

WHO STUDIES ABROAD AND WHERE?

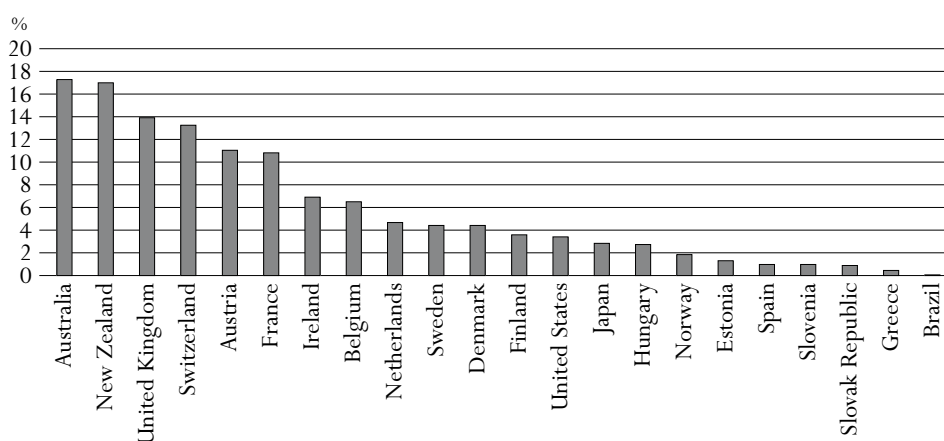
This indicator is providing a picture of student mobility and the extent of the internationalisation of tertiary education in OECD countries and partner economies. It shows global trends and highlights the major destinations of international students and trends in market shares of the international student pool. Some of the factors underlying students' choice of a country of study are also examined. In addition, the indicator looks at the extent of student mobility in different destinations and presents the profile of the international student intake in terms of their distribution by countries and regions of origin, types of programmes, and fields of education. The distribution of students enrolled outside of their country of citizenship by destination is also examined. Finally, the contribution of international students to the graduate output is examined alongside immigration implications for their host countries. The proportion of international students in tertiary enrolments provides a good indication of the magnitude of student mobility in different countries.

Key results

Chart C3.1. Student mobility in tertiary education (2005)

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


Student mobility – *i.e.* international students who travelled to a country different from their own for the purpose of tertiary study – ranges from below 1 to almost 18% of tertiary enrolments. International students are most numerous in tertiary enrolments in Australia, Austria, France, New Zealand, Switzerland and the United Kingdom.



Note: the data on the mobility of international students presented below are not comparable with data on foreign students in tertiary education (defined on the basis of citizenship) presented in pre-2006 editions of *Education at a Glance* or elsewhere in this chapter.

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

Source: OECD, Table C3.1. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2007).

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Other highlights of this indicator

- In 2005, over 2.7 million tertiary students were enrolled outside their country of citizenship. This represented a 5% increase in total foreign student intake reported to the OECD and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics from the previous year.
- France, Germany, the United Kingdom and the United States receive more than 50% of all foreign students worldwide. In absolute numbers, international students from France, Germany, Japan and Korea represent the largest numbers from OECD countries. Students from China and India comprise the largest numbers of international students from partner economies.
- In Spain, Switzerland and the United States, and the partner economy Brazil, more than 15% of international students are enrolled in advanced research programmes.
- 30% or more of international students are enrolled in sciences, agriculture or engineering in Finland, Germany, Hungary, Sweden, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States.
- International graduates contribute to 20% or more of the graduate output for tertiary-type A programmes in Australia and the United Kingdom. The same holds for foreigners graduating in Belgium. The contribution of international and foreign graduates to the tertiary graduate output is especially high for advanced research programmes in Belgium, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States.

Policy context

The general trend towards freely circulating capital, goods and services – coupled with changes in the openness of labour markets – have increased the demand for new kinds of educational provision in OECD countries.

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Governments as well as individuals are looking to higher education to play a role in broadening the horizons of students and allowing them to develop a deeper understanding of the multiplicity of languages, cultures and business methods in the world. One way for students to expand their knowledge of other societies and languages and hence to leverage their labour market prospects is to study in tertiary educational institutions in countries other than their own. Indeed, several OECD governments – especially so in the European Union (EU) countries – have set up schemes and policies to promote such mobility to foster intercultural contacts and help to build social networks for the future.

From the macroeconomic perspective, international negotiations on trade liberalisation of services highlight the trade implications of the internationalisation of education service provision. Some OECD countries already show signs of specialisation in education exports. The long term trend towards greater internationalisation of education (Box C3.1) is likely to have a growing impact on countries' balances of payments as a result of tuition fee revenues and domestic consumption of international students. In this perspective, it is worth noting that in addition to student mobility, the cross-border electronic delivery of flexible educational programmes and campuses abroad are also relevant to the trade dimension of international tertiary education, although no comparable data exist yet.

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

From the perspective of educational institutions, international enrolments constrain the instructional settings and processes insofar as the curriculum and teaching methods may have to be adapted to a culturally and linguistically diverse student body. These constraints are, however, outweighed by the numerous benefits to host institutions. Indeed, the presence of a potential international client base compels institutions to offer programmes that stand out among competitors, a factor that may contribute to the development of a highly reactive, client-driven quality tertiary education. International enrolments can also help institutions to reach the critical mass needed to diversify the range of educational programmes offered as well as increase tertiary institutions' financial resources when foreign students bear the full cost of their education (Box C3.3). Given these advantages, institutions might favour the enrolment of international students, thereby restricting access to domestic students. Yet there is limited evidence of such a phenomenon, with the exception of some prestigious, highly demanded programmes of elite institutions (OECD, 2004d).

For individuals, the returns to studying abroad depend to a large extent on both the policies of sending countries regarding financial aid to students going abroad and the tuition fee policies of countries of destination (Box C3.3) and their financial support for international

students. The cost of living in countries of study and exchange rates also impact on the cost of international education. In addition, the long-term returns of an international educational experience depend to a large extent on how international degrees are signalled and valued by local labour markets.

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

Evidence and explanations

Concepts and terminology conventions used in this indicator

It is important to specify the concepts and terminology conventions used in this indicator since they have changed, compared with editions of *Education at a Glance* produced before 2006.

Prior to *Education at a Glance 2006*, Indicator C3 focused on foreign students in tertiary education, defined as non-citizens of the country in which they study. This concept of foreign students was inappropriate to measure student mobility to the extent that not all foreign students come to their country of study expressly with the intention to study. In particular, foreign students who are permanent residents in their country of study as a result of immigration – by themselves or by their parents – are included in the total. This results in an overestimation of foreign students' numbers in countries with comparatively low naturalisation rates of their immigrant populations. Moreover, citizens of the country in which they study can be mobile students (*i.e.* nationals who have lived abroad and return to their country of citizenship for the purpose of study).

In an effort to improve the measurement of student mobility and the comparability of internationalisation data, the OECD – together with Eurostat and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics – revised the instruments in 2005 to gather data on student mobility. According to this new concept, the term “international students” refers to students who have crossed borders expressly with the intention to study. Yet, the measurement of student mobility depends to a large extent on country-specific immigration legislations and data availability constraints. For instance, the free mobility of individuals within the EU and broader European Economic Area (EEA) makes it impossible to derive numbers of international students from visa statistics. In acknowledgment of these country specificities, the OECD permits countries to define as international students those who are not permanent residents of their country of study or alternatively students 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 in order not to omit intra-EU student mobility (Kelo, Teichler and Wächter, 2005), while the residence criterion is usually a good proxy in countries that require a student visa to enter the country for educational purposes.

The convention adopted here is to use the terminology “international student” when referring to student mobility while the terminology “foreign student” relates to non-citizens enrolled in a country (*i.e.* comprises some permanent residents and therefore provides an overestimated proxy of actual student mobility). However since not all countries are yet able to report data on student mobility on the basis of students' country of residence or their country of prior education, some tables and charts present indicators on both international and foreign students – albeit separately to emphasize the need for caution in international comparisons.

It should be noted that in this indicator data on total foreign enrolments worldwide are based on the number of foreign students enrolled in countries reporting data to the OECD and to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics and thus may be underestimated. In addition, note that all trend analyses in this indicator are based on numbers of foreign students at different points in time, since no time series on student mobility are available yet. Current work aims at filling this gap and developing retrospective time series on student mobility for future editions of *Education at a Glance*.

Trends in foreign student numbers

Foreign student numbers

In 2005, 2.73 million tertiary students were enrolled outside their country of citizenship, of which 2.30 million (or 84%) studied in the OECD area. This represented a 4.9% increase in total foreign enrolments worldwide since the previous year – or 127 336 additional individuals in absolute numbers. In the OECD area, the increase was slightly smaller with a 4.6% increase in foreign student numbers over just one academic year.

Since 2000, the number of foreign tertiary students enrolled in the OECD area and worldwide increased by 49 and 50%, respectively. This amounts to an 8.2 and 8.4% annual increase on average (Table C3.6).

Compared to 2000, the number of foreign students enrolled in tertiary education increased noticeably in Australia, the Czech Republic, Finland, France, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Korea, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Poland, Portugal and Sweden, and in the partner economies the Russian Federation and Slovenia, with indexes of change of 150 or above. In contrast, the number of foreign students enrolled in Austria, Belgium, Iceland, the Slovak Republic, Spain and Turkey, and in the partner economy Estonia, grew by about 20% or less and even shrank in the partner economies Brazil and Chile (Table C3.1).

Interestingly, changes in foreign student numbers between 2000 and 2005 indicate that the growth in foreign enrolments has been larger in the OECD on average than in the 19 EU countries of the OECD with 93 and 61% growth respectively. This pattern suggests that although foreign enrolments increased throughout the OECD, the recent growth in foreign enrolments was even higher outside of the EU area than inside (Table C3.1).

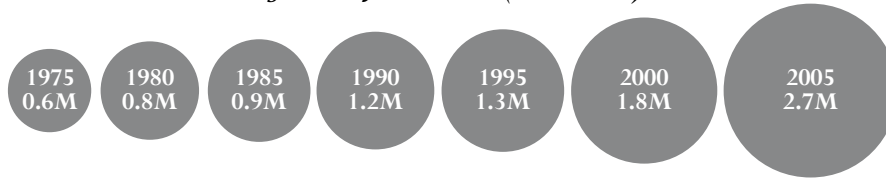
The combination of OECD data with those of the UNESCO Institute for Statistics allows the examination of longer term trends and illustrates the dramatic growth in foreign enrolments over the past 30 years (Box C3.1).

Over the past three decades, the number of students enrolled outside their country of citizenship has grown dramatically from 0.61 million worldwide in 1975 to 2.73 million in 2005 – a more than four-fold increase. This growth in the internationalisation of tertiary education has accelerated during the past ten years, mirroring the growing globalisation of economies and societies.

The growth in the number of students enrolled abroad since 1975 stems from various driving factors. During the early years, public policies aimed at promoting and nurturing academic, cultural, social and political ties between countries played a key role, especially in the context of the European construction in which building mutual understanding between young Europeans

Box C3.1. Long term growth in the number of students enrolled outside their country of citizenship

Growth in internationalisation of tertiary education (1975-2005)



Source: OECD and UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

Data on foreign enrolment worldwide comes from both the OECD and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS). UIS provided the data on all countries for 1975-1995 and most of the partner economies for 2000 and 2005. The OECD provided the data on OECD countries and the other partner economies in 2000 and 2005. 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.

was a major policy objective. Similar rationales motivated North American policies of academic co-operation. Over time, however, driving factors of a more economic nature played an increasing role. Indeed, decreasing transportation costs, the spread of new technologies, and faster, cheaper communication resulted in a growing interdependence of economies and societies in the 1980s and even more so in the 1990s. This tendency was particularly strong in the high technology sector and labour market. The growing internationalisation of labour markets for the highly-skilled fostered individuals' incentives to gain an international experience as part of their studies while the spread of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) lowered information and transaction costs of study abroad and boosted the demand for international education.

In the meantime, the rapid expansion of tertiary education in OECD countries – as well as in most emerging countries more recently (OECD, 2005d) – added financial pressure on education systems. In some countries, foreign students were actively recruited as tertiary institutions increasingly relied upon financial revenues from foreign tuition fees to operate their activities. In a number of other countries, however, education abroad was encouraged as a solution to address unmet demand resulting from bottlenecks in education provision in the context of the rapid expansion of tertiary education.

In the past few years, the rise of the knowledge economy and global competition for skills provided a new driver for the internationalisation of education systems in many OECD countries, whereby the recruitment of foreign students is part of a broader strategy to recruit highly skilled immigrants.

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

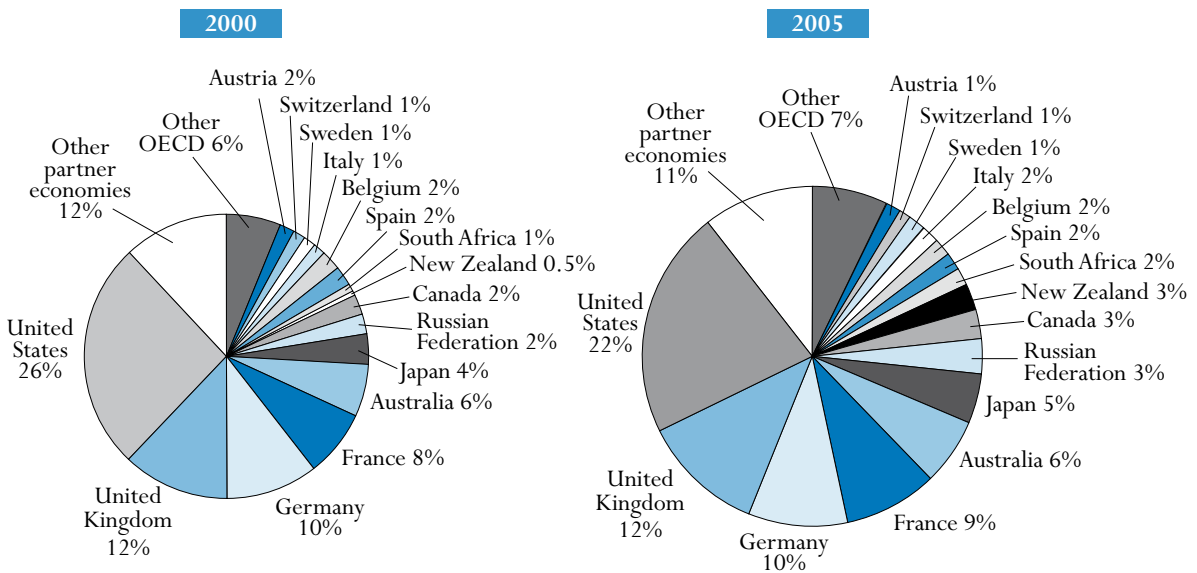
Major destinations of foreign students

In 2005, more than five out of ten foreign students went to a relatively small number of destinations. Indeed, only four countries host the majority of foreign students enrolled outside of their country of citizenship: the United States receives the most foreign students (in absolute terms) with 22% of the total of all foreign students worldwide, followed by the United Kingdom (12%), Germany (10%) and France (9%). Altogether, these four major destinations account for 52% of all tertiary students pursuing their studies abroad (Chart C3.2).


Besides these four major destinations, in 2005 significant numbers of foreign students were enrolled in Australia (6%), Japan (5%), Canada (3%), New Zealand (3%) and the partner economy the Russian Federation (3%).

Chart C3.2. Distribution of foreign students by country of destination (2000, 2005)

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



Source: OECD and UNESCO Institute for Statistics for most data on partner economies. Table C3.8 (available on line at the link below). See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2007).

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

The examination of country-specific trends in market shares on the international education market – measured as the percentage of all foreign students worldwide enrolled in a given destination – sheds light on the dynamics of internationalisation of tertiary education.

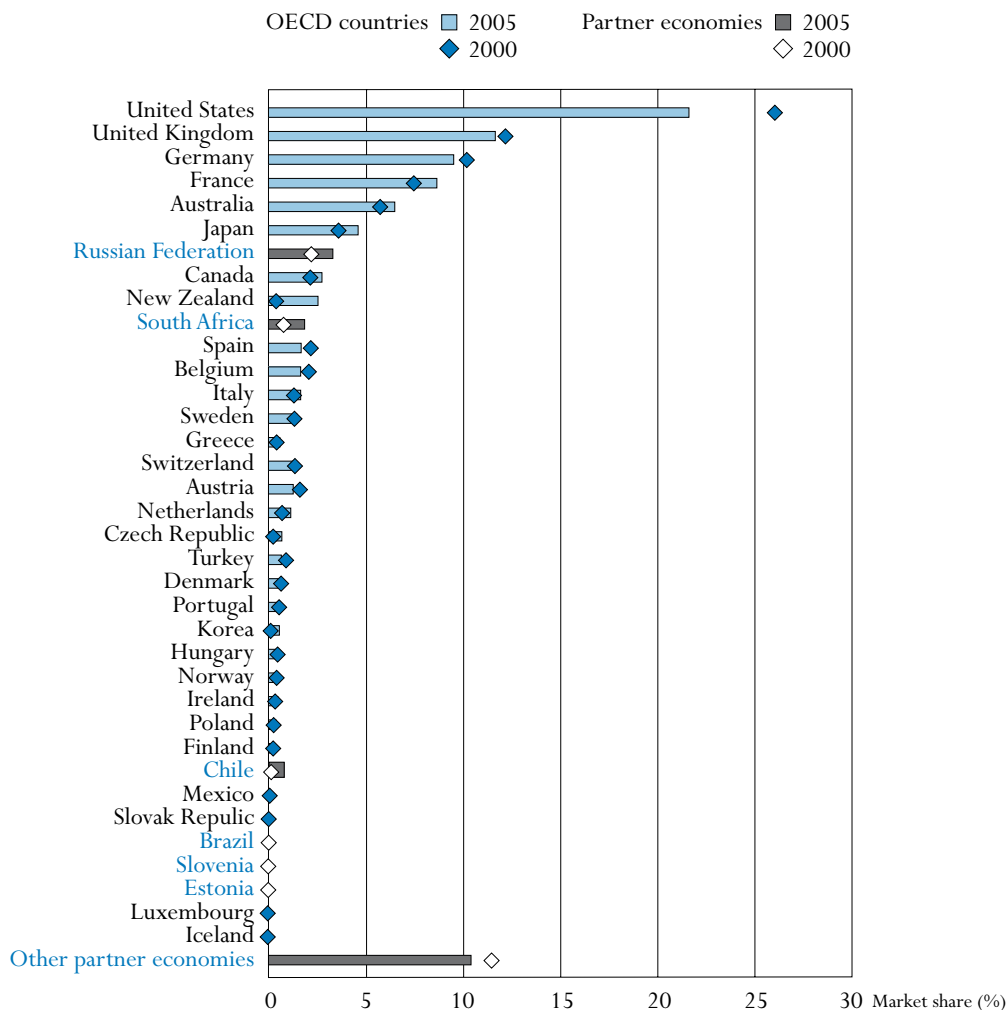
The United States saw a significant drop as a preferred destination of foreign students, from 26.1 to 21.6% of the global intake. Austria, Belgium, Germany, Spain, Switzerland and the United Kingdom saw a lesser decline, with their market shares dropping by about one-half of a percentage point over the five year period scrutinised. In contrast, the market shares of France,

New Zealand and the partner economies South Africa and the Russian Federation expanded by 1 percentage point or more. The growth in market position was most impressive for New Zealand (2.1%), thereby positioning the country among the big players in the international education market (Chart C3.3).

These trends underline the different dynamics of international education in OECD and partner economies, and reflect different emphases of internationalisation policies, ranging from proactive marketing policies in the Asia-Pacific region to a more passive approach in the traditionally dominant United States. The United States foreign student intake was also affected by the tightening of the conditions of entry for international students in the aftermath of the events of 11 September 2001 (see Indicator C3, *Education at a Glance 2005* [OECD, 2005d]).


Chart C3.3. Trends in international education market shares (2000, 2005)

Percentage of all foreign tertiary students enrolled, by destination



Countries are ranked in descending order of 2005 market shares.

Source: OECD and UNESCO Institute for Statistics for most data on partner economies. Table C3.8 (available on line at the link below). See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2007).

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Underlying factors in students' choice of a country of study

Language of instruction: a critical factor in the choice of a country of study

The language spoken and used in instruction is critical for selecting a foreign country in which to study. Therefore, countries whose language of instruction is widely spoken and read (*e.g.* English, French, German and Russian) dominate in the destinations of foreign students, be it in absolute or relative terms. A notable exception is Japan, which despite a less widespread language of instruction enrolls large numbers of foreign students - where 94.2% of its foreign students are from Asia (Table C3.2 and Chart C3.3).

The dominance of English-speaking destinations such as Australia, Canada, the United Kingdom and the United States (in absolute numbers) may be largely attributable to the fact that students intending to study abroad are most likely to have learnt English in their home country, and/or wish to improve their English language skills through immersion and study abroad. The rapid increase in foreign enrolments in Australia (index change of 167), Ireland (174) and, most importantly, New Zealand (845) between 2000 and 2005 can to some extent be attributed to similar linguistic considerations (Table C3.1).

Given this pattern, an increasing number of institutions in non-English-speaking countries now offer courses in English to overcome their linguistic disadvantage in attracting foreign students. This trend is especially noticeable in Nordic countries (Box C3.2).

Impact of tuition fees and cost of living on foreign student destinations

Tuition fees and cost of living are equally important factors for prospective international students when deciding in which country to study.

In Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden, tuition fees do not exist for domestic and international students alike (Box C3.3). This cost pattern associated with 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 2005 (Table C3.1). However, high unit costs in tertiary education at no fee incur a high monetary burden of international students for their countries of destination (see Table B1.1). As a result, Denmark has recently adopted tuition fees for non-EU and non-EEA international students, as of 2006-2007. Similar debates are currently underway in Finland, Norway and Sweden where foreign enrolments grew by more than 50% between 2000 and 2005.

Indeed, the trade benefits of international education are all the more important as countries charge the full cost of education to their international students. Several countries in the Asia-Pacific region have actually made international education an explicit part of their socio-economic development strategies and have initiated policies to attract international students on a revenue-generating or at least self-financing basis. Australia and New Zealand have successfully adopted differentiated tuition fees for international students. In Japan and Korea, although tuition fees are the same for domestic and international students, foreign enrolments also grew at a robust pace between 2000 and 2005 despite high levels of tuition fees (see Indicator B5). This pattern highlights that tuition costs do not necessarily discourage prospective international students as long as the quality of education provided and its likely returns for individuals make the investment worthwhile. However, in choosing between similar educational opportunities, cost considerations may play a role, especially for students originating from developing countries. In this respect, the comparatively low progress of foreign enrolments in the United Kingdom and the United States between 2000 and 2005 and

**Box C3.2. OECD countries and partner economies
offering tertiary programmes in English (2005)**

Use of English language in instruction	OECD countries and partner economies
All or nearly all education programmes in the country are offered in English	Australia, Canada ¹ , Ireland, New Zealand, United Kingdom, United States
Many education programmes in the country are offered in English	Denmark, Finland, Netherlands, Sweden
Some education programmes in the country are offered in English	Belgium (Fl.), Czech Republic, France, Germany, Hungary, Iceland, Japan, Korea, Norway, Poland, Slovak Republic, Switzerland, Turkey
None or nearly no education programmes in the country are offered in English	Austria, Belgium (Fr.), Greece, Italy, Luxembourg, Mexico, Portugal, Spain Brazil, Chile, Israel, Russian Federation

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

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

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

the deterioration of its market share on the international education market over the same period may be attributed to the comparatively high level of tuition fees charged to international students in the context of fierce competition from other primarily English-speaking destinations offering similar educational opportunities at a lower cost (Box C3.3).

Other important factors guiding the destinations of foreign students relate to 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 credit transfer between home and host institutions. The transparency and flexibility of courses and degree requirements also count. In the recent years, several OECD countries have softened their immigration policies to encourage the temporary or permanent immigration of their international students. As a result, immigration considerations may also guide the directions of some international students choosing between alternative educational opportunities abroad (Tremblay, 2005).

Extent of student mobility in tertiary education

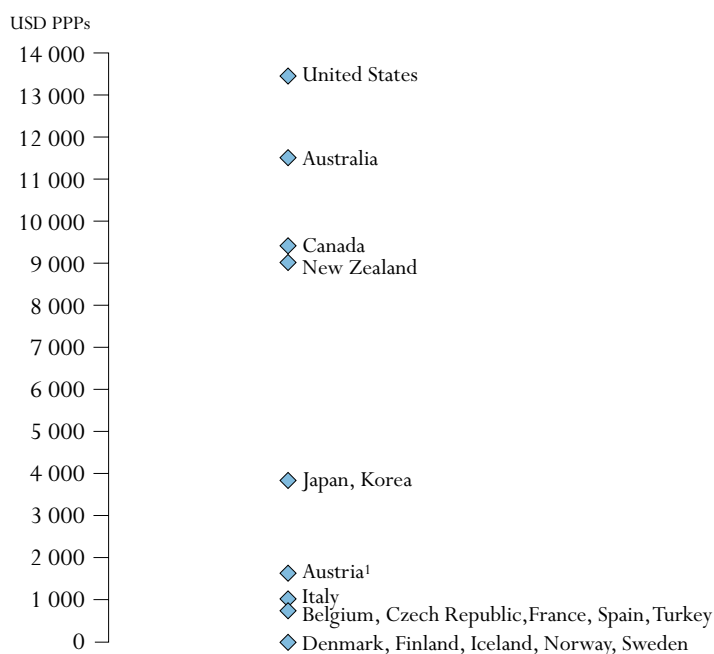
The foregoing analysis has focused on trends in the absolute numbers of foreign students and their distribution by countries of destination since no time series or global aggregates exist on student mobility.

It is also possible to measure the extent of student mobility in each country of destination if not at the global level, then by examining the proportion of international students in total tertiary enrolments. The advantage of this indicator is that it takes the size of the different tertiary education systems into account and highlights the highly internationalised education systems regardless of their size and the importance of their absolute market share.

Box C3.3. Level of tuition fees charged for international students in public universities (academic year 2004–2005)

Tuition fee structure	Countries
Higher tuition fees for international students than for domestic students	Australia, Austria ¹ , Belgium ¹ , Canada, Czech Republic, Estonia ¹ , Netherlands ¹ , New Zealand, Turkey, United Kingdom ¹ , United States ³
Same tuition fees for international and domestic students	France, Italy, Japan, Korea, Mexico ² , Spain
No tuition fees for either international or domestic students	Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, Sweden

Annual average tuition fees charged to international students by public tertiary-type A institutions (2004)



1. For non-European Union or non-European Economic Area students.
2. Some institutions charge higher tuition fees for international students.
3. International students pay the same fees as domestic out-of-state students. However since most domestic students are enrolled in-state, international students pay higher tuition fees than most domestic students in practice.

Source: OECD. Indicator B5. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eqg2007).

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

Australia, Austria, France, 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, 17.3% of tertiary students enrolled in the country have come to the country expressly to pursue their studies. Similarly, international students represent 11% of total tertiary enrolments in Austria, 10.8% in France, 17% in New Zealand, 13.2% in Switzerland and 13.9% in the United Kingdom. In contrast, incoming student mobility remains 1% or less of total tertiary enrolments in Greece, the Slovak Republic, Spain and the partner economies Brazil and Slovenia. (Chart C3.1).

Among countries where data on student mobility are not available, foreign enrolments constitute a large group of tertiary students in Germany (11.5%), suggesting significant levels of incoming student mobility. However foreign enrolments – and student mobility – represent 1% or less of total tertiary enrolments in Korea, Poland, Turkey and the partner economy Chile (Table C3.1).

Student mobility at different levels of tertiary education

Looking at the proportions of international students at different levels of tertiary education in each country of destination sheds light on patterns of student mobility. A first observation is that with the exception of Japan, New Zealand and Norway, tertiary-type B programmes are far less internationalised than tertiary-type A programmes, suggesting that international students are mostly attracted to traditional academic programmes where degree transferability is often easier. With the exception of Italy, Portugal and Spain, this observation also holds true among countries where data on student mobility are not available (Table C3.1).

In Australia, New Zealand and the Slovak Republic, the proportions of international students are roughly the same in tertiary-type A and advanced research programmes, suggesting that these countries of destination are successful at attracting students from abroad from the start of their tertiary education, and/or keeping them beyond their first degrees. In contrast, other countries display significantly higher incoming student mobility relative to total enrolments in advanced research programmes than in the tertiary-type A programmes that precede advanced research studies. This pattern is most obvious in Belgium, France, Hungary, Japan, Norway, Spain, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States, as well as in Iceland, Poland, Portugal and Turkey, and in the partner economy Chile, among countries where data on student mobility are not available. It may reflect a strong attractiveness of advanced research programmes in these countries, or a preferred recruitment of international students at higher levels of education to capitalise on their contribution to domestic research and development or in anticipation of their subsequent recruitment as highly qualified immigrants.

Profile of international student intake in different destinations

Importance of Asia among regions of origin

Asian students form the largest group of international students enrolled in countries reporting data to the OECD or the UNESCO Institute for Statistics, with 48.9% of the total in all reporting destinations (47.4% of the total in OECD countries, and 57.3% of the total in partner economies). In the OECD, the Asian group is followed by Europeans (24.9%), in particular citizens of the European Union (16.9%). Students from Africa account for 11.0% of all international students, while those from North America account for only 3.7%. Finally, students from South America

represent 5.7% of the total. Altogether, 32.0% of international students enrolled in the OECD area originate from another OECD country (Table C3.2).

This predominance of students from Asia is most notable in Australia, Greece, Japan, Korea and New Zealand, where more than 76% of their international or foreign students originate from Asia.

Main countries of origin of international students

The predominance of students from Asia and Europe among international intakes is also notable when looking at individual countries of origin. Students from Japan and Korea comprise the largest groups of international students enrolled in the OECD, at 2.9 and 4.5% of the total respectively, followed by students from France and Germany at 2.1% and 2.9% respectively (Table C3.2).

With respect to international students originating from partner economies, students from China represent by far the largest group, with 16.7% of all international students enrolled in the OECD area (not including an additional 1.4% from Hong Kong, China). The destination of choice for the Chinese is the United States, followed closely by Japan, with 22.8% and 20.6% of all international Chinese students enrolled in each of those two countries respectively. Students from China are followed by those from India (6.2%), Morocco (1.9%), Malaysia (1.9%) and the Russian Federation (1.4%). A significant number of Asians also come from Indonesia, Thailand, Vietnam and Singapore (Table C3.2 and Table C3.8, available on line at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/068417017111>).

International students' intake by level and type of tertiary education highlights specialisations

In some countries a comparatively large proportion of international students are enrolled in tertiary-type B programmes. This is the case in Belgium (29.4%), Greece (21.3%), Japan (24.2%), New Zealand (26.1%) and the partner economy Slovenia (26%). Among countries where data on student mobility are not available, foreign enrolments in tertiary-type B programmes also constitute a large group of foreign students in the partner economy Chile (27.2%) (Table C3.4).

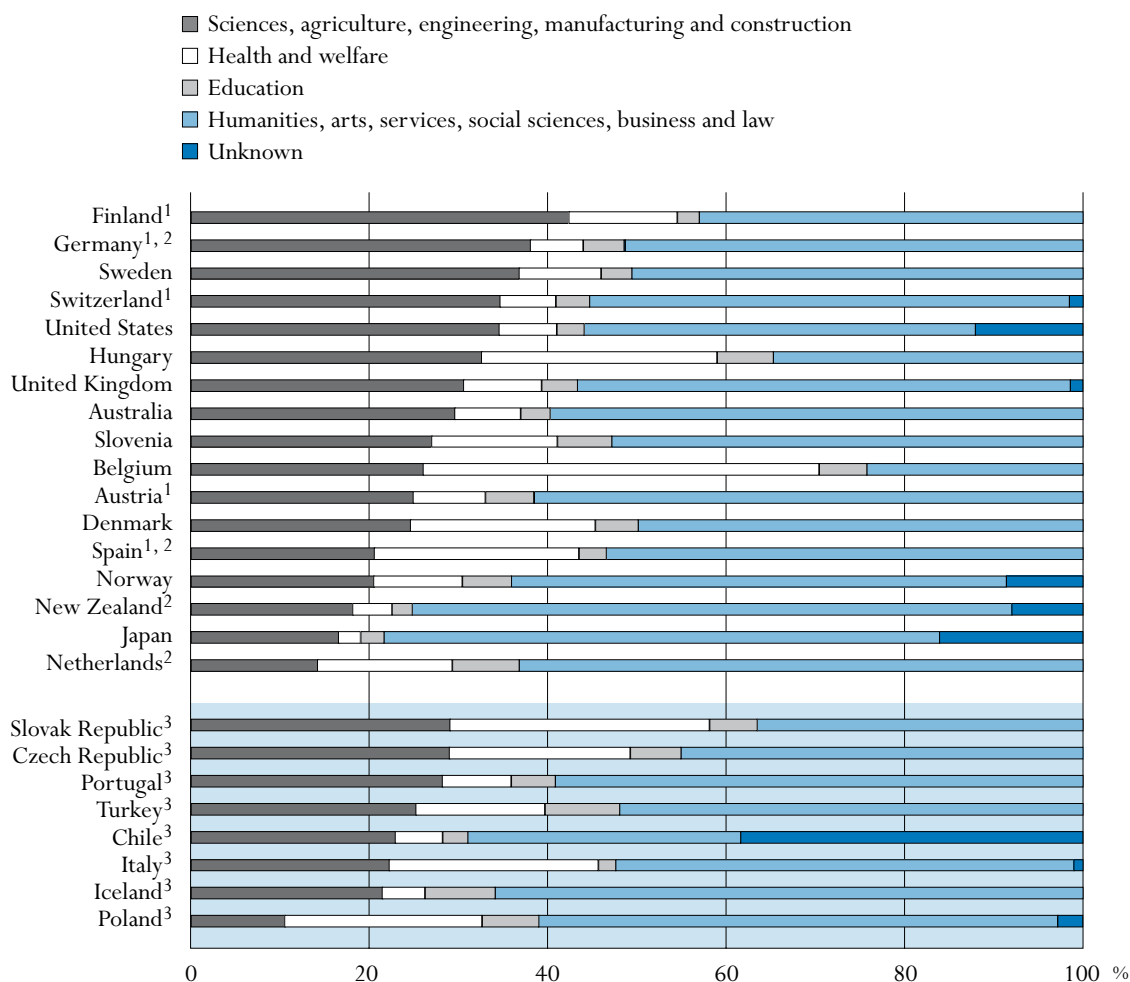
In contrast, other countries see a large proportion of their international students enrolling in advanced research programmes. This is most notably the case in Spain (33%), Switzerland (27.1%) and the partner economy Brazil (42.8%). Such patterns suggest that these countries offer attractive advanced programmes to prospective international graduate students. This concentration can also be observed – although to a more limited extent – among international students in Finland (14.3%), France (12%), the United Kingdom (11.5%) and the United States (15.7%). All of these countries are likely to benefit from contributions of these high-level international students to domestic research and development. In addition, this specialisation can also generate higher tuition revenue per international student in the countries charging full tuition costs to foreign students (Box C3.3).

International student intake by field of education underlines magnet centres

As shown in Table C3.5, sciences attract about one in six international students in Australia (17.7%), Germany (17.4%), Switzerland (17.1%) and the United States (18.7%), but less than one in fifty in Japan (1.2%). However, this picture changes slightly when considering scientific disciplines in a broader sense – *i.e.* adding agriculture, engineering, manufacturing and construction programmes. Finland receives the largest proportion of its international students in

these fields, at 42.4%. The proportion of international students enrolled in agriculture, sciences or engineering is also high in Australia (29.6%), Germany (38.1%), Hungary (32.6%), Sweden (36.8%), Switzerland (34.7%), the United Kingdom (30.6%) and the United States (34.6%). Similarly, among countries where data on student mobility are not available, agriculture, sciences and engineering attract about one in three foreign students in the Czech Republic (29.0%) and the Slovak Republic (29.1%). In contrast, few foreign students are enrolled in agriculture, sciences and engineering in Poland (Chart C3.4).

Chart C3.4. Distribution of international students by field of education (2005)
Percentage of all international tertiary students enrolled in different fields of education




1. Excludes tertiary-type B programmes.

2. Excludes advanced research programmes.

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

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

Source: OECD, Table C3.5. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2007).

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It is noteworthy that most countries enrolling large proportions of their international students in agriculture, sciences and engineering deliver programmes in the English language. In the case of Germany, the large proportion of foreign students in scientific disciplines may also reflect the strong tradition of the country in these fields.

Non-Anglophone countries, however, tend to enrol a higher proportion of their international students in the humanities and arts fields. Indeed, humanities and arts are favoured by over 20% of the international students in Austria (24.7%), Germany (23%), Japan (25.2%) and the partner economy Slovenia (21%). Among countries where data on student mobility are not available, this is also the case in Iceland (49.2%) and Poland (21.1%).

Social sciences, business and law programmes also attract international students in large numbers. In Australia and New Zealand these fields of education enrol more than half of all international students (at 50.7% and 60.4% respectively). The proportion of international students enrolled in social sciences, business and law is also high in the United Kingdom (40.1%) and the Netherlands (47.1%). Among countries where data on student mobility are not available, Portugal (45.5%) has the highest proportion of its foreign students enrolled in social sciences business and law.

The situation of health and welfare educational programmes is fairly specific since it depends to a large extent on national policies of medical degree recognition. Health and welfare programmes attract large proportions of international students in EU countries, most notably in Belgium (44.4%), Denmark (20.7%), Hungary (26.4%) and Spain (22.9%). Among countries where data on student mobility are not available, health and welfare programmes are also chosen by one-fifth to one-quarter of foreign students in the Czech Republic (20.3%), Italy (23.4%), Poland (22.1%) and the Slovak Republic (29.1%). This pattern is related to the existence of quotas in many European countries restricting access to educational programmes in the medical field. This increases the demand for training abroad in other EU countries to bypass these quotas, and to take advantage of EU countries' automatic recognition of medical degrees under the European Medical Directive.

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

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

On the demand side, the characteristics of international students can help to explain their concentration in some fields of education. For instance, students in scientific disciplines are usually less likely to be fluent in many different languages, which may explain their stronger propensity to study in countries offering education programmes in English, and their lesser propensity to enrol in countries where these are less common (*e.g.* Japan). 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. Last, EU provisions for the recognition of medical degrees clearly drive the concentration of international students in health and welfare programmes in EU countries.

Destinations of citizens enrolled abroad

When studying in tertiary education outside of their country of citizenship, OECD students enrol predominantly in another country of the OECD area. On average, only 3.2% of foreign students from OECD are enrolled in a partner economy to acquire their tertiary education. The proportion of foreign students from partner economies enrolled in another partner economy is significantly higher, with more than 18% of foreign students from Chile, Estonia, Israel and the Russian Federation enrolled in another partner economy. In contrast, students from the Czech Republic (0.7%), France (0.9%), Iceland (0.1%), Ireland (0.2%), and most notably, Luxembourg (0%) display an extremely low propensity to study outside of the OECD area (Table C3.3).

Language considerations, geographic proximity and similarity of education systems are important determinants of the choice of destination. Geographic considerations and differences in entry requirements are likely explanations of the concentration of students from Austria in Germany, from Belgium in France and the Netherlands, from France in Belgium, from Canada in the United States, from New Zealand in Australia, from China in Japan etc. Language issues as well as academic traditions also shed light on the propensity for Anglophone students to concentrate in other countries of the Commonwealth or in the United States, even those geographically distant. Migration networks also play a role, as illustrated by the concentration of students of 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, be it due to considerations of academic reputation, or as a result of subsequent immigration opportunities. In this respect, it is noteworthy that students from China are mostly concentrated in Australia, Germany, Japan, New Zealand, the United Kingdom and the United States – most of which have set up 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 87.1% of Indian citizens enrolled abroad.

International students' contribution to tertiary graduate output and immigration implications

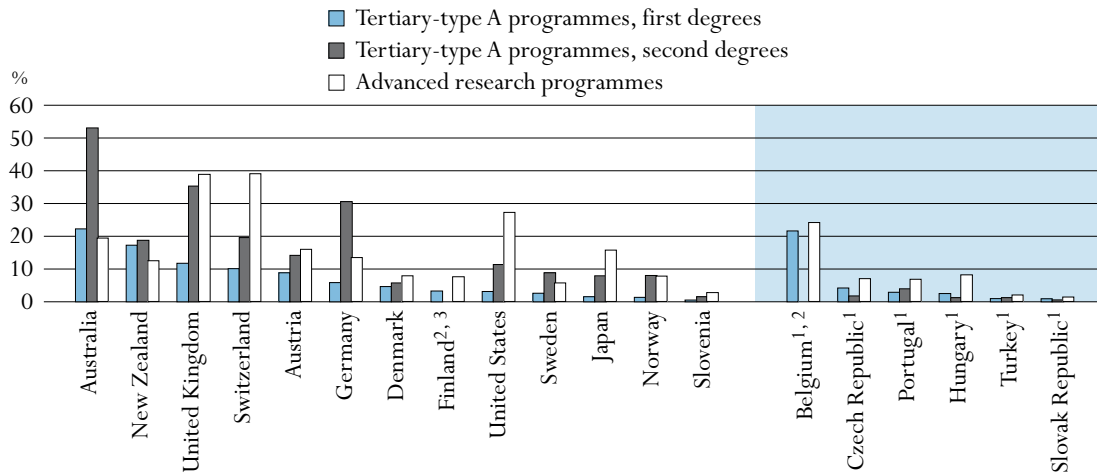
International students' contribution to the graduate output

International students make a significant contribution to the tertiary graduate output of the most internationalised education systems. In some highly internationalised levels of education, this contribution artificially inflates tertiary graduation rates. It is therefore important to examine the contribution of international students to the graduate output of different types of tertiary programmes to assess the extent of this over-estimation (see Indicator A3).

In Australia, Germany, Switzerland and the United Kingdom, more than 30% of tertiary-type A second degrees or advanced research degrees are awarded to international students. This pattern implies that the true domestic graduate output is significantly over-estimated in overall graduation rates. This over-estimation is most important for tertiary-type A second degree programmes in Australia and the United Kingdom and advanced research programmes in Switzerland and the United Kingdom, where international graduates represent more than 35% of the graduate output. The contribution of international students to the graduate output is also significant – although to a lesser extent – in Austria, Japan, New Zealand and the United States, and among countries where student mobility data are not available, in Belgium (Chart C3.5).

However, the contribution of international students to the tertiary graduate output of Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden and the partner economy Slovenia is more limited. The same holds for foreign students of the Czech Republic, Hungary, Portugal, the Slovak Republic and Turkey (Table C3.7). This makes it more difficult for these countries to capitalise on this external contribution to domestic human capital production.

Chart C3.5. Proportion of international and foreign graduates in tertiary graduate output (2005)
Percentage of all tertiary qualifications awarded to international students




1. Proportion of foreign graduates in tertiary graduate output. These data are not comparable with data on international graduates and are therefore presented separately.

2. First degrees programmes include second degrees.

3. Year of reference 2004.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the proportion of international graduates in tertiary type-A first degree programmes. Source: OECD, Table C3.7. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2007).

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Definitions and methodologies

Data sources, definitions and reference period

Data on international and foreign students are based on the UOE data collection on education statistics administered annually by the OECD. 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 legislations, 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 legislations. 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 where 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 where 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/eag2007).

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 to capture student mobility as a result 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 – 20.6 and 18.4% respectively – these proportions reflect significant differences in the actual levels of student mobility – 17.3% of tertiary enrolments in Australia and 13.2% in Switzerland (Table C3.1). This is because Australia is an immigration country and 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.

Unless mentioned otherwise, data refer to the academic year 2004–2005.

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 allows to measure the proportion of international enrolments in an education system, but the actual number of individuals involved in foreign exchange may be much higher since many students study abroad for less than a full academic year, or participate in exchange programmes that do not require enrolment (*e.g.* inter-university exchange or advanced research short-term mobility). On the other hand, 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 tertiary institutions of Australia and the United Kingdom (OECD, 2004d).

Since data on international and foreign students are obtained from tertiary enrolments in their country of destination, the data therefore relate to students that are coming in rather than to students going abroad. Countries of destination covered by this indicator include all of the OECD countries (with the exception of Luxembourg and Mexico) and the partner economies Brazil, Chile, Estonia, the Russian Federation and Slovenia, as well as partner economies reporting similar data to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics 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 instead on the numbers of foreign citizens where data consistent across countries and over time are readily available. Yet the data do not include students enrolled in OECD and partner economies that did not report foreign students to the OECD nor to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics. All statements on students enrolled abroad may therefore underestimate the real number of citizens studying abroad (Table C3.3), especially so for countries where numerous citizens study in countries that do not report their foreign students to the OECD or UNESCO Institute for Statistics (*e.g.* China, India).

Table C3.1. displays international as well as foreign enrolments as a proportion of the total enrolment at each level of tertiary education. Total enrolment, used as a denominator, comprises all persons studying in the country (including domestic and international students) but excludes students from that country who study abroad. The table also exhibits changes between 2000 and 2005 in foreign enrolments for all tertiary education.

Tables C3.2, C3.4 and C3.5 show the distribution of international students enrolled in an education system – or foreign students for countries that do not have information on student mobility – according to their country of origin in Table C3.2, according to their level and type of tertiary education in Table C3.4, and according to the field of education they are enrolled in for Table C3.5.

Table C3.3 presents the distribution of citizens of a given country enrolled abroad according to their country of destination (or country of study). As mentioned above, the total number of students enrolled abroad 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 can be biased and overestimated for countries where large numbers of students study in non-reporting countries.

Table C3.6 shows trends in the absolute number of foreign students reported by OECD countries and worldwide between 2000 and 2005, and the indexes of change between 2005 and the years from 2000 to 2004. It should be noted that the figures are based on the number of foreign students enrolled in countries reporting data to the OECD and to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics. Since data for partner economies 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 C3.7 presents the percentage of tertiary qualifications awarded to international students – or foreign students for countries that do not have information on student mobility. It provides an indication of the contribution of international or foreign students to the graduate output of different levels and types of tertiary education.

Table C3.8 (available on line at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/068417017111>) 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 graduation rates and may artificially increase them in some fields or levels of education (see Indicator A3).

In countries where differentiated tuition fees are applied to international students, student mobility may boost the financial resources of tertiary educational institutions and contribute to the financing of the education system. On the other hand, international students may represent a high financial burden for countries where 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 post-secondary 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 trade and policy implications of the internationalisation of tertiary education see *Internationalisation and Trade in Higher Education: Opportunities and Challenges* (OECD, 2004d).

Table C3.1.
Student mobility and foreign students in tertiary education (2000, 2005)

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

Reading the first column: 17.3% of all students in tertiary education in Australia are international students and 13.2% of all students in tertiary education in Switzerland are international students. According to country-specific immigration legislations and data availability constraints, student mobility is either defined on the basis of students' country of residence (*i.e.* Australia) or the country where students received their prior education (*i.e.* Switzerland). The data presented in this table on student mobility represent the best available proxy of student mobility for each country.

Reading the fifth column: 20.6% of all students in tertiary education in Australia are non-Australian citizens, and 18.4% of all students in tertiary education in Switzerland are non-Swiss citizens.

	Student mobility				Foreign enrolments				Index of change in the number of foreign students, total tertiary (2000=100)
	International students as a percentage of all tertiary enrolment				Foreign students as a percentage of all tertiary enrolment				
	Total tertiary	Tertiary-type B programmes	Tertiary-type A programmes	Advanced research programmes	Total tertiary	Tertiary-type B programmes	Tertiary-type A programmes	Advanced research programmes	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	
OECD countries									
Australia ¹	17.3	6.8	19.3	17.8	20.6	6.9	23.0	28.3	167
Austria ^{1,3}	11.0	m	12.1	15.4	14.1	m	15.4	20.2	114
Belgium ¹	6.5	4.4	7.7	19.9	11.7	8.9	13.1	30.8	117
Canada	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Czech Republic	m	m	m	m	5.5	1.2	5.9	7.2	339
Denmark ¹	4.4	3.0	4.6	6.9	7.5	9.4	7.0	18.5	135
Finland ^{2,3}	3.6	m	3.3	7.3	2.8	n	2.4	7.3	152
France ¹	10.8	4.5	11.7	34.4	m	m	m	m	173
Germany ²	m	m	10.6	m	11.5	4.0	12.8	m	139
Greece ^{1,3}	0.4	0.3	0.6	m	2.4	2.2	2.7	m	182
Hungary ¹	2.7	0.3	2.8	7.9	3.1	0.4	3.2	8.6	137
Iceland	m	m	m	m	3.2	1.3	3.2	12.7	120
Ireland ²	6.9	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	174
Italy	m	m	m	m	2.2	6.0	2.1	4.3	180
Japan ¹	2.8	2.8	2.5	16.3	3.1	2.9	2.8	17.1	189
Korea	m	m	m	m	0.5	x(5)	x(5)	x(5)	459
Luxembourg	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Mexico	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Netherlands ³	4.7	a	4.7	m	5.6	a	5.7	m	225
New Zealand ¹	17.0	17.5	16.8	16.6	28.9	27.9	29.0	38.3	845
Norway ¹	1.9	4.7	1.7	5.2	4.8	3.1	4.5	18.6	154
Poland	m	m	m	m	0.5	n	0.4	3.2	166
Portugal	m	m	m	m	4.5	5.6	4.3	7.3	152
Slovak Republic ¹	0.9	0.2	0.9	0.7	0.9	0.3	1.0	0.8	107
Spain ^{1,3}	1.0	m	0.8	7.6	2.5	3.1	1.6	18.9	112
Sweden ¹	4.4	1.2	4.8	n	9.2	5.4	8.7	20.3	154
Switzerland ^{2,3}	13.2	m	13.1	43.3	18.4	13.1	17.0	43.2	142
Turkey	m	m	m	m	0.9	0.2	1.1	2.9	103
United Kingdom ¹	13.9	5.6	15.1	40.0	17.3	11.2	17.8	41.4	143
United States ¹	3.4	2.1	3.2	24.1	m	m	m	m	124
<i>OECD average</i>	<i>6.7</i>	<i>3.8</i>	<i>7.2</i>	<i>16.5</i>	<i>7.6</i>	<i>5.1</i>	<i>8.0</i>	<i>17.5</i>	<i>193</i>
<i>EU 19 average</i>	<i>5.5</i>	<i>2.2</i>	<i>6.1</i>	<i>14.0</i>	<i>6.3</i>	<i>3.8</i>	<i>6.5</i>	<i>14.5</i>	<i>161</i>
Partner economies									
Brazil ^{1,3}	0.1	m	m	1.0	m	m	m	m	89
Chile	m	m	m	m	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.8	57
Estonia ¹	1.3	0.1	1.9	2.5	m	m	m	m	103
Israel	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Russian Federation ^{3,4}	m	m	m	m	1.2	0.3	1.4	m	219
Slovenia ¹	1.0	0.5	1.4	4.4	1.1	0.7	1.4	4.9	158

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

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

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

4. Excludes private institutions.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2007).

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


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/068417017111>

Table C3.2.

Distribution of international and foreign students in tertiary education, by country of origin (2005)

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 is not available, the table shows the proportion of foreign students in tertiary education that have citizenship of a given country origin.

Reading the third column: 8.5% of international tertiary students in Denmark are German residents, 0.5% of international tertiary students in Denmark are Greek residents, etc.

Reading the fifth column: 5.1% of international tertiary students in Ireland had their prior education in Germany, 0.4% of international tertiary students in Ireland had their prior education in Greece, etc.

Reading the 14th column: 20.5% of foreign tertiary students in Austria are German citizens, 0.7% of foreign tertiary students in Austria are Greek citizens, etc.

		Countries of destination																		
		OECD countries																		
		International students												Foreign students						
		Australia ¹	Belgium ^{1,2}	Denmark ¹	Germany ^{3,4,5}	Ireland ³	Netherlands ⁴	New Zealand ¹	Slovak Republic ¹	Spain ^{1,5}	Sweden ¹	Switzerland ^{3,5}	United Kingdom ¹	United States ¹	Austria ^{5,6}	Czech Republic ^{6,7}	Finland ⁶	France ⁶	Greece ^{6,7}	
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	0.1	2.2	0.2	0.4	0.1	6.7	n	0.1	1.2	0.1	0.5	0.1	n	0.4	0.1	n		
	Austria	0.1	n	0.6	2.2	0.4	0.3	0.1	0.4	0.5	1.8	0.9	0.4	0.2	a	0.1	0.4	0.2		
	Belgium	n	a	1.5	0.6	0.5	4.1	n	n	1.8	0.9	0.3	0.8	0.1	0.2	n	0.3	1.1		
	Canada	1.9	0.2	1.0	0.3	2.8	0.1	1.1	0.5	0.2	1.2	0.4	1.3	5.0	0.1	0.2	0.8	0.5		
	Czech Republic	0.1	0.1	0.1	1.0	0.2	0.2	0.1	26.5	0.2	0.9	0.2	0.2	0.2	1.3	a	0.6	0.3		
	Denmark	0.1	n	a	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	n	0.2	0.9	0.1	0.5	0.2	0.2	n	0.6	0.1		
	Finland	n	n	0.6	0.4	0.6	0.4	n	0.2	0.2	2.8	0.1	0.6	0.1	0.5	n	a	0.1		
	France	0.3	36.0	4.4	3.1	5.4	1.0	0.7	0.1	4.6	5.9	6.6	3.7	1.2	1.3	0.1	1.7	a		
	Germany	0.9	0.8	8.5	a	5.1	25.6	2.6	0.7	4.3	9.3	9.4	3.9	1.5	20.5	1.0	3.8	2.5		
	Greece	n	0.4	0.5	1.4	0.4	0.4	n	5.3	0.4	0.4	0.3	6.2	0.4	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.9		
	Hungary	n	0.1	0.1	1.2	0.1	0.4	n	1.3	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	3.3	0.2	1.2	0.3		
	Iceland	n	n	7.8	0.1	n	0.2	n	n	0.1	0.2	n	0.1	0.1	0.1	n	0.2	n		
	Ireland	0.1	0.1	1.1	0.2	a	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.3	n	5.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.2		
	Italy	0.1	0.4	1.3	1.9	1.5	0.6	n	n	3.9	2.0	2.6	1.7	0.6	18.1	0.1	1.4	1.7		
	Japan	1.9	0.2	0.3	1.0	0.4	0.3	2.2	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.4	1.9	7.5	0.7	0.1	1.2	0.9		
	Korea	2.4	0.1	0.1	1.8	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.2	1.2	9.4	0.9	0.1	0.5	0.9		
	Luxembourg	n	4.7	0.7	1.1	0.1	0.1	n	0.3	n	0.5	0.3	n	1.1	n	n	0.5	0.7		
	Mexico	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.6	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	9.0	0.5	0.2	0.6	2.3	0.1	n	0.5	0.6		
	Netherlands	0.1	7.5	1.1	0.5	0.6	a	0.1	n	0.7	2.4	0.2	0.8	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.9	0.2		
	New Zealand	1.0	n	0.5	0.1	0.1	n	a	n	0.1	n	0.2	0.2	n	n	0.1	n	n		
	Norway	1.4	n	14.9	0.4	1.4	0.4	0.6	3.3	0.2	0.7	0.1	1.0	0.3	0.2	0.8	0.7	0.1		
	Poland	0.1	0.4	1.2	6.4	0.9	1.2	n	1.6	0.9	1.7	0.7	0.7	0.5	3.7	1.0	1.6	1.4		
	Portugal	n	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.3	n	0.1	9.3	0.5	0.2	0.9	0.2	0.2	0.6	0.3	1.1		
	Slovak Republic	0.1	0.1	n	0.6	0.1	0.2	n	a	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.1	3.5	54.6	0.3	0.2		
	Spain	0.1	0.4	2.8	2.2	2.7	0.8	n	0.1	a	4.0	0.7	1.9	0.6	1.0	0.1	1.4	1.5		
	Sweden	0.6	n	6.2	0.3	0.7	0.3	0.5	0.2	0.5	a	0.3	1.1	0.5	0.6	0.3	6.4	0.2		
	Switzerland	0.2	0.1	1.4	0.9	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	1.2	0.8	a	0.5	0.2	0.8	n	0.5	0.6		
	Turkey	0.1	0.3	0.4	3.3	n	0.8	n	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.6	0.6	2.2	5.4	0.2	0.7	1.0		
United Kingdom	0.9	0.1	13.6	0.9	9.1	0.7	1.0	0.4	2.6	1.5	0.4	a	1.5	0.5	1.8	2.3	1.0			
United States	1.8	0.5	5.5	1.7	16.8	0.5	5.1	0.8	1.8	2.6	0.7	4.5	a	1.0	0.6	2.2	1.0			
Total from OECD countries	14.7	53.3	79.0	34.9	51.4	39.7	21.5	42.4	44.0	44.2	26.8	41.3	35.9	66.6	62.9	31.9	19.3	2.2		
Partner economies	Brazil	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.8	0.1	0.1	0.1	3.9	0.1	0.5	0.4	1.3	0.1	n	0.4	0.8	n		
	Chile	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.4	n	0.1	0.1	2.8	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.6	n	n	0.2	0.2	n		
	China	21.1	3.5	7.7	11.9	12.2	8.3	57.0	n	0.6	0.8	1.0	16.5	15.7	3.1	0.2	16.4	6.1		
	Estonia	n	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.1	n	n	0.9	0.2	n	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	n	7.1	n		
	India	11.6	0.6	1.0	1.9	2.6	0.2	3.8	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.4	5.2	14.2	0.3	0.4	2.0	0.2		
	Israel	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.6	n	0.4	n	9.2	0.2	n	0.1	0.4	0.6	0.1	0.8	0.3	0.1		
	Russian Federation	0.3	0.4	0.7	5.7	0.9	1.1	0.5	1.5	0.4	0.3	0.8	0.6	0.9	1.1	3.3	13.3	1.1		
	Slovenia	n	n	n	0.1	n	0.1	n	0.2	n	0.2	n	0.1	0.1	1.6	0.1	0.1	n		
	Main geographic regions																			
	Total from Africa	3.2	3.4	2.4	8.6	5.4	3.6	0.5	6.6	11.5	0.6	3.8	9.2	6.4	1.6	2.4	11.5	46.4	1.7	
Total from Asia	78.5	7.3	13.4	30.8	35.2	15.3	76.6	21.7	3.0	2.9	3.9	46.3	63.2	14.1	8.9	29.3	16.9	83.4		
Total from Europe	5.7	53.4	71.9	46.9	33.4	41.3	6.7	69.3	41.6	39.4	28.6	32.8	12.5	81.8	72.0	53.0	20.5	14.5		
of which, from EU19 countries	3.7	51.6	44.4	24.7	29.0	36.7	5.5	36.9	31.0	35.9	24.0	28.9	8.3	57.2	60.7	24.2	13.5	1.7		
Total from North America	3.8	0.7	6.5	2.0	19.6	0.7	6.1	1.3	2.0	3.8	1.1	5.9	5.1	1.1	0.8	3.0	1.5	0.1		
Total from Oceania	2.1	0.1	2.6	0.2	0.5	0.1	9.3	n	0.1	1.3	0.1	0.7	0.8	0.1	n	0.5	0.1	n		
Total from South America	1.1	1.1	1.9	3.7	0.7	2.2	0.6	1.1	41.9	1.0	2.5	2.7	12.0	1.1	0.9	2.3	4.1	0.3		
Not specified	5.5	34.1	1.3	7.8	5.1	36.8	n	n	n	51.0	59.9	2.4	n	0.2	15.0	0.5	10.5	n		
Total from all countries	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0		

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

2. Excludes data for social advancement education.

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

4. Excludes advanced research programmes.

5. Excludes tertiary-type B programmes.

6. 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.

7. Excludes tertiary programmes (advance research programmes only).

8. Excludes private institutions.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2007).

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


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/068417017111>

Table C3.2. (continued)

Distribution of international and foreign students in tertiary education, by country of origin (2005)

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 is not available, the table shows the proportion of foreign students in tertiary education that have citizenship of a given country origin.

Reading the third column: 8.5% of international tertiary students in Denmark are German residents, 0.5% of international tertiary students in Denmark are Greek residents, etc.

Reading the fifth column: 5.1% of international tertiary students in Ireland had their prior education in Germany, 0.4% of international tertiary students in Ireland had their prior education in Greece, etc.

Reading the 14th column: 20.5% of foreign tertiary students in Austria are German citizens, 0.7% of foreign tertiary students in Austria are Greek citizens, etc.

		Countries of destination																
		OECD countries									Partner economies							
		Foreign students									International			Foreign			Total partner economies	Total all reporting destinations
		Hungary ⁶	Iceland ⁶	Italy ^{5,6}	Japan ⁶	Korea ⁶	Norway ⁶	Poland ⁶	Portugal ⁶	Turkey ⁶	Total OECD destinations	Estonia ¹	Slovenia ¹	Brazil ^{6,7}	Chile ⁶	Russian Fed. ^{4,6,8}		
Countries of origin	(19)	(20)	(21)	(22)	(23)	(24)	(25)	(26)	(27)	(28)	(29)	(30)	(31)	(32)	(33)	(34)	(35)	
OECD countries	Australia	n	0.4	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.7	n	0.1	0.4
	Austria	0.3	1.4	0.5	n	n	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.6	1.1	n	0.5	n	0.1	0.4
	Belgium	n	0.6	0.4	n	n	0.2	0.1	0.4	n	0.5	0.5	0.1	0.3	0.3	n	n	0.4
	Canada	0.6	1.9	0.3	0.2	0.8	0.5	2.0	0.8	n	2.0	0.1	n	0.8	0.6	n	0.1	1.7
	Czech Republic	0.1	0.6	0.4	n	n	0.3	2.0	0.1	n	0.3	n	n	0.1	0.1	n	n	0.3
	Denmark	n	10.7	0.1	n	n	6.7	0.1	n	n	0.2	0.2	n	0.1	0.2	n	n	0.2
	Finland	0.3	5.2	0.2	n	n	2.1	0.1	0.1	n	0.3	31.6	n	n	0.6	n	0.1	0.2
	France	0.4	2.9	1.9	0.3	0.1	1.1	0.6	6.0	n	2.1	1.0	0.2	1.2	3.7	n	0.1	1.8
	Germany	8.5	12.0	3.1	0.2	0.2	3.6	2.8	2.2	0.8	2.9	2.0	n	2.3	4.3	n	0.2	2.4
	Greece	1.0	0.2	14.2	n	n	0.1	0.3	0.1	5.8	1.7	n	0.1	0.1	n	n	1.0	1.6
	Hungary	a	0.2	0.4	0.1	n	0.3	0.8	0.1	n	0.3	0.5	0.8	n	n	n	n	0.3
	Iceland	0.2	a	n	n	n	2.0	n	n	n	0.1	n	n	n	0.1	n	n	0.1
	Ireland	0.2	0.2	n	n	n	0.1	0.1	0.1	n	0.9	n	n	n	n	n	n	0.8
	Italy	0.3	2.9	a	0.1	n	0.5	0.3	1.1	0.1	1.3	1.7	8.0	1.5	0.6	n	0.1	1.1
	Japan	0.1	1.4	0.4	a	7.1	0.4	0.3	n	0.1	2.9	0.6	n	0.7	0.3	n	0.2	2.5
	Korea	0.1	0.4	0.2	17.9	a	0.2	0.3	n	0.2	4.5	0.5	n	0.3	0.4	n	0.3	3.8
	Luxembourg	n	n	0.1	n	n	n	n	0.3	n	0.3	n	0.1	n	n	n	n	0.3
	Mexico	n	0.6	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.1	n	1.0	0.1	n	0.9	2.7	n	0.3	0.9
	Netherlands	0.1	1.2	0.2	0.1	n	1.2	0.1	0.4	n	0.4	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.3	n	n	0.4
	New Zealand	n	0.2	n	0.1	0.2	0.1	n	n	n	0.2	n	n	n	0.2	n	n	0.1
	Norway	5.1	4.8	0.2	n	n	a	5.8	0.1	n	0.6	0.3	n	n	0.3	n	n	0.5
	Poland	0.4	3.1	2.6	0.1	0.1	1.1	a	0.6	n	1.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	n	n	0.3	1.1
	Portugal	0.1	0.6	0.2	n	n	0.2	0.1	a	n	0.4	0.1	0.1	3.1	n	n	0.2	0.4
	Slovak Republic	17.2	1.0	0.4	n	n	0.4	1.2	n	n	0.8	n	0.7	n	n	n	n	0.2
	Spain	0.2	1.9	1.0	0.1	0.1	0.8	0.2	3.3	n	1.0	1.0	0.4	2.1	2.3	n	0.1	0.9
	Sweden	1.2	4.3	0.3	0.1	n	8.4	1.8	0.1	n	0.6	1.5	n	0.1	0.9	n	0.1	0.5
	Switzerland	0.1	1.9	2.4	n	n	0.4	0.1	0.6	n	0.4	0.2	n	0.2	0.5	n	0.1	0.4
	Turkey	0.3	0.6	0.4	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.2	n	a	1.3	n	n	n	n	n	1.0	1.3
	United Kingdom	0.2	2.7	0.6	0.3	0.1	2.5	0.4	0.6	0.6	1.0	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.3	n	0.1	0.9
	United States	1.6	5.8	0.7	1.2	2.4	2.4	6.3	1.1	0.1	1.6	1.6	0.3	1.2	25.3	n	0.9	1.5
Total from OECD countries	38.6	69.8	31.6	21.5	11.9	36.7	26.2	18.4	8.2	32.0	44.9	12.6	15.8	44.8	n	5.8	27.9	
Partner economies	Brazil	n	0.4	1.6	0.3	0.1	0.4	0.2	10.6	n	0.8	0.1	0.2	a	3.3	n	0.3	0.7
	Chile	n	0.4	0.4	n	0.1	0.6	n	n	n	0.3	n	n	4.9	a	n	0.4	0.3
	China	0.8	2.3	0.9	66.1	65.1	3.9	1.7	0.4	0.6	16.7	7.8	0.2	0.9	1.0	n	11.5	15.9
	Estonia	0.1	1.4	0.1	n	n	0.6	0.2	n	n	0.1	a	0.1	n	n	1.2	0.4	0.2
	India	0.3	n	0.7	0.3	1.6	1.1	1.9	0.1	n	6.2	0.5	0.7	0.2	0.1	n	1.9	5.5
	Israel	5.4	0.2	2.2	n	n	0.2	0.3	n	0.1	0.4	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	n	0.8	0.5
	Russian Federation	1.6	3.5	1.3	0.3	1.2	5.6	4.4	0.3	3.4	1.4	8.9	0.9	0.4	0.4	a	2.7	1.6
	Slovenia	0.2	0.2	0.3	n	n	n	0.1	0.1	n	0.1	n	a	0.2	n	n	0.1	0.1
Main geographic regions																		
Total from Africa	2.0	1.9	9.2	0.7	0.9	9.3	4.1	63.7	2.0	11.0	0.7	0.3	10.7	0.2	n	17.6	12.0	
Total from Asia	14.4	8.9	10.2	94.2	92.1	15.3	17.1	2.1	53.7	47.4	9.8	1.7	3.8	2.2	34.6	57.3	48.9	
Total from Europe	81.1	76.9	66.4	2.2	2.4	46.4	69.5	17.8	28.8	24.9	87.3	95.8	13.5	15.5	19.4	16.8	23.7	
of which, from EU19 countries	30.5	51.9	26.5	1.5	0.8	30.0	11.3	15.6	7.6	16.9	41.4	12.1	11.6	13.9	n	m	m	
Total from North America	2.2	7.6	1.0	1.4	3.2	2.8	8.2	1.9	0.1	3.7	1.7	0.3	2.0	25.9	n	1.0	3.3	
Total from Oceania	0.1	0.6	0.1	0.4	0.5	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.8	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.8	n	0.1	0.7	
Total from South America	0.3	3.9	7.9	0.9	0.9	2.4	0.8	14.3	n	5.7	0.3	0.6	69.9	55.3	n	7.2	5.9	
Not specified	n	0.2	5.1	n	n	23.5	0.1	n	15.1	6.6	n	1.1	n	0.1	46.0	n	5.5	
Total from all countries	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	

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

2. Excludes data for social advancement education.

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

4. Excludes advanced research programmes.

5. Excludes tertiary-type B programmes.

6. 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.

7. Excludes tertiary programmes (advance research programmes only).

8. Excludes private institutions.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2007).

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


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/068417017111>

Table C3.3.

Citizens studying abroad in tertiary education, by country of destination (2005)

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

The table shows for each country the proportion of students studying abroad in tertiary education in a given country of destination. Reading the second column: 6.3% of Czech citizens enrolled in tertiary education abroad study in Austria, 10.6% of German citizens enrolled in tertiary education abroad study in Austria, etc.

Reading the first row: 2.5% of Australian citizens enrolled in tertiary education abroad study in France, 3.4% of Australian citizens enrolled in tertiary education abroad study in Germany, etc.

		Countries of destination																				
		OECD countries																				
		Australia ¹	Austria ²	Belgium ³	Canada	Czech Republic ⁵	Denmark	Finland	France	Germany ⁴	Greece ⁵	Hungary	Iceland	Ireland ^{6,7}	Italy ²	Japan	Korea	Luxembourg	Mexico	Netherlands ⁴	New Zealand	
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	0.3	0.4	m	0.1	0.5	0.3	2.5	3.4	0.1	0.1	n	0.6	0.6	3.7	0.5	m	m	0.7	30.0	
	Austria	1.3	a	0.4	m	0.2	0.4	0.3	3.3	52.5	n	0.3	0.1	0.4	1.8	0.5	n	m	m	1.7	0.3	
	Belgium	0.6	0.7	a	m	n	0.2	0.2	24.6	9.3	0.2	n	n	0.6	1.8	0.4	0.1	m	m	20.8	n	
	Canada	8.1	0.1	0.3	a	0.1	0.2	0.2	2.9	1.3	n	0.2	n	0.8	0.3	0.6	0.3	m	m	0.3	1.0	
	Czech Republic	1.7	6.3	0.8	m	a	0.5	0.7	9.3	34.7	0.1	0.2	n	0.4	2.3	0.5	0.1	m	m	1.4	0.3	
	Denmark	2.1	0.9	0.7	m	0.1	a	0.7	4.3	9.3	n	0.1	0.8	0.4	0.6	0.3	n	m	m	2.3	1.2	
	Finland	0.9	1.9	0.4	m	n	1.7	a	3.3	9.7	n	0.4	0.3	0.8	0.8	0.4	n	m	m	1.8	0.1	
	France	1.1	0.8	28.4	m	n	0.4	0.3	a	12.1	n	0.1	n	1.3	1.6	0.6	n	m	m	1.3	0.5	
	Germany	2.5	10.6	0.8	m	0.3	1.4	0.5	8.8	a	0.2	1.7	0.1	1.0	2.1	0.5	0.1	m	m	13.8	1.6	
	Greece	0.1	0.5	1.0	m	0.3	0.1	0.1	4.6	14.7	a	0.3	n	0.1	14.4	n	n	n	m	m	0.8	n
	Hungary	0.7	14.2	1.0	m	0.4	0.6	1.3	7.6	36.4	0.1	a	n	0.2	2.2	1.2	0.1	m	m	3.9	0.1	
	Iceland	0.6	0.7	1.2	m	n	42.6	0.6	1.3	3.8	n	0.8	a	0.1	0.4	0.2	n	m	m	2.3	0.1	
	Ireland	0.9	0.2	1.2	m	0.1	0.3	0.2	2.4	2.2	n	0.2	n	a	0.1	0.1	n	m	m	0.5	0.1	
	Italy	0.5	16.1	6.2	m	0.1	0.3	0.3	10.4	19.9	0.1	0.1	n	0.5	a	0.2	n	m	m	1.3	n	
	Japan	5.4	0.4	0.3	m	n	0.1	0.2	3.4	3.9	n	n	n	0.1	0.3	a	1.8	m	m	0.3	1.5	
	Korea	4.4	0.3	0.1	m	n	n	n	2.2	5.5	n	n	n	n	0.1	23.4	a	m	m	0.2	n	
	Luxembourg	0.2	5.3	21.5	m	n	n	n	23.6	31.0	0.1	n	n	0.1	0.4	n	n	a	m	a	0.6	n
	Mexico	1.7	0.2	0.3	m	n	0.3	0.2	6.0	4.9	n	n	n	0.1	0.7	0.5	0.1	m	a	0.5	0.3	
	Netherlands	2.3	1.3	1.6	m	0.1	1.6	0.9	6.4	19.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.9	1.1	0.8	n	m	m	a	0.4	
	New Zealand	47.2	0.1	n	m	0.1	0.4	0.2	1.2	1.8	n	n	n	0.4	0.1	1.8	0.6	m	m	0.7	a	
Norway	16.6	0.5	1.5	m	1.0	13.2	0.4	1.9	5.2	n	4.7	0.2	1.2	0.5	0.2	n	m	m	1.6	1.7		
Poland	0.6	4.0	1.0	m	0.6	1.5	0.4	9.9	49.0	0.1	0.2	n	0.4	3.6	0.3	n	m	m	2.0	n		
Portugal	0.3	0.4	6.4	m	0.7	0.2	0.2	18.5	12.7	n	0.1	n	0.1	0.7	0.2	n	m	m	2.0	0.1		
Slovak Republic	0.6	6.5	1.2	m	53.9	0.1	0.1	2.2	9.1	n	12.5	n	0.1	0.9	0.2	n	m	m	0.4	n		
Spain	0.4	1.4	3.9	m	0.1	0.6	0.5	13.3	21.8	n	0.1	n	1.3	1.7	0.3	n	m	m	3.0	n		
Sweden	7.2	1.4	0.4	m	0.4	8.1	3.9	4.1	5.5	0.1	1.2	0.2	0.6	0.9	0.8	n	m	m	1.2	1.5		
Switzerland	3.4	2.8	1.8	m	0.1	0.6	0.4	15.3	22.6	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	11.0	0.3	n	m	m	1.3	0.3		
Turkey	0.5	3.6	0.6	m	0.1	0.4	0.1	4.4	48.9	0.1	0.1	n	n	0.4	0.3	0.1	m	m	1.3	n		
United Kingdom	7.6	0.8	0.7	m	1.5	2.1	0.9	10.5	9.0	0.1	0.2	0.1	5.4	1.1	1.8	0.1	m	m	3.3	1.9		
United States	8.3	0.9	0.5	m	0.3	0.8	0.5	6.3	8.7	n	0.6	0.1	5.6	0.8	4.0	1.0	m	m	1.1	5.4		
	Total from OECD countries	3.4	3.0	3.2	m	1.5	1.1	0.3	5.9	14.0	n	0.7	n	0.9	1.8	3.5	0.2	m	m	2.4	1.1	
Partner economies	Brazil	2.0	0.2	0.8	m	n	0.4	0.2	9.3	9.0	n	n	n	n	3.7	2.2	0.1	m	m	0.5	0.2	
	Chile	1.2	0.1	1.2	m	0.1	0.3	0.2	5.9	6.8	n	n	n	n	1.9	0.5	0.1	m	m	0.5	0.5	
	China	9.2	0.3	0.4	m	n	0.4	0.3	3.5	6.7	n	n	n	0.4	0.1	20.6	2.5	m	m	1.0	5.7	
	Estonia	0.2	0.7	0.6	m	0.1	2.7	13.8	2.4	17.8	n	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.8	0.5	n	m	m	0.7	n	
	India	14.7	n	0.1	m	n	0.2	0.1	0.4	3.1	n	n	n	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	m	m	0.1	1.1	
	Israel	2.1	0.3	0.4	m	1.2	0.4	0.2	2.4	9.6	0.3	5.8	n	n	7.9	0.3	n	m	m	1.9	0.1	
	Russian Fed.	1.0	0.9	0.5	m	1.4	0.9	2.6	6.2	28.3	0.4	0.5	n	0.3	1.4	0.9	0.4	m	m	1.2	0.5	
	Slovenia	0.4	20.0	0.9	m	1.0	0.2	0.3	3.1	23.0	n	0.9	n	n	11.2	0.6	n	m	m	1.5	n	

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

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

2. Excludes tertiary-type B programmes.

3. Excludes data for social advancement education.

4. Excludes advanced research programmes.

5. Excludes tertiary programmes (advance research programmes only).

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

7. Excludes part-time students.

8. Excludes private institutions.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eqg2007).

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


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/068417017111>

Table C3.3. (continued)

Citizens studying abroad in tertiary education, by country of destination (2005)

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

The table shows for each country the proportion of students studying abroad in tertiary education in a given country of destination. Reading the second column: 6.3% of Czech citizens enrolled in tertiary education abroad study in Austria, 10.6% of German citizens enrolled in tertiary education abroad study in Austria, etc.

Reading the first row: 2.5% of Australian citizens enrolled in tertiary education abroad study in France, 3.4% of Australian citizens enrolled in tertiary education abroad study in Germany, etc.

Countries of origin	Countries of destination																		Total all reporting destinations
	OECD countries										Partner economies								
	Norway	Poland	Portugal	Slovak Republic	Spain	Sweden	Switzerland	Turkey	United Kingdom ¹	United States ¹	Total OECD destinations	Brazil ⁵	Chile	Estonia ¹	Israel	Russian Federation ^{4,8}	Slovenia	Total partner economies destinations	
(21)	(22)	(23)	(24)	(25)	(26)	(27)	(28)	(29)	(30)	(31)	(32)	(33)	(34)	(35)	(36)	(37)	(38)	(39)	
OECD countries																			
Australia	0.3	0.1	0.3	n	0.4	3.7	0.6	0.3	17.6	30.3	97.2	n	0.1	n	m	n	n	2.8	100.0
Austria	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.1	1.4	4.4	7.4	0.1	11.1	7.8	96.4	n	0.1	n	m	n	0.1	3.6	100.0
Belgium	0.3	0.1	0.7	n	3.2	2.4	3.0	n	22.5	7.3	98.9	n	n	n	m	n	n	1.1	100.0
Canada	0.2	0.5	0.3	n	0.2	0.9	0.6	n	9.9	69.4	98.7	n	n	n	m	n	n	1.3	100.0
Czech Republic	0.6	2.8	0.3	6.2	1.8	3.4	2.6	n	8.6	13.4	99.3	n	n	n	m	n	n	0.7	100.0
Denmark	14.1	0.1	0.1	n	1.6	16.0	1.7	0.1	26.1	14.6	98.2	n	0.1	n	m	n	n	1.8	100.0
Finland	3.0	0.1	0.1	n	0.8	40.9	1.2	n	18.3	6.2	93.3	n	0.1	2.9	m	n	n	6.7	100.0
France	0.3	0.1	1.9	n	3.2	2.8	7.8	n	21.7	12.7	99.1	n	0.1	n	m	n	n	0.9	100.0
Germany	0.7	0.4	0.6	n	2.2	4.4	11.8	0.2	18.8	13.5	98.5	n	0.1	n	m	n	n	1.5	100.0
Greece	n	0.1	n	0.2	0.3	0.6	0.7	2.4	44.2	4.8	90.3	n	n	n	m	n	n	9.7	100.0
Hungary	0.4	1.0	0.1	0.3	0.8	2.5	2.7	n	7.4	12.3	97.7	n	n	0.1	m	n	0.2	2.3	100.0
Iceland	7.5	n	n	n	0.5	13.9	0.3	n	9.8	12.9	99.9	n	n	n	m	n	n	0.1	100.0
Ireland	0.1	0.1	0.1	n	0.4	0.8	0.2	n	84.4	5.3	99.8	n	n	n	m	n	n	0.2	100.0
Italy	0.2	0.1	0.5	n	6.2	1.8	11.6	n	13.7	8.8	98.9	n	n	n	m	n	0.2	1.1	100.0
Japan	0.1	n	n	n	0.2	0.4	0.4	n	9.8	70.2	98.8	n	n	n	m	n	n	1.2	100.0
Korea	n	n	n	n	0.1	0.1	0.2	n	4.0	57.8	98.7	n	n	n	m	n	n	1.3	100.0
Luxembourg	n	n	0.8	n	0.1	0.1	4.0	n	11.6	0.6	100.0	n	n	n	m	n	n	n	100.0
Mexico	0.1	n	0.1	n	13.3	0.7	0.6	n	7.7	56.7	95.0	n	0.2	n	m	n	n	5.0	100.0
Netherlands	1.8	0.1	0.8	n	2.6	7.8	3.7	0.1	27.4	17.3	98.7	n	0.1	n	m	n	n	1.3	100.0
New Zealand	0.2	n	n	n	0.3	1.2	0.5	n	15.0	25.2	97.1	n	0.1	n	m	n	n	2.9	100.0
Norway	a	4.0	0.1	0.4	0.6	9.8	0.7	n	22.9	10.1	99.0	n	n	n	m	n	n	1.0	100.0
Poland	0.5	a	0.3	0.1	1.5	2.7	1.6	n	6.7	9.2	96.4	n	n	n	m	n	n	3.6	100.0
Portugal	0.2	0.1	a	n	16.6	1.3	6.1	n	20.2	6.4	93.7	0.3	n	n	m	n	n	6.3	100.0
Slovak Republic	0.3	0.7	n	a	0.4	0.3	1.1	n	1.9	3.4	95.8	n	n	n	m	n	0.1	4.2	100.0
Spain	0.4	0.1	2.2	n	a	4.1	6.3	n	23.1	14.1	98.6	0.1	0.2	n	m	n	n	1.4	100.0
Sweden	8.1	1.3	0.2	n	1.5	a	1.8	n	24.6	23.3	98.2	n	0.1	0.1	m	n	n	1.8	100.0
Switzerland	0.6	0.1	1.0	n	2.3	2.8	a	n	15.7	14.8	97.7	n	0.1	n	m	n	n	2.3	100.0
Turkey	0.1	n	n	n	n	0.4	1.4	a	3.7	25.0	91.4	n	n	n	m	n	n	8.6	100.0
United Kingdom	1.5	0.2	0.5	n	2.5	3.8	1.7	0.5	a	39.4	97.2	n	n	n	m	n	n	2.8	100.0
United States	0.8	1.6	0.5	n	1.5	2.7	1.1	n	37.2	a	90.3	n	1.3	n	m	n	n	9.7	100.0
Total from OECD countries	0.6	0.3	0.4	0.1	1.9	2.6	3.3	0.2	17.0	27.3	96.8	n	0.1	0.1	n	n	n	3.2	100.0
Partner economies																			
Brazil	0.3	0.1	9.1	n	9.3	0.7	1.6	n	5.7	38.3	93.7	a	0.3	n	m	n	n	6.3	100.0
Chile	0.9	n	n	n	15.6	2.9	1.1	n	3.5	38.0	81.6	0.6	a	n	m	n	n	18.4	100.0
China	0.1	n	n	n	0.1	0.3	0.2	n	13.0	22.8	87.8	n	n	n	m	n	n	12.2	100.0
Estonia	1.9	0.4	n	n	2.4	6.7	0.5	n	4.3	6.8	64.0	n	n	a	m	24.3	n	36.0	100.0
India	0.1	0.1	n	n	n	0.4	0.2	n	12.0	60.4	94.2	n	n	n	m	n	n	5.8	100.0
Israel	0.2	0.3	n	1.2	1.0	0.2	0.6	0.2	8.8	27.3	72.7	n	n	n	a	n	n	27.3	100.0
Russian Fed.	1.7	1.1	0.1	n	1.0	1.8	1.4	1.5	4.7	12.3	73.1	n	n	0.2	m	a	n	26.9	100.0
Slovenia	n	0.2	0.5	0.1	1.0	1.8	1.7	n	11.7	11.8	92.0	n	n	n	m	n	a	8.0	100.0

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

1. Data by country of origin relate to international students defined on the basis of their country of residence.
2. Excludes tertiary-type B programmes.
3. Excludes data for social advancement education.
4. Excludes advanced research programmes.
5. Excludes tertiary programmes (advance research programmes only).
6. Data by country of origin relate to international students defined on the basis of their country of prior education.
7. Excludes part-time students.
8. Excludes private institutions.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2007).

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


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/068417017111>

Table C3.4.
Distribution of international and foreign students in tertiary education,
by level and type of tertiary education (2005)

		Tertiary-type B programmes	Tertiary-type A programmes	Advanced research programmes	Total tertiary programmes
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
<i>International students</i>					
OECD countries	Australia ¹	6.2	89.9	3.9	100
	Austria ^{1,2,3}	m	91.0	9.0	100
	Belgium ¹	29.4	63.7	7.0	100
	Canada	m	m	m	m
	Denmark ¹	9.5	87.6	2.9	100
	Finland ^{3,4}	m	85.7	14.3	100
	France ¹	10.0	78.0	12.0	100
	Greece ^{1,5}	21.3	78.7	n	100
	Hungary ¹	0.5	94.2	5.2	100
	Ireland	m	m	m	m
	Japan ¹	24.2	65.4	10.5	100
	Luxembourg	m	m	m	m
	Mexico	m	m	m	m
	Netherlands ⁵	a	100.0	m	100
	New Zealand ¹	26.1	72.0	1.9	100
	Norway ¹	3.2	91.2	5.7	100
	Slovak Republic ¹	0.7	94.5	4.8	100
	Spain ^{1,3}	m	67.0	33.0	100
	Sweden ¹	1.1	98.9	n	100
	Switzerland ^{3,4}	m	72.9	27.1	100
United Kingdom ¹	9.1	79.4	11.5	100	
United States	12.7	71.6	15.7	100	
Partner economies	Brazil ^{1,3}	m	57.2	42.8	100
	Estonia ¹	4.0	91.0	5.1	100
	Israel	m	m	m	m
	Slovenia ¹	26.0	70.1	3.9	100
	<i>Foreign students</i>				
OECD countries	Czech Republic ⁶	2.0	88.3	9.7	100
	Germany ^{5,6}	5.2	94.8	m	100
	Iceland ⁶	1.7	94.8	3.5	100
	Italy ⁶	2.9	93.6	3.6	100
	Korea ⁶	m	m	m	m
	Poland ⁶	0.1	89.5	10.4	100
	Portugal ⁶	1.6	90.5	7.9	100
	Turkey ⁶	6.7	88.9	4.3	100
Partner economies	Chile ⁶	27.2	71.7	1.1	100
	Russian Federation ^{5,6,7}	7.2	92.8	m	100

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

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

3. Excludes tertiary-type B programmes.

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

5. Excludes advanced research programmes.

6. 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.

7. Excludes private institutions.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2007).

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


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/068417017111>

Table C3.5.
Distribution of international and foreign students in tertiary education, by field of education (2005)

	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	
<i>International students</i>											
OECD countries	Australia ¹	0.7	3.3	11.3	7.4	7.5	17.7	1.5	50.7	n	100
	Austria ^{1,2}	2.1	5.4	12.0	8.1	24.7	10.9	1.3	35.5	n	100
	Belgium ¹	10.8	5.3	7.9	44.4	7.8	7.4	0.9	15.6	n	100
	Canada	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Denmark ¹	2.0	4.8	15.5	20.7	17.6	7.1	0.7	31.5	n	100
	Finland ^{2,3}	2.3	2.4	30.6	12.1	16.4	9.5	3.3	23.4	n	100
	France	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Germany ^{2,4}	1.5	4.5	19.3	5.9	23.0	17.4	1.3	27.0	0.2	100
	Greece	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Hungary ¹	11.4	6.3	14.1	26.4	13.2	7.1	1.9	19.6	n	100
	Ireland	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Japan ¹	2.5	2.6	12.9	2.5	25.2	1.2	2.4	34.7	16.1	100
	Korea	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Luxembourg	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Mexico	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Netherlands ⁴	2.4	7.5	5.5	15.1	12.9	6.4	3.2	47.1	n	100
	New Zealand ^{1,4}	0.7	2.3	5.3	4.4	4.9	12.1	1.9	60.4	7.9	100
	Norway ¹	1.4	5.5	8.5	9.9	16.9	10.6	3.5	35.1	8.6	100
	Spain ^{1,2,4}	1.8	3.0	10.5	22.9	14.7	8.2	3.2	35.5	n	100
Sweden ¹	1.0	3.4	22.9	9.1	16.8	13.0	1.8	32.0	n	100	
Switzerland ^{2,3}	1.3	3.7	16.3	6.2	18.4	17.1	2.4	33.0	1.5	100	
United Kingdom ¹	0.8	4.0	15.1	8.7	14.1	14.6	1.0	40.1	1.4	100	
United States ¹	0.3	3.0	15.6	6.5	11.0	18.7	1.8	31.0	12.0	100	
Partner economies	Brazil	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Estonia	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Israel	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Slovenia ¹	2.1	6.1	16.1	14.1	21.0	8.8	3.9	28.0	n	100
	<i>Foreign students</i>										
OECD countries	Czech Republic ⁵	2.4	5.6	15.5	20.3	10.0	11.2	1.6	33.4	n	100
	Iceland ⁵	1.0	7.9	4.3	4.8	49.2	16.1	1.7	15.1	n	100
	Italy ⁵	1.9	1.9	13.9	23.4	19.1	6.5	1.4	30.9	1.0	100
	Poland ⁵	0.8	6.3	4.3	22.1	21.1	5.5	3.2	33.9	2.8	100
	Portugal ⁵	1.5	4.9	18.8	7.7	8.4	7.9	5.2	45.5	n	100
	Slovak Republic ⁵	10.8	5.3	11.8	29.1	14.1	6.5	5.6	16.8	n	100
Turkey ⁵	2.2	8.3	14.4	14.4	9.2	8.7	3.9	38.8	n	100	
Partner economies	Chile ⁵	2.7	2.8	9.6	5.3	4.4	10.6	5.6	20.5	38.4	100
	Russian Federation	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m

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

2. Excludes tertiary-type B programmes.

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

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/eag2007).

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


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/068417017111>

Table C3.6.
Trends in the number of foreign students enrolled outside their country of origin (2000 to 2005)
Number of foreign students enrolled in tertiary education outside their country of origin, head counts

	Number of foreign students						Index of change (2005)				
	2005	2004	2003	2002	2001	2000	2004=100	2003=100	2002=100	2001=100	2000=100
Foreign students enrolled worldwide	2 725 996	2 598 660	2 425 915	2 188 544	1 896 265	1 818 759	105	112	125	144	150
Foreign students enrolled in OECD countries	2 296 016	2 195 550	2 040 574	1 856 600	1 604 565	1 545 534	105	113	124	143	149

Note: Figures are based on the number of foreign students enrolled in OECD and partner economies 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 economies 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 partner economies. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2007).


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Table C3.7.
Percentage of tertiary qualifications awarded to international and foreign students, by type of tertiary education (2005)
Calculations based on the number of graduates

		Proportion of international graduates in total graduate output				
		Tertiary type A programmes		Tertiary type B programmes		Advanced research programmes
		First degrees	Second degrees	First degrees	Second degrees	
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
<i>International graduates</i>						
OECD countries	Australia ¹	22.3	53.2	m	m	19.4
	Austria ¹	8.9	14.2	m	m	15.9
	Canada	m	m	m	m	m
	Denmark ¹	4.7	5.8	3.4	a	7.9
	Finland ^{2,3}	3.3	x(1)	m	a	7.6
	France	m	m	m	m	m
	Germany ²	5.8	30.6	m	a	13.4
	Greece	m	m	m	m	m
	Iceland	m	m	m	m	m
	Ireland	m	m	m	m	m
	Italy ⁴	m	m	m	a	m
	Japan ¹	1.5	8.0	2.6	a	15.7
	Korea	m	m	m	m	m
	Luxembourg	m	m	m	m	m
	Mexico	m	m	m	m	m
	Netherlands	m	m	m	m	m
	New Zealand ¹	17.3	18.8	23.2	n	12.4
	Norway ¹	1.4	8.0	1.5	a	7.8
	Poland	m	m	m	m	m
	Spain	m	m	m	m	m
Sweden ¹	2.6	8.9	0.6	a	5.7	
Switzerland ²	10.1	19.6	m	m	39.1	
United Kingdom ¹	11.8	35.4	5.9	x(3)	38.9	
United States ¹	3.2	11.4	1.6	a	27.3	
Partner economies	Brazil	m	m	m	m	m
	Chile	m	m	m	m	m
	Estonia	m	m	m	m	m
	Israel	m	m	m	m	m
	Russian Federation	m	m	m	m	m
	Slovenia ¹	0.5	1.5	0.6	1.3	2.7
<i>Foreign graduates</i>						
OECD countries	Belgium ^{4,5}	21.6	x(1)	5.3	8.1	24.1
	Czech Republic ⁴	4.2	1.8	2.5	n	7.0
	Hungary ⁴	2.5	1.3	0.1	a	8.1
	Portugal ⁴	2.9	4.0	2.2	n	6.8
	Slovak Republic ⁴	0.9	0.6	m	a	1.4
	Turkey ⁴	1.0	1.3	0.1	a	2.0

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

2. International graduates are defined on the basis of their country or prior education.


3. Year of reference 2004.

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

5. Excludes the German-speaking Community of Belgium.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2007).

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

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READER'S GUIDE

Coverage of the statistics

Although a lack of data still limits the scope of the indicators in many countries, the coverage extends, in principle, to the entire national education system (within the national territory) regardless of the ownership or sponsorship of the institutions concerned and regardless of education delivery mechanisms. With one exception described below, all types of students and all age groups are meant to be included: children (including students with special needs), adults, nationals, foreigners, as well as students in open distance learning, in special education programmes or in educational programmes organised by ministries other than the Ministry of Education, provided the main aim of the programme is the educational development of the individual. However, vocational and technical training in the workplace, with the exception of combined school and work-based programmes that are explicitly deemed to be parts of the education system, is not included in the basic education expenditure and enrolment data.

Educational activities classified as “adult” or “non-regular” are covered, provided that the activities involve studies or have a subject matter content similar to “regular” education studies or that the underlying programmes lead to potential qualifications similar to corresponding regular educational programmes. Courses for adults that are primarily for general interest, personal enrichment, leisure or recreation are excluded.

Calculation of international means

For many indicators an OECD average is presented and for some an OECD total.

The OECD average is calculated as the unweighted mean of the data values of all OECD countries for which data are available or can be estimated. The OECD average therefore refers to an average of data values at the level of the national systems and can be used to answer the question of how an indicator value for a given country compares with the value for a typical or average country. It does not take into account the absolute size of the education system in each country.

The OECD total is calculated as a weighted mean of the data values of all OECD countries for which data are available or can be estimated. It reflects the value for a given indicator when the OECD area is considered as a whole. This approach is taken for the purpose of comparing, for example, expenditure charts for individual countries with those of the entire OECD area for which valid data are available, with this area considered as a single entity.

Note that both the OECD average and the OECD total can be significantly affected by missing data. Given the relatively small number of countries, no statistical methods are used to compensate for this. In cases where a category is not applicable (code “a”) in a country or where the data value is negligible (code “n”) for the corresponding calculation, the value zero is imputed for the purpose of calculating OECD averages. In cases where both the numerator and the denominator of a ratio are not applicable (code “a”) for a certain country, this country is not included in the OECD average.

For financial tables using 1995 data, both the OECD average and OECD total are calculated for countries providing both 1995 and 2004 data. This allows comparison of the OECD average and OECD total over time with no distortion due to the exclusion of certain countries in the different years.

For many indicators an EU19 average is also presented. It is calculated as the unweighted mean of the data values of the 19 OECD countries that are members of the European Union for which data are available or can be estimated. These 19 countries are Austria, Belgium, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Ireland, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, the Slovak Republic, Spain, Sweden and the United Kingdom.

■ **Classification of levels of education**

The classification of the levels of education is based on the revised International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED-97). The biggest change between the revised ISCED and the former ISCED (ISCED-76) is the introduction of a multi-dimensional classification framework, allowing for the alignment of the educational content of programmes using multiple classification criteria. ISCED is an instrument for compiling statistics on education internationally and distinguishes among six levels of education. The glossary available at www.oecd.org/edu/eag2007 describes in detail the ISCED levels of education, and Annex 1 shows corresponding typical graduation ages of the main educational programmes by ISCED level.

■ **Symbols for missing data**

Six symbols are employed in the tables and charts to denote missing data:

- a* Data is not applicable because the category does not apply.
- c* There are too few observations to provide reliable estimates (*i.e.* there are fewer than 3% of students for this cell or too few schools for valid inferences). However, these statistics were included in the calculation of cross-country averages.
- m* Data is not available.
- n* Magnitude is either negligible or zero.
- w* Data has been withdrawn at the request of the country concerned.
- x* Data included in another category or column of the table (*e.g.* *x*(2) means that data are included in column 2 of the table).
- ~ Average is not comparable with other levels of education.

■ **Further resources**

The website www.oecd.org/edu/eag2007 provides a rich source of information on the methods employed for the calculation of the indicators, the interpretation of the indicators in the respective national contexts and the data sources involved. The website also provides access to the data underlying the indicators as well as to a comprehensive glossary for technical terms used in this publication.

Any post-production changes to this publication are listed at www.oecd.org/edu/eag2007.

The website www.pisa.oecd.org provides information on the OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), on which many of the indicators in this publication draw.

Education at a Glance uses the OECD's StatLinks service. Below each table and chart in *Education at a Glance 2007* is a url which leads to a corresponding Excel workbook containing the underlying data for the indicator. These urls are stable and will remain unchanged over time. In addition, readers of the *Education at a Glance* e-book will be able to click directly on these links and the workbook will open in a separate window.

Codes used for territorial entities

These codes are used in certain charts. Country or territorial entity names are used in the text. Note that in the text the Flemish Community of Belgium is referred to as "Belgium (Fl.," and the French Community of Belgium as "Belgium (Fr.)."

AUS Australia	ITA Italy
AUT Austria	JPN Japan
BEL Belgium	KOR Korea
BFL Belgium (Flemish Community)	LUX Luxembourg
BFR Belgium (French Community)	MEX Mexico
BRA Brazil	NLD Netherlands
CAN Canada	NZL New Zealand
CHL Chile	NOR Norway
CZE Czech Republic	POL Poland
DNK Denmark	PRT Portugal
ENG England	RUS Russian Federation
EST Estonia	SCO Scotland
FIN Finland	SVK Slovak Republic
FRA France	SVN Slovenia
DEU Germany	ESP Spain
GRC Greece	SWE Sweden
HUN Hungary	CHE Switzerland
ISL Iceland	TUR Turkey
IRL Ireland	UKM United Kingdom
ISR Israel	USA United States

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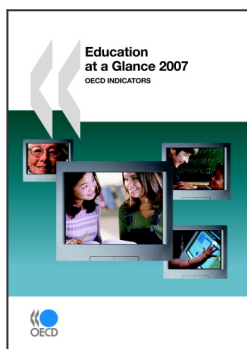
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