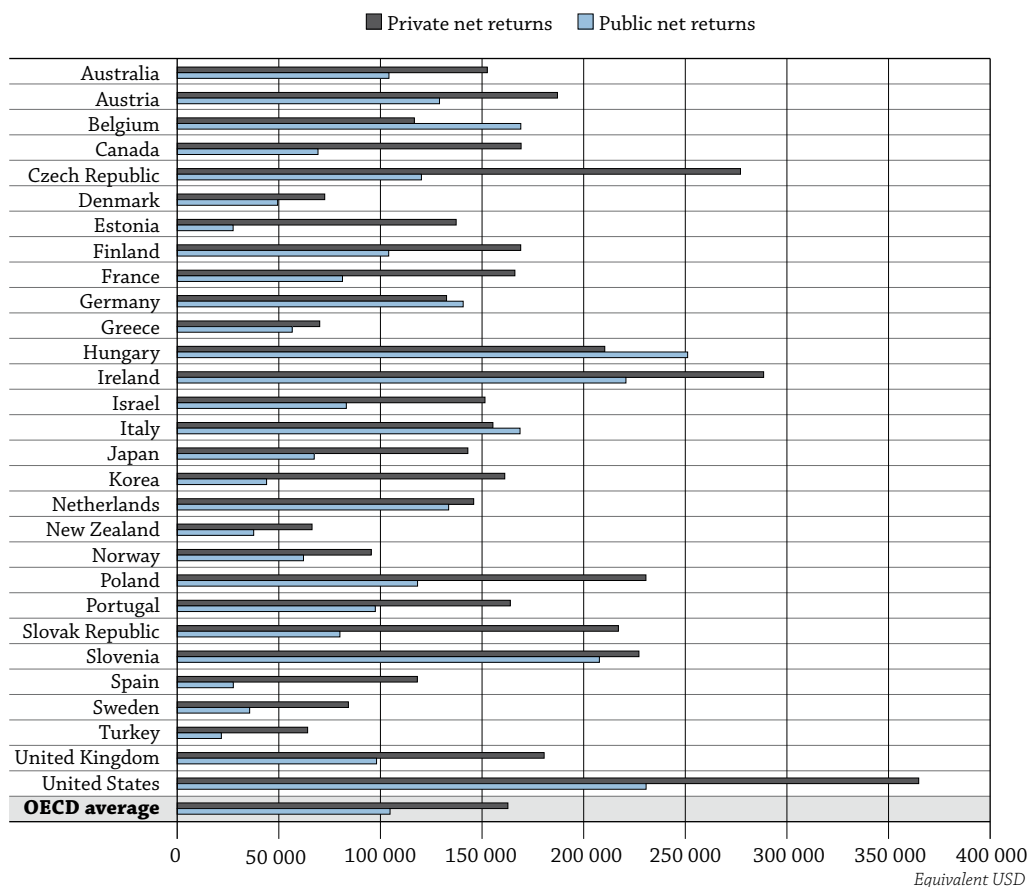


WHAT ARE THE INCENTIVES TO INVEST IN EDUCATION?

- The private returns on investment in tertiary education are substantial.
- Not only does education pay off for individuals, but the public also benefits in the form of greater tax revenues and social contributions.
- The net public return on investment for a man in tertiary education is over USD 100 000 across OECD countries – almost three times the amount of public investment in that man’s education. For a woman, the public return is around USD 60 000, which is almost twice the amount of public investment.

Chart A7.1. Net private and public returns associated with a man attaining tertiary education (2009)

As compared with returns from upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education



Notes: Turkey refers to 2005. Japan refers to 2007. Italy, the Netherlands and Poland refer to 2008. All other countries refer to 2009. Cashflows are discounted at a 3% interest rate.

Countries are shown in alphabetical order.

Source: OECD. Tables A7.3a and A7.4a. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag.htm).

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Context

Higher educational achievement benefits both individuals and society, not only financially, but in the well-being with which it is also associated. For individuals, having a higher education improves chances for employment and reduces the risk of unemployment. Better opportunities in the labour market (see Indicator A5) and higher earnings expectations (see Indicator A6) are

strong incentives for individuals to invest in education and postpone consumption and earnings for future rewards. Society, in turn, profits through reduced public expenditure on social welfare programmes and revenues earned through taxes paid once individuals enter the labour market.

It is crucial for policy makers to understand the economic incentives for individuals to invest in education. For instance, large increases in labour-market demand for more highly educated workers can drive up earnings and returns before supply catches up. That signals a need for additional investment in education. In countries with rigid labour laws and structures that tend to limit differences in wages across the board, this signal will be weaker.

An understanding of the returns from education is also relevant for policies that address access to education, taxes and the costs of further education for the individual. It is important, then, to consider the balance between private and public returns together with the information from other indicators in this publication. It is not sufficient to consider only the public rate of return to determine the optimal amount governments should invest in education (Box A7.1). Large discrepancies between private and public returns may indicate that there might be distorting tax schemes in effect or that education is being disproportionately subsidised.

In countries with lengthy tertiary programmes and relatively high incomes after upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education, the effect of foregone earnings is considerable (see Indicator B1). The magnitude of this effect also depends on expected wage levels and the probability of finding a job. As the labour market for young adults worsens (see Indicator C5), investment costs fall. Since more highly educated people tend to fare better in the labour market in times of economic hardship (see Indicator A5), larger earnings differentials add to the benefit to both the individual and society. In coming editions of *Education at a Glance*, data from 2010 and 2011, when the effects of the global economic crisis were most strongly felt, are likely to show even greater incentives to invest in education from both private and public sources.

■ Other findings

- **Gross earnings benefits from tertiary education**, compared with the income of a person with an upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education, **are USD 330 000 for men and USD 240 000 for women across OECD countries.**
- **Gross earning benefits for an individual attaining an upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary degree**, compared to benefits for an individual who has not attained this level of education, **are particularly high** in Austria, Norway and the United States. They amount to at least USD 250 000 for a man and USD 150 000 for a woman.
- On average across the 28 OECD countries with available data, **the public return** (net present value) **for a man who completed upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education is about USD 38 000** compared with a man who did not complete that level of education. **For a woman, the public return is USD 22 000.**
- With few exceptions, **the net private returns related to attaining a tertiary education exceed those related to upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education.** Only in Denmark and Sweden does upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education bring higher returns to both men and women. In Norway and Korea, upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education returns exceed tertiary education returns for men; in New Zealand, the same is true for women.
- **Across OECD countries, individuals invest about USD 55 000 to obtain a tertiary degree.** In Japan, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom and the United States, average investment exceeds USD 100 000 when direct and indirect costs are taken into account.

Analysis

Financial returns on investment in education

This indicator provides information on the costs and benefits of education and the incentives to invest in education. It assesses the economic benefits of education for an individual by estimating the earnings premiums of higher levels of education, taking into consideration the direct and indirect costs and benefits of attaining those levels of education. Besides higher earnings compared to individuals with lower education levels, the probability of finding work, expressed in monetary terms by the variable called «unemployment effect», is also a benefit.

Costs include direct costs, notably tuition fees, and indirect costs due to higher income taxes, social contributions levies, loss of salary because of delayed entry into the labour market, and fewer entitlements to social transfers, such as housing allowances, family allowances or supplemental social welfare benefits. In addition, social contributions and income taxes account for a certain percentage of the income and tend to be higher for individuals with more advanced education because they tend to earn more.

The economic benefits and costs of tertiary education are compared to those of upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education; for upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education, below upper secondary education is used as a point of reference. In the calculations, women are benchmarked against women, and men against men. The calculations are done separately for men and women, and no average is computed to account for differences by gender in earnings differentials and unemployment rates.

To provide information on the costs and benefits of education and the incentives to invest in education is a difficult undertaking that implicates some methodological and analytical considerations. Investing in education, by both individuals and governments, implies a complex interaction of factors and effects that are beyond those taken into account here. Thus, this indicator should be interpreted in the context of other indicators in this volume (and in *Education at a Glance 2012*) to better understanding the results. The limitations of the calculations, and underlying concepts and assumptions, are presented in the *Methodology* section at the end of this indicator.

Incentives for individuals to invest in education

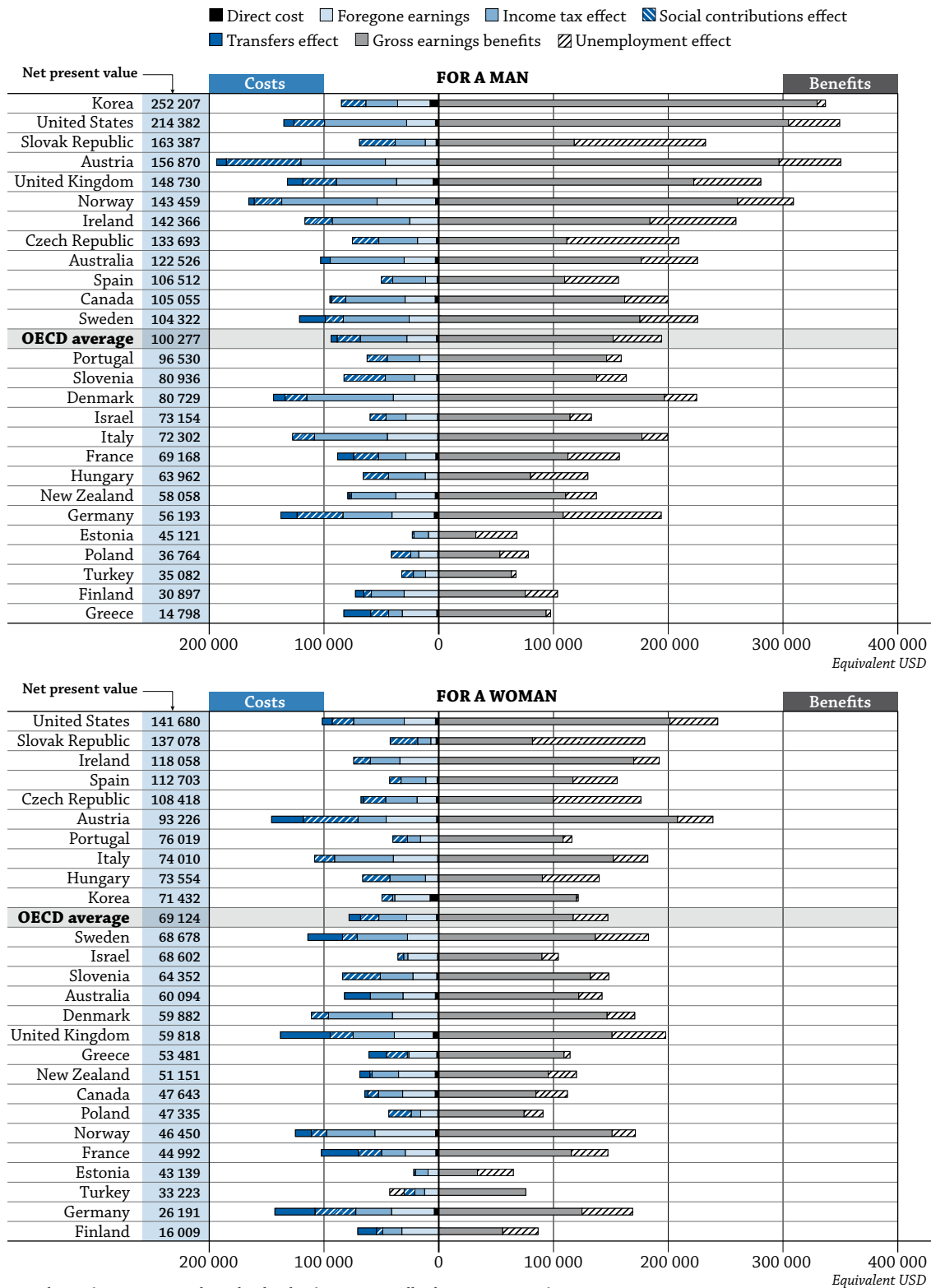
Upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education

Across OECD countries, a man who invests in upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education can expect a net gain of around USD 100 000 during his working life compared to a man who has attained below upper secondary education. However, the amount varies significantly among countries: in Austria, Korea, Norway and the United States, this level of education generates USD 200 000 or more over a working life (Table A7.1a).

Benefits for an individual are generally based on gross earnings and reduced risk of unemployment. In most countries, men with an upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education enjoy a significant earnings premium over those who have not attained that level of education. The value of reduced risk of unemployment can also be large. In the Czech Republic, Germany and the Slovak Republic, the better labour market prospects for a man with this level of education are valued at USD 85 000 or more (Table A7.1a).

Direct costs, forgone earnings, income tax effect, social transfers and social contribution effect (see *Definitions* section below) are all considered part of the costs of education. Data for a man attaining upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education show that countries with relatively high income tax effects (estimated at more than USD 65 000) are Austria, Denmark, Ireland, Norway and the United States. The income tax effect is less significant (estimated at less than USD 20 000) in Estonia, Greece, Israel, Poland and Turkey. Austria, Germany, Ireland, Norway, the Slovak Republic, Slovenia, the United Kingdom and the United States are the countries with highest social contributions (estimated at more than USD 23 000). In Denmark, France, Germany, Greece, Sweden and the United Kingdom indirect costs due to reduced rights to welfare and other social benefits (social transfers) amount to more than USD 10 000 (Table A7.1a).

Chart A7.2. Private costs and benefits for a man and for a woman attaining upper secondary or post-secondary non tertiary education (2009)
As compared with returns from below upper secondary education



Notes: Turkey refers to 2005. Italy and Poland refer to 2008. All other countries refer to 2009. Cashflows are discounted at a 3% interest rate. Countries are ranked in descending order of the private net present value.

Source: OECD, Tables A7.1a and b. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag.htm).

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The direct costs of education for a woman investing in an upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education are usually negligible; the main investment cost is foregone earnings. Foregone earnings vary substantially among countries, depending on the length of education, earnings levels and earning differentials between individuals with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education and those without it (Table A7.1b).

Good labour-market prospects for individuals, both men and women, who have not attained an upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education increase the costs of further investment in education; so do smaller earnings differentials and longer upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary programmes. In Estonia, Hungary, the Slovak Republic, Spain and Turkey, foregone earnings are estimated at less than USD 13 000 for an individual (both women and men), while in Austria, Denmark, Germany, Italy and Norway they exceed USD 36 000 for an individual (Tables A7.1a and b).

Men generally enjoy better financial returns than women after attaining upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education, except in Greece, Hungary, Italy, Poland and Spain. In these countries, the private net present value for women attaining upper secondary or post-secondary education is higher than that for of men. On average across OECD countries, a woman can expect a net gain of USD 69 000 over her working life – about USD 30 000 less than a man. The gender gap in private net returns is particularly pronounced in Austria, Korea, Norway, the United Kingdom and the United States. The difference is largest in Korea, where gross earnings benefits for a man attaining an upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education are around USD 250 000, but only USD 71 000 for a woman. The main reasons for this difference lie in differences in social transfers and unemployment costs between the two genders (Chart A7.2).

Tertiary education

Individuals who hold a tertiary degree can generally expect the highest net returns. On average across OECD countries, the return for tertiary-educated people is around 60% higher than for those with an upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education. With few exceptions, the net private returns related to a tertiary education exceed those of upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education.

The net returns for investing in tertiary education are typically higher for men than for women. Only in Portugal are average returns nearly identical for men and women; in Greece, Spain and Turkey, the returns are higher for women (Tables A7.3a and b).

The value of the gross earnings benefits for men and women with tertiary education is substantial: on average, USD 330 000 for men and USD 240 000 for women. But there are also significant variations between countries.

The Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland and Slovenia are among those countries where earning premiums are above the OECD average despite relatively lower overall costs and income levels compared to other OECD countries. This may be explained by the still relatively low tertiary attainment levels in the working-age population which, in turn, suggests a short supply of higher-educated individuals. This may have driven up wages and wage inequality between tertiary and lower-educated individuals over the years.

Compared with upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education, the impact of unemployment benefits is less pronounced than the earnings differential, on average across OECD countries; but the effects of taxes, social contributions and social transfers, and the direct costs of education are more substantial. In particular, people with tertiary education remain longer in education and thus lose a substantial amount of earnings (foregone earnings) that they could have received if they had joined the labour market earlier.

Private investment costs for tertiary education are very high in some countries. Across OECD countries, individuals invest about USD 55 000 to obtain a tertiary degree. In the Netherlands, the United Kingdom and the United States average investment exceeds USD 100 000 for an individual of either gender when direct and indirect costs are taken into account. On average across OECD countries, direct costs, such as tuition fees, constitute about one-fifth of the total investment made by a tertiary graduate (estimated at USD 11 000 for an individual of either gender) (Tables A7.3a and b).

One way to increase weak labour-market returns is to provide higher education at lower costs to the individual. Apart from subsidising the direct costs of education, a number of countries also provide students with loans and grants to improve incentives and access to education. Whereas grants are transfers made in cash, goods or services for which no repayment is required, loans are transfers that require repayment. This indicator only takes grants into account; it does not report on loans.

Grants are particularly important in Denmark, where they cover more than 40% of the total costs of tertiary education (grants estimated at USD 25 000). In Austria, Finland, the Netherlands and Sweden, grants are estimated at more than USD 8 000, about 15% of the total cost (Tables A7.3a and b).

Data show, however, that countries that have the highest direct costs of tertiary education, notably Australia, Japan, Korea, the United Kingdom and the United States, do not provide grants, or do so only in small amounts. In Australia, the United Kingdom and the United States, grants cover less than 2% of the direct costs of tertiary education. However, many countries, including those offering only small grants, provide student loans, which must be repaid after graduation. Loan regulations, particularly when graduates have to start reimbursing their loans (e.g. once they earn above a certain income threshold, right after graduation, etc.) and the applicable interest rate, vary widely between countries. For most student loans, however, the total amount to be repaid and the amount to be repaid per period depend on actual income earned after graduation. The availability of student loans can encourage students, particularly those from socio-economically disadvantaged backgrounds, to pursue their studies. But because loans must be repaid after graduation – and thus subtracted from earnings benefits – they reduce the financial benefits of education.

Public rate of return on investments in education

Upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education

As mentioned above, higher educational levels tend to translate into higher income levels, on average (see Indicator A6). In this sense, investments in education generate public returns in the form of higher income taxes, increased social insurance payments and fewer social transfers. The public returns on investing in men's and women's upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education are positive in most countries. On average across OECD countries, this level of education generates a public net return of USD 38 000 for a man and USD 22 000 for a woman (Tables A7.2a and b).

On average, the public benefits are twice as large as the overall public costs of upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education, for both men and women. In the United Kingdom, public benefits are six times larger than the public costs for a man with this level of education and eight times larger for a woman (Tables A7.2a and b).

Tertiary education

On average across OECD countries, public investment in an individual's tertiary education is USD 39 000 higher than that for an individual's upper secondary or post-secondary education (taking into account public direct spending and indirect costs). Public investment in an individual's tertiary education is highest (more than USD 60 000 higher than for an individual at the lower education level) in Austria, Denmark, Germany, the Netherlands, Norway and Sweden (Chart A7.3).

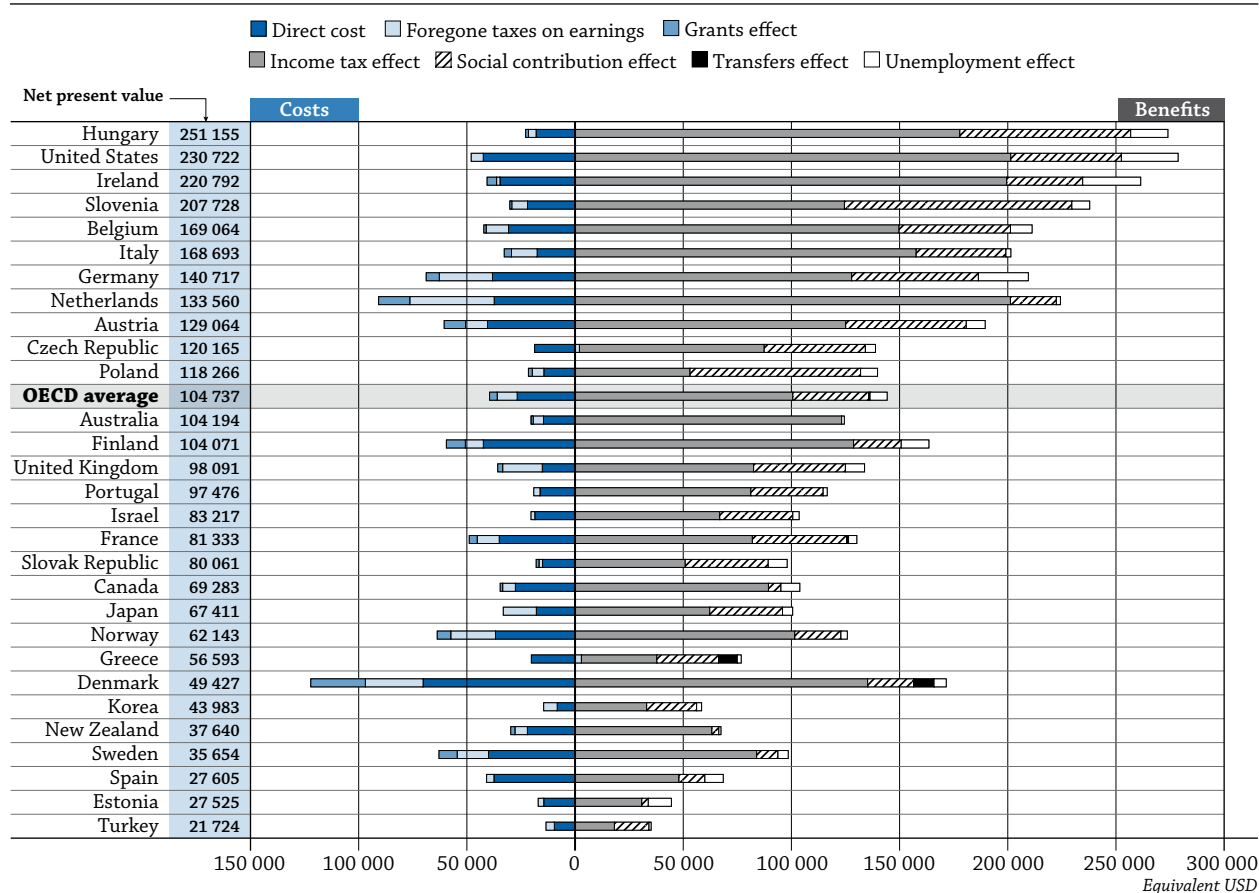
In most countries, the public returns from tertiary education are substantially higher than the public returns from upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education. This is because of the higher taxes and social contributions that flow from the higher incomes of those with tertiary qualifications. On average across OECD countries, the public net return from an investment in tertiary education is over USD 100 000 for a man and over USD 57 000 for a woman. Taking into account direct costs, foregone earnings, and public grants, the public benefits from a man in tertiary education are four times higher than the public costs, and from a tertiary-educated woman, more than two times higher (Tables A7.4a and b).

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Overall, differences in wages are the source of the differences in returns to both the individual and the public sector. Where the differences between wages are smaller, the returns to higher education are lower. This is particularly true in Denmark, Norway, Sweden and New Zealand. The Nordic countries have generally offset the effects of this weak reward structure by providing a higher-education system that is almost free of charge and by having a generous student-grant system (see Indicator B5).

Given that earnings premiums vary substantially among OECD countries, tax payments and benefits to the public sector also vary in ways that are somewhat counter-intuitive. Because earnings premiums are relatively low in the Nordic countries, average tertiary earnings typically fall below the income bracket where high marginal taxes are levied. The largest public gains in tax and social security benefits from higher education are most often found in countries where earnings differentials are large, or where average earnings reach high income-tax brackets. In Austria, Germany, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, the Netherlands, Poland, Slovenia and the United States, tertiary-educated individuals pay considerably more in taxes and social contributions. In all these countries, earning premiums are above the OECD average and thus levies for social contribution are also higher.

Chart A7.3. Public costs and benefits for a man attaining tertiary education (2009)
 As compared with returns from upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education



Notes: Turkey refers to 2005. Japan refers to 2007. Italy, the Netherlands and Poland refer to 2008. All other countries refer to 2009. Cashflows are discounted at a 3% interest rate.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the public net present value.

Source: OECD, Table A7.4a. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag.htm).

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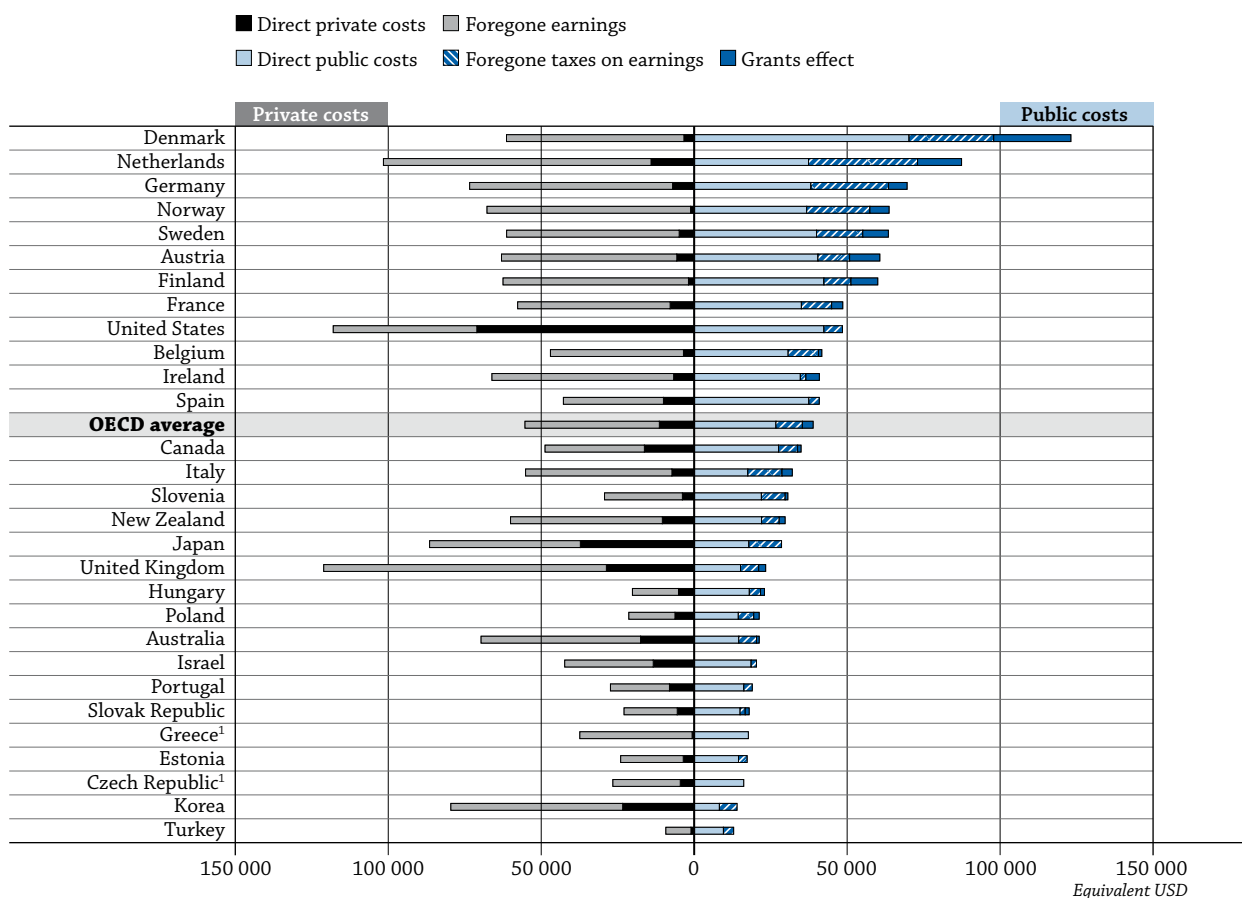
A number of countries have tax policies that effectively lower the actual tax paid by individuals, particularly by those in high income brackets. Tax relief for interest payments on mortgage debt has been introduced in many OECD countries to encourage homeownership. These benefits favour those with higher education and

high marginal tax rates. The tax incentives for housing are particularly large in the Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, Greece, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden and the United States (See Andrews et al., 2011).

The distribution of costs for education between the public sector and individuals

Direct costs for education are in large part borne by the public sector. On average across OECD countries, individuals carry around 30% of the total private and public direct investment costs in tertiary education. Only in a few countries, notably Australia, Japan, Korea, the United Kingdom and the United States, do private direct costs, such as tuition fees, constitute over half of the overall public and private direct investment costs in tertiary education. Some countries provide grants and loans to individuals to alleviate the financial burden of attaining tertiary education. Grants are awarded based on various criteria, such as outstanding performance or a student's socio-economic background, to encourage young individuals from less-affluent families to pursue their studies. Countries that offer particularly large grants are the Nordic countries of Denmark (USD 25 200), Finland (USD 8 700) and Sweden (USD 8 300), as well as Austria (USD 9 900) and the Netherlands (USD 14 400). Interestingly, there appears to be no relationship between direct costs and grants. Countries where grants are higher do not have the highest private direct costs. Conversely, among the five countries where direct costs are the highest, only the United Kingdom provides substantial grants to students (USD 2 200) (Chart A7.4).

Chart A7.4. Public versus private costs for a woman attaining tertiary education (2009)
 As compared with returns from upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education



Notes: Turkey refers to 2005. Japan refers to 2007. Italy, the Netherlands and Poland refer to 2008. All other countries refer to 2009. Cashflows are discounted at a 3% interest rate.

1. For the Czech Republic and Greece, direct public costs refer to the total public costs.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the total public costs.

Source: OECD. Tables A7.3b and A7.4b. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag.htm).

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Box A7.1. Understanding private and public returns to education

The private return to education constitutes an important incentive for individuals to invest in post-compulsory education. In this box the word “return” is always used in the sense of the internal rate of return. The internal rate expresses revenues as a percentage return to the investment. A high private return constitutes a strong incentive for individuals to invest in (further) education beyond compulsory schooling. In modern societies, governments share in the benefits and cost of education. They typically tax part of individuals’ additional revenue, but also bear part of the cost. As a result, it is possible to calculate public returns to additional investment in education. Like individual returns, these returns indicate the extent to which revenues for the government from additional education exceed the costs of that education that are borne by the government. However, unlike private returns, public returns cannot be used to guide government decisions on investment in education directly. Only a comparison of public returns with private returns can offer useful insights to governments. More specifically, this comparison enables governments to design optimal financing schemes for post-compulsory education.

Human capital theory considers individuals, not governments, as the investors in education. After all, it is an individual who chooses to continue schooling or not. In making that decision, the individual knows that investing more time in school raises wages per unit of time. But given that a working life, or pension age, is finite, the amount of time left to participate in the labour market after further education is reduced. In the absence of government, and assuming perfect markets and rational individuals, human capital theory predicts that individuals will choose exactly the amount of time devoted to education that maximises their income over their lifetime. If, for example, a shift in technology raises the private return to human capital, the model predicts that individuals will invest more time in education than they would otherwise do. The increase in private return is a direct incentive for individuals to find a new allocation of time that maximises their lifetime income.

When governments are introduced into this model, the best they can do is not influence the original decisions of individuals in that hypothetical world. This implies that the rate at which revenues from additional schooling (higher wages) are taxed should be set exactly equal to the rate at which government subsidises the cost of education. In other words, government policy should be neutral (Netherlands Bureau of Economic Policy Analysis, 2012). Progressive tax schemes and taxes on capital income lead to more complicated effects, but the principle of neutrality still holds (Lans Bovenberg and Jacobs, 2005).

Hence, public return should be interpreted with care. The efficiency of government policies on financing further education can be assessed by comparing public return with private return. If the public return exceeds the private return, government is taxing additional labour income that comes with additional schooling at a higher rate than the rate at which government is subsidising education. This will discourage investment in education and will lead to a sub-optimal lifetime income, for both individuals and the government. The opposite is true when the public return is lower than the private return. In this case, the government is subsidising too much, leading individual agents to invest too much in education, which also reduces the level of lifetime income below the maximum level obtainable. An optimal government policy implies the equality of public and private returns, which is just another expression of the neutrality rule.

However, this rule only holds when the two remaining assumptions hold: that markets are perfect and that individuals make rational choices. If these two assumptions no longer apply, governments may have reasons to deviate from the neutrality rule.

...

First, education may have a number of external effects. In addition to individual revenues, an investment in education may result in benefits or disadvantages to others that cannot be internalised by the investor and give rise to market imperfections. The benefits to society as a whole may be greater or lesser than the benefits to individuals. The positive external effects include dissemination of knowledge, civic and social well-being, and lower criminality. Negative external effects may also occur. The literature suggests that social benefits would exceed private benefits, indicating the presence of net positive external effects (Netherlands Bureau of Economic Policy Analysis, 2012). Government subsidies can be used to let individuals internalise these external benefits.

Second, investing in additional education is a rational, long-term decision that implies balancing the more or less known immediate cost of education against uncertain rewards in the future. The literature suggests that individuals may be inclined to undervalue future rewards (see, for example, Laibson, 1997) or they may be highly risk averse. In these cases, individuals may underinvest in education. In these situations, subsidies can be used to correct that behaviour. If external effects are positive, on balance, and behavioural aspects of an individual's decisions tend to lead to suboptimal investment in education, governments should subsidise that investment at a higher rate than the marginal tax rate on labour income. This will lead to a public return that is lower than the private return. But again, the public return cannot be used per se as an incentive for governments to further invest in education.

What does this mean for practical policy? In reality, it is very difficult to arrive at correct and comprehensive estimates of public and private returns. Thus, the figures published in *Education at a Glance* should be interpreted with caution. However, large discrepancies between private and public returns should prompt additional analyses to assess whether government tax schemes or subsidies are strongly distortionary. In addition, public and private returns are useful only in guiding optimal financing schemes for post-compulsory education, i.e. determining how to share costs and benefits between the government and the individual. Education policy is about a lot more.

Definitions

Direct costs are a reflection of how much is spent on students per year from all sources (public, private and households), and are relative to the length of schooling.

Foregone earnings while in education depend largely on the level of earnings that a non-student can expect to receive and the duration of studies. The individual's foregone earnings are net of taxes, social contributions and social transfers.

Foregone taxes on earnings include the taxes, social contributions and social transfers not received by the public sector.

Gross earnings benefits are estimates of the earnings an individual will receive when in the labour market.

The **income tax effect** is the estimated amount received by the public sector from taxes. It is usually the main source of public revenue from investments made in education. It is more pronounced at the tertiary level of education because of progressive income taxes.

The **internal rate of return** indicates at what real interest rate the investment breaks even.

The **net present value** is the difference between the discounted benefits and the discounted investment costs, and represents the additional value that education produces over and above the 3% real interest that is charged on these cash flows.

A7

The **social contribution effect** in the calculations only concerns those paid by individuals and not those paid by employers. The latter are an additional source of public income. In most OECD countries individuals pay social contributions on a flat rate and, as such, differences between education levels are smaller and proportional to earnings levels.

The **transfers effect** concerns the social transfers related to a given level of earnings.

The **unemployment effect** is translated into monetary gains by using the level of earnings for different education categories over the working life.

Methodology

This indicator builds on information collected in other chapters of *Education at a Glance 2012* with one exception: to be able to calculate public returns and examine net benefits for individuals, information from the OECD “Taxing Wages” database is used. The earnings data used are from the earning data collection gathered by the LSO (Labour market and social outcomes of learning) Network (available as relative earnings in *Education at a Glance 2012*, Indicator A8). The data on direct costs of education are from Indicators B1 and B3. Data for the probability of finding a job (unemployment rates for different educational categories and age groups) are from Indicator A7. And the minimum wage is used as an approximation for what a student could potentially earn if not in school in calculating the foregone earnings at the upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary level of education.

In calculating the returns to education, the approach taken here is the net present value (NPV) of the investment. In this framework, lifetime costs and benefits are transferred back to the start of the investment. This is done by discounting all cash flows back to the beginning of the investment with a set rate of interest (discount rate). The choice of interest rate is difficult, as it should reflect not only the overall time horizon of the investment, but also the cost of borrowing or the perceived risk of the investment. To keep things simple, and to make the interpretation of results easier, the same discount rate is applied across all OECD countries.

To arrive at a reasonable discount rate, long-term government bonds have been used as a benchmark. The average long-term interest rate across OECD countries was approximately 4.4% in 2009 (OECD Finance Database [OECD, 2013]). Assuming that countries’ central banks have succeeded in anchoring inflation expectations at or below 2% per year, this implies a real interest rate of 2% to 3%. The 3% real discount rate used in this indicator reflects the fact that calculations are made in constant prices. The change in the discount rate has a substantial impact on the net present value of education.

Discounting the costs and benefits to the present value with this interest rate makes the financial returns on the overall investment and values of the different components comparable across time and countries. Using the same unit of analysis also has the advantage of making it possible to add or subtract components across different education levels or between the private and public sectors to understand how different factors interact.

NPV calculations are based on the same method as internal rate of return (IRR) calculations. The main difference between the two methods lies in how the interest rate is set. For calculations developed within the IRR framework, the interest rate is raised to the level at which the economic benefits equal the cost of the investment. It pinpoints the discount rate at which the investment breaks even.

In calculating the private NPV, investment costs include after-tax foregone earnings adjusted for the probability of finding a job (unemployment rate) and direct private expenditures on education. Both of these investment streams take into account the duration of studies. On the benefit side, age-earnings profiles are used to calculate the earnings differential between different education levels. These gross earnings differentials are adjusted for differences in income taxes, social contributions and social transfers, including housing benefits and social assistance related to earnings level, to arrive at net earnings differentials. The cash flows are further adjusted for probability of finding a job. The calculations are done separately for men and women to account for differences in earnings differentials and unemployment rates.

In calculating the public NPV, public costs include lost tax receipts during the years of schooling (income tax and social contributions) and public expenditures, taking into account the duration of studies. Lost tax receipts are low in some countries because young individuals earn less. Public expenditures on education include direct expenditures, such as teachers' salaries or spending for the construction of school buildings, purchase of textbooks, etc., and public-private transfers, such as public subsidies to households for scholarships and other grants, and to other private entities for providing training at the workplace, etc. The benefits for the public sector are additional tax and social contribution receipts associated with higher earnings and savings on transfers, i.e. housing benefits and social assistance that the public sector does not have to pay because of higher earnings.

It is important to consider some of the broad conceptual limitations on the estimates of financial returns discussed here. For instance:

- To calculate returns over the lifetime, 64 is used as the upper age limit in all countries. However, the pension entry age varies widely between countries. A few years more or less in the labour market can make a substantial difference in the returns to education for an individual and the public. Thus, it is likely that in countries where the retirement age deviates significantly from 64, return rates are over- or underestimated.
- As earnings generally increase with educational attainment, individuals with higher levels of education typically consume more goods and services, and thus pay additional value-added taxes (VAT) on their consumption. Public returns are thus underestimated in this indicator.
- Individuals with higher earnings also tend to pay more into their pensions and, after leaving the labour force, will have a further income advantage that is not taken into account in the calculations here. Better-educated individuals also tend to live longer, entailing additional public costs that are also not taken into account here.
- Many governments have programmes that provide loans to students at low interest rates. Loans can provide a strong incentive for individuals to pursue their studies and reduce the costs of attaining higher education. Yet, as loans have to be repaid later, they also reduce the financial benefits of education. These subsidies can often make a substantial difference in the returns to education for the individual, but they are not included here.
- Direct costs are most notably tuition fees, but also costs for educational materials or daily expenses that are associated with a change in residence required to pursue a specific educational programme. These are not taken into consideration.
- The data reported are accounting-based values only. The results no doubt differ from econometric estimates that would use the same data on the micro level (i.e. data from household or individual surveys) rather than a lifetime stream of earnings derived from average earnings.
- For upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education, caution is required when interpreting foregone earnings, as the minimum wage is used as an approximation.

Given these factors, the returns on education in different countries should be assessed with caution.

The approach used here estimates future earnings for individuals with different levels of education, based on knowledge of how average present gross earnings vary by level of attainment and age. However, the relationship between different levels of educational attainment and earnings may differ in the future, as technological, economic and social changes may all alter how wage levels relate to education levels.

Differences in returns across countries partly reflect different institutional and non-market conditions that bear on earnings, such as institutional conditions that limit flexibility in relative earnings.

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In estimating benefits, the effect of education on the likelihood of finding employment when an individual wants to work is taken into account. However, this also makes the estimate sensitive to the stage in the economic cycle at which the data are collected. As more highly educated individuals typically have a stronger attachment to the labour market, the value of education generally increases in times of slow economic growth.

The calculations also involve a number of restrictive assumptions needed for international comparability. For calculating the investments in education, foregone earnings have been standardised at the level of the legal minimum wage or the equivalent in countries in which earnings data include part-time work. When no national minimum wage was available, the wage was selected from wages set in collective agreements. This assumption aims to counterbalance the very low earnings recorded for 15-24 year-olds that led to excessively high estimates in earlier editions of *Education at a Glance*. In the Czech Republic, Hungary, Japan, the Netherlands, Portugal and the United Kingdom, actual earnings are used in calculating foregone earnings, as part-time work is excluded in these earnings data collections.

Cost and benefits for upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education cannot be computed for Belgium and the Netherlands because upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education is compulsory in both countries. The fact that upper secondary education is compulsory in these countries prevents a consistent application of the methodology for this indicator, because it uses an investment approach. The investment approach assumes that individuals make a choice to invest in a given level of education in order to obtain the benefits. In countries where a particular level of education is compulsory, individuals do not face this choice, therefore by making the methodology is inapplicable in these instances.

For further information on the methodology, see OECD, 2011, and Annex 3 at www.oecd.org/edu/eag.htm.

The statistical data for Israel are supplied by and under the responsibility of the relevant Israeli authorities. The use of such data by the OECD is without prejudice to the status of the Golan Heights, East Jerusalem and Israeli settlements in the West Bank under the terms of international law.

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Indicator A7 Tables







Table A7.1a	Private costs and benefits for a man attaining upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education (2009) <i>StatLink</i>  http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932849103
Table A7.1b	Private costs and benefits for a woman attaining upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education (2009) <i>StatLink</i>  http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932849122
Table A7.2a	Public costs and benefits for a man attaining upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education (2009) <i>StatLink</i>  http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932849141
Table A7.2b	Public costs and benefits for a woman attaining upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education (2009) <i>StatLink</i>  http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932849160
Table A7.3a	Private costs and benefits for a man attaining tertiary education (2009) <i>StatLink</i>  http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932849179
Table A7.3b	Private costs and benefits for a woman attaining tertiary education (2009) <i>StatLink</i>  http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932849198
Table A7.4a	Public costs and benefits for a man attaining tertiary education (2009) <i>StatLink</i>  http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932849217
Table A7.4b	Public costs and benefits for a woman attaining tertiary education (2009) <i>StatLink</i>  http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932849236

Table A7.1a. Private costs and benefits for a man attaining upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education (2009)

As compared with a man attaining lower secondary education, in equivalent USD converted using PPPs for GDP

	Year	Direct costs	Foregone earnings	Total costs	Gross earnings benefits	Income tax effect	Social contribution effect	Transfers effect	Unemployment effect	Total benefits	Net present value	Internal rate of return	
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	
OECD	Australia	2009	- 3 019	- 27 156	- 30 175	176 400	- 64 407	0	- 8 303	49 011	152 701	122 526	19.9%
	Austria	2009	- 1 890	- 44 642	- 46 532	296 619	- 73 664	- 64 903	- 8 442	53 792	203 402	156 870	13.1%
	Belgium ¹		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Canada	2009	- 3 176	- 26 160	- 29 336	161 993	- 51 689	- 12 759	- 1 050	37 895	134 391	105 055	13.9%
	Chile		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Czech Republic	2009	- 2 116	- 16 417	- 18 533	111 711	- 33 748	- 22 963	0	97 226	152 226	133 693	23.8%
	Denmark	2009	- 767	- 38 878	- 39 645	196 594	- 75 388	- 18 916	- 10 020	28 105	120 374	80 729	11.8%
	Estonia	2009	- 252	- 8 833	- 9 085	32 324	- 12 566	- 1 362	0	35 810	54 206	45 121	16.9%
	Finland	2009	- 178	- 30 022	- 30 201	75 381	- 28 532	- 6 632	- 7 202	28 082	61 097	30 897	7.8%
	France	2009	- 2 632	- 26 088	- 28 720	112 593	- 23 972	- 21 496	- 13 971	44 735	97 888	69 168	10.9%
	Germany	2009	- 3 973	- 36 807	- 40 779	108 511	- 42 779	- 39 984	- 14 061	85 286	96 973	56 193	8.2%
	Greece	2009	- 1 780	- 30 044	- 31 824	93 624	- 11 870	- 15 658	- 23 320	3 845	46 622	14 798	4.1%
	Hungary	2009	- 823	- 11 014	- 11 837	80 092	- 31 994	- 22 087	0	49 789	75 800	63 962	19.4%
	Iceland		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Ireland	2009	- 688	- 24 715	- 25 403	184 104	- 67 498	- 23 665	0	74 829	167 770	142 366	20.4%
	Israel	2009	- 1 120	- 27 472	- 28 592	114 461	- 17 425	- 13 778	0	18 488	101 746	73 154	10.1%
	Italy	2008	- 986	- 43 886	- 44 872	177 073	- 63 514	- 18 903	0	22 519	117 174	72 302	8.1%
	Japan ²		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Korea	2009	- 7 620	- 28 267	- 35 888	329 758	- 27 699	- 21 179	0	7 215	288 094	252 207	12.6%
	Luxembourg		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Mexico		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Netherlands ¹		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	New Zealand	2009	- 3 128	- 34 334	- 37 462	110 659	- 38 760	- 2 339	- 711	26 671	95 519	58 058	8.1%
	Norway	2009	- 2 859	- 50 874	- 53 734	260 393	- 83 124	- 24 042	- 4 703	48 669	197 192	143 459	13.2%
	Poland	2008	- 916	- 16 602	- 17 518	53 311	- 6 965	- 16 753	0	24 689	54 282	36 764	10.3%
	Portugal	2009	0	- 16 727	- 16 727	146 280	- 28 260	- 17 439	0	12 676	113 256	96 530	12.2%
	Slovak Republic	2009	- 2 358	- 9 468	- 11 826	118 139	- 26 127	- 31 086	0	114 287	175 214	163 387	34.6%
	Slovenia	2009	- 1 803	- 19 322	- 21 125	137 605	- 25 432	- 35 986	0	25 875	102 061	80 936	15.9%
	Spain	2009	- 1 464	- 10 001	- 11 465	109 692	- 28 649	- 9 921	0	46 855	117 977	106 512	21.2%
	Sweden	2009	- 21	- 25 769	- 25 790	175 330	- 57 342	- 15 777	- 22 368	50 269	130 112	104 322	16.3%
	Switzerland		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Turkey	2005	- 336	- 11 218	- 11 554	63 318	- 10 584	- 10 115	0	4 017	46 637	35 082	9.5%
United Kingdom	2009	- 4 880	- 31 944	- 36 824	222 261	- 52 477	- 29 089	- 13 494	58 353	185 553	148 730	13.9%	
United States	2009	- 2 930	- 25 106	- 28 036	304 861	- 71 514	- 26 707	- 8 675	44 454	242 418	214 382	20.6%	
OECD average		- 1 989	- 25 837	- 27 826	152 042	- 40 615	- 20 136	- 5 243	42 055	128 103	100 277	14.5%	
EU21 average		- 1 529	- 24 510	- 26 039	135 069	- 38 376	- 22 923	- 6 271	47 612	115 110	89 071	14.9%	
Other G20	Argentina		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	Brazil		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	China		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	India		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	Indonesia		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	Russian Federation		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	Saudi Arabia		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	South Africa		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	G20 average		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	

Notes: Values are based on the difference between men who attained an upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education compared with those who have not attained that level of education.

1. Belgium and the Netherlands are not included in the table because upper secondary education is compulsory.

2. Japan is not included in the table because the data at the lower and upper secondary levels of education are not broken down.

Source: OECD, *Education at a Glance 2012*. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag.htm).

Please refer to the Reader's Guide for information concerning the symbols replacing missing data.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932849103>

Table A7.1b. Private costs and benefits for a woman attaining upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education (2009)*As compared with a woman attaining lower secondary education, in equivalent USD converted using PPPs for GDP*

	Year	Direct costs (1)	Foregone earnings (2)	Total costs (3)	Gross earnings benefits (4)	Income tax effect (5)	Social contribution effect (6)	Transfers effect (7)	Unemployment effect (8)	Total benefits (9)	Net present value (10)	Internal rate of return (11)	
OECD	Australia	2009	- 3 019	- 28 198	- 31 217	122 044	- 28 457	0	- 22 467	20 190	91 311	60 094	12.7%
	Austria	2009	- 1 890	- 43 950	- 45 840	208 105	- 24 496	- 47 697	- 27 606	30 761	139 066	93 226	10.6%
	Belgium ¹		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Canada	2009	- 3 176	- 28 317	- 31 493	84 708	- 21 088	- 9 042	- 2 803	27 362	79 136	47 643	7.4%
	Chile		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Czech Republic	2009	- 2 116	- 16 853	- 18 969	99 967	- 27 339	- 19 280	- 2 144	76 183	127 387	108 418	20.7%
	Denmark	2009	- 767	- 39 659	- 40 426	146 775	- 55 677	- 14 804	0	24 014	100 308	59 882	9.9%
	Estonia	2009	- 252	- 9 051	- 9 303	33 745	- 11 179	- 1 290	0	31 166	52 442	43 139	25.9%
	Finland	2009	- 178	- 31 990	- 32 168	55 774	- 16 608	- 5 546	- 16 226	30 783	48 177	16 009	5.5%
	France	2009	- 2 632	- 26 610	- 29 242	115 681	- 20 689	- 20 151	- 32 278	31 671	74 234	44 992	7.8%
	Germany	2009	- 3 973	- 37 238	- 41 210	124 880	- 31 103	- 35 604	- 34 860	44 088	67 401	26 191	5.9%
	Greece	2009	- 1 780	- 24 381	- 26 160	109 244	- 1 304	- 18 230	- 15 164	5 096	79 641	53 481	7.8%
	Hungary	2009	- 823	- 10 788	- 11 611	90 284	- 31 059	- 23 601	0	49 541	85 165	73 554	21.9%
	Iceland		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Ireland	2009	- 688	- 33 235	- 33 923	169 908	- 25 758	- 14 394	0	22 225	151 980	118 058	21.3%
	Israel	2009	- 1 120	- 25 901	- 27 021	90 011	- 3 606	- 4 902	0	14 120	95 623	68 602	10.3%
	Italy	2008	- 986	- 38 624	- 39 610	152 167	- 51 238	- 17 293	0	29 983	113 620	74 010	8.4%
	Japan ²		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Korea	2009	- 7 620	- 30 787	- 38 407	120 130	- 1 914	- 9 164	0	787	109 839	71 432	10.8%
	Luxembourg		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Mexico		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Netherlands ¹		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	New Zealand	2009	- 3 128	- 31 941	- 35 069	95 339	- 22 970	- 2 033	- 8 738	24 622	86 220	51 151	9.2%
	Norway	2009	- 2 859	- 52 871	- 55 731	151 109	- 41 979	- 13 303	- 13 885	20 239	102 181	46 450	6.4%
	Poland	2008	- 916	- 14 879	- 15 794	74 416	- 8 271	- 19 448	0	16 433	63 130	47 335	10.5%
	Portugal	2009	0	- 15 946	- 15 946	108 338	- 11 302	- 12 754	0	7 683	91 965	76 019	12.1%
	Slovak Republic	2009	- 2 358	- 4 617	- 6 975	81 677	- 11 451	- 23 898	0	97 725	144 054	137 078	48.4%
	Slovenia	2009	- 1 803	- 20 740	- 22 543	132 244	- 28 476	- 32 797	0	15 924	86 895	64 352	10.5%
	Spain	2009	- 1 464	- 9 868	- 11 332	116 983	- 21 569	- 9 851	0	38 471	124 035	112 703	24.9%
	Sweden	2009	- 21	- 27 283	- 27 304	136 537	- 43 847	- 12 740	- 30 163	46 195	95 982	68 678	11.0%
	Switzerland		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Turkey	2005	- 336	- 12 058	- 12 394	75 879	- 8 395	- 9 432	0	- 12 434	45 618	33 223	9.2%
United Kingdom	2009	- 4 880	- 33 859	- 38 739	151 062	- 35 926	- 19 985	- 43 256	46 662	98 557	59 818	9.3%	
United States	2009	- 2 930	- 27 153	- 30 083	201 542	- 44 205	- 18 597	- 8 544	41 567	171 763	141 680	16.5%	
OECD average		- 1 989	- 26 031	- 28 020	117 252	- 24 227	- 15 994	- 9 928	30 041	97 143	69 124	13.7%	
EU21 average		- 1 529	- 24 420	- 25 950	117 099	- 25 405	- 19 409	- 11 205	35 811	96 891	70 941	15.1%	
Other G20	Argentina		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	Brazil		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	China		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	India		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	Indonesia		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	Russian Federation		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	Saudi Arabia		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	South Africa		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	G20 average		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	

Note: Values are based on the difference between women who attained an upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education compared with those who have not attained that level of education.

1. Belgium and the Netherlands are not included in the table because upper secondary education is compulsory.

2. Japan is not included in the table because the data at the lower and upper secondary levels of education are not broken down.

Source: OECD, *Education at a Glance 2012*. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag.htm).

Please refer to the Reader's Guide for information concerning the symbols replacing missing data.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932849122>

Table A7.2a. Public costs and benefits for a man attaining upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education (2009)
As compared with a man attaining lower secondary education, in equivalent USD converted using PPPs for GDP

	Year	Direct costs	Foregone taxes on earnings	Total costs	Income tax effect	Social contribution effect	Transfers effect	Unemployment effect	Total benefits	Net present value	Internal rate of return	
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	
OECD	Australia	2009	-15 955	-3 020	-18 975	55 053	0	8 303	9 355	72 710	53 735	17.1%
	Austria	2009	-42 552	-8 054	-50 606	67 624	55 258	8 442	15 685	147 010	96 404	9.2%
	Belgium ¹		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Canada	2009	-26 071	-5 023	-31 094	45 151	10 200	1 050	9 097	65 497	34 403	6.7%
	Chile		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Czech Republic	2009	-21 277	1 458	-19 819	22 510	12 319	0	21 883	56 711	36 892	10.2%
	Denmark	2009	-30 337	-18 553	-48 890	67 718	15 671	10 020	10 915	104 324	55 434	7.7%
	Estonia	2009	-18 857	-1 210	-20 066	6 687	650	0	6 592	13 928	-6 138	1.5%
	Finland	2009	-21 711	-4 391	-26 103	23 424	4 855	7 202	6 884	42 366	16 263	6.5%
	France	2009	-31 556	-5 171	-36 727	19 109	15 422	13 971	10 937	59 440	22 713	6.4%
	Germany	2009	-27 953	-14 083	-42 036	29 047	22 523	14 061	31 192	96 824	54 788	9.4%
	Greece	2009	-22 045	2 032	-20 013	11 723	15 045	23 320	760	50 848	30 835	6.0%
	Hungary	2009	-14 716	-2 674	-17 391	24 747	13 668	0	15 666	54 081	36 690	10.0%
	Iceland		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Ireland	2009	-29 498	-763	-30 261	59 215	19 169	0	12 780	91 164	60 903	8.1%
	Israel	2009	-15 405	-1 650	-17 055	16 363	12 601	0	2 240	31 204	14 148	5.5%
	Italy	2008	-32 919	-10 264	-43 183	59 003	16 776	0	6 638	82 418	39 235	6.0%
	Japan ²		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Korea	2009	-24 344	-2 983	-27 327	27 524	20 643	0	711	48 878	21 551	4.8%
	Luxembourg		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Mexico		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Netherlands ¹		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	New Zealand	2009	-21 397	-3 991	-25 388	33 911	1 888	711	5 299	41 810	16 422	5.3%
	Norway	2009	-36 851	-15 816	-52 667	73 644	20 269	4 703	13 253	111 869	59 202	8.0%
	Poland	2008	-16 232	-5 565	-21 797	5 188	11 477	0	7 053	23 718	1 921	3.4%
	Portugal	2009	-20 476	-2 386	-22 862	27 209	16 054	0	2 436	45 699	22 837	5.5%
	Slovak Republic	2009	-13 158	-910	-14 068	18 167	15 854	0	23 191	57 212	43 145	13.4%
	Slovenia	2009	-18 800	-5 902	-24 702	23 126	30 304	0	7 989	61 419	36 716	8.9%
	Spain	2009	-19 800	-1 030	-20 830	24 782	6 967	0	6 822	38 570	17 739	5.5%
	Sweden	2009	-28 557	-6 913	-35 470	46 699	12 285	22 368	14 135	95 487	60 018	14.8%
	Switzerland		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Turkey	2005	-4 776	-4 551	-9 327	9 997	9 514	0	1 188	20 699	11 371	6.4%
United Kingdom	2009	-17 187	2 307	-14 881	44 425	24 434	13 494	12 707	95 060	80 179	21.2%	
United States	2009	-33 481	-3 231	-36 713	65 191	23 333	8 675	9 698	106 897	70 185	10.0%	
OECD average		-23 304	-4 705	-28 010	34 894	15 661	5 243	10 196	65 994	37 984	8.4%	
EU21 average		-23 757	-4 560	-28 317	32 245	17 152	6 271	11 904	67 571	39 254	8.5%	
Other G20	Argentina		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	Brazil		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	China		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	India		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	Indonesia		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	Russian Federation		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	Saudi Arabia		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	South Africa		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	G20 average		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	

Note: Values are based on the difference between men who attained an upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education compared with those who have not attained that level of education.

1. Belgium and the Netherlands are not included in the table because upper secondary education is compulsory.

2. Japan is not included in the table because the data at the lower and upper secondary levels of education are not broken down.

Source: OECD, *Education at a Glance 2012*. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag.htm).

Please refer to the Reader's Guide for information concerning the symbols replacing missing data.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932849141>

Table A7.2b. Public costs and benefits for a woman attaining upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education (2009)

As compared with a woman attaining lower secondary education, in equivalent USD converted using PPPs for GDP

	Year	Direct costs (1)	Foregone taxes on earnings (2)	Total costs (3)	Income tax effect (4)	Social contribution effect (5)	Transfers effect (6)	Unemployment effect (7)	Total benefits (8)	Net present value (9)	Internal rate of return (10)	
OECD	Australia	2009	-15 955	-3 136	-19 091	26 218	0	22 467	2 239	50 924	31 833	18.4%
	Austria	2009	-42 552	-7 929	-50 481	23 951	42 287	27 606	5 954	99 799	49 318	7.8%
	Belgium ¹		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Canada	2009	-26 071	-5 437	-31 508	17 830	7 276	2 803	5 025	32 934	1 425	3.2%
	Chile		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Czech Republic	2009	-21 277	1 497	-19 781	20 002	10 946	2 144	15 671	48 763	28 983	8.8%
	Denmark	2009	-30 337	-18 925	-49 263	49 790	11 689	0	9 001	70 481	21 218	5.3%
	Estonia	2009	-18 857	-1 240	-20 096	6 916	672	0	4 880	12 469	-7 628	0.6%
	Finland	2009	-21 711	-4 679	-26 390	12 075	3 607	16 226	6 472	38 380	11 989	6.6%
	France	2009	-31 556	-5 275	-36 831	17 923	15 865	32 278	7 052	73 117	36 287	6.7%
	Germany	2009	-27 953	-14 248	-42 201	27 294	26 613	34 860	12 800	101 567	59 366	10.9%
	Greece	2009	-22 045	1 649	-20 396	1 347	17 423	15 164	764	34 699	14 303	4.8%
	Hungary	2009	-14 716	-2 620	-17 336	24 816	15 247	0	14 598	54 660	37 324	10.4%
	Iceland		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Ireland	2009	-29 498	-1 027	-30 524	24 738	13 916	0	1 498	40 152	9 628	4.2%
	Israel	2009	-15 405	-1 556	-16 961	3 499	4 383	0	626	8 508	-8 453	0.7%
	Italy	2008	-32 919	-9 033	-41 952	47 153	14 467	0	6 910	68 530	26 578	5.2%
	Japan ²		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Korea	2009	-24 344	-3 145	-27 488	1 904	9 104	0	70	11 078	-16 410	-1.3%
	Luxembourg		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Mexico		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Netherlands ¹		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	New Zealand	2009	-21 397	-3 713	-25 110	19 183	1 618	8 738	4 202	33 740	8 631	4.8%
	Norway	2009	-36 851	-16 437	-53 288	39 007	11 741	13 885	4 534	69 166	15 879	4.8%
	Poland	2008	-16 232	-4 987	-21 219	7 206	15 942	0	4 571	27 719	6 500	4.2%
	Portugal	2009	-20 476	-2 275	-22 751	11 178	11 919	0	958	24 055	1 304	3.2%
	Slovak Republic	2009	-13 158	-444	-13 601	8 542	10 905	0	15 902	35 349	21 747	9.1%
	Slovenia	2009	-18 800	-6 335	-25 135	27 178	29 297	0	4 798	61 272	36 137	7.8%
Spain	2009	-19 800	-1 016	-20 817	20 119	7 434	0	3 866	31 420	10 603	4.5%	
Sweden	2009	-28 557	-7 319	-35 876	34 935	9 544	30 163	12 109	86 750	50 875	13.4%	
Switzerland		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
Turkey	2005	-4 776	-4 892	-9 668	10 025	11 264	0	-3 463	17 827	8 159	5.8%	
United Kingdom	2009	-17 187	4 881	-12 306	30 198	16 609	43 256	9 105	99 167	86 861	20.9%	
United States	2009	-33 481	-3 495	-36 976	39 703	15 443	8 544	7 657	71 346	34 370	6.9%	
OECD average		-23 304	-4 659	-27 963	21 259	12 893	9 928	6 069	50 149	22 186	6.8%	
EU21 average		-23 757	-4 407	-28 164	21 965	15 243	11 205	7 606	56 019	27 855	7.5%	
Other G20	Argentina		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	Brazil		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	China		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	India		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	Indonesia		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	Russian Federation		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	Saudi Arabia		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	South Africa		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	G20 average		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	

Notes: Values are based on the difference between women who attained an upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education compared with those who have not attained that level of education.

1. Belgium and the Netherlands are not included in the table because upper secondary education is compulsory.

2. Japan is not included in the table because the data at the lower and upper secondary levels of education are not broken down.

Source: OECD, *Education at a Glance 2012*. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag.htm).

Please refer to the Reader's Guide for information concerning the symbols replacing missing data.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932849160>

Table A7.3a. **Private costs and benefits for a man attaining tertiary education (2009)**

As compared with a man attaining upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education,
in equivalent USD converted using PPPs for GDP

	Year	Direct costs (1)	Foregone earnings (2)	Total costs (3)	Gross earnings benefits (4)	Income tax effect (5)	Social contribution effect (6)	Transfers effect (7)	Unemployment effect (8)	Grants effect (9)	Total benefits (10)	Net present value (11)	Internal rate of return (12)	
OECD	Australia	2009	-17 528	-50 814	-68 342	339 977	-124 441	0	0	5 363	7	220 906	152 564	9.0%
	Austria	2009	-5 689	-56 184	-61 872	404 385	-129 756	-59 771	0	24 265	9 852	248 975	187 103	11.7%
	Belgium	2009	-3 514	-45 409	-48 922	352 354	-156 492	-54 714	0	23 422	1 047	165 617	116 694	10.4%
	Canada	2009	-16 282	-30 684	-46 966	287 032	-96 213	-7 645	0	31 906	1 103	216 183	169 217	12.3%
	Chile		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Czech Republic	2009	-4 692	-23 017	-27 709	424 850	-88 209	-48 588	0	16 814	0	304 867	277 158	20.1%
	Denmark	2009	-3 365	-55 899	-59 263	266 180	-139 677	-22 432	-9 435	12 030	25 189	131 855	72 592	8.5%
	Estonia	2009	-3 583	-18 346	-21 929	150 074	-40 454	-4 070	0	53 647	0	159 197	137 268	22.0%
	Finland	2009	-1 873	-56 911	-58 784	343 119	-138 956	-24 568	0	39 479	8 730	227 803	169 020	11.9%
	France	2009	-7 868	-51 472	-59 340	338 590	-83 938	-45 390	-880	13 494	3 620	225 495	166 155	10.1%
	Germany	2009	-7 061	-64 242	-71 304	353 025	-140 458	-69 031	0	54 278	6 021	203 835	132 531	9.2%
	Greece	2009	-690	-43 715	-44 405	182 193	-35 679	-29 437	-8 700	6 156	0	114 533	70 128	7.5%
	Hungary	2009	-5 131	-14 443	-19 575	464 922	-188 649	-85 331	0	37 732	1 283	229 956	210 381	25.6%
	Iceland		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Ireland	2009	-6 716	-50 436	-57 152	512 095	-219 981	-41 438	0	90 659	4 361	345 695	288 543	19.8%
	Israel	2009	-13 394	-28 223	-41 617	281 602	-68 554	-34 985	0	14 996	0	193 060	151 443	11.4%
	Italy	2008	-7 285	-50 608	-57 893	408 011	-159 562	-41 835	0	3 295	3 330	213 239	155 346	8.1%
	Japan	2007	-37 215	-66 750	-103 965	326 614	-64 523	-36 039	0	20 931	0	246 983	143 018	7.4%
	Korea	2009	-23 378	-54 050	-77 428	280 071	-34 128	-24 344	0	17 002	0	238 601	161 173	16.0%
	Luxembourg		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Mexico		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Netherlands	2008	-14 113	-90 118	-104 231	455 296	-202 175	-22 153	0	4 778	14 371	250 117	145 886	7.9%
	New Zealand	2009	-10 414	-49 605	-60 019	188 649	-64 074	-3 261	0	3 169	1 891	126 375	66 357	6.7%
	Norway	2009	-1 180	-66 506	-67 686	273 737	-103 788	-22 034	0	9 009	6 226	163 151	95 465	6.7%
	Poland	2008	-6 291	-15 995	-22 287	367 019	-55 868	-83 937	0	23 960	1 742	252 917	230 630	23.4%
	Portugal	2009	-8 085	-19 784	-27 869	304 147	-82 653	-33 871	0	4 128	0	191 751	163 882	14.9%
	Slovak Republic	2009	-5 543	-17 281	-22 823	302 035	-55 140	-42 864	0	34 628	1 250	239 909	217 086	21.5%
	Slovenia	2009	-3 858	-25 921	-29 779	475 118	-128 427	-109 421	0	19 474	226	256 970	227 191	18.2%
	Spain	2009	-10 051	-32 644	-42 695	188 318	-53 898	-14 573	0	41 006	0	160 853	118 157	10.2%
	Sweden	2009	-4 913	-54 097	-59 010	219 203	-87 765	-10 739	0	14 209	8 341	143 249	84 239	7.6%
	Switzerland		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Turkey	2005	-1 061	-9 402	-10 463	106 985	-18 682	-16 424	0	2 761	0	74 640	64 177	19.3%
United Kingdom	2009	-28 704	-91 976	-120 679	398 503	-88 234	-45 568	0	34 295	2 244	301 240	180 560	8.2%	
United States	2009	-71 053	-43 069	-114 122	667 905	-220 754	-57 941	0	89 759	0	478 969	364 847	12.3%	
OECD average		-11 398	-44 055	-55 453	333 173	-105 901	-37 669	-656	25 746	3 477	218 170	162 718	13.0%	
EU21 average		-6 951	-43 925	-50 876	345 472	-113 798	-44 487	-951	27 587	4 580	218 404	167 528	13.8%	
Other G20	Argentina		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	Brazil		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	China		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	India		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	Indonesia		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	Russian Federation		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	Saudi Arabia		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	South Africa		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	G20 average		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	

Note: Values are based on the difference between men who attained a tertiary education compared with those who have attained an upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education.

Source: OECD, *Education at a Glance 2012*. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag.htm).

Please refer to the Reader's Guide for information concerning the symbols replacing missing data.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932849179>

Table A7.3b. Private costs and benefits for a woman attaining tertiary education (2009)

As compared with a woman attaining upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education,
in equivalent USD converted using PPPs for GDP

	Year	Direct costs	Foregone earnings	Total costs	Gross earnings benefits	Income tax effect	Social contribution effect	Transfers effect	Unemployment effect	Grants effect	Total benefits	Net present value	Internal rate of return	
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	
OECD	Australia	2009	-17 528	-52 120	-69 648	253 308	-91 641	0	0	13 021	7	174 695	105 046	8.8%
	Austria	2009	-5 689	-57 294	-62 983	318 996	-87 509	-57 683	0	4 947	9 852	188 603	125 620	9.1%
	Belgium	2009	-3 514	-43 468	-46 981	305 193	-121 702	-72 732	0	32 859	1 047	144 665	97 683	11.0%
	Canada	2009	-16 282	-32 449	-48 731	249 037	-68 337	-20 011	0	17 718	1 103	179 511	130 780	12.2%
	Chile		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Czech Republic	2009	-4 556	-22 004	-26 560	234 992	-51 432	-29 160	0	30 543		184 943	158 383	17.8%
	Denmark	2009	-3 365	-57 986	-61 351	166 763	-60 038	-14 206	-8 679	7 527	25 189	116 556	55 205	8.5%
	Estonia	2009	-3 583	-20 438	-24 021	131 866	-31 316	-3 140	0	24 987	0	122 398	98 377	18.5%
	Finland	2009	-1 873	-60 589	-62 461	211 875	-72 749	-15 039	-4 079	21 742	8 730	150 480	88 019	8.8%
	France	2009	-7 868	-49 824	-57 692	212 928	-43 190	-32 362	-8 444	23 641	3 620	156 192	98 499	8.9%
	Germany	2009	-7 061	-66 325	-73 387	244 493	-73 871	-55 471	-1 223	24 260	6 021	145 309	71 922	6.8%
	Greece	2009	-690	-36 674	-37 363	186 037	-21 786	-33 976	-29 066	26 865		128 074	90 710	9.6%
	Hungary	2009	-5 131	-15 047	-20 178	251 870	-108 574	-47 547	0	27 402	1 283	124 433	104 255	17.6%
	Iceland		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Ireland	2009	-6 716	-59 372	-66 088	391 860	-116 093	-51 190	0	23 110	4 361	252 048	185 960	14.2%
	Israel	2009	-13 394	-28 918	-42 312	181 036	-27 193	-20 924	0	14 996		147 914	105 602	10.2%
	Italy	2008	-7 285	-47 826	-55 111	223 811	-79 954	-21 986	0	7 563	3 330	132 764	77 652	6.9%
	Japan	2007	-37 215	-49 265	-86 481	231 306	-20 848	-29 117	0	9 951		191 293	104 812	7.8%
	Korea	2009	-23 378	-56 149	-79 527	255 083	-9 753	-19 619	0	4 347		230 058	150 531	8.6%
	Luxembourg		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Mexico		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Netherlands	2008	-14 113	-87 458	-101 571	339 338	-129 641	-30 381	0	9 467	14 371	203 152	101 581	7.0%
	New Zealand	2009	-10 414	-49 614	-60 027	133 789	-31 532	-2 328	-2 623	3 114	1 891	102 311	42 283	6.9%
	Norway	2009	-1 180	-66 522	-67 702	224 711	-63 163	-17 633	0	319	6 226	150 459	82 758	7.7%
	Poland	2008	-6 291	-15 058	-21 350	215 086	-24 687	-52 035	0	27 164	1 742	167 270	145 920	19.9%
	Portugal	2009	-8 085	-19 280	-27 365	259 278	-60 491	-31 347	0	25 663		193 104	165 739	16.2%
	Slovak Republic	2009	-5 543	-17 363	-22 906	190 019	-34 361	-29 863	0	33 017	1 250	160 062	137 156	18.5%
Slovenia	2009	-3 858	-25 447	-29 305	358 406	-87 540	-84 889	0	26 254	226	212 456	183 151	17.3%	
Spain	2009	-10 051	-32 691	-42 743	240 593	-64 677	-18 000	0	43 061		200 976	158 234	12.1%	
Sweden	2009	-4 913	-56 388	-61 301	141 448	-42 879	-11 081	-10	16 338	8 341	112 156	50 855	6.5%	
Switzerland		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
Turkey	2005	-1 061	-8 185	-9 246	116 530	-21 267	-19 627	0	14 075		89 711	80 466	19.2%	
United Kingdom	2009	-28 704	-92 382	-121 086	355 479	-74 244	-40 895	-1 548	21 048	2 244	262 084	140 998	7.5%	
United States	2009	-71 053	-46 918	-117 971	405 817	-102 914	-33 654	0	34 571		303 819	185 848	9.1%	
OECD average		-11 393	-43 898	-55 291	242 446	-62 875	-30 893	-1 882	19 640	5 042	169 914	114 622	11.5%	
EU21 average		-6 944	-44 146	-51 090	249 017	-69 337	-36 649	-2 598	22 873	5 725	167 886	116 796	12.1%	
Other G20	Argentina		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	Brazil		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	China		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	India		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	Indonesia		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	Russian Federation		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	Saudi Arabia		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	South Africa		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	G20 average		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	

Note: Values are based on the difference between women who attained a tertiary education compared with those who have attained an upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education.

Source: OECD, *Education at a Glance 2012*. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag.htm).

Please refer to the Reader's Guide for information concerning the symbols replacing missing data.


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932849198>

Table A7.4a. **Public costs and benefits for a man attaining tertiary education (2009)**

As compared with a man attaining upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education,
in equivalent USD converted using PPPs for GDP

	Year	Direct costs (1)	Foregone taxes on earnings (2)	Grants effect (3)	Total costs (4)	Income tax effect (5)	Social contribution effect (6)	Transfers effect (7)	Unemployment effect (8)	Total benefits (9)	Net present value (10)	Internal rate of return (11)	
OECD	Australia	2009	-14 588	-5 652	-7	-20 247	123 233	0	0	1 208	124 441	104 194	13.1%
	Austria	2009	-40 474	-10 137	-9 852	-60 463	125 114	55 730	0	8 682	189 527	129 064	9.3%
	Belgium	2009	-30 735	-10 360	-1 047	-42 142	149 793	51 455	0	9 957	211 206	169 064	13.3%
	Canada	2009	-27 580	-5 892	-1 103	-34 575	89 400	5 792	0	8 666	103 858	69 283	8.8%
	Chile		m	m	m		m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Czech Republic	2009	-18 675	2 044	0	-16 631	85 412	46 743	0	4 642	136 796	120 165	17.2%
	Denmark	2009	-70 252	-26 675	-25 189	-122 116	135 256	21 252	9 435	5 601	171 544	49 427	4.5%
	Estonia	2009	-14 486	-2 513	0	-16 999	30 876	3 001	0	10 647	44 524	27 525	10.2%
	Finland	2009	-42 400	-8 324	-8 730	-59 454	128 733	22 053	0	12 738	163 525	104 071	8.3%
	France	2009	-35 052	-10 203	-3 620	-48 875	81 969	43 570	880	3 789	130 208	81 333	7.5%
	Germany	2009	-38 170	-24 581	-6 021	-68 772	127 860	58 572	0	23 056	209 489	140 717	9.1%
	Greece	2009	-20 179	2 956	0	-17 223	34 885	28 464	8 700	1 766	73 816	56 593	11.6%
	Hungary	2009	-18 036	-3 507	-1 283	-22 826	177 893	78 934	0	17 153	273 981	251 155	25.4%
	Iceland		m	m	m		m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Ireland	2009	-34 708	-1 558	-4 361	-40 627	199 558	35 080	0	26 781	261 419	220 792	17.0%
	Israel	2009	-18 626	-1 695	0	-20 321	66 889	33 788	0	2 861	103 538	83 217	11.3%
	Italy	2008	-17 538	-11 836	-3 330	-32 704	157 696	41 484	0	2 217	201 397	168 693	10.1%
	Japan	2007	-17 897	-15 254	0	-33 151	62 285	33 612	0	4 665	100 562	67 411	8.4%
	Korea	2009	-8 250	-6 238	0	-14 488	33 093	23 097	0	2 281	58 472	43 983	17.4%
	Luxembourg		m	m	m		m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Mexico		m	m	m		m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Netherlands	2008	-37 382	-39 015	-14 371	-90 768	201 244	21 220	0	1 863	224 327	133 560	7.4%
	New Zealand	2009	-22 037	-5 766	-1 891	-29 694	63 286	3 207	0	842	67 334	37 640	6.9%
	Norway	2009	-36 777	-20 675	-6 226	-63 679	101 586	21 334	0	2 902	125 821	62 143	5.7%
	Poland	2008	-14 435	-5 361	-1 742	-21 539	53 177	78 804	0	7 824	139 805	118 266	15.0%
	Portugal	2009	-16 226	-2 822	0	-19 048	81 284	33 419	0	1 821	116 524	97 476	12.4%
	Slovak Republic	2009	-15 033	-1 660	-1 250	-17 943	50 956	38 359	0	8 689	98 004	80 061	14.2%
	Slovenia	2009	-21 977	-7 917	-226	-30 120	124 522	105 125	0	8 201	237 848	207 728	15.8%
	Spain	2009	-37 506	-3 361	0	-40 867	48 062	11 981	0	8 429	68 472	27 605	5.3%
	Sweden	2009	-39 997	-14 512	-8 341	-62 850	83 967	9 847	0	4 690	98 504	35 654	4.9%
	Switzerland		m	m	m		m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Turkey	2005	-9 567	-3 814	0	-13 381	18 209	16 010	0	886	35 106	21 724	9.3%
	United Kingdom	2009	-15 151	-18 315	-2 244	-35 710	82 547	42 425	0	8 830	133 802	98 091	11.1%
United States	2009	-42 430	-5 543	0	-47 973	201 429	51 098	0	26 168	278 695	230 722	14.1%	
OECD average		-26 764	-9 248	-3 477	-39 489	100 697	35 016	656	7 857	144 226	104 737	11.2%	
EU21 average		-28 921	-9 883	-4 580	-43 384	108 040	41 376	951	8 869	159 236	115 852	11.5%	
Other G20	Argentina		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	Brazil		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	China		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	India		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	Indonesia		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	Russian Federation		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	Saudi Arabia		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	South Africa		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	G20 average		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	

Note: Values are based on the difference between men who attained a tertiary education compared with those who have attained an upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education.

Source: OECD, *Education at a Glance 2012*. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag.htm).

Please refer to the Reader's Guide for information concerning the symbols replacing missing data.


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Table A7.4b. Public costs and benefits for a woman attaining tertiary education (2009)


As compared with a woman attaining upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education,
in equivalent USD converted using PPPs for GDP

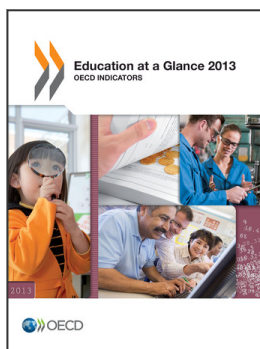
	Year	Direct costs	Foregone taxes on earnings	Grants effect	Total costs	Income tax effect	Social contribution effect	Transfers effect	Unemployment effect	Total benefits	Net present value	Internal rate of return	
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	
OECD	Australia	2009	-14 588	-5 797	-7	-20 392	89 111	0	0	2 530	91 641	71 249	13.7%
	Austria	2009	-40 474	-10 337	-9 852	-60 663	86 600	56 802	0	1 790	145 192	84 529	7.1%
	Belgium	2009	-30 735	-9 917	-1 047	-41 699	113 699	68 183	0	12 552	194 434	152 735	15.7%
	Canada	2009	-27 580	-6 231	-1 103	-34 914	65 263	18 759	0	4 325	88 347	53 433	8.5%
	Chile		m	m	m		m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Czech Republic	2009	-18 131	1 954	0	-16 177	47 167	25 813	0	7 612	80 592	64 415	14.1%
	Denmark	2009	-70 252	-27 671	-25 189	-123 112	57 873	13 394	8 679	2 976	82 923	-40 189	1.2%
	Estonia	2009	-14 486	-2 799	0	-17 285	27 197	2 643	0	4 616	34 456	17 170	8.0%
	Finland	2009	-42 400	-8 862	-8 730	-59 992	68 219	13 657	4 079	5 912	91 866	31 876	5.2%
	France	2009	-35 052	-9 877	-3 620	-48 548	40 275	29 147	8 444	6 130	83 996	35 448	6.2%
	Germany	2009	-38 170	-25 378	-6 021	-69 569	69 954	50 504	123	8 884	129 465	59 896	6.1%
	Greece	2009	-20 179	2 480	0	-17 699	20 386	29 703	29 066	5 673	84 828	67 129	11.7%
	Hungary	2009	-18 036	-3 654	-1 283	-22 972	101 528	42 906	0	11 687	156 121	133 149	18.2%
	Iceland		m	m	m		m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Ireland	2009	-34 708	-1 834	-4 361	-40 903	112 479	49 498	0	5 306	167 283	126 380	13.7%
	Israel	2009	-18 626	-1 737	0	-20 363	26 284	19 949	0	1 883	48 117	27 754	7.1%
	Italy	2008	-17 538	-11 185	-3 330	-32 053	77 919	21 270	0	2 750	101 940	69 886	8.0%
	Japan	2007	-17 897	-10 654	0	-28 551	20 218	27 924	0	1 822	49 965	21 414	6.2%
	Korea	2009	-8 250	-5 734	0	-13 984	9 689	19 291	0	393	29 372	15 388	6.5%
	Luxembourg		m	m	m		m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Mexico		m	m	m		m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Netherlands	2008	-37 382	-35 640	-14 371	-87 392	128 001	28 440	0	3 582	160 023	72 630	6.2%
	New Zealand	2009	-22 037	-5 767	-1 891	-29 695	30 974	2 276	2 623	611	36 484	6 788	4.4%
	Norway	2009	-36 777	-20 680	-6 226	-63 684	63 118	17 608	0	70	80 796	17 112	4.2%
	Poland	2008	-14 435	-5 047	-1 742	-21 225	22 460	46 221	0	8 041	76 723	55 498	10.9%
	Portugal	2009	-16 226	-2 750	0	-18 976	56 926	28 536	0	6 375	91 837	72 861	11.1%
	Slovak Republic	2009	-15 033	-1 668	-1 250	-17 951	31 258	25 456	0	7 510	64 223	46 272	11.2%
	Slovenia	2009	-21 977	-7 773	-226	-29 975	83 288	79 108	0	10 033	172 429	142 454	13.0%
	Spain	2009	-37 506	-3 366	0	-40 872	59 154	15 280	0	8 243	82 677	41 805	6.5%
	Sweden	2009	-39 997	-15 126	-8 341	-63 464	39 273	9 944	10	4 743	53 970	-9 494	2.3%
	Switzerland		m	m	m		m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Turkey	2005	-9 567	-3 320	0	-12 887	19 194	17 528	0	4 171	40 894	28 006	9.1%
	United Kingdom	2009	-15 151	-5 958	-2 244	-23 353	71 002	39 051	1 548	5 086	116 686	93 333	14.8%
United States	2009	-42 430	-6 038	0	-48 468	97 093	31 023	0	8 452	136 568	88 100	9.5%	
OECD average		-26 746	-8 633	-3 477	-38 856	59 848	28 618	1 882	5 302	95 650	56 794	9.0%	
EU21 average		-28 893	-9 220	-4 580	-42 694	65 733	33 778	2 598	6 475	108 583	65 889	9.6%	
Other G20	Argentina		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	Brazil		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	China		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	India		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	Indonesia		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	Russian Federation		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	Saudi Arabia		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	South Africa		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	G20 average		m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	

Note: Values are based on the difference between women who attained a tertiary education compared with those who have attained an upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education.

Source: OECD, *Education at a Glance 2012*. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag.htm).

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