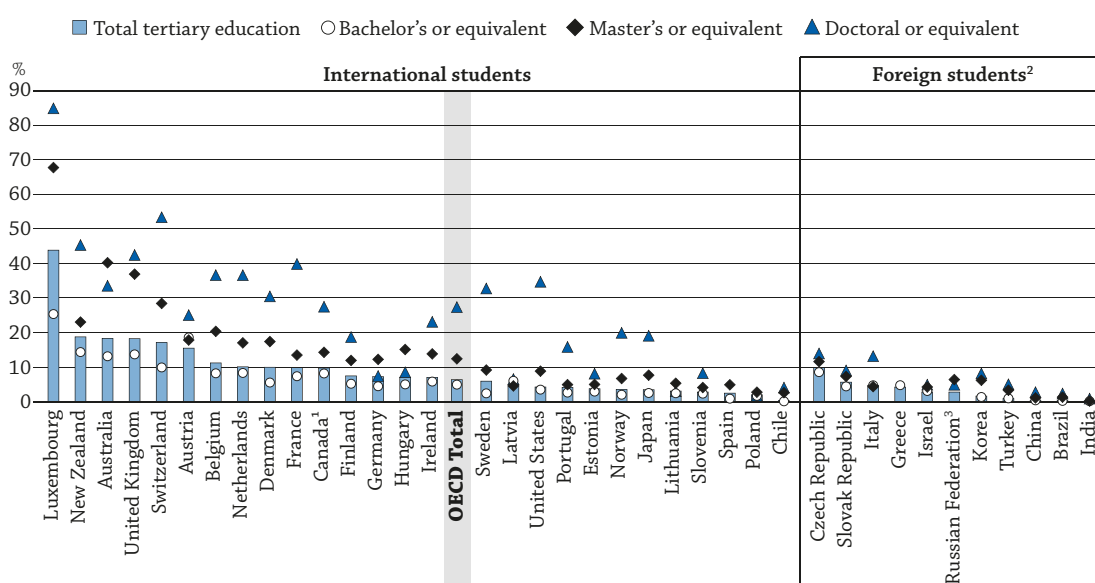


WHO STUDIES ABROAD AND WHERE?

- Within the OECD, 6% of the students enrolled in tertiary education in 2014 were international students. The proportion of international students among the students enrolled in tertiary education is highest in Luxembourg (44%).
- Students from Asia represent more than half (53%) of international students enrolled in OECD countries at the master's and doctoral or equivalent levels. China is the country with the largest numbers of citizens enrolled abroad, followed by India and Germany.
- Among all OECD countries, the United States hosts the largest number of international students at the master's and doctoral or equivalent level (26% of the total), followed by the United Kingdom (15%), France (10%), Germany (10%) and Australia (8%).

Figure C4.1. Student mobility in tertiary education, by ISCED level (2014)
International or foreign student enrolments as a percentage of total tertiary education



1. Year of reference 2013.

2. 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 figure.

3. International students at the bachelor's or equivalent level are included in the master's or equivalent level.

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

Source: OECD, Table C4.1. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/education/education-at-a-glance-19991487.htm).

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Context

As national economies become more interconnected and participation in education expands, tertiary education emerges as a means to broaden students' horizons and help them to better understand the world's languages, cultures and business methods. Tertiary education is becoming more international through a number of means, including distance education, international education-related internships and training experiences, cross-border delivery of academic programmes, and offshore satellite campuses. Among the phenomena related to the internationalisation of tertiary education, enrolling in a study programme abroad is receiving considerable attention from students and policy makers. By providing an opportunity to expand knowledge of other societies and languages, studying abroad is an important cultural and personal experience for students, as well as a way to improve their employability in the globalised sectors of the labour market.

Student mobility has increased dramatically over the recent past, due to a number of factors. The exploding demand for tertiary education worldwide and the perceived value of studying at prestigious post-secondary institutions abroad contribute to an increasing and diversified flow of international

students, ranging from those who cannot find a place to study in post-secondary education at home to students of high academic achievement studying at high-quality programmes and institutions. In addition, the educational value associated with a diverse student body, the substantial revenues that can be earned by expanding education for international students, along with other economic and political considerations prompted some governments and institutions to make major efforts to attract students from outside their national borders (Altbach and Knight, 2007; Knight, 2008).

From the point of view of the host countries, attracting international students is appealing for a variety of reasons, including the fees and other living expenses that students pay, and the social and business networks with their home countries that they help to build. In addition, international students, particularly at the master's or doctoral or equivalent level, can contribute to research and development in the host country, initially as students and later on potentially as researchers or highly qualified professionals. Doctoral students, in particular, form an integral part of the research staff of a country.

Countries that “export” students to other countries for the purpose of study risk permanently losing many of their talented citizens (what is commonly known as “brain drain”). But the fact that many developing countries sponsor a number of international students suggests that at least some of these students will return to their home country or establish social and business links between their home and host countries, developing what some authors (e.g. Solimano, 2002) call “brain circulation”.

■ Other findings

- The proportion of international students among total enrolments tends to be much larger at the most advanced levels of tertiary education. Within OECD countries, 27% of students enrolled in doctoral or equivalent programmes and 12% of those enrolled in master's or equivalent programmes are international students.
- Women represent a majority of students across OECD countries (54%), but they account for slightly less than half (48%) of international students.
- Proportions of graduates leaving after study varied noticeably across the eight countries with available data, although master's graduates were consistently more likely to leave their country than bachelor's graduates.
- Denmark, New Zealand and Sweden witnessed substantial variations in the number of international new entrants as a response to their reform in the level of tuition fees charged to international students.

■ Trends

The increase in global demand for tertiary education, reduced transportation and communication costs, and the internationalisation of labour markets for highly skilled people have given students stronger incentives to study abroad as part of their tertiary education. In addition, many governments and supranational institutions have shown interest in promoting academic, cultural, social and political ties among countries. This is most evident in the European Union, which, in 2011, set the ambitious goal that by 2020, 20% of its graduates from higher education would have experience of tertiary-level study or training abroad (Council of the European Union, 2011). Hence, it is not surprising that more and more students opt for undertaking at least part of their studies abroad.

The number of mobile students in OECD countries grew by 5% between 2013 and 2014, with large variation across countries. The largest increases (around or above 20%) were observed in Belgium, Estonia, Latvia, New Zealand and Poland. In contrast, the rate of growth was negative in other countries (Austria, Japan, Korea, Slovenia and Turkey). Although the data for 2013 and 2014 are not directly comparable to previous trend data, OECD data show that the number of foreign tertiary students enrolled worldwide increased by 50% from 2005 to 2012 (OECD, 2015).

Analysis

Extent of international student mobility in tertiary education

Throughout this indicator, the term “international students” refers to students who have moved from their country of origin for the purpose of study, according to the criterion of country of prior education or the criterion of country of usual residence (see the *Definitions* section at the end of this indicator). The term “foreign students” refers to students who are not citizens of the countries in which they are enrolled, but may be long-term residents or were born in that country. In general, international students are a subset of foreign students (again, see the *Definitions* section at the end of this indicator).

In 2014, OECD countries hosted three international students for every citizen who was studying outside his or her country of origin. At the country level, the balance varies greatly. In Australia, there are more than 20 international students for each Australian student abroad, while the ratio is less than half that in Chile, Estonia, Korea, Luxembourg, Mexico the Slovak Republic and, among countries with data on foreign students, in Argentina and Brazil.

Among countries for which data on international students are available, Luxembourg shows the highest levels of incoming student mobility, measured as the proportion of international students among total tertiary enrolment. In Luxembourg, 44% of students enrolled in tertiary education are from another country. Similarly, international students represent 18% or more of total tertiary enrolments in Australia, New Zealand and the United Kingdom. In contrast, international students account for 2% or less of total tertiary enrolments in Chile, Poland and Spain and, among countries using the definition of international students based on country of citizenship, in Brazil, China, India, Korea and Turkey (Table C4.1 and Figure C4.1).

Proportion of international students at different levels of tertiary education

The proportion of international students is different at different levels of tertiary education. It is highest for the most advanced tertiary education programmes, at the master’s or doctoral level, or equivalent. Several factors could account for this: capacity constraints in the countries of origin may be particularly severe at these levels of education; the returns to study abroad and in more prestigious institutions may be higher for master’s or doctoral programmes than at lower levels of tertiary education; and students in these programmes may be a particular subgroup of the population that is more likely to travel and live abroad, independent of their educational choices. Attracting international students in doctoral or equivalent programmes is particularly appealing to host countries because of their potential contribution to research and development, either as students or later, as highly qualified immigrants.

Comparing the distribution of international and foreign students across countries by level of tertiary education gives a fair indication of which programmes are relatively more attractive in each country.

In 2014, within OECD countries, the share of international students in short-cycle (typically vocational) tertiary programmes (3%) was smaller than at any other level of tertiary education. However, in some countries, international students were more represented in short-cycle programmes than at the bachelor’s or equivalent level. This is the case in Australia, Canada, Denmark, Japan, New Zealand and Spain. On average across these six countries, the proportion of international students in short-cycle tertiary programmes is 12%, much higher than the total for the OECD, 3% (Table C4.1 and Figure C4.2).

International enrolments at the bachelor’s level were also relatively low (5%) across OECD countries. Among the countries for which data are available, they slightly exceeded (1 percentage-point difference) enrolments at the master’s level in Austria, where international students represented 19% of total enrolments at the bachelor’s or equivalent level, and in Latvia, where they represented 6% of enrolments at this level. Among the countries with available data on foreign students, only in Italy was the proportion of international students (5%) higher at the bachelor’s than at the master’s or equivalent level (Table C4.1).

The proportion of international students was much higher at the most advanced levels of education. Within the OECD, 12% of students in master’s programmes or the equivalent were international students, as were 27% of students at the doctoral level. Luxembourg had the largest proportion of international students at the master’s or equivalent level (68%), followed by Australia (40%), the United Kingdom (37%) and Switzerland (28%) (Table C4.1 and Figure C4.1).

For all reporting countries, except Australia, Germany, Hungary, Poland and Lithuania, the largest proportion of international students is found in doctoral or equivalent programmes. In Luxembourg and Switzerland, the majority of the students enrolled at this level are international. The proportion of international students enrolled in programmes at the doctoral or equivalent level is also large (exceeding 35%) in Belgium, France, the Netherlands,

New Zealand and the United Kingdom. In contrast, this proportion is 5% or smaller in Chile, Lithuania, Poland and, among the countries that reported data based on the criteria of citizenship, in Brazil, China, India, Israel and the Russian Federation (Table C4.1 and Figure C4.1).

Proportion of women among international students in different fields of study

Although women represent a majority of students across OECD countries (54%), they account for slightly less than half (48%) of international students, i.e. a difference of 6 percentage points. This difference is particularly marked in New Zealand with a difference of 15 percentage points. The proportion of women among international students is 31% in Turkey, and it is 45% or lower in Canada, Chile, Finland, Latvia, New Zealand and the United States. In all these countries, this is at least 10 percentage points below the overall proportion of women among tertiary education students. In contrast, in Korea, women represent 52% of international students, 12 percentage points above their share in total enrolment in this country (Table C4.2).

Within OECD countries, the proportion of women among international students in sciences, engineering, manufacturing and construction (31%) is slightly higher than their share in overall enrolment in these fields (28%). In Slovenia, women account for close to 40% of international students in sciences, engineering, manufacturing and construction and, among the countries reporting data on foreign students, in Israel, women account for 39%. This is around 8.5 percentage points above their share in total tertiary enrolment in these fields (Table C4.2).

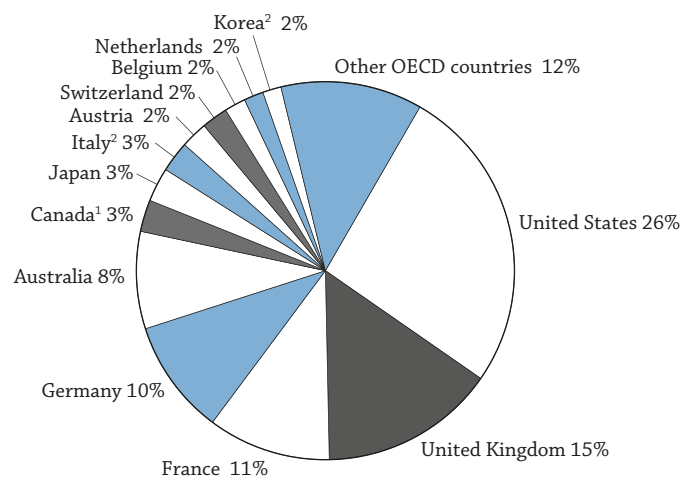
In contrast, women seem much less likely than males to study abroad in the three fields of agriculture, health and welfare, and services combined. Among OECD countries, women account for 68% of total tertiary enrolment in these three fields, but only 59% of international students (Table C4.2). Indicator A3 extends this analysis by showing the number of international students in each field of study relative to the total number of students in that field of study, by level of tertiary education.

Student mobility in master's and doctoral or equivalent programmes

Master's and doctoral or equivalent programmes are the most advanced educational programmes, informed by state-of-the-art research or professional practice. With the emergence of the knowledge economy and of knowledge communities (OECD, 2004), research and the top professional services have become more and more internationalised (OECD, 2009; OECD, 2012). Accordingly, many students are seeking opportunities to study abroad at the master's or doctoral level. International experience is seen as valuable for researchers and professionals. For example, the European University Association (2015) recommends that “doctoral candidates should be able to take part in international research activities”. This could come through international collaborations or by studying abroad for all or part of a study programme.

Figure C4.2. Distribution of foreign and international students in OECD countries at the master's and doctoral or equivalent levels, by country of destination (2014)


International tertiary students in each country of destination, as a percentage of the OECD total



1. Data refer to foreign instead of international students.

2. Year of reference 2013.

Source: OECD, Table C4.5. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/education/education-at-a-glance-19991487.htm).

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Major destinations of international students at the master's and doctoral or equivalent level

About 1.3 million international students were enrolled in master's and doctoral or equivalent programmes in OECD countries in 2014 (OECD Education Database). EU22 countries host slightly more than half (53%) of them. Intra-European mobility accounts for a substantial share of EU22 international students: 25% of international students enrolled in EU22 countries come from another EU22 country (Tables C4.4 and C4.5).

North America is also an attractive region for international students, as the United States and Canada combined account for almost 30% of the total. Regional mobility has a smaller role there than for the EU22 group. In Canada, 7% of international students come from North America, while in the United States, the figure is 3%. In both Canada and the United States, around 6% of international students come from Latin America. As a result, other mobility patterns play a larger role. For example, 35% of international students in the United States come from China alone (Table C4.4 and C4.5).

Australia and New Zealand together attract almost 9% of the international students enrolled in the master's and doctoral or equivalent programmes in the OECD. In both countries, students from Asia and Oceania form the vast majority (more than three-quarters) of all international students. Incoming mobility in Japan is even more dependent on the Asian continent, with more than 90% of international students at the master's and doctoral or equivalent level coming from other Asian countries (Tables C4.4 and C4.5).

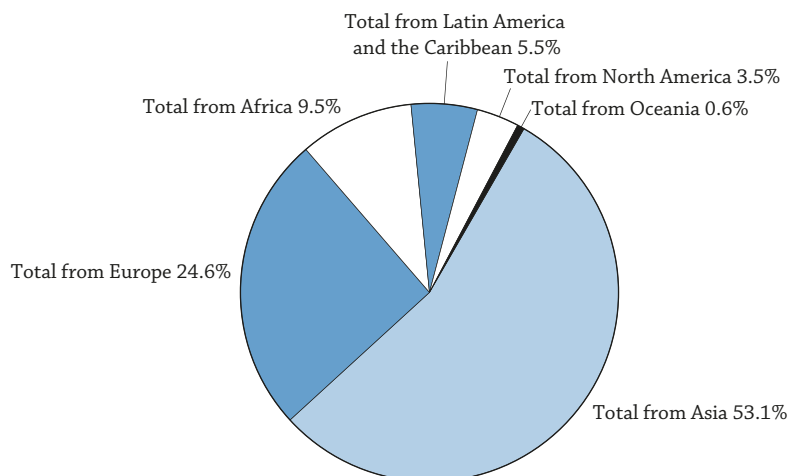
At the level of single countries, the United States hosts 26% of all international students enrolled in programmes at the master's and doctoral or equivalent levels in OECD countries. This is the largest share, followed by the United Kingdom (15%), France (11%), Germany (10%) and Australia (8%). Although these destinations account for more than two-thirds of all students pursuing their master's and doctoral (or equivalent) studies abroad, other countries play a substantial role in the international education market (Figure C4.2). Besides the eight major destinations, significant numbers of students from abroad were enrolled in Austria, Canada, Italy, Japan and Switzerland (2% or more of the OECD total) in 2014 (Table C4.5).

Main regions of origin

Students from Asia form the largest group of international students at the master's and doctoral or equivalent levels enrolled in the OECD: 53% of the total in all reporting destinations (Figure C4.3). In particular, students from China account for 22% of all international students enrolled at the master's and doctoral or equivalent levels in the OECD area, the highest share among all reporting countries (Table C4.4). Some 41% of all Chinese students enrolled at these levels of education in the OECD area are in the United States, while 39% choose either Australia, France, Germany or the United Kingdom (Table C4.5). The second-largest share of international students enrolled abroad at these levels of education within the OECD comes from Germany (3.5%), almost three-quarters of whom go to other EU22 countries.

Figure C4.3. Distribution of internationally mobile students studying in OECD countries at the master's and doctoral or equivalent levels, by region of origin (2014)

Percentage of mobile students enrolled in OECD countries



Source: OECD, Table C4.4. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/education/education-at-a-glance-19991487.htm).
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The United States attracts more than half of the students from India, the second country in terms of the number of students studying in the OECD countries (8.6%). Other OECD and partner countries of origin whose students form a share larger than 1.5% of the total number of international students at the master's and doctoral or equivalent levels in the OECD are Canada, France, Italy, Saudi Arabia and the United States.

In some cases, mobility from neighbouring countries reflects local patterns of mobility – students in border regions studying abroad but relatively close to home. For example, although precise data are not available, many Belgian, French and German students in Luxembourg could have family living within a few hundred kilometres from the location where they study. In other cases, mobility from neighbouring countries could reflect historic patterns of mobility developed within a formerly unified country which divided into two or more countries. For example, 57% of foreign students in the Czech Republic come from the Slovak Republic (Table C4.4). Across OECD and partner countries, 60% or more of international or foreign students in the Czech Republic, Japan and Poland came from neighbouring countries.

Underlying factors in students' choice of a country of study

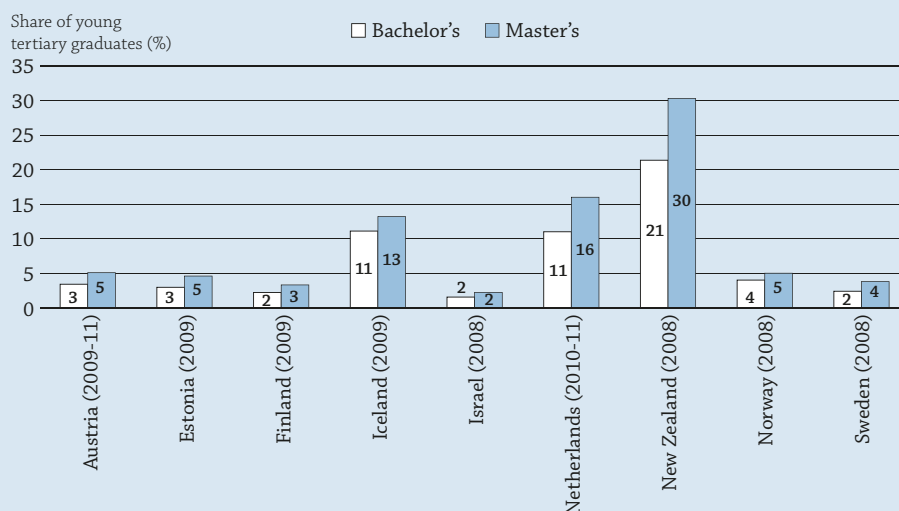
Language of instruction

The language spoken and used in instruction is likely to affect international students' choice of potential destination countries. Countries whose language of instruction is widely spoken and read, such as English, French, German, Russian and Spanish, can be particularly attractive to international students, both in absolute and relative terms. Japan is a notable exception: despite a language of instruction that is not widely used around the world, it enrolls large numbers of international students, 91% of whom are from Asia (Table C4.4).

Box C4.1. Tertiary graduates' mobility in OECD countries


Many young people will travel to different countries once they complete their studies, some temporarily to holiday and see the world, some to experience living and working in a different country for a bit longer. Many young qualified people who go abroad return at some time in the future, and they often bring back with them valuable skills and experience from their time in other countries.

Figure C4.a. Share of young tertiary graduates who have left their home country three years after graduation



Notes: The year(s) in brackets relate to the year(s) the cohort of tertiary graduates left study. The ranges used for the typical graduating ages of young graduates vary by level and country. All graduates are under 30.

Source: 2015 INES LSO Survey of Employment Outcomes of Recent Graduates. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/education/education-at-a-glance-19991487.htm).

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However, some students will leave their home country permanently after completing their qualification. This can be offset by immigration of foreign graduates who bring their qualifications and skills into the country. However, where the permanent loss of qualified graduates is large, or focused in certain important or valuable skills areas, and not offset by immigration of skills in these areas, this can represent a problem for governments. They have often invested significant public funds in the education of their population and want to ensure that they have the right match of skills for their labour market, and that they can retain their best and brightest at home to benefit their country.

A small but growing number of countries now have linked administrative register or survey data that can track graduates over time after their studies. These data can provide valuable insights on how many tertiary graduates leave after study, with which types of qualifications, and can eventually over time monitor how many of these graduates return. This box highlights some results from a 2015 survey of OECD countries with such linked data. It shows how many bachelor's and master's graduates had left their home country three years after graduating.

The proportions of graduates leaving after study varied noticeably across the eight countries with available data, although master's graduates were consistently more likely to leave their country than bachelor's graduates. This is consistent with New Zealand research showing that a graduate's likelihood of leaving after study is positively related to his or her level of qualification. In New Zealand, it is relatively common for students to travel after study. This culture of overseas experience can involve extended periods of living and working in another country. Other New Zealand research suggests that around 26% of master's graduates and 23% of bachelor's graduates who left New Zealand after completing study in 2003 had returned five years later.

All five countries with the highest ratio of incoming international students per national student abroad have English as an official language (either legally or *de facto*): Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, the United Kingdom and the United States (Table C4.3). This may reflect the progressive adoption of English as a global language. Many students intending to study abroad are likely to have learned English in their home country or wish to improve their English-language skills through immersion in a native English-speaking context. An increasing number of institutions in non-English-speaking countries are trying to offer tertiary education programmes taught in English, which are probably more attractive to international students. In Europe, the diffusion of English as a medium of instruction is especially noticeable in the Nordic countries (see Wächter and Maiworm, 2014 and Box C4.1 in OECD, 2015).

Quality of programmes

International students select their study destination based, at least in part, on the quality of education offered, as perceived from a wide array of information on, and rankings of, higher education programmes now available both in print and on line. The large proportion of top-ranked higher educational institutions in the principal destination countries and the growing number of ranked institutions that are based in fast-growing student destinations draw attention to the increasing importance of quality in attracting students. There is a strong relationship between the position of universities in international university rankings and their attractiveness to international students (e.g. Marconi, 2013). Besides rankings, other sources of information and the overall academic reputation of particular institutions or programmes are likely to play a large role.

Tuition fees

Tuition fees make up a substantial part of the cost of studying (see Indicator A7). Evidence related to reforms in the tuition fees applying to international students in some OECD countries suggests that students take them into consideration when deciding where to study abroad (Box C4.2).

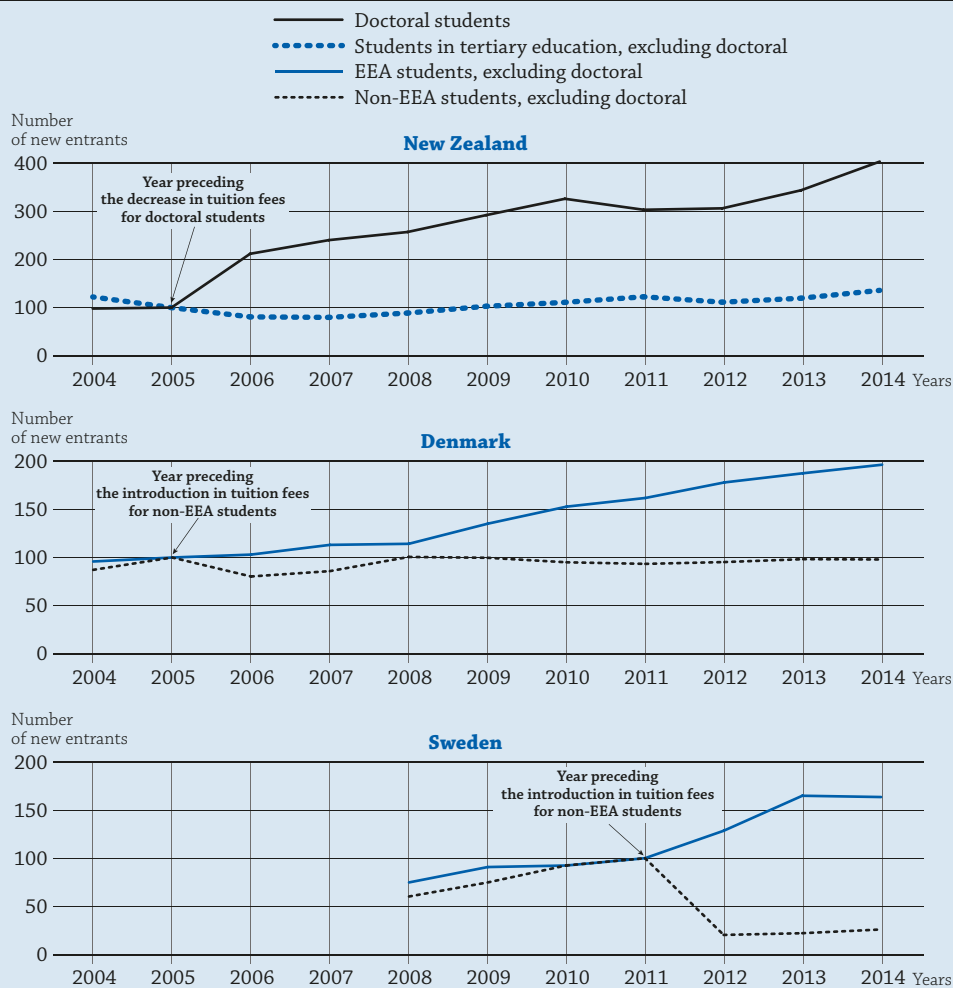
Countries that charge international students the full cost of education can reap significant economic benefits, if they are able to remain attractive destinations. Several countries in the Asia-Pacific region have actually made international education an explicit part of their socio-economic development strategy and have initiated policies to attract international students on a revenue-generating or at least a cost-recovery basis. New Zealand has successfully adopted differentiated tuition fees for international students (except those enrolling in PhDs), and it continues to attract a large number of international students (Table C4.1). This suggests that tuition fees do not necessarily discourage prospective international students, as long as the quality of education provided is high and its potential returns make the investment worthwhile.

Box C4.2 Changes in the number of international students following tuition fee reforms in Denmark, New Zealand and Sweden

Since 2005, Denmark, New Zealand and Sweden have implemented reforms that changed the tuition fees charged by public institutions to some of their international students by several thousand dollars. The effect of these reforms on the number of international new entrants enrolling in tertiary education programmes shows that international students are less willing to go to countries with high tuition fees. However, the most motivated students enrol regardless of the fees, probably attracted by the quality of education, labour market prospects or life circumstances in the host countries.


From January 2006, the New Zealand Government took provisions to encourage international students to enrol in its Doctorate of Philosophy (PhD) programmes, including subsidising their tuition fees to the same extent as domestic students (but also, for example, granting some work rights to them and their partners).

Figure C4.b. Number of new entrants in tertiary education before and after tuition fees reform in New Zealand, Denmark and Sweden
Relative to the number of new entrants in the year preceding the reform (2005=100 for New Zealand and Denmark, 2011=100 for Sweden).



Notes: New entrants are defined as new entrants to tertiary education for ISCED levels 5 to 7; and as new entrants to the ISCED level for ISCED level 8. See Indicator C3 for more details on the definition of new entrants.

Source: Denmark and Sweden: national statistical offices of Denmark and Sweden; New Zealand: New Zealand Ministry of Education. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/education/education-at-a-glance-19991487.htm).

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As a result, the number of international new entrants to doctoral (including PhD) programmes more than doubled in 2006.

Meanwhile, international new entrants to others levels had been declining, and continued to decline in 2006. From 2007, the number of international new entrants has been growing steadily at both doctoral and other levels.

In 2006, Denmark introduced tuition fees for international students for short-cycle tertiary, bachelor's and master's or equivalent programmes. At these levels of education, the number of new entrants from outside the European Economic Area (EEA) decreased by one-fifth in 2006. From 2006 to 2014, it increased by only 22%, while the number of students from the EEA, who are not affected by the reform, almost doubled in the same period.

In Sweden, where a similar reform became effective in the academic year 2011/12, the effect of the reform was perhaps the most dramatic. The number of non-EEA new entrants to short-cycle tertiary, bachelor's and master's or equivalent programmes dropped by almost 80% in 2012. It picked up slightly thereafter, increasing by 6 percentage points from 2012 to 2014. As in Denmark a few years earlier, there was an increase in the number of new entrants from the EEA – 28% in the year in which the reform became effective.

The cost of education differs substantially across countries, as does the level of public subsidies and support (see Indicators B3 and B5). Furthermore, in some countries public subsidies and support can be mostly directed towards national students, so that tuition fees are differentiated for national and international students. In other cases, the same tuition fees apply to students coming from a specific subgroup of countries as to national students. For example, among EU countries, international students from other EU countries are treated as domestic students with respect to tuition fees (European Commission, 2010). Finally, some countries make no distinction between national and international students from any country of origin in terms of tuition fees.

Immigration policy

In recent years, several OECD countries have eased their immigration policies to encourage temporary or permanent immigration of international students (OECD, 2014b). This makes these countries more attractive to students by improving their job prospects and increases the pool of talent from which their economies can draw. For example, international students are allowed to stay in the country after their studies to look for a job for a maximum of three years in Canada and four years in Australia. Most other OECD countries issue similar job-search permits for international students for a shorter duration. Students are issued a work permit only if, within the duration of their job-search permit, they find a job matching their qualifications according to specific criteria. Some countries in which these criteria were particularly strict, such as France, have recently relaxed them (OECD, 2014b). This will presumably help them to attract and retain international students.

Other factors

Decisions on whether and where to study abroad are often complex, and students base them on a number of other factors such as recognition of foreign degrees and workload carried out abroad (including government policies to facilitate the transfer of credits between home and host institutions); the quality and admission policies of tertiary education in the home country; future opportunities to come back to work in the home country; and cultural aspirations. In addition, geographical, trade or migration links between countries can play a large role. This is true for both current geopolitical areas such as the European Union and the North American Free Trade Agreement area, and those related to historical links, such as the former Soviet Union, the Commonwealth or the Francophonie.

Definitions

The **country of prior education** is the country in which students obtained the qualification required to enrol in their current level of education. Country-specific operational definitions of international students are indicated in the tables as well as in Annex 3 (www.oecd.org/education/education-at-a-glance-19991487.htm).

Foreign students are those who are not citizens of the country in which the data are collected. While pragmatic and operational, this classification is inappropriate for capturing student mobility because of differing national policies regarding the naturalisation of immigrants. For instance, Australia has a greater propensity to grant permanent residence to its immigrant populations than Switzerland. This implies that even when the proportion of foreign

students in tertiary enrolment is similar for both countries, the proportion of international students in tertiary education is smaller in Switzerland than in Australia. Therefore, for student mobility and bilateral comparisons, interpretations of data based on the concept of foreign students should be made with caution.

International students are those who left their country of origin and moved to another country for the purpose of study. Depending on country-specific immigration legislation, mobility arrangements, such as the free mobility of individuals within the European Union and the European Economic Area, 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.

Permanent or usual residence in the reporting country is defined according to national legislation. In practice, this means holding a student visa or permit, or electing a foreign country of domicile in the year prior to entering the education system of the country reporting the data.

Methodology

Data on international and foreign students refer to the academic year 2013/14 unless otherwise indicated and are based on the UOE data collection on education statistics administered by the OECD in 2014.

The fields of education used in the UOE data collection instruments follow the revised ISCED classification by field of education. The same classification is used for all levels of education (for details see Annex 3 at www.oecd.org/education/education-at-a-glance-19991487.htm). Additional data from the UNESCO Institute for Statistics are also included.

Data on international and foreign students are obtained from enrolments in their countries of destination. The method used for 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 education programme.

Domestic and international students are usually counted on a specific day or period of the year. This procedure makes it possible to measure the proportion of international enrolments in an education system, but the actual number of individuals involved may be much higher since many students study abroad for less than a full academic year, or participate in exchange programmes that do not require enrolment, such as inter-university exchanges or short-term advanced research programmes.

The data do not include students enrolled in countries that did not report international or foreign students to the OECD or to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics. All statements on students enrolled abroad worldwide may therefore underestimate the actual number of citizens studying abroad (Table C4.3), especially in cases where many citizens study in countries that did not report their foreign students to the OECD or UNESCO Institute for Statistics, such as India.

Data on the total number of students enrolled abroad are based on the number of international students counts and, for the countries for which these are not available, on foreign students counts. The data do not include students enrolled in countries that did not report international or foreign students to the OECD or to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics. Aggregates, market shares and proportions of international students coming from particular countries rely on this estimate of the total (Tables C4.4 and C4.5, Figures C4.2 and C4.3).

Note regarding data from Israel

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

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Indicator C4 Tables


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Table C4.1 International student mobility and foreign students in tertiary education (2014)

Table C4.2 Female students enrolled in tertiary education as a share of total enrolment, by field of education and mobility status (2014)

Table C4.3 Mobility patterns of foreign and international students (2014)

Table C4.4 Distribution of international and foreign students in master's and doctoral or equivalent programmes, by country of origin (2014)

Table C4.5 Students abroad in master's and doctoral or equivalent programmes, by country of destination (2014)

Cut-off date for the data: 20 July 2016. Any updates on data can be found on line at: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/eag-data-en>

Table C4.1. **International student mobility and foreign students in tertiary education (2014)***International and foreign students enrolled as a percentage of all students (international plus domestic)*

Reading the first column of the upper section of the table (international): 18% of all students in tertiary education in Australia are international students and 17% of all students in tertiary education in Switzerland are international students. The data presented in this table on international student mobility represent the best available proxy of student mobility for each country.

Reading the first column of the lower section of the table (foreign): 10% of all students in tertiary education in the Czech Republic are not Czech citizens, and 2% of all students in tertiary education in Korea are not Korean citizens.

C4

	Share of international or foreign students by level of tertiary education					Rate of growth of the number of international or foreign students between 2013 and 2014, total tertiary education	
	Total tertiary education	Short-cycle tertiary programmes	Bachelor's or equivalent level	Master's or equivalent level	Doctoral or equivalent level		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)		
	International students						
OECD	Australia	18	13.3	13.1	40	34	6
	Austria	15	1.0	18.6	18	25	-8
	Belgium ¹	11	4.9	8.2	20	37	24
	Canada ²	10	9.0	8.1	14	27	12
	Chile	0	0.1	0.1	3	4	8
	Denmark	10	13.1	5.5	17	30	2
	Estonia	4	a	2.9	5	8	19
	Finland	7	a	5.2	12	19	4
	France	10	4.4	7.3	13	40	3
	Germany	7	0.0	4.4	12	7	7
	Hungary	7	0.6	5.0	15	8	12
	Iceland	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Ireland	7	1.1	5.8	14	23	11
	Japan	3	3.4	2.5	8	19	-2
	Latvia	5	1.6	6.0	5	7	28
	Luxembourg	44	11.3	25.3	68	85	3
	Mexico	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Netherlands	10	1.7	8.3	17	37	3
	New Zealand	19	27.4	14.3	23	45	18
	Norway	3	0.6	2.0	7	20	0
	Poland	2	0.0	1.6	3	2	25
	Portugal	4	a	2.6	5	16	2
	Slovenia	3	0.9	2.3	4	8	-3
	Spain ³	2	5.0	0.8	5	m	-8
	Sweden	6	0.2	2.4	9	33	0
	Switzerland	17	0.0	9.9	28	53	5
	United Kingdom	18	5.5	13.7	37	42	3
	United States	4	2.0	3.5	9	35	7
	OECD total	6	3.0	4.9	12	27	5
	EU22 total	8	4.5	6.1	13	22	4
Partner	Lithuania	3	a	2.4	5	3	m
	Foreign students⁴						
OECD	Czech Republic	10	4.6	8.5	12	14	3
	Greece	4	a	4.7	m	m	m
	Israel	3	m	3.1	4	5	m
	Italy	5	a	4.7	4	13	m
	Korea	2	0.2	1.3	6	8	-6
	Slovak Republic	6	0.5	4.4	7	9	9
	Turkey	1	0.2	0.9	3	5	-11
Partners	Argentina	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Brazil	0	0.3	0.2	1	2	m
	China	0	0.0	0.4	1	3	12
	Colombia	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Costa Rica	m	m	m	m	m	m
	India	0	a	0.1	0	1	m
	Indonesia	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Russian Federation	3	1.9	x(4)	6 ^d	5	54
	Saudi Arabia	m	m	m	m	m	m
	South Africa	m	m	m	m	m	m

Note: Countries using the "foreign students" definition are not taken into account in the OECD and EU22 totals.

1. Data on short-cycle tertiary education refer to foreign students.

2. Year of reference 2013.

3. Total tertiary education excludes doctoral students.

4. While international students include only students who moved to a country with the purpose of studying, foreign students comprise all students who have a different country of citizenship than the country in which they study; these data are not comparable with data on international students and are therefore presented separately in the table.

Source: OECD, Argentina, China, Colombia, India, Indonesia, Saudi Arabia and South Africa: UNESCO Institute for Statistics. Lithuania: Eurostat. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/education/education-at-a-glance-19991487.htm).

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


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Table C4.2. **Female students enrolled in tertiary education as a share of total enrolment, by field of education and mobility status (2014)**

Share of female students among international students and among all students, for all fields of study and for three broad fields of study categories

	International students				All students				
	Education, humanities and arts, social sciences, business and law	Sciences, engineering, manufacturing and construction	Agriculture, health and welfare, services	All fields of education	Education, humanities and arts, social sciences, business and law	Sciences, engineering, manufacturing and construction	Agriculture, health and welfare, services	All fields of education	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	
	International students								
OECD	Australia	52	26	63	47	60	28	71	57
	Austria	60	37	55	53	62	28	66	53
	Belgium	58	36	66	57	59	23	70	56
	Canada ¹	52	29	57	45	60	31	71	56
	Chile	47	28	50	44	61	19	65	52
	Denmark	59	39	68	54	59	34	72	57
	Estonia	47	26	74	47	71	32	67	59
	Finland	55	26	57	43	65	24	74	54
	France	61	35	55	52	62	31	65	55
	Germany ²	61	28	50	49	59	27	60	47
	Hungary	57	26	51	50	67	25	62	55
	Iceland	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Ireland	55	28	54	50	57	27	63	51
	Japan	52	28	57	48	50	15	63	47
	Latvia	45	19	50	43	68	25	66	58
	Luxembourg	55	28	68	50	57	24	70	51
	Mexico	m	m	m	m	59	30	57	49
	Netherlands	56	34	66	54	53	22	65	51
	New Zealand	49	32	49	43	62	36	71	57
	Norway	61	33	57	51	63	27	68	58
	Poland	58	26	55	53	69	36	62	59
	Portugal	58	37	59	52	61	32	66	54
	Slovenia	65	40	65	57	71	31	64	58
	Spain ²	61	28	60	53	62	28	62	53
	Sweden	60	33	59	48	66	34	75	59
	Switzerland	58	33	63	50	55	24	67	50
	United Kingdom	56	35	64	51	59	36	74	56
	United States	52	30	57	45	58	30	70	56
	OECD total	55	31	59	48	59	28	68	54
	EU22 total	58	33	60	51	62	30	66	54
Partner	Lithuania	60	16	40	51	68	25	69	58
	Foreign students³								
OECD	Czech Republic	63	33	60	53	67	32	65	57
	Greece	61	34	61	53	57	31	57	49
	Israel	63	39	66	59	65	31	75	56
	Italy	69	36	63	59	64	37	60	57
	Korea	59	30	60	52	51	21	51	40
	Slovak Republic	48	37	68	58	68	35	66	60
	Turkey	34	20	38	31	48	30	54	46
Partners	Argentina	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	India	37	21	53	37	50	38	54	46
	Brazil	51	29	57	44	62	33	70	57
	China	m	m	m	45	m	m	m	51
	Colombia	m	m	m	m	61	32	59	53
	Costa Rica	m	m	m	m	63	38	67	58
	Indonesia	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Russian Federation	m	m	m	m	67	27	52	53
	Saudi Arabia	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	South Africa	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m

Note: Countries using the "foreign students" definition are not taken into account in the OECD and EU22 totals.

1. Year of reference 2013.

2. Data exclude students in doctoral or equivalent programmes.

3. While international students include only students who moved to a country with the purpose of studying, foreign students comprise all students who have a different country of citizenship than the country in which they study; these data are not comparable with data on international students and are therefore presented separately in the table.

Source: OECD, Argentina, China, Colombia, India, Indonesia, Saudi Arabia and South Africa: UNESCO Institute for Statistics. Lithuania: Eurostat. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/education/education-at-a-glance-19991487.htm).

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Table C4.3. **Mobility patterns of foreign and international students (2014)**

Percentage of national students enrolled abroad (total tertiary education), balance on mobility (total tertiary education) and cross-border mobility (master's and doctoral or equivalent programmes)

	Percentage of national tertiary students enrolled abroad (total tertiary education)	Number of international or foreign students per national student abroad (total tertiary education)	Percentage of international or foreign students coming from neighbouring countries (master's and doctoral or equivalent programmes) ¹
	(1)	(2)	(3)
OECD			
Australia	1.0	20.7	5
Austria	4.3	4.4	58
Belgium	2.8	3.5	22
Canada ²	3.4	2.8	7
Chile	0.8	0.3	8
Czech Republic ³	3.1	3.2	60
Denmark	2.0	5.5	43
Estonia	6.6	0.4	43
Finland	2.9	2.6	12
France	3.5	3.0	13
Germany	4.5	1.6	13
Greece ³	m	m	m
Hungary	2.6	2.3	21
Iceland	13.7	0.4	m
Ireland	8.0	0.8	8
Israel ³	4.4	0.6	2
Italy ³	2.8	1.7	29
Japan	0.9	4.1	69
Korea ³	3.3	0.5	52
Latvia	7.0	0.5	m
Luxembourg	68.4	0.3	57
Mexico	0.8	0.3	m
Netherlands	2.3	4.9	23
New Zealand	2.5	7.5	5
Norway	6.8	0.5	13
Poland	1.2	1.2	66
Portugal	3.1	1.3	4
Slovak Republic ³	14.2	0.3	44
Slovenia	2.7	1.0	37
Spain ⁴	1.5	1.9	27
Sweden	4.2	1.4	18
Switzerland	4.9	3.9	46
Turkey ³	1.0	1.1	50
United Kingdom	1.5	14.3	10
United States	0.3	11.8	5
OECD total ⁵	1.6	3.1	~
EU22 total ⁵	3.0	2.6	~
Partners			
Argentina ³	0.3	0.3	m
Brazil	0.4	0.5	m
China	2.1	m	m
Colombia	1.3	m	m
Costa Rica	m	m	m
India	m	m	m
Indonesia	0.7	m	m
Lithuania	m	m	m
Russian Federation ^{3, 6}	0.7	2.5	m
Saudi Arabia ³	5.7	0.8	m
South Africa ³	0.8	5.7	m

1. Neighbouring countries are considered to be those with land or maritime borders with the host country.

2. Year of reference 2013.

3. Domestic tertiary students are calculated as total enrolment minus foreign students instead of total enrolment minus international students.


4. Data exclude students in doctoral or equivalent programmes.

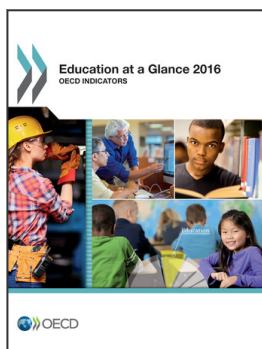
5. OECD total and EU22 total are not directly relevant for Column 3. The number of students studying in neighbouring countries is included in the statistics for the single member states.

6. The percentage of foreign students coming from neighbouring countries includes those from former Soviet Union countries, mostly of central Asia.

Sources: OECD and UNESCO Institute for Statistics for most data on non-OECD countries. Lithuania: Eurostat (UOE2014). CIA World Factbook 2014 for worldwide official languages. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/education/education-at-a-glance-19991487.htm).

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