2. DEGREES AND QUALIFICATIONS

The Bologna context/Bucharest Communiqué

To be written

BFUG Working Group on Structural Reforms

In the previous periods of the Bologna Process there were established individual working groups for most Bologna Process action line; e.g. working group on Recognition, on Quality Assurance, on Qualifications frameworks, and others. The 2012-2015 Working Group on Structural Reforms was mandated in to develop proposals for policy and practice aiming to improve instruments for structural reform: qualifications frameworks, quality assurance, recognition of qualifications and transparency instruments as well as the coherence between the main elements of structural reform within the European Higher Education Area as well as to oversee and advise the BFUG on the implementation of structural reforms.

Close cooperation between the Reporting Working Group and the Working Group on Structural Reforms Working group facilitated the work on the section of this report on Degrees and Qualifications.

Chapter outline

This chapter deals with the basic structures and tools of the Bologna Process and with recognition. The first section is devoted to the implementation of the three-cycle degree structure. The second section covers the Bologna tools – National Qualifications Frameworks, ECTS, and the Diploma Supplement. Section 3 covers the implementation of the Lisbon Recognition Convention ([1]).

2.1. Bologna structures

2.1.1. Structure and implementation of first and second cycles (BA and MA)

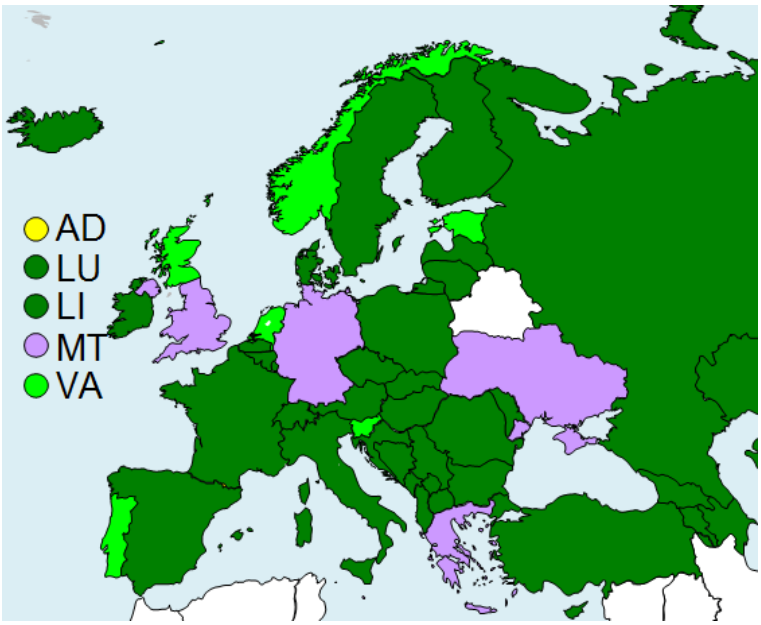
The commitment to adopt easily readable and comparable degrees and to establish a two-cycle system are mentioned as the two first action lines in the 1999 Bologna Declaration originally signed by 29 countries and now being implemented in the 47 countries constituting the European Higher Education Area. The stage of implementation of the two cycles has been an important goal of the Bologna process and therefore it has been addressed in all the reports prepared for the Bologna Ministerial summits in 2005, 2007, 2009, 2010 and 2012. Since 2012 the data for this indicator is collected by EUROSTAT thus adding precise statistical data complementing the comparisons based on the self BFUG survey The overarching qualifications framework for the EHEA adopted in 2005 sets credit ranges: 180-240 ECTS credits for the first cycle and 90-120 credits with at least 60 credits at second-cycle level.

This section considers how successful the implementation of the two cycles has been, as well as provides a more detail look at the typical models of the two-cycle system that have emerged. In addition to analyses of the changes in access between Bologna cycles, the 2015 report provides

(1) Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications concerning Higher Education in the European Region, Lisbon, 11 April 1997.

information on which countries regulate the minimum total student workload of the two cycles together. The report also follows the implementation of the third cycle and as well as linking short studies to the first Bologna cycle.

Figure 2.1: Scorecard indicator n°1: Stage of implementation of the first and second cycle, Data from BFUG survey, 2013/14



	2015 Report*	2012 Report**
	36	26
	7	13
	1	2
	0	4
	0	2
	5	1

No data available

* Sources: BFUG survey, 2014
** Sources: Eurostat and BFUG questionnaire, 2011.

Notes:

1. The indicator is defined as the share of students studying in the programmes belonging to the Bologna model (in %).

BFUG survey data is reflecting the situation in 2013/14.

2. Although Germany, Greece, and Malta could not provide the share of students studying in the programmes belonging to the Bologna model. However, according to other indicators, these three countries all have more than 90% of the study programmes belonging to the Bologna model.

Scorecard categories

At least 90 % of all ([2]) students are enrolled in a two-cycle degree system that is in accordance with the Bologna principles

70-89 % of all students are enrolled in a two-cycle degree system that is in accordance with the Bologna principles

50-69 % of all students are enrolled in a two-cycle degree system that is in accordance with the Bologna principles

25-49 % of all students are enrolled in a two-cycle degree system that is in accordance with the Bologna principles

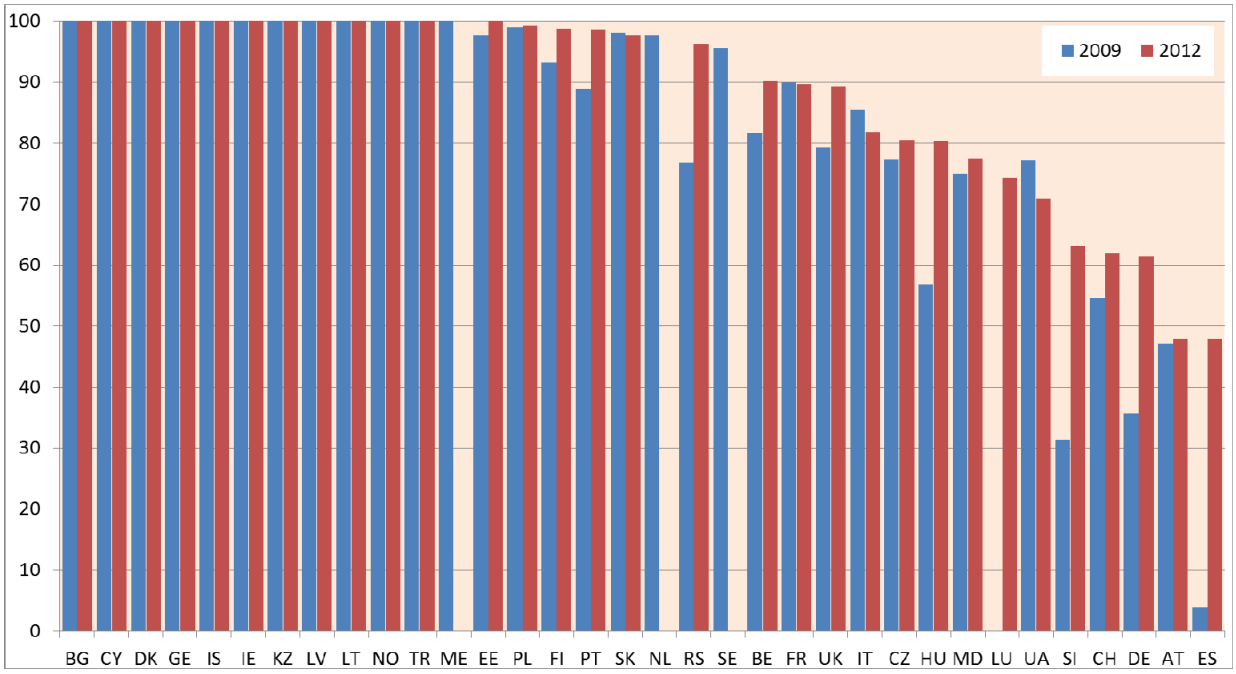
less than 25 % students are enrolled in a two-cycle degree system that is in accordance with the Bologna principles
OR
Legislation for a degree system in accordance with the Bologna principles has been adopted and is awaiting implementation

Scorecard indicator No1 shows that the two-cycle system is close to being implemented (see also notes above). The country explanations confirm that the seven countries which score “light green” (Estonia, Holy See, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Switzerland and United Kingdom (Scotland) have high number of students studying in programmes leading to qualifications in regulated professions.

The latest EUROSTAT data (Figure 2.1.B) demonstrates some countries which chose an unhurried step-by-step implementation in the first stages of the Bologna process, have now sped up implementation in recent years.

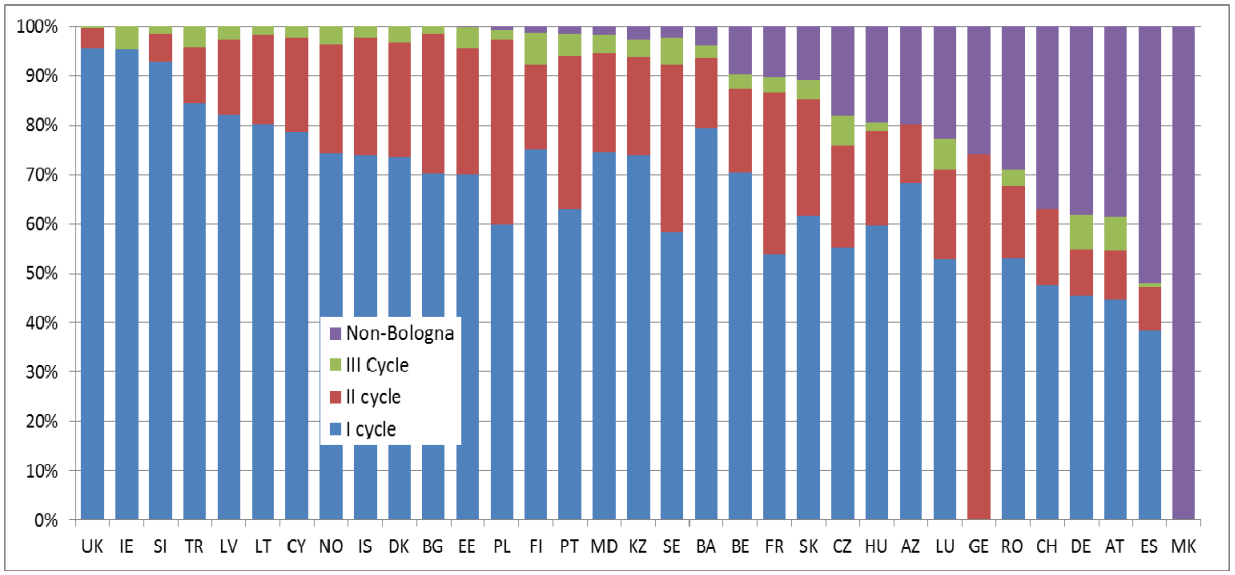
([2]) "All" = All students who could be involved in the 2-cycle system i.e. NOT those in doctoral programmes and NOT those in short higher education programmes. Students of ALL study fields are taken into account.

Figure 2.1B: Stage of implementation of the first and second cycle, Data from Eurostat, comparison between 2009 and 2012



Thus, in Spain the share of students studying in the programmes belonging to the Bologna model have grown for 44% between years 2009 and 2012, in Slovenia for 32%, Germany - for 26%, Hungary – for 24% but in Serbia for 19%.

Figure 2.2: Distribution of students enrolled in programmes following the Bologna three-cycles structure, by cycle, 2011/2012



***Source:* Eurostat.**

Figure 2.2 illustrates that twelve out of the 34 higher education systems, for which data is available, had all students enrolled in programmes following the Bologna-cycles structure and in another eight systems less than 5% students follow programmes outside the Bologna framework. At the other extreme, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia does not use the Bologna framework..

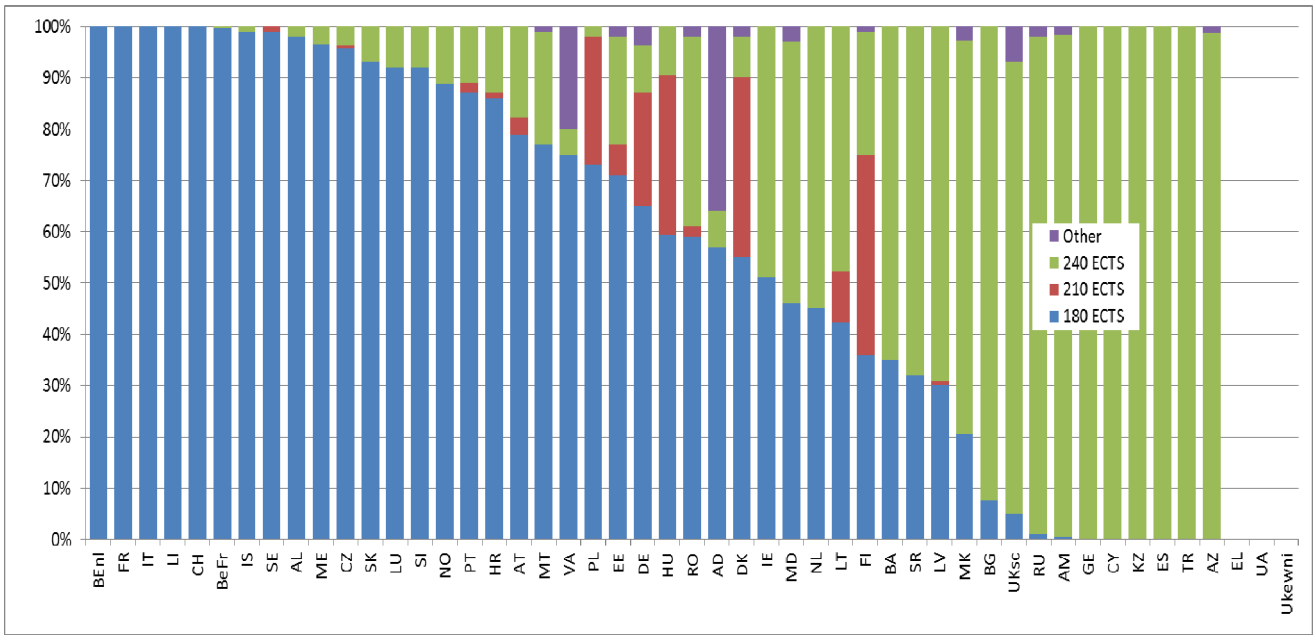
Most common models and typical credit ranges of ECTS in the first cycle

Figure 2.3 shows the share of programmes having the typical workload of 180 ECTS and 240 ECTS, credits, but also a likely value of 210 ECTS and or another number of credits. The average share of the whole EHEA are: programmes with workload of 180 ECTS - 58%, workload 240 ECTS – 37%, workload 210 ECTS – 4% and other workload – just 2%. Thus, the workload 180 and 240 ECTS are the main ones, yet 180 ECTS workload is by half more widespread than 240 ECTS. 210 ECTS workload is not widespread in EHEA at large, but it is important in Denmark (35% programmes), Finland (39%), Germany (20%) Hungary (31%) and Poland (25%). In most cases the 210 ECTS workload is used in professional/ applied bachelor programmes up to 30 ECTS credits are allocate for professional training or placements.

Data on the share of students enrolled in these programmes have also been collected. They mainly confirm the same trends. However some countries were not able to provide data on the number of or proportion of students..

There is no single model of first-cycle programmes in the EHEA. Most countries have a combination of 180 ECTS and 240 ECTS and another duration in the first cycle. Like in 2012, a unique 180 ECTS Bachelor model exists only in the Flemish Community of Belgium, France, Italy, Liechtenstein and Switzerland. While Finland also shows a strong Predominance of the 180 ECTS model can be seen in French Community of Belgium, Albania, Czech Republic, Luxembourg, Montenegro, Norway, Slovakia, Slovenia and Sweden

Figure 2.3: Share of first cycle-programmes having workload 180 ECTS credits, 210 Credits and 240 ECTS credits or other number of credits*, 2013/14



Source: BFUG questionnaire ,

UK (1) = UK-ENG/WLS/NIR

* *Greece and United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) could not provide statistical data on the breakdown of first cycle programmes by workload and Ukraine failed to submit data*

A unique 240 ECTS model is also found in Cyprus, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Spain, Turkey while in Azerbaijan, Armenia, Bulgaria, Former Yugoslav republic of Macedonia, Russian Federation, Spain and in United Kingdom (Scotland) more than 75 % of programmes. follow the 240 ECTS model. The Netherlands should also be added to this group, because while the share of programmes of 240 ECTS programmes is around 45 %, the share of students in this model is 70 %.

The comparison with the Report of 2012 shows a slight trend towards further diversification in including moving away from the workload of 180 ECTS.

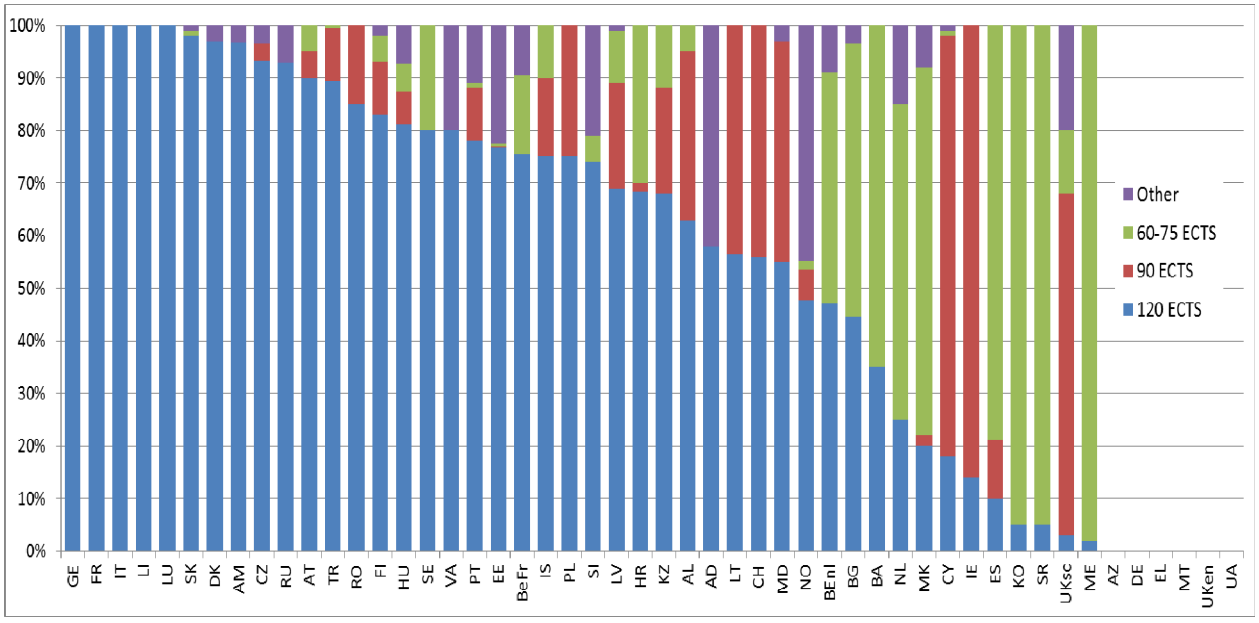
Information from the Question I.8 should be added

Half the countries (23) confirmed that in their higher education systems academic and professional programmes are structured differently. Academic and professional programmes may have different duration. In first cycle professional programmes are longer, for instance in Denmark, Finland, Hungary, Latvia and the Netherlands, professional programmes have workload of 210 or 240 ECTS credits while academic programmes include 180 ECTS credits. On the contrary, in Bulgaria, academic programmes require 240 ECTS credits but professional programmes require 180 ECTS credits.

Some countries admit differences in the proportion between general, specialised and applied knowledge and skills, especially in the case of programmes leading to qualifications for regulated professions, i.e. if the education in the EU directives 2005/36/EC and 2014/55/EU or national requirements for regulated.

Most common models and typical credit ranges of ECTS in the second cycle

Figure 2.4: Share of second-cycle (master) programmes with a workload of 60-75, 90, 120 or another number of ECTS credits, 2013/14*



Source: BFUG questionnaire.

**Azerbaijan, Germany, Greece, Malta and United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) could not provide statistical data on the breakdown of first cycle programmes by workload and Ukraine failed to submit data*

In the second cycle (Figure2.4), the 120 ECTS model is by far the most widespread, being present in 43 higher education systems. 120 ECTS credits is the sole model in Azerbaijan, France, Georgia, Italy, Liechtenstein and Luxembourg and is used in more than 75 % programmes in a further 21 systems. Since 2012, Albania and Armenia and Turkey which used to have pure 120 ECTS second In average, in the EHEA 65% second cycle programmes follow 120 ECTS model, while 60-75 ECTS model is present in average in 16% programmes, 13% second cycle programmes in the EHEA follow 120 ECTS, model but 6% of programmes have another duration.

The 60-75 ECTS model is present in 26 countries and dominates in four systems (eight in 2012). The 90 ECTS model is less widespread: while it is present in 22 systems, it dominates in only three countries (six in 2012) of them –Cyprus, Ireland, and the United Kingdom (Scotland). In 19 higher education systems, there are also programmes with a workload other than 60-75, 90 or 120 ECTS

credits. The above tendencies were also confirmed by the data on the shares of students enrolled in second-cycle programmes while in the first cycle professional programmes are typically longer than academic ones, as regards second cycle, the tendency is the opposite: professional programmes are often shorter than academic.

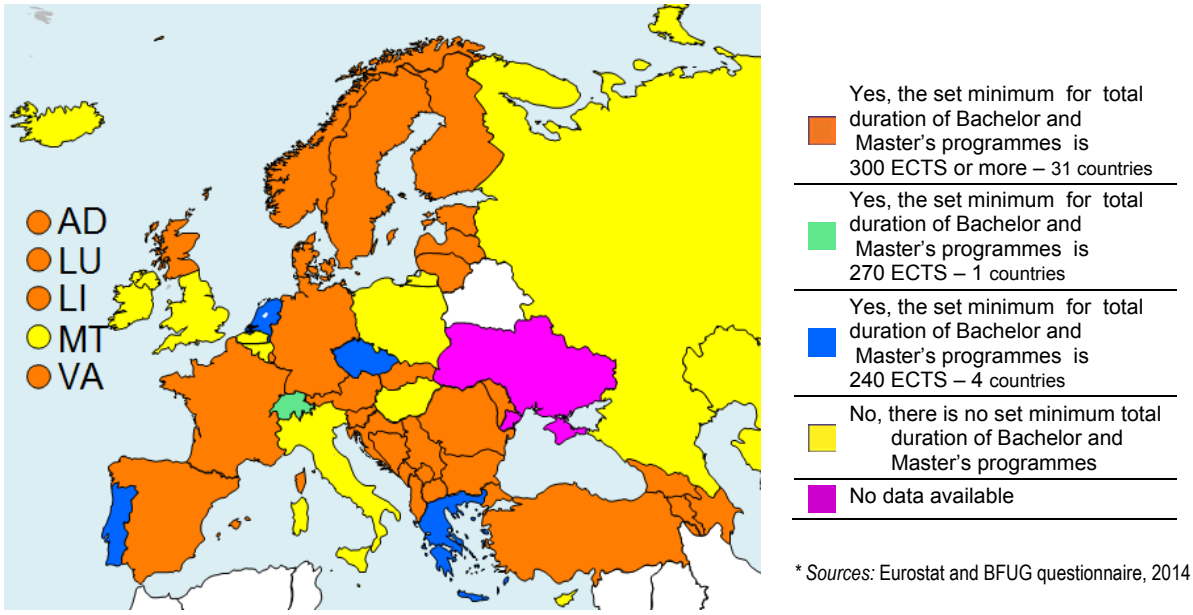
The share of second cycle programmes with duration outside 60-120 ECTS interval in most cases is between 1% and 5%, however they reach in Russia 10% and 13,5% in Norway.

There is no single model of both first and second-cycle programmes in the EHEA. In the first cycle, most countries have a combination of workload 180 ECTS and 240 ECTS. In some countries the number of (usually professional) programmes the 210 ECTS model is significant as well.

In the second cycle, the most common model is 120 ECTS – two thirds of programmes follow this workload. The other model are less widespread in the EHEA as a whole but they are dominating in particular countries, e.g. 90 ECTS is dominant in Cyprus, Ireland and UK-Scotland but 60-75 ECTS model – Montenegro, Serbia and Spain.

Common duration of Bachelor's and Master's programmes

Figure 2.5: Nationally set minimum total duration of the Bachelor & Master programmes, 2013/14



Source: BFUG questionnaire, 2014

A student's total workload for the combination of first and second cycle studies may vary considerably in the EHEA. While the most widespread combination is the 180 ECTS first cycle studies plus 120 ECTS second cycle studies, at least twelve combinations in the interval of total workload of 240 ECTS ("3+1") to 360 ECTS ("4+2") exist. The difference between the extremes is 120 ECTS or two nominal years of study, and this reality has caused recognition problems. For this reason, the 2014 BFUG questionnaire countries were asked if they have set a minimal total workload of first and second cycle studies.

As shown in Figure 2.5, 36 out of 47 higher education systems regulate the minimum total workload of the two cycles. Out of the 36 countries that have set the minimum, 31 countries mention 300 ECTS. Some countries underline that total 300 ECTS allows several of the bachelor and master combinations

(mainly “3+2”; “4+1”). Georgia and Azerbaijan have set an even higher minimum total workload (360 ECTS and 330 ECTS correspondingly). Switzerland has set the minimum of 270 ECTS. Finally, four countries – Czech Republic, Greece, the Netherlands and Portugal require at least 240 ECTS credits (“3+1”).

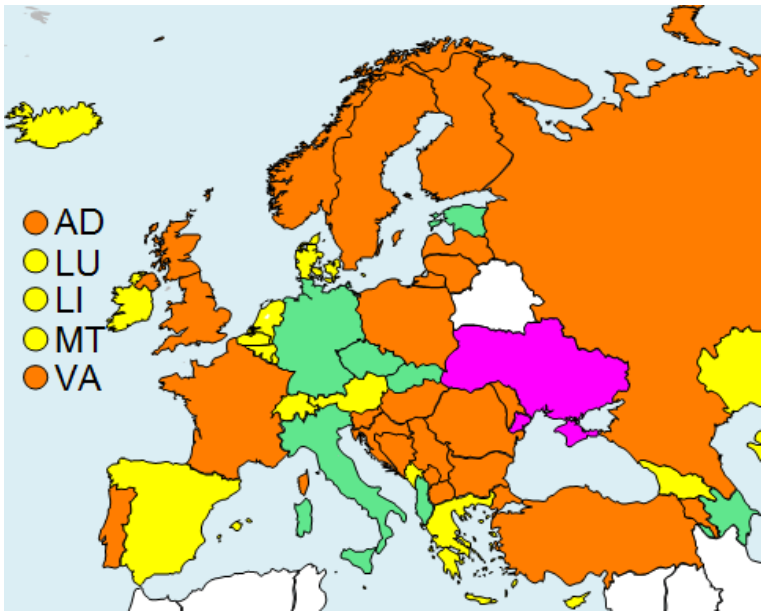
Lithuania and Moldova also regulate the maximum workload of the first and second combined – 360 ECTS credits and 330 ECTS credits respectively.

Programmes outside the typical Bologna models

31 higher education systems confirm the existence of degree programmes outside the two Bologna cycle (Bachelor-Master) model.

Integrated first and second cycle programmes. The most typical ‘deviation’ from the Bologna two cycle model are integrated programmes including both the first and second cycle of studies and leading to a second cycle qualification. This kind of programme in most cases leads to qualifications in regulated professions, i.e. in the fields of medicine, dentistry, veterinary medicine, nursing and midwifery, architecture, and in some countries also engineering, law, theology, teacher training and some others. In the earlier years of the Bologna process a substantial number of countries kept measuring the workload in those programmes in years or semesters. However, Figure 2.6. shows that in 2014 only eight countries Albania, Azerbaijan, Czech Republic, Estonia, Germany, Italy and Slovakia still measure workload in years/semesters.

Figure 2.6: Presence of the integrated/long programmes leading to a second-cycle degree 2013/14



* *Sources:* Eurostat and BFUG questionnaire, 2014

The duration of integrated programmes leading to regulated professions is usually chosen according to the requirements of national legislation and in the EU/EEA countries according to the EU directive 2015/36/EC amended by 2014/55/EU in the EU/EEA countries. In general, this duration is 300-360 ECTS (five-six years) depending on the regulated profession in question. The share of the above programmes varies between 2,3% in Finland to 28% in Sweden and Switzerland. As regards the United Kingdom, integrated programmes are shorter than in other countries – 240 ECTS/4years of which 60 ECTS credits at the second cycle level, mainly in Science, Technology, Engineering and Maths (STEM) subjects and professions allied to medicine Leaving remaining 10% to arts, humanities and social science.

Second cycle programmes with duration outside the Bologna 60-75, 90 and 120 ECTS pattern. Deviations to the typical Bologna duration of the second cycle (outside 60-120 ECTS credits) are observed in 27 Higher education systems, mainly in those cases where programmes leading to regulated professions have been rearranged into two Bologna cycles, but the regulations of the profession in question require total duration of studies longer than 300 ECTS/5 years. For this reason in the second cycle programmes can comprise up to 180 ECTS Belgium, Cyprus, Finland, Holy See, Montenegro, Norway, Switzerland and even more in United Kingdom (Scotland) - 187,5 ECTS credits), and up to 150 ECTS credits in Czech Republic, Finland and Hungary - mainly in medicine, dentistry, pharmacy, veterinary medicine, architecture, law or theology.

In the United Kingdom, there are more second cycle qualifications outside the Bologna model, such as Taught MPhil (<180 ECTS), Postgraduate diplomas (60 ECTS), Postgraduate certificates (30 ECTS). Some other countries have introduced higher duration of second cycle (180 ECTS) with a view to accommodate students having a bachelor degree in different field (Slovakia) or programmes with specific Language requirements (Holy See).

'Pre-Bologna' programmes. Another group of programmes including both first and second cycles are the 'pre-Bologna' programmes in those countries whose legislation allowed for long transition periods, for instance in Andorra, Slovenia, Spain and some other countries. Those programmes will cease to exist when first cohort of the students study in the Bologna model will graduate.

Access to the next cycle

Access between the Bologna cycles has been among the most important issues already since the beginning of the Bologna process. It has been stated in the Bologna Process that first-cycle degrees should give access to studies in the second cycle, while the second-cycle degrees should give access to doctoral studies" ([3]). The access is defined is in the sense of the Lisbon Recognition Convention.

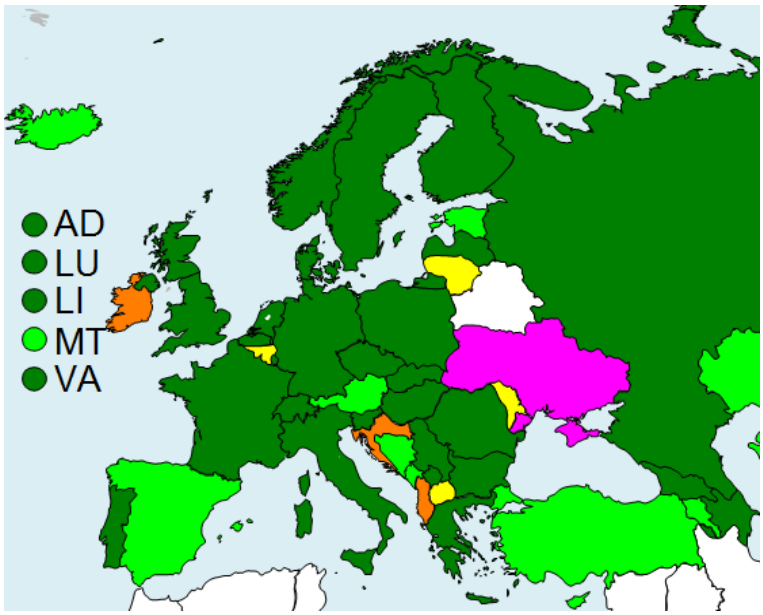
However, even if access is provided in the understanding of the Lisbon Recognition Convention, there are several reasons why not all first-cycle programmes give direct access to the second-cycle, and this is often related to a binary differentiation between "academic" and "professional" programmes leading to a requirement that holders of professional first-cycle degrees are required to follow bridging programmes. Indeed in several countries, there may be no second-cycle programmes that provide direct continuation of some or all professional first-cycle programmes. Similar reasons may hinder access of holders of the "professional" second cycle qualifications to enter doctoral studies. Consequently, ministers in several of Bologna ministerial communiques encouraged to make effort to, removing barriers to access and progression between cycles ([4])([5]).

Are of such programmes ([3]) Realising the European Higher Education Area. Communiqué of the Conference of Ministers responsible for Higher Education, Berlin, 19 September 2003.

([4]) The European Higher Education Area – Achieving the Goals. Communiqué of the Conference of European Ministers Responsible for Higher Education, Bergen, 19-20 May 2005.

([5]) London Communiqué: Towards the European Higher Education Area: responding to challenges in a globalised world, 18 May 2007.

Figure 2.7: Scorecard indicator n°2: Access to the next cycle, 2013/14*



	2015 Report*	2012 Report**	2009 Report***
	30	37	42
	11	9	2
	5	1	4
	2	0	0
	0	0	0
	1		

* *Sources:* Eurostat and BFUG questionnaire, 2014

United Kingdom: data from Northern Ireland only, for England and Wales data are not centrally available

Scorecard categories

All first-cycle qualifications give access to second-cycle programmes and all second-cycle qualifications give access to at least one third-cycle programme without major transitional problems ([6])

There are some (less than 25%) first-cycle qualifications that do not give access to the second cycle, **or** some second cycle-qualifications that do not give access the third cycle

There are some (less than 25 %) first-cycle qualifications that do not give access to the second cycle **and** some second-cycle qualifications that do not give access to the third cycle

A significant number (25-50 %) of first and/or second-cycle qualifications do not give access to the next cycle

Most (more than 50 %) first and/or second-cycle qualifications do not give access to the next cycle **OR** there are no arrangements for access to the next cycle

Note: Access to the next cycle is defined as the right of qualified candidates to apply and to be considered for admission (definition used in the Lisbon Recognition Convention). The indicator measures the percentage of first-cycle programmes that give access to at least one second-cycle programme. Scoring criteria are given in the table above.

In 30 countries, all first-cycle programmes theoretically give access to the second cycle. Yet, in some countries, there are either some (less than 25 %) first-cycle qualifications that do not give access to the second cycle (Bosnia-Herzegovina, Czech Republic, Holy See, Ireland and Spain, but more than 25% and Lithuania) or some second-cycle qualifications that do not give access to the third cycle (Armenia, Austria, Czech Republic, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Iceland, Kazakhstan, but in Moldova more than 25% of second cycle graduates get no access to third cycle and more than 25% in Albania and Moldova).

Several countries do not grant direct access to second cycle studies to holders of professional first cycle qualifications. For instance, in Belgium (Dutch speaking community), Lithuania and the Netherlands graduates from professional programmes must complete bridging programme, but Malta applies a 30 ECTS bridging course if the field of study is different, but in Switzerland additional courses have to be taken if the applicant comes from a different Higher Education institution. In Ireland

([6]) Compensatory measures required for students coming from another study field will not be counted as "major transitional problems".

and United Kingdom access is for holders of honours degree rather than the ordinary bachelor, generally.

As regards the access to the third cycle generally the situation is the same: in some countries the legislation stipulates that access to the doctoral studies are for holders of academic Master degree (Albania and Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia Montenegro, but in Armenia specifically medical programmes do not provide access to doctoral studies), or it says that professional second cycle degree doesn't give access to third cycle (Croatia, Montenegro, but in Moldova an additional 30 ECTS credits are required).

Thus, access to the next cycle (according to definition used in the Lisbon Recognition Convention) generally works. The cases where access is not granted occur either if the applicant holds has graduated from a professional programme, or holds a qualification which does not follow the Bologna pattern.

Regulation of progression between first and second cycle

Despite the general tendency towards easier access to the next cycle, when it comes to practical measures, access to the next cycle may require sitting additional examinations, taking additional courses or having a mandatory work experience, see Figure 2.6.

At access to second cycle applicants may have additional requirements, of which the main are the following: applicants have to sit additional examinations, to take additional courses or a prior job experience is requested, see Fig.2.6. However, there are several main cases of application of the additional requirements, namely: additional measures as a rule applied to all students; requirements at the cases where the applicants holding a professional first cycle qualification but seek admission to an academic second cycle programme; applicants holding a first cycle qualification in a different study field; applicants holding a first cycle qualification in the same study field

General additional requirement applied to all students. Just some countries use the above additional requirements for all students. In eight countries - AZ, BH, CZ, GE, KZ, MD, RU, TR, all students have to sit entrance exams, and some students will have to sit examinations in another 22 countries. However, several countries admitted that they chose the answer "Some students" due to additional requirements in the cases of highly specific fields e.g. creative arts, sports or other and therefore the requirements affect a small share of all students. The same is true in the cases of applying additional courses. Regarding the prior work experience as a rule, it is mentioned by 19 countries. In Finland, a professional first cycle degree holder applies to further professional studies, a work experience between two cycles is compulsory.

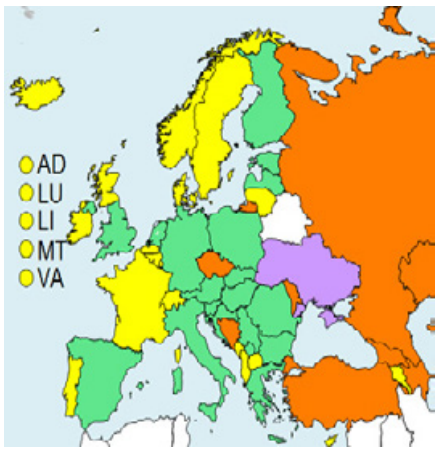
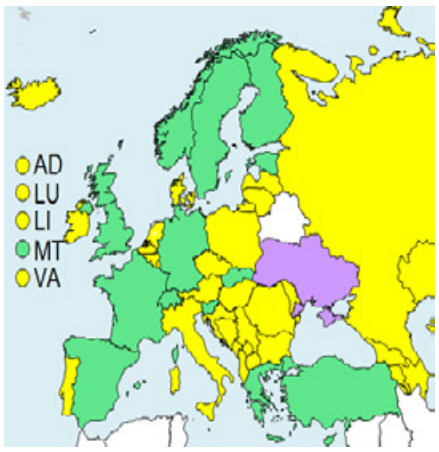
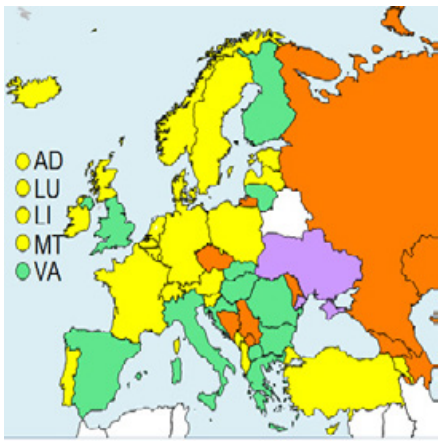
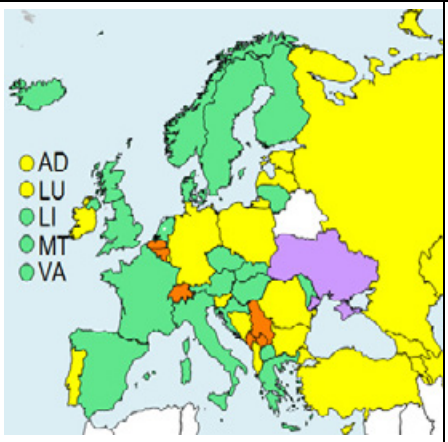
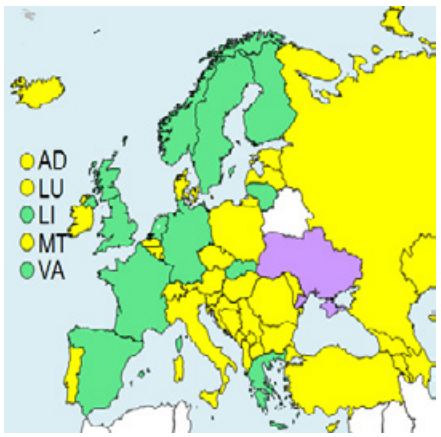
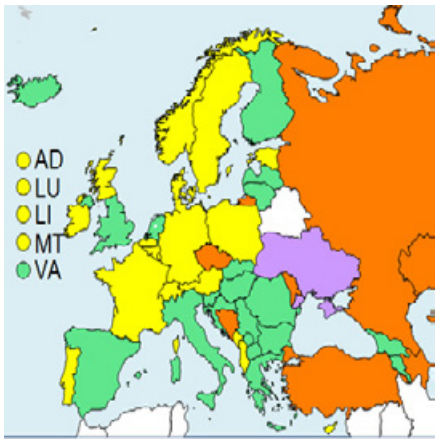
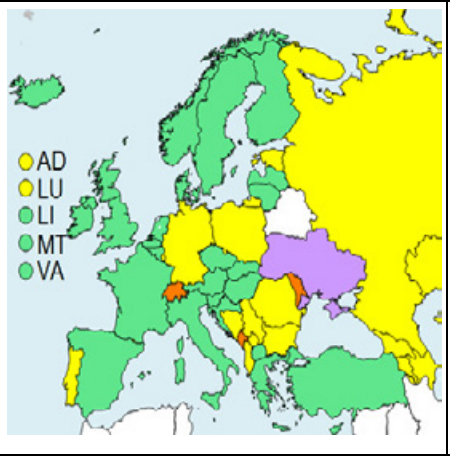
Applicants holding a professional first cycle qualification. All applicants holding profession first cycle qualifications have to sit examination in the countries mentioned above and in 25 countries the examinations are applied in some cases. As regards additional courses, five higher education systems – BEfr, BEnl, ME, RS and CH countries will apply additional course but 20 countries will apply this requirement in some cases. Some of these latter countries mention that the additional courses are applied individually.

Applicants holding first cycle qualification in a different field. Additional examinations are only applied in the above group of eight countries where the examinations are a general requirement, but 21 countries apply additional examinations in some cases.

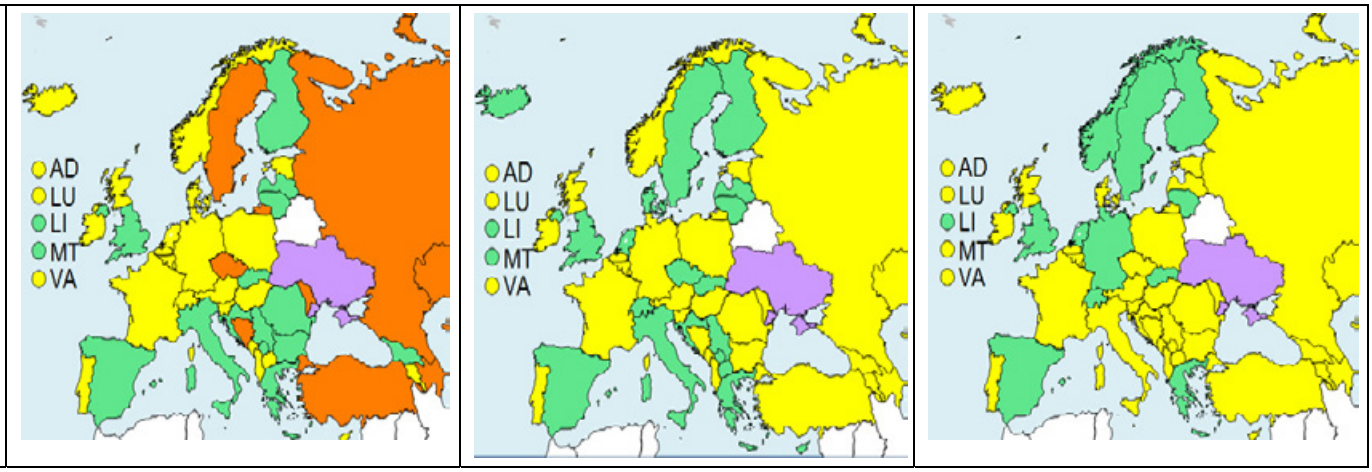
However, in Moldova, Montenegro and Switzerland all applicants coming from a different study field have to take additional courses, but in 17 countries the additional courses are applied in some cases. In Bulgaria there is no formal requirement for those coming from a different field to take additional courses, however the second cycle programme is prolonged.

Figure 2.6: Requirement to sit exams or take additional courses for holders of a first-cycle degree to be admitted to a second-cycle programme, 2013

No data | All students | Some students | No students

	Sitting examinations	Additional courses	Work experience
All holders of a first-cycle degree			
Holders of a professionally oriented first cycle degree			
Holders of a first cycle degree from a different study field			

Students having completed first-cycle programme at other HEI



No data | All students | Some students | No students

Applicants with cycle qualification in the same field but coming from a different higher education institution In the same group countries above plus Sweden applicants with cycle qualification in the same field but coming from a different HEI will have to sit examinations, but in 25 other countries exams will be applied in some cases. No country applies additional courses to all such applicants, but in 28 countries additional courses can be required for some students.

At access to second cycle programmes, the vast majority of countries do not apply an overall requirement to sit additional examinations, take additional courses or have work experience but about half the countries may apply such measures in some cases. According to country comments, the "some cases" indeed mean that a small part of applicants are affected by those measures, mainly in the cases of programmes of creative arts and sports where specific skills are needed. However, there is a group of 8 countries where sitting additional examinations is a rule, and not an exception.

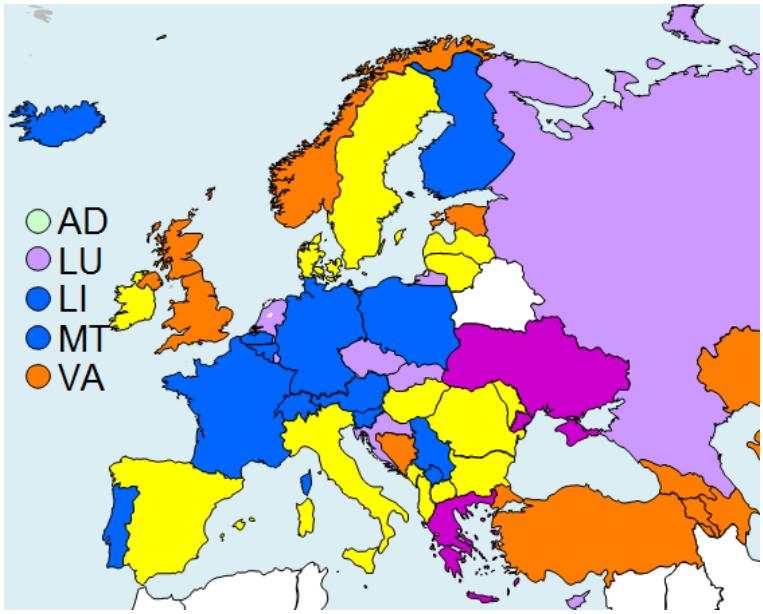
There are two groups of applicants who have to fulfil additional requirements: those holding a professional first cycle degree applying for admission to an academic second cycle programmes, those who come from a different study field, but also those who have a degree in the same field but come from the same HEI.

Share of first-cycle graduates who actually continue their studies in the second cycle

According to other indicators, in vast majority of countries the access according to definition used in the Lisbon Recognition Convention. It shows that in principle, nearly all first cycle graduates are eligible to have access at least to a second cycle programme in the same field. However, it does not mean that nearly all first cycle graduates should undertake further studies in a second cycle programmes. The Figure 2.7 shows the share of first-cycle graduates who actually continue studies in a second-cycle programme.

In 2014 only in fourteen countries share of graduates continue to second cycle is 1-25% compared to 17 countries in 2011. According to Figure 2.3, most of the above fourteen countries have bachelor programmes with 240 ECTS workload which might be linked with higher employability. Of course, there are reasons possible, for instance high selectiveness at admission to the second cycle. At the same time, the number of countries where 75-100% students follow to the second cycle has shrunk even stronger: from 13 in 2011 to 6 in 2014. In addition, in some of those six countries the share of students continuing to second cycle remained in the 76-100% interval but decreased within this interval.

Figure 2.7: Share of first-cycle students continuing studies in a second-cycle programme after graduation from the first cycle (within two years), 2013/14



	2014	2011
>1-25 % countries	14	17
> 25-50 % countries	14	10
> 50-75 % countries	12	7
> 75-< 100 % countries	6	13
National data not submitted	2	1

Source: BFUG questionnaire.

Generally, very high shares of students who continue to second cycle may be an indication that bachelor graduates cannot find jobs and therefore massively enter the second cycle, as it was admitted in several countries in the 2012 report. Finland and the Netherlands admit that the share of bachelor graduates may differ between university graduates and the ones of the professional HEIs – while the former opt for further studies, while the latter rather start their working life.

The changes since 2012 show that the number countries where nearly all first cycle graduates follow studies has decreased by half, and number of those countries in which the only 1-25% of first cycle graduates follow on to second cycle. This is a positive move since very high share of students following to further studies usually is an indication that bachelor graduates has difficulties getting jobs and therefore are

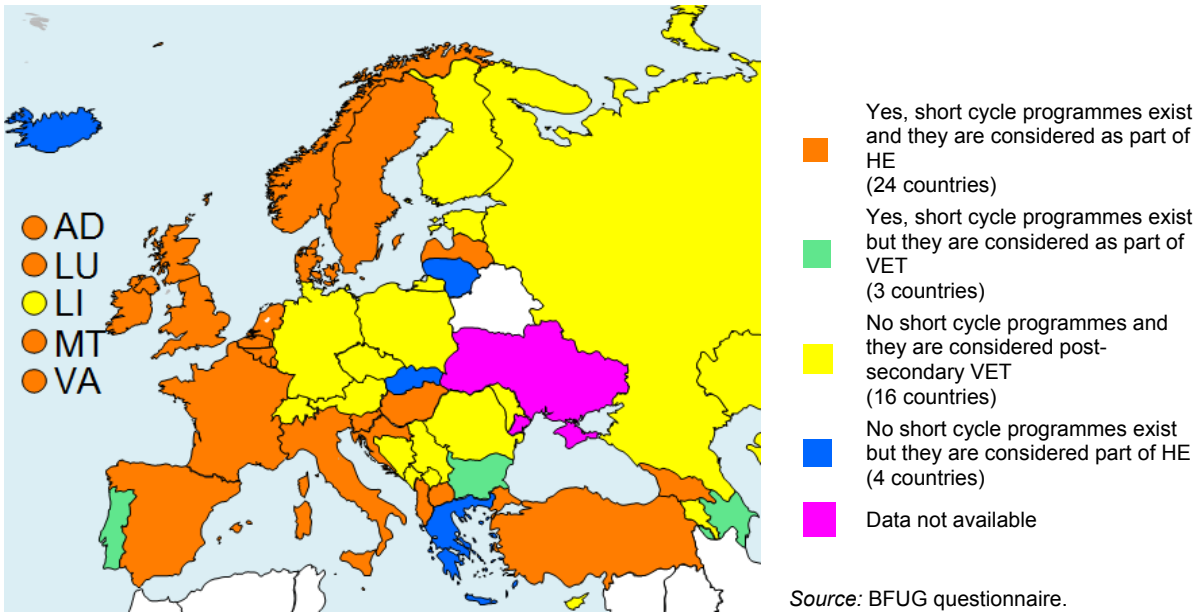
2.1.2. Short-cycle higher education programmes

Short cycle programmes have been object of discussion since the beginning of the Bologna Process. While a group of countries did not have short cycle programmes and they did not plan to introduce them, other group of countries had short cycle programmes and they were looking how to accommodate those programmes into the Bologna three cycle system. The compromise accepted in the Bologna Process ministerial Conference in 2005 in Bergen formulated "short cycle within the first cycle" was not an ideal solution. For these reasons several ministerial communiques addressed the short cycle studies with a view to improve transparency and comparability of this sector of higher education.

The 2014 BFUG survey attempted to clarify several issues related to short cycle studies. Not all countries have short cycle programmes, however the number of educational systems having short cycle programmes has grown from 14 in 2005 to 27 in 2014, namely Albania, Andorra, Azerbaijan, Belgium, Hungary, Denmark, France, FYROM, Georgia, Holy See, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Luxembourg, Malta, The Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Turkey and United Kingdom. At the same time, the short cycle programmes are considered to belong to higher education but in other countries they are attributed to post-secondary VET programmes. Altogether there are four groups of countries: countries that have short cycle programmes and they are considered part of HE, ones that have short cycle programmes but they considered those programmes as part of post-secondary VET. Among the countries that do not short cycle programmes also divide into those

considering short cycle programmes belonging to VET and those who consider them part of HE (see Figure 2.8).

Figure 2.8. Do short cycle programmes belong to higher education? 2014



Source: BFUG questionnaire.

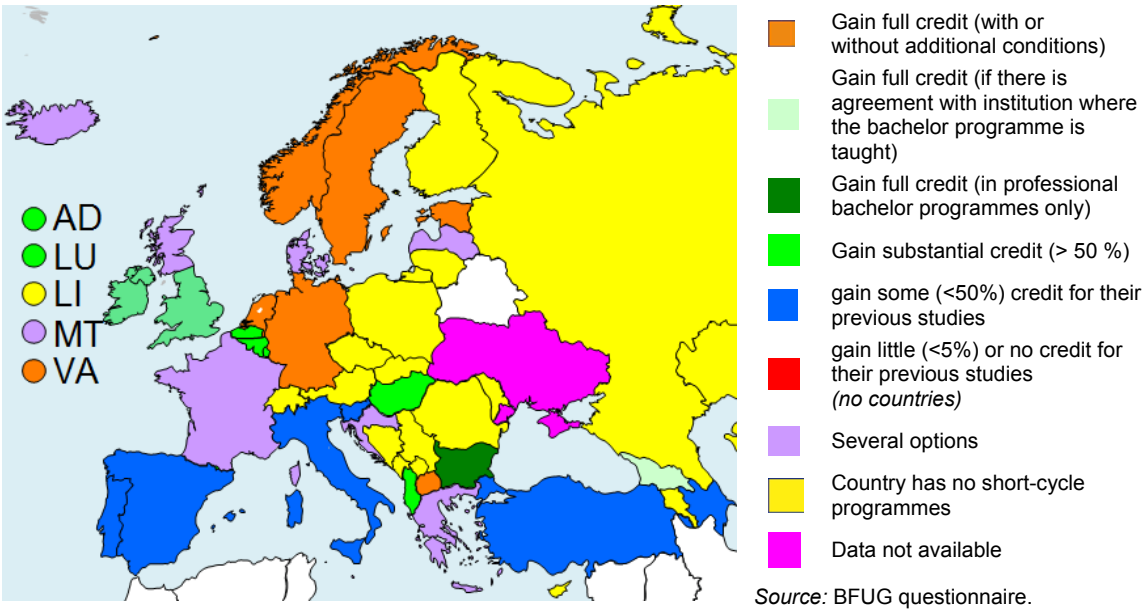
The diversity of the of the short cycle can also be seen from the names of the short-cycle qualifications vary greatly for instance: *Higher Education Certificate, Undergraduate certificate, Higher Technician, Professional diploma, Advanced Professional Diploma*, *Interim Qualification, Technological Diploma, Higher Education Diploma, Diploma of Higher Education*, *Undergraduate diploma, University diploma, Associate degree, Degree, Foundation Degree, First Level Professional Higher Education Diploma, Sub-Bachelor*[7]*, Professional Bachelor*. In addition, some countries such as France, Luxembourg, Malta, Spain an United Kingdom have several short-cycle qualifications and part of them are different level. Also, while majority of those qualifications belong to professional higher qualifications, but some of them are academic.

When continuing studies in a first-cycle programme, short-cycle graduates can often gain full credit for their further studies in Armenia, Estonia, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, the Netherlands, Norway, Russia, Serbia and Sweden (see Figure 2.8A).In Cyprus, Ireland and United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) short-cycle graduates can gain full credit for studies, but on the condition that there is an agreement between the institution where the short-cycle programme was taught and the institution where the bachelor programme is taught . In Bulgaria, full credit is granted but only when continuing in professional first-cycle programmes. Some countries also mention shorter programmes which either prepare for certain professions or are intermediate qualifications in programmes leading to a first-cycle degree. The length of such programmes can vary between 60 ECTS (one year) to 180 ECTS (three years). The most common length of short-cycle programmes seems to be 120 ECTS credits (two years), as mentioned by Andorra, the French Community of Belgium, Croatia, Denmark, Norway and Sweden.

In seven countries there are several options and in three of the countries the number of credits gained may vary between full credits to zero credit. For instance, in Georgia, there has not been any cases of recognition of short cycle programmes for the purposes to continue studies on bachelor's programmes.

[7] In UK *Diploma of Higher Education* is of higher level than *Higher Education Diploma*

Figure 2.8A: Gaining credits towards bachelor programme in the same field for previous short-cycle studies, 2014



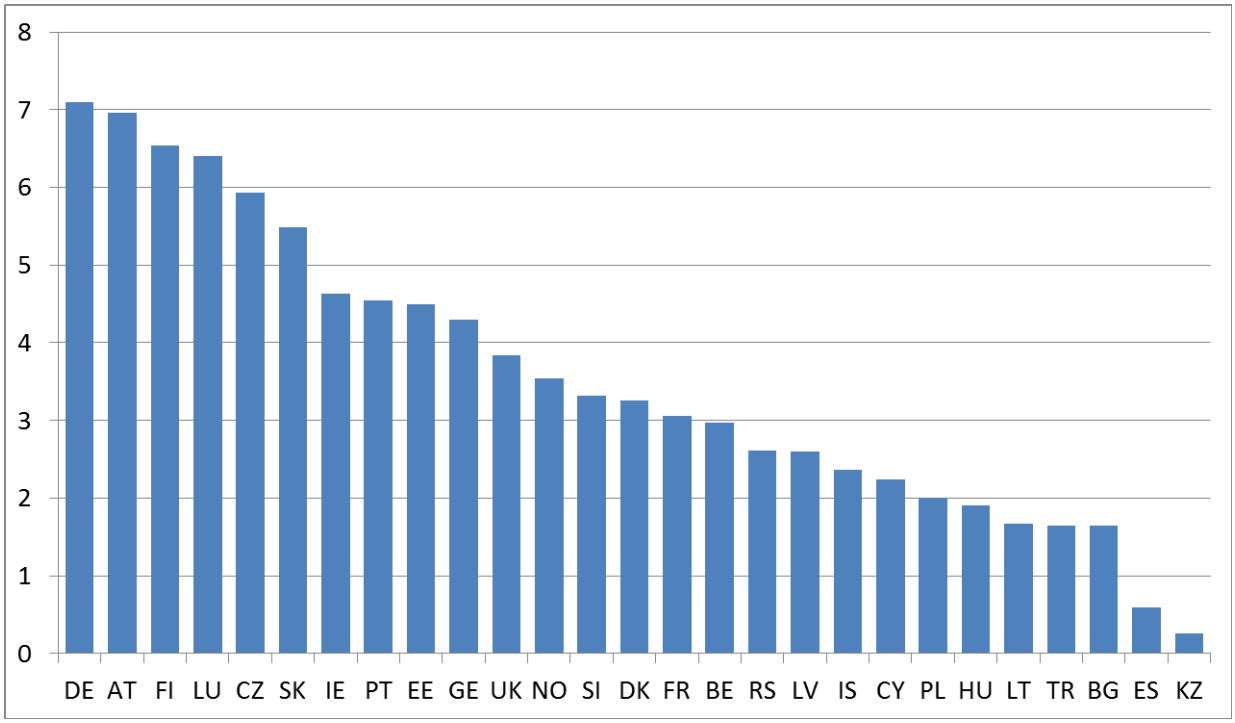
Source: BFUG questionnaire.

The short-cycle qualifications vary across the EHEA. They can be part of higher education or part of post-secondary education, their level may vary both internationally and within one country, and the holders of those qualifications. When continuing studies in a first-cycle programme, short-cycle graduates, the number of credits gained vary between full credit down to zero credits. The short cycle programmes and qualifications should be addressed in the next periods with a view to improve readability and international comparability.

2.1.3. Third-cycle programmes

The share of third cycle students in the total student community varies strongly across the EAIE. The newest Eurostat data of 2012 covers 27 countries within and outside the European Union.

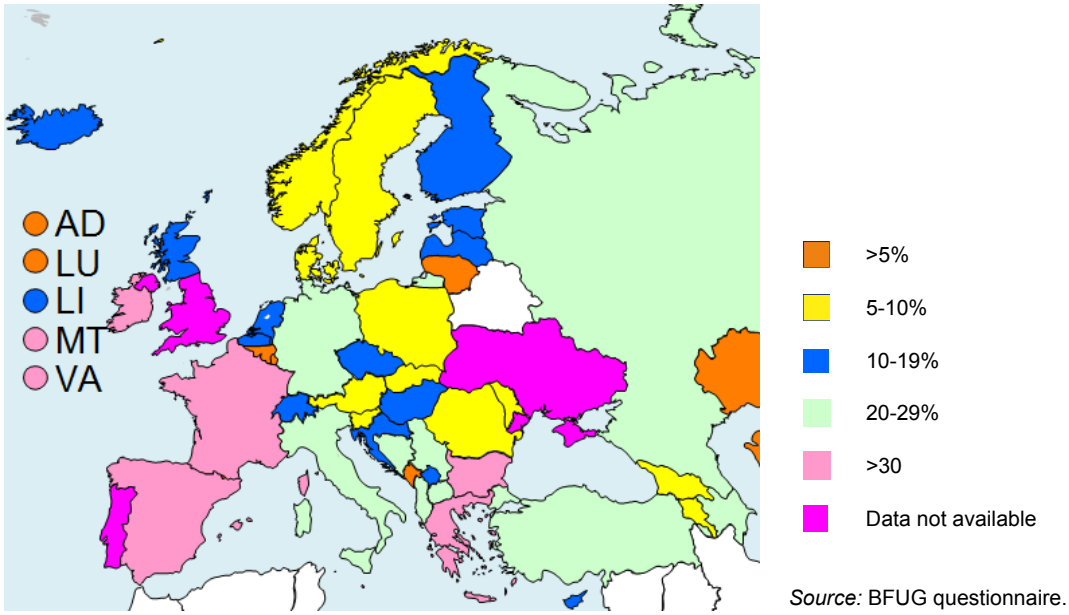
Figure 2_XX. Share or doctoral students in the total number of students from Eurostat 2014 collection, *(2012 of data)*



The smallest share of doctoral students is in Kazakhstan (0,25%), Spain (0,60%) in Spain while the highest percentages of third cycle students are over 6%in Austria, Finland and Luxembourg, but the higher share of doctoral students are in Germany (7,1%), see Figure 2_9 A.

While EUROSTAT data shows the share of doctoral students in all the students, the BFUG survey asked to the countries to estimate the percentage of second cycle graduates eventually entering into a third cycle programme, see results in Figure 2.10A.

Figure 2.10A: percentage of second cycle graduates eventually enter into a third cycle programme, 2013/14



Source: BFUG questionnaire.

The greatest flows of second cycle graduates to third cycle are in Bulgaria, Greece, Holy See, France, Ireland, Malta, and possibly UK (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) could not give an estimate.

Particularly, in England the nearly half of doctoral students had their previous education outside the UK.

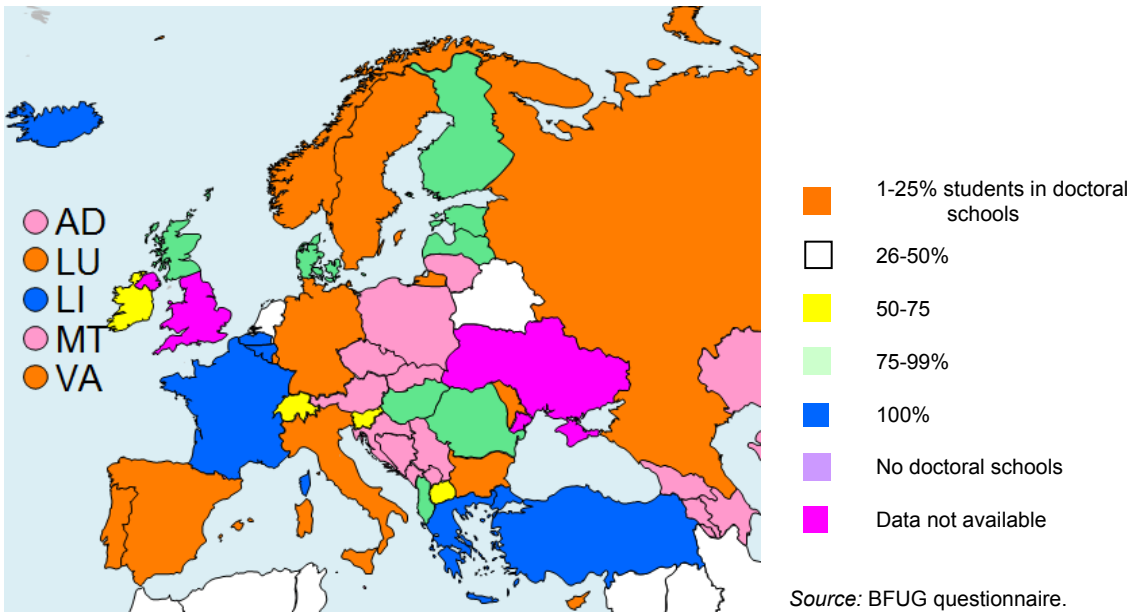
In 19 countries access to studies in third cycle without a second cycle qualification is also possible. In vast majority of those countries such access to third cycle without second cycle qualification is exceptional and only the high performing students are accepted. In the Flemish community of Belgium this opportunity is mainly given to foreign students. In Holy See, Montenegro, Romania, Spain in turn this path is available to students who have studied in the 300 ECTS programmes and therefore are only formally belong to first cycle graduates.

In most of cases the share of third cycle students entering to doctoral studies without a second cycle qualification is 1-5% in Belgium, Germany, Montenegro, Spain, Sweden, Turkey and UK (Scotland). In Cyprus, Denmark and Holy See the share is 6-15%, but in Ireland and Portugal this number reaches 16-25%. Austria, Finland, Greece, Malta, Romania and United Kingdom (England, Wales, Northern Ireland) can not specify the share of students.

Introduction about Doctoral schools to be written

In 2014, the 27 countries have doctoral schools compared with 30 in 2012. There still are 16 countries which do not have doctoral schools (see figure 2.9_1). Of those 32 countries where are doctoral schools, the most widespread share of students in doctoral schools in 12 countries is between 1-25% of doctoral students, but at the same time there are 8 countries where the most of the students are study in doctoral schools: 75-99% students in doctoral schools in 8 countries and all students in other 7 countries.

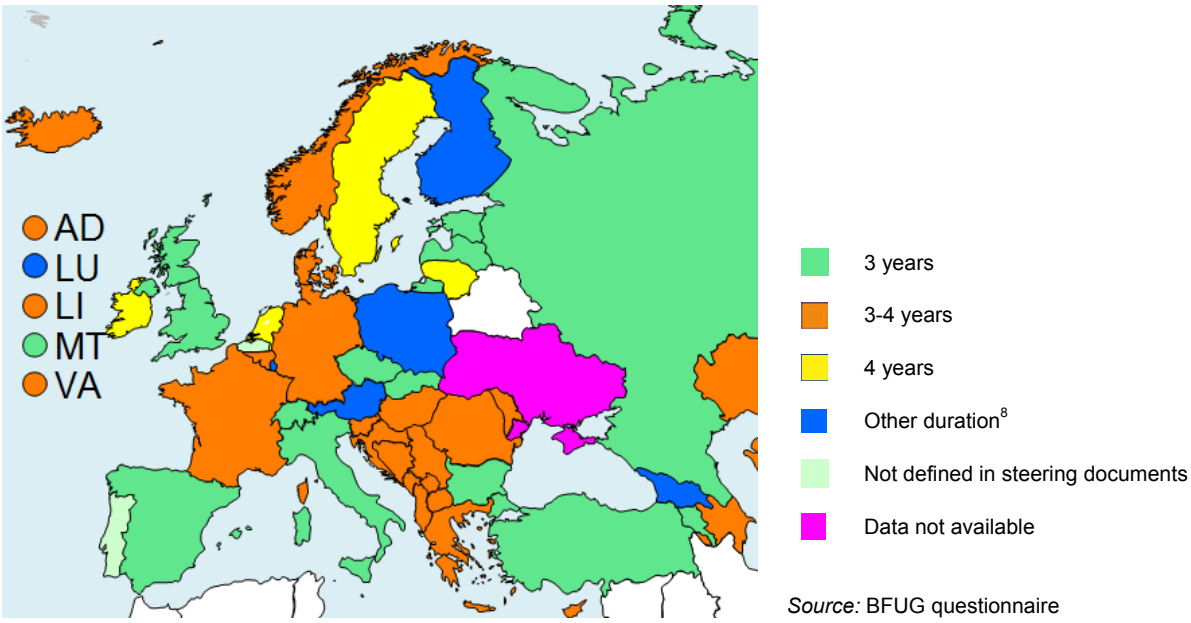
Figure 2_9_1. Existence of doctoral schools and percentage of doctoral students in doctoral schools, 2014 *NEW!*



Source: BFUG questionnaire.

In England: There are several routes through which to pursue a doctorate in England. These are primarily through traditional supervision based doctorates and specialist training in doctoral training centres. Doctoral Training Centres differ from traditional supervision in that they provide training for students within focused research areas, often defined strategically by the Research Council funder(s) from the outset. Centres can be focused on academic or industrially relevant research topics, or a mix of both. In addition there are other less commonly adopted routes such as professional doctorates.

Figure 2.9_2: The length of full-time third-cycle programmes defined in the national steering documents, 2013/14



Source: BFUG questionnaire

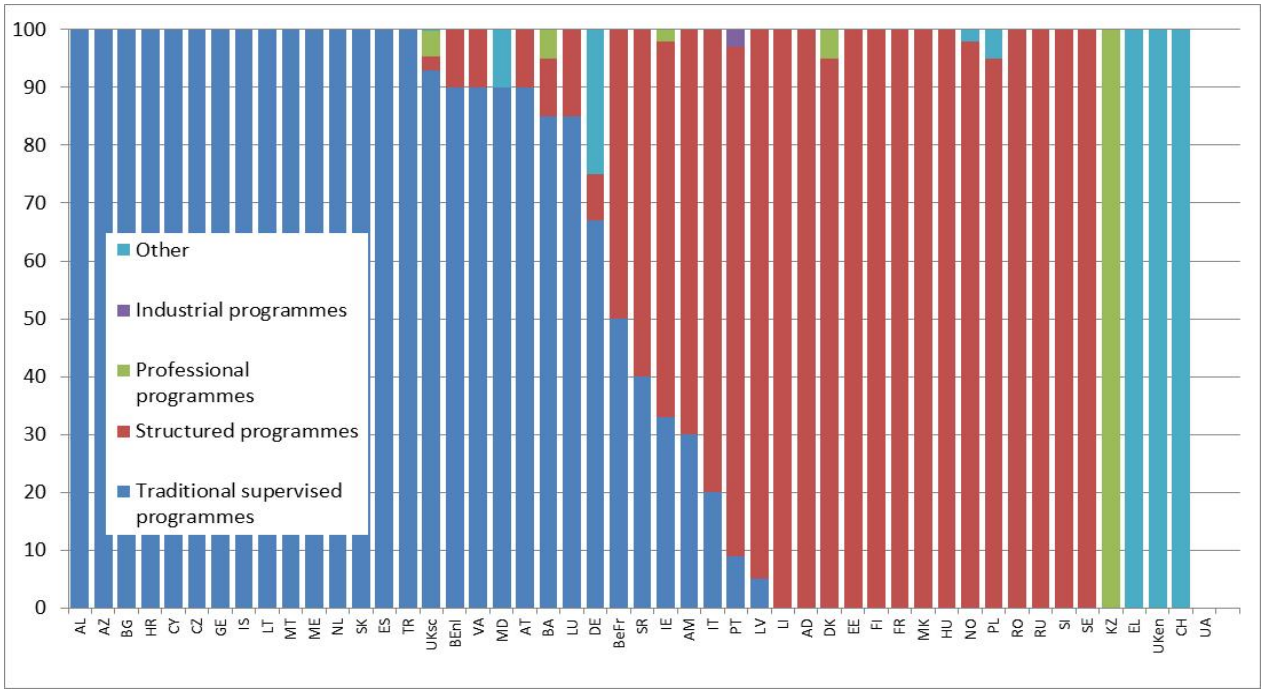
Compared to previous years, less countries have 3 year duration of doctoral studies – 24 countries in 2014 against 24 countries in 2012 (Figure 2.9_2). The second popular duration of doctoral studies is 3-4 years – in 14 countries in 2014. Only Cyprus, Greece and Poland do not mention doctoral training in their steering documents.

As shown in Figure 2.9_2, the most typical prescribed duration of full-time doctoral programmes is three years while in eight countries it is three-four years. Four countries make no attempt to define or regulate the length of doctoral studies. Actual duration is estimated to be between three and four years in most countries.

The traditional supervised doctoral studies still is the most widespread – it is the single model is in 16 countries and is dominating (over half the programmes) in another 9 countries (Figure 2.9_3). However, the structured doctoral studies are more widespread than before and in 2014 it is the single model in 14 countries and are dominating in six more countries. Professional doctoral programmes are not yet widespread. Only BEnl, DK, IE, KZ and UK have 2-5% professional doctoral programmes, but KZ – that all of doctoral programmes are professional. 3% of industrial doctoral programmes are run only by Portugal (3%).

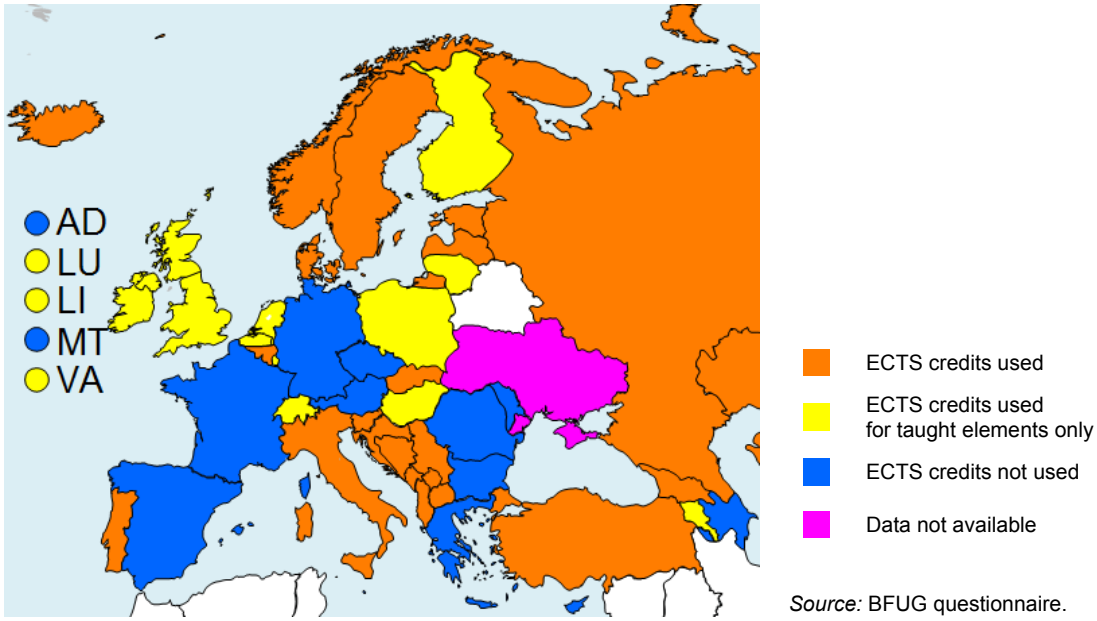
[8] Duration of doctoral studies other than the 3-4 years: Finland – 4-5 years, Georgia and Luxembourg – 3-5, Poland – 2-4

Figure 2.9_3: Proportion between traditional and structured doctoral studies and other types of doctoral programmes 2014



All countries that have a qualifications framework include doctoral studies. The use of ECTS in doctoral studies is growing over time. In 2014, 21 systems use ECTS for the whole doctoral studies and 14 countries for the taught elements (see Figure 2.10) in comparison to 18 and 10 systems in 2011 and another 10 systems for taught courses only. 18 other countries do not require ECTS to be used in doctoral education.

Figure 2.10: Use of ECTS credits in doctoral programmes, 2013/14



Source: BFUG questionnaire.

Like in 2011, all the countries which have qualifications frameworks also have included third cycle qualifications. In 8 countries – Albania, Armenia, France, Italy, Moldova, Norway, Slovenia and UK-Scotland besides doctoral degrees have other qualifications in the qualifications frameworks.

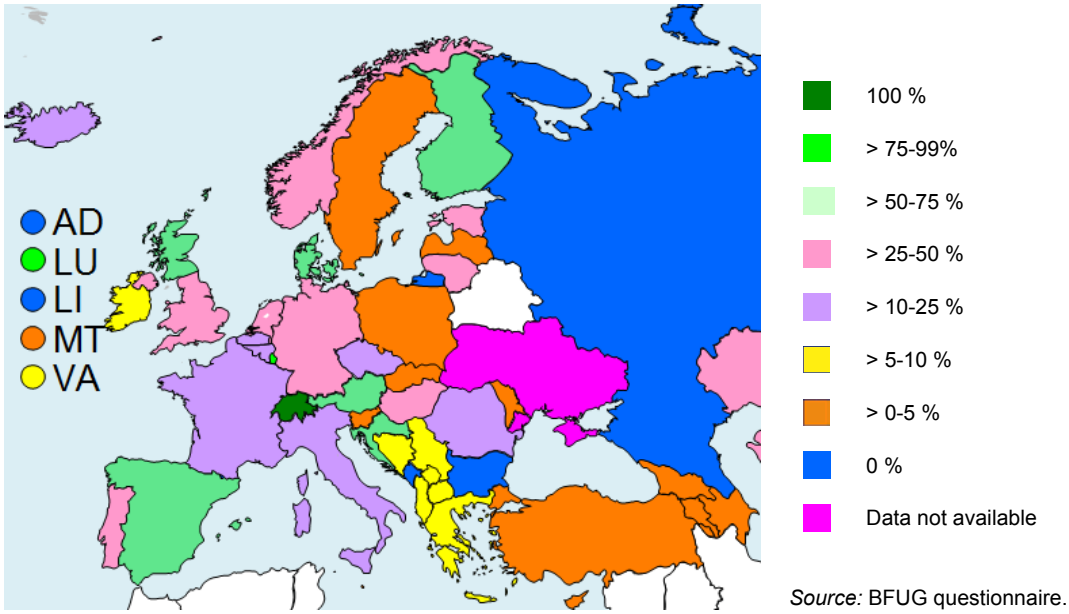
Names of qualifications should be added –Q.I 21.

2.1.4. Joint degrees and programmes

Introduction on Joint degrees to be written

Vast majority of countries have amended their legislation to take on board joint programmes and joint degrees, only Andorra, Cyprus, Moldova, Russia and Switzerland do not have explicit notion of joint programmes and joint degrees.

Figure 2.11: Estimated percentage of institutions that participate in joint programmes, 2013/14

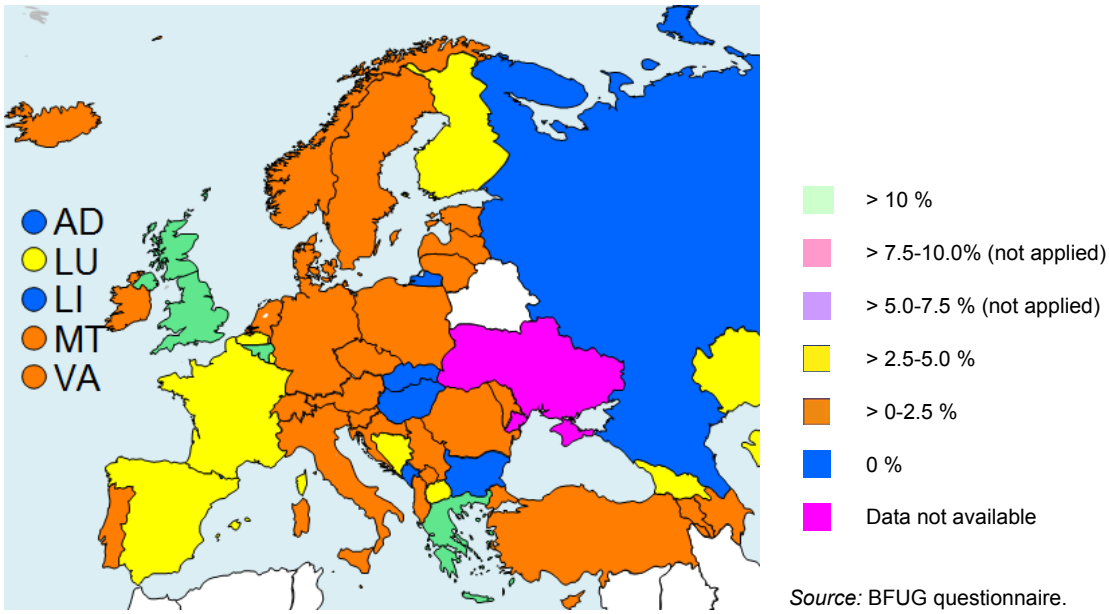


Source: BFUG questionnaire.

At the same time national legislation does not explicitly allow awarding joint degrees in AD, AM, BG, CH, CY, MT, MD, RU and also in UK(EWNI) where legislation is unclear. Asked whether higher education legislation explicitly allow recognition of QA decisions on joint degrees, it is possible in only less than half of the countries: AL, AZ, BEnl, BH, DK, EE, HU, DE, IS, IR, KZ, LT, ME, NL, RO, SI, ES, SE, and TR.

Like in 2012 the number of HEIs issuing joint degrees (2.12) is smaller than the one of having joint programmes. HEIs in seven countries do not issue joint degrees at all – the above five countries which have no joint degrees plus Hungary and Slovakia, but only Belgium (Flemish speaking community), Greece and United Kingdom answer that more than 10% HEIs issue joint degrees, but the largest group of 29 countries have only 0-2.5% HEIs issue joint degrees.

Figure 2.12: Estimated percentage of institutions that award joint degrees, 2013/14



Source: BFUG questionnaire.

Conclusions about joint degrees to be written based on Questions I.61 and I.62

2.2. Bologna tools

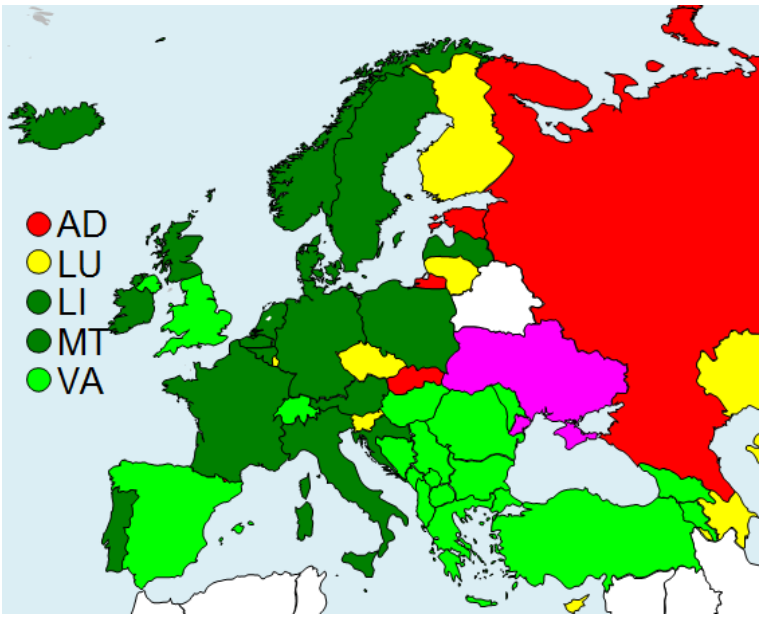
2.2.1. National qualifications frameworks

Information on developments in qualifications frameworks to be written (info from Structural reforms group) to be added

Nineteen countries have completed have fulfilled all the 10 steps in implementation of qualifications frameworks comparing to ten countries in 2012 and eighteen more countries are following (Figure 2.13), but what is even more important, the number of countries still in the first three steps of implementation – there are three such countries compared to nine countries in 2012.

Figure 2.14 shows the breakdown of countries by each step of implementation. Thirteen countries, namely BEnl, DK, FR, DE, IE, IT, LV, MT,NL, NO, PL, SE and UKsc have fulfilled all the steps in implementation of qualifications frameworks and have the self-certification report can be consulted on a public website compared to while AT, BEfr, HR, IS, LT and PT miss only information on qualifications frameworks on a public website.

Figure 2.13: Scorecard indicator n°3: Implementation of national qualifications frameworks, 2013/14*



	2015 Report	2012 Report*	2009 Report**
	20	10	6
	18	13	6
	8	18	21
	0	2	6
	3	4	9
	1	1	

* *Source:* BFUG questionnaire, 2011.

** *Source*: Rauhvargers, Deane & Pauwels, 2009.

To be verified with Structural Reforms group

Scorecard categories

Step 10: The Framework has self-certified its compatibility with the Qualifications Framework for the European for Higher Education Area

Steps 7-9:
- 9. Qualifications have been included in the NQF
- 8. Study programmes have been re-designed on the basis of the learning outcomes included in the NQF
- 7. Implementation of the NQF has started with agreement on the roles and responsibilities of higher education institutions, quality assurance agency(ies) and other bodies

Steps 5-6:
- 6. The NQF has been adopted in legislation or in other high level policy fora
- 5. Consultation / national discussion has taken place and the design of the NQF has been agreed by stakeholders

Step 4: The level structure, level descriptors (learning outcomes), and credit ranges have been agreed

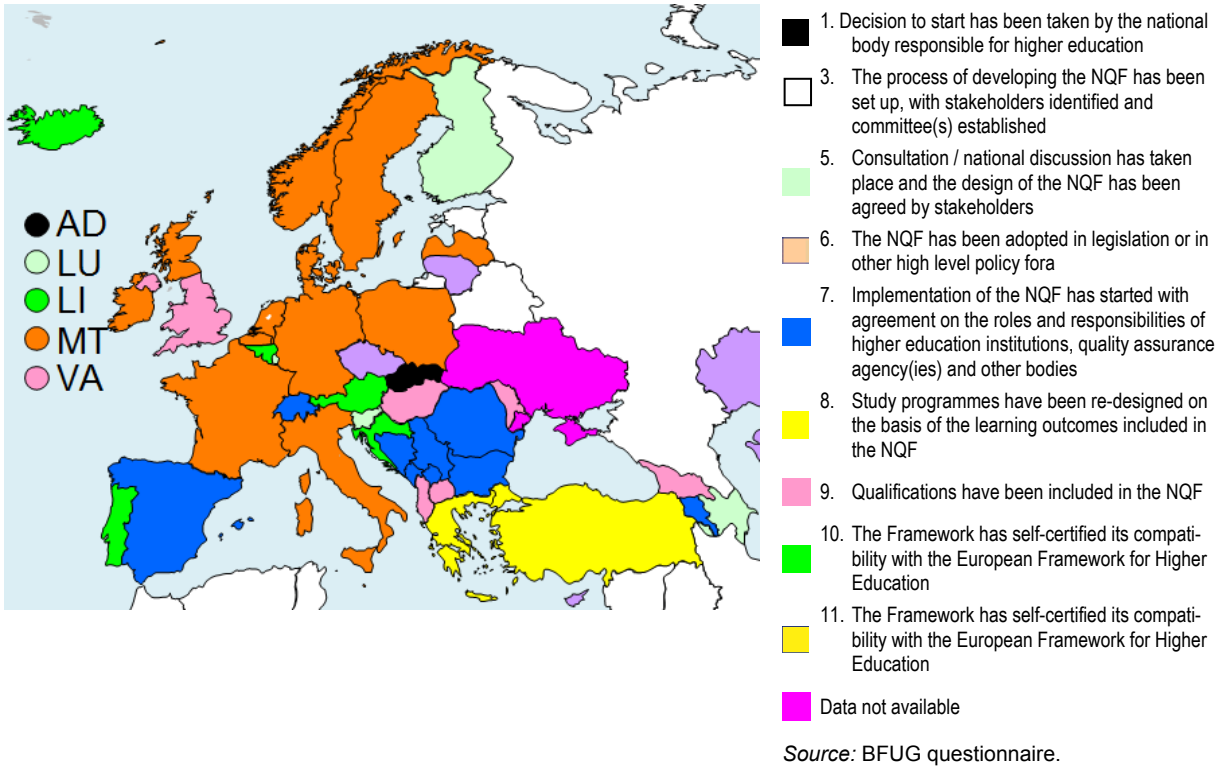
Step 3-1:
- 3. The process of developing the NQF has been set up, with stakeholders identified and committee(s) established
- 2. The purpose(s) of the NQF have been agreed and outlined
- 1. Decision to start developing the NQF has been taken by the national body responsible for higher education and/or the minister

Note: Indicator is defined as the current state in implementation of the national qualifications framework. The state of implementation was measured against the ten steps of implementation of NQF defined by the EHEA qualifications frameworks working group. To keep the same scoring criteria as in 2009 the 10 steps of NQF implementation are transformed into stocktaking scores as shown.

Next group of ten countries, namely AL, FYROM, GE, VA, HU, MD, SR, ES, CH and UKewni countries that have Qualifications have been included in the NQF but who have not yet self-certified its compatibility with the European Framework for Higher Education the national framework. Georgia and Turkey are the phase when qualifications have been included in the NQF. In Armenia, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Montenegro and Romania the implementation of the NQF has started but the study programmes have not yet been completely re-designed on the basis of the learning outcomes included in the NQF. Legislation has been adopted but the practical implementation has not yet started in Cyprus, Czech republic, Kazakhstan and Lithuania. In Azerbaijan, Finland, Luxembourg and Slovenia the national agreement on the design of NQF has been reached. In Estonia and Russia the process of developing the NQF has been set up, with stakeholders. Finally, in Andorra and Slovakia only the decision to start work at NQF is made.

Altogether, eight countries still do not have legislation for NQF, and another four countries have legislation but have not started practical implementation at all.

Figure 2.14: Progress in development of national qualifications frameworks according to the 11 steps, 2014*



Source: BFUG questionnaire.

** No countries at Step 2 and step 4 are not*

Conclusion: At least fifteen countries have made substantial progress in implementation of national qualifications frameworks, but at the same time twelve countries still have not started the implementation at programme and institution level, some of them do not show progress since 2012.

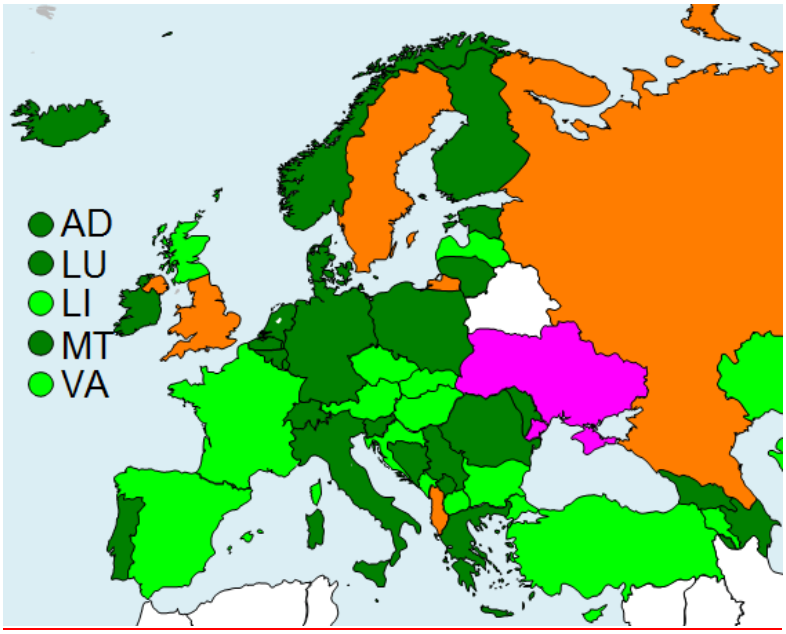
2.2.2. ECTS, learning outcomes and student centred learning

New developments in ECTS to be written

44 countries are in the dark or light green categories compared to 34 in 2012 and the four remaining countries are in orange zone: in Albania, Russia, United Kingdom(EWNI) in which ECTS credits are allocated in less than 75% programmes, and Sweden where the national credit system that is not compatible with ECTS. Other countries with national credit systems Bulgaria that are compatible with ECTS, Hungary, Kazakhstan, Latvia, Russia, and United Kingdom (EWNI).

A comparison of Figures 2.16 and 2.17 shows that linking credits with learning outcomes has been implemented to a far lesser extent than the use of ECTS for credit transfer and accumulation. Indeed it is the linking of credits with learning outcomes that hinders the full implementation of ECTS.

Figure 2.15: Scorecard indicator n°8: Stage of implementation of ECTS system, 2013/14*



	2015 Report*	2012 Report**	2009 Report***
	27	23	21
	17	11	18
	0	10	7
	4	3	2
	0	0	0

Data not available

* *Source:* BFUG questionnaire, 2014.

** *Source:* BFUG questionnaire, 2011.

*** *Source*: Rauhvargers, Deane & Pauwels, 2009.

Scorecard categories

ECTS credits are allocated to all components of all HE programmes, enabling credit transfer and accumulation
ECTS credits are demonstrably linked with learning outcomes

ECTS credits are allocated to all components of more than 75 % of HE programmes, enabling credit transfer and accumulation AND ECTS credits are demonstrably linked with learning outcomes
OR
Credits are allocated to all components of all HE programmes using a fully ECTS compatible credit system enabling credit transfer and accumulation AND credits are demonstrably linked with learning outcomes

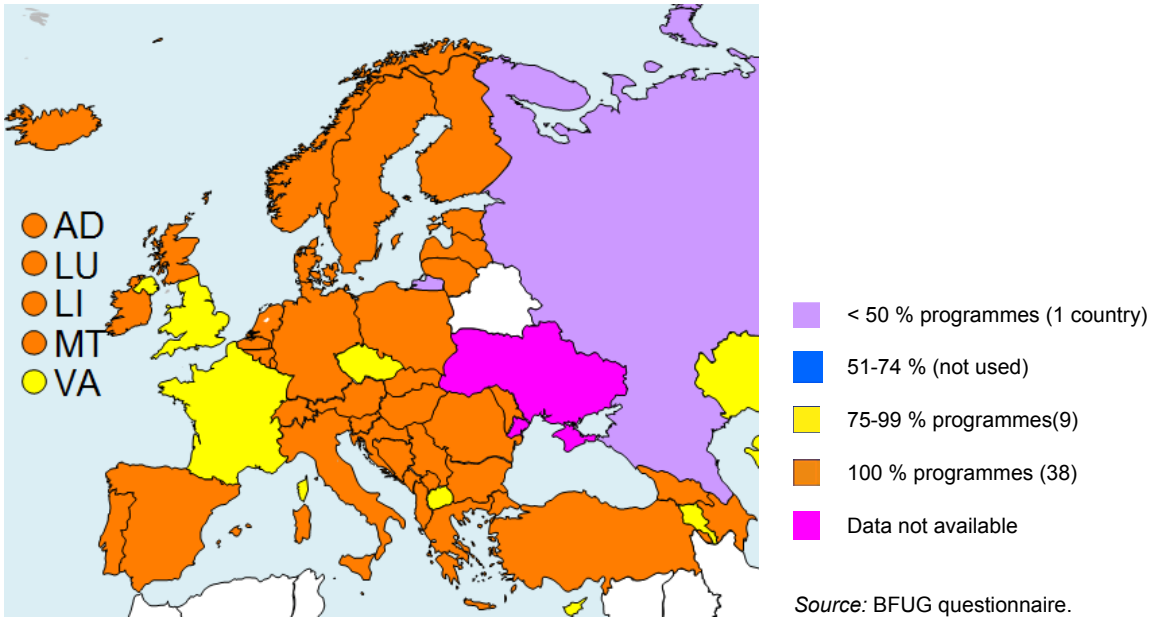
ECTS credits are allocated in 50-75 % of all HE programmes AND ECTS credits are demonstrably linked with learning outcomes **OR**
ECTS credits are allocated to all components of more than 75 % of HE programmes enabling credit transfer and accumulation, but ECTS credits are not yet linked with learning outcomes

ECTS credits are allocated in at least 49 % of HE programmes **OR**
a national credit system is used which is not fully compatible with ECTS

ECTS credits are allocated in less than 49 % of HE programmes **OR**
ECTS is used in all programmes but only for credit transfer

Only in **19 higher** education systems (Figure 2.17) are all parts of programmes comprehensively and systematically linked to learning outcomes while there are nine systems – Austria, the French and Flemish Communities of Belgium, Bosnia and Herzegovina, the Czech Republic, Germany, the Holy See, Portugal and Ukraine – where all parts of programmes are linked with learning outcomes in less than 50 % of programmes. In three countries – Albania, Hungary and Slovakia – parts of programmes are not linked to learning outcomes at all.

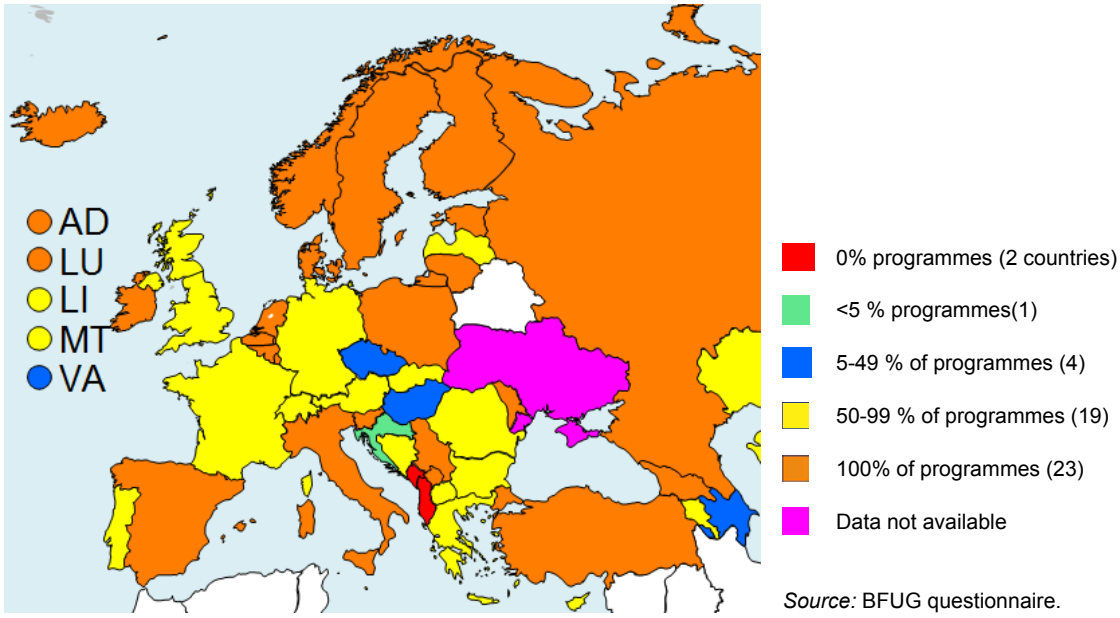
Figure 2.16: Share of programmes using ECTS credits for accumulation and transfer for all elements of study programmes, 2014



Source: BFUG questionnaire.

There is progress in implementation of ECTS. In 38 countries (Figure 2.16)ECTS is used for both accumulation and transfer while all programmes but in other 19 countries – in 75-99% of programmes compared to 30 and 7 countries respectively in 2011. In those two aspects of ECTS implementation is close to completion.

Figure 2.17: Extent to which ECTS credits are linked with learning outcomes in higher education programmes, 2014



Source: BFUG questionnaire.

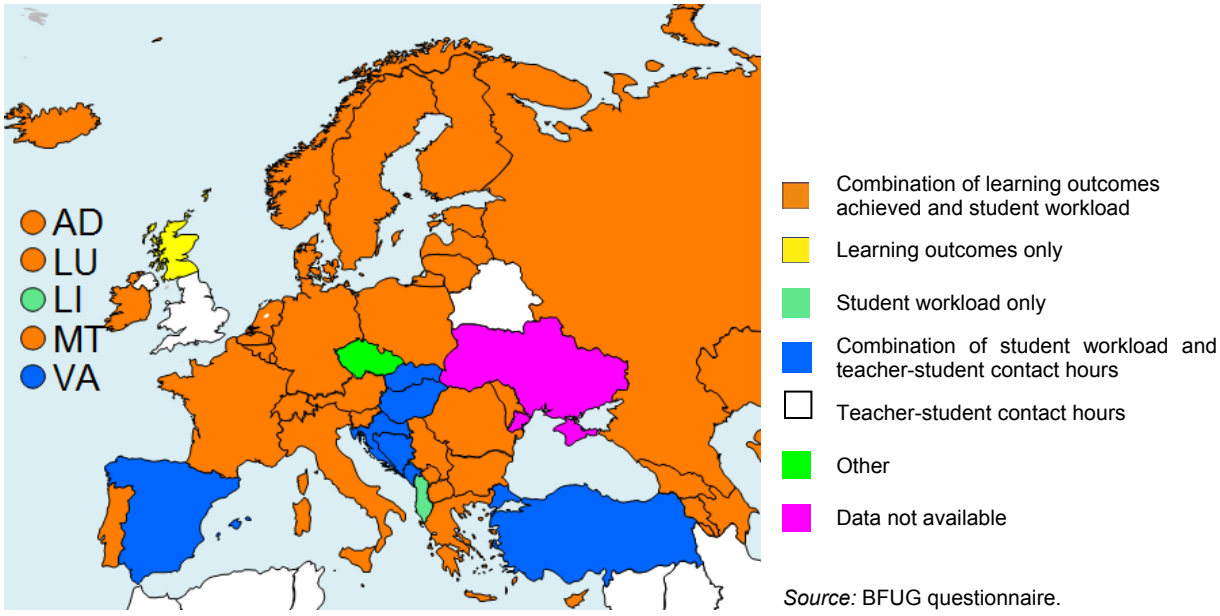
As regards linking ECTS credits with the learning outcomes, there is visible progress, but less than in the regarding using ECTS for accumulation and transfer. In 2014 in all programmes

Although the dimensions are different, comparison between the Figures 2.16 and 2.17 shows that while using ECTS of accumulation and transfer is nearly fully implemented but – it is the case in 38 countries ECTS is used for both accumulation and transfer while in only 23 countries all programmes are linked with learning outcomes.

There is progress in implementation of ECTS. Using ECTS for both accumulation and transfer is almost implemented. Linking credits with learning outcomes has progressed as well but more efforts are needed.

Credit allocation. It has been agreed that credits are allocated on the basis of learning outcomes achieved and student workload: student has fulfilled the prescribed workload and has achieved the expected learning outcomes. As can be seen in Figure 2.27A shows 36 countries follow this pattern. The second largest group of 8 countries – Bosnia-Herzegovina, Croatia, Holy See, Hungary, Montenegro, Slovakia, Spain and Turkey allocate the credits on the bases of combination of student workload and teacher-student contact hours. It should be noted that this combination is not compatible with ECTS. In Albania and Liechtenstein credits are allocated on the basis of student workload only, achieving the student learning outcomes only in United Kingdom (Sct), United Kingdom (EWNI) allocate credits according to teacher-student contact hours and, finally Czech Republic may use learning outcomes with either student workload or teacher-student contact hours.

Figure 2.17A: Basis to award ECTS credit in the majority of HEIs, 2013/14



Source: BFUG questionnaire.

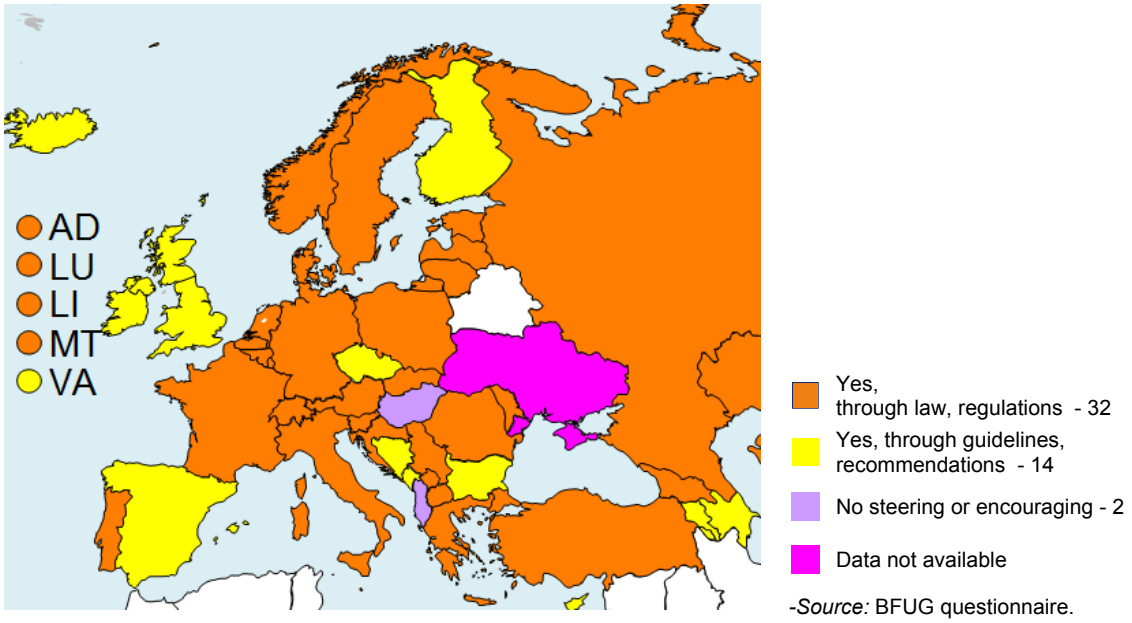
Understanding and usage of learning outcomes

National steering towards use of learning outcomes for curriculum development. Steering or encouraging the use of learning outcomes through national policies is stipulated in legislation in 32 higher education systems, while 14 encourage learning outcomes through guidelines or recommendations. In just two countries (Albania and Hungary), there is no central encouragement of learning outcomes at all. (see Figure 2.18 (A)). Compared to previous year, seven more countries encourage usage learning outcomes through laws or steering documents. This shows that, importance of learning outcomes in programme development has grown.

In 2015 Report, the steering or encouraging for using learning outcomes in student assessment was measured separately (Fig. 2. 18(B)). The results show that the importance of use of learning outcomes for student assessment has not yet been fully understood.

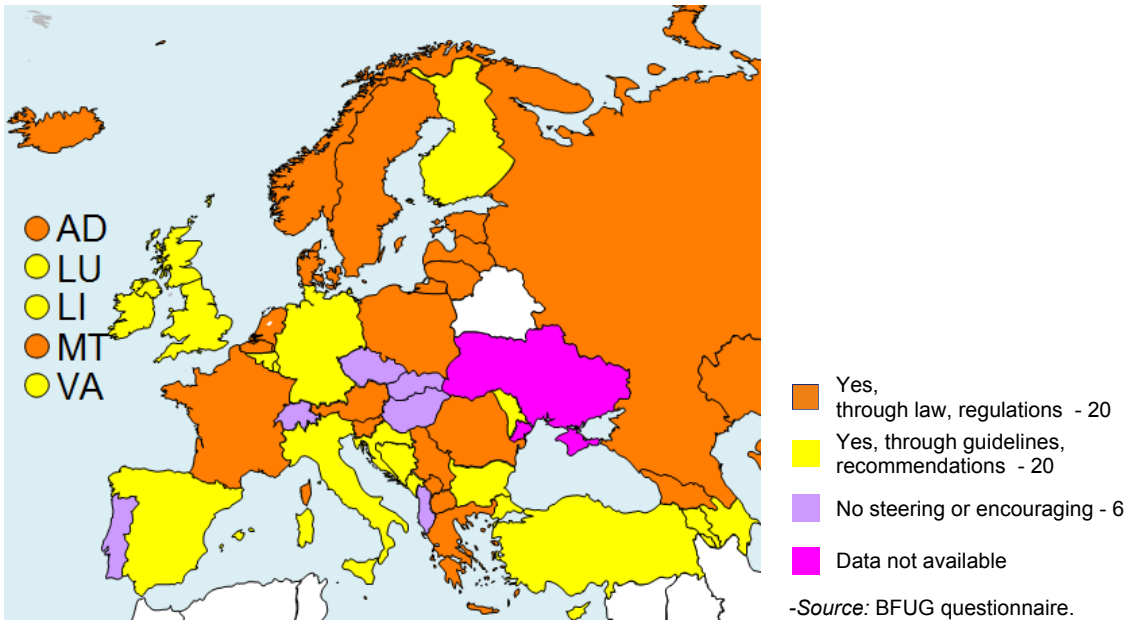
Conclusion: The steering and encouraging for use of learning outcomes in programme development has substantially grown, but the steering and encouraging is less widespread in the case of the use learning outcomes for student assessment.

Figure 2.18A: Steering and/or encouraging use of learning outcomes in national policy for programme development, 2013/14



-*Source:* BFUG questionnaire.

Figure 2.18B: Steering and/or encouraging student assessment procedures to focus on learning outcomes, 2013/14



-*Source:* BFUG questionnaire.

Implementation of ECTS, student-centred learning, qualifications frameworks, internal quality assurance within higher education institutions and other important action lines all depend on successful implementation of learning outcomes. At the same time these action lines take more time to implement properly than structural changes. The findings above suggest that those countries that choose not to make a learning outcomes approach compulsory through laws and regulations should step up their activities to encourage implementation of a learning outcomes approach.

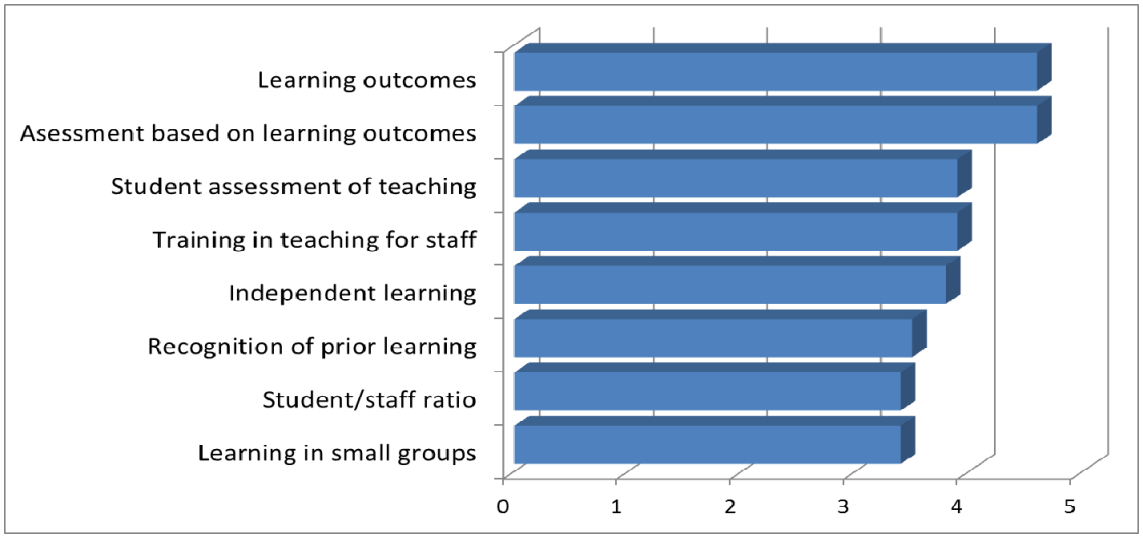
Monitoring of the use of learning outcomes and assessment of student achievements by quality assurance procedures is in place in most higher education systems, the exceptions being Azerbaijan, CY, ME, Slovakia, Switzerland and. Most countries which monitor the use of learning outcomes first refer to external quality assurance and particularly procedures for programme accreditation/approval. It seems that the most widely used model is direct assessment of implementation of learning outcomes by external evaluators. Belgium, the Czech Republic and Finland mention the involvement

of internal quality assurance procedures, with external monitoring in the form of an audit procedure while Armenia uses stakeholders' feedback.

Country perception of the importance of elements of student-centred learning. Countries were asked to score several elements of student-centred learning on a scale from one (not important) to five (see Figure 2.19). It appears that the perception of the elements student centred learning sharply differ between the group of forty countries in which steering documents mention the concept of student-centred learning (further mentioned as Group A) and the group of eight countries - Albania, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Hungary, Luxembourg, Malta and Slovakia (further mentioned as Group B) in which steering documents doesn't mention the concept of student-centred learning (Figure 2.19 A and B).

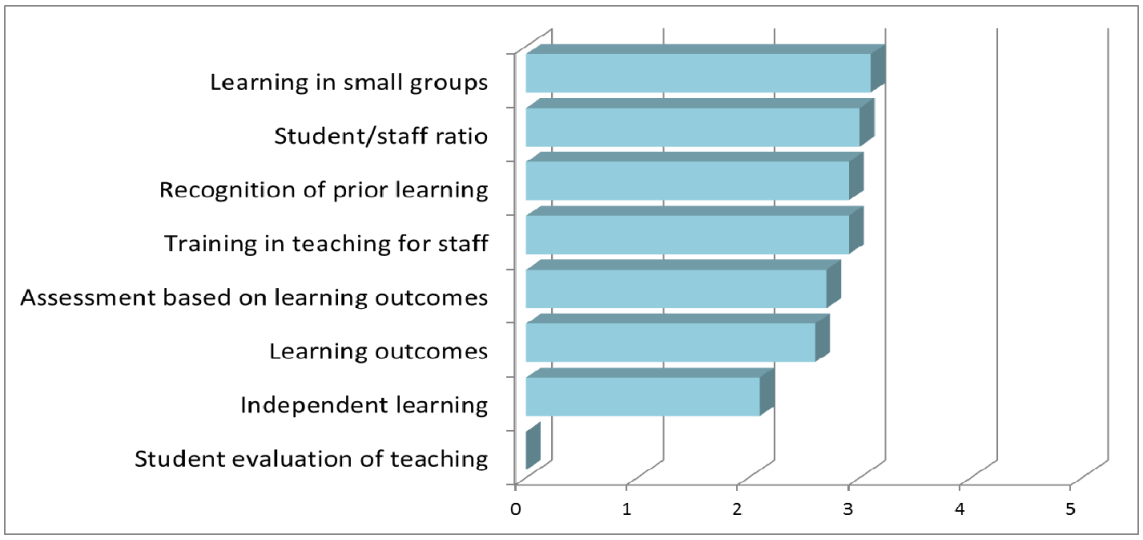
Figure 2.19: Importance of elements of student-centred learning in the eyes of EHEA countries (of total score 5), 2013/14

A – Results for countries where steering documents mention the concept of student-centred learning



Source: BFUG questionnaire.

B – Results for countries where steering documents don't mention the concept of student-centred learning



Source: BFUG questionnaire.

In the countries of the first group countries generally highly score all of the , like in the report of 2012, the two most valued elements clearly are the learning outcomes and assessment based on learning

outcomes which score 4.6. out of total score 5. Student evaluation of teaching, t training in teaching for staff and independent learning come next. Even the three least valued aspects in Group A - Recognition of prior learning, student/staff ration and in small groups are scored at 3,4 out l score 5..

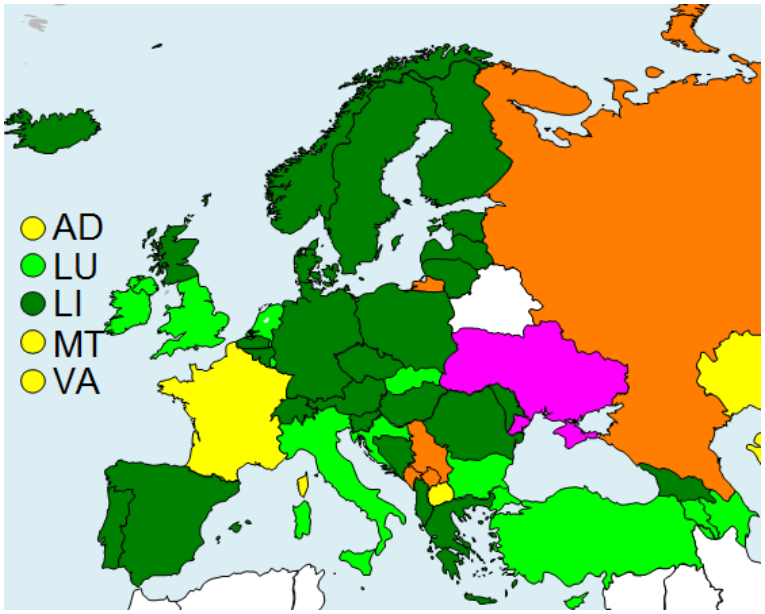
As regards the Group B, both the sequence of aspects of student-centred learning and their scores strongly differ with the bulk of the countries. Average score of all the aspects is 2.4 out of total score 5 while in the Group A it was 4.0. The above demonstrates that the countries which don't mention the concept of student-centred learning in their laws or steering documents do not do so because they do not value the student-centred learning altogether. Furthermore, while in Group A the highest scored aspects were using learning outcomes and assessment based on learning outcomes, in Group B the highest ranks are given to learning in small groups and student-staff ratio which were least valued by countries of Group A. The least valued in Group B in turn are the student evaluation of teaching which received score zero, followed by independent learning and use of learning outcomes.

Conclusion: In the bulk of countries (40) student-centred learning is mentioned in laws or steering documents and the all individual aspects of the student-centred learning are highly valued. However, in another group of 8 countries in which not only student-centred learning are not mentioned in laws or steering documents but the individual aspects of the student-centred learning are not considered useful. These countries particularly low value student evaluation of teaching, independent learning and use of learning outcomes.

2.2.3. Diploma Supplement

The Diploma Supplement was developed in 1998 by a working group sponsored by the Council of Europe, the European Commission and UNESCO-CEPES, and it was taken up as a transparency tool already in the Bologna Declaration in 1999.

Figure 2.20: Scorecard indicator n°7: Stage of implementation of the Diploma Supplement, 2012/15*



	2015 Report*	2012 Report**	2009 Report***
	27	25	26
	12	14	9
	6	5	11
	2	3	2
	0	0	0
	1	2	0

Data not available

* *Source:* BFUG questionnaire, 2011.
** *Source:* BFUG questionnaire, 2011.
*** *Source*: Rauhvargers, Deane & Pauwels, 2009.

Scorecard categories

Every graduate receives a Diploma Supplement in the EU/CoE/UNESCO Diploma Supplement format and in a widely spoken European language
- automatically
- free of charge

- Every graduate who requests it receives a Diploma Supplement in the EU/CoE/UNESCO Diploma Supplement format and in a widely spoken European language
  - free of charge

  OR

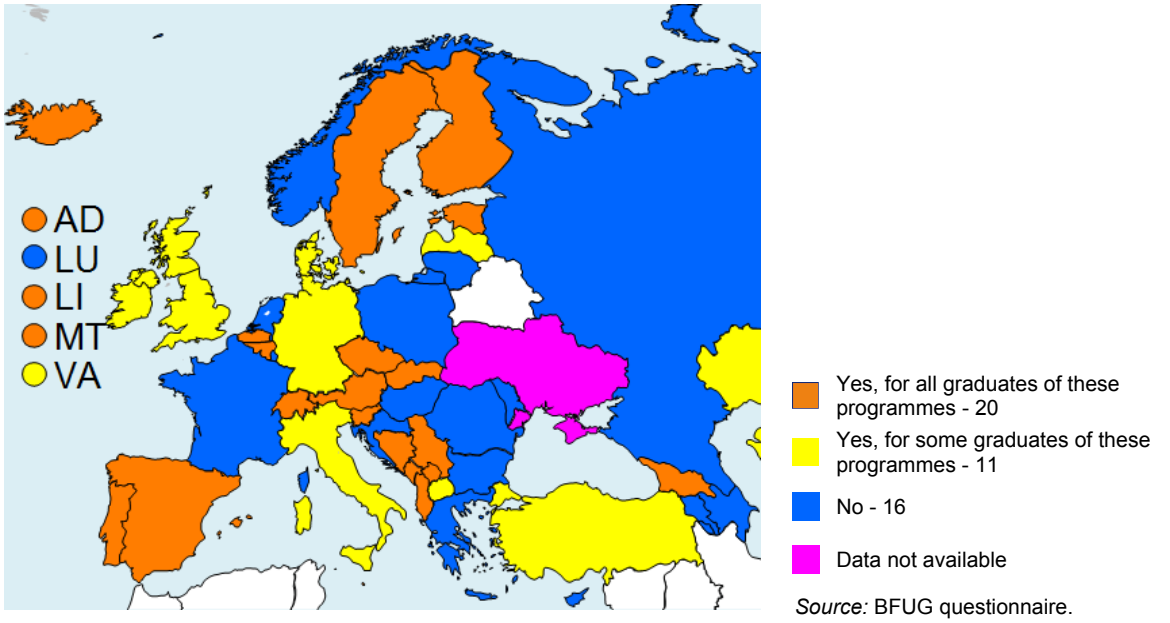
  At least 75% graduate who requests it receives a Diploma Supplement in the EU/CoE/UNESCO Diploma Supplement format and in a widely spoken European language
  free of charge
  - automatically
  - free of charge
- A Diploma Supplement in the EU/CoE/UNESCO Diploma Supplement format and in a widely spoken European language is issued to some graduates OR in some programmes free of charge
- A Diploma Supplement in the EU/CoE/UNESCO Diploma Supplement format and in a widely spoken European language is issued to some graduates OR in some programmes for a fee
- Systematic issuing of Diploma Supplement in the EU/CoE/UNESCO Diploma Supplement format and in a widely spoken European language has not yet started

Note: Indicator measures the implementation of the Diploma Supplement against four criteria:

1) Diploma Supplement should be issued to every graduate
2) Diploma Supplement should be issued automatically,
3) Diploma Supplement should be issued in a widely spoken European language;
4) Diploma Supplement should be issued free of charge.

Quantitative data on issuing the Diploma Supplement. In addition to country scores in the Diploma Supplement indicators (Figure 2.20), the data submitted by countries show that all the countries have at least started the implementation of Diploma Supplement. The main issue in implementation is issuing Diploma Supplement automatically: only 31 higher education systems (26 in 2012) while only four countries issue Diploma Supplement for a fee – Montenegro, Serbia and for some groups of students in Russia) and just five countries fail to issue of Diploma Supplements to some students or in some programmes (Albania, France, Greece, Croatia and Kazakhstan).

Figure 2.20B: Issuing Diploma Supplement to graduates in the third cycle, 2013/14



Source: BFUG questionnaire.

All countries issue Diploma Supplements in widely spoken European language but in some cases only on request (Andorra, Azerbaijan, Russia, Serbia and Slovakia). Most countries choose English language as the main non-national language for DS. Several countries, for instance, Romania, Spain and Turkey also offer DS in other widespread languages – French, German, Italian or Spanish. In Bosnia-Herzegovina and Switzerland HEIs issue diploma supplements in various official languages plus English. Similarly, in FYROM and Hungary DS is issued in official language, minority languages

where appropriate and in English. As regarding countries whose language is widely spoken in Europe, France issues Diploma Supplements in French only, but Ireland and UK in English, while Germany, Italy and Spain automatically issue Diploma Supplements also in English (in Spain there are more options upon request), but Russia offers other widespread languages on request.

In Andorra, Azerbaijan, France, Greece and the Holy See, Diploma Supplements are not issued to all graduates. While in 2012 five countries issued Diploma Supplements for fee – Montenegro, which introduced such fees since year 2013/14, Serbia and Russia. The size of the fee is known only for Serbia and it varies between 50 and 100 Euro.

National monitoring of the effectiveness of the Diploma Supplement.

Fourteen higher education systems (against seven in 2012) – Austria, the French Community of Belgium, Croatia, Finland, France, Germany, Kazakhstan, Moldova, Montenegro, the Netherlands, Norway, Serbia, and United Kingdom report that they have launched studies to monitor how the monitoring of how higher education institutions use the Diploma Supplement.

Checking how employers use the Diploma Supplement is rare: just four countries survey employers. In France the information gathered by the ENIC-NARIC centre demonstrates that employers rarely use the diploma supplement. In Germany, in in contrary, the survey shows that more than 70% of the German employers consider the issuing of the Diploma Supplement as important, but nearly 50% of the employers consider the submission of a Diploma Supplement as an important criterion for the employment of a candidate. In Moldova and Montenegro monitoring detected that Diploma Supplement is of increasing interest from employers, but the latter would like to see DS more informative from the point of knowledge skills and competences of diploma holder and are ready to cooperate with HEIs on this regard.

The bodies carrying out monitoring the implementation of Diploma Supplement vary widely. Such body can be, for instance, the ministry (French Community of Belgium, Kazakhstan, Lithuania and Moldova), National Board of Education (Finland), inspectorate (the Netherlands, Serbia), quality assurance agency (Norway), Rectors' Conference (Germany), but in the United Kingdom it is the UK Higher Education International Unit.

Conclusions on Diploma Supplement.

There is improvement compared to 2012, Yet, two thirds have failed to fulfil all the requirements: Diploma Supplement should be issued to every graduate, automatically, in a widely spoken European language and issued free of charge.

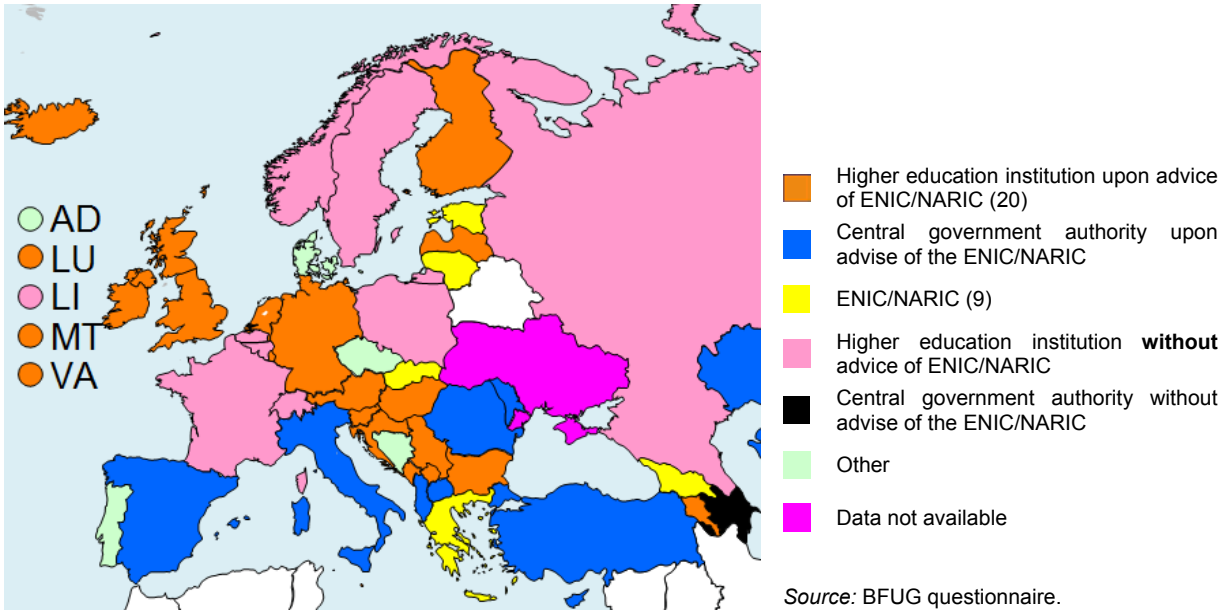
The least achieved requirement is the automatic issuing of the Diploma Supplements.

2.3. Recognition of qualifications

General introduction to progress in recognition

In 2014, the survey asked more detailed data then in 2011 regarding on which organisation is making final decisions on the recognition of foreign qualifications for academic purposes. The data show that in the largest group of countries – 20, recognition decisions are taken by higher education institution whose decision is made based on ENIC/NARIC centre advice, thus HEIs make autonomous decisions, but at the same time use the experience and knowledge of the national ENIC/NARIC centre. Second largest group of 9 countries BE, FR, LI, NO, PL, RU, SE, CH), higher education institution without advice of ENIC/NARIC. In this case, HEIs make autonomous decisions, but then they also have hire specialists in recognition who are familiar with foreign higher education systems and the principles of recognition. If a HEI does not employ such specialists, it risks making low-quality decisions.

Figure 2.21: Institution which makes final decisions on recognising foreign qualifications for academic purposes, 2014



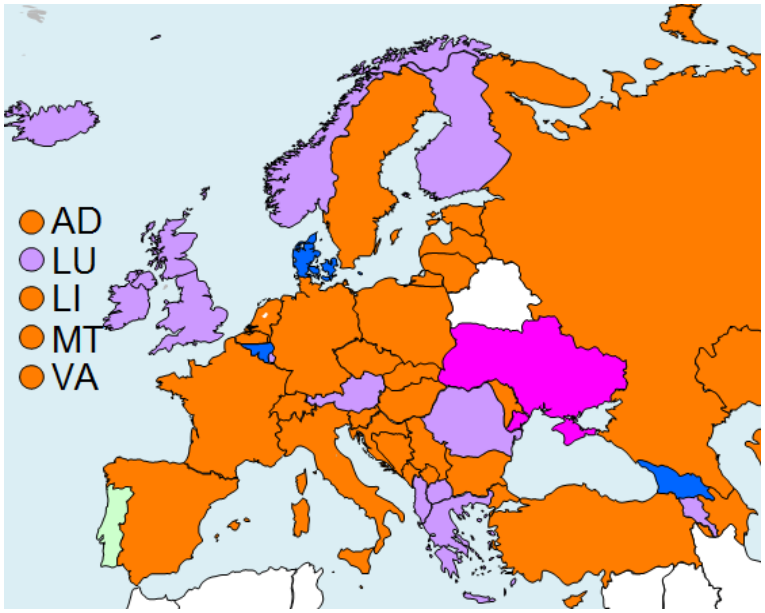
Source: BFUG questionnaire.

In another group of 9 countries (AL, CY, FYROM, IT, KZ, MD, RO, TR), final decisions of recognition are made by central government authority (ministry) upon advise of the ENIC/NARIC. This option involves the knowledge and experience of the ENIC/NARIC centre, but the HEIs are not involved in decision making when decision is made regarding their future students. In next 5 countries (EE, GE, EL, LT and SK), ENIC/NARIC alone. This case actually is similar within the previous one with the difference that ENIC/NARIC not only evaluate credentials, but also the decision-making is delegated to it. the professional approach to the recognition is used but the HEIs are not involved in decision making when decision is made regarding their future students.

In 5 countries have specific other situations. In Andorra, a government institution acts as ENIC and makes decisions. Similarly, Danish ENIC/NARIC office is the central authority situated within the Ministry of Higher Education and its decisions are legally bounded to HEIs. In BH there are no single system of recognition due to different legislation in different federal parts of the country. In CZ, the recognition case is decided by a Czech public HEI which have a programmes similar to the one that the applicant has graduated from. In Portugal there are two systems – a system of equivalence,

where which is "based on the scientific re-evaluation of the work carried out by the applicant" and the more modern approach which "is based on the principle of mutual trust ".

Figure 2.21A Principles of the Lisbon Recognition Convention in national legislation, 2014



Source: BFUG questionnaire.

This indicator is suggested as a Scorecard indicator 5. Decision is pending

The Convention has been ratified and appropriate legislation complies with the legal framework of the Lisbon Recognition Convention and the later Supplementary Documents9, so that the five main principles are fulfilled and:

1) Applicants have a right to fair assessment;
2) There is recognition if no substantial differences can be proven;
3) Legislation/guidelines encourage comparing learning outcomes rather than programme content;
4) In cases of negative decisions, competent authority demonstrates the existence of substantial difference
5) There is a right of appeal

The Convention has been ratified and appropriate legislation complies with abovementioned principles 1) 2) 3) and 5)

The Convention has been ratified and appropriate legislation complies with abovementioned principles 1) 2) and 5)

The Convention has been ratified and appropriate legislation complies with abovementioned principles 1) and 2)

The Convention has been ratified but either principle 1) or 2) or both is not fulfilled

No data

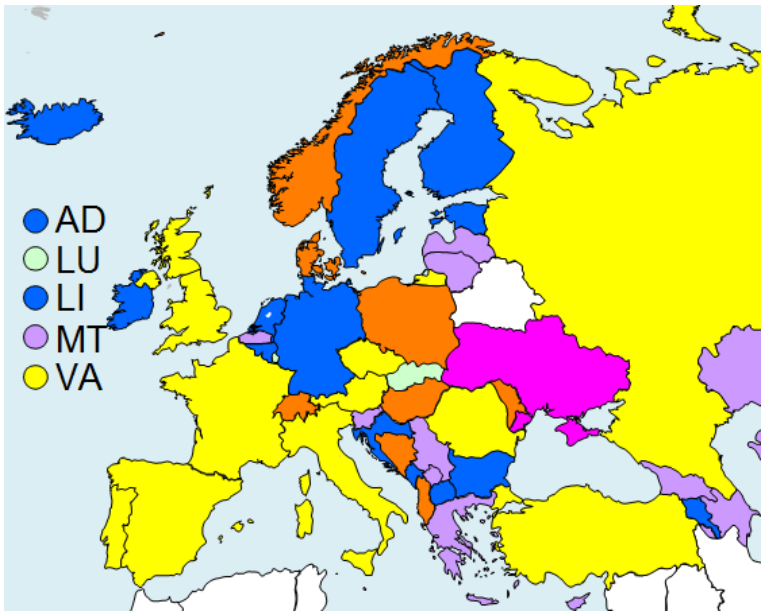
The feasibility of the indicator to be discussed at the WG meeting

Text to be written based on answers to the question I.68.2. What measures exist to ensure that these legal statements are implemented in practice

Outcomes of the question I.68.2 should be described

[9] Recommendation on the Criteria and Procedures for Recognition (2001), Recommendation on the Recognition of Joint Degrees (2004), Code of Good Practice in the Provision of Transnational Education (2001) http://www.enic-naric.net/instruments.asp?display=legal_framework

Figure 2.22: Automatic recognition, 2014/14



Source: BFUG questionnaire.

Indicator proposal 6: System-Level recognition of three cycle degrees. Decision pending

- Qualifications from all EHEA countries giving access to the next cycle are treated in the same way as national qualifications for all 3 cycles
- Qualifications from all EHEA countries giving access to the next cycle are treated in the same way as national qualifications for at least one cycle
- Qualifications from some EHEA countries giving access to the next cycle are treated in the same way as national qualifications for all cycles
- Qualifications from some EHEA countries giving access to the next cycle are treated in the same way as national qualifications for at least one cycle
- Qualifications from all EHEA countries giving access to the next cycle are treated differently to national qualifications
- Data not available

Main outcomes of the pathfinder group to be integrated into text

Conclusions

Overall conclusions of the chapter to be written

3. Quality Assurance

The Bucharest Communiqué

The aspiration to improve the quality of higher education provision throughout the European Higher Education Area lies at the core of the Bologna Process, and has underpinned major developments in quality assurance during the last 15 years. The Bucharest Communiqué stresses the importance of quality assurance in building trust and reinforcing the attractiveness of higher education in the EHEA. The Communiqué acknowledges the role of the European Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance (ESG) in binding countries to common objectives with regard to quality assurance, and also calls on the ESG to be revised to improve clarity, applicability and usefulness. The Communiqué can also be considered as a key moment in the development of the European Quality Assurance Register for Higher Education (EQAR), with the commitment made to "allow EQAR-registered agencies to perform their activities across the EHEA, while complying with national requirements. In particular we will aim to recognise quality assurance decisions of EQAR registered agencies on joint and double degree programmes."

It is also worth pointing out that the Bucharest Communiqué places the issues of the social dimension firmly under the heading of "Providing quality higher education for all", thus linking overall quality goals in higher education to the development of quality assurance systems.

Chapter outline

This chapter deals with the progress made to develop quality assurance systems across the European Higher Education Area and covers both external and internal quality assurance. The main focus is on how quality assurance systems are responding to the evolving policy agenda, in relation to the Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in the European Higher Education Area (ESG). It looks at the main distinctions in European quality assurance systems, as well as the development of trends towards greater internationalisation and cross border quality assurance. The chapter also tracks the involvement of different key stakeholders, while the last section examines progress in internal quality assurance systems and their relationship with external QA.

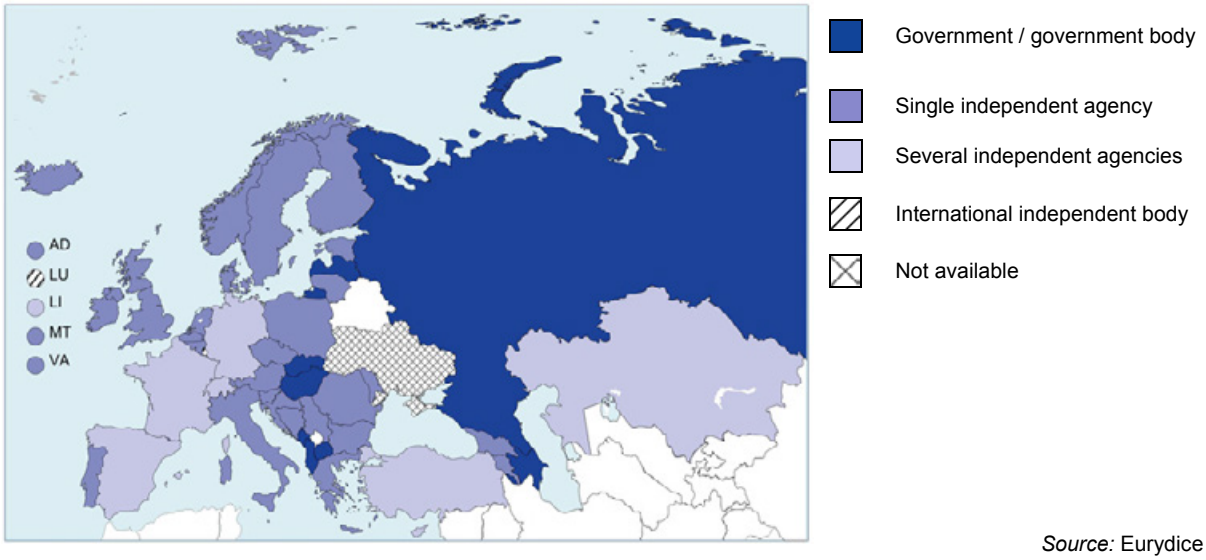
3.1. External quality assurance

3.1.1. Character and orientation of national quality assurance systems

Quality assurance in higher education can be understood as policies, procedures and practices that are designed to achieve, maintain or enhance quality as it is understood in a specific context.

Throughout a period of rapid change in higher education systems, the role of quality assurance has been constantly and quickly evolving. When the Bologna Declaration was signed in 1999, only a handful of countries had a recognisable quality assurance system, and external quality assurance agencies were few and far between. The picture 15 years on is vastly different. Improving the quality and relevance of higher education, and establishing trustworthy quality assurance systems has been a high priority for many if not all countries, and developments have been fast moving.

Figure 3.0 Responsibility for external quality assurance, 2013/14



Source: Eurydice

Figure 3.0 illustrates that the rise of independent quality assurance agencies has been a major trend. Few countries retain a system where a Ministry or Ministry body has direct responsibility for quality assurance. This is the case only in Albania, Azerbaijan, The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Montenegro, Russia and Slovakia. During a transition period, it is also the reality of Latvia, while the government aims at the development of an improved quality assurance system. Hungary is also a country where the external quality assurance system is not stable, as reforms to the practice of the national quality assurance agency have led to an ENQA evaluation of the agency concluding that insufficient safeguards are in place to guarantee independence, and therefore the agency is not in compliance with the European Standards and Guidelines (ESG) for quality assurance. Malta has also established an agency but its work is not yet operational.

One other country that does not work with one or several national quality assurance agencies is Luxembourg. Here the government has put in place a system drawing strongly on international expertise based on committees of 7 experts acting independently.

Everywhere else in the European higher education area is now functioning with professional, independent quality assurance agencies.

The development of the European Higher Education Area has certainly been a catalyst to this process with quality assurance clearly linked to establishing stakeholder confidence. When the European Standards and Guidelines (ESG) for quality assurance were adopted in 2005, this gave a boost to European cooperation in the domain. The European Association for National Quality Assurance (ENQA) provides a thriving forum for cooperation and engagement among quality assurance agencies, requiring its members to adhere to the European Standards and Guidelines, and promoting the exchange of good practice between agencies.

The European Quality Assurance Register for Higher Education (EQAR) was established in 2008, following an agreement of the Ministers responsible for higher education in the London Communiqué, to act as a gatekeeper for quality assurance agencies wishing to work across national borders in the EHEA. The essential condition to be listed on the Register is for the agency to have been evaluated and proved to operate in compliance with the ESG. In September 2014, 32 agencies in 15 countries were listed on the Register. The countries where at least one agency is listed in EQAR are Belgium, Croatia, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Romania, Slovenia, Spain and the United Kingdom. This shows a strong increase (from 13 – 15 countries) since January 2012.

However, while agencies from Estonia, Lithuania, Poland and the United Kingdom have been added to the Register, those from Bulgaria and Ireland are no longer listed.

Although practically all EHEA countries have established some form of external quality assurance system, there are significant differences in the approach behind systems. One important distinction that can be drawn is whether the primary aim and orientation of external quality assurance is to regulate institutions and programmes – deciding which of them have a sufficient threshold of quality to operate, or alternatively whether the main thrust of quality assurance is to support improvement in the quality of provision. Another important distinction is whether external quality assurance focuses on the quality of programmes or looks at institutions.

In this respect it is noteworthy that the vast majority of QA systems now focus on a combination of institutions and programmes (26) while only three systems now focus on programmes and four on institutions. This picture suggests that QA systems are becoming more complex as they evolve.

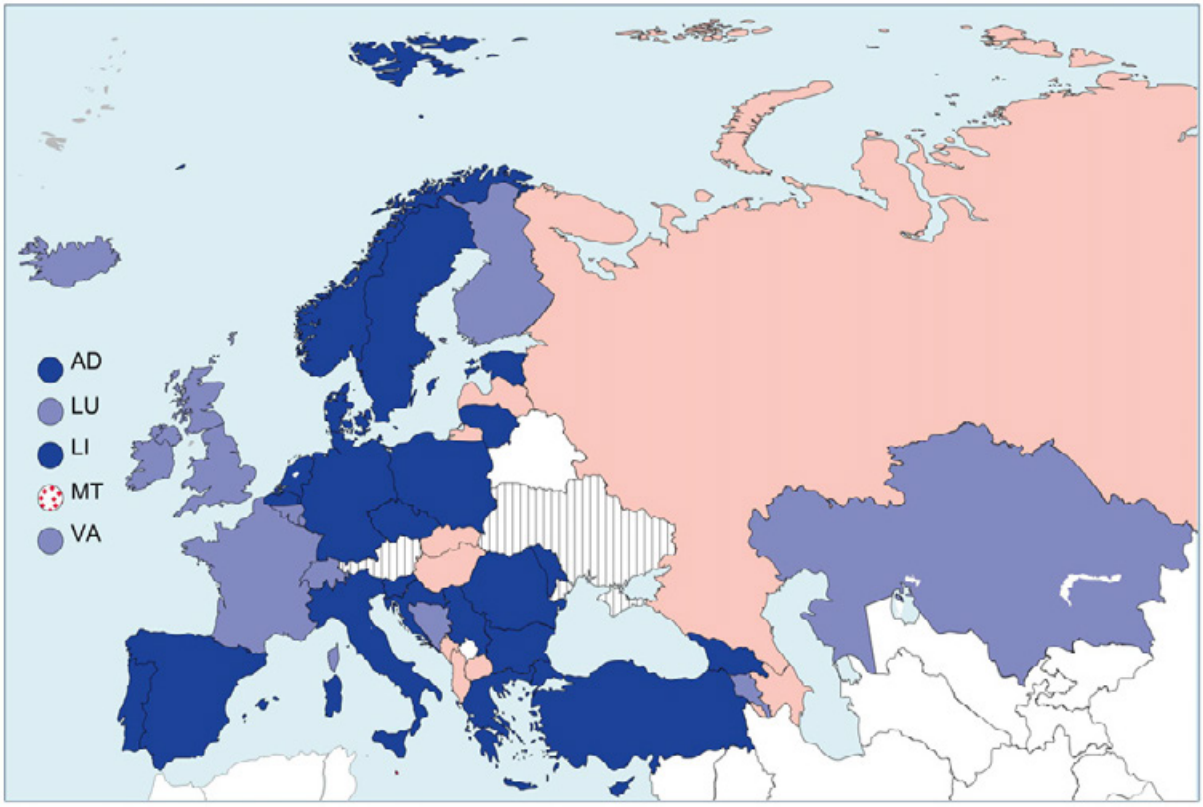
In systems where responsible QA bodies/agencies have the power to permit or refuse programmes and/or institutions to operate, or where they advise governments on such decisions, quality assurance can, in broad terms, be perceived as supervisory in character. In these cases, it generally aims to ensure that minimum quality thresholds are met. Agencies may of course play other roles – including giving advice on the enhancement of quality. This is indeed specifically mentioned in a number of countries, but all these additional roles are likely to be subordinate to the decision of permitting programmes and/or institutions to operate.

The majority of systems across the EHEA are, using this categorisation, more supervisory in character. Indeed 28 systems (an crease from 21 in 2012) have established agencies with decision-making powers – including countries where the agency makes a proposal for decision and the

government is responsible for actual decision. Fifteen1 (compared to eleven systems in 2012) have agencies that are advisory and more enhancement-oriented in character.

The impact of external quality assurance on funding varies considerably according to the characteristics of the system. Most commonly systems where QA is enhancement oriented see little or no impact on funding. One exception to this rule is France, where although the system is enhancement oriented, the outcomes of evaluation are used in negotiations between the Ministry and higher education institutions that lead to decisions on funding. However, it is perhaps interesting to find out that, in 8 of the systems where evaluation may lead to a decision on whether a programme or institution may operate, there is otherwise no impact on funding. In the other cases where quality assurance systems are more supervisory in character, there is an impact, at least in some cases, on programme and/or institutional funding, from the decisions related to evaluation.

Figure 3.1: Main outcome of external evaluation by QA agency, 2013/14



[1] Question for KZ. Is the system one of accreditation (agency evaluation deciding on whether a programme/inst may operate) or quality enhancement? You mention accreditation but say that the main outcome of evaluation is enhancement not a decision…

Unsurprisingly, the picture has changed little since the 2012 report. The main developments were reported in Latvia and Malta, where both countries are currently in the process of re-thinking the quality assurance system. Latvia, after a long period of having a single independent national agency; is undertaking improvement-oriented reforms of the QA system. During the transition period the ministry is responsible for QA, delegating the task to a commission consisting of stakeholders. The re-establishment of an improved QA system has been defined as one of the priority tasks for the government.

Malta is also in the process of establishing a new system. A national QA agency has been established, which is Government funded and appointed but it is hoped will have sufficient legal and operational independence. The agency is in the process of developing its external quality audit mechanism which should be implemented in the second half of 2015.

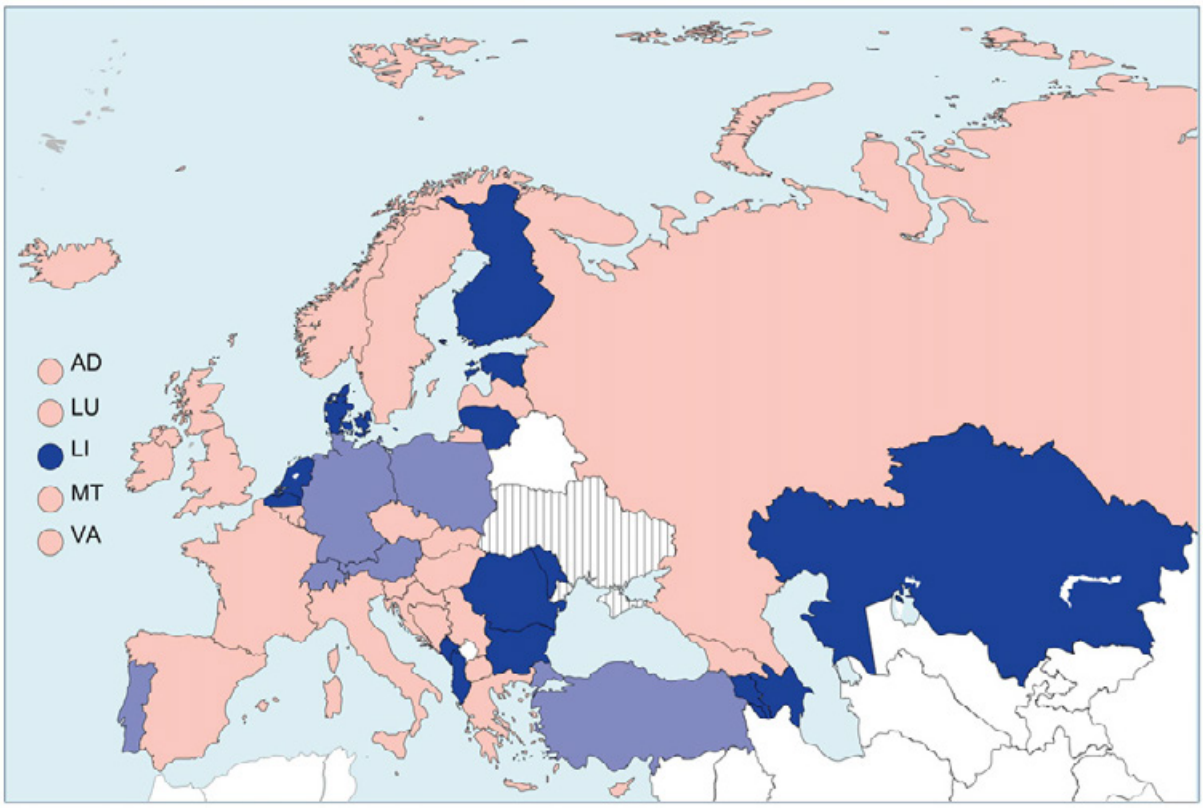
Russia, by far the largest system in the EHEA, also stands out as a country where the main European developments in quality assurance have not been followed. In Russia the system is one of state accreditation.

3.1.2. Ability of higher education institutions to be evaluated by non-national agencies

The European debate on quality assurance has stressed the importance of trust between systems. One significant measure of how far trust is developing, is whether governments enable higher education institutions to be evaluated by a quality assurance agency from another country when aware that the agency works in full compliance with the European Standards and Guidelines. Cross border quality assurance clearly has the potential to contribute positively and importantly to the development of the European Higher Education Area, and working across borders is vital in the effort of building trust and improving quality between systems. However, there is clearly a need for sufficient safeguards to ensure that the public responsibility for quality assurance is maintained. To address these aspirations and concerns, Ministers have adopted the European Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance (ESG) and established the European Quality Assurance Register (EQAR).

However, despite the ministerial commitments to recognise EQAR-registered agencies, national responsibility for quality assurance could be perceived to be challenged by cross-border quality assurance, and it is therefore by no means self-evident that evaluation from non-national agencies will become commonly recognised in the EHEA, particularly in systems where the main outcome of quality assurance is a decision granting permission to institutions or programmes to operate. The issue may also perhaps be perceived differently by bigger and smaller higher education systems.

Figure 3.2: Ability for higher education institutions to be evaluated by an agency outside the country, 2013/14



All higher education institutions can be evaluated by an agency outside the country

Higher education institutions can in some cases be evaluated by an agency outside the country

Higher education institutions cannot be evaluated by an agency outside the country

Not available

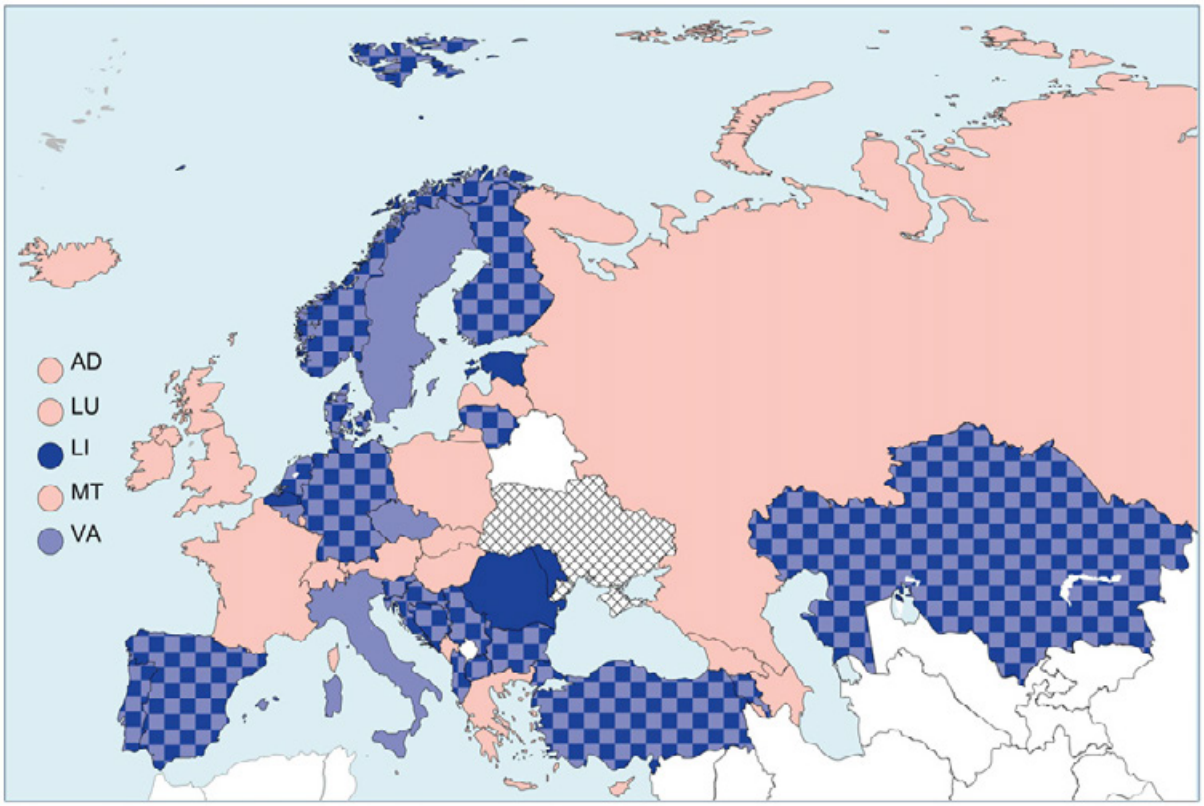
The question of whether higher education institutions are able to undertake an evaluation by an agency outside the country implies that the status and use of the evaluation would be equivalent to an evaluation by a national agency. The picture illustrated in Figure 3.2 shows that progress is, however, slow. Sixteen national systems claim that all their higher education institutions are free to be evaluated by foreign national agencies. Within this group, in the Netherlands and the Flemish community of Belgium, while evaluations of other agencies are treated in the same way as a national agency, formal decisions on accreditation remain the preserve of the Dutch/Flemish quality assurance agency.

A further five countries point out that under certain conditions, some institutions are able to pursue this route. For Austria, public higher education institutions may use non-national agencies, but private institutions cannot. For Germany, higher education institutions can use non-national quality assurance agencies only in the cases of accreditation of joint programmes, while other programmes can be evaluated but not accredited by non-national quality assurance agencies. The Czech Republic, Croatia, Moldova and Spain point out that institutions are able to go through evaluation processes with other agencies, and may do so to gain prestige. However, this is only possible if they are first accredited by the national system. As this is more a duplication of efforts rather than evidence of

opening up to cooperation in quality assurance across borders, these countries are shown in the map alongside those that are unable to be evaluated abroad.

Some higher education systems also point out that, even if their higher education institutions are unable to choose to be evaluated from an agency outside the country, they are free to seek accreditation for particular study fields by international accrediting organisations. There are also examples of cooperation between national quality assurance agencies in evaluating higher education institutions and/or particular programmes.

Figure 3.2bis: Legislation encouraging EQAR registration and ENQA membership for national agencies, 2013/14



Legislation encourages national quality assurance agencies to register with EQAR

Legislation encourages national quality assurance agencies to become a member of ENQA

Legislation/steering documents do not encourage national quality assurance agencies to register with EQAR or become a member of ENQA

Not available

The RIQAA project (Recognising International Quality Assurance Activity) has provided evidence that cross-border activity of national quality assurance agencies is growing significantly. Although the number of cross-border evaluations may be increasing within the EHEA, major developments in opening up national systems have not taken place since 2012. The countries that were willing to enable their higher education institutions to undertake evaluations with a foreign agency mostly decided to do so prior to 2012. In the case of Poland, legislation came into force in October 2011 providing a basis for higher education institutions to be evaluated by international agencies, and for the outcomes to be taken into consideration by the national quality assurance system. Armenia and

Austria are the only examples of countries that have opened up this possibility to their higher education institutions since the Bucharest Communiqué in 2012. Around 75% of systems have not yet followed through on the commitment of the Communiqué to allow their institutions to be evaluated by EQAR registered agencies.

Figure 3.2bis gives further evidence of the lack of action from many public authorities in encouraging their own national quality assurance agencies to register with EQAR. It is interesting to note that the same number of systems (23) encourage EQAR registration and ENQA membership.

It is also important to recognise that, in the countries that allow higher education institutions to be evaluated by a foreign agency, many systems are not following strictly the requirement that foreign agencies should be listed by EQAR. A number of countries consider that other criteria, such as ENQA membership, are sufficient for the choice of a foreign agency. EQAR has been developed to ensure that the EHEA has a trustworthy mechanism showing which agencies are legitimate to operate in conformity with the ESG. The fact that there are a considerable number of countries which do not use EQAR registration to guide higher education institutions in their choice of agency is therefore a matter of concern.

3.1.3. Evaluating national systems against ESG

The European Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in the European Higher Education Area (ESG) were adopted in 2005 by the ministers in Bergen (Norway). The standards and guidelines are designed to be applicable to all higher education institutions and quality assurance agencies in Europe, irrespective of their structure, function and size, and the national system in which they are located. The ESG do not include detailed "procedures" since institutional and agency procedures are an important part of their autonomy. Rather the ESG "recognise the primacy of national systems of higher education, the importance of institutional and agency autonomy within those national systems, and the particular requirements of different academic subjects" (ENQA 2005, p. 13).

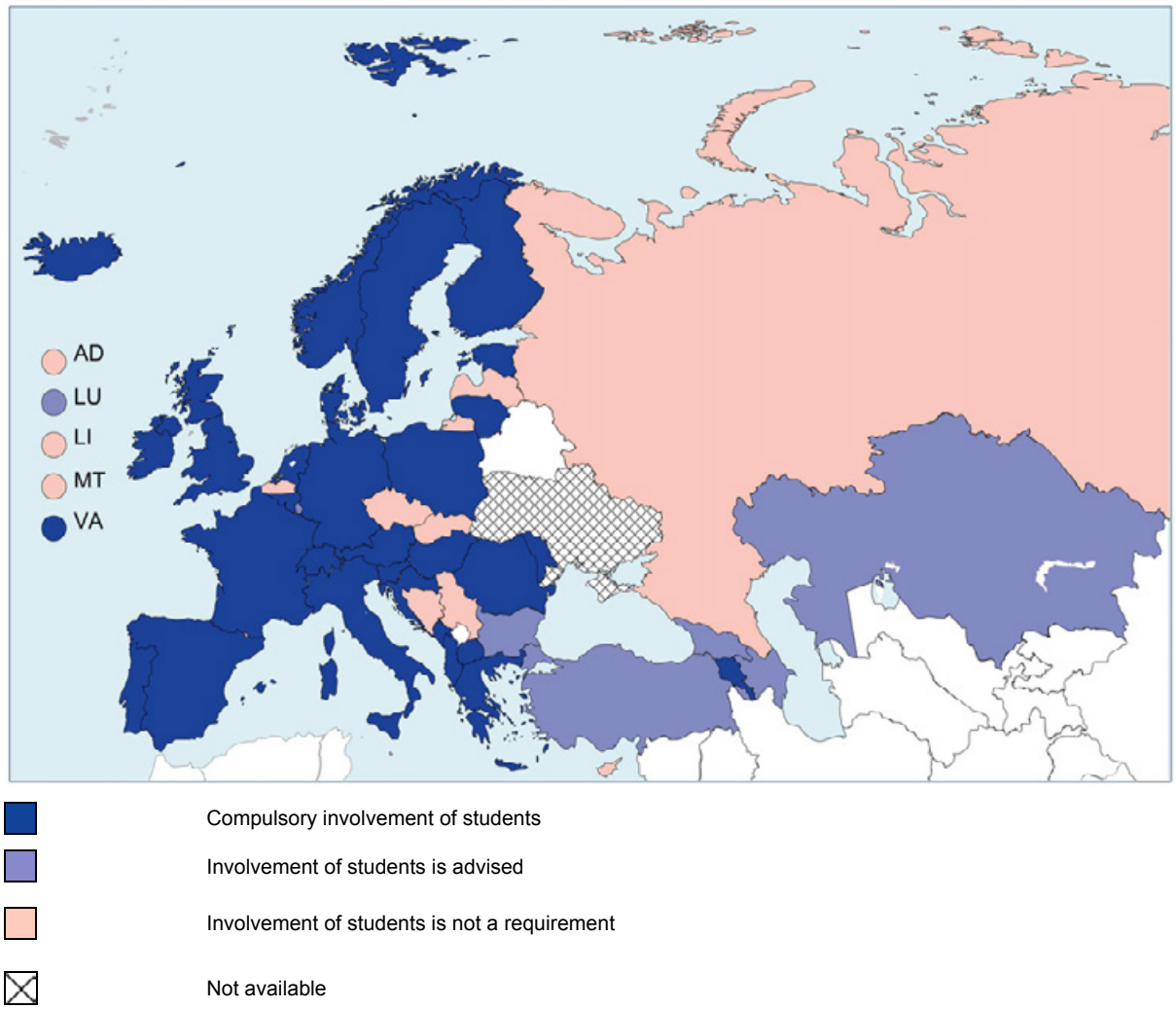
A revised version of the ESG has been developed for adoption at the Yerevan Ministerial conference, but for the period of this report, the first version of the ESG should be implemented. The following principles outlined in the Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in the European Higher Education Area (ESG) stress that quality assurance should focus on:

- the interests of students as well as employers and the society more generally in good quality higher education;
- the central importance of institutional autonomy, tempered by a recognition that this brings with it heavy responsibilities;
- the need for external quality assurance to be fit for its purpose and to place only an appropriate and necessary burden on institutions for the achievement of its objectives.

Three indicators on quality assurance are included in the EHEA Scorecard. They focus on the stage of development of external quality assurance systems, the level of student participation in external quality assurance and the level of international participation in external quality assurance.

NB: these scorecard indicators will be inserted and analysed later

Figure 3.5: Involvement of students in Quality Assurance governance bodies, 2013/14



One of the noticeable features of the development of quality assurance systems in Europe has been the increasing recognition of the importance of stakeholder participation, and in particular the importance of the role to be played by students as the key stakeholder group in higher education. The Bologna texts recognise that students should be fully engaged in the improvement and enhancement of higher education and of their own learning experiences. The form of this engagement should be wide-ranging, involving students in all aspects of quality assurance systems.

Figure 3.5 focuses on student participation in governance structures, distinguishing between required involvement, optional (advised) involvement, and no requirement for students to be involved. It is interesting to note that student involvement is a formal requirement in 31 systems, while there is no requirement in only 11 systems.

Figure 3.5b: Involvement of students in external review teams, 2013/14

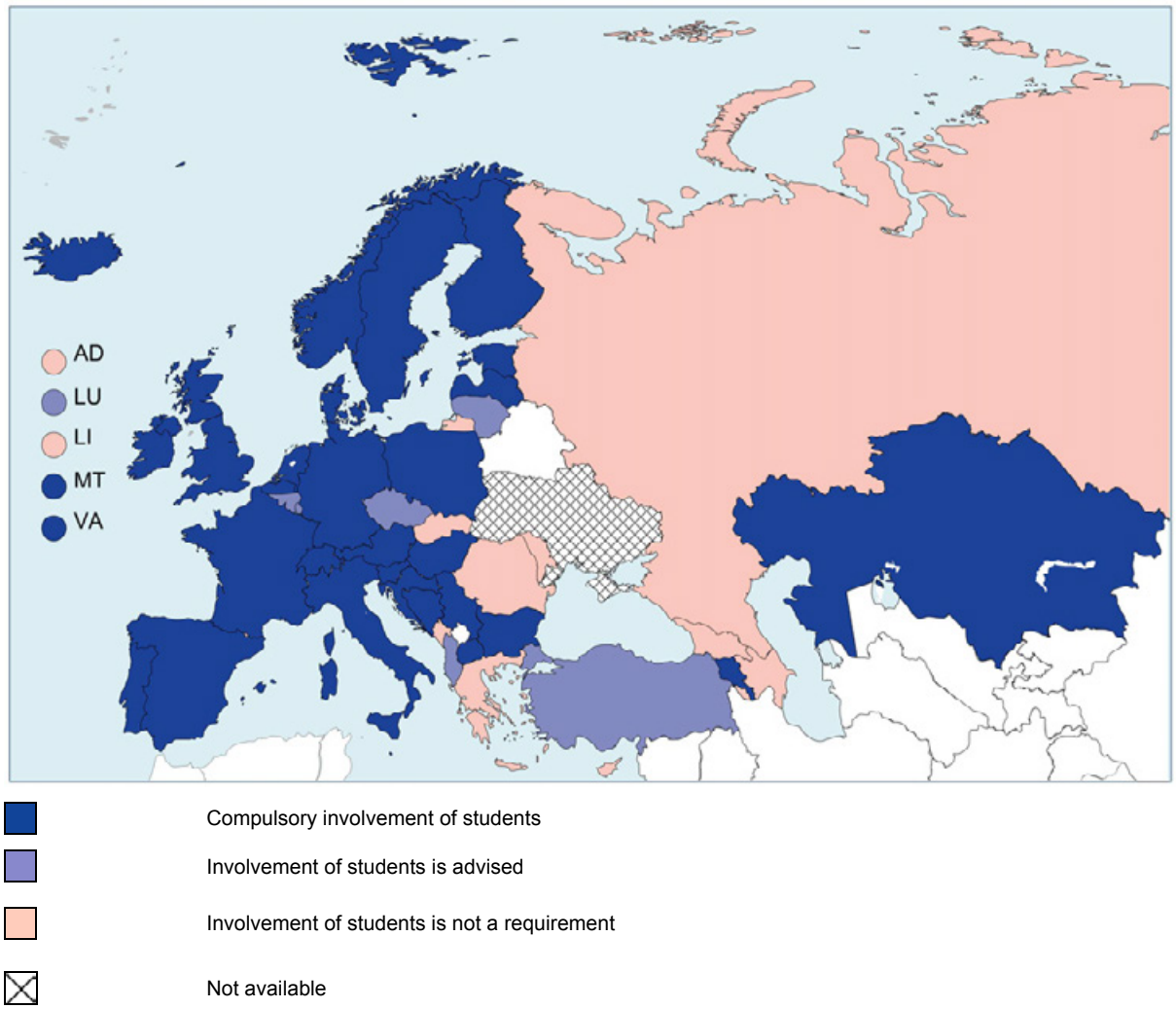
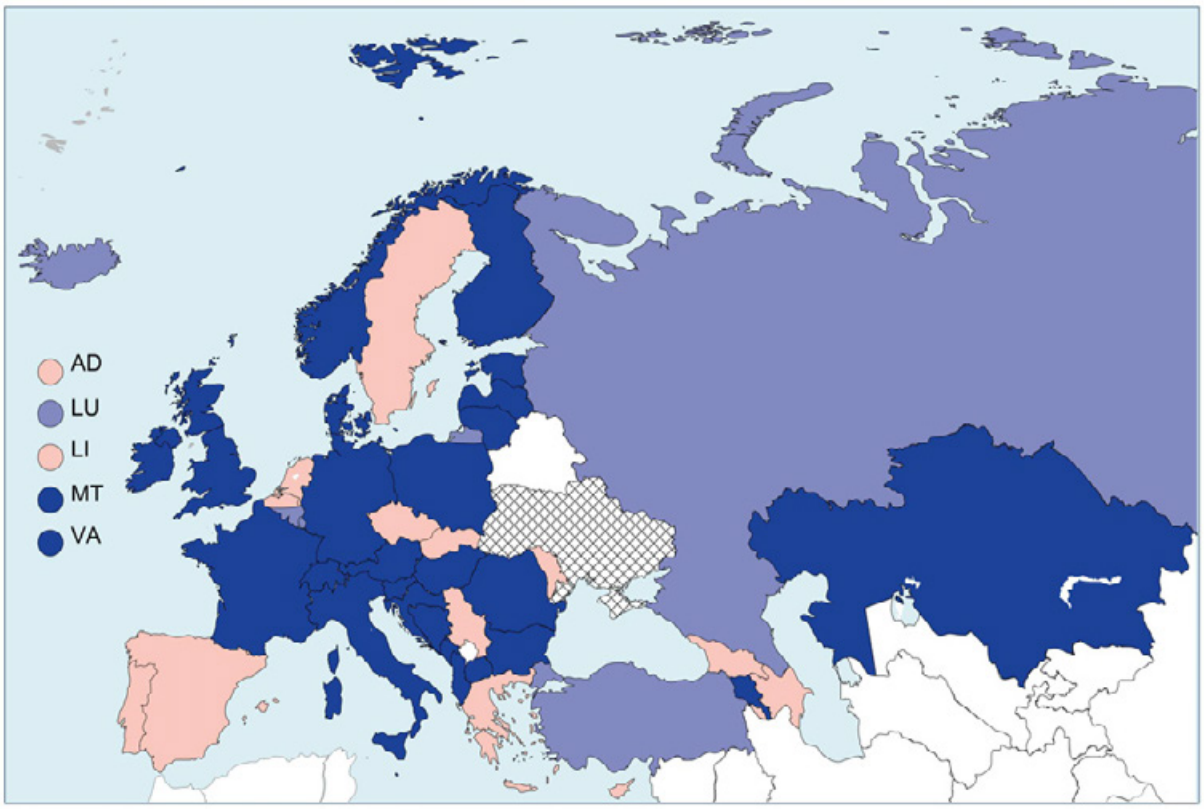


Figure 3.5b focuses on student participation in external review teams, again distinguishing between required involvement, optional (advised) involvement, and no requirement for students to be involved. It is interesting, if not surprising, to note the strong overlap with the information in 3.5, demonstrating the likelihood that where student involvement has established itself as the norm, this will be reflected in all key processes and issues regarding quality assurance.

This assumption, however, needs to be questioned after looking at figure 3.5c on the involvement of students in decision-making processes. This map still shows a considerable number of systems (28) where student involvement is compulsory. However, the picture is more nuanced, and in general there is a tendency for countries to be more reluctant in involving students in decision-making. One interesting exception to the rule is Russia, where student involvement in decision-making is advised despite the fact that there is no required student involvement in other aspects of external quality assurance.

Figure 3.5c: Involvement of students in decision-making processes for external reviews, 2013/14



Compulsory involvement of students

Involvement of students is advised

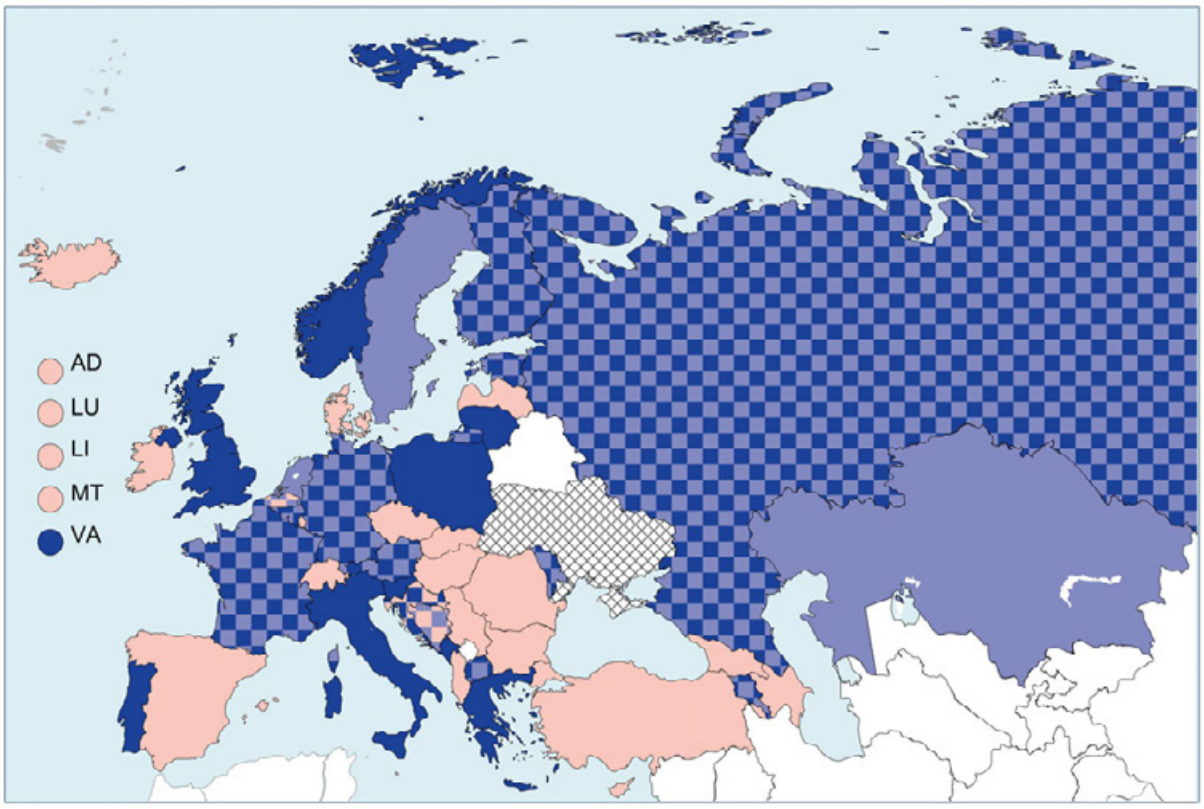
Involvement of students is not a requirement

Not available

3.1.4. Involvement of employers in QA

The Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in the European Higher Education Area (ESG) specify that quality assurance of programmes and awards are expected to include "regular feedback from employers, labour market representatives and other relevant organisations".

Figure 3.5x: Required involvement of employers in QA governance bodies and external review teams, 2013/14



Compulsory involvement of employers in QA governance bodies

Compulsory involvement of employers in QA external review teams

Involvement of employers is not a requirement

Not available

The findings shown in figure 3.5x indicate that employer involvement has become a feature of quality assurance in many systems, but that there have been few developments since 2012. Indeed 27 countries state that there is a formal requirement for involvement of employers – whether in governance bodies, external review teams or both. Among the countries where the position has changed since 2012 is the United Kingdom which at that time pointed out that it depended upon the orientation provided by higher education institution being evaluated. Now, however, the importance of employability issues overrides the principle of institutional autonomy.

3.2. Internal quality assurance

As this report has no direct input from higher education institutions themselves, information on internal quality assurance systems is limited.

3.2.1. Formal requirements for higher education institutions to establish internal quality assurance systems

To be drafted

3.2.2. Responsibility for the focus of internal quality assurance systems

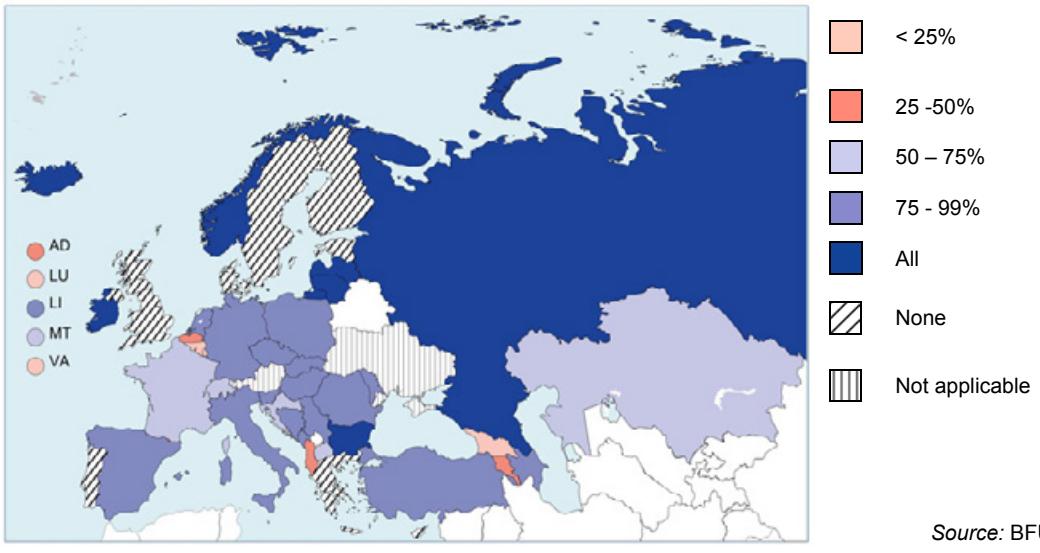
To be drafted

3.2.3. Institutional strategies for continuous quality improvement

Many countries report positive findings regarding the number of institutions that have published a strategy for continuous quality improvement in the past 5 years. Indeed, 24 national systems consider this number to be in excess of 75 % of their higher education institutions, with 7 systems claiming that all higher education institutions have published such a strategy. However, this represents a slight decrease from the estimations in the 2012 report, where 12 systems considered that all institutions published such a strategy.

At the other end of the scale only four systems estimate that between 0-25 % of institutions have published such a strategy, compared to 11 in 2012. Four systems estimate 25-50 %, and six estimate between 50 and 75 %.

Figure 3.6: Publication of institutional strategies for continuous quality enhancement in the past 5 years, 2013/14



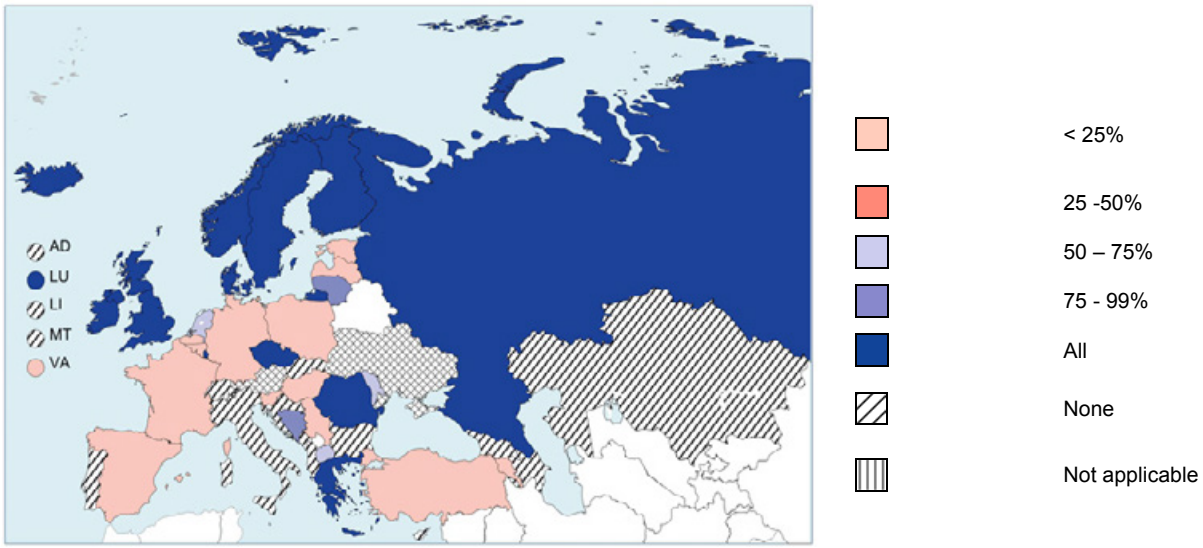
Source: BFUG questionnaire

3.2.4. Publication of critical and negative evaluation reports

The picture regarding the number of institutions that publish critical and negative outcomes of quality assurance is significantly different.

(analysis to be drafted)

Figure 3.7: Publication of critical and negative outcomes by higher education institutions, 2013/14



Conclusions

4. SOCIAL DIMENSION IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Introduction

[on the concept of the social dimension and the rationale(s) behind it…]

The Bucharest Communiqué

With the Bucharest Communiqué (2012), ministers reaffirmed their commitment to the social dimension in higher education and thus to working towards the goal that '[t]he student body entering and graduating from higher education institutions should reflect the diversity of Europe's populations' ([1]). This goal had been formulated for the first time at the London summit of 2007, where ministers had also stressed 'the importance of students being able to complete their studies without obstacles related to their social and economic background' ([2]), after the social dimension had entered the Bologna Process with the Prague Communiqué in 2001 and gained importance in subsequent years.

To further this goal, ministers at their meeting in Bucharest in 2012 agreed 'to adopt national measures for widening overall access to quality higher education' and to 'work to raise completion rates and ensure timely progression in higher education in all EHEA countries' ([3]). More specifically, they agreed to 'step up [their] efforts towards underrepresented groups to develop the social dimension of higher education, reduce inequalities and provide adequate student support services, counselling and guidance, flexible learning paths and alternative access routes, including recognition of prior learning' ([4]). They also encouraged 'the use of peer learning on the social dimension' and endeavoured 'to monitor progress in this area' ([5]). The present report is an important contribution to this monitoring.

The 2012 Bologna Implementation Report

As the previous Bologna Process Implementation Report ('The European Higher Education Area in 2012') showed, the goal of providing equal opportunities to quality higher education had not yet been reached. [A short summary of the results to follow…]

By way of conclusion, the report raised the question whether countries gave sufficient priority to addressing under-representation of particular societal groups in higher education [page 101] and stressed the need to strengthen the link between data gathering (monitoring) and policy development in most EHEA countries [page 82]. One issue highlighted in particular for further analysis was the impact of the implementation of national qualifications frameworks on alternative entry routes [page 88]. Alternative access to higher education in turn was to be regarded as 'a key component of debates relating to the social dimension in higher education' [page 87].

Chapter outline

The purpose of this chapter is to present the situation three years on, reviewing which developments have continued and especially which changes and new developments have occurred in the meantime. Questions of completion / drop-out as well as the provision of student services related to employability will be addressed in chapter 5. More to follow…

([1]) Bucharest Communiqué: Making the Most of Our Potential: Consolidating the European Higher Education Area, 26-27 April 2012, p. 1.

([2]) London Communiqué…

([3]) Ibid.

([4]) Ibid., pp.1-2.

([5]) Ibid., p. 2.

4.1 Statistical information on the impact of students' background on their participation in and attainment of higher education

Please note that this is a first draft version, which is subject to changes, especially since Eurostat has not validated the data yet. So please don't circulate this draft!

4.1.1. Gender balance in higher education

Equal opportunities for men and women to attain higher education are a main concern of the social dimension within the Bologna Process. But gender balance in higher education is a complex matter: Beyond enrolment rates, students' retention and completion rates are also important indicators to assess whether gender parity in higher education is realised or not. Further, some fields of study have a stronger tendency to lead towards a master or doctoral degree, whereas other programmes on tertiary level qualify rather exclusively for a certain occupation after having attained a bachelor degree. Thus, horizontal differentiation (field of study chosen) leads to vertical imbalances (degrees attained). Over the last decade, in a time of economic crisis and fostered by the Bologna Process, tertiary education has also gained importance for further education and lifelong learning. Therefore, equal opportunities for women and men to participate in higher education are also a question of accessibility at different ages.

This section on gender balance therefore looks at the development of women's enrolment overall and with regard to students' age; it discusses gender segregation along fields of study and links these findings to gender distributions on different academic levels.

Figure 4.1 shows the share of women among new entrants in 2001/02 and ten years later. With the exception of Turkey and Switzerland, in all countries the percentage of women entering higher education was above 50 % in 2001/02; Georgia had almost gender parity among new entrants while in Estonia, Iceland and Armenia more than 60 % of the newly enrolled students were female. In the following ten years, Turkey, Switzerland, Georgia and Slovakia saw a steep increase in the share of women starting a study programme on tertiary education level. The share of women among new entrants in the Czech Republic and Cyprus also increased by more than 5 % ([6]). On the other hand, the share of female students starting an education at tertiary level dropped by almost 13 % in Estonia but is still far from being balanced with a percentage of over 55 % females among new entrants. The same applies for Iceland, which used to have a share of more than 61 % women in 2002 and still has the highest share of females with almost 58 % of the new entrants being female. In Ireland, the share of women among new entrants dropped by almost 8 % from a small overrepresentation of women in 2002 to a slight underrepresentation in 2012. This may be linked to the Irish National Plan for Equity of Access to Higher Education (2008-2013) promoting lifelong learning, which, as will be shown later on, is attracting more men than women.

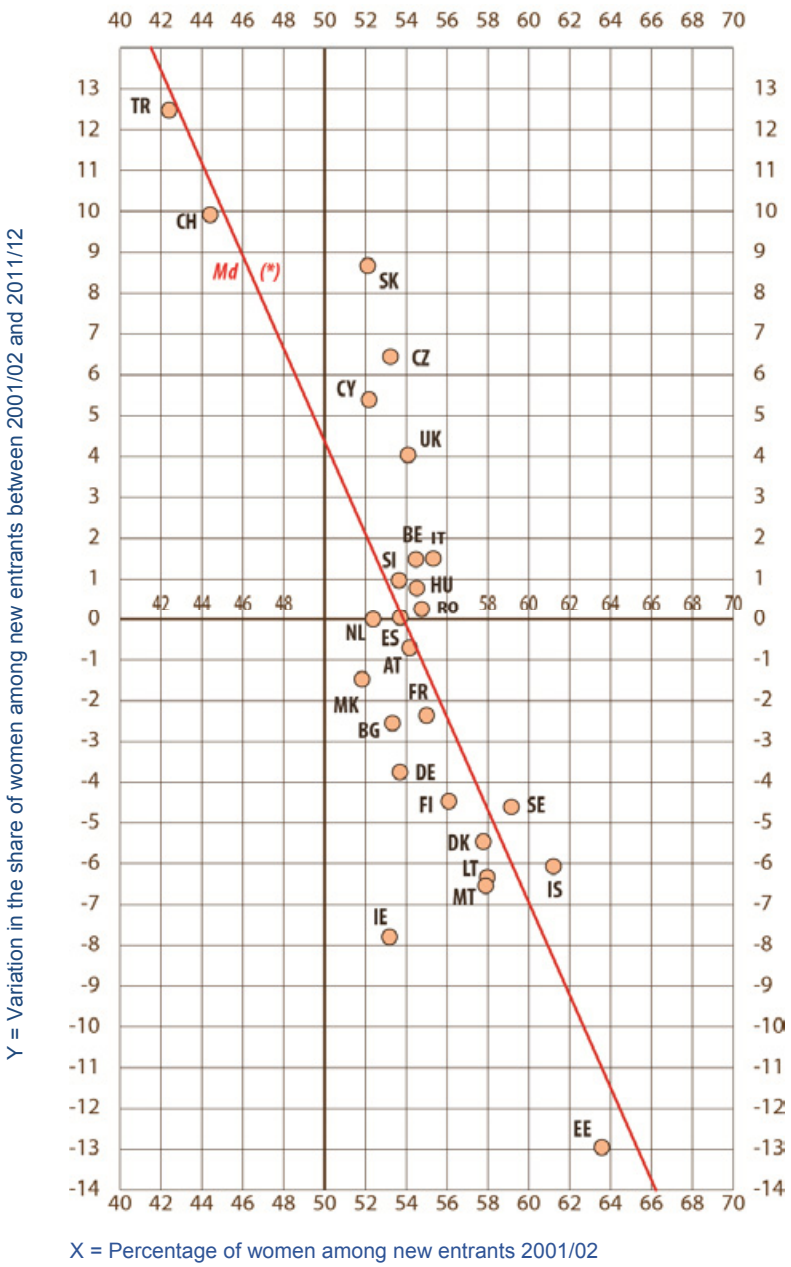
Overall, a trend towards convergence is observable: In 2001/02, the gap in the share of females spanned from 42% in Turkey to 64% in Estonia; in 2011/12 this variation amounts for only ten

[6] NB: This indicator does not refer to freshmen/women only but to all "students who, during the course of the current reporting period, enter any programme leading to a recognised qualification at this level of education *for the first time*, irrespective of whether the students enter the programme at the beginning or at an advanced stage of the programme." (UOE Manual 2013:22) This means, the indicator collates students, who commenced any study programme on the ISCED level in question in the respective country for the first time, e.g. a Bachelor student on 5A level counts just like a student from abroad, who enrols for a Master programme for the first time in the particular country. Further, no country in regard reported numbers of PhD entrants for 2001/02; hence comparability over time is indeed limited.

percentage points, Turkey having almost 48% females among new entrants and in Iceland almost 58% of new entrants are women.

>>even more interesting that on the whole it appears to be slightly more balanced than 2008/9 (compare to figure 4.1 of previous report)

Figure 4.1: Percentage of women in new entrants in tertiary education in 2001/02 and variation between 2001/02 to 2011/12

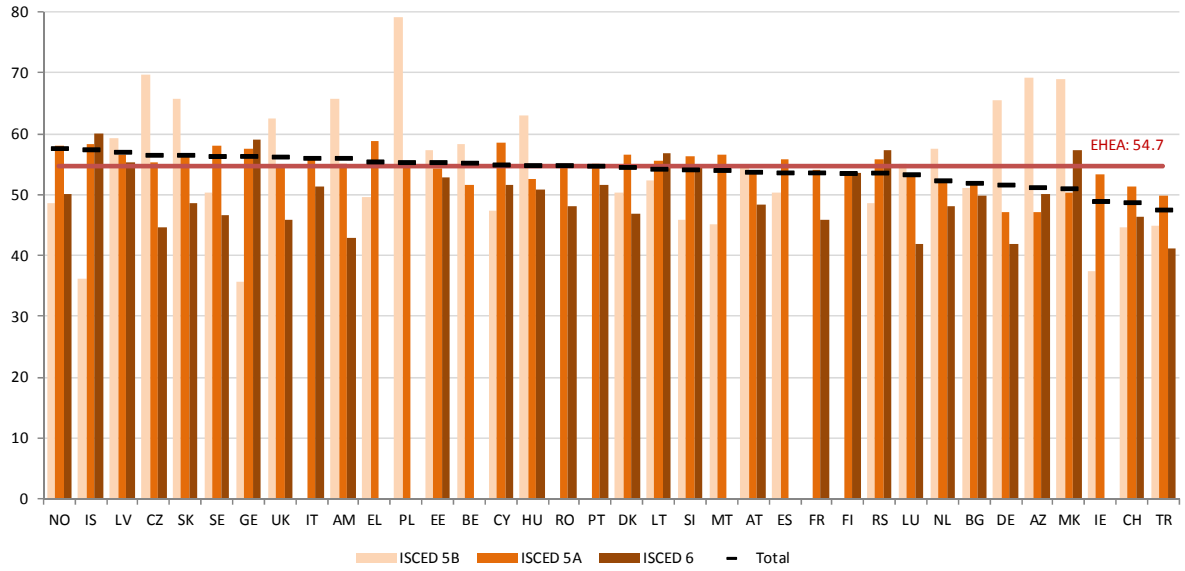


	2002	2012:
TR	42.37	12.46
CH	44.39	9.90
MK	51.83	-1.47
SK	52.11	8.66
CY	52.17	5.39
NL	52.37	0.00
IE	53.17	-7.77
CZ	53.22	6.43
BG	53.32	-2.55
SI	53.64	0.97
DE	53.68	-3.74
ES	53.70	0.04
UK	54.08	4.03
AT	54.16	-0.70
BE	54.47	1.49
HU	54.51	0.78
RO	54.75	0.26
FR	54.99	-2.35
IT	55.32	1.50
FI	56.08	-4.46
DK	57.77	-5.44
MT	57.89	-6.52
LT	57.96	-6.32
SE	59.14	-4.59
AM	61.00	-8.00
GE	50.20	12.38
IS	61.20	-6.05
EE	63.58	-12.92

Notes: Not available - PL: modified since the two reference years do not cover the same levels of education

Source: Eurostat, UOE and additional collection for the other EHEA countries.

Figure 4.1bis: Share of women of new entrants on different levels 2012



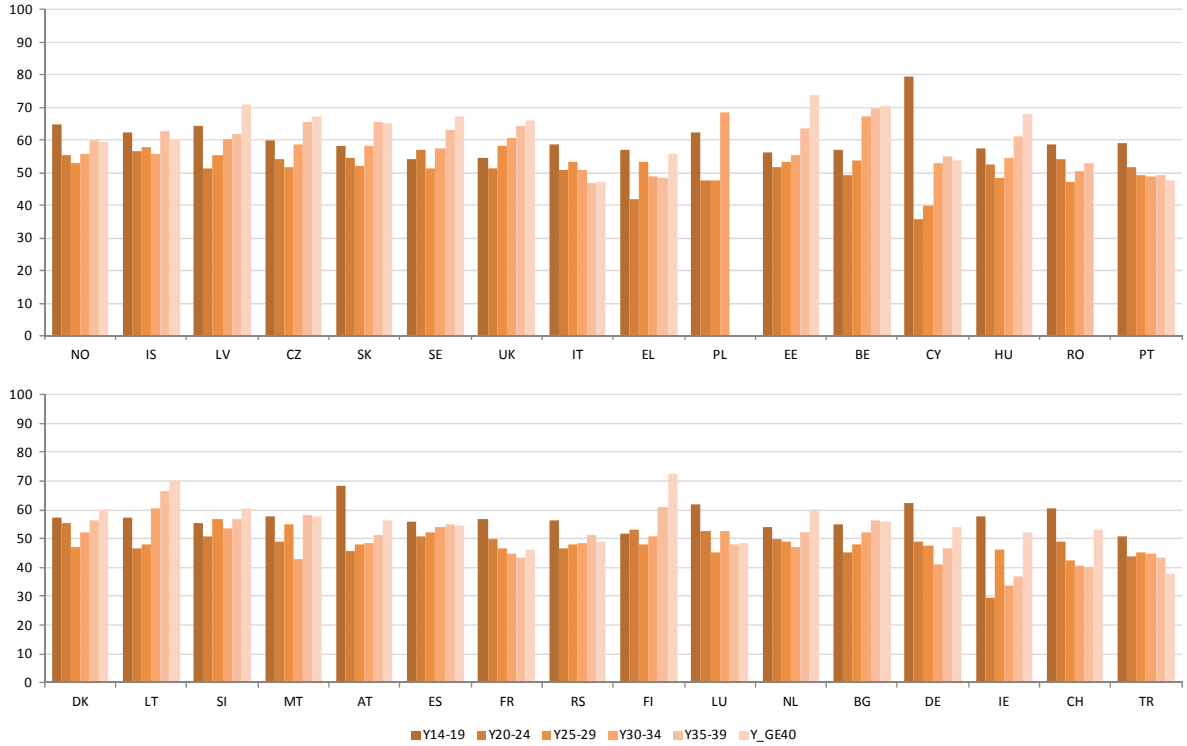
	NO	IS	LV	CZ	SK	SE	GE	UK	IT	AM	EL	PL	EE	BE	CY	HU	RO	PT
ISCED 5B	48.6	36.2	59.3	69.7	65.7	50.3	35.6	62.5	:	65.8	49.7	79.2	57.3	58.4	47.4	63.1	:	:
ISCED 5A	58.0	58.2	56.5	55.4	56.9	58.0	57.5	54.9	56.4	55.0	58.8	55.2	54.3	51.5	58.5	52.6	55.0	55.0
ISCED 6	50.0	60.0	55.4	44.7	48.7	46.5	59.1	45.8	51.4	42.9	:	:	52.8	:	51.7	50.9	48.1	51.6
Total	57.7	57.5	57.1	56.6	56.6	56.4	56.4	56.3	56.1	56.1	55.5	55.4	55.4	55.3	55.0	54.9	54.9	54.8
	DK	LT	SI	MT	AT	ES	FR	FI	RS	LU	NL	BG	DE	AZ	MK	IE	CH	TR
ISCED 5B	50.4	52.4	45.9	45.1	54.9	50.4	:	:	48.6	55.1	57.5	51.1	65.4	69.3	68.9	37.5	44.6	45.0
ISCED 5A	56.6	55.6	56.2	56.6	53.9	55.8	54.2	53.6	55.8	53.1	52.4	52.1	47.2	47.2	50.4	53.4	51.4	49.8
ISCED 6	46.9	56.7	54.9	:	48.4	:	46.0	53.7	57.2	41.9	48.0	49.8	41.8	50.1	57.3	:	46.3	41.1
Total	54.6	54.3	54.2	54.1	53.8	53.7	53.7	53.6	53.7	53.4	52.4	52.0	51.7	51.3	51.1	49.0	48.8	47.6

Notes: *Not available*

Source: Eurostat, UOE and additional collection for the other EHEA countries.

Analysis to follow…

Figure 4.2: Percentage of women in new entrants in tertiary education by age group in 2012

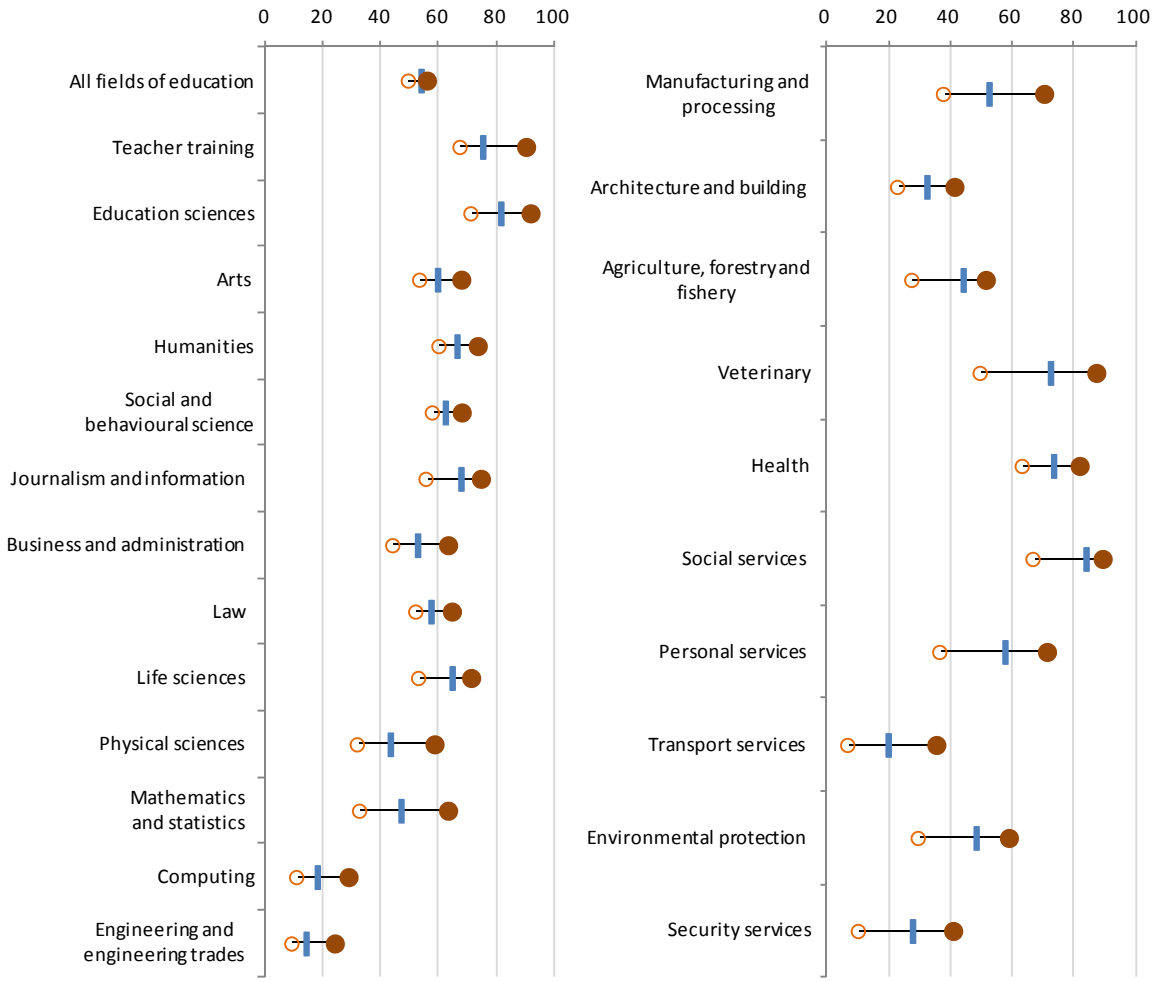


Notes: *Not available*
Source: Eurostat, UOE and additional collection for the other EHEA countries.

	NO	IS	LV	CZ	SK	SE	UK	IT	EL	PL	EE	BE	CY	HU	RO	PT	NO
Y14-19	64.8	62.1	64.1	60.0	58.3	54.3	54.5	58.8	57.1	62.5	56.1	56.9	79.6	57.5	58.5	59.1	64.8
Y20-24	55.3	56.5	51.3	54.3	54.6	56.9	51.3	50.9	42.0	47.7	51.9	49.3	35.9	52.5	54.1	51.5	55.3
Y25-29	52.8	57.8	55.4	51.7	52.3	51.4	58.3	53.4	53.3	47.7	53.2	53.8	39.8	48.4	47.4	49.4	52.8
Y30-34	55.8	55.7	60.1	58.6	58.1	57.3	60.6	50.7	49.0	68.3	55.3	67.1	53.0	54.4	50.3	48.7	55.8
Y35-39	59.8	62.7	61.7	65.6	65.4	63.0	64.4	46.6	48.4	:	63.6	69.4	55.0	61.2	53.1	49.4	59.8
Y_GE40	59.3	60.3	70.8	67.0	65.1	67.0	66.0	47.2	55.6	:	73.7	70.3	53.6	68.1	:	47.4	59.3
	DK	**LT**	**SI**	**MT**	**AT**	**ES**	**FR**	**RS**	**FI**	**LU**	**NL**	**BG**	**DE**	**IE**	**CH**	**TR**	**DK**
Y14-19	57.3	57.1	55.3	57.7	68.2	55.9	56.8	56.5	51.9	62.1	54.0	54.7	62.5	57.6	60.3	50.7	57.3
Y20-24	55.4	46.6	50.7	49.0	45.6	50.5	49.8	46.5	53.1	52.6	50.0	45.0	48.7	29.5	49.1	44.0	55.4
Y25-29	47.1	47.8	56.8	54.9	48.0	52.1	46.8	48.0	47.9	45.0	48.9	47.8	47.5	46.1	42.5	45.1	47.1
Y30-34	52.0	60.5	53.4	43.0	48.7	53.9	44.7	48.2	50.8	52.8	47.2	52.3	41.0	33.7	40.8	44.8	52.0
Y35-39	56.5	66.5	56.7	58.2	51.2	55.1	43.4	51.4	60.9	47.9	52.3	56.5	46.5	37.0	40.2	43.4	56.5
Y_GE40	60.2	70.3	60.5	57.5	56.2	54.4	46.3	48.7	72.7	48.7	59.5	55.9	53.8	52.0	52.9	37.6	60.2

Analysis to follow…

Figure 4.3 Percentage of women in new entrants in tertiary education by field (median and 10/90 percentile), 2011/12

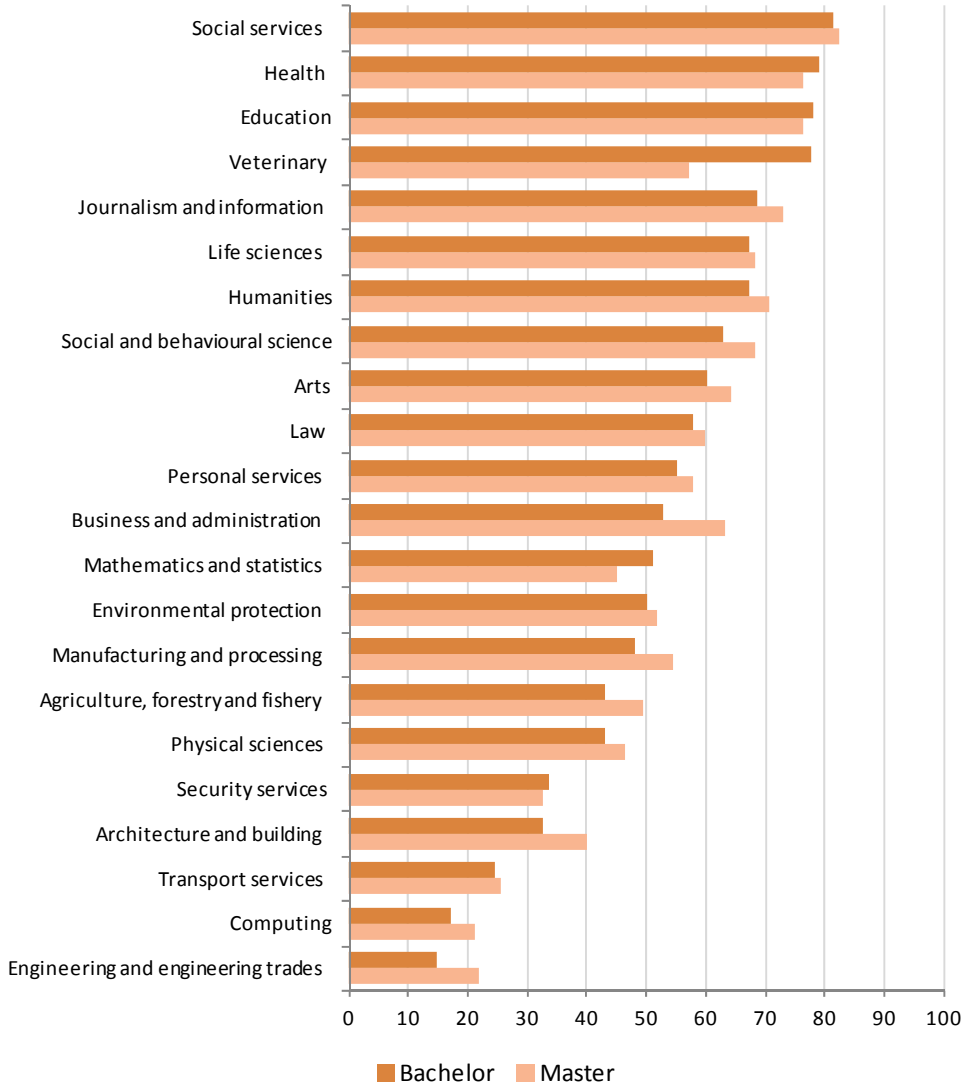


Notes: *Not available*

Source: Eurostat, UOE and additional collection for the other EHEA countries.

Analysis to follow…

Figure 4.4 Percentage of women in enrolled students in Bologna structures by field of education and level of Bologna structure (BA and MA), 2011/12

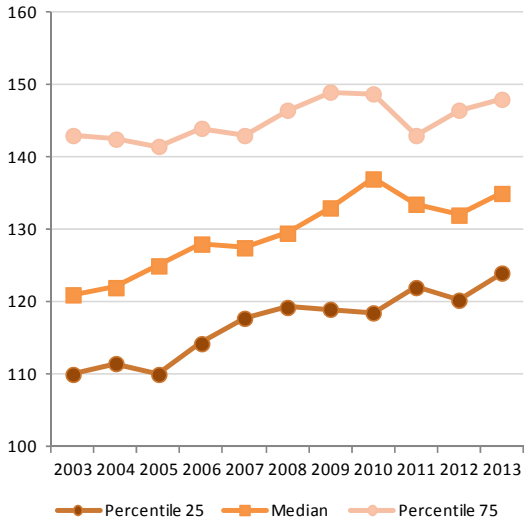


Notes: *Not available*

Source: Eurostat, UOE and additional collection for the other EHEA countries.

Analysis to follow…

Figure 4.5: Attainment by gender: Gender Parity Index of women to men to attain higher education, 2003-2013



	Percentile 25	Median	Percentile 75
2003	110.0	121.0	143.0
2004	111.5	122.0	142.5
2005	110.0	125.0	141.5
2006	114.3	128.0	144.0
2007	117.8	127.5	143.0
2008	119.3	129.5	146.5
2009	119.0	133.0	149.0
2010	118.5	137.0	148.8
2011	122.0	133.5	143.0
2012	120.3	132.0	146.5
2013	124.0	135.0	148.0

Notes: Percentiles and Median have been computed on available data for each year. Thus the geographical coverage varies according to the reference years.

Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS) and additional collection for the other EHEA countries.

Analysis to follow…

4.1.2. Students born abroad

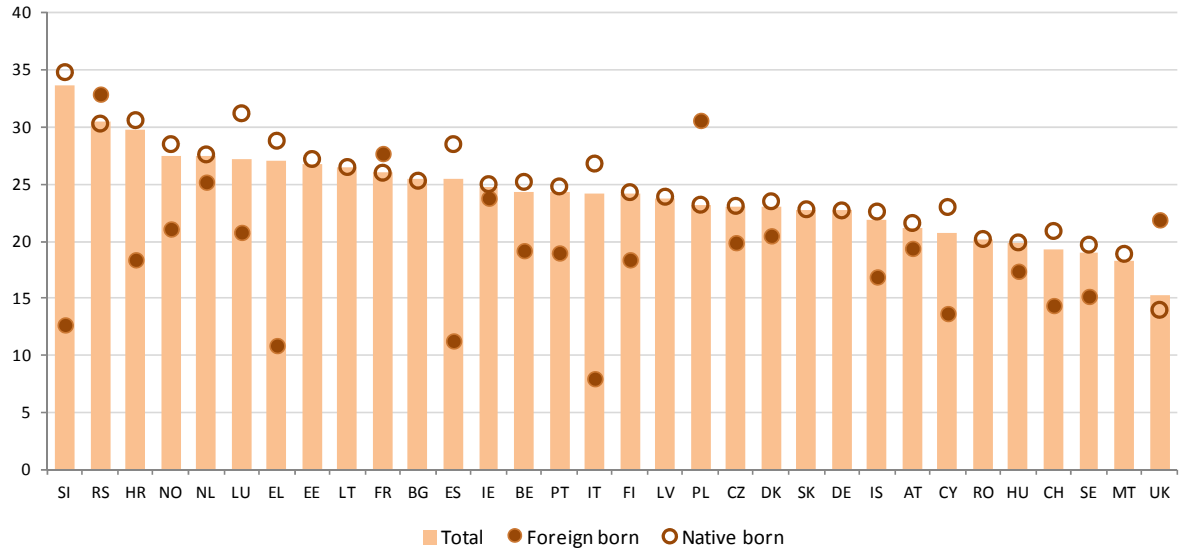
A rough measure of the educational integration of students utilises the country of birth to assess whether students who were born abroad have the same chances to participate in higher education as native born students. This indicator compares the participation rates in higher education in the foreign born population aged 18 to 29 with the participation rate in the population of native born in the same age group. The indicator thus collates all students born abroad, regardless of whether they were raised and went to school in the respective country or just moved to the country for the purposes of study. Hence, the indicator is sensitive firstly to the migration history of a country, in terms of whether there was a substantial rise in the number of young immigrants in the recent past. And secondly, migration flows of international students are not equally distributed across Europe: Grabher et al. (2014:35) and Chapter 7 on mobility show the imbalance in degree mobility as a ratio of incoming and outgoing students, who go abroad to complete a study programme. Such information on learning mobility (also on credit mobility) is crucial for the interpretation of the indicator of participation rates of foreign born students, since mobile students add to the total foreign born population. As a result, the

indicator loses significance on the integration of the foreign born population of a given country the higher the share of international students is. At the same time, children of immigrants born in the destination country, often referred to as "second generation immigrants", are considered native born in this depiction.

With the exception of the United Kingdom, Serbia[7] and France, those born abroad have a lower participation rate in higher education all over Europe than native born. If an error tolerance of five percentage points is considered, only the United Kingdom has a positive imbalance to the advantage of foreign born students.

Across Europe, there are however significant differences in participation rates of the foreign born population in higher education, with the lowest rate of foreign born in higher education in Italy (8 % while 27 % for natives) and the highest in France (almost 28 % while 26 % for natives). The largest gaps in the attendance ratio can be observed in Italy, Spain, Greece, and Luxembourg. In all of these countries, the difference between the enrolment ratio of students born abroad and native born students, amounts to more than ten percentage points. In Cyprus, Norway, Switzerland, Belgium, Finland, Portugal and Iceland, the gap is between five and nine percentage points.

Figure 4.6: Participation rates in tertiary education among the population born abroad, native and total population, 2013



	SI	RS	HR	NO	NL	LU	EL	EE	LT	FR	BG	ES	IE	BE	PT	IT
Foreign born	*12.7*	32.9	*18.4*	21.1	25.2	20.8	10.9	*15.3*	:u	27.7	:u	11.3	23.8	19.2	19	8
Native born	34.8	30.3	30.6	28.5	27.6	31.2	28.8	27.2	26.5	26.0	25.3	28.5	25	25.2	24.8	26.8
Total	33.6	30.5	29.8	27.5	27.4	27.2	27	26.8	26.5	26.1	25.4	25.4	24.7	24.3	24.3	24.1
	FI	**LV**	**PL**	**CZ**	**DK**	**SK**	**DE**	**IS**	**AT**	**CY**	**RO**	**HU**	**CH**	**SE**	**MT**	**UK**
Foreign born	18.4	:u	*30.6*	19.9	20.5	:u	:	16.9	19.4	13.7	:u	*17.4*	14.4	15.2	:u	21.9
Native born	24.3	23.9	23.2	23.1	23.5	22.8	22.7	22.6	21.6	23	20.2	19.9	20.9	19.7	18.9	14
Total	24.1	23.7	23.2	23	23	22.8	22.7	21.9	21.2	20.7	20.2	19.8	19.3	19	18.3	15.3

Notes: ':u': not reliable and not publishable and *italics:* not reliable. Data are sorted by participation rate in tertiary education of the total population.

Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS) and additional collection for the other EHEA countries.

[7] The Serbian data have additional limitations, since the country of birth refers to nowadays borders. Due to the dissolution of former Yugoslavia, both the number of students born outside of nowadays Serbia and their integration into higher education may be of limited comparability, since they are ethnic Serbs who were born in other parts of former Yugoslavia but never considered foreigners in nowadays Serbia.

[for reasons of readability / comparability, it might be better to use the same order as last time: total, foreign born, native born]

Compare results to figures from 2009…

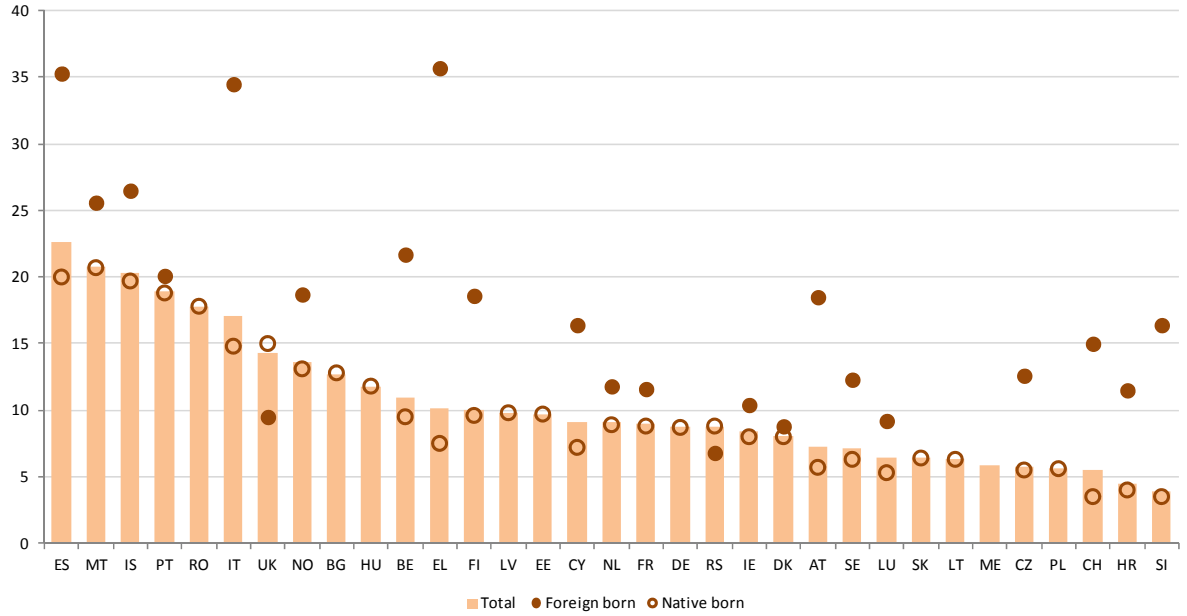
Participation in higher education to a large extent depends on participation in earlier stages of education. Thus, a glance at the share of early leavers from education and training (ESL) among the foreign born and native born population depicts educational disparities from another perspective (see figure 4.7 below). The indicator relates the number of young women and men (18 to 24 years old) who were born abroad and who left the education system before completing upper secondary education to the total foreign born population of the same age group (18 to 24). Vice versa the indicator for the native born population is calculated. As this indicator uses the total population (foreign born / native born) as denominator, it is heavily dependent on the make-up of the immigrant group. Thus, a country with a large proportion of international students, scores lower on the indicator for ESL among the foreign born population, since these international students account to the total population of foreign born in the particular country but could not drop out of the educational system of the respective country. Therefore, the share of ESL in the native and foreign born population should not be interpreted without additional information on the proportion of foreign students in the respective country. [see chapter / figure…]

The highest shares of ESL among native born are observed in Spain, Malta and Iceland. In those three countries, one out of five young women and men (18-24 years old) left the education system before completing an upper secondary degree. In Portugal, Romania and Italy, this share is still above 15 % of the respective age group. In another seven countries (United Kingdom, Norway, Bulgaria, Hungary, Belgium, Greece, and Finland), at least one out of ten students left school before completing upper secondary education.

Young foreign born are more likely to quit school at an early stage. In Greece, foreign born are almost five times as often ESL than native born, in Switzerland the ratio is four to one and in Austria three to one. In Italy, Belgium, Cyprus, Sweden, Spain and Luxembourg, there are twice as many ESL among foreign born than among native born young people. In all other countries, for which data is available, the shares are more or less equal among the two groups. Again, the exemptions are the United Kingdom and Serbia, where the share of pupils born abroad that left the education system before completing upper secondary education is lower than the share of natives who dropped out early.

>>Relate it to figures on international student mobility shown in chapter 7.

Figure 4.7: Early leavers from education and training as percentage of the population born abroad, native born and the total population, 2013



	ES	MT	IS	PT	RO	IT	UK	NO	BG	HU	BE	EL	FI	LV	EE	CY	NL
Foreign born	35.3	*25.6*	26.5	20.1		34.5	9.5	18.7		:u	21.7	35.7	*18.6*	:u	:u	16.4	11.8
Native born	20.0	20.7	19.7	18.8	17.8	14.8	15	13.1	12.8	11.8	9.5	7.5	9.6	9.8	9.7	7.2	8.9
Total	22.6	20.8	20.3	18.9	17.8	17.1	14.3	13.6	12.7	11.8	11	10.1	10	9.8	9.7	9.1	9.1

	FR	DE	RS	IE	DK	AT	SE	LU	SK	LT	ME	CZ	PL	CH	HR	SI
Foreign born	11.6		6.8	10.4	*8.8*	18.5	12.3	9.2	:u			*12.6*	:u	15	*11.5*	*16.4*
Native born	8.8	8.7	8.8	8	8	5.7	6.3	5.3	6.4	6.3		5.5	5.6	3.5	4	3.5
Total	9	8.7	8.7	8.4	8	7.3	7.1	6.4	6.4	6.3	5.81	5.7	5.6	5.5	4.5	3.9

Notes: ':u': not reliable and not publishable and *italics:* not reliable. Data are sorted by Early leavers from education and training as percentage of the total population.

Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS) and additional collection for the other EHEA countries.

>>again, advisable to use same order as last time (total, foreign born, native born)

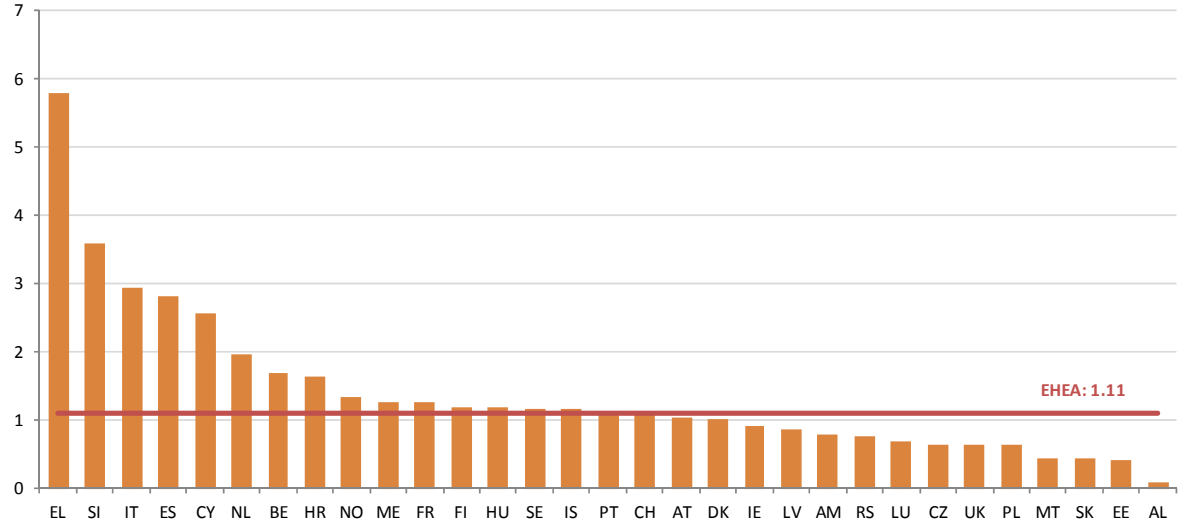
Compare figure 4.7 to figure 4.5 of last report (2009 data)… >>In some cases quite drastic changes. Are they real and/or related to data collection?

The data on early school leaving can be compared with the overall chances of native and foreign born to attain higher education. The overall educational attainment of the native and foreign born population can be depicted as odds ratios, which means that the numbers in figure 4.8 can be read as chances of native born over foreign born students to complete higher education. This ratio is significantly to the disadvantage of foreign born in Greece where native born students' chance to complete higher education is almost six times as high as for students born abroad. In Italy, Spain and Cyprus this ratio is almost three to one and in the Netherlands and Belgium almost twice as many native born students complete higher education than foreign born. On the opposite, the chances to complete higher education are roughly twice as high for foreign than for native born students in Estonia, Malta, the Czech Republic and the United Kingdom. **>>again to be linked to figures on student mobility, both credit and degree mobility.**

Although, the two populations are not exactly congruent, linking these findings back to the shares of ESL among foreign and native born students reveals pursued patterns of disadvantage of educational attainment of people born abroad: In Greece, Italy, Spain, Cyprus and Belgium, foreign born pupils

drop out early from education (at least) twice as often and have half the chance of native born people to attain higher education.

Figure 4.8 Completion of higher education by country of birth: odds ratio of native born over population born abroad to complete higher education, 2013



EL	SI	IT	ES	CY	NL	BE	HR	NO	ME	FR	FI	HU	SE	IS	PT	CH
5.79	*3.59*	2.95	2.82	2.56	1.96	1.68	*1.63*	1.33	1.27	1.27	1.2	1.19	1.16	1.16	1.11	1.11
AT	**DK**	**IE**	**LV**	**AM**	**RS**	**LU**	**CZ**	**UK**	**PL**	**MT**	**SK**	**EE**	**AL**			
1.05	1.02	0.92	0.86	0.8	0.77	0.7	0.64	0.64	*0.63*	0.43	*0.43*	0.41	*0.09*			

Notes: ':u': not reliable and not publishable and *italics:* not reliable. Armenia: 2012.

Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS) and additional collection for the other EHEA countries.

Compare to figure 4.6 of last report (2009 data)… >>Also here some significant changes for a few countries (e.g. HU, FI, DK).

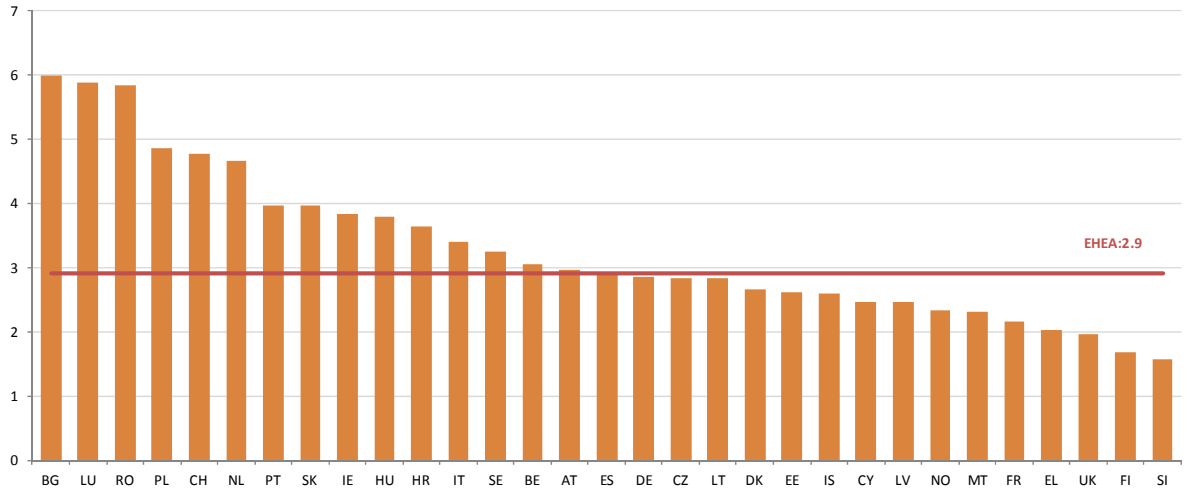
4.1.3. Influence of parental education on higher education attainment

Introduction on the impact of the social and economic background on higher educational attainment…

In all EHEA countries for which data is available, children of tertiary educated parents have much higher chances to complete tertiary education than children from parents having completed upper secondary and post-secondary non tertiary education. In most of the EHEA countries, the relative chance for young people with highly educated parents to complete higher education is between two and five times higher than for young people whose parents have a only upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education. In Finland and Slovenia the effect exists but is weaker than in the other countries. In Bulgaria, Luxembourg and Romania, on the other hand, the effect is particularly strong: children of tertiary educated parents have nearly six times more chances to complete higher education than children of medium educated parents.

More on the changes compared to 2009… In some cases the numbers are much higher for 2011 (e.g. SE, LU, MT…), in others significantly lower (RO used to have 12.95; SK 9.77) >> *real changes and/or related to data collection?*

Figure 4.9: Attainment by educational background: odds ratio of young adults with highly educated parents (i.e. tertiary educational attainment) over young adults with medium educated parents (i.e. upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education) to successfully complete higher education, 2011



BG	LU	RO	PL	CH	NL	PT	SK	IE	HU	HR	IT	SE	BE	AT	ES	DE
5.99	5.89	5.84	4.87	4.78	4.66	3.97	3.97	3.83	3.80	3.64	3.40	3.24	3.06	2.97	2.92	2.86
CZ	**LT**	**DK**	**EE**	**IS**	**CY**	**LV**	**NO**	**MT**	**FR**	**EL**	**UK**	**FI**	**SI**			
2.85	2.84	2.66	2.62	2.59	2.48	2.46	2.34	2.32	2.16	2.03	1.97	1.68	1.57			

Notes:

Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC.

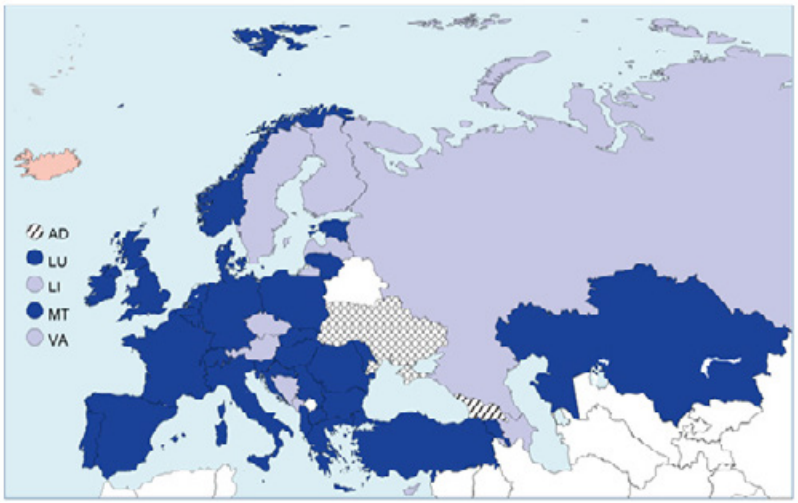
4.2 Policy approaches to widening access and participation in higher education

Drawing upon the responses to the BFUG questionnaire and the results of the Eurostudent survey, this section outlines the different policy approaches to widening participation in higher education across the EHEA. It shows to what extent the objective of widening participation is reflected in national higher education policies, which concrete measures (if any) are in place, and if the resulting composition of the student body is subject to systematic monitoring.

4.2.1. Overview of the main approaches

As already shown by the previous reporting exercise, the objective of widening participation is reflected in the higher education policy of almost all EHEA countries. Iceland is the only country to report this objective not to be reflected in its higher education policy (in 2012 there had been three more: Andorra, Latvia and Slovakia). In 12 systems (now also including Latvia) the objective of widening participation is reflected in steering documents through general policy statements without concrete measures being put in place. In more than 70 % of the systems (35, including Andorra and Slovakia) it is reflected through a set of concrete measures (see figure 4.10). [to be confirmed for Andorra and Georgia]

Figure 4.10: National policy approaches to widening participation in higher education, 2013/14



The objective of widening participation is reflected in steering documents through a set of concrete measures

General policy statements reflecting the objective of widening participation but no concrete measures put in place

Countries not reflecting the goal of widening participation in their HE policy

Waiting for further information from country

Data not available

Source: BFUG questionnaire

Concrete measures to widen participation

Looking at the concrete measures taken across the EHEA to widen participation in higher education, two types of measures can be discerned: measures to increase participation as a whole, expecting this to increase the participation of underrepresented groups as well (also referred to as mainstreaming approach); and measures targeting specific underrepresented groups directly in order to achieve a more balanced composition of the student body. Most countries combine both approaches in one way or another. [More conceptual discussion on mainstreaming vs. targeted approach to follow…]

Increasing overall participation and trying to organize higher education in a way that makes it accessible to the widest possible range of learners is the predominant approach in the Nordic countries (Denmark, Finland, Norway). This includes, for instance, offering higher education free of charge (which also applies to Turkey), combined with generous grants and loans for all students (Denmark and Norway), expanding the number of university places (also Germany, Malta, UK-ENG-NIR-WLS), or providing funding for counselling (France, Germany, Greece, Italy) and various student facilities (housing, meals, social, psychological and medical support, childcare etc.), as mentioned by the Flemish Community of Belgium, Bulgaria, Croatia, France, Italy, Moldova, Norway and Serbia. [compare to question 42]

While those measures are usually open to all students, several countries also implement measures targeting specific underrepresented groups, mainly students with disabilities, students from ethnic minorities or from socially and/or economically disadvantaged backgrounds.

The measure mentioned most frequently (by roughly half of the systems with concrete measures, 40 % of all systems) are scholarships for underrepresented groups of students (with disabilities, orphans, from poor socio-economic background, from rural areas, released from military service, Roma etc.) or a needs-based study allowance and/or loan system.

Also quite common (reported by 15 systems) are special examination/study conditions or other support measures for students with disabilities. Seven systems work with admission / enrolment quotas and/or reduced or no tuition fees for certain groups of students (e.g. students with disabilities or Roma). A few countries also offer special support to non-native speaking students (Denmark and Estonia) or to HEIs in rural areas (Estonia and Poland). Other measures mentioned are the provision of flexible learning opportunities, part-time or distance education and short-cycle programmes.

Quantitative objectives

With the Leuven/Louvain-la-Neuve Communiqué of 2009, ministers agreed that each participating country would set 'measurable targets for widening overall participation and increasing participation of underrepresented groups in higher education, to be reached by the end of the next decade' ([8]).

Five years later, 70 % of the systems (34) have indeed defined such measurable targets. The vast majority (25 systems), however, have only targets for widening overall participation; three countries have targets with a reference to underrepresented groups only; six countries have both. In total, less than 20 % of the systems have measurable targets for increasing participation of underrepresented groups, as called for by the Leuven/Louvain-la-Neuve Communiqué. It could be argued that without the European Union's Europe 2020 strategy (see below), the number of systems having measurable targets for widening overall participation would be considerable lower as well. 14 systems (12 non-EU countries plus the UK) have not (yet) defined any specific quantitative objectives to be reached.

A year after the EHEA countries had adopted the Leuven/Louvain-la-Neuve Communiqué, the European Union countries among them adopted the Europe 2020 strategy and the target that by 2020 at least 40 % of young people (aged 30-34) should have completed tertiary or equivalent education by 2020. In the following, all EU countries except the UK defined national targets for tertiary education in their Europe 2020 National Reform Programmes ([9]). As the BFUG reporting showed, also two non-EU/candidate countries (Montenegro and Serbia) have adopted such targets. As a result, 30 of the 48 systems covered by the present report have at least one quantitative objective regarding the population entering, participating in and/or completing higher education, namely a specific share of higher education graduates among the 30-34 year-olds to be reached by 2020, ranging from 26-27 % in Italy and Romania to 60 % in Ireland and 66 % in Luxembourg. [Note: the following EU member states nevertheless reported not to have quantitative objectives in national steering documents: AT, BE fr, BG, DK, LV, LU, NL, SK] Norway reported a quantitative objective concerning the population entering higher education, namely an increase by 24.800 in the number of study places by 2019 (compared to 2006).

Some of the countries have set more than one quantitative objective without reference to underrepresented groups. Those additional objectives mainly concern the share of the population aged 19 or 19-24 entering or participating in higher education (Germany, Malta, Slovenia) and the share of students or graduates in the fields of engineering and natural sciences (Estonia, Lithuania, Poland). After a steep increase in the first decade of the 21st century, the Czech Republic for 2015 defined upper ceilings for first-time enrolments in tertiary education (roughly up to two-thirds of the relevant age cohort) and bachelor graduates continuing to study at master level (not more than 50 %).

In addition to the objectives mentioned above, some countries (Finland, Greece?, Ireland, Malta, Poland, Serbia) have defined also quantitative objectives with a reference to underrepresented groups. Three more countries (Kazakhstan, Moldova, Russia) have quantitative objectives with a reference to underrepresented groups only. So in total, only 9 out of 48 systems for which data is available have defined quantitative objectives with a reference to underrepresented groups of the student population. Some of them reserve a given number or a percentage of study places for underrepresented groups of the student population [give examples]. Some have defined enrolment targets to be reached (as share of the total student population) [examples]. Finland focuses on the imbalances and seeks to halve gender and regional differences and the effect of the social and ethnic

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([8]) Leuven/Louvain-la-Neuve Communiqué: The Bologna Process 2020 - The European Higher Education Area in the new decade. Communiqué of the Conference of European Ministers Responsible for Higher Education, Leuven and Louvain-la-Neuve, 28-29 April 2009.

([9]) Overview of Europe 2020 targets. The national targets as set out in the National Reform Programmes (NRP) in April 2014. Available at http://ec.europa.eu/europe2020/pdf/targets_en.pdf [Accessed: 23 October 2014].

background on participation in higher education by 2020. The gender differences in graduation in young age groups are to be reduced by 2020 and halved by 2025. The long-term aim is to remove those differences altogether. The underrepresented groups covered by the various targets are students with disabilities (Finland, Greece, Ireland, Kazakhstan, Moldova, Russia, Serbia), orphans (Greece, Kazakhstan, Moldova, Russia), mature students (Ireland, Malta, Poland, Slovenia), students from lower socio-economic background (Finland, Ireland, Moldova), from ethnic minorities (Finland, Moldova, Serbia), or from specific rural areas (Moldova) as well as gender groups (Finland, see above).

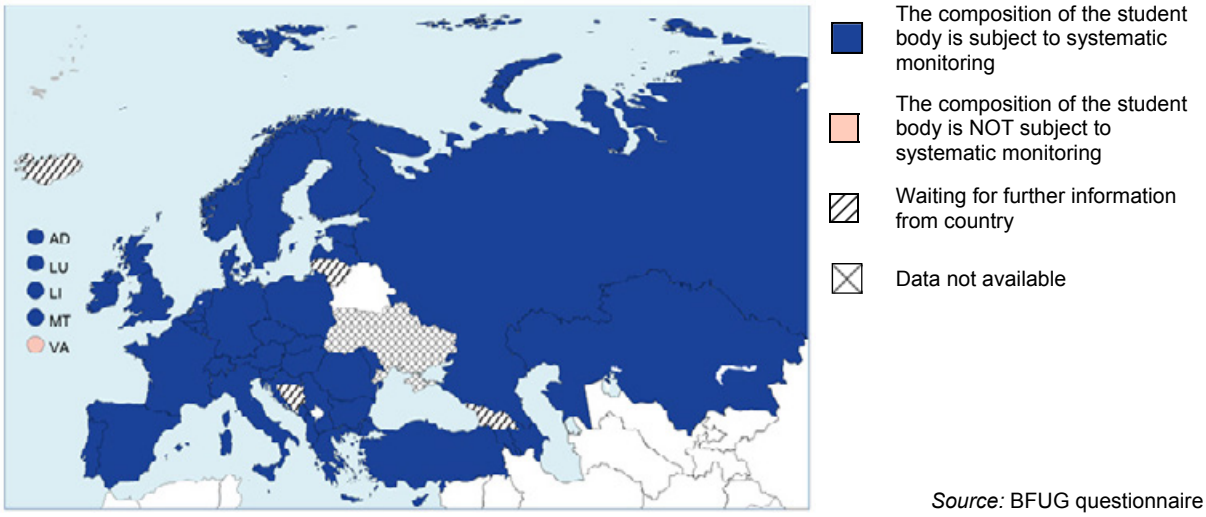
In Norway, for privacy reasons, national education authorities are not allowed to collect data on disabilities, religion, ethnic origin etc. and therefore cannot implement quantitative objectives defined along those lines.

4.2.2. Monitoring of the composition of the student body

[Introduction to follow…]

In 90 % of the systems (in 43 out of 48) the composition of the student body is subject to systematic monitoring at some point, usually at entry to higher education, during higher education studies, and at graduation. Systematic monitoring after graduation takes place in roughly half of the systems. In Bosnia and Herzegovina?, Georgia?, the Holy See, Iceland? and Lithuania?, the composition of the student body is not systematically monitored at all (see figure 4.11). In Iceland this might be connected to the fact that this country does not reflect the goal of widening participation in its higher education policy, as shown above.

Figure 4.11: Monitoring the composition of the student body, 2013/14



Source: BFUG questionnaire

Higher education systems that systematically monitor the composition of the student body most often take into account age (41) as well as type and level of qualification achieved prior to entry to higher education (40) and gender (40). More than half of the systems also take into account disability and socio-economic background; roughly a quarter look at ethnic, cultural, religious or linguistic minority status, migrant status, and/or labour market status prior to entry to higher education. [other characteristics mentioned by a few…] Religion is a characteristic not taken into account at all, except by Switzerland during higher education studies.

The monitoring is usually carried out by a ministry or governmental body and/or by higher education institutions with obligation to submit data to another body (ministry, statistical office or quality assurance agency). In a number of countries, data is also collected by independent bodies and/or

higher education institutions without obligation to report to another body, especially when it comes to monitoring after graduation.

In 38 of the 43 systems where a systematic monitoring of the composition of the student body takes place, mechanisms exist that encourage or oblige higher education institutions to participate in such a monitoring (the exceptions are Albania, Andorra, Croatia, Cyprus and Kazakhstan). Quite often the monitoring is part of regular data collection by national statistical offices; in some cases it is connected to quality assurance. In several countries, higher education institutions are obliged to keep a student register. A growing number of countries work with a central database (in some cases managed by the ministry in charge of higher education). Monitoring can also be connected to funding, for example with scholarships for certain categories of students or support for higher education institutions offering education to students with disabilities.

In most systems (with the exception of Albania, Andorra, Bulgaria and Cyprus?), results of monitoring activities are publicly available. In 24 cases, some or all results are shown for each individual higher education institution; in 15 cases, information is aggregated, which is often due to protection of personal data.

Almost 80 % of the systems (38) report legal restrictions on publishing data on certain student characteristics; in 29 of them legal restrictions apply also to collecting data (the latter also applies to Hungary where restrictions apply only to the collection, not the publication of data). Restrictions concern personal / private data for reasons of data protection (most frequently mentioned are ethnic origin & disabilities; also: religion, medical data, judicial data etc.). In some cases restrictions apply to data on individuals, while publication of aggregated data is possible. In some cases data collection (and publication) is possible on a voluntary basis (i.e. if students agree to it). In 9 systems there are no legal restrictions on collecting and publishing data on student characteristics.

Asked about the main changes in the composition of the student body during the last decade, a quarter of the systems for which data is available [9 of 36] report a greater share of international students. Less than 20 % report an increase in the number of migrants or students from ethnic minorities; female students and graduates; mature students; students disclosing a disability and/or students from under-represented socio-economic groups respectively. [More on individual responses] Six countries did not identify any major changes.

While in most systems the student body is subject to systematic monitoring, it often covers only a limited number of the characteristics usually referred to in the context of the social dimension, related to underrepresented groups. Moreover, it remains unclear to what extent the monitoring is actually linked to policy-making. It seems that only a small number of countries [give examples] use the information on the composition of the student body to assess the impact of measures aimed at widening participation.

4.3 Opening access routes to higher education and providing adequate student services

[Brief outline to follow…]

4.3.1. Access routes to higher education

[Introduction…]

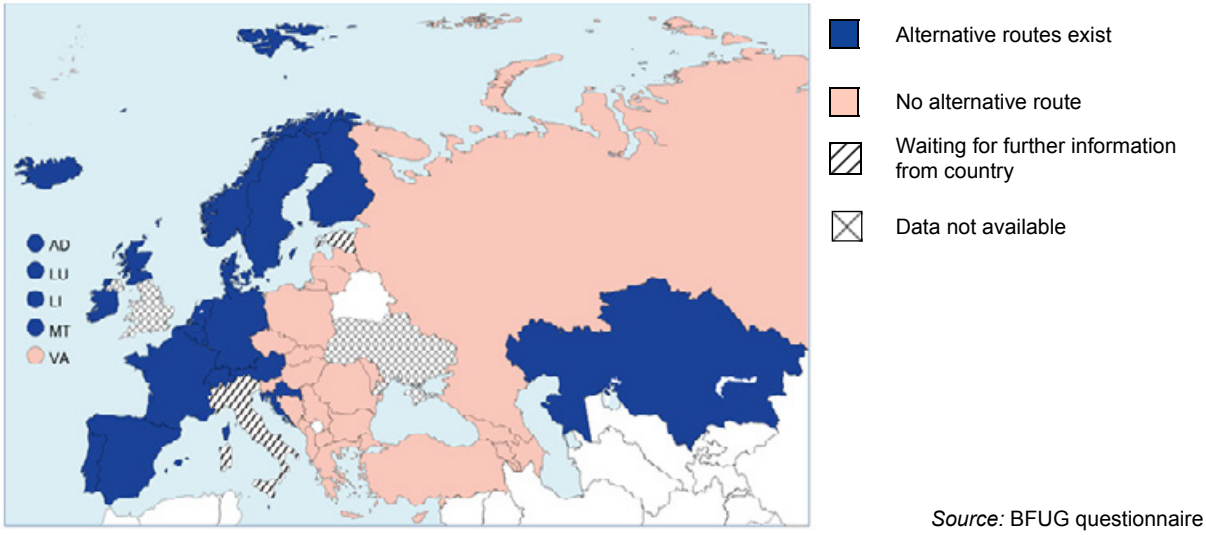
Overview of the current situation

The traditional direct access route to higher education is the possession of an upper secondary qualification, general (ISCED 34) or vocational (ISCED 35). In the vast majority of the systems covered by this report, meeting those standard entry requirements does not guarantee access to higher education, though. In 70 % of the systems, individuals that meet standard entry requirements do not have a guaranteed right to higher education. Typically, students compete for a limited number of places and are selected on the basis of their level of achievement in the upper secondary qualification and/or an additional entrance examination. In some countries, there are central entrance exams that all students need to pass; in other countries, it depends on individual higher education institutions and/or the field of study whether an entrance exam needs to be taken.

In the remaining 30 % of the systems, individuals that meet the standard entry requirements have a guaranteed right to higher education in some (or most) fields of study and/or at HEIs other than universities (which can also be related to the fields of study) and they are commonly accepted to the institution of their own (first) choice. Special admission requirements, such as numerus clausus, entry exam or aptitude test, usually apply to medicine, architecture, arts, music and/or sports.

As far as alternative access to higher education is concerned, the overall picture across the EHEA looks very similar to the situation described in the previous implementation report – despite the call of the Bucharest Communiqué to develop alternative access routes. In 22 higher education systems (most of them in Western Europe) at least one such alternative route to higher education exists, while in the remaining 25 systems for which data is available the access to higher education still depends on the possession of an upper secondary school leaving certificate (general or vocational) (see figure 4.12).

Figure 4.12: Alternative routes to higher education for non-traditional candidates, 2013/2014



Source: BFUG questionnaire

[according to Eurostudent data, also LT, LV and SI have alternative routes – see below; LV however reported 100% for route 1 (secondary school leaving certificate) and no RPL]

There is only one country (Croatia) [possibly also EE and IT?] that in the meantime has introduced an alternative route to higher education where none existed before: at some higher education institutions, mature students (25+) may enter without State Matura exam. The ministry recently identified access of non-traditional students to higher education as one of its strategic priorities and under the funding agreements for the period 2012-2015 provides additional funding to higher education institutions that facilitate the access of students older than 25 years.

Incentives for higher education institutions to admit non-traditional students exist in roughly a third of the higher education systems. [give more examples]

In a number of countries it is possible to enter higher education without formal entry qualification. In some cases, candidates not possessing the required entry qualification may be admitted on the basis of an entry exam instead. Another access route is the recognition of prior learning and/or vocational experience, which will be dealt with in more detail in the following section. Often, such exceptions are available only to mature students, although the required minimum age differs from country to country, or even from institution to institution.

Recognition of the knowledge and skills acquired outside formal learning contexts

The importance of the recognition of prior learning has been stressed by communiqués of ministerial conferences for years and with the Bucharest Communiqué ministers explicitly agreed to 'step up [their] efforts towards underrepresented groups to develop the social dimension of higher education, reduce inequalities and provide […] alternative access routes, including recognition of prior learning' ([10]).

Nevertheless, in more than half of the systems (28), it is still not possible for candidates to be admitted to higher education on the basis of the recognition of prior non-formal and informal learning. In those countries, all higher education candidates must hold a higher education entry qualification (or pass an entry exam). Some of those countries (the Czech Republic, Moldova, Montenegro, Poland and Turkey) are, however, in the process of developing a regulatory framework.

In 9 systems, at least some higher education institutions (e.g. university of applied sciences) or programmes are already open to admission based on the recognition of prior non-formal and informal learning. In 11 systems, admitting candidates without standard qualifications based on the recognition of prior learning is possible in all higher education institutions/ programmes. In 8 of those systems [BE fr, DK, FR, DE, LU, NO, PT, SE], access to recognition procedures is a legal right for candidates and all higher education institutions are obliged to provide relevant procedures. The final decision about recognising learning (to gain credit and/or exemption from qualifications) rests with higher education institutions. In 10 systems (with and without recognition procedures as legal right), steering documents however refer to one or more specific requirements, such as age (Ireland, Norway, Portugal) or duration of prior professional experience (BE fr, DK, FR, DE, IE, LI, LU).

Preparatory programmes for non-traditional higher education candidates

To be able to properly analyse the results here, it is necessary to clarify a couple of things first:

Are bridging programmes considered as alternatives routes or not? Or only some? And which category does "second chance" education belong to? Bridging programmes and/or alternative routes to HE?

From the answers given by countries it's sometimes difficult to tell whether something is "second chance" education or a preparatory/access programme, or simply an exam.

In the previous report "second chance" programmes were not considered as "alternative route" but mentioned in the section on "preparatory programmes". Eurostudent data,

([10]) Bucharest Communiqué: Making the Most of Our Potential: Consolidating the European Higher Education Area, 26-27 April 2012, pp.1-2.

however, refers to "upper secondary school academic track through adult learning (ISCED 34/35/44/45)" as alternative route (see below).

It is also difficult to tell if there have been any changes in the past three years...

About half of the higher education systems offer one or several types of bridging programmes:

Programmes targeted at those who have completed an upper secondary programme which does not allow direct access to higher education (HR, CZ, MK) and/or targeted at those who left school prior to completion of any type of secondary education (UK, FR, EL?, SI, MD?). Those programmes are usually leading to an upper secondary qualification or equivalent, but can also give direct access to a specific HEI (IS) or HE programme / field of study without leading to a particular qualification (UK-ENG-NIR-WLS?, UK-SCT).

Several countries also mentioned the possibility to get an upper secondary qualification, which in turn gives access to higher education, via "second chance" education (CY, DE, HU, IE, SE, UK?).

A few countries (DK, FI, MT) offer special bridging programmes for refugees and immigrants.

In some cases there are also bridging programmes to equip candidates with specific qualifications required for a specific study programme (e.g. engineering) (DK, NO, SE).

Statistics and monitoring

As shown above, in 22 higher education systems there is at least one alternative route to higher education. In most cases, there is however no official data on how many candidates actually make use of those alternative routes to enter higher education. Where there is data, or where countries were able to provide at least estimates, it appears that usually only a (very) small proportion of students enter higher education through an alternative route [more details?]. Notable exceptions are Ireland and Malta, where more than 10 % of students use an alternative route to gain access to higher education.

As far as the recognition of prior non-formal and informal learning is concerned, only half of the systems with the possibility of admission to higher education on the basis of recognition of prior learning could provide official data or estimates. In most cases, the proportion of students entering through this route tends to be less than 5 % (in the Flemish Community of Belgium and Finland less than 1 %, in the French Community of Belgium, France, Germany, Iceland, Liechtenstein and Norway 1-5 %). Only Denmark (6-10 %) and Malta (11-20 %) report higher shares. For Malta and Germany this is also confirmed by recent Eurostudent research (see figure 4.13). *In the case of Norway, students' responses to the Eurostudent questionnaire resulted in a much higher figure (18.4 %) than official data from Norway (1-5 %).*

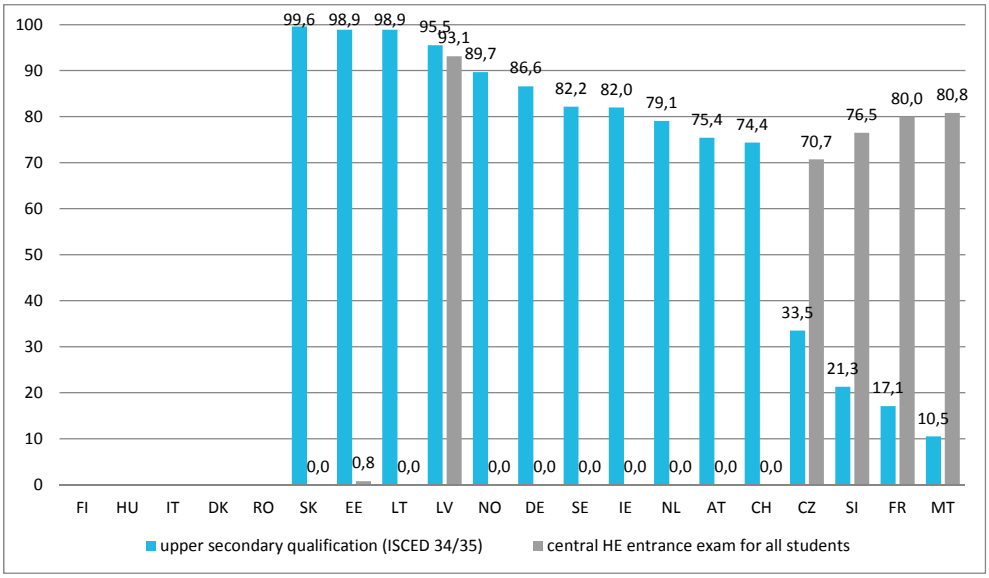
Another thing that seems strange: according to Eurostudent data, there is APR in EE, LT and LV, but according to BFUG reporting RPL is not possible in those countries (and LV reported 100% for route 1 = secondary school leaving certificate). Is it maybe APR to gain credit rather than exemption from qualification? (could maybe also be an explanation for Norway?)

For Sweden, Eurostudent mentions 17.4 % entering through a special exam for certain student groups. This probably refers to the Swedish Scholastic Aptitude Test (route 4 of BFUG reporting, unfortunately no % given). This test is taken by adults (min. 25 years) who have not completed upper secondary education but have at least 4 years of work experience; but also by people who have completed upper secondary education. In other words, it is an alternative route, yes, but also for by people who have completed upper secondary education and hope to get better grades.

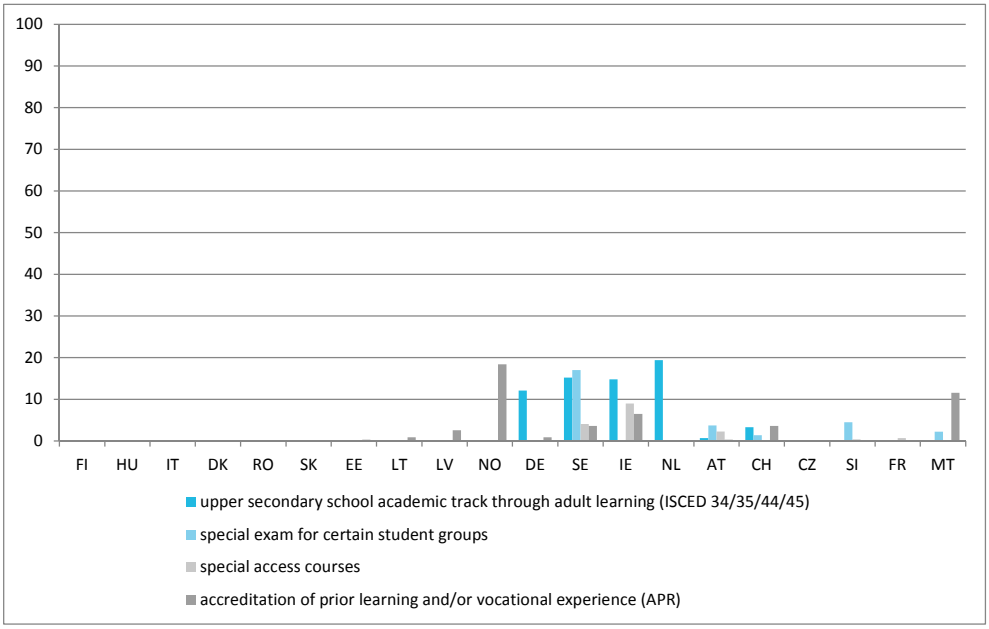
Figure 4.13: Students entering higher education through regular route [incomplete, more data to follow]

Share of students, in %

a. Regular route



b. Alternative routes



Data source: EUROSTUDENT V, B.4. **No data:** FI, HU, IT, DK, & RO.

EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 2.4. What qualifications, examinations or measures qualified you for entry into higher education?

Note: It was a multiple choice question. "Regular route" also includes foreign qualifications.

- **Specific considerations:** Entry routes
  - **Upper secondary qualification (ISCED 34/35):** This is often the traditional direct entry route into most higher education institutions. In some countries and school types, it may combine both elements of academic and vocational training.

- **Central HE entrance exam for all students:** In some countries, (almost) all students have to pass a central examination in order to gain access to higher education.
- **Upper secondary school academic track through adult learning (ISCED 34/35/44/45):** In most countries it is possible to take the normal secondary leaving qualification after leaving the school system, often through courses for adult learners.
- **Special exam for certain student groups:** In some countries, special examinations are used to assess the capabilities of candidates for higher education entry, who don't have the regular entry qualifications.
- **Special access courses:** It may be that a candidate receives a conditional acceptance to higher education based on prior learning or experience. The condition is that they graduate from special access course, usually offered by the higher education institutions for specific subject areas, e.g. mathematics.
- **Accreditation of prior learning and/or vocational experience:** In some countries the key criterion used to access higher education [via an alternative route] is accreditation of prior learning.

4.3.2. Student services

[Introduction…]

Importance of student services for the social dimension…

While higher education institutions may offer multiple services, the BFUG questionnaire focused on academic guidance services, career guidance services and psychological guidance services.

In all higher education systems for which data is available (48), academic and/or career guidance services are commonly provided by higher education institutions; in 46 systems higher education institutions offer both types of services, in Bosnia and Herzegovina as well as Slovakia only academic guidance; in Albania and Romania only career guidance [exceptions last time: AD, HR, ME, UA for both, BG and GE for academic guidance].

As already shown by the previous implementation report, in two third of the systems, higher education institutions provide psychological guidance services as well. Roughly half of the systems also report on additional services offered by higher education institutions, such as healthcare, catering and accommodation, services related to sports and culture, or internationalisation services. Several countries [though different ones than last time] also refer to special services for students with disabilities. In some cases different types of services can be combined, for instance with career guidance for students with disabilities. In 15 systems there are career guidance services targeting underrepresented groups of students (see Chapter 5). Support provided to newly admitted students, while not necessarily targeted towards underrepresented groups, is highly relevant for 'non-traditional students', since they are more likely to drop out of higher education than their peers.

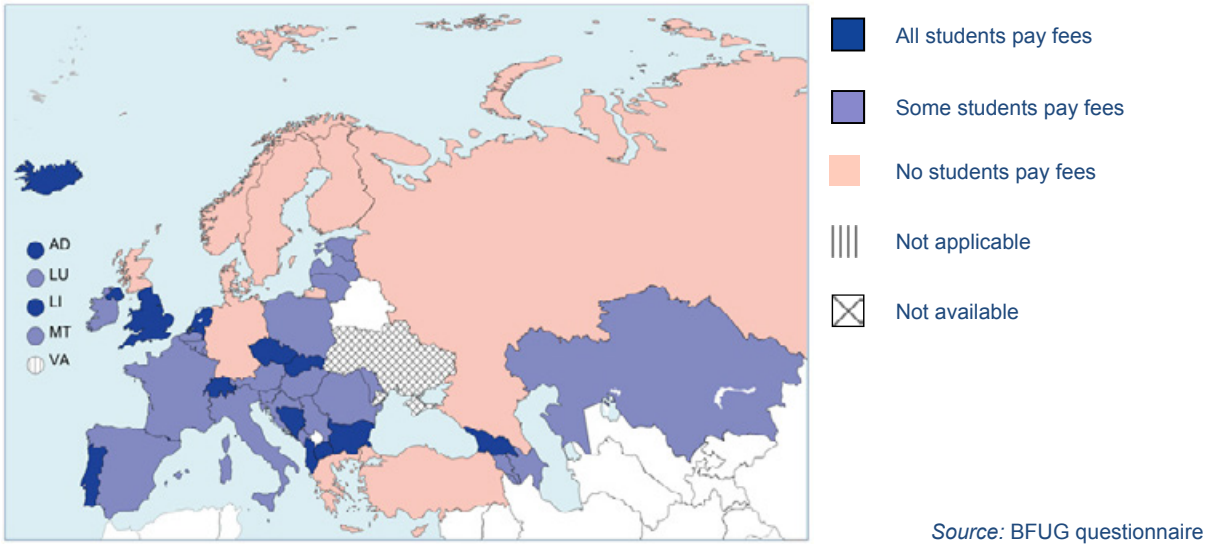
Career guidance, support for the transition of newly admitted students and services provided to prospective students are discussed in more detail in Chapter 5.

4.4. Fees and financial support

4.4.1. Student costs

Financial obstacles are a major concern for the social dimension. For students and their parents, the envisaged investment in (higher) education may influence the decision whether to start a study at tertiary level or not. Figure 4.14 illustrates the prevalence of fees in EHEA countries. Fees are understood here as comprising all kinds of administrative and other fees in addition to tuition fees. As the figure shows, in about a quarter of the countries there are no fees charged for students. In 14 countries, all students have to pay fees. In the rest of the countries, some students pay fees.

Figure 4.14: Prevalence of fees in the first cycle (full-time and part-time students), 2013/14



Source: BFUG questionnaire

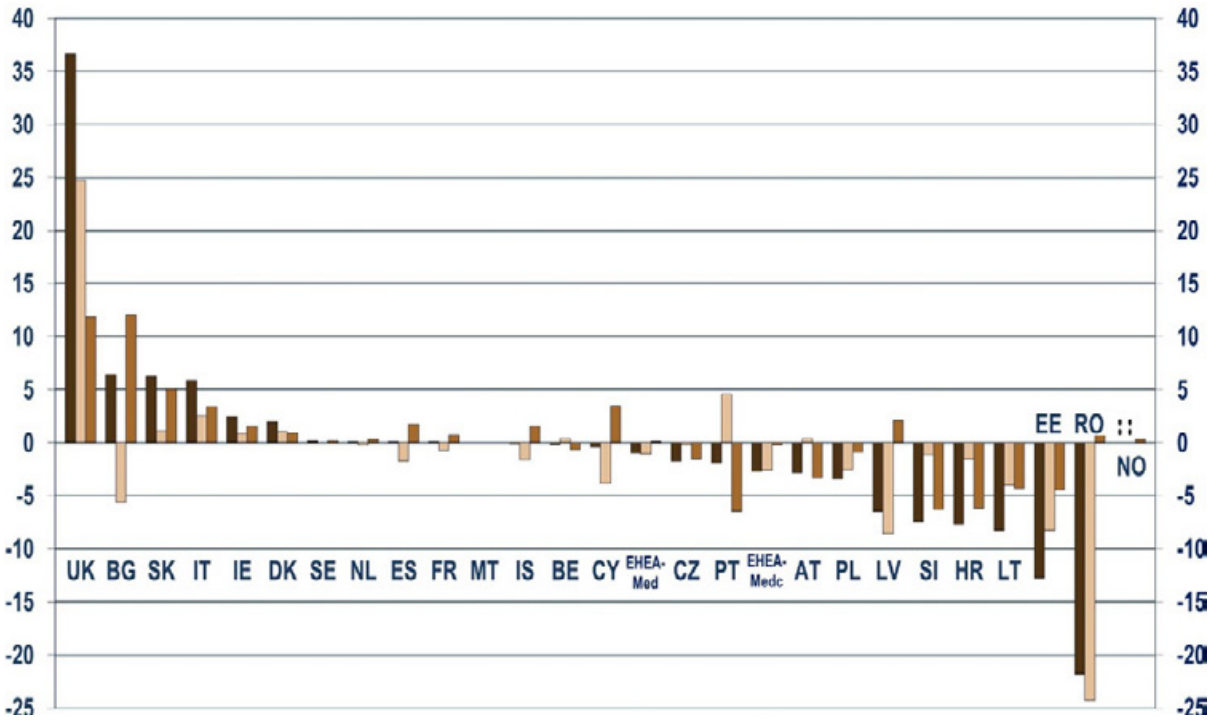
The indicator in Figure 4.15 shows the financial contribution to higher education from household funding in 2005, 2008 and 2011. Among other reasons for the increase of household funding for higher education, these reflect changes in fee policies over the period covered.

The most obvious (and broadly known) is the steep increase of tuition fees in the United Kingdom, where higher education funding changed from mainly public funding to mainly private funding with publicly supported loans ([11]). Thus, the share of total expenditure for higher education institutions from household funding increased from less than a quarter in 2005 to over 61 % of the total expenditure in 2011. Overall, over the years the financial burden for private households increased by almost 2.5 times in the United Kingdom. But the relative contribution of private households increased in other countries as well, although on a much lower level. Slovakia saw an increase by 70 %, Denmark by 61 %, and Italy by almost a third. Also, Ireland and Bulgaria increased the share of household contributions by more than 10 %. At the same time, ten countries saw a decrease of private contributions to higher education. In Romania the share of household expenditure to higher education dropped by 70 % and in Austria and Estonia by about the half. Slovenia's households contributed 2011 only 55 % of their share from 2005 and Croatia and Lithuania decreased the share of household funding by about 30 %. But for the correct interpretation of the data, one has to keep in mind, that the share of household funding is also related to overall participation rates in higher education. When

([11]) These major changes affected different parts of the United Kingdom differently. Since Scotland did not alter the maximum tuition fees to the same amount as did England and Wales (and partly Northern Ireland), the raise in the private household contribution to higher education is assumable even higher in these parts of the United Kingdom, than the indicator depicts.

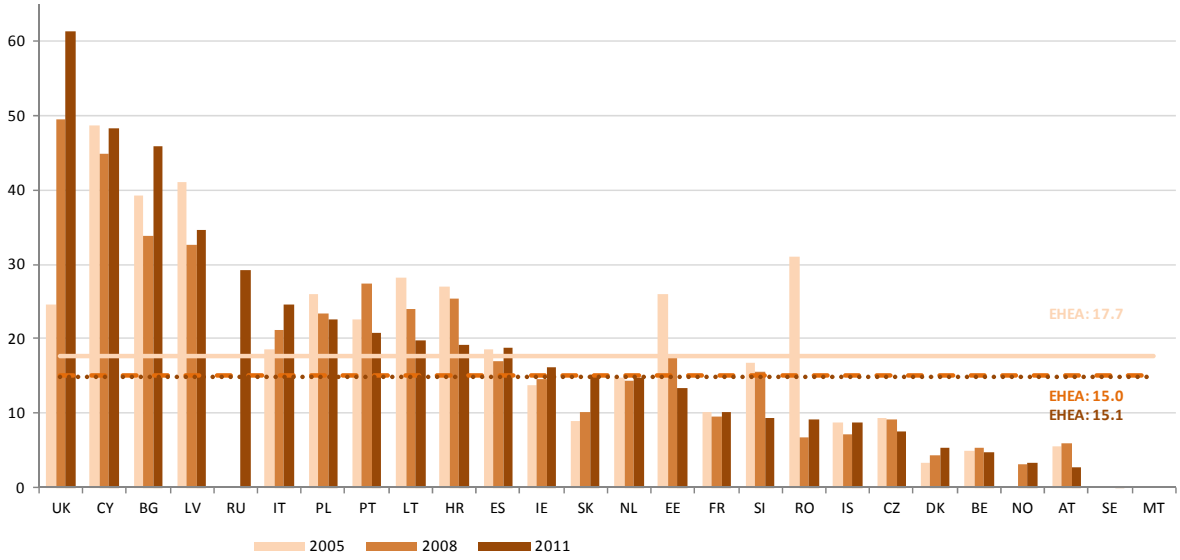
linking the numbers on changes in the funding of higher education to the trend in the total population of students, the influence of the decrease in total numbers of students is visible: From 2008/09 to 2011/12, Romania saw a decrease of student numbers by 36 %, Latvia by 23 % and Lithuania by 17 %. On the other hand, Italy and Slovakia saw an increase in private funding but a decrease in student numbers.

Figure 4.15: Share of total expenditure for higher education institutions from household funding (2005, 2008, 2011)



	UK	BG	SK	IT	IE	DK	SE	NL	ES	FR	MT	IS	BE	CY
	36.60	6.47	6.22	5.92	2.48	2.00	0.17	0.07	0.06	0.02	0.00	-0.07	-0.15	-0.42
	24.77	-5.59	1.19	2.52	0.92	1.07	0.00	-0.27	-1.72	-0.71	0.00	-1.61	0.46	-3.86
	11.83	12.06	5.03	3.40	1.56	0.93	0.17	0.34	1.78	0.73	0.00	1.55	-0.62	3.44

	EHEA Med	CZ	PT	EHEA Medc	AT	PL	LV	SI	HR	LT	EE	RO	NO
	-0.96	-1.74	-1.87	-2.74	-2.81	-3.41	-6.50	-7.46	-7.72	-8.31	-12.74	-21.80	:
	-1.08	-0.20	4.62	-2.55	0.48	-2.52	-8.58	-1.14	-1.57	-4.02	-8.28	-24.28	:
	0.12	-1.54	-6.50	-0.19	-3.29	-0.89	2.09	-6.33	-6.15	-4.29	-4.46	2.48	0.33



	UK	CY	BG	LV	RU	IT	PL	PT	LT	HR	ES	IE	SK	NL	EE	FR	SI
2005	24.6	48.7	39.3	41.1	:	18.6	26.0	22.7	28.1	26.9	18.7	13.7	8.9	14.7	26.1	10.2	16.8
2008	49.4	44.8	33.7	32.5	:	21.1	23.5	27.3	24.1	25.4	17.0	14.7	10.1	14.4	17.8	9.5	15.6
2011	61.2	48.3	45.8	34.6	29.2	24.5	22.6	20.8	19.8	19.2	18.7	16.2	15.1	14.8	13.4	10.2	9.3

	RO	IS	CZ	DK	BE	NO	AT	SE	MT
2005	31.1	8.8	9.4	3.3	4.9	:	5.5	0.0	0.0
2008	6.8	7.2	9.2	4.4	5.3	3.1	5.9	0.0	0.0
2011	9.3	8.7	7.7	5.3	4.7	3.4	2.7	0.2	0.0

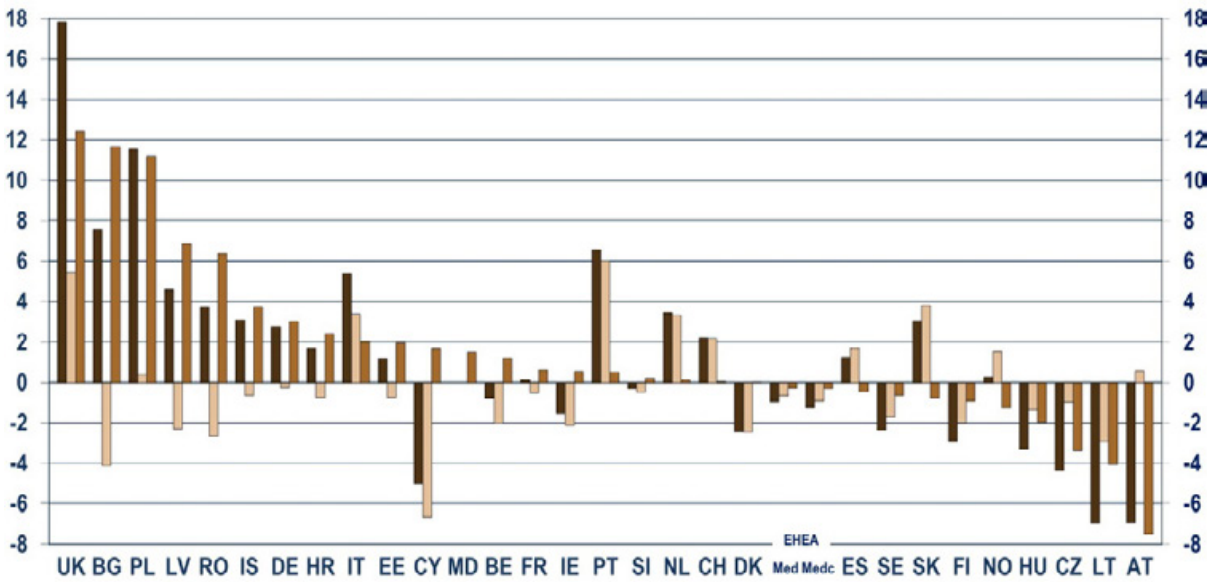
Notes: Data are sorted by share of total expenditure for higher education institutions from household funding in 2011.

Source: Eurostat, UOE and additional collection for the other EHEA countries.

4.4.2. Student income and public support

Supporting students financially is an important measure to enable students from less wealthy families to start a study program. While cultural distances remain and cannot be levelled by financial means, the decision to start a costly study program in the first place may be facilitated by the availability of public support. Figure 4.16 shows how student support developed over the last years, indicating the share of public funding for higher education spent on financial supplies for students in 2005, 2008 and 2011. Without taking into consideration changes in the structure and number of the student population, the mere comparison of increase and decrease shows that in the United Kingdom the share of household funding for higher education increased by 149 % from 2005 to 2011 while the share of public tertiary education funding spent on student support increased by 69 %. This means, the net share of household funding increased by almost a third. In Denmark, household funding increased by 61 % while public support dropped by 8%; in the Czech Republic, where the share of private funding decayed by 19%, the share of public higher education funding for student support dropped by 75%, which means that private funding for higher education without compensation via public support increased by 69%. Also Slovakia, Ireland, Lithuania, and Cyprus saw a net increase of private funding over the years covered. On the other end of the stratum, Bulgaria, Latvia, Slovenia, Portugal and especially Croatia, Estonia and Romania saw a steep net increase of public support.

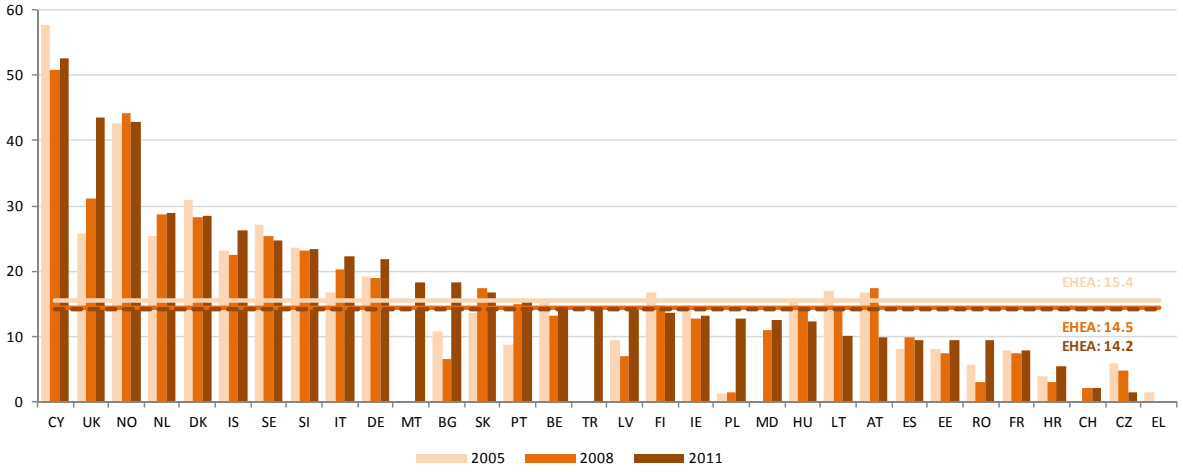
Figure 4.16: Support to students enrolled at tertiary education level as a percentage of public expenditure on tertiary education (2005 - 2008 - 2011)



Evolution between 2005 and 2011 | Evolution between 2005 and 2008 | Evolution between 2008 and 2011

	UK	BG	PL	LV	RO	IS	DE	HR	IT	EE	CY	MD	BE	FR	IE	PT
	17.85	7.56	11.55	4.57	3.73	3.08	2.75	1.68	5.40	1.19	-5.01		-0.81	0.10	-1.57	6.55
	5.43	-4.13	0.37	-2.31	-2.65	-0.64	-0.27	-0.75	3.40	-0.75	-6.68		-2.01	-0.51	-2.11	6.03
	12.42	11.69	11.17	6.88	6.38	3.72	3.02	2.43	2.00	1.94	1.67	1.52	1.20	0.61	0.55	0.52

	SI	NL	CH	DK	EHEA Med	EHEA Medc	ES	SE	SK	FI	NO	HU	CZ	LT	AT
	-0.31	3.47	2.20	-2.46	-0.95	-1.25	1.24	-2.37	3.03	-2.90	0.28	-3.32	-4.38	-6.97	-6.94
	-0.49	3.34	2.17	-2.47	-0.67	-0.94	1.69	-1.73	3.80	-1.99	1.54	-1.33	-0.98	-2.91	0.58
	0.18	0.13	0.04	0.01	-0.28	-0.32	-0.45	-0.65	-0.77	-0.92	-1.26	-1.98	-3.40	-4.06	-7.53



	CY	UK	NO	NL	DK	IS	SE	SI	IT	DE	MT	BG	SK	PT	BE	TR	LV
2005	57.6	25.8	42.6	25.4	30.8	23.1	27.1	23.7	16.8	19.1	0.0	10.8	13.7	8.9	15.2	:	9.4
2008	50.9	31.2	44.1	28.7	28.4	22.5	25.4	23.2	20.2	18.9	:	6.7	17.5	14.9	13.2	:	7.1

2011	52.6	43.6	42.8	28.8	28.4	26.2	24.7	23.4	22.2	21.9	18.4	18.3	16.7	15.4	14.4	14.1	14.0
	FI	**IE**	**PL**	**MD**	**HU**	**LT**	**AT**	**ES**	**EE**	**RO**	**FR**	**HR**	**CH**	**CZ**	**EL**		
2005	16.6	14.8	1.1	:	15.7	17.0	16.8	8.2	8.2	5.6	7.9	3.9	0.0	5.9	1.4		
2008	14.7	12.7	1.5	11.0	14.3	14.1	17.4	9.9	7.4	3.0	7.4	3.1	2.2	4.9	:		
2011	13.7	13.3	12.7	12.5	12.4	10.1	9.8	9.4	9.3	9.3	8.0	5.5	2.2	1.5	:		

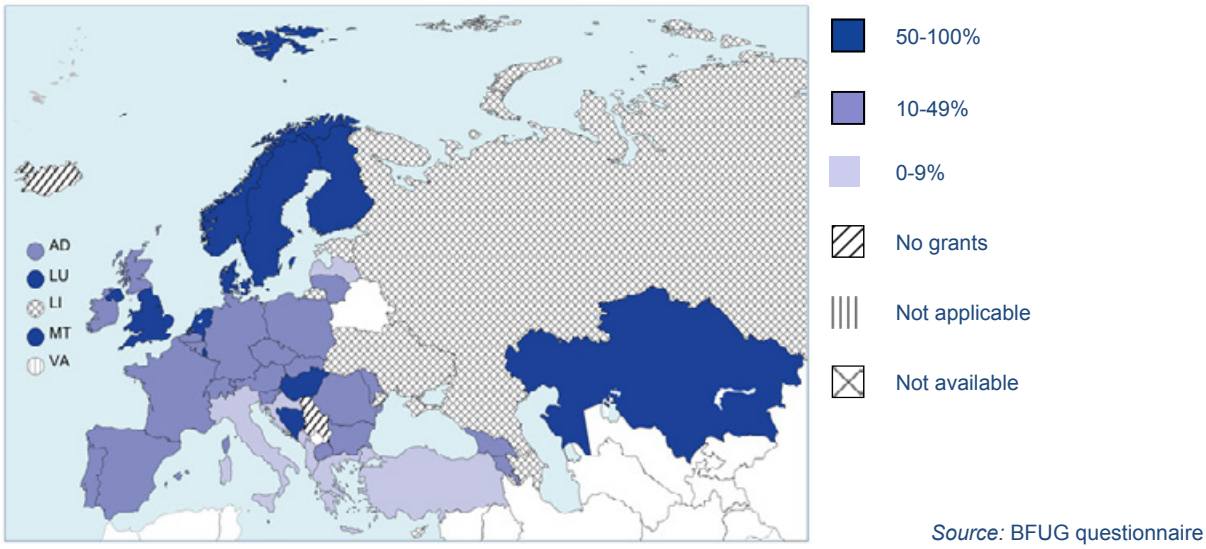
Notes: Data are sorted by support to students enrolled in tertiary education as a percentage of public expenditure on tertiary education in 2011.

Source: Eurostat, UOE and additional collection for the other EHEA countries.

Regarding different forms of student support, students receive grants/scholarships in all EHEA countries except Iceland. Grants and scholarships are only available for first cycle students in Albania, Andorra and the United Kingdom, while in Serbia only second cycle students are eligible for receiving them. Figure 4.17 depicts the proportion of first cycle students receiving grants. Among the countries where data is available, 50% or more students receive grants/scholarships in Bosnia and Herzegovina, Denmark, Finland, Hungary, Kazakhstan, Luxembourg, Malta, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland).

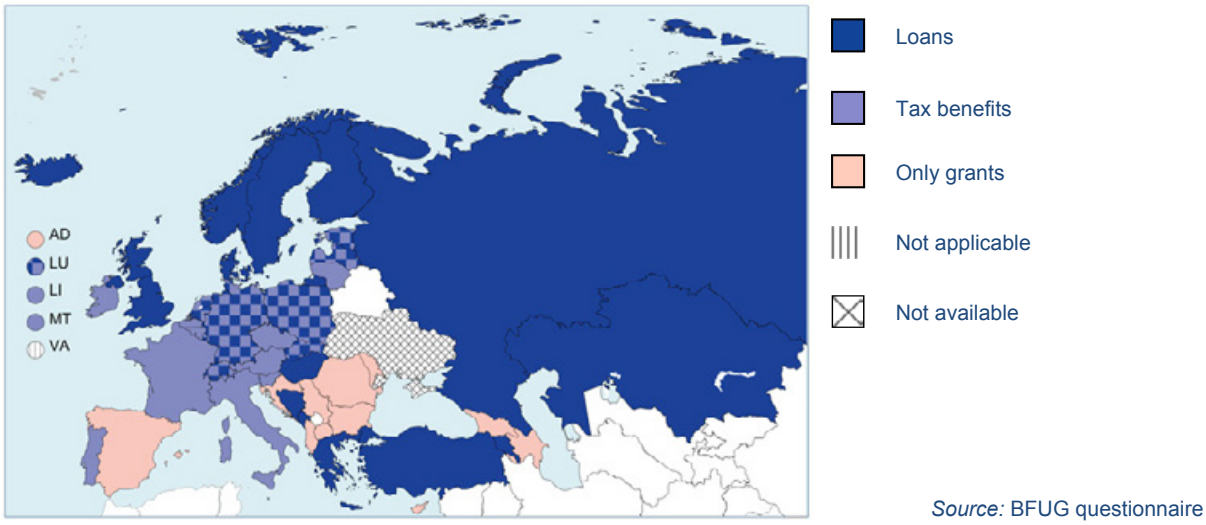
As Figure 4.18 shows, in 12 education systems, only grants are available for students. Loans exist in 23 education systems in the EHEA, most often in combination with grants (except in Iceland). Students' parents receive tax benefits in 20 education systems. All three forms of student support are available in Estonia, Germany, Latvia, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Poland, Slovakia and Switzerland.

Figure 4.17: Proportion of 1st cycle students receiving grants/scholarships, 2013/14



Source: BFUG questionnaire

Figure 4.18: Student support in the form of loans and tax benefits, 2013/14



Source: BFUG questionnaire

Conclusions

Still to come…

5. EFFECTIVE OUTCOMES AND EMPLOYABILITY

The Bucharest Communiqué

The effective outcomes of higher education, that is, higher education attainment and completion on the one hand, and the employability of graduates on the other have been an important focus of the Bologna Process from the very beginning. The 2012 Bucharest Communiqué further strengthens this output-oriented focus by reaffirming that both raising completion rates and enhancing employability are among the main goals of the 'consolidation' process within the EHEA.

The Bucharest Communiqué renews commitment towards the goal of raising completion rates within the widening participation agenda. It confirms the objective that the student body both 'entering *and graduating* from higher education institutions should reflect the diversity of Europe's populations' ([1]). In this context, the Communiqué emphasises the need to specifically focus on underrepresented groups in higher education policy.

Regarding the objective of enhancing employability, the Bucharest Communiqué highlights the importance of 'cooperation between employers, students and higher education institutions, especially in the development of study programmes' ([2]). Such a cooperative project is envisaged to ensure that students are equipped with a combination of transversal skills and up-to-date subject-specific knowledge, enabling them to 'contribute to the wider needs of society and the labour market' ([3]).

The 2012 Bologna Implementation Report

The 2012 Bologna Implementation Report showed that a continuously increasing proportion of the population had been obtaining a higher education qualification within the EHEA. However, countries differed regarding the proportion of the student population completing their studies. Moreover, although the majority of EHEA countries reported putting in place policies to increase completion levels, there was a great variety in the scope and content of enacted measures. Only a small minority of countries adopted comprehensive national strategies addressing non-completion.

Statistical information on the labour market situation of graduates showed that obtaining a tertiary qualification improved the employment prospects of young people in almost all countries. However, graduates without work experience faced difficulties entering the labour market, and around 20 % of graduates were over-qualified for the job in which they were employed. This latter percentage remained stable between 2000 and 2010, suggesting that over-qualification rates were influenced more by labour market structures and innovation than by the growing number of students.

Since the publication of the last report, EHEA countries have continued to face the prolonged and deepened impacts of the economic crisis. This chapter illustrates how this has influenced the relative position and prospects of higher education graduates in the labour market, which is necessary for understanding the diversity of higher education policies on retention and employability.

([1]) Bucharest Communiqué: Making the Most of Our Potential: Consolidating the European Higher Education Area, 26-27 April 2012, p. 1, emphasis added.

([2]) Ibid., p. 2.

([3]) Ibid.

Chapter outline

This chapter centres attention on outcome-oriented policies in higher education. The first section focuses on higher education attainment and completion, looking at the current situation in the EHEA as well as national policies aiming at raising attainment levels and completion rates. The chapter then turns to the issue of graduates' employability. Firstly it discusses the current labour market situation of higher education graduates, highlighting recent trends that higher education institutions need to respond to. Secondly it looks at how EHEA countries try to enhance the employability of graduates through various types of policies. The final section presents the conclusions.

5.1. Higher education attainment and completion

The main output of higher education is higher education attainment: the share of the population having obtained a higher education qualification. Attainment levels are steadily rising in the EHEA (see Figure 5.1). The Bologna median value is now 37 % for the 25-34 age group, 29.1 % for the 35-44 year olds and 23.8 % for the 45-64 age group. In the youngest age groups, higher education attainment has reached 50 % in Ukraine, Cyprus, Ireland and Lithuania. The countries where higher education attainment has not increased among the 25-34 year olds since 2010 are Belgium, Denmark and Georgia.

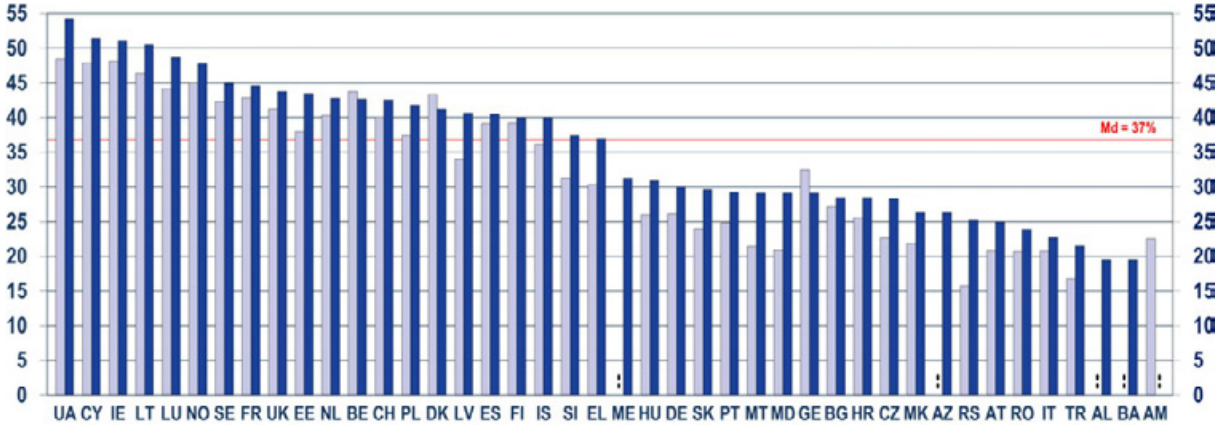
Raising higher education attainment requires the dual focus on increasing participation (input) and improving completion rates (output). In this context, higher education institutions do not only need to make sure that they have an increasing number of students, but also that these students complete their studies. Increasing participation and completion are also inseparably linked within the widening participation agenda, since students coming from underrepresented groups are more likely to drop out from higher education than their peers.

Non-completion in higher education can be influenced by a number of factors related to the higher education institution and the individual student. They can range from inability to cope with the demands of the programme, the wrong choice of courses, the poor quality of student experience to dissatisfaction with aspects of institutional provision (Yorke and Longden, 2004, 2008). First-year students are particularly vulnerable to dropping out if no sufficient attention is paid to their first experiences and skills development.

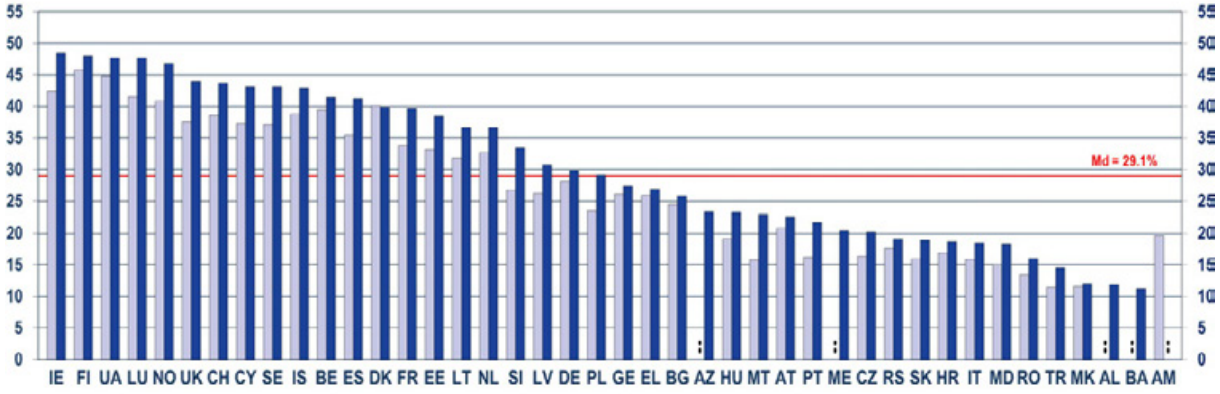
This section examines current levels of completion within the EHEA as well as national policy approaches towards non-completion and drop-out. First, comparative indicators on completion (completion rates as well as net entry and graduation rates) are analysed. Second, national policies addressing student retention are discussed, with special attention to how EHEA countries focus on and monitor the completion rates of underrepresented groups on the one hand, and first-year students on the other.

Figure 5.1: Percentage of persons with tertiary education, 2010 and 2013

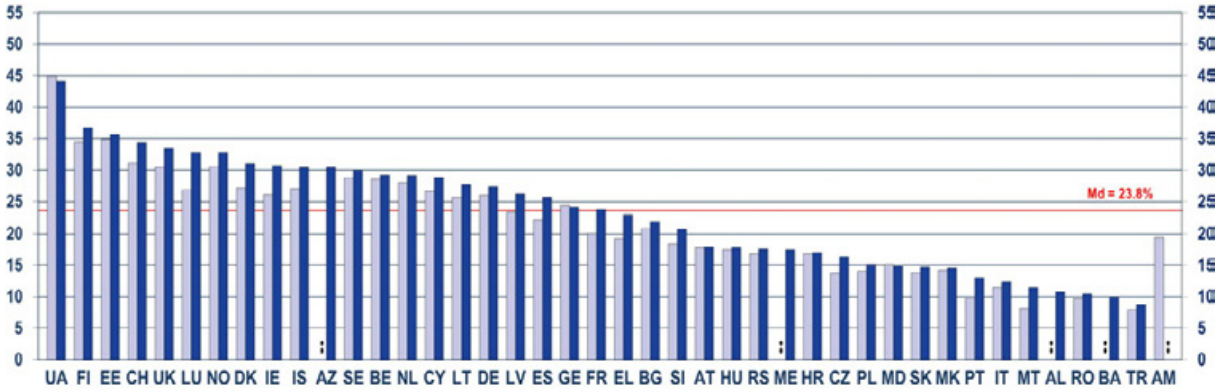
25-34 year olds



35-44 year olds



45-64 year olds



2010 2013

2013	UA	CY	IE	LT	LU	NO	SE	FR	UK	EE	NL	BE	CH	PL	DK	LV	ES	FI	IS	SI	EL
25-34 year olds	54,2	51,4	51,1	50,5	48,7	47,8	44,9	44,6	43,8	43,5	42,8	42,7	42,6	41,8	41,2	40,7	40,5	40,0	40,0	37,4	37,0
35-44 year olds	47,7	43,1	48,4	36,6	47,7	46,8	43,1	39,6	44,0	38,4	36,6	41,4	43,7	29,1	39,8	30,8	41,2	48,0	42,9	33,4	26,9
45-64 year olds	44,1	28,8	30,7	27,6	32,8	32,8	30,0	23,8	33,4	35,7	29,1	29,2	34,3	15,1	31,0	26,2	25,6	36,7	30,4	20,7	23,0

	ME	HU	DE	SK	PT	MT	MD	GE	BG	HR	CZ	MK	AZ	RS	AT	RO	IT	TR	AL	BA	AM
25-34 year olds	31,3	30,9	30,0	29,7	29,3	29,1	29,1	29,1	28,5	28,5	28,4	26,3	26,3	25,2	25,0	23,9	22,7	21,5	19,5	19,5	:
35-44 year olds	20,4	23,2	29,8	18,8	21,7	23,0	18,3	27,3	25,8	18,6	20,2	12,0	23,3	19,1	22,5	16,0	18,4	14,5	11,9	11,2	:
45-64 year olds	17,4	17,7	27,3	14,6	13,0	11,4	14,8	24,1	21,9	17,0	16,3	14,5	30,4	17,5	17,8	10,4	12,3	8,7	10,7	10,0	:

Notes: Data are sorted by the 2013 tertiary attainment levels in each age group separately. The table follows the order of countries in the 25-34 age group. Median values refer to the 2013 tertiary attainment level in each age group separately.

Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS)

5.1.1. Levels of completion in the EHEA

Completion rates

The completion rate is the most common indicator of completion in higher education. This indicator measures how effective the higher education system is in turning entrants into successful graduates. Instead of having one common international methodology, completion rates are calculated based on two main methods, limiting the comparability of the indicator across countries. First, the cross section method refers to the number of graduates in the relevant calendar year who have entered in the programme a number of years before (this estimation takes into account different lengths of programmes when possible). Second, the true cohort method is based on panel data (survey or registers) which follow the individual student from entrance to graduation in the programme.

Figure: Completion rates (data not yet available)

Entry and graduation rates

Another possibility to assess levels of completion across the EHEA is to compare entry and graduation rates. While such a comparison is not a strict measure of educational progress, it can be used as auxiliary information to assess educational outcomes. Intuitively, for high levels of completion, high entrance rates need to be translated into high graduation rates. In systems with stable entry and graduation rates, the difference between these rates reflects the extent of drop-outs.

Figures: Net entry and net graduation rates (data not yet available)

5.1.2. Policies for improving completion rates

This section provides an overview on national policies aiming to improve completion rates in the EHEA. After presenting the main directions of national policy frameworks, the section turns to the analysis of two types of measures: first, on the retention of first-year students, who are the most likely to drop out of higher education; and second, on incentives given to students to finalise their studies on time. Finally, monitoring and evaluation mechanisms are examined, focusing on the monitoring of underrepresented groups as well as on performance-based incentives given to higher education institutions to improve completion rates.

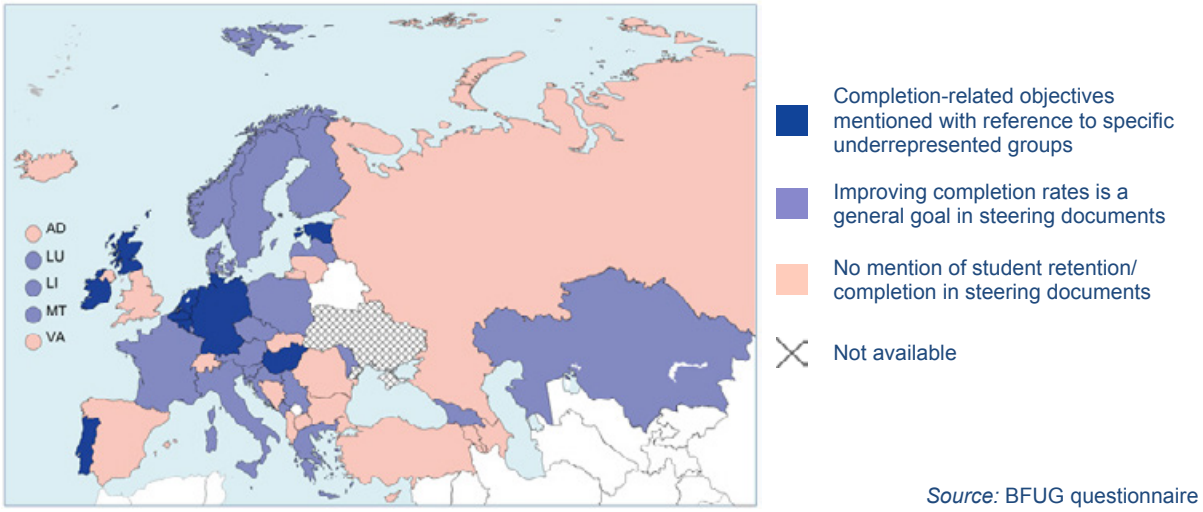
Policy framework

Raising completion rates is an objective of higher education policy in the majority of EHEA countries (Figure 5.x1). This main aim is seen to be dependent on two related policy goals: reducing drop-out rates on the one hand, and shortening the time before graduation on the other.

Some countries have even set national targets related to these goals. Many countries have targets on tertiary attainment; but in addition, some also specify targets on completion, drop-out, or study time. Regarding completion rates, Finland and Serbia aim to raise the completion rate in higher education

by 2020 to 75 % and 70 % respectively. France defines various success rates to be reached by 2015: 42 % in first cycle university studies, 80 % in the second cycle, and 42 % in doctoral studies. Concerning drop-out, Slovenia aims to lower it by two-thirds from the current 35 % by 2020, while Montenegro targets a 10 % drop-out rate by 2020. France concentrates efforts on specific programmes: there the objective is to lower the share of drop-outs from DUT (*Diplôme universitaire de technologie*), BTS (*Brevet de Technicien Supérieur*) or equivalent programmes to 17 % by 2015. Finally, in relation to shortening study time, Denmark aims to reduce the average study time by 4.3 months by 2020. Higher education institutions might also be required to set their own targets regarding completion or drop-out rates, for example in performance agreements (e.g. in Austria, Croatia, Denmark, Liechtenstein and the Netherlands).

Figure 5.x1: References to student retention/completion in steering documents, 2013/14



Source: BFUG questionnaire

Steering documents in the EHEA list several potential measures higher education institutions are encouraged to take in order to improve completion rates. Such measures include providing guidance and counselling services to students; offering learning support or remedial activities; developing tailor-made courses, flexible pathways or a family-friendly learning environment; and providing incentives to students to finish their studies on time.

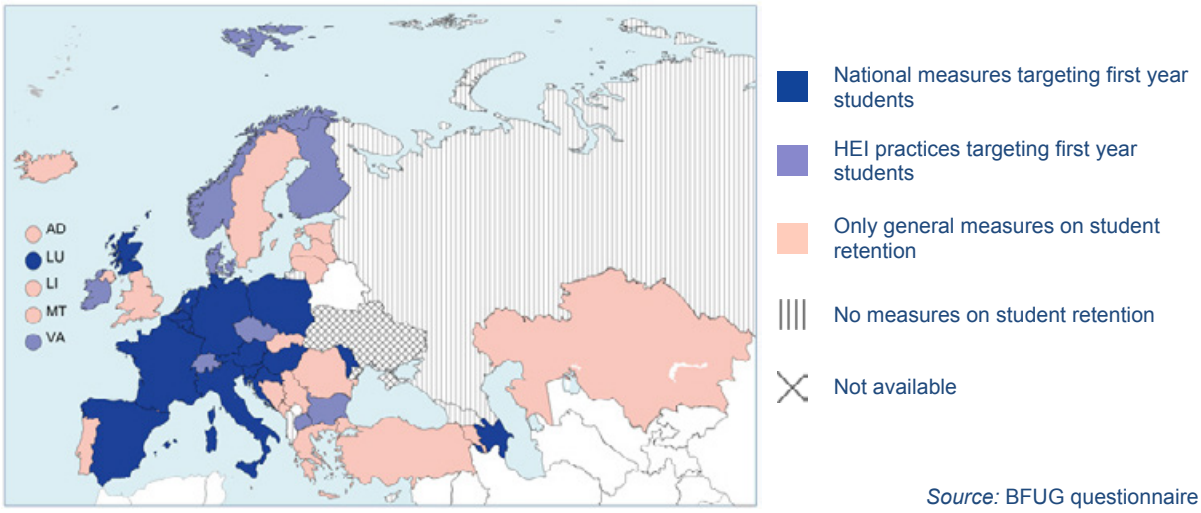
However, in the large majority of countries, such measures aim to improve the completion rates for all students, without paying specific attention to those who are more likely to drop out early: non-traditional students. Despite the fact that raising completion rates is part of the widening participation agenda in the Bologna Process, underrepresented groups are targeted by policy-makers in only nine higher education systems of the EHEA: Belgium (Flemish and French Communities), Estonia, Germany, Hungary, Ireland, the Netherlands, Portugal and the United Kingdom (Scotland).

Moreover, the definition of underrepresented groups differs widely in these countries. Policies focus on students with lower socio-economic background (Flemish Community of Belgium, Germany, Hungary, Ireland, Portugal, the United Kingdom (Scotland)), students with parents/mother without higher education qualification (Belgium, Hungary), adult or mature students (Flemish Community of Belgium, the United Kingdom (Scotland)), students combining work and study (Flemish Community of Belgium), students with disabilities (Flemish Community of Belgium, Germany, the United Kingdom (Scotland)), students with children (Germany), ethnic or language minorities (Flemish Community of Belgium, Estonia, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom (Scotland)), students from segregated neighbourhoods (Hungary), or immigrants (Flemish Community of Belgium, Germany).

Reducing drop-out: improving the retention of first year students

Research indicates that drop-out rates are the highest at the end of the first academic year. First-year students are particularly vulnerable to dropping out of higher education, since their expectations might be very different from what they actually experience. Such mismatch can stem from the wrong choice of courses or study programme as well as the feeling of helplessness and failure at the start of higher education studies. For this reason, paying attention to newly admitted students' experiences and skills development is of particular importance. Yet, policy and practice focus specifically on the retention of first-year students in only about half of the EHEA countries (Figure 5.x2).

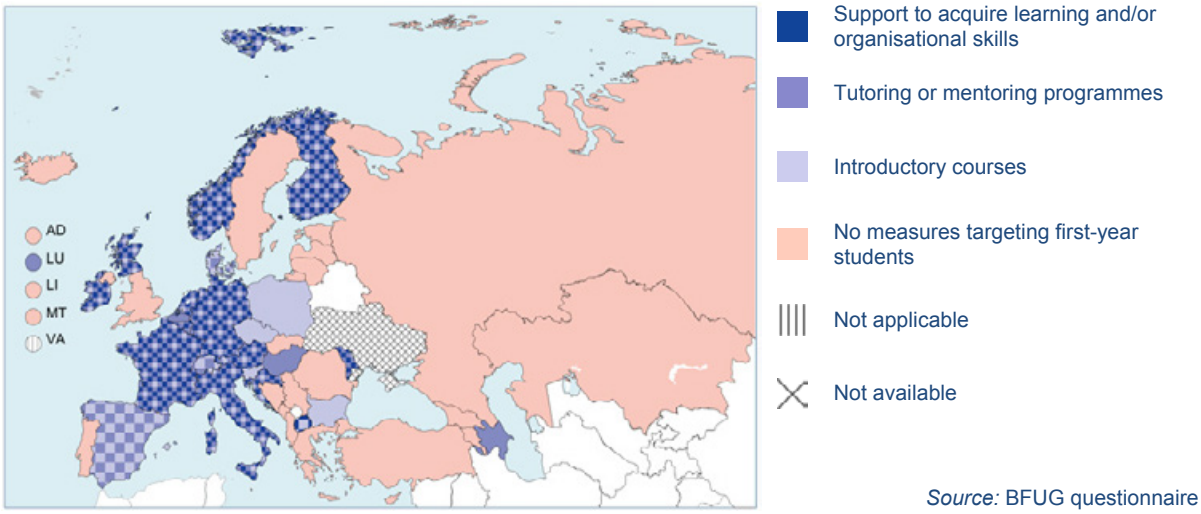
Figure 5.x2: Targeting the retention of first-year students, 2013/14



Source: BFUG questionnaire

The three most common measures targeting newly admitted or first-year students are introductory or insertion courses, tutoring or mentoring programmes, and support provided to students to acquire learning and/or organisational skills. Figure 5.x3 shows the measures countries encourage their higher education institutions to use in helping first-year students to adjust to the new learning environment. In most cases, first-year students are targeted as a whole; nevertheless, in some countries, (e.g. in Hungary), first-year students with a disadvantaged background are specifically targeted by mentoring schemes.

Figure 5.x3: Measures targeting the retention of first-year students, 2013/14



Source: BFUG questionnaire

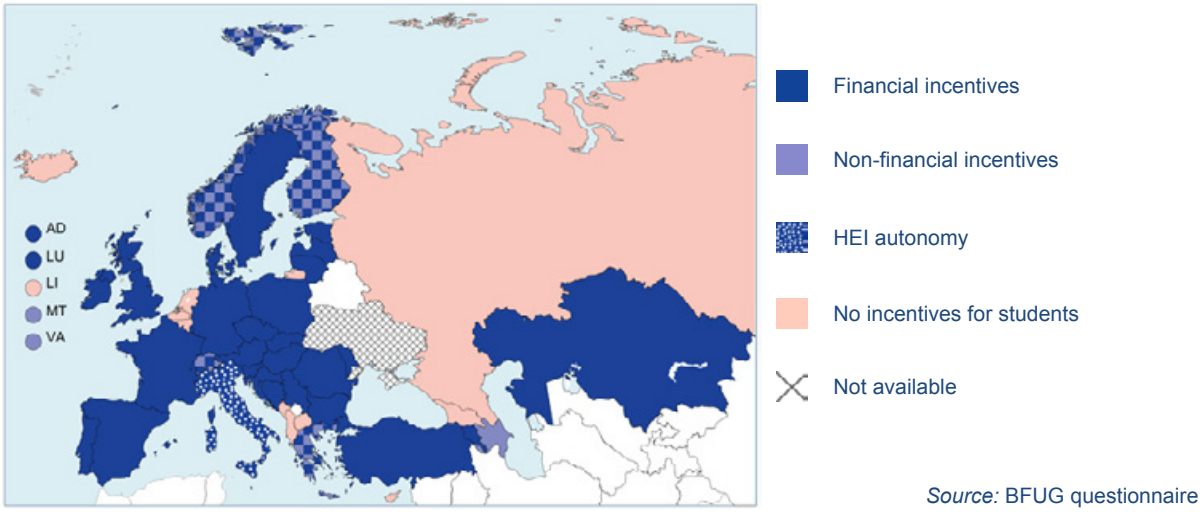
In addition, countries might also aim at lowering the chance of academic failure (or the sense of failure) by allowing students to retake exams multiple times or, as in Germany, to aim for abandoning examination-relevant marking for first-year students.

Pre-admission support is also provided to prospective students in many higher education systems. For example, in the Netherlands, new students can have a study choice talk with their institutions before the start of the first academic year.

Shortening study time

A common way to improve completion rates is to give incentives for students to finish their studies within a limited period of time. Indeed, the large majority of countries in the EHEA provide financial or non-financial incentives to students to ensure the timely completion of higher education studies (Figure 5.x4).

Figure 5.x4: Incentives given to students to finish their studies on time, 2013/14



Source: BFUG questionnaire

Non-financial incentives are typically about limiting the number of years in which students can finalise their studies. Other measures include, for example, students signing an 'Individual Education Plan' in Norway, through which students' progression can be followed up and non-fulfilment can be acted upon.

Financial incentives can be negative (support is taken away or extra fees are foreseen in case of non-completion) or positive (students receive extra support in case they study faster). Negative financial incentives are much more common in the EHEA. Most frequently, students stop receiving support or even have to pay extra fees if they do not finish their studies on time (e.g. this is the case in Armenia, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Finland, France, Latvia, Poland, Romania, Slovakia, Spain, Switzerland, Turkey, and the United Kingdom). In some countries (e.g. in Hungary), students even have to pay back the grants received if they fail to complete their studies within a limited period of time. Alternatively, or sometimes in addition, students are only eligible to receive scholarship if they make enough progress in their studies (e.g. in Andorra, Armenia, Germany, Ireland, Kazakhstan, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Moldova, Portugal, Slovenia, Spain, and Sweden). Thus, in these cases, grant entitlements are reviewed periodically during higher education studies.

Positive financial incentives exist only in a few (mostly Nordic) countries. Denmark is introducing a cash bonus for students who complete their studies faster than the required time. In Sweden, some students in teacher training receive a lump sum after completing their studies. In Croatia, students

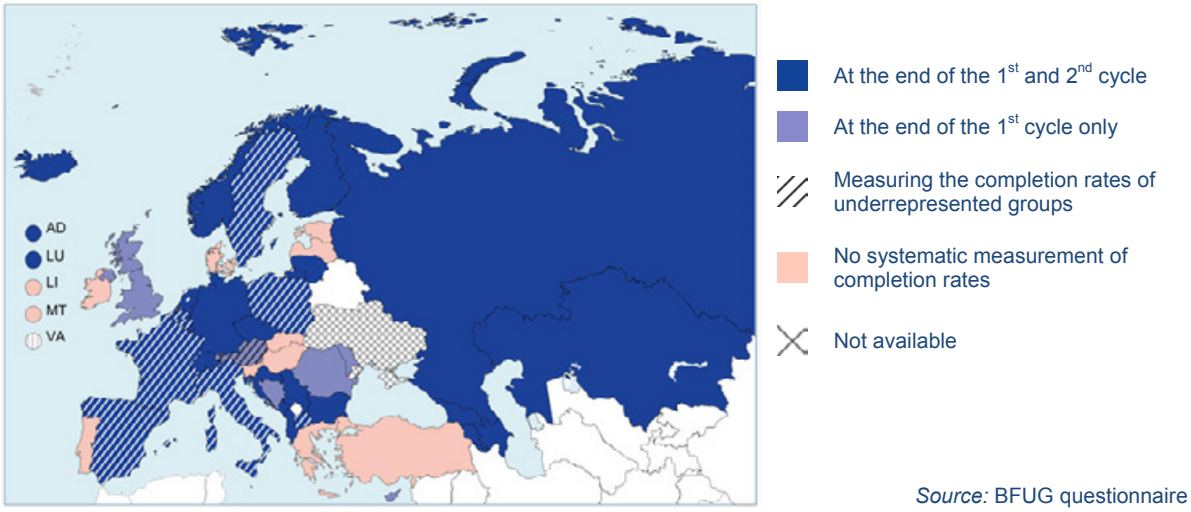
acquiring a given number of credits are entitled to receive a tuition waiver; while in Norway, student loans are converted into grants on the basis of timely and successful progression and completion of studies.

Monitoring and evaluation

The evaluation of higher education institutions' performance is based on the calculation of completion and/or drop-out rates. As was discussed in section 5.1.1, measurements on the basis of such indicators are not without limitations. Nevertheless, the majority of EHEA countries do systematically measure completion rates at the end of both the first and the second cycle (Figure 5.x5). Drop-out rates are also systematically monitored in more than half of the countries, at least at the end of the first year, but most often after each academic year (Figure 5.x6). In most cases, completion and drop-out rates are also publicly available ([4]). There are eight education systems of the EHEA where neither completion nor drop-out rates are calculated and monitored systematically: Greece, Hungary, Liechtenstein, Malta, Portugal, Slovakia, Slovenia and Turkey. Yet, some form of data collection (at least at the institutional level) on graduates and/or drop-outs takes place also in these countries.

However, in the majority of countries where completion and drop-out rates are measured, monitoring focuses on the whole student population, without looking at different groups of students separately (see Figures 5.x5 and 5.x6). Nine higher education systems monitor the completion rates of underrepresented groups: Austria, Belgium (Flemish and French Communities), France, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Italy, Poland, Spain and Sweden. Drop-out rates are measured separately for specific groups in Belgium, Ireland, Denmark, the Netherlands, Poland and the United Kingdom. However, the groups defined are again very different depending on the country. Common bases of monitoring include age (mature students), socio-economic background and citizenship.

Figure 5.x5: Systematic measurement of completion rates, 2013/14



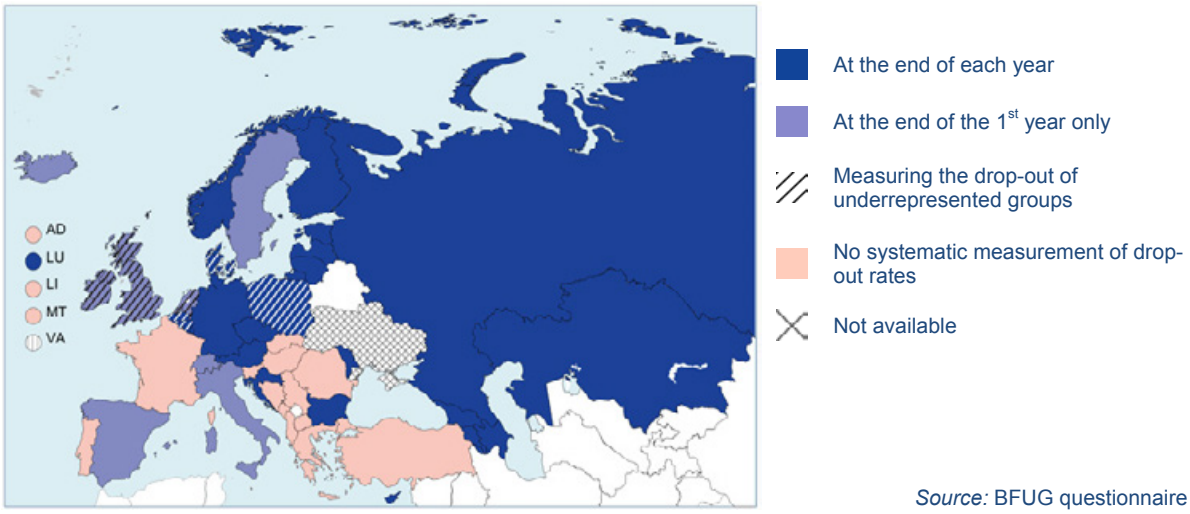
Source: BFUG questionnaire

Regarding evaluation mechanisms using completion and/or drop-out rates, several countries have established procedures outside external quality assurance frameworks in order to rate higher education institutions' performance (on quality assurance, see Chapter 3). One such mechanism is the institution of performance agreements that exist for example in Austria, Denmark, France, Germany, Liechtenstein and the Netherlands. In such frameworks, higher education institutions sign an agreement with national or regional authorities, in which they define a number of goals related to pre-

([4]) Drop-out rates are not made public in Azerbaijan, the Flemish Community of Belgium, Croatia, Cyprus, Georgia, Iceland, Moldova, Poland and Russia.

set indicators. Higher education institutions' performance then can be evaluated based on the performance agreement.

Figure 5.x6: Systematic measurement of drop-out rates, 2013/14

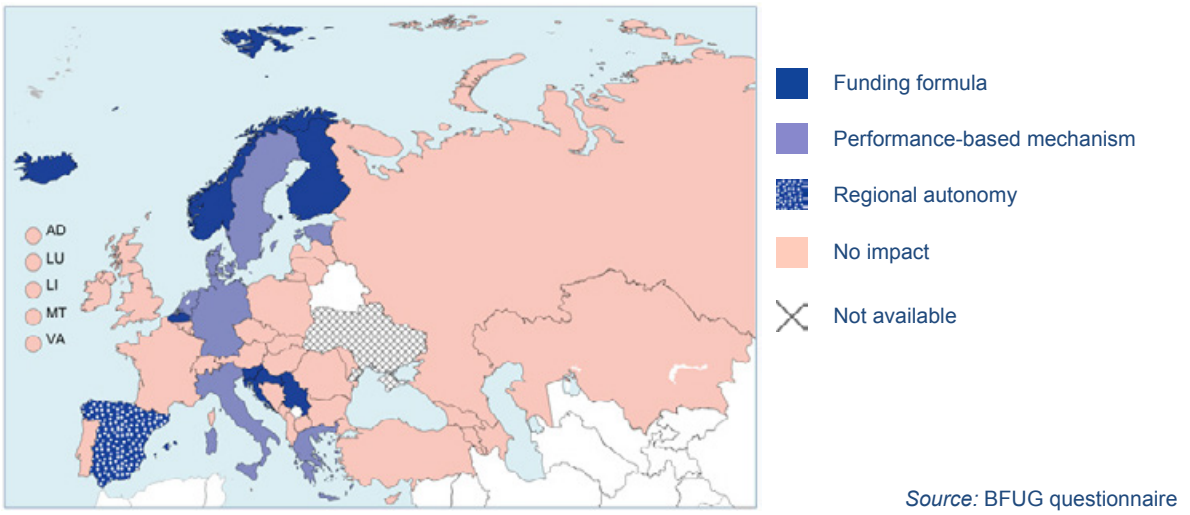


Source: BFUG questionnaire

In almost one third of the EHEA countries, higher education institutions' performance even influences the institutions' funding, either through a funding formula, or through performance-based mechanisms (Figure 5.x7). In these cases, higher education institutions are given financial incentives to raise completion rates or reduce drop-out.

Other alternative approaches to evaluation include the application of minimum standards (for example, in Moldova, at least 50 % of students should graduate in order for a programme to be accredited), or benchmarks (for example, in the United Kingdom, performance indicators show the actual performance of higher education institutions against benchmarks).

Figure 5.x7: Impact of completion performance on HEIs' funding, 2013/14



Source: BFUG questionnaire

5.2. Employability of graduates

Within the Bologna Process, employability is understood as 'the ability to gain initial meaningful employment, or to become self-employed, to maintain employment, and to be able to move around within the labour market' (Working Group on Employability 2009, p. 5). In this context, the role of higher education is 'to equip students with the knowledge, skills and competences that they need in the workplace and that employers require; and to ensure that people have more opportunities to maintain or renew those skills and attributes throughout their working lives' (Working Group on Employability 2009, p. 5).

Regarding this definition, it has to be emphasised that employability does not equal employment. The skills and competences students gain during higher education can only enable them to find employment, but do not guarantee it. As was also described in the recent Eurydice report on *Access, Retention and Employability* (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2014), graduates' employment prospects depend largely on the general state of the economy on the one hand, and their individual characteristics (such as their age, gender, ethnicity or social class) on the other. Regarding this last set of factors, researchers showed that 'non-traditional' learners are at a disadvantage in the graduate labour market (Moreau and Leathwood, 2006; Gorard et al., 2006). For this reason, graduates' employability could also form part of the widening participation agenda: specific measures can ensure that non-traditional learners do not only access and successfully complete higher education, but can also harvest its benefits by gaining 'meaningful' employment (Thomas and Jones, 2007).

Against this background, this section discusses graduates' labour market situation as well as policies aiming to enhance their employability. Indicators on graduates' labour market situation are not presented to measure their employability (i.e. their *ability* to gain employment). However, they do provide valuable information on graduates' employment prospects: on average, how likely it is that they will find a good and meaningful job after graduation. Labour market information can also be used by higher education institutions when they aim to respond to labour market needs.

5.2.1. Graduates on the labour market: transition from education to work

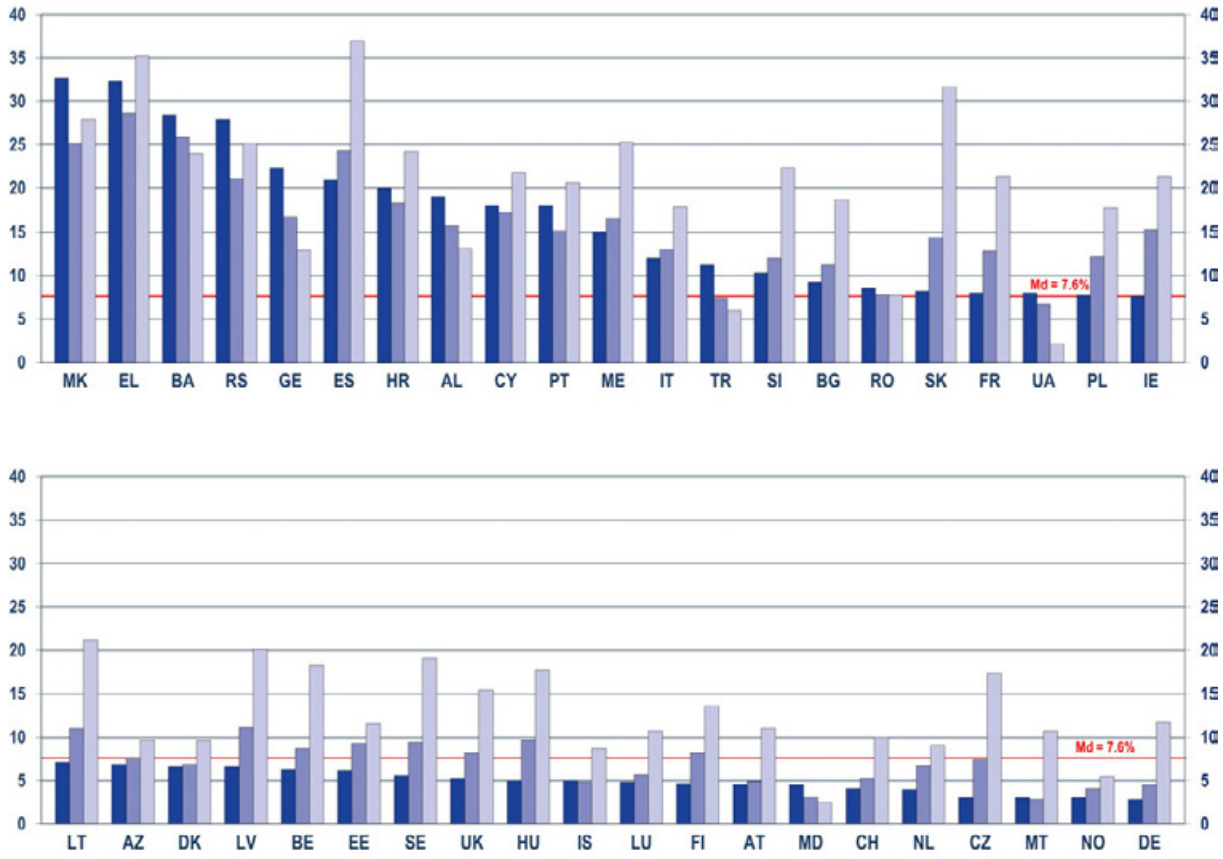
Several indicators can describe graduates' transition from education to work. Section 5.2.1 looks at graduates' labour market situation in EHEA countries based on unemployment ratios, income levels, as well as qualification mismatch. These latter two can serve as indicators for job quality (the 'meaningfulness' of a job).

Unemployment

Unemployment ratios comparing the unemployment situation of people aged 20-34 with different educational attainment provide valuable information on the relative value of tertiary education degrees (Figure 5.x8). Comparing median levels for young people with different educational background shows that the higher the level of education, the lower the unemployment ratio. The EHEA median of unemployment ratios for young people with low educational attainment (at most lower secondary education) is 17.7 %, for those with medium educational attainment (at most post-secondary non-tertiary education) it is 9.7 %, while it is 7.6 % for the highly educated with tertiary education. The biggest gaps between the unemployment ratios of young people with high and low educational attainment are in the Czech Republic (3 % vs. 17.4 %), Germany (2.8 % vs. 11.7 %), and Slovakia (8.2 % vs. 31.7 %). These are the countries where staying in education improves young people's labour market prospects the most. Nevertheless, gaps between the unemployment ratios of the high

and the medium skilled are much less pronounced. Countries with the largest differences are the Czech Republic (3 % vs. 7.4 %) and Ireland (7.6 % vs. 15.3 %).

Figure 5.x8: Unemployment ratio of people aged 20-34 by educational attainment level (%), 2013



	MK	EL	BA	RS	GE	ES	HR	AL	CY	PT	ME	IT	TR	SI	BG	RO	SK	FR	UA	PL	IE
High	32.7	32.3	28.4	27.9	22.4	21.0	19.9	19.0	18.0	18.0	15.0	12.0	11.2	10.3	9.2	8.5	8.2	8.0	8.0	7.7	7.6
Medium	25.2	28.6	25.9	21.1	16.7	24.3	18.3	15.7	17.2	15.2	16.6	13.0	7.4	12.0	11.2	7.8	14.4	12.8	6.7	12.1	15.3
Low	27.9	35.2	24.0	25.2	12.9	37.0	24.2	13.1	21.8	20.6	25.3	17.8	6.0	22.4	18.7	7.7	31.7	21.3	2.1	17.7	21.3

	LT	AZ	DK	LV	BE	EE	SE	UK	HU	IS	LU	FI	AT	MD	CH	NL	CZ	MT	NO	DE
High	7.1	6.9	6.6	6.6	6.3	6.2	5.6	5.2	5.0	5.0	4.8	4.7	4.6	4.5	4.1	4.0	3.0	3.0	3.0	2.8
Medium	11.0	7.6	6.9	11.1	8.7	9.3	9.4	8.2	9.7	4.8	5.7	8.2	4.9	3.1	5.2	6.7	7.4	2.8	4.1	4.5
Low	21.2	9.7	9.6	20.1	18.3	11.6	19.1	15.4	17.7	8.7	10.7	13.6	11.0	2.5	10.0	9.1	17.4	10.7	5.5	11.7

Notes: Data are not reliable in the case of high educational attainment for Croatia, and in the case of low educational attainment for Malta.

Data are sorted by the unemployment ratio of the highly educated. The median value (7.6%) refers to unemployment ratio of the highly educated.

Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS)

However, the inverse relationship between education and unemployment does not hold true all around the EHEA. In fact, in one third of the countries with available data, higher education graduates do not have the most secure position in the labour market. Two groups of countries can be distinguished among them.

First, in nine countries, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Serbia, Georgia, Albania, Turkey, Romania, Ukraine and Moldova, higher education graduates are actually in the worst position in the labour market: they face higher unemployment ratios than their peers with lower levels of education. In most of these countries (with the exception of the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Serbia, where those with medium educational attainment have the best position in the labour market), young people with the lowest levels of education are the least likely to be unemployed. Thus, in these cases, higher levels of education go together with higher levels of unemployment. In other words, advancing towards higher levels of education actually worsens the labour market prospects of young people in these countries.

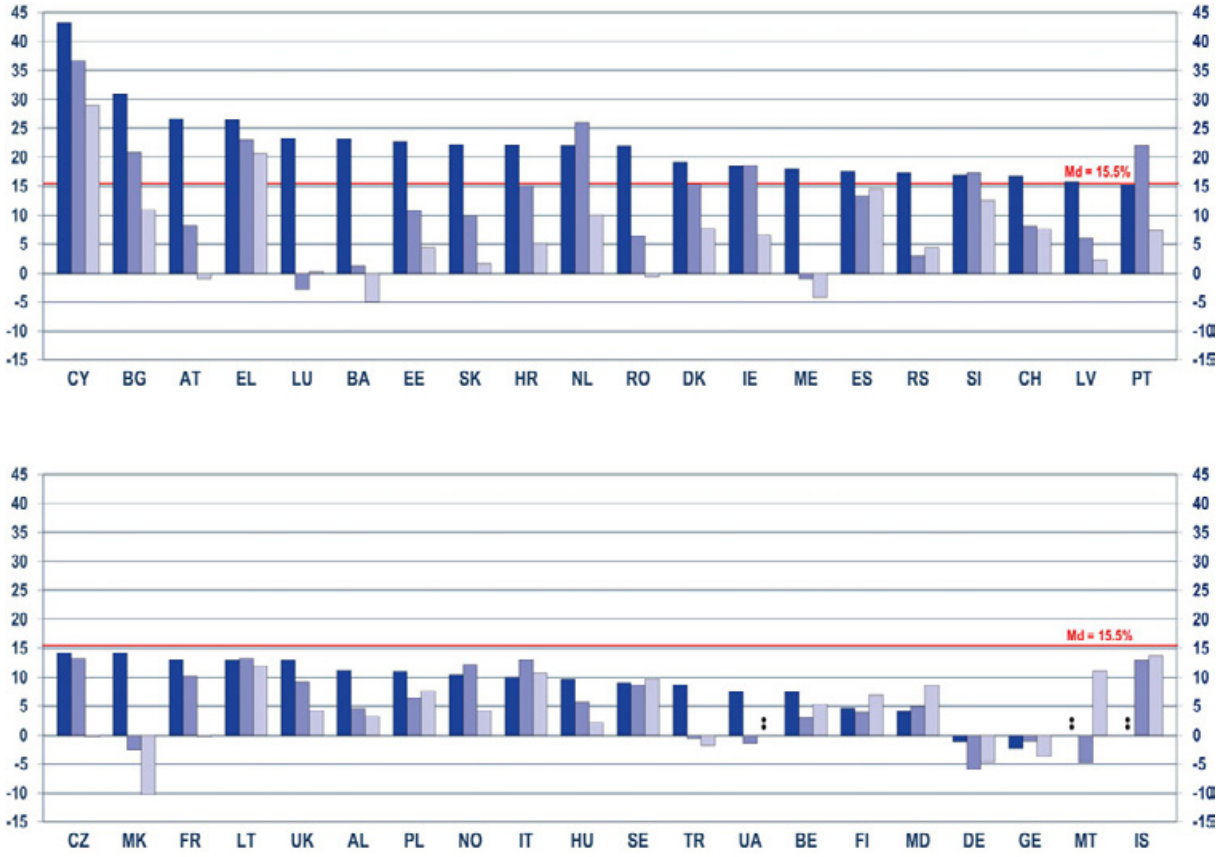
Interestingly, these are not countries with high tertiary attainment levels. To the contrary, in all these countries except Ukraine ([5]), higher education attainment levels are among the lowest in the EHEA (see Figure 5.1). Thus, these countries have economies where labour market demand for higher education graduates is limited despite the comparatively small size of the higher education sector.

A second group of exceptions contains Greece, Croatia, Cyprus, Portugal, and to some extent Malta. In these countries, while those with low educational attainment have the highest unemployment ratios, young people with medium levels of education are better off than the highly educated. Thus, for this group it is also true that getting a higher education degree does not lead to a more secure labour market position. In these countries, the medium and the high skilled had relatively similar labour market positions in terms of unemployment prospects in earlier years, but since the economic crisis, the unemployment ratio of the highly educated has grown considerably, which resulted in a comparatively worse position of higher education graduates.

In fact, unemployment gaps between the high and the medium educated are narrowing all around the EHEA. Young tertiary education graduates have been the hardest hit by the economic crisis in comparison to their peers with medium and low educational attainment (see Figure 5.x9). Between 2008 and 2013, the unemployment ratio of highly educated young people grew by more than 15.5 % yearly in half of the EHEA countries with available data, with the highest growth rates registered in Cyprus (43.2 %), Bulgaria (30.9 %), Austria (26.7 %) and Greece (26.5 %). The only countries where the labour market position of the highly educated (along with those with lower educational attainment levels) improved since 2008 are Germany and Georgia. In comparison to those with medium level qualifications, the situation of tertiary education graduates worsened the most in Luxembourg, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Montenegro, Serbia, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Turkey and Ukraine.

([5]) Ukraine is the exception with a very high tertiary attainment level (above 50 % in the youngest age group), but here, while the unemployment ratio of the highly educated is relatively high within the country, it is barely above the Bologna median.

Figure 5.x9: Average annual growth rate of unemployment by education level (%), 2008-2013



	CY	BG	AT	EL	LU	BA	EE	SK	HR	NL	RO	DK	IE	ME	ES	RS	SI	CH	LV	PT
High	43.2	30.9	26.7	26.5	23.3	23.1	22.7	22.2	22.1	22.0	21.9	19.2	18.5	18.0	17.7	17.3	17.0	16.8	15.8	15.2
Medium	36.8	20.8	8.2	23.0	-2.8	1.3	10.8	9.9	15.0	26.0	6.4	15.4	18.6	-1.0	13.4	2.9	17.3	8.1	6.0	22.0
Low	29.1	11.0	-0.9	20.6	0.3	-4.9	4.4	1.6	5.1	10.1	-0.7	7.7	6.6	-4.2	14.6	4.5	12.6	7.7	2.3	7.4
	CZ	**MK**	**FR**	**LT**	**UK**	**AL**	**PL**	**NO**	**IT**	**HU**	**SE**	**TR**	**UA**	**BE**	**FI**	**MD**	**DE**	**GE**	**MT**	**IS**
High	14.2	14.2	12.9	12.9	12.9	11.2	11.1	10.4	10.1	9.6	9.1	8.7	7.6	7.5	4.7	4.1	-1.1	-2.2	:	:
Medium	13.3	-2.5	10.2	13.3	9.2	4.6	6.4	12.2	13.1	5.8	8.6	-0.6	-1.4	3.0	3.9	4.9	-5.9	-1.0	-4.7	12.9
Low	-0.2	-10.2	-0.2	12.0	4.2	3.3	7.6	4.2	10.7	2.1	9.7	-1.9	:	5.3	7.0	8.6	-4.6	-3.6	11.2	13.7

Notes: Data are not reliable and not publishable in the case of high educational attainment for Iceland and Malta.

Data are not reliable in the case of high educational attainment for Bulgaria, Estonia, Croatia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Austria and Slovenia; in the case of medium educational attainment for Lithuania, and in the case of low educational attainment for Croatia, Lithuania and Slovenia.

Data are sorted by the growth rate of unemployment of the highly educated. The median value (15.5%) refers to the annual growth rate of unemployment of the highly educated.

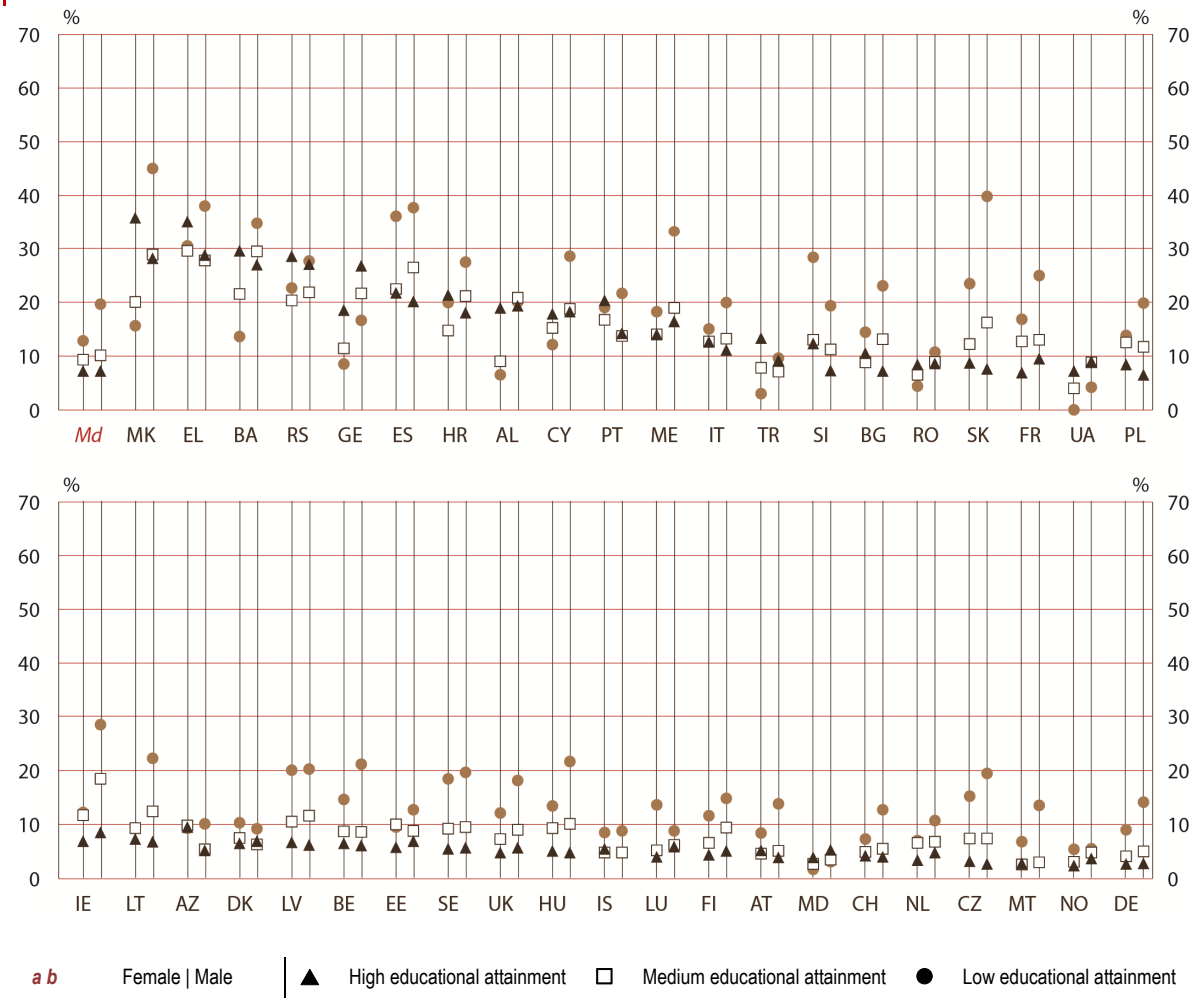
Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS)

Looking at gender differences in unemployment ratios also reveals important changes in the labour market. In general, obtaining a higher level qualification lowers the probability of becoming unemployed for both women and men. However, the gap between the unemployment ratios of young people with high and low educational attainment is different for women and men. When looking at the EHEA region as a whole for the year 2013, while the unemployment ratios of young women and men were nearly identical among the highly educated, the difference is pronounced in the case of young people with low educational attainment. As Figure 5.x10 depicts, men with low educational attainment have higher unemployment ratios than their female counterparts. As the 2012 Bologna Implementation Report showed, the situation was the opposite before.

Two important conclusions can be drawn on this basis. First, education (still) reduces the gender gap in unemployment. Second, in contrast to pre-crisis years, obtaining a higher level qualification seems to improve men's employment prospects more than that of women. In fact, when looking at the gender gap in unemployment for the low and the highly educated, unemployment patterns are reversed in around half of the EHEA countries with available data (the male unemployment ratio is higher than the female one among the low skilled, but lower for the high skilled). This illustrates well the impact of the crisis and how women and men have been differently affected. Labour markets are highly segmented across the EHEA: women and men – especially with lower levels of education – tend to be employed in different sectors. The economic crisis hit male-dominated sectors such as manufacturing and construction faster and more severely, so the male unemployment ratio increased faster (European Commission, 2013).

Certainly, gender patterns are not the same across the EHEA. In several countries, there are relatively big differences between the unemployment ratios of women and men even among the highly educated. For example in Norway, Luxembourg, Georgia and the Netherlands, highly educated young women are less likely to become unemployed than highly educated young men. In contrast, in Azerbaijan, Slovenia, Bulgaria, Turkey and Portugal, highly educated young women have clearly worse employment prospects than their male peers. In Slovenia, young women have higher unemployment ratios than young men in all educational segments, and the gender gap is not reduced even in the highest educational attainment category.

Figure 5.x10: Unemployment ratio of people aged 20-34 by educational attainment level and by sex (%), 2013

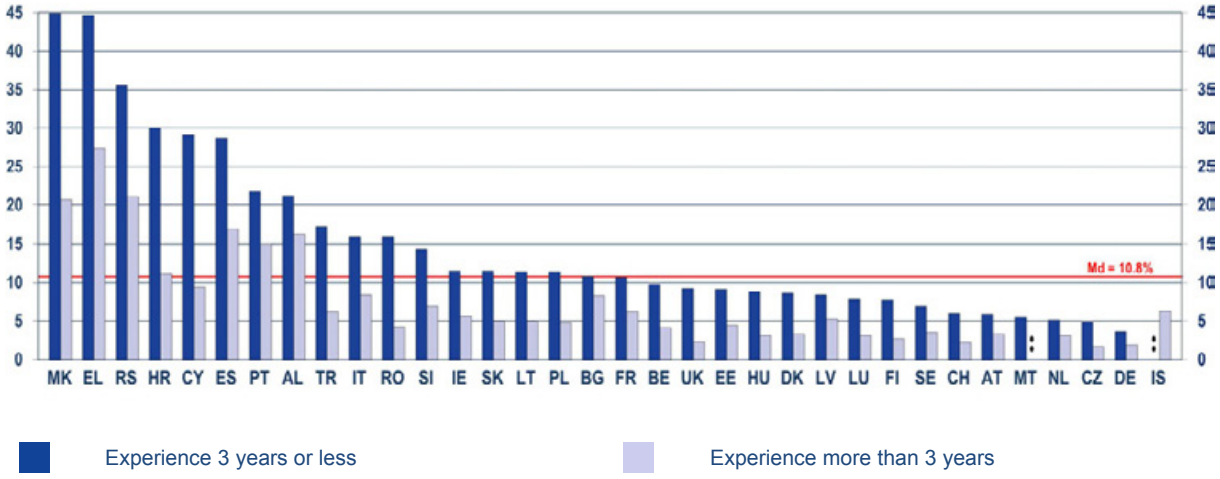


Notes: Data are sorted by the total unemployment ratio of the highly educated.

Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS).

It is also revealing to look more closely at differences among young people with high educational attainment. Figure 5.x11 depicts unemployment ratios of young tertiary education graduates by the number of years since graduation. The figure differentiates between young people who graduated three years or less before data collection (recent graduates), and those whose graduation was more than three years before data collection (experienced graduates). This indicator captures the labour market entry prospects of recent graduates in comparison to their more experienced peers.

Figure 5.x11: Unemployment ratio of tertiary education graduates aged 20-34, by the number of years since graduation (%), 2013



	MK	EL	RS	HR	CY	ES	PT	AL	TR	IT	RO	SI	IE	SK	LT	PL	BG
3 years or less	44.9	44.7	35.5	30	29.1	28.7	21.7	21.2	17.3	15.9	15.9	14.3	11.5	11.5	11.4	11.4	10.8
More than 3 years	20.7	27.3	21.1	11.1	9.4	17	15	16.3	6.2	8.4	4.2	6.9	5.6	4.9	4.9	4.7	8.3
	FR	**BE**	**UK**	**EE**	**HU**	**DK**	**LV**	**LU**	**FI**	**SE**	**CH**	**AT**	**MT**	**NL**	**CZ**	**DE**	**IS**
3 years or less	10.7	9.8	9.2	9.1	8.8	8.6	8.4	7.8	7.7	6.9	6	5.9	5.4	5.1	4.8	3.6	:
More than 3 years	6.2	4.1	2.3	4.4	3.1	3.3	5.2	3.1	2.7	3.5	2.2	3.3	:	3.1	1.7	1.9	6.3

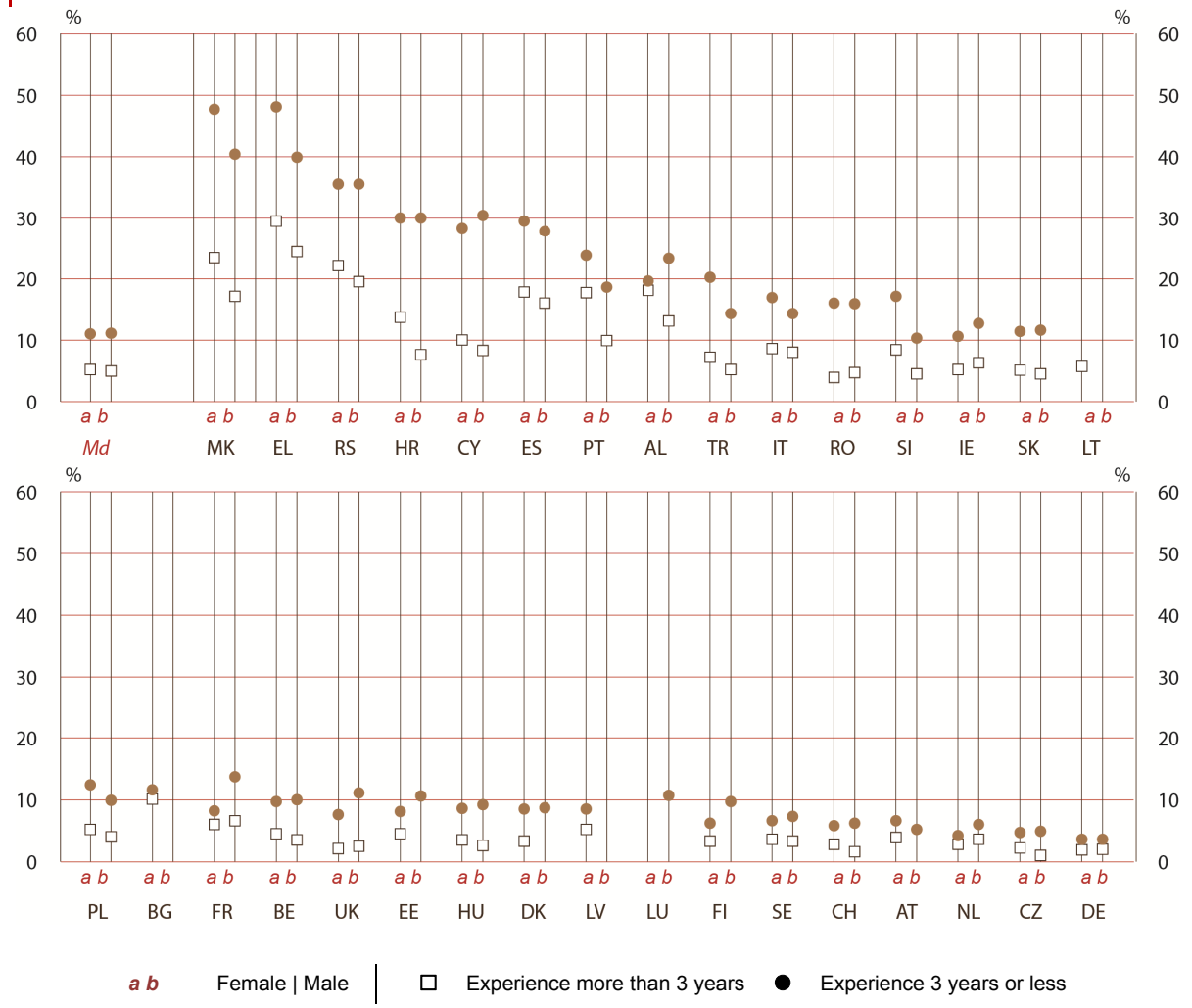
Notes: Data are not reliable and not for Iceland (experience 3 years or less) and Malta (experience more than 3 years).
Data are not reliable in the case of recent graduates (graduated 3 years or less before data collection) for Bulgaria and Malta, and in the case of graduates with more than 3 years of experience for the Czech Republic, Denmark, Germany, Croatia, Lithuania, Luxembourg and Austria.
Data are sorted by the unemployment ratio of recent graduates. The median value (10.8%) refers to the unemployment ratio of recent graduates.

Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS)

As the figure shows, the unemployment ratio of recent graduates is considerably higher than that of more experienced young people in all EHEA countries with available data. The unemployment ratio of graduates with less than three years of (potential) work experience is more than 10.8 % in half of the countries covered, which is more than double of the median ratio of more experienced graduates (4.9 %). Countries with the largest gaps between recent and experienced graduates are the United Kingdom (9.2 % vs. 2.3 %), Romania (15.9 % vs. 4.2 %) and Cyprus (29.1 % vs. 9.4 %). Countries where recent graduates are the least disadvantaged in comparison to more experienced graduates are Bulgaria (10.8 % vs. 8.3 %), Albania (21.2 % vs. 16.3 %) and Portugal (21.7 % vs. 15 %). However, the gap is smaller in these countries not because the unemployment ratio of recent graduates is lower, but because the unemployment ratio of experienced young people is also relatively high.

As was shown above, the labour market situation of highly educated women and men is relatively similar. This remains true when looking at differences between recent and more experienced graduates (see Figure 5.x12). In the large majority of countries with available data, nevertheless, the gap between more and less experienced young people is slightly bigger in the case of men than for women.

Figure 5.x12: Unemployment ratio of tertiary education graduates aged 20-34, by the number of years since graduation and by sex (%), 2013



Notes: Data are sorted by the total unemployment ratio of recent graduates (graduated 3 years or less before data collection).

Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS).

Overall, while young people with tertiary qualifications have better employment prospects than their peers with lower educational attainment, they were the most hit by the economic crisis, and their relative position worsened in comparison to those with medium level of qualifications. In addition, recent graduates still face difficulties in the labour market. Thus, the transition to the labour market is not smooth for many graduates in the EHEA.

Income and educational attainment

The expected income of persons with tertiary qualifications also forms part of graduates' labour market prospects. The assumption is that higher educational attainment – and thus higher levels of investment in education – should be compensated by better paid jobs after graduation.

Figures (data not yet available):

- Annual gross income of employees by educational attainment
- Percentage difference between median annual gross income of employees with tertiary education and with lower levels of education

Qualification mismatches

Graduates do not only anticipate finding jobs with relatively higher wages; they also expect to find one matching their level of education as well as their knowledge and skills acquired in higher education institutions. When this is not the case, there is a so-called "mismatch" between skills supply and demand. In the case of a vertical mismatch, there is a discrepancy between the acquired and required *level* of education (Cedefop 2010, p. 13). Such vertical mismatch can occur in terms of *qualifications* or *skills.* Researchers most commonly analyse the phenomena of over-qualification and over-skilling, thus cases when graduates have higher qualifications / better skills than what their job requires (Ibid.).

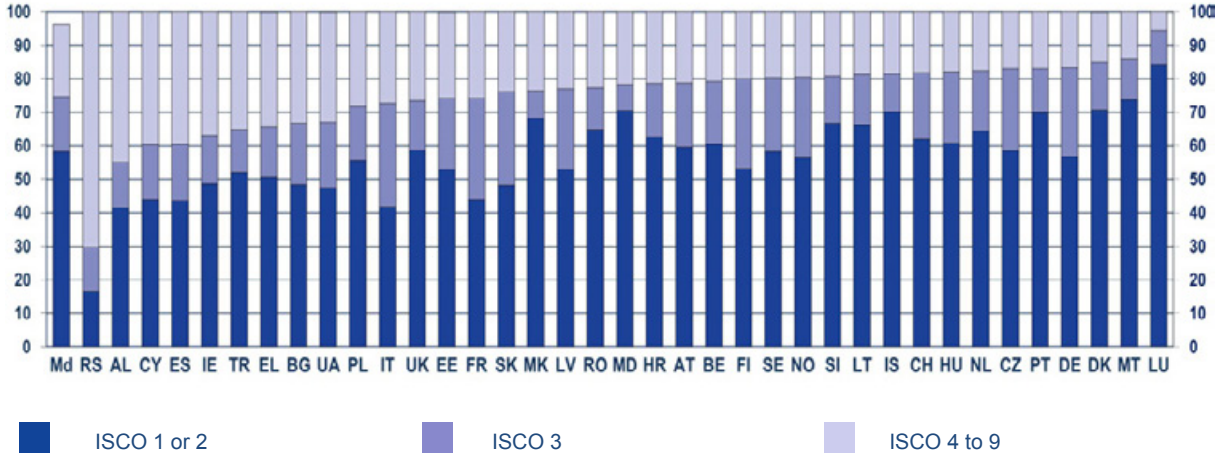
Qualification and skills mismatch do not always occur together. A recent analysis undertaken based on the Survey for Adult Skills (PIAAC) for a set of EU countries shows that the share of people who are both overqualified and overskilled is relatively low (around 15 % of the sample, see Flisi et al. 2014, p. 4.). A similar share of people was found to be overskilled but not overqualified, while twice as many were reported to be overqualified but not overskilled (Ibid.).

These scenarios suggest diverse kind of inefficiencies in how the education system responds to labour market needs. The relatively high proportion of overqualified but not overskilled people suggests that many stay too long in the education system while not receiving extra skills and competences. This can also indicate that tertiary education institutions were not able to provide graduates the skills necessary for a better labour market position. However, as was discussed above, factors influencing education mismatches – a sudden drop in labour market demand, labour market imperfections, discrimination, etc. – are not always in higher education institutions' control.

Qualification and skills mismatches can be measured based on several different indicators. In general, self-assessment is found to be the most accurate measurement of vertical mismatch (van der Velden and van Smoorenburg, 1997), particularly skills mismatch. However, comparative survey data is not available for the EHEA region. An alternative indicator assigns a fixed educational level to a given occupational category. While such indicator has many limitations (e.g. its rigidity or the need for detailed job-category lists which are not always feasible to compile), it can serve as a starting point for further analysis.

This sub-section looks at over-qualification rates defined as the percentage of young people with tertiary education occupying a post not regarded as necessitating a tertiary qualification (ISCO occupation level 4 to 9). Figure 5.x13 shows the distribution of people aged 25-34 with tertiary education qualifications and employed in ISCO 1 or 2 (legislators, senior officials, managers and professionals), in ISCO 3 (technicians and associate professionals) and in ISCO 4 to 9.

Figure 5.x13: Distribution of people with tertiary education (ISCED 5-6) aged 25-34 and employed in ISCO 1 or 2 (legislators, senior officials, managers and professionals), in ISCO 3 (technicians and associate professionals) and not in ISCO 1, 2 or 3 (%), 2013



	Md	RS	AL	CY	ES	IE	TR	EL	BG	UA	PL	IT	UK	EE	FR	SK	MK	LV	RO
ISCO 1 or 2	58.3	16.6	41.4	44	43.6	48.6	51.9	50.5	48.3	47.4	55.6	41.8	58.7	53.0	44.0	48.1	68.2	53.0	64.8
ISCO 3	16.3	13.1	13.6	16.3	16.9	14.5	12.9	15.1	18.4	19.6	16.1	30.9	14.7	21.1	30.2	27.9	8.2	24.0	12.4
ISCO 4 to 9	21.7	70.3	45.0	39.7	39.5	36.9	35.2	34.3	33.3	32.9	28.3	27.3	26.6	25.8	25.8	24.0	23.6	23.0	22.8
	MD	**HR**	**AT**	**BE**	**FI**	**SE**	**NO**	**SI**	**LT**	**IS**	**CH**	**HU**	**NL**	**CZ**	**PT**	**DE**	**DK**	**MT**	**LU**
ISCO 1 or 2	70.5	62.7	59.5	60.5	53.1	58.3	56.4	66.7	66.1	70.1	61.9	60.8	64.4	58.6	70.0	56.8	70.6	73.7	84.3
ISCO 3	7.8	15.8	19.2	18.7	26.9	22.0	24.1	14.1	15.3	11.4	19.8	21.3	17.9	24.4	13.0	26.5	14.2	12.3	10.0
ISCO 4 to 9	21.7	21.5	21.3	20.8	20.0	19.7	19.5	19.2	18.6	18.6	18.3	17.9	17.8	17.0	17.0	16.7	15.1	14.0	5.7

Notes: ISCO 0 (armed forces) and ISCO missing excluded.
Data are sorted by the percentage of people working in ISCO 4 to 9.

Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS)

In 2013, countries with the highest over-qualification rates (above 30 %) were Serbia (70.3 %), Albania (45 %), Cyprus (39.7 %), Spain (39.5%), Ireland (36.9 %), Turkey (35.2 %), Greece (34.3 %), Bulgaria (33.3 %) and Ukraine (32.9 %). As was shown above, in most of these countries, unemployment ratios among the highly educated are also relatively high (see Figure 5.x8), confirming the comparatively weak position of tertiary graduates. On the other hand, countries with over-qualification rates lower than 15 % were Denmark (15.1 %), Malta (14 %) and Luxembourg (5.7 %).

In comparison to 2010, there are more countries on this list with over-qualification rates above 30 % and fewer with over-qualification rates below 15 %. Comparing median values between 2010 and 2013 ([6]) also shows an increase of people with tertiary education who are overqualified for the job they occupy. This means that in general, the proportion of overqualified tertiary education graduates grew in EHEA countries since 2010. Thus, not only the unemployment ratio of highly educated young people increased considerably since the economic crisis, but also those who are in employment are more likely to accept jobs for which they are overqualified.

Figure 5.x14 illustrates the change in the share of overqualified young graduates between 2010 and 2013 by country. As the figure shows, the share of overqualified young graduates grew considerably (more than 10 percentage points) in Serbia, Slovakia and Croatia. In contrast, the largest decrease in the share of overqualified graduates took place in Belgium.

([6]) For the comparison, Albania and Ukraine were excluded from the 2013 sample (no data were available for these countries in 2010).

Figure 5.x14: Change in percentage points of the share of people with tertiary education (ISCED 5-6) aged 25-34 and not employed in ISCO 1, 2 or 3, 2010 to 2013

	Md	RS	SK	HR	RO	CZ	LV	PL	MD	TR	EE	SI	IS	EL	BG	LT	CY	SE
2010	18.1	15.3	11.6	11.0	13.2	9.2	15.8	21.9	15.8	29.6	20.6	14.1	13.9	30.1	30.0	16.3	37.6	17.7
2013	21.6	70.3	24.0	21.5	22.8	17.0	23.0	28.3	21.7	35.2	25.8	19.2	18.6	34.3	33.3	18.6	39.7	19.7
Change	3.5	55.0	12.4	10.5	9.6	7.8	7.2	6.4	5.9	5.6	5.2	5.1	4.7	4.2	3.3	2.3	2.1	2.0

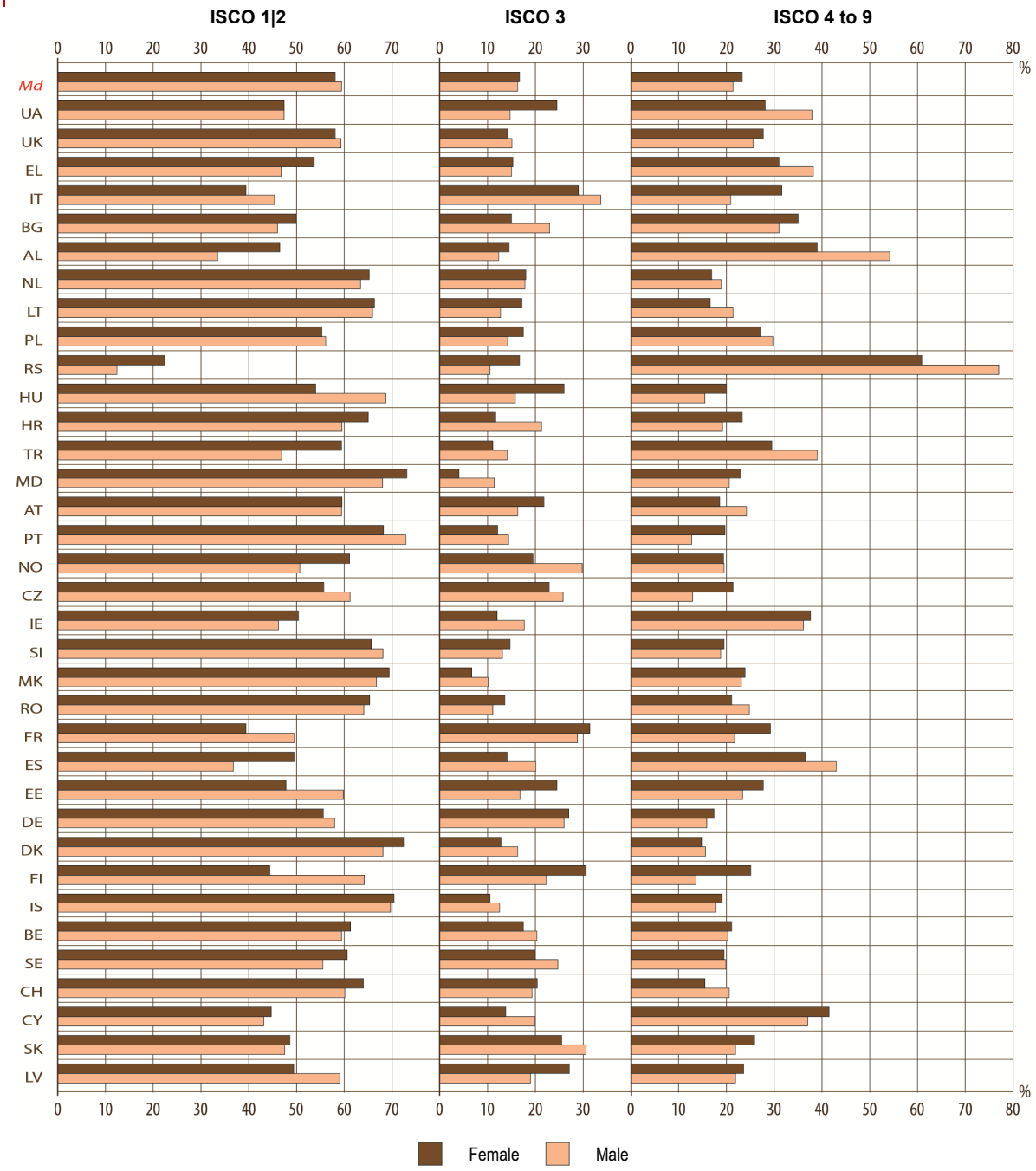
	NO	FI	ES	NL	AT	LU	HU	UK	IE	CH	FR	DK	DE	MK	PT	IT	BE
2010	17.8	18.4	38.0	16.5	20.4	5.1	17.5	26.5	37.0	18.7	26.2	16.1	17.8	25.5	19.4	30.4	26.2
2013	19.5	20.0	39.5	17.8	21.3	5.7	17.9	26.6	36.9	18.3	25.8	15.1	16.7	23.6	17.0	27.3	20.8
Change	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.3	0.9	0.6	0.4	0.1	-0.1	-0.4	-0.4	-1.0	-1.1	-1.9	-2.4	-3.1	-5.4

Notes: Data are sorted by the change in percentage points between 2010 and 2013.

Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS)

Differences between the over-qualification rates of female and male graduates are relatively small, though women are more likely to get jobs under the level of their qualifications (see Figure 5.x15). However, countries differ a lot in this regard. The biggest differences between female and male over-qualification rates are on the one hand in Albania, Ukraine, Switzerland and Turkey (with higher over-qualification rates for men) and on the other hand in Finland, the Czech Republic, Malta, Portugal and Italy (with higher over-qualification rates for women). It is interesting to note, however, that there are more countries with higher over-qualification rates for women, and the differences tend to be bigger between the sexes in these cases than in countries with higher over-qualification rates for men.

Figure 5.x15: Distribution of people with tertiary education (ISCED 5-6) aged 25-34 and employed in ISCO 1 or 2 (legislators, senior officials, managers and professionals), in ISCO 3 (technicians and associate professionals) and not in ISCO 1, 2 or 3, by sex (%), 2013



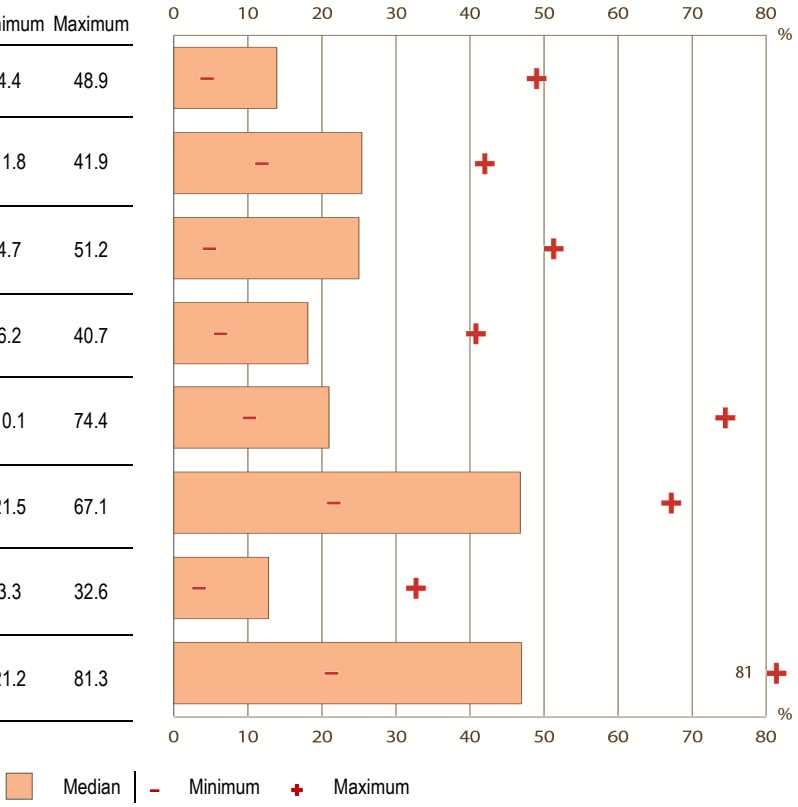
Notes: Data are sorted by the total percentage of people not working in ISCO 1, 2 or 3.

Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS).

Over-qualification rates might be very different for young people graduating in different study fields. Figure 5.x16 depicts the percentage of young graduates who are vertically mismatched by field of study. Similarly to what was found in the 2012 Bologna Implementation Report, data shows that young people with a qualification in services ([7]) are the most likely to take up jobs under their qualification level: more than 47 % of graduates are overqualified in this field in half of the countries covered ([8]). However, differences between countries are substantial: over-qualification rates in services range from 21.2 % (Portugal) to 81.3 % (Cyprus).

Figure 5.x16: Percentage of people aged 25-34 with tertiary education (ISCED 5-6) who are vertically mismatched (not in ISCO 1, 2 or 3) by field of study, 2013

	Median	Minimum	Maximum
1. Teacher training and education science	13.9	4.4	48.9
2. Humanities, (foreign) languages and arts	25.4	11.8	41.9
3. Social sciences, business and law	25.0	4.7	51.2
4. Sciences, mathematics and computing	18.1	6.2	40.7
5. Engineering, manufacturing and construction	21.0	10.1	74.4
6. Agriculture and veterinary	46.8	21.5	67.1
7. Health and welfare	12.8	3.3	32.6
8. Services	47.0	21.2	81.3



Source: Eurostat, Labour Force Survey (LFS).

Again similarly to findings of the previous report, study fields with the lowest over-qualification rates are health and welfare (median: 12.8 %) and teacher training and education science (median: 13.9 %). However, countries again show signification variation. Over-qualification rates in health and welfare range from 3.3 % (Turkey) to 32.6 % (Albania); in teacher training and education science from 4.4 % (Switzerland) to 48.9 % (Albania).

Thus, while in general the labour market position of higher education graduates weakened since the beginning of the crisis, countries still need to respond to diverse challenges. The next section presents the main directions of employability policies in the EHEA.

([7]) "Services" include a wide range of occupations from restaurant and tourism to defence and military services (for more details, see the ISCED classification for fields of education, e.g. Andersson and Olsson, 1999).

([8]) For the country coverage, see the Glossary and methodological note.

5.2.2. Policies for enhancing graduates' employability

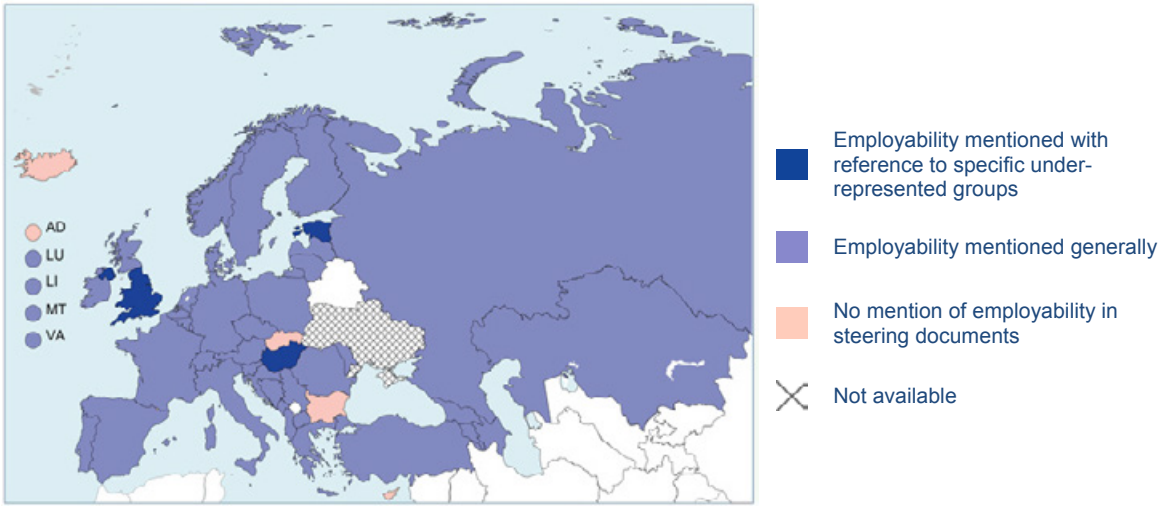
There is a wide variety of policies aiming at improving graduates' employability prospects. In general, two main perspectives can be distinguished. First, highlighting the needs of the labour market focuses more on the demand-side: on what higher education institutions need to respond to. Second, an emphasis on employable graduates implies a more supply-side perspective: what higher education institutions need to achieve in terms of output (e.g. providing graduates with a set of skills and competences).

After presenting a general picture on the place of employability in higher education steering documents, section 5.2.2 shows examples of both demand-side and supply-side policy approaches. Regarding the objective of responding to labour market needs, an important question is where higher education institutions can look for relevant labour market information. The two most widespread possibilities are labour market and skills forecasting on the one hand, and involving labour market representatives (i.e. employers) in higher education governance on the other. Concerning graduates' adequate skills, one prevalent way to ensure that graduates gain the necessary competences is to include work placements in higher education programmes. In addition, career guidance services can equip students with important competences for their job search. Finally, this section also looks at how the employability of graduates is monitored and evaluated in EHEA countries and whether there are any incentives given to higher education institutions linked to their performance.

Policy framework

The objective of meeting labour market needs and enhancing graduates' employability is mentioned in higher education steering documents in the vast majority of EHEA countries, the exceptions being Andorra, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Iceland and Slovakia (Figure 5.x17). In several countries (e.g. in Austria, France, Georgia, or Greece), improving the employability of graduates forms part of higher education institutions' mission. Others require higher education institutions to prove in the accreditation process that their programmes respond to labour market needs. Many countries encourage higher education institutions to include labour market information (based on forecasts or through the involvement of employers) when defining learning outcomes, developing or changing the content of programmes, or even managing the number of students in different study fields. Similarly, many emphasise the importance of specific measures such as making sure that students can get an easy access to work placements or counselling and career guidance services.

Figure 5.x17: References to employability in steering documents, 2013/14



Source: BFUG questionnaire

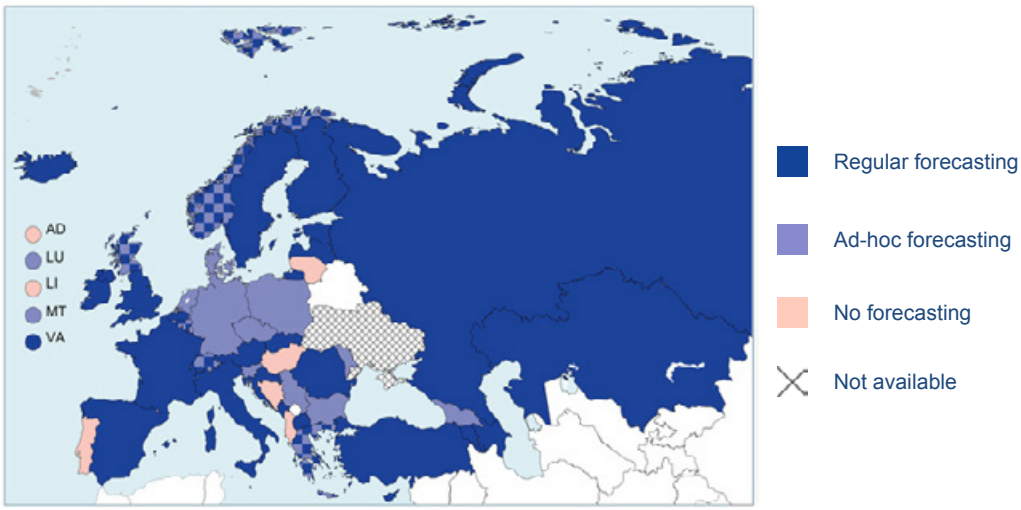
However, the large majority of countries aim to enhance the employability of graduates in general, without specific reference to underrepresented groups. Only in Estonia, Hungary and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) do higher education steering documents mention particular underrepresented groups in the context of employability. This shows that while more countries focus on facilitating access to higher education for people from underrepresented groups or even on providing measures to make sure that they complete their studies, the social dimension of graduates' employability is not prominent in the higher education policy agenda.

Labour-market and skills forecasting as an information source

In order to be able to respond to labour market demand, governments and higher education institutions need information on labour market trends. Despite its limitations (see European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2014), labour market forecasting is a common way to anticipate labour market needs in terms of skills demand and supply. On the one hand, labour market forecasting can inform policy planning, for example the planning and designing of study programmes, the fixing of the number of state funded places, or the allocation of public funding. On the other hand, guidance and information services can use labour market information to guide (potential) students in orienting themselves towards more 'demanded' fields of study. Labour market forecasting is usually conducted by occupation and qualification levels.

In the majority of EHEA countries, labour market and skills forecasting is undertaken regularly at national level (Figure 5.x18). Such forecasting exercises are conducted on an ad hoc basis in 17 education systems, sometimes in addition to the regular forecast in place. There is no labour market forecasting in Albania, Andorra, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Hungary, Liechtenstein, Lithuania and Portugal. In about one third of EHEA countries, regular labour market and skills forecasting is also undertaken at regional level, in addition to the national one.

Figure 5.x18: Labour-market and skills forecasting at national level, 2013/14

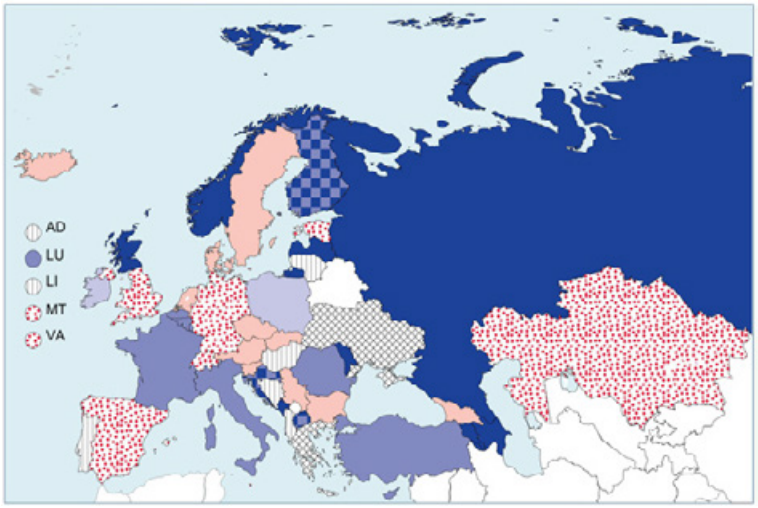


Source: BFUG questionnaire

Most countries conducting labour market forecasts do make efforts to take their results into account in higher education planning (see Figure 5.x19). In 11 countries (Armenia, Azerbaijan, Croatia, Finland, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Latvia, Moldova, Montenegro, Norway, Russia and the United Kingdom (Scotland)), labour market information is used to determine enrolment quotas or state-funded study places in all or certain higher education study fields. In ten EHEA countries (Belgium, Croatia, Cyprus, Finland, France, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Italy, Luxembourg, Romania and Turkey), such forecasts are taken into account when deciding on the

accreditation of new study programmes and/or to adapt the content of existing programmes to labour market needs. Countries also reported about using labour market forecasts to identify priority areas for additional funding (Ireland and Poland). In several countries, while labour market forecasts are not used systematically at national level, regional authorities (e.g. the Länder in Germany) or higher education institutions rely on them in programme planning or career guidance provision.

Figure 5.x19: Using labour-market and skills forecasting in planning, 2013/14



Enrolment quotas / state funded study places

Programme accreditation / development

Additional funding to priority areas

Use by HEIs / regions

No systematic use

No forecasting

Not available

Source: BFUG questionnaire

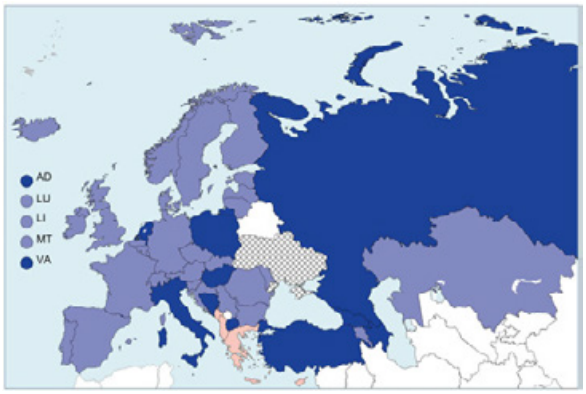
Cooperation between employers and higher education institutions

The Bucharest Communiqué regards cooperation between employers and higher education institutions as an important means to enhance the employability of higher education graduates. Indeed, consulting or involving employers, employers' organisations and business representatives in the various steps of developing and evaluating higher education study programmes is a direct and more decentralised mechanism through which labour market information can be included in higher education. Employers and business representatives are aware of the skills graduates need when entering the labour market, and higher education institutions can use this knowledge when designing degree programmes.

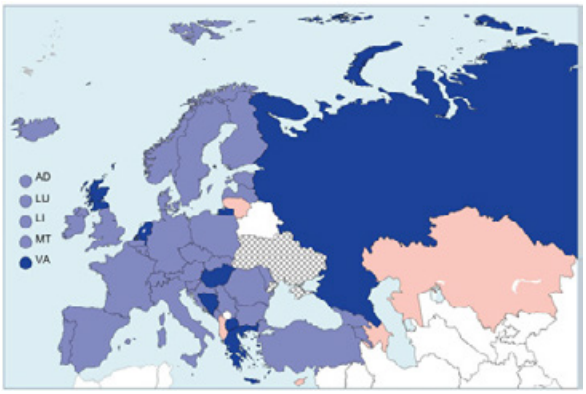
Looking at the diverse areas in which employers can be involved in higher education (curriculum development, teaching, or participation in higher education institutions' decision-making bodies), it appears that employers do participate in higher education planning and governance across the EHEA. A common way to include employers is through quality assurance: in many countries, employers are required to participate in the accreditation and evaluation of higher education programmes. Such participation is analysed in Chapter 3 in more detail.

Figure 5.x20: Involvement of employers in higher education planning and governance, 2013/14

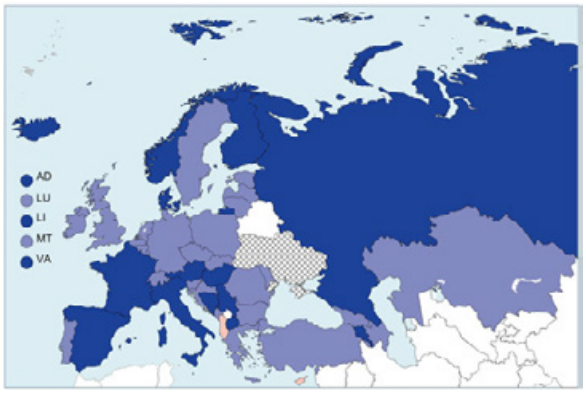
A. Curriculum development



B. Teaching



C. HEI decision-making bodies



Compulsory involvement
Possible involvement
No involvement
Not available

Source: BFUG questionnaire

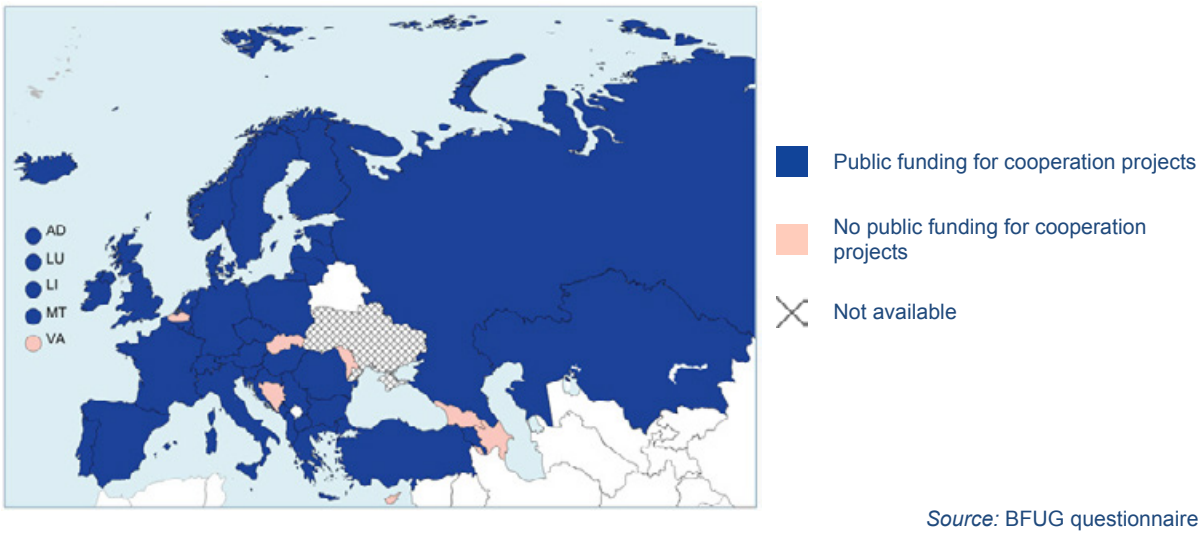
However, the extent of employers' participation differs across the EHEA. Regarding curriculum development, 12 countries make it compulsory for employers to participate in the design or revision of curricula (see Figure 5.x20.A). Yet, even in countries where their participation is not mandatory, employers' involvement can be widespread. Some countries have also created special degree programmes, designed principally to meet employers' demands, where curricula are developed with close cooperation with employers. Examples include the professional diploma in Albania, the professional bachelor degree (*licence professionnelle*) in France, or foundation degrees in the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland).

In eight countries, employers have to be involved in teaching in some form; while 17 countries make it compulsory for higher education institutions to include employers in higher education institutions' governing bodies (see Figure 5.x20.B and Figure 5.x20.C). In some countries, employers are also involved in various national (e.g. in Croatia, France, Germany, Poland, Slovenia, Sweden or the United Kingdom (Scotland)), regional (e.g. in Italy) or sectoral (e.g. in Montenegro) decision-making bodies.

Employers' participation can be facilitated by university-business cooperation projects. Through financial means, governments can provide incentives for both higher education institutions and business organisations to develop innovative projects together. As Figure 5.x21 shows, university-business cooperation projects receive some form of public funding in the large majority of EHEA countries. A number of countries (e.g. Croatia, Denmark, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Iceland, and Norway) established specific innovation funds from which university-business cooperation projects are funded directly. Alternatively, specialised government agencies can receive the task of

financing such projects (e.g. in Sweden and Switzerland). In Sweden, the government also finances Innovation Offices at some universities. Ireland and Liechtenstein issue innovation vouchers to facilitate collaboration between enterprises and higher education institutions.

Figure 5.x21: Public funding for university-business cooperation projects, 2013/14



Source: BFUG questionnaire

Practical training and work placements

Public funds are also often allocated to finance work placements for students. Practical training is regarded as a key element in enhancing graduates' employability. Students who participated in work placements before graduation are more likely to find jobs than their counter-parts without relevant work experience (see e.g. Garrouste and Rodrigues, 2012; van der Velden and Allen, 2011). This is especially true in the case of students from underrepresented groups (Thomas and Jones, 2007).

Unfortunately, data on students' participation rates in practical training are not available in many EHEA countries. Countries reporting a high percentage of participation rates (over 70 %) for both cycles are Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Moldova and Russia. In the first cycle, participation is reported to be high in Andorra, Latvia and Romania. Very low participation rates (under 10 %) are reported from Cyprus, Iceland and Montenegro.

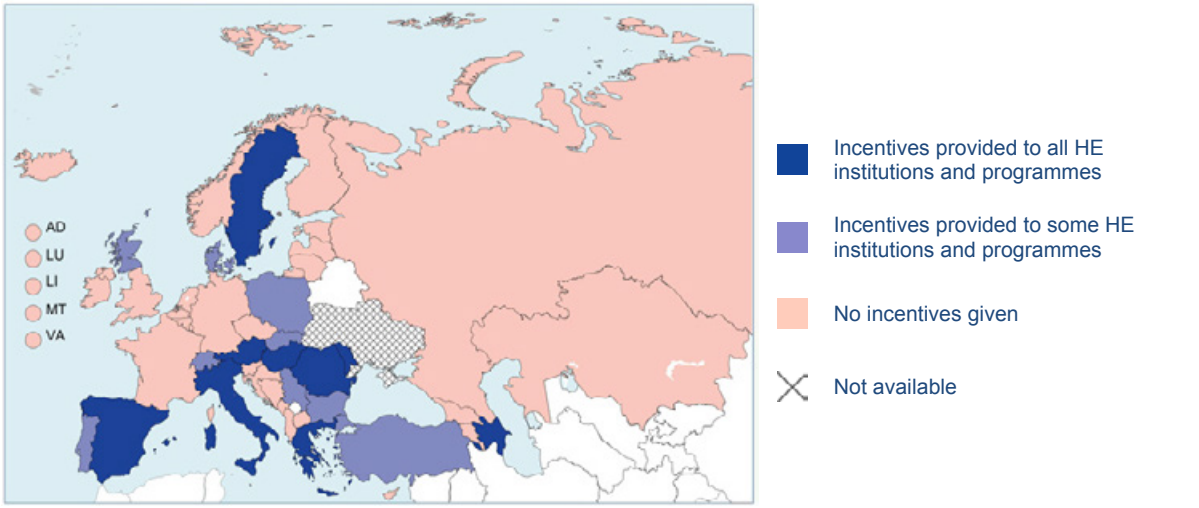
In the European Union, Directive 2005/36/EC on the recognition of professional qualifications ([9]) regulates embedding practical training into certain, professionally oriented study programmes (e.g. for medical or pharmaceutical studies). Many non-EU member countries also apply similar regulations in some, more practice-oriented study fields. However, beyond these regulated professions, higher education institutions are mostly free to decide whether they include such structured work experiences in their study programmes.

Nevertheless, some countries do make the inclusion of work placements compulsory for certain types of institutions or programmes. For example, in Denmark, practical training is required at Academies of Professional Higher Education and University Colleges for both first and second cycle students. Similarly, in Finland, all first cycle Polytechnic degrees should include work placements. Practical training is mandatory in Romania in the first cycle and in Portugal for short-cycle programmes. In France, gaining professional experience is compulsory for short cycle programmes, as well as for professionally-oriented *licence* and master programmes.

Practical training is an obligatory element of all higher education programmes in Azerbaijan, Moldova, Russia and Slovenia. In Montenegro, such an obligation is included in the draft legislation. In Kazakhstan, all students have the right to participate in practical training during their studies.

Besides regulations, another way in which authorities can encourage the inclusion of work placements in higher education study programmes is through the provision of public funding. Within the EHEA, 18 countries reported providing incentives to some or all higher education institutions to increase the number of available internships (Figure 5.x22). Such incentives can be financial, when authorities fund or share the costs of internship programmes, even in cases where work placements are not compulsory (e.g. in Greece, Italy, Poland, Spain, Sweden, Turkey and the United Kingdom (Scotland)). Alternatively, authorities can contribute to the organisation and management of internships (e.g. in Bulgaria).

Figure 5.x22: Incentives given to institutions for work placements, 2013/14



Source: BFUG questionnaire

In addition to obliging or encouraging higher education institutions to include such shorter work placements in study programmes, several countries established so-called 'dual' degrees that combine theoretical studies in higher education institutions with professional experience gained at work. In this system, higher education institutions and enterprises share the responsibility for equipping students with relevant skills and competences. Such dual degree programmes exist for example in the French Community of Belgium, Germany, France, Poland and Spain.

Career guidance

Providing labour market information, career guidance or mentoring to students is another measure to enhance the employability of graduates. Career guidance is regarded as particularly important for non-traditional learners (Thomas and Jones, 2007), especially if it is provided throughout the whole student lifecycle.

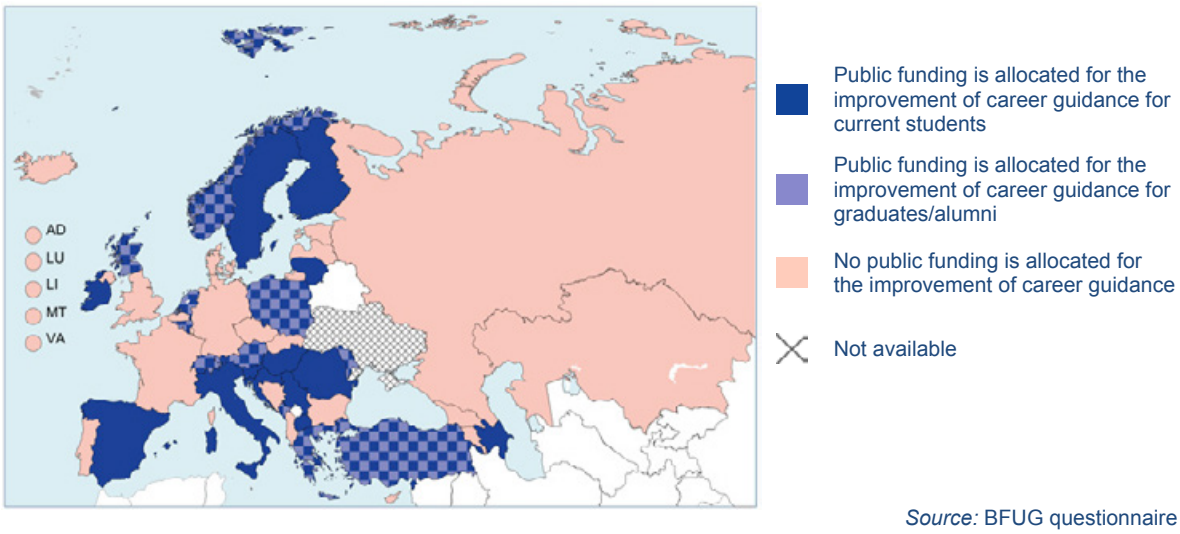
Half of the higher education systems within the EHEA reported allocating public funding to improve career guidance services for current students in higher education institutions (Figure 5.x23). Such career guidance is extended to graduates and/or alumni in eleven higher education systems. In most cases, however, the funding higher education institutions receive is part of a general budget, and it is

(9) Directive 2005/36/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council of 7 September 2005 on the recognition of professional qualifications, OJ L 255, 30.9.2005.

up to higher education institutions themselves to designate a part of such funds to the improvement of career guidance services.

More direct funding is made available for career guidance in Greece, Hungary, Lithuania, Moldova, Poland and Slovenia. In Greece, Innovation and Liaison offices, financed directly by public funds, have the role of providing career guidance services to students. In the other countries, public funding is allocated explicitly for the improvement of career guidance services via public tenders (Hungary), state projects (Lithuania), national strategies (Moldova), or specific national and European funds (Poland and Slovenia).

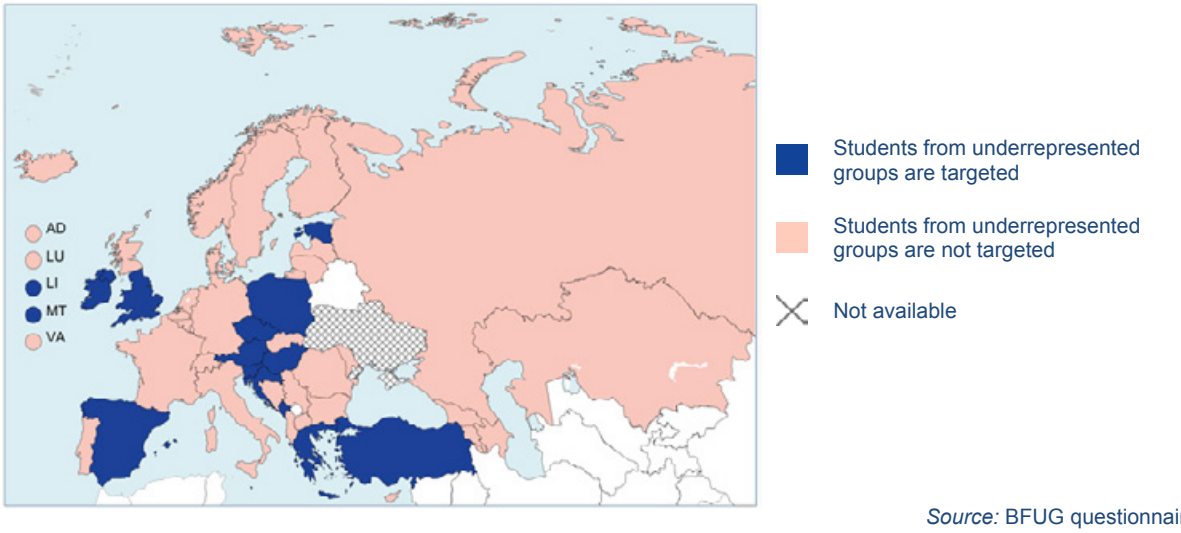
Figure 5.x23: Allocation of public funding to improve career guidance services in HEIs, 2013/14



Source: BFUG questionnaire

However, students from underrepresented groups are rarely targeted by career guidance services within the EHEA: only fifteen education systems reported having targeted career guidance services in higher education institutions (Figure 5.x24). In almost all of them, career guidance services target students with disabilities. Gender counselling is available in Estonia and Liechtenstein. In Malta, guidance services target disadvantaged regions.

Figure 5.x24: Targeted career guidance services for students from underrepresented groups, 2013/14



Source: BFUG questionnaire

Monitoring and evaluation

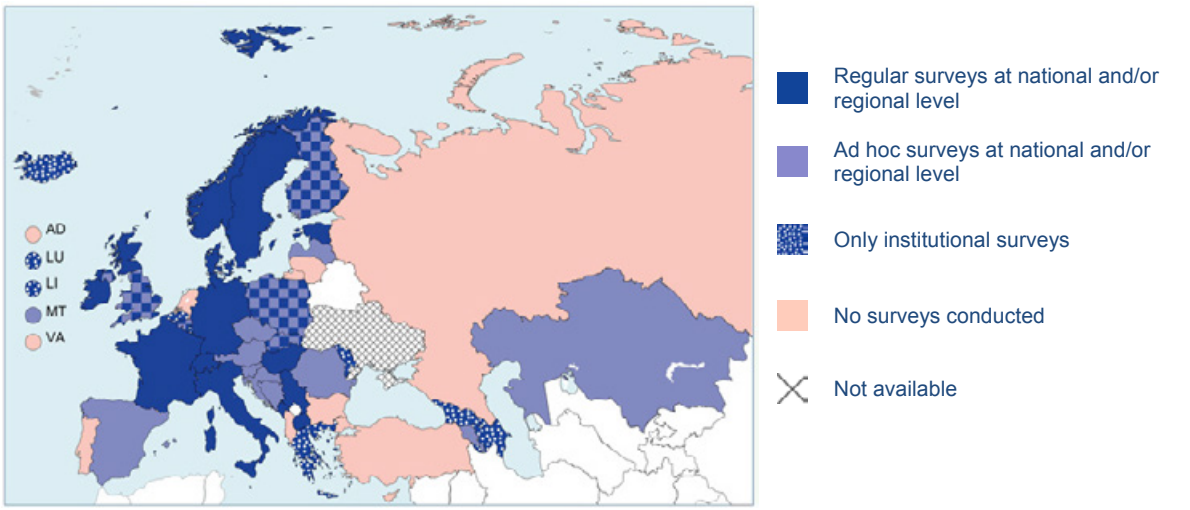
Higher education institutions' employability performance is often subject to external evaluation. The most common evaluation process is external quality assurance, where the employability of graduates is one of many criteria. More information on quality assurance can be found in Chapter 3. In addition, several countries have established procedures of evaluating how well higher education institutions perform in 'producing' employable graduates.

Measuring employability is less straightforward than calculating other performance indicators. Evaluations often rely on student and graduate surveys, where students and/or graduates can evaluate their study programme as well as can provide details on their transition to the labour market. Alternatively, employers' evaluations can also inform policy-making (e.g. this is the case in Montenegro).

Graduate surveys relying on the self-assessment of graduates are considered to be the most accurate tools for evaluating the employability of higher education graduates (van der Velden & van Smoorenburg, 1997). Career tracking surveys do not only provide the means to measure the percentage of graduates finding employment after graduation, but they are also able to describe the quality of jobs, the length of the job search period, graduates' job satisfaction, and the match between graduates' skills and job requirements (see Teichler, 2011). Furthermore, based on graduate surveys, it is possible to conduct analyses on the relative impact of graduates' individual characteristics and the higher education programme they attended (Ibid.). This way, such surveys are useful tools for a multi-dimensional evaluation of employability in higher education.

Graduate surveys are organised at least from time to time in the large majority of EHEA countries (Figure 5.x25). At the national and/or regional level, regular surveys are conducted in 19 education systems, while ad hoc surveys take place in 16, sometimes in parallel to the regular one. There are only institutional surveys in eight EHEA countries. Nevertheless, the number of countries establishing regular graduate surveys is increasing fast, with many countries introducing such a system in recent years. Currently, a regular tracking system is being developed in Croatia and Poland.

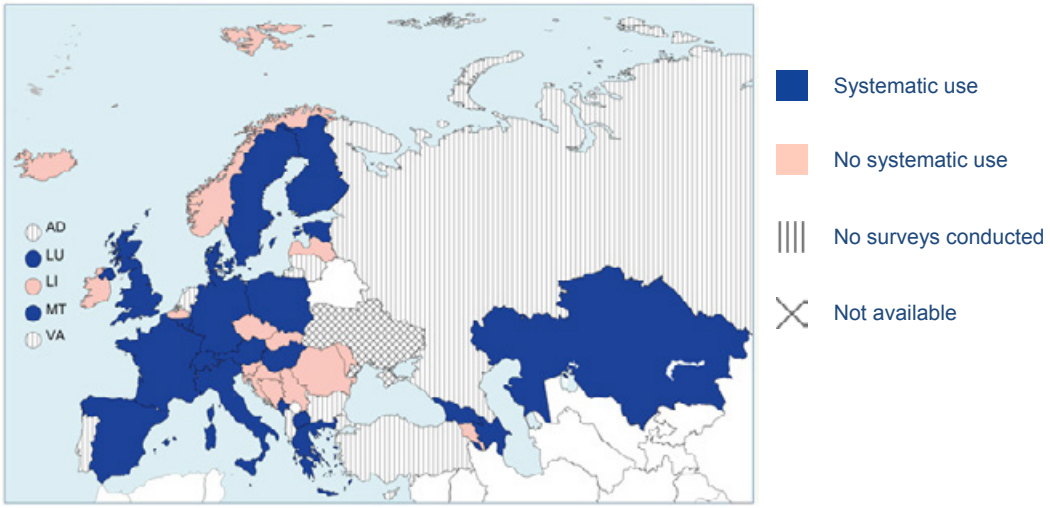
Figure 5.x25: Graduate tracking surveys, 2013/14



Source: BFUG questionnaire

Within the EHEA, 24 countries reported that authorities make use of graduate tracking surveys systematically (Figure 5.x26). Most often, graduate surveys are used in quality assurance procedures (e.g. in Denmark, France, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Georgia, Italy, Poland, or Spain). Azerbaijan, Hungary and Kazakhstan use such survey results when setting the number of enrolment quotas or state-funded study places.

Figure 5.x26: Systematic use of graduate tracking surveys in planning, 2013/14



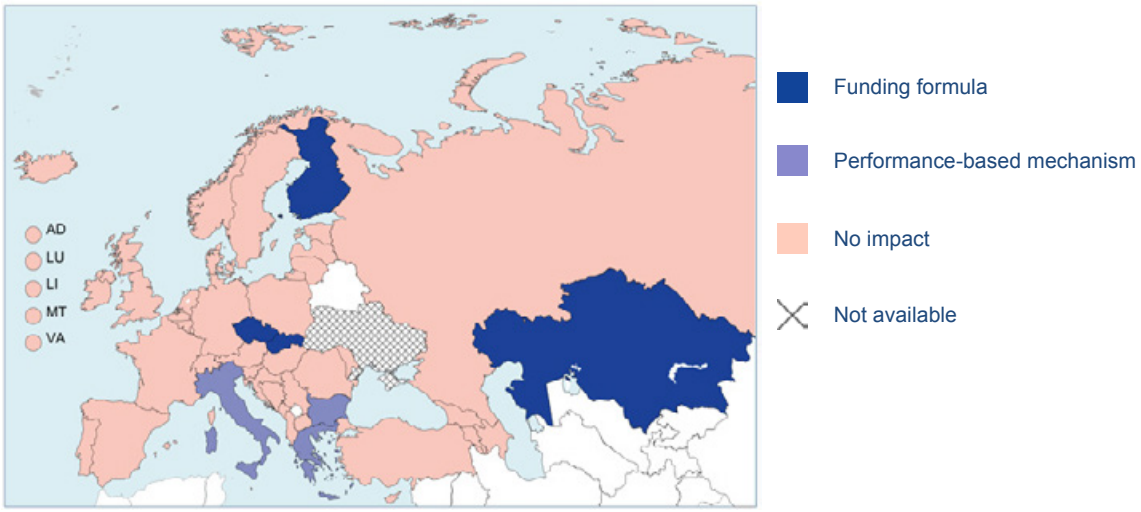
Source: BFUG questionnaire

While quality assurance is the most common evaluation mechanism in the EHEA, some countries have established other procedures through which the employability performance of higher education institutions can be assessed. One prominent goal of setting up such evaluation processes is to make employability-related information on higher education study programmes public. This can inform current and future students on their potential career prospects. For example, several countries (Armenia, Azerbaijan, Bulgaria, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Kazakhstan) have compiled ranking systems of higher education institutions, where graduates' employment is one of the criteria. In Bulgaria, a higher education institution's place in the ranking even influences the level of state funding it receives.

Employability can also form part of performance agreements. In Austria and Liechtenstein, higher education institutions' plans for enhancing the employability of their graduates form part of the performance agreements in place.

However, the employability performance of higher education institutions influences the level of funding they receive in only a few countries: Bulgaria (see above), the Czech Republic, Finland, Greece, Italy, Kazakhstan and Slovakia (Figure 5.x27). In the Czech Republic, Finland, Kazakhstan and Slovakia, graduates' employment is included in a funding formula based on which higher education institutions receive (a part of) their budget. Russia is planning to introduce such a system from 2015. In Greece and Italy, institutions can receive additional funding based on performance indicators such as the employment of graduates.

Figure 5.x27: Impact of employability performance on HEIs' funding, 2013/14



Source: BFUG questionnaire

Conclusions

[Conclusions to be written after missing data arrive.]

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6. LIFELONG LEARNING

The Bucharest Communiqué

The Bucharest Communique stated that ***"Lifelong learning** is one of the important factors in meeting the needs of a changing labour market, and higher education institutions play a central role in transferring knowledge and strengthening regional development, including by the continuous development of competences and reinforcement of knowledge alliances."*

In relation to this acknowledgement of the importance of lifelong learning, the ministers asked for more targeted data collection and referencing against common indicators including **lifelong learning**, and indicated their willingness to enhance **lifelong learning** provision in the development of educational programmes.

The 2012 report showed that cross-country differences in the understanding of lifelong learning in higher education are difficult to capture. Where definitions of lifelong learning exist, they are often very broad in character, which does not allow a full understanding of how lifelong learning in higher education is viewed and which activities fall under the concept. Nevertheless, according to the 2012 report, in most EHEA countries lifelong learning had become a recognised mission of all higher education institutions.

With regard to distinct elements of lifelong learning in higher education, the 2012 report showed that most EHEA countries recognise the need to enhance flexible delivery of higher education programmes and they address this issue through various policy actions. Around two-thirds of countries had established an official student status other than the status of a full-time student.

Data on the participation of students in part-time studies indicated that mature students are those who are the most likely to study part-time. Flexible delivery of higher education programmes and lifelong learning therefore appear as two interlinked thematic areas. The analysis also shows that cross-country comparisons related to alternative modes of study should be carried out with caution, taking into account conceptual complexity in this field.

Chapter outline

Based on policy priorities identified within the above-mentioned documents, this chapter aims to examine key aspects of lifelong learning in the higher education sector. It first looks at how different countries understand and interpret the concept of lifelong learning in higher education. It then examines developments in lifelong learning becoming a recognised mission of higher education institutions as well as financial arrangements in place to promote lifelong leaning provision. A substantial part of the chapter is dedicated to the theme of flexible modes of delivery of higher education programmes, with a specific focus on part-time higher education studies. This part is followed by the analysis of the extent to which higher education institutions across the EHEA offer possibilities for the recognition of prior learning. Taking into account the information provided in all sections of the chapter, the final part looks at how successful different higher education systems are in attracting non-traditional learners to participate in formal higher education programmes.

The reader should be aware that other chapters of the report also provide information closely related to the theme of lifelong learning in higher education. Therefore, the content of this chapter should be complemented with information provided in other parts of the report, in particular in Chapter 4 on the social dimension in higher education and Chapter 5 on higher education outcomes and employability.

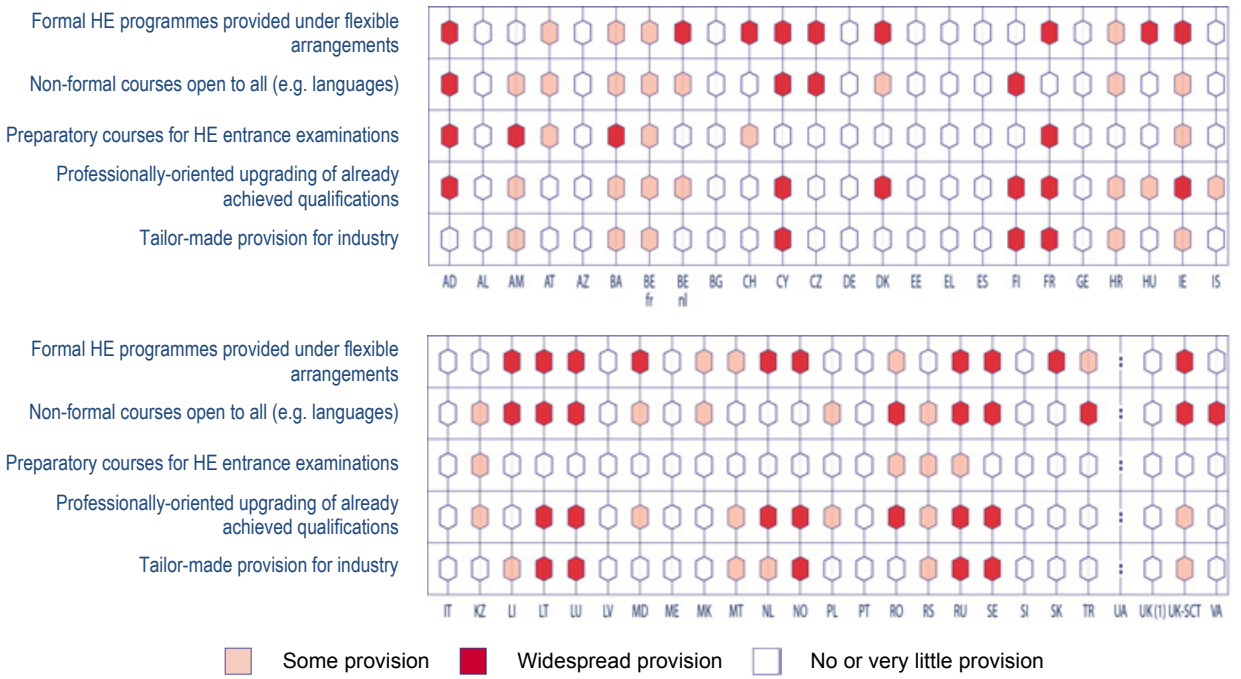
6.1. National understanding of the concept of lifelong learning

Higher education institutions play a central role in the provision of lifelong learning. This topic has been on the Bologna Process agenda from the very beginning, although often considered as a secondary consideration in relation to other objectives. Nevertheless higher education ministers have underlined the necessity to enhance the development of flexible learning pathways, to create opportunities for the recognition of prior learning, to establish national qualifications frameworks and to build closer cooperation between higher education institutions and various external partners, including employers.

The European Universities' Charter on Lifelong Learning recognises that "the terminology of lifelong learning embraces many concepts [...] and is subject to considerable local, regional and national interpretation" (EUA, 2008). This calls for the investigation of how different EHEA countries understand and interpret the concept of lifelong learning within their respective higher education systems.

The results of the BFUG reporting exercise in 2012 showed that while in the majority of EHEA countries steering documents related to higher education refer to lifelong learning, they do not necessarily provide a definition of this term. Most definitions are still broad in the new reporting exercise, referring again to learning 'from cradle to grave' or to all learning activities undertaken by individuals throughout their lives, be they formal, non-formal or informal. However, in addition to the general definitions, there are some examples of focusing lifelong learning on upgrading vocational skills (Estonia, Serbia) and on meeting the needs of labour market and economy (Bulgaria and Serbia). In the Netherlands, the emphasis of Lifelong Learning is for adults who have entered labour-market after initial education, while the Czech Republic includes older citizens as a key target group.

Figure 6.1 Types of Lifelong Learning provision as share of Higher Education Institutions by country, 2013/14



Source: BFUG questionnaire.

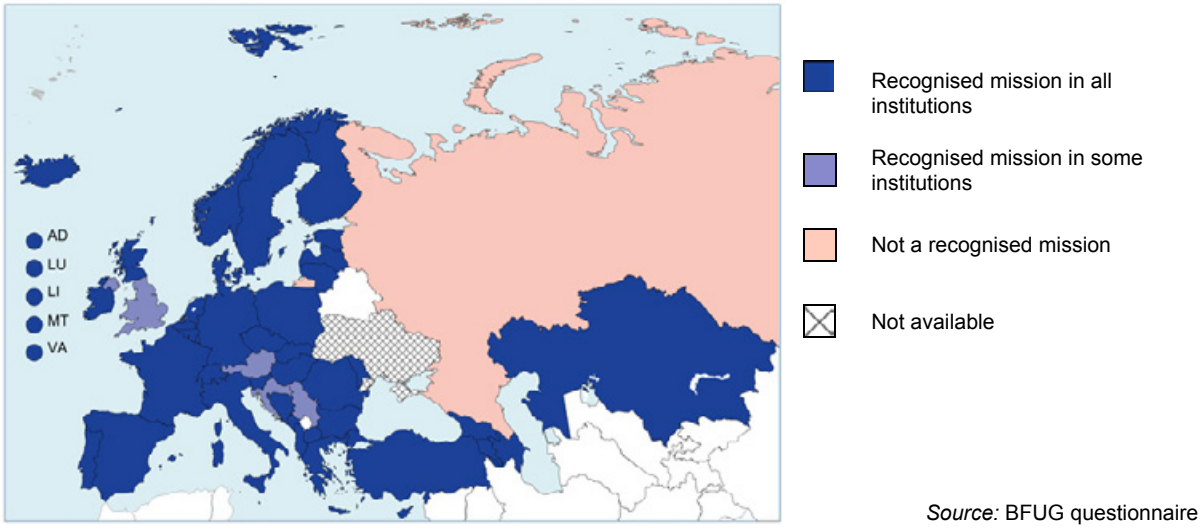
UK (1) = UK-ENG/WLS/NIR

The types of higher education programme that have been developed to address lifelong learning needs are most commonly formal higher education programmes. Such programmes are very well established in about one third of the countries (see Figure 6.1). Non-formal programmes, which include a focus on activities such as language learning and courses for updating professional skills were almost as common. Preparatory courses for entry into higher education were not very common, with only a few countries reporting well established provision (in over 75% of institutions) in this area. In the group of "little or no provision" countries that responded that the share of provision is impossible to estimate are also included.

6.2. Lifelong learning as a recognised mission of higher education institutions

The central position of lifelong learning in policy debates is reflected by the fact that in more than three-quarters of EHEA countries, lifelong learning is a recognised mission of all higher education institutions. Compared to 2012, the role of lifelong learning appears to be gaining ground, as a number of countries claim that lifelong learning has now become a recognised mission in all institutions where it was previously recognised only in some institutions (Armenia, Cyprus, Georgia, Moldova and Poland). Only Austria, Croatia, Serbia and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland now state that it is a mission for only some institutions, while Russia is the only country where lifelong learning is not a recognised mission in any higher education institutions. (see Figure 6.2).

Figure 6.2: Lifelong learning as a recognised mission of higher education institutions, 2013/14



Source: BFUG questionnaire

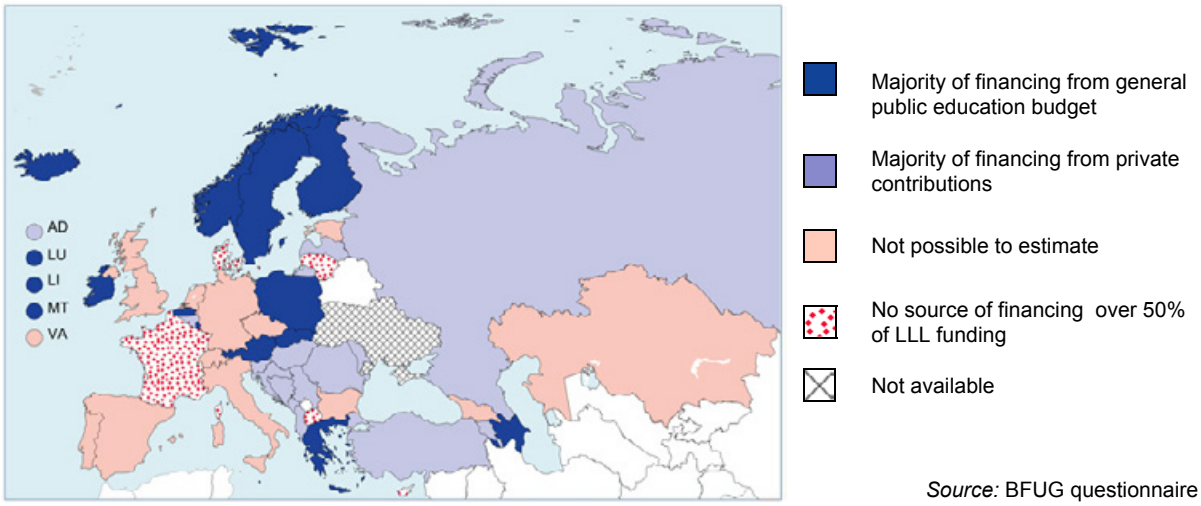
The majority of EHEA countries do not identify any legal restrictions that could prevent higher education institutions to offer lifelong learning provision or services. Ten countries refer to legal constraints related to different segments of lifelong learning in higher education. For example, in Belgium (French Community), it is possible to obtain a certificate or credits, but not an academic degree. In Denmark, only first-cycle studies can be offered.

6.3. Financing lifelong learning

The financing of LLL is a difficult issue to cover as there are few shared conceptions of lifelong learning that can lead to clarity of comparative information regarding funding. However, many

countries have been able to provide data on the funding sources for Lifelong Learning, allowing more detailed analysis than in the 2012 report.

Figure 6.3: Sources of financing for Lifelong Learning, 2013/14



Source: BFUG questionnaire

In 40 out of 48 of EHEA countries, higher education institutions do not have a public budget earmarked specifically for lifelong learning. Only 8 countries have a specifically ear-marked budget for lifelong learning provision. This means that public resources for lifelong learning come mostly from general public budgets, and are often combined with other financial resources, such as private contributions from students or businesses.

As Figure 6.3 shows, in 14 countries (Austria, Azerbaijan, Belgium (Flemish Community, Finland, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Lichtenstein, Luxembourg, Malta, Norway, Poland, Slovakia and Sweden), the general education budget contributes the majority of funds to lifelong learning. Students' contributions form over half of Lifelong learning funding in 15 countries (Albania, Andorra, Armenia, Belgium (French Community), Bosnia-Herzegovina, Croatia, Hungary, Latvia, Moldova, Montenegro, Romania, Russia, Serbia, Slovenia and Turkey).

Private contributions from businesses do not comprise the majority of funding in any system, but they form at least 20% of lifelong learning funding in 11 countries (Albania, Andorra, Belgium (Flemish Community), Bosnia-Herzegovina, Denmark, France, Former Yugoslavian Republic of Macedonia, Italy, Lithuania, Russia and Serbia, being the highest in France (44%). Countries with at least 90% of funding coming from the two sources of students' contributions and contributions from businesses were Albania, Andorra, Armenia, Croatia, Moldova, Montenegro, Russia, Slovenia and Turkey.

6.4. Promoting flexible delivery of higher education programmes

In a larger sense, flexibility in higher education refers to different ways of enabling individuals to follow educational paths adapted to their needs. This section focuses on one aspect of flexibility in higher education, namely flexible modes of delivery of higher education programmes. As shown in section 6.2, a significant proportion of EHEA countries see this type of provision as one of the key elements of lifelong learning in higher education.

6.4.1. Policy approaches targeting flexible delivery of higher education programmes

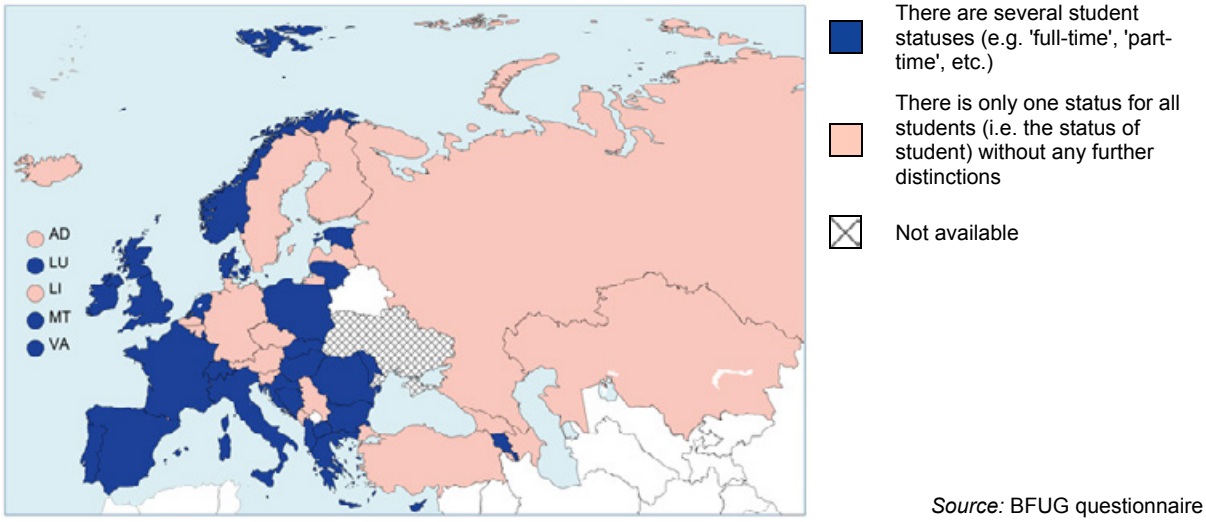
(WILL BE DRAFTED LATER)

6.4.2. Studying in higher education with a formal status other than the status of a full-time student

The concept of a full time student status is clear and understandable across the European Higher Education Area. However, to understand the reality of other kinds of student is more complicated than it may initially appear. This is because terms such as "part-time" for example, mean very different things in different countries – sometimes referring strictly to a notion of time related to teaching/learning hours, and sometimes related to funding arrangements. Rather than trying to analyse national definitions of all the different types of students in a system, this report attempts to identify whether or not there are other kinds of student status in systems.

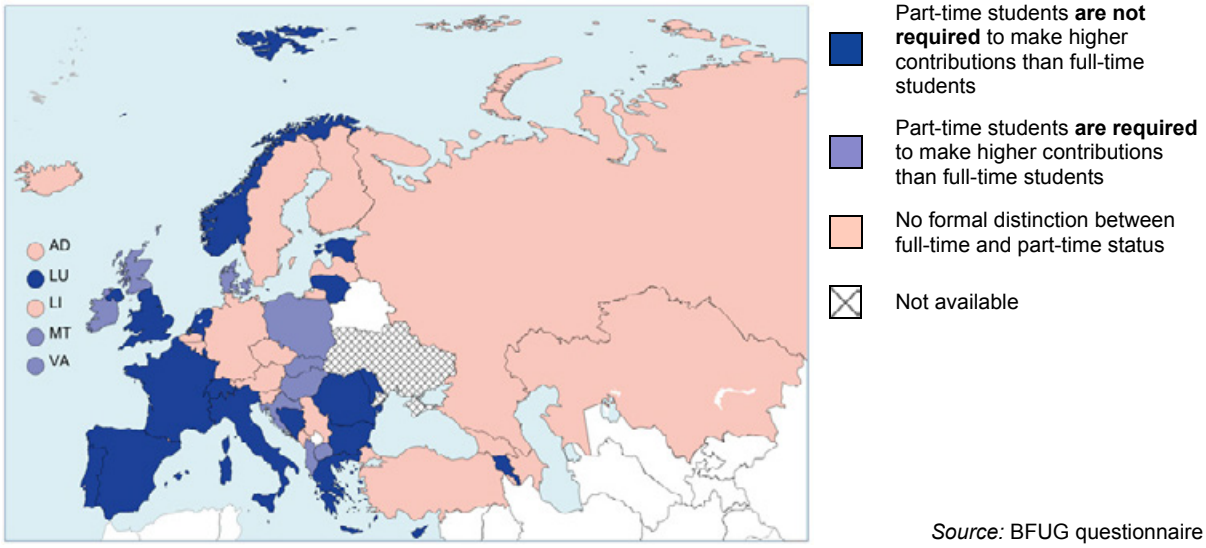
Compared to the 2012 reporting exercise, the situation regarding student status remains very similar. Alongside the status of a full-time student, the majority of countries formally still recognise at least one additional student status. Figure 6.4 provides a picture of the situation across the EHEA. It shows that out of 47 higher education systems for which data is available, in around two-thirds there is an official student status other than the status of a full-time student, and this usually indicates some concept of "part-time" student.

Figure 6.4: Existence of a formal student status other than the status of a full-time student, 2013/14



Source: BFUG questionnaire

Figure 6.5: Impact of formal student status on financial arrangements related to higher education studies, 2013/14

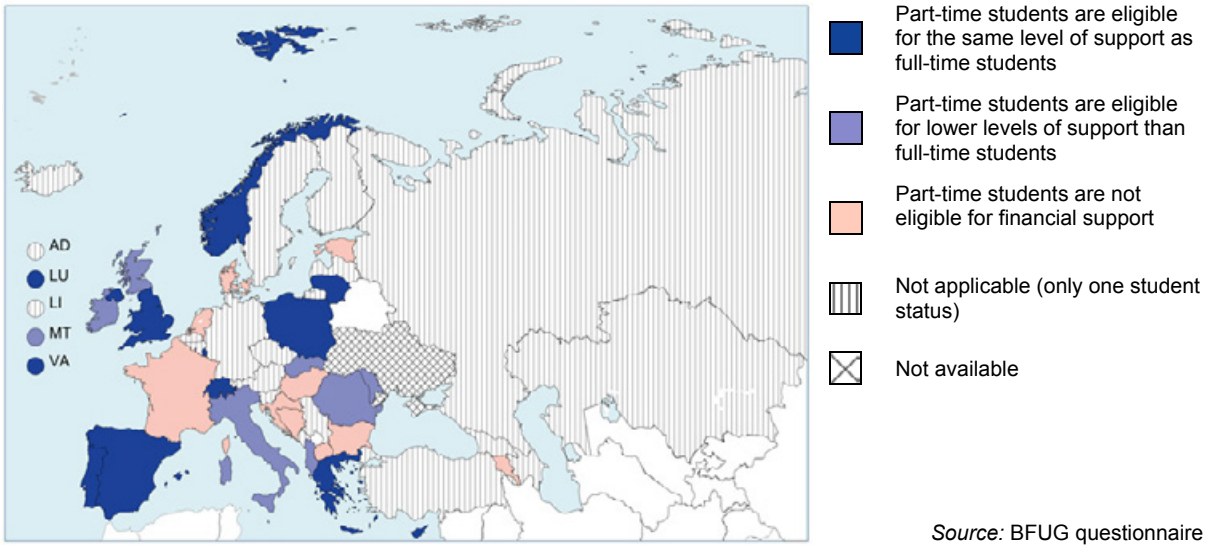


Source: BFUG questionnaire

In eight systems (Albania, Croatia, Denmark, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Holy See, Hungary, Ireland, and Malta), part-time studies are likely to be related to higher private financial investment than full-time studies. For example, in Denmark there are no fees for full-time students, but part-time students are required to contribute financially to their studies, while in Hungary the fees are almost the same as for a full-time programme. In the majority of countries, part-time students are not required to pay higher financial contributions.

The picture regarding the amount of support part-time students receive for the same amount of credits compared to full-time students is also varied. In 11 countries, part-time students are eligible for the same amount of support as full-time students, in 8 countries they receive lower support, while in 10 countries they are not eligible for support.

Figure 6.6. Impact of student status on eligibility of financial support for students

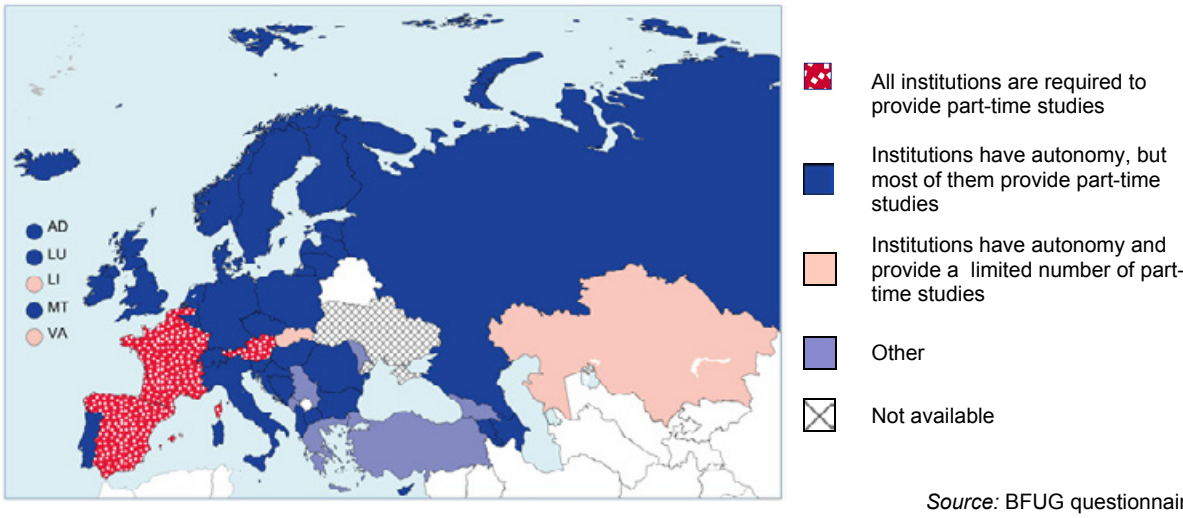


Source: BFUG questionnaire

6.4.3. Provision of part-time studies by higher education institutions

In the majority of EHEA countries, higher education institutions have autonomy to decide whether they will offer studies other than full-time (see Figure 6.7). Compared to 2012 report, the situation is for the most part similar, but some countries have changed their provision of part-time studies. For example, Germany, Iceland and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) report that while the institutions still have autonomy, most of their HE institutions now provide part-time studies, compared to only a limited number in the last reporting exercise. Conversely, in Bosnia-Herzegovina, Kazakhstan and Lithuania, now only a limited number of institutions provide part-time studies. In Slovakia, there no longer is requirement for the provision of part-time studies, and now only limited number of institutions provide part-time studies, while in Estonia, as a result of institutional autonomy, most institutions still provide part-time studies.

Figure 6.7: Provision of part-time studies by higher education institutions, 2013/14



Source: BFUG questionnaire

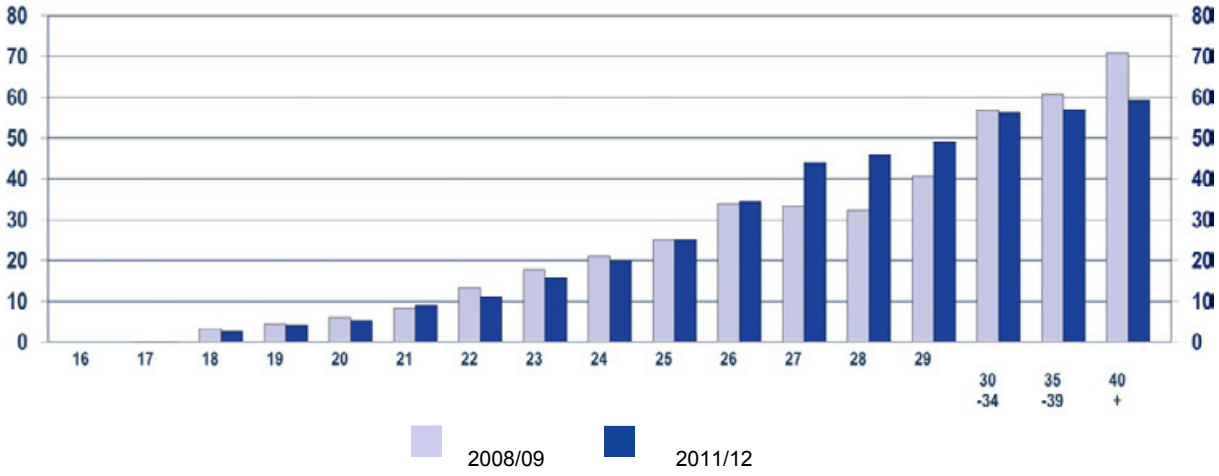
6.4.4. Statistical data on student participation in part-time studies

The information on the extent to which higher education institutions ensure the provision of flexible study options (see section 6.4.3) can be complemented with data on the participation of students in part-time provision. The participation levels are examined through two different data sets, which represent two different approaches to part-time studies. First, they are assessed through administrative data (UOE data collection); second, they are evaluated through students' self-reported assessments of their formal status and study intensity (Eurostudent research).

According to the operational definition used within the UOE data collection, an individual is regarded as a part-time student if he/she is taking an educational programme that requires less than 75 % of a full-time study load. Despite some limitations of this operational definition ([1]), the UOE data collection enables an evaluation of various aspects of participation in part-time studies.

In the 2012 reporting it was found that age is a significant factor in students' decision to pursue their studies on a part-time basis, and that older students are much more likely to study part-time than younger ones. There were some differences found in the new Eurostat data from 2011/12. The number of students studying part-time increased in the age-group 27 to 29-year-olds, while there was a drop in the oldest age group of over 40 year-olds.

Figure 6.8: Median of country percentages for students studying part-time in tertiary education, by age, 2008/09 and 2011/12



		6.1. Median of country percentages for students studying part-time in tertiary education, by age, 2011/12								
	Age	Y16	Y17	Y18	Y19	Y20	Y21	Y22	Y23	
2012	**EHEA median**	0	0,1	2,6	4,1	5,3	9,0	11,2	15,8	
2009	**EHEA median**	0	0,0	3,2	4,3	6,0	8,3	13,4	17,8	
DIFFERENCE 2012-2009		**0**	**0,1**	**-0,6**	**-0,2**	**-0,7**	**0,6**	**-2,2**	**-2,0**	
		Y24	Y25	Y26	Y27	Y28	Y29	Y30_34	Y35_39	Y_GE40
2012	**EHEA median**	20,1	25,0	34,4	43,9	45,9	48,9	56,3	57,0	59,3
2009	**EHEA median**	21,1	25,0	33,9	33,3	32,3	40,6	56,8	60,8	70,8
DIFFERENCE 2012-2009		**-1,1**	**0,0**	**0,5**	**10,6**	**13,6**	**8,3**	**-0,5**	**-3,8**	**-11,5**

([1]) Countries may to some extent differ in the way they measure the study load of students. Ideally, the study load should be measured in terms of the academic value or progress, but it can also be measured in terms of the time/resource commitment or time in classroom. The national data available to countries tends to dictate which of these methods countries use to categorise students as full-time or part-time (UNESCO, OECD & Eurostat, 2010).

Source: Eurostat, UOE

When comparing the result of the current reporting exercise to the last one, some differences in the share of part-time students emerge in both age groups. In both age groups, there was a more than 10 percentage point drop in Latvia, Lithuania and Romania, and in the older age group (30 to 34) in Ireland Slovenia. There were hardly any significant increases in the share of part-time students in the younger age group. In the older age group, the data shows over 10 percentage point increase in Germany, Lichtenstein and Slovenia. However, there were slight decreases in the number of part-time students in the older age group.

Figure 6.9: Percentage of students studying part-time, by country and by age, 2011/12

Difference to 2012 report:

	BE	BG	HR	CY	DK	EE	FI	DE	HU	IS	IE	LV	LI
20-24yo	1,2	-2,2	-0,7	0,0	-1,2	-1,1	-1,2	0,6	-3,3	5,3	-0,5	-10,3	87,3
30-34yo	-0,5	-9,1	-2,5	12,3	1,1	0,3	-0,8	19,7	-2,3	2,7	-19,1	-12,6	13,9
	LT	MT	NL	NO	PL	RO	SK	SI	ES	SE	CH	UK	
20-24yo	-12,8	-2,5	0,0	0,9	-7,6	-15,8	-2,0	-4,4	0,5	-0,9	0,2	-2,6	
30-34yo	-12,1	-4,7	-0,6	-4,0	-2,2	-19,6	-2,3	-16,2	2,3	-0,6	-4,8	-2,7	

Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Figure 6.10: Median of the percentage of students studying part-time in tertiary educaton, by year, 2000-2012

(Figure and analysis to be provided once Eurostat data is verified).

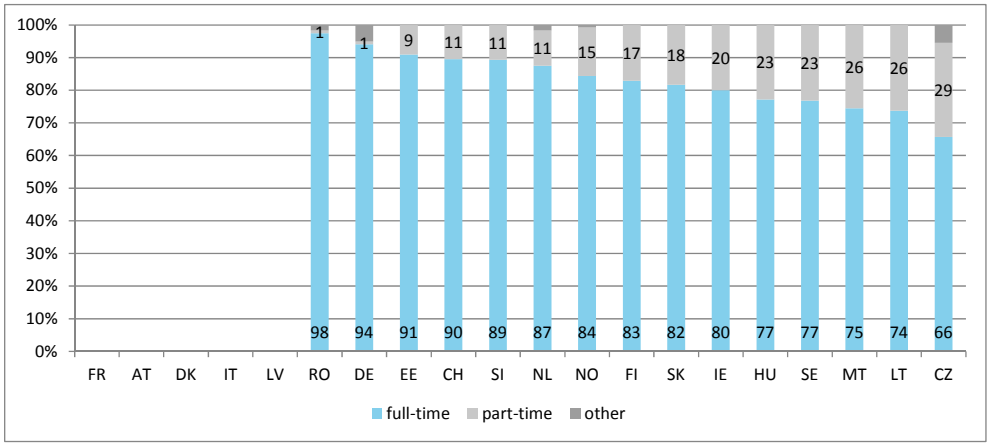
Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Compared to the UOE data collection, Eurostudent research looks at the participation of students in part-time studies from a different perspective. Instead of using an operational definition of part-time studies/students, it takes into account the self-declaration of students regarding their formal student status (for more details see Glossary and Methodological Notes). Data covering 20 EHEA countries indicate that on average, regardless of age, 18.5 % of students have a formal part-time status.

Looking at the situation in individual countries, some significant cross-country differences in the proportion of students who report themselves as studying with a formal part-time status can be observed (Figure 6.10). Compared to the reporting in 2012, in the Czech Republic, Finland and Sweden, the number of students declaring themselves as full-time students rose by over 10 percentage points, corresponding with an opposite effect of decrease in the number of part-time students. In Romania and Norway the number of part-time students fell by about 10 percentage points.

Eurostudent research also enables the evaluation of the relationship between the formal student status and the number of hours students spend during a typical week on study-related activities, i.e. taught courses and personal study.

Figure 6.11: Students by formal status of enrolment (self-reported) in %, 2013/14



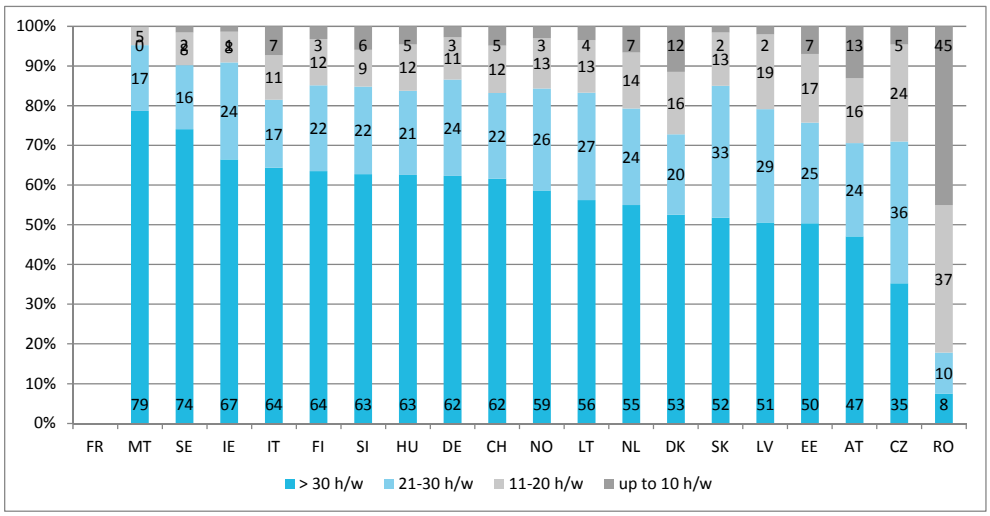
Source: Eurostudent.

Figure 6.12 looks at a typical study week of students who consider themselves as having a full-time status in their respective national system. It shows that a majority of full-time students (70% or more) declare that they dedicate more than 20 hours a week to their study-related activities, so the situation is very similar to the data from 2011. The exception is Romania, where less than 20% of students devote over 20 hours to studies. More than half of these students even devote over 30 hours a week to their studies.

In 2012 in some countries, a significant proportion of full-time students indicated that they only dedicate up to 20 hours a week to studies. This applied in particular to Austria, Finland and Slovakia, where at least one out of four full-time students was characterised by relatively low study intensity. This applies now only to Austria of the countries above, and in addition to the Czech Republic, Denmark and Romania.

Taking into account the situation in all countries, on average, in 2012 17 % of students holding an official status of a full-time student declared that they do not spend more than 20 hours a week on study-related activities. Therefore, in terms of their study intensity, these students can be regarded as de facto part-time students. In the current reporting exercise, this figure has risen to 21%, but is partly due to the situation in Romania, where over 80% of full-time students do not spend more than 20 hours per week for studies, the average without Romania being 19%. It has to be also noted that there was no data for France for this reporting, but Hungary and Slovenia were new countries for which data was availbale.

Figure 6.12: Full-time students by hours spent on study-related activities in a typical week in %, 2013/14



Data source: EUROSTUDENT V, C.11. **No data:** FR.

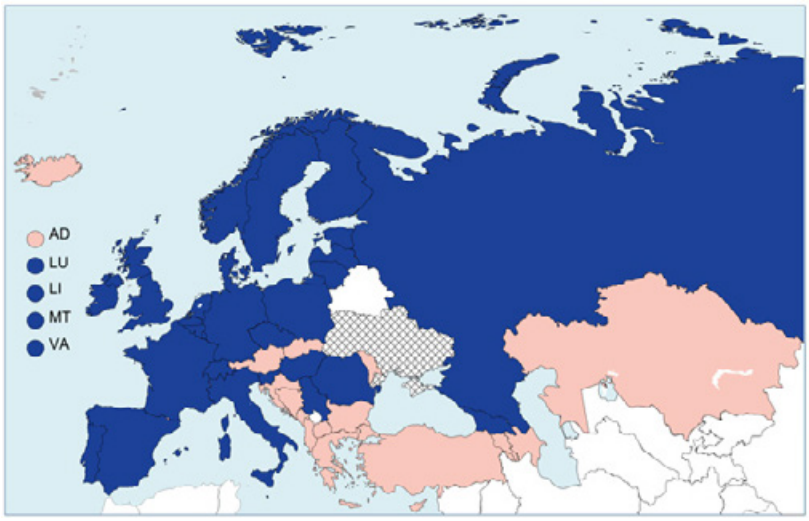
6.5. Recognising prior learning

The establishment of systems for the recognition of all forms of prior learning has become one of the central themes not only in the higher education sector, but also in all other sectors of education and training. Along with the recognition of prior formal learning, which commonly takes place in all countries, particular emphasis is being put on the need to enhance the recognition of the knowledge and skills gained through non-formal and informal learning. This type of the recognition is the main focus of the present section.

From the learner's perspective, the recognition of prior learning is most commonly undertaken with one of the following objectives: to gain admission to a higher education programme or to progress in higher education studies. The chapter on the social dimension of higher education (Chapter 4, Figure 4.10) has examined the extent to which the recognition of prior learning can be used for admission to higher education. It has shown that out of 47 higher education systems for which data is available, 22 systems provide a possibility of an alternative access to higher education, and such access is most often based on the recognition of prior non-formal and informal learning.

The recognition of prior learning for progression in higher education studies implies that learners can be exempt from certain higher education courses if they demonstrate that they already possess the knowledge and skills related to these parts of study. Figure 6.13 provides a mapping of this area. The situation look very similar to the previous reporting exercise. It shows that out of 47 higher education systems for which data is available, in 29 systems prior non-formal and informal learning can be taken into account towards the completion of higher education studies.

Figure 6.13: Recognition of prior learning for progression in higher education studies, 2013/14



Source: BFUG questionnaire

The two above-mentioned dimensions of the recognition of prior learning are brought together under the scorecard indicator covering this theme (see Figure 6.14). The indicator was introduced in 2007 and re-examined in 2009. The current version takes into account the extent to which the two types of recognition are possible within different EHEA systems as well as the extent to which they are used in practice.

SCORECARD INDICATOR ANALYSIS HERE FOR LATER DRAFT:

Figure 6.14: Scorecard indicator n°9: Recognition of prior learning, 2013/14*

MAP HERE

6.6. Participation of mature students and delayed transition students in formal higher education provision

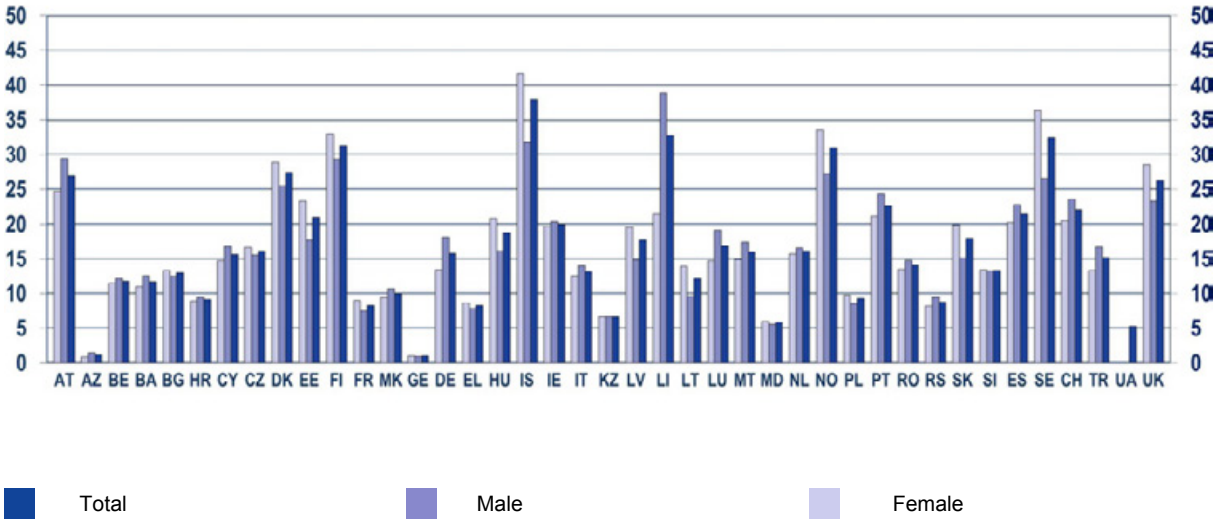
While the preceding sections have been primarily devoted to different policy approaches to lifelong learning across the EHEA, the present section intends to assess how successful the higher education systems are in attracting "lifelong learners". Although there is no perfect measure that would fully cover this area, available data on the participation of mature students (Eurostat) and delayed transition students (Eurostudent) can be used as a proxy to evaluate the degree to which different higher education systems have already established a culture of lifelong learning.

Eurostat data on students aged 30 and over enrolled in higher education show that during the academic year 2008/09, the country median for students in formal higher education programmes was 16 % (see Figure 6.15). However, across 36 countries for which data is available, situations vary significantly. The lowest participation rate is registered in Azerbaijan, where mature students represent only around 2 % of the total student population. It is also relatively low in Croatia, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, France and Poland, where only up to 10 % of students enrolled in the system are mature students. At the other end of the spectrum are the Nordic countries and the United Kingdom, where mature students represent around one third of the total student population (between 29 % and 40 %), However, it must be noted that in the Nordic countries, the "typical" higher education student is generally slightly older than in the majority of other EHEA countries. For example in

Sweden, the most common starting age for 1st cycle tertiary education is 22 and in Finland, it is situated between 20 and 24 years (EACEA/Eurydice, 2010) ([2]).

Data on gender distribution covering 32 countries indicate that in the seven countries with the highest participation levels (i.e. the Nordic countries, the United Kingdom and Latvia), the share of older students is higher among women than among men. The most significant gender gap can be observed in Sweden, Iceland and Latvia, where the share for female mature students is around 10 percentage points higher than for male students. Profiles of other EHEA countries for which data is available are more diverse. In around half of them, the participation rate of men and women is balanced, whereas in other cases there is a gender gap either in favour of men or women. However, where a gender gap exists, it generally does not exceed 5 percentage points.

Figure 6.15: Percentage of students enrolled in tertiary education, total and by gender, 30 or more years old, 2011/12



	NEW DATA									
	AL	**AT**	**AZ**	**BE**	**BA**	**BG**	**HR**	**CY**	**CZ**	**DK**
F	:	24,7	0,8	11,5	11,0	13,4	8,9	14,7	16,6	28,8
M	:	29,4	1,5	12,1	12,6	12,5	9,4	16,7	15,5	25,5
T	:	26,9	1,1	11,8	11,7	13,0	9,1	15,7	16,2	27,4
	EE	**FI**	**FR**	**MK**	**GE**	**DE**	**EL**	**HU**	**IS**	**IE**
F	23,3	33,0	9,0	9,4	1,0	13,4	8,7	20,9	41,6	19,7
M	17,7	29,3	7,5	10,7	0,9	18,1	7,8	16,1	31,8	20,4
T	21,0	31,3	8,3	10,0	1,0	15,8	8,2	18,8	37,9	20,0
	IT	**KZ**	**LV**	**LI**	**LT**	**LU**	**MT**	**MD**	**ME**	**NL**
F	12,5	6,6	19,6	21,4	13,9	14,7	14,9	6,0	:	15,7
M	14,0	6,6	14,8	38,9	9,6	19,1	17,4	5,6	:	16,5
T	13,2	6,6	17,7	32,8	12,1	16,8	16,0	5,8	:	16,1
	NO	**PL**	**PT**	**RO**	**RU**	**RS**	**SK**	**SI**	**ES**	**SE**
F	33,5	9,8	21,1	13,5	:	8,2	19,9	13,4	20,2	36,4
M	27,3	8,6	24,3	14,7	:	9,5	15,1	13,3	22,8	26,6
T	31,0	9,3	22,6	14,1	:	8,8	18,0	13,3	21,4	32,4
	CH	**TR**	**UA**	**UK**						
F	20,5	13,4	:	28,6						
M	23,6	16,7	:	23,3						
T	22,05	15,17	5,3	26,2						

Source: Eurostat, UOE.

([2]) For more details, see also Eurostat publication *Trends in European education during the last decade* (Mejer, Turchetti & Gere, 2011).

Figure 6.16: Percentage of students enrolled in tertiary education, 30 or more years old, in 2008/09 and variation from 2008/09 to 2011/12

(Figure here)

Source: Eurostat, UOE.

Conclusions

(TO BE DRAFTED)

7. INTERNATIONALISATION AND MOBILITY

The Bucharest Communiqué

The themes of internationalisation of higher education and mobility have always been keys elements of the Bologna Process. Indeed, they are seen as significant means to "ensure the quality of higher education, enhance students' employability and expand cross-border collaboration within the EHEA and beyond"([1]). The 2012 Bologna Ministerial Conference gave a boost to these elements mainly in adopting the Mobility Strategy for the EHEA as an addendum to the Bucharest Communiqué. The Mobility Strategy outlines key action required by the EHEA countries to pave the way for more high quality mobility exchanges and fewer obstacles across the continent.

Chapter outline

This chapter aims to assess the progress that the EHEA countries have made since the 2012 Implementation Report regarding the internationalisation of their higher education system. The previous Report mostly focussed on mobility (of students and, to a lower extent, staff), as the main instrument of internationalisation. The current chapter will naturally address mobility issues, with a stronger emphasis on mobility staff than the 2012 Report as new data has become available, but will also present new elements in order to give a clear idea of where the EHEA internationalisation process is.

The first section focuses on the engagement of the EHEA countries with the internationalisation of higher education. It looks at national and institutional strategies, national steering documents and others indicators of countries engagement. It gives also a picture of the EHEA countries' main regions of operation for different forms of internationalisation. The second section addresses mobility issues. Firstly, it assesses the progression of student mobility flows and examines the obstacles that still remain in this field. Secondly, it looks at staff mobility issues. The third section examines increasingly important instruments for the European higher education internationalisation.

([1]) Bucharest Communiqué: Making the Most of Our Potential: Consolidating the European Higher Education Area, 26-27 April 2012, p. 3.

7.1. Engagement on internationalisation

Countries' engagement to internationalisation can be assessed through several elements such as national strategy and steering documents, the levels of public institutions involved in internationalisation, the budget for internationalisation and the scope of international activities.

National strategy

The BFUG reporting data show that less than half of the EHEA countries have adopted a formal national strategy for internationalisation of higher education (see figure below). However, it should be underlined that the term of "national strategy" is broad and rather complicated. In this regard, countries' national strategies are very diverse. In some countries, it is a document in itself, while in other it is part of a global national higher education strategy. Strategies can be very general or they can focus on specific topics. Some contain general objectives whereas others list very concrete measures in order to implement internationalisation.

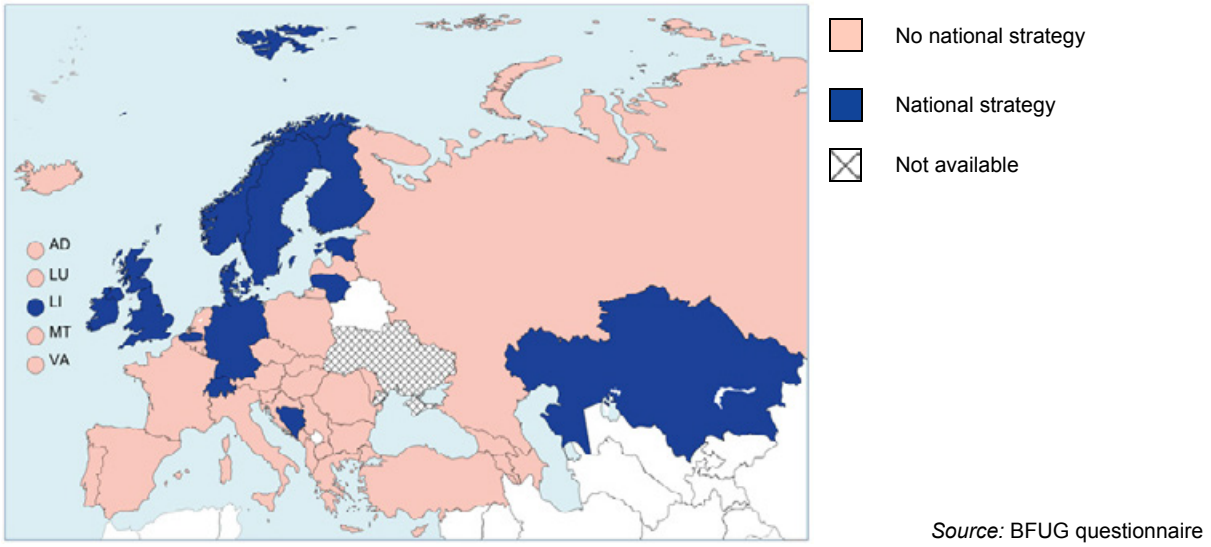
For example, the Federal Government and the *Länder* in Germany have adopted a common strategy in April 2013, which defines nine fields of action for promoting the internationalisation of the higher education institutions along with a joint policy goal with strategies for each field. The national strategy of the Flemish Community of Belgium has been developed as an action plan and focusses on mobility issues, while in Norway it is presented in the form of a report, with a list of objectives. In Estonia, the "Strategy for the internationalisation of Estonian higher education over the years 2006–2015" is part of the global Strategy for Higher Education. It addresses several significant issues such as the legal environment that supports internationalisation (quality assurance, migration policy, recognition of qualifications), student mobility, the share of international academic staff and the internationalisation of study programmes. It plans to develop monitoring activities, but the entire strategy has not yet been assessed. In fact, among the countries that have adopted a national strategy, only four, namely, Finland, Ireland, Lithuania and the United Kingdom (Scotland) have assessed it or are planning to do so in the near future. These strategies are generally assessed by ministries of education.

It seems that, until now, having a formal national strategy for internationalisation of higher education has not been a top priority for the majority of the EHEA countries. It might be interesting to see to what extent the EU Communication *European higher education in the world* ([2]), which encourages member

([2]) European Commission, 2013. *European higher education in the world*. Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions. [Online] Available at: http://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:52013DC0499&from=EN [Accessed 23 October 2014].

states to develop “comprehensive internationalisation strategies”, will have an impact on EU and non EU countries on this matter.

Figure 7.x: Countries that have adopted a formal national strategy for internationalisation of higher education

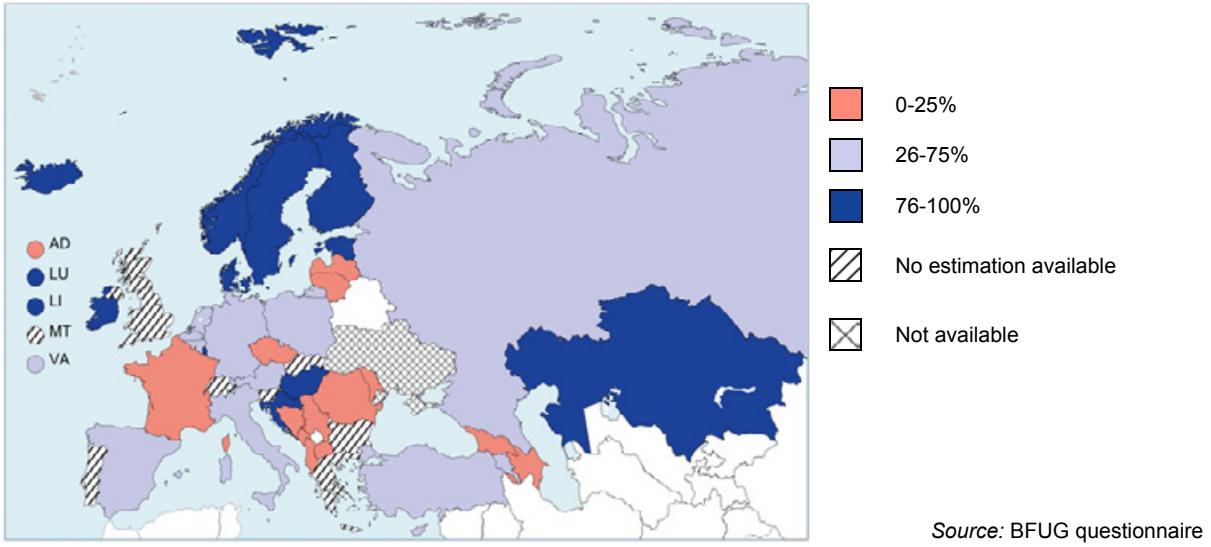


Source: BFUG questionnaire

Institutional strategies

On the institutional level, countries were asked to give an estimate of higher education institutions that have adopted an internationalisation strategy (figure below).

Figure 7.x: Estimate percentage of higher education institutions that have adopted an internationalisation strategy



Source: BFUG questionnaire

Around a quarter of the EHEA countries estimate that their national higher education institutions have widely adopted internationalisation strategies (76-100%). More precisely, six countries, namely

Estonia, Finland, Iceland, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg and Norway, stipulate that all higher education institutions have an internationalisation strategy.

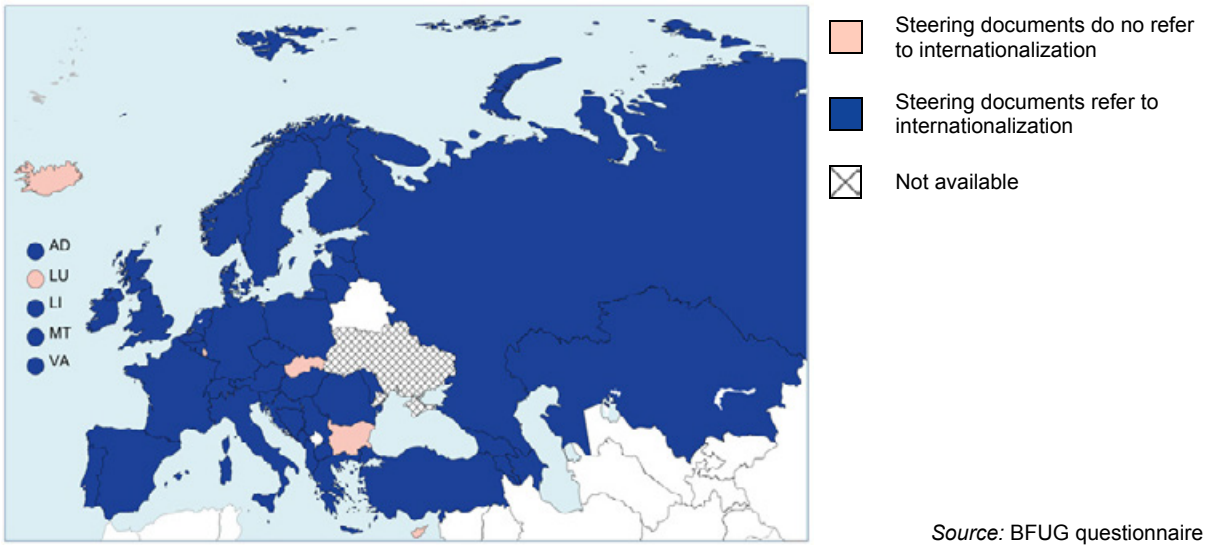
Almost a third of the EHEA countries estimate that only few national higher education institutions have adopted an internationalisation strategy (0-25%). Andorra, Azerbaijan, Georgia and Montenegro state that none of their higher education institutions have such a strategy. However, this does not mean that these institutions are not engaged in internationalisation actions. For instance, in Georgia, 26-50% of higher education institutions are estimated being engaged in international actions, although they have not adopted any formal strategy. Similarly, Armenia and Austria estimate that a minority of their national higher education institutions (26-50%) have adopted an internationalisation strategy, but specify that 76% to 99% of their higher education institutions are involved in internationalisation actions.

The main conclusion that can be drawn from countries' answers is that higher education institutions are highly engaged in internationalisation actions although they do not have a formal strategy. It might be worth looking at particular institutional strategies in order to assess the way they are implemented, communicate and monitored, through examining best practices.

Steering documents

The engagement of the EHEA member states with internationalisation is clear when looking at higher education national steering documents. Indeed, almost all countries across the EHEA have higher education steering documents referring to internationalisation of higher education (figure below). Only five countries, namely, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Iceland, Luxembourg and Slovakia have no such reference in their steering documents.

Figure 7.x: Countries in which steering documents refer to internationalisation of higher education



Source: BFUG questionnaire

Based on information from reporting countries, the more common aims or objectives mentioned in steering documents refer to increasing the mobility flows of students and staff and improving the attractiveness and the competitiveness of their national higher education institutions. Engaging in more joint programmes/degrees and in other types of international collaboration is also an important aim for many countries.

In order to achieve these objectives and carry on the implementation of internationalisation, EHEA member states have adopted a wide range of concrete measures. For example, in order to attract more foreign students, Armenia, the Czech Republic, Denmark, France, Latvia, Norway, Poland and the United Kingdom (Scotland) have adopted measures aiming at improving existing or developing new information channels (mainly websites) about their programmes or their higher education institutions/systems. Poland has developed a new portal for candidates from abroad available in several foreign languages. Moreover, the Czech Republic stresses the importance of participating in international fairs as another channel to promote Czech higher education abroad. The government of Denmark has planned to enter into dialogue with private foundations and businesses in order to encourage them to provide scholarships or grants to attract skilled international students. Croatia, Denmark, Montenegro and Slovenia have measures aiming at providing courses or study programmes in foreign languages.

Regarding international staff, the Slovenian government aims to introduce supplementary support mechanism for foreign experts such as assistance with child care or accommodation. The government of Croatia is planning to introduce a scholarship scheme for attracting foreign postdoctoral students and higher education institutions are asked to include a percentage of foreign teaching staff into the human resources plan referring to the period 2014-2025.

In order to promote mobility, Denmark and France refer to giving more information/advice for national students who would be interested in undertaking a part of their studies abroad. The Flemish

Community of Belgium, Lithuania and the United Kingdom (Scotland) foster student mobility through the promotion of international work placements.

Denmark and Croatia underline that mobility can be facilitated if internal barriers to mobility are removed. For instance, measures in Denmark stipulate that an automatic recognition of credits should be introduced for all preapproved study-abroad programmes. The Flemish Community of Belgium, Denmark and France underline the importance of designing study programmes that include a mobility window, which enables students to be mobile. In addition, In order to simplify the immigration procedure, Denmark will digitalise the application process for student residence permit and Italy has simplified their visa procedures for students.

In the field of cooperation, a certain number of countries have adopted measures in order to increase the number of joint programmes/degrees, summer schools or other types of collaboration with strategic partnerships. For instance, steering documents in Denmark and Finland include measures aiming at strengthening cooperation based on partnerships with emerging countries in the fields of mobility and research. Moreover, in order to remove some of the obstacles that prevent cooperation projects to be created, Italy has made the requirements that higher education institutions have to fulfil to open a joint programme or international programmes less restrictive.

7.1.1. Levels of public institutions involved in internationalisation

The internationalisation of higher education institutions in the EHEA is not only a responsibility for ministries of education or universities. Indeed, in most of the countries, it is shared between several national public stakeholders, on different levels.

The most common level of public institutions involved is the ministry level. In Andorra, Cyprus, Denmark, the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Iceland, Kazakhstan, Russia, Turkey and the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), this is the only level involved in internationalisation. Many countries mention that one or several agencies are playing a major role in the internationalisation of higher education. This is particularly the case of the French Community of Belgium, France, Germany, the Netherlands and Norway. The Agency Wallonia-Brussels Campus, in the French Community of Belgium, was established in 2010 by the Ministry and Wallonia-Brussels International, with main objectives to inform and promote French-speaking Belgium higher education abroad. In Norway, the Centre for International Cooperation in Higher Education was established as an administrative agency under the Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research (KD). The Centre aims to promote and facilitate co-operation and mobility, coordinate international programmes,

promote cooperation between HEIs, create a knowledge base and analyse results and the impact of internationalisation.

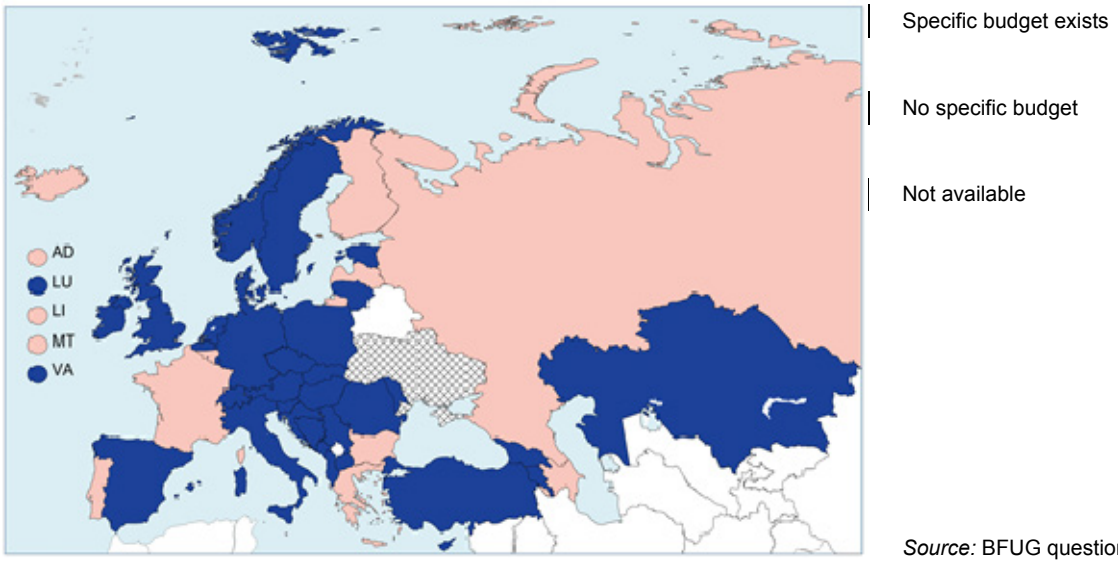
Other stakeholder organisations are taking part in the internationalisation of higher education. The most common is the Rectors Conferences, but some countries have particular stakeholders, as the new established International Relations Commission, within the Academy for Research and Higher Education of the French Community of Belgium.

Two countries, namely Bulgaria and Greece, have no designated institutions involved in the internationalisation of higher education.

7.1.2. Budget and incentives for internationalisation

Around two thirds of countries report having specific budget for funding internationalisation activities in higher education (see figure below). For instance, in Belgium (Flemish Community) the budget for mobility grants to students amounted to 3.8 M€ in 2013-2014, and it will increase up to 7.0 M€ by 2019-2020. In the Czech Republic, a special budgetary item, Indicator D - International Cooperation, comprises roughly 2% of the budget for all educational activities. In Denmark, part of the state funding for higher education institutions is allocated on the basis of the number of international exchange students, as well as Danish exchange students going abroad. In Italy the dedicated budget for internationalisation activities includes 12M€ for outgoing credit mobility, 5M€ for outgoing credit mobility for placements abroad, 1,5M€ for joint programmes and for international students and the multiannual strategic planning allocates further resources (up to 13M€) to internationalisation and mobility.

Figure X: Specific budget for internationalisation activities in higher education

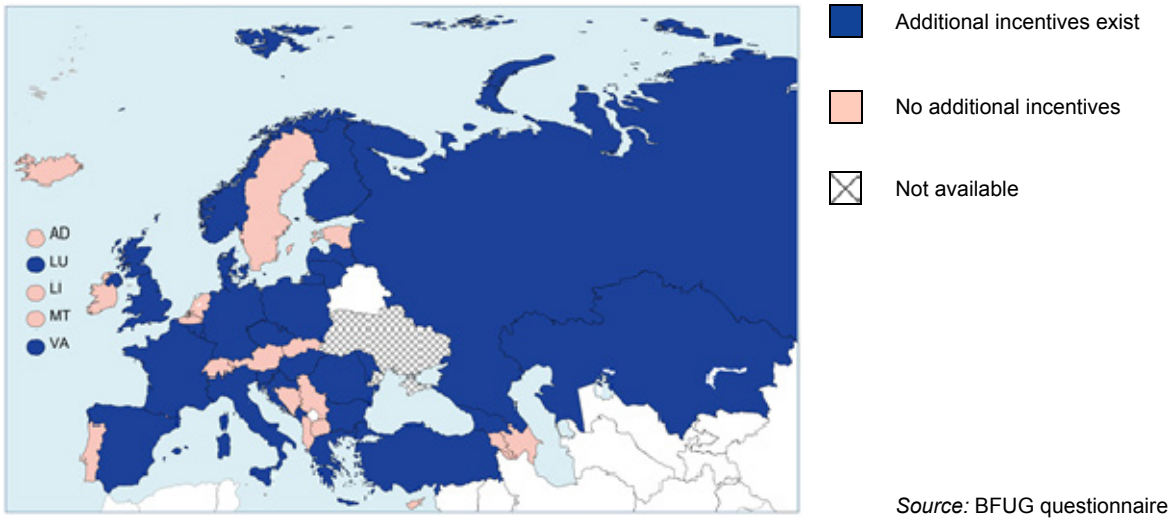


Source: BFUG questionnaire

Other incentives

Around half of the countries provide other kinds of incentives for higher education institutions to engage in internationalisation activities (see figure below). A number of countries refer to internationalisation as one of the areas specified in the performance and funding contracts between the higher education institutions and the government. A specific mention is also made of the EU funded programmes for mobility. These programmes represent important incentives, especially in non-EU countries like Moldova, Georgia and Turkey, as well as Bulgaria. In Lithuania and Slovenia, projects funded by the EU Structural funds, include the co-financing of internationalisation activities.

Figure X: Other incentives for higher education institutions to engage in internationalisation activities



Source: BFUG questionnaire

In Croatia, within the Pilot Programme agreements concluded between the Ministry and HEIs on funding of teaching activities, some higher education Institutions have chosen the internationalisation as a specific aim and they are entitled to a bonus. Additional measures have been envisaged by the Operational Programme Efficient Human Resources for 2014-2020.

In Finland, a higher level of internationalisation is rewarded through the funding model that is based on certain criteria ie. student mobility, the number of foreign staff at universities etc. In the framework of national initiatives to support mobility and internationalisation, funding for HE institutions is allocated through various instruments by CIMO (mobility with Russia, cooperation with China etc. more information at www.cimo.fi) as well as other actors.
In Luxembourg, the engagement in internationalisation activities is mandatory for HEI. This obligation is specified in the contract between the university and the government and funfing depends on compliance with the contract.

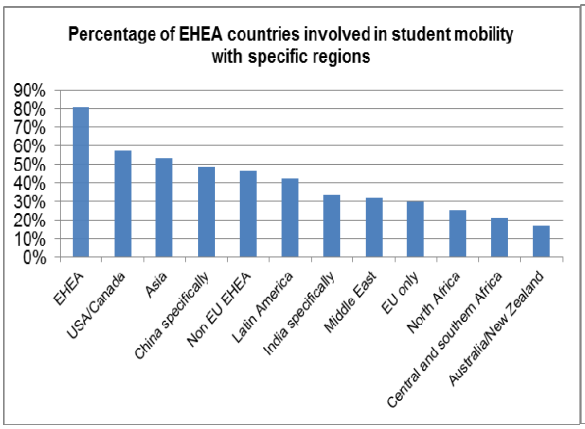
In Poland, an internationalisation index (calculated on the basis of the number of international students and doctoral incoming to a HE and the number of outgoing students and doctoral students from the HE I) is one of the elements of the formula used to calculate the annual ammount of funding for teaching.

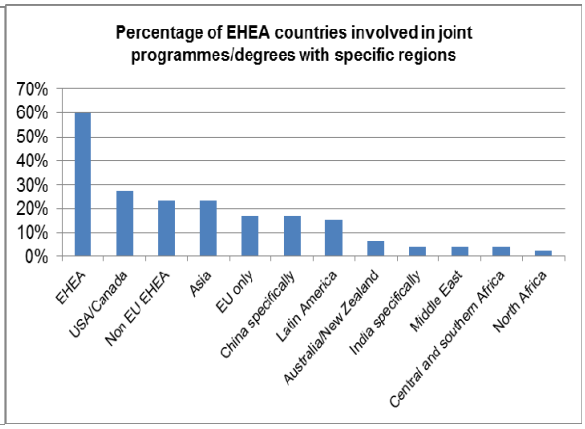
7.1.3. Policy dialogue

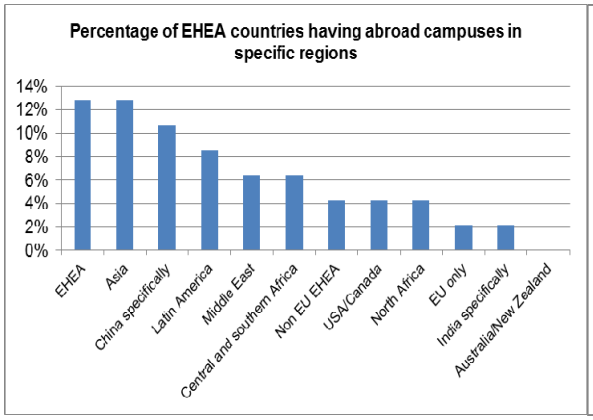
The majority of countries report that, since 2012, ministers responsible for higher education have participated in a number of international fora that aim to support mobility. These meetings include the 2012 Bologna Policy Forum, other bilateral and /or multilateral ministerial dialogues and various international events. Only the ministers of Greece, Hungary, the Netherlands and Slovenia have not attended any of the events mentioned above.

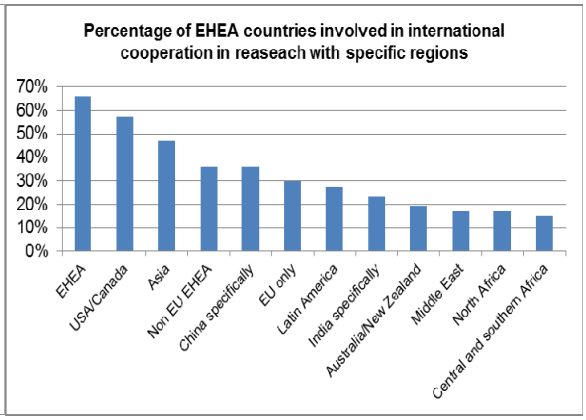
7.1.4. Regions of operation

Countries were asked to identify the main regions where they have specific forms of internationalisation, namely, international student mobility, joint programmes/degrees, campuses abroad and international cooperation in research. The figures below present the result in percentage of participation ([3]).









Not surprisingly, the EHEA is the priority region of operation for the four forms of internationalisation, with a clear advantage regarding student mobility and the implementation of joint

([3]) Government in the United Kingdom (Engalnd, Wales, and Northern Ireland) does not collect statistics on these particular issues.

programmes/degrees. Asia and USA/Canada are also given priority regardless the form of internationalisation.

Student mobility

As mentioned above, the countries of EHEA prioritise the EHEA region (more than 80%) regarding the international student mobility. This is followed by USA/Canada (57%), Asia (53%), China (49%), "non EU EHEA countries" (47%) and Latin America (43%). Only the Australia/New Zealand region falls under the 20% line with 17%.

Although the EHEA region takes an important place, global results show that international mobility of students is a "world-oriented" form of internationalisation. This is probably due to the fact that the conclusion of mobility agreements between higher education institutions does not involve a lot of resources and time. Thus it is possible for one institution to sign mobility agreements in several regions of the world.

Joint programmes/degrees

As regard to the development of joint programmes/degrees, the EHEA region has also a clear advantage (60%) over the other regions. Indeed, this region is followed by USA/Canada (28%), "non EU EHEA countries" (23%), Asia (23%), EU countries (17%), China (17%) and Latin America (15%). Australia/New Zealand, India, the Middle East and Central, Southern and North Africa are far less chosen for implementing joint programmes/degrees (less than 6%).

The reasons for which the EHEA countries are focussing on specific regions for creating joint programmes/degrees may be explained by a certain numbers of facts. Firstly, developing and implementing a joint programme or a joint degree involve quite a lot of resources and time in a higher education institution point of view. Indeed, there are often many details to foresee and administrative obstacles to overcome for both partners. Higher education institutions are therefore limited in the number of partners they can cooperate with and they need to identify strategic partners. The choice of strategic partners is often driven by the geographic proximity, the expertise in a particular area of study, cultural similarities (similarity in manner of doing things) or the length and the quality of the bilateral relation involving students and professors/researchers. For instance, it can be interesting for two higher education institutions to develop a joint programme/degree after being involved in a satisfying student mobility agreement for a certain period of time. Secondly, it is evident that migration policies play an important role in allowing joint programmes/degrees to be created or not. In some

cases migration policies are clear obstacles to this form of internationalisation with certain regions of the world.

Campuses abroad

Regarding the implementation of campuses abroad, EHEA countries prioritise the EHEA region (13%), Asia (13%) and China specifically (11%), and, to a lower extent Latin America (9%), the Middle East (6%) and Central and southern Africa (6%). These choices can be influenced by several different factors such as the potential number of students, the national demand, existing relations between two specific countries and administrative and operational obstacles. The Australia/New Zealand region is the priority of none of the EHEA countries.

International cooperation in research

As for the international cooperation in research, the EHEA region and USA/Canada are prioritised regions of operation (more than 50%). These regions are followed by Asia (47%), "non EU EHEA countries" (36%), China (36%), EU countries (30%), Latin America (28%) and India (23%). Australia/New Zealand, Middle East, Central, Southern Africa and North Africa are less prioritised but they remain interesting regions for many EHEA countries.

Other forms of internationalisation

Among other forms of internationalisation, the French Community of Belgium mentions staff mobility through a specific grant programme with priority for Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia and Mexico, whereas Finland mentions its involvement in institutional capacity building with developing countries.

It should be noted that Albania, the Flemish Community of Belgium, Liechtenstein, Portugal and Slovakia have no targeted regions for any forms of internationalisation.

It is clear that some regions are less prioritise for all forms of internationalisation. Migration policies, security issues, operational obstacles or just the geographical remoteness can slow down the development of relations in higher education in these parts of world. The challenge is to remove these obstacles, in order to give the opportunity to all regions to cooperate in higher education.

Conclusion

[General conclusion to be developed]

7.2. Mobility

Mobility is a significant instrument of internationalisation and it has always been at the heart of the Bologna Process. However, it is a complex issue and one has to take into account the several aspects included in the term "mobility". Firstly, there are two main "mobile groups", namely, students and staff. Staff encompasses academic, administrative or technical employees. Secondly, regarding student mobility, a distinction is to be made between incoming and outward mobility as well as between degree or credit mobility.

This section will first have a look to student mobility. It will show and analyse new data on mobility flows. It will then examine the obstacles to student mobility that still remain and present some measures countries adopt to support mobility. The second part of the section will address staff mobility issues.

7.2.1. Student mobility

According to Eurostat, **degree mobility** is a long-term form of mobility which aims at acquiring a whole degree or certification in the country of destination. **Credit mobility** is a short-term form of mobility – usually a maximum of one year – aiming at acquiring credits in a foreign institution in the framework of on-going studies at the home institution.

While information on degree mobility has for some years been collected through administrative sources, credit mobility data has not yet been collected this way. The only credit mobility data systematically collected is currently collected through EU sponsored programmes such as Erasmus. However, even though all programme information data are put together, it is clear that the coverage of credit mobile students would be incomplete unless efforts at national level could be increased to cover all students who have had a recognised stay abroad within formal education.

The other distinction to be made concerns the mobility flows. **Incoming mobility** takes the perspective of the country of destination – the country where the student moves to in order to study – and is usually measured by the ratio between the mobile students studying in the country and the total number of students studying in the country. The incoming mobility rate may be considered as an indicator of the country' attractiveness, relative to the size of its tertiary education system. **Outward mobility** takes the perspective of the country of origin – the country from where the student moves. While for many students this will be identical to the country of the student's nationality, it is more accurate to consider the country of permanent/prior residence or prior education. Outward mobility can be measured by the ratio of the number of mobile students from the country of origin to the total student population of the same country of origin. The outward mobility rate may be considered as an indicator of a pro-active policy for students to acquire international experience (particularly for credit mobility). However, it may also be an indicator of possible insufficiencies in the education system of the country of origin (particularly for degree mobility).

While degree and credit mobility are the main forms of mobility under consideration in this report, other forms should not be forgotten. Mobility encompasses a wide range of short-term provision such as

internships/work placements, research stays, summer schools, language courses and voluntary work. Statistical data on these types of mobility are, however, not collected at European level.

7.2.1.1. Target setting

During the 2012 Bologna Ministerial Conference, ministers reaffirmed their commitment to the mobility target formulated at Leuven/Louvain-la-Neuve in 2009, that is, that at least 20 % of those graduating in the European Higher Education Area should have had a study or training period abroad by 2020.

[Section on target setting - to be further developed]

Targets for incoming students with a first degree outside the EHEA

In order to better assess the international attractiveness of the EHEA, countries were asked whether targets have been defined for incoming international students with a first degree obtained outside the EHEA. According to reporting data, no countries have clear targets on this particular topic.

Other targets

Some countries have defined other targets related to the internationalisation of higher education, such as percentages of mobile academic staff or international partnerships. In Finland, mobility targets have been set for incoming and outgoing staff in universities and polytechnics. For example, by 2015, incoming university teachers and researchers should reach the share of 29%. In the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, the Higher Education Act stipulates that, on a yearly basis, at least 3% of the professors of any higher Education institutions need to realise activities as visiting professors in a foreign higher education institution. In Lithuania, the share of teachers who are taking part in the Erasmus mobility programme is defined at 10% for 2020).

Regarding international collaborations, the percentage of cooperative agreements on joint degrees between international and Danish educational institutions should increase by 20% by 2020, compared to 2012 (measured per sector). Latvia sets the target of 30 successfully implemented joint study programmes by 2020. In France, the target concerns the annual numbers of foreign doctoral candidates registered in a « co-tutelle » or in joint international supervision of thesis. They should be 2000 in 2015 according to the target defined by the 2014 annual performance plan (versus 1695 in 2013).

[Short conclusion to be included]

7.2.1.2. Student mobility flows

Mobility in Europe should not, and cannot, be separated from trends at global level. Even when the focus is on European countries, mobility flows from other continents to Europe as well as flows of European students worldwide form a significant part of the picture. Overall, three main student mobility flows can be distinguished: degree mobility flows from outside the EHEA to the EHEA; degree mobility

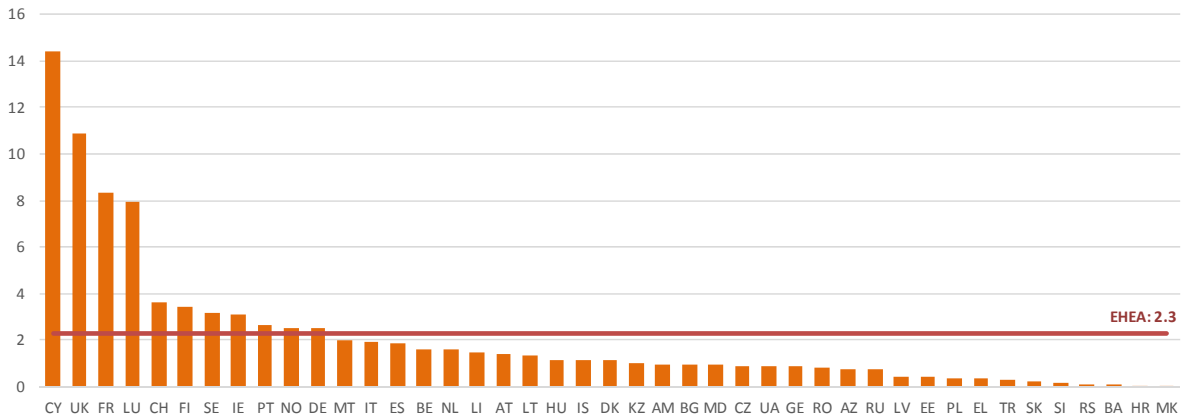
flows from inside the EHEA to outside the EHEA and, finally, degree and credit mobility flows within the EHEA.

Inward degree mobility flows from outside the EHEA to the EHEA

Figure 7.1 depicts the incoming degree mobility rate to EHEA countries, showing mobile students from the whole world coming to each EHEA country for which data is available. Thus, this indicator shows only part of the inflow of students for a given country, it compares the number of students from outside the EHEA that were attracted in the country, with the total population of student enrolled in the country concerned. The value of the indicators thus depends on the relative size of the hosting tertiary education system and on the mobility patterns of domestic students: *ceteris paribus*, two tertiary education systems that attract the same number of students from outside the EHEA but that send out different flows of students abroad will display different incoming mobility rate from outside EHEA.

It should be underlined that for less than a third of the countries in Figures 7.1 and 7.2, the concept used is foreign citizenship/nationality and not mobile students *per se*. This makes the statistics less relevant in terms of measuring mobility flows.

Figure 7.1 (indicator 7.1): Incoming degree mobility rate – tertiary education mobile students from outside the EHEA studying in the country as a percentage of the total number of students enrolled, by country of destination, 2011/12



CY	UK	FR	LU	CH	FI	SE	IE	PT	NO	DE	MT	IT	ES	BE	NL	LI	AT	LT
14.4	10.9	8.3	7.9	3.7	3.4	3.2	3.1	2.7	2.5	2.5	2.0	1.9	1.8	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.3

HU	IS	DK	KZ	AM	BG	MD	CZ	UA	GE	RO	AZ	RU	LV	EE	PL	EL	TR	SK
1.2	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3

SI	RS	BA	HR	MK
0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0

Notes: [To be included]. EHEA is the EHEA weighted average.
Source: Eurostat, UOE and additional collection for the other EHEA countries.

Students from outside the EHEA make up for more than 5 % of the total student population in only four countries, namely Cyprus, the United Kingdom, France and Luxembourg. At the other end of the

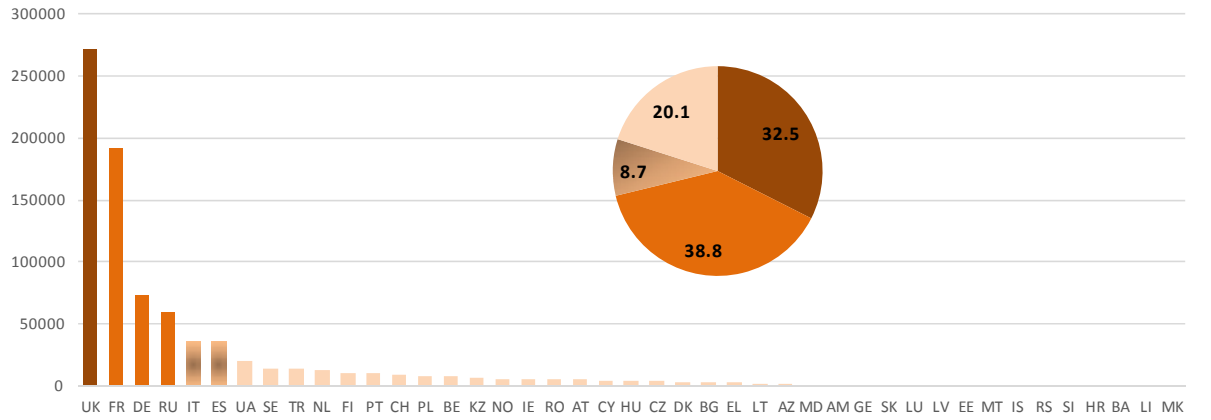
spectrum, 17 countries reach less than 1 %. The weighted average of all EHEA countries is 2.27 % (Andorra, Albania, Montenegro and Holy See not included).

Figure 7.1 should be complemented by the distribution of tertiary mobile students from outside the EHEA (see Figure 7.2). Indeed, the most attractive EHEA countries are those countries which attract the lion's share of the total flow of mobile students from outside the EHEA. Four countries – the United Kingdom, France, Germany and Russia – attract 71.2 % of all non-EHEA mobile students enrolled in the EHEA.

The United Kingdom with more than 270 000 students is the EHEA country that attracts the most of mobile students from outside the EHEA (32.5 %); France is second with slightly more than 191 000 students (accounting for nearly 23 % of the total inflow from outside the EHEA). Germany and Russia belong to the top four but with far lower shares of the inflow (8.8 % and 7.1 % respectively): in these countries, students from outside the EHEA account for 2.5 % and 0.7 % of the total population of enrolled students (see Figure 7.1). Italy and Spain, show a similar profile: they both host around 36 000 students from outside the EHEA which represents 1.9 % and 1.8 % of their total population of students.

The remaining EHEA countries host altogether around 168 000 students from outside the EHEA. It is four times less than the total registered by the top six countries.

Figure 7.2 (indicator 7.2): Distribution of incoming degree tertiary education mobile students from outside the EHEA by country of destination, 2001/12



UK	FR	DE	RU	IT	ES	UA	SE	TR	NL	FI	PT	CH	PL	BE	KZ	NO	IE	RO
271893	191716	73419	59542	36748	36250	20272	14514	14120	12552	10615	10374	9840	7819	7612	6522	5990	5942	5764

AT	CY	HU	CZ	DK	BG	EL	LT	AZ	MD	AM	GE	SK	LU	LV	EE	MT	IS	RS
5269	4576	4404	3980	3101	2754	2584	2347	1423	1176	1173	824	579	482	422	269	247	219	193

SI	HR	BA	LI	MK
157	91	84	14	3

Note: [To be included].

Source: Eurostat, UOE and additional collection for the other EHEA countries.

Outward degree mobility flows from inside the EHEA to outside the EHEA

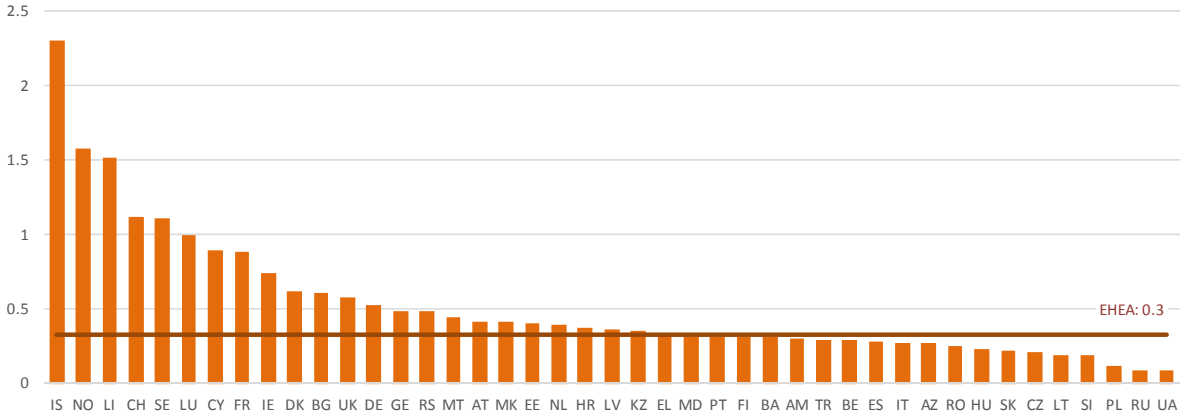
The outward degree mobility rate of a country shows mobile students that are enrolled abroad, as a percentage of the total number of students from that country (i.e. the total number of students having the same country of origin). For a given country (of origin), the compilation of outward mobile students relies on the records of all other countries in the world. Indeed, only each hosting country is capable to collect data on students from this country of origin in its own tertiary education system.

Thus, students from a given country of origin are recorded through the mobility data provided by the host countries. To obtain a comprehensive and reliable picture of outwards mobility flows through the world, all countries need compile data from their tertiary education system on this issue and use the same mobility criterion (e.g. prior education or usual residence). This is far from being the case.

Currently, the reliability of outflow mobility data is thus limited by:

- The availability of data in the countries covered, and the number of countries covered: the data exploited here included the mobility data from the EHEA (excluding the following missing countries: Andorra, Albania, Montenegro and Holy See) and a selection of non-EHEA countries: Australia, Canada, Japan, New Zealand and the United States. Those non-EHEA countries are hereafter referred to as “the rest of the world”;
- The quality of data provided: whenever provided, as stated above, mobility data may rely on different criteria (i.e. citizenship, prior/permanent residence, prior education) which are not supposed to measure exactly the same phenomenon.

Figure 7.3 (indicator 7.3): Outward degree mobility rate – tertiary education students from a country of the EHEA studying abroad outside the EHEA as a percentage of the total number of students of the same country of origin, 2011/12



IS	NO	LI	CH	SE	LU	CY	FR	IE	DK	BG	UK	DE	GE	RS	MT	AT	MK	EE
2.3	1.6	1.5	1.1	1.1	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
NL	**HR**	**LV**	**KZ**	**EL**	**MD**	**PT**	**FI**	**BA**	**AM**	**TR**	**BE**	**ES**	**IT**	**AZ**	**RO**	**HU**	**SK**	**CZ**
0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2
LT	**SI**	**PL**	**RU**	**UA**														
0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1														

Notes: [To be included].Destinations outside of the EHEA considered are Australia, Canada, Japan, New Zealand and the United States. Data refer to foreign students instead of mobile students for the following country of destination: Japan. EHEA is the EHEA weighted average.

Source: Eurostat, UOE and additional collection for the other EHEA countries.

As for mobility inflow, the indicator does not provide any indication on what motivates the mobility of students. The fact that few populated countries rank at the top in terms of outward degree mobility rate suggests that there is a 'size' effect of the indicator. Furthermore, it could be assumed that the high outward mobility rate of these countries is caused by a limited supply of tertiary educational programmes (e.g. the lack of programmes in some fields of study).

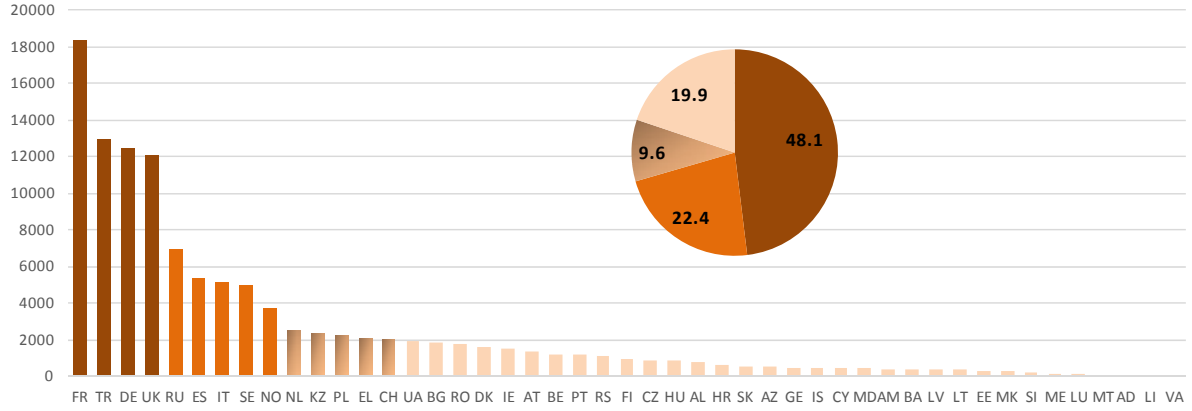
The outward degree mobility rate is highest in Iceland – reaching slightly more than 2 % (see Figure 7.3). This country is followed by Norway, Liechtenstein, Switzerland, Sweden, and Luxembourg, where the range is from 1 % to 1.5 %, far higher than the weighted average of the EHEA countries which reaches only 0.33 %.

The make-up of the population of outward students to the 'rest of the world' by country of origin is very imbalanced. In 2012, the students originating from four countries (France, Turkey, Germany and the United Kingdom) account for nearly half (48.1 %) of all outward mobile students from the EHEA. These four countries sent from around 12 000 students (the United Kingdom) to slightly more than 18 300 students (France) to the 'rest of the world'.

A second group of countries accounts for 22.4 % of all outward mobile students from the EHEA going 'worldwide'. These countries send less than 10 000 students (from 3723 students for Norway to 6916 students for Russia).

Despite the fact that it should be balanced by the relative size of their student population (see Figure 7.3), it is remarkable that the size of the mobility outflow to the rest of the world is very limited for more than two-third of the EHEA countries, sending less than 2 000 students each (and even less than 500 students for half of the countries of this group).

Figure 7.4 (indicator 7.4): Distribution of outward degree tertiary education students from the EHEA to abroad outside the EHEA by country of origin, 2011/12



FR	TR	DE	UK	RU	ES	IT	SE	NO	NL	KZ	PL	EL	CH	UA	BG	RO	DK	IE
18355	12923	12479	12025	6916	5359	5138	4908	3723	2508	2321	2270	2065	2028	1883	1817	1796	1604	1486

AT	BE	PT	RS	FI	CZ	HU	AL	HR	SK	AZ	GE	IS	CY	MD	AM	BA	LV	LT
1377	1228	1211	1134	943	874	840	739	617	550	528	493	479	456	447	375	368	368	350

EE	MK	SI	ME	LU	MT	AD	LI	VA
284	271	197	113	111	57	26	17	5

Notes: [To be included].Destinations outside of the EHEA considered are Australia, Canada, Japan, New Zealand and the United States. Data refer to foreign students instead of mobile students for the following country of destination: Japan.

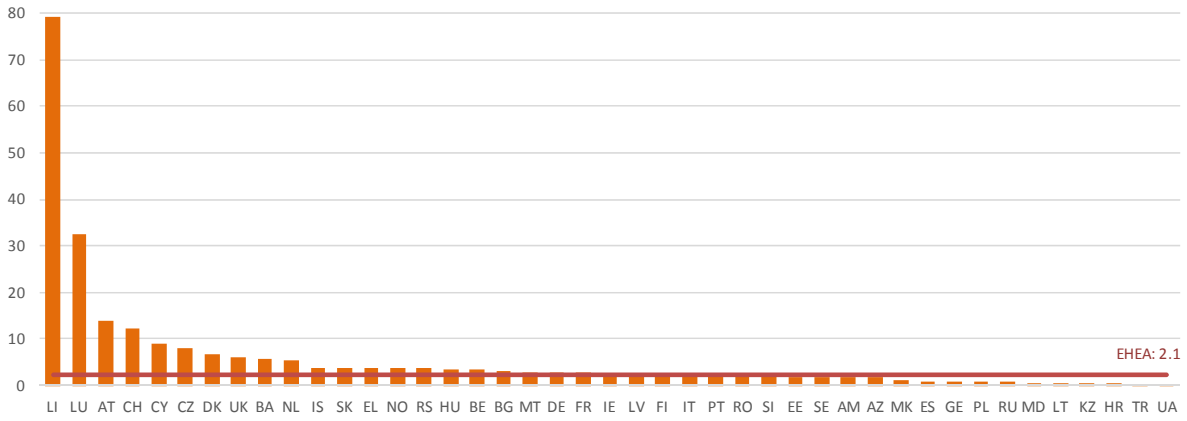
Source: Eurostat, UOE and additional collection for the other EHEA countries.

Outward and inward mobility flows within the EHEA

Mobility from and to outside the EHEA is rather limited in relative terms and imbalanced in terms of country of destination (i.e. EHEA countries hosting students from the 'rest of the world') and country of origin (i.e. EHEA countries sending students to the 'rest of the world'). The purpose of this section is to analyse mobility flows within the EHEA.

Figures 7.5 and 7.6 show the incoming mobility flows within the EHEA. Austria with 14 % and Switzerland with 12 % have the highest incoming mobility rate of the EHEA, along with smaller states such as Liechtenstein, Luxembourg and Cyprus (see Figure 7.5). All other countries show levels below 10 % out of which all but five (Czech Republic, United Kingdom, Denmark, Bosnia-Herzegovina and the Netherlands) are below 5 %. The EHEA weighted average stands at 2.1 %.

Figure 7.5 (indicator 7.5): Incoming degree mobility rate – tertiary education mobile students from inside the EHEA studying in the country as a percentage of the total number of students enrolled, 2011/12



LI	LU	AT	CH	CY	CZ	DK	UK	BA	NL	IS	SK	EL	NO	RS	HU	BE	BG	MT
79.2	32.5	14.0	12.4	9.1	8.0	6.6	6.0	5.8	5.4	3.9	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.4	3.4	3.0	2.8
DE	**FR**	**IE**	**LV**	**FI**	**IT**	**PT**	**RO**	**SI**	**EE**	**SE**	**AM**	**AZ**	**MK**	**ES**	**GE**	**PL**	**RU**	**MD**
2.8	2.7	2.4	2.4	2.3	2.1	2.1	2.0	2.0	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.1	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.6
LT	**KZ**	**HR**	**TR**	**UA**														
0.5	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.2														

Note: [To be included]. EHEA is the EHEA weighted average.

Source: Eurostat, UOE and additional collection for the other EHEA countries.

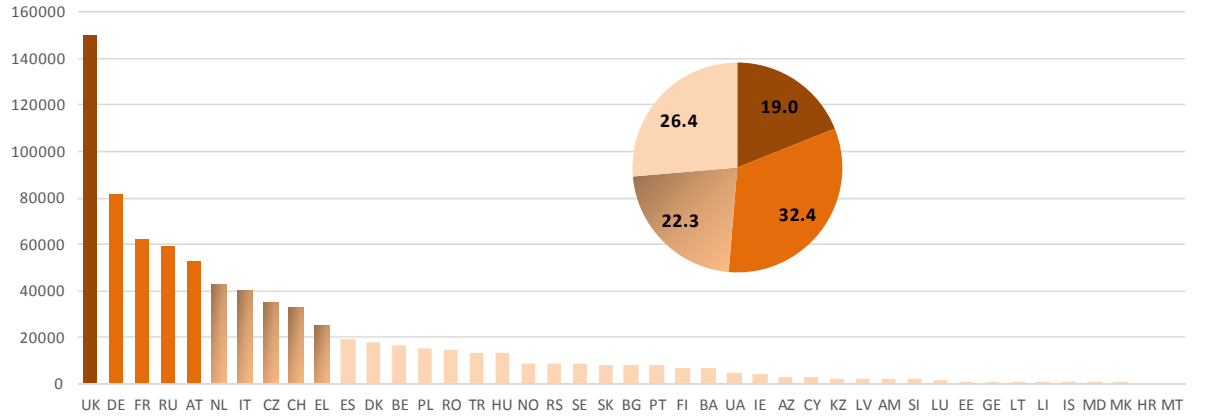
Figure 7.6 depicts the incoming mobility within EHEA in absolute terms for each country. It turns out that 51.3 % of all incoming students from inside the EHEA choose the United Kingdom or Germany, France, Russia and Austria as their destination of study. As for students outside the EHEA (see Figure 7.2), the United Kingdom is by far welcoming the highest number of mobile students from the EHEA (Figure 7.6). With 150 133 students, the United Kingdom hosts nearly twice as much students from the EHEA as Germany and 2.8 times the number of hosted students in Russia. Each country that belongs to this group welcomes more than 50 000 students from the EHEA.

Overall, the Netherlands, Italy, Czech Republic, Switzerland and Greece host 22 % of incoming students from the EHEA. Nonetheless, their situation varies as the Netherlands welcome slightly more than 40 000 students from the EHEA while Greece hosts 25 190 students.

Taking into account the "size factor" of education systems (i.e. total enrolments, which can be seen as their capacity), Austria and Switzerland may also be deemed as top hosting countries (Figure 7.5).

Overall, degree mobility currently seems to be a relatively minor phenomenon and does not reach significant values compared to the tertiary student population. Based on Eurostat data, the average number of students studying in the EHEA coming from any country from abroad (i.e. incoming mobility from outside the EHEA plus incoming mobility from inside the EHEA) reaches slightly less than 4.4 % of total enrolments (see Figures 7.1 and 7.5).

Figure 7.6 (indicator 7.6): Distribution of incoming degree tertiary education mobile students from inside the EHEA by country of destination, 2011/12



UK	DE	FR	RU	AT	NL	IT	CZ	CH	EL	ES	DK	BE	PL	RO	TR	HU	NO	RS
150133	81635	62328	59273	52752	42721	40231	35011	33337	25190	19385	18072	16416	15156	14427	13435	13116	8993	8733
SE	**SK**	**BG**	**PT**	**FI**	**BA**	**UA**	**IE**	**AZ**	**CY**	**KZ**	**LV**	**AM**	**SI**	**LU**	**EE**	**GE**	**LT**	**LI**
8649	8480	8460	8140	6967	6710	4962	4576	3205	2878	2459	2292	2212	2123	1976	1304	846	791	760
IS	**MD**	**MK**	**HR**	**MT**														
742	735	690	605	343														

Notes: [To be included].

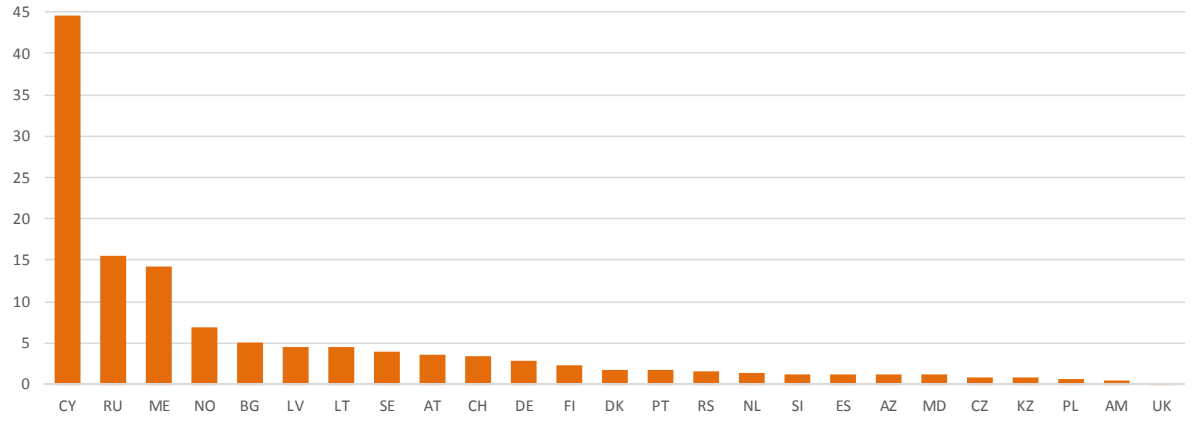
Source: Eurostat, UOE and additional collection for the other EHEA countries.

The mobility target set by the Ministers of higher education in the Leuven/Louvain-la-Neuve communiqué and confirmed in the subsequent communiqués focuses on graduates. The purpose of the indicator of Figure 7.7 is to assess how much EHEA students from a specific country of origin graduated in other EHEA countries. According to the current state of data collection systems across the EHEA, this indicator should be taken with extreme caution due to the low country coverage (only 19 countries provided data on graduates by country of origin).

In addition, at present, the indicator is "geographically biased". First, the under-coverage of countries leads to an underestimation of the number of outward graduates for every country due to the low number of reporting countries. Secondly, this under-coverage has different impact on countries for which data is available and thus limits the comparability across countries: in case the preferred destinations of students fall in the set of available countries, the under-estimation of outwards graduates will be lower for some countries than for others.

Besides Cyprus with outward degree mobility rates of graduates of around 44 %, Russia, Montenegro, Norway and Bulgaria display the highest values, between 5 % and 15.6 %. The vast majority of EHEA countries for which data is available, however, reach values of less than 5 %.

Figure 7.7 (indicator 7.7): Outward degree mobility rate – tertiary education graduates from a country of the EHEA graduating inside the EHEA as a percentage of the total number of graduates of the same country of origin, 2011/12



CY	RU	ME	NO	BG	LV	LT	SE	AT	CH	DE	FI	DK	PT	RS	NL	SI	ES	AZ
44.6	15.6	14.3	6.9	5.1	4.6	4.6	3.9	3.5	3.4	2.8	2.3	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.2

MD	CZ	KZ	PL	AM	UK
1.2	0.9	0.9	0.7	0.5	0.1

Notes: [To be included].

Source: Eurostat (UOE data collection) and additional collection for the other EHEA countries.

The under-coverage of the indicator on graduates (see Figure 7.7) calls for the use of data on enrolments to get a better picture of outward and inward mobility within the EHEA even if they do not allow for strictly assessing the 20 % mobility target.

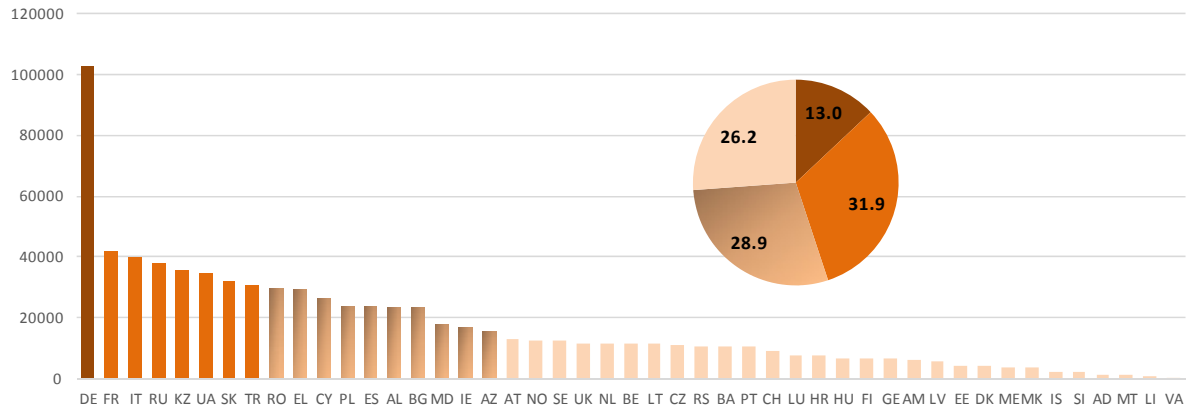
Figure 7.8 presents information on outward degree mobility within the EHEA. Germany is the country that sends the highest number of students for a degree in another EHEA country. Nearly 102 800 students move away from Germany to study in another EHEA country, representing 13 % of the total number of EHEA students being abroad within the EHEA.

Far behind Germany, a group of seven countries send more than 30 000 students each towards other EHEA countries. The situation is still disparate among them: France and Italy send around 40 000 students in the EHEA while it was the case for 30 407 students originating from Turkey.

At the other end of the spectrum, the number of outward degree student to the EHEA is lower than 14 000 in 60 % of EHEA countries.

However, such information would be advantageously balanced by information in relative terms, since large countries are obviously more likely to “export” more students (see Figure 7.9).

Figure 7.8 (indicator 7.8): Distribution of outward degree tertiary education mobile students from the EHEA to abroad inside the EHEA (enrolment) by country of origin, 2011/12



DE	FR	IT	RU	KZ	UA	SK	TR	RO	EL	CY	PL	ES	AL	BG	MD	IE	AZ	AT
102798	41852	39993	37985	35480	34527	32341	30407	29609	29113	26112	23804	23630	23285	23063	17759	16863	15630	13124

NO	SE	UK	NL	BE	LT	CZ	RS	BA	PT	CH	LU	HR	HU	FI	GE	AM	LV	EE
12590	12416	11683	11673	11549	11437	10972	10790	10411	10366	9261	7457	7381	6818	6798	6728	6014	5846	4180

DK	ME	MK	IS	SI	AD	MT	LI	VA
3957	3834	3787	2241	2188	1284	1276	917	20

Notes: [To be included].
Source: Eurostat (UOE data collection) and additional collection for the other EHEA countries.

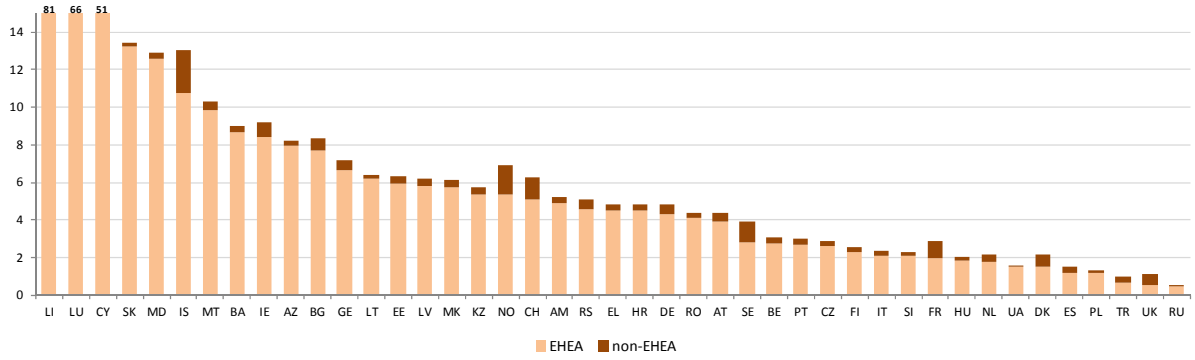
Figure 7.9 shows the outward degree mobility rate by area of destination, distinguishing between the EHEA and non-EHEA countries. It links the outward mobile students of a country to the total population of students with the same country of origin. It is thus a measure of the mobility of a population that has the same country of origin (i.e. the same prior education or the same usual residence or the same citizenship). As for other indicators, the results provided by this indicator should be considered with caution since countries do not all use the same criterion to define the mobile population. For instance, the fact that the citizens of the United Kingdom permanently lived in countries of the Commonwealth could lead to an over-estimation of outward flows if these countries use the citizenship criterion to report enrolment by country of origin.

Three states show a specific profile in the EHEA. Liechtenstein, Luxembourg and Cyprus present high outgoing mobility: students abroad are more numerous than those who stay studying in their own country — this phenomenon is often referred to as 'vertical mobility'. This may be explained by a limited provision of programs for some fields of study in their country, and short distances from the borders.

Apart from those countries, Slovakia, Moldova and Iceland are the only countries to reach 10 % of students enrolled abroad in the EHEA. On the opposite, three countries do not reach the threshold of 1% (Turkey, the United Kingdom, and Russia).

One clear feature of mobility of EHEA students is their preference to study in the EHEA rather than in other parts of the world (being understood here as Australia, Canada, Japan, New Zealand and the United States). This is true for most of the EHEA countries with some exceptions where mobility outside EHEA is a significant part of the overall mobility. The United Kingdom is the EHEA country which has the most balance situation as mobility outside the EHEA is slightly higher than mobility within the EHEA. Mobility outside the EHEA is also a strong component of the overall mobility of students originating from France, Turkey, the Nordic countries (except Finland), Spain, Switzerland and the Netherlands. In all other countries, mobility outside the EHEA accounts for less than 20 % of the overall mobility.

Figure 7.9 (indicator NEW 1): Outward degree mobility rate by destination (within and outside EHEA) , 2011/12



Area	LI	LU	CY	SK	MD	IS	MT	BA	IE	AZ	BG	GE	LT	EE	LV	MK	KZ	NO
EHEA	81.9	66.7	51.3	13.2	12.6	10.7	9.9	8.7	8.4	8.0	7.7	6.7	6.2	5.9	5.8	5.7	5.4	5.3
non-EHEA	1.5	1.0	0.9	0.2	0.3	2.3	0.4	0.3	0.7	0.3	0.6	0.5	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	1.6

Area	CH	AM	RS	EL	HR	DE	RO	AT	SE	BE	PT	CZ	FI	IT	SI	FR	HU	NL
EHEA	5.1	4.9	4.6	4.5	4.5	4.3	4.1	3.9	2.8	2.8	2.7	2.7	2.3	2.1	2.1	2.0	1.8	1.8
non-EHEA	1.1	0.3	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.3	0.4	1.1	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.9	0.2	0.4

Area	UA	DK	ES	PL	TR	UK	RU
EHEA	1.5	1.5	1.2	1.2	0.7	0.6	0.5
non-EHEA	0.1	0.6	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.6	0.1

Notes: [To be included].Destinations outside of the EHEA considered are Australia, Canada, Japan, New Zealand and the United States.

Source: Eurostat (UOE data collection) and additional collection for the other EHEA countries.

A short paragraph on how the Erasmus programme contribute to mobility flows in Europe (figure 10?)

Figures to be added along with comments:

- EUROSTUDENT Figure 9: Recognition of credits gained during (most recent) enrolment abroad

- EUROSTUDENT Figure 10: Attainment of ECTS for study-related activities abroad (other than enrolment)

Balanced vs. imbalanced mobility

The London Communiqué ([4]) was the first one in the Bologna Process to highlight more equitably balanced mobility within the EHEA, and thus turned attention to mobility flows across the EHEA. The aspiration for a more balanced mobility was reinforced with the Bucharest Communiqué ([5]) and the 2012 Mobility Strategy in which ministers ask for more balanced mobility, "since it have a sustained effect on the host and home countries, can facilitate capacity building and cooperation and may lead to brain gain on the one side and to brain drain on the other".([6])

This section quantifies the balance between outward and incoming mobility flows and reports the national incoming/outgoing mobility ratio with EHEA partners on the one hand and with countries of the "rest of the world" on the other hand. The purpose of this indicator is to identify 'net importing countries' (ratio greater than 1 – the country receives more mobile students than it sends) and 'net exporting countries' (ratio below 1 – the country sends abroad more students than it hosts). It should be kept in mind that a balanced mobility hides different realities. Assuming that mobility is desirable, balanced mobility at low levels of mobility is less positive than at high levels. Balanced or imbalanced mobility, as measured by the incoming/outgoing mobility ratio, may also hide geographical disparities as it only considers two areas: the EHEA (see Figure 7.11) and the "rest of the world" (see Figure 7.12). Such overall incoming/outgoing mobility ratios hide imbalances of bilateral mobility flows.

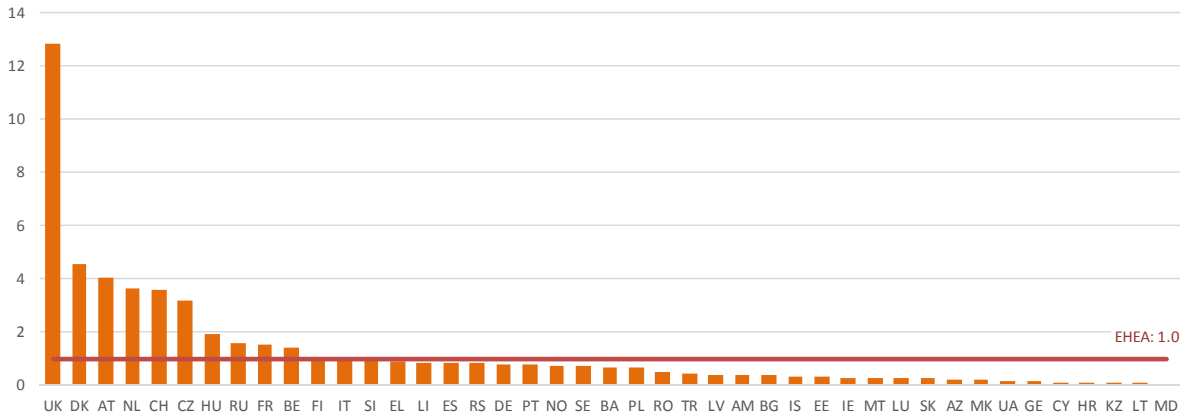
Most EHEA countries (30 countries out of 43 for which data is available) are net exporters of students towards other EHEA countries. Only three countries (Finland, Italy and Slovenia) show a balanced mobility with the rest of EHEA countries (ratio equal to 1). Few EHEA countries are net importers of students with the rest of the EHEA (i.e. incoming students outnumber outgoing students). This is especially the case of some western European countries (the United Kingdom, Denmark, Austria, the Netherlands, Switzerland and to a lesser extent France and Belgium); central Europe (the Czech Republic and Hungary) and Eastern Europe (Russia).

([4]) London Communiqué: Towards the European Higher Education Area: responding to challenges in a globalised world, 18 May 2007.

([5]) Bucharest Communiqué: Making the Most of Our Potential: Consolidating the European Higher Education Area, 26-27 April 2012, p. 4.

([6]) EHEA, 2012. *Mobility for Better Learning – Mobility strategy 2020 for the European Higher Education Area.* [Online] Available at: http://www.ehea.info/Uploads/(1)/2012%20EHEA%20Mobility%20Strategy.pdf [Accessed 15 October 2014].

Figure 7.11 (indicator 7.9): Mobility balance: incoming/outgoing tertiary students ratio within the EHEA, 2011/12



UK	DK	AT	NL	CH	CZ	HU	RU	FR	BE	FI	IT	SI	EL	LI	ES	RS	DE	PT
12.9	4.6	4.0	3.7	3.6	3.2	1.9	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8

NO	SE	BA	PL	RO	TR	LV	AM	BG	IS	EE	IE	MT	LU	SK	AZ	MK	UA	GE
0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1

CY	HR	KZ	LT	MD
0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0

Notes: [To be included].

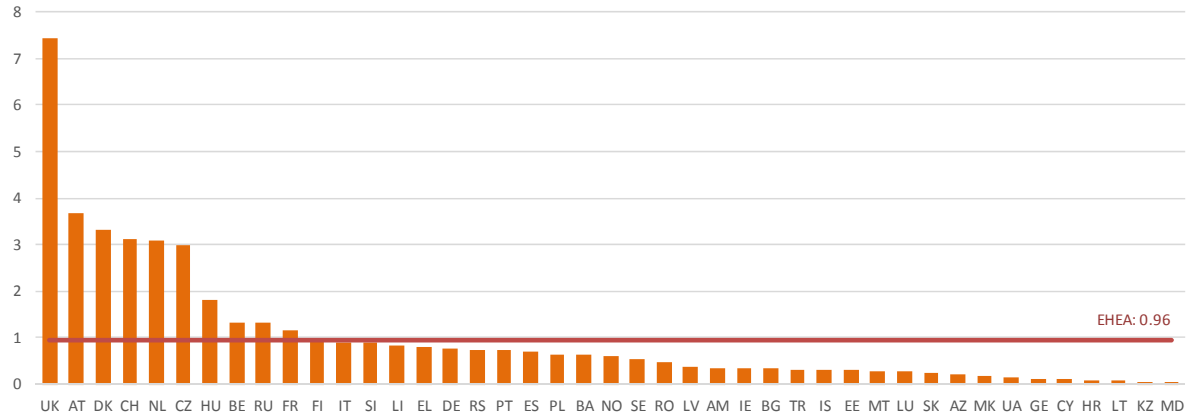
Source: Eurostat (UOE data collection) and additional collection for the other EHEA countries.

The incoming/outgoing ratio outside the EHEA suffers from a clear under-coverage as only a selection of countries (Australia, Canada, Japan, New Zealand and the United States) is considered as the "rest of the world". This under-coverage has a differentiated impact on countries. It is expected that countries that established privileged links with some areas of the world because of shared languages (English-speaking area, francophone community, etc.), a common history (Commonwealth, former colonies, etc.) or specific regional agreements are more impacted by the geographical under-coverage of the data. The impact on the indicator is reinforced when specific bilateral relationships are not balanced and leads to 'brain drain'/'brain gain' mechanisms towards the EHEA. Moreover, the incoming/outgoing ratio focuses on the balance of mobility flows but not on their absolute size when comparing them for two geographical areas.

Nearly all countries that are net importers of students from the rest of the EHEA (i.e. incoming students outnumber outgoing students) keep a similar position when considering the 'world'. However, the imbalance is less pronounced for most of them.

Finland show balanced mobility flows with EHEA partners and also when considering the 'world' while Italy record an balance with the EHEA but short imbalance with the "world" at ratio of 0.9 (i.e. net exporter).

Figure 7.12 : Mobility balance: incoming/outgoing tertiary students ratio within and outside the EHEA, 2011/12



UK	AT	DK	CH	NL	CZ	HU	BE	RU	FR	FI	IT	SI	LI	EL	DE	RS	PT	ES
7.4	3.7	3.3	3.1	3.1	3.0	1.8	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7
PL	**BA**	**NO**	**SE**	**RO**	**LV**	**AM**	**IE**	**BG**	**TR**	**IS**	**EE**	**MT**	**LU**	**SK**	**AZ**	**MK**	**UA**	**GE**
0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1
CY	**HR**	**LT**	**KZ**	**MD**														
0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0														

Notes: [To be included].

Source: Eurostat (UOE data collection) and additional collection for the other EHEA countries.

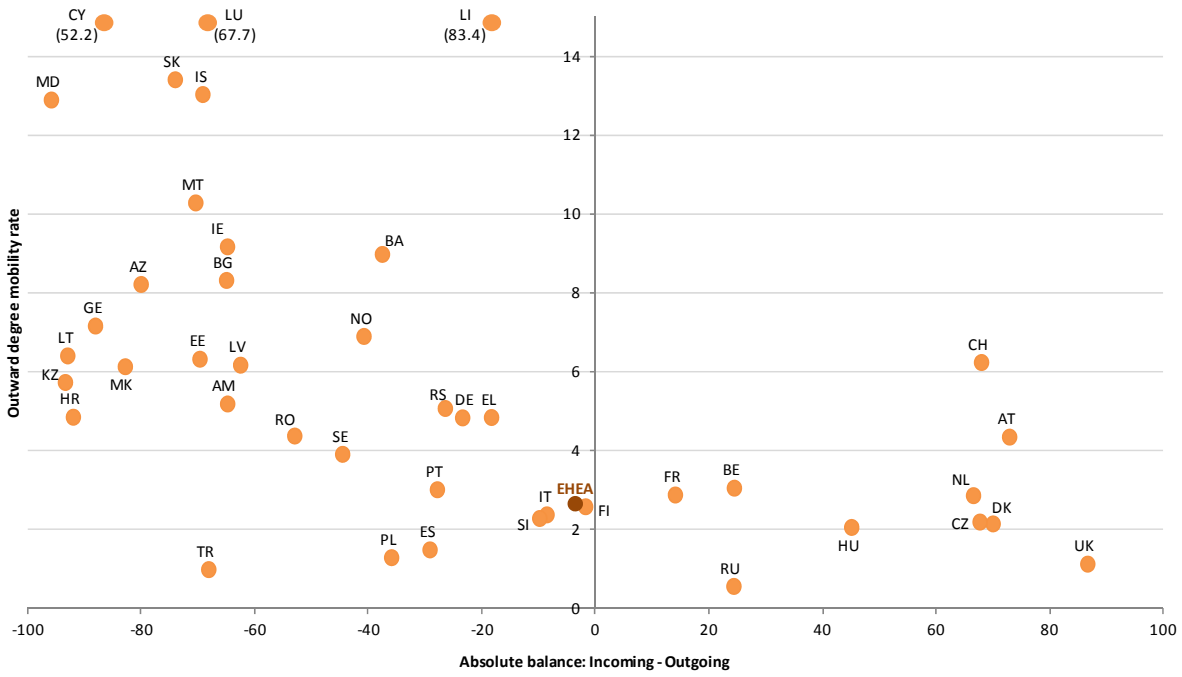
It is also possible to measure the absolute imbalanced mobility between two countries ([7]) defined as the absolute difference between students from country A in country B and students from country B in country A. Following Grabher, Wejwar, Unger, Terzieva (2014), only absolute imbalances greater than 1 000 students is considered. This measure is only a proxy of the imbalance of mobility flows as countries do not use the same criterion to report incoming students. The United Kingdom is a net importing country whatever the EHEA partners. The imbalance is especially high with Ireland, Greece, Germany and Cyprus. Each of these countries sends far more students (a surplus of more than 10 000 students) to the United Kingdom than they receive from it. Austria is also a net importing country especially from Germany, Italy and Turkey and numerous eastern European countries, but is a net exporting country with the United Kingdom. Germany displays large imbalanced mobility with several EHEA countries. In addition to Austria and the United Kingdom, Germany sends far more students to the Netherlands, Switzerland and France than it receives from them. On the opposite, students from Spain, Poland, Russia, Turkey and Ukraine hosted in Germany largely outnumber German students enrolled in these countries (the net incoming balance exceeds 3 000 students). France also shows imbalanced bilateral mobility with several countries. On the one hand, French students enrolled in Belgium and Switzerland exceed the number of incoming students from these countries. On the other hand, the French higher education system hosts far more students from Germany, Spain, Italy, Portugal, Romania and Russia than it sends to these countries.

As already mentioned, incoming/outgoing ratios do not provide any information on the relative size of mobility flows. Figure 7.13 allows to add some information to the mobility balance, considering (Y axis)

([7]) I H S — Grabher, Wejwar, Unger, Terzieva ”Student mobility in the EHEA Underrepresentation in student credit mobility and imbalances in degree mobility”, (2014)

the outward degree mobility rate (both axis include mobility flows within and outside the EHEA). The X axis is the same balance concept as shown above, but computed on a different scale for graphical readability purpose[8].

Figure 7.13 : Mobility balance versus outward degree mobility rate, within and outside the EHEA, 2011/12



Source: Eurostat (UOE data collection) and additional collection for the other EHEA countries.

Figure 7.13 shows an obvious – almost tautological – relationship between the mobility balance and the outward mobility rate: the higher the importing balance, the lesser the outward mobility rate. However, it allows highlighting some atypical countries.

Despite being much more importers than exporters, Austria and Switzerland display a relatively high outward mobility rate. In other words, even though they are hosting a lot of mobile students – in comparison to the number of students they send abroad – their students going abroad are relatively numerous – in comparison to the number of students originated from those countries. Those systems are therefore both attractive and exporting.

Conversely, the Baltic countries, Croatia, the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Georgia and Kazakhstan are much more sending than receiving students, but such exportation does not result in the highest outward mobility rates. The number of students sent abroad is therefore relatively low (when reported to the number of students originated from there), even though high compared to the number of hosted students.

[8] In order to avoid a scale ranging to more than 10 units while most countries are below 1 (incoming/outgoing ratios, see Figure 7.11), the absolute difference (incoming – outgoing students) is computed and then divided by to the total number of incoming students (when the balance is positive) or by the total number of outgoing students (in case of negative balance). This results in a smoother continuum, more readable when plotted.

Slovenia, Italy and Finland are countries where the balanced flows hide a low mobility intensity (in terms of both incoming and outgoing mobility). Liechtenstein is the only countries where balanced mobility flows come along with a relatively high outward degree mobility rate, meaning intense mobility flows from and to this country.

Mobility diversity

From a more qualitative perspective, balanced mobility flows could also be understood in terms of origin (for host countries) and destination (for sending countries). The purpose of the following indicators is to depict the diversity of origins of incoming students (see Figure 7.14) and the diversity of destinations of outgoing students (see Figure 7.15) for each EHEA country.

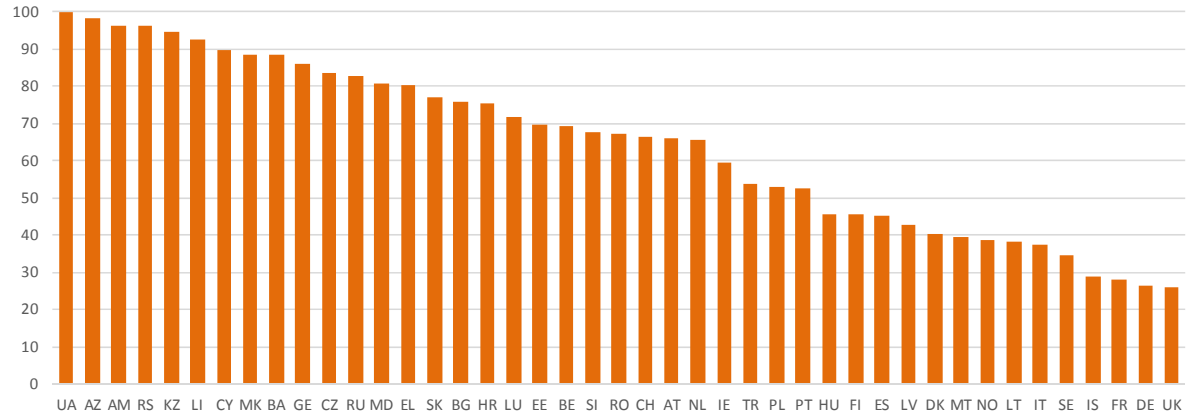
The indicator on inward mobility diversity compute the number of mobile tertiary students enrolled in a given country from the top three countries of origin, as a percentage of all mobile students enrolled in the country. A high percentage outlines that the top three countries provide most of the incoming students in the declaring country. As for other indicators, the restriction of the geographical coverage to some countries outside the EHEA is a clear limitation of the explanatory power of this indicator especially for those countries that receive students from countries from other parts of the world that are not covered here.

In the majority of the EHEA countries for which data is available, the origin of incoming students is not so diverse. Indeed, more than 65 % of the total incoming mobility flow involves students from three countries of origin. In some countries, the inflow of students is even more concentrated as more than 90 % of incoming students come from three countries. This is especially the situation in Azerbaijan (where nearly all mobile students are from Turkey, Russia and Georgia), Serbia (from Bosnia and Herzegovina, Montenegro and Croatia), Kazakhstan (from Russia, Turkey and Azerbaijan) and Liechtenstein (Austria, Switzerland and Germany). Ukraine offers a particular picture as all incoming students come from Russia, Moldova and Turkey.

At the other end of the spectrum, the low percentage of the top-three providers suggests a far more widespread distribution of incoming students. This is for instance the case of the three countries that host the highest number of EHEA students (see Figure 7.6). Indeed, in the United Kingdom, France and Germany, students from the top-three origins account for 28 % or less of the total number of incoming students. In the United Kingdom 25.9 % of incoming students originate either from Germany, Ireland or the United States. In Germany, 26.3 % of incoming students originate from Russia, or Austria and Bulgaria while in France, students from Germany, Italy and Spain account for 28 % of all incoming tertiary students. In addition to the United Kingdom, US students are among the top-three most represented origins in three EHEA countries: Ireland, Malta and Sweden. In Ireland, 59 % of hosted students come from the United Kingdom, the US and Canada.

Geographical proximity (neighbouring countries), sharing common languages of instruction or historical legacies may not be negligible in determining the origin of incoming students in some countries. For instance, such factors may explain the pattern of student received in Belgium (from France, the Netherland and Germany); in Switzerland (from Germany, France and Italy), Estonia (from Finland, Russia and Latvia); Finland (from Russia, Estonia and Sweden); Georgia (from Turkey, Azerbaijan and Russia) as well as in other countries.

Figure 7.14: Inward mobility diversity: countries of origin of incoming mobile tertiary students, 2011/12



UA	AZ	AM	RS	KZ	LI	CY	MK	BA	GE	CZ	RU	MD	EL	SK	BG	HR	LU	EE
100.0	98.1	96.3	96.1	94.5	92.5	89.7	88.6	88.2	86.1	83.6	82.6	80.8	80.3	76.9	75.8	75.5	71.9	69.7

BE	SI	RO	CH	AT	NL	IE	TR	PL	PT	HU	FI	ES	LV	DK	MT	NO	LT	IT
69.4	67.5	67.2	66.2	65.9	65.6	59.3	53.8	52.8	52.5	45.7	45.4	45.2	42.6	40.3	39.3	38.6	38.3	37.2

SE	IS	FR	DE	UK
34.6	28.9	28.0	26.2	25.9

Notes: [To be included].

Source: Eurostat (UOE data collection) and additional collection for the other EHEA countries.

The indicator on outward mobility diversity compute the number of mobile tertiary students of a given country of origin enrolled in the top three destinations, as a percentage of all mobile tertiary students of that country. The variety of the destination is impacted by several similar factors as for the origin of incoming students. In addition, at national level, the various measures aiming at fostering student mobility have an impact of such diversity since they usually prioritise particular geographical regions, sub-geographical areas or specific countries for privileged cooperation in this matter.

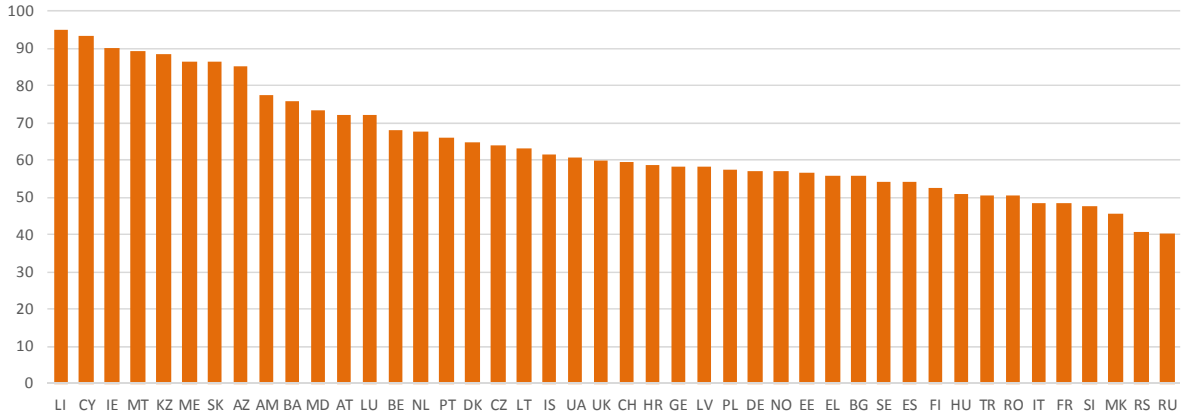
More than 90 % of outgoing students from Liechtenstein, Cyprus and Ireland are pursuing their tertiary studies in three countries. Most students away from Liechtenstein are enrolled for a degree either in Switzerland but also to a lesser extent in Austria or Germany, which can surely be explained by their shared language and geographical proximity. Those away from Cyprus are mainly studying equally in Greece or in the United Kingdom. The US are the third destination but for fewer Cypriot students. The geographical proximity with Greece as well as the historical legacy with the United Kingdom may explain such pattern. The United Kingdom, the US and France are the top three destination of students away from Ireland. However, the United Kingdom accounts for the lion's share as it is the destination of nearly 82 % of Irish students abroad.

As the United Kingdom is by far the EHEA country that is receiving the highest number of mobile students, it is not surprising that it is the top destination for students from numerous other countries: Switzerland (24 %), Denmark (28 %), Estonia (27 %), Greece (38 %), Spain (20 %), Finland (25 %), France (21 %), Italy (18 %), Lithuania (42 %), Latvia (36 %), Norway (27 %), Poland (24 %), Romania

(19 %) and Malta (83 %). The US is the favourite destination of outgoing student from three EHEA countries: Sweden (22 %), Turkey (27 %) and the United Kingdom (38 %). Germany is the top destination for students from Austria, Bulgaria, Georgia, Hungary, Luxembourg and Russia.

Some countries show more specific patterns. 42 % of Czech mobile students go to Slovakia which sends 75 % of its mobile students to the Czech Republic. Germany, France and the United Kingdom receive 40 %, 18 % and 14 % respectively of Luxembourgish mobile students. Most of mobile students from Montenegro move to the neighbouring countries: Serbia, Bosnia and Herzegovina and Italy.

Figure 7.15: Outward mobility diversity: countries of destination of outgoing mobile tertiary students 2011/12



LI	CY	IE	MT	KZ	ME	SK	AZ	AM	BA	MD	AT	LU	BE	NL	PT	DK	CZ	LT
94.9	93.5	90.3	89.0	88.4	86.6	86.4	85.0	77.3	75.6	73.2	72.2	72.2	67.9	67.7	66.2	64.6	64.1	63.0

IS	UA	UK	CH	HR	GE	LV	PL	DE	NO	EE	EL	BG	SE	ES	FI	HU	TR	RO
61.5	60.9	59.7	59.3	58.8	58.4	58.3	57.5	57.0	56.9	56.4	55.8	55.7	54.2	54.1	52.4	50.8	50.6	50.4

IT	FR	SI	MK	RS	RU
48.4	48.3	47.7	45.4	40.8	40.1

Notes: [To be included].Destinations outside of the EHEA considered are Australia, Canada, Japan, New Zealand and the United States.

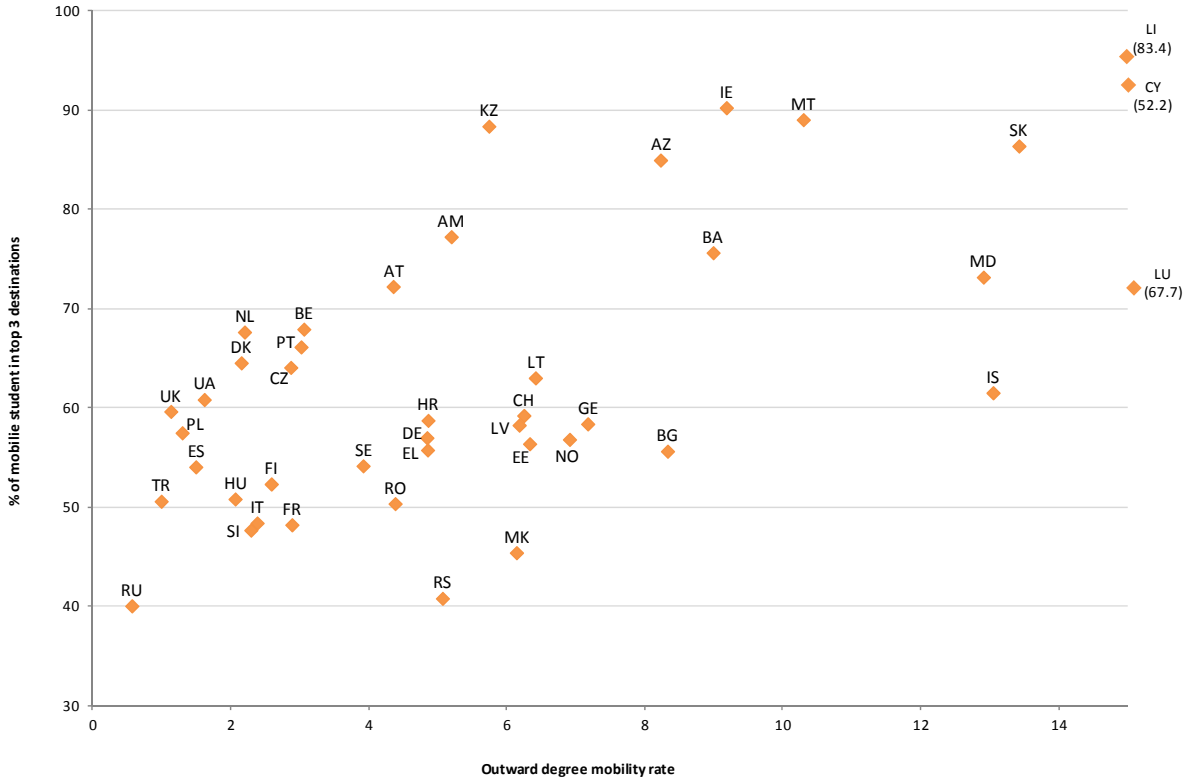
Source: Eurostat (UOE data collection) and additional collection for the other EHEA countries.

Intuitively, it could be expected that the diversity of destination increases with the number of outgoing students. Having high numbers of students moving abroad increases the possibility for multiple individual choices as the population of mobile student is more diverse. Plotting the diversity of country of destination and the outward mobility rate does not confirm this intuition (see Figure 7.16). To some extent, countries having the highest mobility rates are also often those who show a low diversity of destinations. Liechtenstein, Luxembourg and Cyprus are the EHEA countries that present the highest outward rate. Two of them (Liechtenstein and Cyprus) display a low diversity of destinations despite showing different patterns: 85 % of mobile students from Liechtenstein move to Switzerland while mobile Cypriot students go studying to Greece (48 %) and to the United Kingdom (44 %).

Some other countries show specific patterns. Kazakhstan records an outward mobility rate of 5.7 % but a very large majority of mobile students (78 %) go to Russia. Differently, the outward mobility rate of Serbia is 5.1 % but the top three destinations (Bosnia and Herzegovina, Austria and Hungary)

accounts each for less than 17 %. Russia is in a similar position, outward mobility rate is relatively low (0.6 %) and the top three destinations account altogether for only 40 %.

Figure 7.16): Relation between outward mobility rate (within and outside the EHEA) and diversity of countries of destination, 2011/12



Notes: [To be included]

Source: Eurostat (UOE data collection) and additional collection for the other EHEA countries.

[Comments and comparison with 2008/2009 data-To be developed]

7.2.1.4. Obstacles to student mobility

In order to assist in their efforts to reach the targets and foster mobility, countries, based on BFUG reporting, have identified the three most important obstacles that they perceive towards mobility. Similarly to the 2012 reporting exercise, funding continues to be the most often cited obstacle to both incoming and outgoing student mobility. This concern is equally spread across EHEA countries. However, for incoming mobility, language–related barriers are considered to be equally important as funding. The significance of language obstacles diminishes by half in the context of outgoing mobility. Several countries (Austria, France, Moldova, Hungary, Switzerland, the United Kingdom) note that the majority of courses are still offered in only one language. In some cases prospective mobile students

are required to learn the language of the host country which could be time consuming and can result in additional financial burden.

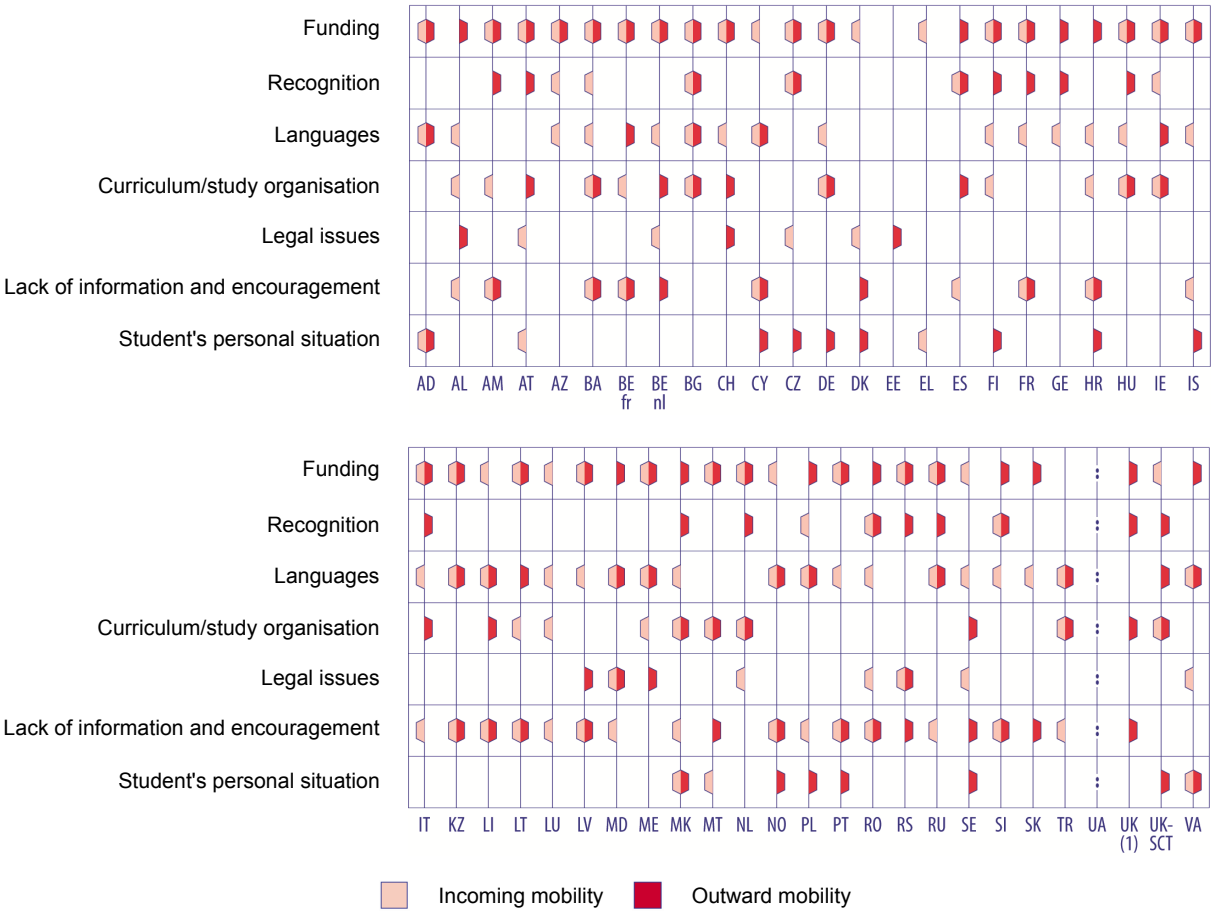
The third most often cited obstacle to both outgoing and incoming mobility is the lack of sufficient motivation and information.

Recognition issues are cited twice more often in relation to outgoing mobility as compared to incoming one, signalling, as in the case of languages, a possible issue of perception.

Only a small minority of countries mention legal obstacles like immigration regulations and visa procedures. In most cases these are non-EU countries for out-going mobility and EU countries for incoming mobility.

Personal and family issues are more often cited as an obstacle to outgoing mobility. Germany, the Czech Republic and Switzerland mention that an additional obstacle to outgoing mobility could be the need to extend the overall duration of studies due to recognition, curriculum and language problems.

Figure 7.11: Obstacles to student mobility,



Source: BFUG questionnaire.

UK (1) = UK-ENG/WLS/NIR

These findings suggest that there is a tendency for countries to see their own systems and students more positively than those elsewhere. Thus these perceptions on mobility obstacles might not reflect reality objectively (recognition may well be a problem for students wishing to enter the system, as well as for those wishing to go abroad, for example), but rather provide a picture of how attitudes to "nationals" and "foreigners" are also critical in addressing mobility obstacles.

Countries have also reported whether some obstacles as identified above are particularly relevant for a specific study cycle, field of study and/or credit or degree mobility. The majority of countries highlight persisting difficulties with recognition and inflexible curricula. Regarding various fields of studies, medical and natural sciences, law and teaching appear to be more challenged in promoting mobility. Indeed in subjects leading to professional qualifications, mobility can be difficult as students often stay in the home country to ensure they can meet the specific requirements (course elements or course modules) to the satisfaction of the relevant national professional regulator / body. Most often countries report specific obstacles related to either credit or degree mobility. The most common concerns for credit mobility lie in recognition and curriculum organisation. The issue of increasing demand for traineeships abroad and persisting problems related to it has been particularly singled out. Once again, the most relevant obstacles to degree mobility appear to be funding and languages.

Countries in the EHEA implement a range of measures in order to foster mobility and tackle these obstacles. Some obstacles such as the re-organisation of programmes and strengthening of information provision can be perhaps addressed more easily – provided that there is the will to do so. On the other hand, funding, improving language skills, recognition and legal issues might be more difficult to tackle as they require either increased financial means or further dialogue and coordination among various stakeholders at national or European level.

Figures to be added along with comments:

- EUROSTUDENT Figure 7: Obstacles to enrolment periods abroad

7.2.1.5. Financial measures to support student mobility

As the most common obstacle identified was funding, financial measures encompassing grants and scholarships as well as loans are analysed in more detail. Less than half of the countries implement financial support measures in the form of loans for outward students in credit and degree mobility and only a few do so for incoming students. More financial support measures to foster mobility can be observed in the form of grants and scholarships. However, the situation differs slightly between credit and degree mobility. Around two thirds of countries provide grants and scholarships for both outward and incoming students for degree mobility.

In contrast, the difference between grants and scholarships for incoming students (21 higher education systems) and outward students (30 higher education systems) in credit mobility arrangements is higher. Some scholarships are targeted only to certain programmes prioritising a number of countries or study fields. Indeed, a few countries or, more specifically, higher education institutions conclude bilateral agreements with their counterparts abroad, and provide funding to foster student mobility. It is also important to stress that no financial instrument at European or national level, be it a loan or a grant, has yet been designed specifically to foster mobility across the EHEA.

An important issue linked to grants and scholarships is their portability. This is a particularly important measure for promotion of mobility and is mentioned throughout the Bologna Process. The concept of portability shows whether students who study in a higher education institution in another country can use their grant or loan under the same conditions as at a home institution. Based on information from reporting countries, almost half of them enable students to do so, while other countries allow such a

practice for either credit or degree mobility. Only four countries – Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, Hungary, and Lithuania – admit that it is not the case for either of the two main types of mobility.

Portability is, however, often subject to restrictions. These are related to specific countries or their groupings (for instance EU, EEA, EHEA) and programmes. Countries with grants and scholarships restricted to specific programmes often mention European and national mobility programmes. Other restrictions concern accreditation of programmes and/or whether the study programme is offered in the home country, or whether it falls under a priority area. Only Croatia, Cyprus, Finland, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Norway and Switzerland report that they impose no restrictions on students who receive a grant or scholarship abroad.

The last measure mentioned by countries for supporting mobility is additional funding to higher education institutions to create conditions for promoting mobility, or to reward institutions that support mobility. In some cases, this may be done by including a mobility element in funding formulas. Several countries also include subsidies for transportation, accommodation and canteens among their supporting measures.

Some countries report a number of specific financial instruments in support of incoming and outgoing students. In Austria for instance, incoming mobility is encouraged by providing possibilities for student part-time work; CEEPUS grants for Central and South-eastern European students; special scholarships for students of literature, etc. Outgoing mobility is supported through the national co-funding for ERASMUS+ grants; needs-based grants plus extra funds for study abroad that can be used for degree mobility.

In Germany, for outgoing mobility, the DAAD offers various scholarships. A special support scheme is the Bologna Mobility Package which consists of programmes especially targeted at fostering mobility in a structured way (integrated exchange programmes, based on inter-university agreements, double degree programme, pilot programme Bachelor Plus -4 years, wherefrom one year spent abroad), but also programmes to foster mobility of free movers (grants for research internships of BA students, semester grants and summer academies for studies in Central and Eastern Europe, language preparation for languages other than English to balance mobility within the EHEA). Outgoing students with lower socio-economic background receive financial support including additional mobility support (Auslands-BAföG).

For incoming mobility, the DAAD also offers support schemes and scholarships. German higher education institutions offer a wide range of measures to support, inform and welcome foreign students. The DAAD administers these programmes and acts as agency for German universities.

Other measures to support student mobility

Other measures are linked to other obstacles to student mobility as presented in Figure 7.11. Recognition continues to be perceived as a significant barrier halting student mobility, and thus an issue in need of improved practice. In France, for instance, specific measures to increase recognition include the arrangements for international joint supervisions of theses (« co-tutelles internationales de thèses ») and more flexible arrangements for genuine joint degrees, together with legal diploma models with international partners set for the concrete award of these joint degrees, as set out in a 2011 ministerial note (“circulaire”). In Turkey, the National Agency is carrying out audit visits to higher education institutions to see the extent of the recognition problem and propose solutions. The outcomes of these visits are shared with other institutions during national events. Institutions are also

advised to fully implement the principles of Erasmus University Charter which advocates the full recognition of mobility. In Bulgaria, higher education institutions are encouraged to develop internal procedures for recognition. Thematic seminars on recognition have been organised in the framework of the National Teams of Bologna Experts.

Language competency is an ultimate pre-condition for studying abroad and thus often one of the main obstacles. Consequently, around half of the countries mention measures such as the provision of language courses for outward and incoming students, as well as for academic staff, when required, and developing curricula/programmes in English or other foreign languages, including joint programmes degrees. In Italy, for instance, the Ministerial Decree 104 of 2014 and Ministerial Decree 1059 of 2013 provide for new measures to overcome the language barrier for incoming students and, where numerous clausus is compulsory, entrance exams are conducted in English and can be sat at a distance.

Despite an increasing offer, the situation for credit and degree mobility differs to some extent. Teaching in a widely spoken foreign language might be sufficient for a period of credit mobility, but often knowledge of the language of instruction for the whole period of study may be required for degree mobility. This poses the question of language of instruction for the degree programme and whether the student has a sound knowledge of this language. To this end, the Norwegian example shows that a country might support learning languages by providing financial measures in the form of a state loan to spend an extra semester to learn the language and culture of the country prior to the studies abroad.

In spite of introducing and enlarging programmes in foreign languages, studies at higher education institutions in a language different to the official language of the country might fall under restrictions. This can be the case when, based on national legislation, higher education institutions are allowed to organise only a certain percentage of learning activities in a foreign language. Joint programmes might however be exceptions to this rule. In France, the law on higher education and research from 22 July 2013 allows higher education institutions to set up courses in foreign languages in the framework of international partnerships, while ensuring the offer French-taught modules. In Belgium (Flemish Community) the rules for establishing English taught master courses have become more flexible and now up to 35% of all master courses may be taught in English.

Overall in the EHEA, higher education programmes taught in widely spoken, non-native languages usually fall under the same legal regime as programmes taught in official languages. Different legal regimes exist only in the Czech Republic, Estonia, Latvia, Poland, Slovakia and Turkey, where students in such programmes usually pay additional fees, as well as in Italy, where there are differences in the quality assurance and accreditation procedures. Moreover, in Ireland and the United Kingdom no higher education programmes in non-native languages are being offered.

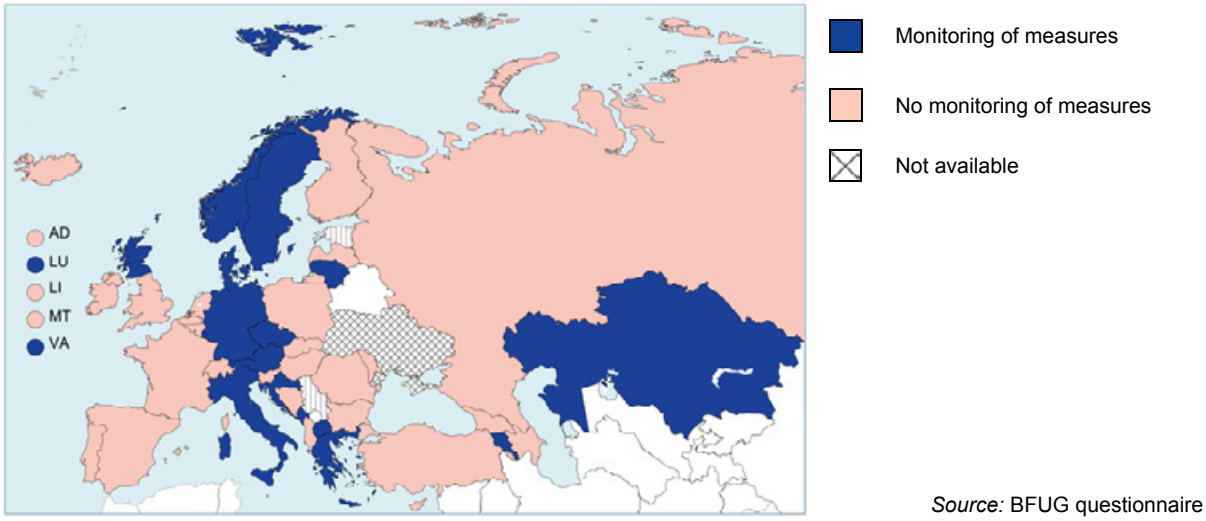
Finally, some countries mention persisting legal issues including visa arrangements. Dialogue with the authorities concerned aims to improve conditions of mainly incoming non-EU students. In particular, Italy, Croatia and Latvia mention recent measures to simplify legal frameworks and visa regimes regarding incoming students.

7.2.1.6. Monitoring

Only around one third of all the countries that adopt programmes or measures to tackle obstacles to student mobility monitor their effects. In some countries like Belgium (Flemish Community), Spain and

the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland) the implementation of a mobility strategy or action plan has started only recently and first outcomes are not yet due. Countries that already undertake monitoring do so annually or biannually. Various institutions like the Ministry of Education or other government agency, quality assurance agencies, higher education institutions or national student unions could be involved in the monitoring process. Monitoring is often done in the framework of general statistical monitoring or focus only on certain vertical or horizontal student mobility issues. For instance, they monitor recognition, update statistics on financial measures or prepare overarching Erasmus reports summarising various mobility indicators together. Hence, monitoring tends to be focused on reporting on European mobility programmes and often does not extend into a comprehensive national framework.

Figure X: Monitoring the effects of measures to tackle the obstacles to sudent mobility



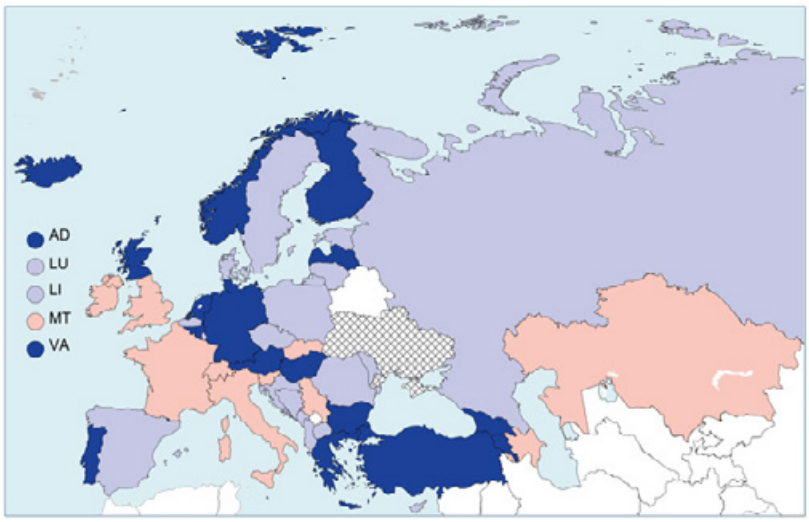
Source: BFUG questionnaire

7.2.1.7. Information on mobility opportunities

Support services, including the provision of better information on mobility programmes, need to be continuously strengthened. Several countries have launched campaigns with the aim of motivating students to study abroad. Additionally, former Erasmus students as well as incoming students may be engaged to help in promotion activities.

The majority of countries have established a central website which provides information about all mobility schemes for national and international students. In around 20 countries these websites are also linked to the Bologna website. In some countries without a comprehensive website, as for instance in the United Kingdom (England, Wales and Northern Ireland), higher education institutions operate their mobility programmes and provide opportunities on an institution by institution basis.

Figure X: Existence of a central website with information about all mobility schemes for national and international students



Source: BFUG questionnaire

[Short conclusion on student mobility to be developed]

7.2.2. Staff mobility

[Chapter to be developed]

This part on staff mobility will be designed in the same way as the previous part on student mobility. Some additional information from the data collection will be presented.

This part should be divided as follow:

7.2.2.1. National policy goals and programmes, legal requirement for higher education institutions to publish vacancy notices for academic staff in media operating outside the country

7.2.2.2. Target setting

7.2.2.3. Information on participation rates

7.2.2.4. Mechanisms to reward staff who participate in mobility

7.2.2.5. Obstacles to staff mobility, measures/programmes to remove obstacles

7.2.2.6. Monitoring

7.2.2.7. Information on mobility opportunities

[Short conclusion]

[General conclusion on mobility]

7.3. Internationalisation instruments

This section present information on increasingly used internationalisation instruments and should be organised as follow:

7.3.1. Joint programmes/degrees (funding for the development and implementation)

7.3.2. Abroad campuses (number of campuses abroad, in which countries)

7.3.3. Particular courses/programmes

7.3.3.1. MOOCs

7.3.3.2. Legal regime of programmes taught in widely spoken non-native language

[Short conclusion]

[General conclusion on the Chapter 7 Internationalisation and Mobility-to be developed]