

WHO STUDIES ABROAD AND WHERE?

INDICATOR C₂

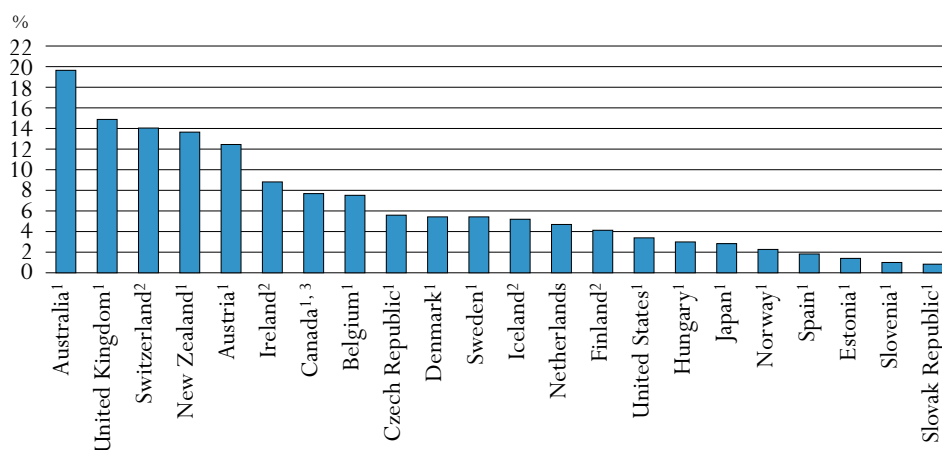
This indicator provides a picture of student mobility and of the internationalisation of tertiary education in OECD and partner countries. It shows global trends and highlights the main destinations of international students and trends in market shares of the international student pool. Some of the factors underlying students' choices of country in which to study are also examined. This indicator shows the extent of student mobility to different destinations and presents international student intake in terms of distribution by countries and regions of origin, types of programmes, and fields of study. The distribution of students enrolled outside of their country of citizenship by destination is also examined, along with the immigration implications for host countries. The proportion of international students in tertiary enrolments provides a good indication of the magnitude of student mobility in different countries.

Key results

Chart C2.1. Student mobility in tertiary education (2007)

This chart shows the percentage of international students in tertiary enrolments. According to country-specific immigration legislations and data availability constraints, student mobility is either defined on the basis of students' country of residence or the country where students received their prior education.

Student mobility – *i.e.* international students who travelled to a country different from their own for the purpose of tertiary study – ranges from below 1 to almost 20% of tertiary enrolments. International students are most numerous in tertiary enrolments in Australia, Austria, New Zealand, Switzerland and the United Kingdom.




Note: The data presented in this chart are not comparable with data on foreign students in tertiary education presented in pre-2006 editions of *Education at a Glance* or elsewhere in this chapter.

1. International students are defined on the basis of their country of residence.
2. International students are defined on the basis of their country of prior education.
3. Year of reference 2006.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the percentage of international students in tertiary education.

Source: OECD, Table C2.1. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eqg2009).

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Other highlights of this indicator

- In 2007, over 3.0 million tertiary students were enrolled outside their country of citizenship. This represented a 3.3% increase from the previous year in total foreign student intake reported to the OECD and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics.
- France, Germany, the United Kingdom and the United States receive 48% of all foreign students worldwide. The largest absolute numbers of international students from OECD countries are from France, Germany, Japan, Korea and the United States. Students from China and India comprise the largest numbers of international students from partner countries.
- International students make up 10% or more of the enrolments in tertiary education in Australia, Austria, New Zealand, Switzerland and the United Kingdom. International students make up more than 20% of enrolments in advanced research programmes in Australia, Belgium, Canada, New Zealand, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States.
- Thirty percent or more of international students are enrolled in sciences, agriculture or engineering in Canada, Finland, Germany, Sweden, Switzerland and the United States.

Policy context

The general trend towards freely circulating capital, goods and services, coupled with changes in the openness of labour markets, has translated into growing demands for an international dimension of education and training. Indeed, as world economies become increasingly inter-connected, international skills have grown in importance for operating on a global scale. Globally oriented firms seek internationally-competent workers versed in foreign languages and having mastered basic inter-cultural skills to successfully interact with international partners. Governments as well as individuals are looking to higher education to play a role in broadening students' horizons and allowing them to develop a deeper understanding of the world's languages, cultures and business methods. One way for students to expand their knowledge of other societies and languages, and hence leverage their labour market prospects, is to study in tertiary educational institutions in countries other than their own. Several OECD governments – especially in countries of the European Union (EU) – have set up schemes and policies to promote mobility as a means of fostering intercultural contacts and building social networks for the future.

From a macroeconomic perspective, international negotiations on the liberalisation of trade in services highlight the trade implications of the internationalisation of education services. Some OECD countries already show signs of specialisation in education exports. The long-term trend towards a greater internationalisation of education (Box C2.1) is likely to have a growing impact on countries' balance of payments as a result of revenue from tuition fees and domestic consumption by international students. Additionally, it is worth noting that, along with student mobility, the cross-border electronic delivery of flexible educational programmes and abroad campuses are also relevant to the trade dimension of international tertiary education, although no comparable data yet exist.

The internationalisation of tertiary education has many economic impacts, in addition to the short-term monetary costs and benefits that are reflected in current account balances. It can provide an opportunity for smaller and/or less-developed educational systems to improve the cost efficiency of their education provision. Indeed, training opportunities abroad may constitute a cost-efficient alternative to national provision and allow countries to focus limited resources on educational programmes for which economies of scale can be generated, or to expand participation in tertiary education in spite of bottlenecks in provision.

In addition, the rapid expansion of tertiary education in OECD countries – and more recently in most emerging countries (*Education at a Glance 2005*) – has intensified the financial pressures on education systems and led to greater interest in the recruitment of foreign students. As tertiary institutions increasingly rely on revenues from foreign tuition fees, some countries actively recruit foreign students. In other cases, education abroad is encouraged as a way to address unmet demand resulting from bottlenecks caused by the rapid expansion of tertiary education. In the past few years, the rise in the knowledge economy and global competition for skills has provided a new driver for the internationalisation of education systems in many OECD countries, with the recruitment of foreign students being part of a broader strategy for the recruitment of highly skilled immigrants.

At the institutional level, the additional revenues that foreign students may generate – either through differentiated tuition fees or public subsidies – help drive international education. But tertiary education institutions also have academic incentives to engage in international activities to build or maintain their reputation in an increasingly global academic competition.

From the perspective of educational institutions, international enrolments can also constrain instructional settings and processes, insofar as the curricula and teaching methods need to be adapted to a culturally and linguistically diverse student body. These constraints are, however, outweighed by numerous benefits to host institutions. The potential for an international client base compels institutions to offer programmes that stand out among competitors and may contribute to the development of highly reactive, client-driven quality tertiary education that responds to changing needs. International enrolments can also help institutions to reach the critical mass needed to diversify the range of their educational programmes and to increase their financial resources when foreign students bear the full cost of their education (Box C2.3). Given these advantages, institutions may favour the enrolment of international students, thereby restricting access to domestic students. However, there is little evidence of this, except in some prestigious programmes of elite institutions that are in high demand (OECD, 2004).

For individuals, the returns from studying abroad depend largely on both the policies of sending countries regarding financial aid to students going abroad and the tuition fee policies of countries of destination (Box C2.3) and their financial support for international students. The cost of living in countries of study and exchange rates also affect the cost of international education. In addition, the long-term returns from international education depend greatly on how international degrees are recognised and valued by local labour markets.

The numbers of students enrolled in other countries can provide some indication of the amount of the internationalisation of tertiary education. In the future, it will also be important to develop ways to quantify and measure other components of cross-border education.

Evidence and explanations

Concepts and terminology used in this indicator

The concepts and terminology used in this indicator have changed from those used in editions of *Education at a Glance* produced before 2006. Previously, this indicator focused on foreign students in tertiary education, defined as non-citizens of the country in which they study. This concept was inappropriate for measuring student mobility because not all foreign students come for the sole purpose of studying. In particular, foreign students who are permanent residents in their country of study as a result of immigration – their own or that of their parents – are included in the total. This results in an overestimation of the numbers of foreign students in countries with comparatively low rates of naturalisation of their immigrant populations. Moreover, citizens of the country in which they study may be mobile students (*i.e.* nationals who have lived abroad and return to their country of citizenship to study). Therefore, in an effort to improve the measurement of student mobility and the comparability of data on internationalisation, the OECD – together with Eurostat and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics – revised in 2005 the instruments used to gather data on student mobility. According to this new concept, the term “international students” refers to students who have crossed borders expressly with the intention to study.

Ideally, international student mobility is deemed to measure students who have crossed borders for the purpose of study. However, the measurement of student mobility depends to a large extent on country-specific immigration legislation, mobility arrangements and data availability constraints. For instance, the free mobility of individuals within the EU and the broader European Economic Area (EEA) makes it impossible to derive numbers of international students from visa statistics.

The OECD therefore allows countries to define as international students those who are not permanent residents of their country of study or, alternatively, those who received their prior education in another country (regardless of citizenship), depending on which operational definition is most appropriate in their national context. Overall, the country of prior education is considered a better operational criterion for EU countries so as not to omit intra-EU student mobility (Kelo *et al.*, 2005), while the residence criterion is usually a good proxy in countries that require a student visa to enter the country for educational purposes.

The convention adopted here is to use the term “international student” when referring to student mobility and the term “foreign student” for non-citizens enrolled in a country (*i.e.* including some permanent residents and therefore an overestimate of actual student mobility). However since not all countries are yet able to report data on student mobility on the basis of students’ country of residence or of prior education, some tables and charts present indicators on both international and foreign students, albeit separately, to emphasise the need for caution in interpreting the results.

In this indicator, data on total foreign enrolments worldwide are based on the number of foreign students enrolled in countries reporting data to the OECD and to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics and thus may be underestimated. In addition, all trend analyses in this indicator are based on numbers of foreign students at different points in time, as time series on student mobility are not yet available. Work is under way to fill this gap and develop retrospective time series on student mobility for future editions of *Education at a Glance*.

Trends in foreign student numbers

In 2007, 3.0 million tertiary students were enrolled outside their country of citizenship, of whom 2.5 million (83.5%) studied in the OECD area. This represented a 3.3% increase of 96 000 additional individuals in total foreign enrolments worldwide since the previous year. In the OECD area the increase was very slightly larger at 3.4%. Since 2000, the number of foreign tertiary students enrolled in the OECD area and worldwide increased by 59%, for an average annual increase of 7% (Table C2.6).

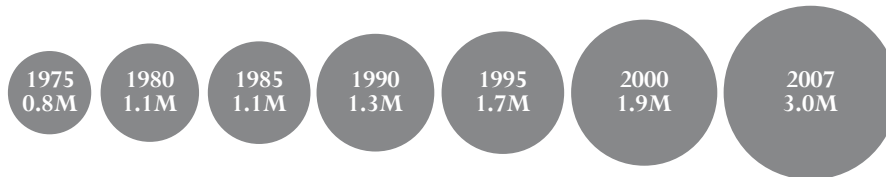
Compared to 2000, the number of foreign students enrolled in tertiary education more than doubled in Australia, the Czech Republic, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Korea, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Poland and Spain and in the partner countries Chile and Estonia. In contrast, the number of foreign students enrolled in Belgium, Turkey and the United States, grew by about 25% or less (Table C2.1). Changes in foreign student numbers between 2000 and 2007 indicate that, on average, the number of foreign students has grown faster in the OECD area than in the EU19 countries of the OECD, by 135% and 97%, respectively (Table C2.1).

The combination of OECD and UNESCO Institute for Statistics data makes it possible to examine longer-term trends and illustrates the dramatic growth in foreign enrolments (Box C2.1). Over the past three decades, the number of students enrolled outside their country of citizenship has risen dramatically, from 0.8 million worldwide in 1975 to 3.0 million in 2007, a more than threefold increase. Growth in the internationalisation of tertiary education has accelerated during the past 12 years, mirroring the growth in the globalisation of economies and societies.

The rise in the number of students enrolled abroad since 1975 stems from various factors. During the early years, public policies aimed at promoting and nurturing academic, cultural, social and political ties between countries played a key role, especially in the context of the European construction: building mutual understanding among young Europeans was a major policy objective. North American policies of academic co-operation had similar rationales. Over time, however, economic factors played an increasing role. Decreasing transport costs, the spread of new technologies, and faster, cheaper communication made economies and societies increasingly interdependent through the 1980s and 1990s. The trend was particularly marked in the high-technology sector and in the labour market, with the internationalisation of labour markets for the highly skilled giving individuals an incentive to gain international experience as part of their studies. The spread of information and communication technology (ICT) lowered the information and transaction costs of study abroad and boosted demand for international education.

Box C2.1. Long term growth in the number of students enrolled outside their country of citizenship

Growth in internationalisation of tertiary education (1975-2007)



Source: OECD and UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

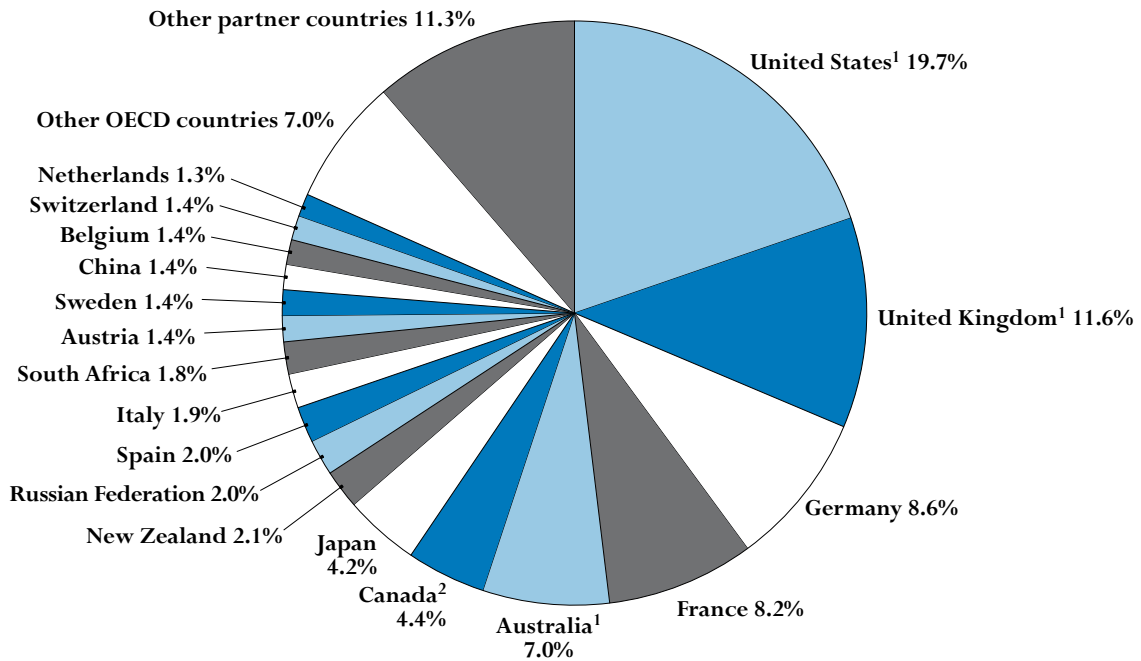
Data on foreign enrolment worldwide comes from both the OECD and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS). UIS provided the data on all countries for 1975-1995 and most of the partner countries for 2000 and 2007. The OECD provided the data on OECD countries and the other partner economies in 2000 and 2007. Both sources use similar definitions, thus making their combination possible. Missing data were imputed with the closest data reports to ensure that breaks in data coverage do not result in breaks in time series.

Major destinations of foreign students

In 2007, five out of ten foreign students went to the four countries that host the majority of foreign students enrolled outside of their country of citizenship. The United States received the most (in absolute terms) with 20% of all foreign students worldwide, followed by the United Kingdom (12%), Germany (9%) and France (8%). Although these destinations account for the bulk of all tertiary students pursuing their studies abroad (48%), some new players on the international education market have emerged within and outside the OECD in the past few years (Chart C2.2). Besides these four major destinations, significant numbers of foreign students were enrolled in Australia (7%), Canada (4%), Japan (4%) and New Zealand (2%), and in the partner country the Russian Federation (2%) in 2007. Note that the figures for Australia, the United Kingdom and the United States refer to international students.

Chart C2.2. Distribution of foreign students in tertiary education, by country of destination (2007)

Percentage of foreign tertiary students reported to the OECD who are enrolled in each country of destination



1. Data relate to international students defined on the basis of their country of residence.

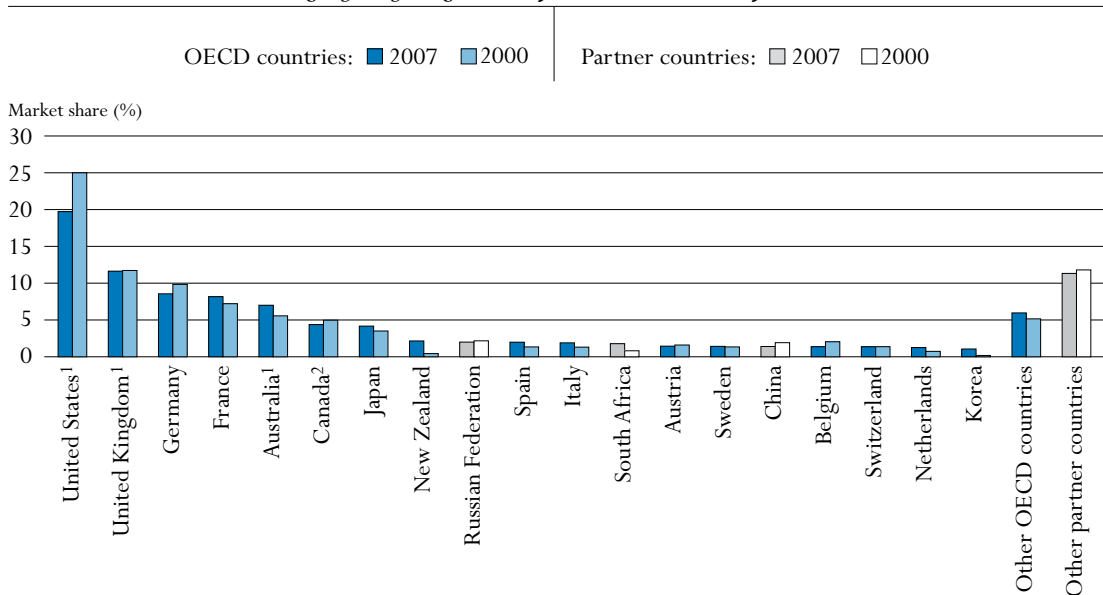
2. Year of reference 2006.

Source: OECD and UNESCO Institute for Statistics for most data on partner countries. Table C2.7, available on line. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eqq2009).

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Trends in market shares show the emergence of new players on the international education market

The examination of country-specific trends in market shares of the international education market – measured as a percentage of all foreign students worldwide enrolled in a given destination – sheds light on the dynamics of internationalisation of tertiary education. Over a seven-year period, the share of the United States as a preferred destination dropped from 25% to 20%. For Germany the decline was around 1 percentage point, and for Belgium, Canada and China, it was about one-half of a percentage point. In contrast, the market shares of France, Korea and South Africa expanded by around 1 percentage point. The impressive growth in Australia (1.4%) and New Zealand (1.7%) keeps them among the big players in the international education market (Chart C2.3). These changes reflect different emphases of internationalization policies across countries, ranging from proactive marketing policies in the Asia-Pacific region to a more passive approach in the traditionally dominant United States. Note that the figures for Australia, the United Kingdom and the United States refer to international students.


Chart C2.3. Trends in international education market shares (2000, 2007)*Percentage of all foreign tertiary students enrolled, by destination*

1. Data relate to international students defined on the basis of their country of residence.

2. Year of reference 2006.

Countries are ranked in descending order of 2007 market shares.

Source: OECD and UNESCO Institute for Statistics for most data on partner countries. Table C2.7, available on line. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eq2009).

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Underlying factors in students' choice of a country of study

Language of instruction: a critical factor

The language spoken and used in instruction is an essential element in the choice of a foreign country in which to study. Therefore, countries whose language of instruction is widely spoken and read (*e.g.* English, French and German) are leading destinations of foreign students, both in absolute and relative terms. Japan is a notable exception: despite having a less widespread language of instruction, it enrolls large numbers of foreign students, 93.6% of whom are from Asia (Table C2.2 and Chart C2.2).

The dominance (in absolute numbers) of English-speaking destinations (Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the United Kingdom and the United States) may be largely due to the fact that students intending to study abroad are likely to have learnt English in their home country and/or wish to improve their English language skills through immersion and study abroad. The rapid increase in foreign enrolments in Australia (index change of 200), Canada (140) and, most importantly, New Zealand (791) between 2000 and 2007 can be partly attributed to linguistic considerations (Table C2.1).

Given this pattern, an increasing number of institutions in non-English-speaking countries now offer courses in English to overcome their linguistic disadvantage in terms of attracting foreign students. This trend is especially noticeable in the Nordic countries (Box C2.2).

**Box C2.2. OECD and partner countries
offering tertiary programmes in English (2007)**

Use of English in instruction	OECD and partner countries
All or nearly all programmes offered in English	Australia, Canada ¹ , Ireland, New Zealand, the United Kingdom, the United States
Many programmes offered in English	Denmark, Finland, the Netherlands, Sweden
Some programmes offered in English	Belgium (Fl.) ² , the Czech Republic, France, Germany, Hungary, Iceland, Japan, Korea, Norway, Poland, Portugal, the Slovak Republic, Switzerland ³ , Turkey
No or nearly no programmes offered in English	Austria, Belgium (Fr.), Brazil, Chile, Greece, Israel, Italy, Luxembourg, Mexico ³ , Portugal, the Russian Federation, Spain

Note: Assessing the extent to which a country offers a few or many programmes in English is subjective. In doing so, country size has been taken into account, hence the classification of France and Germany among countries with comparatively few English programmes, although they have more English programmes than Sweden in absolute terms.

1. In Canada, tertiary institutions are either French- (mostly Quebec) or English-speaking.

2. Masters programmes.

3. At the discretion of tertiary education institutions.

Source: OECD, compiled from brochures for prospective international students by OAD (Austria), CHES and NARIC (Czech Republic), Cirius (Denmark), CIMO (Finland), EduFrance (France), DAAD (Germany), Campus Hungary (Hungary), University of Iceland (Iceland), JPSS (Japan), NIIED (Korea), NUFFIC (Netherlands), SIU (Norway), CRASP (Poland), Swedish Institute (Sweden) and Middle-East Technical University (Turkey)

Impact of tuition fees and cost of living on foreign students' destinations

Tuition fees and cost of living are also important factors in prospective international students' choice of country. Among most EU countries (*e.g.* Austria, Belgium [Flemish Community], the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Ireland, Italy, the Netherlands, the Slovak Republic, Spain and Sweden and the United Kingdom), international students from other EU countries had the same tuition fees as domestic students. However, in the case of Ireland, this is on condition that the EU student has been living in Ireland for three out of the previous five years. If this condition is satisfied, then the EU student is eligible for free tuition in a particular academic year. In Finland, Germany and Italy, this is extended to non-EU international students as well. While there are no tuition fees in Finland and Sweden, in Germany, tuition fees are collected at all government dependent private institutions and, in some Bundesländer, tuition fees have now been introduced at public tertiary institutions, as well. In Denmark, students from Nordic partner countries (Norway and Iceland) and EU countries are also treated the same as domestic students and thus pay no fees (fully subsidised). Most international students from non-EU or non-EEA countries, however, have to pay full tuition fee, although a limited number of talented students from non-EU/EEA countries can get scholarships covering all or parts of their tuition fees. (Box C2.3).

Among some non-EU countries (*e.g.* Iceland, Japan, Korea, Norway, the United States and the partner country the Russian Federation), all domestic and international students are treated the same. In Norway, tuition fees are equal for domestic and international student; no fees

in public institutions, but fees in some private institutions. In Iceland, all students have to pay registration fees, and for students in private schools, they also have to pay tuition fees. In Japan, all students (domestic and international) are charged full tuition fee, but international students with Japanese government scholarships don't have to pay the tuition fees, and many scholarships are also available for privately financed international students. In Korea, tuition fees and subsidies for mobile students vary depending on the contract between the school which they came from and the school they are attending. In general, most of international students in Korea pay tuition fees which are somewhat less than for domestic students. In New Zealand, international students generally pay full tuition fees (*i.e.* unsubsidised). However, international students from Australia, a partner country of New Zealand, receive special treatment in that they receive the same subsidies as domestic students. All other international students have to pay the full tuition fees (*i.e.* unsubsidised). In Australia, Canada and the partner country the Russian Federation, all international students pay full tuition fees.

The fact that Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden do not have tuition fees for international students and the existence of programmes in English probably explains part of the robust growth in the number of foreign students enrolled in some of these countries between 2000 and 2007 (Table C2.1). However, in the absence of fees, the high unit costs of tertiary education mean that international students place a high monetary burden on their countries of destination (Table B1.1a). For this reason, Denmark (which in the past had no tuition fees) has adopted tuition fees for non-EU and non-EEA international students as of 2006/07. Similar options are currently being discussed in Finland and Sweden, where foreign enrolments grew by more than 50% between 2000 and 2007.

Box C2.3. Tuition fees structure	
Tuition fees structure	OECD and partner countries
Higher tuition fees for international students than for domestic students	Australia, Austria ¹ , Belgium ¹ , Canada, the Czech Republic ¹ , Denmark ¹ , Estonia ¹ , Ireland ¹ , the Netherlands ¹ , New Zealand, the Russian Federation, Turkey, the United Kingdom ¹ , the United States ³
Same tuition fees for international and domestic students	France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Korea, Mexico ² , Spain
No tuition fees for either international or domestic students	Finland, Iceland, Norway, Sweden
1. For non-European Union or non-European Economic Area students. 2. Some institutions charge higher tuition fees for international students. 3. International students pay the same fees as domestic out-of-state students. However since most domestic students are enrolled in-state, international students pay higher tuition fees than most domestic students in practice. Source: OECD. Indicator B5. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eqq2009).	

Countries that charge their international students the full cost of education reap significant trade benefits. Several countries in the Asia-Pacific region have actually made international education an explicit part of their socio-economic development strategies and have initiated policies to attract international students on a revenue-generating or at least self-financing

basis. Australia and New Zealand have successfully adopted differentiated tuition fees for international students. In Japan and Korea, with high tuition fees that are the same for domestic and international students, foreign enrolments nevertheless grew robustly between 2000 and 2007 (see Indicator B5). This shows that tuition costs do not necessarily discourage prospective international students as long as the quality of education provided and its likely returns make the investment worthwhile. However, in choosing between similar educational opportunities, cost considerations may play a role, especially for students originating from developing countries. In this respect, the comparatively low rise in foreign enrolments in the United Kingdom and the United States between 2000 and 2007 and the deterioration of the United States' market share may be attributed to the comparatively high tuition fees charged to international students in a context of fierce competition from other primarily English-speaking destinations offering similar educational opportunities at a lower cost (Box C2.3).

A factor that might ease the cost of studying abroad is the extent to which public funding or student support for tertiary education is portable. In Belgium (Flemish Community), Finland, Iceland, the Netherlands, Norway and Sweden and the partner country Chile, the international portability of public funding for tuition or student support clearly eases some of the financial constraints borne by students.

Impact of immigration policy on foreign student destinations

In recent years, several OECD countries have softened their immigration policies to encourage the temporary or permanent immigration of their international students. Australia, Canada and New Zealand, for example, make it easy for foreign students who have studied in their universities to settle by granting them additional points for their immigration file. This makes these countries more attractive to students and strengthens their knowledge economy. As a result, immigration considerations may also affect some international students' choice between alternative educational opportunities abroad. In addition, the total freedom of movement of workers within Europe explains part of the high level of student mobility in Europe compared to that between the countries of North America, as the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) does not include the free movement of workers within a common labour market.

Other factors

Other important factors for foreign students include the academic reputation of particular institutions or programmes; the flexibility of programmes with respect to counting time spent abroad towards degree requirements; the limitations of tertiary education provision in the home country; restrictive university admission policies at home; geographical, trade or historical links between countries; future job opportunities; cultural aspirations; and government policies to facilitate transfer of credits between home and host institutions. The transparency and flexibility of courses and degree requirements are also important.

Extent of student mobility in tertiary education

The foregoing analysis has focused on trends in absolute numbers of foreign students and their distribution by countries of destination since time series or global aggregates on student mobility do not exist. It is also possible to measure the extent of student mobility in each country of destination by examining the proportion of international students in total tertiary enrolments.

This has the advantage of taking the size of different tertiary education systems into account and highlighting those that are highly internationalised, regardless of their size and the importance of their absolute market share.

Wide variations in the proportion of international students enrolled in OECD and partner countries

Among countries for which data on student mobility are available, Australia, Austria, New Zealand, Switzerland and the United Kingdom display the highest levels of incoming student mobility, measured as the proportion of international students in their total tertiary enrolment. In Australia, 19.5% of tertiary students have come to the country in order to pursue their studies. Similarly, international students represent 12.4% of total tertiary enrolments in Austria, 13.6% in New Zealand, 14.0% in Switzerland and 14.9% in the United Kingdom. In contrast, incoming student mobility is 1% or less of total tertiary enrolments in the Slovak Republic and the partner country Slovenia (Table C2.1 and Chart C2.1).

Among countries where data using the preferred definition of mobile students are not available, foreign enrolments constitute a large group of tertiary students in France (11.3%) and Germany (11.3%), an indication of significant levels of incoming student mobility. However foreign enrolments represent 1% or less of total tertiary enrolments in Korea, Poland, Turkey and the partner country the Russian Federation (Table C2.1).

Student mobility at different levels of tertiary education

The proportion of international students at different levels of tertiary education in each country of destination also sheds light on patterns of student mobility. A first observation is that, with the exception of Japan and Spain, tertiary-type B programmes are far less internationalised than tertiary-type A programmes, suggesting that international students are mostly attracted to traditional academic programmes for which degree transferability is often easier. With the exception of Italy and Portugal, this observation also holds true for countries where data using the preferred definition of student mobility are not available (Table C2.1).

In Australia, Austria, the Czech Republic, Denmark, the Slovak Republic, Sweden and in the partner country Estonia, the proportions of international students are roughly the same in tertiary-type A and advanced research programmes, an indication that these countries of destination are successful at attracting students from abroad from the start of their tertiary education, and keeping or attracting them beyond their first degrees. Among countries where data using the preferred definition of mobile students are not available, this can also be seen in Turkey. In contrast, other countries display significantly higher incoming student mobility relative to total enrolments in advanced research programmes than in tertiary-type A programmes. This pattern is clear in Belgium, Canada, Finland, Hungary, Iceland, Japan, New Zealand, Norway, Spain, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States and in the partner country Slovenia, as well as in France, Italy, Korea, Poland and Portugal and in the partner country Chile, countries where data using the preferred definition of student mobility are not available. It may reflect the attractiveness of advanced research programmes in these countries or a preference for recruitment of international students at higher levels of education to capitalise on their contribution to domestic research and development or in anticipation of their subsequent recruitment as highly qualified immigrants.

Profile of international student intake in different destinations

Asia leads among regions of origin

Asian students form the largest group of international students enrolled in countries reporting data to the OECD or the UNESCO Institute for Statistics: 48.2% of the total in all reporting destinations (46.8% of the total in OECD countries, and 55.1% of the total in partner countries).

Their predominance in OECD countries is greatest in Australia, Japan and Korea, where more than 75% of international or foreign students originate from Asia. In OECD countries, the Asian group is followed by Europeans (24.9%), particularly EU citizens (16.9%). Students from Africa account for 10.5% of all international students, while those from North America account for only 3.8%. Finally, students from South America represent 5.4% of the total. Altogether 31.2% of international students enrolled in the OECD area originate from another OECD country (Table C2.2).

Main countries of origin of international students

The predominance of students from Asia and Europe is also clear when looking at individual countries of origin. Students from France, Germany, Japan and Korea represent the largest groups of international students enrolled in OECD countries, at 2.2%, 3.2%, 2.3% and 4.4% of the total, respectively, followed by students from Canada and the United States at 1.8% and 2.0%, respectively (Table C2.2).

Among international students originating from partner countries, students from China represent by far the largest group, with 16.3% of all international students enrolled in the OECD area (not including an additional 1.4% from Hong Kong, China) (Table C2.2). Their destination of choice is the United States, followed closely by Japan, with 21.6% and 17.5%, respectively, of all international Chinese students studying abroad. Students from China are followed by those from India (6.2%), Malaysia (1.8%), Morocco (1.7%) and the Russian Federation (1.4%). A significant number of Asian students studying abroad also come from Indonesia, the Islamic Republic of Iran, Pakistan, Singapore, Thailand and Vietnam (Table C2.3 and Table C2.7, available on line).

The proportion of international students by level and type of tertiary education highlights specialisations

In some countries, a comparatively large proportion of international students are enrolled in tertiary-type B programmes. This is the case in Belgium (30.6%), Japan (21.3%), New Zealand (25.3%) and Spain (34.0%). In Greece, Korea and the partner country Chile, where data using the preferred definition of student mobility are not available, foreign enrolments in tertiary-type B programmes also constitute a large group of foreign students (34.7%, 22.4% and 29.6% respectively) (Table C2.4).

In other countries, a large proportion of their international students enrol in advanced research programmes. This is particularly true in Spain (22.3%) and Switzerland (26.5%). Such patterns suggest that these countries offer attractive advanced programmes to prospective international graduate students. This concentration can also be observed – to a more limited extent – in Canada (11.4%), Finland (13.4%), Japan (10.6%), the United Kingdom (11.9%) and the United States (15.7%). Among countries where data using the preferred definition of mobile students

are not available, foreign enrolments in advanced research programmes constitute a large group of foreign students in France (11.0%) and Portugal (10.0%). All of these countries are likely to benefit from the contribution of these high-level international students to domestic research and development. In addition, this specialisation can also generate higher tuition revenue per international student in the countries charging full tuition costs to foreign students (Box C2.3).

The proportion of international students by field of education underlines magnet centres

As shown in Table C2.5, sciences attract at least one in six international students in Canada (18.5%), Germany (17.0%), Iceland (18.0%), New Zealand (18.2%), Switzerland (16.7%) and the United States (18.7%), but fewer than one in fifty in Japan (1.2%). However, the picture changes slightly when agriculture, engineering, manufacturing and construction programmes are included among scientific disciplines. Finland receives 41.8% of its international students in these fields. The proportion of international students enrolled in agriculture, sciences or engineering is also high in Canada (34.5%), Germany (38.0%), Hungary (28.3%), Sweden (39.3%), Switzerland (33.5%), the United Kingdom (29.4%), the United States (34.6%) and in the partner country Slovenia (29.7%). Similarly, among countries where data using the preferred definition of mobile students are not available, agriculture, sciences and engineering attract at least 28% of foreign students in France (28.6%) and the Slovak Republic (30.3%). In contrast, few foreign students are enrolled in agriculture, sciences and engineering in Poland (Chart C2.4).

Most countries that enrol large proportions of their international students in agriculture, sciences and engineering deliver programmes in English. In Germany, the large proportion of foreign students in scientific disciplines may also reflect its strong tradition in these fields.

Non-anglophone countries tend to enrol a higher proportion of their international students in the humanities and the arts, areas that are favoured by over 20% of the international students in Austria (22.9%), Germany (21.5%), Iceland (42.9%), Japan (25.4%) and the partner country Slovenia (21.3%). Among countries where data using the preferred definition of mobile students are not available, this is also the case in France (20.1%).

Social sciences, business and law programmes also attract international students in large numbers. In Australia, the Netherlands, New Zealand and the partner country Estonia, these fields enrol around half of all international students (at 55.6%, 45.4%, 45.7% and 57.0%, respectively). Among countries where data using the preferred definition of mobile students are not available, Portugal (49.1%) has the largest proportion of their foreign students enrolled in these subjects.

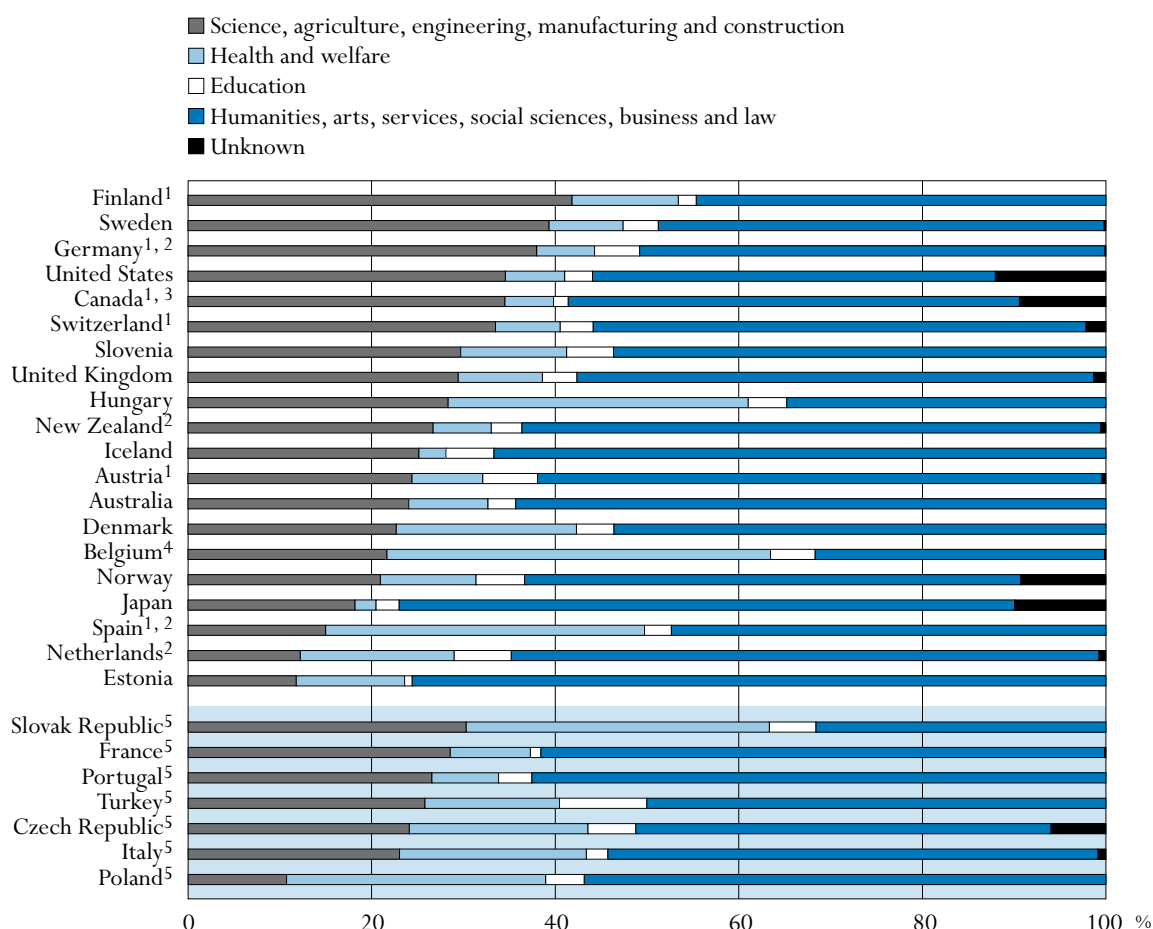
The situation of health and welfare is fairly specific since it depends to a large extent on national policies relating to recognition of medical degrees. Health and welfare programmes attract large proportions of international students in EU countries, most notably in Belgium (41.8%) and Hungary (32.7%). Among countries where data using the preferred definition of mobile students are not available, health and welfare programmes are also chosen by one-fifth to one-third of foreign students in Italy (20.4%), Poland (28.2%) and the Slovak Republic (33.0%). This pattern relates to the quotas imposed in many European countries which restrict access to educational programmes in the medical field. This increases the demand for training in other EU countries to bypass quotas and take advantage of EU countries' automatic recognition of medical degrees under the European Medical Directive.

Overall, the concentration of international students in various disciplines in countries of destination highlights magnet programmes that attract students from abroad in large numbers. This attraction results from many factors on both the supply and demand side.

On the supply side, some destinations offer centres of excellence or traditional expertise able to attract students from other countries in large numbers (*e.g.* Finland and Germany in sciences and engineering). In the humanities and arts, some destinations also have a natural monopoly on some programmes. This is especially obvious for linguistic or cultural studies (*e.g.* Austria, Germany and Japan).

Chart C2.4. Distribution of international students by field of education (2007)

Percentage of international tertiary students enrolled in different fields of education



1. Excludes tertiary-type B programmes.

2. Excludes advanced research programmes.


3. Year of reference 2006.

4. Excludes data for social advancement education.

5. Distribution of foreign students by field of education. These data are not comparable with data on international students and are therefore presented separately.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the proportion of international students enrolled in sciences, agriculture, engineering, manufacturing and construction.

Source: OECD, Table C2.5. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2009).

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/664653153762>

On the demand side, the characteristics of international students can help to explain their concentration in certain fields of education. For instance, students in scientific disciplines are usually less likely to be fluent in many different languages, which may explain their stronger propensity to study in countries offering education programmes in English, and their lesser propensity to enrol in countries where these are less common. Similarly, the demand of many Asian students for business training may explain the strong concentration of international students in social sciences, business and law in neighbouring Australia and New Zealand and to a lesser extent in Japan. Finally, EU provisions for the recognition of medical degrees clearly drive the concentration of international students in health and welfare programmes in EU countries.

Destinations of citizens enrolled abroad

When studying in tertiary education outside of their country of citizenship, OECD students enrol predominantly in another country of the OECD area. On average, only 3.6% of foreign students from OECD countries are enrolled in a partner country. The proportion of foreign students from partner countries enrolled in another partner country is significantly higher, with more than 22% of foreign students from Chile, Estonia, Israel and the Russian Federation enrolled in another partner country. In contrast, students from Iceland (0.1%), Ireland (0.1%), Luxembourg (0.1%) and the Slovak Republic (0.3%) display an extremely low propensity to study outside of the OECD area (Table C2.3).

Language considerations, geographic proximity and similarity of education systems are all important determinants of the choice of destination. Geographic considerations and differences in entry requirements are likely explanations of the concentration of students from Germany in Austria, from Belgium in France and the Netherlands, from France in Belgium, from Canada in the United States, from New Zealand in Australia, from China in Japan, etc. Language issues as well as academic traditions also shed light on the propensity for Anglophone students to concentrate in other countries of the Commonwealth or in the United States, even those that are geographically distant. Migration networks also play a role, as illustrated by the concentration of students with Portuguese citizenship in France, students from Turkey in Germany or from Mexico in the United States.

Finally, international students' destinations also highlight the attractiveness of specific education systems, whether due to considerations of academic reputation or subsequent immigration opportunities. In this respect, it is noteworthy that students from China are mostly in Australia, Canada, France, Germany, Japan, Korea, New Zealand, the United Kingdom and the United States, most of which have schemes to facilitate the immigration of international students. Similarly, students from India favour Australia, the United Kingdom and the United States; these three destinations attract 82.6% of Indian citizens enrolled abroad (Table C2.3).

Definitions and methodologies

Data sources, definitions and reference period

Data on international and foreign students refer to the academic year 2006/07 and are based on the UOE data collection on education statistics administered by the OECD in 2008 (for details see Annex 3 at www.oecd.org/edu/eq2009). Additional data from the UNESCO Institute for Statistics are also included.

Students are classified as international students if they left their country of origin and moved to another country for the purpose of study. Depending on country-specific immigration legislation, mobility arrangements (*e.g.* free mobility of individuals within the EU and EEA areas) and data availability, international students may be defined as students who are not permanent or usual residents of their country of study or alternatively as students who obtained their prior education in a different country (*e.g.* EU countries).

Permanent or usual residence in the reporting country is defined according to national legislation. In practice, this means holding a student visa or permit, or electing a foreign country of domicile in the year prior to entering the education system of the country reporting data. The country of prior education is defined as the country in which students obtained the qualification required to enrol in their current level of education, *i.e.* the country in which they obtained their upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education for international students enrolled in tertiary-type A and tertiary-type B programmes and the country in which they obtained their tertiary-type A education for international students enrolled in advanced research programmes. Country-specific operational definitions of international students are indicated in the tables as well as in Annex 3 (www.oecd.org/edu/eqg2009).

Students are classified as foreign students if they are not citizens of the country in which the data are collected. While pragmatic and operational, this classification is inappropriate for capturing student mobility because of differing national policies regarding the naturalisation of immigrants. For instance, while Australia and Switzerland report similar intakes of foreign students relative to their tertiary enrolments – 22.5% and 19.3%, respectively – these proportions reflect significant differences in the actual levels of student mobility – 19.5% of tertiary enrolments in Australia and 14.0% in Switzerland (Table C2.1). This is because Australia has a higher propensity to grant permanent residence to its immigrant populations than Switzerland. Therefore, interpretations of data based on the concept of foreign students in terms of student mobility and bilateral comparisons need to be made with caution.

Methodologies

Data on international and foreign students are obtained from enrolments in their countries of destination. The method of obtaining data on international and foreign students is therefore the same as that used for collecting data on total enrolments, *i.e.* records of regularly enrolled students in an educational programme. Domestic and international students are usually counted on a specific day or period of the year. This procedure makes it possible to measure the proportion of international enrolments in an education system, but the actual number of individuals involved may be much higher since many students study abroad for less than a full academic year, or participate in exchange programmes that do not require enrolment (*e.g.* inter-university exchange or advanced research short-term mobility). Moreover, the international student body comprises some distance-learning students who are not, strictly speaking, mobile students. This pattern of distance enrolments is fairly common in the tertiary institutions of Australia, the United Kingdom and the United States (OECD, 2004).

Since data on international and foreign students are obtained from tertiary enrolments in their country of destination, the data relate to incoming students rather than to students going abroad. Countries of destination covered by this indicator include all of the OECD countries (with the

exception of Luxembourg and Mexico) and the partner countries Chile, Estonia, the Russian Federation and Slovenia, as well as partner countries reporting similar data to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics, in order to derive global figures and to examine the destinations of students and trends in market shares.

Data on students enrolled abroad as well as trend analyses are not based on the numbers of international students, but on the number of foreign citizens on whom data consistent across countries and over time are readily available. Yet the data do not include students enrolled in OECD and partner countries that did not report foreign students to the OECD or to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics. All statements on students enrolled abroad may therefore underestimate the real number of citizens studying abroad (Table C2.3), especially in cases where many citizens study in countries that do not report their foreign students to the OECD or UNESCO Institute for Statistics (*e.g.* China, India).

Table C2.1 displays international as well as foreign enrolments as a proportion of total enrolment at each level of tertiary education. Total enrolment, used as a denominator, comprises all persons studying in the country (including domestic and international students), but excludes students from that country who study abroad. The table also exhibits changes between 2000 and 2007 in foreign enrolments for all tertiary education.

Table C2.2, Table C2.4 and Table C2.5 show the distribution of international students enrolled in an education system – or foreign students for countries that do not have information on student mobility – according to their country of origin in Table C2.2, according to their level and type of tertiary education in Table C2.4, and according to their field of education in Table C2.5.

Table C2.3 presents the distribution of citizens of a given country enrolled abroad according to their country of destination (or country of study). As mentioned above, the total number of students enrolled abroad, which is used as a denominator, covers only students enrolled in other countries reporting data to the OECD or the UNESCO Institute for Statistics. Therefore, the resulting proportions may be biased and overestimated for countries with large numbers of students studying in non-reporting countries.

Table C2.6 shows trends in the absolute numbers of foreign students reported by OECD countries and worldwide between 2000 and 2007, and the indexes of change between 2007 and the years from 2000 to 2006. The figures are based on the number of foreign students enrolled in countries reporting data to the OECD and to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics. Since data for partner countries that did not report to the OECD were not included in the past, the figures are not strictly comparable with those published in editions of *Education at a Glance* prior to 2006.

Table C2.7 (available on line) provides the matrix of foreign students' numbers by country of origin and country of destination.


Further references

The relative importance of international students in the education system affects tertiary entry and graduation rates and may artificially increase them in some fields or levels of education (see Indicators A2 and A3). It may also affect the mix recorded between public and private expenditure (see Indicator B3).

In countries in which differentiated tuition fees are applied to international students, student mobility may boost the financial resources of tertiary educational institutions and contribute to the financing of the education system. On the other hand, international students may represent a high financial burden for countries in which tertiary tuition fees are low or inexistent given the high level of unit costs in tertiary education (see Indicator B5).

International students enrolled in a country different from their own are only one aspect of the internationalisation of tertiary education. New forms of cross-border education have emerged in the last decade, including the mobility of educational programmes and institutions across borders. Yet, cross-border tertiary education has developed quite differently and in response to different rationales in different world regions. For a detailed analysis of these issues, as well as the trade and policy implications of the internationalisation of tertiary education see OECD (2004).

The following additional material relevant to this indicator is available on line at:

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/664653153762>

- *Table C2.7. Number of foreign students in tertiary education, by country of origin and destination (2007) and market shares in international education (2000, 2007)*

Table C2.1.

Student mobility and foreign students in tertiary education (2000, 2007)

International mobile students enrolled as a percentage of all students (international plus domestic), foreign enrolments as a percentage of all students (foreign and national) and index of change in the number of foreign students

Reading the first column: 19.5% of all students in tertiary education in Australia are international students and 14.0% of all students in tertiary education in Switzerland are international students. According to country-specific immigration legislation and data availability constraints, student mobility is either defined on the basis of students' country of residence (*i.e.* Australia) or the country where students received their prior education (*i.e.* Switzerland). The data presented in this table on student mobility represent the best available proxy of student mobility for each country.

Reading the fifth column: 22.5% of all students in tertiary education in Australia are not Australian citizens, and 19.3% of all students in tertiary education in Switzerland are not Swiss citizens.

	Student mobility				Foreign enrolments				Index of change in the number of foreign students, total tertiary (2000=100)
	International students as a percentage of all tertiary enrolment				Foreign students as a percentage of all tertiary enrolment				
	Total tertiary	Tertiary-type B programmes	Tertiary-type A programmes	Advanced research programmes	Total tertiary	Tertiary-type B programmes	Tertiary-type A programmes	Advanced research programmes	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	
OECD countries									
Australia ¹	19.5	15.5	20.2	20.8	22.5	15.8	23.4	31.5	200
Austria ¹	12.4	1.9	13.3	15.1	16.7	5.6	17.5	21.5	143
Belgium ^{1,2}	7.5	5.3	8.6	20.5	12.2	9.5	13.7	29.9	107
Canada ^{1,3,4,5}	7.7	m	7.1	21.2	14.8	m	13.8	39.0	140
Czech Republic ¹	5.6	0.7	5.9	7.2	6.8	1.1	7.2	8.9	448
Denmark ¹	5.5	4.1	5.6	6.6	9.0	10.5	8.5	21.5	162
Finland ⁶	4.1	n	3.8	7.8	3.3	n	2.9	8.0	181
France	m	m	m	m	11.3	4.5	12.4	37.9	180
Germany ⁶	m	m	10.6	m	11.3	3.8	12.6	m	138
Greece ³	m	m	m	m	3.5	3.4	3.8	m	246
Hungary ¹	3.0	0.4	3.1	6.7	3.5	0.5	3.6	7.5	153
Iceland ⁶	5.2	1.7	5.2	11.9	4.9	1.0	4.9	14.4	194
Ireland ⁶	8.8	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	226
Italy	m	m	m	m	2.8	16.0	2.7	5.9	230
Japan ¹	2.9	2.7	2.6	16.1	3.1	2.7	2.9	16.8	189
Korea	m	m	m	m	1.0	0.6	1.1	5.5	947
Luxembourg	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Mexico	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Netherlands ³	4.7	n	4.7	m	6.4	n	6.5	m	270
New Zealand ¹	13.6	12.8	13.5	26.6	26.8	24.2	27.1	45.7	791
Norway ¹	2.2	0.7	2.2	4.8	7.3	3.4	6.9	23.4	180
Poland	m	m	m	m	0.6	n	0.6	2.8	213
Portugal	m	m	m	m	4.9	6.9	4.6	9.6	169
Slovak Republic ¹	0.9	0.4	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.5	0.9	0.9	128
Spain ¹	1.8	4.6	1.0	9.9	3.4	4.6	2.2	21.9	235
Sweden ¹	5.4	0.6	5.6	5.9	10.3	4.0	10.1	21.7	167
Switzerland ^{3,6}	14.0	m	13.9	45.0	19.3	15.5	17.3	45.0	158
Turkey	m	m	m	m	0.8	0.1	1.0	2.6	109
United Kingdom ¹	14.9	6.2	15.9	42.1	19.5	12.1	20.1	46.0	158
United States ¹	3.4	2.0	3.1	23.7	m	m	m	m	125
<i>OECD average</i>	<i>7.1</i>	<i>3.5</i>	<i>7.3</i>	<i>16.3</i>	<i>8.7</i>	<i>5.9</i>	<i>8.8</i>	<i>20.4</i>	<i>235</i>
<i>EU 19 average</i>	<i>6.2</i>	<i>2.2</i>	<i>6.6</i>	<i>12.3</i>	<i>7.4</i>	<i>4.9</i>	<i>7.6</i>	<i>17.4</i>	<i>197</i>
Partner countries									
Brazil	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Chile	m	m	m	m	1.1	0.8	1.2	13.4	229
Estonia ¹	1.4	0.2	2.0	3.3	3.2	3.0	3.3	4.0	255
Israel	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Russian Federation ^{3,5}	m	m	m	m	0.6	0.3	0.7	m	146
Slovenia ¹	1.0	0.4	1.4	7.0	1.3	0.7	1.6	7.9	194

1. For the purpose of measuring student mobility, international students are defined on the basis of their country of residence.

2. Excludes data for social advancement education.

3. Percentage in total tertiary underestimated because of the exclusion of certain programmes.

4. Year of reference 2006.

5. Excludes private institutions.

6. For the purpose of measuring student mobility, international students are defined on the basis of their country of prior education.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2009).

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


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/664653153762>

Table C2.2.

Distribution of international and foreign students in tertiary education, by country of origin (2007)

Number of international and foreign students enrolled in tertiary education from a given country of origin as a percentage of all international or foreign students in the country of destination, based on head counts.

The table shows for each country the proportion of international students in tertiary education who are residents of or had their prior education in a given country of origin. When data on student mobility are not available, the table shows the proportion of foreign students in tertiary education that have citizenship of a given country of origin.
 Reading the third column: 0.7% of international tertiary students in Canada are German residents, 0.2% of international tertiary students in Canada are Greek residents, etc.
 Reading the seventh column: 4.6% of international tertiary students in Ireland had their prior education in Germany, 0.3% of international tertiary students in Ireland had their prior education in Greece, etc.
 Reading the 16th column: 28.4% of foreign tertiary students in Austria are German citizens, 0.6% of foreign tertiary students in Austria are Greek citizens, etc.

	Countries of destination																	
	OECD countries																	
	International students															Foreign students		
Countries of origin	Australia ¹	Belgium ^{1,2}	Canada ^{1,3,4,5}	Denmark ¹	Germany ^{3,6,7}	Iceland ⁶	Ireland ⁶	Netherlands ⁷	New Zealand ¹	Slovak Republic ¹	Spain ^{1,3}	Sweden ¹	Switzerland ^{3,6}	United Kingdom ¹	United States ¹	Austria ^{3,8}	Czech Republic ⁸	Finland ⁸
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)
OECD countries																		
Australia	a	0.1	0.3	2.4	0.2	0.7	0.4	n	8.3	n	n	1.4	0.1	0.5	0.5	0.2	n	0.3
Austria	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.5	2.4	2.3	0.4	0.1	0.1	1.1	0.2	1.6	0.9	0.4	0.1	a	0.1	0.4
Belgium	n	n	a	0.4	1.2	0.7	1.0	0.5	1.8	n	0.8	1.1	0.3	0.7	0.1	0.2	n	0.2
Canada	1.9	0.2	a	1.0	0.3	2.2	2.9	0.1	1.2	0.4	0.1	1.3	0.4	1.4	4.9	0.1	0.2	0.9
Czech Republic	n	n	0.1	0.1	0.9	1.7	0.2	0.1	n	24.9	0.1	0.8	0.2	0.3	0.2	1.3	a	0.5
Denmark	0.1	n	0.1	a	0.2	5.8	0.1	0.1	0.2	n	0.1	0.6	0.1	0.4	0.2	0.2	n	0.4
Finland	n	n	0.1	0.9	0.4	3.8	0.5	0.2	0.1	n	0.1	2.8	0.1	0.5	0.1	0.4	n	a
France	0.4	35.5	6.9	4.3	2.9	7.7	5.1	0.6	1.2	0.4	2.6	6.1	6.5	3.7	1.1	1.1	0.1	1.6
Germany	0.9	1.0	0.7	9.1	a	13.1	4.6	18.0	3.9	1.5	2.6	9.5	10.6	4.0	1.5	28.4	1.0	4.0
Greece	n	0.3	0.2	0.4	1.3	0.1	0.3	0.2	n	9.6	0.3	0.4	0.3	4.6	0.3	0.6	0.5	0.6
Hungary	n	0.1	0.1	0.2	1.0	0.7	0.2	0.2	n	1.3	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.1	2.8	0.1	1.1
Iceland	n	n	n	7.6	n	a	0.1	n	n	0.1	n	0.1	n	0.1	0.1	n	n	0.2
Ireland	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.8	0.2	0.6	a	0.1	0.1	0.6	0.3	0.4	n	4.6	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3
Italy	0.1	0.4	0.3	1.2	1.8	4.0	1.7	0.3	0.1	0.3	3.1	2.3	2.8	1.7	0.6	14.2	0.1	1.6
Japan	1.5	0.1	1.4	0.2	1.0	1.0	0.5	0.1	2.9	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.3	1.6	6.1	0.7	0.1	1.0
Korea	2.6	0.1	0.1	0.1	1.9	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.5	0.2	0.5	0.2	1.2	10.7	0.8	0.1	0.3
Luxembourg	n	4.3	n	0.6	1.2	n	0.1	n	n	n	0.1	n	0.4	0.3	n	1.1	n	n
Mexico	0.2	0.1	1.4	0.3	0.7	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.4	6.4	0.5	0.2	0.5	2.4	0.1	n	0.6
Netherlands	0.1	8.3	0.2	0.9	0.4	1.6	0.5	a	0.2	0.1	0.4	2.1	0.2	0.8	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.9
New Zealand	0.9	n	0.1	0.7	0.1	0.1	n	n	a	n	n	0.2	n	0.2	0.1	n	n	0.1
Norway	0.7	n	0.2	15.2	0.3	3.8	0.7	0.2	0.5	7.7	0.1	0.7	0.1	1.9	0.2	0.1	1.0	0.8
Poland	0.1	0.3	0.3	1.5	6.1	4.0	1.5	0.7	n	2.1	0.8	1.7	0.6	1.9	0.5	3.4	1.1	1.7
Portugal	n	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.1	n	0.2	7.0	0.5	0.2	0.9	0.1	0.2	1.1	0.3
Slovak Republic	n	0.1	n	0.1	0.6	0.9	0.1	0.1	n	a	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.1	3.0	67.4	0.2
Spain	0.1	0.3	0.2	2.8	2.0	3.0	2.1	0.5	0.1	0.3	a	4.1	0.7	1.8	0.6	1.0	0.1	1.2
Sweden	0.4	n	0.1	8.9	0.3	6.6	0.6	0.2	0.4	1.8	0.2	a	0.2	1.0	0.5	0.4	0.4	5.7
Switzerland	0.1	0.2	0.4	1.3	1.0	0.5	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.6	0.9	a	0.5	0.2	0.8	0.0	0.3
Turkey	0.1	0.3	0.5	0.4	3.5	n	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.6	0.7	0.6	2.0	5.2	0.2	0.8
United Kingdom	0.8	0.1	0.9	11.7	1.0	3.5	13.6	0.4	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.3	0.3	a	1.4	0.5	1.7	1.9
United States	1.4	0.4	11.6	4.8	1.7	7.8	14.9	0.2	7.0	1.2	1.1	2.1	0.7	4.5	a	0.8	0.6	2.1
Total from OECD countries	13.0	52.6	26.7	79.6	34.4	77.2	52.6	24.8	28.2	56.1	29.1	44.7	27.8	40.2	35.2	67.9	76.3	29.8
Partner countries																		
Brazil	0.2	0.1	0.6	0.3	0.9	0.7	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	2.3	0.1	0.5	0.4	1.2	0.2	n	0.4
Chile	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.3	n	n	n	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.3	n	n	0.2
China	23.8	2.1	17.9	7.0	11.5	2.6	7.7	3.2	41.0	1.0	0.3	1.2	0.9	14.1	16.6	3.2	0.2	16.7
Estonia	n	n	n	0.3	0.3	0.9	0.1	n	n	n	0.1	0.1	n	0.2	n	0.1	n	6.6
India	11.6	0.8	2.6	1.3	1.7	0.1	2.1	0.1	7.4	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.5	6.8	14.4	0.4	0.4	2.0
Israel	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.3	0.6	n	0.1	0.1	n	7.7	0.1	n	0.1	0.3	0.6	0.1	0.8	0.2
Russian Federation	0.3	0.5	0.7	0.6	5.8	3.0	0.4	0.3	0.8	1.1	0.4	0.3	0.8	0.7	0.8	1.2	4.4	11.7
Slovenia	n	n	n	n	0.1	0.1	n	n	n	0.3	0.1	0.2	n	0.1	n	1.3	0.1	0.1
Main geographic regions																		
Total from Africa	3.2	2.7	16.0	2.1	8.6	1.3	4.6	1.3	0.8	3.0	7.3	0.5	3.3	9.5	6.1	1.4	1.7	13.9
Total from Asia	79.7	5.6	42.4	13.2	31.2	7.0	28.1	5.9	68.6	19.6	1.7	4.5	4.2	46.3	65.2	14.1	9.3	31.4
Total from Europe	4.7	52.7	15.1	73.1	45.8	78.5	36.1	25.6	9.3	74.6	26.6	39.6	29.5	32.6	11.9	82.2	86.5	48.1
of which, from EU19 countries	3.4	51.0	10.7	45.6	23.7	60.6	32.4	23.5	7.6	45.6	20.5	35.9	25.0	28.1	8.1	59.1	74.1	22.4
Total from North America	3.3	0.6	12.1	5.8	2.0	10.1	18.0	0.3	8.3	1.5	1.1	3.4	1.1	6.0	4.9	1.0	0.8	3.0
Total from Oceania	1.9	0.1	0.4	3.1	0.3	0.9	0.6	n	12.0	n	n	1.6	0.2	0.7	0.7	0.2	n	0.4
Total from South America	1.1	0.9	8.8	1.7	4.0	2.2	0.6	0.9	1.0	1.3	29.2	1.1	2.4	2.5	11.1	1.1	0.7	2.5
Not specified	6.0	37.3	5.3	1.1	8.1	n	12.0	66.0	0.1	n	34.0	49.2	59.3	2.4	n	0.2	0.9	0.7
Total from all countries	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

1. International students are defined on the basis of their country of residence.

2. Excludes data for social advancement education.

3. Excludes tertiary-type B programmes.

4. Year of reference 2006.

5. Excludes private institutions.

6. International students are defined on the basis of their country of prior education.

7. Excludes advanced research programmes.

8. Foreign students are defined on the basis of their country of citizenship; these data are not comparable with data on international students and are therefore presented separately in the table.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2009).

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


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/664653153762>

Table C2.2. (continued)

Distribution of international and foreign students in tertiary education, by country of origin (2007)

Number of international and foreign students enrolled in tertiary education from a given country of origin as a percentage of all international or foreign students in the country of destination, based on head counts.

The table shows for each country the proportion of international students in tertiary education who are residents of or had their prior education in a given country of origin. When data on student mobility are not available, the table shows the proportion of foreign students in tertiary education that have citizenship of a given country of origin.
 Reading the third column: 0.7% of international tertiary students in Canada are German residents, 0.2% of international tertiary students in Canada are Greek residents, etc.
 Reading the seventh column: 4.6% of international tertiary students in Ireland had their prior education in Germany, 0.3% of international tertiary students in Ireland had their prior education in Greece, etc.
 Reading the 16th column: 28.4% of foreign tertiary students in Austria are German citizens, 0.6% of foreign tertiary students in Austria are Greek citizens, etc.

Countries of origin	Countries of destination																
	OECD countries										Partner countries						
	Foreign students										International	Foreign					
	France ⁸	Greece ⁸	Hungary ⁸	Italy ⁸	Japan ⁸	Korea ⁸	Norway ⁸	Poland ⁸	Portugal ⁸	Turkey ⁸	Total OECD destinations	Estonia ¹	Slovenia ¹	Chile ¹	Russian Federation ^{5,7,8}	Total partner country destinations	Total all reporting destinations
(19)	(20)	(21)	(22)	(23)	(24)	(25)	(26)	(27)	(28)	(29)	(30)	(31)	(32)	(33)	(34)	(35)	
OECD countries																	
Australia	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.4	n	n	n	n	n	0.3
Austria	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.4	n	n	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.1	1.1	0.1	m	0.1	0.4
Belgium	1.1	0.2	0.1	0.5	n	n	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.1	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.1	m	n	0.4
Canada	0.5	0.2	0.9	0.2	0.2	0.6	0.6	2.4	0.5	0.1	1.8	n	0.3	0.2	m	0.2	1.6
Czech Republic	0.3	n	0.1	0.3	n	n	0.3	2.9	0.2	n	0.3	n	0.1	0.1	m	n	0.3
Denmark	0.1	0.1	n	0.1	n	n	5.4	0.1	n	n	0.2	0.7	0.1	n	m	n	0.2
Finland	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	n	1.9	0.1	0.1	n	0.2	45.7	n	0.1	m	0.2	0.2
France	a	0.3	0.3	1.9	0.4	0.1	1.1	0.8	3.6	0.1	2.2	0.4	0.2	0.7	m	0.1	1.9
Germany	2.8	1.9	10.1	3.6	0.3	0.2	4.2	3.1	1.7	1.4	3.2	1.4	0.3	0.7	m	0.2	2.7
Greece	0.8	a	1.0	8.8	n	n	0.1	0.2	0.2	4.6	1.3	0.2	0.1	n	m	0.6	1.2
Hungary	0.3	0.1	a	0.4	0.1	n	0.2	0.5	0.1	n	0.3	0.1	0.9	n	m	n	0.2
Iceland	0.2	n	0.3	n	n	n	1.6	n	n	n	0.1	n	n	n	m	n	0.1
Ireland	0.2	n	0.5	0.1	n	n	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.8	0.1	n	n	m	n	0.7
Italy	1.9	0.4	0.2	a	0.1	n	0.6	0.4	1.3	0.1	1.3	0.6	10.3	0.3	m	0.1	1.1
Japan	0.8	0.1	0.2	0.6	a	3.9	0.2	0.2	0.1	n	2.3	0.3	n	0.1	m	0.1	1.9
Korea	1.0	0.1	0.2	0.6	17.6	a	0.2	0.3	n	0.2	4.4	0.1	n	0.5	m	0.3	3.7
Luxembourg	0.6	n	n	0.1	n	n	n	n	0.2	n	0.3	n	n	n	m	n	0.3
Mexico	0.7	n	0.1	0.5	0.1	n	0.3	0.1	0.1	n	1.0	0.1	0.2	1.5	m	0.3	0.9
Netherlands	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	n	1.0	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.1	m	n	0.4
New Zealand	n	n	n	n	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	n	n	0.2	n	n	n	m	n	0.1
Norway	0.1	n	4.7	0.3	n	n	a	7.0	0.1	n	0.5	0.2	0.2	0.1	m	n	0.4
Poland	1.4	0.5	0.4	2.6	0.1	n	1.2	a	0.9	0.1	1.4	0.1	0.5	n	m	0.1	1.2
Portugal	1.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	n	n	0.3	0.3	a	n	0.4	0.1	0.2	n	m	0.1	0.4
Slovak Republic	0.2	n	15.2	0.3	n	n	0.2	1.1	0.1	n	1.0	n	0.6	n	m	n	0.9
Spain	1.6	0.1	0.2	0.9	0.1	n	0.7	0.5	3.6	n	1.0	0.8	0.2	0.8	m	0.1	0.8
Sweden	0.2	0.1	1.8	0.2	0.1	n	8.1	4.0	0.1	0.1	0.6	0.7	0.3	0.2	m	0.1	0.5
Switzerland	0.7	0.1	0.1	2.4	n	n	0.3	0.1	0.5	n	0.4	2.9	n	0.2	m	0.1	0.4
Turkey	0.9	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.5	0.2	a	1.2	0.2	0.1	n	m	2.3	1.4
United Kingdom	1.1	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.3	0.1	2.2	0.6	0.5	0.5	1.0	0.2	0.2	0.1	m	0.2	0.9
United States	1.3	0.6	1.6	0.8	1.5	1.7	2.1	6.3	0.8	0.2	2.0	1.2	0.3	0.8	m	0.8	1.8
Total from OECD countries	20.4	6.1	40.1	27.4	21.7	7.3	34.1	32.2	15.9	7.9	31.2	56.8	16.2	6.8	m	6.2	27.1
Partner countries																	
Brazil	1.0	n	0.1	1.9	0.4	0.1	0.5	0.3	12.3	n	0.8	0.1	0.3	2.3	m	0.5	0.8
Chile	0.3	n	n	0.4	n	n	0.5	n	0.1	n	0.2	n	n	a	m	0.4	0.2
China	7.6	0.2	1.3	2.9	63.7	72.3	4.6	3.2	0.4	0.7	16.3	9.5	0.1	0.6	m	9.8	15.2
Estonia	n	n	n	0.1	n	n	0.5	0.1	n	n	0.1	a	0.2	n	0.9	0.3	0.1
India	0.4	n	0.3	1.0	0.3	1.1	1.0	2.1	0.2	n	6.2	1.7	0.1	n	m	1.8	5.5
Israel	0.1	0.4	5.0	2.0	n	n	0.1	0.2	n	0.1	0.4	n	n	0.1	m	0.8	0.5
Russian Federation	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.6	0.3	0.8	5.1	3.7	0.5	2.9	1.4	9.6	1.2	0.1	a	2.9	1.6
Slovenia	n	n	0.1	0.7	n	n	n	0.1	0.1	n	0.1	n	a	n	m	n	0.1
Main geographic regions																	
Total from Africa	43.8	4.3	1.9	9.6	0.7	0.8	9.7	4.8	64.8	2.0	10.5	0.3	0.3	0.1	m	17.3	11.6
Total from Asia	19.7	61.8	15.5	13.9	93.6	94.6	16.3	18.7	1.7	55.2	46.8	13.1	0.9	1.5	57.3	55.1	48.2
Total from Europe	21.6	32.0	79.7	62.4	2.5	1.6	43.1	66.9	16.5	27.6	24.9	84.9	96.7	3.9	31.9	15.7	23.3
<i>of which, from EU19 countries</i>	<i>14.1</i>	<i>4.6</i>	<i>31.3</i>	<i>21.2</i>	<i>1.7</i>	<i>0.7</i>	<i>28.1</i>	<i>15.1</i>	<i>13.7</i>	<i>7.3</i>	<i>16.9</i>	<i>51.8</i>	<i>15.2</i>	<i>3.3</i>	<i>m</i>	<i>m</i>	<i>m</i>
Total from North America	1.8	0.8	2.5	1.1	1.7	2.3	2.6	8.7	1.2	0.2	3.8	1.2	0.5	1.1	m	1.0	3.4
Total from Oceania	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.8	n	0.1	n	m	0.1	0.7
Total from South America	4.8	0.3	0.3	9.1	1.0	0.5	2.5	0.7	15.7	0.1	5.4	0.4	1.0	54.5	m	10.7	6.3
Not specified	8.1	0.8	n	3.8	n	n	25.5	n	n	14.7	7.8	n	0.4	38.8	10.8	n	6.5
Total from all countries	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

1. International students are defined on the basis of their country of residence.

2. Excludes data for social advancement education.

3. Excludes tertiary-type B programmes.

4. Year of reference 2006.

5. Excludes private institutions.

6. International students are defined on the basis of their country of prior education.

7. Excludes advanced research programmes.

8. Foreign students are defined on the basis of their country of citizenship; these data are not comparable with data on international students and are therefore presented separately in the table.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2009).

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


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/664653153762>

Table C2.3.

Citizens studying abroad in tertiary education, by country of destination (2007)

Number of students enrolled in tertiary education in a given country of destination as a percentage of all students enrolled abroad, based on head counts

The table shows for each country the proportion of students studying abroad in tertiary education in a given country of destination.

Reading the second column: 6.7% of Czech citizens enrolled in tertiary education abroad study in Austria, 15.0% of Italian citizens enrolled in tertiary education abroad study in Austria, etc.

Reading the first row: 2.9% of Australian citizens enrolled in tertiary education abroad study in France, 27.5% of Australian citizens enrolled in tertiary education abroad study in New Zealand, etc.

		Countries of destination																			
		OECD countries																			
Country of origin		Australia ¹	Austria ²	Belgium ³	Canada ^{2,4,5}	Czech Republic	Denmark	Finland	France	Germany ⁶	Greece	Hungary	Iceland	Ireland ^{7,8}	Italy	Japan	Korea	Luxembourg	Mexico	Netherlands ⁶	New Zealand
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)
OECD countries	Australia	a	0.7	0.3	4.0	n	0.4	0.3	2.9	3.5	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.7	0.6	3.6	0.4	m	m	0.5	27.5
	Austria	1.6	a	0.4	1.0	0.1	0.3	0.3	3.3	51.0	0.3	0.6	0.2	0.5	1.6	0.3	0.1	m	m	1.6	0.2
	Belgium	0.7	0.8	a	2.3	0.1	0.2	0.2	23.4	8.9	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.8	2.5	0.5	n	m	m	18.9	0.1
	Canada	9.1	0.1	0.2	a	0.1	0.2	0.2	2.9	1.4	0.1	0.3	n	1.1	0.3	0.7	0.4	m	m	0.3	0.9
	Czech Republic	1.3	6.7	0.5	1.7	a	0.5	0.6	9.3	27.2	n	0.2	0.2	0.4	2.2	0.5	0.1	m	m	1.6	n
	Denmark	2.3	1.1	0.6	1.6	n	a	0.7	3.8	8.2	0.2	n	0.8	0.4	0.9	0.5	0.1	m	m	2.3	0.9
	Finland	0.8	1.9	0.5	0.9	0.1	2.2	a	3.5	9.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.8	1.0	0.7	0.1	m	m	2.0	0.3
	France	1.4	0.8	26.6	7.8	n	0.4	0.3	a	10.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	1.4	1.7	0.7	n	m	m	1.3	0.6
	Germany	2.2	14.4	0.7	1.3	0.3	1.5	0.5	8.1	a	0.5	1.8	0.1	0.9	2.4	0.5	0.1	m	m	16.3	1.5
	Greece	0.1	0.6	1.1	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.1	5.1	16.0	a	0.4	n	0.1	13.3	0.1	n	m	m	1.6	n
	Hungary	0.7	15.0	1.3	1.3	0.4	1.3	1.3	8.7	30.9	0.2	a	0.1	0.3	2.5	1.0	n	m	m	3.0	0.1
	Iceland	0.8	0.5	0.2	1.2	n	46.4	0.7	1.3	3.0	n	1.3	a	0.2	0.5	0.6	n	m	m	2.1	0.3
	Ireland	0.9	0.2	0.3	1.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	2.3	2.1	n	0.4	n	a	0.2	n	n	m	m	0.7	0.2
	Italy	0.7	15.0	4.1	0.7	0.1	0.4	0.4	11.6	18.0	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.7	a	0.3	n	m	m	1.4	0.1
	Japan	5.8	0.5	0.3	2.9	n	0.1	0.2	3.7	4.3	n	n	n	0.2	0.6	a	2.2	m	m	0.4	1.7
	Korea	5.1	0.3	0.1	0.7	n	n	n	2.3	4.9	n	n	n	n	0.3	20.6	a	m	m	0.3	n
	Luxembourg	0.2	6.3	20.6	0.4	n	0.1	0.1	21.0	32.6	n	n	n	0.2	0.7	n	n	a	m	0.6	n
	Mexico	1.6	0.2	0.3	5.2	n	0.3	0.2	5.9	5.1	n	n	n	0.1	0.9	0.5	0.1	m	a	0.6	0.3
	Netherlands	2.0	1.1	26.1	2.4	0.1	1.5	0.6	4.7	11.7	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.7	0.9	0.6	n	m	m	a	0.4
	New Zealand	49.0	0.2	n	3.3	0.1	0.6	0.1	1.6	1.7	n	0.1	n	0.2	n	2.0	0.8	m	m	0.5	a
Norway	10.8	0.4	0.2	1.3	1.7	16.4	0.6	2.7	4.3	n	5.2	0.2	0.8	1.1	0.2	n	m	m	2.2	1.2	
Poland	0.5	3.9	1.2	1.6	0.7	1.8	0.4	8.9	40.2	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.7	3.9	0.2	n	m	m	2.2	n	
Portugal	0.4	0.6	5.1	1.7	1.9	0.3	0.2	18.4	10.7	0.1	0.1	n	0.3	0.8	0.2	n	m	m	1.9	0.1	
Slovak Republic	0.4	5.2	0.3	0.4	66.4	0.1	0.1	1.5	6.5	n	9.2	n	0.1	0.7	0.1	n	m	m	0.5	n	
Spain	0.5	1.6	3.4	0.6	0.1	0.5	0.4	14.4	18.6	0.1	0.1	0.1	1.3	1.9	0.4	n	m	m	3.1	0.1	
Sweden	6.0	1.2	0.4	1.2	0.6	10.8	3.9	3.7	4.8	0.2	1.8	0.3	0.7	0.8	0.9	n	m	m	1.2	0.9	
Switzerland	2.8	3.2	0.8	2.9	0.1	0.6	0.2	14.5	20.4	0.2	0.1	n	0.3	12.4	0.4	n	m	m	1.4	0.5	
Turkey	0.4	3.8	0.4	1.2	0.1	0.5	0.1	4.0	41.6	0.1	0.2	n	0.1	0.6	0.3	0.1	m	m	1.2	n	
United Kingdom	6.5	0.8	1.0	8.3	1.5	1.8	0.7	9.9	7.1	0.4	0.3	0.1	8.7	1.1	1.5	0.1	m	m	3.1	1.6	
United States	5.8	0.7	0.4	17.5	0.3	0.6	0.4	6.1	6.5	0.3	0.5	0.1	4.8	0.9	3.6	1.1	m	m	0.9	4.5	
Total from OECD countries		3.2	3.4	3.3	3.0	2.2	1.2	0.3	5.8	12.2	0.2	0.7	0.1	1.0	1.8	3.2	0.3	m	m	2.9	1.1
Partner countries	Brazil	2.1	0.3	0.6	2.8	n	0.4	0.2	10.7	8.7	n	n	n	0.1	4.5	1.9	0.1	m	m	0.5	0.3
	Chile	2.5	0.2	1.2	3.1	n	0.4	0.2	8.2	7.7	n	n	n	n	2.6	0.5	0.2	m	m	0.5	0.8
	China	11.0	0.3	0.3	6.3	n	0.4	0.4	4.1	5.9	n	n	n	0.3	0.4	17.5	5.1	m	m	0.8	3.0
	Estonia	0.1	0.9	0.3	0.4	0.1	3.2	13.8	2.5	15.4	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.4	1.2	0.5	n	m	m	1.6	n
	India	15.1	0.1	0.2	4.4	n	0.2	0.1	0.5	2.4	n	n	n	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.2	m	m	0.2	1.5
	Israel	1.4	0.4	0.3	6.8	1.3	0.4	0.2	2.0	9.5	0.6	5.4	n	0.1	8.0	0.3	n	m	m	1.4	n
	Russian Federation	1.0	1.0	1.0	2.7	2.1	0.8	2.3	6.3	25.3	0.6	0.4	n	0.1	1.8	0.7	0.5	m	m	0.9	0.5
	Slovenia	0.7	20.4	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.3	0.5	3.2	22.0	n	0.7	n	0.2	14.2	0.4	n	m	m	2.7	n

Note: The proportion of students abroad is based only on the total of students enrolled in countries reporting data to the OECD and UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

1. Data by country of origin relate to international students defined on the basis of their country of residence.

2. Excludes tertiary-type B programmes.

3. Excludes data for social advancement education.

4. Reference year 2006.

5. Excludes private institutions.

6. Excludes advanced research programmes.

7. Data by country of origin relate to international students defined on the basis of their country of prior education.

8. Excludes part-time students.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2009).

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


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/664653153762>

Table C2.3. (continued)
Citizens studying abroad in tertiary education, by country of destination (2007)

Number of students enrolled in tertiary education in a given country of destination as a percentage of all students enrolled abroad, based on head counts

The table shows for each country the proportion of students studying abroad in tertiary education in a given country of destination.
 Reading the second column: 6.7% of Czech citizens enrolled in tertiary education abroad study in Austria, 15.0% of Italian citizens enrolled in tertiary education abroad study in Austria, etc.
 Reading the first row: 2.9% of Australian citizens enrolled in tertiary education abroad study in France, 27.5% of Australian citizens enrolled in tertiary education abroad study in New Zealand, etc.

Country of origin	Countries of destination																	Total all reporting destinations	
	OECD countries											Partner countries							
	Norway	Poland	Portugal	Slovak Republic	Spain	Sweden	Switzerland	Turkey	United Kingdom ¹	United States ¹	Total OECD destinations	Brazil	Chile	Estonia	Israel	Russian Federation ^{2,6}	Slovenia		Total partner country destinations
(21)	(22)	(23)	(24)	(25)	(26)	(27)	(28)	(29)	(30)	(31)	(32)	(33)	(34)	(35)	(36)	(37)	(38)	(39)	
OECD countries																			
Australia	0.3	0.1	0.2	n	0.4	3.9	0.7	0.3	17.7	28.6	98.0	m	n	n	m	n	2.0	100.0	
Austria	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.2	1.9	3.9	7.5	0.2	11.1	6.7	95.8	m	n	n	m	m	0.1	4.2	100.0
Belgium	0.2	0.2	0.7	n	3.0	2.5	2.9	0.1	22.5	6.3	98.4	m	0.1	n	m	m	n	1.6	100.0
Canada	0.2	0.7	0.2	n	0.2	0.9	0.7	n	11.3	65.1	97.9	m	n	n	m	m	n	2.1	100.0
Czech Republic	0.6	4.7	0.3	6.0	1.6	2.9	2.1	n	14.2	11.5	97.1	m	0.1	n	m	m	n	2.9	100.0
Denmark	13.5	0.2	0.1	n	1.8	15.4	1.5	0.1	25.3	15.9	98.0	m	n	0.1	m	m	n	2.0	100.0
Finland	3.1	0.1	0.2	n	0.9	37.8	1.3	n	17.8	6.1	91.8	m	n	4.9	m	m	n	8.2	100.0
France	0.3	0.2	1.0	n	3.0	2.7	6.9	n	20.7	10.9	99.0	m	0.1	n	m	m	n	1.0	100.0
Germany	0.8	0.5	0.4	n	2.2	3.8	11.4	0.3	16.3	10.3	98.7	m	0.1	n	m	m	n	1.3	100.0
Greece	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.5	0.5	0.8	0.8	2.3	42.2	5.3	92.2	m	n	n	m	m	n	7.8	100.0
Hungary	0.5	0.7	0.2	0.4	0.8	2.0	2.4	n	12.8	9.2	97.3	m	n	n	m	m	0.2	2.7	100.0
Iceland	6.7	0.1	n	0.1	0.8	10.9	0.3	n	10.3	11.5	99.9	m	n	n	m	m	n	0.1	100.0
Ireland	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.6	0.9	0.2	0.1	82.9	5.6	99.9	m	n	n	m	m	n	0.1	100.0
Italy	0.2	0.1	0.6	n	7.8	2.0	11.1	n	14.5	8.3	98.4	m	0.1	n	m	m	0.3	1.6	100.0
Japan	0.1	0.1	n	n	0.3	0.5	0.5	n	10.2	64.3	98.9	m	n	n	m	m	n	1.1	100.0
Korea	n	n	n	n	0.1	0.2	0.2	n	4.0	59.5	98.7	m	n	n	m	m	n	1.3	100.0
Luxembourg	n	n	0.4	n	0.2	0.1	4.0	n	11.7	0.8	99.9	m	n	n	m	m	n	0.1	100.0
Mexico	0.1	n	0.1	n	13.7	0.8	0.6	n	6.0	51.2	93.9	m	0.4	n	m	m	n	6.1	100.0
Netherlands	1.2	0.1	0.5	n	2.0	5.2	0.6	0.1	21.2	12.2	98.4	m	0.1	n	m	m	n	1.6	100.0
New Zealand	0.3	0.2	n	n	0.4	1.3	0.6	n	14.1	21.7	98.9	m	n	n	m	m	n	1.1	100.0
Norway	a	6.6	0.1	1.1	0.6	9.6	0.7	n	22.0	8.9	98.9	m	n	n	m	m	n	1.1	100.0
Poland	0.5	a	0.4	0.1	2.0	2.4	1.3	n	17.7	7.5	98.7	m	n	n	m	m	n	1.3	100.0
Portugal	0.3	0.3	a	n	19.2	1.5	7.0	n	20.8	6.0	97.9	m	n	n	m	m	n	2.1	100.0
Slovak Republic	0.1	0.6	0.1	a	0.4	0.2	0.7	n	3.6	2.4	99.7	m	n	n	m	m	n	0.3	100.0
Spain	0.4	0.2	2.4	n	a	4.5	5.6	n	23.7	13.7	98.0	m	0.2	n	m	m	n	2.0	100.0
Sweden	8.6	3.5	0.2	0.2	1.4	a	1.6	0.1	23.0	20.3	98.3	m	0.1	0.1	m	m	n	1.7	100.0
Switzerland	0.4	0.1	0.8	n	3.2	2.5	a	0.1	17.2	11.5	96.8	m	0.1	n	m	m	n	3.2	100.0
Turkey	0.1	0.1	n	n	0.1	0.6	1.4	a	3.8	19.9	80.7	m	n	n	m	m	n	19.3	100.0
United Kingdom	1.3	0.3	0.3	0.1	2.5	3.0	1.4	0.4	a	33.0	97.0	m	n	n	m	m	n	3.0	100.0
United States	0.6	1.6	0.3	n	1.4	1.8	0.9	0.1	30.6	a	92.2	m	0.1	n	m	m	n	7.8	100.0
Total from OECD countries	0.6	0.5	0.3	0.1	2.2	2.4	3.2	0.2	16.5	24.4	96.4	m	0.1	0.1	m	m	n	3.6	100.0
Partner countries																			
Brazil	0.3	0.1	9.1	n	8.7	0.5	1.4	n	5.4	30.2	89.1	a	0.7	n	m	m	n	10.9	100.0
Chile	1.0	n	0.1	n	18.5	3.2	1.3	n	4.8	20.2	77.3	m	a	n	m	m	n	22.7	100.0
China	0.2	0.1	n	n	0.2	0.4	0.2	n	10.8	21.6	89.3	m	n	n	m	m	n	10.7	100.0
Estonia	1.5	0.4	n	n	2.2	5.4	0.4	n	11.1	5.1	67.1	m	n	a	m	11.6	n	32.9	100.0
India	0.1	0.2	n	n	0.1	0.5	0.2	n	14.7	52.8	94.5	m	n	n	m	m	n	5.5	100.0
Israel	0.2	0.2	n	1.0	1.0	0.3	0.5	0.2	6.4	24.0	71.7	m	n	n	a	m	n	28.3	100.0
Russian Federation	1.6	1.0	0.2	n	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.1	5.1	9.6	71.1	m	n	2.2	m	a	n	28.9	100.0
Slovenia	0.2	0.4	0.7	0.2	1.9	2.1	1.6	n	10.4	7.5	92.5	m	n	n	m	m	a	7.5	100.0

Note: The proportion of students abroad is based only on the total of students enrolled in countries reporting data to the OECD and UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

1. Data by country of origin relate to international students defined on the basis of their country of residence.

2. Excludes tertiary-type B programmes.

3. Excludes data for social advancement education.

4. Reference year 2006.

5. Excludes private institutions.

6. Excludes advanced research programmes.

7. Data by country of origin relate to international students defined on the basis of their country of prior education.

8. Excludes part-time students.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eqq2009).

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


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Table C2.4.
Distribution of international and foreign students in tertiary education, by level and type
of tertiary education (2007)

	Tertiary-type B programmes (1)	Tertiary-type A programmes (2)	Advanced research programmes (3)	Total tertiary programmes (4)
International students by level and type of tertiary education				
OECD countries				
Australia ¹	12.4	83.5	4.1	100
Austria ^{1,2}	1.4	90.2	8.4	100
Belgium ^{1,3}	30.6	63.4	6.0	100
Canada ^{1,4,5,6}	m	88.6	11.4	100
Czech Republic ¹	1.1	90.5	8.4	100
Denmark ¹	9.4	88.1	2.5	100
Finland ⁷	n	86.6	13.4	100
Hungary ¹	0.7	95.2	4.0	100
Iceland ⁷	0.6	96.5	2.9	100
Ireland	m	m	m	m
Japan ¹	21.3	68.1	10.6	100
Luxembourg	m	m	m	m
Mexico	m	m	m	m
Netherlands ⁸	n	100.0	m	100
New Zealand ¹	25.3	69.9	4.9	100
Norway ¹	0.3	94.1	5.6	100
Slovak Republic ¹	0.5	94.7	4.7	100
Spain ¹	34.0	43.8	22.3	100
Sweden ¹	0.5	93.9	5.5	100
Switzerland ^{4,7}	m	73.5	26.5	100
United Kingdom ¹	9.1	79.0	11.9	100
United States ¹	12.7	71.6	15.7	100
Partner countries				
Brazil	m	m	m	m
Estonia ¹	4.6	88.1	7.3	100
Israel	m	m	m	m
Slovenia ¹	16.6	76.1	7.4	100
Foreign students by level and type of tertiary education				
OECD countries				
France ⁹	10.0	79.0	11.0	100
Germany ^{8,9}	4.8	95.2	m	100
Greece ^{8,9}	34.7	65.3	m	100
Italy ⁹	2.9	92.9	4.1	100
Korea ⁹	22.4	69.4	8.3	100
Poland ⁹	n	93.2	6.8	100
Portugal ⁹	1.1	88.8	10.0	100
Turkey ⁹	5.1	90.3	4.6	100
Partner countries				
Chile ⁹	29.6	65.3	5.1	100
Russian Federation ^{6,8,9}	10.7	89.3	m	100

1. International students are defined on the basis of their country of residence.

2. Based on the number of registrations, not head-counts.

3. Excludes data for social advancement education.

4. Excludes tertiary-type B programmes.

5. Reference year 2006.

6. Excludes private institutions.

7. International students are defined on the basis of their country of prior education.

8. Excludes advanced research programmes.

9. Foreign students are defined on the basis of their country of citizenship, these data are not comparable with data on international students and are therefore presented separately in the table and chart.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2009).

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


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/664653153762>

Table C2.5.

Distribution of international and foreign students in tertiary education, by field of education (2007)

	Agriculture	Education	Engineering, manufacturing and construction	Health and welfare	Humanities and arts	Sciences	Services	Social sciences, business and law	Not known or unspecified	Total all fields of education	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	
International students by field of education											
OECD countries	Australia ¹	0.8	3.0	10.5	8.6	7.1	12.8	1.6	55.6	n	100
	Austria ^{1,2}	2.1	6.0	11.8	7.7	22.9	10.5	1.5	37.1	0.4	100
	Belgium ^{1,3}	8.3	4.9	7.1	41.8	14.1	6.2	2.2	15.3	0.1	100
	Canada ^{1,2,4}	1.1	1.6	14.9	5.3	8.2	18.5	1.2	39.7	9.4	100
	Denmark ¹	2.1	4.1	13.5	19.6	17.9	7.1	0.7	35.0	n	100
	Finland ^{2,5}	1.9	2.0	30.0	11.6	15.1	10.0	3.9	25.6	n	100
	Germany ^{2,5,6}	1.5	4.9	19.5	6.3	21.5	17.0	1.7	27.6	0.1	100
	Greece	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Hungary ¹	11.1	4.2	9.0	32.7	10.6	8.2	2.6	21.5	n	100
	Iceland ⁵	1.1	5.2	6.0	2.9	42.9	18.0	1.3	22.5	n	100
	Ireland	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Japan ¹	2.4	2.5	14.6	2.3	25.4	1.2	2.0	39.7	9.9	100
	Korea	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Luxembourg	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Mexico	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Netherlands ⁶	1.5	6.2	5.2	16.8	12.8	5.5	5.8	45.4	0.7	100
	New Zealand ^{1,6}	1.2	3.3	7.2	6.3	14.6	18.2	2.8	45.7	0.6	100
	Norway ¹	1.3	5.3	4.7	10.4	16.9	15.0	3.6	33.6	9.3	100
	Spain ^{1,2,6}	1.2	2.9	6.8	34.7	12.7	7.0	3.3	31.3	n	100
	Sweden ¹	1.0	3.8	23.6	8.1	16.0	14.7	1.8	30.7	0.2	100
Switzerland ^{2,5}	0.9	3.6	16.0	7.1	17.4	16.7	2.1	34.2	2.2	100	
United Kingdom ¹	0.8	3.8	14.7	9.2	14.3	13.9	1.3	40.8	1.3	100	
United States ¹	0.3	3.0	15.6	6.5	11.0	18.7	1.8	31.0	12.0	100	
Partner countries	Brazil	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Chile	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Estonia ¹	7.0	0.8	0.9	11.8	17.8	3.8	0.7	57.0	n	100
	Israel	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Russian Federation	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Slovenia ¹	2.1	5.1	16.7	11.5	21.3	10.9	3.3	29.0	n	100
Foreign students by field of education											
OECD countries	Czech Republic ⁷	2.5	5.2	11.1	19.5	8.1	10.6	1.7	35.5	6.0	100
	France ⁷	0.2	1.1	12.6	8.7	20.1	15.8	1.5	39.8	0.1	100
	Italy ⁷	2.0	2.3	14.5	20.4	19.9	6.6	1.7	31.8	0.9	100
	Poland ⁷	0.5	4.2	4.6	28.2	18.3	5.6	3.4	35.2	n	100
	Portugal ⁷	1.0	3.6	18.3	7.3	8.5	7.3	5.0	49.1	n	100
	Slovak Republic ⁷	11.6	5.1	12.4	33.0	14.6	6.3	4.5	12.4	a	100
	Turkey ⁷	2.4	9.5	14.6	14.7	10.1	8.8	3.2	36.8	n	100

1. International students are defined on the basis of their country of residence.

2. Excludes tertiary-type B programmes.

3. Excludes data for social advancement education.

4. Reference year 2006.

5. International students are defined on the basis of their country of prior education.

6. Excludes advanced research programmes.

7. Foreign students are defined on the basis of their country of citizenship; these data are not comparable with data on international students and are therefore presented separately in the table and chart.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2009).

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


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Table C2.6.

Trends in the number of foreign students enrolled outside their country of origin (2000 to 2007)*Number of foreign students enrolled in tertiary education outside their country of origin, head counts*

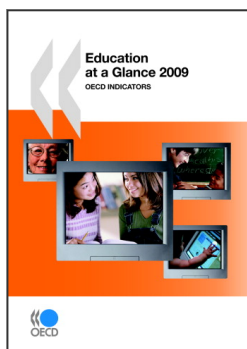
	Number of foreign students							
	2007	2006	2005	2004	2003	2002	2001	2000
Foreign students enrolled worldwide	3 021 106	2 924 679	2 846 423	2 697 283	2 507 551	2 267 148	1 978 507	1 901 188
Foreign students enrolled in OECD countries	2 522 757	2 440 657	2 368 931	2 265 135	2 085 263	1 897 866	1 642 676	1 583 744

	Index of change (2007)						
	2006=100	2005=100	2004=100	2003=100	2002=100	2001=100	2000=100
Foreign students enrolled worldwide	103	106	112	120	133	153	159
Foreign students enrolled in OECD countries	103	106	111	121	133	154	159

Note: Figures are based on the number of foreign students enrolled in OECD and partner countries reporting data to the OECD and UNESCO Institute for Statistics, in order to provide a global picture of foreign students worldwide. The coverage of these reporting countries has evolved over time, therefore missing data have been imputed wherever necessary to ensure the comparability of time series over time. Given the inclusion of UNESCO data for partner countries and the imputation of missing data, the estimates of the number of foreign students may differ from those published in previous editions of *Education at a Glance*.

Source: OECD and UNESCO Institute for Statistics for most data on non-OECD countries. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2009).

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