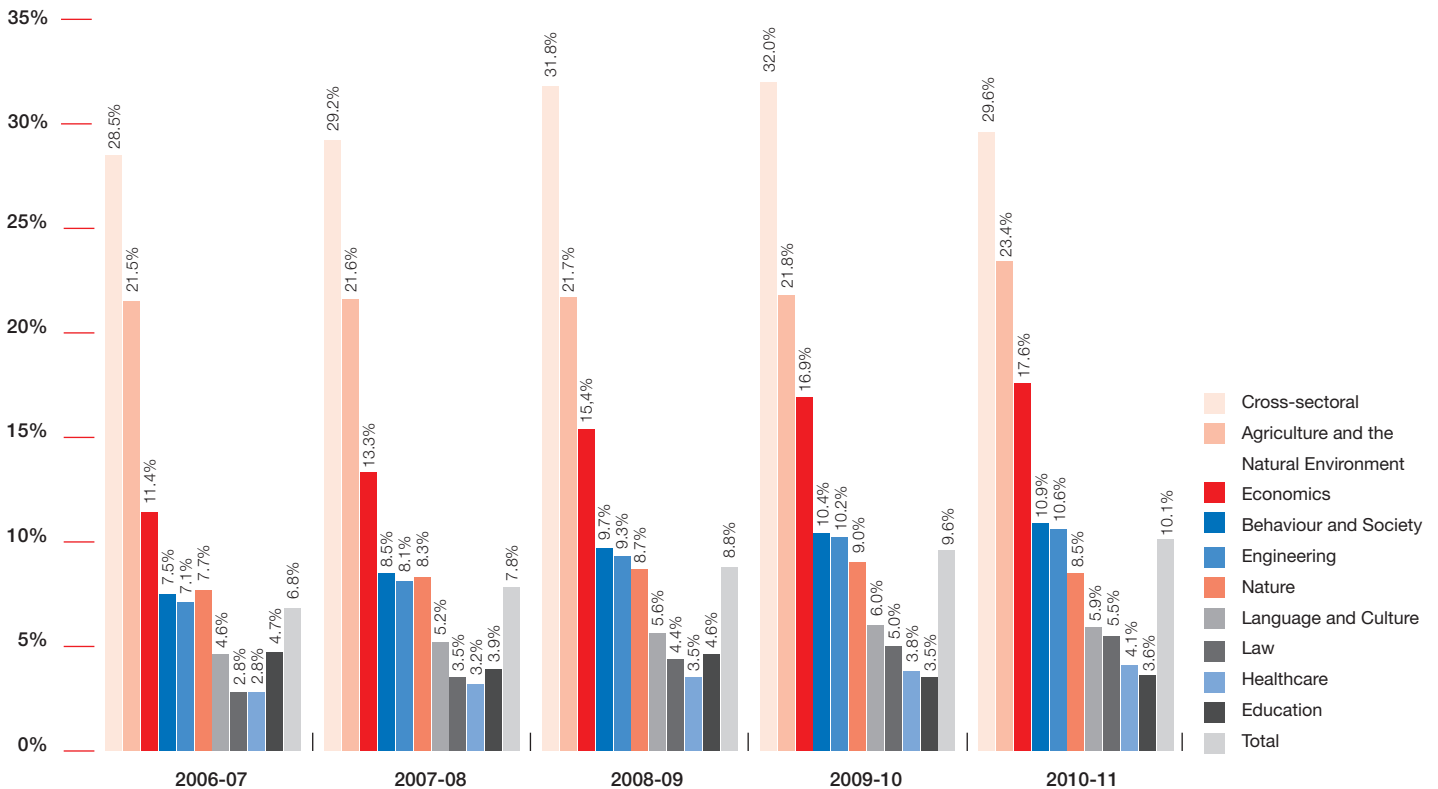
**International students in government-funded academic higher education per CROHO component, 2006-2011**



Source: DUO-CFI, 2011 (revised figures)

Diagram 19

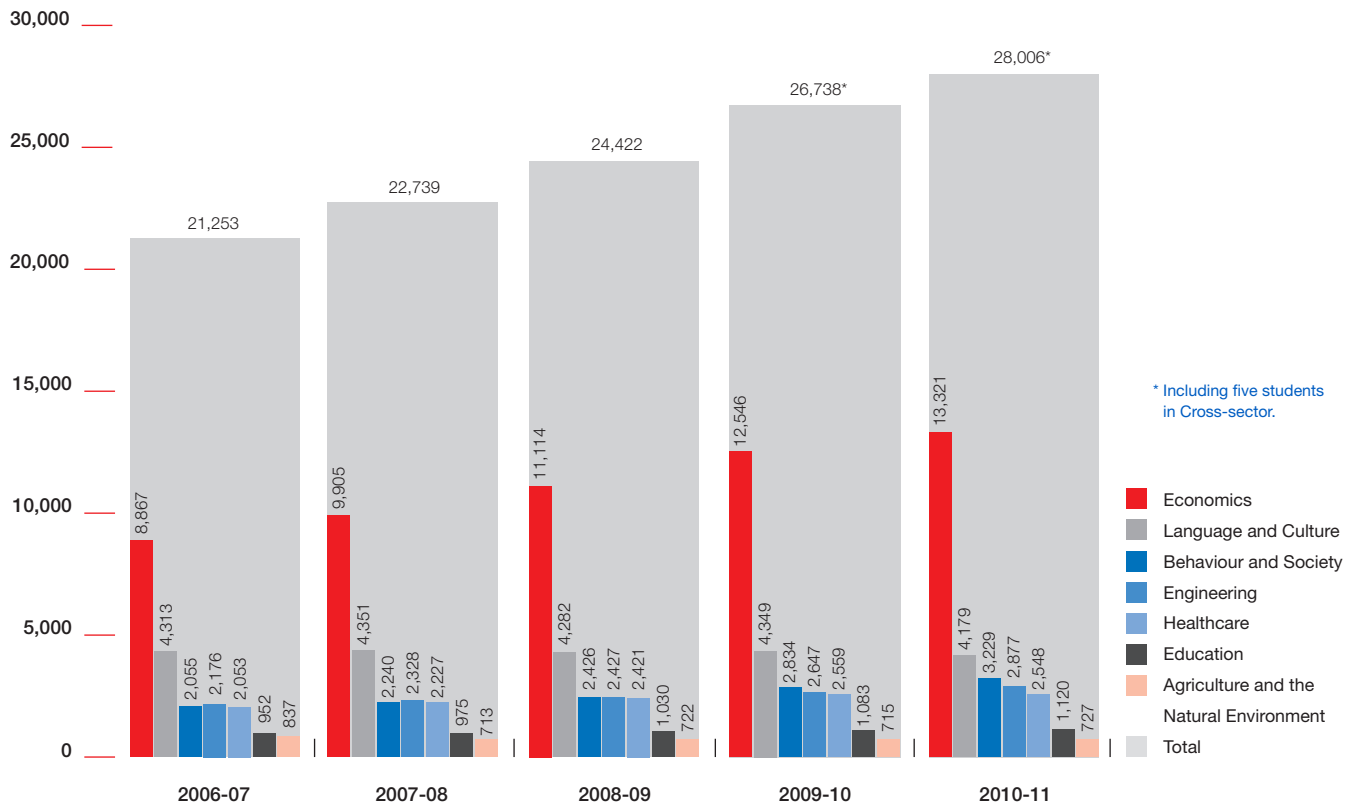
**International students in government-funded academic higher education per CROHO component, as a percentage of the total component population, 2006-2011**



Source: CFI, 2011 (revised figures)

Diagram 20

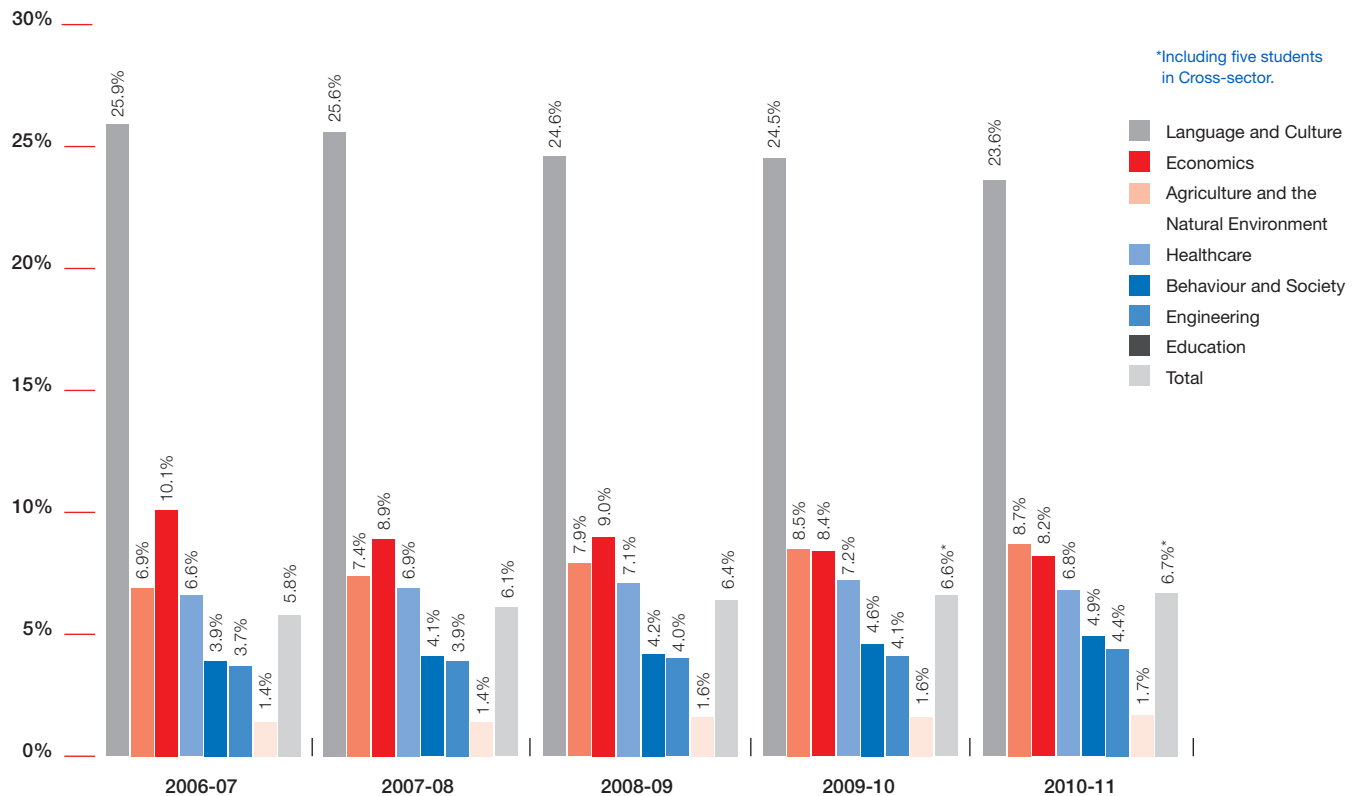
**International students in government-funded higher professional education per CROHO component, 2006-2011**



Source: DUO-CFI, 2011 (revised figures)

Diagram 21

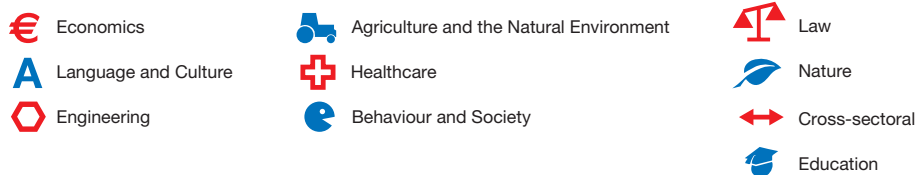
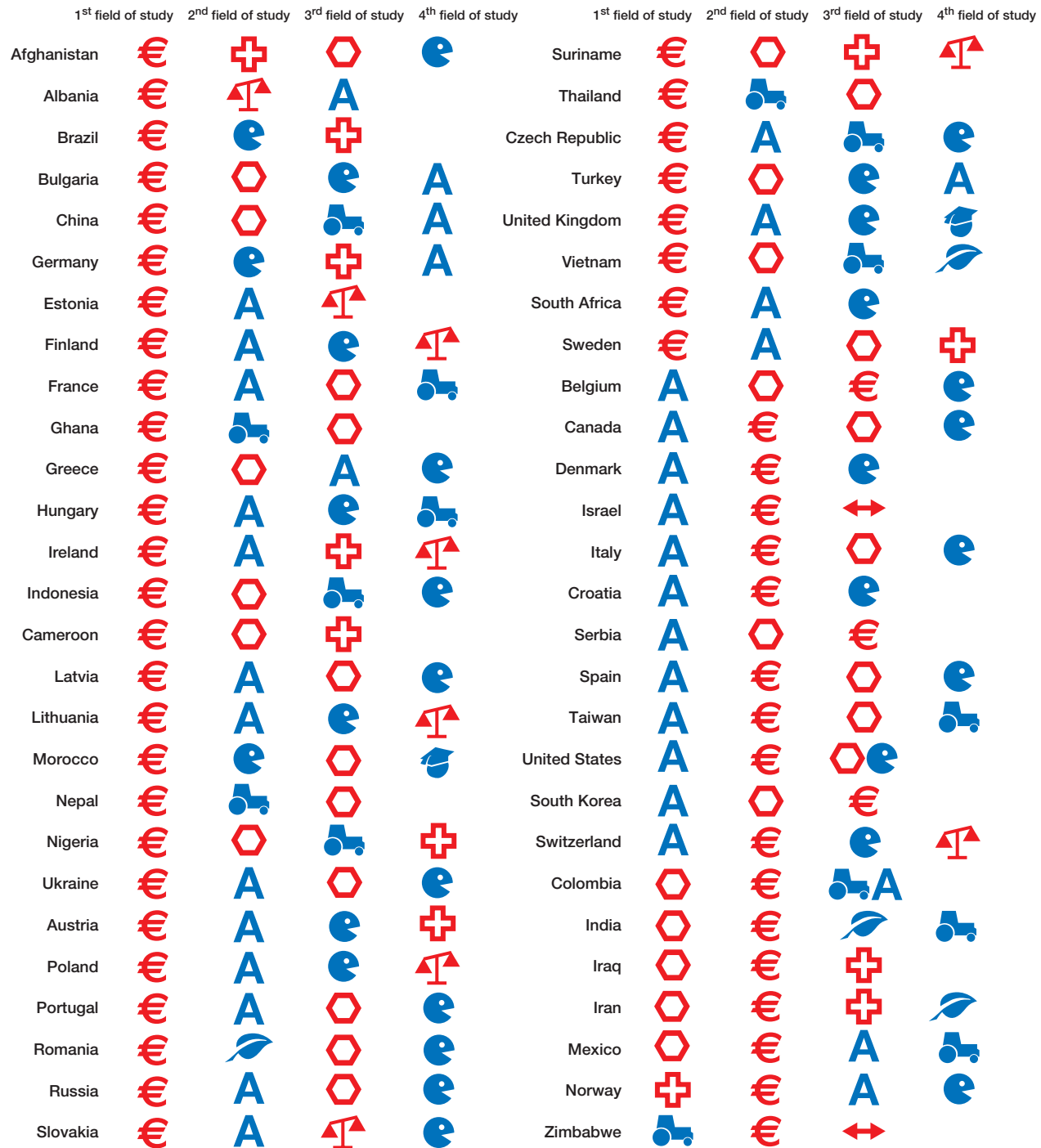
**International students in government-funded higher professional education per CROHO component, as a percentage of the total component population, 2006-2011**



Source: DUO-CFI, 2011 (revised figures)

Diagram 22

**Most popular CROHO component in government-funded higher education according to country of origin, 2010-11**



Note: only countries of origin represented in at least three components, with at least ten students per component, are included.

and Engineering follow at some distance at almost 11%. Education rounds off the list with international students accounting for only 3.6% of the total population.

The percentages of international students have only fallen in the Cross-sector, Nature and Language & Culture components relative to last year.

Diagram 18 (see page 30)

Diagram 19 (see page 30)

The most popular component in government-funded higher professional education in terms of student numbers is Economics, which again saw a growing number of international students in the 2009-10 academic year. The number of international students studying the Language & Culture component fell this year compared with last year. At 24%, the percentage of international students as a share of the component population as a whole is highest in Language & Culture (the art academies). The percentages for the other CROHO components are at most half of this. This year, Language & Culture, Agriculture & Natural Environment and Healthcare exhibited slightly lower percentages. In the case of Agriculture and Language & Culture, this is part of a trend.

Diagram 20 (see page 31)

Diagram 21 (see page 31)

### Preferred fields of study per country of origin

Diagram 22 shows subjects prioritised on the basis of student numbers for the most important countries of origin. For most of the countries,

the greatest numbers of students can be found in the Economics component, followed by Language & Culture, Engineering and Agriculture & Natural Environment. Norwegian students enrol mainly in the Healthcare component.

For most countries where the largest group of students did not opt for Economics or Language & Culture, the second-largest group did. Engineering, Behaviour & Society, and Law were the next most popular subjects.

Diagram 22

## 3.1.6 Higher education institutions

### Top ten institutions

In terms of student numbers, the first six of the top-ten institutions ranked just as they did two years ago. Incomplete data distorted last year's rankings.

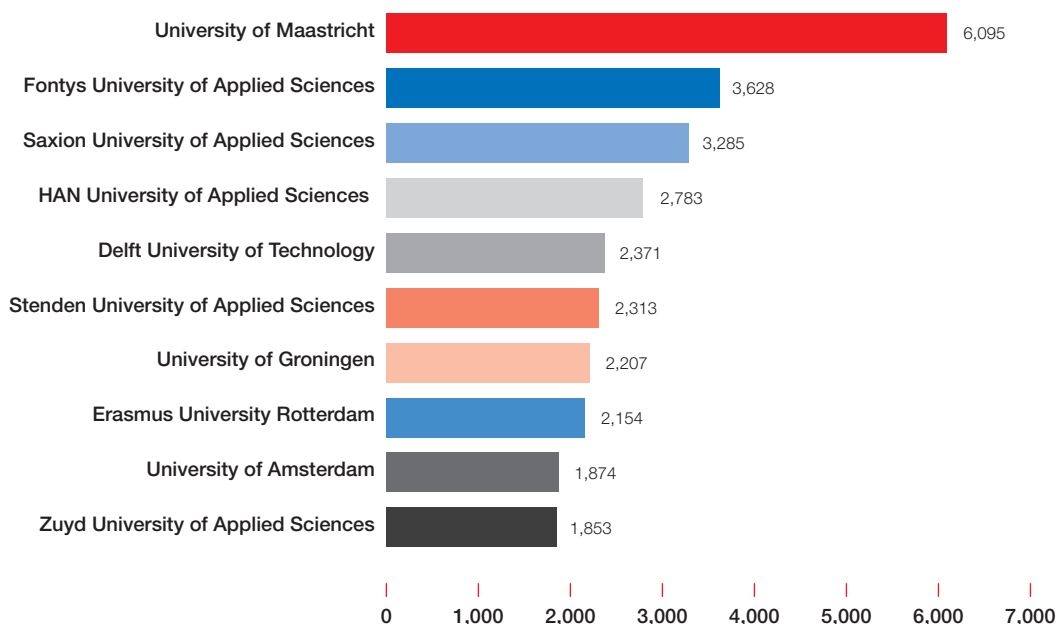
Maastricht University consolidated its first-place position. Fontys University of Applied Sciences, Saxion University of Applied Sciences, HAN University of Applied Sciences, Delft University of Technology and Stenden University follow in positions two to six respectively. The University of Groningen took seventh place and is followed by Erasmus University Rotterdam. Amsterdam University and the Zuyd University of Applied Sciences dropped two places to nine and ten while, according to the latest ranking, Hanze University Groningen is no longer among the top ten.

It should be noted that these figures relate to students in government-funded education.



Diagram 23

### Top ten institutions in terms of numbers of international students in 2010-11



In addition to this group, the institutions often also play host to non-government-funded diploma mobile students and non-centrally recorded credit mobile students. The international student population is usually higher, therefore, and sometimes even considerably higher, than the figures presented here. More comprehensive records need to be maintained in order to accurately reflect the total population.

Diagram 23 (see page 33)

Among the top ten institutions with the most international students relative to their total student populations, the highest percentages are gradually declining. Where Codarts had an international student percentage of 50% five years ago and, according to revised figures, the Gerrit Rietveld Academie's international student population was 45% last year, this year Maastricht University scored the highest with 43%. Maastricht is followed by the art academies: Codarts, the Gerrit Rietveld Academie, University of the Arts, The Hague and Design Academy Eindhoven took positions two to five respectively. Wageningen University rose two places at the expense of the Amsterdam School of the Arts, which dropped two places. Finally, Hotelschool The Hague - International University of Hospitality Management rose one place to ninth and ArtEZ took the tenth spot.

Diagram 24

Diagram 25 presents the historical development of international student numbers at the top ten institutions. We again emphasise that these figures relate to students in government-funded education.

Therefore the total international student population is usually higher than indicated here.

Diagram 25

Diagram 26

### Preferred institution per country of origin

Diagram 27 shows the preferred higher education institutions per country of origin. Criteria for inclusion in this statistic are that the student nationality is registered with at least three institutions and that at least ten students from that country are registered at the third-most preferred institution. Most countries were represented with at least ten students at the Delft University of Technology, followed by Maastricht University. Wageningen University and Utrecht University shared third place.

Diagram 27 (see page 36)

### 3.1.7 Students from Neso target countries and regions

Nuffic operates a number of Netherlands Education Support Offices (Nuffic Neso offices) to support Dutch higher education abroad. There are Nuffic Neso offices in Brazil, China, Indonesia, Mexico, Russia, Thailand, Vietnam and South Korea, and Nuffic Neso Desks in India and Taipei. In addition to the number of students in government-funded education shown in Diagram 28, Diagram 29 shows the number of students with a residence permit. The increasingly wide range of non-publicly funded study programmes means that Diagram 29 provides a better impression of current trends. Moreover, this diagram shows students who actually came

Diagram 24

#### Top ten institutions in terms of percentages of foreign students within the total student population per institution, 2010-11

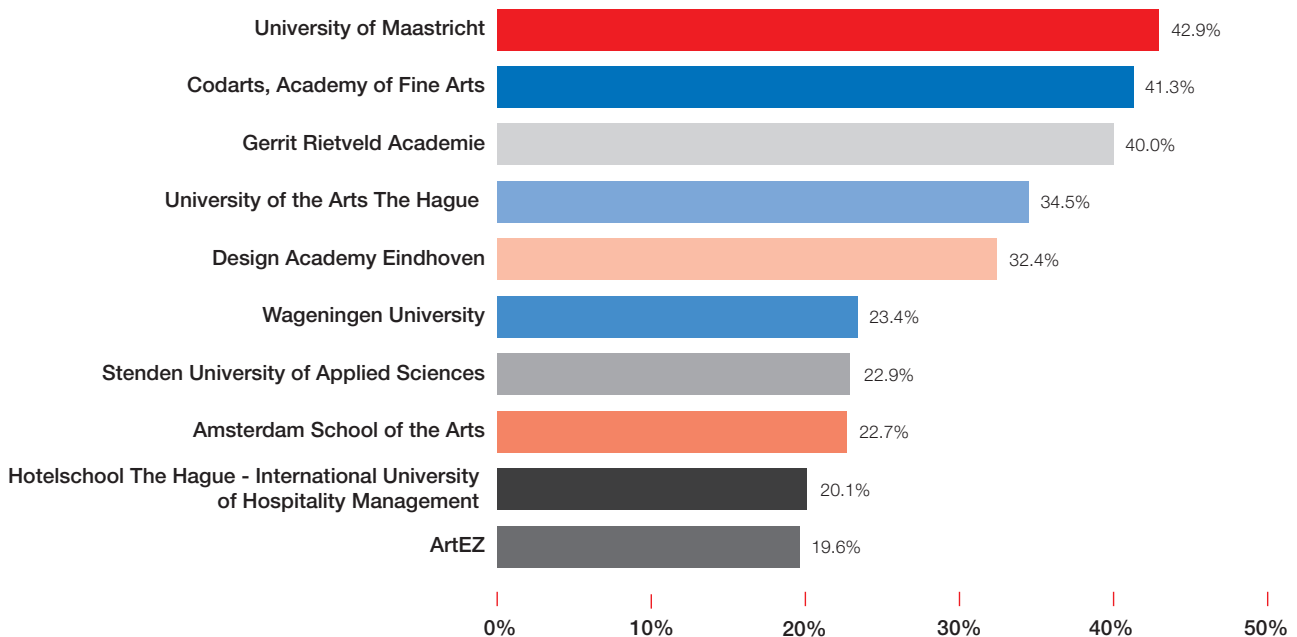
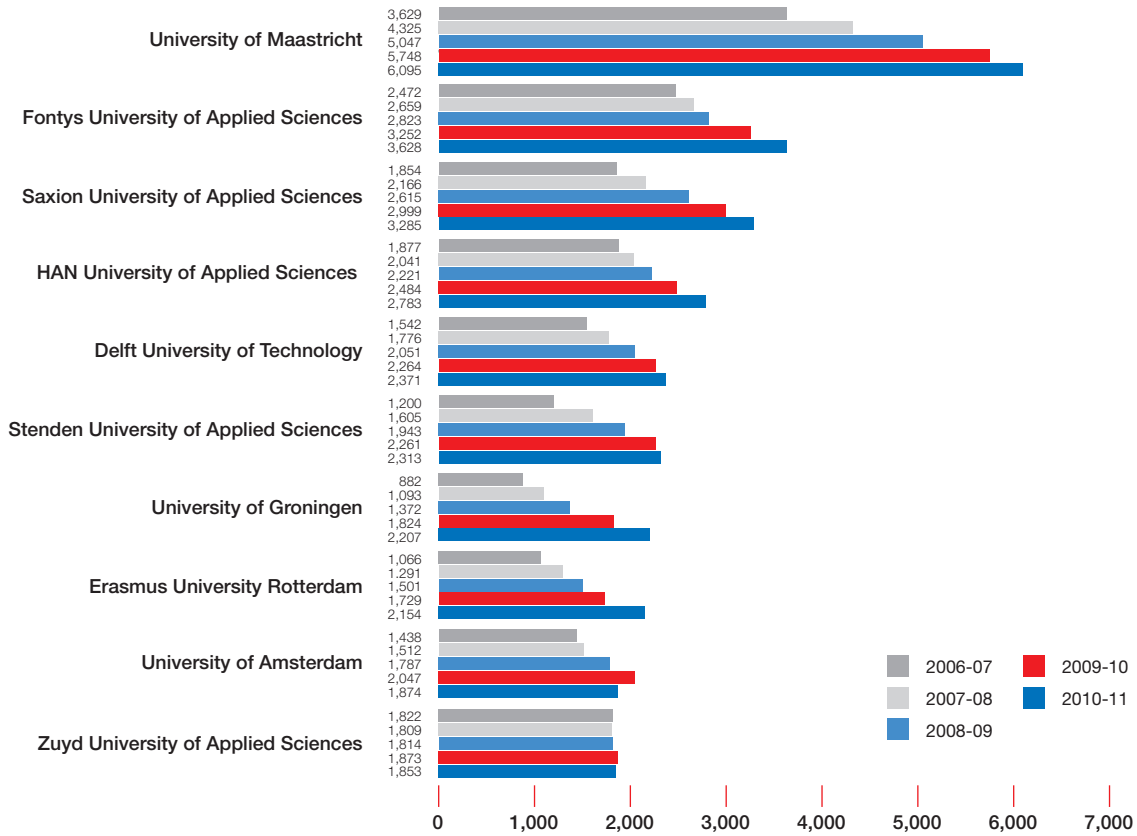


Diagram 25

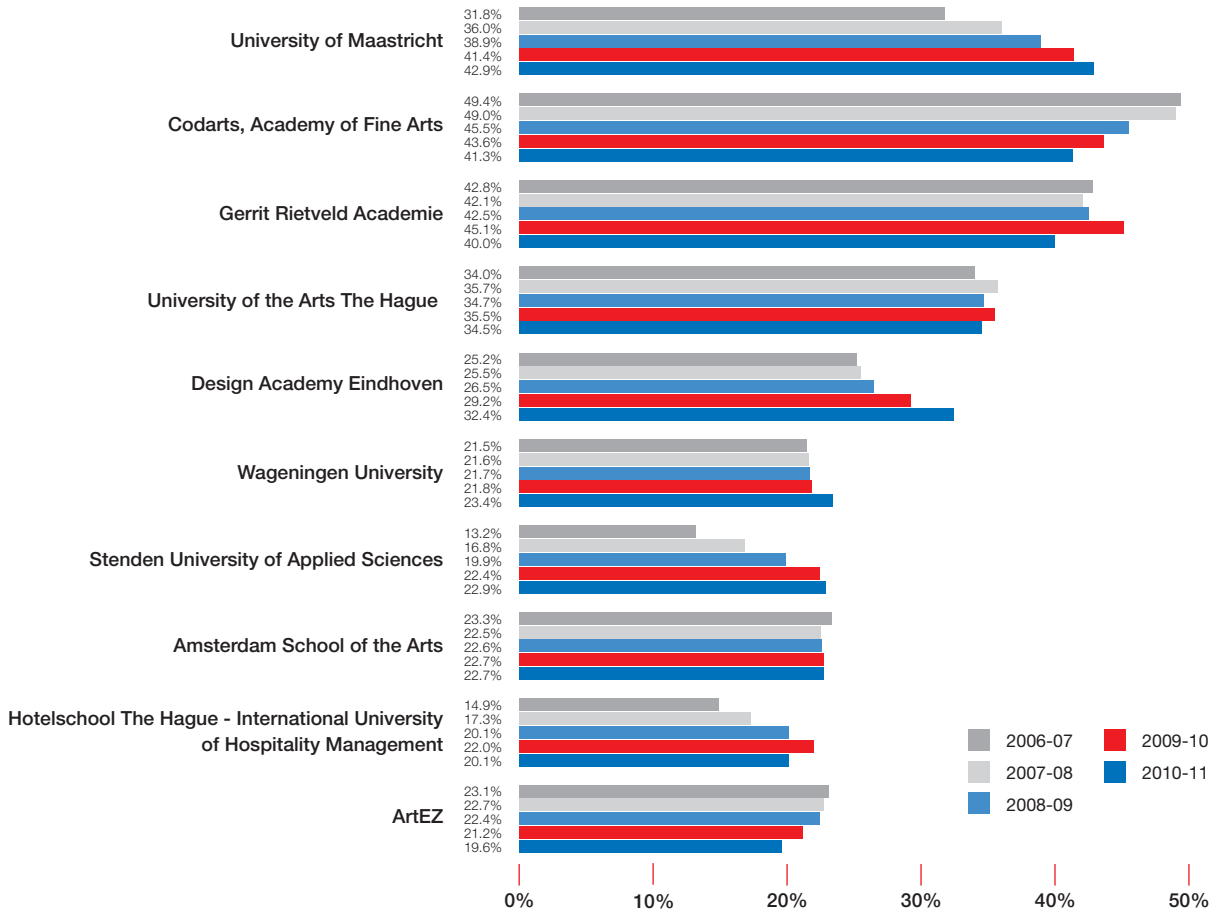
**Top ten institutions in terms of numbers of international students in government-funded education per institution, 2006-2011**



Source: DUO-CFI, 2011 (revised figures)

Diagram 26

**Top ten institutions in terms of percentage of international students in government-funded education within the institution's total student population, 2006-2011**



Source: DUO-CFI, 2011 (revised figures)

Diagram 27

**Institutions with the largest number of students from a specific country in 2010-11**

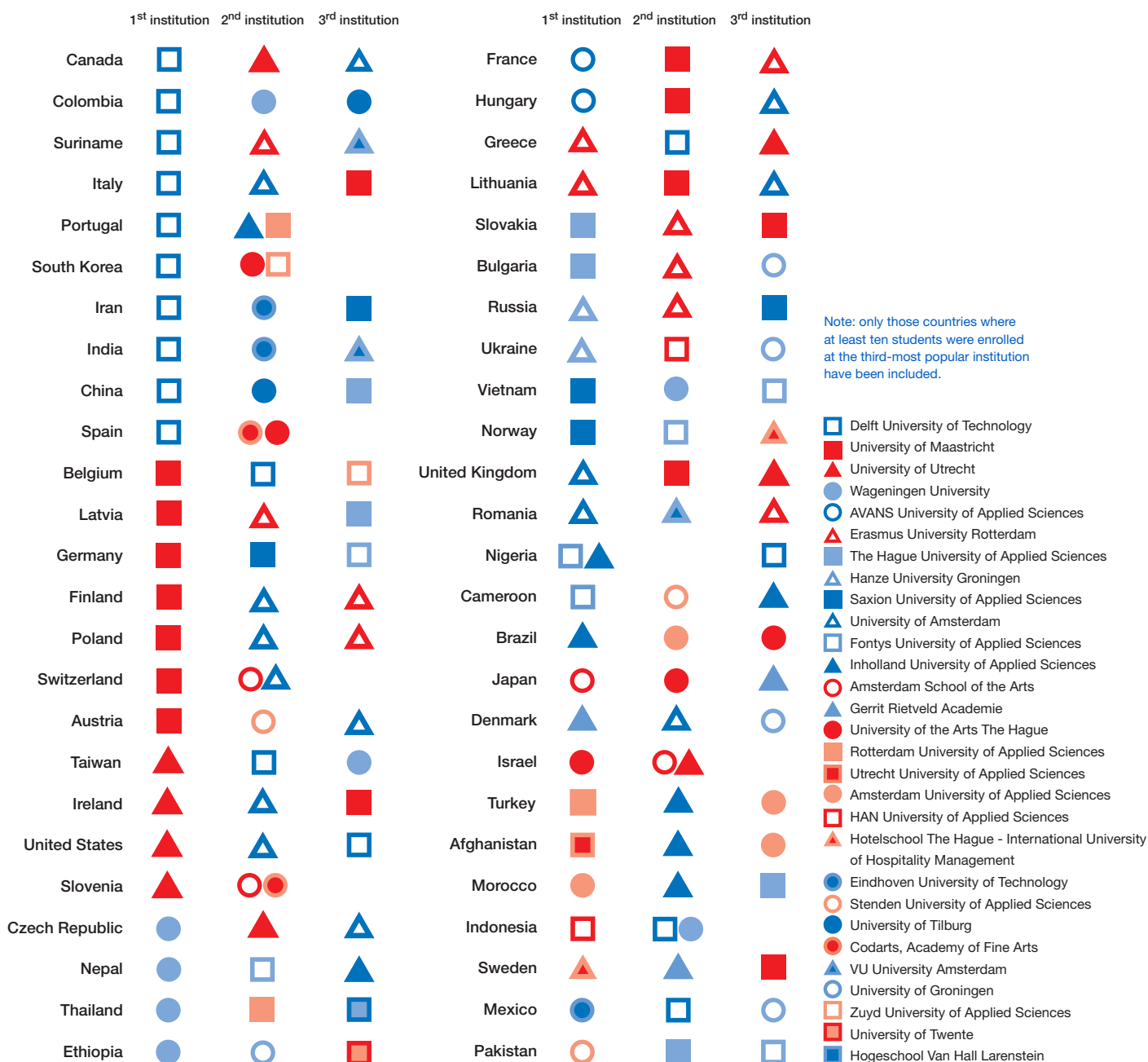
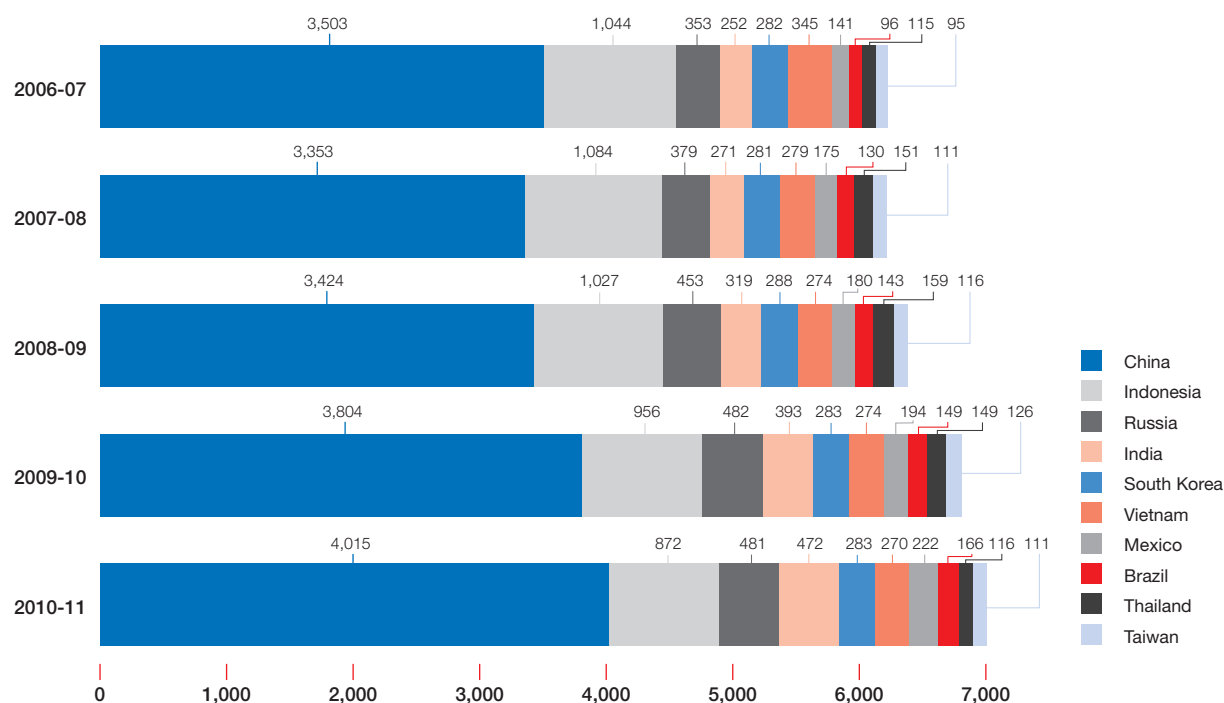


Diagram 28

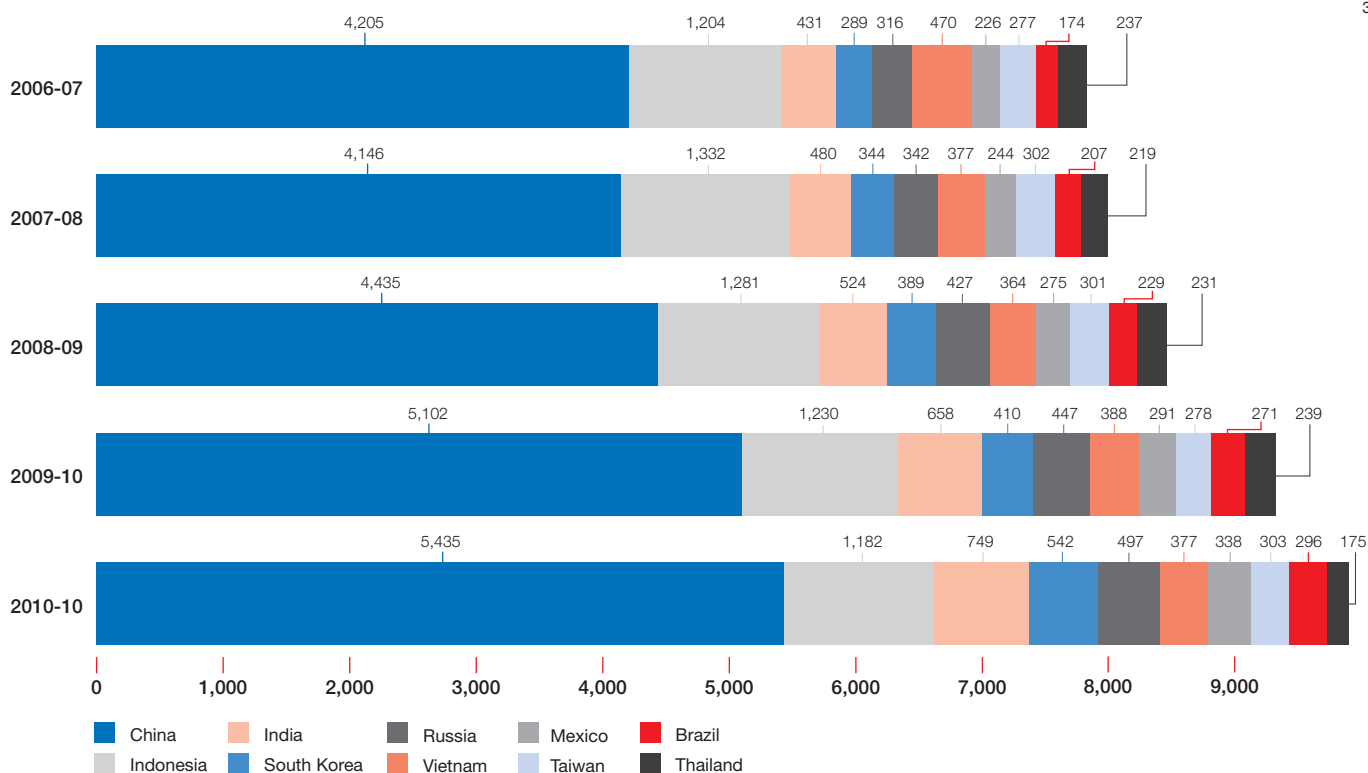
**Students from Neso target countries and regions in government-funded higher education in the Netherlands, 2006-2011**



Source: DUO-CFI, 2011 (revised figures)

Diagram 29

**Students from Neso target countries and regions with a temporary residence permit in higher education in the Netherlands, 2006-2011**



Source: IND, 2011 (revised figures)



to the Netherlands for the study programme. The enrolment statistics in Diagram 28 may also include students who had already been living in the Netherlands for some time or were born there.

[Diagram 28 \(see page 37\)](#)

[Diagram 29 \(see page 37\)](#)

The Dutch share of the number of students from Neso target countries and regions pursuing centrally-registered study programmes in OECD countries is rising in the case of Indonesia, Taiwan, Brazil, South Korea, Mexico and Russia; it is more or less stable in the case of India, Thailand and China and is falling in the case of Vietnam.

[Diagram 30](#)

### **Preferred fields of study for students from Neso target countries and regions**

As in the case of the international student population as a whole, Economics is also the most popular field of study among students from the majority of Neso target countries and regions. Students from Taiwan and South Korea however opt especially for Language & Culture while students from India and Mexico prefer Engineering. The picture here is also more varied in terms of the second most popular field. This is Engineering for students from four countries, Economics for those from three countries, Language & Culture for those from two countries and Agriculture & Natural Environment for those from one country, namely Thailand.

[Diagram 31](#)



3.2

# Outbound diploma mobility

### 3.2.1 Developments in outbound mobility

Between 2006-07 and 2007-08, the number of Dutch nationals enrolled abroad further increased to more than 16,000. While in terms of absolute numbers the Dutch student population abroad has been rising ever since the turn of the century, this growing trend is now also continuing when expressed in terms of percentages. The general portability of student loans and grants, introduced in 2007, probably contributed to the rise between 2006-07 and 2007-08. (While there was certainly more interest in this option, as described below, it is unclear to what extent this group was included in the OECD figures.)

The Dutch share in the total outbound flow from 21 EU countries rose to more than 3%, although this is still smaller than one would expect given the size of the Dutch student population (also see Chapter 5).

Diagram 32

#### Portable student grants and loans

Although portable student grants and loans had been available for a limited number of disciplines and host countries for a number of years, they became generally available in September 2007. The only restriction is that the study programme abroad must be of sufficient quality.

As shown in Diagrams 33 and 34, there has been an increase particularly in the number of destination countries since the general portability of student grants and

loans was introduced. This number grew from 14 countries in 2006-07 to 73 in 2010-11. However, more than 85% of government-funded students still go to Belgium, the United Kingdom, the United States and Germany.

Diagram 33 (see page 42)

Diagram 34 (see page 42)

### 3.2.2 Destination countries

When Dutch nationals enrol for a full study programme abroad, in nearly 80% of cases their host country is another EU country. The largest number of Dutch students can be found in the United Kingdom, followed by Belgium, the United States and Germany.

The United Kingdom, which replaced Belgium as the number one host country in the 2003-04 academic year, once again welcomed 500 more Dutch students in 2007-08 than in the previous year. The number of Dutch students in Germany has been falling since the 2002-03 academic year, and dropped to such an extent between 2004 and 2006 that the United States replaced Germany as the third host country.

Diagram 35 (see page 43)

#### Destination countries for portable student grants and loans

Most students abroad receiving funds under the Dutch student grants and loans system were to be found in Belgium. The United Kingdom takes second place, followed by the United States and Germany. In 2009-10 and 2010-11, the United Kingdom was responsible for the largest rise in



Diagram 32

#### Dutch students studying to obtain a diploma abroad, 2003-2008

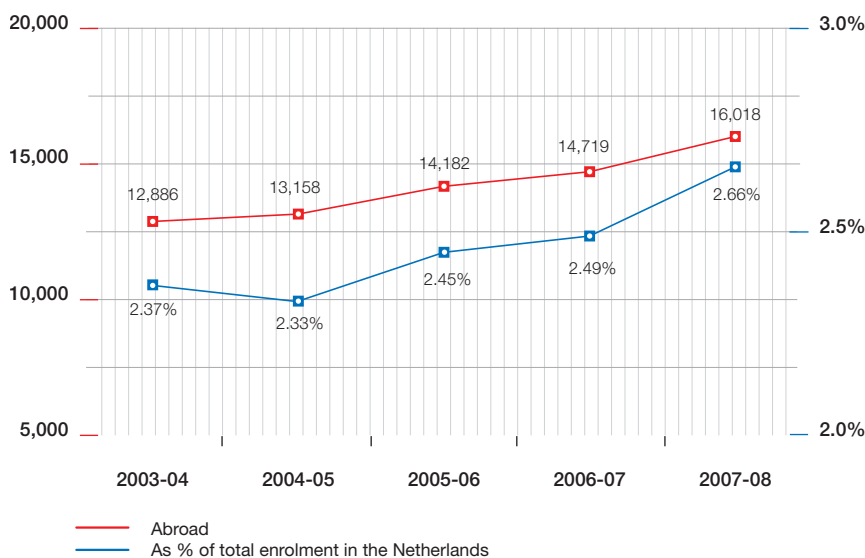
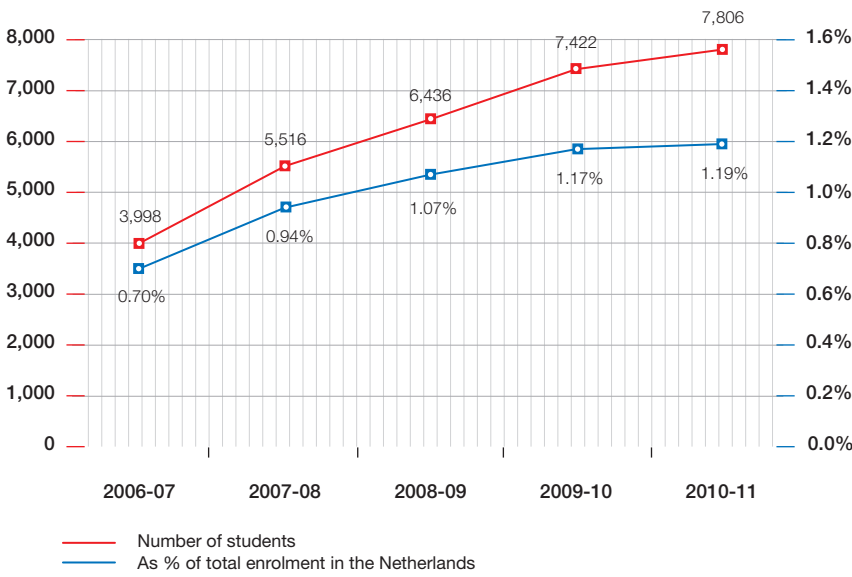


Diagram 33

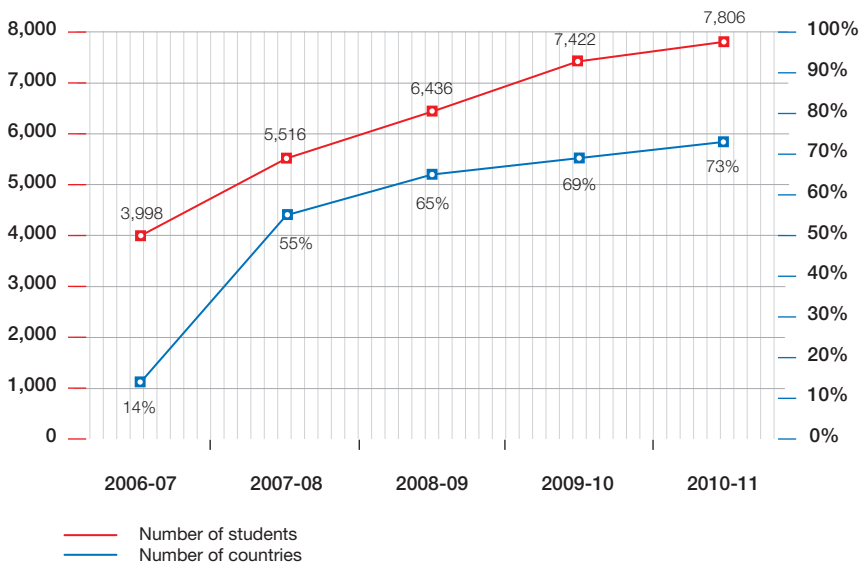
**Number of students funded abroad, 2006-2011**



Source: DUO-Information Management Group, DUO-CFI, 2011; figures as of 1 March of each year

Diagram 34

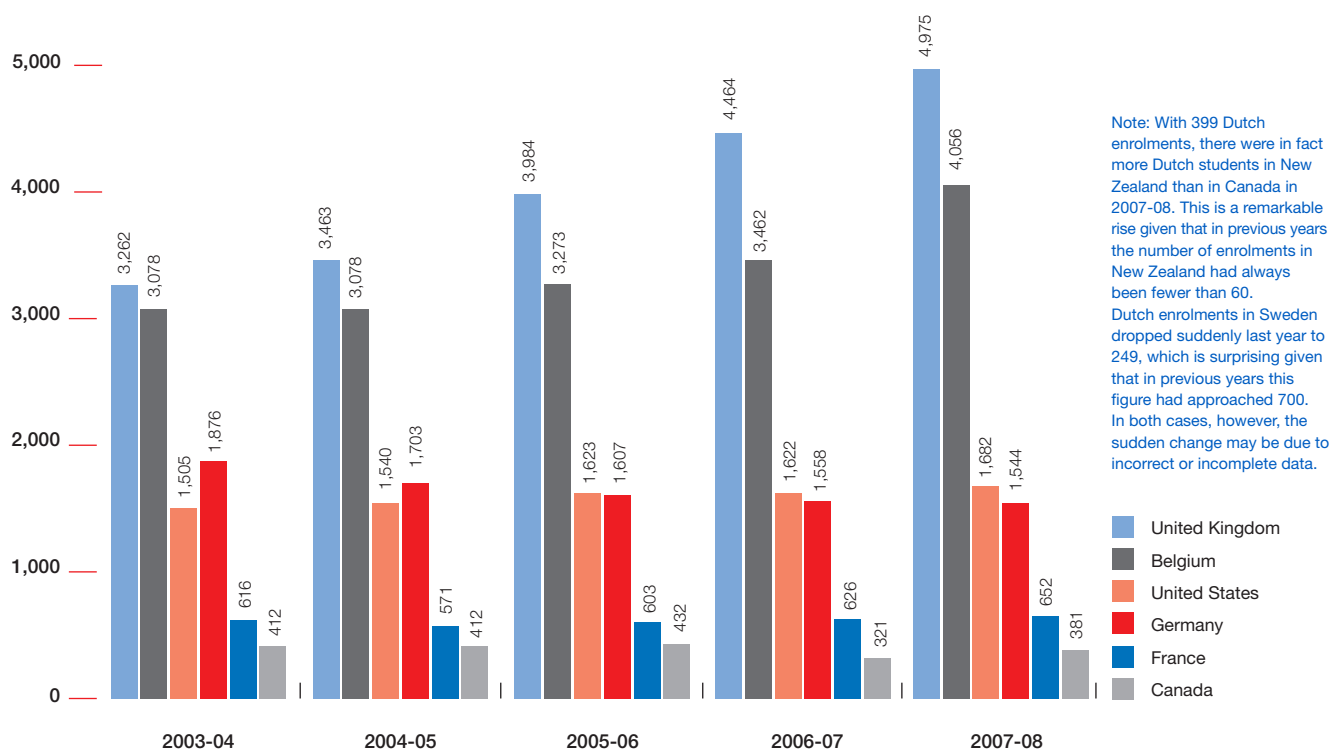
**Number of countries where studies are funded by the Dutch government, 2006-2011**



Source: DUO-Information Management Group, 2011; figures as on 1 March of each year

Diagram 35

**Main destination countries for Dutch students, 2003-2008**



students choosing it as a study-abroad destination (up by 9.7% to almost 1,700 students), followed by Belgium (by 6.5% to more than 4,300 students) and the United States (by 6.2% to more than 390 students). Reflecting the general trend in student outflow to Germany, the number of students receiving Dutch government funding who chose Germany fell by 5.4% between 2009-10 and 2010-11, to just over 260 students.

More than a third (34%) of the total number of government-funded students from the Netherlands study at five Flemish institutions: the K.U. Leuven (923), the University of Antwerp (665), Ghent University (580), Antwerp University College (314) and K.H. Kempen University College (208). Students are enrolled at a total of 43 Belgian institutions.

In the United Kingdom, 181 institutions welcomed international students from the Netherlands. More than 50 government-funded Dutch students could be found at five universities (London Metropolitan University, the University of Oxford, the University of Greenwich, University College London and the London School of Economics). The other 176 institutions were attended by small groups of Dutch international students that were reasonably evenly distributed across them. In the United States, 247 institutions had enrolled Dutch government-funded students. However, only Columbia University had more than 10 (11 to be precise).

Finally, while 96 institutions in Germany were attended by international students from the Netherlands, their numbers exceeded 10 at just three institutions: RWTH Aachen University (50), the Freie Universität Berlin (12) and the WWU University of Munster.

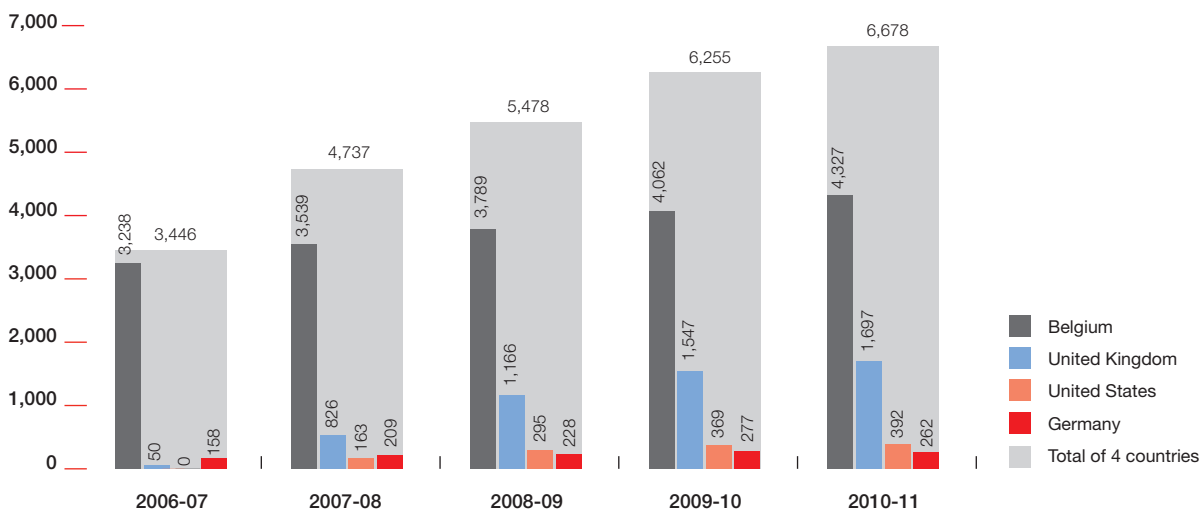
The broad international experience offered by the portability of the student grants and loans system is apparent from the latest figures, which indicate enrolments at 1,074 institutions in the 73 countries referred to. Since 2007, the number of countries that have accepted enrolments is 77 and the number of institutions is even 1,436.

Diagram 36



Diagram 36

**Most popular host countries for publicly funded Dutch students, 2006-2011**





# 4

Note: in this publication we have chosen to first examine inbound mobility and then outbound mobility. With regard to diploma mobility, inbound student mobility is the most important indicator in terms of both numbers and policy. Although when it comes to credit mobility the reverse is true – more students probably go abroad rather than come to the Netherlands and more importance is usually attached to outbound mobility in terms of education – for the sake of consistency, we will first look briefly at inbound credit mobility.

## Credit mobility to and from the Netherlands



4.1

# Inbound credit mobility

Where students travel abroad to attend a partial programme or to take up a work placement during their studies, and within the context of their study programme, this is referred to as credit mobility.

#### 4.1.1 Developments in inbound credit mobility

Up until now almost the only information on inbound credit mobility – relating to students travelling to the Netherlands to attend a partial programme or take up a work placement within the context of their study programme abroad – has been derived from the administration of scholarship programmes. Mobility outside these programmes, or more accurately, outside the recognised scholarship programmes, remains largely undocumented. This situation could be changed if, in international comparative graduate surveys, students were asked about destination countries more regularly.

With regard to Germany, however, we know that just three per cent of credit mobile German students come to the Netherlands, placing the Netherlands in eleventh place in the list of host countries. This contrasts with the 18% of diploma mobile German students who come to the Netherlands. Within this latter category, the Netherlands ranks number one as a destination country. Almost 50% of credit mobile German students travel to France, the United Kingdom, Spain and the United States (DAAD, HIS, WBV, 2009, 2010).<sup>12</sup>

If we take into account the total of 26,500 outbound credit mobile students (see the supporting information under 4.2.1) and we assume that there is a certain degree of reciprocity – 85%<sup>13</sup> is used as a supposition – the number of inbound credit mobile students could total 22,500.

However, it should be noted that this is a rough estimate of inbound mobility, which is only used here for a general impression and to put outbound mobility into some perspective.

The following text refers to mobility only within the context of the Erasmus programme.

#### 4.1.2 Inbound credit mobility via the Erasmus Programme

Since 2007-08, the old Leonardo da Vinci Programme, for work placements abroad known as Erasmus Work Placements, has been part of the Lifelong Learning Programme. Now that the initial year has passed, we have a fairly accurate picture of the EU-sponsored credit mobility for study programmes and for work placements. Because the work placement data for 2007-08 is incomplete, however, the historical development discussed below only refers to Erasmus mobility for study purposes.

As in previous years, most Erasmus Programme students came from Spain in the last reference year 2008-09. France and Germany remained the second and third countries of origin, as before. The total number of incoming Erasmus programme students fell slightly, from 7,002 to 6,894.

<sup>12</sup> DAAD, HIS, WBV. (2009 and 2010). *Wissenschaft weltoffen, Daten und Fakten zur Internationalität von Studium und Forschung in Deutschland*. Bielefeld: DAAD.

<sup>13</sup> The figure of 85% is taken from the results of the REFLEX project among graduates in 1999-2000 (Allen, J. Coenen, J. & Velden, R. van der (2007). *Higher education graduates compared with other countries. Results of the REFLEX project*. The Hague, Ministry of Education, Culture and Science). On average, credit mobility from other EU countries was 85% of the credit mobility from the Netherlands.

In percentage terms, the largest declines were seen in numbers from Germany (-11%), the Czech Republic (-9%), Poland (-8%) and Belgium (-7%). More students came from Finland (+5%) and Sweden (+5%). Since 2005-06, the total Erasmus influx has remained relatively constant. The increase since that year from Turkey (+42%), Hungary (+33%) and the United Kingdom (+13%) was cancelled out by lower numbers from Portugal (-18%), Germany (-15%), Finland (-14%) and the Czech Republic (-14%).

Diagram 37

How popular is the Netherlands among international Erasmus students? Eight per cent of Swedish Erasmus students came to the Netherlands in 2008-09, as well as 8% of Finnish Erasmus students and 6% of Erasmus students from Hungary, Turkey and Belgium. Compared with the preceding year, most countries that supplied more than 150 students tended to see decreases rather than increases. The popularity of a short study period in the Netherlands declined most among Belgian, Czech and German students. On the other hand, a larger portion came from the United Kingdom and Sweden. The number of students from the total Erasmus Programme population that opted for the Netherlands decreased slightly relative to 2007-08, from 4.3% to 4.1%.

Diagram 38

Now that more comprehensive data is becoming available on inbound Erasmus work placement mobility, it would be useful to examine the countries

of origin (Diagram 39). This shows that it is mainly French and German students who take advantage of the possibility to take up a work placement in the Netherlands via the Erasmus Programme, followed at a distance by Spanish students and students from other countries of origin. As indicated above, the inbound Erasmus work placement mobility also only represents a fraction of the total inbound work placement mobility; indeed, the question arises whether the countries of origin in the Erasmus Programme are representative for the countries of origin in general. International surveys conducted among graduates will be required if we are to gain a complete picture of the inbound credit mobility to the Netherlands.

Diagram 39



Diagram 37

**Erasmus countries of origin, study (150 or more Erasmus students), 2005-2009**

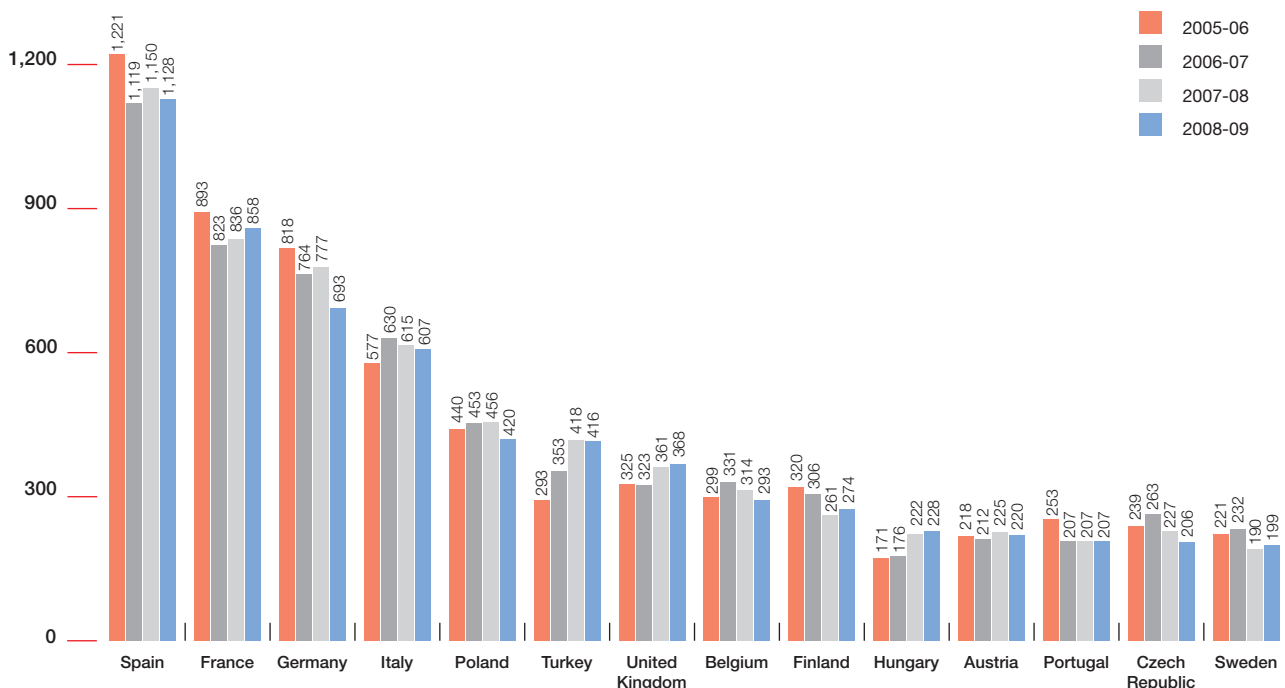
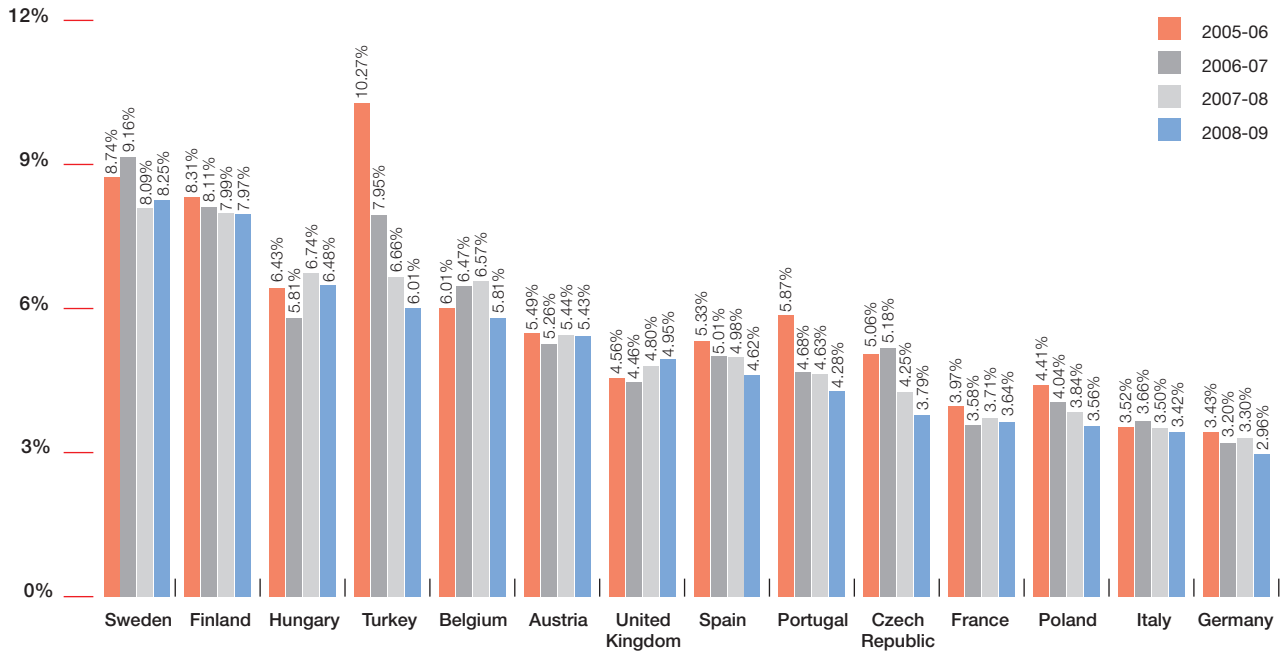


Diagram 38

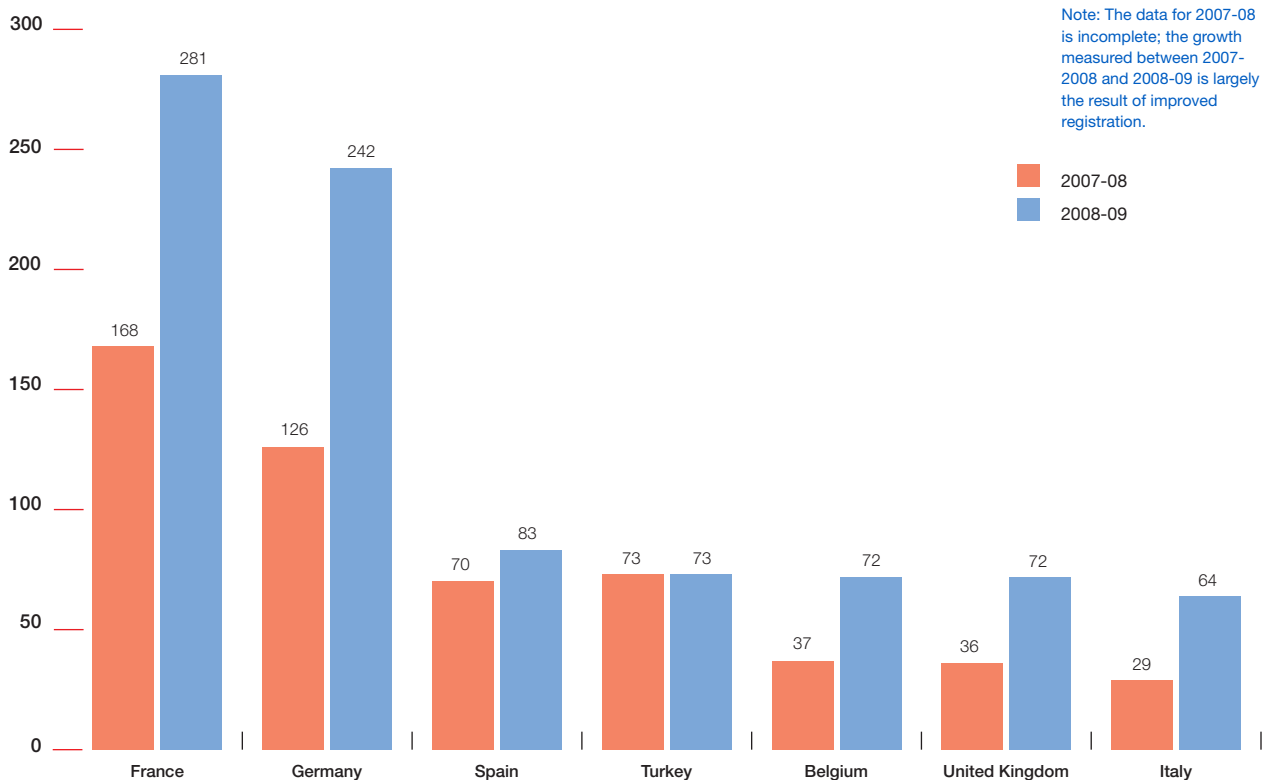
**Erasmus countries of origin, study (150 or more Erasmus students), percentage of the total Erasmus population per country who came to the Netherlands, 2005-2009**



Source: Nuffic, 2011

Diagram 39

**Erasmus countries of origin, work placement (50 or more Erasmus students), 2007-2009**



Source: Nuffic, 2011

4.2

# Outbound credit mobility

## 4.2.1 Developments surrounding outbound credit mobility

Diagram 40 shows the results of the *Student Monitor* from 2001 and Diagram 41 the results of surveys conducted among graduates. Up until 2009, the Maastricht University Research Centre for Education and the Labour Market (ROA) conducted surveys among both higher professional education and academic higher education graduates. Since last year, however, the IVA Institute for Social Policy Research, which is affiliated with Tilburg University, has been responsible for the surveys among academic higher education students. Both surveys are carried out on behalf of the respective umbrella organisations: the HBO-raad (Netherlands Association of Universities of Applied Sciences) and the VSNU (Association of Universities in the Netherlands). The survey among higher professional education graduates is held annually, and the survey among academic higher education graduates every two years. Because of this, it is not possible to update the academic higher education data that was published last year. In making comparisons with the more recent figures for higher professional education and in determining the higher education averages, it is assumed that the academic higher education percentages have remained the same.

When the academic higher education graduate survey was transferred from the ROA to the IVA, the approach remained more or less the same.

The results of the two surveys can therefore be compared. However, it cannot be ruled out that minor methodological differences affect the results presented here. The surveys mainly focus on the relationship between education and the labour market and, as is often the case, internationalisation is just one of the factors that plays a role in this context. Unless this issue is specifically addressed, the risk of methodological differences with two commissioning authorities (representing two different sets of organisations) and two implementing agencies will increase.

Diagram 40 (see page 52)

Diagram 41 (see page 52)

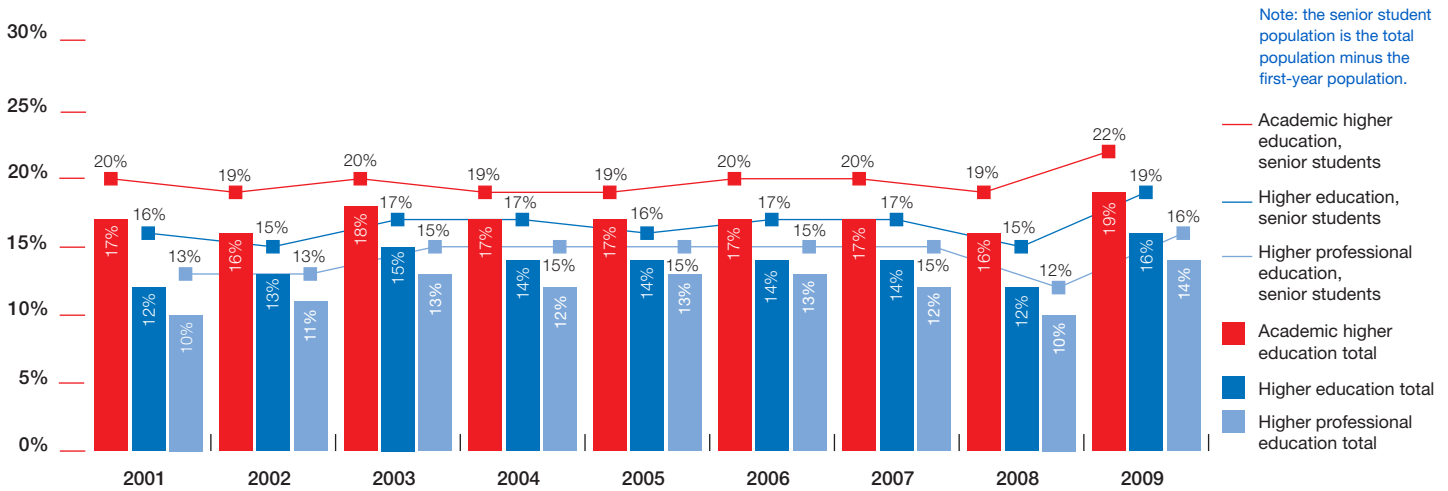
The mobility target agreed during the Bologna conference in Leuven set out that by 2020, at least 20% of graduating students must have been internationally mobile.<sup>14</sup> Obviously, a graduate survey is the best way of determining whether this target is being met. As already indicated above, however, there is no recent data on academic higher education graduates for comparison with last year. A continued decline in the academic higher education segment was detected in last year's publication (for the period between 2006-07 and 2007-08). Although the figures probably also declined between 2007-08 and 2008-09, to be on the safe side we will assume that the percentage for academic higher education remained the same in that period. Following a reasonably sharp increase in that period as noted in last year's publication, higher professional education also saw a decline of up to 19.9% between 2007-08 and 2008-09.

<sup>14</sup> "In 2020, at least 20% of those graduating in the European Higher Education Area should have had a study or training period abroad" (closing statement at the Bologna Leuven conference on 28-29 April 2009). This is usually interpreted as referring to mobility during a study programme, in other words credit mobility, but unfortunately this is not explicitly stated. This means that credit and diploma mobility percentages are sometimes combined, even those referring to one year as well as to the entire study programme, for the purpose of comparison with the 20% target. Incidentally, the 20% target has not been taken from surveys among graduates but among students in general, and is therefore probably too low. As shown in the results of the REFLEX project, the international average among graduates in 1999-2000 was 25% (and that among graduates from the twelve participating EU countries almost 26%). See footnote 13 (page 47) for the REFLEX project reference source.



Diagram 40

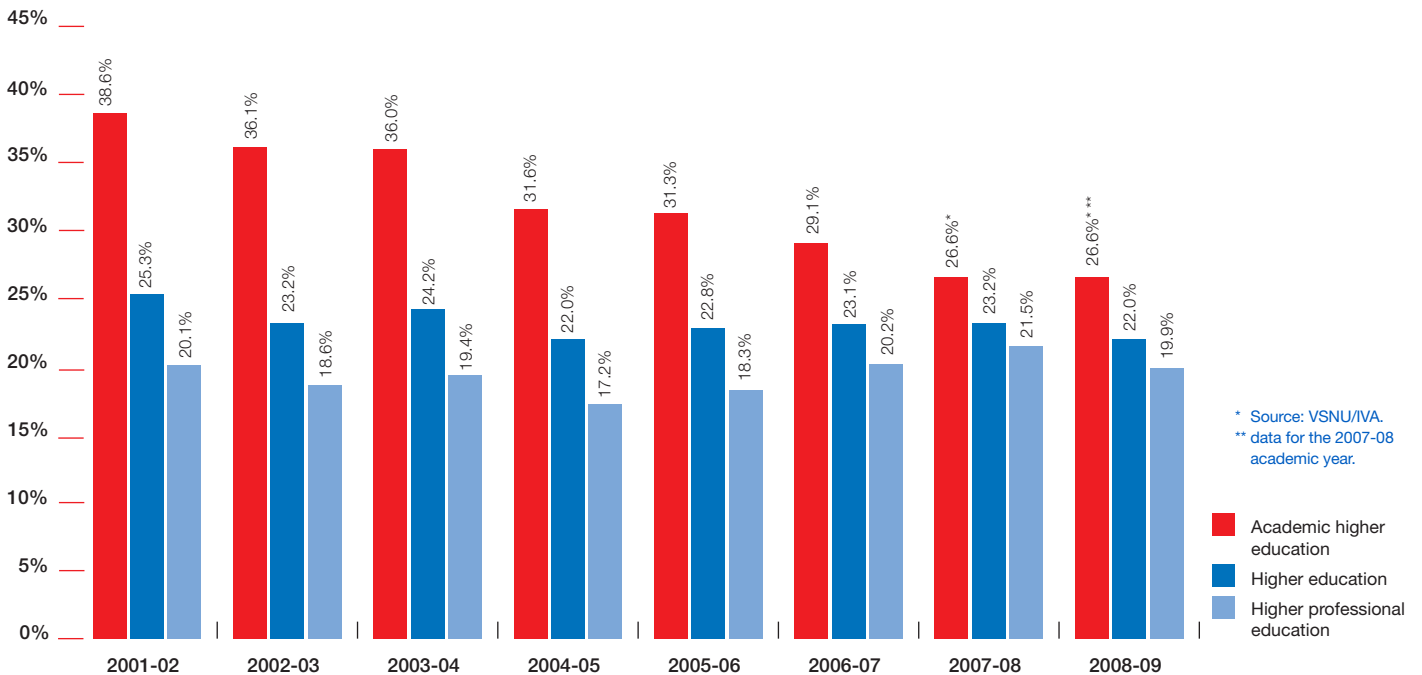
**Percentage of outbound credit mobility among students, 2001-2009**



Source: ResearchNed, 2004–2010

Diagram 41

**Percentage of outbound credit mobility among graduates, 2001-2009**



Source: ROA, 2002–2011; VSNU/IVA, 2010

This was mainly due to a decrease in two fields of study: Education and Economics (see Section 4.2.3).

The averages for academic higher education and professional higher education, 26.6% and 19.9% respectively, result in an average for the entire graduate student population of 22.0%. This percentage, which would probably have been lower if the credit mobility for academic higher education had been measured more recently, indicates that gains made since 2004-05 have been cancelled out.

When comparing the results of the *Student Monitor* with the results of the graduate surveys, it is apparent that the *Student Monitor* results are less likely to show rising or falling trends. Based on the total figures, we can see there was a gradual rise and fall within higher professional education followed by a sudden increase in the last measurement year. In the case of academic higher education, the horizontal line suddenly dropped after the penultimate measurement and then rose again strongly. Greater clarity on the difference in results between the two surveys is needed. In addition to the time at which the survey is held – *during* or *after* a study period, and the fact that in the first case students who do not eventually graduate (and are less mobile) are also surveyed – the mobility of students or graduates at the time of the survey may also affect the population surveyed, and therefore the results. This may have a different impact on the results of the two different surveys. Unlike

the percentages referred to under diploma mobility, which provide an annual picture, these figures relate to mobility during the entire study programme. It is not clear in which year mobility took place (although it is most likely to have been during the penultimate or final year of the study programme). In order to draw a comparison between the percentages expressing mobility in a specific year, the mobility percentage during the study programme should be divided by the duration of the programme in years. If the study programme lasts an average of four years and 22.0% of students were internationally mobile during this period, the annual percentage would be 5.8%.

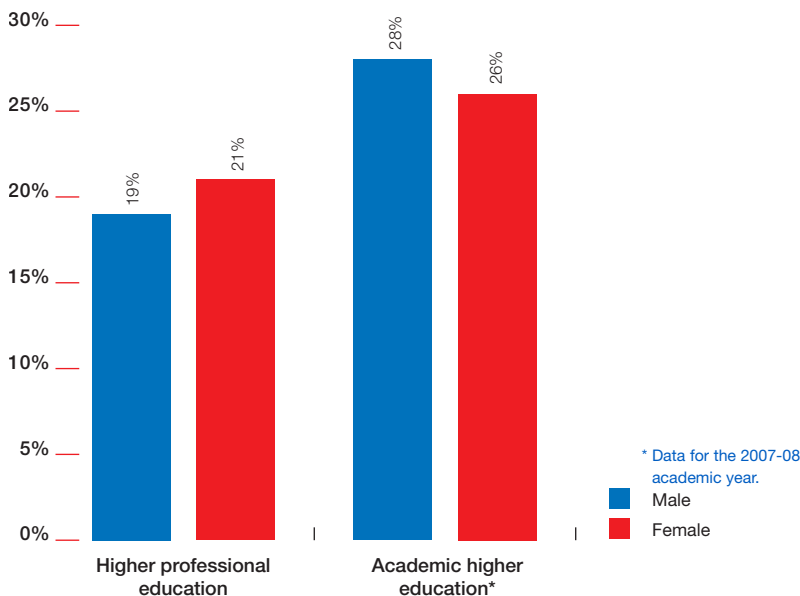
To gain an idea of the number of credit mobile students, this percentage should be multiplied by the number of graduates in 2008-09: 90,250 (Statistics Netherlands, 2011).<sup>15</sup> The result is around 4,950 students. Students who did not graduate were also internationally mobile, but probably less so than those who did. There were a total of 602,050 students in the 2008-09 academic year, which amounts to 150,500 students per academic year. If mobility were the same, there would be around 8,300 mobile students per cohort. Somewhat arbitrarily, this works out as  $(4,950 + 8,300) \div 2 = 6,650$  mobile students per cohort. This figure times the number of academic years (four) amounts to 26,500 credit mobile students per year. This means that total annual outbound mobility would be around 16,000 (diploma mobility) plus 26,500 (credit mobility), totalling 42,500 students.

<sup>15</sup> Previous publications used the total number of graduates in higher professional education and academic higher education as a basis. However, this no longer corresponds with the graduate survey populations, consisting mainly of bachelor's graduates in higher professional education and doctoral and master's graduates in academic higher education. In the text we currently refer to these totals. Separate surveys will ultimately need to be conducted among bachelor's and master's graduates in both higher professional education and academic higher education in order to gain an accurate picture.



Diagram 42

**Percentage of graduates with experience abroad according to gender, graduates in 2008-09**



## 4.2.2 Ratio of male to female students

The surveys show that mobility during the study programme among male and female graduates was virtually the same in both higher professional education and academic higher education.

Diagram 42 (see page 53)

Since more women than men graduated in higher professional education and, probably, in academic higher education in 2008-09, the number of mobile women was higher than the number of mobile men. In higher professional education, 59% of mobile graduates were women. The percentage for academic higher education was 54% in the 2007-08 academic year.

## 4.2.3 Fields of study

In the CROHO components of Agriculture, Engineering and Healthcare, more than 40% of academic higher education graduates were mobile during the study programme. This applied to 20-30% of academic higher education graduates in Nature and Language & Culture and to fewer than 20% of graduates in Economics, Law, Behaviour & Society as well as Education, which is new to the list. Overall, the figures were declining. The decline was stronger than average in the fields of Economics, Law, and Behaviour & Society. Bucking the trend, however, Engineering and Healthcare graduates saw increased mobility percentages. Methodological aspects may also have played a part in this finding.

Just as in academic higher education in 2007-08 a relatively high level of mobility was seen among Agriculture graduates in higher professional education during their studies – more than 50% in the 2008-09 academic year. The mobility of higher professional education graduates in Economics, Language & Culture and Healthcare was around 23%, while that of graduates in Engineering, Education and Behaviour & Society was around 12.5%. Higher professional education graduates in 2008-09 reported reduced mobility particularly in Education and Economics and, to a lesser extent, in Engineering and Agriculture. In Behaviour & Society, however, mobility rose by more than 25%, after having declined by the same percentage in the previous year. Mobility among graduates in Language & Culture and Healthcare also rose.

Diagram 43

Diagram 44

## 4.2.4 Higher education institutions

### Top ten institutions

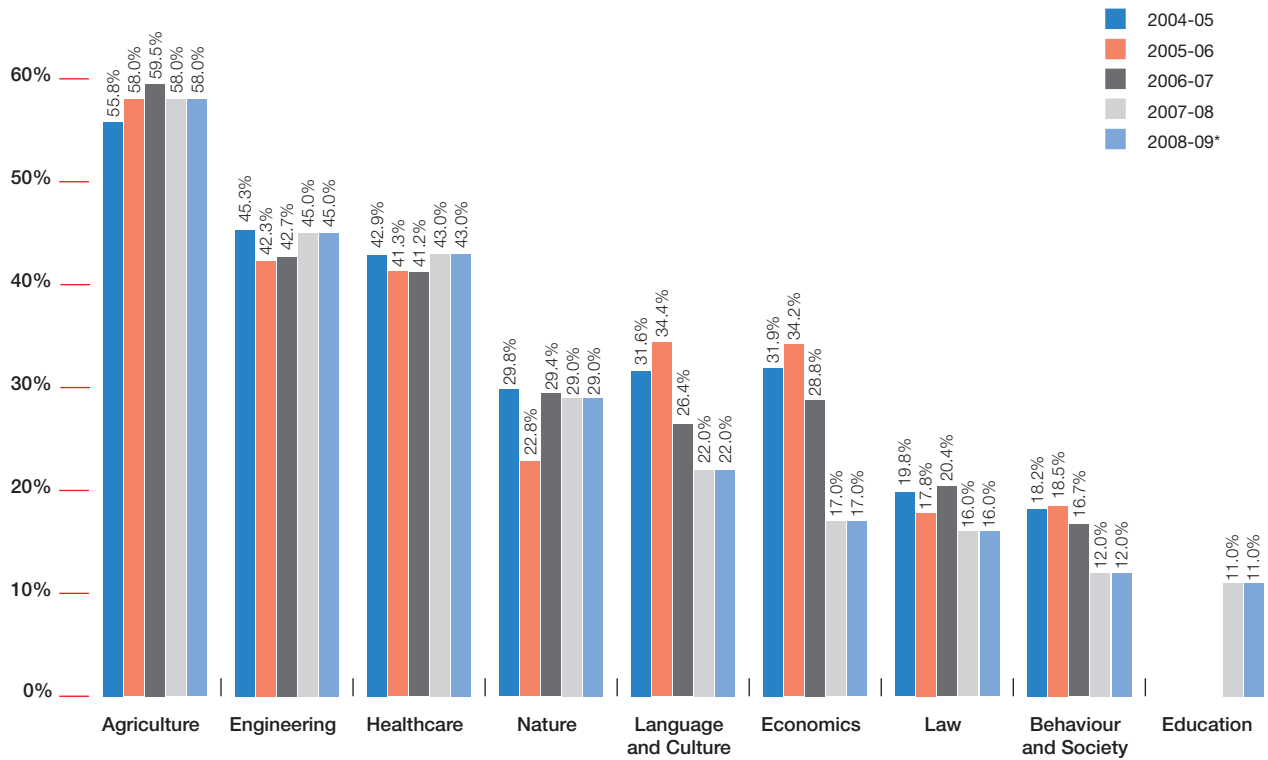
The following list of top ten institutions has been compiled from graduate surveys. As indicated above, where no current figures were available for research universities, last year's percentages have been used. In higher professional education, we can observe fairly sharp declines in credit mobility at Van Hall Larenstein and Aeres Group. By contrast, the Breda University of Applied Sciences saw a marked rise, as did Design Academy Eindhoven. Having entered the



Diagram 43

**Percentage of credit mobility among academic higher education graduates, according to field of study, in 2004-2009**

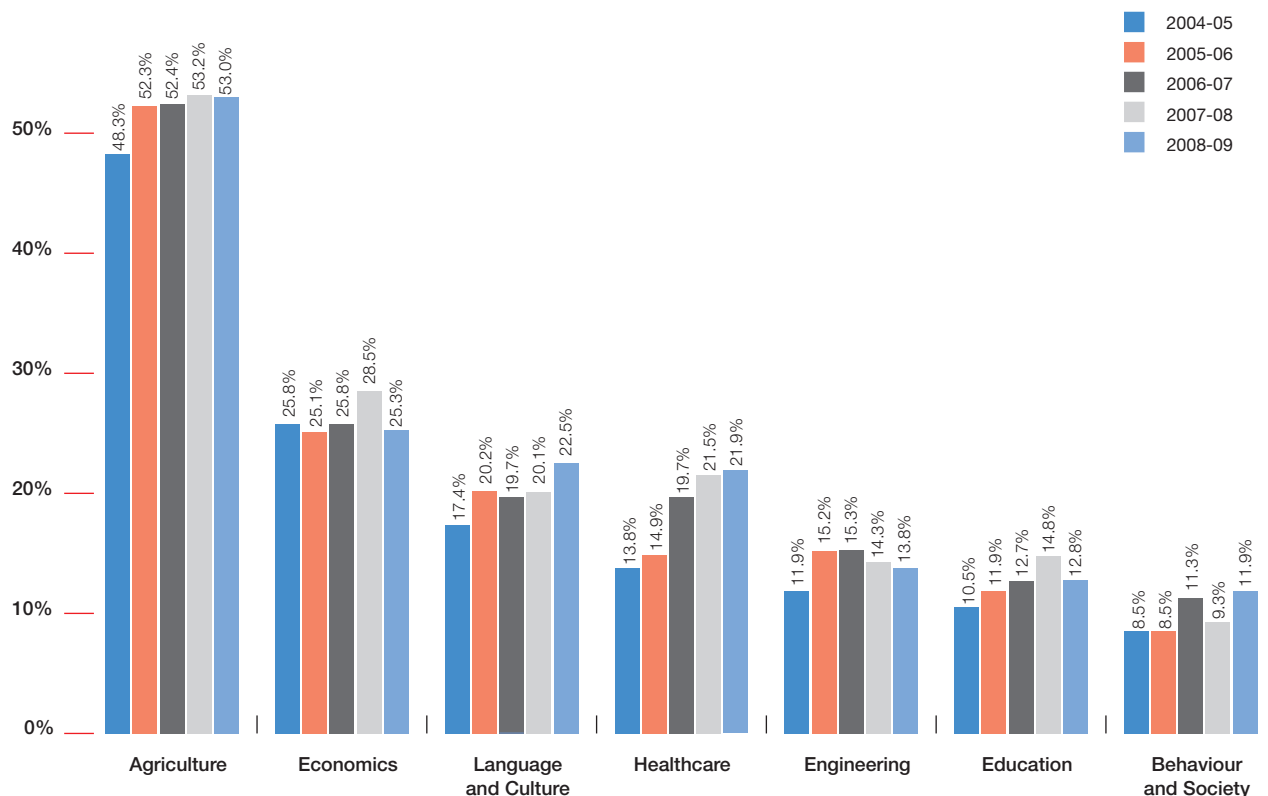
\* Data for the 2007-08 academic year.



Source: ROA, 2004–2009; VSNU/IVA, 2010

Diagram 44

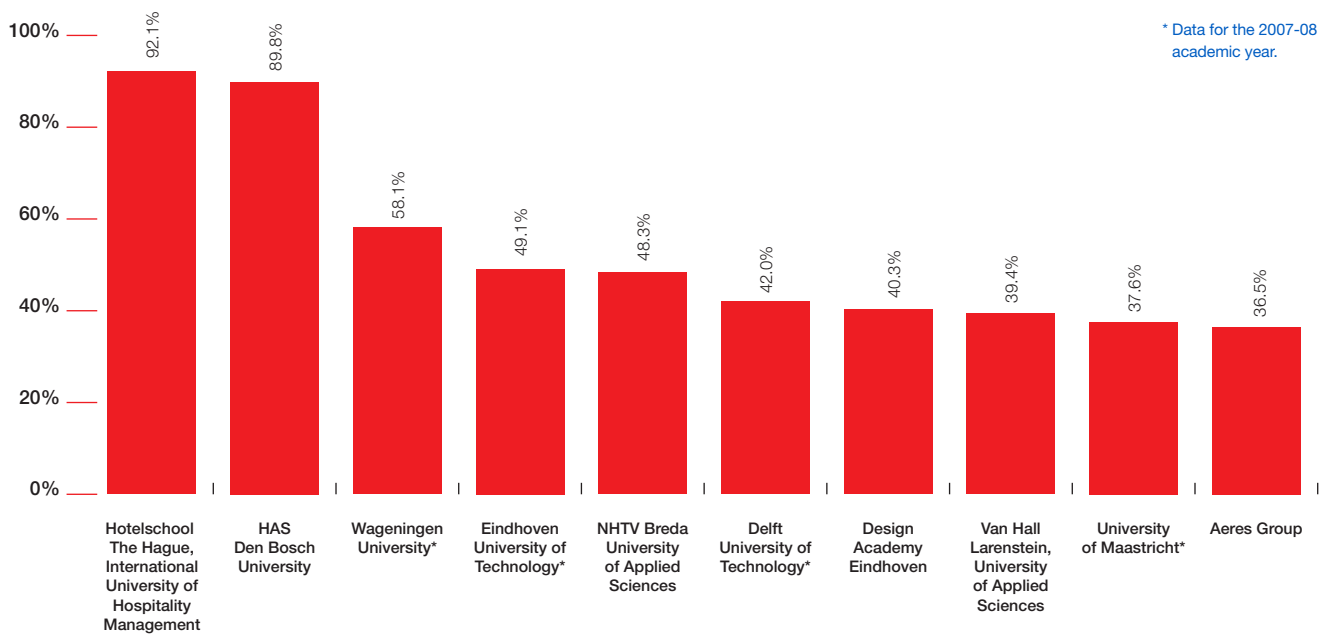
**Percentage of credit mobility among higher professional education graduates, according to field of study, in 2004-2009**



Source: ROA, 2004–2011

Diagram 45

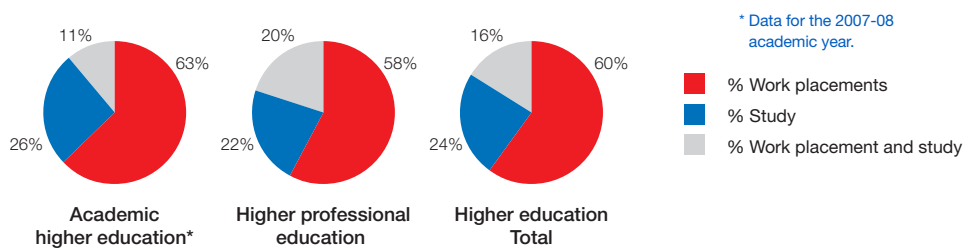
**Top ten institutions in terms of outbound credit mobility among graduates in 2008-09**



Source: ROA, 2011; VSNU/IVA, 2010

Diagram 46

**Credit mobility, type of experience abroad, graduates in 2008-09**



Source: ROA, 2011; VSNU/IVA, 2010

top-ten list last year with a notable rise, Codarts left it again this year.

Diagram 45

### 4.2.5 Work placement or study programme, or both

On average, the majority of students travel abroad to take up a work placement, sometimes combined with a study programme. According to last year's results, even 63% of academic higher education graduates with international experience went abroad for a work placement. Fifty-eight per cent of higher professional education graduates with international experience indicated they had been abroad for a work placement in 2008-09, a fall of 3% relative to the previous year. And precisely 3% more higher professional education graduates indicated to have gone abroad for a component of their study programme.

Diagram 46

### 4.2.6 Outbound credit mobility via the Erasmus programme

The latest EUROSTUDENT results relating to credit mobility show that 21% of mobile Dutch students travel within the context of the Erasmus or Tempus programmes. Other mobile students travel within the context of other programmes (34%) or are not covered by any programme at all (45%).

Mobility within programmes is largely determined by the specific features and conditions of the

programme concerned. Programme mobility is therefore only indicative of general mobility trends to a limited degree. The European programmes are the most interesting in this context as they facilitate comparisons between countries. Although here too, outbound mobility is limited to a certain extent by the budgets made available, inbound mobility displays a greater amount of freedom; although the number of students travelling abroad per country is limited, they are relatively free in their choice of destination country, provided that cooperation agreements are in place and a certain degree of reciprocity applies.

Unfortunately little information is available on mobility within the previous Leonardo da Vinci programme, particularly on mobility from other countries and therefore inbound mobility in the Netherlands. Within the Lifelong Learning Programme, work placements abroad, in addition to the traditional study components abroad, are supported in the new Erasmus programme element (the new Leonardo da Vinci programme element no longer focuses on higher education).

The 2007-08 academic year marked a transition for these Erasmus student trainees, with some still taking part in the previous Leonardo da Vinci programme. The figures show that outbound work placement mobility almost doubled between 2007-08 and 2008-09, which is certainly due in part to improved record keeping. With respect to outbound mobility between 2008-09 and 2009-10, there was a natural – and in this case positive – development.

## NVAO Internationalisation Certificate

Credit mobility, the subject of this chapter, is often part of a broader internationalisation strategy for the study programme.

Last year, the Accreditation Organisation of the Netherlands and Flanders (NVAO) drew up, tested and applied an assessment framework for assessing the internationalisation strategy of a study programme. The framework is based on five assessment standards:

1. Vision and policy
2. Education results
3. Education environment
4. Personnel/lecturers
5. Students

In the event of a positive assessment, the study programme is eligible for the new NVAO Internationalisation Certificate. Of the 21 study programmes in the Netherlands and Flanders that participated in the first round, ten were eventually awarded the NVAO certificate.

### Institution

The Hague University of Applied Sciences  
 Amsterdam University of Applied Sciences  
 Delft University of Technology  
 Eindhoven University of Technology  
  
 Erasmus University Rotterdam  
  
 International Institute of Social Studies  
 University of Maastricht  
  
 University of Amsterdam

### Study programme

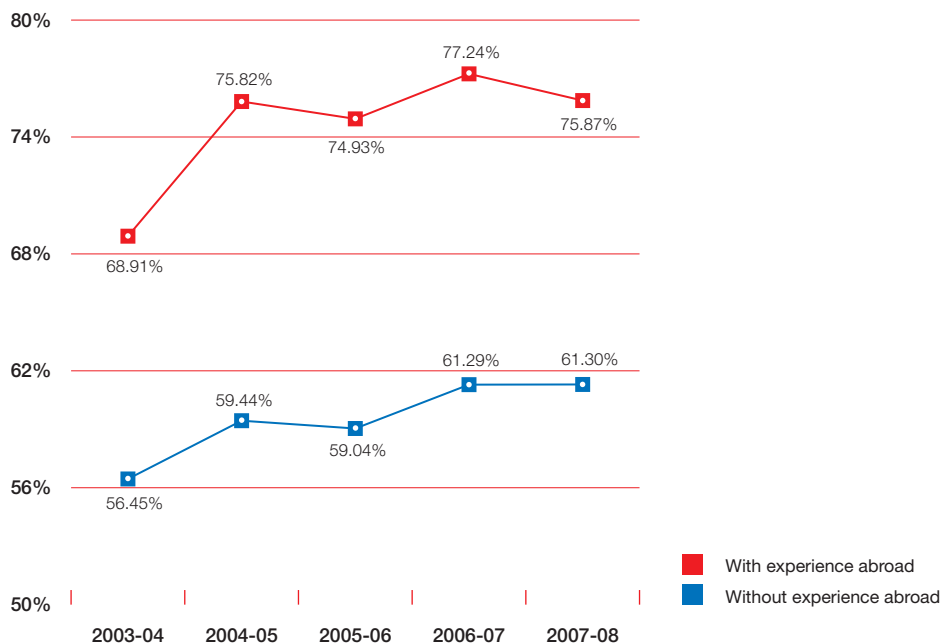
Bachelor in European Studies  
 MSc in Occupational Therapy  
 MSc in Engineering and Policy Analysis  
 MSc in Human Technology Interaction  
 MSc in Innovation Sciences  
 BSc in International Business  
 Administration  
 MA in Development Studies  
 BSc in International Business  
 MSc in International Business  
 LL.M. International Criminal Law

For more information, see [www.nvao.net/pilot\\_bijzonder\\_kenmerk\\_internationalisering](http://www.nvao.net/pilot_bijzonder_kenmerk_internationalisering) (in Dutch)



Diagram 47

**Percentage of academic higher education students who stated they were employed at least at the level of their study programme, with or without experience abroad, graduates in 2003-2008**



The most popular destination countries for outbound Erasmus work placement mobility were the United Kingdom, Germany, Spain and Belgium.

Diagram 48

As for inbound student trainee mobility figures between 2007-08 and 2008-09, there are still some administrative issues at play. Data for 2009-10 is not yet available (see Diagram 49).

Diagram 49 (see page 60)

Large numbers of Dutch Erasmus programme students once again travelled to Spain in the 2009-10 academic year. The United Kingdom reinforced its number two ranking, followed by Sweden and France. The greatest growth was registered for students travelling to Portugal (+35%), Denmark (+33%), Ireland (+26%) and Turkey (+24%). Less interest was shown in pursuing a study component in Belgium (-16%) and Italy (-3%).

Diagram 50 (see page 60)

The share of Dutch outbound mobility within total outbound Erasmus mobility (study and work placement) rose from 3.3% to 3.5% between 2007-08 and 2008-09.

#### 4.2.7 Effects of experience abroad during the study programme

Previous graduate surveys showed that academic higher education students who had

gained experience abroad during their study programme consistently had higher average final marks than those who had not gained experience abroad. Regrettably it was not possible to confirm this finding in the latest survey, since this question was no longer included. The percentage of students having experience abroad who stated that they were employed at least at the same level as their study programme was still almost 15% higher than that of students without experience abroad, according to the graduate figures for 2007-08. According to the same figures, the average income following graduation is also higher in all years in the case of students with experience abroad.

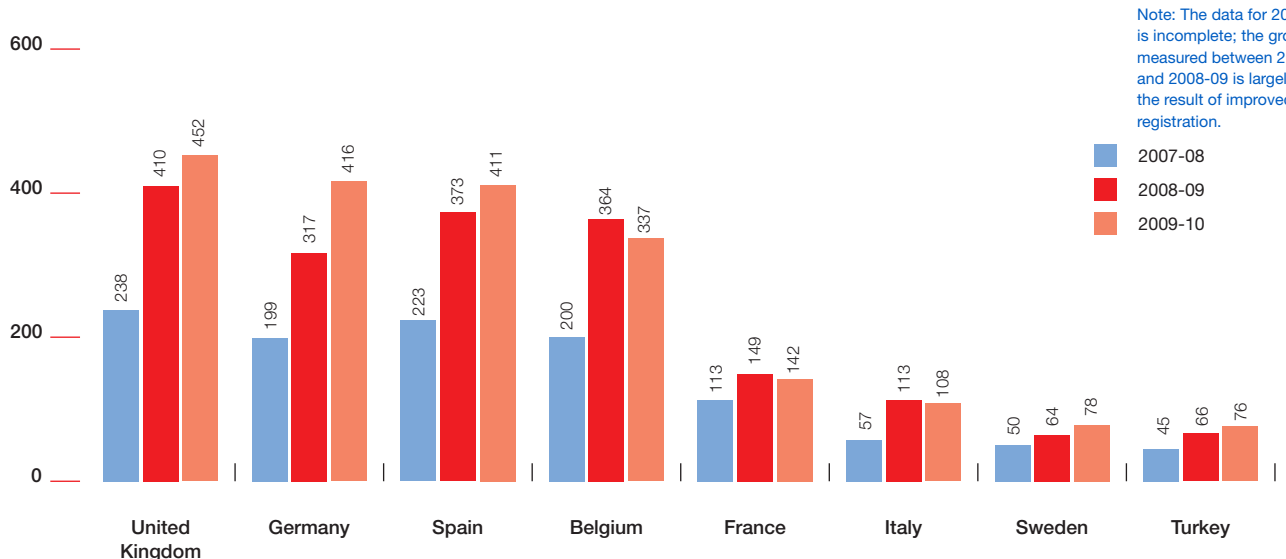
In the case of students in higher professional education, the figures are ambiguous. Over the years, students with experience abroad often have a slightly higher final mark average; however, they feel somewhat less often that they are employed at the same level as their study programme and they usually also earn somewhat less than students without experience abroad. This odd paradox requires further study. It may be that higher professional education students with the prospect of a job are less mobile. In a previous year, it was observed that higher professional education students who stayed abroad for a shorter period attained better scores than those who stayed away longer as well as those who were not mobile. However, these results cannot be described as unambiguous either.

Diagram 47



Diagram 48

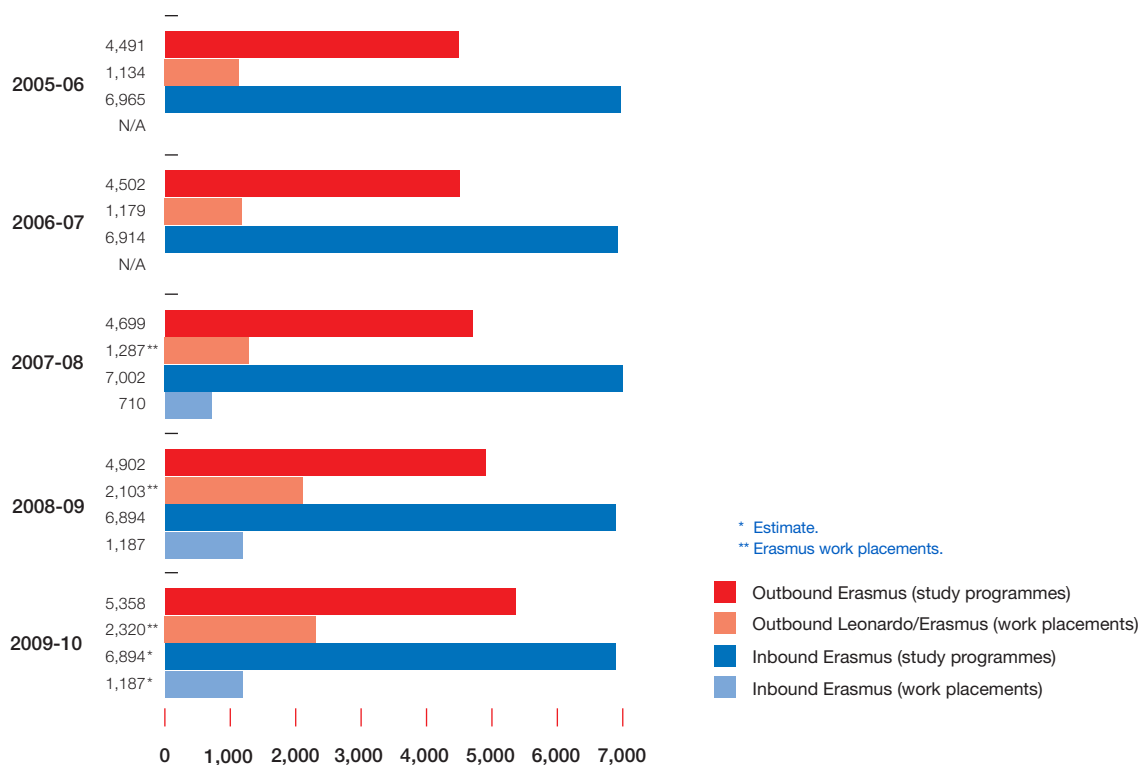
#### Erasmus destination countries, work placement (50 or more Erasmus students), 2007-2010



Note: The data for 2007-08 is incomplete; the growth measured between 2007-08 and 2008-09 is largely the result of improved registration.

Diagram 49

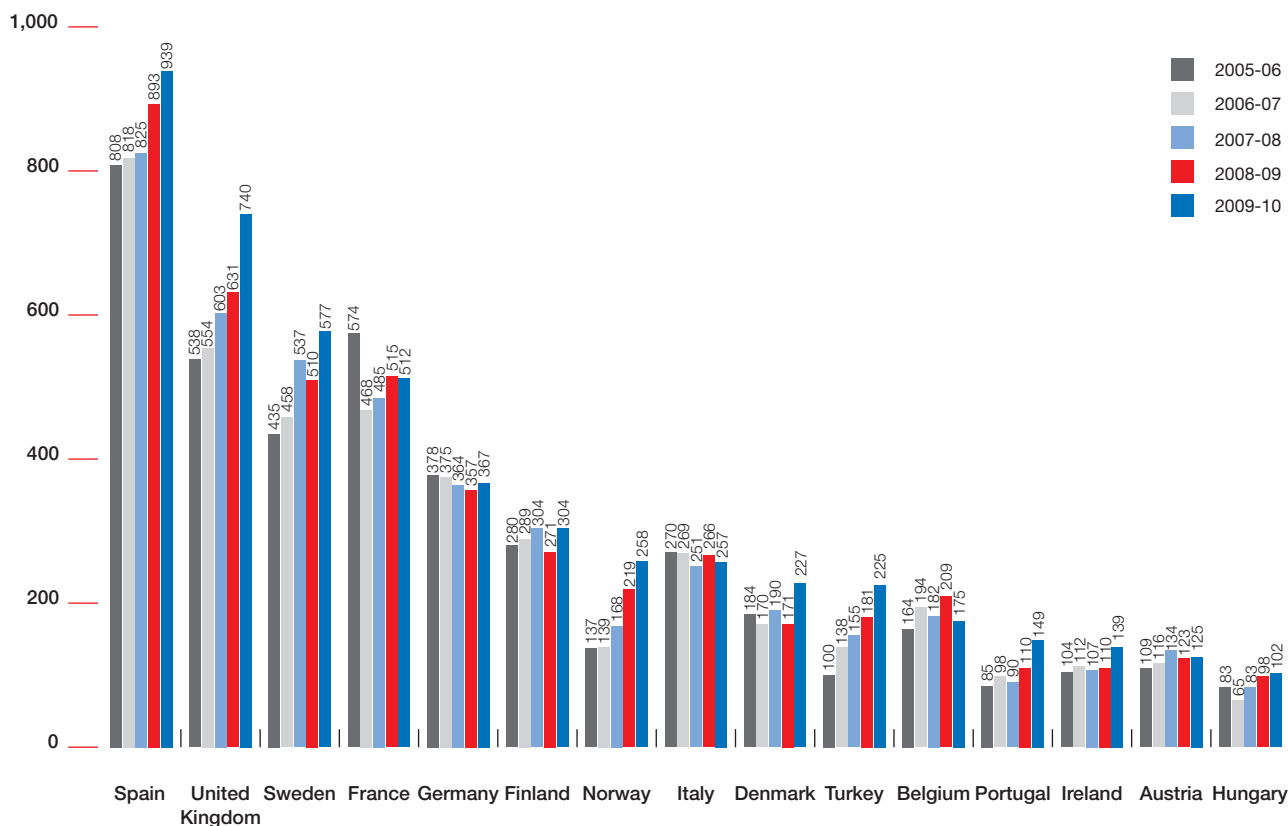
**Total Erasmus outbound and inbound mobility for study and work placements, 2005-2010**



Source: Nuffic, 2011

Diagram 50

**Erasmus destination countries, study programme (100 or more Erasmus students), 2005-2010**



Source: Nuffic, 2011



5

# Dutch mobility from an international perspective





This chapter places student mobility to and from the Netherlands in an international perspective. Developments worldwide have consequences for the position of the Netherlands in the international student market and for student flows from important countries and regions of origin. The chapter begins (in section 5.1) with a description of worldwide mobility patterns and the Netherlands' position in the world. Within this global context, section 5.2 analyses the mobility developments in the ten Nuffic Neso target countries and regions, i.e. the non-European countries and regions of origin that are most important to the Netherlands. Finally, we examine two specific forms of mobility: credit mobility (section 5.3) and the mobility of lecturers and researchers (section 5.4) to and from the Netherlands, in a European perspective.

# 5.1

## The Dutch position in the international student market

### 5.1.1 Global mobility patterns

The number of students studying abroad has grown strongly in the last two decades: according to UNESCO, the number went up from 1.7 million in 1994-95 to nearly 3.2 million in 2007-08, which represents 1.9% of all students in higher education the world over. One of the most important drivers of this growth is the arrival of the knowledge economy, resulting in global competition for knowledge and for highly trained personnel. Many countries have developed policy strategies to recruit knowledge workers and international students with a view to improving the international competitiveness of their economies.

The growth in international student mobility is set to continue across the world in the years ahead – despite the gradual expansion and rising quality of the supply of higher education in many emerging knowledge economies, allowing more students to participate in high-quality education at home. Neither does the recent economic crisis experienced in parts of the world appear to be stemming the growth, given the fact that local government authorities are unable to meet short-term demand. In 2007-08, half of all mobile students in the world went to five countries. The United States received the largest share, welcoming 19% of all international students worldwide; followed by the United Kingdom (10%), Germany, France and Australia (each accounting for 7%). Substantial numbers of international students also enrolled in institutions in Canada (6%), Russia (4%) and Japan (4%).

Because more and more countries actively recruit international students, the number of destination countries is increasing. Consequently, the percentage of the mobile student population being attracted by the major host countries is getting smaller (however, there may still be a rise in terms of absolute numbers). In 2006-07, half of the population went to only four host countries, instead of five.

Diagram 51 (see page 66)

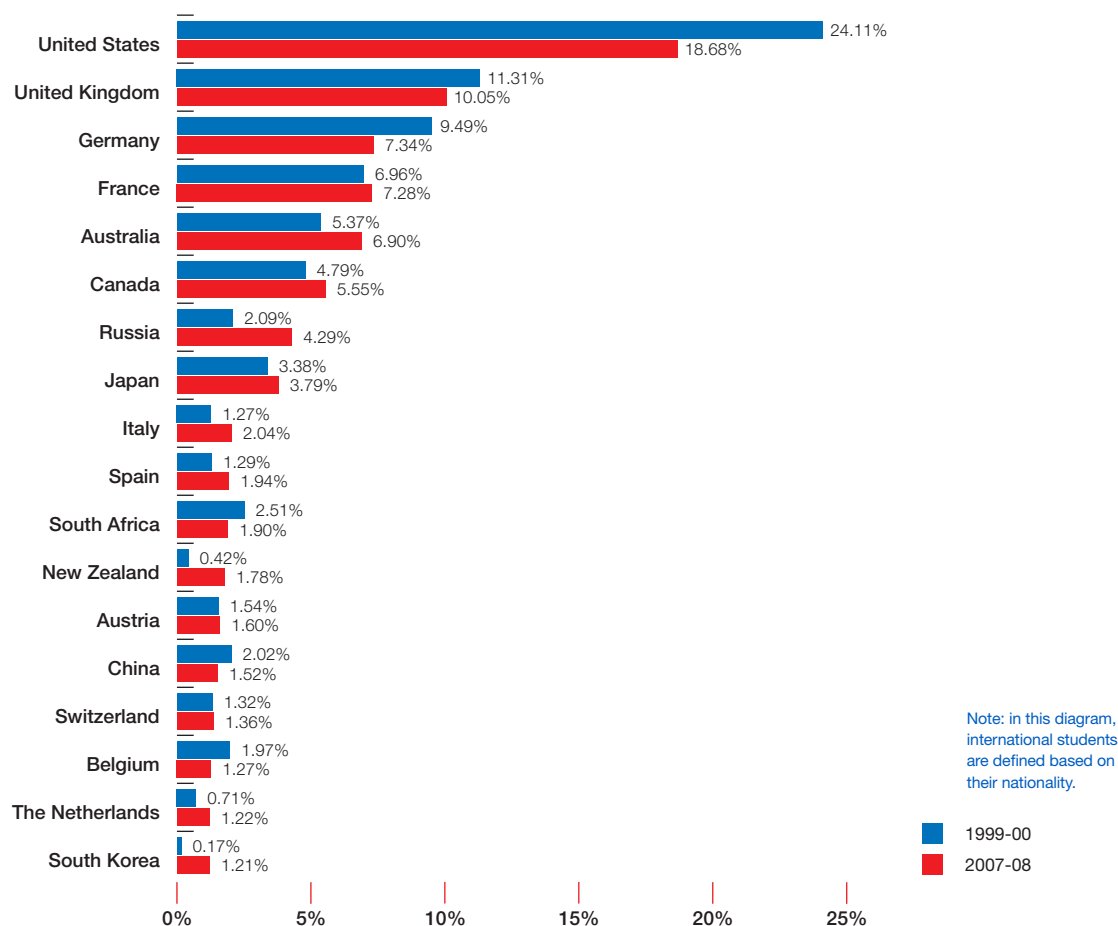
Worldwide in 2007-08, most international students came from China (which accounted for 15.3% of all international higher education students in the world), India (5.5%), South Korea (3.5%), Germany (2.8%), Turkey (2%), France (1.9%) and Russia (1.8%). Turkey and Russia did not yet appear in the list of the top-seven countries of origin in 2006-07.

Diagram 52 (see page 66)

Over the past decade, more and more students opted for another country within their own region. This regionalisation of international student mobility did not continue in 2007-08, however. As Diagram 53 shows, internal international mobility in the EU, East Asia and Central Asia fell in 2007-08 relative to 2006-07, while it remained stable in other regions. In 2007-08, 11.5% of all international mobile students worldwide had left one EU country to study in another. This means that internal international mobility within the EU approximately equalled that within East Asia, while in 2006-07 the EU clearly had higher levels of internal mobility than East Asia. Only 1.2% of

Diagram 51

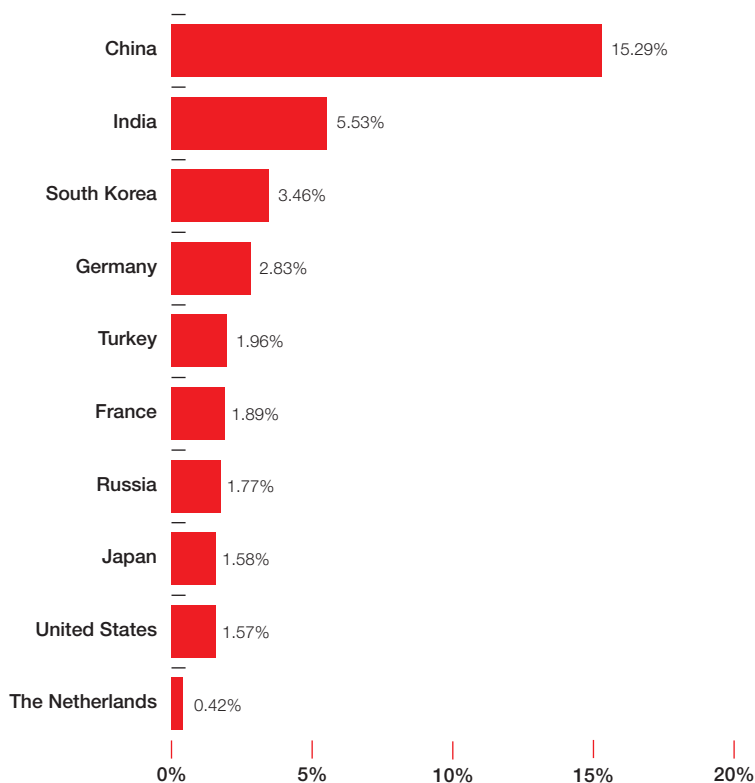
**Distribution of international students in higher education per destination country, 2007-08**



Source: OESO, EAG C2.7, 2011

Diagram 52

**Main countries of origin for international students worldwide, 2007-08**



Source: OECD, 2011

all international mobile students in the world left one North American country to study in another (i.e. from Canada to the US or vice versa).

Similarly in South and West Asia, only 0.1% of the world total was mobile within the region.

Diagram 53

The EU has a larger influx of international students than East Asia and North America (both with and without factoring in the internal international mobility – see Diagram 53). And yet the interest in studying in the EU is falling in relative terms: when compared with 2006-07, the proportion of total mobility that opted to go to EU countries (both from outside and from within the EU) fell by 3.7 percentage points. The share that chose to go to the United States and Canada fell in the same year but much less sharply, by 0.7%, while the proportion headed to countries in the other regions increased (primarily in non-EU Europe and the Middle East, but countries in East Asia and Latin America also saw an increase). We can conclude that the relative appeal of the EU as a study destination is declining in comparison with the rest of Europe, the Middle East, East Asia and Latin America.

East Asia still accounts for by far the highest outbound percentage of the total number of internationally mobile students worldwide, followed at some distance by South and West Asia. Compared with the previous year, however, only the proportion made up by the regional outflow from South and West Asia grew in 2007-08. By contrast, the proportion made

up by the regional outflow in all other regions referred to in Diagram 53 fell in 2007-08.

### 5.1.2 The position of the Netherlands

This chapter describes the position the Netherlands takes in the worldwide mobility patterns outlined above.

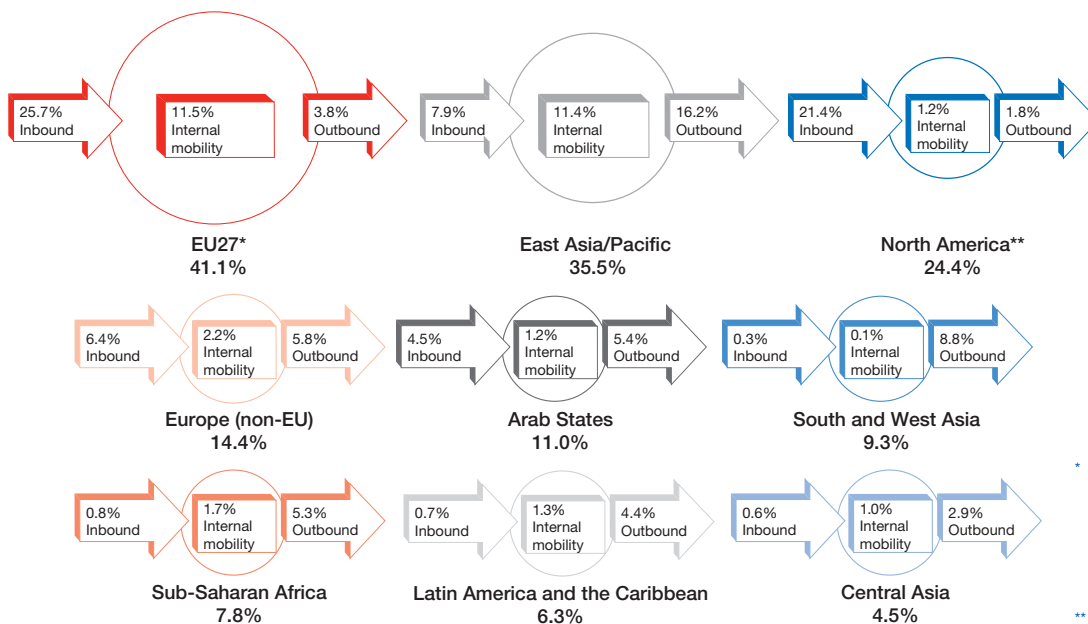
According to the OECD, 1.2% of all international students in 2007-08 came to the Netherlands (Diagram 51). That is 0.1 percentage point lower than the previous year, but still 0.5 percentage point higher than in 1999-2000. Although the Netherlands only receives a small portion of the global international student market – which portion moreover declined between 2006-07 and 2007-08 – the total number of international students in Dutch higher education between 2006-07 and 2007-08 still climbed by nearly 3,200.

Both in terms of international students in the Netherlands (6.8% of the national student population) and Dutch students abroad (2.7% of the national student population), the Netherlands came out below the average of twenty EU countries (8.1% and 3.0% respectively). Diagram 54 shows that the Netherlands receives a lower percentage of international students than, for example, Belgium, Sweden and Denmark. Since Sweden and Denmark have smaller student populations, the Netherlands still attracts more international students than these two countries despite the lower percentage.

Diagram 54 (see page 69)

Diagram 53

#### Inbound, internal and outbound mobility per region, in 2007-08



\* Of the 3.18 million mobile students worldwide in 2007-08, 25.7% actually entered the EU, 3.8% left the EU and 11.5% were mobile within the EU itself, representing a total of 41.1%.  
\*\* United States and Canada.

As Diagrams 54 and 55 show, the average percentage of international students in EU countries in 2007-08 was higher (8.1%) than the percentage of international students in the US (3.4%), Japan (3.2%) and China (0.2%). Also the percentage of non-EU students who come to the EU is higher, namely 5.3% (of the total student population in the EU countries concerned); see Diagram 55.

The average percentage of EU students who study in another (EU/non-EU) country is also clearly higher than the outbound percentages for China, Japan and the US. In absolute terms, the outbound mobility from 21 EU countries is approximately 13% larger than that from China and ten times larger than Japan and the United States. In terms of percentage, however, fewer EU students go to countries *outside* the EU than Chinese or Japanese students who leave their own countries to study abroad. In absolute numbers, the EU outbound mobility represents just a quarter of the Chinese outbound mobility. The EU outbound mobility is still more than twice the outbound mobility from Japan and the United States.

[Diagram 55 \(see page 70\)](#)

The number of diploma mobile students from the EU/EER who came to the Netherlands to study rose strongly between 1999-2000 and 2007-08 in comparison with other EU/EER countries, namely by 259% (see Diagram 56). This percentage is more than five times as high as the EU average. Denmark also experienced relatively high growth (although less marked as in the Netherlands) while the influx into Sweden fell. In the same period,

the number of Dutch students following an entire study programme in another EU/EER country rose by 39%. This growth percentage is however below the EU average.

The increase in the number of German students who went to another EU/EER country to embark on an entire study programme between 1999-2000 and 2007-08 is striking. It is likely that a large percentage of these additional outbound German mobile students came to the Netherlands. A recent brochure published by the Bundesagentur für Arbeit, Nordrhein-Westfalen lists six reasons why German students chose the Netherlands to study: proximity of the education institution, wider range of study programmes, better subject structure, no limited intake ('quota'), better learning environment (contact with lecturers, smaller groups, problem-based education) and a good quality of education.<sup>16</sup>

[Diagram 56 \(see page 71\)](#)

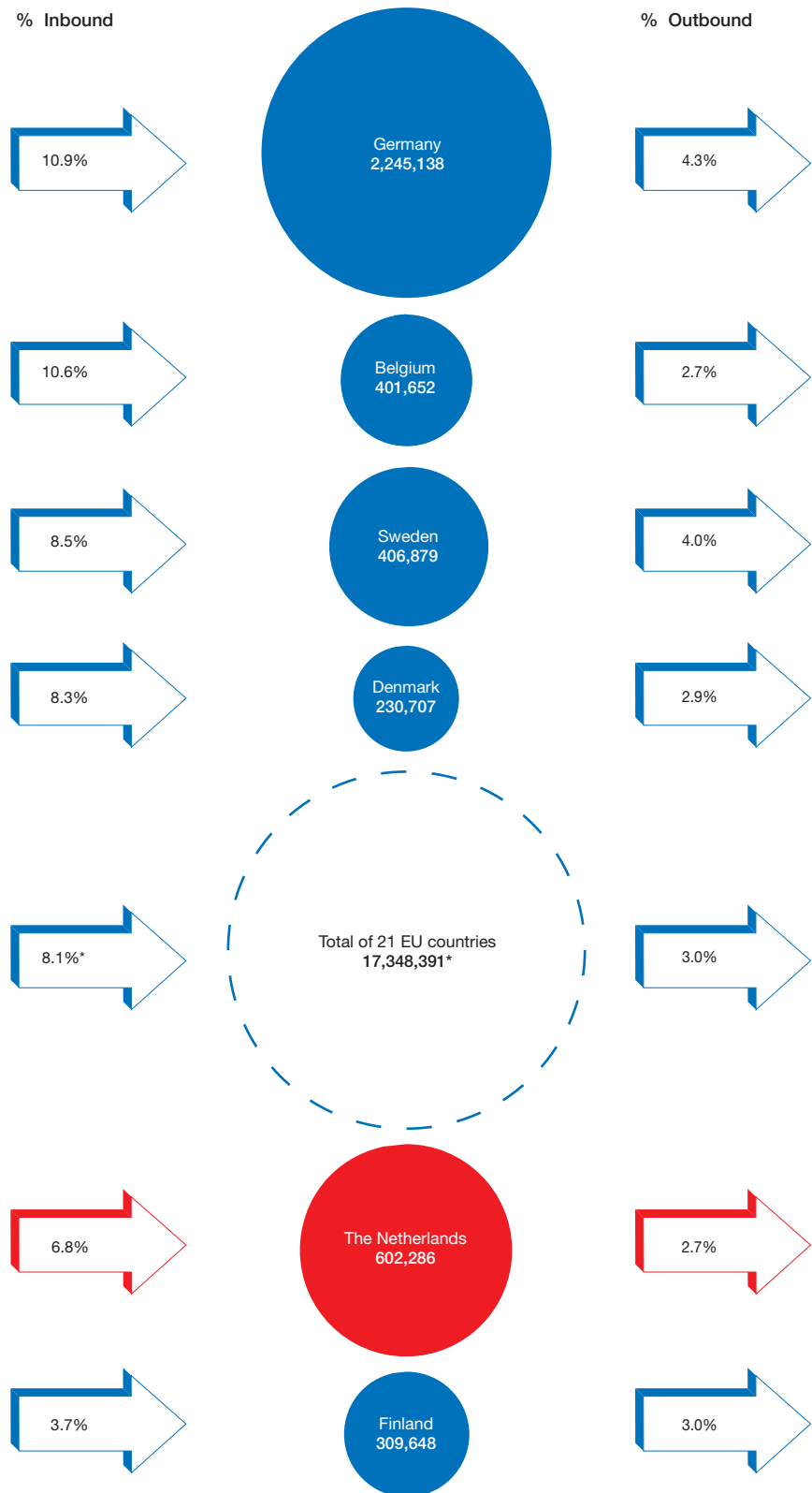
Compared with other EU countries, the Netherlands receives a relatively high percentage of international students from the EU and few from outside the EU (see diagram 57). In 2007-08, the percentage of international students from the EU in the Netherlands was three percentage points higher than in the previous year. The high percentage of inbound EU students to the Netherlands is mainly due to the high German influx to the Netherlands. Of the other EU countries only Luxembourg, the Czech Republic, Slovakia, Belgium and Austria receive a higher percentage of international EU students (as a

<sup>16</sup> Bundesagentur für Arbeit, Regionaldirektion Nordrhein-Westfalen. (2010). "Kom Langs!", Studieren in der Niederländische Grenzregion, Ausgabe 2010.



Diagram 54

**Diploma mobility to and from various countries, in relation to the total student population per country, 2007-08**



\* EU20 (excluding Luxembourg).



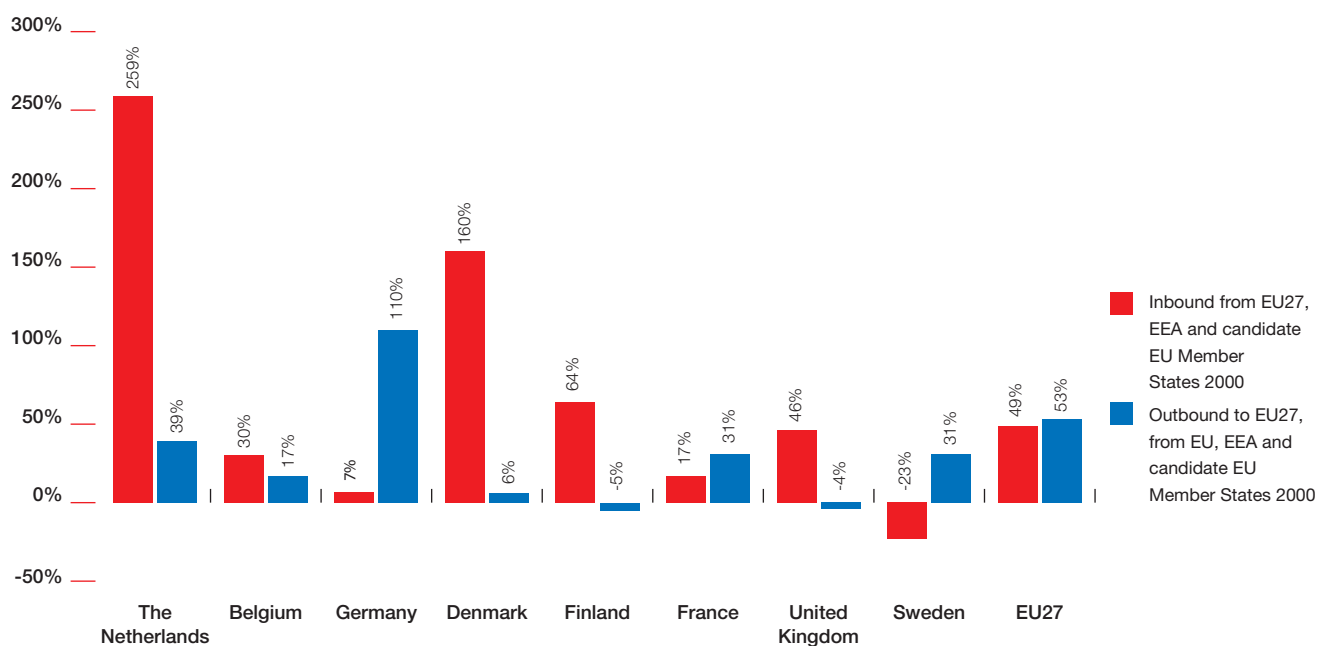
Diagram 55

**Diploma mobility to and from the EU, US, China and Japan, in relation to the total student population, per region, 2007-08**



Diagram 56

**Per country, inbound from other EU, EER and candidate EU countries and outbound to other EU, EER and candidate EU countries, development between 1999-2000 and 2007-08**



percentage of all international students in the relevant country). In all these cases, the international students primarily come from one or more neighbouring countries. (Also see Chapter 6.)

A number of countries, including Portugal, France, Spain and the United Kingdom, receive a relatively large number of students from outside the EU.

The main reason for this is that these countries attract many students from their former colonies, although the number of students arriving from Asia is also large and growing. It is also interesting to note that no less than two-thirds of the international students in Germany come from outside the EU, compared with just one third of the international students in the Netherlands.

Germany

is known around the world as the EU's most important economy and it enjoys a good reputation with respect to the quality of its education.

Furthermore, compared with the Netherlands, it is notable that Sweden, Finland and Denmark also attract more international students from outside the EU. Part of this mobility originates from nearby non-EU countries, such as Norway and Iceland. Another factor to take into account is that in 2007-08 Sweden and Finland had not yet implemented higher cost-covering tuition fees for non-EU students. Sweden will, however, be implementing higher fees from September 2011.

According to the first reports, this will result in a drop of 73% in enrolments of non-EU students in master's degree programmes.<sup>17</sup>

Diagram 57

In 2010 Dutch higher education institutions offered more than 1,500 English-taught programmes, including around 840 master's degree programmes. This puts the Netherlands ahead of Scandinavia and far ahead of other European countries (except for the United Kingdom, where English is the national language). The percentage of international students doing master's degree programmes is relatively low compared with, for example, Denmark, possibly because of the popularity of Dutch universities of applied sciences among international students.

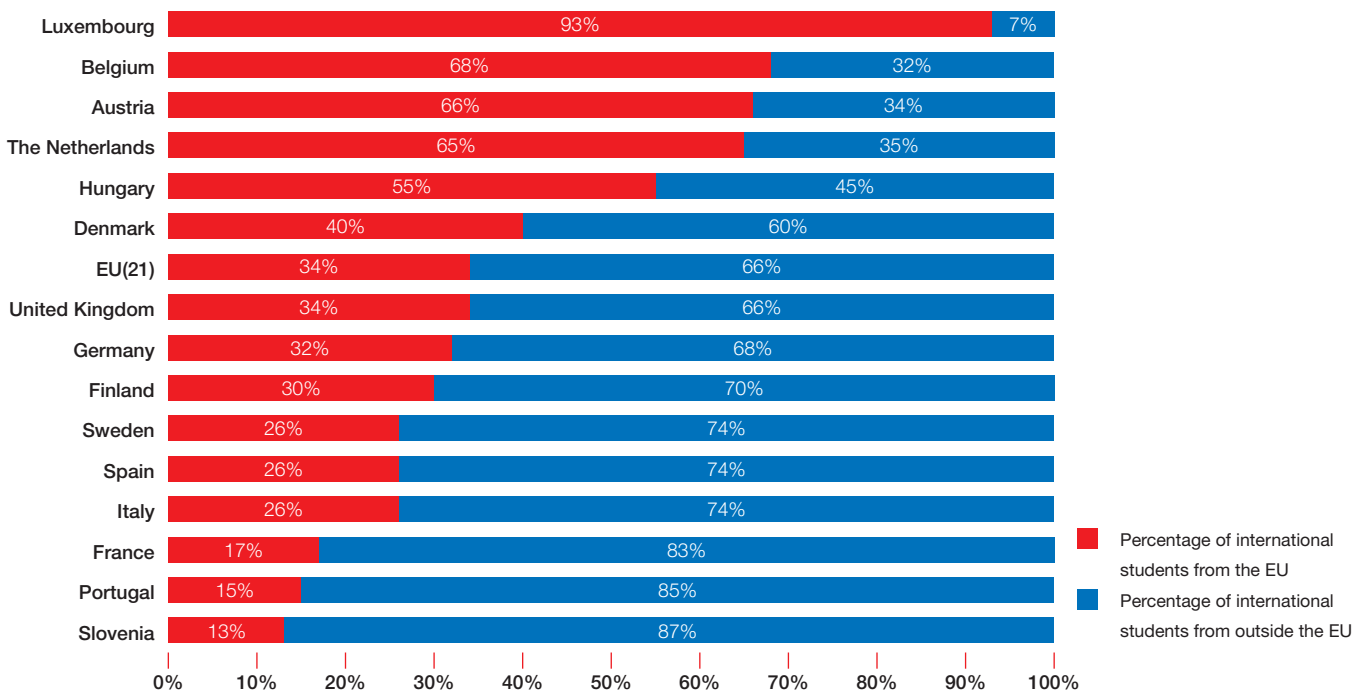
### Outbound diploma mobility

According to the OECD, the number of Dutch students doing an entire study programme abroad rose by more than 3,100 between 2003-04 and 2007-08. Expressed as a percentage of all Dutch students, this represents a rise from 2.4% to 2.7%. This is a low score for the Netherlands compared with other EU countries: outbound mobility is also 2.7% in Belgium, but in Denmark it was 2.9%, in Finland 3.0%, in Sweden 4.0% and in Germany 4.3%. Although the Dutch percentage approaches the European average (3.0%), it is still below that average, as is its score for inbound mobility. We should note here that a higher outbound diploma mobility score is not necessarily better than a lower score, since a high score can reflect shortcomings in a country's own education offering.

17 Myklebust, J.P. (2011). 'Sweden: Fees deter foreign applicants', in *University World News*, 26 January. URL: [www.universityworldnews.com/article.php?story=20110126202815208](http://www.universityworldnews.com/article.php?story=20110126202815208).

Diagram 57

### International inbound diploma mobility per country, from the EU, from outside the EU, 2007-08



The main destination countries for Dutch students are the United Kingdom, Belgium, the US and Germany, followed at a distance by France, New Zealand and Canada (Diagram 35, page 43). Sweden, which in previous years was still one of the top six destination countries, became far less popular among Dutch students in 2007-08 for reasons that are not clear.

In general, the Dutch destination countries correspond closely with the most popular destinations for students from Denmark, Sweden, Finland, Germany, Belgium and France. The most popular destinations for students from North West Europe are the United Kingdom, the US, Germany and two or three neighbouring countries.

Various countries, including the Netherlands, Belgium (Flanders), Norway, Sweden and Finland, allow students to take their 'national' student grants and loans with them abroad provided certain conditions are met. In principle, this makes the decision to study abroad easier. For an overview of the numbers of students studying abroad with Dutch government funding, see Section 3.2.1 on page 41. Regrettably, it is still too early to carry out a comparison of the effects of portable student grants and loans between the Netherlands and other countries.

# 5.2

## Developments in the Neso target countries and regions<sup>18</sup>

<sup>18</sup> Neso target countries and regions are countries and regions where Nuffic Neso offices and desks are established with the aim of promoting Dutch higher education. The Nuffic Nesos do this through generic promotion, encouraging cooperation between higher education institutions, conducting market research and facilitating Holland Alumni networks. The offices are located in Brazil, China, Indonesia, Mexico, Russia, Korea, Thailand and Vietnam. There are also two Nuffic Neso desks in India and one in Taipei (Taiwan). 'Neso' stands for Netherlands Education Support Offices and Desks.

Diagram 58

## Neso target countries/regions, an overview

NB.  
Data on the total Taiwanese higher education population is for 2009-10 (instead of 2007-08).

	Total population (2008-09)*	Total higher education population (2007-08)**	Portion of the higher education population studying abroad (2007-08)***	Portion of higher education students studying abroad, studying in the Netherlands (2007-08)***	Change in percentage of students from these countries studying in the Netherlands between 2006-07 and 2007-08***	Change in number studying in the Netherlands between 2006-07 and 2010-11****
China	1,338,612,968	26,692,000	432,559 (1.6%)	0.96%	-2%	29%
Taiwan	22,974,347	1,336,592	33,021 (2.5%)	0.91%	23%	9%
South Korea	48,508,972	3,204,000	112,153 (3.5%)	0.31%	11%	88%
Thailand	65,998,436	2,417,000	22,784 (0.9%)	0.96%	-1%	-26%
Vietnam	89,571,130	1,655,000	35,184 (2.1%)	1.07%	-37%	-20%
Indonesia	240,271,522	4,420,000	24,022 (0.5%)	5.54%	41%	-2%
India	1,156,897,766	14,863,000	171,881 (1.2%)	0.28%	0%	74%
Russia	140,041,247	9,446,000	43,240 (0.5%)	0.79%	7%	57%
Brazil	198,739,269	5,958,000	21,244 (0.4%)	0.97%	13%	70%
Mexico	111,211,789	2,623,000	24,253 (0.9%)	1.01%	10%	50%

## 5.2.1 Inbound and outbound mobility

In general, the Neso target countries and regions are characterised by young growing populations, an increasing demand for higher education and rising levels of prosperity that are enabling more students to study abroad. Many other countries also actively recruit students from the Neso target countries and regions (particularly from Brazil, Russia, India and China) since they form large and lucrative student markets.

There are large differences between the Neso target countries and regions in terms of the percentages of students who go abroad to study. With the exception of Indonesia and Thailand, the numbers of students from the Neso target countries and regions who travel abroad to study has risen since 2002-03. Based on residence permit data, the total number of students coming from the Neso target countries and regions to study in the Netherlands increased by more than 2,000 to 9,894 between 2006-07 and 2010-11 (see Diagrams 29 and 30 for exact Neso data on outbound students to the Netherlands). Diagram 59 shows the most important destination countries for students from Neso target countries and regions.

Diagram 59

## 5.2.2 China

The number of Chinese students enrolling for the first time in higher education has been falling since 2008. This trend can be expected to continue for the coming decade. And yet the number of Chinese students going abroad to study may

still rise in the years ahead, as current Chinese government policy aims to increase the number of Chinese students studying abroad. This policy is being supported with national study grants.

At the same time, China, now the world's second economy, is seriously elevating its international profile as a study destination for international students. In 2009, more than 223,000 international students travelled to China to study, 36% of whom pursued a study programme that would eventually lead to a diploma. The top three countries of origin for international students in China are South Korea, the US and Japan.

China places a strong emphasis on institutional international cooperation in higher education, and has signed agreements for educational cooperation (including student exchanges) with more than 20 Asian countries and more than 40 European countries. The Chinese government stimulates cooperative alliances with foreign universities that rank high in international lists.

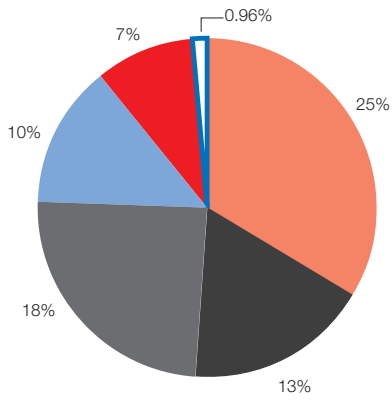
In 2007-08, nearly 16% of all internationally mobile students worldwide came from China (UNESCO data). The five countries that attracted the most Chinese students are the US (which received 25% of all Chinese students), Japan (18%), Australia (13%), the United Kingdom (10%) and South Korea (7%).

While the US remains the most popular international study destination for Chinese students, according to UNESCO the percentage of

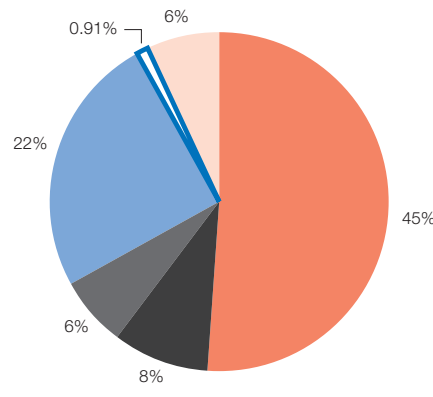


Diagram 59

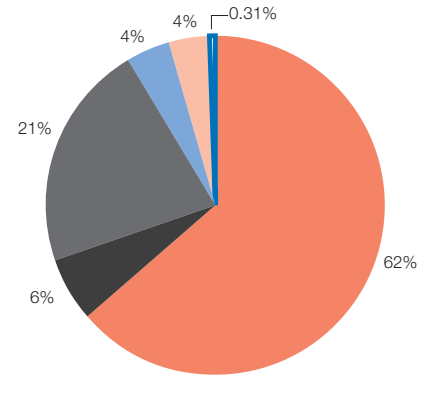
**The most popular destinations of outbound students from the Neso target countries / regions, and the Netherlands, 2007-08**



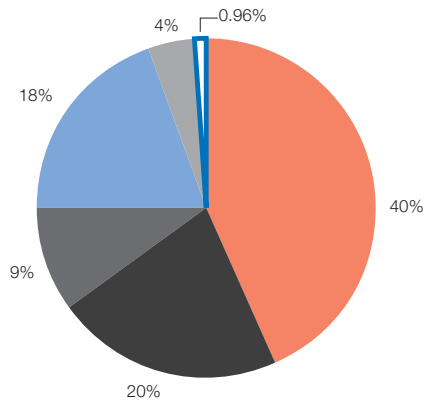
China



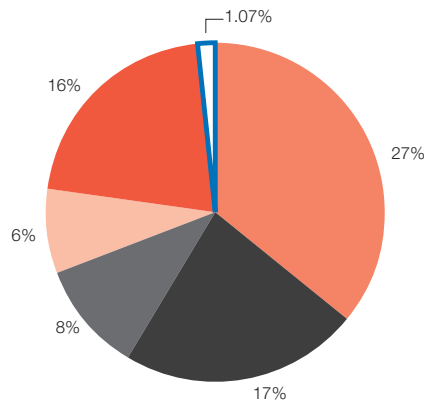
Taiwan



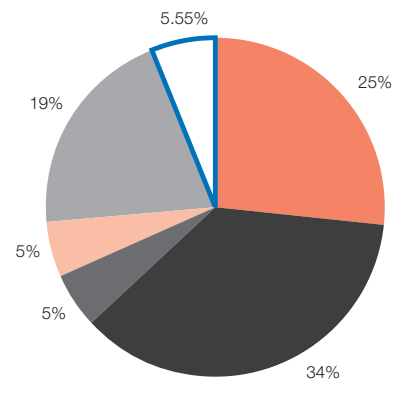
South Korea



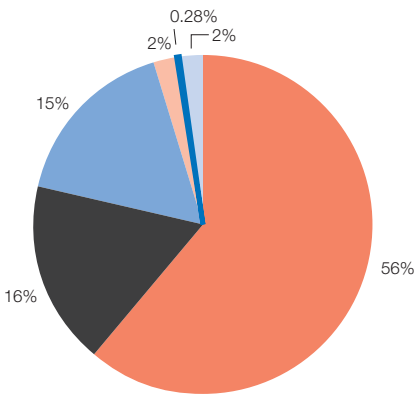
Thailand



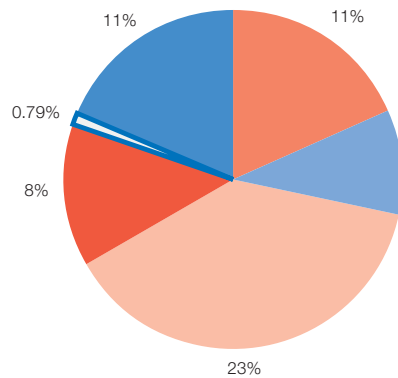
Vietnam



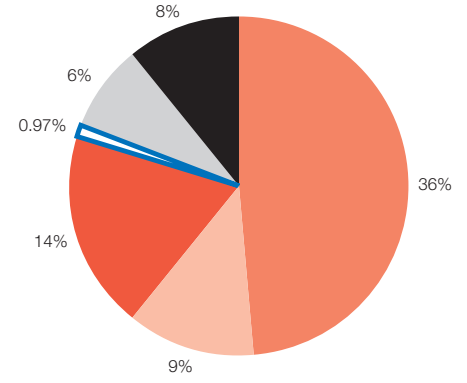
Indonesia



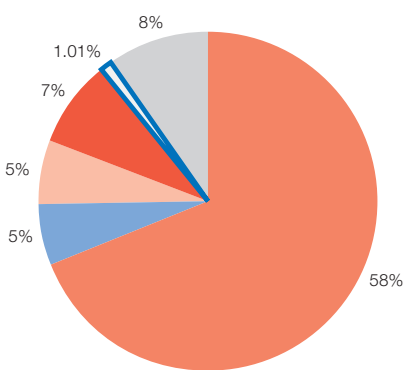
India



Russia



Brazil



Mexico

- United States
- Australia
- Japan
- United Kingdom
- South Korea
- Germany
- France
- Malaysia
- Ukraine
- New Zealand
- Spain
- Portugal
- Canada
- The Netherlands

Chinese studying in the US fell from 38% in 1998-99 to 32% in 2006-07 and 25% in 2007-08. The absolute number of Chinese students in the US in this period did rise however. On the other hand, Japan, South Korea and (to a lesser degree) Australia received a growing proportion of Chinese students between 2006-07 – an interesting development and an example of the regionalisation of international student mobility in South East Asia in that year.

In 2007-08, 1% of all Chinese students studying abroad were enrolled in a study programme in the Netherlands. This is more or less the same percentage as in the year before.

### 5.2.3 Taiwan

Owing to falling population growth, Taiwan does not have enough students to fill the country's higher education institutions. The Taiwanese government actively promotes both outbound and inbound student mobility. Outbound mobility is stimulated through low-interest student loans, with a strong emphasis on sending students to prestigious universities in the US. The aim is to appoint these students, after they return, to positions in Taiwanese higher education where the knowledge they have gained will help place Taiwanese universities among the world's best.

In 2007, the last year for which the Taiwanese Ministry of Education published figures, more than 33,000 Taiwanese students studied abroad.<sup>19</sup> The five most popular study destinations were the US (where 45% of internationally mobile Taiwanese

students studied), the United Kingdom (22%), Australia (8%), Japan (7%) and Canada (6%). One reason for the popularity of the US, the United Kingdom and Australia is that many Taiwanese have relatives in these countries. Of all Taiwanese students studying abroad in 2008, 0.9% came to the Netherlands.

The popularity of Japan, Germany and France as study destinations for Taiwanese students grew relatively strongly between 2001 and 2008. This period also saw an annual increase in the number of Taiwanese students coming to the Netherlands. In 2010, the IND issued 303 student residence permits to Taiwanese students.

Since 2010, the Taiwanese government has recognised Chinese diplomas (and vice versa), making it potentially more attractive for Taiwanese students to go to mainland China to study. This development, together with the low language barrier and the close economic ties between the two countries, may result in greater student mobility from Taiwan to China.

### 5.2.4 South Korea

According to UNESCO, the number of South Koreans who studied abroad more than quadrupled between 2003-04 and 2007-08. Although population growth in South Korea is falling and the country has a surplus of private higher education institutions, demand for opportunities to study abroad remains steady. South Korean higher education policy is itself strongly focused on recruiting top-class students

<sup>19</sup> Ministry of Education, Republic of China (Taiwan). (2008). *Numbers of Students Obtaining Student Visas from Foreign nations between 1998 and 2007*. URL: <http://english.moe.gov.tw/ct.asp?xItem=9354&ctNode=1184&mp=1>.



and researchers from outside the country. The nation is investing heavily in increasing accommodation for international students, induction programmes and helping international students to find work after studying in South Korea.

The most popular study destinations are the US (where 62% of all internationally mobile South Korean students study), Japan (21%), Australia (6%), the United Kingdom (4%) and Germany (4%). Other European countries that receive a larger percentage of South Korean students than the Netherlands are France (0.9%), Austria (0.8%) and Russia (0.6%).

In 2007-08, the Netherlands hosted only 0.3% of all South Koreans studying abroad (this was 0.2% in 2006). Based on residence permit data, the number of South Korean students in the Netherlands has risen by 88% since 2006 (to 542 students in 2010-11).

In 2009, a large majority of South Korean students in the Netherlands were enrolled in bachelor's degree programmes.

### **5.2.5 Thailand**

According to UNESCO, 1% of all Thai students studied outside Thailand in 2007-08. The five main study destinations for Thai students are the US (where 40% of all internationally mobile Thai students study), Australia (20%), the United Kingdom (18%), Japan (9%) and Malaysia (4%). Between 1998-99 and 2007-08,

Australia, the United Kingdom and Japan in particular were able to increase their share of the Thai student market. Malaysia and China are also growing in popularity as study destinations for Thai students. This is at the expense of the market share of the US, which shrank in the same period from 58% to 40%.

Of all Thai students abroad in 2007-08, 1% studied in the Netherlands. The Dutch market share was therefore the same as it had been in 2006-07. Because fewer Thai students went abroad to study, the number of Thai students coming to the Netherlands fell, from 237 in 2006-07 to 219 in 2007-08. Following a recovery after 2007-08, the number of residence permits issued fell to 175 in 2010-11.

The number of double-degree and international study programmes being offered in Thailand itself is growing. The former may lead to a modest increase in the number of Thai students studying abroad for a period, while the latter actually offers Thai students more opportunities to pursue a study programme at home instead of heading overseas.

### **5.2.6 Vietnam**

With a population of 85 million, a large percentage of whom are below the age of 30, there is huge demand for higher education in Vietnam. Between 2006 and 2010, 22 new universities were founded in the country, allowing greater numbers of Vietnamese students to pursue study programmes at home. On the other hand, demand for foreign higher education remains high because few study



programmes are offered in some fields of study and the quality of the programmes is not always high. Furthermore, the growing prosperity of the country's middle class means more Vietnamese can afford to study abroad. According to UNESCO, the number of Vietnamese students studying abroad increased dramatically between 2003-04 and 2007-08, from 15,817 to 32,727. The Netherlands has not benefited from this growth in recent years.

According to UNESCO, fewer than two per cent of all Vietnamese students study abroad. The most popular study destinations are the US (which receives 27% of all Vietnamese students who study abroad), Australia (17%), France (16%), Japan (8%) and Germany (6%).

In 2007-08, the Netherlands accounted for 1.1% of all Vietnamese students studying abroad, which marks a considerable fall compared with 2005-06 when 2.4% of all internationally mobile Vietnamese students were to be found in the Netherlands. Because far greater numbers of Vietnamese students went abroad to study in that period, the actual fall in number was relatively limited, down to 377 in 2007-08. Since 2007-08 the number of Vietnamese students has remained reasonably constant.

### **5.2.7 Indonesia**

Indonesia has a large, young and growing population and an increasing gross domestic product, creating a huge demand for higher education.

In recent years, the Indonesian Ministry of National Education has made the DIKTI student grants, which were originally intended to enable Indonesian teachers to pursue master's degree programmes abroad, available to PhD candidates, post-doctoral positions and visiting scholars. In 2008, the Netherlands was the fifth most important destination country for beneficiaries of DIKTI student grants. In 2009, almost 100 Indonesian students received a DIKTI grant to study in the Netherlands.

For several years now, the Indonesian government has supported international cooperation between Indonesian and foreign higher education institutions with scholarship programmes in order to increase the number of double-degree and twinning programmes. The government has also launched a scholarship programme to enable talented Indonesian students to pursue an Indonesian-international double-degree programme. While, on the one hand, this may stimulate more Indonesians to study abroad for a period, on the other, it may encourage more Indonesians to pursue part of a study programme – instead of the entire study programme – abroad. The increase in the number of study programmes run jointly by Indonesian and foreign partner institutions may also result in greater student mobility to Indonesia itself – between 2004 and 2008 the number of international students in Indonesia increased eightfold from 377 to 3,023.

Of all Indonesian students, 0.7% studied abroad. The five main destination countries



for Indonesian students are Australia (which receives 34% of all Indonesians studying abroad), the US (25%), Malaysia (19%), Germany (5%) and Japan (5%). The US and the United Kingdom remain important study destinations for Indonesian students, but tough visa requirements in the US and the high exchange rate of the British pound have made these two countries somewhat less popular in the past two years. The US remains popular, however, and this popularity may grow in the years ahead as the US is currently investing in continued cooperation in higher education with Indonesia.

Australia and Singapore are also popular destinations for Indonesian students, primarily due to the proximity of these countries, the presence of relatively large groups of Indonesians working there, and the fact that both countries offer opportunities for obtaining permanent residence permits. In addition, the number of Indonesian students opting for a bachelor's degree programme in Malaysia and China is growing. Malaysia is attractive for Indonesians because of similarities in language and culture, lower tuition fees than in western countries and the large number of study programmes offered by British and Australian universities in Malaysia.

Of all Indonesians who studied abroad in 2007-08, 5.5% studied in the Netherlands, a rise of 1% relative to 2005-06. Residence permit data shows that the number of Indonesian students in the Netherlands has fluctuated since 2005. The current number of Indonesian students

enrolled at higher education institutions in the Netherlands (1,182 in 2010-11) is slightly lower than in 2006. According to UNESCO data, the number of Indonesians who studied abroad fell by approximately 1,400 to 30,286 between the 2003-04 and 2007-08 academic years. The percentage of all Indonesian students in higher education studying abroad also fell slightly in this period, from 0.9% in 2004 to 0.7% in 2007-08.

## 5.2.8 India

For many countries that actively recruit international students, India is a country with a great deal of potential: as half of India's population is younger than 25, the demand for higher education is set to grow massively. Some of this demand may be absorbed by new universities to be established in India itself. In the next ten years, the Indian government hopes to build more than 30,000 colleges and 800 to 900 universities to meet the growing demand for higher education.

Furthermore it is possible that within the next year the Indian parliament will approve the Foreign Universities Bill, which will allow foreign institutions to offer study programmes in India. Foreign study programmes of this kind can accommodate part of the demand for higher education in India and encourage more Indian students to pursue their education at home. In the short to mid-term, however, the demand for higher education in India will be higher than the supply. This means that the number of Indian students studying abroad over the next few years may grow significantly.



According to UNESCO, 5.5% of all internationally mobile students worldwide come from India and this percentage is climbing. Nevertheless, the percentage of all Indian students studying abroad was still as low as 1% in 2007-08, and remained virtually unchanged between 2003-04 and 2007-08. According to UNESCO, the number of Indian students studying abroad between 2003-04 and 2007-08 rose by 46,000 to 171,881.

The top five international study destinations chosen by Indian students are as follows: the US (which receives no less than 56% of all Indians studying abroad), Australia (16%) the United Kingdom (15%), New Zealand (2%) and Germany (2%). The US and the United Kingdom are popular among Indian students owing to their familiarity with these countries and because large Indian communities live there. As a result of a number of incidents (including attacks on Indian students) in Australia in June 2009, the number of Indian students studying in Australia and outside India in general has fallen.

Based on IND residence permit data, the number of Indian students in the Netherlands has risen continuously, by nearly 75% since 2005-06. And yet only 0.3% of all Indian students who left their country in 2007-08 to pursue studies abroad made their way to the Netherlands (compared with 0.24% in 2005-06).

### **5.2.9 Russia**

Due to a downward demographic trend, the Russian government has announced closures

and mergers of mainly regional higher education institutions. The number of Russian students studying abroad did however increase between 2003-04 and 2007-08, from 33,706 to 43,240. Of Russia's student population, 0.5% studied abroad in 2007-08 (UNESCO).

The top five international destinations for Russian students are Germany (which receives 23% of all international mobile Russian students), the US (11%), Ukraine (11%), France (8%) and the United Kingdom (6%).

Of all Russian students studying abroad in 2007-08, 0.8% studied in the Netherlands. This is a small rise relative to the year before. Residence permit data from the IND shows that the number of Russian students in the Netherlands has risen from 342 in 2007-08 to nearly 500 in 2010-11.

### **5.2.10 Brazil**

According to UNESCO, only 0.4% of all Brazilian students were pursuing studies outside their own country in 2007-08, a drop of 0.1 percentage point relative to 2003-04. At the same time, the number of Brazilian students studying abroad climbed between 2003-04 and 2007-08 by almost 3,300 to 21,244. Nearly 90% of this growth took place between 2005-06 and 2007-08. However, with a population of around 178 million, a large and growing young population, economic progress and higher labour market expectations, Brazil is a potentially important source country for international students.



The Brazilian government stimulates international credit mobility and Brazilian higher education institutions are increasingly open toward internationalisation.

The five most popular international study destinations for Brazilians are the US, France, Portugal, Germany and Spain. No less than 36% of all Brazilians studying abroad study in the US; however, this country's dominant position is declining. Relatively large numbers of Brazilians also study in France (14%), Portugal (8%) and Spain (6%), all three of which have a Latin language and culture, just as Brazil. Nine per cent of internationally mobile Brazilians study in Germany, a relatively high percentage, which can be partly explained by the excellent international reputation of the German universities and the presence of a fairly large German immigrant population in Brazil.

Of all Brazilian students studying abroad in 2007-08, 1% studied in the Netherlands. This is 0.2 percentage point more than two years previously. According to residence permit data from the IND, the number of Brazilian students in the Netherlands has risen every year in the past four years, from 174 in 2006-07 to almost 300 in 2010-11. However, this probably does not reflect the real (higher) total as many Brazilian students in the Netherlands hold a second – often European – passport which they use when registering. These students also pay the standard tuition fees.

### 5.2.11 Mexico

According to UNESCO data, just one per cent of all Mexican students studied abroad in 2007-08, a percentage that has remained stable since 2003-04. This low percentage is probably due in part to limited financial resources. The number of Mexican students studying abroad climbed however by almost 3,800 to 25,444 between 2004 and 2008. The country is experiencing rapid growth among the population that is of higher education age.

Of the Mexicans who travel abroad to study, as many as 58% go to their northern neighbour, the US, where many Mexicans have relatives. Smaller groups of Mexicans study in Europe, South America and Australia. Asia is not a popular destination for Mexican students. While Europe is growing in popularity as a study destination for Mexicans, the expensive euro is causing mobility to Europe to be lower than might otherwise be expected. Spain, which receives 8% of all Mexican students studying abroad, remains the second most popular study destination among Mexicans owing to the low language and cultural barriers. In addition, relatively high percentages of Mexican students can be found in France (7%), the United Kingdom (5%) and Germany (5%). Between 2006-07 and 2007-08, the United Kingdom became less popular as a study destination: according to UNESCO the number of Mexican students in the country fell by 1.5 percentage points.

One percent of all Mexican students studying abroad in 2007-08 studied in the Netherlands, which is 0.1 percentage point more than two years previously. IND residence permit data shows that the number of Mexican students in the Netherlands has grown year on year between 2006-07 and 2010-11, from 226 to 338.

Mexican higher education institutions are increasing their international focus and the Mexican Secretary of State for Higher Education has urged rectors of Mexican higher education institutions to encourage their students to gain international experience. This may result in a growth in the number of students going abroad for their studies.

### **5.2.12 Implications**

As a result of the growing demand for higher education, economic progress in a number of regions and an insufficient supply of higher education in various Neso target countries, the number of students from these countries going abroad to study is expected to grow strongly over the next few years.

At the same time, the number of countries competing to recruit students from the Neso target countries is increasing, and there are several Neso target countries in Asia that will be actively pursuing their own policies to attract international students to their own higher education institutions. Furthermore, there is a gradual trend worldwide toward the regionalisation of international student mobility, with growing numbers of students opting to study in countries in their own regions. If this

trend continues, it may become more difficult in the long term for the Netherlands (and many other European countries) to recruit students from beyond Europe's borders.

It looks as though the years ahead will provide good opportunities for Dutch higher education institutions to recruit more students from the Neso target countries. With study programmes of high quality and interesting work placement opportunities, the Netherlands has much to offer international students. A major contribution can also be made here by fostering collaboration among institutions.





5.3

Credit mobility

There are no regular, annually-updated key figures available on credit mobility that would enable the Netherlands to be viewed in a wider context. International comparative studies are carried out now and then, however, which can serve as a reference. Launched in 2000, one of these studies is the EUROSTUDENT project, in which students are asked, among other things, about their international experience during their studies. This may involve part of the study programme, a work placement or language training abroad, both outside and inside the European Higher Education Area. This survey is now conducted in twenty countries and has been carried out three times: in 2000, 2005 and 2008. Of all Dutch students who attended part of their study programme abroad in 2007-08, 62% carried out a work placement, 22% studied and 17% combined studying with a work placement.

#### **Erasmus inbound and outbound**

The European Commission estimates that approximately 4% of all European students study or take up work placements abroad via the Erasmus programme at some point during their studies.<sup>20</sup>

The number of inbound Erasmus students in all 31 countries who participated in the Erasmus programme increased in 2008-09 relative to 2007-08. Spain, France and Germany received the largest numbers of Erasmus students.

Of all Erasmus countries, the outbound Erasmus student mobility (in absolute numbers) was highest in France, Germany and Spain.

Diagram 60 shows the extent to which the outbound and inbound Erasmus populations deviate from our expectations based on the total number of people in education in the relevant country. The countries referred to in Diagram 60 actively participate in the Erasmus programme and, generally speaking, their Erasmus outbound and inbound figures are larger than might be expected given the sizes of their student populations. This is not the case with the Swedish outflow, which lags behind the proportion of the Swedish education population of the total education population in the Erasmus countries. In general, the inflow in the countries referred to in Diagram 60 is greater than the outflow. Exceptions are Germany, where the outflow is larger than the inflow, and Belgium, where the inflow and outflow of Erasmus students is in balance. In terms of Erasmus inbound mobility, the Danes – just as the previous year – score the highest in relation to their student population and the Germans the lowest. As regards outbound mobility, the Belgians top the list while the Swedes have the lowest score. This was also the case last year.

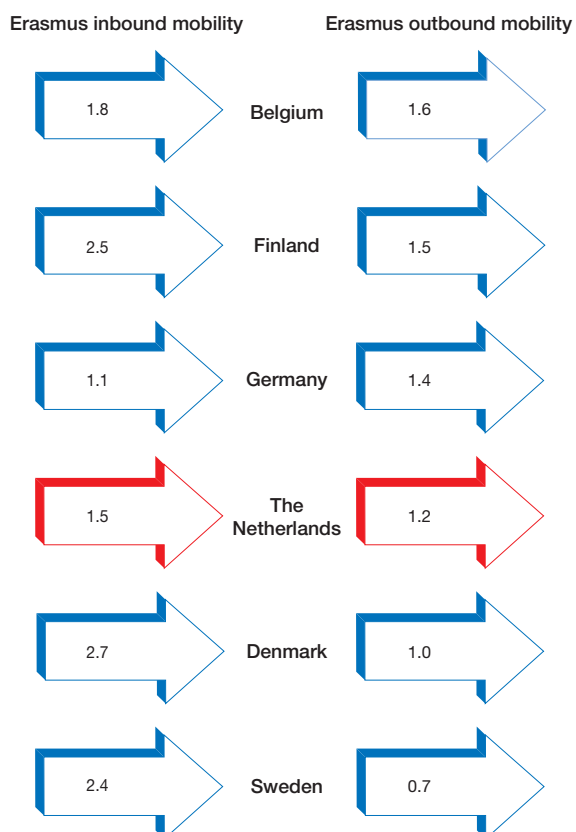
Diagram 60 (see page 88)

<sup>20</sup> European Commission. (2010). *The Erasmus Programme 2008/2009: A statistical overview*. URL: <http://ec.europa.eu/education/erasmus/doc/stat/report0809.pdf>.



Diagram 60

**Share of outbound and inbound Erasmus populations among the total Erasmus population in relation to the national student population share out of the total student population (in Erasmus countries), 2007-08**



Note: a value higher than one for outbound mobility, for instance, means that the share of outbound Erasmus students is larger than would be anticipated based on the total number of people in education.



# 5.4

## Lecturer and researcher mobility

## 5.4.1 Mobility to the Netherlands

According to the European *London Communiqué* (2007), the mobility of researchers and lecturers, like student mobility, is considered to play an important role in the development of the European Higher Education Area. Unfortunately, there is little data available on staff mobility to the Netherlands, either with respect to doctoral candidates, lecturers or other members of staff. A number of other countries, including Denmark, Germany and the United Kingdom, do supply some of this data.

Of the data that is available, general data from the Association of Universities in the Netherlands (VSNU) indicates that 41% of the doctoral candidates employed by Dutch universities in 2009 had a foreign nationality (this equals 3,380 foreign doctoral candidates). This is 10% more than in 2005 (see Diagram 61). Comparable data from other countries is scarcely available.

Diagram 61

The VSNU does not release detailed figures about the countries of origin of foreign doctoral candidates in the Netherlands. However, a study of doctoral candidates at four Dutch universities, which was published by Utrecht University and Erasmus University Rotterdam in 2010, estimates that most foreign doctoral candidates in the Netherlands come from Western Europe, Asia and Eastern Europe.<sup>21</sup> The good reputations of the universities and professors was often the reason foreign doctoral candidates chose the

Netherlands. According to the study, foreign doctoral candidates in the Netherlands are primarily to be found in the agricultural, natural and engineering sciences.

Centralised data on lecturer mobility to (and from) the Netherlands is only supplied by EUROSTAT. The number of lecturers in higher education who came to work in the Netherlands for a short period of time via an Erasmus exchange between 2000-01 and 2008-09 rose from 499 to 767 (in the final year alone there was an increase of 52 inbound Erasmus teachers). With this number of inbound Erasmus lecturers, the Netherlands falls within the lower middle bracket of EU+EER countries. Total staff mobility that takes place via the Erasmus programme remains relatively small, but it has been growing (in all Erasmus countries) since 2001 by an average of 7% per year.<sup>22</sup> In 2008-09, the largest group of foreign Erasmus lecturers in the Netherlands were from the United Kingdom followed by Germany, Belgium, Spain and Poland. Compared with the previous year, the Netherlands has become more popular with Erasmus lecturers from the United Kingdom and less popular with Erasmus lecturers from Turkey, which ranked second last year.

## 5.4.2 Knowledge migration to the Netherlands

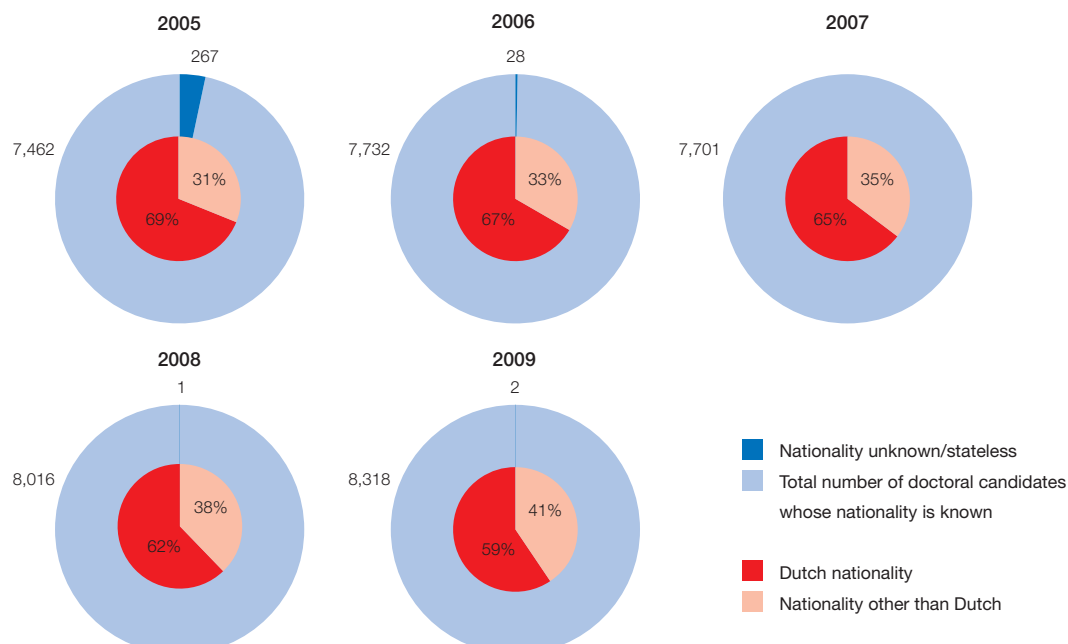
The Dutch government has set itself the goal of securing a place for the Netherlands in the top five innovative economies (at the time of writing it had not yet been announced when this ambition is to be achieved). Training and attracting knowledge

21 Sonneveld, H., Yerkes, M. & Schoot, R. van de. (2010). *Ph.D. trajectories and labour market mobility: A survey of recent doctoral recipients at four universities in the Netherlands*. Utrecht: Netherlands Centre for Graduate and Research Schools.

22 EUROSTAT. (2009). *The Bologna Process in Higher Education in Europe: Key indicators on the social dimension and mobility*. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities. URL: [www.eurostudent.eu/download\\_files/documents/KS-78-09-653-EN.pdf](http://www.eurostudent.eu/download_files/documents/KS-78-09-653-EN.pdf).

Diagram 61

### Doctoral candidates employed by the universities, expressed in numbers of persons and percentages with Dutch and non-Dutch nationality, 2005–2009



workers is one way of achieving this ambition, since countries with strong knowledge bases are more successful in competing economically worldwide. According to the 'Knowledge Economy Monitor 2010' (*Kennis Economie Monitor 2010*),<sup>23</sup> the Netherlands now ranks eighth.

No data exists with which to calculate and compare reliable net migration figures for inbound and outbound knowledge migrants for different countries. As described in *Mapping Mobility 2010*, the results of research into the attractiveness of the Netherlands for knowledge workers do not present a uniform picture.<sup>24</sup> We can however relate the developments in Dutch policy that may influence knowledge migration.

Between 2007 and 2009, the Netherlands has made working in the country even more attractive for knowledge workers – and for scientists in particular. Since 2007, international students have been allowed to stay in the Netherlands for a year after completing their studies in order to find a suitable job, and since January 2009 highly qualified foreigners have been able to obtain a residence permit for a maximum of one year to find a job as a knowledge migrant in the Netherlands or to start up an innovative business.

Whether the Netherlands will actually be among the top-five innovative knowledge economies in the world will depend on a number of factors.

For example, post-doctoral positions are under threat due to cutbacks. Funding for research is

falling and research groups will probably have to be closed at a number of universities. Outside higher education, too, important research positions at companies and research institutes may be lost. These measures contrast with policy in Germany, France and Spain, where the governments have decided that additional investment in research is needed exactly in times of economic crisis. This view is based on the idea that investment in research is a means of stimulating long-term economic growth, corporate investment and employment.

Furthermore, the new coalition government has raised a number of barriers for migrants who wish to come to the Netherlands or who are already here. Although a number of exceptions are in place for persons with a 'diploma' or 'employable competencies', it has become more difficult for foreign knowledge workers, for example, to have their families join them in the Netherlands. The current government's plans for a stringent migration policy (status as in March 2011) could deter knowledge workers from coming to the Netherlands, an effect currently also observed in Denmark.

### 5.4.3 Mobility from the Netherlands

Outbound Erasmus mobility grew in popularity among Dutch lecturers in 2008-09. According to EUROSTAT, 721 Dutch higher education lecturers spent a period abroad in 2008-09 under the Erasmus lecturer exchange programme. This represents an increase of 14% (88 lecturers)

23 Stichting Nederland Kennisland. (2010). *Voorbij de tegenstelling in een slimmer Nederland: Kennis-economie monitor 2010*. Amsterdam: Stichting Nederland Kennisland.

24 For example: The Netherlands Observatory of Science and Technology (2008). *Wetenschap- en Technologie-Indicatoren 2008* (Science and Technology Indicators 2008). The Hague: Ministry of Education, Culture and Science. This publication argues that the Netherlands is insufficiently attractive for foreign knowledge workers. And see: Berkhout, E., Smid, T. & Volkerink, M. (2010). *Wat beweegt kennismigranten? Een analyse van de concurrentiekracht van NL bij het aantrekken van kennis-migranten*. (What motivates knowledge workers? An analysis of the Netherlands' competitiveness in attracting knowledge workers) Amsterdam: SEO Economic Research. This publication argues that the Netherlands is 'reasonably' attractive for foreign knowledge workers.



compared with the year before. With regard to the number of outbound Erasmus lecturers, the Netherlands still falls within the lower middle bracket of EU + EER countries.

Compared with Dutch lecturers, fewer Danes and Swedes travelled to another country as Erasmus lecturers. However, more German, Belgian and Finnish lecturers went abroad than Dutch lecturers. Germany and Finland were the most popular destinations for Dutch nationals travelling abroad as an Erasmus lecturer, followed by the United Kingdom, Belgium, France, Turkey, Spain and Poland. If we examine total Erasmus lecturer mobility in all Erasmus countries, Germany, Italy and Spain are the three most popular destination countries.

Traditionally, university researchers are relatively mobile internationally because they work abroad as visiting staff or take part in foreign conferences and seminars. However, it is difficult to measure the precise international mobility of researchers. Unfortunately data is not available on the number of Dutch nationals who obtain a doctorate abroad and their destination countries. Such data is not usually compiled centrally in other countries either.

According to the abovementioned study of doctoral candidates at four (and therefore not all) Dutch universities, 19% of doctoral candidates in the Netherlands leave the country for work after obtaining their doctorate degrees.<sup>25</sup> This figure applies to both Dutch and non-Dutch doctoral candidates at Dutch universities.

The main destinations are in Western Europe (9%) – with Germany, Belgium and the United Kingdom as the major destination countries – followed by North America (3%) and Asia (3%). According to the study, the balance between what is called brain drain and brain gain is positive at first sight: more foreign doctoral candidates remain in the Netherlands than Dutch doctoral candidates leave the country. We should point out however that at the time of completing the questionnaire a portion of the doctoral candidates were not yet certain whether they would be working in the Netherlands or elsewhere. Moreover, there is no comprehensive view of Dutch nationals who obtain their doctorates abroad and subsequently stay abroad to work.

25 Sonneveld, H., Yerkes, M. & Schoot, R. van de. (2010). *Ph.D. trajectories and labour market mobility: A survey of recent doctoral recipients at four universities in the Netherlands*. Utrecht: Netherlands Centre for Graduate and Research Schools.



# 6

## Mobility between neighbouring countries



6.1

Introduction

*“Forty-one per cent of international students in the Netherlands come from Germany, 39% of international students in Belgium come from France, 33% of international students in Austria come from Germany...” (data for the 2007-08 academic year)*

*Mapping Mobility 2010* devoted a chapter to mobility in the European Higher Education Area. The EHEA is the result of the 1999 Bologna Declaration, in which European education ministers made agreements to create an open and transparent European field of education. The EHEA was officially launched during a ministerial conference in 2010.

One of the principal objectives of the Bologna Process is to stimulate student mobility within and to Europe and a number of measures have already been taken in this regard, such as the introduction of a European credit transfer system (ECTS) and the diploma supplement. The EHEA includes the countries that form the European Union, where European regulations have made it even easier for students to move between the EU member states. International student mobility is considered important in preparing students for a living and working environment that is becoming increasingly international. International experience is also often promoted by highlighting the positive impact it has on the student's personal development.

But there are also drawbacks to open borders and education mobility. While there is much

cooperation between national education ministers in accordance with European agreements, the EHEA remains a collection of national systems subject to national legislation and funding. It is therefore unavoidable that national policy measures will influence the choices made by students. Within the Bologna Area, and certainly within the European Union, students can easily transfer to another country if, for example, doing so makes financial sense or they can pursue the course of study of their choice which is not open to them at home. For these students, clearly neighbouring countries and countries that present low language barriers or none at all are favourite destinations. The fact that national measures can directly impact neighbouring countries is apparent, for example, from the concern expressed in Flanders at the measures announced by the Dutch government to deal with students who exceed the standard time allowed to them to complete their study programmes. Representatives of Flemish education almost immediately voiced their fear of a flood of procrastinating Dutch students transferring to Flemish universities. In Belgium it is generally French students who are overrepresented.

In this chapter we examine two angles of mobility between neighbouring countries. In the first part, we present a number of practical examples of an imbalance in student mobility between two neighbouring countries, either in general terms or with respect to a specific field of study. We examine the responses from governments, the arguments for intervening, measures both proposed and implemented, and their effects. In this way we



hope to create an overview of possible policy interventions. In the second part, we present three initiatives that were launched in 2010 and focus on educational cooperation in the border region between the Netherlands and Germany. We take a close look at the nature and organisation of the collaboration, the organisations that are involved, the arguments for cooperation and the intended and achieved results. The aim is to ascertain the extent to which national objectives on educational cooperation with neighbouring countries and objectives at the institutional and regional level run parallel.





6.2

# Student mobility between neighbouring countries: an international comparison

## 6.2.1 A good neighbour...

In the past few years, several countries faced with an excess of international students (across the entire spectrum or in specific disciplines) have expressed their concern about the imbalance in student mobility. In the Netherlands, this imbalance mainly concerns the large number of German students at research universities and universities of applied sciences. In this section we will examine this phenomenon more closely and look at three examples from other countries with similar problems: Denmark, Belgium and Austria.

### **The Netherlands: measures against the influx of German students?**

In the Netherlands there is a huge influx of German students entering Dutch higher education. The research universities and universities of applied sciences in the border region, in particular, have a high percentage of German students. This development has not been welcomed by all, and has been the subject of a debate that tends to flare up every now and again. Take, for example, a controversial article published in the Dutch *Financieele Dagblad* in 2008 of which the main thrust was that German students are costing the Netherlands millions. Then there are those who wonder just how internationalised the student population in the Netherlands can be with as much as 46% of the foreign influx comprising Germans (41% in 2007-08). This is in fact the principal objection voiced against the presence of large groups of German students at Dutch higher education

institutions. These concerns are countered with the argument that these students are valuable through the money they spend in the Netherlands and through the quality and diversity they bring to Dutch education.

Despite the ongoing debate, the Dutch government kept quiet on the issue for a long time. In 2010, the government working group for educational review proposed limiting the institutional funding of cross-border students and, via a legislative amendment, allowing institutions to charge institutional tuition fees from such students. This proposal was based on the argument that the number of cross-border students had grown dramatically and a large portion of them returned home on completing their studies. The reactions to this proposal from the boards of governors of education institutions in the border region (Saxion in Deventer and Enschede and the University of Twente) were interesting. The president of the board of the University of Twente called the proposal “typical of the urban west of the Netherlands”, since it assumes borders exist where in practice – and in the world of education – such borders were removed a long time ago. Furthermore, both the University of Twente and Saxion disputed the legality of this measure, claiming that it is in contravention of the constitution and European law.

### **Denmark: debate on equal access to education within the EU**

In 2006 the Danish government announced that it wished to discuss EU regulations on equal access



for students to education systems within the EU. The direct cause was the large influx of students from Sweden registering for medical studies in Denmark. The Danish government held that these places should be filled primarily by Danish students, in order to guarantee the future quality of healthcare in Denmark. The problem in Denmark is different to that faced in the Netherlands and Austria in that it concerns a particular discipline. An examination of Diagram 62 shows that the percentage of Swedish students as a proportion of all inbound international students to Denmark is not all that extreme when compared, for example, with the percentages of Germans coming to the Netherlands and France.

Norden, the official cooperative programme of the Scandinavian countries, lays out agreements on educational cooperation between Denmark, Sweden, Norway, Finland and Iceland, including a compensation scheme for imbalances in student mobility between these countries. However, as the example from Denmark illustrates, the problem can extend beyond merely a general excess of international students, and affect specific disciplines that attract too many international students.

The Danish government recently announced that all international students would have to pay tuition fees and that there must be a balance between inbound and outbound students. The aim of this measure is to prevent Danish taxpayers' money being spent to educate foreign students. Critics argue that this proposed

measure contravenes agreements made between the Scandinavian countries and that it may herald the end of Scandinavian cooperation in the field of education.

#### **Belgium: a quota for French students**

While Denmark sought to start discussions with the EU, Belgium imposed a 30% limit on the number of places on medical study programmes that may be taken by foreigners, on the strength of the argument that healthcare in Belgium would be jeopardised if too many of these places were occupied by foreigners. Before the decree was implemented, more than 75% of students in medical study programmes in the French-speaking part of Belgium were non-residents of the Kingdom of Belgium, mostly from neighbouring France. For Belgium as a whole, 39% of the international student population came from France.

In 2010, the European Court of Justice requested that Belgium explain the measure after 63 international students had gone to court over it. The Court stated that while it was possible for a large influx of foreign students to jeopardise healthcare in Belgium, the Belgian government would have to prove it first. The Court requested an objective, detailed analysis of the situation, supported by figures. Furthermore, the Court ruled that the claim that foreign students represented a heavy financial burden for Belgium was unfounded, since the vast majority of international students studying in Belgium received their funding from their countries of origin.



**Austria: supplementary requirements for German students**

In 2005, the European Court of Justice ruled that the measures taken by Austria to stem the influx of foreign (mostly German) students contravened European rules. The Austrian government wanted to intervene to prevent the potential displacement of Austrian students in certain study programmes and because the proportion of Germans had become larger than was deemed desirable. Until the ruling by the European Court of Justice, Austrian law prescribed that foreign students could only study in Austria if they were able to prove that a university in their country of origin would admit them.

Since the abolition of this requirement after the European Court of Justice had demonstrated its unlawfulness, the number of international students going to Austria has grown rapidly. The influx of German students, in particular, has received much attention. The rector of Innsbruck University recently proposed a system for financially compensating student mobility surpluses.

Diagram 62

**6.2.2 A broader picture**

We have seen that, between neighbouring countries, considerable imbalances can arise between inbound and outbound mobility. However, if we want a clear overview of the extent to which countries are benefiting – or not – from increasing levels of student mobility, we must paint a broader picture. Table 63 presents an

overview per country of the relationship between the total influx and outflow of students within the EU in 2007-08. Note that several countries, with the United Kingdom far ahead of the rest, have a large surplus of inbound EU students. This includes the countries that we looked at in the examples: the Netherlands, Denmark, Austria and Belgium. With respect to the Netherlands, for example, the inflow of nearly 27,000 EU students is only partially compensated by the outflow of nearly 14,000 Dutch students to other EU countries.<sup>26</sup> If we view this from a financial perspective, governments pay for (a portion of) the education of the citizens of other countries, without this being compensated by an equal number of citizens from their own countries studying in other EU member states.

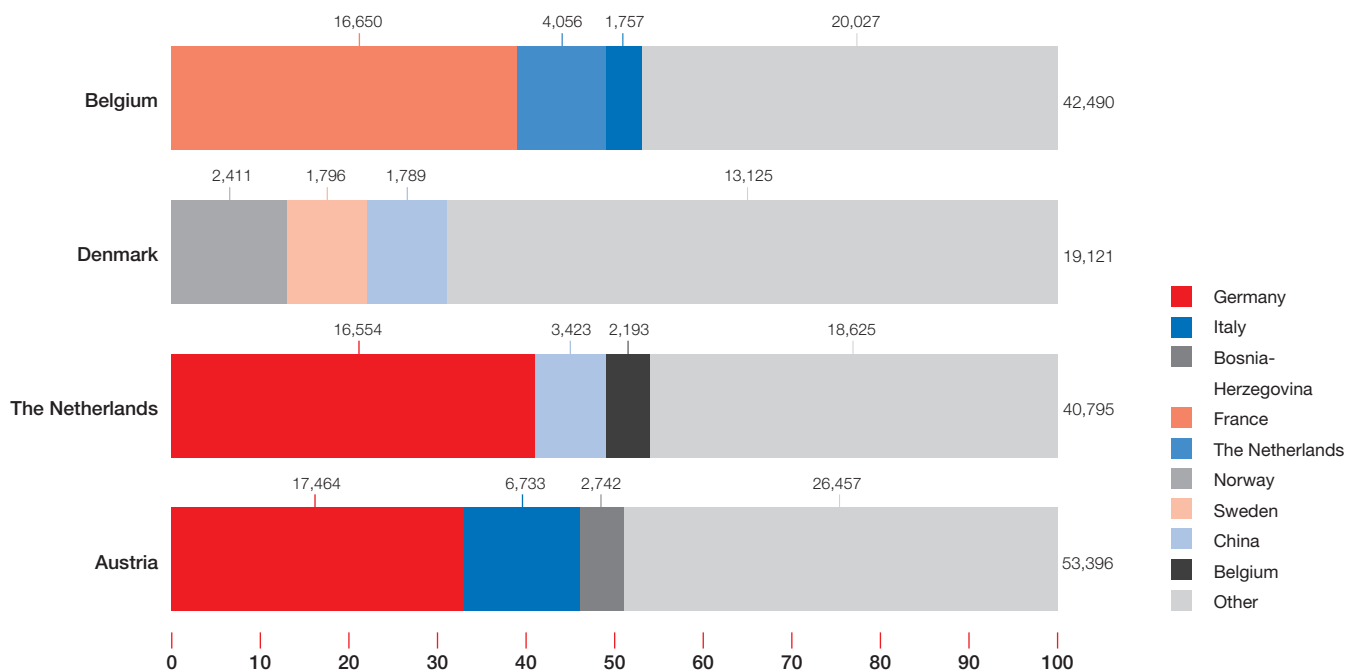
What the examples further show is that in all cases the inbound-outbound imbalance was between relatively small countries and their far larger neighbours. While, for the larger countries, the percentage of students studying in a particular neighbouring country may be modest, for that smaller neighbour it forms a substantial proportion of its total student population, which has to be paid for by regular government financing. Table 63 clearly shows that there are large differences between EU member states, which lends weight to the argument of some governments to have these effects of European cooperation discussed at the European level and, where possible, for proposals to be made to redress the balance.

<sup>26</sup> This relates to mobility on the basis of nationality. As such, it could refer to EU students who have already been living in the Netherlands for a considerable period of time as well as to Dutch students who have been living in another EU country for a long time. Any compensatory measures will probably be implemented based on nationality, which underscores the relevance of this form of registration of mobility, in addition to that of preparatory programmes.

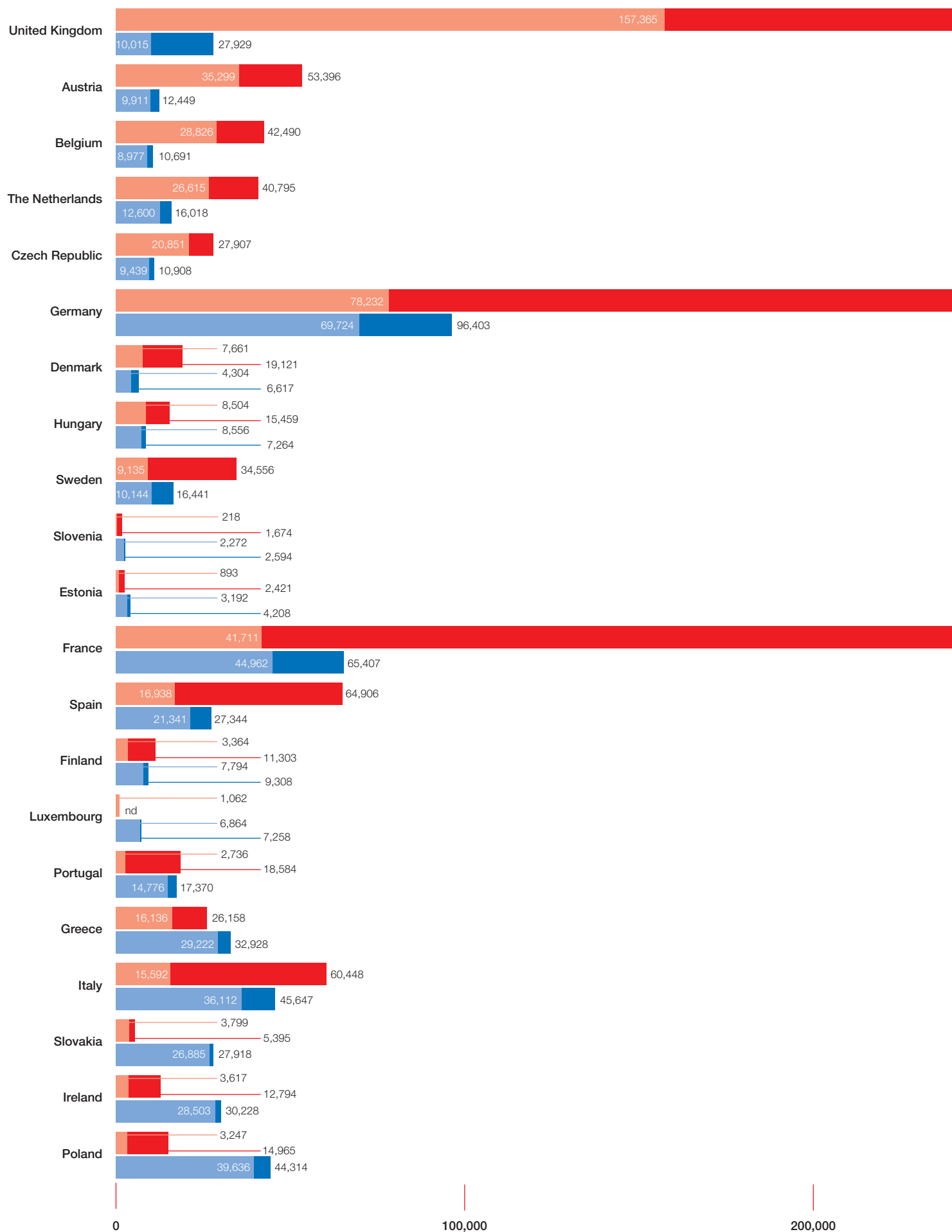


Diagram 62

**Top three countries of origin compared with total influx of international students, 2007-08**



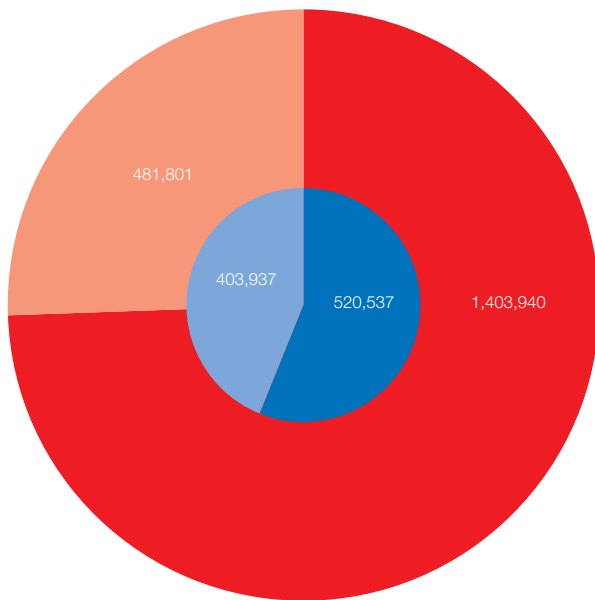
Balance between inbound and outbound students



462,609

245,522

243,436



Total

- Inbound students
- From EU27
- Outbound mobility
- To EU27

300,000

400,000

500,000

To gain a more complete picture – there is after all a world outside the EU – we have included the influx from outside the EU for purposes of comparison. If the influx from outside the EU yields a high surplus, this may well compensate, from a macro-economic perspective, the deficit experienced in the EU.

### 6.2.3 Measures and effects

The previous section described a number of examples of governments that have tried to intervene in the influx of foreign students.

An overview:

- Countries can reach agreements on financial compensation as the Scandinavian countries have done. This can be done by setting up a joint fund or by settling up financially afterwards to compensate imbalance in student mobility between two or more countries.
- Some countries have set additional requirements for students from neighbouring countries in order to prevent students who fail to gain admission in their own countries from fleeing across the border. In Austria, this type of measure was condemned by the European Court of Justice as a contravention of EU regulations.
- Several countries have argued for the introduction of quotas for students from neighbouring countries who register in large numbers for specific study programmes. A quota is in contravention of European regulations, except where the country concerned can demonstrate the negative

consequences the current situation is having on its domestic labour market.

Belgium failed to do so and was called to account by the European Court of Justice in 2010.

- Another option is to make a study programme more expensive for foreign students: this can be achieved by raising the tuition fees or by not fully compensating the institution concerned for foreign students (curbing recruitment). Examples from the Netherlands and Denmark show that there are serious doubts about the legality of these measures.

The examples above illustrate that countries are in large measure bound to European regulations regarding equal access by EU citizens to education. This renders restrictive measures difficult and also undesirable as they deny students the freedom of choice of study programme promised to them as EU citizens and envisaged by governments in creating the European Higher Education Area. In addition, measures targeting international students are hardly conducive to good mutual relations between EU Member States.

We can also observe that a number of EU countries have developed extreme imbalances between inbound and outbound mobility. It is therefore advisable that, at the national government level, Bologna countries start exploring alternative ways of funding, where the guiding principle must be that no country



suffers any financial disadvantage from an imbalance between inbound and outbound mobility.

In addition to the responsibility of national governments, there is also a clear responsibility on the part of institutions offering higher education. In the past few years, research universities and universities of applied sciences in the Netherlands have, for example, been very active in recruiting international students. This recruitment not only targeted students from outside the EU (who pay cost-effective tuition fees), but also students from EU countries, particularly Germany. The institutions concerned often justify this by referring to their catchment area, which may include parts of a neighbouring country, and to the blurring borders in other spheres of life, such as living and working. Recent recruitment in Great Britain has been carried out to support and retain the 'international classroom'. However, critics often accuse these institutions of being driven purely by commercial motives. Whatever the case may be, the fact remains that a serious imbalance of mobility between two countries can prove very expensive for the government of the country holding the short end of the stick. Given the circumstances, therefore, it would be wise to encourage institutions to exercise restraint in their recruitment efforts in EU countries as long as the system of funding remains unchanged.

This problem clearly demonstrates that cooperation in European higher education has

not yet matured. The past few years have seen much work in the areas of comparable degrees, a joint credit system and improvement in education quality. But now we have reached a point where the financial consequences of this cooperation are beginning to emerge, and these are not favourable for all countries. Given the increasing pressure on government finances in many European countries, now would seem to be the moment to take action at the European level and to place this issue prominently on the agenda of the EU education ministers and on that of the Bologna process.



## 6.3

# Education cooperation in German-Dutch border regions: policy and practice

As mentioned in the previous sections, for certain national governments it is a matter of considerable importance to restrict the influx of students from across the border. Looking at the Dutch situation, however, large numbers of international students are mainly to be found at institutions in the border regions (see example in Diagram 26: *Institutions with the largest number of students from a specific country*, p. 35). There is a great deal of cooperation in education between Dutch and German institutions. We have selected three noteworthy initiatives from the past year.

### 6.3.1 Neighbouring country policy

In the early 1990s, the Dutch government pursued an active neighbouring country policy. The rationale behind it was primarily economic. The Netherlands exports intensively to neighbouring countries and cross-border cooperation in the area of education serves to better understand each other's cultures and backgrounds. An important aim was to make it easier for students to move back and forth across borders.

According to the then Minister for Education Ritzén, removing mobility obstacles in the border regions should serve to develop a readily accessible education area in Europe. Cooperation within the Dutch neighbouring country policy focused on Flanders and the German federal states of North Rhine-Westphalia, Lower Saxony and Bremen. Joint degrees and quality assurance

were important spearheads. When the Bologna process got underway in the late 1990s, the Netherlands was therefore able to play a leading role in these areas.

Although in later years the ministry's focus shifted to cooperation in a broader European context and, via active recruitment and promotion campaigns, to specific target countries outside Europe, the neighbouring country policy in the Netherlands is still being pursued today. It has considerably eased cooperation and student exchanges between higher education institutions on both sides of the Dutch-German and Dutch-Flemish borders, resulting in cross-border cooperation between most research universities and universities of applied sciences now being the rule rather than the exception.

### 6.3.2 Recent initiatives

In the previous section, we examined neighbouring country mobility from a national perspective and presented a number of arguments for addressing the imbalance. However, if we examine the problem from other – economic – angles, we may arrive at a different conclusion. What is actually going on in the border regions and what objectives are these activities supposed to promote?

We will now examine three initiatives that took place in 2010 that involved Radboud University Nijmegen, Hanze University Groningen and the University of Groningen, Fontys University of Applied Sciences and Hogeschool Van Hall Larenstein, University of Applied Sciences.



**Radboud University Nijmegen: German-Dutch higher education days**

On 23 and 24 September 2010, Radboud University Nijmegen and a number of partners organised the German-Dutch higher education days, an event intended for students, lecturers, research institutes and business. The aim of this gathering was to exchange information on new study programmes and to consolidate cooperation between suppliers of higher education, knowledge institutions and companies. It was the third time that this event had been organised and the first time that it was held in the Netherlands. An argument given for organising this event was that Germany and the Netherlands are important trading partners and that knowledge of each other's culture is essential.

Examples of successful cross-border activities were presented during the event, such as joint study programmes between Dutch and German universities. The event was organised by Radboud University Nijmegen and the Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst (DAAD) and financed by, among others, the European Fund for Regional Development (EFRD) as part of the European Interreg IV A programme. The entire event was supervised by the programme management of the Rhine-Waal Euregio. This clearly demonstrates the European aspect of this initiative. The main objective of the Interreg IV A 'Germany-Netherlands 2007-2013' programme is "to intensify sustainable cross-border cooperation between the German and Dutch partners. The area covered by the programme should develop into an integrated European region, where the

national borders represent a distinctive, but not obstructive aspect".

This is where the Rhine-Waal Euregio alliance also attempts to make its own contribution since the number one objective of this organisation is to improve and intensify cross-border cooperation in the areas of economics and society.

**Hanze University Groningen and the University of Groningen: Hansa Energy Corridor**

On 7 June 2010, the Nieuwe Hanze Interregio and the Energy Valley Foundation organised a German-Dutch conference titled 'Energy Sector Job Engine in the North'. The focus of the conference was on averting a potential shortage of labour in the energy sector in the northern part of the Netherlands and North West Germany. It was attended by government representatives, companies from the energy sector and education institutions.

There were calls for greater cross-border cooperation and exchanges of employees and students. The idea of a cross-border virtual university of applied sciences was also put forward, an initiative in which Hanze University Groningen would play a major role.

In 2010 it was also announced that the Hansa Energy Corridor project, in which both the research university and university of applied sciences are involved, could get underway following a substantial European subsidy.



This project is a cooperative venture in the area of energy, with input from regional governments, knowledge institutions and companies.

The Nieuwe Hanze Interregio is a cross-border, inter-regional alliance of the northern German federal states of Lower Saxony and Bremen with the northern Dutch provinces of Drenthe, Friesland, Groningen and Overijssel in the areas of economics, science, politics and administration, the labour market and social politics. The inter-region formulates joint shared interests and puts them into practice.

**Fontys and Van Hall Larenstein: common fields of study with German universities of applied sciences**

The end of June 2010 saw the launch of a cross-border study programme devoted to green, food and freshness. Participating higher education institutions are the new German Rhein-Waal University of Applied Sciences and the Dutch universities of applied sciences Van Hall Larestein and Fontys Venlo. The joint programme aims to contribute to the objectives of organised industry in this sector. The aim of the consortiums Greenport Venlo and Agrobusinessregion Niederrhein is for the region to play a leading role in Europe in the area of fresh and food. Greenport Venlo is the second most important horticultural area in the Netherlands and regards Germany as one of its major markets.

Agrobusinessregion Niederrhein is a consortium of companies and government bodies aimed to promote the agricultural sector in the German Niederrhein region. Together with Wageningen-based Foodvalley, these consortia are playing a key role in the development of this new study programme. One of their objectives is to stimulate student exchanges between the universities of applied sciences involved in the initiative.

### 6.3.3 Analysis

At the national level, countries are primarily focused on the consequences the influx of international students will have on national revenues. This is understandable given the national government's responsibilities. As we can observe, student exchanges within the cooperative ventures in the region are a component of larger projects that are clearly linked to specific economic objectives that are endorsed by the cross-border partners.

Many cooperative ventures are also born out of European projects with pre-defined objectives, such as with the Interreg programme: ("the area covered by the programme should develop into an integrated European region, where the national borders represent a distinctive but not obstructive aspect"). In the examples we can also observe a sector-based approach, in the case of cross-border cooperation in the energy sector in northern Germany and the northern part of the Netherlands. In this case, representatives from business are seeking ways to avert a potential shortage of skilled staff. The exchange of employees, students and pupils is viewed as a solution. However, it is of

course difficult to estimate in advance whether this will result in a balanced exchange. Germans seem to like coming to the Netherlands, but Dutch students appear rather less eager to enrol at institutions in Germany.

These types of projects also raise awareness of Dutch higher education in Germany and, in the event of good reports, offer German students alternatives should they not be able to find the right study programmes in the German system. The reverse effect however is much less in evidence.

It is no coincidence that these research universities and universities of applied sciences have very high percentages of German students (the campus of Fontys in Venlo was even set up with the aim of attracting German students). Nor do the objectives of the EU and the European Higher Education Area always seem to run parallel in this regard with national interests, financial and otherwise. While the EU is stimulating the blurring of borders with its Interreg programmes and financing via the European Social Fund for Regional Development, in the world of education these borders are still very emphatically present. This can result in tension, in particular with respect to the financial consequences of cooperation in the area of education.

#### **6.3.4 How do we proceed in Europe?**

It seems as though the development of a communal education area and the promotion of mobility in

Europe are supported at a number of different levels. At the European and national levels, governments joined forces to implement the Bologna agreements, supported by the European Commission. One of the major objectives of the Bologna Process was to facilitate and stimulate student mobility within Europe. This seems to have been effective, as we also stated in *Mapping Mobility 2010*, but European cooperation also has undesirable effects, as we have discussed in this chapter. The main undesirable effect is the imbalance between inbound and outbound mobility, involving a number of European countries that are especially concerned about the massive influx of students from a neighbouring country.

At the regional level, especially in the border regions, this cooperation has already taken definite shape and, as we can see from the examples, certain business sectors have benefited greatly from cross-border cooperation. Policymakers at institutions and regional governments justify this cooperation by referring to the concept of blurring borders, not only in the world of education, but also in terms of where one works or lives. For a research university or university of applied sciences in a border region, part of the neighbouring country will fall within its catchment area, also with respect to recruiting students.

It is therefore not a case of calling a halt to student mobility, but of working on the practical problems that arise as soon as substantial



imbalances occur in the numbers of students that countries receive relative to the numbers of their own students studying elsewhere. These practical problems are the inequitable division of costs between countries and the risk of a country's own students being displaced.

Resolving these problems at a European level – within the framework of European agreements – is advisable. Clearly more attention should be given first of all to the coordination of the national higher education policy in order to work towards a situation in which European countries jointly agree on the conditions for participating in higher education. In addition, forms of financial settlement could help solve the funding problems caused by the imbalance between inbound and outbound student flows. Clarity as to the criteria that European countries use, or may use, to guarantee the availability of places for their own students would also be very desirable.

It is obvious that European agreements clash with the manner in which education is funded at the national level. A joint initiative by countries within the EU, to begin with, followed by the countries affiliated with the Bologna Process could greatly increase the effectiveness of the European Higher Education Area.







# 7

## Appendix



7.1

Nuffic  
programme mobility

### 7.1.1 Inbound mobility

Total inbound programme mobility may slowly surpass the 11,000 mark once again. This is mainly due to a gradual increase in the number of Erasmus programme participants coming to the Netherlands. An earlier rise exceeding 11,000 in the Erasmus programme between 2006-07 and 2007-08 was largely due to the inclusion of Erasmus trainees for the first time. These individuals previously also travelled to the Netherlands, within the context of the Leonardo da Vinci programme, but were not centrally recorded at that time. The 2007-08 academic year marked a transition for these Erasmus student trainees as some were still taking part in the previous Leonardo da Vinci programme. The data for the 2008-09 academic year provides a better impression of the total scope of this work placement mobility. The rise between 2006-07 and 2007-08 was also due to the large number of participants in the Netherlands Fellowship Programmes (NFP), which are financed by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Development Cooperation. Since 2006-07, the number of participants in Dutch government programmes has fallen slightly.

According to the data currently available, inbound mobility administered by Nuffic can be estimated at almost 1.7% of the Dutch student population.

[Diagram 64 \(see page 118\)](#)

### 7.1.2 Outbound mobility

There appears to have been a significant increase in total outbound mobility between 2007-08 and 2008-09. The largest growth was seen in outbound Erasmus student trainees, however, and this increase is largely attributable to improved record-keeping in Brussels. What is certain is that, in the same period, the number of Erasmus students who went abroad for a part of their study programme rose. Since 2008-09, there has been a rise in the number of both outbound Erasmus trainees and outbound Erasmus students. The smaller number of VSB fund scholarships is in line with the reduced availability of scholarships because of the financial crisis.

According to the data currently available, outbound mobility administered by Nuffic can be estimated at around 1.2% of the Dutch student population.

[Diagram 65 \(see page 119\)](#)

Diagram 64

**Total inbound programme mobility within the programmes administered by Nuffic, according to sponsor, 2006-2011**

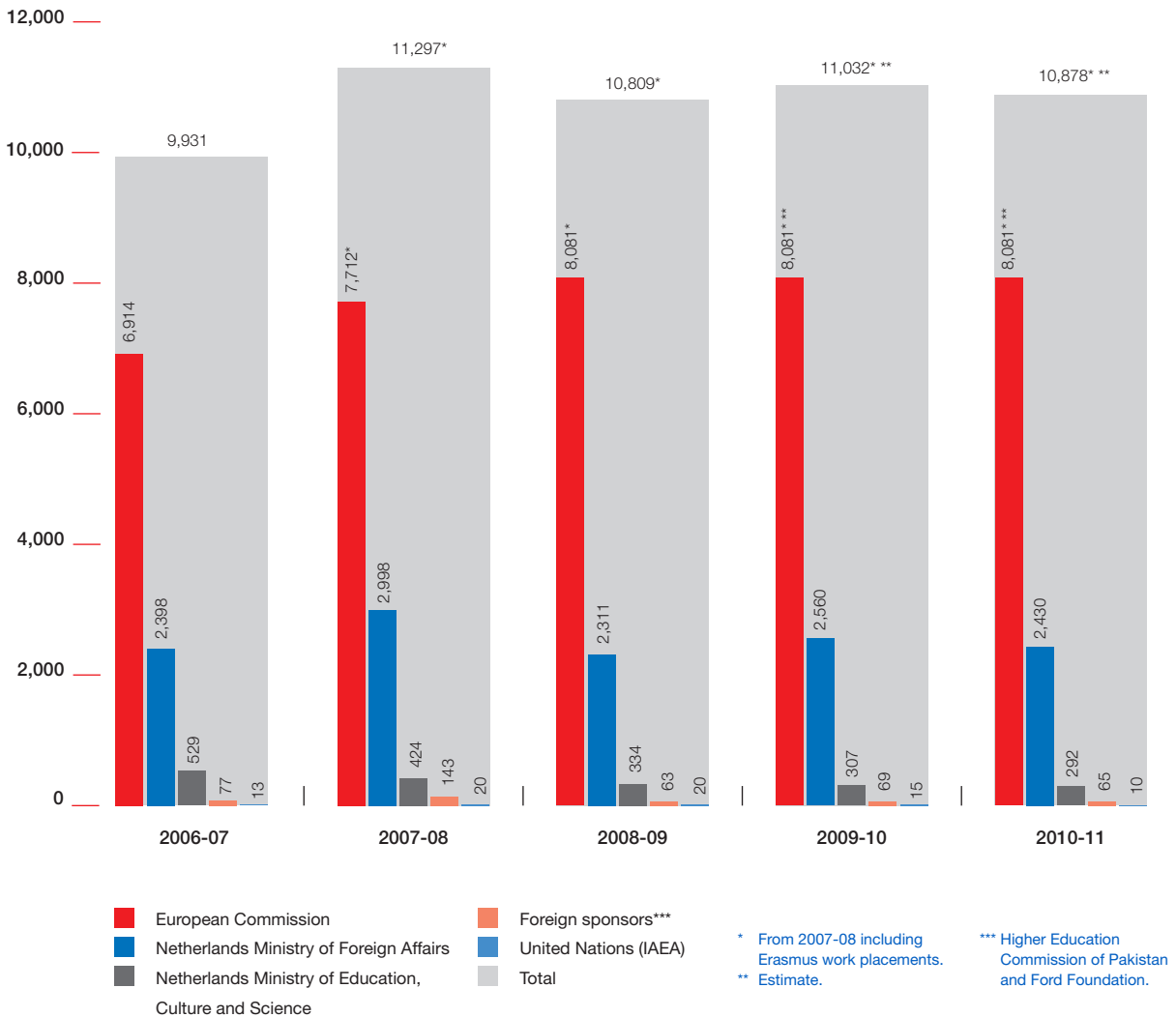
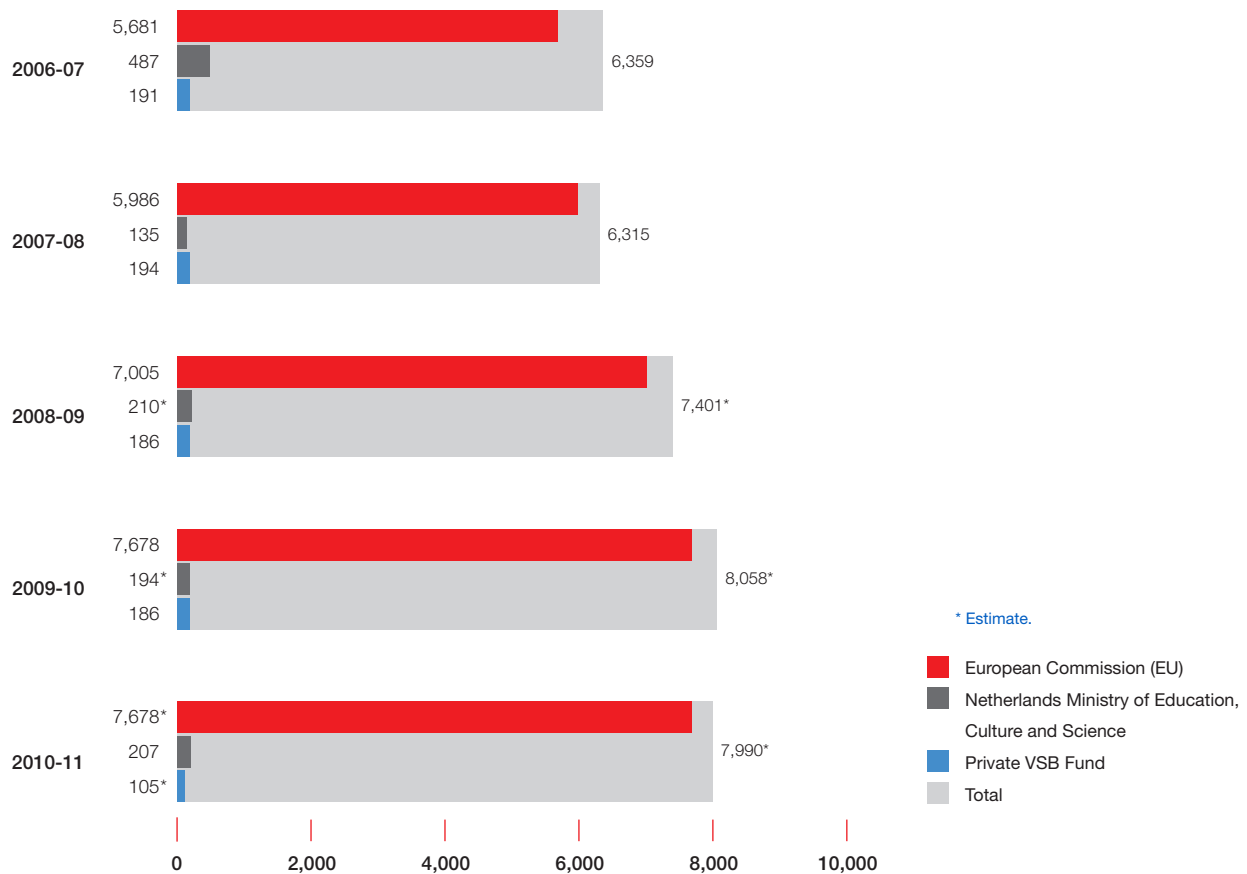


Diagram 65

**Total outbound programme mobility within the programmes administered by Nuffic, according to sponsor, 2006-2011**



7.2

# Definitions and methods

## 7.2.1 Mobility as part of internationalisation

Mobility is not an isolated factor. It usually forms part of a broader strategy focused on internationalising education, with the aim of increasing the quality of education, generating an economic impact and/or achieving more idealistic goals, for instance to overcome differences. As well as encouraging mobility, curricula are being internationalised in order to improve the international competencies of graduates. After all, the majority of students are not internationally mobile.

## 7.2.2 Types of mobility

We distinguish different type of mobility.

Mobility primarily relates to:

- students
- researchers
- lecturers
- study programmes

## 7.2.3 Diploma mobility and credit mobility

A distinction is made between two main types of student mobility. If the student travels abroad for an entire bachelor's or master's degree programme, this is referred to as diploma mobility. If the aim of the stay abroad is to improve the student's study programme in his or her own country, by carrying out a work placement or following a study component, this is referred to as credit mobility. This is because the results are often expressed in terms of credits. This type of mobility is also called 'short-term mobility' and

'exchange mobility'. The latter term largely fails to cover work placement mobility, which often does not involve any type of exchange.

The distinction between the terms 'diploma mobility' and 'credit mobility' is relevant because they concern different groups of students with different objectives and different requirements in terms of support.

### Programme mobility

In addition to diploma mobility and credit mobility, reference is often made to programme mobility. This is mobility that takes place within a subsidised programme, and can refer to diploma and credit mobility as well as other types of mobility, such as lecturer mobility (particularly in the case of programmes that have a broad educational aim).

The term 'programme mobility' is sometimes also used to refer to the mobility of entire study programmes, termed 'study programme mobility' in this document. Regrettably there is still little data available on this type of mobility.

## 7.2.4 Mobility source data

There are two different types of sources: those that are regularly updated and ad hoc sources. The former are usually designed to show general trends while the latter often go into greater detail and are used to interpret the trends. The first source mainly covers files that were usually set up and updated for other purposes (which is why mobility data was sometimes referred to as 'bycatch').<sup>27</sup> These include records on the

<sup>27</sup> In the case of ad hoc research too, mobility is usually only part of the research. This includes graduate surveys, the main aim of which is to gain an insight into the relationship between education and the labour market, or research for the *Student Monitor*, which focuses mainly on the socio-economic background and circumstances of current students. Ad hoc research may of course also specifically focus on the issue of mobility or on the effects of internationalisation in general.



financing or funding of education or for the purpose of supporting immigration policy.

For this reason, the amount of data that specifically ties in with the above types and forms of mobility is limited. Moreover, the information is often incomplete. With regard to enrolment, the information is limited to financed and government-funded education (although a gradual transition is being made to accredited education). Residence permit records specifically focus on non-EU and non-EFTA countries. Hardly anything, therefore, is known about EU and EFTA students in privately financed education.

Another problem is that there are no clear definitions of the different categories. However, there is general consensus, more or less, about diploma mobility: this is the area in which the most data is available. Credit mobility is a relatively new concept that is gradually being accepted. For that reason, the relevant data files really still need to be developed. Conversely, opinions vary as to the status of PhD students and researchers and records consequently also vary.

#### **Nationality, country of prior education, country of permanent residence**

Until recently, it was only possible to determine student mobility on the basis of information on nationality. We therefore still use the term 'foreign' or 'international' students. As more and more students of different nationalities live for longer periods of time in the country in which they have enrolled at a higher education institution and

were sometimes even born there, however, nationality no longer is a conclusive criterion for mobility within higher education.

At international level it has been agreed, therefore, to collect information about the students' country of prior education and/or country of permanent residence. As the latter criterion conflicts with European objectives and reality, which allow students to reside, work and spend leisure time anywhere in the EU, we will disregard it in the rest of his document.

For a few years now, we have had access to extensive information which tells us whether participants in higher education obtained their secondary school diploma in the Netherlands or abroad. If students went to secondary school abroad, it can be assumed that they travelled to the Netherlands specifically for the purpose of higher education and can indeed be regarded as contributing towards achieving the internationalisation objectives.

It is interesting to note that this information also provides insight into Dutch students returning to the Netherlands for the purpose of following higher education after attending secondary school abroad. Students who fall in this category, those who attended secondary school in another country, are referred to as 'Dutch international students' rather than just 'international students'.

It should be noted that these statistics are not conclusive: there is still a large group of students



in the 2010-11 academic year – 4.8% of the total student population – of whom we do not know where they attended secondary school. If these students all followed prior education abroad, which is unlikely, this means that actual mobility would increase strongly based on this criterion, compared with the current 6.5% for students who attended secondary school abroad. More consistent record-keeping is essential.

Diagram 66 (see page 124)

Diagram 67 (see page 124)

Revised figures for international students with a Dutch secondary school certificate indicate a gradual rise in the last five years, from 2,576 students in 2006-07 to 3,785 students in 2010-11. These international students are actually not internationally mobile at all. Conversely, the 11,710 Dutch nationals holding a foreign secondary school diploma can indeed be regarded as internationally mobile. Taking this into account, the previous total of 52,194 diploma mobile students in government-funded education (Diagram 05) increases to 60,119 diploma mobile students.

#### **UOE tables**

UNESCO, OECD and EUROSTAT collect education statistics at the international level based on a handbook that sets out the mutual criteria agreed among these organisations and with member countries. The information is recorded in tables known as UOE tables because of the organisations involved. The UOE tables are completed by national organisations

in the participating countries. In the Netherlands this is done by Statistics Netherlands (CBS), based largely on data provided by the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science.

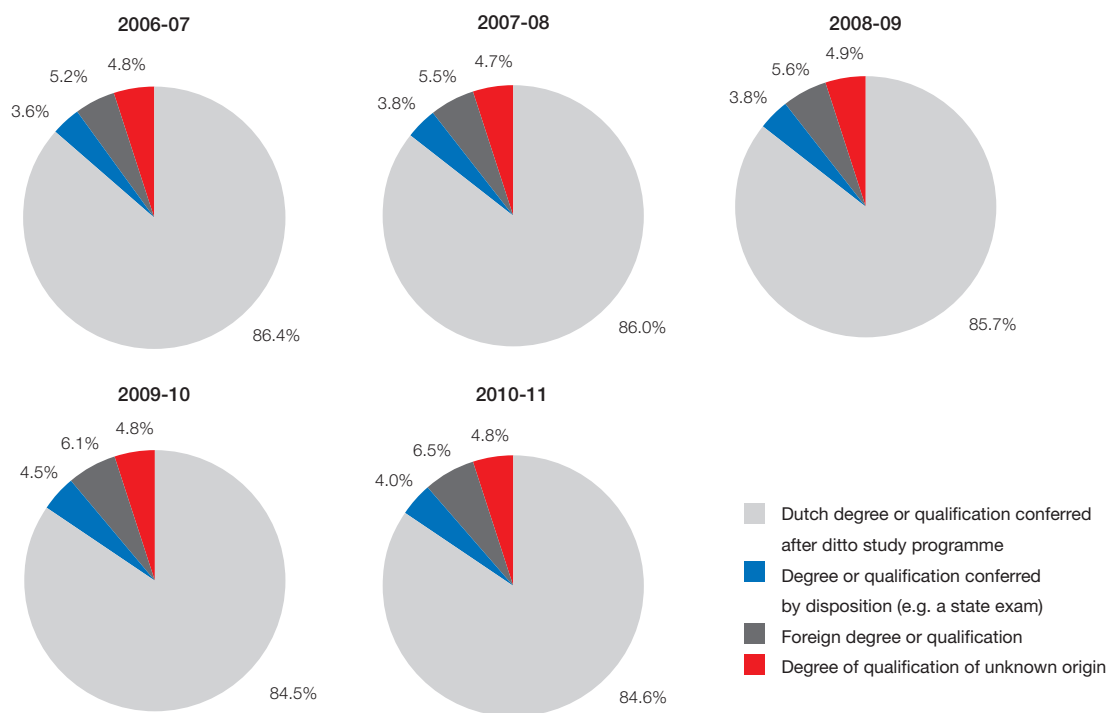
Although the same data is used, the information is not always used in the same way. For instance, on the OECD website data regarding nationality, country of prior education and country of permanent residence is integrated whereas the UNESCO website mainly uses the country of prior education. As none of the series are complete, the missing information is often added from other series in order to make estimates for reporting purposes. In addition to variations because of the use of a different criterion – nationality, country of prior education or permanent residence – frequently noted differences in mobility figures often arise from the extent to which, and the way in which, other series are used to supplement missing data.

Due to the quality of Dutch and other data on country of prior education, in this publication we still mainly use nationality as a criterion for mobility. Although this therefore means that mobility will be overestimated, from a historical point of view these series are the most consistent and the most useful for identifying trends – and trends are the most important aspect in terms of policy.



Diagram 66

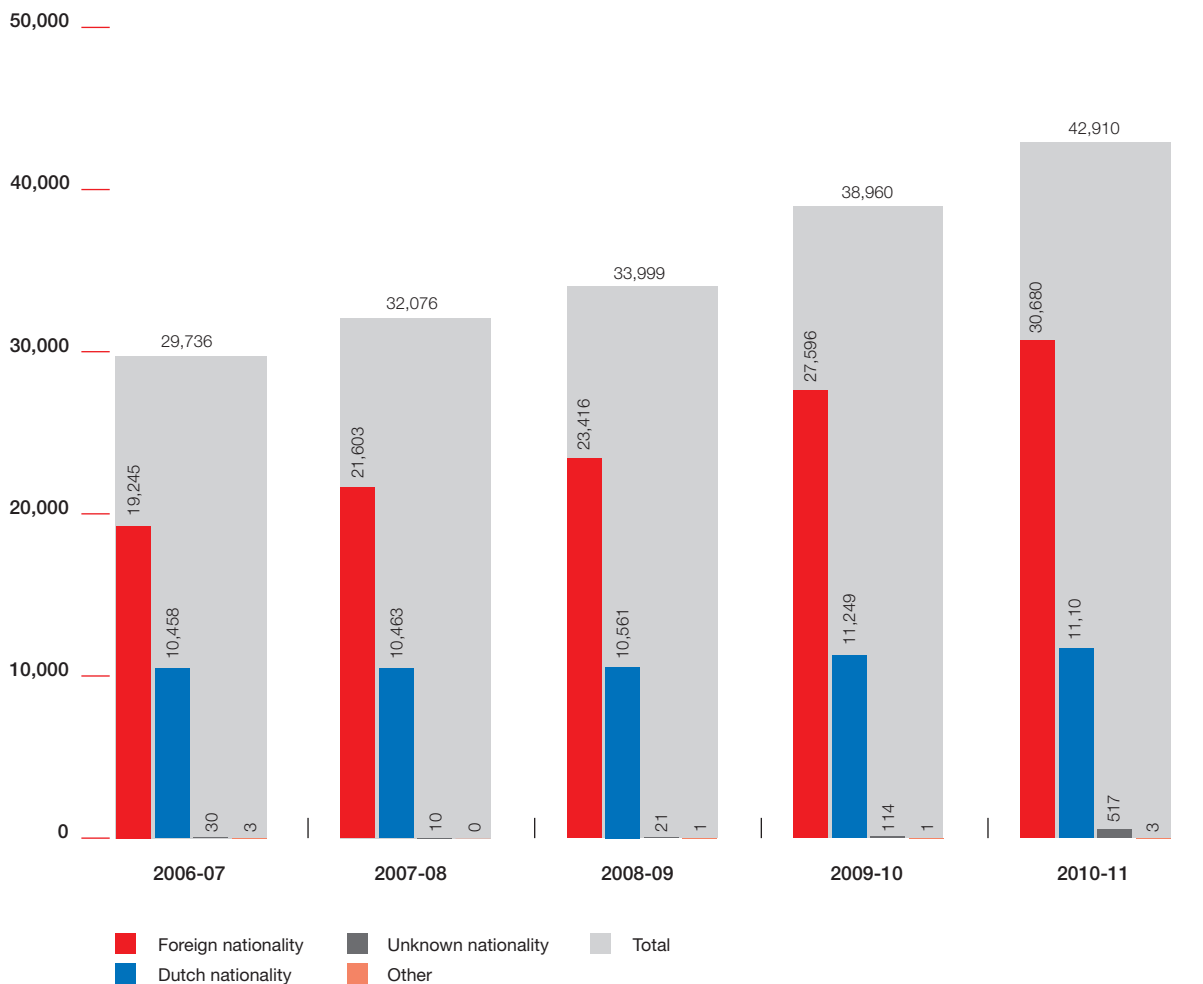
**Origin of secondary school diploma in percentages, 2006-2011**



Source: DUO-CFI, 2011 (revised figures)

Diagram 67

**Number of students holding a foreign secondary school diploma according to nationality, 2006-2011**



Source: DUO-CFI, 2011 (revised figures)

## 7.2.5 In short: what do we know, and what do we not know?

Diagram 68 provides a general outline of the information that is known and the information that is not known. To this end, a distinction is made between diploma mobility and credit mobility to or from the Netherlands, and to or from other countries. This latter category, relating to inbound mobility to or outbound mobility from other countries, is essential for making a comparison with the Dutch figures.

Diploma mobility only includes host institutions per student where enrolment data is usually collected at the national level. In the Netherlands, the latter applies to government-funded education; this is also often the case abroad, but not always. This enrolment data is available at the international level in the UOE tables. Residence permit data is also available in the Netherlands about students from outside the EU and EFTA region.

Not only host institutions but also seconding institutions are included per student for credit mobility. The seconding institutions are always higher education institutions whereas the host institutions can also be non-educational institutions, such as work placement companies. In the Dutch context, the distinction between government-funded and non-government-funded education institutions is relevant particularly in view of the growth in the latter category (for which little further

mobility data is known) over the last decade. Little is known about the situation in other countries.

Diagram 68

### Use of data in the maps and diagrams in this publication

Each diagram in this publication usually shows only one type of data. For instance, diploma mobility is illustrated using enrolment data provided by the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science and DUO or, at the international level, by the OECD or UNESCO, or using residence permit data provided by the IND. An exception is the estimate of the total student inflow and outflow in Maps 01 and 02 and in Diagrams 01 up to and including 04, where diploma and credit mobility data was aggregated. In the context of general estimates based on graduate surveys, credit mobility is illustrated using Erasmus data supplemented with IND residence permit data for work placements in the case of inbound credit mobility.

Diploma mobility is illustrated based on IND data on residence permits issued to students from countries outside the EU and EFTA for the purpose of study, and enrolment data relating to students from EU and EFTA countries. In principle, the residence permit information provides a more accurate and complete picture of mobility within higher education. This is because the information does not include foreign students who have been living in the Netherlands for some time whereas it

Diagram 68

### Availability of mobility data

Type of mobility	Direction	Destination/origin	Source	Type of education	Data availability regarding	
					EU+EFTA	Rest of the world
Diploma mobility	Inbound	To the Netherlands	The Netherlands	Government-funded education	+++	+++
		To other countries	Recipient countries	Non-government-funded education	-	++
	Outbound	From the Netherlands	Recipient countries	Education	++	++
		From other countries	Recipient countries (incl. NL)	Education	++	++
Credit mobility	Inbound	To the Netherlands	Recipient institution (in NL)	Government-funded education	-	-
			Non-government-funded education	-	-	
		To other countries	Sending institution/country	Education	-	-
			Recipient institution/country	Education	-	-
	Outbound	From the Netherlands	Sending institution/country	Extra-educational	-	-
			Recipient institution/country	Education	-	-
		From other countries	Sending institution/country	Education	-	-
			Recipient institution/country	Education	-	-
			Sending institution (in NL)	Government-funded education	+++*	+++*
			Recipient institution/country	Non-government-funded education	-	-
Sending institution/country	Education	-	-			
Sending institution/country	Extra-educational	-	-			
Sending institution/country	Education	+	-			

+ Total number  
++ Breakdown (country of origin/destination)

+++ Breakdown (discipline, etc.)  
\* Destination country unknown

does include students in non-publicly funded education. Unfortunately – only in terms of this publication – students from EU and EFTA countries are not included in these records. In the case of these students we use enrolment data based on nationality, which does not benefit from the advantages referred to above.

In the case of outbound diploma mobility we have only used OECD data based on nationality (i.e. international enrolment data) in the diagrams referred to.





# List of abbreviations

AL	Albania
AM	Armenia
AT	Austria
AZ	Azerbaijan
BE	Belgium
BG	Bulgaria
CBS	Statistics Netherlands
CH	Switzerland
CROHO	Central Register of Higher Education Study Programmes (DUO)
CY	Cyprus
CZ	Czech Republic
DE	Germany
DK	Denmark
DUO	Education Executive Agency
EEA	European Economic Area: EU plus Liechtenstein, Iceland and Norway
EFTA	European Free Trade Association: A free trade association between Iceland, Norway, Liechtenstein and Switzerland
Erasmus	European action programme for higher education, is part of the Lifelong Learning Programme (LLP)
ES	Spain
EU	European Union
FI	Finland
FR	France
GE	Georgia
GR	Greece
HR	Croatia
HU	Hungary
IE	Ireland
IMON	Internationalisation monitor for education in the Netherlands
IND	Immigration and Naturalisation Service
IS	Iceland
IT	Italy
LI	Liechtenstein
LLP	The EU's Lifelong Learning Programme
LT	Lithuania
LU	Luxembourg
LV	Latvia
MD	Moldova
MK	Macedonia
MT	Malta
MVV	Authorisation for Temporary Stay
Neso	Netherlands Education Support Office
NL	Netherlands
NO	Norway
Nuffic	Netherlands organisation for international cooperation in higher education
OCW	Ministry of Education, Culture and Science
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
PL	Poland
PT	Portugal
RO	Romania
ROA	Research centre for education and the labour market (Maastricht University)
RU	Russia
SE	Sweden
SI	Slovenia
SK	Slovakia
TR	Turkey
UA	Ukraine
UK	United Kingdom





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**Authors**

Eric Richters

Sjoerd Roodenburg

Rosa Becker

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Eric Daamen

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**Nuffic**

PO Box 29777  
2502 LT The Hague  
The Netherlands  
T +31 70 4260 260  
F +31 70 4260 399  
I [www.nuffic.nl](http://www.nuffic.nl)

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