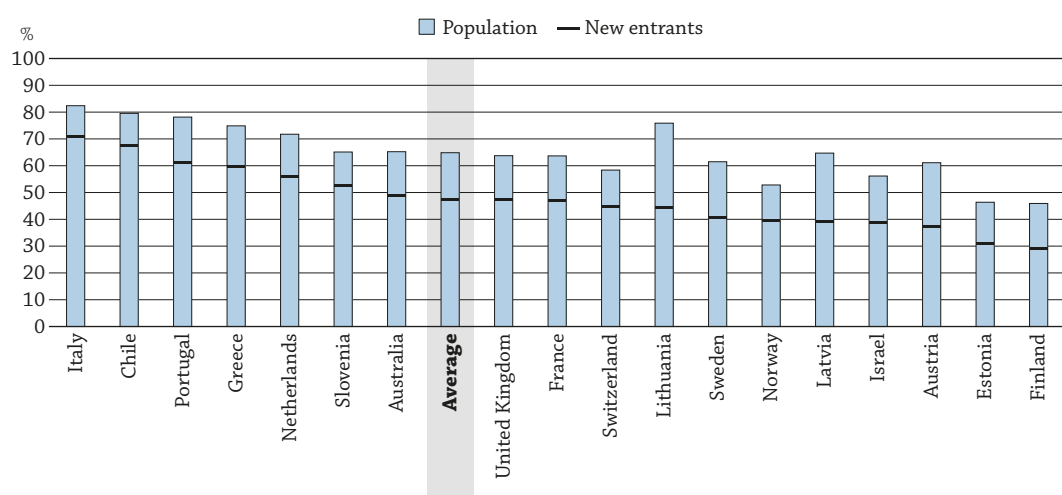


HOW EQUITABLE ARE ENTRY AND GRADUATION IN TERTIARY EDUCATION?

- Individuals whose parents have not attained tertiary education are under-represented among new entrants and first-time graduates from bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programmes.
- Men whose parents are not tertiary-educated are less likely than their female counterparts to enter and graduate from bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programmes.
- The share of first- or second-generation immigrants is lower among new entrants to bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programmes than in the population.

Figure B7.1. Share of 18-24 year-olds whose parents have not attained tertiary education among new entrants to bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programmes and in the population (2015)



How to read this figure

In Italy, 18-24 year-olds without tertiary-educated parents represent 82% of the total population of that age group, but only 71% of new entrants to bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programmes.

Note: Reference years may be different from 2015. Please see Annex 3 for details.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the share of individuals whose parents have not attained tertiary education among new entrants.

Source: OECD (2018), Table B7.1; ad-hoc survey on equity in tertiary education. See *Source* section at the end of this indicator for more information and Annex 3 for notes (<http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/eag-2018-36-en>).

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Context

Growing evidence that a tertiary education leads to better labour-market and social outcomes (see Chapter A) has raised a number of questions around access to higher education and brought equity to the forefront of the policy debate on tertiary education. Across OECD and partner countries, governments are increasingly committed to ensuring that access to tertiary education is not dependent on socio-economic or demographic background.

This indicator measures the extent to which entry to and graduation from tertiary programmes differ for individuals from potentially disadvantaged backgrounds. Two characteristics are used to identify potentially disadvantaged groups: 1) parents' highest level of educational attainment; and 2) immigrant background. Parental education is linked to income and wealth, and evidence shows that it is highly correlated with a variety of educational outcomes, such as attainment levels (see Indicator A1), choice of programme orientation (see Indicator B3) and skills acquisition (OECD, 2013^[1]). Immigrant background, although not always indicative of a disadvantage, is also correlated with lower student performance (OECD, 2018^[2]). Students with an immigrant background must often overcome adversities associated with displacement, socio-economic disadvantage and language barriers.

Inequalities observed at the tertiary level may not only reflect barriers to entry to tertiary education, but also differences in study and career choices. Moreover, inequalities can stem from earlier levels of education. Many disadvantaged students leave the education system before even reaching the point at which they could enter a tertiary programme (Box B7.1). In order to design effective policies to tackle inequality, it is important to better understand when and how these observed inequalities start to accumulate.

■ Other findings

- Lower parental educational attainment tends to be associated with a delay in entering a bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programme.
- Among countries with data, students without tertiary-educated parents represent an increasingly smaller share at each step when comparing upper secondary entrants, upper secondary graduates and tertiary entrants. The under-representation of students from potentially disadvantaged backgrounds in tertiary education may reflect inequities at earlier levels of education, not necessarily barriers to entry at the tertiary level.
- The patterns of inequality observed for first or second- generation immigrants in tertiary education varies widely across countries, reflecting the heterogeneity of the immigrant populations in these countries.

Analysis

B7

Representativeness of potentially disadvantaged groups among tertiary students

Inequality in tertiary education can be measured by comparing the share of young adults from potentially disadvantaged groups among tertiary students and in the overall population. In a perfectly equal society, these two shares should coincide, i.e. the share of individuals from a potentially disadvantaged group in the population should match their share among tertiary entrants and graduates. For instance, a lower share among entrants than in the overall population signals under-representation and lower access of this demographic group to higher education.

Analysis by parents' educational attainment

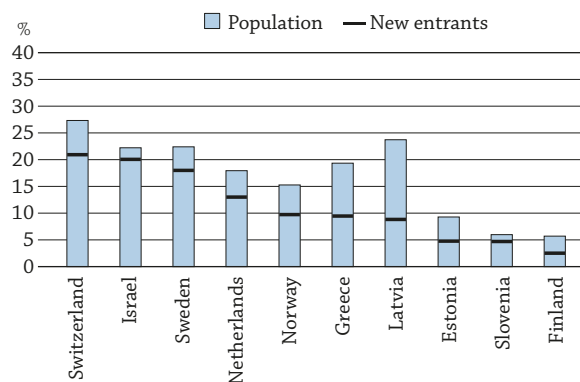
In all countries with available data, individuals whose parents have not attained tertiary education are under-represented among new entrants to bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programmes. On average across countries with available data, people whose parents are not tertiary-educated represent 65% of the population aged 18-24, but only 47% of 18-24 year-old new entrants. There is, however, significant variation across countries. In Italy, the share of 18-24 year-olds without tertiary-educated parents is 82% in the population and 71% among new entrants, while the share in Finland is 46% in the population and 29% among new entrants (Figure B7.1).

Individuals without tertiary-educated parents tend to be disadvantaged not only in entry to tertiary education, but also in graduation from tertiary education. In fact, in all countries with available data, they are also under-represented among first-time graduates from bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programmes (Table B7.2). On average in countries with available data, 61% of 20-29 year-olds in the overall population have parents who are not tertiary-educated, but this share goes down to 44% among first-time graduates aged 20-29.

Analysis by immigrant background

Immigrant background also appears to affect individuals' entry to and graduation from tertiary education. In all countries with available data, first- or second- generation immigrants are less likely to enter bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programmes than their non-immigrant counterparts (Figure B7.2). First-generation immigrants refer to individuals born abroad and whose both parents were also born abroad, and second-generation immigrants refer to those born in the country, but whose both parents were born abroad. The analysis throughout this indicator does not disaggregate between first- and second- generation immigrants. Both definitions exclude international students.

Figure B7.2. Share of 18-24 year-olds who are first- or second- generation immigrants among new entrants to bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programmes and in the population (2015)



How to read this figure

In Switzerland, 18-24 year-olds who are first- or second-generation immigrants represent 27% of the total population of that age group, but only 21% of new entrants to bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programmes.

Note: International students are excluded from the immigrant data. The definition of international students and the year of reference may differ across countries. Please see Annex 3 for details.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the share of individuals who are first- or second-generation immigrants among new entrants.

Source: OECD (2018), Table B7.3; ad-hoc survey on equity in tertiary education. See *Source* section at the end of this indicator for more information and Annex 3 for notes (<http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/eag-2018-36-en>).

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In Norway, first- or second- generation immigrants age 18-24 make up 15% of the population, compared to 10% of new entrants to bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programmes, while in Greece they make up 19% of the population and 9% of new entrants. These differences may reflect, in part, differences in the level of education of the immigrant population of these countries (see Indicator A1). In a few countries, the share of immigrants in the population is quite low (e.g. 6% in Finland and Slovenia), which should be taken into account when analysing these results.

A similar pattern of under-representation of first- or second- generation immigrants is observed among first-time graduates (Table B7.4). However, the extent of this under-representation varies across countries. In Switzerland, 33% of the population aged 20-29 are immigrants, and this share goes down to 14% among first-time graduates, while in Israel, 27% of the 20-29 year-olds are immigrants, compared to 25% of first-time graduates. It is important to exercise caution when comparing the share of immigrants among graduates with their share in the population because immigrants of this age group may arrive in the host country having already attained tertiary education, or may not have enough time to attain it before the age of 29 (see Indicator A1).

The under-representation of first- or second- generation immigrants in bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programmes may be due to several factors, including potential language barriers (in particular for individuals who entered the country at a later age), or systematic differences in the socio-economic background of the immigrant population (OECD, 2018^[2]). It is, therefore, important to take into account the particularities of the immigrant population of each country when drawing policy conclusions.

The compounded effect of gender

There is a general pattern showing that men whose parents have not attained tertiary education are even less likely to enter and graduate from a bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programme than their female counterparts. On average in countries with available data, 64% of 18-24 year-old men and women have parents who have not attained tertiary education. However, only 43% of male new entrants have parents who have not attained this level, compared to 49% of female new entrants (Figure B7.3). This means that individuals with lower-educated parents are more under-represented among male new entrants than among female new entrants. This may be at least partly explained by the higher opportunity cost of entering tertiary education for men. Although men benefit from higher financial returns to tertiary education (see Indicator A5), they may decide to enter the labour market earlier because, in the short-term, pursuing tertiary education implies higher foregone earnings for them than for women (see Indicator A3). Men also have lower completion rates from upper secondary education (see Indicator A9 in [OECD, 2017^[3]]), which can contribute to their lower entry rates to tertiary education.

The pattern observed for first-time graduates of bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programmes is similar. In all countries with available data, the share of 20-29 year-olds without tertiary-educated parents is similar for men and women, but it is higher among female first-time graduates than among male first-time graduates (Table B7.2). On average, 62% of the female population aged 20-29 and 61% of their male counterparts do not have tertiary-educated parents, but this share goes down to 47% among female first-time graduates and only 39% among male first-time graduates.

While greater inequalities linked to parental education are observed with men, strong gender differences do not exist in inequalities linked to immigrant background. In most countries with available data, the share of first- or second- generation immigrants is similar for men and women, both in the overall population and among students.

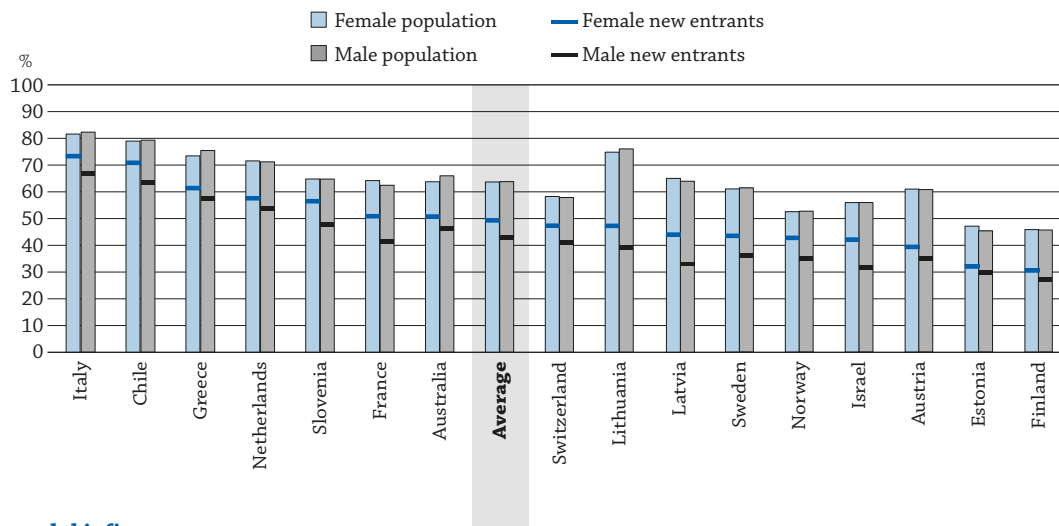
Relationship between parents' educational attainment and the age of entry to tertiary education

Previous figures have indicated that individuals whose parents have not attained tertiary education tend to be under-represented among new entrants to bachelor's and long first degree programmes. However, it is also interesting to investigate whether parents' educational attainment can affect decisions on when to enter such programmes.

Figure B7.4 shows that lower parental educational attainment is associated with delayed entrance to bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programmes. On average across countries with available data, 82% of new entrants whose parents are not tertiary-educated enter before age 25, compared to as high as 90% of new entrants with at least one tertiary-educated parent. In fact, this pattern of delayed entrance to tertiary education is observed in all countries with available data, with the exception of Italy, where all students enter before age 25.

Several factors may contribute to the delayed entrance of individuals whose parents have not attained tertiary education, and this may differ across countries. Entrance may occur at a later age due to time spent in the labour force, delays in completing upper secondary education or, in the case of first-generation immigrants, to late arrival in the host country. This delay in entrance may pose equity concerns, particularly if it is not the result of a deliberate choice by the student and if it later translates into disadvantages in the labour market.

Figure B7.3. Share of 18-24 year-olds whose parents have not attained tertiary education among new entrants to bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programmes and in the population, by gender (2015)



How to read this figure

In Italy, 82% of the female population and 83% of the male population (age 18-24) have no tertiary-educated parent. This share goes down to 73% among female new entrants and 67% among male new entrants.

Note: Reference years may be different from 2015. Please see Annex 3 for details.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the proportion of individuals whose parents have not attained tertiary education among female new entrants.

Source: OECD (2018), Table B7.1; ad-hoc survey on equity in tertiary education. See Source section at the end of this indicator for more information and Annex 3 for notes (<http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/eag-2018-36-en>).

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Box B7.1 Inequalities at the tertiary level may stem from earlier levels of education

The tables and figures in this indicator show a general pattern across OECD countries of under-representation of potentially disadvantaged groups in tertiary education. However, when interpreting inequality in entry to tertiary education, it is important to take into account the fact that inequalities tend to accumulate throughout an individual's educational path. Under-representation of disadvantaged students in tertiary programmes could thus be due to obstacles in entering tertiary education itself or to obstacles that have kept these individuals from progressing at earlier levels.

This box addresses this issue by combining data disaggregated by parental educational attainment for tertiary and upper secondary education. This analysis only provides a limited view of the accumulation of inequalities throughout education, which actually begin as soon as early childhood education, but it does help shed light on the problem.

Figure B7.a shows the student composition by parents' educational attainment at three different stages: 1) entry to upper secondary education; 2) graduation from upper secondary education within the theoretical duration; and 3) entry to tertiary education. In most countries, the shares decrease at each step, highlighting the fact that potentially disadvantaged students are less likely to advance through education.

This figure also helps determine the extent to which the inequality observed in tertiary education stems from an earlier level. In Norway, for example, students whose parents have not attained tertiary education seem to face particular obstacles to graduate from upper secondary education. However, those who do graduate from this level are almost equally likely to move on to tertiary education as students with at least one tertiary-educated parent. This finding suggests that there are no significant barriers to entry at the tertiary level in Norway, and that the inequalities observed at this level are instead a reflection of fewer students without tertiary-educated parents graduating upper secondary education than their peers with at least one tertiary-educated parent.

...

The pattern is different in Israel, where most of the students whose parents have not attained tertiary education are almost equally likely to graduate upper secondary education as those with at least one tertiary-educated parent. However, their representativeness within entrants to tertiary education drops 15 percentage points, from 54% of upper secondary graduates to 39% of tertiary entrants. This result suggests that there are particular barriers to entry into tertiary education that may be disproportionately impacting disadvantaged students.

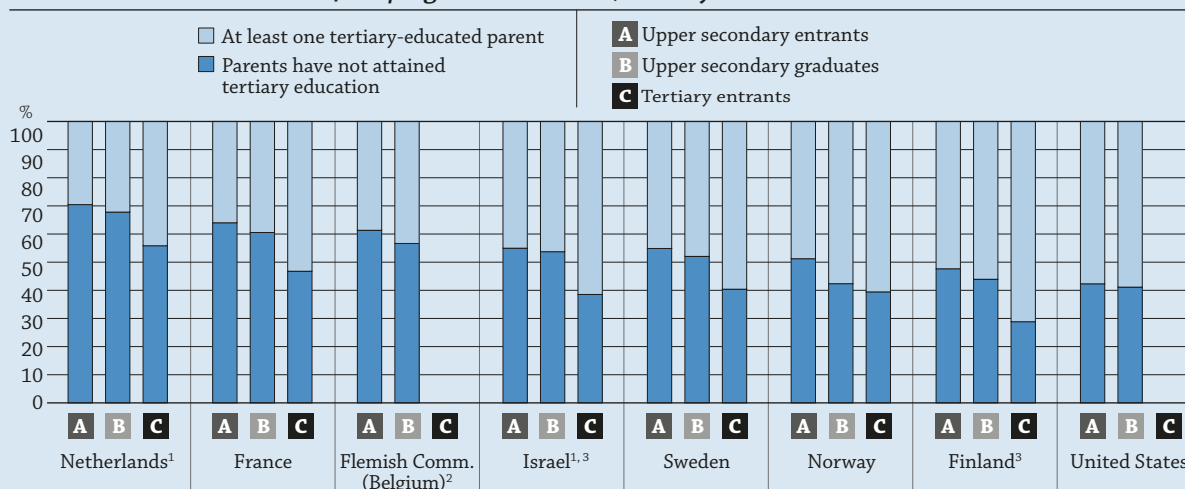
The barriers to entry at the tertiary level can also be a reflection of the student's upper secondary degree. In many countries there are upper secondary programmes that do not offer access to tertiary education. So although students from a disadvantaged background may be an upper secondary graduate, he or she may not have obtained the necessary credentials to enter tertiary education.

This is the case in the Netherlands, where about 40% of students enter upper secondary education in two-year or three-year vocational programmes that do not grant access to tertiary education. If only programmes that provide access to tertiary education were considered, the gap between upper secondary graduates and tertiary entrants in the Netherlands would drop from the 12 percentage points shown in Figure B7.a to only 4 percentage points. This indicates that the under-representation of disadvantaged groups in tertiary education in the Netherlands is more likely a result of inequalities when choosing upper secondary programmes than barriers in access to tertiary education.

The fact that inequalities observed in tertiary education may stem from earlier levels of education does not fully explain the issues with access to tertiary education and does not diminish the problem itself. However, understanding what factors contribute to the problem is essential to designing better policies.

Figure B7.a. Upper secondary entrants, upper secondary graduates and tertiary entrants aged 18-24, by parents' educational attainment

Upper secondary entrants 2010-12; upper secondary graduates by the theoretical duration of the programme 2013/14; tertiary entrants 2015



How to read this figure

The stacked bars show the composition of upper secondary entrants, upper secondary graduates and tertiary entrants by parents' educational attainment. In Finland, students whose parents have not attained tertiary education make up 48% of upper secondary entrants, 44% of upper secondary graduates and 29% of tertiary entrants.

Note: Tertiary entrants refer to the 18-24 year-old age group, and educational programmes ISCED 5, ISCED 6 and ISCED 7 long first degree programmes.

1. Tertiary entrants do not include short-cycle tertiary programmes.

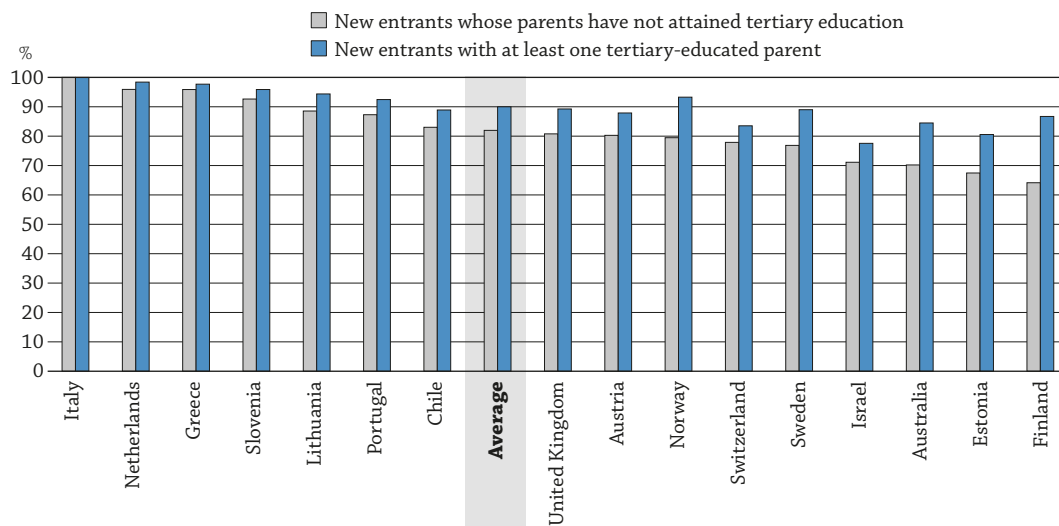
2. Parents' educational attainment refers to mother's educational attainment.

3. For Israel, year of reference for entrants in upper secondary education is 2013 and for upper secondary graduates it is 2015. For Finland, year of reference for tertiary entrants is 2016.

Countries and economies are ranked in descending order of the share of upper secondary entrants with no tertiary-educated parent.

Source: OECD (2018). Upper secondary data from the ad-hoc survey on upper secondary completion rate by equity dimension and tertiary data from the pilot survey on equity in tertiary education. See *Source* section at the end of this indicator for more information and Annex 3 for notes (<http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/eag-2018-36-en>).

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Figure B7.4. Share of new entrants to bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programmes who are below the age of 25, by parents' educational attainment (2015)

How to read this figure

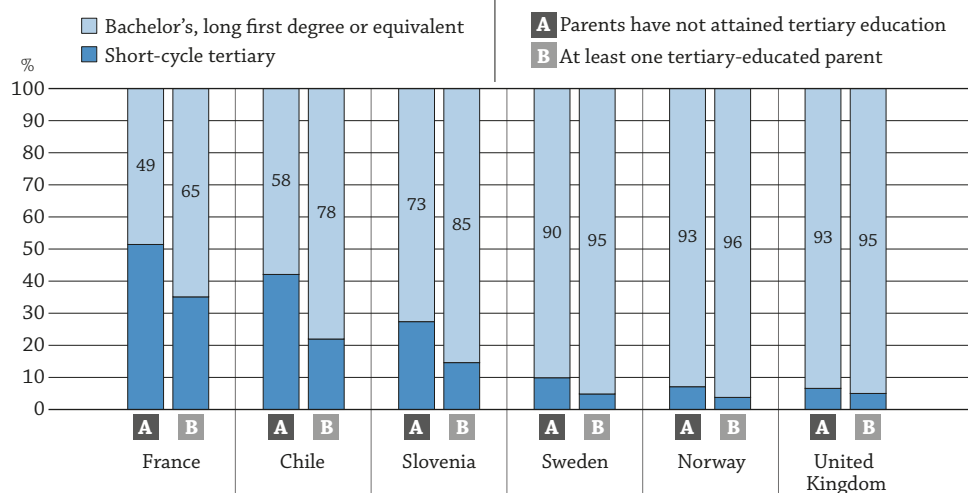
In Finland, 87% of tertiary new entrants with at least one tertiary-educated parent entered before age 25. This share goes down to 64% for new entrants whose parents have not attained tertiary education.

Note: Reference years may be different from 2015. Please see Annex 3 for details.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the share of new entrants below the age of 25 whose parents have not attained tertiary education.

Source: OECD (2018); ad-hoc survey on equity in tertiary education. See *Source* section at the end of this indicator for more information and Annex 3 for notes (<http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/eag-2018-36-en>).

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Figure B7.5. Share of 18-24 year-olds who entered short-cycle programmes versus bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programmes, by parents' educational attainment (2015)

How to read this figure

The stacked bars show the distribution of tertiary entrants between short-cycle tertiary programmes and bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programmes, by parental educational attainment. In Slovenia, among new entrants whose parents have not attained tertiary education, 27% enter a short-cycle tertiary programme, and 73% enter a bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programme. Among new entrants with at least one tertiary-educated parent, 15% enter a short-cycle tertiary programme, and 85% enter a bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programme.

Note: Reference years may be different from 2015. Please see Annex 3 for details.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the share of new entrants whose parents have not attained tertiary education and who entered a short-cycle tertiary programme.

Source: OECD (2018); ad-hoc survey on equity in tertiary education. See *Source* section at the end of this indicator for more information and Annex 3 for notes (<http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/eag-2018-36-en>).

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Relationship between parents' educational attainment and the choice of tertiary programme

Parents' educational attainment may affect not only the decision on whether to pursue tertiary education, but also the choice of tertiary programme to enter.

Figure B7.5 shows that in all countries with available data, new entrants to tertiary education whose parents have not attained this level are more likely to enter a short-cycle tertiary programme than a bachelor's or long first degree programme, compared to new entrants with at least one tertiary-educated parent. For instance, in Slovenia, among new entrants whose parents have not attained tertiary education, 27% enter a short-cycle tertiary programme, and 73% enter a bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programme. Among new entrants with at least one tertiary-educated parent, only 15% enter a short-cycle tertiary programme, and 85% enter a bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programme.

Graduates from bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programmes tend to have higher earnings and higher employment rates than graduates from short-cycle tertiary programmes (see Indicators A3 and A4). Therefore, if disadvantaged groups are under-represented in bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programmes, this may accentuate inequalities in the labour market. The potential for short-cycle tertiary programmes to contribute to improving educational equality will relate to their ability to provide students with the relevant skill sets to succeed in the labour market or in their further education.

Definitions

New entrants to bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programmes are students who enrol in this level of education for the first time. For this indicator, we only consider new entrants age 18-24.

First-time graduates from bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programmes are students who graduate from this level of education for the first time. For this indicator, we only consider first-time graduates age 20-29.

Parents have not attained tertiary education means that neither parent has attained ISCED 2011 levels 5 to 8.

First-generation immigrants are foreign-born of two parents who are also foreign-born. This definition excludes international students.

Second-generation immigrants are native-born of two foreign-born parents.

Methodology

For each age group, gender and critical group (individuals without tertiary-educated parents and with an immigrant background), the share of new entrants/first-time graduates is calculated as the number of new entrants/first-time graduates who belong to the critical group divided by the total number of new entrants/first-time graduates (Tables B7.1, B7.2, B7.3 and B7.4, and Figures B7.1, B7.2 and B7.3).

The share of new entrants below age 25 is computed as the number of new entrants below age 25 divided by the total number of entrants of all ages (Figure B7.4).

The share of 18-24 year-olds who entered **short-cycle tertiary programmes** is computed as the number of new entrants to short-cycle tertiary programme divided by the total number of entrants to all tertiary education programmes (both short-cycle tertiary programmes and bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programmes). Similarly, the share of 18-24 year-olds who entered **bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programmes** is computed as the number of new entrants to bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programme divided by the total number of entrants to all tertiary education programmes (Figure B7.5).

Lithuania was not an OECD member at the time of preparation of this publication. Accordingly, Lithuania does not appear in the list of OECD members and is not included in the zone aggregates.

Source

Data refer to the academic year 2014/15 and were collected through an ad-hoc survey undertaken in 2017 and 2018.

Note regarding data from Israel

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

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- OECD (2017), *Education at a Glance 2017: OECD Indicators*, OECD Publishing, Paris, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/eag-2017-en>. [3]
- OECD (2013), *OECD Skills Outlook 2013: First Results from the Survey of Adult Skills*, OECD Publishing, Paris, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264204256-en>. [1]

Indicator B7 Tables


StatLink  <https://doi.org/10.1787/888933803900>

Table B7.1 Share of 18-24 year-olds whose parents have not attained tertiary education among new entrants to bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programmes and in the population, by gender (2015)

Table B7.2 Share of 20-29 year-olds whose parents have not attained tertiary education among first-time graduates from bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programmes and in the population, by gender (2015)

Table B7.3 Share of 18-24 year-olds who are first- or second- generation immigrants among new entrants to bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programmes and in the population, by gender (2015)

Table B7.4 Share of 20-29 year-olds who are first- or second- generation immigrants among first-time graduates from bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programmes and in the population, by gender (2015)

Cut-off date for the data: 18 July 2018. Any updates on data can be found on line at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/eag-data-en>. More breakdowns can also be found at <http://stats.oecd.org/>, Education at a Glance Database.

Table B7.1. Share of 18-24 year-olds whose parents have not attained tertiary education among new entrants to bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programmes and in the population, by gender (2015)

Countries	Women		Men		Total	
	New entrants	Population	New entrants	Population	New entrants	Population
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Australia	51	64	46	66	49	65
Austria	39	61	35	61	37	61
Chile	71	79	64	79	67	79
Estonia	32	47	30	45	31	46
Finland	30	46	27	46	29	46
France	51	64	41	63	47	63
Greece	61	74	58	76	60	75
Israel	42	56	32	56	39	56
Italy	73	82	67	83	71	82
Latvia	44	65	34	64	39	65
Lithuania	47	75	39	76	44	76
Netherlands	58	72	54	71	56	72
Norway	43	53	35	53	39	53
Portugal	m	m	m	m	61	78
Slovenia	56	65	48	65	53	65
Sweden	43	61	36	61	40	61
Switzerland	47	58	41	58	45	58
United Kingdom	m	m	m	m	47	64
Average	49	64	43	64	47	65

Note: Tables B7.1 and B7.2 refer to different cohorts and may have different sources so the data presented should not be compared across tables. Reference years may be different from 2015. Please see Annex 3 for more details.

Source: OECD (2018), ad-hoc survey on equity in tertiary education. See *Source* section for more information and Annex 3 for notes (<http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/eag-2018-36-en>).

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


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Table B7.2. Share of 20-29 year-olds whose parents have not attained tertiary education among first-time graduates from bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programmes and in the population, by gender (2015)

Countries	Women		Men		Total	
	First-time graduates	Population	First-time graduates	Population	First-time graduates	Population
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Australia	52	65	50	66	52	65
Austria	39	66	37	62	38	64
Canada ¹	29	42	25	40	28	41
Finland	32	50	29	50	31	50
France ²	69	71	31	65	50	68
Israel	39	55	31	55	36	55
Italy	72	82	65	83	69	83
Netherlands	57	73	54	73	55	73
Norway	44	56	35	56	41	56
Slovenia	55	68	45	68	51	68
Sweden	42	65	34	65	39	65
Switzerland	42	62	39	59	41	60
United Kingdom	m	m	m	m	46	61
United States	35	51	29	47	32	49
Average	47	62	39	61	44	61


Note: Tables B7.1 and B7.2 refer to different cohorts and may have different sources so the data presented should not be compared across tables. Reference years may be different from 2015. Please see Annex 3 for more details.

1. Values for first-time graduates are based on a small sample and should be interpreted with caution.

2. Age group for first-time graduates refers to 20-24 year-olds instead of 20-29 year-olds.

Source: OECD (2018), ad-hoc survey on equity in tertiary education. See *Source* section for more information and Annex 3 for notes (<http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/eag-2018-36-en>).

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

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B7

Table B7.3. Share of 18-24 year-olds who are first- or second- generation immigrants among new entrants to bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programmes and in the population, by gender (2015)

	Women		Men		Total	
	New entrants	Population	New entrants	Population	New entrants	Population
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Countries						
Estonia	4	9	6	9	5	9
Finland	3	6	2	6	3	6
Greece	11	18	8	20	9	19
Israel	20	22	20	22	20	22
Latvia	6	24	11	24	9	24
Netherlands	14	18	12	18	13	18
Norway	9	15	10	15	10	15
Slovenia	5	6	4	6	5	6
Sweden	18	22	19	23	18	22
Switzerland	20	29	22	26	21	27

Notes: International students are excluded from the immigrant data. The definitions of international students and the year of reference may differ across countries. Tables B7.3 and B7.4 refer to different cohorts and may have different sources so the data presented should not be compared across tables. Please see Annex 3 for more details.

Source: OECD (2018), ad-hoc survey on equity in tertiary education. See *Source* section for more information and Annex 3 for notes (<http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/eag-2018-36-en>).

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


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Table B7.4. Share of 20-29 year-olds who are first- or second- generation immigrants among first-time graduates from bachelor's, long first degree or equivalent programmes and in the population, by gender (2015)

	Women		Men		Total	
	First-time graduates	Population	First-time graduates	Population	First-time graduates	Population
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Countries						
Finland	2	8	2	8	2	8
Germany	7	19	5	18	7	18
Israel	25	28	25	27	25	27
Netherlands	11	21	9	20	10	21
Norway	6	21	7	20	7	21
Slovenia	5	8	5	8	5	8
Sweden	14	24	13	24	14	24
Switzerland	14	33	13	33	14	33
United States	14	21	15	24	14	23

Notes: International students are excluded from the immigrant data. The definitions of international students and the year of reference may differ across countries. Tables B7.3 and B7.4 refer to different cohorts and may have different sources so the data presented should not be compared across tables. Please see Annex 3 for more details.

Source: OECD (2018), ad-hoc survey on equity in tertiary education. See *Source* section for more information and Annex 3 for notes (<http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/eag-2018-36-en>).

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

StatLink  <https://doi.org/10.1787/888933803976>

The framework for educational finance indicators

International indicators on education finance are defined in terms of the educational goods and services purchased in relation to the educational programmes. In practice, educational institutions are most commonly used as defining units rather than educational goods and services, reflecting the traditional interest in how much schools, colleges and universities cost. But while an institutional dimension is important, spending, particularly from public sources, outside of educational institutions helps support the learning and access to education within institutions. Differentiating the spending devoted to educational and non-educational goods and services offered by institutions also provides for an analysis of the expenditure devoted to core educational purposes. Finally the source of funds dedicated to education spending assesses who the major contributors are and the impact this may have on the access and provision of education.

It is therefore important to consider a framework for educational expenditure that is built around three dimensions:

- the location of service providers (within or outside of institutions)
- the goods and services provided or purchased (core and peripheral goods)
- the source of funds that finance the provision or purchase of these goods and services (from public, private and international sources).

Classification of educational expenditure

Educational expenditure in this chapter is classified through three dimensions:

- The first dimension – represented by the horizontal axis in the diagram below – relates to the location where spending occurs. Spending on educational institutions includes spending on teaching institutions such as schools and universities, and non-teaching institutions such as education ministries and other agencies directly involved in providing and supporting education. Spending on education outside these institutions covers expenditure on educational good and services purchased outside institutions, such as books, computers and fees for private tutoring. It also deals with student living costs and costs of student transport not provided by educational institutions.
- The second dimension – represented by the vertical axis in the diagram below – classifies the goods and services that are purchased. Educational core goods and services include all expenditure directly related to instruction and education. It covers all expenditure on teachers, maintenance of school buildings, teaching materials, books, tuition outside schools and administration of schools. However, not all expenditure on educational institutions can be classified as direct educational or instructional expenditure. Educational institutions in many OECD countries offer various ancillary services – such as meals, transport, housing, etc. – in addition to teaching services to support students and their families. At the tertiary level, spending on research and development can be significant. Additionally, not all spending on educational goods and services occurs within educational institutions. For example, families may purchase textbooks and materials themselves or seek private tutoring for their children. In this sense, “non-instruction” expenditure covers all expenditure broadly related to student living costs or services provided by institutions for the general public.
- The third dimension – represented by the colours in the diagram below – distinguishes among the sources from which funding originates. These include the public sector and international agencies (indicated by light blue), and households and other private entities (indicated by medium-blue). Where private expenditure on education is subsidised by public funds, this is indicated by cells in the grey colour. The uncoloured cells indicate the parts of the framework that are excluded from the coverage of the finance indicators in *Education at a Glance*.

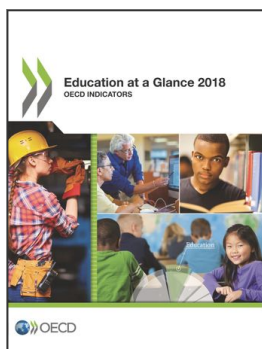
Educational finance indicators

This chapter provides a comprehensive and comparative analysis on education expenditure across OECD countries, focusing on seven aspects of educational spending:

- Financial resources invested on educational institutions, relative to the number of students (Indicator C1), and relative to national wealth (Indicator C2).

- The source of funds devoted on educational institutions (Indicator C3).
- Total public resources invested on education, both inside and outside of educational institutions, relative to total government spending (Indicator C4).
- The students' cost and the financial support of tertiary studies (Indicator C5).
- The distribution of educational expenditure across resource categories (Indicator C6).
- The contribution of various factors to the salary cost of teachers per student in public institutions (Indicator C7).

		Location of service providers	
		Spending on educational institutions (e.g. schools, universities, educational administration and student welfare services)	Spending on education outside educational institutions (e.g. private purchases of educational goods and services, including private tutoring)
Types of goods and services		Public and international funds <i>e.g. public spending on instructional services in educational institutions</i>	Publicly subsidised private funds <i>e.g. subsidised private spending on books, materials or fees for private tutoring</i>
		Publicly subsidised private funds <i>e.g. subsidised private spending on instructional services in educational institutions</i>	Private funds <i>e.g. private spending on books and other school materials or private tutoring</i>
		Private funds <i>e.g. private spending on tuition fees</i>	
Educational peripheral goods and services	Spending on research and development	Public and international funds <i>e.g. public spending on university research</i>	
		Private funds <i>e.g. funds from private industry for research and development in educational institutions</i>	
	Spending on educational services other than instruction	Public and international funds <i>e.g. public spending on ancillary services such as meals, transport to schools, or housing on the campus</i>	Publicly subsidised private funds <i>e.g. subsidised private spending on student living costs or reduced prices for transport</i>
		Publicly subsidised private funds <i>e.g. public subsidies for lodging, meals, health services, or other welfare services furnished to students by the educational institutions</i>	
		Private funds <i>e.g. private spending on fees for ancillary services</i>	Private funds <i>e.g. private spending on student living costs or transport</i>



From:
Education at a Glance 2018
OECD Indicators

Access the complete publication at:
<https://doi.org/10.1787/eag-2018-en>

Please cite this chapter as:

OECD (2018), "Indicator B7 How equitable are entry and graduation in tertiary education?", in *Education at a Glance 2018: OECD Indicators*, OECD Publishing, Paris.

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1787/eag-2018-20-en>

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