

## TUITION FEES CHARGED BY TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS AND SUPPORT FOR STUDENTS AND HOUSEHOLDS THROUGH PUBLIC SUBSIDIES

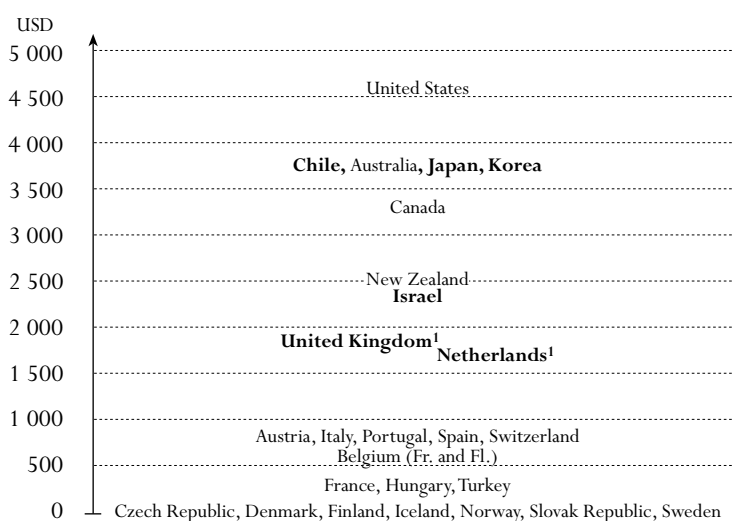
This indicator examines the relationships between annual tuition fees charged by institutions, direct and indirect public spending on educational institutions, and public subsidies to households for student living costs. It considers whether financial subsidies for households are provided in the form of grants or loans and poses related questions central to this discussion: Are scholarships/grants and loans more appropriate in countries with higher tuitions fees charged by institutions? Are loans an effective means to help increase the efficiency of financial resources invested in education and shift some of the cost of education to the beneficiaries of educational investment? Or are student loans less appropriate than grants in encouraging low-income students to pursue their education? While these questions cannot be answered here, this indicator presents the policies for tuition fees and subsidies in different OECD countries.

### Key results

#### **Chart B5.1. Average annual tuition fees charged by tertiary-type A public institutions (school year 2003-2004)**

*The chart shows the annual tuition fees charged by tertiary-type A public institutions for full-time national students in equivalent US dollars converted using PPPs. Countries in bold indicate that tuition fees refer to public institutions but that more than two-thirds of students are enrolled in private institutions.*

There are large differences between OECD and partner countries for which data are available in the average tuition fees charged by tertiary-type A public institutions. There are no tuition fees charged by public institutions in seven OECD countries, but one-third of countries have annual tuitions fees charged by public institutions for national students that exceed USD 2 000. Among the EU19 countries, only the Netherlands and the United Kingdom have annual tuitions fees that represent more than USD 1 000 per full-time student; these relate to government-dependent institutions.



*Note:* This chart does not take into account grants, subsidies or loans that partially or fully offset the student's tuition fees.

1. Public institutions do not exist at this level of education and all the students are enrolled in government-dependent institutions.

Source: OECD, Table B5.1. See Annex 3 for notes ([www.oecd.org/edu/eqg2006](http://www.oecd.org/edu/eqg2006)).

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### Other highlights of this indicator

- In OECD countries where students are required to pay tuition fees, public subsidies are of particular importance in providing students with access to educational opportunities regardless of their financial situation. In, for example, Australia, New Zealand and the United Kingdom, and the partner country Chile, closely regulated public subsidies are earmarked for payments to educational institutions.
- Low annual tuition fees charged by tertiary-type A institutions are not associated systematically with a low proportion of subsidies provided to households/students. Except Iceland, all the Nordic countries with no tuition fees devote more than 10% of total public expenditure on tertiary education for scholarships/grants designed to help students cover their living expenses.
- An average of 17% of public spending on tertiary education is devoted to supporting students, households and other private entities. In Australia, Denmark, New Zealand, Norway and Sweden, and the partner country Chile, public subsidies to households account for about 28% or more of public tertiary education budgets.
- Subsidised student loan systems operate in some countries with high levels of participation at the tertiary level. It is notable, for instance, that Australia, New Zealand, Norway and Sweden, which are among OECD countries reporting the largest subsidies in the form of student loans at tertiary education, also have some of the highest rates of entry into tertiary education of OECD countries.

## Policy context

Decisions taken by policy makers on the amount of tuition fees charged by educational institutions have an influence both on the cost of tertiary studies to students and on the resources available to institutions at the tertiary level. Subsidies to students and their families also act as policy levers through which governments can encourage participation in education – particularly among students from low-income families – by covering part of the cost of education and related expenses. Governments can thereby seek to address issues of access and equality of opportunity. The success of such subsidies must therefore be judged, at least in part, through examination of indicators of participation, retention and completion. Furthermore, public subsidies play an important role in indirectly financing educational institutions.

Channelling funding for institutions through students may also help to increase competition between institutions. Since aid for student living costs can serve as a substitute for work, public subsidies may enhance educational attainment by enabling students to study full-time and to work fewer hours or not at all.

Public subsidies come in many forms: as means-based subsidies, as family allowances for all students, as tax allowances for students or their parents, or as other household transfers. Unconditional subsidies (such as tax reductions or family allowances) may provide less of an incentive for low-income students to participate in education than means-tested subsidies. However, they may still help reduce disparities between households with and without children in education.

## Evidence and explanations

### What this indicator does and does not cover

This indicator shows average tuition fees charged in public and private institutions at tertiary-type A level. The indicator does not distinguish tuition fees by type of programmes but shows an overview of tuition fees at tertiary-type A level by type of institution and presents the proportions of students that do or do not receive scholarships/grants fully or partially covering tuition fees. Amounts of tuition fees and associated proportions of students should be interpreted with caution as they result from the weighted average of the main Tertiary-type A programmes and do not cover all the educational institutions.

This indicator also shows the proportion of public spending on tertiary education transferred to students, families and other private entities. Some of these funds are spent indirectly on educational institutions, for example, when subsidies are used to cover tuition fees. Other subsidies for education do not relate to educational institutions, such as subsidies for student living costs.

The indicator distinguishes between scholarships and grants, which are non-repayable subsidies, and loans, which must be repaid. It does not, however, distinguish among different types of grants or loans, such as scholarships, family allowances and subsidies in kind.

Governments can also support students and their families by providing tax reductions and tax credits. These subsidies are not covered here.

The indicator reports the full volume of student loans in order to provide information on the level of support which current students receive. It does not take repayments into account,

even though these can reduce the real costs of loans substantially. The gross amount of loans, including scholarships and grants, provides an appropriate measure of financial aid to current participants in education. Although interest payments and repayments of the principal by borrowers would be taken into account in order to assess the net cost of student loans to public and private lenders, such payments are not usually made by current students but rather by former students. In most countries, moreover, loan repayments do not flow to the education authorities, and thus the money is not available to them to cover other educational expenditures.

Given that no internationally comparable method is currently available to calculate the net costs of student loan programmes, loans must be treated according to the likely use of the data. The OECD indicators therefore take the full amount of scholarships and loans (gross) into account when discussing financial aid to current students.

It is also common for governments to guarantee the repayment of loans to students made by private lenders. In some OECD countries, this indirect form of subsidy is as significant as, or more significant than, direct financial aid to students. However, for reasons of comparability, the indicator only takes into account the amounts relating to public transfers for private loans that are made to private entities (not the total value of loans generated).

Some OECD countries also have difficulties quantifying the amount of loans attributable to students. Therefore, data on student loans should be treated with some caution.

### **Annual tuition fees charged by tertiary-type A educational institutions**

Large differences are observed among OECD and partner countries in the average tuition fees charged by tertiary-type A educational institutions. There are no tuition fees charged by public institutions in seven OECD countries including the Nordic countries, the Czech Republic and the Slovak Republic. By contrast, one-third of countries have annual tuitions fees for national students charged by public institutions that exceed USD 2 000. In the United States, tuition fees for national students reach more than USD 4 500 in public institutions. Among the EU19 countries, only the Netherlands and the United Kingdom have annual tuitions fees that represent more than USD 1 000 per full-time national student, but these fees related to government dependent private institutions (Table B5.1 and Chart B5.1).

There is no unique model observed in OECD and partner countries for the financing of tertiary-type A institutions and no clear relationship between the amount of tuition fees charged to students and the amount of financial support that these students may receive to cover tuition fees. Thus OECD countries with high levels of tuition fees are not necessarily those where the proportions of students receiving scholarships/grants to cover tuition fees are the highest. The five countries where tuition fees charged by tertiary-type A public educational institutions exceed USD 3 600 – Australia, Korea, Japan and the United States, and partner country Chile – present different patterns. In Japan, full-time students enrolled in tertiary-type A programmes do not receive scholarship/grants in support of the tuition fees from the government, whereas this is the case for around three out of four students in Australia, almost one out of two in Korea and one out of four students in the United States. In Japan, some students who excel academically but have difficulty in financing their studies may benefit from reduced tuition and/or admission fees or be exempt from paying these fees entirely.

On the contrary, countries among those with the lowest levels of tuition fees charged in public institutions for tertiary-type A programmes may have quite significant proportions of students who receive scholarships and grants that fully cover tuition fees. In the Flemish community of Belgium, as well as in France, Portugal and Spain, tuition fees represent less than USD 900 per year, and still around one or more students out of five receives a public subsidy that fully covers the tuition fees (Table B5.1).

The amount of tuition fees charged by public educational institutions may differ among students enrolled in the same programme. Several countries make a distinction in the amount of tuition fees charged according to the citizenship of students. In Austria, for example, average tuition fees charged by public institutions for students who are not citizens from EU or EEA countries are twice the amount of fees charged for other students. This kind of differentiation also appears in Australia, Canada, the Slovak Republic, Turkey, the United Kingdom and the United States and will be extended to Denmark from the 2006-2007 academic year. In those countries, the variation of tuition fees according to citizenship is always significant except in the Slovak Republic. In other countries, the non-national students may pay from twice to nearly ten times the amount charged to a national student and the difference is most striking in the United Kingdom where EU citizens are charged on average USD 1 794 against up to USD 17 874 for students with another citizenship (Table B5.1). This type of policy differentiation may check the flows of international students (see Indicator C3) unless those students receive some financial support from their country of citizenship.

### **Annual tuition fees charged by private institutions**

Annual tuition fees charged by private institutions vary considerably across OECD and partner countries as well as within countries themselves. Most OECD and partner countries charge higher tuition fees in private institutions than in public institutions. Finland and Sweden are the only countries where there are no tuition fees in either public or private institutions. However, variation within countries tends to be highest in countries with the biggest proportions of student enrolled in tertiary-type A independent private institutions. By contrast, tuition fees charged by public and government dependent institutions are not so different in most countries. The greater autonomy of independent private institutions compared with public and government-dependent institutions partly explains this fact. Korea and Japan, for example, have around three-quarters of students enrolled in independent private institutions and at the same time show the highest variation between their own independent private institutions (Indicator C2 and Table B5.1).

### **Public subsidies to households and other private entities**

OECD countries spend an average of 0.4% of their GDP on public subsidies to households and other private entities for all levels of education combined. The proportion of educational budgets spent on subsidies to households and private entities is much higher at the tertiary level than at primary, secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary levels and represents 0.25% of GDP. The subsidies are the largest in relation to GDP at tertiary level in Norway (0.85% of GDP), followed by Denmark (0.80%), New Zealand (0.72%), Sweden (0.61%) and Australia (0.40%) (Table B5.2, as well as Table B5.3 available on the Web).

OECD countries spend, on average, 17% of their public budgets for tertiary education on subsidies to households and other private entities (Chart B5.2). In Australia, Denmark, New Zealand, Norway and Sweden, and the partner country Chile, public subsidies account for 28% or more of public

spending on tertiary education. Only Korea, Poland, Portugal and Switzerland spend less than 5% of their total public spending on tertiary education on subsidies (Table B5.2).

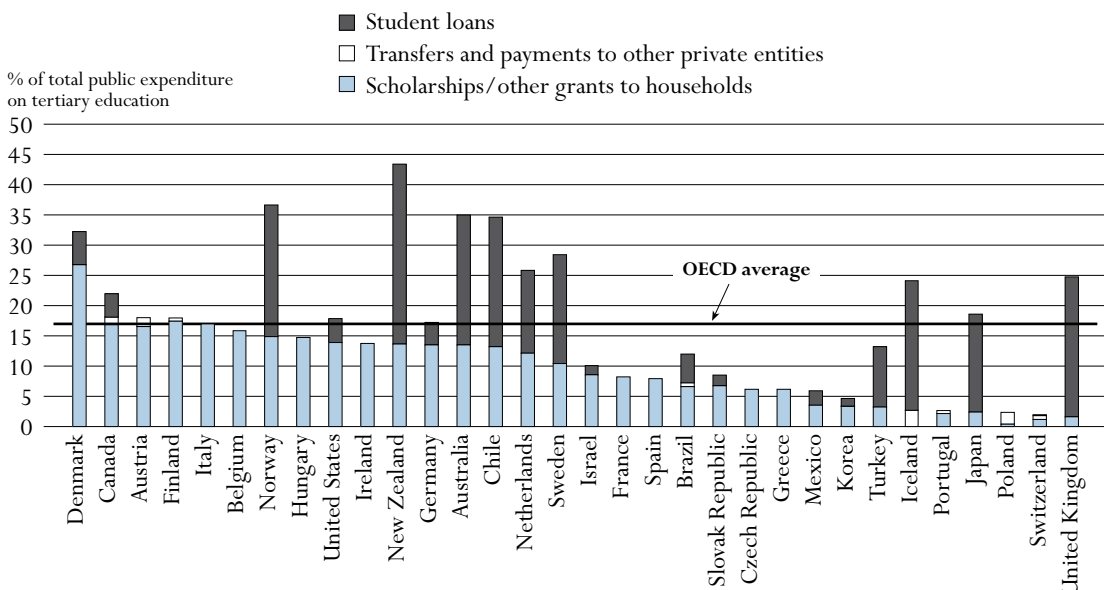
**How subsidies are used: student living costs and tuition fees**

Low annual tuition fees charged by institutions are not systematically associated with a low proportion of subsidies provided to households/students. Except for Iceland, the Nordic countries with no tuition fees charged by public educational institutions have devoted, for example, more than 10% of the total public expenditure to the attribution of scholarships/grants to students to cover living expenses, whereas scholarships/grants represents only 3 % of the total public expenditure in Korea (Tables B5.1 and B5.2).

In OECD countries where students are required to pay tuition fees, public subsidies are of particular importance in order to provide students with access to educational opportunities, regardless of their financial situation. For example, in Australia, New Zealand and the United Kingdom, and the partner country Chile, public subsidies are earmarked for payments to educational institutions and are closely regulated (Tables B5.1 and B5.2). In Australia, under the Higher Education Contribution Scheme (HECS), students can elect to pay their contributions for their university education in advance, semester by semester, and receive a 25% discount, or, they can repay their accumulated contribution through the tax system when their annual income exceeds a minimum threshold. For the purpose of the OECD education indicators, HECS is counted as a loan scheme, although students may not view the delayed payments as a loan. In OECD countries where tuition fees are substantial, a proportion of the public subsidy to households is effectively earmarked for payments to educational institutions, even without an official policy.

**Chart B5.2. Public subsidies for education in tertiary education (2003)**

*Public subsidies for education to households and other private entities as a percentage of total public expenditure on tertiary education, by type of subsidy*



Countries are ranked in descending order of the share of scholarships/other grants to households and transfers and payments to other private entities in total public expenditure on education.

Source: OECD, Table B5.2. See Annex 3 for notes ([www.oecd.org/edu/eqg2006](http://www.oecd.org/edu/eqg2006)).

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## OECD countries use different mixtures of grants and loans to subsidise students' educational costs

A key question in many OECD countries is whether financial subsidies for households should primarily be provided in the form of grants or loans. Governments subsidise students' living costs or educational costs through different mixtures of grants and loans. Advocates of student loans argue that money spent on loans goes further: if the amount spent on grants were used to guarantee or subsidise loans instead, more aid would be available to students in total, and overall access would be increased. Loans also shift some of the cost of education to those who benefit most from educational investment. Opponents of loans argue that student loans are less effective than grants in encouraging low-income students to pursue their education. They also argue that loans may be less efficient than anticipated because of the various subsidies provided to borrowers or lenders, and due to costs of administration and servicing. Cultural differences across and within countries may also affect students' willingness to take out a student loan.

Chart B5.2 presents the proportion of public educational expenditure dedicated to loans, grants and scholarships, and other subsidies to households at the tertiary level. Grants and scholarships include family allowances and other specific subsidies, but exclude tax reductions. Around one-half of the 31 reporting OECD and partner countries rely exclusively on grants/scholarships and transfers/payments to other private entities. The remaining OECD countries provide both grants or scholarships and loans to students (except Iceland, which relies only on student loans). In general, the highest subsidies to students are provided by those OECD countries offering student loans; in most cases these countries spend an above-average proportion of their budgets on grants and scholarships alone (Chart B5.2 and Table B5.2).

The motivation for governments to introduce a student loan system can often be to reduce the cost of an expanding tertiary sector. The largest subsidies in the form of student loans generally occur in countries with the highest tertiary participation rates, such as Australia, New Zealand, Norway and Sweden (see Indicator C2). Exceptions include Finland, with the third highest tertiary-type A entry rates but without a publicly-funded student loan system, and the United Kingdom, which has tertiary-type A entry rates below the average but one of the largest subsidies in the form of student loans.

### Repayment of loans

Repayment of public loans can be a substantial source of income for governments and can decrease the costs of loan programmes significantly. The current reporting of household expenditure on education as part of private expenditure (see Indicator B3) does not take into account the repayment by previous recipients of public loans. These repayments can be a substantial burden to individuals and have an impact on the decision to participate in tertiary education. However, many OECD countries make the repayment of loans dependent on graduates' level of income.

Given that loan repayments are made by former students who took out loans several years earlier, it is difficult to estimate the real costs of loan programmes. Loans are therefore reported on a gross basis only. International comparisons of total repayments in the same reference period cannot be made, since they are heavily influenced by changes in schemes for the distribution of loans and by changes in the numbers of students receiving loans.

Chart B5.3. Types of public subsidies available for tertiary education

	Australia	Belgium (Fl.) <sup>1</sup>	Belgium (Fr.)	Canada	Czech Republic	Denmark	Finland	France	Hungary	Iceland	Italy	Japan	Korea	Mexico	Netherlands <sup>2</sup>	Norway	New Zealand	Spain	Slovak Republic	Sweden	Switzerland	Turkey	United Kingdom	United States <sup>3</sup>	Chile	Israel
X: This type of public subsidies does exist a: This type of public subsidies does not exist m: missing																										
<i>Scholarships and similar grants</i>																										
Scholarships and similar grants (fellowships, awards, boursaries) earmarked for tuition fees.	X	X	X	X	a	a	a	a	a	a	X	a	X	X	X	X	a	X	a	a	a	a	X	X	X	X
Scholarships and similar grants (fellowships, awards, boursaries) for general purposes including living costs	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	a	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
<i>Specific subsidies in cash or kind</i>																										
Housing	X	a	m	m	a	a	X	X	X	a	X	m	m	a	a	X	a	a	X	a	a	X	a	X	a	m
Specific subsidies for transport	X	a	m	m	X	X	a	X	X	a	X	m	m	X	X	X	a	X	X	a	a	m	a	X	a	m
Specific subsidies for medical expenses	a	a	a	m	X	a	a	X	a	a	a	m	m	X	a	m	a	a	X	a	a	X	a	X	a	m
Specific subsidies for books and supplies	X	a	a	m	a	a	a	a	X	a	a	m	m	a	a	a	X	X	a	a	a	X	a	X	a	m
Specific subsidies for social and recreational purposes	a	a	m	m	a	a	a	X	X	a	X	m	m	X	a	X	a	a	X	a	a	X	a	X	a	m
Specific subsidies for studies abroad, including fees to be paid abroad	a	a	a	m	X	a	X	X	X	a	X	m	m	X	a	X	a	a	a	X	a	X	a	X	X	m
Other specific subsidies	a	a	X	m	a	a	X	X	X	a	X	m	m	a	a	X	a	a	m	a	a	X	a	X	m	m
<i>Family allowances or child allowances that are contingent on student status.</i>																										
Family allowances or child allowances that are contingent on student status	X	X	X	m	X	a	a	m	a	a	X	a	a	a	X	X	X	a	X	X	X	a	X	a	a	a
<i>Public and private loans</i>																										
Public student loans that cover tuition fees only	X	a	m	m	a	a	a	a	a	X	a	a	m	X	a	X	X	a	a	a	a	X	a	X	X	X
Public student loans for general purpose including living costs	a	a	m	m	a	X	a	a	X	X	X	X	m	a	X	X	X	a	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Government subsidies or government guarantees for student loans provided by private financial institutions	X	X	a	X	a	a	X	a	a	a	X	a	m	a	a	a	a	m	a	a	a	a	a	X	a	a
Private loans, not subsidies or not guarantees by the government	a	m	m	X	a	X	a	m	a	a	X	m	m	X	X	m	a	m	m	a	X	m	a	X	X	a
<i>Tax credits or deductions</i>																										
Tax credits or deductions for tuition	X	X	m	X	a	a	a	a	X	a	X	a	m	a	X	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	X	m	a
Tax credits or deductions to families for support of pupils/students	a	X	m	X	X	a	a	X	a	a	X	m	m	a	X	a	a	a	X	a	X	a	a	a	m	a
Other tax reductions and tax credits	a	a	m	m	a	a	X	a	a	a	X	m	a	a	a	X	a	a	X	a	a	a	a	a	m	a

1. Specific subsidies in cash or in kind are not paid to the student but to the institutions that have a specific budget for students' facilities (student welfare provisions).

2. Tertiary education excludes ISCED 5B.

3. Subsidies in cash or kind are offered only at some institutions rather than through a systematic federal level.

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

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### Different forms of public subsidy

Students in 11 out of the 22 reporting OECD and partner countries receive at least three of the specific subsidies in cash and kind listed in Chart B5.3. France, Hungary, Italy, Norway, Turkey and the United States show the biggest diversity in subsidies in cash and kind with at least five types of subsidies provided to tertiary students (see Chart B5.3). The most common subsidies (provided by 11 countries) are for transportation and for studies abroad, followed by specific subsidies for housing and social and recreational purposes available in respectively nine and eight OECD and partner countries. Other specific subsidies for medical services (in the Czech Republic, France, Mexico, the Slovak Republic, Turkey and the United States) and for books and supplies (in Australia, Hungary, New Zealand, Spain, Turkey and the United States) are found in only six countries with available data. Data on specific subsidies, especially those given in kind rather than in cash, are not available for many countries. In Canada, Japan, Korea and the United Kingdom, as well as in the partner country Israel, these specific subsidies exist but cannot be quantified; they are reported as missing in Chart B5.3.

Family and child allowances contingent on student status exist in one half of OECD and partner countries. It varies between countries, however, whether such allowances are provided to the family in which the student grew up (*i.e.* to the student's parents), or to the student's family as an adult (*i.e.* the student's spouse and children). Tax reductions are another important form of public subsidy, but these exist in a limited number of countries compared with family and child allowances contingent on student status. Whereas most scholarships and grants are means-tested or targeted in some other way, tax reductions and family allowances in many cases do not take into account the needs and income of students or their families. Tax reductions are part of the subsidy system in Australia, Belgium (Fl.), Canada, the Czech Republic, Finland, France, Hungary, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway, the Slovak Republic, Switzerland and the United States (Chart B5.3). In some countries, repayments of loans by previous students are subject to tax reductions. Tax reductions do not exist or are negligible in Denmark, Mexico, New Zealand, Spain, Sweden, Turkey and the United Kingdom, and the partner country Israel.

### Definitions and methodologies

Data refer to the financial year 2003 and are based on the UOE data collection on education statistics administered by the OECD in 2005 (for details see Annex 3 at [www.oecd.org/edu/eq2006](http://www.oecd.org/edu/eq2006)). Data on tuition fees charged by educational institutions were collected through a special survey undertaken in 2006 and refer to the school year 2003-2004. Amounts of tuition fees and associated proportions of students should be interpreted with caution as they result from the weighted average of the main Tertiary-type A programmes and do not cover all the educational institutions.

Public subsidies to households include the following categories: *i*) grants/scholarships; *ii*) public student loans; *iii*) family or child allowances contingent on student status; *iv*) public subsidies in cash or in kind, specifically for housing, transportation, medical expenses, books and supplies, social, recreational and other purposes; and *v*) interest-related subsidies for private loans.

Expenditure on student loans is reported on a gross basis, that is, without subtracting or netting out repayments or interest payments from the borrowers (students or households). This is because the gross amount of loans including scholarships and grants provides an appropriate measure of the financial aid to current participants in education.

Public costs related to private loans guaranteed by governments are included as subsidies to other private entities. Unlike public loans, only the net cost of these loans is included.

The value of tax reductions or credits to households and students is not included.

Note that data appearing in earlier editions of this publication may not always be comparable to data shown in the 2006 edition due to changes in definitions and coverage that were made as a result of the OECD expenditure comparability study (for details on changes, see Annex 3 at [www.oecd.org/edu/eag2006](http://www.oecd.org/edu/eag2006)).

### Further references

The following additional material relevant to this indicator is available on the Web at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/540845273375>

- *Table B5.3. Public subsidies for households and other private entities as a percentage of total public expenditure on education and GDP, for primary, secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education (2003)*

Table B5.1.

**Estimated annual average tuition fees charged by tertiary-type A educational institutions (school year 2003-2004)**  
*In equivalent US dollars converted using PPPs, by type of institutions, based on full-time students*

Amounts of tuition fees and associated proportions of students should be interpreted with caution as they result from the weighted average of the main Tertiary-type A programmes and do not cover all the educational institutions. However, the figures reported can be considered as good proxies and show the difference among countries in tuition fees charged by main educational institutions and for the majority of students.

	Percentage of full-time students enrolled in:		PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS				Comments
	public institutions	private institutions	Annual average tuition fees in USD charged by institutions (for full-time students)	Percentage of students			
				receiving scholarships/grants that fully cover the tuition fees	receiving scholarship/grants that partially cover the tuition fees	not receiving scholarship/grants in support of the tuition fees	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)		
<b>OECD countries</b>							
Australia	99.9	0.1	5 289	n	27.2	72.8	Tuition fees of 3 781 for national students, 10 825 for overseas students.
Austria	90.0	10.0	853	m	m	m	Tuition fees of 800 for EU/EEA students, 1 600 for others.
Belgium (Fl.) <sup>1</sup>	48.8	51.2	540	21.5	1.0	77.5	
Belgium (Fr.) <sup>1</sup>	34.2	65.8	658	12.0	x(4)	88.0	
Canada	m	m	3 267	m	m	m	Tuition fees of 2 967 for national students, 7 931 for others.
Czech Republic	95.0	5.0	No tuition fees	a	a	a	
Denmark	99.7	0.3	No tuition fees	a	a	a	
Finland	87.0	13.0	No tuition fees	a	a	a	
France	90.0	10.0	From 156 to 462	24.6	x(6)	75.4	Universities only. The tuition fees include 86% of students enrolled in public institutions at tertiary-type A level of education.
Germany	m	m	m	m	m	m	
Greece	m	m	m	m	m	m	
Hungary	88.3	11.7	351	m	m	m	The term 'tuition fee' is not in use. However, the training of about 85% of students is state-financed (in a centrally regulated limited number), the other part pays a contribution called 'cost-refunding' (which is charged by the institutions). The annual sum of the 'cost-refunding' is different by institutions and by fields of training and there are no exact aggregated data.
Iceland	87.0	13.0	No tuition fees	a	a	a	
Ireland	m	m	m	m	m	m	
Italy	93.7	6.3	983	9.4	9.5	81.1	
Japan	24.9	75.1	3 747	n	n	100.0	Average tuition fees exclude the admission fee charged by the school for the first year (2 171 on average).
Korea	22.3	77.7	3623 [1955 to 7743]	9.8	34.4	55.8	First degree programmes only. Average tuition fees exclude the admission fee charged by the school for the first year.
Luxembourg	a	a	a	a	a	a	
Mexico	66.1	33.9	m	n	n	100.0	
Netherlands	a	100.0	a	a	a	a	
New Zealand <sup>2</sup>	98.1	1.9	2 538	1.0	30.0	69.0	Average tuition fees exclude international students.
Norway	88.0	12.0	No tuition fees	a	a	a	
Poland	m	m	m	m	m	m	
Portugal	72.1	27.9	868	19.2	n	80.8	
Slovak Republic	99.3	0.7	No tuition fees	a	a	a	Average tuition fees of 182 charged for some non EU/EEA students.
Spain	87.4	12.6	801 [668 to 935]	20.0	11.0	69.0	
Sweden	93.3	6.7	No tuition fees	a	a	a	
Switzerland	95.0	5.0	From 566 to 1 132	12.8	n	87.2	
Turkey	100.0	n	274	n	n	100.0	Tuition fees of 264 for national students, 864 for others.
United Kingdom	a	100.0	a	a	a	a	
United States	69.2	30.8	4 587	x(5)	77.0	23.0	Average tuition fees include only the cost for national (in-state) students. National out-of-state and foreign students pay on average 12 320.
<b>Partner countries</b>							
Chile	30.1	69.1	3 845	m	m	m	
Israel	11.1	88.9	2 300	m	m	m	

1. Tuition fees charged for programmes are the same in public than in private institutions but the distribution of students differs between public and private institutions explaining that the weighted average is not the same.

2. Tertiary-type A includes advanced research programmes.

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

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

Table B5.1. (continued)

**Estimated annual average tuition fees charged by tertiary-type A educational institutions (school year 2003-2004)**  
 In equivalent US dollars converted using PPPs, by type of institutions, based on full-time students

Amounts of tuition fees and associated proportions of students should be interpreted with caution as they result from the weighted average of the main Tertiary-type A programmes and do not cover all the educational institutions. However, the figures reported can be considered as good proxies and show the difference among countries in tuition fees charged by main educational institutions and for the majority of students.

	PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS				Comments	
	Annual average tuition fees in USD charged by institutions (for full-time students)	Percentage of students				
		that receive scholarships/grants that fully cover the tuition fees	that receive scholarship/grants that partially cover the tuition fees	not receiving scholarship/grants in support of the tuition fees		
(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)			
OECD countries	Australia	13 420	n	n	100.0	Tuition fees of 13 420 for national and overseas students.
	Austria	800	m	m	m	
	Belgium (Fl.) <sup>1</sup>	536	18.6	0.9	80.5	Excluding independent private institutions.
	Belgium (Fr.) <sup>1</sup>	751	x(4)	x(4)	x(6)	
	Canada	m	m	m	m	
	Czech Republic	3 449	m	m	m	
	Denmark	m	m	m	m	
	Finland	No tuition fees	a	a	a	
	France	From 500 to 8 000	m	m	m	
	Germany	m	m	m	m	
	Greece	m	m	m	m	
	Hungary	991	m	m	m	The term 'tuition fee' is not in use. However, the training of about 60% of students is state-financed (in a centrally regulated limited number), the other part pays a contribution called 'cost-refunding' (which is charged by the institutions). The annual sum of the 'cost-refunding' is different by institutions and by fields of training and there are no exact aggregated data.
	Iceland	3000 [2100 to 4400]	m	m	m	
	Ireland	m	m	m	m	
	Italy	3 992	6.7	1.4	91.9	
	Japan	5 795 [4 769 to 25 486]	n	n	100.0	Average tuition fees exclude the admission fee charged by the school for the first year (2 030 on average) and the subscription fee for using facilities (1 438 on average).
	Korea	6 953 [2 143 to 9 771]	3.9	24.5	71.6	First degree programmes only. Average tuition fees exclude the admission fee charged by the school for the first year.
	Luxembourg	a	a	a	a	
	Mexico	m	5.0	n	95.0	
	Netherlands	1 565	82.5	2.5	15.0	
New Zealand <sup>2</sup>	3 075	n	26.0	74.0	Average tuition fees exclude international students	
Norway	From 4 000 to 6 500	m	m	m	Approximate fees for bachelor and master courses in the largest private institutions.	
Poland	m	m	m	m		
Portugal	3 803	2.4	11.7	85.9		
Slovak Republic	m	m	m	m		
Spain	m	n	4.7	95.3		
Sweden	No tuition fees	a	a	a		
Switzerland	m	m	m	m		
Turkey	From 9 303 to 11961	1.0	14-19	80-85		
United Kingdom	1 794	m	m	m	Average tuition fees exclude non EU/EEA students (around 10% of students, tuition fees vary from 10 348 to 17 874).	
United States	17 777	x(9)	87.0	13.0	Average tuition fees include only national (in-state) students.	
Partner countries	Chile	3 822	m	m	m	
	Israel	2 442	m	m	m	Average tuition fees exclude independent private institutions (around 16% students in private institutions, tuition fees vary from 5 432 to 7023).

1. Tuition fees charged for programmes are the same in public than in private institutions but the distribution of students differs between public and private institutions explaining that the weighted average is not the same.

2. Tertiary-type A includes advanced research programmes.

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

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

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Table B5.2.

**Public subsidies for households and other private entities as a percentage of total public expenditure on education and GDP, for tertiary education (2003)**

*Direct public expenditure on educational institutions and subsidies for households and other private entities*

	Direct expenditure for institutions	Subsidies for education to private entities						Subsidies for education to private entities as a percentage of GDP
		Financial aid to students				Transfers and payments to other private entities	Total	
		Scholarships/ other grants to households	Student loans	Total	Scholarships/ other grants to households attributable for educational institutions			
<b>OECD countries</b>								
Australia	65.0	13.5	21.5	35.0	1.2	n	35.0	0.40
Austria	82.0	16.6	a	16.6	m	1.4	18.0	0.23
Belgium	84.2	15.8	n	15.8	4.6	n	15.8	0.21
Canada <sup>1,2</sup>	78.0	16.8	3.9	20.7	m	1.3	22.0	0.38
Czech Republic	93.8	6.2	a	6.2	m	n	6.2	0.06
Denmark	67.8	26.8	5.5	32.2	m	n	32.2	0.80
Finland	82.1	17.4	n	17.4	n	0.5	17.9	0.37
France	91.8	8.2	a	8.2	2.6	a	8.2	0.10
Germany	82.8	13.5	3.7	17.2	n	n	17.2	0.20
Greece	94.0	6.0	m	6.0	m	a	6.0	0.07
Hungary	85.3	14.7	a	14.7	n	n	14.7	0.18
Iceland <sup>2</sup>	75.9	n	21.4	21.4	n	2.7	24.1	0.33
Ireland	86.2	13.8	n	13.8	4.3	n	13.8	0.15
Italy	83.0	17.0	n	17.0	5.2	n	17.0	0.14
Japan <sup>2</sup>	81.4	2.4	16.2	18.6	m	n	18.6	0.11
Korea	95.4	3.3	1.2	4.6	2.9	0.1	4.6	0.03
Luxembourg	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
Mexico	94.1	3.5	2.4	5.9	1.1	n	5.9	0.06
Netherlands	74.1	12.1	13.7	25.9	1.4	m	25.9	0.34
New Zealand	56.6	13.7	29.8	43.4	m	a	43.4	0.72
Norway	63.3	14.9	21.8	36.7	m	n	36.7	0.85
Poland	97.7	0.4	a	0.4	m	2.0	2.3	0.02
Portugal	97.4	2.2	a	2.2	m	0.5	2.6	0.03
Slovak Republic <sup>2</sup>	91.5	6.8	1.8	8.5	m	a	8.5	0.07
Spain	92.1	7.9	n	7.9	2.4	n	7.9	0.08
Sweden	71.6	10.4	18.0	28.4	a	a	28.4	0.61
Switzerland	98.0	1.2	0.1	1.3	m	0.6	2.0	0.03
Turkey	86.8	3.2	10.0	13.2	n	m	13.2	0.16
United Kingdom	75.3	1.6	23.2	24.7	0.7	n	24.7	0.26
United States	82.2	13.9	3.9	17.8	m	a	17.8	0.26
<b>OECD average</b>	<b>83.1</b>	<b>9.8</b>	<b>7.1</b>	<b>16.6</b>	<b>1.6</b>	<b>0.3</b>	<b>16.9</b>	<b>0.25</b>
<b>Partner countries</b>								
Brazil <sup>1</sup>	88.0	6.6	4.7	11.3	n	0.6	12.0	0.11
Chile <sup>3</sup>	65.4	13.2	21.4	34.6	10.2	m	34.6	0.18
Israel	89.9	8.6	1.5	10.1	8.6	n	10.1	0.13
Russian Federation	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m

1. Year of reference 2002.

2. Some levels of education are included with others. Refer to "x" code in Table B1.1a for details.

3. Year of reference 2004.

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

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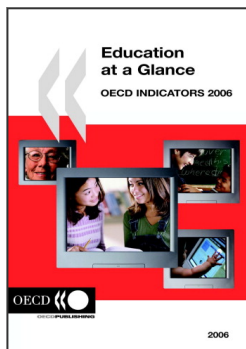
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