

STUDENT MOBILITY AND FOREIGN STUDENTS IN TERTIARY EDUCATION

This indicator provides a picture of student mobility and the significance of internationalisation of tertiary education in OECD and partner countries. It shows global trends and highlights the major destinations of international students and trends in market shares on the international education market. 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. Lastly, 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.

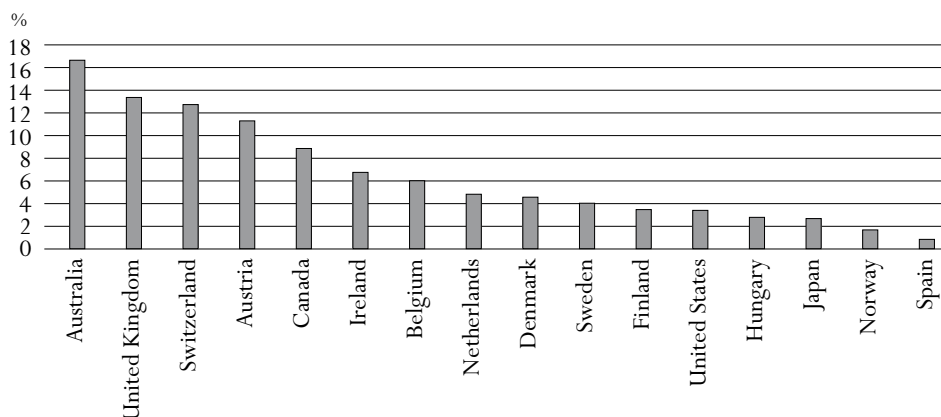
Key results

Chart C3.1. Student mobility in tertiary education (2004)

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

Note that the data on the mobility of international students presented in this chart are not comparable with data on foreign students in tertiary education (defined on the basis of citizenship) presented in previous editions of Education at a Glance or elsewhere in this chapter.

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 17% of tertiary enrolments. International students are most numerous in tertiary enrolments in Australia, Austria, Canada, Switzerland and the United Kingdom.



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/eag2006).

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Other highlights of this indicator

- In 2004, 2.7 million tertiary students were enrolled outside their country of citizenship. This represented a 8% increase in total foreign student intake reported to the OECD and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics since 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 countries.
- In Finland, Spain and Switzerland, more than 14% of international students are enrolled in highly theoretical advanced research programmes. The same holds for foreign students enrolled in France.
- As far as fields of education are concerned, 30% or more of international students are enrolled in sciences, agriculture or engineering in Australia, Finland, Germany, Hungary, Sweden, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States. The same holds for foreign students enrolled in Portugal and the Slovak Republic.
- International graduates contribute to 20% or more of the graduate output for tertiary-type A or advanced research programmes in Australia, Canada, Switzerland and the United Kingdom. The same holds for foreigners graduating from advanced research programmes in Belgium, France and the United States. The contribution of international and foreign graduates to the tertiary graduate output is especially high for advanced research programmes in Belgium, Canada, France, 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.

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 policies of countries of destination on tuition fees (Box C3.3) and financial support for international students. The cost of living in countries of study and exchange rates also impact on the cost of international education. On the other side, 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.

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 privilege 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).

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 this year in comparison with previous editions of *Education at a Glance*.

Previous versions of indicator C3 have focused on foreign students in tertiary education, defined as non-citizens of the country in which they study. Although practical, this concept of foreign students was inappropriate to measure student mobility to the extent that not all foreign students have 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.

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 data collected by the UNESCO, OECD and Eurostat allow countries to define as international students who are not residents of their country of study or alternatively students who received their prior education in another country, 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 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 all trend analyses 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*.

Overall picture and trends in foreign student numbers

Trends in foreign student numbers

In 2004, 2.7 million tertiary students were enrolled outside their country of citizenship, of which 2.3 million (or 85%) studied in the OECD area. This represented a 8% increase in total foreign enrolments worldwide since the previous year – or 193 000 additional individuals in absolute numbers. In the OECD area, the increase was even larger with a 9% 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 41%. This amounts to a 9% 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, France, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Korea, the Netherlands, New Zealand and Spain, and in the partner countries Chile and Russian Federation, with indexes of change of 150 or above. By contrast, the number of foreign students enrolled in Austria, Belgium, Canada, the Slovak Republic and the United States grew by about 20% or less and even shrunk in Turkey (Table C3.1).

Interestingly, changes in foreign student numbers between 2000 and 2004 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 61 and 52% growth respectively. This pattern suggests that although foreign enrolments increased throughout the OECD with the exception of Turkey, the recent growth in foreign enrolments was even higher outside of the EU area than inside (Table C3.1).

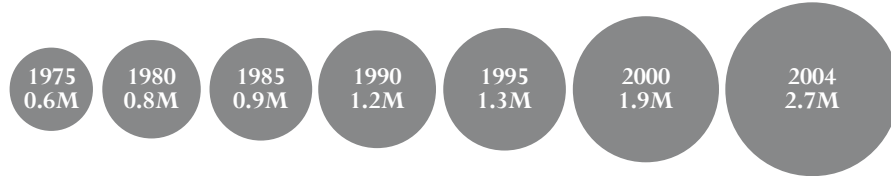
The combination of OECD data with those of the UNESCO Institute for Statistics allows the examination of longer term trends and illustrates the dramatic growth in foreign enrolments over the past 30 years (Box C3.1).

Over the past three decades, the number of students enrolled outside their country of citizenship has grown dramatically from 0.6 million worldwide in 1975 to 2.7 millions in 2004 – 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 was a major policy objective. Similar rationales motivated North American policies of academic cooperation.

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

Growth in internationalisation of tertiary education (1975-2004)



Source: OECD and UNESCO Institute for Statistics (for data on non-OECD countries and up to 1995).

The database on foreign enrolments worldwide combines OECD data since 2000 for OECD and partner countries with data from the UNESCO Institute for Statistics for all countries up to 1995 and other non-OECD countries since 2000. 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.

But over time, 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 by contrast, 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 the 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.

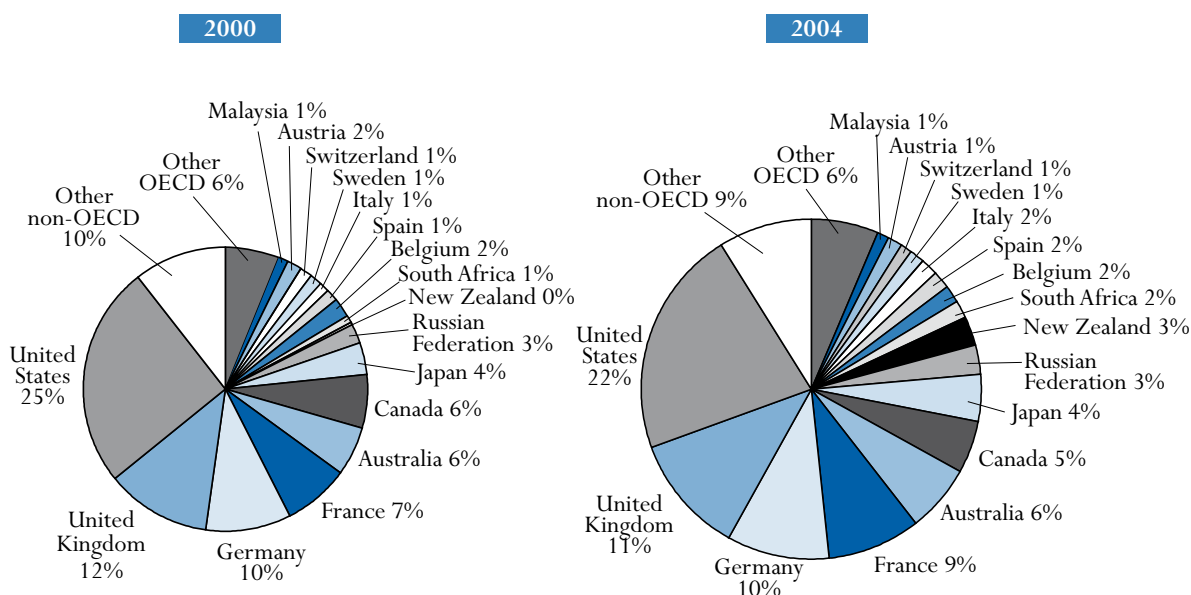
Major destinations of foreign students

In 2004, more than five out of ten foreign students were attracted 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 (11%), 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, significant numbers of foreign students are enrolled in Australia (6%), Canada (5%), Japan (4%), New Zealand (3%) and the partner country the Russian Federation (3%).

Chart C3.2. Distribution of foreign students by country of destination (2000, 2004)

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

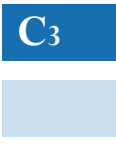


Source: OECD and UNESCO Institute for Statistics for most data on non-OECD countries. Table C3.8 (available on the Web at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/221673686112>). See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2006).

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

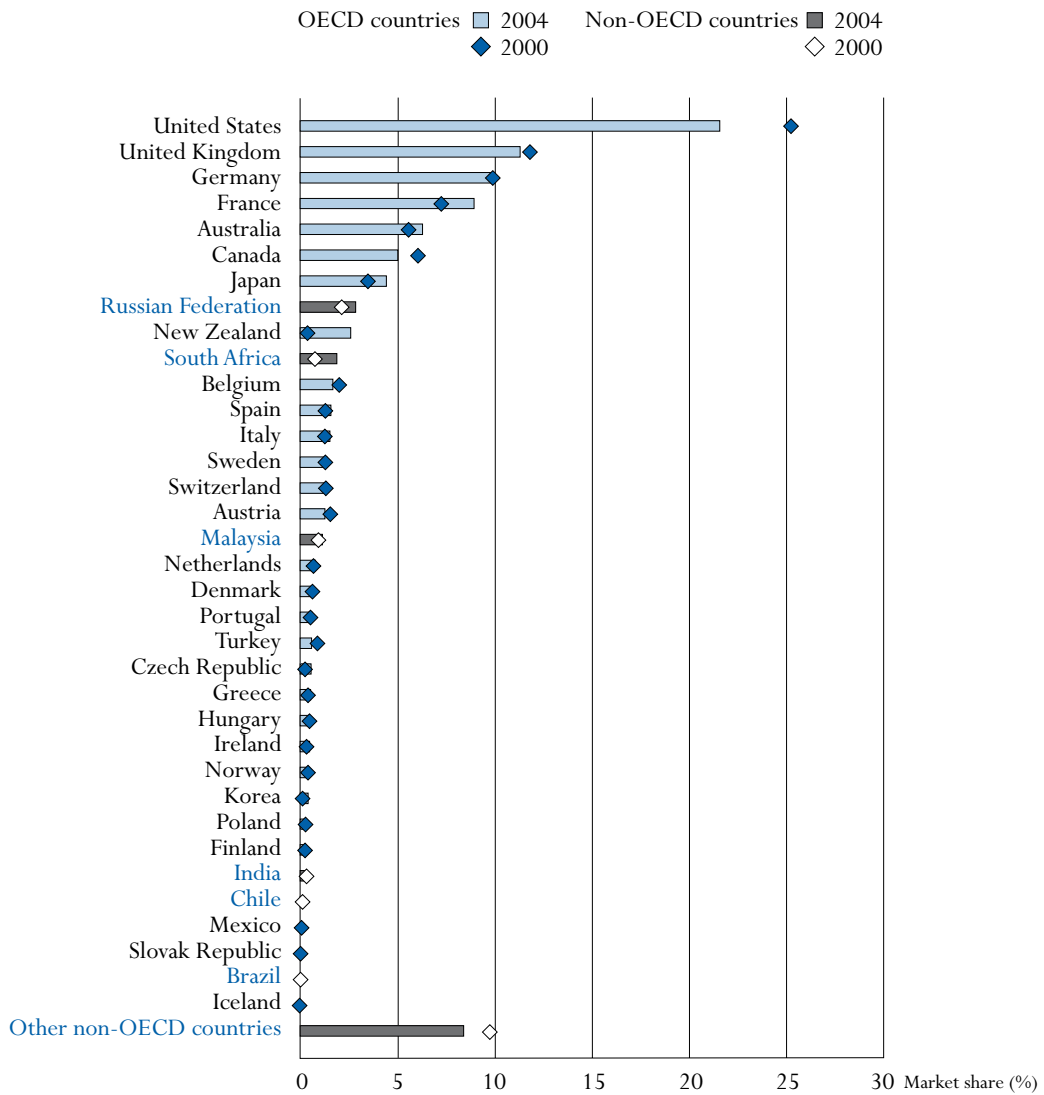
The examination of country-specific trends in market shares on the international education market – measured as the percentage of all foreign students worldwide enrolled in a given destination – sheds light on the dynamics of internationalisation of tertiary education.



The United States saw a significant drop as a preferred destination of foreign students, from 25.3 to 21.6% of the global intake. Canada and the United Kingdom also saw their market share decline by about 1 percentage point over the four year period scrutinised. By contrast the market shares of France, New Zealand and the partner country South Africa expanded by one percentage point or more. The growth in market position was most impressive for New Zealand, thereby positioning the country among the big players in the international education market (Chart C3.3).

Chart C3.3. Trends in international education market shares (2000, 2004)

Percentage of all foreign tertiary students enrolled by destination



Countries are ranked in descending order of 2004 market shares.

Source: OECD and UNESCO Institute for Statistics for most data on non-OECD countries. Table C3.8 (available on the Web at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/221673686112>). See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eqq2006).

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These trends underline the different dynamics of international education in OECD and non-OECD countries, and reflect different emphases of internationalisation policies, ranging from pro-active marketing policies in the Asia-Pacific region to a more passive approach in the traditionally dominant United States whose foreign student intakes were 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]).

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 enrolls large numbers of foreign students despite a less widespread language of instruction (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 158), Ireland (171) and most importantly New Zealand (456) between 2000 and 2004 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 the Czech Republic, 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 2004 (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. Similar debates are currently underway in Finland, Norway and Sweden where foreign enrolments grew by more than 40% between 2000 and 2004.

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

Box C3.2. OECD countries offering tertiary programmes in English (2004)

Use of English language in instruction	Countries
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), Cirus (Denmark), CIMO (Finland), EduFrance (France), DAAD (Germany), Campus Hungary (Hungary), University of Iceland (Iceland), JPSS (Japan), NIIED (Korea), NUFFIC (Netherlands), SIU (Norway), CRASP (Poland), Swedish Institute (Sweden) and Middle-East Technical University (Turkey).

are the same for domestic and international students, foreign enrolments also grew at a robust pace between 2000 and 2004 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 Canada and the United Kingdom between 2000 and 2004 and 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 Anglo-Saxon 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

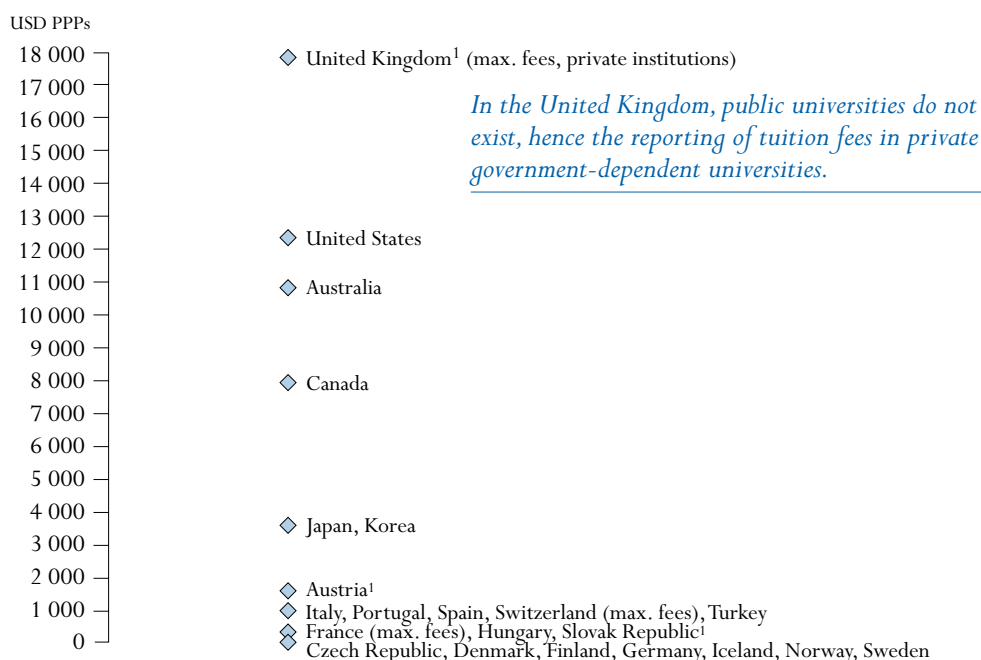
permanent immigration of their international students. As a result, immigration considerations may also guide the directions of some international students choosing between alternative educational opportunities abroad (Tremblay, 2005).

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**Box C3.3. Level of tuition fees charged
for international students in public universities (2004)**

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

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



Source: OECD, Table B5.1.

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.

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.

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

Australia, Austria, 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, 16.6% of tertiary students enrolled in the country have come to the country expressly to pursue their studies. Similarly, international students represent 13.4% of total tertiary enrolments in the United Kingdom, 12.7% in Switzerland and 11.3% in Austria. International enrolments are also significant in relative terms in Canada. By contrast, incoming student mobility remains below 2% of total tertiary enrolments in Norway and Spain (Chart C3.1).

Among countries where data on student mobility are not available, foreign enrolments constitute a large group of tertiary students in France (11%), Germany (11.2%) and New Zealand (28.3%), suggesting significant levels of incoming student mobility. However foreign enrolments – and student mobility – represent 2% or less of total tertiary enrolments in Italy, Korea, Poland, the Slovak Republic, Turkey and the partner countries Chile and Russian Federation (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 on student mobility. A first observation is that with the exception of Canada, 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 easier. Among countries where data on student mobility are not available, tertiary-type B programmes also enrol a higher proportion of foreign students than tertiary-type A programmes in Finland, Italy and Spain (Table C3.1).

In Australia and Sweden, 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. Among countries where data on student mobility are not available, a similar pattern can be observed in New Zealand and the Slovak Republic.

By 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, Canada, Hungary,

Spain, Switzerland and the United Kingdom, and in France and Iceland 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 45% of the total in OECD countries, and 52% of the total in non-OECD countries. In the OECD, the Asian group is followed by Europeans (25%), in particular citizens of the European Union (15%). Students from Africa account for 12% of all international students, while those from North America account for only 4%. Finally, students from South America represent 6% of the total. Altogether, a third of international students enrolled in the OECD area originate from another OECD country (Table C3.2).

In Australia, Canada and the United Kingdom, three of the top destinations of international students in 2004, the numbers of international students originating from Asia have increased significantly over the previous year. The same holds for foreign students in Turkey among countries where data on student mobility are not available.

Main countries of origin of international students

The predominance of students from Asia and Europe among international intakes is also notable. Students from Japan and Korea comprise the largest groups of international students enrolled in the OECD, at 2.8 and 4.3% of the total respectively, followed by students from France and Germany at 2.6% each (Table C3.2).

With respect to international students originating from partner countries, students from China represent by far the largest group, with 15.2% of all international students enrolled in the OECD area (not including an additional 1.6% from Hong Kong, China). Students from China are followed by those from India (5.7%), Morocco, Malaysia and the Russian Federation. Significant numbers of international students also originate from Singapore and Thailand (see Table C3.8, available on the Web at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/221673686112>).

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 (26.1%), Canada (29.5%) and Japan (24.3%). 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 Greece (28.7%) and New Zealand (24.3%) (Table C3.4).

By contrast, other countries see a large proportion of their international students enrolling in highly theoretical advanced research programmes. This is most notably the case in Finland (14.5%), Spain (28.2%) and Switzerland (27%). Among countries where data on student mobility are not available, foreign enrolments in advanced research programmes are also high in France (14.5%).

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 the United Kingdom (11.5%) and foreign students in the Czech Republic (11%). All of these countries are likely to benefit from larger contributions of these high-level foreign students to domestic research and development. In addition, this specialisation can also generate higher tuition revenue per foreign 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 indicated by Table C3.5, sciences attract about one in five international students in Australia (20.2%), Norway (20.5%) and the United States (19.4%) but less than one in fifty in Japan (1.3%) and in Poland (2.1%) among countries where data on student mobility are not available. Other countries showing a large proportion of international students enrolled in sciences are Canada (14.3%), Germany (17.3%), Switzerland (17.0%), the United Kingdom (14.7%) and to a lower extent Sweden (12.4%) and New Zealand (13.6%) among countries where data on student mobility are not available.

The 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 of education, at 42.4%. The proportion of international students enrolled in agriculture, sciences or engineering is also high in Australia (33%), Germany (37.5%), Hungary (33.3%), Sweden (31.4%), Switzerland (34.2%), the United Kingdom (30.7%) and the United States (35.3%). Similarly, among countries where data on student mobility are not available, agriculture, sciences and engineering attract about one in three foreign students in Portugal (30.9%) and the Slovak Republic (30.3%). By contrast, few foreign students are enrolled in agriculture, sciences and engineering in Poland (Chart C3.4).

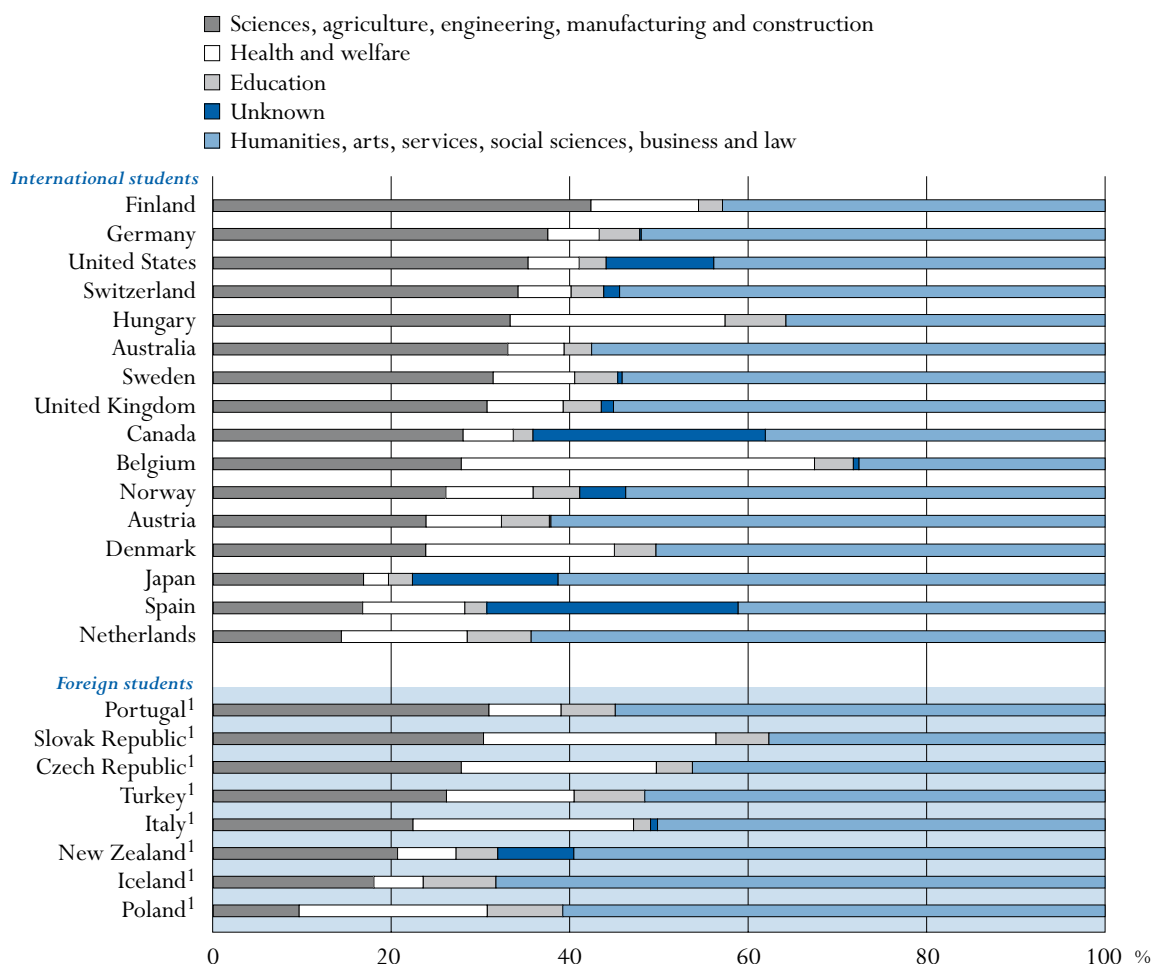
It is noteworthy that most countries enrolling large proportions of their international students in agriculture, sciences and engineering deliver programmes in the English language. In the case of Germany, the large proportion of foreign students in scientific disciplines may also reflect the strong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

By contrast, non-Anglophone countries tend to enrol a higher proportion of their international students in the humanities and arts fields. Indeed, humanities and arts are favoured by about one in four international students in Austria (24.5%), Germany (23.8%) and Japan (26%). Among countries where data on student mobility are not available, Iceland enrolls more than half of its foreign students in the humanities and arts (53%), while this is the case for one in five foreign students in Poland (21.2%).

Social sciences, business and law programmes also attract international students in large numbers. In Australia and the Netherlands, these fields of education enrol nearly half of all international students (at 47.9 and 48.2% respectively). The proportion of international students enrolled in social sciences, business and law is also high in the United Kingdom (39.8%). Among countries where data on student mobility are not available, New Zealand enrolls more than half of its foreign students in social sciences business and law while these fields also receive more than 40% of foreign students in Portugal (41.6%) and Turkey (40.7%).

Chart C3.4. Distribution of international and foreign students by field of education (2004)

Percentage of all international and foreign tertiary students enrolled in different fields of education



1. 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 and foreign students enrolled in sciences, agriculture, engineering, manufacturing and construction.

Source: OECD. Table C3.5. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eq2006).

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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 (39.6%), Denmark (21.1%) and Hungary (24.1%). 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 (21.9%), Italy (24.7%), Poland (21.1%) and the Slovak Republic (26%). 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, Iceland 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, the vast majority of OECD students enrol in another country of the OECD area. Nevertheless, more than 10% of citizens enrolled abroad do so outside of the OECD area in Greece, Italy, Turkey and the United States. Among partner countries, students from Brazil, Chile, Israel and the Russian Federation also enrol in significant numbers in non-OECD countries to acquire their tertiary education. By contrast, students from Austria, Belgium, France, Iceland, Ireland, Japan, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, the Slovak Republic and Switzerland 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 Canada in the United States, from New Zealand in Australia etc. Language issues as well as academic traditions also shed light on the propensity for Anglo-Saxon 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.

Lastly, 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 five in six Indian citizens enrolled abroad.

International students' contribution to tertiary graduate output and immigration implications

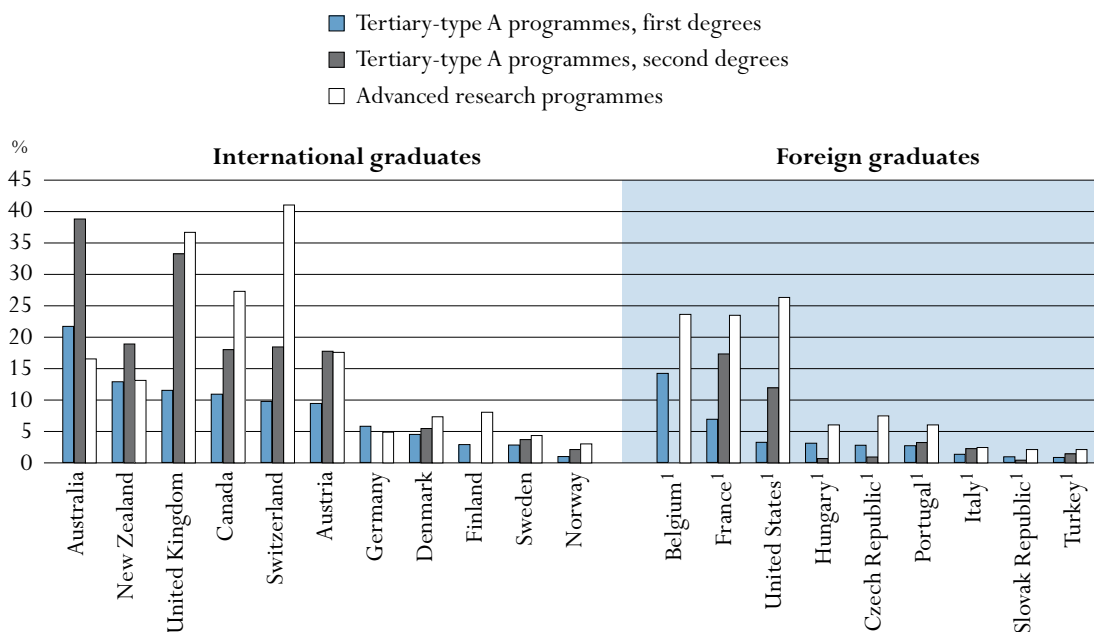
International students' contribution to the graduate output

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, Canada, Switzerland and the United Kingdom, more than a quarter 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 advanced research programmes in Switzerland and the United Kingdom, where international graduates represent over 35% of the graduate output. The contribution of international students to the graduate output is also significant – although to a lesser extent – in Austria and New Zealand, and among countries where student mobility data are not available, in Belgium, France and the United States (Chart C3.5).

Chart C3.5. Proportion of international and foreign graduates in tertiary graduate output (2004)

Percentage of all tertiary qualifications awarded to international and foreign 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.

Countries are ranked in descending order of the proportion of international and foreign graduates in tertiary-type A first degree programmes.

Source: OECD, Table C3.7. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eqg2006).

StatLink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/221673686112>

By contrast, the contribution of international students to the tertiary graduate output of Denmark, Finland, Germany, Norway and Sweden is more limited. The same holds for the Czech Republic, Hungary, Italy, 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

Immigration implications

Indeed, the growth of the new economy over the past two decades has magnified the importance of human capital and educated workforces to economic growth (see Indicator A10). In this context, worldwide competition for highly skilled workers is strong, and international students are increasingly regarded as a potential source of highly skilled immigrants by some OECD countries. Upon completion of their studies, international students master the language of their country of study, are familiar with its culture and their diplomas are known to local employers for those who completed a full programme abroad. This makes them directly employable on the labour market in their country of destination.

Several OECD countries have recently softened their immigration policies to encourage the temporary or permanent immigration of some international students (OECD, 2005a and Tremblay, 2005). Interestingly, the education systems where international students contribute most to the graduate output are those of countries with a long tradition of immigration favouring skilled individuals (Australia, Canada, New Zealand) or countries where the economy relies extensively upon foreign highly skilled workers (Switzerland, United Kingdom, United States).

In this perspective, the contribution of international graduates to the total graduate output can also be seen as a measure of the size of the potential pool of highly skilled immigrants upon which host countries can capitalise to enhance human capital availability in the economy.

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 UNESCO, OECD and Eurostat.

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/eag2006).

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 – 19.9 and 18.2% respectively – these proportions reflect significant differences in the actual levels of student mobility – 16.6% of tertiary enrolments in Australia and 12.7% in Switzerland. 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 2003-2004.

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 countries Chile and the Russian Federation, as well as non-OECD countries 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 non-OECD countries 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 2004 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, and the indexes of change between 2003 and 2004 and since 2000 and 2002. 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 non-OECD countries that are not OECD partner countries were not included in the past, the figures are not strictly comparable with those published in previous editions of *Education at a Glance*.

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.

Last, Table C3.8 (available on the Web at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/221673686112>) provides the matrix of foreign students' numbers by country of origin and country of destination, as well as the total number of foreign students in each destination in 2000 and the corresponding market shares in 2000 and 2004.

Further references

The number of expected years of tertiary education is biased upwards in countries with a large proportion of international students in tertiary enrolments. This pattern should be borne in mind when interpreting trends or differences between countries in expected years of tertiary education (see Indicators C1 and C2).

Similarly, 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).

International students contribute significantly to the tertiary graduate output of some countries. This gives highly internationalised education systems an opportunity to capitalise upon international students to enhance human capital in the economy, and thereby stimulate economic growth (see Indicator A10).

C3

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. By contrast, 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 Indicators B1 and 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, 2004)

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: 8.8% of all students in tertiary education in Canada are international students and 12.7% 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. Canada) 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: 10.6% of all students in tertiary education in Canada are non-Canadian citizens, and 18.2% 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	16.6	6.1	18.7	17.8	19.9	6.3	22.4	26.4	158
	Austria ¹	11.3	m	12.3	16.8	14.1	m	15.4	21.3	111
	Belgium ¹	6.0	3.6	7.3	20.0	9.6	5.9	12.9	31.3	114
	Canada ^{1,2}	8.8	10.6	7.8	23.3	10.6	5.5	11.6	34.1	116
	Czech Republic	m	m	m	m	4.7	1.2	4.9	7.1	262
	Denmark ¹	4.6	3.2	4.7	7.0	7.9	9.5	7.3	20.4	133
	Finland ³	3.4	m	3.2	7.0	2.6	3.8	2.3	7.0	142
	France	m	m	m	m	11.0	5.2	11.4	33.9	173
	Germany ³	m	m	10.0	m	11.2	4.1	12.4	m	139
	Greece	m	m	m	m	2.4	2.0	2.7	n	167
	Hungary ¹	2.8	0.1	2.8	6.9	3.1	0.1	3.1	7.4	130
	Iceland	m	m	m	m	3.3	1.4	3.4	13.7	121
	Ireland ³	6.7	x(1)	x(1)	x(1)	m	m	m	m	171
	Italy	m	m	m	m	2.0	7.5	2.0	3.6	163
	Japan ¹	2.7	2.6	2.7	x(3)	2.9	2.7	3.0	x(7)	177
	Korea	m	m	m	m	0.3	x(5)	x(5)	x(5)	320
	Luxembourg	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Mexico	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
	Netherlands ³	4.8	a	4.9	m	3.9	a	4.0	m	152
	New Zealand	m	m	m	m	28.3	28.0	28.2	36.6	456
	Norway ¹	1.7	0.9	1.6	3.5	4.5	3.4	4.3	18.2	142
	Poland	m	m	m	m	0.4	0.1	0.4	m	133
	Portugal	m	m	m	m	4.1	3.3	3.9	7.8	145
	Slovak Republic	m	m	m	m	1.0	0.1	1.0	1.2	104
	Spain ¹	0.8	m	0.7	5.5	2.3	2.5	1.5	17.5	164
	Sweden ¹	4.0	2.0	4.1	4.5	8.5	6.2	7.9	19.9	143
Switzerland ³	12.7	m	12.9	42.5	18.2	13.6	16.8	42.4	137	
Turkey	m	m	m	m	0.8	0.2	1.0	m	87	
United Kingdom ¹	13.4	5.6	14.4	38.6	16.2	10.7	16.6	40.3	135	
United States ¹	3.4	x(1)	x(1)	x(1)	3.4	x(5)	x(5)	x(5)	120	
<i>OECD average</i>	<i>6.5</i>	<i>3.5</i>	<i>7.2</i>	<i>16.1</i>	<i>7.3</i>	<i>5.1</i>	<i>8.0</i>	<i>19.5</i>	<i>161</i>	
<i>EU19 average</i>	<i>5.8</i>	<i>2.4</i>	<i>6.4</i>	<i>13.3</i>	<i>6.5</i>	<i>4.1</i>	<i>6.8</i>	<i>16.7</i>	<i>152</i>	
Partner countries	Brazil	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	Chile	m	m	m	m	0.9	0.3	1.1	5.7	150
	Israel	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	
	Russian Federation	m	m	m	m	0.9	0.3	1.1	m	184

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

2. Year of reference 2002.

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

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eqg2006).

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

StatLink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/221673686112>

Table C3.2.

Distribution of international and foreign students in tertiary education, by country of origin (2004)
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 that come from 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 of origin. *Reading the third column:* 8.8% of international tertiary students in Denmark are German residents, 0.6% of international tertiary students in Denmark are Greek residents, etc.

Reading the sixth column: 5.0% 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: 1.2% of foreign tertiary students in Belgium are German citizens, 1.3% of foreign tertiary students in Belgium are Greek citizens, etc.

		Countries of destination											
		OECD countries											
		INTERNATIONAL students by country of origin											
<i>Countries of origin</i>		Australia ¹	Canada ^{1,2}	Denmark ¹	Germany ^{3,4,5}	Ireland ³	Netherlands ^{3,4}	Slovak Republic ¹	Spain ^{1,5}	Sweden ¹	Switzerland ^{3,5}	United Kingdom ¹	United States ¹
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
OECD countries	Australia	a	0.4	1.8	0.2	0.4	0.1	n	0.2	1.1	0.3	0.5	0.5
	Austria	0.1	0.1	0.8	2.5	0.3	0.2	0.1	1.0	1.9	2.2	0.4	0.2
	Belgium	n	0.3	1.5	0.7	0.6	4.1	n	2.0	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.1
	Canada	1.9	a	1.0	0.3	2.6	0.1	0.6	0.1	1.2	1.1	1.3	4.7
	Czech Republic	0.1	n	0.1	1.1	0.2	0.1	27.6	0.1	1.1	0.6	0.1	0.2
	Denmark	0.1	0.1	a	0.3	0.1	0.2	n	0.2	1.0	0.3	0.6	0.2
	Finland	n	0.1	0.5	0.5	0.8	0.3	0.1	0.3	3.3	0.3	0.6	0.1
	France	0.3	5.6	5.1	3.2	4.7	0.6	0.1	5.5	6.4	16.1	3.8	1.2
	Germany	0.8	0.8	8.8	a	5.0	16.2	0.1	5.1	10.3	23.4	4.0	1.5
	Greece	n	0.1	0.6	1.7	0.4	0.3	5.3	0.3	0.6	0.8	7.6	0.4
	Hungary	n	n	0.1	1.3	0.1	0.2	0.6	0.1	0.3	0.7	0.1	0.2
	Iceland	n	n	7.3	0.1	n	0.1	n	n	0.1	n	0.1	0.1
	Ireland	0.1	0.1	1.3	0.2	a	0.1	n	0.2	0.3	0.1	4.9	0.2
	Italy	0.1	0.2	1.3	2.1	1.2	0.4	n	5.0	2.4	6.4	1.7	0.6
	Japan	1.9	1.2	0.4	1.0	0.4	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.9	2.1	7.1
	Korea	2.3	0.1	0.1	1.8	n	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.4	1.2	9.2
	Luxembourg	n	n	0.6	1.1	0.1	n	n	0.2	n	1.1	0.3	n
	Mexico	0.2	1.1	0.3	0.5	0.1	0.1	n	6.2	0.5	0.6	0.7	2.3
	Netherlands	0.1	0.2	1.1	0.5	0.5	a	n	0.7	2.5	0.6	0.8	0.3
New Zealand	2.7	0.1	0.5	0.1	n	n	n	n	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	
Norway	1.9	0.2	15.3	0.4	1.6	0.3	1.9	0.2	0.9	0.4	1.2	0.3	
Poland	0.1	0.2	1.2	6.3	0.7	0.7	1.2	1.1	1.8	1.7	0.3	0.5	
Portugal	n	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.2	n	9.1	0.5	0.4	0.9	0.2	
Slovak Republic	0.1	n	n	0.6	0.1	0.1	a	0.1	0.4	0.6	0.1	0.1	
Spain	0.1	0.2	3.0	2.3	2.2	1.0	0.2	a	4.1	1.8	2.0	0.6	

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

2. Year of reference 2002.

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.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2006).

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

StatLink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/221673686112>

Table C3.2. (continued-1)
Distribution of international and foreign students in tertiary education, by country of origin (2004)
 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 that come from 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 of origin. Reading the third column: 8.8% of international tertiary students in Denmark are German residents, 0.6% of international tertiary students in Denmark are Greek residents, etc.

Reading the sixth column: 5.0% 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: 1.2% of foreign tertiary students in Belgium are German citizens, 1.3% of foreign tertiary students in Belgium are Greek citizens, etc.

		Countries of destination											
		OECD countries											
		INTERNATIONAL students by country of origin											
		Australia ¹	Canada ^{1,2}	Denmark ¹	Germany ^{3,4,5}	Ireland ³	Netherlands ^{3,4}	Slovak Republic ¹	Spain ^{1,5}	Sweden ¹	Switzerland ^{3,5}	United Kingdom ¹	United States ¹
<i>Countries of origin</i>	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	
OECD countries	Sweden	0.6	0.2	5.7	0.4	0.5	0.2	0.3	0.5	a	0.7	1.1	0.5
	Switzerland	0.2	0.3	1.8	0.9	0.2	0.1	n	1.2	1.0	a	0.5	0.3
	Turkey	0.1	0.3	0.4	3.3	0.1	0.8	0.2	n	0.1	1.5	0.7	2.0
	United Kingdom	1.0	0.7	14.6	1.0	17.0	0.5	0.3	2.2	1.4	1.0	a	1.5
	United States	2.1	6.5	6.0	1.7	15.8	0.4	0.4	2.5	3.2	1.7	4.5	a
	<i>Total from OECD countries</i>	<i>17.1</i>	<i>19.3</i>	<i>81.0</i>	<i>36.5</i>	<i>55.9</i>	<i>27.6</i>	<i>39.5</i>	<i>44.8</i>	<i>48.3</i>	<i>66.5</i>	<i>43.1</i>	<i>35.0</i>
Partner countries	Brazil	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.8	0.1	0.2	0.1	3.8	0.2	1.1	0.4	1.4
	Chile	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	n	n	0.1	2.8	0.2	0.4	0.1	0.3
	China	17.0	7.2	6.1	11.5	8.7	4.3	0.1	0.7	0.7	2.5	15.9	15.4
	India	9.4	1.1	0.6	1.9	2.5	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.9	4.9	13.9
	Israel	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.5	n	0.3	7.5	0.2	n	0.2	0.4	0.6
	Russian Federation	0.3	0.6	0.7	5.5	0.6	0.6	1.7	0.4	0.3	2.0	0.6	1.0
	<i>Main geographic regions</i>												
<i>Total from Africa</i>	<i>3.3</i>	<i>10.0</i>	<i>2.4</i>	<i>9.0</i>	<i>4.6</i>	<i>3.4</i>	<i>6.2</i>	<i>13.9</i>	<i>0.7</i>	<i>9.6</i>	<i>8.9</i>	<i>6.7</i>	
<i>Total from Asia</i>	<i>76.0</i>	<i>20.2</i>	<i>11.0</i>	<i>30.3</i>	<i>28.3</i>	<i>9.1</i>	<i>23.7</i>	<i>3.2</i>	<i>3.1</i>	<i>9.7</i>	<i>46.9</i>	<i>62.3</i>	
<i>Total from Europe</i>	<i>6.3</i>	<i>12.2</i>	<i>74.1</i>	<i>47.6</i>	<i>38.3</i>	<i>28.4</i>	<i>67.8</i>	<i>45.8</i>	<i>43.3</i>	<i>71.3</i>	<i>34.3</i>	<i>12.8</i>	
<i>of which, from EU19 countries</i>	<i>3.4</i>	<i>8.7</i>	<i>44.8</i>	<i>16.8</i>	<i>33.6</i>	<i>24.3</i>	<i>6.6</i>	<i>32.4</i>	<i>35.7</i>	<i>56.1</i>	<i>29.6</i>	<i>7.5</i>	
<i>Total from North America</i>	<i>3.9</i>	<i>6.9</i>	<i>6.9</i>	<i>2.0</i>	<i>18.4</i>	<i>0.5</i>	<i>1.0</i>	<i>2.6</i>	<i>4.5</i>	<i>2.8</i>	<i>5.9</i>	<i>4.8</i>	
<i>Total from Oceania</i>	<i>3.8</i>	<i>0.5</i>	<i>2.3</i>	<i>0.2</i>	<i>0.5</i>	<i>0.1</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>0.2</i>	<i>1.2</i>	<i>0.4</i>	<i>0.7</i>	<i>0.8</i>	
<i>Total from South America</i>	<i>1.1</i>	<i>5.2</i>	<i>1.8</i>	<i>3.6</i>	<i>0.6</i>	<i>1.9</i>	<i>1.2</i>	<i>34.2</i>	<i>1.2</i>	<i>6.3</i>	<i>2.9</i>	<i>12.2</i>	
<i>Not specified</i>	<i>5.5</i>	<i>45.0</i>	<i>1.5</i>	<i>7.2</i>	<i>9.2</i>	<i>56.7</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>46.0</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>0.4</i>	<i>0.4</i>	
<i>Total from all countries</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>100</i>	<i>100</i>	

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

2. Year of reference 2002.

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.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2006).

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

StatLink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/221673686112>

Table C3.2. (continued-2)

Distribution of international and foreign students in tertiary education, by country of origin (2004)
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 that come from 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 of origin. Reading the third column: 8.8% of international tertiary students in Denmark are German residents, 0.6% of international tertiary students in Denmark are Greek residents, etc.

Reading the sixth column: 5.0% 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: 1.2% of foreign tertiary students in Belgium are German citizens, 1.3% of foreign tertiary students in Belgium are Greek citizens, etc.

	Countries of destination																					Total all reporting destinations
	OECD countries																	Non-OECD countries				
	FOREIGN students by country of origin																					
	Austria ^{5,6}	Belgium ⁶	Czech Republic ⁶	Finland ⁶	France ⁶	Greece ⁶	Hungary ⁶	Iceland ⁶	Italy ⁶	Japan ⁶	Korea ⁶	New Zealand ⁶	Norway ⁶	Poland ^{4,6}	Portugal ⁶	Turkey ⁶	Total OECD destinations	Chile ⁶	Total non-OECD destinations ⁶			
Countries of origin	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)	(22)	(23)	(24)	(25)	(26)	(27)	(28)	(29)	(30)	(31)	(32)		
OECD countries																						
Australia	0.1	0.1	n	0.3	0.1	n	n	0.6	0.1	0.3	0.3	3.8	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.8	0.1	0.4		
Austria	a	0.1	0.1	0.5	0.2	n	0.2	1.2	0.5	n	n	n	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.5	0.3	n	0.5		
Belgium	0.2	a	n	0.3	1.2	0.1	n	0.4	0.4	n	0.1	n	0.2	0.1	0.5	n	0.5	0.2	n	0.5		
Canada	0.2	0.3	n	0.9	0.5	n	0.5	1.2	0.3	0.2	1.0	0.5	0.4	1.9	1.1	n	1.8	1.6	0.2	1.6		
Czech Republic	1.5	0.2	a	0.6	0.3	n	0.1	1.4	0.4	n	n	n	0.3	2.6	n	n	0.3	0.1	n	0.3		
Denmark	0.2	0.1	n	0.6	0.1	n	n	10.8	0.2	n	n	0.1	7.4	0.1	n	n	0.3	0.2	n	0.3		
Finland	0.4	0.2	n	a	0.1	n	0.2	5.7	0.2	n	n	n	2.4	0.1	0.1	n	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.2		
France	1.2	30.2	0.1	1.7	a	n	0.4	2.9	2.0	0.2	0.1	0.3	1.0	0.4	7.3	0.1	2.6	3.7	0.2	2.2		
Germany	18.1	1.2	0.6	3.5	2.8	0.7	5.9	10.6	3.3	0.3	0.4	1.2	4.0	2.2	1.9	0.8	2.6	4.7	0.3	2.3		
Greece	0.7	1.3	0.9	0.6	1.0	a	1.3	0.2	17.6	n	n	n	0.1	0.4	0.1	7.4	1.9	n	1.4	1.9		
Hungary	4.0	0.2	0.1	1.3	0.2	n	a	0.2	0.5	0.1	n	n	0.3	0.8	n	n	0.3	n	0.1	0.3		
Iceland	0.1	n	n	0.3	n	n	0.2	a	n	n	n	n	2.0	n	n	n	0.1	n	n	0.1		
Ireland	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.2	n	0.1	0.4	n	n	n	n	0.2	0.1	0.1	n	0.8	0.1	n	0.8		
Italy	18.5	6.2	n	1.2	2.0	0.1	0.2	1.8	a	0.1	n	n	0.6	0.2	1.0	0.1	1.4	0.9	1.5	1.4		
Japan	0.8	0.4	0.1	1.2	1.0	n	0.2	1.0	0.6	a	8.5	1.3	0.3	0.2	n	0.1	2.8	0.6	0.2	2.4		
Korea	1.0	0.1	0.1	0.4	1.0	n	0.1	0.2	0.1	19.7	a	0.1	0.2	0.5	n	0.2	4.3	0.6	0.7	3.7		
Luxembourg	1.0	3.3	n	n	0.7	n	n	n	0.1	n	n	n	n	n	0.3	n	0.3	n	n	0.3		
Mexico	0.1	0.2	n	0.4	0.6	n	n	0.8	0.4	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.1	n	1.0	4.0	0.3	0.9		
Netherlands	0.4	6.9	n	0.9	0.3	n	n	1.6	0.3	0.1	n	n	1.3	n	0.3	n	0.5	0.5	n	0.5		
New Zealand	n	n	n	0.1	n	n	n	n	n	0.1	0.3	a	0.1	n	n	n	0.3	n	n	0.3		
Norway	0.2	0.1	0.7	0.8	0.1	n	5.1	4.5	0.3	n	n	0.4	a	5.6	0.1	n	0.6	0.5	n	0.6		
Poland	4.0	0.9	0.9	1.6	1.4	0.2	0.8	3.1	2.5	0.1	0.1	n	1.1	a	0.4	n	1.2	0.1	0.2	1.0		
Portugal	0.1	1.7	0.3	0.3	1.1	n	n	0.2	0.2	n	n	n	0.3	0.1	a	n	0.5	n	0.1	0.4		
Slovak Republic	4.5	0.1	51.8	0.3	0.2	n	18.9	0.6	0.4	n	n	n	0.4	1.5	n	n	0.7	n	n	0.7		
Spain	1.0	2.9	n	1.3	1.7	0.1	0.3	1.4	1.0	0.1	0.1	n	0.7	0.2	3.0	n	1.1	2.8	0.2	1.0		

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

2. Year of reference 2002.

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.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2006).

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

StatLink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/221673686112>

Table C3.2. (continued-3)

Distribution of international and foreign students in tertiary education, by country of origin (2004)
 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 that come from 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 of origin. Reading the third column: 8.8% of international tertiary students in Denmark are German residents, 0.6% of international tertiary students in Denmark are Greek residents, etc.

Reading the sixth column: 5.0% 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: 1.2% of foreign tertiary students in Belgium are German citizens, 1.3% of foreign tertiary students in Belgium are Greek citizens, etc.

		Countries of destination																				Total all reporting destinations
		OECD countries																		Non-OECD countries		
		FOREIGN students by country of origin																				
		Austria ^{5,6}	Belgium ⁶	Czech Republic ⁶	Finland ⁶	France ⁶	Greece ⁶	Hungary ⁶	Iceland ⁶	Italy ⁶	Japan ⁶	Korea ⁶	New Zealand ⁶	Norway ⁶	Poland ⁶	Portugal ⁶	Turkey ⁶	Total OECD destinations	Chile ⁶	Total non-OECD destinations ⁶		
<i>Countries of origin</i>	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)	(22)	(23)	(24)	(25)	(26)	(27)	(28)	(29)	(30)	(31)	(32)		
OECD countries	Sweden	0.5	0.1	0.3	6.8	0.3	n	0.8	6.1	0.3	0.1	n	0.3	9.8	1.4	0.1	n	0.6	1.1	0.1	0.5	
	Switzerland	0.8	0.3	n	0.5	0.6	n	0.1	1.0	2.6	n	0.1	n	0.3	0.1	0.4	1.8	0.5	0.3	n	0.5	
	Turkey	6.0	0.8	n	0.7	1.0	0.3	0.3	0.6	0.4	0.1	0.2	n	0.5	0.1	n	a	1.2	n	1.4	1.3	
	United Kingdom	0.6	0.6	1.8	2.2	1.1	0.1	0.2	1.6	0.6	0.3	0.1	0.5	2.7	0.3	0.6	1.1	1.1	1.2	0.2	0.9	
	United States	1.0	0.5	0.6	2.5	1.1	0.2	1.9	5.9	0.9	1.1	3.1	2.9	2.5	6.7	1.3	0.2	1.9	24.1	1.2	1.8	
	<i>Total from OECD countries</i>	67.3	59.0	58.5	32.0	21.0	2.3	38.1	66.5	36.2	23.2	14.8	12.0	39.8	26.2	19.1	12.3	32.5	48.7	8.7	28.9	
Partner countries	Brazil	0.2	0.4	n	0.3	0.7	n	n	0.4	1.5	0.4	0.2	n	0.4	0.3	11.4	n	0.8	3.2	0.4	0.8	
	Chile	0.1	0.3	n	0.1	0.2	n	n	0.2	0.4	n	n	0.1	0.6	n	n	n	0.2	a	0.2	0.2	
	China	2.2	3.5	0.1	16.5	4.8	0.1	0.7	2.2	0.7	64.6	60.0	35.1	3.8	0.6	0.4	0.7	15.2	1.1	0.1	13.0	
	India	0.2	0.4	0.3	1.7	0.2	n	0.4	0.4	0.7	0.2	1.4	2.5	1.2	1.3	0.1	n	5.7	0.2	n	5.7	
	Israel	0.1	0.1	0.7	0.3	0.1	0.3	5.5	0.6	2.3	n	n	n	0.2	0.3	n	0.1	0.4	0.3	n	0.4	
	Russian Federation	1.0	1.1	2.7	14.4	1.1	0.9	1.8	6.1	1.3	0.3	1.5	0.3	5.4	4.7	0.2	4.3	1.4	0.2	0.5	1.2	
	<i>Total from all countries</i>	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	
<i>Main geographic regions</i>																						
<i>Total from Africa</i>	1.7	25.7	1.9	11.3	46.7	1.8	1.9	2.0	8.9	0.8	1.0	0.3	8.6	3.4	59.6	2.4	11.7	0.2	19.2	12.8		
<i>Total from Asia</i>	14.0	9.3	7.6	28.4	15.4	83.6	14.4	9.0	10.8	94.3	89.8	46.7	14.7	15.9	1.8	63.5	45.0	2.9	51.9	46.0		
<i>Total from Europe</i>	81.7	60.5	66.5	53.8	21.7	13.7	81.0	76.5	70.2	2.2	3.1	3.6	49.2	70.9	17.8	33.5	25.3	17.9	18.5	24.3		
<i>of which, from EU19 countries</i>	43.1	54.9	4.1	20.2	12.8	1.3	9.7	45.2	26.8	1.2	1.0	2.8	31.0	6.1	15.3	9.7	15.0	16.2	m	m		
<i>Total from North America</i>	1.2	0.7	0.6	3.3	1.7	0.3	2.5	7.2	1.2	1.3	4.1	3.4	2.9	8.6	4.7	0.2	3.8	25.7	1.4	3.5		
<i>Total from Oceania</i>	0.1	0.1	n	0.4	0.1	n	n	0.6	0.1	0.5	0.6	5.6	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.9	0.8	0.2	0.8		
<i>Total from South America</i>	1.1	2.5	0.9	2.0	4.0	0.1	0.2	4.5	8.1	1.0	1.4	0.4	2.5	0.9	15.5	0.1	5.7	52.5	8.7	6.1		
<i>Not specified</i>	0.2	1.1	22.4	0.7	10.5	0.5	n	0.2	0.7	n	n	39.9	21.9	0.1	0.4	0.1	7.6	m	n	7.6		
<i>Total from all countries</i>	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100		

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

2. Year of reference 2002.

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.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2006).

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

StatLink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/221673686112>

Table C3.3.

Citizens studying abroad in tertiary education, by country of destination (2004)

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 in tertiary education abroad that study in a given country of destination.

Reading the second column: 7.1% of Czech citizens enrolled in tertiary education abroad study in Austria, 9.9% of German citizens enrolled in tertiary education abroad study in Austria, etc.

Reading the first row: 6.9% of Australian citizens enrolled in tertiary education abroad study in Canada, 3.5% of Australian citizens enrolled in tertiary education abroad study in Germany, etc.

		Countries of destination															
		OECD countries															
		Australia ¹	Austria ²	Belgium	Canada ⁴	Czech Republic	Denmark	Finland	France	Germany ^{2,3}	Greece	Hungary	Iceland	Ireland	Italy	Japan	Korea
<i>Countries of origin</i>	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	
OECD countries	Australia	a	0.2	0.4	6.9	n	0.4	0.3	2.2	3.5	n	n	n	0.6	0.4	3.7	0.3
	Austria	1.1	a	0.4	1.4	0.1	0.3	0.3	4.0	56.0	n	0.3	n	0.3	1.7	0.3	n
	Belgium	0.6	0.7	a	2.8	n	0.2	0.2	26.0	9.3	0.1	n	n	0.7	1.6	0.3	0.1
	Canada	7.9	0.1	0.3	a	n	0.2	0.2	3.2	1.4	n	0.2	n	0.8	0.3	0.7	0.3
	Czech Republic	1.6	7.1	1.0	2.0	a	0.3	0.7	9.4	35.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.4	2.1	0.5	n
	Denmark	1.6	1.0	0.6	3.2	n	a	0.7	4.7	10.6	n	n	0.8	0.3	1.0	0.3	n
	Finland	0.8	1.4	0.7	1.5	0.1	1.3	a	3.3	10.6	n	0.3	0.3	1.0	1.0	0.4	0.1
	France	0.9	0.7	23.4	11.1	n	0.3	0.2	a	11.7	n	0.1	n	1.1	1.4	0.5	n
	Germany	2.2	9.9	0.8	2.3	0.1	1.2	0.4	10.8	a	0.2	1.2	0.1	1.0	2.2	0.5	0.1
	Greece	0.1	0.5	1.1	0.4	0.3	0.1	0.1	4.5	14.8	a	0.3	n	0.1	14.0	n	n
	Hungary	0.8	16.7	1.2	1.5	0.2	0.7	1.3	6.7	38.5	n	a	n	0.2	2.3	1.3	n
	Iceland	0.5	0.8	0.3	1.5	0.1	37.1	0.8	1.7	5.2	n	0.7	a	n	0.6	0.2	n
	Ireland	0.9	0.2	0.3	1.1	0.1	0.3	0.2	2.9	2.7	n	n	n	a	0.1	0.1	n
	Italy	0.4	13.9	6.1	0.8	n	0.3	0.2	10.4	18.1	n	0.1	n	0.3	a	0.2	n
	Japan	5.2	0.4	0.3	2.8	n	0.1	0.2	3.8	4.1	n	n	n	0.1	0.4	a	1.5
	Korea	4.0	0.3	0.1	3.4	n	n	n	2.4	5.6	n	n	n	n	n	23.7	a
	Luxembourg	0.1	4.9	21.3	0.2	n	n	n	24.8	30.1	0.1	n	n	0.2	0.4	n	n
	Mexico	1.5	0.2	0.4	6.3	n	0.2	0.1	5.9	4.0	n	n	n	0.1	0.6	0.5	0.1
	Netherlands	1.3	1.0	25.1	3.4	0.1	0.9	0.6	5.0	15.3	n	n	0.1	0.5	0.8	0.5	n
	New Zealand	68.5	0.1	n	2.4	n	0.2	0.1	0.6	1.0	n	n	n	0.1	0.1	1.3	0.4
Norway	20.8	0.4	0.2	1.5	0.7	11.1	0.4	2.1	5.1	n	4.3	0.1	1.3	0.7	0.2	n	
Poland	0.7	4.5	1.3	2.6	0.4	1.2	0.4	10.7	50.6	0.1	0.4	n	0.3	3.3	0.3	n	
Portugal	0.3	0.4	6.0	2.5	0.3	0.3	0.2	21.2	15.1	n	n	n	0.2	0.7	0.2	n	
Slovak Republic	0.7	9.6	0.4	0.7	49.1	0.1	0.1	2.8	10.4	n	15.6	n	0.1	0.9	0.1	n	
Spain	0.3	1.2	4.6	0.8	n	0.6	0.4	14.2	21.8	n	0.1	n	1.0	1.5	0.3	n	
Sweden	7.5	1.3	0.3	2.4	0.3	6.6	3.9	4.8	6.0	0.1	0.7	0.2	0.4	0.9	0.6	n	
Switzerland	2.8	2.5	1.1	4.3	n	0.5	0.4	14.2	21.0	n	0.1	n	0.2	10.4	0.4	0.1	
Turkey	0.5	3.7	0.6	0.9	n	0.3	0.1	4.2	50.7	0.1	0.1	n	n	0.3	0.3	n	
United Kingdom	6.4	0.7	1.1	9.7	1.0	1.8	0.7	10.2	8.4	0.1	0.1	n	8.4	1.0	1.6	n	
United States	7.4	0.7	0.4	16.9	0.2	0.6	0.4	5.8	7.3	0.1	0.5	0.1	4.3	0.7	2.7	0.7	
	Total from OECD countries	3.6	2.8	3.3	3.8	1.1	0.9	0.3	6.2	14.2	n	0.6	n	0.9	1.8	3.4	0.2
Partner countries	Brazil	1.7	0.2	0.7	3.1	n	0.3	0.1	8.0	8.2	n	n	n	2.9	2.0	0.1	
	Chile	1.1	0.2	1.5	3.5	n	0.4	0.1	6.7	8.1	n	n	n	2.3	0.4	n	
	China	7.4	0.2	0.4	4.8	n	0.3	0.3	3.0	6.6	n	n	n	0.3	n	20.0	1.7
	India	12.1	n	0.1	3.3	n	0.1	0.1	0.4	3.3	n	n	n	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1
	Israel	2.1	0.3	0.4	5.6	0.8	0.4	0.2	2.5	8.2	0.3	5.2	n	n	6.7	0.3	n
	Russian Federation	1.2	0.9	1.2	3.5	1.1	0.9	3.0	6.8	29.9	0.4	0.6	0.1	0.2	1.3	1.0	0.4

Note: The proportion of students abroad is based only on the total of students enrolled in countries reporting data to the OECD and to the 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 advanced research programmes.

4. Year of reference 2002.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2006).

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

StatLink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/221673686112>

Table C3.3. (continued)
Citizens studying abroad in tertiary education, by country of destination (2004)

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 in tertiary education abroad that study in a given country of destination.

Reading the second column: 7.1% of Czech citizens enrolled in tertiary education abroad study in Austria, 9.9% of German citizens enrolled in tertiary education abroad study in Austria, etc.

Reading the first row: 6.9% of Australian citizens enrolled in tertiary education abroad study in Canada, 3.5% of Australian citizens enrolled in tertiary education abroad study in Germany, etc.

	Countries of destination																
	OECD countries												Non-OECD countries		Total all reporting destinations		
	Netherlands ³	New Zealand	Norway	Poland ³	Portugal	Slovak Republic	Spain ²	Sweden	Switzerland ²	Turkey	United Kingdom ¹	United States ¹	Total OECD destinations	Chile		Total non-OECD destinations	
Countries of origin	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)	(22)	(23)	(24)	(25)	(26)	(27)	(28)	(29)	(30)	(31)	(32)	
OECD countries	Australia	0.4	27.6	0.2	0.1	0.3	n	0.4	3.0	0.7	0.3	16.0	28.9	96.9	0.4	3.1	100
	Austria	1.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.1	n	1.6	3.9	7.1	0.1	10.6	7.3	98.9	0.1	1.1	100
	Belgium	18.1	0.1	0.2	n	0.7	n	2.7	1.9	2.8	n	22.1	7.5	98.9	0.1	1.1	100
	Canada	0.2	1.0	0.1	0.4	0.4	n	0.2	0.9	0.7	n	9.9	68.8	98.3	0.2	1.7	100
	Czech Republic	0.8	0.2	0.6	2.9	n	6.3	1.0	3.4	2.6	n	5.1	14.9	98.3	0.1	1.7	100
	Denmark	1.4	1.3	13.9	0.1	0.1	n	0.9	15.7	1.5	0.1	25.2	13.0	98.0	0.2	2.0	100
	Finland	1.3	0.2	3.0	0.1	0.1	n	0.8	41.0	1.1	n	18.8	6.2	95.3	0.2	4.7	100
	France	0.7	0.4	0.2	0.1	2.0	n	2.9	2.6	6.7	n	19.7	11.9	98.8	0.3	1.2	100
	Germany	9.0	1.4	0.8	0.3	0.5	n	2.4	4.6	12.1	0.2	19.6	14.1	98.1	0.4	1.9	100
	Greece	0.4	n	n	0.1	n	0.2	0.3	0.6	0.6	2.2	44.6	4.2	89.3	n	10.7	100
	Hungary	1.2	0.1	0.5	0.9	0.1	0.2	0.8	2.3	2.6	n	4.6	12.4	97.0	n	3.0	100
	Iceland	1.3	0.3	8.0	n	n	n	0.6	14.5	0.4	n	9.9	15.3	99.8	n	0.2	100
	Ireland	0.4	0.1	0.1	n	0.1	n	0.5	0.9	0.2	n	82.5	5.7	99.5	n	0.5	100
	Italy	0.8	0.1	0.2	n	0.4	n	4.1	1.6	10.0	n	11.6	7.4	86.9	0.1	13.1	100
	Japan	0.1	1.5	0.1	n	n	n	0.2	0.4	0.4	n	10.4	66.5	98.6	n	1.4	100
	Korea	0.1	0.1	n	n	n	n	0.1	0.1	0.2	n	3.5	53.5	97.3	n	2.7	100
	Luxembourg	0.3	n	n	n	0.8	n	0.2	0.1	3.8	n	12.1	0.7	100.0	n	0.0	100
	Mexico	0.2	0.2	0.1	n	0.1	n	10.8	0.7	0.5	n	8.1	54.4	95.1	0.8	4.9	100
	Netherlands	a	0.2	1.3	n	0.4	n	1.7	5.2	2.6	n	20.1	12.3	98.6	0.2	1.4	100
	New Zealand	0.1	a	0.2	n	n	n	0.1	0.7	0.2	n	8.3	14.6	98.9	n	1.1	100
	Norway	0.7	1.9	a	2.9	0.1	0.2	1.0	9.7	0.7	n	23.5	9.5	99.1	0.2	0.9	100
	Poland	1.1	n	0.4	a	0.2	0.1	1.5	3.0	1.6	n	3.2	9.6	97.4	n	2.6	100
	Portugal	1.2	0.1	0.3	0.1	a	n	14.7	1.3	5.5	n	20.8	6.9	98.2	n	1.8	100
	Slovak Republic	0.3	n	0.3	0.8	n	a	0.4	0.6	1.2	n	1.0	3.7	99.1	n	0.9	100
	Spain	2.5	n	0.3	0.1	1.8	n	a	3.6	6.0	n	22.1	13.2	96.5	0.5	3.5	100
	Sweden	0.8	1.6	8.7	0.8	0.1	n	1.5	a	1.8	n	24.3	22.4	98.1	0.4	1.9	100
Switzerland	0.6	0.2	0.4	0.1	0.7	n	3.9	2.8	a	2.7	14.2	15.1	98.9	0.2	1.1	100	
Turkey	1.3	n	0.1	n	n	n	n	0.3	1.3	a	3.6	21.0	89.6	n	10.4	100	
United Kingdom	2.3	1.5	1.3	0.1	0.4	n	2.3	3.2	1.4	0.6	a	32.8	97.0	0.2	3.0	100	
United States	0.6	4.2	0.7	1.2	0.5	n	1.6	2.3	0.8	0.1	28.7	a	89.6	2.7	10.4	100	
Total from OECD countries	1.6	1.0	0.6	0.3	0.4	0.1	1.7	2.5	3.0	0.2	16.1	25.0	95.7	0.3	4.3	100	
Partner countries	Brazil	0.4	0.1	0.2	0.1	8.4	n	7.8	0.6	1.2	n	5.1	35.6	86.8	0.8	13.2	100
	Chile	0.4	0.7	0.9	n	n	n	20.5	3.8	1.2	n	3.8	21.0	77.1	a	22.9	100
	China	0.5	6.4	0.1	n	n	n	0.1	0.3	0.2	n	12.5	23.1	88.4	n	11.6	100
	India	0.1	1.3	0.1	0.1	n	n	n	0.4	0.2	n	11.3	61.5	95.5	n	4.5	100
	Israel	1.0	0.1	0.2	0.2	n	0.8	0.8	0.3	0.4	0.2	9.5	25.4	71.8	0.1	28.2	100
	Russian Federation	0.8	0.5	1.8	1.0	0.1	0.1	0.9	1.9	1.5	1.7	4.9	14.4	81.9	n	18.1	100

Note: The proportion of students abroad is based only on the total of students enrolled in countries reporting data to the OECD and to the 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 advanced research programmes.

4. Year of reference 2002.

 Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2006).

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

 StatLink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/221673686112>

Table C3.4.
Distribution of international and foreign students in tertiary education, by level and type
of tertiary education (2004)

	Tertiary-type B programmes	Tertiary-type A programmes	Advanced research programmes	Total tertiary programmes	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	
<i>International students by level and type of tertiary education</i>					
OECD countries	Australia ¹	6.0	90.0	3.9	100
	Austria ^{1,2,3}	m	90.3	9.7	100
	Belgium ¹	26.1	66.7	7.2	100
	Canada ^{1,4}	29.5	64.7	5.8	100
	Denmark ¹	9.0	87.5	3.6	100
	Finland ^{3,5}	m	85.5	14.5	100
	Hungary ¹	0.2	95.2	4.6	100
	Ireland	m	m	m	m
	Japan ¹	24.3	75.7	x(2)	100
	Korea	m	m	m	m
	Luxembourg	m	m	m	m
	Mexico	m	m	m	m
	Netherlands ^{5,6}	a	100.0	m	100
	Norway ¹	1.1	94.6	4.3	100
	Spain ^{1,3}	m	71.8	28.2	100
	Sweden ¹	1.9	92.2	5.9	100
	Switzerland ^{3,5}	m	73.0	27.0	100
	United Kingdom ¹	9.6	78.9	11.5	100
	United States	m	m	m	m
<i>Foreign students by level and type of tertiary education</i>					
Partner countries	Czech Republic ⁷	2.7	86.3	11.0	100
	France ⁷	11.2	74.4	14.5	100
	Germany ^{6,7}	5.5	94.5	m	100
	Greece ⁷	28.7	71.3	n	100
	Iceland ⁷	2.0	96.5	1.4	100
	Italy ⁷	4.0	92.7	3.3	100
	New Zealand ⁷	24.3	73.3	2.4	100
	Poland ^{6,7}	0.1	99.9	m	100
	Portugal ⁷	1.0	90.6	8.4	100
	Slovak Republic ⁷	0.4	92.7	6.9	100
	Turkey ⁷	8.0	92.0	x(2)	100
	Brazil	m	m	m	m
	Chile	m	m	m	m
	Israel	m	m	m	m
	Russian Federation ^{6,7}	8.8	91.2	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. Year of reference 2002.

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

6. Excludes advanced research programmes.

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

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2006).

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

StatLink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/221673686112>

Table C3.5.
Distribution of international and foreign students in tertiary education, by field of education (2004)

	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 by field of education</i>										
OECD countries										
Australia ¹	0.7	3.1	12.1	6.3	8.2	20.2	1.5	47.9	n	100
Austria ^{1,2,3}	1.6	5.4	12.0	8.5	24.5	10.3	1.1	36.5	0.2	100
Belgium ¹	11.3	4.4	7.3	39.6	8.5	9.2	4.0	15.1	0.6	100
Canada ^{1,3,4}	1.1	2.2	12.5	5.6	9.6	14.3	1.2	27.3	26.1	100
Denmark ¹	1.8	4.7	12.9	21.1	18.9	9.1	0.8	30.7	n	100
Finland ^{3,5}	2.3	2.7	30.8	12.0	17.6	9.2	3.0	22.4	n	100
France	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Germany ^{3,5,6}	1.5	4.6	18.8	5.8	23.8	17.3	1.3	27.0	0.2	100
Greece	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Hungary ¹	11.8	6.8	14.0	24.1	13.6	7.5	2.2	20.0	n	100
Ireland	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Japan ¹	2.4	2.7	13.1	2.8	26.0	1.3	2.2	33.1	16.3	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 ^{5,6}	1.8	7.2	5.8	14.1	13.0	6.7	3.1	48.2	n	100
Norway ¹	1.4	5.2	4.1	9.8	17.1	20.5	3.1	33.6	5.1	100
Spain ^{1,3}	1.9	2.5	8.1	11.4	11.9	6.8	1.6	27.6	28.2	100
Sweden ¹	1.1	4.8	17.9	9.1	17.6	12.4	1.8	34.8	0.5	100
Switzerland ^{3,5}	1.1	3.7	16.0	5.9	19.1	17.0	2.5	32.9	1.8	100
United Kingdom ¹	0.8	4.3	15.2	8.5	14.4	14.7	1.0	39.8	1.3	100
United States ¹	0.3	3.0	15.6	5.7	11.0	19.4	1.9	31.0	12.0	100
<i>Foreign students by field of education</i>										
Czech Republic ⁷	2.3	4.1	14.3	21.9	11.2	11.2	1.5	33.6	n	100
Iceland ⁷	1.6	8.2	4.9	5.5	53.0	11.5	1.8	13.5	n	100
Italy ⁷	1.8	1.9	14.4	24.7	18.5	6.3	1.4	30.3	0.8	100
New Zealand ⁷	0.6	4.7	6.5	6.5	5.2	13.6	1.7	52.8	8.5	100
Poland ^{6,7}	0.7	8.5	6.9	21.1	21.2	2.1	2.6	37.0	n	100
Portugal ⁷	1.6	6.1	19.4	8.0	7.8	9.9	5.5	41.6	n	100
Slovak Republic ⁷	10.3	6.0	13.3	26.0	13.5	6.7	5.9	18.2	n	100
Turkey ⁷	2.5	7.9	15.0	14.3	6.5	8.6	4.4	40.7	n	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. Year of reference 2002.

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

6. Excludes advanced research programmes.

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

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2006).

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

StatLink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/221673686112>

Table C3.6.
Trends in the number of foreign students enrolled outside their country of origin (2000 to 2004)
Number of foreign students enrolled in tertiary education outside their country of origin, head counts

	Number of foreign students					Index of change (2004)		
	2004	2003	2002	2001	2000	2003=100	2002=100	2000=100
Foreign students enrolled worldwide	2 651 144	2 458 212	2 230 165	1 946 378	1 875 567	108	119	141
Foreign students enrolled in OECD countries	2 257 752	2 073 994	1 899 767	1 656 478	1 604 123	109	119	141

Note: Figures are based on the number of foreign students enrolled in OECD and non-OECD countries reporting data to the OECD and the 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 non-OECD countries and the imputation of missing data, the estimates of the number of foreign students may differ from those published in previous editions of Education at a Glance.

Source: OECD and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics for most data on non-OECD countries. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eqg2006).

StatLink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/221673686112>

Table C3.7.
**Percentage of tertiary qualifications awarded to international and foreign students,
 by type of tertiary education (2004)**
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	21.7	38.9	m	m	16.6
	Austria ²	9.4	17.8	m	m	17.6
	Canada ¹	10.9	18.1	2.4	x(3)	27.3
	Denmark ¹	4.5	5.5	3.0	a	7.4
	Finland ^{2,3}	2.9	m	m	a	8.1
	Germany ²	5.8	a	m	a	4.9
	Greece	m	m	m	m	m
	Iceland	m	m	m	m	m
	Ireland	m	m	m	m	m
	Japan	m	m	m	a	m
	Korea	m	m	m	m	m
	Luxembourg	m	m	m	m	m
	Mexico	m	m	m	a	m
	Netherlands	m	m	a	a	m
	New Zealand ²	12.9	18.9	20.3	n	13.2
	Norway ¹	0.9	2.1	2.4	a	3.0
	Poland	m	m	m	a	m
	Spain	m	m	m	a	m
	Sweden ¹	2.8	3.7	0.8	a	4.4
	Switzerland ²	9.7	18.5	m	m	41.1
	United Kingdom ¹	11.5	33.3	6.4	m	36.8
<i>Foreign graduates</i>						
	Belgium ⁴	14.2	m	5.4	6.4	23.7
	Czech Republic ⁴	2.7	0.9	2.3	a	7.5
	France ⁴	6.9	17.4	m	a	23.5
	Hungary ⁴	3.1	0.7	0.2	m	6.0
	Italy ⁴	1.3	2.3	m	a	2.5
	Portugal ⁴	2.7	3.3	2.2	a	6.1
	Slovak Republic ⁴	0.9	0.4	m	a	2.1
	Turkey ⁴	0.8	1.4	0.1	a	2.1
	United States ⁴	3.2	12.0	1.7	a	26.4

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 2003.

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.

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2006).

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

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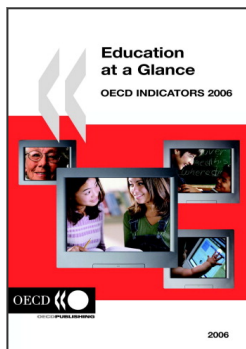
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