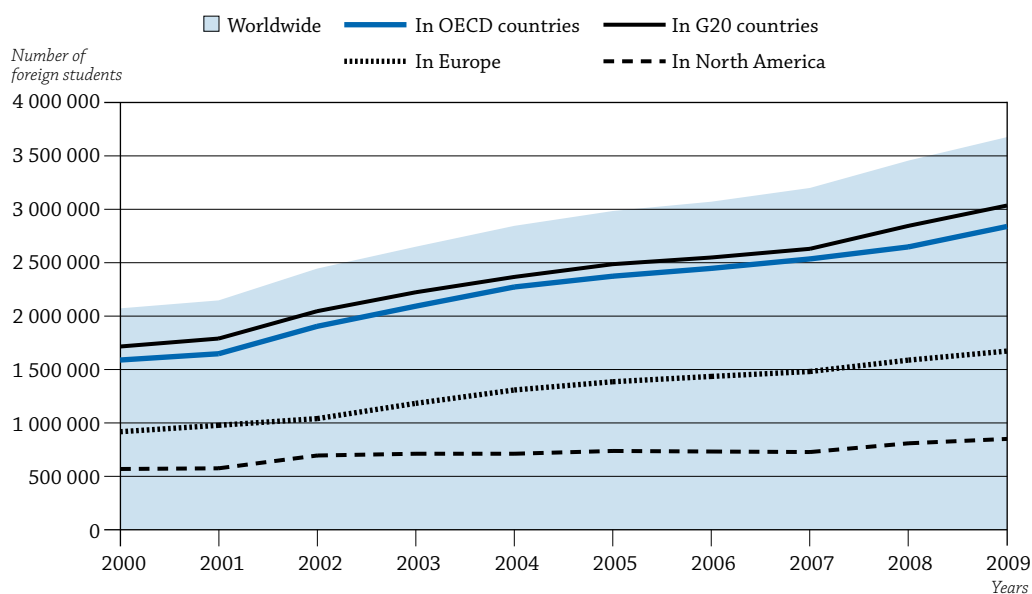



WHO STUDIES ABROAD AND WHERE?

- In 2009, almost 3.7 million tertiary students were enrolled outside their country of citizenship.
- In descending order, Australia, the United Kingdom, Austria, Switzerland and New Zealand have the highest percentages of international students among their tertiary enrolments.
- In absolute terms, the largest numbers of international students are from China, India and Korea. Asian students represent 52% of foreign students enrolled worldwide.
- The number of foreign students enrolled in the OECD area was nearly three times the number of citizens from an OECD country studying abroad in 2009. In the 21 European countries that are members of the OECD, there were 2.6 foreign students per each European citizen enrolled abroad.
- Some 83% of all foreign students are enrolled in G20 countries, while 77% of all foreign students are enrolled in OECD countries. These proportions have remained stable during the past decade.

Chart C3.1. Evolution by region of destination in the number of students enrolled outside their country of citizenship (2000 to 2009)



Source: OECD and UNESCO Institute for Statistics for most data on non-OECD countries. Table C3.5. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2011).

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Context

As national economies become more interconnected and participation in education expands, governments and individuals are looking to higher education to broaden students' horizons and help them to better understand the world's languages, cultures and business methods. One way for students to expand their knowledge of other societies and languages, and thus improve their prospects in globalised sectors of the labour market, such as multi-national corporations or research, is to study in tertiary education institutions in countries other than their own.

The internationalisation of tertiary education can also provide an opportunity for smaller and/or less-developed host education systems to improve the cost-efficiency of their education systems. In fact, it may allow countries to focus limited resources on educational programmes with potential economies of scale or to expand participation in tertiary education despite bottlenecks in providing it. Enrolling international students can not only help raise revenues from higher education, but it can be part of a broader strategy to recruit highly skilled immigrants.

International students tend to choose different programmes of study than local students (see Indicator A4), indicating either a degree of specialisation of countries in the programmes offered or a lack of programmes in the countries of origin.

In reading this indicator, the distinction must be made between students who have moved from their country of origin with the purpose of studying (international students) and those who are not citizens of the country where they are enrolled (foreign students) but may, in some cases, be long-term residents or, indeed, have even been born in the country (see Definitions below). International students are thus a subset of foreign students.

■ Other findings

- **The number of tertiary students enrolled outside their country of citizenship rose by 6.4% between 2008 and 2009 while global tertiary enrolment grew by 3.3% in the same period**, a slower pace than the 8% of growth registered from 2007 to 2008 when global tertiary enrolment registered a 3.6% increase (UIS, 2011 and Table C3.5). This may reflect the fact that mobility was hampered during the period because of the financial crisis and reductions in support for studying abroad (Varghese, 2009).
- **Australia, Canada, France, Germany, the United Kingdom and the United States each receive more than 5% of all foreign students worldwide.** International students from OECD countries come mainly from Canada, France, Germany, Japan, Korea and the United States.
- **International students make up 10% or more of the enrolments in tertiary education in Australia, Austria, New Zealand, Switzerland and the United Kingdom. They also account for more than 20% of enrolments in advanced research programmes** in Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, Iceland, New Zealand, Sweden, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States.
- In OECD countries with available data, **an average of 25% of international students who do not renew their student permits change their student status in the host country mainly for work-related reasons.**

■ Trends

Since 2000, the number of foreign tertiary students enrolled worldwide increased by 77%, for an average annual growth rate of 6.6%, and by 79% in the OECD area, for an average annual increase growth rate of 6.7%.

Even if their share of foreign students has slightly decreased by 2% in the past five years, European countries still lead the preferences in absolute numbers, with a share of 38% followed by North America (23%). Nevertheless, the fastest growing regions of destination are Latin America and the Caribbean, Oceania, and Asia mirroring the internationalisation of universities in an increasing set of countries (Chart C3.1).

Analysis

Trends

Using a combination of OECD and UNESCO Institute for Statistics data makes it possible to examine longer-term trends and illustrates the dramatic growth in foreign enrolments (Box C3.1). Over the past three decades, the number of students enrolled outside their country of citizenship has risen dramatically, from 0.8 million worldwide in 1975 to 3.7 million in 2009, a more than fourfold increase. Growth in the internationalisation of tertiary education has accelerated during the past 34 years, mirroring the globalisation of economies and societies and also universities' expanded capacity.

The rise in the number of students enrolled abroad since 1975 stems from various factors, from an interest in promoting academic, cultural, social and political ties between countries, especially as the European Union was taking shape, to a substantial increase in global access to tertiary education, to, more recently, reduced transportation costs. The internationalisation of labour markets for highly skilled individuals gave people an incentive to gain international experience as part of their studies.

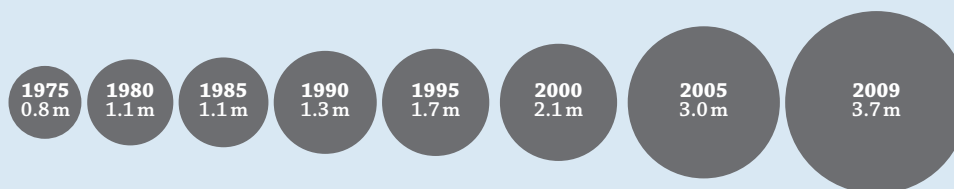
Globally, the increase in the number of foreign students can be contrasted to the increase in tertiary enrolment. According to UNESCO data, 165 million students participated in formal tertiary education around the globe in 2009; this is an increase of 65 million students since 2000 and growth of 65% (UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2011). The number of foreign students increased during the same period from 2.1 to 3.7 million students, i.e. growth of 77%. Consequently, the proportion of foreign students among all tertiary students grew 7% from 2000 to 2009 (Chart C3.1).

Most of the new tertiary students are concentrated in countries outside the OECD area, and are likely to gradually increase the proportion of foreign students in advanced research programmes in OECD and other G20 countries in the coming years.

The growth in internationalisation of tertiary education is even greater among countries in the OECD area. In absolute terms, the number of foreign students enrolled in tertiary education more than doubled since 2000 in Australia, Canada, Chile, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Finland, Iceland, Italy, Korea, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Poland, the Russian Federation, the Slovak Republic, Slovenia and Spain. In contrast, the number of foreign students enrolled in Belgium and Turkey grew by less than 25% (Table C3.1).


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

Growth in internationalisation of tertiary education (1975-2009, in millions)



Source: OECD and UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

Data on foreign enrolment worldwide comes from both the OECD and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS). UIS provided the data on all countries for 1975-95 and most of the non-OECD countries for 2000, 2005 and 2009. The OECD provided the data on OECD countries and the other non-OECD economies in 2000 and 2009. Both sources use similar definitions, thus making their combination possible. Missing data were imputed with the closest data reports to ensure that breaks in data coverage do not result in breaks in time series.

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Changes in the number of foreign students between 2000 and 2009 indicate that, on average, the number of foreign students has grown faster in the OECD area than in EU21 countries, by 189 % and 141 %, respectively (Table C3.1).

In relative terms, the percentage of international students in tertiary enrolment has also increased since 2004 in all 16 OECD countries with available data, except Canada and the Netherlands. On average, the rise in international students as a percentage of tertiary enrolment in EU21 countries between 2004 and 2009 has been higher (43%) than in the whole OECD area (32%).

Global student mobility mirrors to a great extent inter- and intra-regional migration patterns. The growth in the internationalisation of tertiary enrolment in OECD countries, and the high proportion of intra-regional student mobility show the growing importance of regional mobility over global mobility. Furthermore, student flows in European countries and in Eastern Asia and Oceania, tend to reflect the evolution of geopolitical areas (UNESCO, 2009).

Major destinations of foreign students

G20 countries attract 83% of foreign students worldwide. Some 77% of foreign students are enrolled in an OECD country. Within the OECD area, EU21 countries host the highest number of foreign students, with 38% of total foreign students. These 21 countries also host 98% of foreign students in the European Union. EU mobility policies become evident when analysing the composition of this population. Within the share of foreign students enrolled in EU21 countries, 72% of students come from another EU21 country. North America is the second most attractive region for foreign students, with a share of 23% of all foreign students. The North American region shows a more diversified profile of students than the European Union: in the United States only 4.4% of international students come from Canada, and in Canada only 9.1% of international students come from the United States (Tables C3.2, C3.3 and Chart C3.1).

In 2009, one out of two foreign students went to one of the five countries that host higher shares of students enrolled outside of their country of citizenship. The United States received the most (in absolute terms), with 18% of all foreign students worldwide, followed by the United Kingdom (10%), Australia (7%), Germany (7%) and France (7%). Although these destinations account for half of all tertiary students pursuing their studies abroad, some new players have emerged on the international education market in the past few years (Chart C3.2 and Table C3.6, available on line). Besides the five major destinations, significant numbers of foreign students were enrolled in Canada (5%), Japan (4%), the Russian Federation (4%) and Spain (2%) in 2009. The figures for Australia, the United Kingdom and the United States refer to international students (Table C3.3).

New players in the international education market

Over a nine-year period, the share of international students who chose the United States as their destination dropped from 23% to 18%. That share fell two percentage points for Germany and one percentage point for the United Kingdom. In contrast, the shares of international students who chose Australia and New Zealand as their destination grew by almost two percentage points as did that in the Russian Federation, which has become an important new player in the international education market (Chart C3.3). Some of these changes reflect the different emphases in countries' internationalisation policies, ranging from proactive marketing policies in the Asia-Pacific region to a more local and university-driven approach in the traditionally dominant United States. Note that the figures for Australia, the United Kingdom and the United States refer to international students.

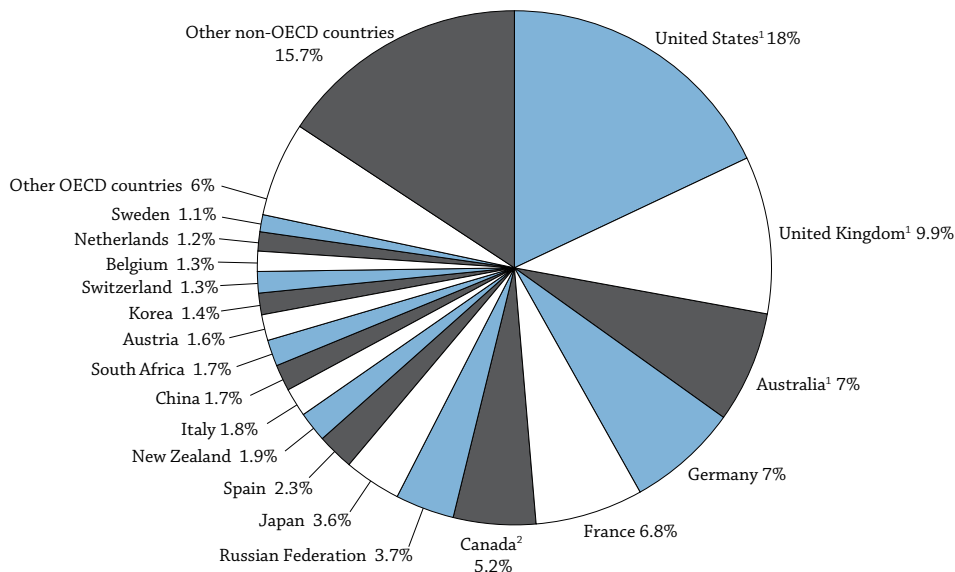
Underlying factors in students' choice of a country of study

Language of instruction

The language spoken and used in instruction sometimes determines in which country a student chooses to study. Countries whose language of instruction is widely spoken and read, such as English, French, German, Russian and Spanish, are therefore leading destinations of foreign students, both in absolute and relative terms. Japan is a notable exception: despite a language of instruction that is not widespread, it enrolls large numbers of foreign students, of whom 93.2 % are from Asia (Table C3.2 and Chart C3.2).

Chart C3.2. Distribution of foreign students in tertiary education, by country of destination (2009)

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



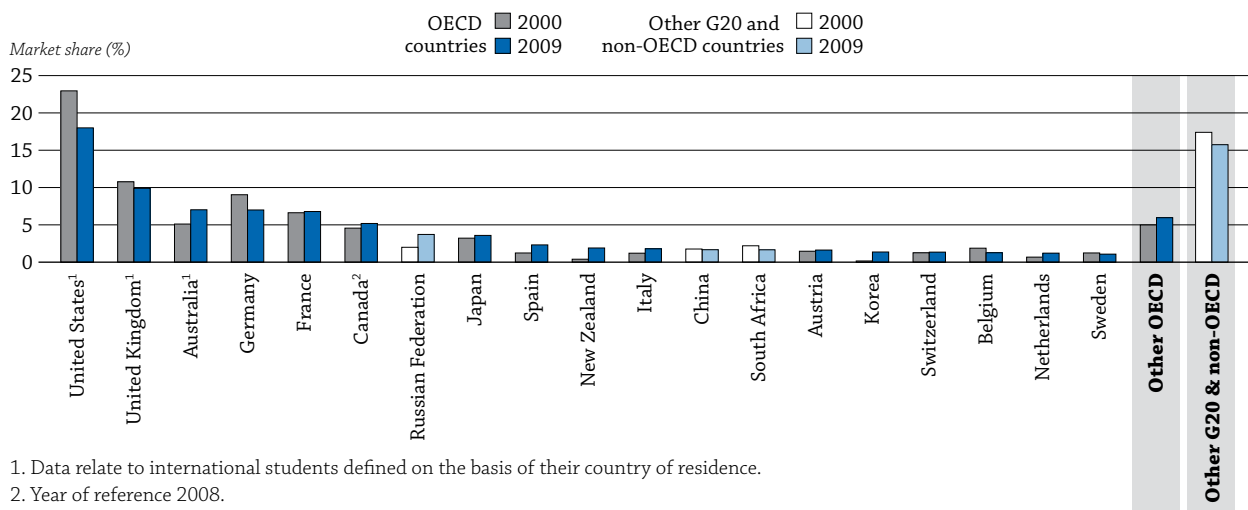
1. Data relate to international students defined on the basis of their country of residence.
 2. Year of reference 2008.

Source: OECD and UNESCO Institute for Statistics for most data on non-OECD destinations. Table C3.6, available on line. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2011).

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Chart C3.3. Trends in international education market shares (2000, 2009)

Percentage of all foreign tertiary students enrolled, by destination



1. Data relate to international students defined on the basis of their country of residence.
 2. Year of reference 2008.

Countries are ranked in descending order of 2009 market shares.

Source: OECD and UNESCO Institute for Statistics for most data on non-OECD countries. Table C3.6, available on line. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2011).

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The dominance (in absolute numbers) of English-speaking destinations (Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the United Kingdom and the United States) reflects the progressive adoption of English as a global language. It may also be because students intending to study abroad are likely to have learned English in their home country and/or wish to improve their English language skills through immersion in a native English-speaking context.

The rapid increase in foreign enrolments in Australia (index change of 244), Canada (202), New Zealand (850) and the United Kingdom (163) between 2000 and 2009 can be partly attributed to linguistic considerations (Table C3.1).

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

Box C3.2. Countries offering tertiary programmes in English (2009)

Use of English in instruction

All or nearly all programmes offered in English	Australia, Canada, ¹ Ireland, New Zealand, the United Kingdom, the United States
Many programmes offered in English	Denmark, Finland, the Netherlands, Sweden
Some programmes offered in English	Belgium (Fl.), ² the Czech Republic, France, Germany, Hungary, Iceland, Japan, Korea, Norway, Poland, Portugal, the Slovak Republic, Switzerland, ³ Turkey
No or nearly no programmes offered in English	Austria, Belgium (Fr.), Brazil, Chile, Greece, Israel, Italy, Luxembourg, Mexico, ³ the Russian Federation, Spain

Note: The extent to which a country offers a few or many programmes in English takes into account the size of the population in the country. Hence, France and Germany are classified among countries with comparatively few English programmes, although they have more English programmes than Sweden, in absolute terms.

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

2. Master's programmes.

3. At the discretion of tertiary education institutions.

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

Quality of programmes

International students increasingly select their study destination based on the quality of education offered, as perceived from a wide array of information on and rankings of higher education programmes now available, both in print and on line. For instance, the high proportion of top-ranked higher education institutions in the principal destination countries and the emergence in rankings of institutions based in fast-growing student destinations draws attention to the increasing importance of the perception of quality even if a correlation between patterns of student mobility and quality judgements on individual institutions is hard to establish.

In this context, institutions of higher education are more willing to raise their standards in the quality of teaching, adapt to more diverse student populations, and are more sensitive to external perceptions.

Tuition fees and cost of living

Among most EU countries, including Austria, Belgium (Flemish Community), the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Ireland, Italy, the Netherlands, the Slovak Republic, Spain, Sweden and the United Kingdom, international students from other EU countries are treated as domestic students when it comes to tuition fees. This is also true in Ireland, but only on the condition that the EU student has lived in Ireland for three out of the five previous years. If this condition is satisfied, the EU student is eligible for free tuition in a given academic year. In Finland, Germany and Italy, this applies to non-EU international students as well. While there are no tuition fees in Finland and Sweden, in Germany, tuition fees are collected at all government-dependent private institutions and, in some *Bundesländer*, tuition fees have been introduced at public tertiary institutions as well. In Denmark, students from Nordic countries (Norway and Iceland) and EU countries are treated like domestic students and so pay no fees, as their education is fully subsidised.

Most international students from non-EU or non-European Economic Area (EEA) countries, however, have to pay the full tuition fee, although a limited number of talented students from non-EU/EEA countries can obtain scholarships covering all or part of their tuition fees (Box C3.3).

Box C3.3. Structure of tuition fees

Tuition fees structure	OECD and other G20 countries
Higher tuition fees for international students than for domestic students	Australia, Austria, ¹ Belgium, ^{1,2} Canada, the Czech Republic, ^{1,3} Denmark, ^{1,3} Estonia, ¹ Ireland, ³ the Netherlands, ¹ New Zealand, ⁴ the Russian Federation, Turkey, the United Kingdom, ¹ the United States ⁵
Same tuition fees for international and domestic students	France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Korea, Mexico, ⁶ Spain
No tuition fees for either international or domestic students	Finland, Iceland, Norway, Sweden

1. For non-European Union or non-European Economic Area students.

2. In Belgium (Fl.), different tuition allowed only if institutions reach 2% of students from outside the EEA area.

3. No tuition fees for full-time domestic students in public institutions.

4. Except students in advanced research programmes, or students from Australia.

5. At public institutions, 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. At private universities, the fees are the same for national and international students.

6. Some institutions charge higher tuition fees for international students.

Source: OECD. Indicator B5. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2011).

Among some non-EU countries, including Iceland, Japan, Korea, Norway and the United States, the same treatment applies to all domestic and international students. In Norway, tuition fees are the same for both domestic and international students: no fees in public institutions, but fees in some private institutions. In Iceland, all students have to pay registration fees, and students in private schools have to pay tuition fees as well. In Japan, domestic and international students are generally charged the same tuition fee, however international students with Japanese government scholarships do not have to pay tuition fees and many scholarships are available for privately financed international students. In Korea, tuition fees and subsidies for international students vary, depending on the contract between their school of origin and the school they attend in Korea. In general, most international students in Korea pay tuition fees that are somewhat lower than those paid by domestic students. In New Zealand, international students, except those in advanced research programmes, generally pay full tuition fees; however, international students from Australia receive the same subsidies as domestic students. In Australia and Canada, all international students pay full tuition fees. This is true also in the G20 country the Russian Federation, unless students are subsidised by the Russian government.

The fact that Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden do not have tuition fees for international students, combined with the availability of programmes taught in English, probably explains part of the robust growth in the number of foreign students enrolled in some of these countries between 2000 and 2009 (Table C3.1). However, given the absence of fees, the high unit costs of tertiary education mean that international students place a heavy financial burden on their countries of destination (see Table B1.1a). For this reason, Denmark, which previously had no tuition fees, adopted tuition fees for non-EU and non-EEA international students as of 2006-07. Similar options are being discussed in Finland and Sweden, where foreign enrolments grew by more than 126% and 55%, respectively, between 2000 and 2009.

Countries that charge their international students the full cost of education reap significant trade benefits. Several countries in the Asia-Pacific region have actually made international education an explicit part of their socio-economic development strategy and have initiated policies to attract international students on a revenue-generating or at least a cost-recovery basis. Australia and New Zealand have successfully adopted

differentiated tuition fees for international students, and this has not hampered some of the strongest growth in foreign students in the past decade (Table C3.1). In Japan and Korea, with the same high tuition fees for domestic and international students, foreign enrolments nevertheless grew robustly between 2000 and 2009 (see Indicator B5). This shows that tuition costs do not necessarily discourage prospective international students as long as the quality of education provided is high and its likely returns make the investment worthwhile.

However, in choosing between similar educational opportunities, cost considerations may play a role, especially for students from developing countries. In this respect, the comparatively small rise in foreign enrolments in the United Kingdom and the United States between 2000 and 2009, and the deterioration of the United States' market share, may be attributed to the comparatively high tuition fees charged to international students in a context of fierce competition from other, primarily English-speaking, destinations offering similar educational opportunities at lower cost (Chart C3.3). Advanced research programmes in New Zealand, for example, have become more attractive since 2005, when tuitions fees for international students were reduced to the same level as those paid by domestic students (Box C3.3).

Public funding that is “portable” across borders, or student support for tertiary education, can ease the cost of studying abroad, as is evident in Belgium (Flemish Community), Chile, Finland, Iceland, the Netherlands, Norway and Sweden.

Immigration policy

As discussed below, in recent years, several OECD countries have eased their immigration policies to encourage the temporary or permanent immigration of international students (OECD, 2008). This makes these countries more attractive to students and strengthens the country's labour force. As a result, immigration considerations as well as tuition fees may also affect some students' decisions on where to study abroad (OECD, 2011a).

Other factors

Students also make their decisions on where to study based on: the academic reputation of particular institutions or programmes; the flexibility of programmes in counting time spent abroad towards degree requirements; recognition of foreign degrees; the limitations of tertiary education in the home country; restrictive university admission policies at home; geographical, trade or historical links between countries; future job opportunities; cultural aspirations; and government policies to facilitate transfer of credits between home and host institutions.

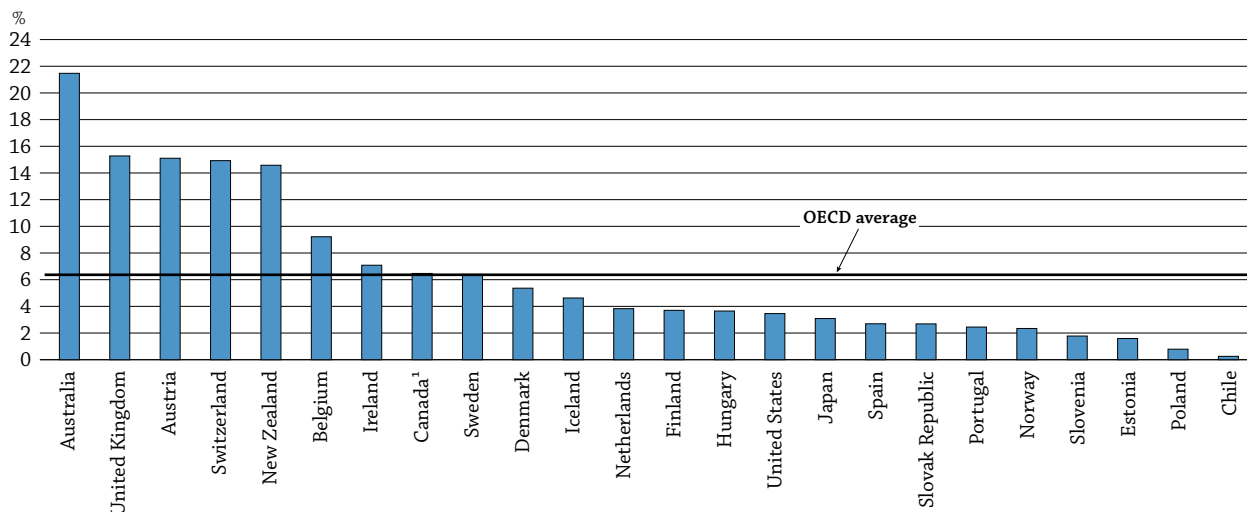
Extent of student mobility in tertiary education

The above analysis has focused on trends in absolute numbers of foreign students and their distribution by countries of destination, since time series or global aggregates on student mobility do not exist. It is also possible to measure the extent of student mobility in each country of destination by examining the proportion of international students in total tertiary enrolments. Doing so takes into account the size of different tertiary education systems and highlights those that are highly internationalised, regardless of their size and the importance of their market share.

Among countries for which data on student mobility are available, Australia, Austria, New Zealand, Switzerland and the United Kingdom show the highest levels of incoming student mobility, measured as the proportion of international students in their total tertiary enrolment. In Australia, 21.5% of tertiary students have come to the country in order to pursue their studies. Similarly, international students represent 15.1% of total tertiary enrolments in Austria, 14.6% in New Zealand, 14.9% in Switzerland and 15.3% in the United Kingdom. In contrast, incoming student mobility is less than 2% of total tertiary enrolments in Chile, Estonia, Poland and Slovenia (Table C3.1 and Chart C3.4).

Among countries for which data based on the preferred definition of international students are not available, foreign enrolments constitute a large group of tertiary students in France (11.5 %). On the other hand, foreign enrolments represent 1% or less of total tertiary enrolments in Brazil, Chile, Poland and Turkey (Table C3.1).

Chart C3.4. Student mobility in tertiary education (2009)
Percentage of international students in tertiary enrolments



Note: The data presented in this chart are not comparable with data on foreign students in tertiary education presented in pre-2006 editions of *Education at a Glance* or elsewhere in this chapter.

1. Year of reference 2008.

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/eag2011).

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

The proportion of international students in different types of tertiary education in each country of destination also sheds light on patterns of student mobility. With the exception of Denmark, Japan, New Zealand, Portugal and Spain, tertiary-type B (shorter and vocationally-oriented) programmes are far less internationalised than tertiary-type A (largely theory-based) programmes. With the exception of Italy, this observation also holds true for countries for which data using the preferred definition of international students are not available (Table C3.1).

Most countries show significantly higher incoming student mobility relative to total enrolments in advanced research programmes than in tertiary-type A programmes. This pattern is clear in Canada, Chile, Iceland, Japan, New Zealand, Sweden, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and the United States, as well as France, Italy and Korea, countries reporting foreign students and for which data using the preferred definition of international student are not available. This may be due to the attractiveness of advanced research programmes in these countries, or to a preference for recruiting international students at higher levels of education for their contribution to domestic research and development, or in anticipation of recruiting these students as highly qualified immigrants (Table C3.1).

Examining the proportion of international students by level and type of tertiary education reveals what kinds of programmes countries offer. In some countries, a comparatively large proportion of international students are enrolled in tertiary-type B programmes. This is the case in Belgium (26.2%), Chile (29.7%), Japan (23.7%), New Zealand (34.7%) and Spain (29.7%) (Table C3.4).

In other countries, a large proportion of international students enrol in advanced research programmes. This is particularly true in Switzerland (25.7%). This concentration can also be observed to a lesser extent in Chile (17.5%), Finland (13.5%), Japan (10%), Portugal (11.5%), the Slovak Republic (11.5%), Spain (17.2%), Sweden (16.2%) and the United States (19.4%). Among countries for which data using the preferred definition of international students are not available, 11.8% of foreign students in France are enrolled in advanced research

programmes (Table C3.4). All of these countries are likely to benefit from the contribution of these high-level international students to domestic research and development. In countries that charge full tuition to foreign students, these students are also a source of revenue (Box C3.3).

Profile of international student intake in different destinations

Global balance of student mobility in OECD countries

OECD countries host more foreign students than they send abroad in tertiary education. In 2009, OECD countries hosted 2.9 foreign students per each student studying outside his or her country of origin. In absolute terms, this accounts for 2.8 million foreign students in OECD countries compared to 987 000 students outside of their OECD country of citizenship. As 93% of OECD citizens study in another OECD country, almost two-thirds of foreign students in the OECD area come from a non-OECD country (Table C3.6, available on line).

At the country level, the balance varies greatly: while in Australia there are 24 foreign students for each Australian student studying abroad, the ratio is 15 to 1 in New Zealand, and the balance is negative in Chile, Estonia, Greece, Iceland, Korea, Luxembourg, Mexico, Poland, the Slovak Republic, Slovenia and Turkey. The United Kingdom and the United States also show high ratios of foreign to national students, with more than 11 foreign students for each citizen studying abroad.

Main regions of origin

Asian students form the largest group of international students enrolled in countries reporting data to the OECD or the UNESCO Institute for Statistics: 52% of the total in all reporting destinations (51% of the total in OECD countries, and 55% of the total in non-OECD countries).

Their predominance in OECD countries is greatest in Australia, Japan and Korea, where more than 75% of international or foreign students originate from Asia. In OECD countries, the Asian group is followed by Europeans (24.4%), particularly EU21 citizens (16.9%). Students from Africa account for 10% of all international students, while those from North America account for only 3.7%. Students from Latin America and the Caribbean represent 6% of the total. Altogether, 32% of international students enrolled in the OECD area originate from another OECD country (Table C3.2).

Main countries of origin

The predominance of students from Asia and Europe is also clear when looking at individual countries of origin. Students from France (2.1%), Germany (3.6%), and Korea (4.8%) represent the largest groups of international OECD students enrolled in OECD countries, followed by students from Canada (1.8%), Japan (1.8%) and the United States (1.8%) (Table C3.2).

Among international students originating from non-member countries, students from China represent by far the largest group, with 18.2% of all international students enrolled in the OECD area (not including an additional 1.3% from Hong Kong, China) (Table C3.2). Some 21.9% of all Chinese students studying abroad head for the United States, while 14% choose Japan and 12.4% choose Australia. In OECD countries, students from China are followed by those from India (7.3%), Malaysia (1.9%), Morocco (1.6%), Viet Nam (1.5%) and the Russian Federation (1.3%). A significant number of Asian students studying abroad also come from Indonesia, the Islamic Republic of Iran, Nepal, Pakistan, Singapore and Thailand.

A large proportion of foreign students in OECD countries come from neighbouring countries. In all OECD countries, around 20% of all foreign students come from countries that share land or maritime borders with the host country. Higher levels of cross-border mobility not only reveal a particular geographic situation but may also be the consequence of cost, quality and enrolment advantages that are more apparent to students in neighbouring countries. On the other hand, higher percentages of foreign students from countries beyond the immediate borders are seen in countries that have the largest market shares in international education and in countries, such as Portugal and Spain, that have close historic and cultural ties with other countries further afield (Table 3.6, available on line).

Among OECD countries, the highest percentages of cross-border mobility are found in Korea, where 81% of foreign students come from China or Japan; in Estonia, where 77% of foreign students come from Finland, Latvia, the Russian Federation or Sweden; and in the Czech Republic, where 68% of foreign students come from Austria, Germany, Poland or the Slovak Republic. Foreign students from neighbouring countries are also strongly represented in Austria, Belgium, the Netherlands, Poland, the Russian Federation, the Slovak Republic, Slovenia and Switzerland. On the other hand, in Australia, only 5% of students come from Indonesia, New Zealand or Papua New Guinea, and only 2% come from Oceania. In Canada, just 5% of foreign students come from the United States; in Portugal, only 4% of foreign students come from Spain or Morocco; and in the United States, 8% of students come from the Bahamas, Canada, Mexico or the Russian Federation. In Portugal, around 72% of foreign students come from Angola, Brazil, Cape Verde, Guinea-Bissau, Sao Tomé and Príncipe or Timor-Leste – all countries where Portuguese is an official language (Table 3.6, available on line).

Destinations of citizens enrolled abroad

OECD students usually enrol in another OECD country if they are looking to pursue tertiary studies outside their country of citizenship. On average, 93% of foreign students from OECD countries are enrolled in other OECD countries. The proportion of foreign students from the other G20 countries enrolled in OECD countries is also high, with 83.5% of foreign students from Argentina, Brazil, China, India, Indonesia, the Russian Federation, Saudi Arabia and South Africa enrolled in an OECD country. Notably, students from Belgium (2%), the Czech Republic (1.7%), Iceland (0.5%), Ireland (0.7%), Luxembourg (0.2%), the Netherlands (1.9%), Norway (1.8%), and the Slovak Republic (0.7%) show an extremely low propensity to study outside of the OECD area (Table C3.3).

Language and cultural considerations, geographic proximity and similarity of education systems are all factors that students weigh when determining where they will study. Geographic considerations and differences in entry requirements are likely explanations of the concentration of students from Germany in Austria, from Belgium in France and the Netherlands, from France in Belgium, from Canada in the United States, from New Zealand in Australia, etc. Language and academic traditions also explain the propensity for English-speaking students to concentrate in other countries of the Commonwealth or in the United States, even those that are distant geographically. This is also true for other historic geopolitical areas, such as the former Soviet Union, the *Francophonie* and Latin America. Migration networks also play a role, as illustrated by the concentration of students with Portuguese citizenship in France, students from Turkey in Germany or those from Mexico in the United States.

The destinations of international students also highlight the attractiveness of specific education systems, whether because of their academic reputation or because of subsequent immigration opportunities. It is noteworthy, for example, that students from China are mostly in Australia, Canada, France, Germany, Japan, Korea, New Zealand, the United Kingdom and the United States, most of which have schemes to facilitate the immigration of international students. Similarly, students from India favour Australia, the United Kingdom and the United States. In fact, these three destinations attract 77 % of Indian citizens enrolled abroad (Table C3.3).

How many international enrolled and graduated students stay in the host countries?

Rationales for an individual to remain in the host country after studying include the different work opportunities compared to the country of origin, integration into the host country, and future career advantages when returning to the country of origin or when moving to a third country. However, insertion into the host country labour market may imply a higher risk of over-qualification for international students than for nationals.

As mentioned above, several OECD countries have eased their immigration policies to encourage the temporary or permanent immigration of international students. Australia, Canada and New Zealand, for example, make it easy for foreign students who have studied in their universities to settle by granting them additional points in those countries' immigration point system. Finland and Norway amended their naturalisation acts and now take the years of residence spent as students into account when they assess eligibility (OECD, 2010a). In France, enrolment of international students in advanced research programmes reduces the period of

residence needed to be eligible for naturalisation. In many other OECD countries, working visa and temporary residence procedures have been simplified for international students and graduates.

Countries apply other measures to integrate international students. These includes local language courses, as offered in Finland and Norway, and internship programmes or work permits for part-time insertion into the labour market, as offered in Australia, the Czech Republic, Japan, Norway and Sweden.

In addition, freedom of movement of workers within Europe as well as national treatment with respect to tuition fees partly explain the high level of student mobility in Europe compared to that among the countries of North America. The North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) does not permit the free movement of workers within a common labour market.

Stay rates

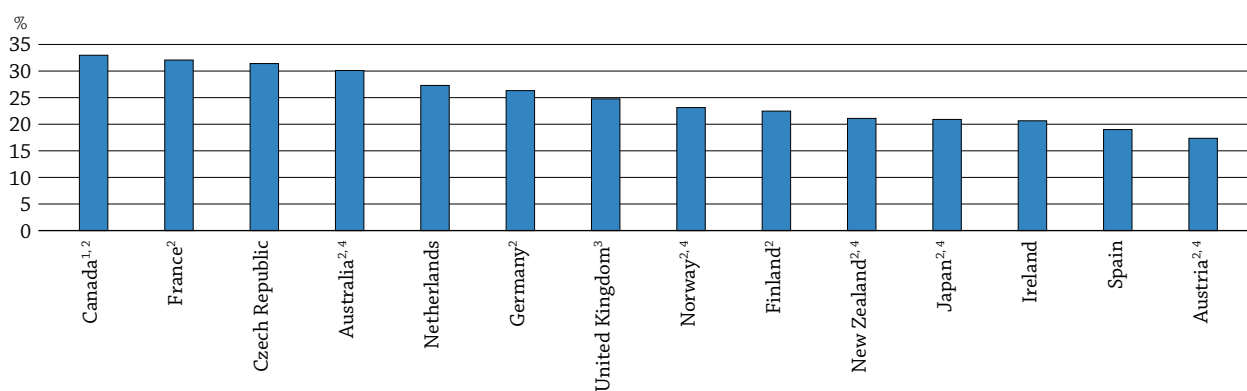
The number of students who remain in the country in which they have studied and the success of policies designed to retain migrants with high skills can be measured by stay rates. This year, the *OECD 2011 International Migration Outlook* (OECD 2011a) includes an indicator to measure the proportion of international students who shift from student status to another type of residence status, particularly one that allows them to work.

The stay rate is defined as the proportion of international students changing to a status other than student to the amount of students not renewing their student permits in the same year; it does not measure the rate of students who stay over the long term. Medium-term working periods abroad can be a value-added for students when returning to their country of origin. In some countries, a short-term, postdoctoral contract abroad can be decisive for acquiring a position in a university.

The estimated stay rates presented in Chart C3.5 need to be treated with some caution because of data limitations and because some students may have not completed their education at the time when they changed status. In addition, not all of these students may be staying for work reasons; some will remain because of humanitarian or family reasons. Finally, the rates exclude all students moving under a free-movement regime, such as that in the European Union. Such persons do not need a residence permit and thus do not show up in the permit statistics.

Chart C3.5. Percentage of international students changing status and staying on in selected OECD countries, 2008 or 2009

Percentage of students who have changed their status (whether for work, family or other reasons) among students who have not renewed their permits



Note: For European countries, covers only students from outside the European Economic Area.

1. Data for Canada include changes from student to other temporary statuses.

2. Year of reference 2008.

3. Student stocks from visa sources.

4. Student stocks calculated from *Education at a Glance*.

Source: OECD (2011a).

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The stay rate averaged 25% among international students who did not renew their student permit in 2008 or 2009, and is above 25% in Australia, Canada, the Czech Republic, France, Germany and the Netherlands. In all countries with available data, the stay rate is higher than 17% and reaches 33% in Canada. An average of 74% of students who change their status do so for work-related reasons. This is true for 80% or more of status changes in Canada, Germany, Ireland and the Netherlands. Since it is likely that a higher proportion of those who stay than those who leave actually graduate, the stay rates in this table can be considered to be the lower bounds for rates based exclusively on students who have completed their studies (Chart C3.5).

Definitions

The **country of prior education** is defined as the country in which students obtained the qualification required to enrol in their current level of education, i.e. the country in which students obtained their upper secondary or post-secondary, vocationally oriented education for international students enrolled in academically or vocationally oriented tertiary programmes, and the country in which they obtained their academically oriented tertiary 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/eag2011).

Students are classified as **foreign students** if they are not citizens of the country in which the data are collected. While pragmatic and operational, this classification is inappropriate for capturing student mobility because of differing national policies regarding the naturalisation of immigrants. For instance, while Australia and Switzerland report similar intakes of foreign students relative to their tertiary enrolments (24.4 % and 21.2 %, respectively) these proportions reflect significant differences in the actual levels of student mobility (21.5 % of tertiary enrolments in Australia and 14.9 % in Switzerland) (Table C3.1). This is because Australia has a greater propensity to grant permanent residence to its immigrant populations than Switzerland does. Therefore, for student mobility and bilateral comparisons, interpretations of data based on the concept of foreign students should be made with caution.

Students are classified as **international students** if they left their country of origin and moved to another country for the purpose of study. Depending on country-specific immigration legislation, mobility arrangements, such as the free mobility of individuals within the EU and the EEA, 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, including another EU country.

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

Methodology

Data on international and foreign students refer to the academic year 2008-09 and are based on the UOE data collection on education statistics administered by the OECD in 2010 (for details see Annex 3 at www.oecd.org/edu/eag2011). Additional data from the UNESCO Institute for Statistics are also included.

Data on international and foreign students are obtained from enrolments in their countries of destination. The method used for obtaining data on international and foreign students is therefore the same as that used for collecting data on total enrolments, i.e. records of regularly enrolled students in an educational programme. Domestic and international students are usually counted on a specific day or period of the year. This procedure makes it possible to measure the proportion of international enrolments in an education system, but the actual number of individuals involved may be much higher since many students study abroad for less than a full academic year, or participate in exchange programmes that do not require enrolment, such as interuniversity exchanges or short-term advanced research programmes.

Moreover, the international student body comprises some distance-learning students who are not, strictly speaking, international students. This pattern of distance enrolments is fairly common in the tertiary institutions of Australia, the United Kingdom and the United States (OECD, 2004b).

Since data on international and foreign students are obtained from tertiary enrolments in their country of destination, the data relate to incoming students rather than to students going abroad. Countries of destination covered by this indicator include all OECD and other G20 countries except Chile, Luxembourg, Mexico, the Russian Federation and Slovenia, as well as countries reporting similar data to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics. These data are used to derive global figures and to examine the destinations of students and trends in market shares.

Data on students enrolled abroad as well as trend analyses are not based on the numbers of international students, but on the number of foreign citizens on whom data consistent across countries and over time are readily available. The data do not include students enrolled in countries that did not report foreign students to the OECD or to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics. All statements on students enrolled abroad may therefore underestimate the real number of citizens studying abroad (Table C3.3), especially in cases where many citizens study in countries that do not report their foreign students to the OECD or UNESCO Institute for Statistics, such as China and India.

Estimating stay rates for international students

The stay rate is estimated as the ratio of the number of persons who have changed status (whether for work, family or other reasons) to the number of students who have not renewed their permits (see OECD 2011 for more details).

The number of students not renewing their student permit is estimated by means of the demographic equality: $P_2 - P_1 = I - O$, where P_1 and P_2 are, respectively, the stock estimates at times 1 and 2, respectively. I is the inflows and O is the outflows. In the case at hand, P_i is the number of student permits at time i , I is the number of new student permits issued during the year, and O is the number of students who have not renewed their student permit during the year. It is generally easier to obtain the P_i 's and I than O . The outflow is then estimated as $O = I - (P_2 - P_1)$. In practice, because I tends to be larger than $P_2 - P_1$, the stay rate is largely determined by the magnitude of I in the formula.

In Chart C3.5, because the change-of-status statistics are based on permit data, they do not include citizens of the European Economic Area (EEA) for European countries, who do not need a student permit to study in another country of the EEA. The number of new student permits is generally readily available from national permit statistics, obtained either on the Internet or supplied by national authorities. In some cases, the stock of permits P_1 and P_2 was also available. However, for a number of countries, in particular, Australia, Japan and Norway, the difference $P_2 - P_1$ in the stock of student permits was proxied by the change in the number of international students, obtained from national educational authorities and published in the OECD's *Education at a Glance 2010* (OECD 2010b).

For the Czech Republic, Finland, Ireland, and Spain, all permit statistics were obtained from the online migration database of Eurostat. This was also the source for student status changes for the United Kingdom. Data for the Czech Republic, Finland, Ireland, Spain and the United Kingdom are for 2009; for all other countries, 2008.

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

References

The relative importance of international students in the education system affects tertiary entry and graduation rates, and may artificially increase them in some fields or levels of education (see Indicators A2 and A3). It may also affect the mix recorded between public and private expenditure (see Indicator B3).

In countries in which different tuition fees are applied to international students, student mobility may boost the financial resources of tertiary education institutions and help to finance the education system. International students may represent a heavy financial burden for countries in which tertiary tuition fees are low or non-existent, given the high level of unit costs in tertiary education (see Indicator B5).

International students enrolled in a country different from their own are only one aspect of the internationalisation of tertiary education. New forms of cross-border education have emerged in the last decade, including the mobility of educational programmes and institutions across borders. Yet, cross-border tertiary education has developed quite differently and in response to different rationales in different world regions. For a detailed analysis of these issues, as well as the trade and policy implications of the internationalisation of tertiary education, see OECD (2004).

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

- **Table C3.6. Number of foreign students in tertiary education, by country of origin and destination (2009) and market shares in international education (2000, 2009)**


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932464562>

Table C3.1. **International and foreign students in tertiary education (2000, 2004, 2009)**

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

Reading the first column: 21.5% of all students in tertiary education in Australia are international students and 14.9% of all students in tertiary education in Switzerland are international students. According to country-specific immigration legislation and data availability constraints, student mobility is either defined on the basis of students' country of residence or the country where students received their prior education. The data presented in this table on student mobility represent the best available proxy of students for each country.

Reading the sixth column: 24.4% of all students in tertiary education in Australia are not Australian citizens, and 21.2% of all students in tertiary education in Switzerland are not Swiss citizens.

	International enrolments					Foreign enrolments				
	International students as a percentage of all tertiary enrolment				Index of change in the percentage of international students, total tertiary (2004 = 100)	Foreign students as a percentage of all tertiary enrolment				Index of change in the number of foreign students, total tertiary (2000 = 100)
	Total tertiary	Tertiary-type B programmes	Tertiary-type A programmes	Advanced research programmes		Total tertiary	Tertiary-type B programmes	Tertiary-type A programmes	Advanced research programmes	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	
OECD										
Australia	21.5	19.5	21.7	26.3	129	24.4	19.9	24.7	36.9	244
Austria	15.1	2.0	16.0	24.9	134	19.4	11.1	19.8	27.5	196
Belgium	9.2	5.9	11.0	20.3	154	12.6	9.3	13.9	31.7	120
Canada ^{1,2}	6.5	4.0	7.0	20.2	73	13.2	9.8	13.7	39.2	202
Chile	0.3	0.2	0.2	10.4	m	0.9	0.7	0.9	10.8	216
Czech Republic	m	m	m	m	m	7.3	1.1	7.7	10.2	560
Denmark	5.4	8.6	4.7	11.3	118	9.6	13.5	8.7	19.7	175
Estonia	1.6	0.3	2.2	3.5	m	3.7	3.5	3.8	5.3	295
Finland	3.7	n	3.4	7.1	107	4.2	n	3.9	9.3	226
France	m	m	m	m	m	11.5	4.1	12.7	40.9	182
Germany	m	m	9.0	m	m	10.5	4.0	12.0	m	137
Greece ³	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Hungary	3.7	0.4	3.9	5.8	132	4.3	0.5	4.5	7.0	171
Iceland	4.6	0.9	4.4	22.0	m	5.5	0.9	5.3	23.0	231
Ireland	7.1	x(1)	x(1)	x(1)	105	7.1	x(6)	x(6)	x(6)	175
Israel	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Italy	m	m	m	m	m	3.3	7.1	3.2	8.2	264
Japan	3.1	3.5	2.6	16.0	116	3.4	3.6	3.0	16.8	198
Korea	m	m	m	m	m	1.6	0.5	1.8	6.7	1483
Luxembourg	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Mexico	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Netherlands ³	3.8	n	3.9	m	80	7.2	n	7.3	m	317
New Zealand	14.6	18.1	12.4	34.5	m	26.5	27.8	25.1	49.8	850
Norway	2.3	1.0	2.3	5.3	141	8.0	3.5	7.3	29.1	201
Poland	0.8	0.1	0.8	2.4	m	0.8	0.1	0.8	2.4	277
Portugal	2.4	7.5	2.3	6.9	m	4.8	8.8	4.5	12.3	169
Slovak Republic	2.7	0.7	2.5	6.9	m	2.8	0.8	2.6	7.2	418
Slovenia	1.8	0.6	2.1	9.7	m	1.7	1.0	1.9	8.5	253
Spain	2.7	5.7	1.7	10.8	329	4.7	5.7	3.6	22.0	333
Sweden	6.4	0.4	6.0	21.9	159	9.4	3.9	8.8	25.9	155
Switzerland ³	14.9	m	15.6	47.0	117	21.2	18.9	18.8	47.0	190
Turkey	m	m	m	m	m	0.7	0.1	1.0	2.8	124
United Kingdom	15.3	6.1	16.7	42.5	114	20.7	12.6	21.8	47.5	163
United States	3.5	1.1	3.4	28.1	102	m	m	m	m	139
OECD average	6.4	3.9	6.5	17.5	132	8.7	6.2	8.7	21.1	289
EU21 average	5.4	2.7	5.7	13.4	143	7.7	4.8	7.9	17.9	241
Other G20										
Argentina	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Brazil	m	m	m	m	m	0.3	0.2	0.3	2.0	m
China	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
India	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Indonesia	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Russian Federation ^{2,3}	m	m	m	m	m	1.4	0.5	1.6	m	331
Saudi Arabia	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
South Africa	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m

1. Year of reference 2008.

2. Excludes private institutions.

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

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2011).

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


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932464467>

Table C3.2. [1/2] Distribution of international and foreign students in tertiary education, by country of origin (2009)

Number of international and foreign students enrolled in tertiary education from a given country of origin as a percentage of all international or foreign students in the country of destination, based on head counts

The table shows for each country the proportion of international students in tertiary education who are residents of or had their prior education in a given country of origin. When data on student mobility are not available, the table shows the proportion of foreign students in tertiary education that have citizenship of a given country of origin.
 Reading the third column: 0.7% of international tertiary students in Canada come from Germany, 0.1% of international tertiary students in Canada come from Greece, etc.
 Reading the tenth column: 4.2% of international tertiary students in Ireland come from Germany, 0.5% of international tertiary students in Ireland come from Greece, etc.
 Reading the 21th column: 34.7% of foreign tertiary students in Austria are German citizens, 0.5% of foreign tertiary students in Austria are Greek citizens, etc.

		Countries of destination																				
		OECD																				
		International students																				
Countries of origin		Australia	Belgium	Canada ^{1,2}	Chile	Denmark	Estonia	Germany ^{3,4}	Hungary	Iceland	Ireland	Netherlands ²	New Zealand	Portugal	Slovak Republic	Slovenia	Spain ³	Sweden	Switzerland ³	United Kingdom	United States	
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	
OECD	Australia	a	0.1	0.3	n	0.2	n	0.2	0.1	0.6	0.6	0.1	7.7	0.2	n	n	n	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.5	
	Austria	0.1	0.1	0.1	n	0.3	0.2	3.0	0.9	1.9	0.4	0.4	0.1	0.3	1.1	0.9	0.2	0.3	2.3	0.4	0.1	
	Belgium	n	a	0.2	n	0.3	0.9	0.5	0.1	0.5	0.4	4.1	n	0.8	n	0.2	0.8	0.1	0.6	0.7	0.1	
	Canada	1.7	0.2	a	0.3	0.4	0.2	0.3	1.0	2.4	4.7	0.2	1.3	0.3	0.1	n	0.2	0.7	1.0	1.5	4.4	
	Chile	0.1	0.1	0.2	a	0.1	n	0.3	n	n	0.1	n	0.2	0.1	n	n	3.0	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.3	
	Czech Republic	n	0.1	n	n	0.7	n	0.8	0.4	2.2	0.3	0.2	n	0.3	52.0	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.1	
	Denmark	0.1	n	0.1	n	a	0.6	0.2	0.1	6.1	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.1	n	0.2	0.1	0.8	0.2	0.4	0.1	
	Estonia	n	n	n	n	1.2	a	0.3	n	0.6	0.1	0.1	n	n	n	n	0.1	0.4	0.1	0.2	n	
	Finland	0.1	0.1	0.1	n	1.1	55.4	0.4	0.2	4.6	0.4	0.5	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	4.8	0.2	0.5	0.1	
	France	0.5	16.6	6.4	0.9	1.2	1.0	2.9	0.6	7.4	4.1	1.6	1.0	3.1	0.1	0.2	2.8	1.5	15.5	3.6	1.1	
	Germany	0.8	1.0	0.7	1.1	9.6	1.7	a	11.6	13.7	4.2	59.2	3.3	1.5	5.3	0.3	2.5	3.7	27.3	3.9	1.4	
	Greece	n	0.2	0.1	n	0.7	0.1	1.2	1.3	0.3	0.5	0.5	n	0.1	8.7	0.3	0.5	0.8	0.9	3.3	0.3	
	Hungary	n	0.1	n	n	1.5	0.1	1.0	a	0.6	0.3	0.6	n	0.1	1.3	0.6	0.1	0.2	0.5	0.3	0.1	
	Iceland	n	n	n	n	8.0	0.1	n	0.6	a	n	0.1	n	n	n	n	n	0.6	n	0.1	0.1	
	Ireland	0.1	n	0.1	n	0.1	0.1	0.2	1.1	0.3	a	0.2	0.1	n	0.5	n	0.2	0.1	0.1	4.2	0.2	
	Israel	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.7	5.5	n	0.1	0.2	n	0.1	1.8	n	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.5	
	Italy	0.1	0.5	0.2	0.3	1.6	1.3	1.9	0.4	3.8	2.3	0.8	0.1	1.7	0.3	6.1	4.8	1.1	7.3	1.7	0.6	
	Japan	1.0	0.2	1.5	n	0.1	0.3	1.0	0.7	1.9	0.5	0.2	2.0	n	0.1	n	0.2	0.6	0.6	1.1	4.4	
	Korea	2.6	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.1	n	2.2	0.3	0.5	n	0.4	4.2	n	0.1	n	0.2	0.3	0.4	1.2	11.2	
	Luxembourg	n	1.4	n	n	n	n	1.4	n	n	0.1	0.1	n	0.3	n	n	0.1	n	1.0	0.2	n	
	Mexico	0.2	0.1	1.2	2.6	0.4	0.1	0.8	0.1	0.4	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	n	5.9	0.6	0.6	0.4	2.2	
Netherlands	0.1	6.5	0.2	n	0.9	0.4	0.4	0.1	2.0	0.5	a	0.2	0.3	n	n	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.9	0.3		
New Zealand	0.9	n	0.1	n	n	n	n	n	n	0.1	n	a	n	n	n	n	n	0.1	0.1	0.2		
Norway	0.5	0.1	0.2	0.1	14.9	0.5	0.2	4.9	2.6	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.1	4.1	n	0.1	1.5	0.2	0.8	0.2		
Poland	0.1	0.5	0.2	0.1	4.9	0.3	5.0	0.3	4.5	1.9	1.8	n	1.4	1.3	0.6	1.0	0.9	1.2	2.5	0.4		
Portugal	n	0.2	0.1	n	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	n	a	0.2	0.1	0.1	5.3	0.3	0.4	0.8	0.1		
Slovak Republic	n	0.1	n	n	0.5	n	0.5	14.5	1.3	0.2	0.3	n	n	a	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.1		
Slovenia	n	n	n	n	0.3	n	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.1	n	0.2	n	a	0.1	n	0.1	0.1	n		
Spain	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.6	1.3	0.7	2.0	0.9	5.2	1.5	1.1	0.1	4.9	0.2	0.4	a	0.8	1.4	1.6	0.6		
Sweden	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.1	12.1	0.6	0.3	2.7	4.6	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.2	1.4	0.2	0.2	a	0.6	0.9	0.5		
Switzerland	0.1	0.3	0.3	n	0.3	0.1	1.0	0.1	0.8	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.7	0.2	n	0.7	0.2	a	0.6	0.2		
Turkey	0.2	0.4	0.6	n	0.8	0.5	3.4	1.2	0.4	0.3	0.8	0.1	0.4	0.1	0.4	0.1	1.3	1.6	0.7	2.0		
United Kingdom	0.6	0.3	0.9	0.1	0.9	1.0	0.6	0.9	4.0	16.9	0.9	1.3	1.3	0.8	0.1	1.3	0.5	0.8	a	1.3		
United States	1.2	0.5	9.1	0.8	1.2	1.7	1.8	1.8	3.8	19.7	0.6	6.2	1.1	0.3	0.2	1.5	1.6	1.9	3.9	a		
Total from OECD		11.8	30.1	23.8	7.6	66.0	67.9	35.1	52.7	77.5	62.2	77.0	29.6	20.0	80.3	12.0	33.0	25.2	69.0	38.0	33.7	
Other G20	Argentina	n	0.1	0.2	7.9	0.1	n	0.2	n	0.1	n	n	0.1	0.2	n	0.1	4.7	0.1	0.4	0.1	0.4	
	Brazil	0.3	0.2	0.5	3.9	0.3	0.2	1.1	n	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	24.7	n	0.2	3.8	0.4	1.1	0.4	1.3	
	China	27.3	1.3	21.4	0.6	7.0	4.8	11.8	1.4	2.4	8.7	7.3	23.5	0.4	0.3	0.3	1.2	11.4	2.1	12.9	18.8	
	India	10.3	0.4	3.7	0.1	2.6	0.6	1.8	0.2	1.1	3.8	0.3	14.9	0.2	0.1	0.5	0.3	3.5	1.3	9.4	15.4	
	Indonesia	4.0	0.1	0.8	n	0.1	0.2	0.8	n	0.6	0.1	1.4	0.8	0.1	n	n	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.3	1.1	
	Russian Federation	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.2	0.6	5.2	5.2	1.0	2.4	0.6	0.8	0.7	0.5	0.6	1.4	1.0	1.4	1.9	0.8	0.7	
	Saudi Arabia	1.4	n	1.4	n	n	n	0.1	0.3	n	0.5	n	0.9	n	1.3	n	n	0.1	n	1.4	1.9	
	South Africa	0.3	0.1	0.1	n	0.1	0.1	0.1	n	n	1.2	0.2	0.3	0.5	n	n	n	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.3	
	Total from other G20 countries		44.0	2.6	28.6	12.6	10.7	11.0	21.0	3.1	6.9	15.2	10.3	41.6	26.6	2.5	2.6	11.1	17.3	7.2	25.7	39.8
	Main geographic regions																					
Total from Africa		3.0	4.5	13.2	0.2	2.8	1.7	9.2	2.6	2.2	5.7	2.4	1.0	46.7	1.3	0.5	10.3	6.0	6.1	9.7	5.5	
Total from Asia		79.1	4.6	47.2	1.4	17.8	9.8	32.6	18.5	10.3	29.3	13.2	58.7	3.6	11.0	2.5	3.6	40.3	10.2	49.1	68.4	
Total from Europe		4.2	30.2	12.4	3.8	74.6	86.0	43.0	75.7	78.7	39.0	79.7	8.7	20.4	86.8	75.3	30.9	24.7	71.4	32.4	10.8	
<i>of which, from EU21 countries</i>		3.1	28.1	9.8	3.3	39.4	64.5	23.0	36.5	64.1	35.2	73.4	7.2	16.8	73.3	11.2	21.1	17.2	61.8	26.8	7.7	
Total from North America		2.9	0.7	9.6	1.1	1.6	1.8	2.1	2.9	6.3	24.4	0.8	7.5	1.4	0.4	0.2	1.7	2.3	2.8	5.5	4.5	
Total from Oceania		1.8	0.1	0.4	n	0.2	n	0.2	0.1	0.6	0.7	0.1	11.0	0.3	n	n	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.8	
Total from Latin America & the Caribbean		1.3	1.0	7.8	92.4	1.2	0.6	4.3	0.2	1.9	1.0	2.4	1.2	27.5	0.5	0.9	51.4	2.4	5.1	2.2	10.1	
Not specified		7.8	58.9	9.4	1.2	1.7	n	8.6	n	n	n	1.4	12.0	n	n	20.6	2.1	23.9	4.0	0.5	n	
Total from all countries		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	

1. Year of reference 2008.

2. Excludes private institutions.

3. Excludes tertiary-type B programmes.

4. Excludes advanced research programmes.

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

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2011).

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


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932464486>

Table C3.2. [2/2] **Distribution of international and foreign students in tertiary education, by country of origin (2009)**

Number of international and foreign students enrolled in tertiary education from a given country of origin as a percentage of all international or foreign students in the country of destination, based on head counts

The table shows for each country the proportion of international students in tertiary education who are residents of or had their prior education in a given country of origin. When data on student mobility are not available, the table shows the proportion of foreign students in tertiary education that have citizenship of a given country of origin.
 Reading the third column: 0.7% of international tertiary students in Canada come from Germany, 0.1% of international tertiary students in Canada come from Greece, etc.
 Reading the tenth column: 4.2% of international tertiary students in Ireland come from Germany, 0.5% of international tertiary students in Ireland come from Greece, etc.
 Reading the 21th column: 34.7% of foreign tertiary students in Austria are German citizens, 0.5% of foreign tertiary students in Austria are Greek citizens, etc.

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Countries of origin	Countries of destination														
	OECD										Other G20		Total non-OECD destinations	Total all reporting destinations	
	Foreign students										Foreign students				
	Austria ^{3, 5}	Czech Republic ⁵	Finland ⁵	France ⁵	Italy ⁵	Japan ⁵	Korea ⁵	Norway ⁵	Poland ⁵	Turkey ⁵	Total OECD destinations	Brazil ⁵	Russian Federation ^{2, 4, 5}	(34)	(35)
(21)	(22)	(23)	(24)	(25)	(26)	(27)	(28)	(29)	(30)	(31)	(32)	(33)			
OECD															
Australia	0.2	n	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.1	n	0.1	0.3
Austria	a	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.3	n	n	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.1	n	0.1	0.4
Belgium	0.2	n	0.2	1.2	0.3	n	n	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.3	n	n	0.3
Canada	0.2	0.2	0.7	0.6	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.6	2.4	0.1	1.8	0.2	n	0.1	1.4
Chile	0.1	n	0.1	0.3	0.4	n	n	0.4	n	n	0.3	2.6	n	0.3	0.3
Czech Republic	1.1	a	0.4	0.3	0.3	n	n	0.3	5.5	n	0.4	n	n	n	0.3
Denmark	0.2	n	0.4	0.1	0.1	n	n	4.6	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	n	n	0.2
Estonia	0.1	n	5.4	n	0.1	n	n	0.4	0.1	n	0.1	n	0.4	0.1	0.1
Finland	0.3	n	a	0.1	0.1	0.1	n	1.9	0.1	n	0.3	0.1	n	0.2	0.2
France	0.9	0.3	1.3	a	1.7	0.4	0.1	1.2	0.7	0.3	2.1	1.9	0.1	0.2	1.6
Germany	34.7	1.1	3.5	2.7	2.4	0.4	0.1	4.4	3.1	2.5	3.6	1.7	0.2	0.3	2.9
Greece	0.5	0.7	0.5	0.7	6.5	n	n	0.2	0.2	3.9	1.0	n	0.2	0.5	0.9
Hungary	2.6	0.3	0.9	0.2	0.3	0.1	n	0.2	0.4	0.1	0.3	n	n	n	0.2
Iceland	0.1	n	0.1	n	n	n	n	1.6	n	n	0.1	n	n	n	0.1
Ireland	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	n	n	0.1	0.1	n	0.7	n	n	n	0.6
Israel	0.2	0.5	0.2	0.1	2.2	n	n	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.1	0.3	0.9	0.5
Italy	11.4	0.1	1.3	2.1	a	0.1	n	0.7	0.4	0.1	1.4	1.4	n	0.9	1.3
Japan	0.7	0.1	0.9	0.7	0.4	a	2.0	0.4	0.2	0.1	1.8	0.6	0.1	0.2	1.4
Korea	0.7	0.1	0.4	1.0	0.7	18.9	a	0.3	0.2	0.1	4.8	1.6	0.5	0.6	3.8
Luxembourg	1.0	n	n	0.6	0.1	n	n	n	n	n	0.3	n	n	n	0.2
Mexico	0.2	n	0.7	0.7	0.5	0.1	n	0.3	0.1	n	1.0	0.6	n	0.3	0.9
Netherlands	0.4	n	0.7	0.3	0.2	0.1	n	1.3	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.2	n	n	0.3
New Zealand	n	n	0.1	n	n	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	n	0.2	n	n	n	0.1
Norway	0.1	0.8	0.6	0.1	0.1	n	n	a	6.9	n	0.5	n	n	n	0.4
Poland	2.8	1.2	1.7	1.2	2.2	0.1	n	1.5	a	n	1.3	0.1	n	0.1	1.0
Portugal	0.2	1.3	0.3	1.1	0.2	n	n	0.3	0.3	n	0.5	4.2	n	0.2	0.4
Slovak Republic	2.5	65.5	0.2	0.2	0.3	n	n	0.2	2.4	n	1.1	n	n	n	0.9
Slovenia	1.3	0.1	0.1	n	0.5	n	n	n	0.1	n	0.1	n	n	n	0.1
Spain	0.9	0.1	1.1	1.6	0.8	0.1	n	0.8	0.8	n	0.9	1.1	n	0.1	0.7
Sweden	0.3	0.4	3.9	0.2	0.2	0.1	n	7.4	4.9	n	0.6	0.1	n	0.1	0.5
Switzerland	1.3	n	0.3	0.7	1.6	0.1	n	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.3	n	0.1	0.3
Turkey	4.4	0.2	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.1	0.1	0.5	0.8	a	1.2	n	0.3	2.1	1.4
United Kingdom	0.4	1.3	1.5	1.0	0.4	0.3	n	1.8	0.6	0.4	0.9	1.7	n	0.2	0.7
United States	0.9	0.6	1.7	1.4	0.6	1.6	1.5	2.1	5.9	0.3	1.8	2.5	0.1	0.7	1.6
Total from OECD	70.9	75.4	31.2	20.8	24.8	23.4	4.9	34.9	37.1	8.8	31.6	21.7	2.3	8.5	26.3
Other G20															
Argentina	n	n	0.1	0.3	0.6	0.1	n	0.1	n	n	0.3	4.7	n	0.3	0.3
Brazil	0.2	n	0.5	1.4	1.7	0.4	0.1	0.6	0.2	n	1.0	a	0.1	0.5	0.8
China	2.3	0.5	15.8	9.5	6.6	60.3	78.6	4.7	1.9	0.8	18.2	2.0	6.6	10.6	16.5
India	0.6	0.4	2.4	0.5	1.1	0.4	0.8	1.1	2.1	n	7.3	0.1	3.1	2.4	6.2
Indonesia	0.1	n	0.2	0.1	0.2	1.4	0.6	0.5	0.2	0.2	1.0	n	n	1.4	1.1
Russian Federation	1.3	5.8	10.9	1.4	1.7	0.3	0.5	5.4	2.9	2.2	1.3	0.2	a	2.5	1.6
Saudi Arabia	0.1	n	n	0.2	n	0.1	0.1	n	0.4	0.1	1.0	n	n	1.2	1.0
South Africa	0.1	0.1	0.1	n	n	n	n	0.2	0.1	n	0.2	0.3	n	0.1	0.2
Total from other G20 countries	4.7	6.8	30.0	13.4	12.0	62.9	80.7	12.6	7.7	3.4	30.2	7.4	9.9	19.0	27.7
Main geographic regions															
Total from Africa	1.5	1.6	19.3	42.9	11.4	0.8	0.8	10.2	4.5	2.4	10.0	26.3	4.3	16.5	11.5
Total from Asia	13.1	9.8	34.8	22.1	19.4	93.2	95.4	17.3	18.8	57.3	50.9	6.1	60.6	55.2	51.9
Total from Europe	82.8	86.7	40.4	21.1	56.5	2.6	1.1	42.5	67.1	25.1	24.4	14.0	29.6	18.3	23.0
of which, from EU21 countries	61.8	72.9	24.0	14.1	17.1	1.9	0.4	27.9	20.2	7.9	16.9	13.1	1.0	3.2	13.8
Total from North America	1.2	0.7	2.4	2.0	0.8	1.9	2.0	2.6	8.4	0.3	3.7	2.6	0.1	0.8	3.0
Total from Oceania	0.2	n	0.5	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.2	0.4	0.1	0.2	0.7	0.8	n	1.5	0.9
Total from Latin America & the Caribbean	1.2	0.7	2.4	5.6	9.1	1.1	0.4	2.5	1.0	0.1	6.0	23.8	0.6	7.7	6.4
Not specified	n	0.5	0.2	6.2	2.7	n	n	24.5	0.1	14.6	4.3	26.4	4.8	n	3.3
Total from all countries	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

1. Year of reference 2008.

2. Excludes private institutions.

3. Excludes tertiary-type B programmes.

4. Excludes advanced research programmes.

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

Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2011).

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


StatLink  <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932464486>

Table C3.3. [1/2] Citizens studying abroad in tertiary education, by country of destination (2009)

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

The table shows for each country the proportion of students studying abroad in tertiary education in a given country of destination.

Reading the second column: 5.8% of Czech citizens enrolled in tertiary education abroad study in Austria, 12.5% of Italian citizens enrolled in tertiary education abroad study in Austria, etc.

Reading the first row: 2.7% of Australian citizens enrolled in tertiary education abroad study in France, 28.5% of Australian citizens enrolled in tertiary education abroad study in New Zealand, etc.

Country of origin		Countries of destination																			
		OECD																			
		Australia	Austria ¹	Belgium	Canada ^{2,3}	Chile	Czech Republic	Denmark	Estonia	Finland	France	Germany ⁴	Greece ⁵	Hungary	Iceland	Ireland ⁶	Israel	Italy	Japan	Korea	Luxembourg ⁵
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)		
OECD	Australia	a	0.9	0.3	4.6	n	n	0.5	n	0.4	2.7	3.4	m	0.1	n	0.7	m	0.5	3.1	0.6	m
	Austria	1.8	a	0.4	1.1	n	0.2	0.4	n	0.3	3.0	52.2	m	0.9	0.1	0.4	m	1.4	0.3	0.1	m
	Belgium	0.7	1.0	a	3.2	n	0.1	0.4	0.1	0.2	24.8	8.6	m	0.2	n	0.5	m	1.7	0.4	n	m
	Canada	9.5	0.3	0.3	a	n	0.1	0.2	n	0.2	3.0	1.4	m	0.3	n	1.3	m	0.3	0.7	0.6	m
	Chile	3.4	0.3	1.1	3.3	a	0.1	0.3	n	0.2	7.1	6.3	m	n	n	0.1	m	2.3	0.3	0.1	m
	Czech Republic	0.8	5.8	0.6	1.0	n	a	1.0	n	0.4	6.5	16.4	m	0.5	0.2	0.4	m	1.6	0.4	0.1	m
	Denmark	3.1	1.5	0.7	1.9	0.1	0.1	a	0.1	0.7	2.9	7.8	m	0.2	1.2	0.6	m	1.1	0.4	0.1	m
	Estonia	0.3	1.3	0.5	0.5	n	n	5.2	a	14.9	2.2	13.8	m	0.2	0.2	0.3	m	1.2	0.4	n	m
	Finland	1.3	1.9	0.4	0.8	n	0.1	2.2	5.5	a	2.7	7.8	m	0.4	0.4	0.5	m	0.8	0.8	n	m
	France	1.8	0.8	24.3	11.6	0.1	0.2	0.4	n	0.2	a	9.4	m	0.2	0.1	0.8	m	1.6	0.8	0.1	m
	Germany	1.8	19.8	0.9	1.2	0.1	0.3	2.0	n	0.4	6.5	a	m	1.7	0.1	0.5	m	1.5	0.5	0.1	m
	Greece	0.2	0.9	1.4	0.5	n	0.7	0.4	n	0.2	5.4	16.6	a	0.5	n	0.2	m	12.4	0.1	n	m
	Hungary	0.5	17.9	1.4	1.4	n	1.1	2.6	n	1.3	6.6	25.9	m	a	0.1	0.4	m	2.4	1.0	0.1	m
	Iceland	0.9	0.8	0.1	0.9	n	0.1	46.5	0.1	0.3	0.7	2.6	m	6.0	a	0.2	m	0.3	0.7	n	m
	Ireland	1.1	0.4	0.4	1.5	n	0.3	0.3	n	0.2	2.0	2.1	m	0.8	n	a	m	0.2	0.1	n	m
	Israel	1.1	0.7	0.2	6.6	n	0.8	0.3	n	0.2	1.8	8.6	m	3.9	n	0.1	a	8.6	0.3	n	m
	Italy	0.7	12.5	3.5	0.6	n	0.1	0.6	n	0.3	9.8	14.9	m	0.1	0.1	0.5	m	a	0.3	n	m
	Japan	5.7	0.9	0.3	4.3	n	0.1	0.1	n	0.3	3.9	4.5	m	0.2	n	0.1	m	0.6	a	2.1	m
	Korea	5.3	0.4	0.1	0.3	n	n	n	n	n	1.9	4.2	m	0.1	n	n	m	0.4	19.5	a	m
	Luxembourg	0.2	7.4	20.8	0.2	n	n	0.1	n	n	18.4	34.1	m	0.1	n	0.2	m	0.4	0.1	n	a
	Mexico	1.6	0.3	0.3	6.3	0.5	n	0.2	n	0.3	6.0	5.2	m	n	n	0.1	m	1.0	0.5	n	m
	Netherlands	1.8	1.4	30.5	2.4	n	0.1	1.6	n	0.5	4.2	10.0	m	0.1	0.1	0.4	m	0.8	0.5	n	m
	New Zealand	52.7	0.2	0.1	n	n	0.1	0.3	n	0.2	1.4	1.4	m	0.1	n	0.4	m	0.1	1.9	0.7	m
	Norway	9.5	0.5	0.2	1.5	0.1	1.7	18.9	n	0.5	2.0	3.5	m	5.1	0.2	0.4	m	0.5	0.4	n	m
	Poland	0.4	4.1	1.6	1.9	n	0.9	2.5	n	0.5	7.6	33.4	m	0.2	0.1	0.6	m	3.7	0.3	n	m
	Portugal	0.5	0.8	4.6	1.6	n	2.4	0.5	n	0.2	16.4	10.0	m	0.3	n	0.2	m	0.8	0.2	n	m
	Slovak Republic	0.3	5.0	0.3	0.4	n	68.4	0.3	n	0.1	1.4	4.4	m	8.0	n	0.1	m	0.7	0.1	n	m
Slovenia	0.8	25.4	0.9	0.6	n	0.8	1.1	n	0.6	2.8	18.5	m	0.7	0.1	0.3	m	11.2	0.5	n	m	
Spain	0.5	2.0	3.5	0.8	0.2	0.1	0.9	n	0.5	14.7	18.6	m	0.5	0.2	0.7	m	2.1	0.5	n	m	
Sweden	5.1	1.2	0.4	1.2	0.1	0.8	13.8	n	3.0	2.7	3.7	m	2.5	0.3	0.3	m	0.7	0.9	n	m	
Switzerland	2.7	6.5	1.2	3.4	0.1	0.1	0.7	n	0.3	14.5	20.1	m	0.1	0.1	0.2	m	8.6	0.6	0.1	m	
Turkey	0.6	3.6	0.5	1.3	n	0.1	0.6	n	0.2	3.2	38.2	m	0.3	n	0.1	m	0.9	0.2	0.1	m	
United Kingdom	5.2	0.8	0.8	7.6	n	1.3	1.6	n	0.6	8.1	5.9	m	0.4	0.1	6.8	m	0.8	1.3	0.1	m	
United States	5.4	1.0	0.4	18.5	0.1	0.3	0.6	n	0.4	6.4	6.5	m	0.5	0.1	4.6	m	0.8	3.8	1.4	m	
Total from OECD	3.1	4.3	3.1	3.4	0.1	2.3	1.4	0.1	0.4	5.3	11.1	m	0.8	0.1	0.8	m	1.7	3.1	0.2	m	
Total from EU21	1.5	6.9	5.5	2.9	n	4.2	1.5	0.1	0.6	6.5	11.9	m	1.1	0.1	0.9	m	2.1	0.5	n	m	
Other G20	Argentina	0.7	0.2	0.4	4.2	3.2	n	0.2	n	0.1	5.7	3.1	m	n	n	n	m	3.2	0.6	0.1	m
	Brazil	2.3	0.4	0.6	3.2	0.6	n	0.3	n	0.2	10.5	7.3	m	n	n	0.1	m	3.5	1.8	0.1	m
	China	12.4	0.2	0.2	6.1	n	n	0.3	n	0.4	4.2	4.4	m	n	n	0.2	m	0.8	14.0	6.9	m
	India	12.6	0.2	0.2	4.8	n	0.1	0.2	n	0.1	0.6	1.7	m	n	n	0.2	m	0.3	0.3	0.2	m
	Indonesia	26.5	0.2	0.3	2.7	n	n	n	n	0.1	0.8	6.3	m	n	n	n	m	0.3	4.6	0.8	m
	Russian Federation	1.2	1.2	0.9	2.7	n	2.9	0.6	2.0	2.2	5.8	21.4	m	0.3	n	0.1	m	1.9	0.6	0.4	m
	Saudi Arabia	10.7	0.1	n	3.9	n	n	n	n	n	1.2	0.4	m	0.2	n	0.2	m	0.1	0.2	0.1	m
	South Africa	10.2	0.5	0.7	5.3	n	0.5	0.3	n	0.2	1.1	1.8	m	0.1	n	1.9	m	0.2	0.3	0.1	m
	Total from other G20	11.7	0.3	0.3	5.2	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.4	3.4	4.9	m	0.1	n	0.2	m	0.8	8.6	4.2	m
	Total from all countries	7.0	1.6	1.3	5.2	0.2	0.8	0.6	0.1	0.3	6.8	7.0	0.7	0.5	n	0.4	m	1.8	3.6	1.4	n

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

- Excludes tertiary-type B programmes.
- Year of reference 2008.
- Excludes private institutions.
- Excludes advanced research programmes.
- Total based on the estimation by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics.
- Excludes part-time students.

 Source: OECD. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2011).

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


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Table C3.4. **Distribution of international and foreign students in tertiary education, by level and type of tertiary education (2009)**

	Tertiary-type B programmes	Tertiary-type A programmes	Advanced research programmes	Total tertiary programmes
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
International students by level and type of tertiary education				
OECD				
Australia	15.1	80.3	4.5	100
Austria ¹	1.4	88.8	9.9	100
Belgium	26.2	66.4	7.5	100
Canada ^{2, 3}	18.9	72.2	8.9	100
Chile	29.7	52.8	17.5	100
Czech Republic	m	m	m	m
Denmark	19.7	74.0	6.3	100
Estonia	6.0	86.0	8.0	100
Finland	n	86.5	13.5	100
Hungary	0.9	96.3	2.8	100
Iceland	0.4	91.7	7.9	100
Ireland	m	m	m	100
Israel	m	m	m	m
Japan	23.7	66.4	10.0	100
Luxembourg	m	m	m	m
Mexico	m	m	m	m
Netherlands ⁴	n	100.0	m	100
New Zealand	34.7	58.8	6.5	100
Norway	0.2	92.7	7.1	100
Poland	0.1	95.3	4.6	100
Portugal	0.3	88.2	11.5	100
Slovak Republic	0.2	88.3	11.5	100
Slovenia	11.1	79.3	9.6	100
Spain	29.7	53.0	17.2	100
Sweden	0.4	83.5	16.2	100
Switzerland ⁵	m	74.3	25.7	100
United Kingdom	8.7	81.9	9.4	100
United States	6.8	73.7	19.4	100
Other G20				
Argentina	m	m	m	m
Brazil	m	m	m	m
China	m	m	m	m
India	m	m	m	m
Indonesia	m	m	m	m
Saudi Arabia	m	m	m	m
South Africa	m	m	m	m
Foreign students by level and type of tertiary education⁶				
OECD				
France	9.0	79.2	11.8	100
Germany ⁴	6.9	93.1	m	100
Greece	m	m	m	m
Italy	0.7	94.4	4.9	100
Korea	8.4	84.9	6.7	100
Turkey	4.6	90.8	4.7	100
Other G20				
Russian Federation ^{3, 4}	5.9	94.1	m	100

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

2. Reference year 2008.

3. Excludes private institutions.

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/eag2011).

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


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Table C3.5. **Trends in the number of foreign students enrolled outside their country of origin, by region of destination (2000 to 2009)**


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

Foreign students enrolled in the following destinations	Number of foreign students									
	2009	2008	2007	2006	2005	2004	2003	2002	2001	2000
Africa	129 430	131 529	124 788	116 404	108 765	108 489	104 452	101 342	94 174	100 031
Asia	395 927	369 397	337 196	316 142	296 768	271 217	237 877	220 887	190 209	197 028
Europe	1 672 422	1 587 988	1 481 430	1 435 435	1 385 763	1 308 596	1 183 742	1 040 900	978 305	918 179
North America	850 966	809 943	728 190	733 051	738 401	712 292	712 296	695 806	576 059	569 640
Latin America & the Caribbean	75 433	58 776	55 813	37 838	37 114	39 760	42 230	35 305	31 950	28 945
Oceania	335 305	298 176	283 573	258 696	251 904	240 531	219 191	202 023	136 728	118 646
Worldwide	3 673 925	3 454 326	3 198 201	3 069 790	2 982 588	2 843 695	2 648 636	2 444 223	2 146 686	2 071 963
OECD countries	2 838 027	2 646 999	2 534 414	2 446 164	2 373 011	2 272 064	2 092 527	1 904 154	1 647 622	1 588 862
EU countries	1 406 887	1 317 541	1 311 333	1 255 879	1 199 825	1 150 604	1 034 876	894 260	842 937	804 716
<i>of which in EU21 countries</i>	1 372 398	1 282 373	1 283 433	1 229 295	1 172 429	1 122 675	1 008 351	868 301	811 781	775 102
G20 countries	3 033 995	2 843 849	2 629 096	2 547 843	2 485 330	2 366 148	2 222 619	2 045 952	1 789 815	1 715 174

Foreign students enrolled in the following destinations	Index of change (2009)									
	2008 = 100	2007 = 100	2006 = 100	2005 = 100	2004 = 100	2003 = 100	2002 = 100	2001 = 100	2000 = 100	
Africa	98	104	111	119	119	124	128	137	129	
Asia	107	117	125	133	146	166	179	208	201	
Europe	105	113	117	121	128	141	161	171	182	
North America	105	117	116	115	119	119	122	148	149	
Latin America & the Caribbean	128	135	199	203	190	179	214	236	261	
Oceania	112	118	130	133	139	153	166	245	283	
Worldwide	106	115	120	123	129	139	150	171	177	
OECD countries	107	112	116	120	125	136	149	172	179	
EU countries	107	107	112	117	122	136	157	167	175	
<i>of which in EU21 countries</i>	107	107	112	117	122	136	158	169	177	
G20 countries	107	115	119	122	128	137	148	170	177	

Note: Figures are based on the number of foreign students enrolled in OECD and non-OECD countries reporting data to the OECD and to 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 UNESCO Institute for Statistics for most data on non-OECD countries. See Annex 3 for notes (www.oecd.org/edu/eag2011).

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