Studying Abroad
Exploring mobility, expectations and experiences among mobile students

Per A. Nilsson
To my first grandchild, Siri
Table of Contents

Papers included in the thesis........................................................... iii
Abstract .......................................................................................... iv
Abbreviations ................................................................................ vii
Acknowledgements ....................................................................... viii
Introduction .................................................................................... 1
  Aim ..............................................................................................................................3
  Definitions .................................................................................................................. 4

Theoretical framework .................................................................... 7
  Driving and restraining forces for mobility ............................................................. 7
  Explaining mobility ................................................................................................... 9
  Social differentiation - the inequalities of student mobility ...................................... 11
  Mobility and migration ........................................................................................... 13

Previous studies ............................................................................. 16
  International student mobility .............................................................................. 16
  Staying put ............................................................................................................... 21

Materials and methods .................................................................. 24
  Methodological procedures .................................................................................... 24
  Data collection ......................................................................................................... 24
  Measuring students’ expectations and experiences ............................................... 27
  Strengths and limitations ....................................................................................... 28
  Self-reflections and ethics ........................................................................................ 31

Setting the scene ............................................................................ 33
  A global outlook on international student mobility .............................................. 33
  International student mobility in Europe ................................................................... 35
  International student mobility in Sweden ............................................................. 38
  Umeå University and international student mobility .......................................... 39

Paper summaries and results ......................................................... 41
  Paper I: Great expectations of studying abroad – exchange students from Umeå University ................................................................................. 41
  Paper II: Expectations and experiences of inbound students: Perspectives from Sweden .......................................................................................... 42
  Paper III: Life satisfaction among inbound university students in northern Sweden .......................................................................................... 43
  Paper IV: International student expectations: Career opportunities and employability .......................................................... 44

Concluding discussion .................................................................... 45
  Main findings .......................................................................................................... 45
  Discussion ............................................................................................................... 49
  International student mobility – concluding remarks ........................................... 50
  Future research ....................................................................................................... 52
Papers included in the thesis


Authors’ declaration: Joint effort in planning and writing the manuscript.


Author’s declaration: Sole responsibility for planning, writing, and conducting the analyses.


Authors’ declaration: Joint effort in planning and conducting the analyses. Sole responsibility for writing the manuscript.


Authors’ declaration: Joint effort in planning and writing the manuscript.
Abstract

Background
The number of students worldwide who temporarily move to another country for the purpose of studying at a Higher Education Institution (HEI) has increased five-fold since the 1970s, and now amounts to more than 4.5 million (OECD, 2017). This means that many university students will have an international experience during their studies. The globalization of post-secondary education has led to more possibilities for students to study abroad. In Sweden, the share of international students is approximately 9 per cent of the total student population, with 27 per cent among newly enrolled students and 41 per cent of PhD students internationally recruited (UKÄ 2017).

The internationalization of education has become an important dimension of Swedish HEI, and there is a need to scrutinize and explore international student mobility. The internationalization of education is an individual experience, but also an issue on the political agenda in Sweden. A new national strategy has been proposed by the government, emphasizing the need to include international perspectives in post-secondary education (SOU 2018:3). This will have implications for all students. A knowledge of expectations and outcomes also has implications for educators and practitioners, as it can benefit the design and development of international study programmes and agreements, and furthermore, benefit the quality of internationalization in post-secondary education.

More scholars have turned to studying mobility, for example studying abroad as a way of achieving one’s lifestyle aspirations (e.g. Urry 2000; Murphy-Lejeune 2002; Urry 2002; King & Ruiz-Gelices 2003; Paige et al. 2009; Kennedy 2010; Cresswell 2010). Some focus on the social differences within the globalizing higher education system (e.g. Findlay et al. 2012; Bilecen & van Mol 2017; Börjesson 2017), and others on the individual assessment when studying abroad (e.g. Bell & Ward 2000; Benson & O’Reilly 2009; Cohen, Duncan & Thulemark 2015). Previous research shows that studying abroad is highly dependent on students’ background characteristics (Souto-Otero et al. 2013; Hauschildt et al. 2015). This thesis deals with the experiences and outcomes of temporarily studying abroad, via follow-up studies, aiming to explore international student mobility with a focus on the individual’s perspective. The specific research questions, dealing with the individual students’ expectations and experiences, are addressed in three papers. The fourth paper is a framing of these studies, using results from a global study.
The first research question connects to the attractiveness of international study experiences:

Q1. What are the individual’s expectations for studying abroad, among inbound and outbound students, and what are the students’ reported experiences compared with these expectations? (Papers I and II)

The second research question connects to the mobility culture of youth:

Q2. Does students’ reported life satisfaction change in any way after studying abroad? (Paper III)

**Methods**
This thesis is based on surveys targeting students who have studied abroad for at least one semester. In this thesis, the majority are exchange students. Their expectations for and experiences of being international students have been captured via questionnaire surveys pre- and post-studying abroad, thereby placing the individual student in focus. Two surveys addressed outbound and inbound students from/to Umeå University at some point in 2007 to 2009, respectively, and were designed as panel studies. Papers I, II and III are based on these surveys. Paper IV, based on results from the International Student Barometer (ISB), has the purpose of adding a broader scope in relation to the Umeå studies.

**Results**
A main finding for outbound students was an appreciation of courses offered at the destination HEI that were not available at Umeå University. The students also had a desire to change their environment and have new experiences. Conversely, the desire to work abroad in the future was lower after returning home. A major finding for inbound students was that they assigned higher value to personal development than academic development. The experience made the students positive in regard to working abroad. Inbound students reported significantly higher satisfaction at follow-up six months later for the domains somatic health and activities of daily living. For both in- and outbound students, experiencing a new culture was more important than pure academic experiences.

Finally, the results from the Umeå studies were compared with a global survey. The Umeå studies shows that the respondents viewed studying abroad as an important experience and as a merit later in life. The global survey results indicate that the transition from education to the world of work is of increasing importance to students, and that it matters more for non-European students. The global study showed that employability, teaching ability, expert lectures, and course organization are important to international students.
Conclusion
This thesis, studying the individual experience of having studied abroad, showed that after their sojourn abroad students had changed their opinions on some items, such as their motivation for working outside their home country, and realized they had misjudged the access to courses offered at the foreign study destination. When the experience was compared with the expectation, in most cases the outcomes were positively related for both in- and outbound students. The motives for international study were primarily related to personal achievements, indicating a fulfilment of one’s potential and curiosity about a sojourn abroad.
Abbreviations

**BREXIT** The United Kingdom’s exit from the European Union

**CIMO** Centre for International Mobility in Finland

**CSN** Centrala studiestödsnämnden (Swedish financial aid for studies)

**ECTS** European Credit Transfer System

**EHEA** European Higher Education Area

**EU/EEA** Countries in the European Union (EU), the European Economic Area (EEA), or Switzerland

**HEI** Higher Education Institution

**ICT** Information and communication technologies

**I-graduate** International Graduate Insight Group

**ISB** International Student Barometer

**OECD** The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

**SCB** Statistiska Centralbyrån (Statistics Sweden)

**SIHO** A Flemish Support Centre for Inclusive Higher Education

**SIU** Norwegian Centre for International Cooperation in Education

**UHR** Universitets- och högskolerådet (Swedish Council for Higher Education)

**UKÄ** Universitetskanslersämbetet (Swedish Higher Education Authority)

**UNESCO** United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
Acknowledgements

The internationalization of post-secondary education has influenced contemporary university students in several ways, which is discussed in this thesis. I have personal experience of studying abroad, and my endeavour in this area started when I travelled to the US for the first time in 1973 as an exchange student. I later received a scholarship from the Rotary Foundation in the 1980s for graduate studies (resulting in an M.A. from the University of Minnesota, USA). Since 2003, I have worked full-time with internationalization at Umeå University. It is a challenge to bridge the practitioner’s experience into academic work. In many ways, academia and the world of the practitioner are far apart. For me, this journey into academia has been a profound learning experience, and I still have the aim of bridging research and practice.

My supervisors, Professor Kerstin Westin and Professor Dieter Müller, whom I have known for many years, have been very patient with me. They have been harsh at times, but mostly very encouraging, supportive, understanding, and friendly. I respect these two people for all the knowledge they have shared with me over the years. I am also thankful they agreed to be co-authors for Paper I. Professor Emeritus Ulf Wiberg has read many versions of this thesis, and I am most grateful to him for all the constructive feedback he has offered and for his sharing all the experiences he has had from working in academia. I also want to express my thanks to peers and colleagues who have read and commented on different versions of the manuscript. I am especially thankful for the comments I have received from Professor Urban Lindgren, Associate Professor Charlotta Hedberg, and Associate Professor Aina Tollefsen as I have been finalizing this thesis.

I got to know Nannette Ripmeester about ten years ago. Her engagement in the possibilities that lie within international student mobility has been an inspiration. Therefore, I was delighted when she agreed to be a co-author of Paper IV.

For some, finalizing a thesis takes a long time. My PhD studies started way back in the 1980s, quite an endeavour and a lifelong journey. The person who has been the most important having come so far is of course my wife, Britt-Marie, who has encouraged me to overcome all the obstacles and mental barriers I have encountered. Without her, this thesis would have never been finished. Love, support, and training are essential when climbing a hill. I am also thankful she agreed to be a co-author of Paper III.

Closest to my heart are of course Clara and Oscar, who had not even been born when my PhD studies started. They have curiously asked me questions over the years about how things are going, and I can now tell them that this lengthy endeavour has finally come to an end. To further underline their great effort and this author’s interest in international student mobility, I can add that my children have been encouraged to be Erasmus students – one in France and one
in Hungary – and both have participated in summer universities in China as well. I hope I have not pushed them too hard in my personal drive concerning studying abroad.

Other people I want to express my gratitude to are all good colleagues at the International Office at Umeå University and, furthermore, colleagues at other HEIs in Sweden and abroad. Without your knowledgeable sharing of issues related to international student mobility, I would have never been able to write this thesis.

I am also thankful for having been part of the Department of Geography, and for having had a chance to get to know a new generation of very promising geographers, which for me has been an inspiration and highly encouraging.

This thesis is dedicated to Siri, my first grandchild. I wish her all the best in the future, and her curiosity and appetite for life will probably make her want to discover all the possibilities embedded in studying abroad. As for myself, it has given me a lot of personal delight and pleasure. I want to share that experience with Siri and all the other current and/or potential students in post-secondary education.

Per A. Nilsson, Umeå
May 1, 2019
Introduction

For centuries, students have considered it important to take part in learning experiences through travelling around Europe for the purpose of sharing and gaining knowledge (cf. Sörlin 1994; Eliasson 1999). This wish and/or need to learn, meet with new friends, and have new experiences is still a driver of student mobility (Rivza & Theichler 2007). Many students around the world today participate in international student mobility. During the period 2000 to 2013, the number of international students doubled to reach 4 million (Choudaha 2017). In Sweden, the share of international students is approximately 9 per cent of the total student population, 27 per cent among newly enrolled students, and 41 per cent among PhD students (UKÄ 2017).

Studying abroad involves physical movement to another country to have an experience of a foreign Higher Education Institution (HEI). The time frame for students pursuing a whole degree is often a long-term endeavour, and sometimes leads to permanent residence abroad (King, Findlay & Ahrens 2010). Some students are restricted from studying abroad due to their socio-economic background, which has led to increased social differences within the global higher education system (Findlay, King, Smith, Geddes & Skeldon 2012). Being able to participate in international student mobility can be a challenge for students, widening the socio-economic gap for some, and studies have shown that international student mobility can contribute to inequalities (Bilecen & van Mol 2017). For exchange students, international student mobility implies temporary movement and a short time frame, with a high probability of returning home (King et al. 2010). Student mobility is often regarded as desirable for receiving an education, finding a job after graduation, and making a career later in life. Most students in Western/European countries have the option of studying abroad, and for those with sufficient time and economic budget, mobility has become easier. The cost of travelling has decreased, with more options available in terms of low-price tickets and faster connections between destinations (Hall 2005a; Hall 2005b). With this in mind, it is interesting to look at international student mobility in the context of students from the Nordic countries. These students are somewhat privileged, as HEIs in the Nordic countries are publicly funded, with strong influence from egalitarian traditions viewing them as an important pillar in the building of a welfare system, and do not charge tuition fees for domestic students (Börjesson, Ahola, Helland & Thomsen 2014). Thus, HEIs in Sweden are different to those in many other countries in the world when it comes to how much students and their parents have to pay for a university education (OECD 2014). Swedish outbound students are mostly searching for opportunities in English-speaking countries, or at HEIs where many courses are taught and available in English (King et al. 2010). A large number of studies targeting
Previous studies have shown that students have expectations before a sojourn abroad: they report a desire to travel, to experience another culture, and to enhance their language skills as motives for studying abroad, i.e. mostly expecting an international experience to be an attractive one (e.g. Teichler 2002; Bracht, Engel, Janson, Over, Schomburg, & Teichler 2006). Studying abroad is an individual experience, and students can receive broad international experience from studying and living in another country. For some students, it is about obtaining educational capital by studying at prestigious universities, leading to increased chances of gaining work in international businesses and organizations (e.g. Wiers-Jenssen 2008). Students who study abroad want the experience to serve as a merit, and want to be ensured that it will make them more likely to find employment (King et al. 2010). A Norwegian study by Wiers-Jenssen (2008) showed that mobile students, particularly those who graduated abroad, searched for and gained work experience abroad more often than non-mobile students did. Although the vast majority of mobile students returned from abroad after graduation, they ultimately found jobs with more international assignments than non-mobile students did. Moreover, a European study showed that the experience of having studied abroad led to international mobility, international competence, and international work tasks (Bracht et al. 2006).

The experience of having studied abroad is an issue of adjusting to a new culture and adapting to new surroundings where the culture, religion, language, social life etc. differ from where the student comes from (cf. Lin & Yin 1997; Rode, Arthaud-Day, Mooney, Nera, Baldwin, Bommer & Rubin 2005; Russell, Rosenthal & Thomson 2010; Rienties and Tempelaar 2013). The degree to which students adapt to new settings will have an impact on how satisfied they are with...
their life as an international student. Life satisfaction is about the individual’s contentment with life, and whether his or her aspirations and achievements have been accomplished (Jacobsson & Lexell 2013). Studying in another country will have implications on different domains in life. Kennedy (2010) argues that moving abroad for study can be seen as a project of self-realization among students, and arrives at the conclusion that their actual experiences make them more open-minded.

This thesis deals with the experiences and outcomes of temporarily studying abroad. The internationalization of education has become an important dimension of Swedish HEIs, and there seems to be a need to scrutinize and explore international student mobility from a student perspective. First, the internationalization of education is an individual experience, but also an issue on the political agenda in Sweden. The Government has proposed a new national strategy, emphasizing the need to include international perspectives in post-secondary education (SOU 2018:3). This will have implications for all students. Secondly, knowledge about expectations and outcomes also has implications for educators and practitioners, as it can benefit the design and development of international study programmes and agreements. There are few examples of studies following the same individuals from travelling abroad to actually having gained experience of studying at a foreign HEI; most studies published on the experiences of international students are only surveyed at one occasion (eg. Roy, Newman, Ellenberger & Pyman 2018). Meanwhile, the current study’s examination of multiple occasions will help improve the understanding of the individual outcomes and experiences of studying abroad. Internationalization is not an end in itself, and should be driven by quality and primarily as a tool for HEIs to add relevance to different educational programmes; this pertinent task requires more studies.

**Aim**

The aim of this thesis is to explore international student mobility with a focus on the individual’s perspective. The specific research questions, dealing with the individual students’ expectations and experiences, are addressed in three papers. The fourth paper is a framing of these studies, using results from a global study.

The first research question connects to the attractiveness of international study experiences.

**Q1. What are the individual’s expectations for studying abroad among inbound and outbound students, and what are the students’ reported experiences compared with these expectations?** (Papers I and II)

The second research question connects to the mobility culture of youth.
Q2. Does students' reported life satisfaction change in any way after studying abroad? (Paper III)

The data for answering research questions Q1 and Q2 (Papers I, II and III) are all collected from surveys at Umeå University, Sweden. There are several reasons for choosing Umeå University. Firstly, the sender of the surveys was the university’s International Office. The author worked at the International Office when writing the thesis, and had access to information on in- and outbound students. Surveying these students pre- and post-studying abroad requires access and good knowledge of the population studied, aiming to examine the individual perspectives of a sojourn abroad. Secondly, a large number of studies targeting international student mobility have been conducted in Anglophone countries and studied within this context. Studies from other contexts are welcomed when investigating international student mobility, to add more input from different parts of the world, especially when examining the relevance of international student mobility for post-secondary education. Thus, studies of international student mobility should be viewed in a context. Swedish students are privileged in comparison to many other students around the world in regard to, for example, tuition fees for studying at a HEI. For Paper IV the design of the study was different; i.e., utilizing secondary data from a global survey, examining how students assess the impacts of studying abroad on their future career. Paper IV aims to add a broader scope in relation to the Umeå studies.

This introductory chapter briefly discusses international student mobility to give an overview, and it will be further explored in the following chapters, including obstacles to as well as economic and political incentives for mobility. The thesis is structured around seven chapters: Chapter 1 presents an introduction to the thesis; in Chapter 2, the theoretical framework for this thesis is set; In Chapter 3, a literature overview of student mobility and issues related to the topic are presented; Chapter 4 presents methods and data, and methodological considerations and challenges are discussed; in Chapter 5, the scene for international student mobility is described; in Chapter 6, the papers are summarized, forming the empirical pillar of the thesis; and in the seventh and final chapter, the main contribution of this thesis to the field of international student mobility is discussed.

**Definitions**

This thesis uses the term student mobility with mobility implying temporary movement (King et al. 2010). Thus, the term student mobility is used with the interpretation that the students relocate to other places temporarily, and implies at least an ambition to return to the place of departure. The directions in which students travel when seeking opportunities to study abroad are often defined as
inbound and outbound; i.e., depending on the origin from which the students are followed and the destination at which they are registered as a foreign student. The term international student mobility is used to underline that the focus is explicitly on university students’ moving from one country to another, anywhere from a short period, often one semester, up to completing a whole degree abroad (Junor & Usher 2008). There are two main types of student mobility: for an entire programme of study (diploma or degree mobility); and for part of a programme (credit mobility).

A diploma or degree student is one who participates in an entire programme to complete an education, many studying for three or four years. The student mobility initiative comes from the students and sometimes from their parents, without support from a domestic HEI, and is not regulated by any agreements. Some students use agents to apply to a foreign HEI. The Swedish study aid system (CSN) enables Swedish students to study abroad for many years in order to receive a degree from a foreign HEI. In Sweden, tuition fees for students from outside the EU/EEA studying in Sweden were introduced in 2011. However, exchange students are exempt from tuition fees, even those from outside the EU/EEA (SFS 2010:543).

An exchange student (credit mobility) is one who is temporarily studying at a HEI; i.e., a student from one country accepted at an institution in another country. CSN allows exchange students to receive economic support for studying abroad. The vast majority of universities have formal agreements with other universities, allowing students to become exchange students. The construction of the agreements entails a one-to-one exchange of students, the aim being a balance of in- and outbound students, so-called reciprocity. An exchange student is a student participating in a formal exchange between universities around the world. Students study abroad for a relatively short period, such as one semester or one academic year. The exchange is monitored by each university.

Having an international experience is multifaceted. In this thesis, experiences are defined as a follow-up on what the students had expected before enrolling in studies abroad.

A commonly accepted definition of the internationalization of education is “the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education” (Knight 2008, p.21). However, some scholars have aimed to include more aspects in this concept, revising Jane Knight’s definition to incorporate these ideas in an effort to inspire HEIs working with internationalization: “the intentional process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions and delivery of post-secondary education, in order to enhance the quality of
education and research for all students and staff, and to make a meaningful contribution to society” (De Wit, Hunter, Howard & Egron-Polak 2015, p.29).

This thesis does not cover all aspects and specific dimensions of student mobility; for example, issues related to mobility from developing countries are absent. This thesis mostly targets international student mobility in a Western/European context.
Theoretical framework

In this chapter, theoretical perspectives on international student mobility are presented. Students who study abroad have different motives for doing so. For some the option of an international experience serves as an attractor, while for others a lack of possibilities in the home country pushes them to seek an education abroad. The choice of an international study experience may also be part of a mobile lifestyle. Students’ expectations for and experiences of the study period abroad are connected to the motives they have. Another aspect of student mobility is its consequences in terms of upholding or even reproducing class, strengthening a social differentiation. Different aspects of driving and restraining forces for mobility are discussed, as are the inequalities embedded in student mobility.

Driving and restraining forces for mobility

It is obvious that international student mobility can be conceptualized in many ways. Some studies have used a push-pull model to explain mobility (e.g. Mazzarol & Soutar 2001; Li & Bray 2007; Agarwal et al. 2008). The choice of study destination depends on a variety of pull factors, such as knowledge and awareness of the host country, curiosity about another country, personal recommendations, cost issues, the environment, geographic proximity, and social links (Mazzarol, Kemp & Savery 1997). Major pull factors for students choosing to study abroad are recognized to be cultural experiences, personal development, and linguistic improvement (Maiworm & Teichler 1996; Teichler 2002; Bracht et al. 2006; Thissen & Ederveen, 2006). Economic and social forces in the students’ home countries serve to push them abroad, and they expect work and career opportunities (e.g. Mazzarol & Soutar 2001; Li & Bray 2007; Agarwal et al. 2008). According to Kennedy (2010), the possibilities embedded in student mobility will push the students even further away from ‘home’ in regard to their personal objectives for life and career planning. For some international students, a wish to work in the country where they have studied or in international business and organizations serves as a pull factor. This shows that it is often a combination of push and pull factors that explain international student mobility. Furthermore, some have observed a reverse push-pull force (Li & Bray 2007): positive forces at home and negative ones abroad can also explain why some students stay put or decide to study closer to home. For some, it can be a question of risk propensity; many have the desire to study and live abroad, but are unwilling to risk losing opportunities at home.

However, the push-pull model has been criticized for not being able to fully explain mobility. This is because it draws attention away from factors that might be essential for understanding mobility, such as the fact that people are always
moving over shorter or longer distances, and the difficulties involved with transferring the concept from one spatial level to another. Furthermore, the model ignores aspects such as intervening opportunities, information flows, etc. (Malmberg 1997). One could conclude that, in studying student mobility, the model does not fully regard the opportunities students have in different situations and therefore might have difficulties when trying to make rational mobility decisions, and thus substitute the utilities of one place and/or HEI for those of another. Still, the push-pull model captures some important aspects and explains some of the drivers of international student mobility. It is clear that, for some students, economic and social forces in the home country serve to push them to seek opportunities abroad. A country’s attraction will pull students to obtain cultural and linguistic experiences as well as personal development. This means that the students’ expectations include more than strictly academic ones, and some seem to value the total experience of studying abroad, focusing on lifestyle and life satisfaction. Thus, the expectations and experiences of studying abroad are multifaceted, and what motivates some students to study abroad might be an obstacle for others.

When delineating the push-pull model it seems to be relevant to add aspects of lifestyle and life satisfaction and for the purpose of this thesis these aspects are included in the theoretical framework. Today, lifestyle-led mobility is a well-defined field of research and includes elements of a good quality of life, more enjoyable weather/climate, and a healthier and relaxed lifestyle. Lifestyle mobility suggests movements that are mostly free for the individual to choose, and related to their life values (e.g. Benson & O’Reilly 2009; Duncan et al. 2013; Åkerlund 2013; Cohen et al. 2015). These studies conceptualize individuals’ behaviour patterns in activities, attitudes, interests, opinions, and values pertinent to mobility. Bauman (1998) concludes that lifestyle mobility is a project for pursuing self-realization. Cohen et al. (2015) suggest that lifestyle should be viewed through patterns of tangible everyday behaviour. Often, it also reflects people’s self-image – the way they see themselves and believe they are seen by others (e.g. Urry 2002; Jonsson 2003; Benson & O’Reilly 2009; Kennedy 2010; Åkerlund 2013). Cohen et al. (2015) argue that, for some, being on the move has become a way of life and something ongoing throughout their life course. For some, adjusting to a global youth mobility culture, ‘home’ may not be tied to just one place (Gargano 2009). Furthermore, media such as music, film and other cultural expressions are accessible to young people worldwide and will set their frameworks for what is possible to do and with whom it is possible to interact (e.g. Bauman 1998; Ljungberg 2009). King (2017) argues that youth mobility in Europe is not only dictated by work, income, career and so forth, but is also shaped by a search for a better life.
Students reports of satisfaction in different domains of life seem to be of importance when evaluating students’ contentment with life after a sojourn abroad. Life satisfaction is a generic evaluation by a person of his or her life (Shin & Johnson 1978; Pavot, Diener, Colvin & Sandvik 1991). It is defined “as the degree to which an individual experiences himself as being able to attain his goals” (Melin 2003, p.11). The concept refers to an individual’s contentment with his or her life, and the degree of an individual’s subjective appraisal as to whether his or her aspirations and achievements have been accomplished (Jacobsson & Lexell 2013). Life satisfaction has been used as a social indicator of the meaningfulness of life (Fugl-Meyer, Melin, & Fugl-Meyer 2002). Whereas it can include elements such as number of friends, other aspects such as satisfaction with one’s finances, perceived discrimination, and information received prior to the foreign sojourn can also have an effect on students’ life satisfaction (Sam 2001). Push-pull factors are also embedded in life satisfaction. Opportunities to study abroad, as pull factors, can emerge closer to students’ home countries with a cultural familiarity, or far away where the cultural differences are huge. Studying abroad can also be a chance, a push factor, to leave the country for other lifestyle opportunities than are possible at home.

**Explaining mobility**
To further explore mobility, many scholars have turned away from the neoclassical push-pull theory and instead introduced a new mobility paradigm to elaborate on mobility in general and on international student mobility more explicitly (O’Reilly 2015). Findlay et al. (2006), elaborating on international student mobility, describe student mobility in three ways: as an element of highly skilled migration; as a product of globalization; and as an element of youth mobility cultures and consumption. The concept of highly skilled migration implies that an international labour market for highly skilled staff has emerged. This has stimulated flows of people with a post-secondary education and specialist skills to enter a global labour market; i.e., professionals and managers destined for an international career in global cooperation and transnational organizations. HEIs are also aiming to recruit talented students, some of whom will remain in the country after their training. Student mobility, with regard to being a product of globalization, is interpreted as a flow of people between integrating economies as well as HEIs harmonizing around internationally defined standards and training appropriate to a global economy. This gives students opportunities to gain multilingual skills, form a global identity preparing them to work internationally, and build up mobility capital. International student mobility, seen as a youth mobility culture, is primarily motivated by self-identification (Ibid.). King (2017) has observed a growth in the numbers of young people moving within Europe, featuring mainly temporary and circular mobility.
movements, while internationally unpredictable, seems to be an expression of taking advantage of economic and lifestyle opportunities.

A broader understanding of mobility, narratives about mobility and mobile practice is described by Cresswell (2010), outlining a theoretical framework. Cresswell concludes that mobility includes six parts: motive force, velocity, rhythm, route, experience, and friction (Table 1). The motive force is an answer to the question of why a person is moving. There is a degree of necessity in relation to mobility when choosing to move or not. A student can either be pushed to move or move by his or her own choice. Motive force can be applied to a student before actually moving. There are positive forces serving as pull factors, such as wanting to study abroad or at a particular HEI; and there are negative factors serving as push factors, such as lack of study opportunities at home or wanting to leave one’s country. The concept of velocity refers to how quickly a person can move. Being able to get somewhere quickly is increasingly associated with exclusivity for those who have the resources. Thus, velocity suggests inequalities such as students’ socio-economic background and what they can afford in relation to tuition fees, living costs, transportation, etc. The routine embedded in mobility as part of the re-production of everyday life can be conceptualized as a rhythm. For international students, a global intervention can change the rhythm – interrupt or disturb it – when they want to travel to a study destination abroad; for instance, tightened visa regulations targeting international students from specific countries.

**Table 1.** Six parts of mobility - a broader understanding (Cresswell 2010).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Six parts of mobility</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Motive force</td>
<td>Why does a person or thing move? An object has to have a force to actually be able to move. For human beings it is more complex, either being compelled to move or choosing to move. The concepts of choosing to move or to stay put are central concepts. However, there is a degree of necessity in relation to mobility when choosing or not choosing to move.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Velocity</td>
<td>How fast does a person or thing move? Being able to get somewhere quickly is increasingly associated with exclusivity. Sometimes slow can be the exclusive for the one’s having the time and space. Thus, the velocity, speed and slowness, suggests a hierarchy of mobility.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhythm</td>
<td>In what rhythm does a person or thing move? To describe the routine embedded in mobility, for instance movements of daily commuting, as a part of the re-production of everyday life. Rhythm appears as regulated time and is repeated moments of movement and rest and can rapidly change.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Routes</td>
<td>What route does it take? Mobility moves along routes and conduits and has a tunnel effect on contemporary landscape. Routes provide connectively and does not happen evenly over a continues space. Mobility is channelled, as for example, a commuter rail network.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience</td>
<td>How does it feel? Moving can be hard work, an energy-consuming business, but also luxury and pampering. Human mobility has the notion of experience at its centre.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friction</td>
<td>When and how does it stop? Mobility can sometimes be stopped or slowed down due to friction of distance and due to time-space convergence.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Mobility moves along routes and provides connectivity, and does not happen evenly over a continuous space. It is channelled; for instance, exchange students’ choice of destination depends on existing networks and formal agreements with other partner universities. Furthermore, “countries that speak the same language have much larger flows of international students than countries that do not share the same language” (Abbot & Silles 2016, p. 633). Moving can be hard work, an energy-consuming business, but can also be luxurious and pampering. Some studies have found that students describe mobility as an intensely personal experience (Papatsiba 2005). However, it can sometimes be stopped or slowed down due to friction of distance or time-space convergence. It can of course increase as well, for instance when transportation costs decrease or new routes are opened.

**Social differentiation - the inequalities of student mobility**

International experiences can be obtained either by actually studying abroad, which is studied in this thesis, or by integrating on campus with international staff and/or students, labelled by some as internationalization at home (cf. Beelen & Jones 2015). Moreover, information and communication technologies (ICT) have made it possible to interact with peers around the world without travelling. The latter can be seen as an expression of globalization. The terms globalization and internationalization are often confused with each other. Internationalization implies relations across nation-state borders (Altbach 2004); however, “the search for new knowledge is not limited by borders” (Teichler 2012, p.34). With globalization, more effort placed on the spatial and borderless implications, reaching out to a spatial domain of global action and thinking (Kress 1996). Skills achieved among students with an international experience make them suitable as a ‘global workforce’ (Gürüz & Zimpher 2011). Global citizenship and global competence are emphasized in curriculums, and are often linked to the transformative effects of mobility (Killick 2011; Deardorff & Jones 2012). However, it can also entail a great effort for students to be part of a globalized world, with so much competition and so many constraints. This can lead to a reduction in perceived life satisfaction when place attachment and social relations are decreased, such as the breakup of families and friends, mental health problems, etc. (e.g. Sandhu 1994; Sawir et al. 2008; Russel, Rosenthal & Thomson 2010; Forbes-Mewett & Sawyer 2016). Still, there are studies indicating that students engage in ‘life planning’ embedded in their future life-course aspirations, with mobility offering a way to achieve these objectives (Findlay et al. 2012).

More scholars have turned to studying the social differences within the globalizing higher education system and individuals’ assessments of studying abroad (e.g. Findlay et al. 2012; Bilecen & van Mol 2017; Börjesson 2017). Previous research has shown that studying abroad is highly dependent on
students’ background characteristics. Students from academic families are more likely to go abroad than those from non-academic families (e.g. Hauschildt et al. 2015). The former are more likely to gain benefits from studying abroad. Thus, international spatial mobility is often considered a way to gain upward social mobility, suggesting a relationship between spatial mobility and social mobility. When an individual gains access to HEIs in other countries, this will also form his or her career trajectory, offering access not only to formal knowledge but also more important social and cultural knowledge. Findlay et al. (2012) arrive at the conclusion that different dimensions of social and cultural capital are accumulated through study abroad and, furthermore, that study abroad should be viewed in the light of students’ wider life-course aspirations. Moreover, the single greatest driver for UK students is access to world-class universities (Ibid.). This indicates that the place of study is pertinent for UK students studying abroad, and that they view mobility over the long term as an important part of their further life-planning. To conclude, UK students studying abroad are concentrated in few countries with prestigious HEIs. Studying abroad is not only a way to receive a formal education but is more about being part of a wider process including socially and culturally constructed knowledge, producing a global hierarchy of HEIs (Ibid.). In the Swedish context international student mobility is encouraged, and is judged to be an asset in a global knowledge-based economy and to be beneficial to students as well as to the nation-state (SOU 2018:3; SOU 2018:78). Even though mobility is encouraged in a Swedish setting, it seems that in practice the choice is not available to most students. Studies shows that students’ socio-economic background will influence the possibility to study abroad, indicating issues of inequalities and differences in Swedish student mobility (e.g. UKÄ 2016). Börjesson (2005) concludes that the ‘social elite’ have the most to gain when it comes to the internationalization of higher education.

Another expression of inequality in student mobility is the issue of brain drain, i.e. the costs incurred by developing countries when university students move to better opportunities at HEIs and businesses in the developed world (Bhagwati 1976). It is clear that many students are in search of better opportunities, such as higher salaries, standard of living, and quality of life. However, some will return home or maintain their links to their home country, generating brain gain and, according to Welss (2014), there is no credible evidence that internationally mobile students contribute to brain drain. Some scholars have used the term brain circulation, emphasizing the transfer of knowledge included in the process of student mobility when students move to a foreign country, integrating in the destination country and at the same time maintaining contacts with the home country (Olutayo 2017). Still, the global flux of mobile students is highly unbalanced, indicating a transfer of skilled human capital from certain countries to others (Marinoni & de Wit 2019).
Börjesson (2017) argues that there are asymmetric structures between nation-states in regard to the flow of international students. It is clear that some countries, especially China and India, primarily export students while countries such as the US, the UK, Germany, France, and Australia import students for studies at a HEI and, furthermore, some students have aspirations to work in the destination country after graduation. This reveals a power relation between countries. However, these power relations can diminish and new ‘powers’ can arise and change the global education market. The expression ‘mobility poor’, launched by Cresswell (2006), conceptualizes a power relation entailing that certain people/students lack the means to move. Overall, however, different aspects of inequality have been studied only sparsely (Bilence & van Mol 2017); this thesis adds to the discussion of the relationship between international student mobility and inequalities, using a Swedish panel of inbound and outbound students to scrutinize international student mobility. In regard to globalization, Findlay et al. (2012) found that the differentiation of HEIs will likely increase the social process and widen the gap between prestigious universities and others.

A pertinent part of the theoretical framework involves the concepts mobility and migration, which are discussed in the final section of this chapter.

**Mobility and migration**

Studies of mobility have been essential within geography, and the focus has traditionally been on the physical movements of groups and/or individuals from one place to another (cf. Zipf 1946; Hagget 1965; Lewis 1982). Bunge (1966) argued that movement was the ‘key’ of geography when theoretical geography and quantitative methods were developed. This notion of movements has been important to many subfields within geography, such as transport geography, migration, tourism, and time geography. Moreover, not only physical movements but also interaction, when it comes to communication and the exchange of information, have been addressed; e.g., virtual mobility, a shift in mobility as a change from physical travel to communications (Bell & Ward 2000; Janelle & Hodge 2000; Urry 2000; Urry 2002). The concept of mobility has shown to be complex and multifaceted and, together with other disciplines, a ‘new mobilities paradigm’ (e.g. Sheller & Urry 2006; Cresswell 2006) has been developed, turning away from a static way of viewing mobility and emphasizing that it has become an important dimension of contemporary life.

Within geography there has been a discussion about when it is accurate to talk about migration and/or mobility. How far does a person need to move, and for how long, to be defined as a migrant? The discussion has addressed distance, boundaries, and duration in regard to movements (Boyle, Halfacree & Robinson 1998). Migration can be permanent or temporary, forced or voluntarily. Some
studies have examined long-term migration, for instance workers seeking permanent employment elsewhere, business migrants establishing a business in a receiving country, or forced migration due to political or religious reasons (Ibid.). Others have studied temporary migration such as seasonal migrants, commuter migrants, tourists, degree-seeking students, etc. (e.g. King & Ruiz-Gelices 2003). A person can live either in the country of origin or in the recipient country and commute back and forth between these places, e.g. international businessmen. Many have used the term temporary migration to describe migration across national borders that is time-limited, for example due to being denied a permanent residence permit. Some people have no desire to stay more than a short time in a specific country (Boyle et al. 1998). It should be emphasized that the term temporary migration does not reduce the problem of drawing clear boundaries between the various modes of movement. Mobility is a continuum, and Bogren (2008) argues that it is a challenge to draw a line between mobility and migration due to how mobility and circulation are conceptualized in contemporary society. Living abroad can last anywhere from a short period, such as when one is a tourist, to a long-term duration (Åkerlund 2017).

Mobility is a continuum of repeated moves, with the endpoint occurring when the student/person has settled at another destination; furthermore, mobility is about time-space convergence. This refers to the decline in travel time between locations, and is often labelled space-time compression, meaning that distant places are brought closer together (Hall 2005a; Hall 2005b). For those with sufficient time and budget, mobility has become easier. Time-space convergence suggests that accessibility between certain places increases as technologies enable more rapid communication. This indicates a change in how mobility is conceptualized, becoming more of a ‘routine activity’ (Gustafsson 2014) and being regarded “as a continuous and multiple process rather than as a one-way ticket” (Murphy-Lejeune 2002, p.2).

People’s movements are embedded in the complexity of their everyday lives and experiences. The distinction between migration and mobility is blurred in relation to students who move to study abroad. One example of scholars reflecting on when it is accurate to use migration and/or mobility is found in King, Findlay & Ahrens (2010, p.6): “we opt for the term international student mobility rather than migration, even though we have used international student migration in some of our earlier writings”. Reasons for changing stance include that mobility implies a shorter time frame for the movement, and a high probability of return (Ibid.). For many students, international mobility entails temporarily studying abroad and then returning to receive a degree at one’s home university (e.g. Erasmus students). However, students studying for an entire degree are less easy to label. The entire degree programme can run for several years. The probability of returning is high among degree students as well, after having received a
diploma or degree abroad (Ibid.), but some wish to make an international career and this can lead to permanent residence abroad. The concept student mobility also includes aspects of social mobility, motivating students from different socio-economic backgrounds whose career will benefit from studies abroad (Findlay, King, Stam & Ruiz-Gelices 2006). According to Teichler (2017), a person’s move can indicate an upward social mobility, for instance a move from an economically less advanced to an economically more advanced country where a HEI is viewed as superior in academic quality. This is referred to as vertical mobility. Consequently, horizontal mobility refers to a move to a HEI of equal quality; this would be true for many of the students enrolled in the Erasmus Programme. The study destination is more or less on equal terms with the HEI in the country of origin. Horizontally mobile students do not expect a higher level of teaching or substance of knowledge.

King and Williams (2018) recognize that mobility and migration are not dichotomous alternatives. It is more a question of using the term for the “right” purposes and for a particular context. For the purpose of this thesis, international student mobility implies temporary movement (King et al. 2010), and the term is used with the interpretation that the students relocate to other places temporarily, implying at least an ambition to return to the place of departure. This term was defined in the introduction chapter, and will be used throughout the thesis.
Previous studies

International student mobility
Most universities around the world are offering students increased opportunities to participate and engage in learning across national borders (Salyers et al. 2015), and it seems important to reflect on what constitutes an international experience in relation to the numbers of students who will have such an experience. An international experience can be obtained in many different ways. In Western/European countries some students study abroad while others travel the world, for instance as backpackers, but when embarking on a university education some stay in their home country for their entire period of study while others interact with international peers through ICT, expanding the social space (Reich 1998). Börjesson (2005) arrives at the conclusion that internationalization in higher education includes aspects like student and teacher mobility, learning in a foreign language, establishment of international standards (e.g. the Bologna Process) and, furthermore, adaptation of curricula and the content of courses and programmes.

When reviewing previous studies on international student mobility, one notes that they cover a number of issues. Academic achievement is the most essential for some students, while for others the study destination comes first (Sutton & Rubin 2004; Malmgren & Galvin 2008). The outcomes of some studies indicate that educational and career choices among international students are important (Bracht et al. 2006). Studies have shown that mobile students acquire international skills, such as understanding the complexity of global issues, ability to work with people from other cultures and ease in doing so, intercultural awareness, self-confidence, and self-reliance (King & Ruiz-Gellices 2003; Ingraham & Peterson 2004; Papatsiba 2005; Paige et al. 2009; Stebleton et al. 2013). Internationally mobile students are looking to fulfil their own potential and personal development (Jonsson 2003; Bracht et al. 2006). Accordingly, studying abroad can be seen as a project of self-realization, with students’ mindset becoming more global with a greater world openness. Furthermore, students have greater understanding in regard to international outlooks as well as their own culture and values thanks to the experience they obtained when studying abroad (Dwyer 2004). Intercultural understanding and broad international competence are welcomed among global businesses and organizations (Wiers-Jenssen 2008). There are some European indications of students prolonging their period of study by up to half a year as a consequence of studying abroad (Teichler 2017). Students choosing to study abroad are also selecting a destination, and students conceptualize study destinations differently. Accordingly, the choice is about education and/or place. The importance of place is emphasized by Prazeres (2018), who suggests that mobility is embedded in a mobility hierarchy, meaning that certain places offer higher rates of symbolic
capital. Moreover, politicians set the rules for mobility through political decisions regarding studying in a foreign country, regulations for migration, student loans, recognition of foreign degrees etc. There is also a ‘market’ embedded in international student mobility. HEIs today are driven by a mix of policy and business (Varghese 2008), which has led to a growing interest in the business of international education, viewing the internationalization of higher education as an export industry and implying a commodification of higher education (Cantwell 2015). For this reason, universities in some countries are actively recruiting international fee-paying students, and for these universities international students have become an important source of income and contribute substantially to their revenue (OECD 2017).

The time frame for an international experience can differ. Therefore, it should be recognized that studying abroad can include a short-term experience of a sojourn abroad, such as field trips, up to a long-term experience of many years, such as completing a degree at a foreign HEI. Knight (2012) explores different categories of student mobility and what is included in this concept (Table 2). Some students are limited/restricted to studying at the university and/or in the country where they have been admitted, without really having a choice, while others are restricted to agreements between their home university and a foreign HEI, or to academic programmes enabling them to participate in field trips abroad. For many students, at least in the Western world, studying abroad is an option and is available to most students. International student mobility implies both a high probability of returning for those participating in credit mobility (exchange students) with a short duration, and for degree students, especially from developing countries, with a long duration or permanent residence abroad (King et al. 2010).
Table 2. Six categories of student mobility experiences (source: Knight 2012 p.25).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of mobility experience</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Who awards credentials or credit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Full degree programme in foreign country</td>
<td>Students move to a foreign country to enrol and complete a full degree at host institutions.</td>
<td>Degree awarded by host HEI in foreign country.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Short-term study-abroad experience as part of degree programme at home institution</td>
<td>Students studying in their home institution’s degree programme undertake a short-term (one semester or one year) mobility experience in a foreign country at a foreign institution, or at a branch campus of their home institution.</td>
<td>Degree awarded by home HEI in home country. (Academic credits from coursework at foreign HEI normally accepted).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Cross-degree programmes between two or more institutions or providers. Border collaborative.</td>
<td>Students enrol in an education programme involving two or more HE institutions or providers working collaboratively to offer a degree programme. Types of programmes include: Twinning programme at home institution Franchise programme at home institution Joint programme at home institution Double or multiple degree programme Sandwich programme at foreign institution</td>
<td>Different models of degree awarding exist.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Research and fieldwork</td>
<td>Research or fieldwork in fulfilment of degree programme at home institution.</td>
<td>To fulfil requirements of awarding institution.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Internship and practical experiences</td>
<td>Required or optional internship, placement or community service work fulfilment of degree programme at home institution.</td>
<td>To fulfil requirements of awarding institution.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Study tour, workshops</td>
<td>Required or optional study tour, summer programme, cultural or language course, conference, workshops. Part of independent degree programme at home institution.</td>
<td>Not usually credit-based.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cross-border mobility has many causes, and students have their own individual objectives when it comes to study plans (cf. Bell & Ward 2000; Findlay et al. 2010; CIMO et al. 2013; Austin & Shen 2016). Table 3 displays a selection of follow-up studies relevant to this thesis that explore different outcomes of student mobility in relation to global engagement, mobility capital, employability, inequalities, lifestyle and life satisfaction. International student mobility can be viewed as an instrument for attaining mobility capital (Murphy-Lejeune 2002), enabling students to enhance the skills they have gained through the experience of having lived abroad, and this experience will have a long-term impact on their life and career (Dwyer 2004; McKeown 2009; Paige et al., 2009). Consequently, international student mobility should be viewed in relation to the contemporary
global knowledge economy (e.g. UNESCO 2005; OECD 2008, Bhandari & Blumenthal 2011; Gürüz & Zimpher 2011) and the discussion about deploying mobility capital (e.g. Bourdieu 1997; Murphy-Lejeune 2002; Brooks & Waters 2010). International student mobility should be placed in a context such as the student’s country of origin, socio-economic background etc. when examining the different outcomes and causal effects of studying abroad. Most previous studies cannot causally attribute outcomes to studying abroad; what instead tends to emerge is unobserved heterogeneity (e.g. Messer & Wolter 2007a; Messer & Wolter 2007b; Kratz & Netz 2016). Findlay et al. (2012) emphasize that student mobility is often viewed as discrete and disconnected from other mobilities. Instead, it is more correct to apprehend mobility among students as a ‘life planning’ process. This selection of studies, in table 3, indicates that few studies have used control groups of non-mobile students, and in most of them the students were surveyed at only one occasion. As a study by Roy et al. (2018) has shown, few studies on the outcomes of international student mobility cover pre- and post-groups. Thus, the table on the next page briefly presents a number of studies on different outcomes of international student mobility.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of study</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Findings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mobility capital</td>
<td>Examines the long-term impact of study abroad on various forms of global engagement. The study compared students who had been on a year abroad with non-mobile control groups.</td>
<td>Several different dimensions of social and cultural capital are accrued through study abroad, and it is argued that these different dimensions can be structured along geographical lines of student mobility.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lifestyle</td>
<td>Examines the early career of graduates who have studied abroad (mobile students) compared to those who have undertaken their entire education at domestic higher education institutions (non-mobile students).</td>
<td>International assignments were more frequent for mobile students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Findings</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 3.** Outcomes of international student mobility as exemplified by a number of follow-up studies; a selection of studies relevant to this study.
Staying put

Previous studies recognize that most students do not participate in international student mobility and do not study abroad even when opportunities exist within their study programmes. Some students might have shown interest in international studies in the past, while others are convinced from the beginning that studying in their home country is the best option. Studies have confirmed that some students who have expressed an interest in studying abroad do not implement their plans (e.g. Vossensteyn et al. 2010; CIMO et al. 2013; Hauschildt et al. 2015).

Insufficient knowledge of the academic prerequisites and qualifications in various countries, differences in the structure of the academic term, disparities in the times at which exams are taken and so forth are perceived as obstacles by students (cf. Piorecky 2015). Moreover, students highlight a lack of information, difficulty finding information about studying abroad, and difficulty with administrative requirements as obstacles (Vossensteyn et al. 2010). In studies on students’ rationales for not participating in international mobility, a number of obstacles stand out: costs, social life and personal relationships, uncertainty about education and career prospects, and furthermore, lack of academic confidence and proficiency in a foreign language (Rodrigues Gonzalez et al. 2011; Souto-Otero et al. 2013; Beerkens et al. 2015; UHR 2015).

Other explanations for not participating in international student mobility include gender, disability, age, and socio-economic background. Few students with disabilities participate in international student mobility (SIHO 2012; Piorecky 2015).

Gender can act as a threshold to mobility in relation to study programmes with a majority of female students, such as Nursing, Teacher Education and Training etc., in which few students participate in mobility (UKÄ 2016). This might have to do with a lack of ‘mobility windows’ included in programmes that attract female students (Hauschildt et al. 2015).

Students recruited from non-academic families are underrepresented when it comes to international mobility (Börjesson 2005). A study by Souto Otero and MacCoshan (2006) showed that 58 per cent of Erasmus students had at least one parent with a post-secondary education background, compared to 30 per cent in the total population. Even though the Erasmus Programme can offer a stipend for studying abroad in an aim to make it easier for all students to participate, including those with the least resources, students from non-academic families are still underrepresented (Souto-Otero et al. 2013).
Some students seem to question the merit of studying abroad; student mobility has gradually lost its exclusiveness (Teichler 2012). They use this as an argument to stay put. The reason for these students’ stance is the way student mobility is perceived. As mentioned, previous studies indicate that students want the experience to have an influence on their career goals and well as on their job search and employability. It is very much up to the student to make the case and demonstrate the link between the experience of having studied abroad and the specific skills valued by the company or organization the student wants to work for (Stier 2004; Gribble 2008).

A general study outcome is that the bond people develop with places has been found to increase with time (Lewicka 2011), and that staying put can be an issue of place attachment, i.e. wanting to remain in the country where you live (e.g. Buttimmer 1978; Asplund 1983; Malmberg, Sandberg & Westin 2005; Westin, 2015). Place attachment might partly explain why students can consider moving for studies within their own country but are hesitant to study abroad. The idea of being mobile has changed over time, and place attachment is not always a contradiction. Among people wanting to remain non-mobile, some try to find equilibrium by commuting (Gustafsson 2001) or by adopting a mobile lifestyle and having many places they consider home (Cresswell 2010), or by being connected via ICT, expanding the social space (Reich 1998).

It is also a matter of how the study-abroad experience is officially registered, as differences lead to an underestimation of internationally mobile students. The available statistics sources are not always accurate; often an approximation is made of student mobility due to uncertainty as to how to define the international student experience in regard to citizenship, duration and migration status, as well as the challenge of measuring new concepts of international mobility, for instance curricular innovation (Teichler 2012). Some programmes only allow shorter periods of mobility, covering just a few weeks, and are not included or recognized in the official statistical sources (Hauschildt et al. 2015). To illustrate this, within the Erasmus Programme students need to be on exchange for studies for a minimum of 90 days, or 60 days for work placement (internship), to be registered as outbound students. This means that the study programmes available to students influence their possibilities to study abroad in relation not only to mobility windows (Stier 2004) but also to how the experience is defined and registered within the programme and at the HEI. The available international statistics do not offer any distinction between short-term (e.g. summer schools, intensive language courses, field trips, excursions and work experience) and degree mobility. As a consequence, these international statistics undercount the actual number of mobile students (Teichler 2017).
Finally, concern has been raised in regard to non-mobile students’ lack of international experience during their studies with reference to the implications this has on their career and life planning, indicating inequalities in student mobility. A concept of internationalization at home has been launched as a way of giving non-mobile students such an experience, focusing on ensuring that all students obtain an international experience through an internationalized curriculum and campus, including the interactions between local students and international students and faculty (Crowther et al. 2001; Beelen & Jones 2015).
Materials and methods

Methodological procedures
This thesis is based on surveys targeting students who have studied abroad. The expectations and experiences of being an international student have been captured via questionnaire surveys pre- and post-studying abroad, thereby placing the individual student in focus. Two surveys addressed outbound and inbound students, respectively, from and to Umeå University during the period 2007 to 2009. They were designed as panel studies, a research design that involves repeated observations of the same people/students. Papers I, II and III are based on these surveys. Paper IV is based on results from the International Student Barometer (ISB), an annual international survey (Table 4).

Data collection
For this study, students’ expectations and experiences were surveyed at two occasions following the same individuals using pre- and post-surveys. The surveys, designed at the Department of Geography at Umeå University, targeted in- and outbound students. In Papers I, II and III, all questions were the same for all participants and there was no intermediary information given to the students. The key issues addressed concerned individual expectations for and experiences from a sojourn abroad.

The outbound students received the survey in Swedish and the inbound students received it in English (Appendix). The follow-up survey had fewer questions and was less comprehensive, for instance omitting background questions. Students were asked about their previous experiences of travelling and living abroad, their motives for enrolling in an international study programme, their choice of study destination, and their expectations (such as learning another language, learning about another culture, fulfilling a sense of adventure etc.). The aim of Paper I was to investigate the extent to which outbound exchange students’ expectations were met (Table 4). All outbound exchange students at Umeå University were sent a link to a web survey (n=143) prior to their departure (August 2007), and after having been sent three reminders via e-mail 80 students had responded. When the 80 students had been followed up via a web survey, the panel constituted 57 respondents after three reminders; i.e. students answering a survey before departure and after having had an approximately six-month experience of studying abroad. Non-respondents in the follow-up survey were mainly the result of students having changed their e-mail address and, therefore, not being possible to reach. The pre-departure survey yielded a response rate of 56 per cent, and the follow-up survey 71 per cent of those who had answered the first survey. This means that the overall response rate was 40 per cent. According to the post-survey, 72 per cent of the students studied Social Sciences (including Law &
Table 4. Four papers on international student mobility describing the content of the empirical studies in this thesis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paper</th>
<th>Research aim</th>
<th>Statistical method(s)</th>
<th>Level of statistical significance</th>
<th>Design</th>
<th>Study area</th>
<th>Time period of study</th>
<th>Study population</th>
<th>Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>To investigate how the expectations of outbound exchange students are being met, pre- and post-studying abroad.</td>
<td>Paired-samples t-test, Chi square tests.</td>
<td>Level of statistical significance p&lt;0.05.</td>
<td>Prospective cohort study</td>
<td>Umeå University, Sweden</td>
<td>Academic year 2007/2008</td>
<td>Outbound students from Umeå University fall 2007</td>
<td>The panel constitutes 57 respondents out of the 80 who responded to the first survey, i.e. students who answered both surveys. The respondents could be matched and linked between the two surveys. An initial population of 143 outbound students was invited.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>To study the expectations inbound students had when enrolling, and the experience they had gained after having studied in Sweden, pre- and post-studying abroad.</td>
<td>A principal component analysis (PCA) was performed.</td>
<td>Level of statistical significance p&lt;0.05.</td>
<td>Prospective cohort study</td>
<td>Umeå University, Sweden</td>
<td>Academic year 2008/2009</td>
<td>Inbound students to Umeå University August 2008</td>
<td>The panel constitutes 116 respondents out of the 296 who responded to the first survey, i.e. students who answered both surveys. The respondents could be matched and linked between the two surveys. An initial population of 400 inbound students was invited.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>To investigate life satisfaction among a group of inbound students and to follow up on their reported life satisfaction after a period of study in Sweden, pre- and post-studying abroad.</td>
<td>Cross-tabulations and chi-square tests. Univariate and multivariate binary logistic regression.</td>
<td>Level of statistical significance p&lt;0.05.</td>
<td>Prospective cohort study</td>
<td>Umeå University, Sweden</td>
<td>Academic year 2008/2009</td>
<td>Inbound students to Umeå University August 2008</td>
<td>The panel constitutes 116 respondents out of 296 who responded to the first survey, i.e. students who answered both surveys. The respondents could be matched and linked between the two surveys. An initial population of 400 inbound students was invited.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV</td>
<td>To investigate how students assess the impacts of studying abroad on their future career.</td>
<td>Independent samples t-test.</td>
<td>Level of statistical significance p&lt;0.05.</td>
<td>Cross-section study</td>
<td>Data from the International Student Barometer (ISB) surveys running 2010-2014</td>
<td>Surveys November 2010-2014</td>
<td>International students from 18 countries</td>
<td>164,863 international students responded to the 2014 ISB survey. An initial population of approximately 600,000 international students was invited.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Business), 65 per cent were female, mean age was 24 years, 95 per cent were studying abroad for one semester, and 50 per cent had lived for a period in a foreign country before studying abroad.

The aim of Paper II was to study the expectations inbound students had when enrolling, and the experience they had gained after approximately six months of studies at Umeå University (Table 4). All inbound international students attending an introduction day, approximately 400 individuals, received a paper survey on arrival and were invited to participate in the study. Two hundred ninety-six students responded. The panel constituted the 116 respondents, were sent a link to a web survey on follow-up, with three reminders. The 116 students included in the panel had answered a survey on arrival, and again after having studied in Sweden for approximately six months. Non-respondents in the follow-up survey were mainly the result of students having changed their e-mail address and, therefore, not being possible to reach. The arrival survey yielded a response rate of 74 per cent, and the follow-up survey 40 per cent of those who had answered the first survey. This means that the overall response rate was approximately 30 per cent. Seventy-three per cent came from a European country (EU/EEA). Male and female students were evenly distributed in the panel, mean age was 24 years, half of the respondents studied Social Sciences (including Law & Business), and 82 per cent were exchange students studying for one or two semesters.

The aim of Paper III was to investigate life satisfaction among a group of inbound students at Umeå University, and to follow up on their reported life satisfaction after a six-month period of studying abroad (Table 4). The questions were included in the survey to inbound students.

Paper IV is a global study and does not specifically examining Umeå University, even though the results from Umeå University are included in the global results. The data were collected by the International Insight Group (i-graduate), and secondary data were retrieved from i-graduate. The study was based on a set of global macro data targeting career opportunities, employability and enhanced knowledge about some features of job-upon-graduation. The data in Paper IV cover the period 2010-2014. Some questions from the total International Student Barometer (ISB survey) were used, since the focus was mainly on examining perceptions of employability in relation to career opportunities due to studies abroad. The survey was in English and was conducted as a web survey with three reminders. The purpose of including Paper IV in this thesis is to add a broader scope and to include more students, both exchange and degree students, in relation to the Umeå study, in which the vast majority were exchange students with only a rather small population of international students being surveyed. More students were included in the global study, and Paper IV should be viewed
in this context. The aim of Paper IV was to investigate students’ expectations in relation to how they assess the impacts of studying abroad on their future career (Table 4). The study was based on survey results from the ISB. The response rate for the 2014 survey was 28 per cent of a total population of 599,453 students from 18 countries and 209 HEIs. The ISB survey covers topics such as application, arrival, learning, living support etc. Around 170-200 HEI and approximately 150,000 students yearly participate in the survey, which is a global benchmarking survey that has been in place for more than ten years and has surveyed over 2.3 million international students. The survey was directed at international students at the participating HEIs. All international students with an e-mail address are invited to respond to the survey questionnaire for a period running each year in the autumn.

Measuring students’ expectations and experiences
The outbound students were screened in August 2007, and the inbound students when they attended Arrival Day in 2008. The analyses are based on data from surveys monitoring the students’ expectations for and experiences from studying abroad. Surveying prior to leaving and a follow-up survey after their stay abroad also included a matching of the respondents in both surveys. The studies were designed as a panel of repeated observations of the same people/students, and as a prospective cohort study. Panel data offer the advantage of observing the same individuals over a given period, and can provide more information about the individual (Wooldridge 2013). A benefit of studying the same individuals at two occasions is that one does not have to take into account other characteristics that could potentially explain differences in the students’ expectations and their experiences as would have been the case if the survey had targeted another population for the post-survey. Since studies on pre- and post-studying abroad targeting the same students are uncommon, the strength of this study is its focus on a follow-up of international students’ expectations and experience, and that the same students (individuals) were surveyed both before and after a period of studying abroad. Table 5 shows an overview of the four studies.

In Paper III, a Life Satisfaction Questionnaire (LiSat-11) was used. Levels of satisfaction were rated on a six-grade ordinal scale (from 1 = very dissatisfied to 6 = very satisfied), with higher scores indicating higher levels of life satisfaction. In accordance with previous studies, and for comparison purposes using the LiSat-11 (Fugl-Meyer, Melin & Fugl-Meyer 2002; Melin, Fugl-Meyer & Fugl-Meyer 2003), the scale was dichotomized into either satisfied (5–6) or dissatisfied (1–4). The questionnaire has a stable construct, and has been found to be valid in regard to estimations of life satisfaction in general as well as satisfaction with specific aspects of one’s life such as academic situation, finances, leisure time, contact with friends and acquaintances, daily life, family life, partnership, somatic health, and psychological health.
All statistical analysis in Paper IV was performed by i-graduate, and it is important to mention that for this study the author received already made tables and figures from the co-author, who works for i-graduate, and did not have access to the data through other sources. The study was designed as an annual cross-section study. Cross-sectional survey data cover a single point in time (Rafferty, Walthery & King-Hele 2015). The analysis was based on repeated cross-sectional data with observations of cohorts of international students such as those from continental Europe, exchange students, degree students etc.

**Table 5.** Overview of the four studies in this thesis: Papers I, II, III and IV.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Mean age</th>
<th>Response rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paper I</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Survey 1</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>24.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Follow-up</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>24.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paper II</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Survey 2</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>23.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Follow-up</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>24.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paper III</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>49</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>24.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paper IV</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>53</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>24.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Strengths and limitations**

The follow-up studies scrutinized students studying abroad using surveys at Umeå University, a comprehensive Swedish HEI. The key issues addressed concerned individual expectations for and experiences from a sojourn abroad.
Previous studies on international mobility have predominantly surveyed students at one occasion using a set of cross-sectional data (e.g. Thissen & Ederveen 2006; Paige, Fry, Stallman, Josic & Jon 2009; Kennedy 2010). The strength of this study is the panel design, surveying students before the experience and performing a follow-up of the same individuals studying abroad after a six-month period. In Papers I, II and III, all questions were the same for all participants and there was no intermediary information given to them. The use of a panel design has some advantages, and according to Wooldridge (2013) it allows the researcher to control for unobserved characteristics of individuals.

Another reason for choosing a survey was that some students had relocated after an experience of studying abroad and were living at other places in Sweden or abroad. This is a challenge when aiming to follow up an individual experience before and after studying abroad, and one way of solving such issues is the use of surveys. There are some cons with this approach, such as the formulation of questions and the respondents not having the opportunity to ask follow-up questions if something is unclear (cf. Kelley, Clark, Brown & Sitzia 2003). For this study, with its limited resources, a quantitative approach was also judged to be the most appropriate for studying students’ expectations and experiences at two occasions, following the same individuals using pre- and post-surveys. A disadvantage to using surveys is that they are not able to penetrate more deeply into the answers. Quantitative studies generally aim to reveal patterns or enable comparisons between groups. However, they do not give a deeper understanding as to, for example, students’ reasoning or decision-making process. The answers lack the nuances that can be captured with interviews, which allow respondents to develop their answers. To interpret the results of this survey, some comparisons with and references to qualitative studies are made; one study often referred to in this thesis is Murphy-Lejeune (2002). In addition, the language used in surveys can also result in misinterpretation, especially when the language of the survey is not a respondent’s native language. Furthermore, there is also a risk of self-production of data, so-called recall bias, meaning that the respondents remember how they answered the questions in the first survey and repeat the same answers (Last 2001). However, a six-month period between the surveys is a fairly long time, and it would be difficult to remember the answers one gave when responding to the first survey. Another issue is how surveys are perceived by students who are asked to answer many surveys during their studies, and this might make them hesitant when asked to answer yet another. However, one could argue that having as the sender of surveys the International Office, an office most students trust and have a relationship with, probably had a positive effect on the response rates. In a study by Haugen (2012), issues when using mail and web surveys were discussed and among young people, such as international students, it can be expected that web surveys are appropriate due to the students’ familiarity with and access to the Internet. According to Stanton (1998), the data
quality is positive for web-based surveys with fewer missing data and no differences in variability, factor structure or measurement error. Moreover, in order to study the students’ expectations and experiences, self-reported data have been used. The surveys measure experiences stated by the students, i.e. data collected from what the students themselves expressed as their experiences. Thus, the research depends upon students’ self-reported data. According to Bosnjak and Batinic (2000), there are some indications that self-reported data may be more accurate in a web environment.

The study aimed to follow up the mobile students immediately after their experiences; otherwise, there would have been a risk of problems with sorting out the study-abroad experience with other experiences in a young person’s life. With time it would have been difficult to remember the experience related to the study abroad, and memories could be influenced by other factors having nothing to do with the actual experience at the time or how the students had perceived studying abroad (which could bias the results). For example, if a student got a job after some time thanks to the experience of the sojourn abroad, the student might be more likely to report the experience as positive even though he or she did not experience it this way while it was happening. However, the period for a follow-up will always be an issue. Different follow-up periods might explain why outcomes from studies can differ. Follow-up studies can range from immediately after a period abroad to several years later. Since most exchange students study abroad for one semester, a six-month follow-up was judged to be sufficient. Noteworthy in this study is that most were exchange students (outbound students 100% and inbound students 82%). The panel followed each individual pre- and post-studying abroad, revealing the students’ perceived situation at the time. A concern are the non-respondents in surveys, an aspect often used as a data quality indicator. A large dropout can lead to systematic errors (Dillman 1991; Last 2001; Groves & Peytcheva 2008). In an analysis of the non-respondents in the two surveys, the non-respondents did not indicate any bias or systematic error with respect to gender, age, or study programme (Papers I, II and III). The outcomes from this study mainly apply to the population studied, i.e. students who were invited to participate by answering the pre- and post-surveys on studying abroad. It should also be noted that this study took place before Sweden introduced tuition fees for students studying for a whole degree outside the EU/EEA. However, exchange students are exempt from tuition fees.

No comparison groups of non-mobile students were included in this study, and neither did it make use of pilot studies beforehand. The focus of the thesis is on students who have studied abroad, and this is why no comparisons were made between mobile and non-mobile students. However, according to previous studies (e.g. Börjesson 2005; Souto & MacCoshan 2006; UKÄ 2016), non-mobile students are different in respect to their backgrounds. Students from academic
families are more likely to go abroad than are those from non-academic families (Hauschildt et al. 2015). Moreover, the students were all recruited from Umeå University, Sweden (see the section on self-reflection and ethics). For the purpose of broadening the scope, the ISB study (Paper IV) was added, with a different design, screening international student mobility through a global survey examining how students assess the impact of studying abroad on their future career.

According to King et al. (2010), Sweden is an Anglophone country. This means that outbound students are looking for study opportunities in English-speaking countries and, furthermore, that inbound students can study in English in non-English speaking countries. This makes the students biased in relation to the English-speaking world, as many HEIs in non-English speaking countries can only offer a limited number of courses taught in English. The three different materials complement each other, in that the outbound students were all Swedish. The inbound students came from many different countries, with 73 per cent coming from a European country. The global study screened a large student population covering more HEIs and countries and not only exchange students, who were mainly targeted in the Umeå surveys. For the thesis as a whole, the combined use of surveys from Umeå university with a global survey allows for a broad picture of experiences obtained by internationally mobile students.

Self-reflections and ethics
Having worked as director of the International Office at Umeå University for more than ten years, and as a senior advisor in recent years, means that I am one of many ‘experts’ on student mobility. I have worked with inbound and outbound students, met with representatives of partner universities around the world, and been a member of the national Erasmus reference committee, chairperson for a national taskforce within the consortium Study Destination Sweden, Umeå University representative at the Nordic Centres in China and India, and chairperson for the Nordic Centre in India. I am also an executive member of the Association of Swedish Higher Education expert group on internationalization. This is of course both an asset and a challenge when writing a thesis on a very familiar topic. At times it can be difficult to have the eye of a researcher when one is so deeply involved with international student mobility as I have been. However, my personal aim as a practitioner is to bridge research and practice, i.e. to place my experiences in an academic context in order to share knowledge.

The data in Paper IV were collected by the International Insight Group (i-graduate). Thus, the ISB survey is retrieved from i-graduate, delivering benchmarking studies for the education sector worldwide (Brett 2013). I-graduate is part of Tribal Group, listed on the London Stock Exchange. The Group provides software and services and mainly works with universities, colleges and
schools in the UK, Asia Pacific, and continental Europe. Umeå University purchased the survey between 2009 and 2017. Even though using commercial data may present a problem, removing the possibility to have the influence of formulating questions and processing data, it seems unlikely that this would have affected the results of the study, as this would put the company’s credibility at stake if they were in any way attempting to manipulate the results.

I declare no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research covered in this thesis. However, I have worked at the International Office at Umeå University, Sweden, when writing this thesis. During the last two years, my employer has allowed me to work 20 per cent on finalizing this thesis; otherwise this project has been conducted outside my working hours.
A global outlook on international student mobility

Global data indicate that the number of students studying outside their country of citizenship has increased more than five-fold since the 1970s, from approximately 0.8 to over 4.5 million students; and the annual global growth is now approximately 7 per cent (OECD 2013; OECD 2014; OECD 2017). However, while the overall student numbers have increased, the absolute figures are misleading. The proportion of students studying abroad has remained more or less constant, at 2 per cent or only slightly more (Teichler 2017). In addition, approximately 13 million cross-border online students are using the possibilities presented by ICT, increasing the global reach of domestic education (Sharifian 2013). Some countries have more students studying abroad than at home. The US, China, Germany, and France are all top countries when it comes to both receiving and sending students. Another observation is that English-speaking countries attract internationally mobile students, but students from English-speaking countries travel to a lesser degree to other countries for studies (UNESCO 2014). One can further observe that the HEIs have changed in their progress toward including international dimensions in their curricula to now include global, intercultural and comparative perspectives in the teaching and learning process and programme content. Moreover, academic credentials and collaborative programmes (e.g. joint or double degree) are now being recognized (Knight 2012; Knight 2014).

Opportunities to study abroad are also emerging closer to students’ home countries. Some universities in North America and the UK have now established branch campuses, for example in Asia (e.g. Normand-Marconnet 2015; Johnson 2017). The attraction is lower travel costs and cultural familiarity. Kondakci (2011) found that the establishment of HEI opportunities closer to home with students who originate from neighbouring countries can reduce problems adjusting to a new country. One example is the increase of inbound students from neighbouring countries to the Arab States, Central and Eastern Europe, and Sub-Saharan Africa (UNESCO 2014). Another example is HEIs in the Nordic countries, where particularly Denmark receives many Nordic students for post-secondary education (Elken, Hovdhaugen & Wiers-Jenssen 2015).

Most students in the world have to pay tuition fees (OECD 2014), as universities are not publicly funded to the same extent as has been the case in the past. This has opened up for market solutions, making education a commodity, for example in countries like Australia, the US and the UK (cf. Altbach & Knight 2007; Choudaha 2017). This means that students have to adjust to a global educational market for HEIs. Notable is that fees for international students and domestic
students are treated differently in different countries around the world. Some have the same fees for both international and domestic students, while in other countries international students pay higher fees than domestic students and, furthermore, some countries charge no tuition fees at all for students at HEIs (OECD 2014). Furthermore, regarding the choice of HEI, the rationales of students, and sometimes their parents, are crucial when trying to understand international student mobility (e.g. Osborne 2015).

Political decisions have an impact on both the supply and demand of post-secondary education; i.e., decisions can encourage mobility in post-secondary education and/or regulate the flow of international students (Varghese 2008). The clearest example of a political intervention was the aftermath of the terrorist attacks in New York on September 11, 2001, which changed much of the scope and direction of student mobility (OECD 2014). Due to changes in visa regulations for students from particular countries in Asia wanting to study in the US, the flow of students turned to other countries. Some of the Asian students obtained a post-secondary education in Europe (Choudaha 2017).

In countries with a young population, students are more or less pushed to seek study opportunities abroad due to a lack of available spots at their ‘home’ universities (cf. Dodani & LaPorte 2005; Altbach & Knigh 2007). Students have to adjust to a global education market in relation to regulations in the destination country regarding visas for study and work after graduation. Moreover, studying abroad is not only about being able to receive a post-secondary education not available at home, but is also an issue of obtaining a high-quality post-secondary education. The varying quality among the HEIs can partly explain the growth in number of mobile students (Teichler 1999; Zhao & Wildemeersch 2008). Students with high academic achievements aim for studies at high-quality programmes and prestigious HEIs, seeing these as beneficial to their future careers.

One further reason for the increase in the actual numbers of international students is the enhancement of courses taught in English in non-English speaking countries. Many programmes and single-subject courses are taught in English. This has made English a global language in academia and a well-established language in post-secondary education (cf. Crystal 2003). Courses taught in English are of the utmost importance for international students to be able to study abroad. Approximately two billion people around the world are now using English (Sharifian 2013).

Studying abroad is also encouraged through different types of exchange programmes for the purpose of promoting internationalization (de Wit 2011). The most well-known is the Erasmus Programme, financed by EU. Exchange student
programmes are regulated by formal agreements with other universities; these agreements are necessary for the mobility to take place, and to enable students to become exchange students.

**International student mobility in Europe**
The total number of European students studying in another country in Europe increased from approximately 350,000 in 2001 to more than 660,000 in 2012 (Eurostat 2016). Among the EU-28, ten countries had most of their inbound students from outside Europe, most of them originating from China. However, a majority of the EU-28 countries had another European country as the top nation among their inbound students (Eurostat 2016).

Figure 1 shows the percentages of students enrolled in post-secondary education in a country other than their own in 2007 and 2012; i.e. enrolled students who have spent some time in another EU member state, EEA or candidate country. Exchange students (credit mobility) are omitted from the student numbers in Figure 1. It is notable that countries such as Luxembourg and Cyprus have the highest student mobility rates registered, followed by Slovakia, Ireland, and Malta. These are all relatively small European countries with limited domestic HEI opportunities, with students wishing to work in the country where they have studied. Students from the UK and Spain have the lowest mobility rates.
Figure 1. Students studying in another EU-28, EEA or candidate country as a percentage of all students in the country, 2007 and 2012.
Source: Eurostat

As mentioned, there are many opportunities for higher-education students when it comes to studying abroad, especially for those within Europe who have access to the Erasmus Programme. This enables them to study and train abroad for a period of at least three months for studies and two months for an internship. This programme, financed by the European Union with the purpose of encouraging
intra-European student mobility, has given international student mobility a massive boost (Rodrigues Gonzalez et al. 2011). In Europe about 3.3 million students have participated in the Erasmus Programme since its start in 1987 (European Commission 2015). Approximately 4,000 HEIs in more than 30 countries take part in the Erasmus Programme, which makes it the largest mobility programme in the world (Souto-Otero et al. 2013). Today, more than 200,000 students annually participate in the programme (European Commission 2015). Students are encouraged to study abroad, but still only a minority of students at European HEIs are participating. According to the European Commission (2015), approximately 5 per cent of all students who have earned a degree in Europe have had an international experience through the Erasmus Programme during their studies.

The Bologna Process aims at making HEIs more transparent and harmonized. This includes improving students’ possibilities to study abroad (Bologna Declaration 1999). For this reason, the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) has become pertinent, and every two to three years Ministerial Conferences are organized in order to assess the progress made within the EHEA (Prague in 2001, Berlin in 2003, Bergen in 2005, London in 2007, Leuven in 2009, Vienna and Budapest in 2010 and so forth). The Bologna Declaration is one of the main voluntary processes at the European level, as it is implemented today in the 48 states that define the EHEA. Many changes have been made regarding the educational arena in Europe, such as the introduction of a three-cycle structure of study programmes (bachelor’s after three years, master’s after another two years, and doctoral after another three years), a system of easily readable and comparable degrees, the establishment of a system of credits (ECTS), the promotion of mobility, and the promotion of European cooperation.

It is important to recognize that those who have taken a positive view on international student mobility, praising transnational flows of ideas and connectivity with people around the world building up increased global understanding, are now challenged by those with a more negative view, such as a feeling of eroding national cultural identities leading to cultural homogenization, often conceptualized as westernization (Knight 2012). Thus, the globalization process is now hampered by a number of contradictions, for instance in relation to the emphasis on competitiveness and a new social agenda in Europe. The EHEA will now have to adjust to the outcome of the Brexit negotiations and their effects on future student mobility between the EU-27 and the UK; and, furthermore, it will have to adjust to other world events and crises interfering with the possibilities to study, live and work in certain countries.
International student mobility in Sweden

In Sweden, the internationalization of HEIs has developed since the 1970s, when the University Chancellor’s Office established a working group to investigate the issue. The group’s output was a report: Internationalizing the universities: starting points, guidelines, and issues involving the internationalization of university education (UKÄ 1973; UKÄ 1974). Among other things, the report proposed that exchanges would be a planned part of training, student aid would be granted for studies abroad, and that a special unit (an international secretariat) would be established at the university level. The Swedish National Student Union played an active role in this development (Ds 1998:51). This also meant that internationalization became politically important, and the wording of the Swedish Higher Educational Act was changed in 1977, with the addition of “higher education institutions should promote understanding of other countries and of international circumstances” (Lundgren & Nilsson 2009). One reason why student numbers have increased since the 1980s was the change in the Swedish study loan system in 1987, enabling more students to study abroad. Previously, study loans were mainly for domestic studies at a Swedish HEIs. Furthermore, when the Swedish Government signed the Erasmus Charter with the European Community (later European Union) in 1992, student mobility took off (Ibid.).

International students in Sweden can be divided into different sub-groups. Numbers here refer to the 2016/17 academic year. Firstly, there were a total of 13,900 inbound exchange students (Statistics Sweden 2017a). Inbound mobility is regulated by exchange agreements and monitored by HEIs. Secondly, there were 5,700 tuition-paying students (Statistics Sweden 2017a) from outside the EU/EEA. Thirdly, there were 16,300 degree students, the vast majority from within the EU/EEA and Switzerland (Statistics Sweden 2017a), who are exempt from tuition fees. All students need a residence permit for studies longer than three months, and the permit must be in place before travelling to Sweden. However, a student’s migration status will determine whether he or she has to pay tuition according to Swedish legislation; for instance, an accompanying spouse of a fee-paying student will be exempt from tuition fees.

For the 2016/17 academic year, there were 7,100 outbound exchange students from Swedish HEIs (Statistics Sweden 2017a). Among students aged 18 to 34 with a post-secondary education, about 11 per cent had studied courses abroad whose credits could be transferred to a Swedish HEI degree, and about 6 per cent had studied a whole programme and earned a degree abroad in 2014 (Statistics Sweden 2017b). Socio-economic background differs between outbound exchange students and the rest of the student population. When considering the parents’ educational background, the share of outbound students having parents with at least three years’ post-secondary education was 49 per cent in comparison to 39 per cent in the total population of newly enrolled students (UKÄ 2016).
When studying abroad, most Swedish students finance their studies within the Swedish study aid system (CSN). Swedish study loans enable approximately 27,000 outbound students annually (this corresponds approximately to the size of a fairly large Swedish university) to study abroad (CSN 2017). The vast majority are degree students, and approximately 25 per cent are exchange students (CSN 2017). Swedish students can study abroad without enrolling in a student mobility (exchange) programme, and without having been admitted to a domestic HEI before embarking on studies in a foreign country. This is an opportunity many students in the world lack (CIMO et al. 2013). During the last decade the numbers did increase, but since the 2015/16 academic year they dropped compared to the previous years (UKÄ 2017).

In the past, the policy in Sweden has been that no tuition fees at all should be charged to students, either international or domestic. When Swedish parliament introduced tuition fees in 2011, the long-term trend of increasing numbers of inbound students reversed (UKÄ 2016). Students from within Europe (EU/EEA and Switzerland) do not have to pay tuition fees; the change only applies to students from outside the EU/EEA. Exchange students are also exempt from tuition fees.

**Umeå University and international student mobility**

Umeå University is a comprehensive university in northern Sweden, established in 1965. Its internationalization of education started in the early 1980s, when the first agreement for academic cooperation and exchange was signed with a German university. The number of inbound exchange students has increased, and the share of the total student population rose from 2.3 per cent in 2010 to 2.7 per cent in 2017. There have traditionally been more women than men among inbound exchange students. Sixty-three per cent were women in 2017. Furthermore, Table 6 shows that most of the international students at Umeå University are degree students, and from within Europe (EU/EEA and Switzerland). The number of degree students dropped after the introduction of tuition fees. However, the data indicate some recovery since 2011, at which time the university had 47 fee-paying students, a number that now comes to 259. Fifty-two per cent of the tuition-paying students were male.

There were more women than men interested in outbound exchange studies, which is partly a reflection of the entire student population, among whom approximately 60 per cent were women (LADOK 2017). In 2017, there were 56 per cent female students participating in outbound exchange. The number of outbound exchange students has also increased, and its share of the total student population at Umeå University rose from 0.7 per cent in 2010 to 0.9 per cent in 2017 (Table 6). Educational programmes with many outgoing exchange students...
were Business, Law, Psychology, Political Science, and Industrial Management (LADOK 2017).

**Table 6.** Different sub-groups of international students at Umeå University, (%) share of the total student population.


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total student population</th>
<th>Tuition fee students (%)</th>
<th>Inbound exchange students (%)</th>
<th>Outbound exchange students (%)</th>
<th>Inbound degree students (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>35,433</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>826 (2.33)</td>
<td>249 (0.70)</td>
<td>7,548 (21.30)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>34,842</td>
<td>47 (0.13)</td>
<td>768 (2.21)</td>
<td>282 (0.81)</td>
<td>2630 (7.55)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>32,955</td>
<td>91 (0.28)</td>
<td>844 (2.56)</td>
<td>277 (0.84)</td>
<td>2068 (6.28)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>31,251</td>
<td>145 (0.46)</td>
<td>888 (2.83)</td>
<td>247 (0.79)</td>
<td>1932 (6.18)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>30,253</td>
<td>221 (0.73)</td>
<td>919 (3.03)</td>
<td>303 (1.00)</td>
<td>2016 (6.66)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>29,851</td>
<td>267 (0.89)</td>
<td>870 (2.91)</td>
<td>329 (1.0)</td>
<td>2035 (6.82)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>31,023</td>
<td>285 (0.92)</td>
<td>819 (2.63)</td>
<td>337 (1.09)</td>
<td>2316 (7.47)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2017</td>
<td>32,999</td>
<td>259 (0.78)</td>
<td>902 (2.73)</td>
<td>289 (0.88)</td>
<td>2497 (7.57)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2 shows the total number of exchange students during a 20-year period. The curves indicate reciprocity around the millennium. However, since then the number of inbound students has increased, approximately three times that of outbound exchange students.

**Figure 2.** Total number of inbound and outbound exchange students at Umeå University 1997-2017.

Paper summaries and results

Paper I: Great expectations of studying abroad – exchange students from Umeå University

The aim of this study was to investigate students’ expectations and experiences when studying abroad, and to investigate the extent to which outbound exchange students’ expectations were met and their reasons for studying abroad. A group of outbound exchange students at Umeå University, Sweden, were surveyed before and after the experience of studying in a foreign country. The study is based on an initial sample of 143 students, of whom 57 answered one questionnaire prior to leaving for studies abroad and another after six months, when most of them had returned to Sweden. Half of the respondents had lived for a period in a foreign country before studying abroad, and about half of the respondents studied in English-speaking countries. Before departing, the vast majority had positive expectations, which were ultimately fulfilled. Overall, the students were satisfied with their stay abroad. While the findings are partly in line with previous studies – the students expected to develop their language skills, learn more about another culture, develop as a person, and use the experience as a merit in their future career – this study also showed that, in some respects, their perception of studying abroad changed. Items that changed between the questionnaires concerned courses not being offered at Umeå University, more courses being available abroad than at home, and change of environment; the students appreciated this change more than they had expected. Moreover, the willingness to work abroad after finishing their studies was assessed to be lower upon returning home after the time abroad. The findings in this study indicate that the most internationally experienced students are attracted to enrol in studies abroad, which suggests inequalities in student mobility and furthermore underlines the embeddedness of international student mobility in wider international life trajectories (Frändberg 2008; Frändberg 2014). Swedish outbound exchange students can be characterized as participants in horizontal mobility, as they expect a foreign HEI to be of a quality similar to that of their home university, thus emphasizing personal development more than academic achievement. Some previous studies have observed that internationally mobile students gain multilingual skills and a global identity, preparing them to be part of a global economy and a youth mobility culture (Findlay et al. 2006). Student mobility can be seen as an expression of taking advantage of economic and lifestyle opportunities, and enables students to gain knowledge, skills, and competence (King 2017).
Paper II: Expectations and experiences of inbound students: Perspectives from Sweden

The purpose of this study was to explore the expectations of inbound students upon enrolling, and the experience they had gained after approximately six months of studies at Umeå University, Sweden. This study examined whether a pattern of push and pull factors could be observed among inbound students. International student mobility can be conceptualized in many ways, and some studies have used a push-pull model to explain mobility (e.g. Mazzarol & Soutar 2001; Li & Bray 2007; Agarwal et al. 2008) as the model can sort out drivers for mobility. Students have a blend of pull and push reasons that motivate them to move in order to study abroad. This study followed students pre- and post-studying abroad. The panel survey constitutes of 116 students, who answered both surveys. A total of, approximately 400 international students were invited to respond to the survey questionnaire, and 296 responded during the fall semester of 2008.

The rationales and drivers for student mobility can be reflected in a push-pull model, but in order to expect something you first need to be well informed and have good knowledge about what to expect. Inbound students seem to have a strong pull reason for studying abroad, such as experiencing a new culture, developing as a person, or a positive effect of the international experience on their career, although the students in this study misjudged some of the challenges of student mobility. The respondents’ experiences were somewhat different from their expectations, but when it comes to aspects such as developing as a human being, their expectations were fulfilled. This study showed that the students were reasonably able to judge aspects of their lives, such as personal development in a foreign country. Among the aspects that surprised them was the cost of living, which is easy to learn about in advance.

The findings of this study show that the inbound students could judge personal development better than academic development. The experience made them positive in regard to working abroad and, furthermore, inbound students were looking for a cultural rather than an academic experience. It can be noted that some students did not fully understand what they could expect from studying abroad.

This study confirms that academic learning is not generally superior to other experiences (Thissen & Ederveen 2006; Teichler 2012). However, the attractiveness of the courses and the reputation of the university are important to inbound students, and serve as pull factors. The findings in this study indicate that a period of studying abroad is judged to enrich students’ lives, and
furthermore, that students who are internationally experienced are attracted to studying abroad.

**Paper III: Life satisfaction among inbound university students in northern Sweden**

As the number of international students increases globally (OECD 2014), the need to understand and address their cultural and psychological adjustment to a new country becomes more important. One aspect is the inequalities imbedded in student mobility; and students’ reports on life satisfaction can be useful in exploring different dimensions of mobility. Lifestyle-led mobility can be an expression of social differentiation and inequality, but also a way of achieving one’s lifestyle aspirations (Urry 2000; Murphy-Lejeune 2002; Urry 2002). This paper aims at investigating life satisfaction among a group of inbound students at Umeå University, and to follow up their reported life satisfaction after a period of study abroad to examine whether international student mobility can affect life satisfaction.

The analyses were based on comparisons between before having an experience of studying abroad and after six months of studying abroad. The questions were added to the panel surveys for Paper II. The follow-up monitored the students’ life satisfaction while studying abroad. The results showed that the inbound students reported significantly higher satisfaction at follow-up six months later for the domains somatic health and activities of daily living, and non-significantly lower satisfaction for the domains leisure, contact with friends, family life, and partner relationship.

Regarding gender differences, male students reported significantly higher satisfaction for the domains activities of daily living and somatic health. In addition, they reported higher levels of satisfaction for the domains contact with friends and psychological health, and non-significantly lower satisfaction with economy. Female students reported that life as a whole, study situation, economy, activities of daily living, and somatic health were better at follow-up.

One major element of quality in relation to international student mobility is the reported life satisfaction among international students. To conclude, this study showed that inbound students were overall satisfied with various domains of life satisfaction, both before and after a period of studying abroad. The domains that saw significant improvement were somatic health and activities of daily living. The findings support that studying abroad has an impact, mostly positive, on perceived health and life satisfaction. However, one should be aware that it is easier for students from other European and/or Anglophone countries to adjust, due to greater similarities between the sending and receiving countries.
Paper IV: International student expectations: Career opportunities and employability

This study was based on survey results from the International Student Barometer (ISB). The response rate for the 2014 survey was 28 per cent of a total population of 599,453 respondents. The ISB surveys approximately 150,000 international students annually. For many years Umeå University purchased the ISB survey (2009-2017), with the purpose of receiving feedback from international students. However, this study has a broader scope than merely Umeå University. The study was based on a set of global macro data targeting career opportunities and employability and, furthermore, enhancing knowledge about certain features in regard to learning satisfaction and motivations for studying abroad. All statistical analysis was performed by a survey institute (i-graduate); the author received ready-made tables and figures, and did not have access to the data through other sources.

The aim was to investigate how students assess the impacts of studying abroad on their future career. The transition from education to the world of work is of increasing importance for current and prospective students. The conclusion in this study is that the top five important elements for them are employability, teaching ability, expertise of lectures, course organization, and content. The ‘job-upon-graduation’ challenge is a mutual concern for both students and universities. This study shows that international students expect studying abroad to have an impact on their career and employability, and this is especially true for degree students who are studying a full programme. Furthermore, the ISB survey shows that non-European students expect more opportunities for work after graduation than do their peers from continental Europe. The gap between expectations and employment outcomes is still wide, however, and needs to be bridged.
Concluding discussion

Main findings
This thesis aims to investigate the extent to which expectations were fulfilled after a sojourn abroad. It is obvious that students arrive with a set of expectations, and depart with their own experience of studying abroad. Even though the general outcome was that the students’ expectations were met, it is clear that some of them changed their opinions pre- and post-studying abroad. A similar observation was made in relation to reported outcomes on life satisfaction. Overall, students were content with the different domains of life satisfaction, but some changed their perceptions between the surveys. Students participating in student mobility do it for their desire to travel, experience another culture, enhance their language skills, or fulfil degree requirements for their university; that is, to simply take advantage of the opportunity to live and learn in an international setting. Of course, it is rather natural to change one’s perceptions after a period of studying abroad as it includes many aspects, some of which are difficult to foresee. An international experience is an individual learning experience that does something with a person, and this experience per se will have an impact on how content a student is after a sojourn abroad.

Students have their own objectives when it comes to international student mobility. Looking for an adventure, experiencing another culture, and having lived abroad appear to be significant drivers. Many students were looking for cultural and personal, rather than academic, experiences. These findings are in line with other studies on international student mobility (Teichler 2004; Bracht et al. 2006; Varghese 2008; Wiers-Jenssen 2008; de Wit 2011). Worth noting is that in- and outbound exchange students in a European setting have similar expectations when it comes to studying abroad, which is also shown in this thesis. Previous research has shown that some students with international experience build up mobility capital deployed over their life course; i.e., it becomes their mobility history (Murphy-Lejeune 2002). The Umeå studies (Paper I and II) shows that many in- and outbound students had previous experience of having lived abroad, shaping their life trajectories and building up mobility capital. The most internationally experienced students find mobility programmes attractive, which underlines the embeddedness of student mobility across national borders in wider international life trajectories (Frändberg 2008; Frändberg 2014) and might influence students’ expectations and experiences regarding living and studying abroad. To be able to expect something very specific before having the experience, one needs to be well informed and have previous international experience.
Personal development

Students’ language training is an issue for their personal development. The lack of foreign-language skills is considered to be a major barrier to mobility among students (Rodrigues Gonzalez, et al. 2011; Souto-Otero et al. 2013; Beerkens et al. 2015; UHR 2015). It is also confirmed in this thesis that language skills are important to students in regard to studying abroad. The students in this study reported good knowledge of languages, and many of the respondents had some previous experience of living abroad and, furthermore, reported that they were experienced travellers and had visited a large number of countries. Before arriving, inbound students had wanted to learn Swedish during their sojourn abroad, but the study showed that they did not develop their language skills as they had expected. For inbound students, studying in Sweden is also a question of courses being taught in English. Outbound Swedish students want to be able to study in English. The outbound exchange students expressed that they wanted to become more fluent in a language they already had good knowledge of, i.e. English, rather than learn a language of which they had limited or no knowledge. For this reason, Swedish outbound students were looking for study opportunities in English-speaking countries or universities with a good deal of courses taught in English. Language of instruction is an issue among international students, and the offer of courses taught in English is crucial for international student mobility.

Academic challenges

The study destination is important to some students in relation to academic achievement. Some of the international students used studying abroad as a means to travel to other countries, while for others it was an objective in itself to achieve interesting and challenging academic studies at another HEI; some enjoyed both aspects. This underlines the diversity among international students. Exchange students often aim at a broad international experience, even though course work and being able to transfer credits will be of importance for their possibilities to graduate on time at home. The role of the HEI is pertinent for student mobility. Even though mobility is encouraged, the choice is not obvious for all students, mainly due to their personal background; this makes the inspiration and motivation from the HEI and educators essential for overcoming the lack of academic self-confidence hindering students from studying abroad (UHR 2015). Moreover, it underlines the importance of student counselling and intercultural learning goals within educational programmes (Ahlstrand & Ghafoori 2016). In the Umeå studies (Paper I and II), both in- and outbound students judged personal development to be more valuable than academic achievement.
**Employability**

The global survey showed the importance of employability. When full degree students and exchange students were compared in the global survey, the greatest difference was found in the opportunities for work upon graduation. The study showed that this matters more to degree-seeking students in their decision-making process. Non-European students expected more opportunities for work after graduation than did their peers from continental Europe and, furthermore, the issue of earning money while studying was more important to non-European students. Other studies confirm these findings (Di Pietro 2013; Brandenburg, Berghoff & Taboadela 2014; Pollock 2014; Ammigan 2019). There were some observed differences between in- and outbound students in the Umeå studies (Paper I and II). Outbound students reported lower scores/estimates for working abroad after the experience, while inbound students reported higher scores/estimates in regard to working abroad in the future.

**Life satisfaction**

Life satisfaction is embedded in international student mobility, and can be an expression of social differentiation and inequalities; furthermore, mobility can be a way to achieve one’s lifestyle aspirations. Previous research has shown that studying abroad is highly dependent on a student’s background characteristics. Students from academic families are more liable to go abroad than those from non-academic families (Hauschildt et al. 2015). They are therefore more likely to gain the benefits of studying abroad. Having access to HEIs in other countries will also form individuals’ career trajectories. Studying abroad implies not only access to formal knowledge but also, more importantly, social and cultural knowledge (Teichler 2017). Thus, international spatial mobility is often considered to be a way to gain upward social mobility, and it is essential to scrutinize the relationship between spatial mobility and social mobility (Ibid.). Life satisfaction is one way of evaluating students’ contentment with life after a sojourn abroad. Life satisfaction underlines the degree to which a student is able to attain his or her objectives. This can be seen as an indicator of the meaningfulness of studying abroad. Studying abroad can be demanding, involving competition, constraints, financial worries, etc., all of which are part of the student’s experience.

This thesis indicates that studying abroad can lead to improvements in students’ reported health in various domains of life satisfaction. Overall, the inbound students were satisfied with the different domains of life satisfaction, both pre- and post-studying abroad. The domains that significantly improved were somatic health and activities of daily living. One reason for this could be that most of the students in this study are exchange students and are participating in international
mobility as their own voluntary choice, which means they are highly motivated. Another reason might be the way they are taken care of upon arrival and during their stay abroad, for instance through offers of buddy programmes and other social support for inbound students (Nilsson 2019). A small number of previous studies have shown that studying abroad has an impact, mostly positive, on perceived health and life satisfaction, for example inbound students studying in Norway (Sam 2001). Different outcomes can likely be explained by the fact that the students originate from different parts of the world. It is easier for those coming from other European and/or Anglophone countries to adjust, due to greater similarity between the sending and receiving countries, than for those from economically developing countries studying in a country like Sweden. However, a previous study shows that outbound students at Umeå University reported significantly lower levels of somatic and psychological health, as well as satisfaction with life as a whole and contacts with friends, after a period abroad (Nilsson 2015). This is the opposite of the situation for inbound students studying at Umeå University. This might have to do with unexpected challenges presented by studying and living abroad involving having to adapt to new culture and new surroundings different from home, which can lead to feelings of loneliness and isolation (cf. Lin & Yin 1997; Rode, Arthaud-Day, Mooney, Nera, Baldwin, Bommer & Rubin 2005; Russell, Rosenthal & Thomson 2010; Rienties and Tempelaar 2013). An additional issue can involve how international students are taken care of upon arrival and during their period of study at a foreign HEI. Thus, life satisfaction among international students can give an indication of their perceived meaningfulness of life during their sojourn abroad.

Some individual motives for studying abroad

In Table 7, positive incentives for studying abroad are summarized. Even though there are many issues embedded in international student mobility, the expectations and experiences among in- and outbound students seem to circle around personal development, academic challenges, employability, and life satisfaction. Students who participated in this study were all doing this voluntarily, and during the decision-making process they had been motivated to study abroad. However, most students do not participate in international student mobility, indicating differentiations and equalities; previous studies show that there are many obstacles to studying abroad (Souto-Otero et al. 2013; Kmoitek-Meier et al. 2019). In this thesis, in- and outbound students to/from Umeå University were studied. Outbound students were surveyed in the fall of 2007, and their experience was monitored six months later in relation to studying at a foreign university. Inbound students were surveyed upon their arrival in the fall of 2008, and six months later their experience from studying at Umeå University was followed up. The results should be interpreted in this context, which was also before the decision by the Swedish Parliament to introduce tuition fees for
degree-seeking students from outside the EU/EEA. However, the majority of students participating in the study were exchange students and would therefore all be exempt from tuition fees. For the purpose of covering a broader perspective on student mobility a global survey (Paper IV) was included, adding more experiences from European and non-European degree students.

Table 7. Positive individual motives for international student mobility.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Approach</th>
<th>Assessment</th>
<th>Individual motives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personal development</td>
<td>Fulfilment of one’s potential and curiosity</td>
<td>The study destination comes first, aiming at language training and intercultural understanding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic challenges</td>
<td>Academic achievements are the most fundamental</td>
<td>A good-quality education is essential for one’s life planning process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employability</td>
<td>Emphasizing educational and career choices</td>
<td>Desire to work in a specific country and/or for a specific employer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life satisfaction</td>
<td>Contentment with life</td>
<td>Mobility is a way of achieving one’s lifestyle aspirations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion

The students participating in studying abroad addressed in this thesis are highly motivated, are doing this of their own choice, and see the experience as a merit for their further life planning. They were overall positive before the sojourn abroad began, and their expectations were fulfilled. Studying abroad in a Western/European context is an example of lifestyle-led mobility, emphasizing that mobility in contemporary life has become an important dimension and something that is on-going throughout the life course (Sheller & Urry 2006; Cresswell 2006). As Teichler (2017) pointed out, the majority of exchange students do not expect a higher level of teaching or substance of knowledge taught; they have other aims, such as living in another country, exploring a new culture, and personal development. An important pull factor for students is the expectation that studying abroad will have an impact on their career. Teichler (2002; 2004) argues that the degree is obviously a door-opener for career opportunities in the country where the student has studied, and lifestyle aspirations can further motivate students when making their choices. The flipside is that most students at HEIs do not participate in a study-abroad experience, underlining the inequalities embedded in international student mobility. This can also reproduce social differences addressing issues of social mobility and
conceptualizing a power relation, meaning that some students lack the socio-economic background to become mobile (Findlay et al. 2012; Bilecen & van Mol 2017; Börjesson 2017). These students can be labelled mobility poor (Cresswell 2006). Only about 2 per cent of the world’s student population has the opportunity to benefit from a period of studying abroad (Teichler 2017).

Student mobility can contribute to reproducing social disadvantages and differences, as discussed in this thesis. One dimension of an experience from a sojourn abroad is distinction. Prazeres (2018) emphasizes the importance of place and notes that certain places can offer higher rates of symbolic capital, underlining that mobility is embedded in a mobility hierarchy. This means that there is not only a division between mobile students and non-mobile students; the international experience also places students within a mobility hierarchy, conceptualizing a dimension of distinction embedded in international mobility.

International student mobility – concluding remarks

The globalization of post-secondary education has led to greater possibilities for students wanting to study abroad thanks to an integration of curricula across borders, and has also increased possibilities for an international exchange of staff and students. Even though mobility aims at a greater understanding between students of different cultures, nations and continents, some scholars have recognized the troubling and uncertain times we are living in (Rose-Redwood & Rose –Redwood 2017). Fear of losing one’s national, ethnic, or racial identity can be seen in the world today. Bartram (2018) concludes that the aftermath of the Brexit referendum in the UK showed an alarming increase in reported incidents of hate crime targeted non-UK nationals. This will certainly have an effect on the willingness of international students to travel abroad for a post-secondary education. It is clear that those who express a positive view on international student mobility, praising transnational flows of ideas and connectivity with people, are experiencing some resistance and seeing their ideas challenged. Some feel they are witnessing an erosion of national cultural identities, leading to cultural homogenization (Knight 2012). The globalization process is now hampered by a number of challenges for the European Union, HEIs, and other organizations. These organizations now have to adjust to the outcome of Brexit and to other world events and crises interfering with the possibilities to study, live, and work in specific countries.

This thesis has explored international student mobility, a phenomenon with a long tradition in Sweden and Europe (Sörlin 1994; Eliasson 1999; Rivza & Teichler 2007), which has shown to be robust over time. The globalization of post-secondary education has been giving international student mobility a boost since the 1970s. The desire and/or need to learn, meet new friends, and have new experiences will continue to be drivers for student mobility; furthermore, the new
mobility paradigm suggests that being on the move has become a way of life and something that continues throughout the life course. One way of achieving this can be through studying abroad, to open a door to further upcoming events and mobilities as a natural part of a life-planning process. It is noteworthy that more geographers are emphasizing dimensions of temporary mobility and circulation, the multidisciplinary realm of mobility studies, and the integration of disciplinary perspectives (Hall & Page 2009; Hall, Williams & Lew 2014).

For this thesis, international students’ reporting of satisfaction in different domains of life during a period of study abroad has been used as one indicator of how the students’ achievements have been accomplished. Life satisfaction should also be viewed as interrelated with lifestyle among youth. Lifestyle mobility indicates a search for a better life somewhere else, such as at the seaside, in a warmer climate, close to cultural attractions, or amid the cosmopolitan vibe in big cities, etc.; and some studies have observed back-and-forth waves of circular mobility as an expression of defining characteristics of contemporary life (Sheller & Urry 2006; Cresswell 2006; King 2017). In addition, some international students struggle with their new identities, relationships, networks, rights, and responsibilities. Some have an affinity with the international community, while others feel like they are between two worlds – both instances affecting how satisfied they are with their life studying abroad and, furthermore, what they conceptualize as domestic and foreign (Ho 2017; Ho & McConnell 2017). Moreover, studies have shown that living conditions exert a strong influence over average life satisfaction, with higher average life satisfaction in economically wealthy countries than in poorer ones (Helliwell, Layard, & Sachs 2017). Furthermore, it has been shown that more highly educated countries experience higher levels of satisfaction, and that a person with an academic degree in a country with a low average education likely experiences higher life satisfaction than a person with an academic degree in a more highly educated country (Salinas-Jiménez & Salinas-Jiménez 2011).

An experience from abroad is likely to have an effect on students, and for some life can take a new direction after an international experience, for instance having a desire to work abroad or making other career choices. It is likely to affect a person’s whole personality, as he or she matures and learns from the personal experience of having studied in a foreign country. Even though the numbers of students participating in student mobility has increased, it is likely to remain an option only for a minority. If one aims to shape the daily life of higher education, it is necessary to work beyond the rhetoric on internationalization. According to Teichler (2017), the impacts and outcomes of studying abroad have seldom been an issue in studies on international student mobility, and neither has placing the findings beyond the case studied and within a social context.
**Future research**

The starting point for this thesis was to explore international student mobility within a Swedish context. It is obvious that student mobility includes power relations and socio-economic aspects. Some of these aspects have been explored in this thesis, while others remain unexamined. For example, concerning long-term outcomes of international student mobility, a follow-up after six months (as was done in this study) is a fairly short period of time. The outcomes of international student mobility have been debated by some scholars (Messer & Wolter 2007a; Messer & Wolter 2007b; Kratz & Netz 2016); for the future, this field requires more studies. There seems to be a need to monitor student mobility within a context, such as students’ social background (e.g. Hauschildt et al. 2015), where they originate from (e.g. Sam 2001), and different impacts of credit and degree mobility (e.g. Wiers-Jenssen 2008; Wiers-Jenssen 2013). For some, student mobility can widen the socio-economic gap. There is a need to scrutinize the social differentiation and inequalities embedded in international student mobility, and to identify key issues and consequences when it comes to the internationalization of higher education, emphasizing the situation and needs of the non-mobile students.

In Sweden, the internationalization of education is an issue on the political agenda, with the goal of encouraging students to study abroad. More studies are required for the design and development of international study programmes and agreements that offer more students a chance to have the experience, either in order to mature and develop personally or to use the experience as a merit to bridge the gap between education and a future labour market, as well as provide them with an academic challenge. Quality aspects require more studies; internationalization is not an end in itself but should be driven by quality and primarily as a tool for HEIs to add relevance to their various educational programmes. Furthermore, when it comes to evaluating students’ contentment with life after a sojourn abroad, their reports on life satisfaction seem useful for exploring different aspects of mobility.

There is a need for studies focusing on potential discrimination and support for international students, due to the current troubling and uncertain times for international student mobility. Fear and distrust of “the foreign” is a challenge for those advocating the internationalization of HEIs. It will be important to undertake such studies to gain knowledge and understanding about experiences embedded in international student mobility and its implications for the internationalization of education at HEIs.

Even though this study has focused on physical movement to another country, other expressions of internationalization of higher education need to be explored as well; for example, the impact of having an international experience on campus.
by integrating with international students and staff. In addition, more studies are needed to examine the impact of ICT, which has made it possible for students to interact with peers around the world, expanding their social space and generating new concepts of virtual mobility embedded in international student mobility (SOU 2018:3).
Enkel sammanfattning på svenska

Inledning


I svensk högre utbildning är internationalisering av utbildning en viktig dimension och av flera skäl finns det ett behov av att granska och utforska studentmobilitet. Utlandsstudier är framför allt en individuell erfarenhet och det

Resultat

Syftet med avhandlingen var att studera internationell studentmobilitet och framför allt in- och utresande studenters förväntningar och erfarenheter av utlandsstudier som belyses i tre artiklar. Den fjärde artikeln är en global studie som bidrar till att placera Umeå studierna i ett större sammanhang.


För att studenterna ska kunna förvänta sig något exakt vid utlandsstudier förutsätter det att de är välinformerade och internationellt erfarna redan innan sina utlandsstudier eftersom erfarenheter är något man tillskansar sig under studierna vid det utländska lärosätet. Efter att ha fått en personlig erfarenhet av utbytesstudier är det naturligt att vissa uppfattningar ändras eftersom utlandsstudier innehåller så många olika dimensioner och vissa är svåra att förutse. De inresande studenterna rapporterade att möjligheter till personlig utveckling var större än vad de förväntade sig. Umeå universitets kursutbud var bättre än vad de hade förväntat sig och framför allt antalet kurser på det engelska språket överträffande förväntningarna. De upplevde också att Umeå universitets rykte bland lärosäten var bättre än vad man förväntat sig. Däremot tyckte
studenterna att kvaliteten på kurserna var bättre vid sitt hemmauniversitet. Viljan att i framtiden arbeta utomlands hos de inresande studenterna ökade vilket var tvärt emot vad utresande studenter rapporterade. Upplevelsen av vinter var mer positiv än vad man hade förväntat sig. Uppfattningen var också att Sverige var ett dyrare land att leva i än vad man hade förväntat sig.


Livstillfredsställelse är en subjektiv rapporterad bedömning av hur meningsfullt individer upplever sina liv. Studier utomlands kan vara krävande med konkurrens, olika typer av begränsningar, ekonomiska bekymmer etc. och sammantaget utgör dessa aspekter studenternas erfarenheter av att ha studerat utomlands. Studenterna var överlag nöjda med olika aspekter av utlandsvissten. Avhandlingen visar att de inresande studenterna rapporterade signifikant högre tillfredsställelse vid uppföljningen efter sex månader för domänerna kroppslig hälsa och dagliga aktiviteter under utlandsvissten. Studien indikerar att studier i utlandet kan leda till förbättringar hos studenterna vad gäller rapporterad hälsa och ökad livstillfredsställelse.

I den globala studien rapporterade program- och utbytesstudenter att de förväntade sig att internationella erfarenheter ska ha en positiv påverkan på deras karriärer och bidra till fler möjligheter. Undersökningen visade att övergången från utbildning till arbetslivet är viktigt för studenterna men att matchningen mot studenternas förväntningar och vad lärosäten kan erbjuda fortfarande är långt ifrån varaandra. Studenter som läser ett helt utbildningsprogram har högre förväntningar på arbete efter avslutad utbildning än utbytesstudenter. Vidare förväntade sig icke-europeiska studenter i större utsträckning arbete efter examen än europeiska studenter.
Fortsatt forskning
I avhandlingen behandlas ett antal frågor som rör internationell studentmobilitet och utgångspunkten har varit att utforska studentmobilitet i en svensk kontext. Det är tydligt att studentmobilitet innefattar socioekonomiska aspekter som behöver belysas. Vissa aspekter har utforskats i avhandlingen medan andra kräver mer forskning, bland annat långsiktiga resultat av internationell studentmobilitet som sträcker sig längre än sex månader som varit utgångspunkt för denna studie.


Fler studier krävs för att utforma och utveckla internationella studieprogram och avtal som ger fler studenter en chans att få erfarenheten av att utvecklas som individ och / eller för att använda erfarenheten som en merit senare i livet för att överbrygga klyftan mellan utbildning och en framtida arbetsmarknad. Det är också angeläget att kunna erbjuda studenterna en akademisk utmaning. Även om denna studie har fokuserat på fysisk mobilitet till ett annat land måste andra dimensioner av internationalisering av högre utbildning undersökas. Till exempel internationella erfarenheter på hemmaplan för att integrera inhemska studenter med utländska lärare/forskare och studenter. Dessutom den snabba utvecklingen och påverkan av informationsteknologi av olika former som har gjort det möjligt för studenter att kommunicera och interagera med vänner runt om i världen. Vidare finns det behov av att granska social differentiering och ojämlikhet i internationell studentmobilitet.
References


Brett, K. J. (2013). Making the most of your International Student Barometer Data: A guide to good practice.


CIMO (Centre for International Mobility), UHR (Swedish Council for Higher Education) and SIU (Norwegian Centre for International Cooperation in Education). (2013). Living and learning – exchange studies abroad. A study of motives, barriers and experiences of Finnish, Norwegian and Swedish students.


63


LADOK (2016). The official statistics from Umeå University retrieved from the student administrative system. Umeå.


Lewicka M. 2011. Place attachment: how far have we come in the last 40 years? Journal of Environmental Psychology 31: 207-230.


Osborne, P. (2015). *Why are international students charged such high fees in Australia?* ABC (Australian Broadcasting Corporation).


Pollock, A. (2014). *Student employability is a necessity, not a choice*. Expertise in Labour Mobility.


Rose-Redwood, C. & Rose-Redwood, R. (2017). Rethinking the politics of the international student experience in the age of Trump. *Journal of International Students* 7(3) i-x


UK Data Service (2015). *Analysing change over time: repeated cross sectional and longitudinal survey data.*

UKÄ, Swedish Higher Education Authority (1973). *Att internationalisera universiteten: utgångspunkter, riktlinjer och frågeställningar för internationalisering av*
universitetsutbildningen. Betänkande från UKÄ:s internationaliseringsutredning. Stockholm


Appendix

Surveys
1. Köns: 

   □ Man
   □ Kvinnor

2. Vilket år är du född?

   ………………………………..

3. Var bodde du under huvuddelen av din uppväxttid?

   □ I Sverige.
   □ Ange endast en kommun …………………………………
   □ I utlandet. Ange land ………………………………………

4. Har du bott utemlands någon period av ditt liv?

   □ Ja
   □ Nej

5. I vilket land ska du studera som utbytesstudent?

   □ Ange land ……………………………
   □ Ange även universitet ………….

6. Ange vistelsens längd?

   □ Avresedatum (år, månad)
   □ Hemkomstdatum (år, månad)

7. Vilken inriktning har din utbildning?

   □ 1 Humaniora eller teologi
   □ 2 Samhällsvetenskap eller juridik
   □ 3 Undervisning
   □ 4 Teknik eller naturvetenskap
   □ 5 Lant- och skogsbruk
   □ 6 Medicin eller odontologi
   □ 7 Vård
   □ 8 Konstnärlig utbildning

8. Ange huvudämne under din utlandsvistelse?

   □ Huvudämne ……………………………..

9. Hur många högskolepoäng har du avklarade innan resan?

   …………………………………………………

10. Vilka kunskaper har du i dessa språk?

    □ Svenska
    □ Inga kunskaper
    □ Mycket goda
    □ 1
    □ 2
    □ 3
    □ 4
    □ 5
    □ 6
    □ 7

    □ Finska
    □ Inga kunskaper
    □ Mycket goda
    □ 1
    □ 2
    □ 3
    □ 4
    □ 5
    □ 6
    □ 7

    □ Norska
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Språk</th>
<th>Inga kunskaper</th>
<th>Mycket goda</th>
<th>alles kunskaper</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Danska</td>
<td>Inga kunskaper</td>
<td>Mycket goda</td>
<td>alles kunskaper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Franska</td>
<td>Inga kunskaper</td>
<td>Mycket goda</td>
<td>alles kunskaper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tyska</td>
<td>Inga kunskaper</td>
<td>Mycket goda</td>
<td>alles kunskaper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanska</td>
<td>Inga kunskaper</td>
<td>Mycket goda</td>
<td>alles kunskaper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engelska</td>
<td>Inga kunskaper</td>
<td>Mycket goda</td>
<td>alles kunskaper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ryska</td>
<td>Inga kunskaper</td>
<td>Mycket goda</td>
<td>alles kunskaper</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Övrigt språk, ange vad ....</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inga kunskaper</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Har du besökt länder i dessa världsdelar?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Norden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sydamerika</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mellanöstern</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asien</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annan del av världen, vilken del?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

|\[...\]                                    |\[...\]          |\[...\]          |\[...\]          |\[...\]          |\[...\]          |\[...\]          |\[...\]          |\[...\]          |\[...\]          |\[...\]          |\[...\]          |
|\[...\]                                    |\[...\]          |\[...\]          |\[...\]          |\[...\]          |\[...\]          |\[...\]          |\[...\]          |\[...\]          |\[...\]          |\[...\]          |\[...\]          |
|\[...\]                                    |\[...\]          |\[...\]          |\[...\]          |\[...\]          |\[...\]          |\[...\]          |\[...\]          |\[...\]          |\[...\]          |\[...\]          |\[...\]          |
Hur kan dina förväntningar på utlandsvistelsen bäst beskrivas?
(Ange endast ett alternativ.)
1. Det kommer att bli spännande att studera utomlands, ett äventyr
2. Kul att få lära sig mer om en annan kultur
3. Får lära mig ett annat språk
4. Får tillgång till en mer stimulerande akademisk miljö än vid Umeå universitet
5. Det ska bli skönt med ett miljöombyte
6. Det ska bli skönt att få bo i ett varmare klimat än det vi har i norra Sverige
7. Utlandserfarenheten kommer att göra det lättare för mig att få ett arbete
8. Övrigt, ange vad ………………………………………………………………….

Övrigt, ange vad ………………………………………………………………….

Vilken betydelse hade följande för ditt beslut att välja den studieort och det universitet du valde?
1. En god vän rekommenderade lärosätet
2. Överensstämmer inte alls
3. Jag tilläts inte välja utan blev tilldelad en utbytesplats
4. Jag har vägletts av de uppgifter som finns publicerade på Internet om lärosätet
5. En av mina lärare på universitetet rekommenderade lärosätet
6. Överensstämmer inte alls
7. Det fanns redan ett avtal med partneruniversitetet
8. Överensstämmer inte alls
9. En av mina vänner/även unga bröder/syster rekommenderade lärosätet
10. Överensstämmer inte alls

Vänort till Umeå kommun
Lärosätet är omtalat och omskrivet

Starka band mellan min institution vid Umeå universitet och lärosätet där jag åker

Vad är viktigast för dit val, studieorten eller lärosäte? (Ange endast ett alternativ.)

1. Studieorten (platsen/staden) är viktigare än lärosätet
2. Lärosätet (universitetet) är viktigare än studieorten

Vilken betydelse har International Office vid Umeå universitet haft för ditt beslut om utlandsstudier?

1. Ingen betydelse
2. Mycket stor
3. Bra betydelse
4. Normal betydelse
5. mycket liten betydelse

Hur kan dina förväntningar på utlandsvistelsen bäst beskrivas?

1. Högere kvalitet på den utländska utbildningen
2. Jag önskar läsa kurser som inte finns vid Umeå universitet
3. Värdlandets kultur lockar
4. Jag vill återvända till det land där jag är född
Jag vill utveckla mina språkkunskaper.

Jag har släkt/vänner i värdlandet.

Utlandsstudier är merit – konkurrensfördel.

Jag önskar omväxling och nya upplevelser.

Det blir lättare att få arbete efter avslutad utbildning – större arbetsmarknad.

Jag önskar arbeta utomlands i framtiden.

Jag söker i första hand ett miljöombyte, en förändring.

Jag är nyfiken och vill utveckla mig som människa.
På vilket språk kommer du att studera?

Ange språk

1. Mycket otillfredsställande
2. Otillfredsställande
3. Ganska otillfredsställande
4. Ganska tillfredsställande
5. Tillfredsställande
6. Mycket tillfredsställande

Mycket otillfredsställande

Deessa frågor handlar om din livstillsfredsställelse

a) Livet är i allmänt

b) Studiesituationen är

c) Ekonomin är

d) Fritidssituationen är

e) Kontaktar med vänner och bekanta är

f) Förmågan att klara mig själv är

g) Kroppsliga hälsan är

h) Psykiska hälsan är

i) Familjelivet är

j) Parförhållandet är
Instämmer inte alls
1234567

a) Studenter bör studera och/eller praktisera utomlands.
b) Internationalisering är viktigt i alla utbildningar.
c) Det är positivt när ungdomar söker sig till andra länder för studier och/eller praktik.
d) Det vore spännande att få bo i ett annat land.
e) Universitetet bör se till att alla studenter som vill kan studera utomlands.
f) Det är svårt att tillgodosräkna kurser när man kommer hem.
g) Studier utomlands är överskattat.
h) Det är inte viktigt för mig i vilken stad jag studerar.
i) Studier och/eller praktik utomlands ökar möjligheter att få ett arbete.
j) Det är viktigt att kunna låna pengar från CSN.
k) Det är viktigt för mig i vilket land jag studerar.
l) Det är upp till var och en att ordna utlandsstudier.
j) Studiemedlen täcker inte alls de ökade kostnaderna i samband med utlandsstudier.

Tack för din medverkan!

Follow up Outbound 2008
1. Var studerade du som utbytesstudent?
   Ange land
   Ange även universitet

2. På vilket språk studerade du?
   Ange språk:

3. Ange hemkomst datum

4. Vilken inriktning har din utbildning?
   1 Humaniora eller teologi
   2 Samhällsvetenskap eller juridik
   3 Undervisning
   4 Teknik eller naturvetenskap
   5 Lant- och skogsbruk
   6 Medicin eller odontologi
   7 Vård
   8 Konstnärlig utbildning

5. Ange huvudämnet under din utlandsvistelse?
   Huvudämne

6. Hur många högskolepoäng (ECTS) avklarade du under din utlandsvistelse?

7. Hur uppfattar du att dina förväntningar på utlandsvistelsen bäst kan beskrivas?
   (Ange endast ett alternativ.)
   1 Det var spännande att studera utomlands, ett äventyr
   2 Det var kul att få lära sig mer om en annan kultur
   3 Jag fick lära mig ett annat språk
   4 Jag fick tillgång till en mer stimulerande akademisk miljö än den vid Umeå universitet
   5 Det var skönt med ett miljöombyte
   6 Det var skönt att få bo i ett varmare klimat än det vi har i norra Sverige
   7 Utlandserfarenheten har gjort att jag fått ett arbete
   8 Övrigt, ange vad

8. Hur kan dina förväntningar på utlandsvistelsen bäst beskrivas?
   Högre kvalitet på den utländska utbildningen
   Överensstämmer
   Överensstämmer inte alls
   Helt
   1
   2
   3
   4
   5
   6
   7
   Övrigt, ange vad
Det var viktigt för mig i vilket land jag studerar.

Jag kunde läsa kurser som inte finns vid Umeå universitet.

Jag upplevde värdlandets kultur attraktivt.

Jag utvecklade mina språkkunskaper.

Utlandsstudier är meriterande – konkurrensfördel.

Vistelsen utomlands innebar omväxling och nya upplevelser.

Jag tror att det blir lättare att få arbete efter avslutad utbildning – större arbetsmarknad.

Jag kommer att arbeta utomlands i framtiden.
**För mig var utlandsstudier i första hand ett miljöombyte, en förändring.**

Överensstämmer 

> Jag är nyfiken och vill utveckla mig som människa.

Överensstämmer inte alls

---

DESSA FRÅGOR HANDLAR OM DIN LIVSTILLFREDSTÄLLELSE

1. Frågor om hur tillfredsställd du är med olika aspekter på ditt liv?

   - 1=Mycket otillfredsställande
   - 2=Otillfredsställande
   - 3=Ganska otillfredsställande
   - 4=Ganska tillfredsställande
   - 5=Tillfredsställande
   - 6=Mycket tillfredsställande

   a) Livets status är i allmänt 

   b) Studiesituationen är 

   c) Ekonomin är 

   d) Fritidssituationen är 

   e) Kontakter med vänner och bekanta är 

   f) Förmågan att klara mig själv är 

   g) Kroppsliga hälsan är 

   h) Psykiska hälsan är 

   i) Familjelivet är 

   j) Studietillstånden är 

   k) Socialt tillståndet är 

   l) Utvecklingsläget är 

   m) Förmågan att utveckla sig är 

   "Not applicable"
Parförhållandet är

Instämmer inte alls

123456710.

a) Studenter bör studera och/eller praktisera utomlands.

b) Internationalisering är viktigt i alla utbildningar.

c) Det är positivt när ungdomar söker sig till andra länder för studier och/eller praktik.

d) Det vore spännande att få bo i ett annat land.

e) Universitetet bör se till att alla studenter som vill kan studera utomlands.

f) Det är svårt att tillgodo-räkna sig kurser.

g) Studier utomlands är överskattat.

h) Det är inte viktigt för mig i vilken stad jag studerar.

i) Studier och/eller praktik utomlands ökar möjligheterna att få ett arbete.

j) Det är viktigt att kunna låna pengar från CSN.

k) Det är viktigt för mig i vilket land jag studerar.

l) Det är upp till var och en att ordna utlandsstudier.

Om du vill ha kontakt med mig och ta del av undersökningens resultat ber vi dig filla i din e-postadress nedan.
Tack för din medverkan!
FIRST SURVEY INBOUND AUGUST 2008
SOME QUESTIONS ABOUT YOU

1. Sex
- Male
- Female

2. Year of birth

3a. Citizenship

3b. Name of your home University and country

4. In which country did you live the longest period of time during your upbringing

5. The planned length of your studies at Umeå University
- 1 semester
- 2 semesters
- 3 or more semesters
- Plan to study for a whole Program

6. In which field is your study Program
- Humanities and/or theology
- Social Sciences and/or Law
- Teacher Education
- Technology and/or natural sciences
- Agriculture and/or forestry
- Medicine and/or odontology
- Health care
- Arts

7. What is your major subject at Umeå University

8. How many semesters at the university level have you completed before coming to Umeå University
- 1 or 2 semesters
- 3 or 4 semesters
- 5 or more semesters

9. What is your knowledge in the following languages
We want you to mark a number between 1 and 7. 1 stands for no knowledge and 7 for fluent.

- Swedish
- English

...
10. I have been in Sweden before?
   1. Yes
   2. No

11. I have friends and/or family here in Umeå?
   1. Yes
   2. No

12. I would like to learn some Swedish?
   1. Yes
   2. No

13. Please mark the parts of the world you have visited
   1. The Nordic Countries
   2. Europe
   3. North America
   4. South America
   5. Middle East
   6. Africa
   7. Asia
   8. Oceania
   9. Other parts of the world

14. What can best describe your expectations of studying at Umeå University?
   (Please, choose one of the options below)
   1. Its going to be an adventure studying here
   2. Its fun to learn more about another culture
   3. I can learn another language
   4. It is possibly more stimulating academically than my home university
   5. Its nice to change study environments for a while
   6. Its going to be nice to live in another climate than I am used to
   7. An experience of studying abroad will make it easier to get a job
   8. Something not mentioned? Please describe

15. When you decided to study in Sweden, how important was the following factors for you?
   a. Sweden does not charge tuition fees for university studies
      1. Not important
      2. Very important
   b. The standard of student accommodation is high in Sweden
      1. Not important
      2. Very important
   c. Sweden is a very expensive country
      1. Not important
      2. Very important
d. It's difficult to learn to know people and to get friends in Sweden

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. It's an opportunity for me to learn the Swedish language

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. The informal lifestyle in Sweden attracts me

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. A friend recommended Umeå University

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5. The courses offered at Umeå University are very attractive to me

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6. An agreement exists between my home university and Umeå University

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7. I was assigned Umeå University by my home university

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8. Umeå University offers many courses taught in English which is great since I have no ambition of learning Swedish

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

9. The information on Umeå University's website made me interested in coming

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
16. What was the most important for you when choosing Umeå University? (Please just mark one option)

1. Umeå University as a study destination

2. The location of the city of Umeå in the north of Sweden

3. The quality of education will be higher than at home

4. It was important for me to come to Umeå

5. I could have studied in any other country than my home country

6. Umeå University and my home university share strong connection

17. Please take a stand at the following statements regarding your studies at Umeå University

a. The quality of education will be higher than at home

b. It was important for me to come to Umeå

c. I could have studied in any other country than my home country

Questions about studying abroad
1. I wish to study subjects that I cannot study at another university
   - Disagree
   - Totally agree

2. The Swedish culture is appealing to me
   - Disagree
   - Totally agree

3. I want to develop my language skills
   - Disagree
   - Totally agree

4. An experience of studying abroad is a merit when applying for jobs
   - Disagree
   - Totally agree

5. I am looking for change and new experiences
   - Disagree
   - Totally agree

6. I want to work outside my home country when I have finished my studies
   - Disagree
   - Totally agree

7. I am curious and want to develop myself as a human being
   - Disagree
   - Totally agree

8. I came here to get a change
   - Disagree
   - Totally agree
These questions are about you life satisfaction. How satisfied are you with different aspects of your life?

1. Concerning life in general, I feel…
2. Concerning my studies, I feel…
3. Concerning my personal economic situation, I feel…
4. Concerning my leisure time, I feel…
5. Concerning my relationship with friends, I feel…
6. Concerning my ability to take care of myself, I feel…
7. Concerning my physical health, I feel…
8. Concerning my mental health, I feel…
9. Concerning my family life, I feel…
10. Concerning my relationship with my partner, I feel…

We want you to circle a number between 1 and 6. 1 stands for very dissatisfied and 6 for very satisfied.

1 = very dissatisfied
2 = dissatisfied
3 = rather dissatisfied
4 = rather satisfied
5 = satisfied
6 = very satisfied
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students should study and/or do an internship abroad</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internationalization is important within all study programs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is a good thing to have students study or do internship in other countries</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Its an adventure for students to live in another country</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universities should make it possible for all students to study abroad</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Its difficult to transfer credits when returning to my home university</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Studying abroad is overrated</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Studying and/or doing an internship makes it easier to find a job</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Its up to each individual to arrange for studies abroad</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Its important to receive a scholarship when studying abroad</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It requires extra money to afford studying abroad</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This survey will be followed up in February 2009. So we would like to have your E-mail address to contact you. Please fill in the address below!
Please, take a stand on the following statements. We want you to circle a number between 1 and 7. 1 stands for disagree and 7 for totally agree.

a. The standard of student accommodation is high in Sweden
   [ ] 1 [ ] 2 [ ] 3 [ ] 4 [ ] 5 [ ] 6 [ ] 7

b. Sweden is a very expensive country
   [ ] 1 [ ] 2 [ ] 3 [ ] 4 [ ] 5 [ ] 6 [ ] 7

c. It's difficult to learn to know people and to get friends in Sweden
   [ ] 1 [ ] 2 [ ] 3 [ ] 4 [ ] 5 [ ] 6 [ ] 7

d. I have managed to study without any knowledge in the Swedish language
   [ ] 1 [ ] 2 [ ] 3 [ ] 4 [ ] 5 [ ] 6 [ ] 7

e. The informal life style in Sweden attracts me
   [ ] 1 [ ] 2 [ ] 3 [ ] 4 [ ] 5 [ ] 6 [ ] 7

f. The courses offered at Umeå University have a high academic standard
   [ ] 1 [ ] 2 [ ] 3 [ ] 4 [ ] 5 [ ] 6 [ ] 7

g. Umeå University offers many courses taught in English which was great since I have no ambition of learning Swedish
   [ ] 1 [ ] 2 [ ] 3 [ ] 4 [ ] 5 [ ] 6 [ ] 7
I have found that Umeå University has a good reputation as a study institution.

It has been very exciting for me to experience winter and another climate.

I have been limited in my choices of courses due to my lack of knowledge in Swedish.

The amount of courses I can study at Umeå University fulfils my needs as a student.

Please take a stand at the following statements. We want you to circle a number between 1 and 7. 1 stands for disagree and 7 for totally agree.

The quality of education is higher than at home.

The city of Umeå is a good place to study.

Sweden is a good country to study in.

The Swedish culture is appealing to me.

I have developed my language skills.
I have met new friends here in Umeå

An experience of studying abroad is a merit when applying for jobs

I was looking for change and new experiences

I want to work abroad when I have finished my studies

I came to Umeå because I wanted a change of environment am curious and want to develop myself as a human being

I am curious and want to develop myself as a human being

3. **These questions are about you life satisfaction. How satisfied are you with different aspects of your life?**
4. To which extent do you agree to the following statements?

- a) concerning life in general, I feel...
- b) concerning my studies, I feel...
- c) concerning my personal economic situation, I feel...
- d) concerning my leisure time, I feel...
- e) concerning my relationship with friends, I feel...
- f) concerning my ability to take care of myself, I feel...
- g) concerning my physical health, I feel...
- h) concerning my mental health, I feel...
- i) concerning my family life, I feel...
- j) concerning my relationship with my partner, I feel...

---

1. Students should study and/or do an internship abroad
2. Internationalization is important within all study programs
3. It is a good thing to have students study or do internship in other countries
4. It’s an adventure for students to live in another country
5. Universities should make it possible for all students to study abroad
f) It's difficult to transfer credits when returning to my home university.
g) Studying abroad is overrated.
h) Studying and/or doing an internship makes it easier to find a job.
i) It's important to receive a scholarship when studying abroad.
j) It's important to receive a scholarship when studying abroad.
k) It requires extra money to afford studying abroad.

5. Based on your experiences from studying at Umeå University would you have considered choosing Umeå University again if you would have made the choice today? We want you to circle a number between 1 and 7. 1 stands for disagree and 7 for totally agree.

Disagree  
Totally agree

This questionnaire is a follow up survey, please write your E-mail address below which gives us a possibility to contact you. Thank you for your cooperation!

E-mail: