

WHO STUDIES ABROAD AND WHERE?

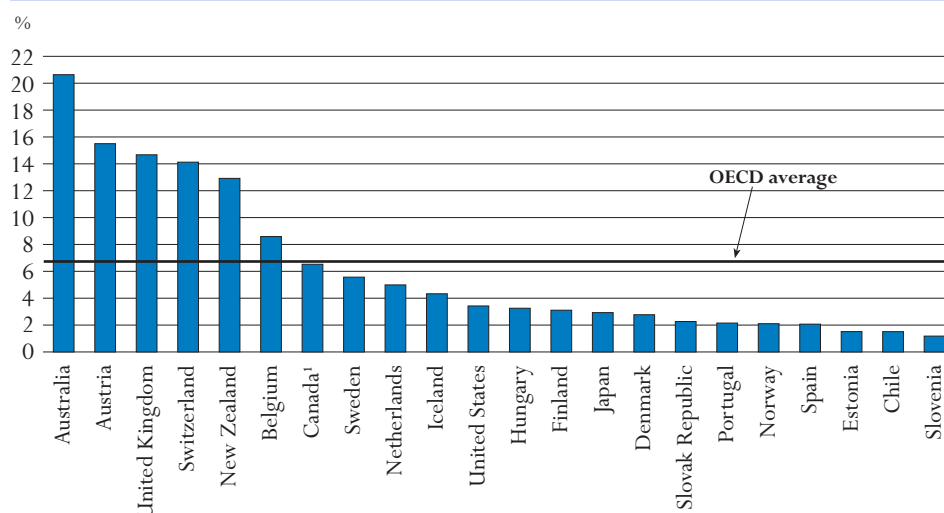
The proportion of international students in tertiary enrolments provides a good indication of the magnitude of student mobility in OECD and partner countries. This indicator shows global trends and highlights the main destinations of international students and trends in market shares of the international student pool. It discusses some of the factors underlying students' choices of a country in which to study, and presents the distribution of international students by country and region of origin, type of programme, and field 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.

Key results

Chart C2.1. Student mobility in tertiary education (2008)

This chart shows the percentage of international students in tertiary enrolments.


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 more than 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. Year of reference 2007.

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/eag2010).

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Other highlights of this indicator

- In 2008, over 3.3 million tertiary students were enrolled outside their country of citizenship. This represented a 10.7% increase from the previous year in total foreign student intake reported to the OECD and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics.
- Australia, France, Germany, the United Kingdom and the United States receive more than 50% of all foreign students worldwide. The largest numbers of international students from OECD countries are from France, Germany, Japan, Korea, Turkey and the United States. However, in absolute terms the largest numbers of international students are from China and India.
- International students make up 10% or more of the enrolments in tertiary education in Australia, Austria, New Zealand, Switzerland and the United Kingdom. They account for more than 20% of enrolments in advanced research programmes in Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, New Zealand, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States.
- In Canada, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Sweden, Switzerland, the United States and the partner country Slovenia, 30% or more of international students are enrolled in sciences, agriculture or engineering.

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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 demand for international sharing of education and training. As world economies become increasingly interconnected, the international skills needed to operate on a global scale have become increasingly important. Globally oriented firms seek internationally-competent workers who speak foreign languages and have the intercultural skills needed to successfully interact with international partners. Governments as well as individuals are looking to higher education to broaden students' horizons and help them to better understand 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 education institutions in countries other than their own. Several OECD governments have set up schemes and policies to promote mobility as a means of fostering intercultural contacts and building social networks for the future. This intention is especially clear in countries of the European Union that participate in the Bologna process aiming to reach a benchmark of 20% of all graduating students with a study or training period abroad by 2020 (see Indicator A3).

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 the offer of education programmes. 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 in services as a result of revenue from tuition fees and domestic consumption by international students. Along with student mobility, the cross-border electronic delivery of flexible educational programmes as well as campuses abroad are also relevant to the trade dimension of international tertiary education, although comparable data do not yet exist.

The economic impact of the internationalisation of tertiary education goes beyond the short-term monetary costs and benefits that are reflected in current account balance of services. It can provide an opportunity for smaller and/or less-developed education systems to improve the cost efficiency of their education provision. In fact, training opportunities abroad may constitute a cost-efficient alternative to national provision and allow countries to focus limited resources on educational programmes with potential economies of scale 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 – has intensified the financial pressures on education systems and led to greater interest in recruiting foreign students as tertiary institutions increasingly rely on revenues from foreign tuition fees which are often higher than for national students (see Indicator B5). In other cases, countries encourage education abroad as a way to address unmet demand resulting from bottlenecks caused by the uneven expansion of the education system. In the past years, the rise in the knowledge economy and the global competition for skills and competencies have provided a new driver for the internationalisation of education systems in many OECD countries. The enrolment of foreign students can be part of a broader strategy to recruit highly skilled immigrants or to redistribute the labour force within a common labour market, such as that of the European Union.

At the institutional level, the additional revenue which foreign students may generate – through differentiated tuition fees or public subsidies – helps to promote international education. 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 their programmes curricula and teaching methods have to be adapted to a culturally and linguistically diverse student body and to increase the international comparability of programmes. Such constraints are, however, outweighed by numerous benefits to host institutions. To attract international students, institutions offer programmes that stand out among competitors and this may lead to a more flexible, highly reactive, demand-driven quality tertiary education that responds to changing needs. International enrolments can also help institutions to reach the critical mass needed to diversify 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 and thereby restrict 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 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 the financial support they offer international students. The cost of living 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.

In the current economic crisis, decisions about studying abroad are likely to face a trade-off between opportunity costs considerations and the possibility to finance education. In countries with more stable currencies the first argument may prevail whereas individuals in countries with depreciated currencies or from a population affected by the crisis may choose less expensive countries and public rather than private institutions (OECD, 2008). At the institutional level, if the crisis has led to a shortage of public and private funds, competition for tuition fees from international students may increase.

The number of students enrolled in countries other than their own can provide an indication of the ongoing internationalisation of tertiary education. With this in mind, it will be important to develop ways to quantify and measure other aspects of cross-border education in the future.

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* 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, the definition of foreign students includes permanent residents in the country of study as a result of immigration – their own or that of their parents. This

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results in an overestimation of the number of foreign students in countries with comparatively low rates of naturalisation of their immigrant populations. 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 revision the term “international students” refers to students who have crossed borders specifically with the intention to study.

However, the measurement of student mobility depends to a large extent on countries’ immigration legislation, mobility arrangements and available data. 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 education 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 international student mobility, 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 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.

Trends in foreign student numbers

In 2008, 3.3 million tertiary students were enrolled outside their country of citizenship, of whom 2.7 million (79.1%) studied in the OECD area. This represented a 10.7% increase of 322 000 individuals in total foreign enrolments worldwide since the previous year. In the OECD area the increase was smaller at 4.9%. Since 2000, the number of foreign tertiary students enrolled worldwide increased by 85%, for an average annual increase of 11 percentage points, and by 67% in the OECD area, for an average annual increase of 8 percentage points. Since 2005 the rate of growth in non-OECD destinations is higher than in OECD member countries, this reflects the increasing preference to study in emerging countries (Table C2.6).

Compared to 2000, the number of foreign students enrolled in tertiary education more than doubled in Australia, Chile, the Czech Republic, Finland, Greece, Iceland, Italy, Korea, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Poland, the Slovak Republic, Spain and the partner countries Estonia,

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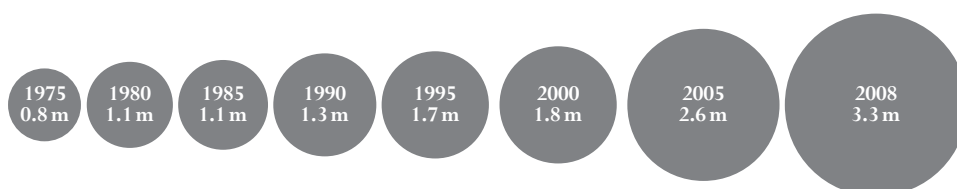
the Russian Federation and Slovenia. In contrast, the number of foreign students enrolled in Belgium and Turkey grew by less than 25% (Table C2.1). Changes in foreign student numbers between 2000 and 2008 indicate that, on average, the number of foreign students has grown faster in the OECD area than in the EU19 countries, by 163% and 120%, 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 3.3 million in 2008, a more than fourfold increase. Growth in the internationalisation of tertiary education has accelerated during the past 13 years, mirroring 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 to promote and nurture 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 communications made economies and societies increasingly interdependent during the 1980s and 1990s. The trend was particularly marked in the high-technology sector and in the labour market, as the internationalisation of labour markets for the highly skilled gave individuals an incentive to gain international experience as part of their studies. The spread of information and communication technologies (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 (1975-2008, in millions)



Source: OECD and UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

Data on foreign enrolment worldwide come from both the OECD and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS). UIS provided the data on all countries for 1975-95 and most of the partner countries for 2000, 2005 and 2008. The OECD provided the data on OECD countries and the other partner economies in 2000, 2005 and 2008. 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.

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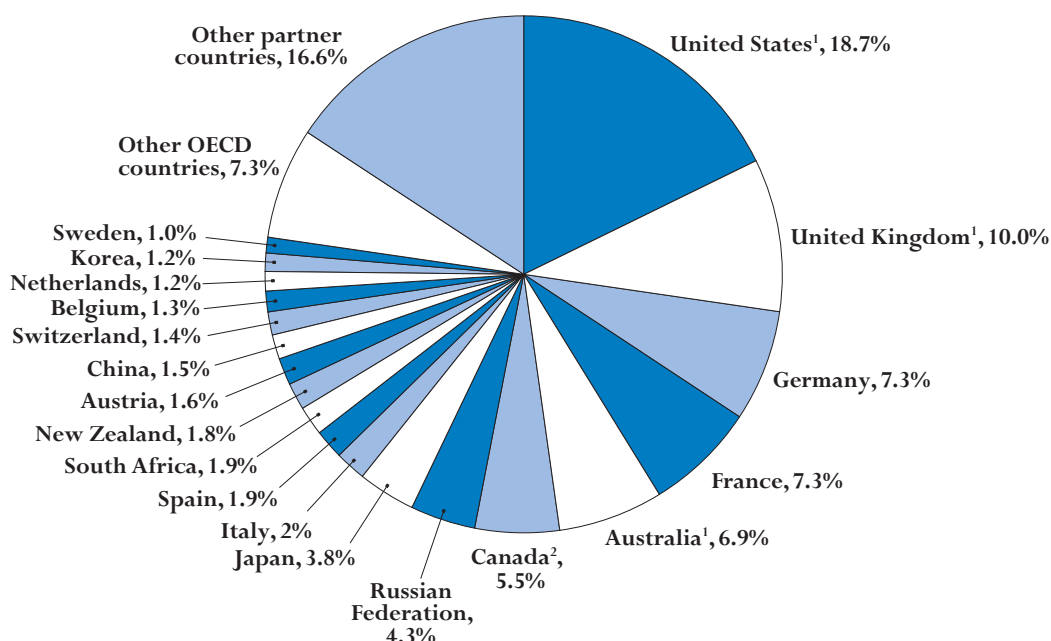
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Major destinations of foreign students

In 2008, one out of two foreign students went to the five 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 almost 19% of all foreign students worldwide, followed by the United Kingdom (10%), Germany (7%), France (7%) and Australia (7%). Although these destinations account for the bulk of all tertiary students pursuing their studies abroad (50%), some new players on the international education market have emerged within and beyond the OECD area in the past few years (Chart C2.2 and Table C2.7 available on line). Besides the five major destinations, significant numbers of foreign students were enrolled in Canada (6%), Italy (2%), Japan (4%) and the partner country the Russian Federation (4%) in 2008. 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 (2008)


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 2007.

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/eqq2010).

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The emergence of new players on the international education market

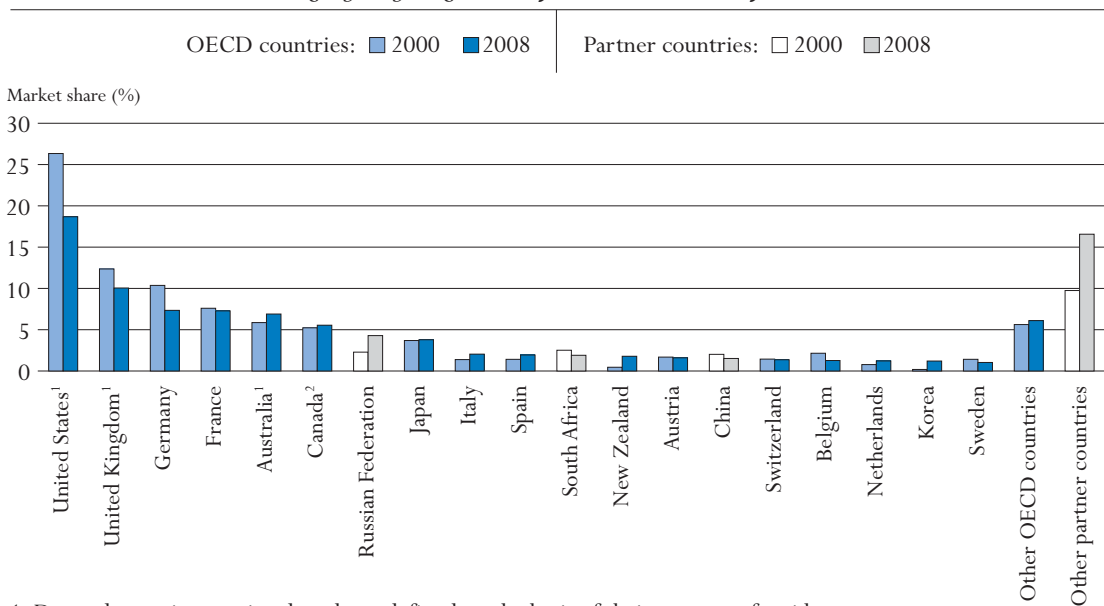
The examination of country-specific trends in the shares of the international education market – measured as a percentage of all foreign students worldwide enrolled at a given destination – sheds light on the dynamics of the internationalisation of tertiary education. Over an eight-year period, the share of the United States as a preferred destination dropped from 26% to 19%.

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The decline was around three percentage points for Germany, two percentage points for the United Kingdom and one percentage point for Belgium. For France, South Africa and Sweden, as well as for China, it was about one-half of a percentage point. In contrast, the shares of Australia, Korea and New Zealand expanded by around one percentage point. The impressive growth in the partner country the Russian Federation (two percentage points) makes it an important new player on the international education market (Chart C2.3). These changes reflect the different emphases of countries' internationalisation policies, which range from proactive marketing policies in the Asia-Pacific region to a more local and university-driven 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, 2008)

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 2007 instead of 2008.

Countries are ranked in descending order of 2008 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/eqa2010).

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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. Countries whose language of instruction is widely spoken and read (e.g. English, French, German and Russian) are therefore 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, of whom 93.3% 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) reflects the progressive adoption of English as a global language. It may also be because students intending to study abroad are likely to have learned English in their home country and/or wish to improve their English language skills through immersion in a native English-speaking context. The rapid increase in foreign enrolments in Australia (index change of 218), Canada (196) and, most importantly, New Zealand (726) between 2000 and 2008 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 countries in which the use of English is widespread, such as the Nordic countries (Box C2.2).

**Box C2.2. OECD and partner countries
offering tertiary programmes in English (2008)**

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
<p><i>Note:</i> The extent to which a country offers a few or many programmes in English takes into account the size of the country. Hence France and Germany are classified among countries with comparatively few English programmes, although they have more English programmes than Sweden in absolute terms.</p> <p>1. In Canada, tertiary institutions are either French- (mostly Quebec) or English-speaking.</p> <p>2. Masters programmes.</p> <p>3. At the discretion of tertiary education institutions.</p> <p><i>Source:</i> OECD, compiled from brochures for prospective international students by OAD (Austria), CHES and NARIC (Czech Republic), Cirus (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).</p>	

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, Finland, France, Germany, Ireland, Italy, the Netherlands, the Slovak Republic, Spain, Sweden, the United Kingdom and the partner country Estonia), international students from other EU countries are treated as domestic students in terms of tuition fees. In Ireland, this is on condition that the EU student has lived in Ireland for three out of the previous five years. If this condition is satisfied, the EU student is eligible for free tuition in a particular academic year. In Finland, Germany and Italy, this applies 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 been introduced at public tertiary institutions as well. In Denmark, students from Nordic partner countries (Norway and

Iceland) and EU countries are treated like domestic students and thus pay no fees (fully subsidised). Most international students from non-EU or non-EEA countries, however, have to pay the full tuition fee, although a limited number of talented students from non-EU/EEA countries can get scholarships covering all or part of their tuition fees (Box C2.3).

Among some non-EU countries (Iceland, Japan, Korea, Norway, the United States and the partner country the Russian Federation), the same treatment applies to all domestic and international students. In Norway, tuition fees are equal for domestic and international students: no fees in public institutions, but fees in some private institutions. In Iceland, all students have to pay registration fees, and students in private schools also have to pay tuition fees. In Japan, all students (domestic and international) are generally charged the full tuition fee, but international students with Japanese government scholarships do not have to pay tuition fees and many scholarships are available for privately financed international students. In Korea, tuition fees and subsidies for mobile students vary depending on the contract between their school of origin and the school they attend in Korea. In general, most international students in Korea pay tuition fees that are somewhat lower than those paid by domestic students. In New Zealand (except in advanced research programmes) international students generally pay full tuition fees (*i.e.* unsubsidised). However, international students from Australia, a partner country of New Zealand, receive the same subsidies as domestic students. All other international students have to pay full tuition fees (*i.e.* unsubsidised). In Australia and Canada, all international students pay full tuition fees. This is true also in the partner country the Russian Federation unless students are subsidised by the Russian government.

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 2008 (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 (see Table B1.1a). For this reason, Denmark (which previously had no tuition fees) 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 100% and 35% respectively between 2000 and 2008.

Box C2.3. Structure of tuition fees

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, ² 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, ⁴ Spain
No tuition fees for either international or domestic students	Finland, Iceland, Norway, Sweden
<p>1. For non-European Union or non-European Economic Area students. 2. Except students in advanced research programmes, or students from Australia. 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. 4. Some institutions charge higher tuition fees for international students. Source: OECD, Indicator B5. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2010).</p>	

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 socioeconomic development strategy 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 the same high tuition fees for domestic and international students, foreign enrolments nevertheless grew robustly between 2000 and 2008 (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 from developing countries. In this respect, the comparatively small rise in foreign enrolments in the United Kingdom and the United States between 2000 and 2008 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 lower cost. In New Zealand, the attractiveness of advanced research programmes has increased notably since 2005 due to the reduction of tuition fees for international students to the level paid by domestic students (Box C2.3).

A factor that can 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), Chile, Finland, Iceland, the Netherlands, Norway and Sweden, 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 students' destinations

In recent years, several OECD countries have eased 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 permit 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 market share.

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, 20.6% of tertiary students have come to the country in order to pursue their studies. Similarly, international students represent 15.5% of total tertiary enrolments in Austria, 12.9% in New Zealand, 14.1% in Switzerland and 14.7% in the United Kingdom. In contrast, incoming student mobility is less than 2% of total tertiary enrolments in Chile and the partner countries Estonia and Slovenia (Table C2.1 and Chart C2.1).

Among countries for which data based on the preferred definition of mobile students are not available, foreign enrolments constitute a large group of tertiary students in France (11.2%) and Germany (10.9%), an indication of significant levels of incoming student mobility. However foreign enrolments represent 1% or less of total tertiary enrolments in Poland and Turkey (Table C2.1).

Proportion of international students at different levels and types of tertiary education

The proportion of international students in different types 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 Denmark, Japan, New Zealand, Portugal and Spain, tertiary-type B programmes are far less internationalised than tertiary-type A programmes. This indicates that international students are mostly attracted to traditional academic programmes for which degree transferability is often easier. With the exception of Greece this observation also holds true for countries for which data using the preferred definition of student mobility are not available (Table C2.1).

Most 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, Chile, Iceland, Japan, New Zealand, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, the United Kingdom, the United States and the partner country Slovenia, as well as in France and Korea, countries for which data using the preferred definition of student mobility are not available. This may be due to the attractiveness of advanced research programmes in these countries or to a preference for recruitment of international students at higher levels of education to profit from 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

Main 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: 49.9% of the total in all reporting destinations (48.9% of the total in OECD countries, and 53.8% 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 (24.5%), particularly EU citizens (16.8%). Students from Africa account for 10.1% of all international students, while those from North America account for only 3.7%. Finally, students from South America represent 5.3% of the total. Altogether 31% 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 OECD students enrolled in OECD countries, at 2.4%, 3.4%, 2.1% and 4.6% of the total, respectively, followed by students from Canada and the United States at 1.8% in both cases (Table C2.2).

Among international students originating from non-member countries, students from China represent by far the largest group, with 17.1% 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 15.3%, respectively, of all international Chinese students studying abroad. In the OECD countries, students from China are followed by those from India (6.8%), Malaysia (1.8%), Morocco (1.6%), the Russian Federation (1.3%) and Viet Nam (1.3%). A significant number of Asian students studying abroad also come from Indonesia, the Islamic Republic of Iran, Pakistan, Singapore and Thailand.

Proportion of international students by level and type of tertiary education

The proportion of international students by level and type of tertiary education highlights the specialisation of countries in their programme offer. In some countries, a comparatively large proportion of international students are enrolled in tertiary-type B programmes. This is the case in Belgium (31.1%), Canada (21.4%), Chile (32.7%), Japan (21.6%), New Zealand (26.2%) and Spain (34.6%). In Greece, for which 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 (40.3%) (Table C2.4).

In other countries, a large proportion of international students enrol in advanced research programmes. This is particularly true in Spain (23.1%), Switzerland (26.3%) and the United States (20.7%). 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 Finland (14.8%), Japan (10.5%), Portugal (12.9%), the Slovak Republic (10.8%), Sweden (17.5%) and the United Kingdom (10.0%). Among countries for which 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 (11.5%). 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 can generate higher tuition revenue per international student in the countries charging full tuition costs to foreign students (Box C2.3).

Proportion of international students by field of education

It is possible to use the proportion of international students by field of education to identify magnet centres. The distribution is linked to a wide variety of factors ranging from linguistic

considerations and the recognition of degrees to the existence of centres of excellence or expertise in countries of destination.

As shown in Table C2.5, sciences attract at least 1 in 6 international students in Germany (16.9%), Iceland (17.2%), New Zealand (20.5%) and the United States (19.7%), but fewer than 1 in 50 in Japan (1.3%). However, the picture changes slightly when agriculture, engineering, manufacturing and construction programmes are included among scientific disciplines. Sweden receives 50.1% of its international students in these fields. The proportion of international students enrolled in agriculture, sciences or engineering is also high in Canada (32.2%), Denmark (31.0%), Finland (43.3%), Germany (38.9%), New Zealand (29.4%), Switzerland (33.2%), the United Kingdom (28.9%), the United States (36.7%) and the partner country Slovenia (30.9%). Similarly, among countries for which data using the preferred definition of mobile students are not available, agriculture, sciences and engineering attract at least 28% of foreign students in France (29.2%). In contrast, few international students are enrolled in agriculture, sciences and engineering in Spain (Chart C2.4).

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

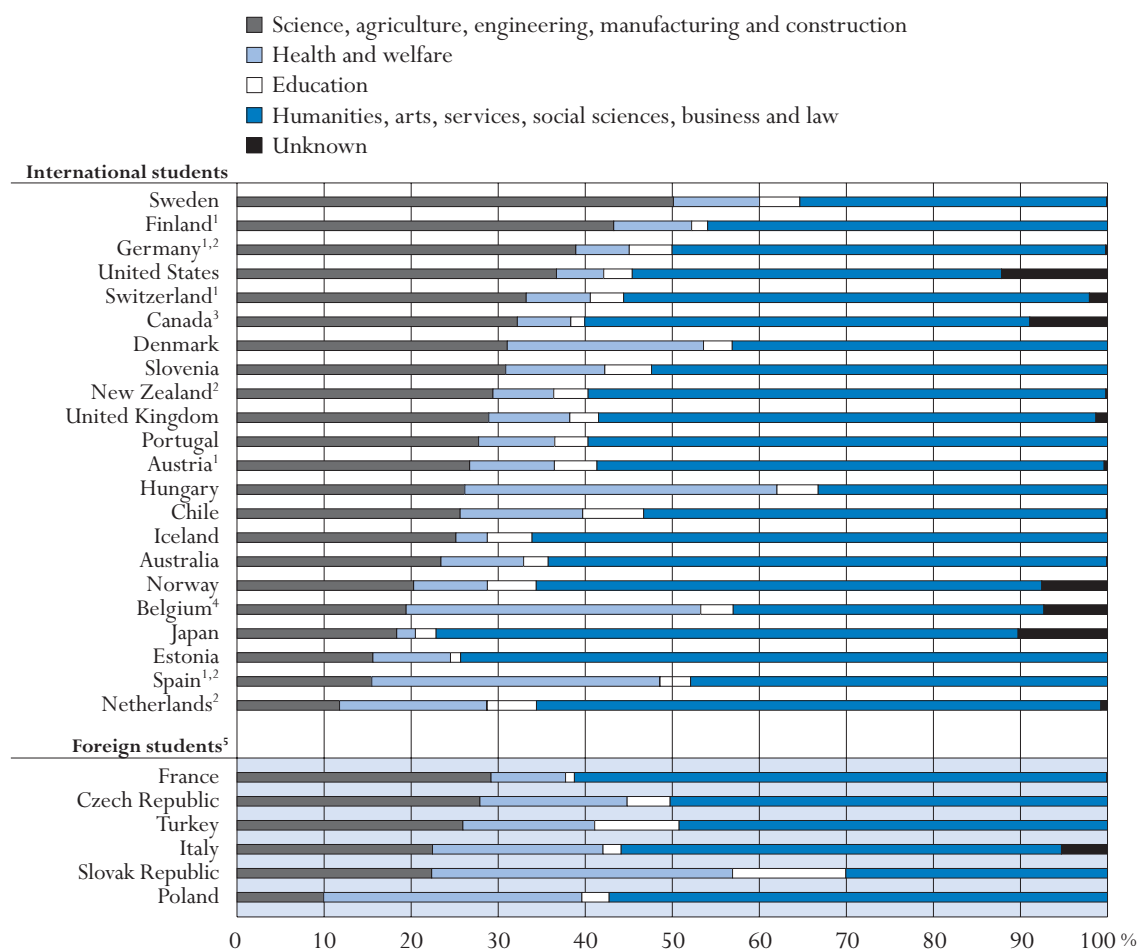
Non-English-speaking countries tend to enrol a higher proportion of international students in the humanities and the arts, the areas favoured by over 20% of the international students in Germany (21.2%), Iceland (41.7%), Japan (24.5%) and Norway (21.4%).

Social sciences, business and law programmes also attract international students in large numbers. In Australia, the Netherlands and the partner country Estonia, these fields enrol around half of all international students (at 55.8%, 46.4% and 54.4%, respectively). Among countries for which data using the preferred definition of mobile students are not available, France (40.1%) has the largest proportion of their foreign students enrolled in these subjects.

Enrolments in health and welfare programmes depend to a large extent on national policies relating to recognition of medical degrees. These programmes attract large proportions of international students in EU countries, most notably in Belgium (33.8%) and Hungary (35.9%). Among countries for which data using the preferred definition of mobile students are not available, health and welfare programmes are also chosen by around one-third of foreign students in Poland (29.7%) and the Slovak Republic (34.6%). Because many European countries impose quotas that restrict access to educational programmes in the medical field, this increases the demand for training in other EU countries in order 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 is due to many factors on both the supply and demand side.

On the supply side, some destinations offer centres of excellence or traditional expertise that 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, France, Germany and Japan).

Chart C2.4. Distribution of international and foreign students, by field of education (2008)*This chart shows the percentage of international students in tertiary enrolments*

1. Excludes tertiary-type B programmes.

2. Excludes advanced research programmes.

3. Year of reference 2007.

4. Excludes data for social advancement education.

5. Data on foreign students 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/eq2010).StatLink <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932310434>

On the demand side, the characteristics of international students can help to explain their concentration in certain fields of tertiary education. For instance, the almost universal use of English in scientific literature may explain why students in scientific disciplines are more likely to study in countries offering education programmes in English and less likely 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

For tertiary education outside of their country of citizenship, OECD students enrol predominantly in another country of the OECD area. On average, only 5.1% 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 25% of foreign students from Estonia, Indonesia, Israel and the Russian Federation enrolled in another partner country. In contrast, students from Iceland (0.1%), Ireland (0.4%), Luxembourg (0.2%) and the Slovak Republic (0.3%) display an extremely low propensity to study outside of the OECD area (Table C2.3).

Language and cultural 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, etc. Language issues as well as academic traditions also shed light on the propensity for English-speaking students to concentrate in other countries of the Commonwealth or in the United States, even those that are geographically distant. This is also true for other historic geopolitical areas as the former Soviet Union, the Francophonie and Latin America. 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 for reasons 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 79.6% 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 2007-08 and are based on the UOE data collection on education statistics administered by the OECD in 2009 (for details see Annex 3 at www.oecd.org/edu/eag2010). 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/eag2010).

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 – 23.6% and 20.3%, respectively – these proportions reflect significant differences in the actual levels of student mobility – 20.6% of tertiary enrolments in Australia and 14.1% 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.* interuniversity 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 OECD countries except Chile, Luxembourg and Mexico and the partner countries Estonia, the Russian Federation and Slovenia, as well as 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. The data do not include students enrolled in 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 enrolments at each level of tertiary education. Total enrolments, used as a denominator, comprise all persons studying in the country (including domestic and international students), but exclude students from that country who study abroad. The table also shows changes in foreign enrolments between 2000 and 2008 for all tertiary education.

Tables C2.2, C2.4 and 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 (Table C2.2), according to their level and type of tertiary education (Table C2.4), and according to their field of education (Table C2.5).

Table C2.3 presents the distribution of citizens of a given country (*i.e.* foreign students) 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 2008, and the indexes of change between 2008 and the years from 2000 to 2007. 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 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 education institutions and contribute to the financing of the education system. International students may represent a heavy 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).

OECD (2004), *Internationalisation and Trade in Higher Education: Opportunities and Challenges*, OECD Publishing.

OECD (2008), *OECD Review of Tertiary Education: Tertiary Education for the Knowledge Society*, OECD Publishing.

Kelo, M., U. Teichler and B. Wächter (eds.) (2005), “EURODATA: Student Mobility in European Higher Education”, Verlags and Mediengesellschaft, Bonn.

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

StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932310434>

- *Table C2.7. Number of foreign students in tertiary education, by country of origin and destination (2008) and market shares in international education (2000, 2008)*

Table C2.1.

Student mobility and foreign students in tertiary education (2000, 2008)

International 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: 20.6% of all students in tertiary education in Australia are international students and 14.1% of all students in tertiary education in Switzerland are international students.

Reading the fifth column: 23.6% of all students in tertiary education in Australia are not Australian citizens, and 20.3% of all students in tertiary education in Switzerland are not Swiss citizens.

	Student mobility				Foreign enrolments					
	International students as a percentage of all tertiary enrolment				Foreign students as a percentage of all tertiary enrolment				Index of change in the number of foreign students, total tertiary (2000 = 100)	
	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	20.6	18.6	20.9	23.3	23.6	18.9	24.1	33.8	218
	Austria	15.5	4.9	15.8	23.5	18.7	11.4	18.8	26.0	176
	Belgium ¹	8.6	6.3	9.7	21.4	12.2	9.0	13.7	31.2	109
	Canada ^{2, 3}	6.5	4.5	6.9	20.2	13.1	9.6	13.7	38.6	196
	Chile	1.5	1.3	1.6	12.3	1.5	1.3	1.6	12.3	350
	Czech Republic	m	m	m	m	7.1	1.1	7.5	9.9	510
	Denmark	2.8	4.0	2.5	4.6	8.3	11.4	7.6	16.5	149
	Finland	3.1	n	2.8	6.6	3.7	n	3.3	8.5	203
	France	m	m	m	m	11.2	4.1	12.4	39.8	178
	Germany	m	m	9.3	m	10.9	3.6	12.2	m	131
	Greece ⁴	m	m	m	m	4.1	4.5	4.1	m	304
	Hungary	3.3	0.3	3.4	6.8	3.7	0.5	3.9	7.7	156
	Iceland	4.3	1.2	4.2	15.9	4.9	2.1	4.8	17.4	202
	Ireland	m	x(1)	x(1)	x(1)	7.2	x(5)	x(5)	x(5)	173
	Italy	m	m	m	m	3.0	m	2.9	7.0	274
	Japan	2.9	2.9	2.6	16.2	3.2	2.9	3.0	16.9	190
	Korea	m	m	m	m	1.3	0.6	1.4	6.6	1 195
	Luxembourg	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Mexico	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Netherlands ⁴	5.0	n	5.1	m	6.8	n	6.9	m	291
	New Zealand	12.9	12.5	12.4	31.3	24.4	22.3	24.4	46.9	726
	Norway	2.1	1.4	2.0	4.2	7.6	3.4	7.1	25.0	185
	Poland	m	m	m	m	0.7	n	0.7	2.6	244
	Portugal	2.1	2.2	2.0	6.5	4.9	9.0	4.7	11.0	175
	Slovak Republic	2.3	0.5	2.1	5.2	2.4	0.6	2.2	5.5	344
	Spain	2.1	5.3	1.1	12.7	3.6	5.3	2.4	24.0	255
	Sweden	5.6	0.5	5.1	19.7	8.5	4.1	7.9	23.7	135
	Switzerland ⁴	14.1	n	14.6	46.0	20.3	18.5	17.9	45.9	175
	Turkey	m	m	m	m	0.8	0.1	1.0	2.7	115
	United Kingdom	14.7	5.9	16.0	42.0	19.9	12.3	20.8	47.7	151
	United States	3.4	1.0	3.4	28.1	m	m	m	m	131
	OECD average	6.7	3.6	6.8	18.2	8.5	6.0	8.6	21.1	263
	EU19 average	5.9	2.7	6.2	14.9	7.6	4.8	7.8	18.6	220
Partner countries	Brazil	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Estonia	1.5	0.3	2.1	3.3	3.6	3.3	3.6	4.7	281
	Israel	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Russian Federation ^{3, 4}	m	m	m	m	1.4	0.4	1.7	m	348
	Slovenia	1.2	0.5	1.5	7.3	1.5	0.8	1.7	8.8	215

1. Excludes data for social advancement education.

2. Year of reference 2007 instead of 2008.

3. Excludes private institutions.

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

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2010).

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


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932310434>

Table C2.2.

Distribution of international and foreign students in tertiary education, by country of origin (2008)

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 second column: 0.7% of international tertiary students in Canada come from Germany, 0.1% of international tertiary students in Canada come from Greece, etc.

Reading the sixth column: 3.7% of international tertiary students in Ireland come from Germany, 0.4% of international tertiary students in Ireland come from Greece, etc.

Reading the 16th column: 32.7% 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		
		Australia	Canada ^{1,2}	Denmark	Germany ^{3,4}	Iceland	Ireland	Netherlands ⁴	New Zealand	Portugal	Slovak Republic	Spain ³	Sweden	Switzerland ³	United Kingdom	United States	Austria ^{3,5}	Belgium ^{5,6}	Chile ⁵
Countries of origin	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	
OECD countries	Australia	a	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.7	0.6	n	8.9	0.1	n	n	0.2	0.1	0.5	0.5	0.2	n	n
	Austria	0.1	0.1	0.2	2.5	1.8	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.2	1.3	0.2	0.2	0.9	0.4	0.1	a	0.1	n
	Belgium	n	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.1	0.5	3.2	n	0.8	0.1	0.8	0.1	0.3	0.7	0.1	0.2	a	n
	Canada	1.9	a	0.4	0.3	1.9	4.5	0.2	1.4	0.5	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.4	1.5	4.7	0.2	0.2	0.1
	Chile	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.1	n	n	0.2	n	n	2.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.2	a
	Czech Republic	n	n	0.4	0.9	1.4	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	49.8	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.1	1.2	0.1	n
	Denmark	0.1	0.1	a	0.2	6.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	n	0.1	0.1	0.7	0.1	0.5	0.1	0.2	0.1	n
	Finland	n	n	1.4	0.3	5.8	0.3	0.3	0.1	n	0.1	0.1	5.0	0.1	0.5	0.1	0.3	0.1	n
	France	0.4	5.3	0.7	2.7	6.7	3.5	1.3	1.1	3.9	0.1	2.2	1.0	6.2	3.8	1.1	1.0	39.2	0.4
	Germany	0.8	0.7	4.9	a	12.4	3.7	41.0	4.1	1.9	4.2	2.1	2.8	10.6	4.1	1.4	32.7	1.6	0.6
	Greece	n	0.1	0.5	1.2	0.1	0.4	0.3	n	0.2	7.3	0.2	0.7	0.3	3.8	0.3	0.6	1.0	n
	Hungary	n	n	0.5	1.0	1.0	0.2	0.5	n	0.1	1.5	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.1	2.6	0.2	n
	Iceland	n	n	13.2	n	a	a	0.1	n	n	n	n	0.6	n	0.1	0.1	n	n	n
	Ireland	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.4	a	0.1	0.1	n	0.3	0.2	0.2	n	4.5	0.2	0.1	0.1	n
	Italy	0.1	0.2	1.0	1.8	3.6	1.8	0.6	0.1	1.5	0.3	2.7	0.7	2.8	1.7	0.6	12.6	4.1	0.2
	Japan	1.3	1.7	0.1	1.0	0.7	0.5	0.2	2.6	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.3	1.3	5.4	0.7	0.3	n
	Korea	2.7	0.1	0.1	2.1	n	0.4	0.2	n	n	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	1.2	11.1	0.8	0.1	0.3
	Luxembourg	n	n	n	1.4	n	0.1	0.1	n	0.4	n	0.1	n	0.4	0.2	n	1.0	3.8	n
	Mexico	0.2	1.2	0.4	0.7	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	n	5.2	0.4	0.2	0.4	2.4	0.2	0.2	1.3
	Netherlands	0.1	m	0.4	0.4	1.3	0.5	a	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.9	0.3	0.4	9.5	n
	New Zealand	0.9	0.1	n	n	0.1	0.1	n	a	n	n	n	n	n	0.2	0.2	n	n	n
Norway	0.6	0.2	21.3	0.2	3.3	0.7	0.4	0.5	n	3.9	0.1	1.6	0.1	0.8	0.2	0.1	n	0.1	
Poland	0.1	0.2	4.2	5.6	4.3	1.6	1.4	n	0.8	1.5	0.6	0.8	0.5	2.6	0.4	3.1	1.2	n	
Portugal	n	0.1	0.2	0.2	n	0.3	0.2	n	a	0.2	5.5	0.3	0.2	0.8	0.1	0.2	1.8	n	
Slovak Republic	n	n	0.3	0.6	1.0	0.1	0.2	n	0.2	a	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.1	2.8	0.2	n	
Spain	0.1	0.1	0.7	2.0	4.0	1.5	0.8	0.1	5.4	0.2	a	0.6	0.6	1.7	0.6	0.9	2.1	0.6	
Sweden	0.4	0.1	13.8	0.3	6.1	0.6	0.3	0.4	0.1	0.9	0.2	a	0.2	1.0	0.5	0.3	0.1	0.1	
Switzerland	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.9	1.5	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.7	0.2	0.6	0.1	a	0.6	0.2	1.3	0.2	n	
Turkey	0.1	0.6	0.9	3.6	0.6	0.3	0.6	0.1	0.3	0.1	n	0.8	0.6	0.7	1.9	4.4	0.7	n	
United Kingdom	0.7	1.0	0.6	0.6	4.7	11.1	0.7	1.4	0.8	0.8	1.2	0.5	0.3	a	1.3	0.5	0.6	0.1	
United States	1.3	8.9	1.3	1.6	5.0	21.9	0.4	7.3	0.9	0.4	1.2	0.8	0.8	4.1	a	1.1	0.5	0.6	
Total from OECD countries		12.5	22.1	68.4	33.4	75.1	56.3	54.1	29.8	19.7	73.9	26.3	19.8	27.2	39.6	34.7	69.8	68.6	4.7
Partner countries	Brazil	0.3	0.5	0.3	1.0	0.6	0.1	0.2	0.3	21.1	n	2.6	0.2	0.5	0.4	1.2	0.2	0.4	1.9
	China	25.0	22.7	12.0	12.4	3.8	8.4	5.4	31.2	0.5	0.4	0.3	8.5	0.9	13.5	17.7	2.7	2.5	0.4
	Estonia	n	n	0.9	0.3	1.1	0.1	0.1	n	n	n	0.1	0.4	n	0.2	n	0.1	n	n
	India	11.5	3.5	2.4	1.8	0.4	3.4	0.2	13.0	0.3	0.1	0.1	3.0	0.5	7.7	15.2	0.6	0.7	n
	Indonesia	4.4	0.8	0.1	0.9	0.3	0.1	1.4	0.9	0.1	0.1	m	0.2	n	0.3	1.2	0.1	0.2	n
	Israel	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.7	n	0.1	0.2	n	0.1	2.6	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.5	0.2	0.1	0.1
	Russian Federation	0.3	0.5	0.9	5.1	2.8	0.6	0.7	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.3	1.1	0.8	0.8	0.8	1.1	1.4	0.1
	Slovenia	n	n	n	0.2	n	0.1	0.1	n	n	n	n	n	n	0.1	n	1.2	0.1	n
	South Africa	0.3	0.1	n	0.1	n	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.5	n	m	0.1	0.1	0.5	0.3	0.1	0.1	n
Main geographic regions																			
Total from Africa		3.2	11.3	2.6	9.1	1.8	4.6	2.2	1.0	51.1	1.4	6.5	4.6	2.8	9.6	5.7	1.5	16.5	0.1
Total from Asia		79.3	47.6	21.4	33.0	8.9	27.5	10.4	66.9	2.8	15.6	1.4	27.7	4.1	47.9	67.2	13.3	8.6	1.1
Total from Europe		4.4	11.1	72.1	43.6	79.2	30.2	56.1	10.1	20.2	81.9	22.7	20.8	28.5	33.3	11.2	82.5	70.9	2.5
of which, from EU19 countries		3.2	8.6	30.1	22.3	61.0	26.7	51.6	8.3	16.8	68.7	16.9	14.1	24.3	28.1	7.8	60.6	66.0	2.2
Total from North America		3.2	9.5	1.7	1.9	7.1	26.4	0.6	8.8	1.4	0.5	1.2	1.3	1.1	5.7	4.7	1.3	0.7	0.7
Total from Oceania		1.8	0.4	0.2	0.2	1.0	n	0.1	12.2	0.1	n	n	0.2	0.1	0.7	0.8	0.2	n	n
Total from South America		1.2	7.4	1.3	4.1	2.1	0.9	1.8	1.1	23.6	0.6	28.3	1.6	2.1	2.3	10.3	1.2	2.4	39.0
Not specified		6.9	12.7	0.6	8.0	n	10.4	29.0	n	0.8	n	39.8	43.9	61.3	0.6	n	0.1	0.9	56.5
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	100.0

1. Year of reference 2007.

2. Excludes private institutions.

3. Excludes tertiary-type B programmes.

4. Excludes advanced research programmes.

5. 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.

6. Excludes data for social advancement education.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2010).

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


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932310434>

Table C2.2. (continued)

Distribution of international and foreign students in tertiary education, by country of origin (2008)

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 second column: 0.7% of international tertiary students in Canada come from Germany, 0.1% of international tertiary students in Canada come from Greece, etc.

Reading the sixth column: 3.7% of international tertiary students in Ireland come from Germany, 0.4% of international tertiary students in Ireland come from Greece, etc.

Reading the 16th column: 32.7% of foreign tertiary students in Austria are German citizens, 0.6% of foreign tertiary students in Austria are Greek citizens, etc.

		Countries of destination																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																
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		Czech Republic ⁵	Finland ⁵	France ⁵	Greece ⁵	Hungary ⁵	Italy ⁵	Japan ⁵	Korea ⁵	Norway ⁵	Poland ⁵		Turkey ⁵	Estonia				Slovenia																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																
(19)	(20)	(21)	(22)	(23)	(24)	(25)	(26)	(27)	(28)	(29)	(30)		(31)	(32)				(33)	(34)	(35)																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																														
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Table C2.3.

Citizens studying abroad in tertiary education, by country of destination (2008)

Number of foreign 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: 6.1% of Czech citizens enrolled in tertiary education abroad study in Austria, 15.9% 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, 27.9% of Australian citizens enrolled in tertiary education abroad study in New Zealand, etc.

		Countries of destination																			
		OECD countries																			
		Australia	Austria ¹	Belgium ²	Canada ^{3, 4}	Chile	Czech Republic	Denmark	Finland	France	Germany ⁵	Greece	Hungary	Iceland	Ireland ⁶	Italy	Japan	Korea	Luxembourg	Mexico	Netherlands ⁵
Countries of origin		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)
OECD countries	Australia	a	0.9	0.1	4.5	n	n	0.4	0.4	2.9	3.5	0.2	0.1	n	0.8	0.4	3.3	0.4	n	m	0.6
	Austria	1.8	a	0.4	1.1	n	0.2	0.4	0.3	3.8	50.2	0.3	1.0	0.1	0.3	1.4	0.3	0.1	n	m	1.9
	Belgium	0.7	1.0	a	2.8	n	0.1	0.4	0.2	24.3	8.5	0.2	0.1	n	0.5	1.7	0.5	n	0.8	m	19.3
	Canada	9.6	0.3	0.2	a	n	0.1	0.2	0.2	3.1	1.3	0.1	0.3	n	1.3	0.3	0.8	0.5	n	m	0.3
	Chile	2.4	0.4	1.0	4.0	a	n	0.4	0.2	8.2	6.9	n	n	n	n	2.2	0.5	0.1	n	m	0.5
	Czech Republic	1.0	6.1	0.6	1.0	n	a	0.7	0.4	7.3	19.7	0.1	0.4	0.1	0.3	1.8	0.5	0.1	0.1	m	1.4
	Denmark	2.4	1.7	0.6	1.7	n	0.1	a	0.8	3.3	8.2	0.1	0.1	1.1	0.3	0.9	0.5	0.1	0.1	m	2.7
	Finland	1.1	1.9	0.4	0.9	n	0.1	2.2	a	3.0	7.7	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.4	0.8	0.8	0.1	0.1	m	2.1
	France	1.6	0.8	26.4	10.0	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.2	a	9.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.7	1.6	0.8	0.1	0.4	m	1.3
	Germany	2.0	18.5	0.7	1.3	0.1	0.3	1.5	0.4	7.3	a	0.4	1.7	0.1	0.5	1.7	0.5	0.1	0.3	m	17.5
	Greece	0.2	0.9	1.3	0.5	n	0.4	0.2	0.2	5.6	16.5	a	0.5	n	0.2	13.3	0.1	n	0.1	m	2.0
	Hungary	0.6	17.2	1.3	1.5	n	0.5	2.0	1.4	7.2	27.3	0.2	a	0.1	0.3	2.1	1.0	n	0.1	m	3.2
	Iceland	1.0	0.7	0.1	1.5	n	0.1	48.1	0.6	1.0	2.5	n	1.7	a	0.2	0.2	0.5	n	n	m	2.2
	Ireland	1.0	0.3	0.3	1.3	n	0.3	0.2	0.2	2.1	1.9	n	0.7	n	a	0.2	0.1	n	n	m	0.7
	Italy	0.7	15.9	4.1	0.7	0.1	0.1	0.5	0.4	11.8	17.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.5	a	0.3	n	0.1	m	1.5
	Japan	5.6	0.7	0.3	4.1	n	n	0.1	0.2	3.6	4.2	n	0.1	n	0.1	n	a	2.0	n	m	0.4
	Korea	5.4	0.4	0.1	0.3	n	n	n	n	2.0	4.4	n	n	n	n	n	20.2	a	n	m	0.2
	Luxembourg	0.2	7.0	21.0	0.4	n	n	0.1	n	20.2	33.3	n	n	n	0.1	0.5	0.1	n	a	m	0.8
	Mexico	1.6	0.3	0.3	6.1	0.5	n	0.2	0.3	6.1	4.8	n	n	n	0.1	0.9	0.5	0.1	n	a	0.7
	Netherlands	1.8	1.5	29.2	m	m	0.1	1.7	0.6	4.7	11.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.9	0.6	n	0.1	m	a
	New Zealand	48.9	0.3	0.1	3.4	n	0.1	0.3	0.2	1.5	1.5	0.1	n	n	0.4	0.1	2.1	0.8	n	m	0.2
	Norway	10.5	0.5	0.1	1.5	0.1	1.9	17.7	0.6	2.4	3.6	n	5.1	0.2	0.7	0.5	0.4	n	n	m	2.4
	Poland	0.4	4.2	1.3	2.1	n	0.7	2.1	0.5	8.4	35.9	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.5	3.7	0.3	n	n	m	2.2
	Portugal	0.4	0.8	5.2	2.6	n	2.5	0.4	0.2	17.6	10.2	0.1	0.1	n	0.2	0.9	0.2	n	1.6	m	1.9
	Slovak Republic	0.3	5.4	0.2	0.5	n	68.8	0.2	0.1	1.5	5.2	n	8.0	n	0.1	0.8	0.1	n	n	m	0.4
	Spain	0.5	1.9	3.5	0.8	0.3	0.1	0.8	0.5	15.6	18.8	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.7	2.0	0.4	0.1	0.1	m	3.3
Sweden	5.5	1.1	0.4	1.3	n	0.7	11.6	3.4	2.9	4.0	0.2	2.1	0.3	0.5	0.8	0.9	0.1	n	m	1.3	
Switzerland	2.7	6.3	0.9	3.2	n	0.1	0.7	0.2	14.3	19.8	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.2	10.1	0.5	0.1	n	m	1.6	
Turkey	0.5	3.6	0.4	1.4	n	0.1	0.6	0.1	3.5	36.5	0.2	0.2	n	0.1	0.7	0.3	0.1	n	m	1.3	
United Kingdom	5.9	0.8	0.8	8.8	n	1.4	1.6	0.7	8.8	6.0	0.4	0.4	0.1	4.9	0.9	1.5	0.1	n	m	2.9	
United States	5.8	1.1	0.4	19.0	0.1	0.5	0.6	0.4	6.2	6.3	0.2	0.4	0.1	5.4	0.7	3.7	1.2	n	m	1.0	
Total from OECD countries		3.2	4.2	3.3	3.4	0.1	2.4	1.3	0.3	5.7	11.2	0.2	0.7	0.1	0.8	1.5	3.2	0.3	0.1	m	3.1
Partner countries	Brazil	2.3	0.4	0.6	3.2	0.8	n	0.3	0.2	10.7	8.0	n	n	n	n	3.8	1.7	0.1	n	m	0.6
	China	11.3	0.3	0.2	7.1	n	n	0.4	0.4	4.1	5.0	n	n	n	0.2	0.6	15.3	6.0	n	m	0.7
	Estonia	0.2	1.1	0.4	0.8	n	n	4.9	15.2	2.9	15.4	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	1.1	0.4	n	n	m	1.5
	India	14.4	0.2	0.2	5.6	n	n	0.2	0.1	0.6	2.0	n	n	n	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	n	m	0.2
	Indonesia	27.8	0.1	0.2	2.9	n	n	n	n	0.7	6.7	n	n	n	n	0.2	4.3	0.7	n	m	3.0
	Israel	1.2	0.5	0.2	6.6	n	1.0	0.3	0.1	1.7	8.4	0.5	4.7	n	n	7.1	0.3	n	n	m	1.0
	Russian Federation	1.0	1.0	1.0	2.8	n	2.4	0.7	2.2	5.7	21.2	0.6	0.3	n	0.1	1.6	0.6	0.4	n	m	0.8
	Slovenia	0.6	22.8	0.8	0.5	n	0.7	0.6	0.6	3.4	21.2	n	1.1	n	0.3	11.4	0.6	n	0.2	m	2.5
	South Africa	10.1	0.4	0.5	6.6	n	n	0.4	0.2	1.6	2.3	0.4	0.1	n	0.6	0.3	0.3	0.1	n	m	1.3

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. Excludes tertiary-type B programmes.

2. Excludes data for social advancement education.

3. Year of reference 2007.

4. Excludes private institutions.

5. Excludes advanced research programmes.

6. Excludes part-time students.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eqg2010).

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


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932310434>

Table C2.3. (continued)

Citizens studying abroad in tertiary education, by country of destination (2008)

Number of foreign 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: 6.1% of Czech citizens enrolled in tertiary education abroad study in Austria, 15.9% 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, 27.9% of Australian citizens enrolled in tertiary education abroad study in New Zealand, etc.

		Countries of destination																		
		OECD countries												Partner countries						
		New Zealand	Norway	Poland	Portugal	Slovak Republic	Spain	Sweden	Switzerland	Turkey	United Kingdom	United States	Total OECD destinations	Brazil	Estonia	Israel	Russian Federation ^{4, 5}	Slovenia	Total partner country destinations	Total all reporting destinations
Countries of origin	(21)	(22)	(23)	(24)	(25)	(26)	(27)	(28)	(29)	(30)	(31)	(32)	(33)	(34)	(35)	(36)	(37)	(38)	(39)	
OECD countries	Australia	27.9	0.4	0.2	0.2	n	0.2	0.9	0.8	0.4	15.8	30.3	95.8	m	n	m	0.1	n	4.2	100.0
	Austria	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.2	0.6	1.0	1.0	8.3	0.3	11.1	6.9	94.1	m	n	m	0.1	0.1	5.9	100.0
	Belgium	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.7	n	3.1	0.5	2.9	0.2	21.8	7.1	98.3	m	0.1	m	0.1	n	1.7	100.0
	Canada	1.4	0.2	0.8	0.2	n	0.2	0.3	0.7	n	11.1	64.4	97.8	m	n	m	n	n	2.2	100.0
	Chile	1.3	0.7	n	0.1	n	21.8	2.2	1.1	n	4.1	18.8	77.1	m	n	m	0.1	n	22.9	100.0
	Czech Republic	0.4	0.5	5.2	0.3	25.7	1.1	0.6	1.6	n	12.7	9.0	98.8	m	n	m	0.2	0.1	1.2	100.0
	Denmark	1.9	14.0	0.3	0.1	0.1	1.2	12.4	1.6	0.1	25.2	15.0	96.8	m	0.1	m	0.1	n	3.2	100.0
	Finland	0.5	3.2	0.1	0.1	n	1.0	31.6	1.3	n	17.8	7.2	85.4	m	5.9	m	0.6	n	14.6	100.0
	France	0.7	0.3	0.1	1.3	n	3.0	0.6	7.4	0.1	20.1	11.2	98.7	m	n	m	0.1	n	1.3	100.0
	Germany	1.8	0.8	0.5	0.3	0.2	1.9	1.4	11.6	0.4	14.4	9.4	97.9	m	n	m	0.2	n	2.1	100.0
	Greece	n	0.1	0.1	0.1	1.1	0.5	0.7	1.0	2.6	36.9	5.8	90.6	m	n	m	0.6	n	9.4	100.0
	Hungary	0.4	0.5	0.8	0.2	1.1	0.9	1.4	2.5	0.1	12.7	8.8	95.5	m	n	m	0.3	0.1	4.5	100.0
	Iceland	0.4	7.4	0.1	n	0.1	0.3	10.2	0.6	n	9.4	11.1	99.9	m	0.1	m	0.1	n	0.1	100.0
	Ireland	0.9	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.5	0.2	n	82.3	5.5	99.6	m	n	m	n	n	0.4	100.0
	Italy	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.5	0.1	8.4	0.8	11.6	0.1	13.2	8.3	98.0	m	n	m	0.1	0.2	2.0	100.0
	Japan	2.0	0.1	0.1	n	n	0.3	0.3	0.5	n	8.4	64.4	97.7	m	n	m	0.3	n	2.3	100.0
	Korea	n	n	n	n	n	0.1	0.1	0.2	n	3.5	59.9	97.1	m	n	m	0.6	n	2.9	100.0
	Luxembourg	n	n	n	0.5	n	0.2	0.1	3.7	n	10.8	0.6	99.8	m	n	m	n	n	0.2	100.0
	Mexico	0.3	0.2	n	0.1	n	12.4	0.4	0.6	n	4.6	51.9	93.1	m	n	m	0.2	n	6.9	100.0
	Netherlands	2.9	1.5	0.1	0.4	n	2.1	1.8	2.6	0.2	21.8	12.1	98.5	m	n	m	m	n	1.5	100.0
New Zealand	a	0.2	0.2	n	n	0.1	0.6	0.5	n	11.9	24.0	97.4	m	n	m	n	n	2.6	100.0	
Norway	1.2	a	7.5	0.1	1.5	0.6	8.7	0.6	n	20.6	9.3	98.3	m	n	m	0.1	n	1.7	100.0	
Poland	0.1	0.6	a	0.4	0.2	2.0	1.5	1.3	n	22.2	7.1	98.4	m	n	m	0.1	n	1.6	100.0	
Portugal	0.1	0.3	0.5	a	0.1	18.7	0.7	7.8	n	19.0	6.1	97.9	m	n	m	n	n	2.1	100.0	
Slovak Republic	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.1	a	0.5	0.1	0.6	n	4.1	2.0	99.7	m	n	m	0.1	n	0.3	100.0	
Spain	0.2	0.7	0.4	2.5	0.1	a	1.3	6.1	n	23.0	14.7	98.7	m	n	m	0.1	n	1.3	100.0	
Sweden	1.0	8.3	4.7	0.1	0.3	1.3	a	1.8	n	20.7	21.3	96.7	m	0.1	m	0.2	n	3.3	100.0	
Switzerland	0.6	0.5	0.1	1.5	0.1	2.8	0.6	a	0.1	16.8	11.5	95.9	m	n	m	0.1	n	4.1	100.0	
Turkey	n	0.1	0.1	n	n	0.1	0.4	1.4	a	3.6	18.4	73.8	m	n	m	0.5	n	26.2	100.0	
United Kingdom	13.9	1.1	0.4	0.3	0.1	2.5	1.8	1.4	0.4	a	29.2	97.2	m	n	m	0.1	n	2.8	100.0	
United States	5.5	0.7	1.8	0.3	0.1	1.2	0.9	1.0	0.1	26.6	a	91.4	m	n	m	0.2	n	8.6	100.0	
Total from OECD countries		1.7	0.7	0.6	0.3	0.4	2.3	1.3	3.4	0.2	14.9	24.2	94.9	m	0.1	m	m	n	5.1	100.0
Partner countries	Brazil	0.6	0.3	0.1	10.6	n	8.8	0.4	1.3	n	4.6	27.5	87.3	a	n	m	0.4	n	12.7	100.0
	China	2.7	0.1	n	n	n	0.1	0.4	0.2	n	8.9	21.6	85.5	m	n	m	1.8	n	14.5	100.0
	Estonia	0.1	1.7	0.3	n	n	1.8	5.3	0.5	n	14.7	5.5	74.9	m	a	m	13.2	n	25.1	100.0
	India	2.9	0.1	0.2	n	n	n	0.4	0.2	n	14.0	51.2	93.7	m	n	m	2.3	n	6.3	100.0
	Indonesia	1.1	0.2	n	n	n	n	0.2	0.2	n	2.5	20.9	72.3	m	n	m	0.2	n	27.7	100.0
	Israel	0.2	0.1	0.2	n	0.8	0.7	0.2	0.4	0.1	3.6	17.8	57.9	m	n	a	2.4	n	42.1	100.0
	Russian Federation	0.8	1.5	0.8	0.2	0.1	1.4	1.0	1.3	0.9	4.5	8.3	63.1	m	2.0	m	a	n	36.9	100.0
	Slovenia	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.1	1.2	0.5	1.4	n	9.9	7.3	88.9	m	n	m	0.2	a	11.1	100.0
South Africa	18.6	0.5	0.2	2.5	n	0.2	0.4	0.5	n	20.3	21.4	89.8	m	n	m	n	n	10.2	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. Excludes tertiary-type B programmes.

2. Excludes data for social advancement education.

3. Year of reference 2007.

4. Excludes private institutions.

5. Excludes advanced research programmes.

6. Excludes part-time students.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2010).

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


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932310434>

Table C2.4.
Distribution of international and foreign students in tertiary education,
by level and type of tertiary education (2008)

	Tertiary-type B programmes	Tertiary-type A programmes	Advanced research programmes	Total tertiary programmes	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	
OECD countries	International students, by level and type of tertiary education				
	Australia	14.4	81.3	4.3	100.0
	Austria ¹	2.1	88.7	9.2	100.0
	Belgium ²	31.1	61.9	7.0	100.0
	Canada ^{3, 4}	21.4	70.3	8.3	100.0
	Chile	32.7	63.6	3.7	100.0
	Czech Republic	m	m	m	m
	Denmark	17.2	78.4	4.4	100.0
	Finland	n	85.2	14.8	100.0
	Hungary	0.7	95.7	3.6	100.0
	Iceland	0.7	93.5	5.8	100.0
	Ireland	m	m	m	m
	Japan	21.6	67.8	10.5	100.0
	Luxembourg	m	m	m	m
	Mexico	m	m	m	m
	Netherlands ⁵	n	100.0	m	100.0
	New Zealand	26.2	67.2	6.6	100.0
	Norway	0.5	93.6	5.9	100.0
	Portugal	0.2	86.9	12.9	100.0
	Slovak Republic	0.2	89.1	10.8	100.0
	Spain	34.6	42.3	23.1	100.0
	Sweden	0.5	82.0	17.5	100.0
	Switzerland ⁶	n	73.7	26.3	100.0
	United Kingdom	9.0	81.1	10.0	100.0
	United States	6.9	72.4	20.7	100.0
	Partner countries	Brazil	m	m	m
Estonia		6.0	86.3	7.7	100.0
Israel		m	m	m	m
Slovenia		15.4	76.1	8.4	100.0
OECD countries	Foreign students, by level and type of tertiary education ⁷				
	France	9.2	79.4	11.5	100.0
	Germany ⁵	4.9	95.1	m	100.0
	Greece ⁵	40.3	59.7	m	100.0
	Italy	n	95.4	4.6	100.0
	Korea	11.4	80.6	8.0	100.0
	Poland	n	94.4	5.6	100.0
	Turkey	4.7	90.6	4.7	100.0
Partner country	Russian Federation ^{4, 5}	5.3	94.7	m	100.0

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

2. Excludes data for social advancement education.

3. Year of reference 2007.

4. Excludes private institutions.

5. Excludes advanced research programmes.

6. Excludes tertiary-type B 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.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2010).

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


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Table C2.5.

Distribution of international and foreign students in tertiary education, by field of education (2008)

	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	0.8	2.8	10.3	9.5	6.6	12.3	1.7	55.8	0.1	100.0
Austria ¹	2.1	4.9	13.2	9.7	19.3	11.5	1.5	37.4	0.4	100.0
Belgium ²	6.9	3.7	6.4	33.8	13.8	6.1	2.1	19.8	7.3	100.0
Canada ³	1.0	1.6	14.9	6.1	8.8	16.3	1.5	40.8	8.9	100.0
Chile	3.6	7.0	12.8	14.1	8.1	9.2	5.9	39.2	0.1	100.0
Denmark	2.4	3.3	19.2	22.5	8.0	9.4	0.2	34.9	n	100.0
Finland ¹	2.0	1.8	30.1	9.0	12.5	11.2	4.9	28.6	n	100.0
Germany ^{1,4}	1.6	4.9	20.4	6.1	21.2	16.9	1.7	26.9	0.2	100.0
Greece	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Hungary	10.2	4.7	9.0	35.9	10.2	6.9	2.6	20.5	n	100.0
Iceland	0.8	5.1	7.1	3.6	41.7	17.2	0.8	23.6	n	100.0
Ireland	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Japan	2.4	2.4	14.7	2.1	24.5	1.3	2.2	40.1	10.3	100.0
Korea	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	n	m
Luxembourg	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Mexico	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Netherlands ⁴	1.5	5.7	5.4	16.9	11.8	5.0	6.6	46.4	0.8	100.0
New Zealand ⁴	1.4	4.0	7.5	7.0	14.5	20.5	3.2	41.8	0.2	100.0
Norway	1.2	5.6	4.4	8.5	21.4	14.6	3.2	33.5	7.6	100.0
Portugal	1.4	3.8	19.4	8.8	9.0	6.9	7.0	43.7	n	100.0
Spain ^{1,4}	1.1	3.5	7.7	33.1	14.1	6.6	3.7	30.0	n	100.0
Sweden	0.9	4.6	33.2	9.9	12.1	16.0	1.6	21.5	0.1	100.0
Switzerland ¹	0.8	3.8	16.0	7.4	16.7	16.5	2.1	34.7	2.1	100.0
United Kingdom	0.9	3.3	14.7	9.3	13.9	13.4	2.1	41.1	1.3	100.0
United States	0.4	3.3	16.6	5.4	11.6	19.7	1.4	29.4	12.2	100.0
Partner countries										
Brazil	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Estonia	9.6	1.2	2.3	8.9	18.7	3.7	1.3	54.4	n	100.0
Israel	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Russian Federation	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Slovenia	2.5	5.4	18.7	11.4	19.0	9.7	4.2	29.2	n	100.0
Foreign students, by field of education⁵										
OECD countries										
Czech Republic	2.4	4.9	11.4	16.9	8.2	14.1	2.9	39.2	n	100.0
France	0.3	1.0	12.7	8.6	19.7	16.2	1.4	40.1	0.1	100.0
Italy	1.5	2.1	15.6	19.6	16.6	5.4	1.7	32.2	5.3	100.0
Poland	0.4	3.1	4.2	29.7	17.3	5.3	3.3	36.6	n	100.0
Slovak Republic	4.6	13.0	14.6	34.6	8.6	3.1	3.8	17.6	a	100.0
Turkey	2.5	9.7	14.9	15.1	10.8	8.5	3.3	35.1	n	100.0

1. Excludes tertiary-type B programmes.

2. Excludes data for social advancement education.


3. Year of reference 2007.

4. Excludes advanced research programmes.

5. 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/eag2010).

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

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A corrigendum has been issued for this page. See: <http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/43/33/46131885.pdf>

Table C2.6.


Trends in the number of foreign students enrolled outside their country of origin (2000 to 2008)

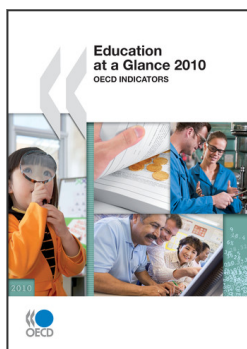
Number of foreign students enrolled in tertiary education outside their country of origin, head counts

Number of foreign students									
	2008	2007	2006	2005	2004	2003	2002	2001	2000
Foreign students enrolled worldwide	3 342 910	3 021 106	2 924 679	2 619 062	2 529 221	2 345 907	2 143 117	1 868 017	1 804 261
Foreign students enrolled in OECD countries	2 645 864	2 522 757	2 440 657	2 370 897	2 270 346	2 090 474	1 902 749	1 646 153	1 587 221

Index of change (2008)								
	2007 = 100	2006 = 100	2005 = 100	2004 = 100	2003 = 100	2002 = 100	2001 = 100	2000 = 100
Foreign students enrolled worldwide	111	114	128	132	142	156	179	185
Foreign students enrolled in OECD countries	105	108	112	117	127	139	161	167

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/eag2010).
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