**International Student Enrollment in the United States during Trump Era: The Potential Impacts of Immigration Policies on the International Student Enrollment.**

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**Abstract**

Over one million international students at all academic levels are currently pursuing their education in the United States. Even though the total volume of international students has continued to rise, the annual growth rate has slowed down. Moreover, the number of newly enrolled students is dropping. Some research suggests that President Trump’s election and his anti-immigrant policies are potentially responsible for this decline. This paper presents quantitative empirical research I conducted to elucidate the effect of President Trump’s election and his administration on international students. The results only show a statistically significant decrease in the enrollment of non-degree students. In addition, the change in this group does not make a vital impact on the U.S. economy. Even though the data suggested a decline in the enrollment, I failed to establish a causal relationship between Trump’s election and international student enrollment.

*Keywords*: international students, enrollment, President Trump’s election, administration, anti-immigration, immigration, mobility, H-1B

In the 2016 United States presidential election, Donald Trump defeated Hillary Clinton to become the president of the United States. President Trump, with his campaign centralized around “make America great again,” has made numerous significant changes to immigration policies and implemented these policies since his election. One of the most prominent executive orders made by President Donald Trump, Executive Order 13769, largely known as a “Muslim ban” or “travel ban,” placed stringent restrictions on travel to the United States for citizens from Iran, Iraq, Libya, Somalia, Sudan, Syria, and Yemen. President Trump claimed this executive order was made in order to protect the nation from foreign terrorist entry into the United States (Trump, 2017).

However, the signing of the order was met with significant criticism and protest. In the wake of the Trump administration’s executive order restricting travel into the United States, representatives from the University of Washington, Washington State University, and the state’s two-year college system emphasized how hundreds of their students, researchers, and faculty members from the seven countries covered by the ban were being harmed directly by the travel ban (Blumenstyk, 2017). These people were those who legally came to the United States with valid visas and contributed significantly to the nation. The ban not only hurts the people from those countries, but also people in the United States. Judge Robart of the U.S. District Court in Seattle explicated the travel ban’s harm to states’ economies and “the operations and missions of their public universities and other institutions of higher education” (Blumenstyk, 2017). This travel ban, which is inconsistent with America’s long-standing values as a free nation, will also inevitably affect prospective students and scholars seeking to study in the United States (Blumenstyk, 2017). They will forestall their decisions and choose more favorable and welcoming destinations.

Furthermore, on April 18, 2017, President Trump signed the Buy American and Hire American Executive Order, which seeks to create higher wages and employment rates for U.S. workers and to protect their economic interests by rigorously enforcing and administering immigration laws. It also directs the Department of Homeland Security, in coordination with other agencies, to advance policies to help ensure H-1B visas are awarded to the most-skilled or highest-paid beneficiaries (Trump, 2017).

If initially the executive only targeted refugees and Muslim countries’ citizens, these policies have currently created obstacles for a large body of skilled immigrant workers who legally seek citizenship via work sponsorships. According to a recent analysis by the National Foundation for American Policy, a nonprofit that studies immigration, the denial rate for applicants who were trying to extend their visas grew from 4 percent in 2016 to 12 percent in 2018; the rate climbed even higher, to 18 percent, through the first quarter of 2019. Meanwhile, the United States Citizenship and Immigration Services more than doubled the denial rate for the share of petitions of first-time employees who applied for visas, from 10 percent in 2016 to 24 percent in 2018. In the first quarter of 2019, this denial rate surged to 32 percent, despite a steady decrease in the total number of new applications under President Trump (Lapowsky, 2019). Being employed as an immigrant worker in the United States creates a new set of challenges in order to remain in the States.

The research project conducted by Shih (2016) aimed to ascertain the relationship between international enrollment and the openness of the United States’ skilled labor market, which is measured by the yearly H-1B visa issuances. By examining the international enrollment by country of origin data from years 1998-1999 through 2010-2011, the H-1B visas issued by country over the same period, along with other control variables such as economic factor, Shih (2016) reveals that H1-B visa issuances to a country are positively and significantly related to the number of international students from that country. According to Shih, the mechanism that explains this positive relationship is that reducing labor market access by decreasing the number of available visas lowers the expected return from studying in the United States. This occurs because low income countries suffer the most since they send students who have more to gain. The fact that the government has been denying and delaying more H1-B visa petitions than any previous time since 2015 suggests an unfavorable labor market for international students, which could possibly translate into the reduction of the international student enrollment in the upcoming years (Shih, 2016).

Indeed, the 2019 Fall International Student Enrollment Snapshot Survey Report released by the Institute of International Education, an institution responsible for educational and cultural exchange programs on behalf of the U.S. Departments of State and Defense, reports a 0.9 percent decrease in the number of international students enrolling for the first time at a U.S. higher education institution. The survey captured 509 valid responses from higher education institutions throughout the United States. Unsurprisingly, survey respondents listed visa application process issues or delays/denials as the top reason for fall 2019 drops in new enrollment. The proportion of institutions citing this factor grew from 68.4 percent in fall 2017 to 86.9 percent in fall 2019 (Sanger & Baer, 2019). This phenomenon occurred immediately after the election of President Trump and his policies since 2016.

A few researchers have expressed concern for international students’ perceptions of the change in the political, cultural, and educational climate related to the election of President Trump and his policies. The emotion that is repeatedly encountered is fear. In an empirical qualitative research study, which utilized the interview in a one-on-one setting as a framework to study international students’ feelings in the United States during the Trump Era, Johnson spoke with 42 students, both undergraduates and graduate students, from six different continents at the University of North Dakota. In sum, these students considered studying in the United States as a valuable opportunity in many ways, whether as a chance to “experience something new,” “to improve myself,” or to “work with the best” (p. 429). On the other hand, these students simultaneously expressed a sense of anxiety, apprehension, and fear to study in the United States as non-citizens, mostly tied to the election of President Trump and his administration. They admitted feeling insecure about their future work experience in the United States amid the rumor on cuts to Optional Practical Training, restrictions on H-1B visas, and the renegotiation of the North American Free Trade Agreement (p. 436). The most imminent limitation of this research is that these students who participated in the interviews had already committed to their studies in the States; thus, whether prospective students would be willing to make the same commitment in the upcoming years is still under question (Johnson, 2018).

In another study, the Tolman conducted one-on-one, semi-structured interviews with 8 undergraduate students enrolled with F-1 visas at a mid-sized, private university located in a large midwestern city in the U.S. The findings strengthen the argument that the current political climate has made a notable impact, both negative and positive, on the international student population in general and the U.S. educational system in particular (p. 40). Many students believed that the current administration had created a fearful environment. Even though not all students said they felt fearful themselves, they sensed that many around them were concerned about the influence and uncertainty of the Trump administration’s policies restricting immigration and increasing visa denials. The emotional responses of the participants included fear, anger, empathy, and detachment. In contrast, amidst this circumstance, some students cultivated feelings of empowerment and responsibility. These students claimed that their interest in politics and awareness to protect themselves against discrimination became even more salient thanks to the current political climate. The limitations faced by the research are that this study is relatively small and cannot be generalized. However, this group of students was diverse in terms of national, religious, racial, and ethnic backgrounds (Tolman, 2018). These findings contribute to the literature on the broader international student population.

**Background**

With the United States as one of the top destinations for studying abroad and further education, social and economic changes can play key roles in international students’ decisions to attend universities in the United States. Therefore, it is integral to examine one of the most important historical events and its potential effect on the enrollment of international students. The institutional types in which international students enrolled are doctorate-granting universities, master’s colleges and universities, baccalaureate colleges, associate’s colleges, and special focus institutions. For the past 70 years, the total number of international students from these institutional types has grown steadily, increasing every year for at least the past 12 years at the rate of at least 1.5 percent, from 2005-2006 to 2017-2019 academic years. The 2018-2019 academic year marked the fourth consecutive year with more than one million international students (Institute of International Education, 2019), as demonstrated in Figure 1. However, the number of 2018-2019 total international student enrollments signal a declining growth compared to the rate of previous years when there was only a 0.05 percent change from the 2017-2018 academic year. Even though the number still suggests an increase, this upsurge is insignificant. This result could be potentially explained by the current unfavorable climate for international students specifically and immigrants in general.

International students not only contribute generously to the economy with tuition dollars, but also with expenditures such as rent, books, food, spending on travel, tourism, and entertainment. International students contributed $41 billion to the U.S. economy during the 2018-2019 academic year, according to the Association of International Educators (NAFSA, 2019). International students, because of their diversity, also bring new perspectives into the classroom and enrich the knowledge of higher education. This knowledge is used to prepare students to become global citizens. These students are also a foremost source of skilled labor workers, especially in technology industries. NAFSA's latest analysis finds that international students studying at U.S. colleges and universities supported 458,290 high-skilled jobs in the U.S. economy during the 2018-2019 academic year (NAFSA, 2019).

New international student enrollment in 2018-19 — students enrolling for the first time at a U.S. institution in fall 2018 — decreased by 0.9 percent (Institute of International Education, 2019). In 2017-18, new international student enrollment fell by 7 percent. In 2016-2017, for the first time in more than a decade, new international student enrollments declined by 3 percent. This year marked the third consecutive year of declining new international enrollment and flat overall enrollment. The growth rate of students choosing to study in the United States continues to decline, while competitor countries experience double-digit growth (Canada up 16%; Australia up 15%). NAFSA estimates the continued decline in international student enrollment since fall 2016 has cost the U.S. economy $11.8 billion and more than 65,000 jobs (NAFSA, 2019).

These new international students consist of undergraduate, graduate, and non-degree students. While the number of graduate students in the 2018-2019 academic year demonstrated a 1.6 percent increase from that in 2017-2018, both the number of undergraduate and non-degree students in the same year illustrated a decrease. In particular, non-degree students expressed a sharp decline of 5.7 percent from the 2017-2018 academic year. Undergraduate students experienced a slight decrease of 1.5 percent (Institute of International Education, 2019).

Even though there have been several studies attempting to establish the link between President Trump and declining international student enrollment, this paper will take on a quantitative approach aiming to elucidate the potential impact of President Trump’s election and his immigration policies on international students. I acknowledge that his policies do not directly target international students. However, a significant body of current and potential international students who aim to seek permanent residence through work sponsorship after their graduations found the current political climate unwelcoming and discouraging. This research pursues to explore and answer the question of whether Trump’s election and his anti-immigrant policies decreased the number of international students.

**Methodology and Data**

In order to understand the magnitude of the potential impact of President Trump’s immigration policies on international students, a quantitative approach was selected. This study builds upon prior research which utilized gravity regressions to examine the association between international enrollment, various economic factors, such as GDP, exchange rates, and bilateral trade, and labor market openness, measured by the H-1B program (Shih, 2016). Using this framework, I introduce a dummy variable to control for the effect of President Trump on international students enrollment before and after the election. The dummy variable takes the value of 0 before the election and 1 otherwise. I then include previously considered impactful determinants, consisting of both push and pull factors, to examine the established relationship. In short, push factors are variables responsible for the force that makes students to leave their origin countries and seek education or even immigration in the United States. On the other hand, pull factors are reasons for international students to choose the United States as their destination.

The analysis uses the following regression model:

log(Ect) = α + β1log(GDPct) + β2log(XRct) + β3log(IMct) + β4log(EXct) + β5log(INCWAGEct) + β6log(H1Bct-1) + β7TRUMP

Ect represents the total number of international students from country c enrolled in U.S. higher education in year t. The push factors, the reasons to leave the origin countries, of each country c are captured through GDP (GDP), exchange rate (XR), and imports (IM) and exports (EX) variables. These variables act as measurement for the “strength of ties” between origin countries and the United States (Shih, 2016). The pull factors, reasons to migrate, include international students’ expected earnings from studying in the United States: the average wages of college educated immigrants in the United States by country of origin, and the number of H-1B visas issued to each country c in year t. Because of the nature of the H-1B application process, international students usually respond to 1-year lags of H-1B issuances. Therefore, I use H-1B issuances lagged one year. All these control variables were included in previous research; thus, I believe it would be imperative to include them in my analysis for the sake of increasing the fitness of the regression model.

Most importantly, TRUMP is a dummy variable which answers the research question of whether Trump’s election and his policies decreased the number of international students. The sign and magnitude of the coefficient β6 determines whether there was an effect and its extent of the above event on international students enrollment.

1. Data

The principal source of data on international enrollment in the United States is from the Institute of International Education (IIE). I collected the total number of international student enrollment as well as the number of international students by academic level, which is divided into four categories: undergraduate students, graduate students, OPT students, and non-degree students. The data counts by 25 countries of origin for the 2010-2011 academic years through 2018-2019 (e.g., Fall 2010 for the 2010-2011 academic year) from Open Doors reports. I intentionally chose the top 25 countries of origin instead of all countries of origin because these top 25 countries contribute more than 80% of all international enrollment for 9 consecutive years from 2010-2011 to 2018-2019. China and India, specifically, account for 52% of international students in 2018-2019 (Institute of International Education, 2019).

Data for control variables are from different sources. GDP by country level is extracted from the Penn World Tables for the eight-year period from 2010-2017. I use expenditure-side real GDP, which is calculated at chained Purchasing Power Parties (PPPs) (in mil. 2011US$) to compare relative living standards across countries and over time. This expenditure-side real GDP helps capture a more accurate picture of how the cost of living may differ across countries. Since the latest version 9.1 of the Penn World Tables only includes the GDP up to 2017, I use GDP, PPP (constant 2011 international $) from the World Bank data.

Exchange rates, the ratio of home currency per USD, also are retrieved from the Penn World Tables. The 2018 exchange rates of France, Germany, South Korea, Spain, Taiwan and Venezuela, specifically, are the mean of their corresponding three latest years since the figures are not available. Exchange rate variable accounts for the wage differential between the two economics and the economic incentive for international students. Moreover, the fluctuation in exchange rates affect the chances of studying abroad in the United States by decreasing or increasing the cost of attending schools there. These costs could comprise of living expense, tuition fees, transportation expense, and application fees.

Trade linkages between countries may foster other types of interaction, including education or labor exchange (Shih, 2016). The import and export values, sorted by country level, come from Harmonized System (HS) District-level Data, U.S. census data.

To account for U.S. demand conditions, I present a measure of the expected U.S. wage for students from each origin country every year from 2010 to 2018 by calculating the median annual wage of immigrants (not a citizen) with a bachelor’s degree or higher from IPUMS USA database. Since the data, which is at individual level, was not normally distributed, the decision to calculate the median wage instead of average wage was necessary.

Finally, the H-1B visas by country level come from the Nonimmigrant Visa Issuances by Visa Class and Nationality from the State Department. Even though H-1B visa issuance is an imperfect measurement of labor market openness or policy openness since changes in H-1B could potentially attribute to U.S. labor demand or foreign labor supply, the nexus between foreign students and the H-1B program arises organically (Shih, 2016). H-1B visas are mandatory for international students to be eligible to work in the United States after graduation. Thus, the number of H1-B issuances in the previous year could be influential to the future number of international students arriving in U.S. Moreover, any H-1B policy that alters labor market openness may have consequences for international students.

1. Results

Table 1 presents fixed-effect (within) regression results of enrollment of students from 25 origin countries from 2010 to 2018. The data includes 225 observations. In addition to running a regression on the total number of international student enrollment, I collected the data for each academic level, including OPT, and applied the pooled regression model with fixed effect on country. Even though TRUMP coefficients of total international student enrollment and undergraduate international student enrollment bear negative signs, these results are not statistically significant. Graduate enrollment and OPT enrollment even yield a positive coefficient, suggesting the Trump election and his administration may have had zero to little effects on discouraging international students to study in the United States. The only group that produces a statistically significant result at 1% level is non-degree students. The Trump coefficient, shown in table 1, implies the enrollment of non-degree students fell by 31 percent after Trump was elected. However, it is important to emphasize that my research does not reflect a causal relationship. The results only serve as guide to report the number of international students before and after Trump’s election.

Interestingly, the exchange rate is found to have a strong and significant positive association with the level of international student enrollment. The exchange rate is defined as the price of foreign currency in terms of U.S. dollars. The higher price of U.S. currency seems to attract more undergraduate students even though the affordability for education has decreased. The estimated coefficient for exchange rate suggests a 10 percent increase in exchange rate is on average associated with a 7.3 percent increase in the volume of student flows. This phenomenon could be explained by saying that that the students recognize the attractiveness of U.S. dollars compared to their home countries’ currencies; thus, they will be more encouraged to mobilize into a country with higher currency with the hope they could earn that desired wage when enter the labor market.

**Discussion**

1. Explanation

There are many external and internal factors contributing to the decision to study abroad and the model that I utilize may fail to capture them. Some U.S. college leaders have blamed White House rhetoric, visa delays, and global tensions for discouraging international students (Perez, 2019). However, the decline in growth rate in student mobility could be sheerly because of growing competition from abroad and more attractive alternatives other than studying in the United States. This concern could be proved through the low r-squared values across all groups, except OPT enrollment, indicating that there are potentially other variables not mentioned that capture the outcome.

Moreover, due to the time lagging effect, the drop can only be observed starting from 2017 for undergraduate student enrollment and OPT enrollment. The feasible explanation for the statistically significant result of the non-degree coefficient is that it had already experienced the decline even before Trump’s election.

I also acknowledge the time constraint on the data when, if accounting for the time lagging effect, the data is only available for two years after Trump’s election. Furthermore, students can respond to more than one-year lag effect. My analysis thus far has only used one-year lags of H-1B, and I did not represent the lagging effect on Trump coefficient. Closer monitoring and further analysis are needed in order to better understand the trend of international student mobility in the Trump Era.

1. Robustness

I implemented a robustness check that includes the enrollment’s trends for each category before and after 2016. Table 2 displays the results when including the variable controlling for that trend, test. Test is a variable hybrid between TRUMP and trend. The coefficients suggest that there is a significant change in the enrollment trend for undergraduate students and non-degree students. The results are confirmed in Figure 3. Before 2016, there was a distinct upward trending for undergraduate international student enrollment. However, after 2016, there was a slight decline in undergraduate enrollment. The same incident occurred with the non-degree student body. The decrease in non-degree student enrollment, nevertheless, was less severe since this had already been declining since 2014, as shown in Figure 2. The results from my robustness analysis reinforce my prior finding about the decrease of non-degree students’ enrollment.

1. Economic Impact

Could a 31 percent decrease in the number of non-degree student enrollment conceivably translate into a significant impact on the U.S. economy? We can attempt a very crude calculation to shed light on this matter. Non-degree students are only a small group of students with specific academic goals. They can only take a limited number of credits at universities. The rate per credit varies across institutions. The average cost per credit hour is $594 (Kirkham, 2018). Non-degree students are not considered full-time student; thus, they are allowed a maximum of 9 credits. On average, a non-degree student contributes $5,346 to U.S. economy in terms of tuition fees. There were 59,236 international students enrolled as non-degree seekers in 2016. A 31 percent decrease equals approximately 18,363 students cut and $98 million dollars lost. Even though this number is seemingly large, it does not have a major impact on the U.S. economy, which exceeds 19 trillion in 2017. Furthermore, comparing to $41 billion dollars contributed by the total body of international students to the U.S. economy in 2018, $98 million dollars contributed by non-degree students only represent an insignificant of 2.4% lost (NAFSA, 2019).

***Conclusion***

Studies about international students studying in the United States, whether about their experiences or perceptions, have gained more attention and emerged from contemporary scholars over the last few years. Even though the total number of international student enrollment continues to rise, the number of newly enrolled students is dropping. Moreover, the annual growing rate of total international students has slowed down. Some research suggests that President Trump’s policies against immigrants is to be blame for this decline. Even though Trump did not directly target international student segmentation in his policies, the unwelcoming political environment against immigrants he created could be a discouraging factor for international students’ decisions to study in the United States.

This paper provides an empirical analysis of the effect of Trump’s election on the quantity of international students in the United States. It is worth noting that the sample size is large enough to be generalizable. It is also diverse and representative for almost all the continents in the world. According to the findings, the only group of students that was affected by this event was non-degree students. However, the economic impact of this decline is quite trivial compared to the enormous scale of U.S. economy. This paper also faced two major limitations, including the lack of responsible independent variables and time constraint. A final limitation of the study pertains to the inability to establish causal relationship between Trump’s policies and international students’ mobility. I must emphasize that Trump’s policies against immigration did not lead to this decrease.

Ultimately, I believe a continued thorough study and updated data will give a more complete picture of the impact of Trump’s election in specific and the changes in political climate in general to the international students’ determinants to mobilize.

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**Table 1**

*Panel Regressions of International Enrollment, 2010-2018*

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Total | Under-graduate | Graduate | Non-degree | OPT |
| TRUMP | -0.043  (0.046) | -0.021  (0.044) | 0.015  (0.044) | -0.31\*\*\*  (0.078) | 0.059  (0.053) |
| Trend | -0.073\*\*\*  (0.011) | -0.048\*\*\*  (0.011) | -0.19\*  (0.01) | -0.39\*\*\*  (0.019) | -0.086\*\*\*  (0.013) |
| GDP | -0.27  (0.14) | 0.17  (0.14) | 0.20  (0.14) | 0.36  (0.24) | 0.32  (0.16) |
| Exchange rate | 0.00015\*\*\*  (0.045) | 0.073\*  (0.043) | 0.045  (0.043) | 0.09  (0.076) | 0.10\*  (0.051) |
| Imports | 0.038  (0.03) | -0.032  (0.028) | -0.036  (0.028) | 0.019  (0.049) | -0.038  (0.033) |
| Exports | -0.055  (0.077) | 0.15\*\*  (0.074) | 0.10  (0.074) | -0.015  (0.13) | 0.11  (0.088) |
| Average U.S. wage, college immigrant | -0.15  (0.13) | 0.24  (0.12) | 0.067  (0.12) | -0.19  (0.21) | 0.15  (0.14) |
| H-1B | 0.14  (0.051) | 0.002  (0.49) | 0.054  (0.049) | 0.16\*  (0.087) | 0.057  (0.059) |
| Countries | 25 | 25 | 25 | 25 | 25 |
| Observations | 225 | 225 | 225 | 225 | 225 |
| R­2 | 0.37 | 0.47 | 0.19 | 0.21 | 0.66 |

*Note*: The table shows the results from regressions of international student enrollment, categorized by academic level, from the top 25 leading origin countries to the United States in the period from 2010-2011 to 2018-2019 academic year. Dependent variables are expressed logarithms. Standard errors are displayed in parenthesis. Trend variable is included to normalize the data.

The symbols \*,\*\*,\*\*\* indicate that coefficients are statistically significant at the 10, 5, and 1% levels, respectively.

**Table *2***

*Robustness of International Students Enrollment w/ TRUMP Trend, 2010-2018*

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Dep. Var** | **Total** | **Under-graduate** | **Graduate** | **Non-degree** | **OPT** |
| TRUMP | -0.096  (0.15) | -0.26\*  (0.14) | -0.13  (0.14) | -1.11\*\*\*  (0.24) | -0.052  (0.17) |
| Trend | -0.073\*\*\*  (0.011) | -0.048\*\*\*  (0.011) | -0.19\*  (0.011) | -0.082\*\*\*  (0.019) | -0.086\*\*\*  (0.013) |
| Test | 0.020 | 0.092\* | 0.054 | 0.31\*\*\* | 0.043 |
|  | (0.053) | (0.050) | (0.051) | (0.087) | (0.061) |
| GDP | -0.26\*  (0.14) | 0.19  (0.13) | 0.21  (0.14) | 0.42\*  (0.23) | 0.33\*\*  (0.16) |
| Exchange rate | 0.0021  (0.045) | 0.082\*  (0.043) | 0.05  (0.043) | 0.12  (0.074) | 0.10\*\*  (0.052) |
| Imports | 0.038  (0.029) | -0.032  (0.028) | -0.036  (0.028) | 0.019  (0.048) | -0.037  (0.033) |
| Exports | -0.051  (0.078) | 0.17\*\*  (0.074) | 0.12  (0.074) | 0.053  (0.13) | 0.12  (0.089) |
| Average U.S. wage, college immigrant | -0.14  (0.13) | 0.27\*\*  (0.12) | 0.084  (0.12) | -0.099  (0.21) | 0.16  (0.15) |
| H-1B | 0.14\*\*\*  (0.051) | -0.0079  (0.49) | 0.049  (0.049) | 0.13  (0.084) | 0.057  (0.059) |
| Countries | 25 | 25 | 25 | 25 | 25 |
| Observations | 225 | 225 | 225 | 225 | 225 |
| R2 | 0.37 | 0.48 | 0.20 | 0.27 | 0.66 |

*Note*: The table shows the results from regressions ran for each academic level of international student enrollment when introducing a new variable test (test=TRUMP\*Trend)  to the United States in the period from 2010-2011 to 2018-2019 academic year. Dependent variables are expressed logarithms, except for TRUMP, trend, and test. Standard errors are displayed in parenthesis. Trend variable is included to normalize the data.

The symbols \*,\*\*,\*\*\* indicate that coefficients are statistically significant at the 10, 5, and 1% levels, respectively.

A screenshot of a cell phone

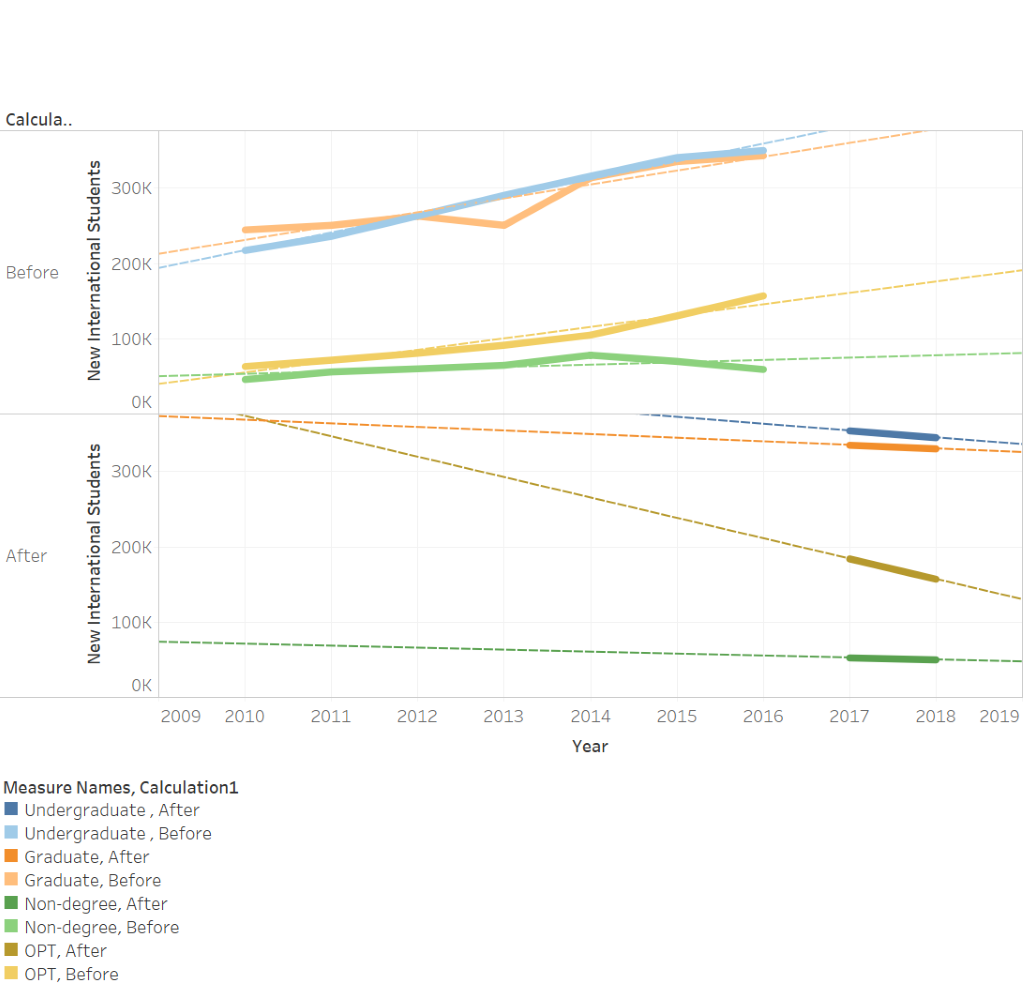
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*Figure 1*. Total International Student Enrollment, 2014-2018. From “International Student Enrollment Trends, 1948/49-2018/19”, by Institute of International Education, 2019. Retrieved from http:/www.iie.org/opendoors.

A close up of a map

Description automatically generated

*Figure 2.* International Student Enrollment by Academic Level and Place of Origin, 2010-2018. Data is aggregated from 25 countries over the period of 9 years. From “International Student by Academic Level and Place of Origin”, by Institute of International Education, 2019. Retrieved from http:/www.iie.org/opendoors.



*Figure 3*. The figure above shows the international students enrollment and its trendline before a-nd after President Trump’s election. The figure below shows the international students enrollment and its trendline after the election. From “International Student by Academic Level and Place of Origin”, by Institute of International Education, 2019. Retrieved from http:/www.iie.org/opendoors.