Social and Economic Conditions of Student Life in Europe.

synopsis of indicators | conference version | eurostudent IV 2008–2011

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The use of travelling is to regulate imagination by reality, and instead of thinking how things may be, to see them as they are.

Samuel Johnson, 1773

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Note on this version of the Synopsis of Indicators

The authors would like to note that this report will be slightly re-worked and extended before being published in book form in October 2011. The book version will include two further chapters. They both provide a more evaluative perspective on the results presented here. The first additional chapter deals with students' assessment of the value of their studies for personal development and for transition into the labour market. It will also look at students' future study plans. The second chapter will provide policy-focussed considerations of the results and will present the authors' view on the relevance of the findings for future developments in the EHEA.

Country abbreviations

In all figures, the following abbreviations will be used to refer to the participating countries.

AT	Austria
CH	Switzerland
CZ	Czech Republic
DE	Germany
DK	Denmark
EE	Estonia
ES	Spain
E_W	England and Wales
FI	Finland
FR	France
HR	Croatia
IE	Ireland
IT	Italy
LT	Lithuania
LV	Latvia
MT	Malta
NL	The Netherlands
NO	Norway
PL	Poland
PT	Portugal
RO	Romania
SE	Sweden
SK	Slovakia
SI	Slovenia
TR	Turkey

Foreword

This publication of the results of EUROSTUDENT IV represents an important contribution to comparative research on European higher education. This study, the fourth in a series, provides a comprehensive Synopsis of Indicators on the social and economic life of students from 25 countries. The EUROSTUDENT research programme has evolved from modest beginnings; only eight countries were included in the first study published in 2000; eleven countries were included in the 2005 study while the 2008 publication involved 23 countries. The increased scope in coverage has been matched by a corresponding development in methodological sophistication.

It is a compliment to the initiators of this research programme that their acuity and strategic thinking has been recognised by key decision makers who have been entrusted with developing the European Higher Education Area. Both the European Union (Council of the European Union, 2010) and the Ministers responsible for higher education in the forty-seven countries involved in the Bologna Process (Leuven/Louvain-la-Neuve Communiqué, 2009) have come to emphasise increasingly the importance of the 'social dimension' of higher education policy. Both have recognised that a precondition for making progress on this dimension is the availability of relevant and reliable data on social dimensions and on mobility. The findings from the EUROSTUDENT Surveys have come to form an important element in the creation of this data base which will be used for policy development and evaluation. Thus, what started out as a modest comparative research project has acquired a strategic importance in European higher education policy making.

The increasing importance of comparative research such as reported here is linked to the nature of the 'governance processes' used by the European Union and in the wider Bologna Process. Both have adopted the Open Method of Co-ordination (OMC) which operates by securing agreement in respect of joint policy objectives through agreed declarations and commitments and through institutionalising stocktaking mechanisms which monitor and benchmark achievements and report on best practice. Comparative research enables policy makers to place the experiences, successes and achievements in their own country within the context of what is happening in other countries. Although perhaps less appreciated it also offers scope for supranational organisations to influence policy making at national level.

The Synopsis of Indicators reported here replicates those from the earlier studies, especially those reported from the 2008 survey. The study provides a wide range of data on: transition routes into higher education; the characteristics and the social make-up of national student populations; types and modes of study; time budget for studies and employment; levels and sources of student financial resources; patterns of living expenses and student spending; types of accommodation; student mobility; and students' assessment of their studies and future plans.[1] This publication on indicators is complemented by a series of National Profiles on each participating country which can be downloaded from the website. These National Profiles report all of the data which a country has delivered and include commentaries by

[1] Not included in this version, but in the final book, which will be published in October 2011.

the national research team on the quality and comparability of the data. A key element of the reporting structure is the online access which is provided to all of the data provided by the national teams. This invaluable resource will facilitate secondary analysis of the data. The dual publication strategy reflects the methodology adopted. The project is centrally coordinated by HIS, Hannover, Germany, in conjunction with an International Consortium which includes members of the EUROSTUDENT network, representing participating countries. Each participating country is responsible for its own national survey; country participation is dependent on the adoption of core questions, central data conventions and agreed time lines in data delivery.

The most striking feature of the results brought together in this report is the demonstration of the heterogeneity of the student population. This is evident in all phases from their transition routes into higher education through the examination of the student characteristics, their study and employment experiences, their resources and living conditions and their experience of mobility. This detailed profiling of the social and economic conditions of students points to the inadequacy of many of the administrative categories used to characterise the student population. For example, while on average 86% of the student population are classified as full-time, and in five countries part-time status does not exist formally, a very significant percentage of students are de facto part-timers (spending not more than 20 hours per week on their studies). In some countries the link between formal status and the time students allot to their studies is weak. More than 20% of students with a full-time status spend no more than 20 hours per week on study-related activities in some countries. In contrast, on average, nearly one-fifth of part-time students spend more than 30 hours per week on their studies. Variation in study-intensity is related to student employment which is frequent in all countries. Predictably, students with a significant work commitment (those working more than 15 hours per week), which is common in some countries, devote less time to study-related activities.

Much of the heterogeneity in the student experience is related to age. About one-third of students are aged 25 or over. Older students are more likely to have entered by an ‘alternative route’, to have come from lower socio-economic groups and are more likely to be de facto part-time students with higher levels of employment. While in most countries the dominant form of housing among all students is living with parents, older students are more likely to be living with partners/children. While it is still the case that about two-thirds of students take a direct route from school leaving to higher education, this report provides an important insight into the varied experience of the other one-third, examining the extent of the delayed entry and of prior experience of the labour market and the kind of alternative qualifications presented. Large country variations are evident on these dimensions.

The mobility experience of higher education students is also a differentiating factor in the student experience. The foreign enrolment rates vary from below 5% in many Eastern European counties to more than 10% in Scandinavian countries and in the Netherlands. However, the authors argue that, if future intentions to participate in study-related activities are taken into account, the potential foreign enrolment rates are likely to exceed the 20% goal in the majority of countries. Foreign enrolment is socially selective and while public support is the primary source of funding in most countries, the foreign enrolment experience also requires support from family.

The level and sources of student resources are highly variable. While the level of funding reflects relative levels of affluence in different countries, there is even more variability in the relative contribution made by parents/partners, income from employment and income from the public purse. For eleven countries employment is the main source of student income; for six other countries, family/partner is the main source of income; while in the other six countries for which data are available, public support is the main source of income. The study offers an important analysis of the level of concentration of income in the different countries, i.e. whether income levels are similar across the study body (low concentration) or divergent (high concentration). Differentiating between four separate levels of concentration; the countries with the highest levels of concentration are Ireland, the Slovak Republic, the Czech Republic and Latvia, while the Netherlands, Germany, Denmark, Switzerland and Malta have lowest levels of concentration. While acknowledging the importance of this finding on the very different economic conditions confronted by student within particular countries, the authors have not been able to find any simple explanation for this difference. However levels of public support and relative reliance on self-earned income would appear to be significant in at least some instances.

The data on student expenditure reveal that in all countries students have to spend the biggest share of their income on living costs. For 16 of the 20 countries for whom these data are available the percentage of monthly income spent on living expenses exceeds 75% of total expenditure for students not resident with their parents. And even for students living with their parents, expenditure on living expenses exceeds study-related costs in all countries; for 12 of the 20 countries for whom we have data living expenses consume 75% or more of total expenditure. Expenditure on study-related costs accounts for a larger percentage of total expenditure in Lithuania, Malta, Portugal and Turkey.

An important feature of this and of the earlier EUROSTUDENT surveys is the data which they provide on the social make-up of the student body. These data are important both for individual countries and for comparative researchers who have had an abiding interest in examining the role of the higher education system in the reproduction of the class system. For too long those interested in comparative levels of stratification have had to rely on cohort data, which by definition are largely historical, to assess whether increasing enrolments have influenced the levels of inequality. A unique feature of this research programme is the provision of comparative data on the social make-up of the student body, based on *contemporary enrolments*. The study presents data on both the educational and social background of the parents of the higher education students although it is acknowledged that the latter presents more serious measurement problems. In an earlier paper, which reports a secondary analysis of these data from the 2005 and 2008 EUROSTUDENT surveys, I have argued that they provide a relatively robust indicator of comparative inequality in access to higher education in Europe (Clancy, 2010). Furthermore, in respect of those countries for which data were available in both surveys, there was a striking consistency of findings from the 2005 and 2008 surveys. The publication of the data reported here will enable researchers to extend this analysis.

The replication of these surveys, at three year intervals since 2005, and the plans to continue the programme into the future are a critical value-added factor which enhances its importance. While the main rationale for this publication and for each of its predecessors is

the comparative focus, facilitating comparisons of the social and economic conditions of students from 25 European countries, the added dividend arising from repeated rounds of the survey is the scope for analysing changing trends across the European area. Each new round facilitates the monitoring of change over time within individual countries as well as between countries.

Dominic Orr and his colleagues on the project management team at HIS, the six other international partners who constitute the Consortium and the national survey teams are to be congratulated on the successful completion of this fourth EUROSTUDENT survey. They have provided us with a fascinating picture of the social and economic conditions of higher education students in Europe. This Synopsis of Indicators, together with the associated national reports and the online data base, provide an important resource for higher education policy makers and researchers.

Professor Patrick Clancy, University College Dublin

Chapter 1 – Introduction

Context of the Synopsis: Monitoring the social dimension of higher education in Europe

The Synopsis of Indicators is a compendium of key indicators on the social dimension of higher education. It presents the findings of the 4th round of the EUROSTUDENT project. In line with the suggestions of the Bologna Process Working on the Social Dimension and Mobility (Swedish Ministry of Education and Research, 2007) and the stipulations of the London Communiqué (2007), the authors of the Synopsis understand the social dimension as the process leading to the outcome that "the student body entering, participating in and completing higher education at all levels [reflects] the diversity of (…) populations" (p. 5) in the European Higher Education Area (EHEA). In higher education systems with a strong social dimension, students should be able "to complete their studies without obstacles related to their social and economic background" (p. 5).

In recent years, strengthening the social dimension of higher education has become a key political goal within the EHEA. This endeavour is pursued based on the belief that equitable higher education systems not only contribute to creating equal opportunities for individuals, but also to fostering the cohesion of European societies and to establishing a basis for increasing the competitiveness of European economies (Council of the European Union, 2010). The London Communiqué and the Council conclusions on the Education and Training 2020 Framework (Council of the European Union, 2009) highlighted the fact that designing policies to promote the social dimension of higher education requires the availability of relevant and reliable data depicting the status quo. In fact, these documents acknowledge "the need to improve the availability of data on both mobility and the social dimension across all the countries participating in the Bologna Process" (p. 6).

With a view to complementing the existing, official data collection mechanisms, the EUROSTUDENT Network has accepted the challenge of building a framework to monitor the social and economic conditions of student life in Europe and to provide policy-relevant analyses. In the London Communiqué (2007), "the European Commission (Eurostat), in conjunction with Eurostudent, [were asked to] develop comparable and reliable indicators and data to measure progress towards the overall objective for the social dimension and student and staff mobility in all Bologna countries" (p. 6). The result of the collaboration between Eurostat and EUROSTUDENT was a publication presenting a set of key indicators on the social dimension and mobility (Eurostat & HIS, 2009). This publication stressed that progress had been made in the development of a monitoring architecture for the social dimension of higher education. At the same time, it emphasised that establishing a European-wide monitoring system takes time and that many challenges remained in improving the comparability of the existing national statistical data sources. Against this background, the authors hope for the EUROSTUDENT IV Synopsis of Indicators to contribute to the ongoing process of establishing a European-wide monitoring infrastructure on the social dimension of higher education.

The EUROSTUDENT Network

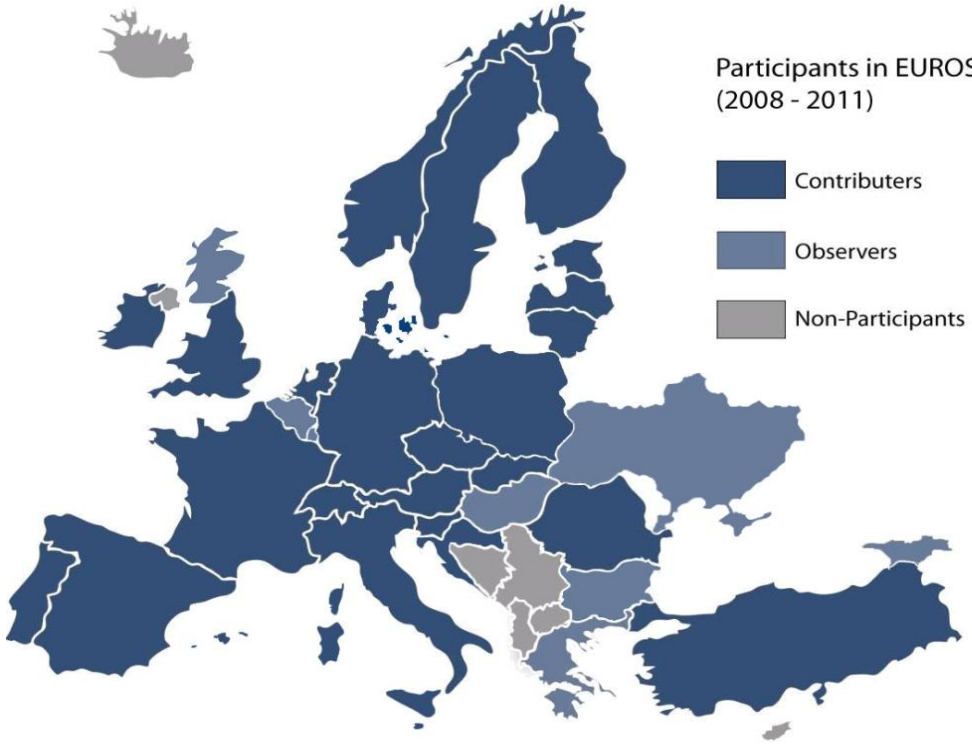
EUROSTUDENT is a network of researchers as well as data collectors, representatives of national ministries and stakeholders who have joined forces to examine the social and economic conditions of student life in higher education systems in Europe. The work of the EUROSTUDENT Network is based on the conviction that cross-country comparisons facilitate learning about the strengths and weaknesses or simply idiosyncrasies of other higher education systems and – thereby – help

countries to see their own higher education system in a new light. Currently, 25 countries are active contributors to the EUROSTUDENT Network and have provided data for the 4th Synopsis of Indicators. A further 8 countries have an observer status (Belgium, Bulgaria, Georgia, Greece, Hungary, Luxemburg, Scotland, Ukraine); they are being updated about the main developments within the Network and occasionally attend EUROSTUDENT events. An overview of participating and observing countries is given in Figure 1.1. More information on the contributing network members can be found in → Appendix B.

The 4th round of EUROSTUDENT lasted from November 2008 to October 2011. It was made possible by the funding of the European Commission (Lifelong Learning Programme, LLP) and the contributions of national project sponsors. Considerable national contributions came especially from the German Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF) and the Dutch Ministry of Education, Culture and Science (MinOCW).

Since the creation of the EUROSTUDENT Network in 1999, the project has been managed by combining a central coordination approach with the principle of shared responsibility. The central coordination is led by the Higher Education Information System (HIS), which is based in Hannover, Germany. In its function as central coordinator, HIS is the head of a consortium consisting of 7 international partners. Next to HIS, these partners are the Institute for Advanced Studies (IHS, Vienna, Austria), the Centre for Control and Assessment of Quality in Education (ЦКОКО, Sofia, Bulgaria), the Federation of Estonian Student Unions (EÜL, Tallinn, Estonia), the Ministry of Education, Culture and Science (MinOCW, Den Haag, The Netherlands), the Nordic Institute for Studies in Innovation, Research and Education (NIFU, Oslo, Norway) and the Centre for Higher Education Research and Innovation (CHERI, London, England). Each of these partners has its own responsibilities within the Network (Figure 1.2). The work of the Consortium is supported by a international steering board, which gives advice in strategic terms. Members of this board represent

Fig. 1.1 The EUROSTUDENT Network – Overview of contributors and observers

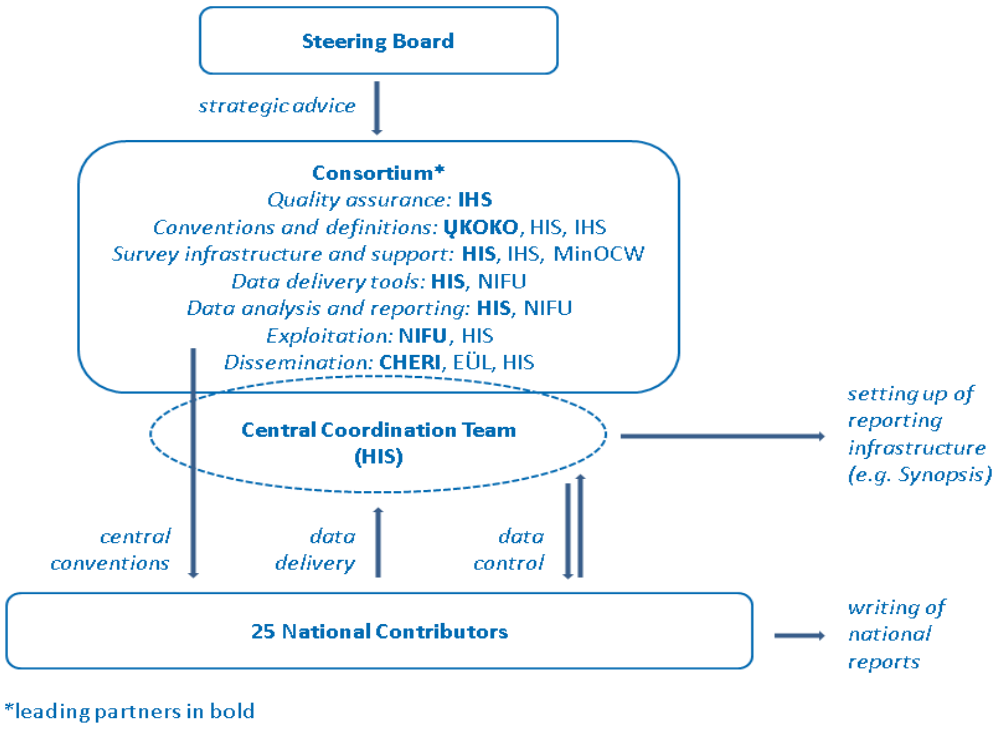


the European Commission (EC), the European University Association (EUA), the European Students' Union (ESU), the Council of Europe, the Bologna Follow-Up Group (BFUG) and the German Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF).

The implementation of the national student surveys lies within the responsibility of the contributing countries. If a country wants to become a contributor to the EUROSTUDENT project, it has to adopt the EUROSTUDENT Conventions and use the core questionnaire. Throughout the project, the central coordinators remain in close contact with the members of the contributing countries to assure a common understanding of and thus the compliance with the central data conventions. Common timelines must also be respected. Once data are delivered by the national contributors, they are evaluated by the central coordinators as well as a task force on data quality based at the IHS. Only after further discussions and several plausibility checks with the national teams are the data analysed and published in the Synopsis.

The network character of the project enables to draw on the knowledge of experts from different countries. This assures that the design of the project is suitable for international comparative analyses and that country-specific context information is respected, which is indispensable for a balanced interpretation of data from such a large and diverse group of countries.

Fig. 1.2 Organisation of responsibilities within the EUROSTUDENT Network



Data collection conventions and mechanisms

The EUROSTUDENT project was initiated in 1999 by researchers from countries in which national student surveys existed already. Therefore, an output harmonisation approach was adopted. This is to say that the countries which first joined EUROSTUDENT are still conducting their national student surveys according to their national information needs. At the same time, however, they make provisions to guarantee the data collected are compatible with the standardised EUROSTUDENT principles.

The set of tools intended to ensure the comparability and quality of the data collected is commonly referred to as the EUROSTUDENT Conventions. These Conventions have ripened over the EUROSTUDENT project cycles and are the result of many discussions during a variety of project meetings, intensive seminars, workshops and conferences organised by the EUROSTUDENT Network. They are recorded in a number of handbooks that are at the disposition of all national contributors as well as the interested public.[1] To begin with, the Conventions comprise definitions of the most important constructs being used in the national surveys (➝ Data Delivery Handbook). Secondly, they include a core questionnaire with 47 questions that should be embedded into all national surveys (➝ Appendix D). This – thirdly – allows the national distributors to deliver data on 81 precisely described subtopics (➝ Data Delivery Handbook). Finally, methodological guidelines for the execution of the national surveys have been elaborated during the 4th round on EUROSTUDENT (➝ Handbook on the Planning and Execution of Online Surveys). Next to the core questionnaire, the most important methodological specification concerns the standard target group to be surveyed by the national contributors (Box 1.1).

Box 1.1 – The standard target group of EUROSTUDENT IV

Following a survey among administrators, researchers and users of EUROSTUDENT data as well as a workshop in Vienna in December 2008, the EUROSTUDENT Network has agreed on a standard target group of students to be surveyed by all national contributors. An optional target group was also defined, but this is not covered in the Synopsis of Indicators (➝ Data Delivery Handbook). In defining the standard target group, the achievements of previous rounds of EUROSTUDENT as well as the UOE Data Conventions were taken account of. The following is the standard target group of EUROSTUDEN IV.

- Students who currently have a permanent residency in the respective country and who have finished their prior education in the respective country, independent of their citizenship
- Both full-time and part-time students, differentiated by their formal status
- Students in ISCED 5A programmes (Bachelor, Master and all other types of national programmes at ISCED level 5A)
- Students at all higher education institutions offering programmes at ISCED level 5A (specialist higher education institutions such as military academies are excluded)
- Distance students, provided that they are not at a mere distance education institution (such as the Open University in the United Kingdom or the FernUniversität Hagen in Germany)

On the one hand, the EUROSTUDENT Conventions are meant to help countries improve and align their national survey methodologies, so as to allow for cross-country comparisons based on the data collected. On the other hand, they provide orientation to researchers in those countries where student surveys have been implemented only in the context of the EUROSTUDENT project. It is intended that the current output harmonisation approach will in the long-term be superseded by an input harmonisation approach, i.e. once all Conventions are fully implemented by all participating

[1] All EUROSTUDENT Handbooks can be found on the project website: http://www.eurostudent.eu/about/docs/index_html

countries. For the time being, however, it should be noted that countries sometimes cannot fully comply with the EUROSTUDENT Conventions (Box 1.2). In case the national contributors judge their data to be of limited international comparability, this is noted in the so-called Data Reporting Module (DRM). The DRM is a publicly accessible online database containing data and comments on the EUROSTUDENT indicators; it is further described below.

Box 1.2 – Note on the national samples

For a number of reasons, some countries cannot fully comply with the EUROSTUDENT Conventions. One important reason is that national contributors who executed student surveys already before the initiation of EUROSTUDENT intend to ensure the comparability of their data across rounds, which would not be possible if they followed all Conventions. Another reason is that a few countries have redefined the target group of their surveys (e.g. by including ISCED 5B students), the reason being that the EUROSTUDENT standard target group does not reflect the majority of their student populations. Below, an overview of the most important deviations of national samples from the EUROSTUDENT Conventions is provided. More details on the national samples are available in → Appendix C.

- Denmark: The Danish sample includes only ordinary full-time students that do not pay fees. Part-time students, who have to pay fees, are not included. Students with high education background (ISCED 5-6) are overrepresented.
- Estonia: The Estonian sample includes students enrolled in professional higher education programmes at ISCED level 5B.
- Latvia: The Latvian sample includes only full-time students.
- Malta: The Maltese sample comprises all students enrolled at ISCED levels 5A and 6. Apart from students being in Malta with the ERASMUS programme, all students who have obtained their higher education entrance qualification outside the country are included in the sample.
- Portugal: The Portuguese sample was drawn from two sources, the pool of recipients of statal support and a register which captures all students entering public higher education. The register, however, was introduced only in 2008. For these reasons, students receiving statal support and young students are overrepresented in the Portuguese raw sample, which was attenuated through the weighting procedure.

In the national surveys, different survey instruments were used. However, with a view to improving the comparability of the data collected, the national contributors were encouraged to use online surveys. In fact, the majority of countries used online surveys as their main survey instrument in the 4th round of EUROSTUDENT (Figure 1.3).[2]

Figure 1.3 – Main survey instruments used by national contributors

	Online survey	Paper and pencil	Face-to-face interview	Telephone interview
Countries	AT, CH, CZ, DK, EE, ES, FI, FR, HR, IE, MT, NO, NL, PL, PT, RO, SI, TR	DE, LV, SE, SK	LT, E/W	IT
Total number	18	4	2	1

The main technical device for the output harmonisation approach is the so-called Data Delivery Module (DDM). This is an online interface through which the national data providers deliver their data centrally to the Coordination Team. The national teams do not provide the coordinators with raw micro data, but with aggregate data on 81 predefined subtopics. For each of these subtopics, a precise description of the pertaining indicators and the manner they should be calculated is available on the DDM platform, so that countries are guided through the data delivery process. This shall assure their adherence to the Conventions whilst calculating the indicators.

As a further means of quality control, data providers are automatically shown the results of their data entries as on-the-fly graphics. This helps them to identify mistakes in the data (e.g. in case staple bars which are supposed to do not add up to 100% or the resulting data pattern is different to the one expected). Most importantly, national researchers comment on the data they provide. This not only helps the Coordination Team in interpreting the data. It is also a valuable aid to orientation for interested researchers wishing to work with the EUROSTUDENT data themselves. In fact, all data provided by the national contributors and their commentaries on the data are made available at the end of the project via the so-called Data Reporting Module (DRM). The DRM is an element of the EUROSTUDENT reporting infrastructure, as will be explained below.

Scope of the Synopsis within the EUROSTUDENT reporting infrastructure

The main target groups of the Synopsis are higher education policy makers and stakeholders at national and European level (e.g. ministerial bureaucrats, members of the BFUG and representatives of interest groups such as ESU). An ancillary target group are representatives of other pertinent research projects and individual researchers who would like to use EUROSTUDENT data. The selection of these target groups explains the structure and layout of the Synopsis.

The *Synopsis* is the main deliverable of the EUROSTUDENT IV project, but by no means the only one. It should be considered as being embedded into an elaborate reporting infrastructure. While the Synopsis is designed to adopt a broad, comparative perspective and mostly presents analyses on an aggregate level, the other elements of the reporting infrastructure provide in-depth analyses of chosen themes and more country-specific context knowledge.

[2] Croatia, Denmark, Malta, Poland and Slovenia were given particular support to carry out online surveys through the project's Common Survey Hosting (CSH) component, which was operated by ResearchNED and the IHS.

A key element of the reporting infrastructure is the so-called *Data Reporting Module (DRM)*. This is a publicly accessible online database containing the totality of data gathered from the national contributors. The data are commented by the national teams. The DRM can be used by the interested public wishing to learn more about the interpretation of a specific indicator or by researchers wishing to work with the EUROSTUDENT data themselves. For each indicator, data sheets with all entries from all countries can be downloaded from the DRM.

For all countries, so-called *National Profiles* are available through the DRM.[3] These profiles are downloadable reports containing all data that a country has delivered on the set of EUROSTUDENT indicators. In addition, they include the commentaries made by the national research teams on the quality and comparability of their data. For the majority of indicators, interpretations of the data from a national perspective are also available.

The *EUROSTUDENT events* should equally be considered as an element of the reporting infrastructure. Throughout the project lifetime, a number of project meetings, intensive seminars, workshops as well as conferences were carried out. On each of these occasions, findings of members of the EUROSTUDENT Network were presented and discussed. These meetings are always coordinated with national ministries or agencies of higher education to assure the technical and methodological discussions leading to the generation of indicators that are policy-relevant.

Next to these elements, which lie in the responsibility of the Central Coordination Team, there are other crucial elements that the national teams are in charge of. Most importantly, the majority of national teams publish *national reports*. These reports include in-depth analyses of students' social and economic conditions within a specific country. They are often based on time series data and can therefore present analyses of changes over time.

A few countries publish special *associated reports*. These reports adopt the perspective of a single country and discuss their data in an international comparison, i.e. against the background of data from all or a selection of EUROSTUDENT countries. By bringing in an international perspective, these reports highlight idiosyncrasies of national higher education system that could not be observed from a strictly national perspective. A number of reports in this vein will be produced within the framework of EUROSTUDENT IV (e.g. for Germany).[4]

To complement the existing reporting infrastructure, a new instrument is currently being developed: so-called *Intelligence Briefs*. These are short, stimulating documents presenting information and interpretive help on specific topics covered in the EUROSTUDENT data set. They may be focused analytically on a certain topic area or certain group of students or stylistically on a certain target reader group.

Structure of the report

The structure of the 4th Synopsis of Indicators is the result of a discussion process involving the entire EUROSTUDENT Network. Inter alia, this process aimed at further improving the structure and at

[3] The National Profiles for both EUROSTUDENT III and EUROSTUDENT IV can be downloaded from the project website: http://www.eurostudent.eu/results/profiles

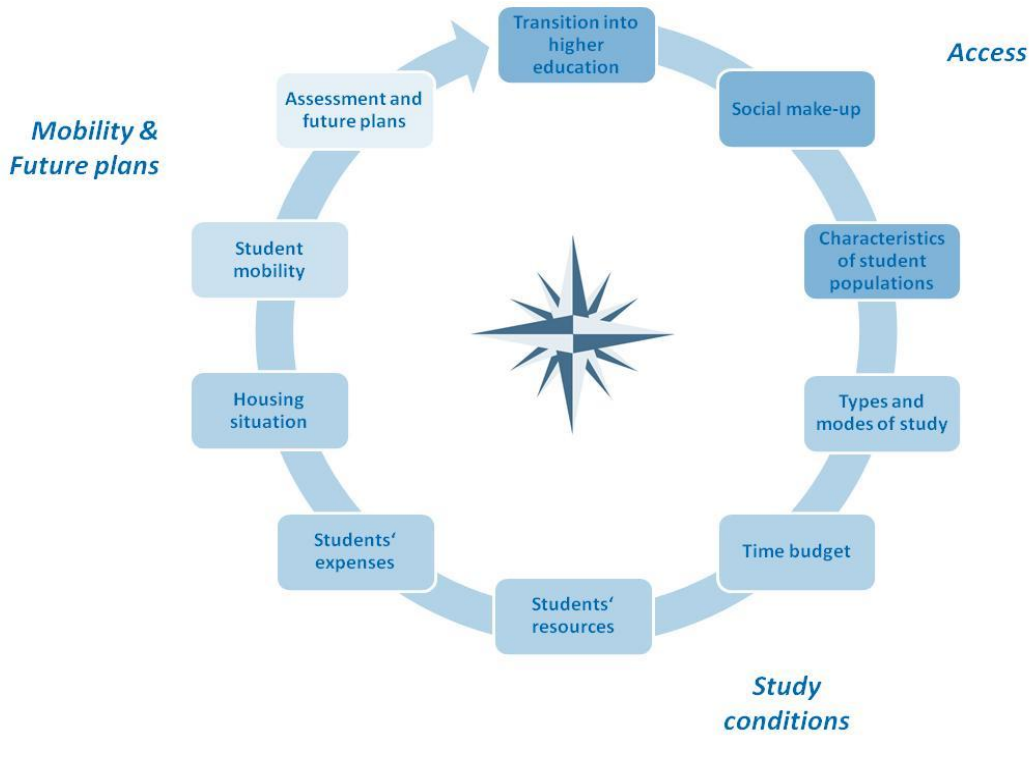
[4] On the project website (www.eurostudent.eu), an example of an associated report produced in the 3rd round of EUROSTUDENT can be found: Office fédéral de la statistique (2008). *La dimension sociale dans les hautes écoles*. La Suisse en comparrasion européene. Statisque de la Suisse. Neuchâtel: Office féderal de la statistique. Future associated reports will also be published on the project website.

streamlining the chapter sequence of the EUROSTUDENT III Synopsis of Indicators. The result is illustrated in Figure 1.4.

The Synopsis covers 3 broad topic areas: access, study conditions and a more heterogeneous area comprising the topics of mobility and students' future plans. The chapter sequence reflects a lifelong learning student's course of study, from the transition into higher education to a forecast on future activities. The model underlying Figure 1.4 considers the possibility that students might re-enter higher education at a later stage in their lives – and thereby acknowledges that former 'one-stop students' are gradually becoming lifelong learners. However, it is important to note that EUROSTUDENT is based on student surveys and is therefore not designed to provide information on student graduation or students' transition into the labour market.

The chapters of the Synopsis all follow the same structure. At the beginning of each chapter, the *Key Findings* are summarised on one page. Subsequently, the *Main Issues* dealt with in the respective chapter are pointed out. In detail, this section highlights the main questions which a chapter addresses and puts these questions into a broader political or research context. It also explains methodological issues and discusses the resilience of the data used for the chapter. The main part of each chapter is the section called *Data and Interpretation*. It presents a selection of EUROSTUDENT indicators and interprets them in the light of context knowledge provided by the national teams through the DDM. The majority of chapters include *Boxes* that elaborate on methodological issues or emphasise particularly interesting phenomena visible in individual countries. To conclude this introduction, Box 1.3 brings together all important issues that should be kept in mind whilst reading the Synopsis.

Fig. 1.4 Structure and chapter sequence of the EUROSTUDENT IV Synopsis of Indicators



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Box 1.3 – How to read the Synopsis of Indicators

Notes on the concept of the Synopsis

- *Scope:* The Synopsis is a compendium of key indicators on the social dimension of higher education in 25 countries. It is designed to adopt a broad, comparative perspective. It mostly presents analyses on an aggregate level.
- *Reporting infrastructure:* The Synopsis is embedded into an elaborate reporting infrastructure. In the text, references are made to other elements of the reporting infrastructure. This is indicated by an arrow (e.g. ➞ DRM).
- *Chapter structure:* Each chapter is structured into 3 main sections: Key findings, Main Issues, Data and Interpretation. Additional boxes elaborate upon methodological issues and provide context information on individual countries. In the text, references to other chapters are indicated by an arrow (e.g. ➞ Introduction).
- *Appendices:* This report includes a glossary of the terms employed (➞ Appendix A), a list of the national contributors to EUROSTUDENT IV (➞ Appendix B), metadata on the national surveys (➞ Appendix C), the EUROSTUDENT core questionnaire (➞ Appendix D) and key background data on the higher education systems covered (➞ Appendix E).

Notes on the EUROSTUDENT data

- *Student survey:* EUROSTUDENT collates data from student surveys. In contrast to graduate surveys, it is not designed to provide information on student graduation and the transition into the labour market.
- *EUROSTUDENT Conventions:* The basis for data comparisons across countries are the EUROSTUDENT Conventions. Inter alia, they define the standard target group of the national surveys (Box 1.1). Not all countries manage to fully comply with the Conventions (Box 1.2). For this reason, the data of some countries were excluded from the calculations of some indicators. This is indicated in the respective figures.
- *Choice of Indicators:* The Synopsis presents only a selection of the indicators for which data were collected. Commented data on all indicators are available in the ➞ DRM and in the ➞ National Profiles. However, it should be noted that some countries did not provide data on all indicators.
- *Focus groups:* Many indicators further differentiate the figures for all students by so-called focus groups. These are groups of students considered as particularly relevant from a political point of view. The 11 focus groups are: female and male students, Bachelor and Master students, direct and delayed transition students (➞ Chapter 2), students from low and high education backgrounds (➞ Chapter 3), students up to 24 years and students 30 years or older (➞ Chapter 4), low-intensity students (➞ Chapter 5). The focus groups overlap. For instance, a student can be a Master student, a delayed transition student and 30 years or older at the same time.
- *Aggregate data:* The analyses presented in the Synopsis are made based on aggregate data collected from the national contributors. Micro data are not at the disposition of the Coordination Team. For this reason, differences between countries cannot be tested for statistical significance.

Notes on the interpretation of EUROSTUDENT indicators

- *No rankings:* The data in many charts are assorted in ascending or descending order. This should not be misinterpreted as a suggestion for a strict ranking of countries. Rather, this is done to enable the recognition of country clusters.
- *Interpretation of differences:* Small differences between countries should not be over-interpreted, as it cannot be excluded that they arise from methodological differences in conducting the national surveys.
- *Mean and median values:* Occasionally, mean and median values of all EUROSTUDENT countries are used in the charts as a first orientation. They should be read with caution because they conceal differences between countries in terms of the size of the national student and sample populations.
- *Comparisons over time:* The Synopsis of Indicators does not include comparisons of values for countries over time. This is for 2 reasons: On the one hand, the focus of EUROSTUDENT is to facilitate cross-country comparisons in order to better understand the general picture and the diversity of situations between (groups of) countries. On the other hand, small changes in the EUROSTUDENT Conventions, which were meant to improve the cross-country comparability of the data, limit the ability for comparisons over time. We therefore believe that national reports or indeed reports comparing a limited number of countries are better suited to provide comparisons over time.
- *Stimulation of further research and debates:* The aggregate figures presented in the Synopsis provide an overview of the characteristics of different national student populations. They often do not facilitate the identification of the causes for the phenomena observed. The authors hope that the general overview will encourage further research and policy debates trying to explain the findings of the Synopsis from national standpoints.

Chapter 2 – Transition into higher education

Key findings

- **Transition routes into higher education**: This chapter looks at the passage into higher education. Alternative qualification paths into higher education exist in most countries and are frequently used by students from low social backgrounds and students who have delayed their entry into higher education for at least 2 years (i.e. delayed transition students). In the countries Finland, Ireland, and Sweden more than one in 3 students from either of these student groups has utilised an alternative route into higher education.
- **Labour market experience prior to entry**: It is common to have had prior experience of the labour market before entering higher education for at least one in 4 students in Europe. Females tend to be less likely to obtain labour market experience before accessing higher education. A marked difference by social background is also evident. In Romania and Turkey it is very common not to have had prior vocational experiences before entering higher education – except when a student comes from a low social background.
- **Time delay before entering higher education**: The time between obtaining entry qualification and higher education participation is often less than 12 months, but over 24 months for students from low social backgrounds. In most countries, the share of students entering higher education without a delay longer than 12 months is much higher than 50%. The influence of social background is particularly visible in Estonia and Romania, where well over 50% of students from low social backgrounds only enter college or university after 24 months.
- **Interruptions during educational pathway:** Around 2 in 3 students take a direct route between leaving school and graduating from higher education (i.e. no interruption longer than 12 months). This share rises to near or above 3 in 4, if only students up to age of 24 years old are considered. The exceptional group is Sweden, Finland, Norway and Denmark. In these countries, the share of students with no interruptions en route is under 50%.

Main issues

The transition of a person from secondary education into tertiary education is determined by decisions made both by prospective students themselves, their families, and decisions made within the education system, either prior to entry into higher education or at the gates of the institution of higher education to which the prospective students apply. This chapter will look at this topic area, thereby providing a description of how students across Europe make this transition and providing insights into how the nexus between individual decisions of prospective students and structural decisions within the education system determine a person's route into higher education. The following 2 chapters will lead on from this, by describing the social make-up (→ Chapter 3) and the general characteristics (→ Chapter 4) of national student populations, which can be seen as a result of transition processes.

In terms of the *educational system*, this chapter will look at the types of qualification which students use to get into higher education. A simple access structure (seldom found today, but often the basis for more elaborate structures) sees a clear distinction between an academic and a vocational path through secondary education. It also sees a clear link between performance in secondary education and access to higher education. In this way, the final stages of the academic path have a direct preparatory function (propaedeutic) for entry into higher education. This is also a selective process. Pupils are selected during their secondary path for their preparedness for higher learning and a final examination often determines the breadth of choice they have for finding a study place at the place of learning and in the subject area they prefer.[1] In contrast, the final stages of the vocational path should lead to entry into the labour market.

This simple system is usually further utilised to assure a balance between the share of prospective students and the total number of study places available. There are many variations to this basic model. In general, they weaken the link between the academic upper secondary school qualification and obtaining a study place.

One variation is that a further evaluation is placed between secondary school graduation and entry to higher education. This entrance examination may be centralised across a whole country or individual institutions of higher education have their own tailor-made examinations. In this, the competencies for success may not be solely based on school graduation qualifications, but may also include such things as social skills, artistic or sporting ability etc.

One 2nd major variation entails a much less prescriptive split in the secondary schooling between academic and vocational routes, such that taking the vocational route does not exclude a person from entering higher education at a later point.[2] Many developments are occurring across Europe in this area in the name of lifelong learning and the prevention of dead-ends in educational systems. In many countries, evidence shows that secondary education systems have a tendency to reinforce social, cultural and economic differences between pupils, which might impair equal access to higher education (Cf. OECD, 2010). One way of counterpoising this effect is to introduce measures which provide prospective students with a 'second chance' of entering higher education.

[1] For a discussion of the role of examinations at transition points in education system in international comparison, cf.: Waterkamp (2000, pp.43-54).

[2] This is step 3 of the OECD's 10 steps to equity in education. Cf.: (OECD: Field, Kuczera & Pont, 2007).

In both cases, this often means offering older people the prospect of recognition of competencies and experiences obtained in the labour market as a special route into higher education.

The *personal route*, which a student takes into higher education, is affected by the education system, but also by personal circumstances (e.g. family situation, social background), duties (e.g. military service), idiosyncratic choices (e.g. volunteering during a gap year) and by strategies chosen to improve chances of getting the study places he/she wants (e.g. doing special examinations, courses). Obtaining prior experience on the labour market may be related to these factors. Additionally, entering the labour market prior to studying may be seen by some students as a way of 'hedging their bets', meaning that these people can commence their studies in the knowledge that they can always re-enter the labour market if higher education does not work out for them. In any case, it can be presumed that students with labour market experience will pursue their studies in a different way to those without this experience and are more likely to continue working during their studies.

A more general look at the transition route is provided in this chapter through looking at the duration of the time lag between obtaining the higher education qualification and actually entering an institution of higher education. It is discriminated by gender and also by social background as it is expected that these criteria account for some differences in the results. Although we can expect different reasons for students to enter higher education later, we can safely assume that these students will have some common features: they will be older than students who have taken a direct transition, their route is likely to involve obtaining other experiences, but also other expectations than direct transition students and, in many cases, they are likely to be students with a lower social background than their counterparts (the data will give insight into this assumption). For this reason, this topic has been used in the EUROSTUDENT report to identify a special focus group for analyses – the so-called *delayed transition student*. After a small international survey and discussions in a special working group, it was decided to define this focus group as a student, who has a delay of more than 2 years between obtaining the higher education qualification and actually entering an institution of higher education or have entered higher education via the accreditation route (→ Appendix A).[3]

The topic of breaks within the educational pathway is elaborated further in this chapter by looking at the occurrence of interruptions during the whole study process, from secondary schooling until Master studies. The results of this analysis can be seen as the efficiency of the system, on the one hand, and the flexibility of the system (i.e. the possibility to drop in and out), on the other. As with qualification routes, the reality described by the students is affected by both the system and by personal circumstances or choice. The comparison between countries on the basis of different student characteristics will point to similarities and differences between both countries and special student groups.

In the data collection, we also included one further feature: the regional background of students. In the survey, students were asked where they graduated from secondary schooling. The locations were then recoded into rural and urban areas. This explorative indicator, which has not been used before in EUROSTUDENT, gives first insights into possible disadvantages for participation in higher education of living in rural areas (→ DRM).

[3] Since in this case, the gap between obtaining the "qualification" for entry and entering would be minimal and very likely below 2 years.

Data and interpretation

Alternative qualification paths into higher education exist in most countries and are frequently used by students from low social backgrounds

In the context of initiatives to widen participation, a lot of focus is being put on the introduction and utilisation of alternative routes into colleges and universities. In our previous report using the EUROSTUDENT III data set, we provided data for the first time on the share of students who entered higher education via alternative (non-traditional) routes. As mentioned in the introduction to this chapter, the regular path into higher education is pretty direct – the leaving certificate from upper secondary schooling is, at the same time, an entry qualification for college or university studies. In the past, such qualifications tended to have an exclusively academic profile. However, there is a trend towards dual qualifications at this level, which qualify the graduate for both entry into higher education and entry into the labour market.

Alternative routes have been or are being increasingly introduced into higher education systems in order to offer people a 'second chance' for entry into higher education despite the fact that these people made past decisions against progressing into higher education or such decisions were made about them, e.g. through vocational-streaming at school level. This 'second chance' qualification route may be more or less based on the original requirements of the school leaving certificate.

In the first instance, this second chance may be the provision of courses for adult learners so that they can acquire the school leaving certificate, which they did not as pupils. Often this is provided in such a way that the course is more focussed to the interests and the needs of adult learners, e.g. part-time or evening courses.

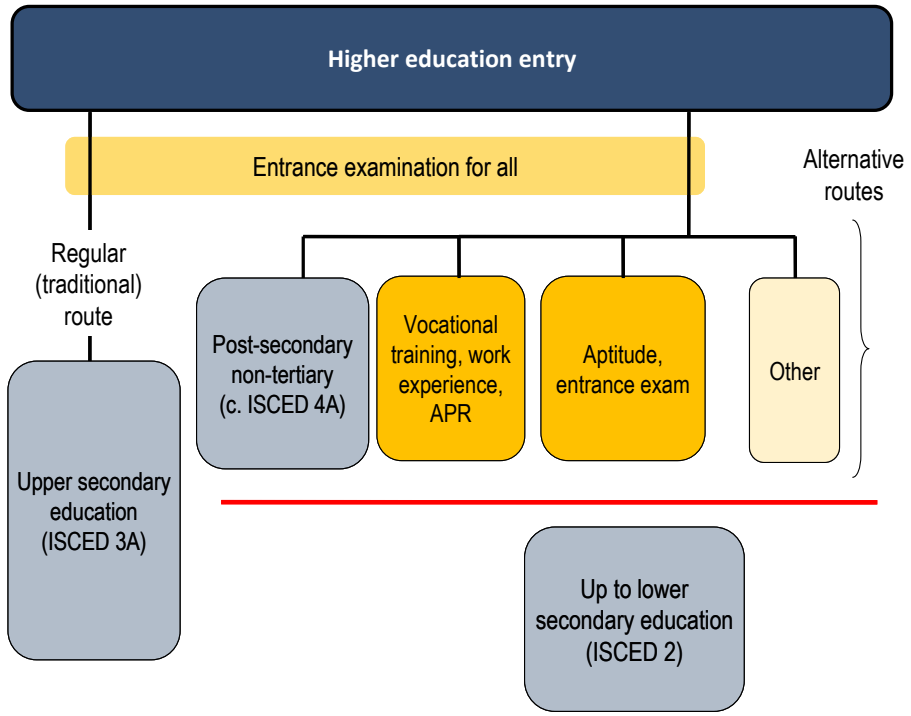
In the second instance, measures may be introduced which take account of a person's learning and career achievements since leaving school in terms of accumulated experience and competencies. This may or may not be offered in tandem with a special aptitude examination used to assure that these people fulfil the expectations placed on a student of higher learning.

In a recent publication (Orr & Riechers, 2010), a conceptual framework was developed on the basis of analysing the options for entry into higher education in 7 European countries. The framework was also used in the collection of data for EUROSTUDENT IV – see Figure 2.1.

The rationale for such a schematic framework is that it will assure that a valid cross-country comparison is being made (an issue very much open in EUROSTUDENT III). A review of the new country data, however, shows that a cross-country comparison remains problematic and so the following figures should be interpreted with caution. This is because – amongst other things – the *qualification* of a person for higher education is not the same as successfully obtaining a study place, which is often affected by both the balance between supply and demand in a system and by the specific selection criteria used by all or by specific colleges and universities in a country. Indeed, even in countries which have elaborated schemes for assuring wider access to higher education, access to high-demand institutions or subject areas may be very restrictive.

Despite these caveats, the data here can be considered an important contribution to the international and national debates on widening participation, not least because alternative sources are subject to even greater weaknesses (see Box 2.1).

Fig. 2.1 Framework scheme for the different routes into higher education



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV Technical Manual for the Execution of the Data Delivery Module (2010).

Box 2.1 The limits of using administrative statistics to understand alternative routes into higher education

In the Eurostat&HIS publication entitled "The Bologna Process in Higher Education in Europe. Key Indicators on the social dimension and mobility" (2009), the authors used both the EUROSTUDENT III data set and administrative statistics to provide insights into higher education entry. Here is what they wrote about the weaknesses of using administrative data. These weaknesses are related to the use of the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) international scheme for classifying qualifications and the assumptions behind comparing 2 different student cohorts.

- The numerator and denominator are taken from 2 different reference years.
- Information on the real educational background of the population entering higher education is lacking. In fact, in some countries people who graduated from ISCED 3B (programmes designed to provide direct access to more practically oriented/occupationally specific tertiary programmes, i.e. ISCED 5B) may enter higher education and graduates of professional tertiary education (ISCED 5B) may move on to ISCED 5A subsequently. Furthermore, some higher education entrants come from abroad.
- Additionally, the age at which compulsory education ends may have an impact on the level of the indicator. Indeed, countries where compulsory education ends during upper secondary education may register higher shares of graduates at this level than countries where compulsory education ends with lower-secondary education. As a result, the former may present lower values for this indicator, as upper-secondary schooling is not solely focussed on access to higher education.

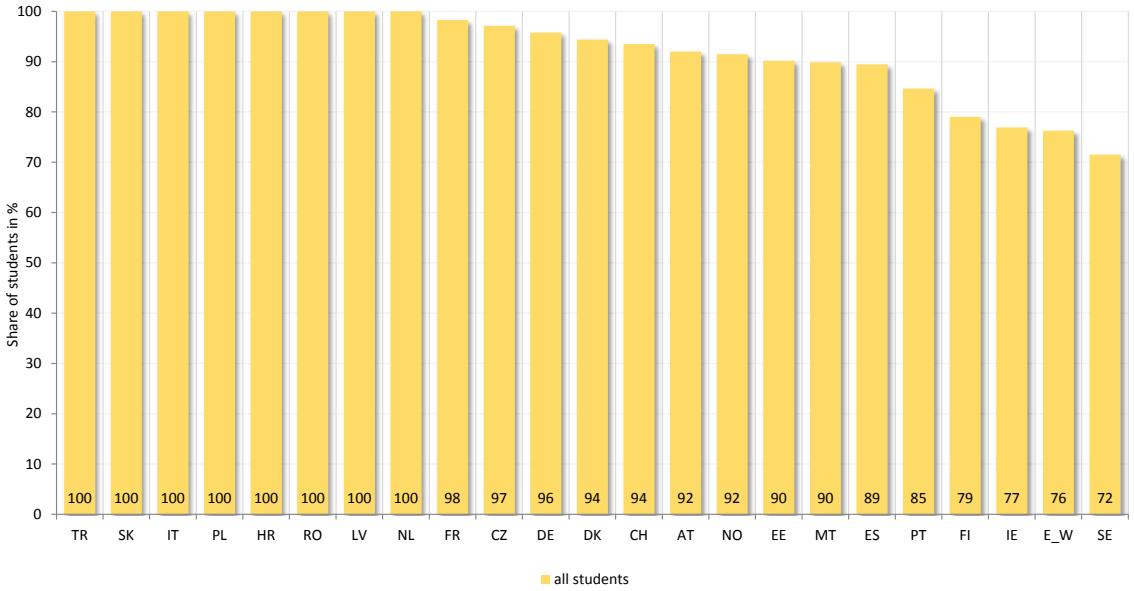
Source: Eurostat&HIS (2009). The Bologna Process in Higher Education in Europe. Key Indicators on the social dimension and mobility. Luxembourg: p.57.

The results show that the large majority of students in Europe enter higher education on a direct path between school and university with a standard qualification designed to prove their capacity to study in a broad manner. In most countries this qualification is given a name reminiscent of the term "maturity" (e.g. matura, maturita, maturité). At the same time, the results show that the alternative provisions are generally successful at reaching non-traditional student groups – see Figure 2.2.

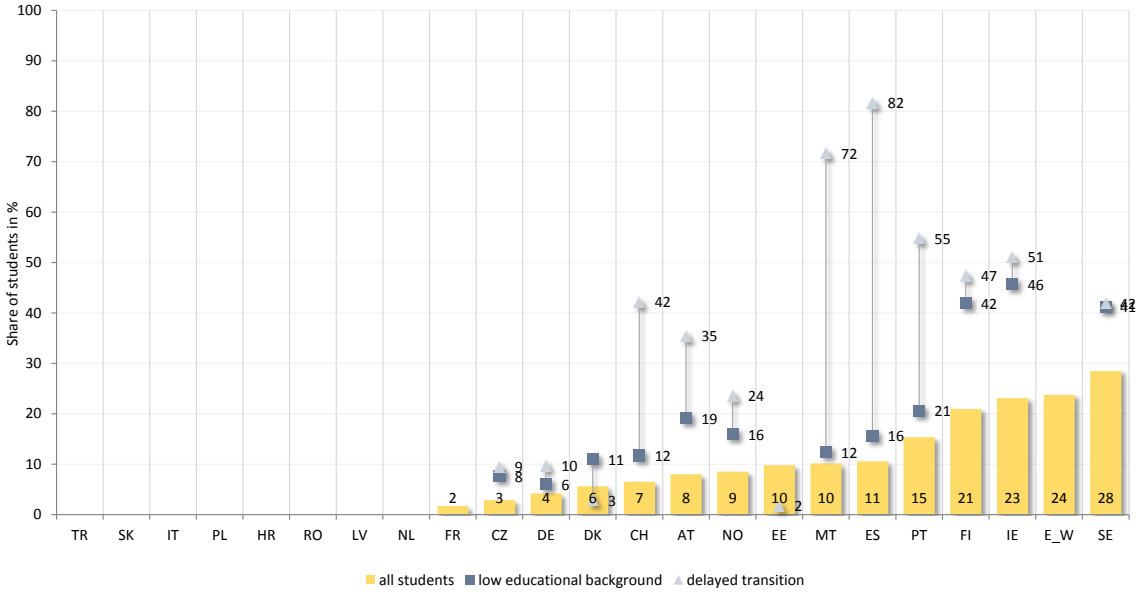
- In 19 of 23 countries for which data is available, 4 out of 5 students have entered higher education via the regular route – see chart (a).

Fig. 2.2 Students entering higher education through a regular route (upper secondary qualification) and through an alternative route

a) Regular route, all students (without other) in %



b) Alternative routes by education background and transition route (without other) in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, B.1. No data: LT, SI. No data for low education and delayed transition: E/W. Too few cases for low education: EE.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 2.2 What qualification did you use for higher education entry? (List of national qualifications), 2.3 When did you get the qualification used for entering higher education?, 2.4 When did you enter higher education for the first time?, 6.1 What is the highest level of education your father and mother have obtained?
Note: The category 'other' was removed because of the inability to interpret this result in cross-country comparison. This category often includes qualifications from other HE institutions, which are not relevant for this analysis. Sums were re-calculated.

- In the countries Finland, Ireland, England/Wales and Sweden, this share is much lower, ranging from 80% to 70%.
- The bottom chart (b) shows that in almost all countries which provide alternative routes, students from lower education backgrounds profit most from them. In the countries Finland, Ireland and Sweden more than one in 3 students from a low education background have utilised an alternative route to enter higher education, so these measures appear to be meeting their targets.
- As to be expected, the share of delayed transition students using these alternative routes is higher than for the other 2 student groups in all countries, apart from Denmark. However, in this country the delayed transition students are much more numerous than low education background students (in Denmark: 38% vs. 8%; see below).

Figure 2.3, chart (a) provides first insights into the type of alternative routes being used by students across Europe. This data is unique to EUROSTUDENT because it is based directly on students' responses to a question on the route they have taken. The actual relative volumes shown in chart (a) should nevertheless be interpreted with caution due to the difficultly of creating full comparability between national data sets.

The data collected suggest that national systems of higher education offer a mix of the 3 main options for alternative routes. Therefore, the scheme can be shown as 3 interlinked circles, where some countries focus more on one or more options than their European neighbours – see Figure 2.3, chart (b). In general, we can see that most countries focus on providing qualification routes at the level of post-secondary non-tertiary education. These routes generally provide students with a second chance to obtain qualifications similar to those they would have obtained through the regular school route. Additionally, routes via accreditation of prior learning or experiences are frequent. Albeit, we have seen from the data that only small shares of students enter via this route alone. The context information provided by national contributors at data delivery provides more information on these constellations. For more detailed information refer directly to the National Profiles (➔ Data Reporting Module [DRM]).

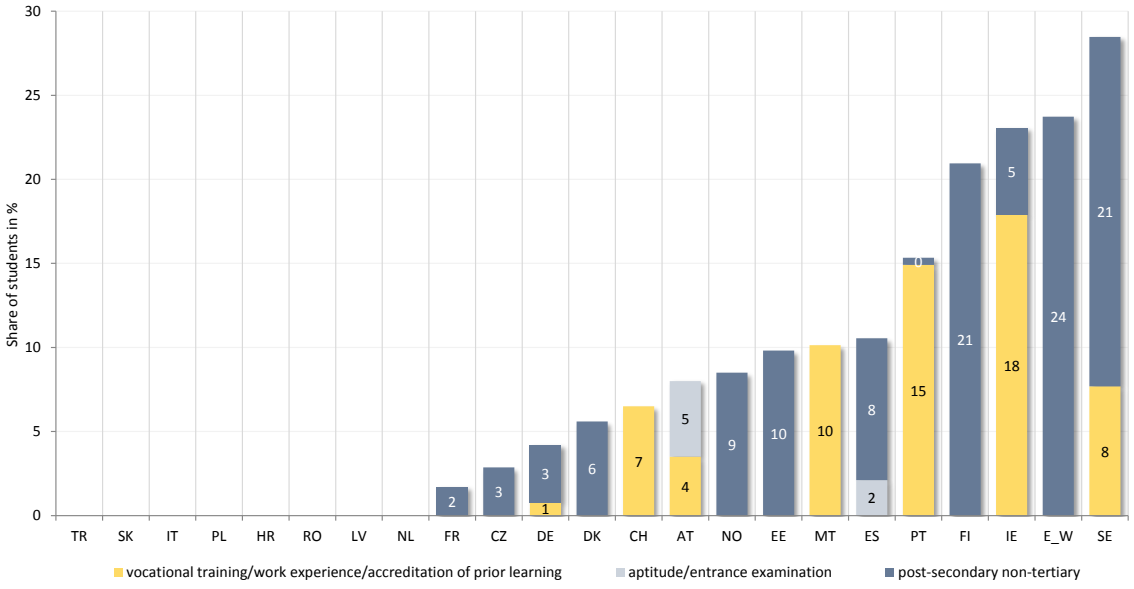
Post-secondary non-tertiary education (adult education)

This option is provided by almost all countries. It entails is that a prospective student can obtain the school leaving certificate via courses provided outside of the school system and usually tailored to adult learners. In some cases, however, a distinction between this route and a vocationally orientated route through upper secondary education is difficult and so many countries have not been able to show this in their data.

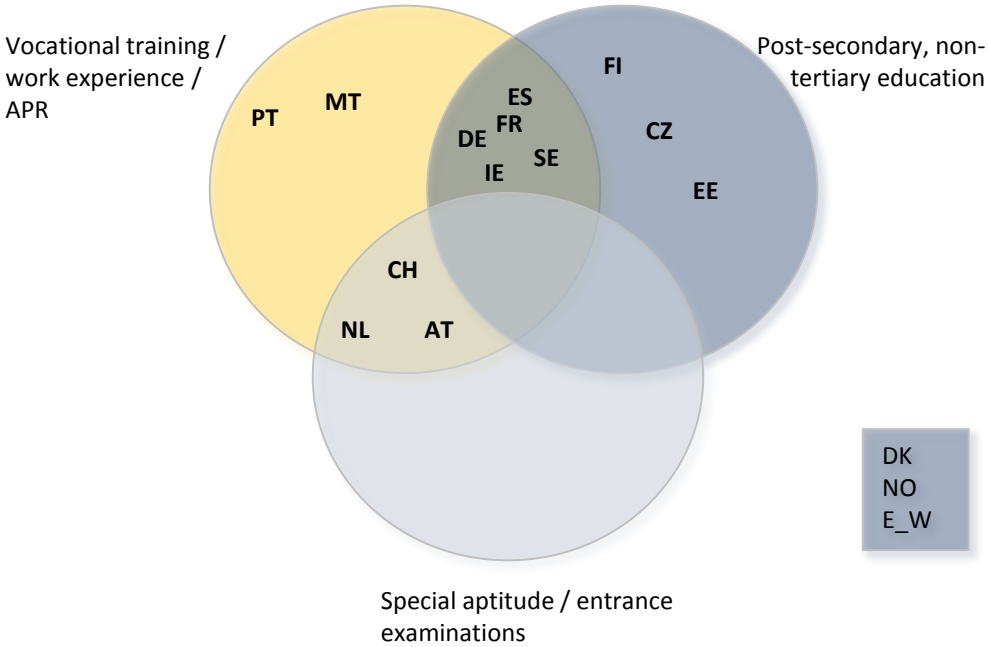
An example is the *fachgebundene Hochschulreife* in Germany. Graduates of this qualification can enter higher education, but their choice is generally limited by the subject area and sometimes by type of higher education institution. In the case of Sweden, some students take further education courses in order to improve their grades and, therefore, improve their chances of gaining entry to their preferred course.

Fig. 2.3 Students entering higher education through an alternative route by type of route

a) All students (without other) by type in %



b) Mix of alternative routes by country



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, B.1. No data: LT, SI. No differentiation of categories possible: DK, E/W, FI, NO.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 2.2 What qualification did you use for higher education entry? (List of national qualifications), 2.3 When did you get the qualification used for entering higher education?, 2.4 When did you enter higher education for the first time?, 6.1 What is the highest level of education your father and mother have obtained?
Note: The category 'other' was removed because of the inability to interpret this result in cross-country comparison. This category often includes qualifications from other HE institutions, which are not relevant for this analysis. Sums were re-calculated.

Vocational training, work experience and accreditation of prior learning

A lot of focus is currently put onto this option because it entails recognising the equivalence of other learning and experiences for higher education entry. There appear to be 3 approaches, which may be mixed in national systems:

Recognition of vocational qualifications: Examples of measures are the national qualification frameworks, e.g. in Ireland, England/Wales, where certain vocational qualifications are seen as equivalent to the standard qualifications.[4] In Germany, the highest vocational qualification (the *Meisterabschluss*) is seen as equivalent to a university entrance qualification.

Age as criteria: In Ireland and Portugal special provisions are made for students aged 23. In Spain, mature students must be 25 to be treated differently regarding access to higher education.

Measurement of competencies: Particularly in Sweden and Norway special efforts are made to assess the real competencies of a prospective student (*Validering av reell kompetens*). In France there has been a particular focus on accreditation of prior learning over the past decade, although the overall share remains low (Triby, 2009).

Special aptitude/entrance examinations

Such examinations are offered in countries for particularly talented prospective students, irrespective of their education background. In Austria all universities have a tradition of offering such examinations (*Berufsreifeprüfung*). In Switzerland, graduates of a vocational training, who have obtained the Federal proficiency certificate (eidg. Fähigkeitszeugnis / certificate federal de capacité) may then take an entrance examination for a university of applied science.[5] In Spain a special entrance examination has been implemented for applicants to higher education over the age of 25 (*prueba especifica*).

In certain fields of study, especially the arts and sport, entrance examinations are implemented. However, this is not so much in an effort to widen participation, but in order to better assess the real capabilities of prospective students. In Latvia special examinations are offered for competitive places, with the successful candidates of these *olimpiaadees* profiting from special study conditions.

Although we are not able to look into this area of development in more detail within this chapter, 3 issues should be raised in order to assist the interpretation of the results presented here. They are both associated with the loosening of ties between academic routes through upper secondary education and entry to higher education.

What does the student following an alternative path have access to?

The results above have shown that alternative routes are opening up higher education access for non-traditional students. However, in some countries these access routes limit the possibility of prospective students to study any subject in any university or college. In general, prospective students following vocationally-orientated routes into higher education have a much more limited

[4] Cf. the Irish national qualifications framework as fan diagram here: http://www.nfq.ie/nfq/en/FanDiagram/nqai_nfq_08.html

[5] In fact, this route is becoming less important, whilst universities and especially universities of applied science are increasing the opportunities to enter via special routes and examinations. Cf.: Weber, Tremel, Balthasar, & Fässler (2010).

choice of subjects which they can follow, and these routes are usually expected to match the vocational orientation of the prior education (e.g. technical training gives access to a university degree in mechanical engineering). Furthermore, students may only be accepted in certain types of higher education institution and these are seldom the elite institutions. In the UK, students entering via alternative routes tend to be more numerous in colleges and former polytechnics (given university status in 1992).[6]

How is quality assured in the context of multiple routes to higher education?

Since the routes vary, it may be felt necessary to install other instruments in the gap between school and university in order to assure minimal quality standards of applicants. In Estonia (*riigiesamid*), Spain (PAU – *prueba de accesso a la universidad*) and Sweden (*SweSAT*) special examinations have been introduced to assure the quality of prospective students.[7] In the UK, the more elite universities from the Russell Group offer special access courses, where prospective students take preparatory courses before they enter the full degree programmes.[8]

How does the existence or not of alternative routes fit into the whole context of the system?

The analysis and the country comments (➞ Data Reporting Module [DRM]) also highlight 2 aspects which cannot be captured in the data here.

Multiple qualification profiles at upper secondary education level: Over the years, many countries have reformed their school systems to include higher qualifications which have a more vocational orientation, e.g. in France with various BACs and in the Netherlands, where there are also different school types. The idea is that dead ends in an education system should be limited and these qualifications provide access to higher education. These qualifications, however, are still classed as ISCED 3A and therefore as regular routes into higher education.

Balancing supply and demand: In countries, where the demand for study places outstrips supply, access routes tend to be complex. The Polish commentary, for instance, states that students aiming for the best positions in the higher education system often have to have their school leaving certificate (the formal requirement), and complete an entrance examination and sometimes offer other specific qualities or experiences (➞ Data Reporting Module [DRM]).

[6] Admissions to Higher Education Steering Group (2004)): Fair admissions to higher education – Final Report: pp. 8-15. Online under: http://www.admissions-review.org.uk/downloads/finalreport.pdf

[7] For more details: cf. Orr & Riechers (2010).

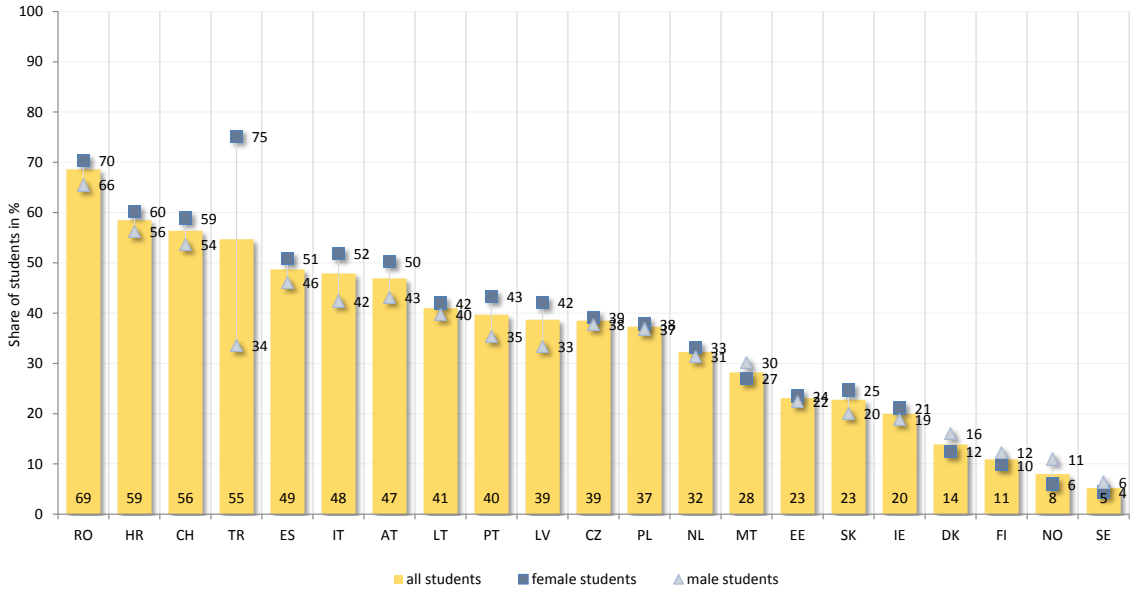
[8] Cf. special information sheet from the Russell Group (2010): http://www.russellgroup.ac.uk/uploads/Special-entry-routes-Russell-Group_2.pdf

For at least 1 in 4 students in Europe it is common to have had prior experience of the labour market

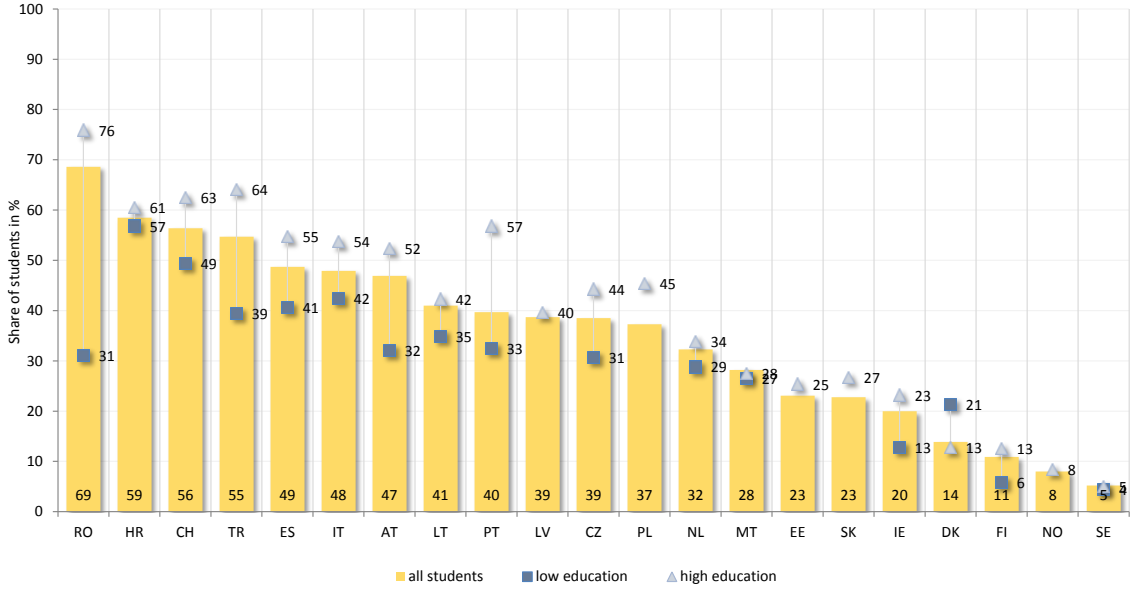
Following on from the focus of the preceding section starting out from a more direct route into higher education, this section will commence with a look at differences in the share of students with no prior experience of the labour market between countries and student focus groups. Prior experience includes in the EUROSTUDENT survey a regular paid job, casual minor jobs or vocational training (➞ Appendix D). The results show a wide diversity amongst countries and an important difference between student groups by education background – see Figure 2.4.

Fig. 2.4 Students with <u>no</u> prior experience of the labour market before entering higher education by gender and social background

a) Students by gender in %



b) Students by education background in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, B.2 & B.3. No data: DE, E/W, FR, SI. Too few cases for low education back.: EE, LV, NO, PL, SK. For CH: no experience includes casual jobs. For IT: limited sample and no differentiation between casual and regular jobs.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 2.6 Before entering higher education, did you have any experience on the labour market?, 6.1 What is the highest level of education your father and mother have obtained?, 5.2 What is your sex?

- The data show that the highest shares of students without labour market experiences are to be found in a country cluster as diverse as: Romania, Croatia and Turkey (for Switzerland: no experience includes casual jobs). In each of these countries more than half of all students have no experiences of the labour market before they enter higher education. In Romania the share is over 2/3. The national team for Turkey expects that one of the reasons for this low value is the keen competition for study places in the Turkish education system which means that if there is a delay between leaving school and entering higher education it is frequently used to prepare for the university entrance examination (→ DRM).
- On the other hand, the share is lower than 1/4 in 7 countries – Estonia, Slovakia, Ireland, Denmark, Finland, Norway, Sweden. In Sweden, it is around 5%. It is interesting to note that all the Scandinavian countries in the project are to be found in this group, as is Estonia, which is a direct geographic neighbour.
- Females tend to be less likely to obtain labour market experience before accessing higher education (see chart a). The highest differences between the genders are to be found in Turkey, Latvia, Slovakia, Portugal and Italy. An exception to this trend are the Scandinavian countries (right-hand side). However, the data show that it is almost normal to have such experiences before entering higher education and this might account for the small differences between the sexes.
- Looking at students by their education background (chart b), we see that this factor accounts for a much larger difference between student groups than gender. Students with low education backgrounds have a lower share (i.e. are more likely to have had labour market experiences) than their counterparts from high education backgrounds in almost all countries. The biggest differences are to be found in Romania, Ireland, Finland, Portugal, Austria and Turkey, with the share being 2.4 times lower in Romania and 1.6 times lower in Austria and Turkey.
- The countries Romania and Turkey show signs of a dichotomy between students of different education backgrounds. In both cases, it is very uncommon to have vocational experiences – except when a student comes from a low education background, where 31% and 39%, respectively, have no such prior experiences.

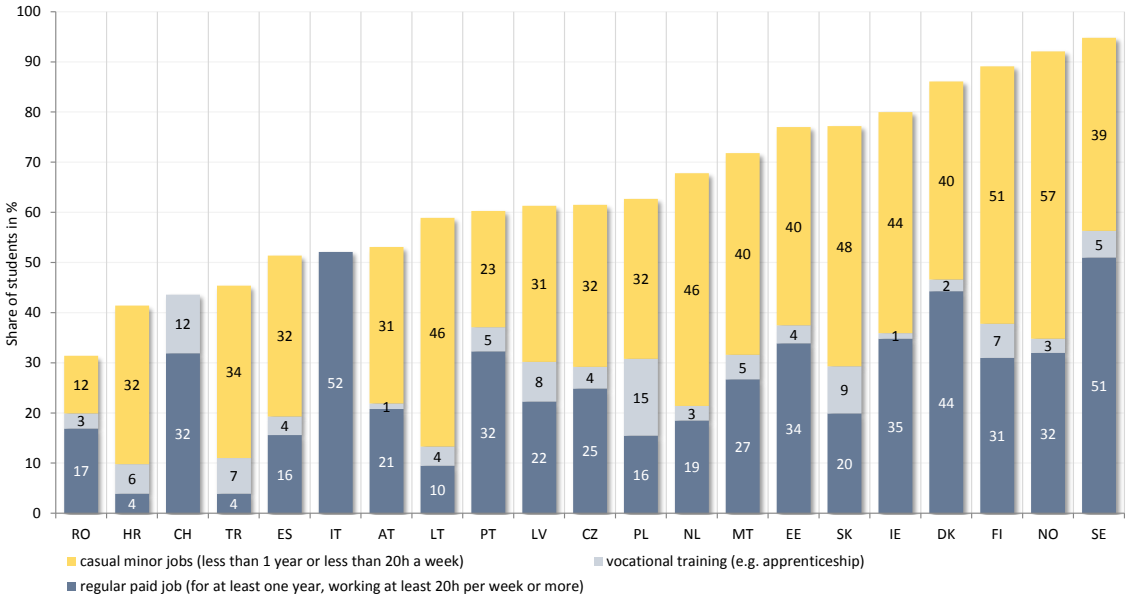
In the subsequent analysis, we look at the type of experience students have obtained before entry. It can be seen that a large share of those students with vocational experience actually have it through minor, casual jobs, which were either held for less than one year before access to higher education (e.g. a summer job) or took up to no longer than 20 hours per week (e.g. an evening or weekend job). This share, however, decreases relatively for students from low education backgrounds and with delayed transition to higher education – see Figure 2.5.

- The share of students with casual jobs (held for less than one year or taking less than 20 hours a week) prior to entry to higher education is highest in Norway and Finland, where it lies at over 50%. It only lies under 1/4 in Romania and Portugal (chart a). Thus we can say that for at least 1/4 of students in European higher education, it is common that they had at least some contact with the labour market before entering higher education.

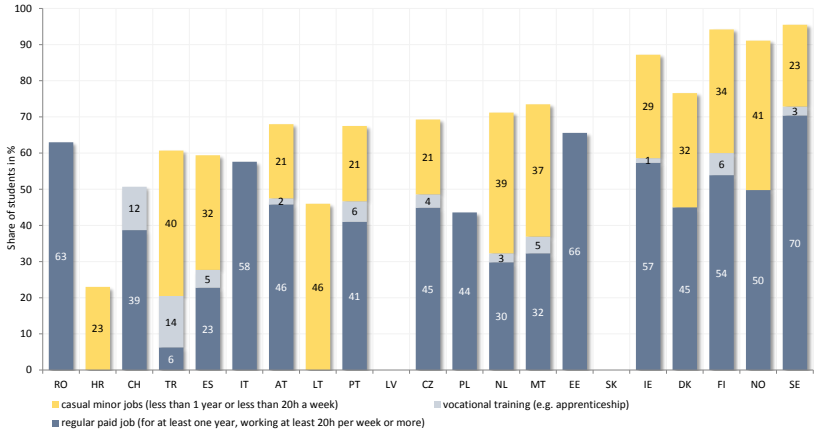
- Students entering after a period of regular paid work are most frequent in Sweden, Denmark, Ireland and Estonia, where they make up at least 1/3 of all students. On the other hand, the share is half of this – i.e. below 18% – in Romania, Spain, Poland, Croatia, Lithuania and Turkey.
- Regular paid work would suggest a much closer contact with the labour market and is, perhaps, a sign of a strategy taken by students to either simply earn money or try out the labour market before they enter higher education. In fact, a student's education background is a good predictor for the difference between the share of students with minor casual work experience or a previous regular job (chart b). The share of students with previous regular work is on average 2.5 times higher for students from low education backgrounds compared to their higher education background counterparts. This difference is particularly high in Romania, Poland, Austria and Turkey.
- The share of students with vocational training (e.g. apprenticeship) is low and well below 10% in all, but 2 countries: Switzerland, Poland. Although the share of students with vocational training also increases for students from low education backgrounds, the difference is not as high as for regular paid jobs (average 1.3). This points to the fact that vocational training and then higher education is (i) an unusual route into higher education and (ii) most often taken by students from low education backgrounds.
- Naturally, the share of delayed transition students with prior regular jobs is much higher than for their counterpart group – direct transition students: on average 5.9 times higher (chart c). Particularly high differences between these groups are to be found in Austria, Romania and Slovakia. The smallest differences are – unsurprisingly – to be found in Scandinavia, in Sweden, Norway and Denmark, where even the direct transition students are likely to have a break between school and entering university.
- The share of delayed transition students with previous vocational training is also higher (average 2.5 times higher) and exceptionally higher in Spain and Estonia. Thus, it is likely that this group is particularly relevant for alternative entry paths into higher education (see Figure 2.2).

Fig. 2.5 Students <u>with</u> prior experience of the labour market before entering higher education by type of experience and characteristics of students

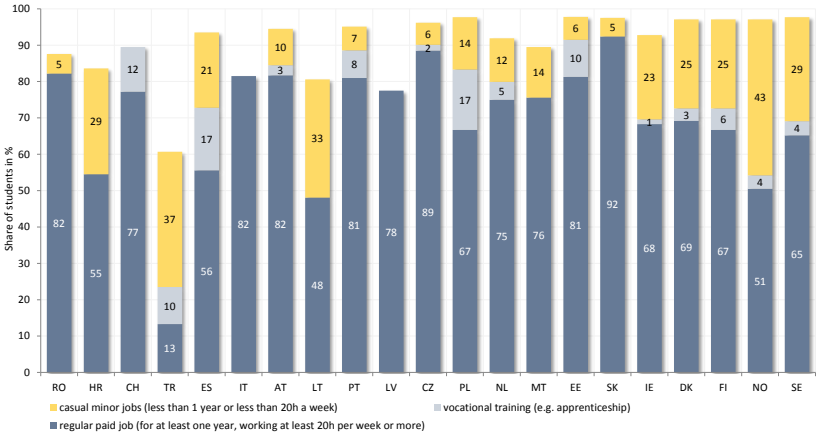
a) All students in %



b) Students with low education background (ISCED 0-2) in %



c) Delayed transition students in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, B.2 & B.3. No data: DE, E/W, FR, SI. Too few cases for low education, regular job: HR, LT, LV, SK; for low education, vocational training: DK, EE, HR, LT, LV, NO, PL, RO, SK; for low education, casual job: CH, EE, LV, PL, RO, SK; for delayed transition, vocational training: HR, LT, LV, MT, RO, SK. For IT: limited sample and no differentiation between casual and regular jobs.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 2.6 Before entering higher education, did you have any experience on the labour market?, 6.1 What is the highest level of education your father and mother have obtained?, 2.2 What qualification did you use for higher education entry?, 2.3 When did you get the qualification used for entering higher education?, 2.4 When did you enter higher education for the first time?

Time between obtaining entry qualification and higher education participation is often less than 12 months, but over 24 months for students from low social backgrounds

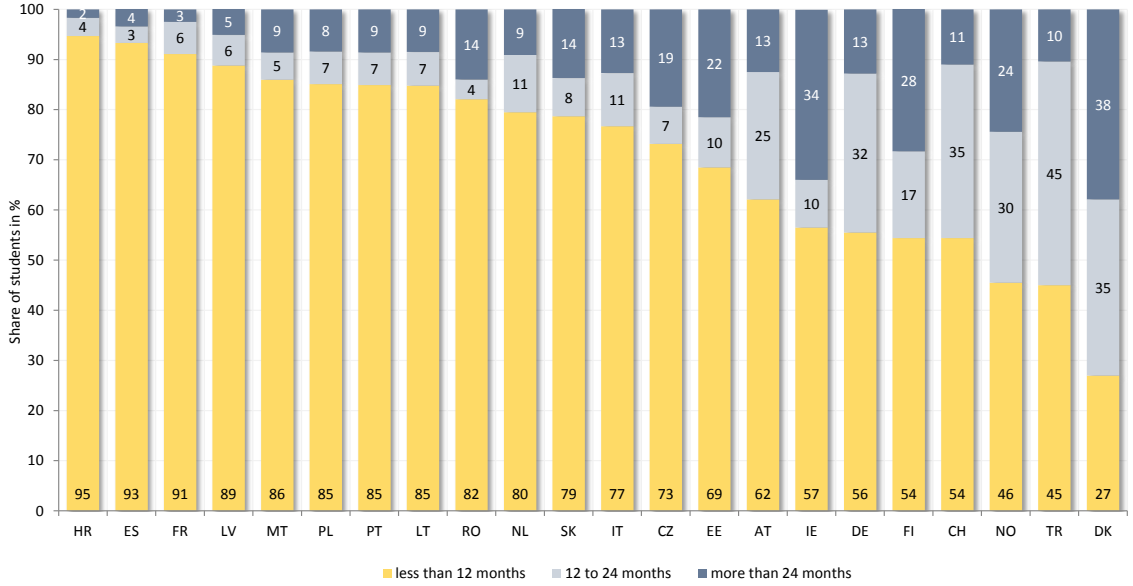
This section now looks more generally at the transition time to higher education and not the activity carried out in this period. In the core questionnaire 3 time periods were defined: (i) less than 12 months since obtaining the higher education entry qualification, which is usually the upper secondary school academic certificate, (ii) between 12 and 24 months and (iii) 24 months and longer. Initial cross-country research within the project showed that making the cut at 24 months was sufficient to assure that we are looking at a very different type of students in this 3rd category, whose delay is often significantly longer. Figure 2.6 shows that only few countries' higher education systems have a high share of these students, but that the share tends to be higher for students of low education backgrounds.

- In most countries, the share of students entering higher education with a delay no longer than 12 months is much higher than 50%. Only 3 countries – Norway, Turkey and Denmark – are exceptions here.
- Less than one in 10 students in around half of the countries take longer than 24 months to get to university after obtaining their entry qualification. The share of students with a delay over 24 months is lowest in Spain, France, Latvia and Croatia.
- In Austria, Switzerland, Germany, Norway, Denmark and Turkey more than 25% of students take between 12 and 24 months to enter higher education. In the case of the first 3 countries, this is likely to be related to social obligations such as military or civilian service or their equivalents (which may also be voluntary). In the case of Turkey, this is largely because students have to pass an entry examination and preparation for this examination may take place between leaving school and entering university.
- In all countries, for which data is available, the share of students entering higher education after a duration of 24 months or more is higher for the low education background group – see chart (b). The change between charts (a) – all students and (b) – low education background students is particularly dramatic in the cases of Estonia and Romania, where well over 50% of students from low education backgrounds only enter college or university after 24 months.
- At the same time, the countries Austria, Germany and Denmark[9] are exceptional. The share of students entering college in less than 12 months is higher for low education background students (chart b) than it is for high education background students (chart c). This suggests that students from low education backgrounds take one of 2 strategies – either they undertake another activity before access to higher education (e.g. prior work experience, see above Figure 2.5) or they attempt to enter straight away without a break.

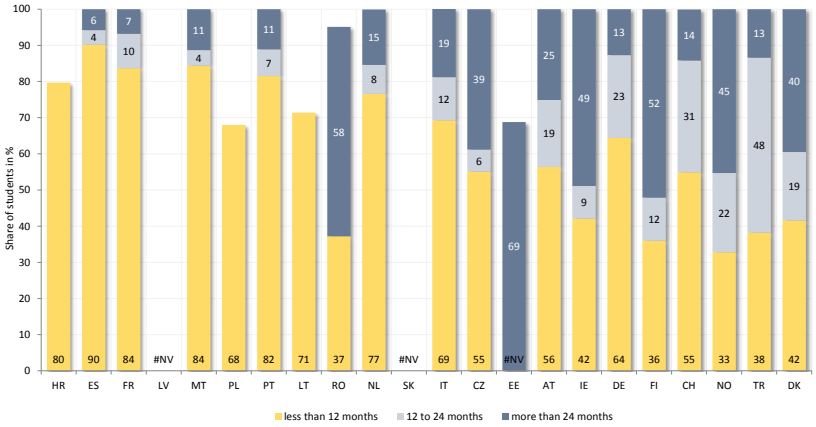
[9] In-depth analyses in Denmark have confirmed this finding.

Fig. 2.6 Time delay between obtaining entry qualification and higher education participation by time period

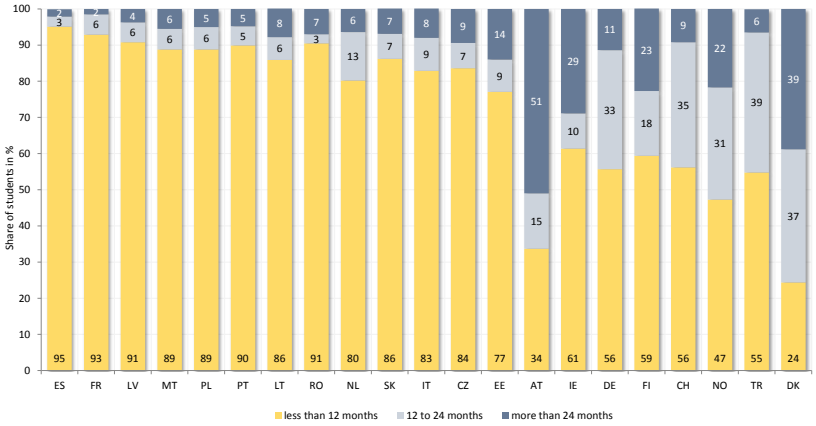
a) All students in %



b) Low education background (ISCED 0-2) in %



c) High education background (ISCED 5-6) in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, B.5. No data E/W, SE, SI. Too few cases for low education: EE, HR, LT, LV, PL, RO, SK.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 2.3 When did you get the qualification used for entering higher education?, 2.4 When did you enter higher education for the first time?, 6.1 What is the highest level of education your father and mother have obtained?

Around 2 in 3 students take a direct route from school leaving to higher education graduation

This section continues the analysis of transition paths by focussing on the share of students with minimal transition periods (one year or less) between 3 clear stages in progression through the higher levels of the education system: (i) between graduating from secondary school and entering higher education, (ii) between entering higher education and graduating for the first time from higher education, (iii) between graduating for the first time and re-entering higher education. In this 3rd category, we capture students who complete one study programme and re-enter for another, especially Bachelor students, who go on to take a Master.

As already mentioned in the introduction to this chapter, this section gives both insights into the efficiency of an education system, i.e. minimal time for maximum output, and the flexibility of a system, i.e. possibility for a student to take a less than straight route through the system. In each case, there will be arguments for and against such objectives and they may affect or be chosen by student groups differently. The results show that a – perhaps remarkable – share of students take a direct route between graduation from secondary school to graduation from higher education – see Figure 2.7.

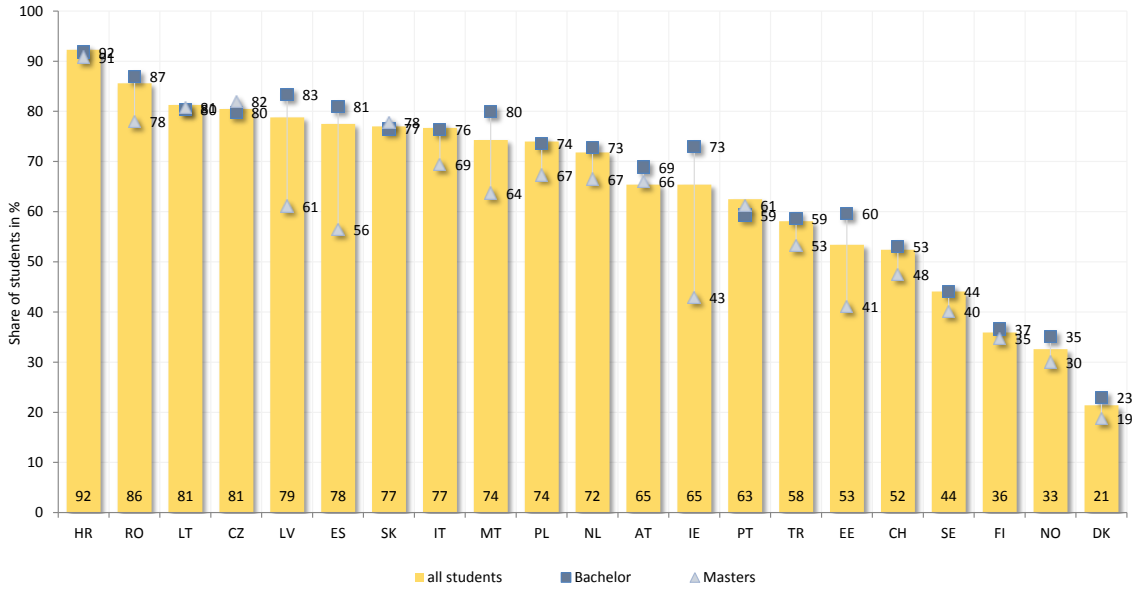
- Near to or above 2/3 of students take a quite direct route through the education system (chart a). This share rises to near or above 3/4, if only students up to age of 24 years old are considered (chart b).
- The highest shares taking this direct route with no prolonged interruption are to be found in: Romania, Croatia, Lithuania and Czech Republic with shares of at least 80% for all students. This share rises to around or above 90%, if only students in the age group 24 years old are considered (chart b).
- The exceptional group is, again, largely made up of the Scandinavian countries: Sweden, Finland, Norway and Denmark. In these countries, the share of students with no interruptions en route is under half.

Chart (a) also differentiates between Bachelor and Master programme students. This is because one of the aims of the new study structures being implemented in the framework of the Bologna Process is to allow students to complete a first level higher education qualification and enter the labour market, with the prospect of re-entering higher education at a later stage.

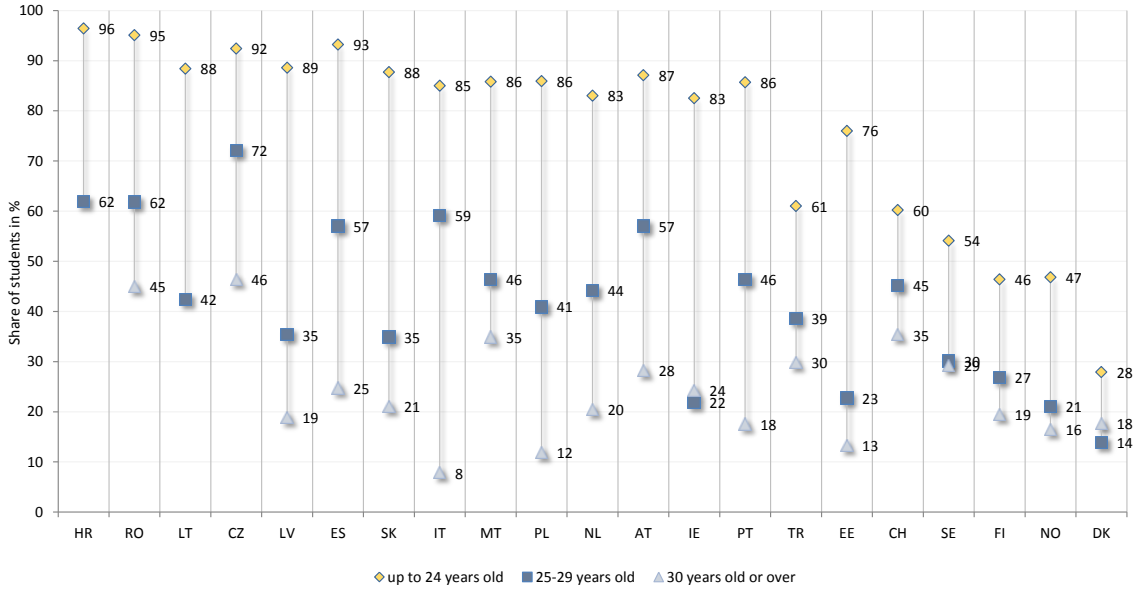
- In the majority of countries, there is little difference between Bachelor and Master students. This suggests that many Bachelor students continue almost directly into their Master programme.
- The countries Ireland, Estonia and Spain are the clearest exceptions to this trend. In fact, data (not shown here → DRM) shows that 36%, 22% and 30%, respectively, of Master students from these countries have undertaken an interruption of over one year between first level graduation and their current Master programme. This situation can already be deducted from the analysis by age (chart b), where strong differences in the interruption statistics by age are apparent.

Fig. 2.7 Students with no interruption longer than one year in higher education transition and progress through the system by study programme and age

a) Students by study programme in %



b) Students by age in %



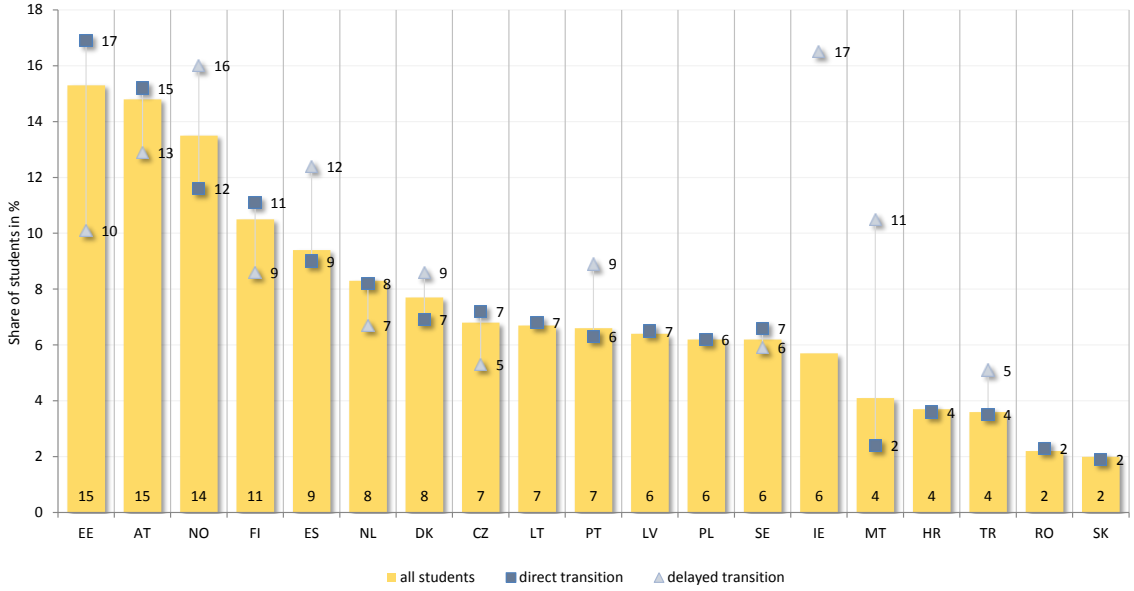
Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, B.4. No data: DE, E/W, FR, SI. No data 30 years and over: HR, LT.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 2.7 Did you ever interrupt your education career after graduating from secondary school at least for one year?, 5.1 When were you born?, 1.1 Which programme are you currently enrolled in?

This section also looks at the share of students who interrupt their studies after commencement of their studies and before completion. This indicator may be taken as an expression of the need for students to take a break during their courses and the possibility to return to studies following such a break – see Figure 2.8. The results show quite large differences between countries and – particularly – between age groups.

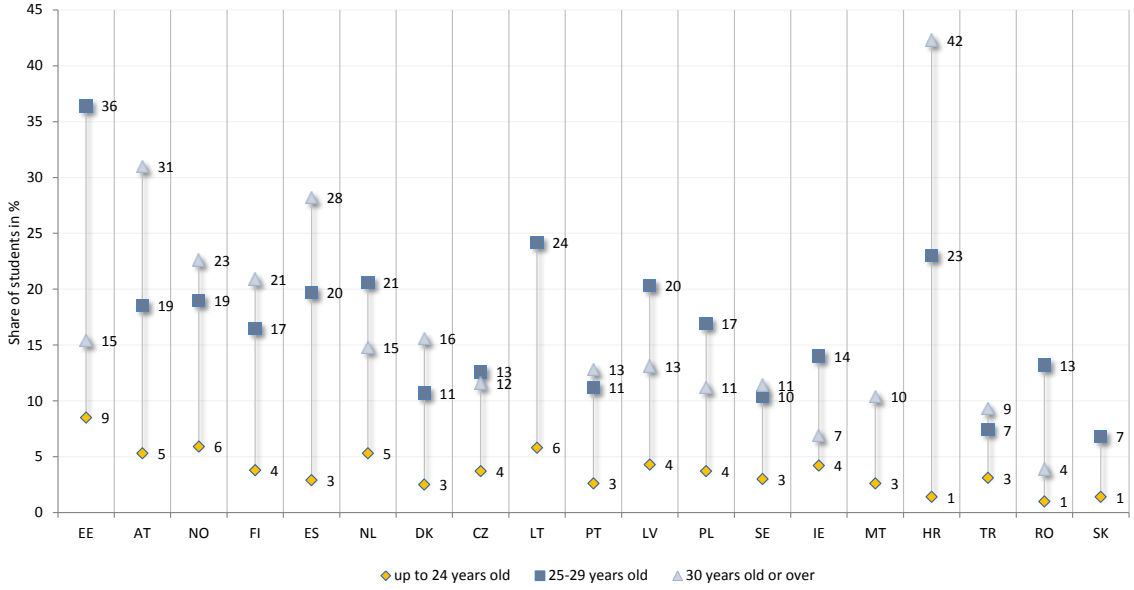
- More than one in 10 students have had an interruption during their studies in Estonia, Finland, Norway and Austria. In the first 3 of these countries, modularised courses have been offered for

Fig. 2.8 Students <u>with</u> interruption longer than one year between entering higher education and graduating by transition route and age

a) Students by transition route in %



b) Students by age in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, B.4. No data: CH, DE, E/W, FR, IT, SI. No data for direct transition: IE. Too few cases for delayed transition: HR, LT, LV, PL, SK, RO. For DK: Not possible to separate between interruption between entering and graduating and re-entering HE; hence the values were evenly split between both categories.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 2.7 Did you ever interrupt your education career after graduating from secondary school at least for one year?, 1.1 Which programme are you currently enrolled in?, 2.2 What qualification did you use for higher education entry?, 2.3 When did you get the qualification used for entering higher education?, 2.4 When did you enter higher education for the first time?

years, which offer this type of flexibility – see chart (a).

- The countries Malta, Croatia, Turkey, Romania and Slovakia have the lowest shares of students with interruptions, which are not higher than 4%.
- Re-looking at the data, this time differentiated by age, shows shares of young students with interruptions below 4% for around half of the countries and not much higher for the rest – see chart (b).
- In general, the share of students with interruptions during study programmes becomes higher, the older the students are. (However, it should be noted that this figure is not easy to interpret as age stands for a number of things and cannot be unpicked in the EUROSTUDENT data set – see Box 2.2)
- For 6 countries (Estonia, The Netherlands, Latvia, Poland, Ireland, Romania), this is not the case. In these countries, students aged 30 years and over are more likely to interrupt their studies than students up to the age of 24, but less likely than students aged between 25 and 29 years old. This would suggest that the oldest age group does indeed delay transition to higher education, but then often progresses directly (i.e. with relatively few prolonged interruptions) through their study programme.

Box 2.2 Interpretation note: Understanding age in the context of interruptions in study programme

It would appear simple to associate age with profile differences between students, which then offer a certain interpretation of Figure 2.8 (b). This interpretation is presented as the first likely cause of the result. However, 2 others are also plausible:

- Older students are likely to be non-traditional students, who are trying to organise their studies around other demands on their time and are subject to financial constraints (→ Chapter 7). In this case, they are more likely to interrupt their studies.
- The older the students are, the longer they may have studied. That means that they have had more opportunities (i.e. more semesters) to take a break. Therefore, they are likely to have a higher rate than younger students.
- The younger the students are, the more likely they are to be in the new Bologna study structures. These structures are supposed to be more flexible, but in many countries (especially Austria and Germany) there have been student protests because of the reduction in flexibility in comparison with the past. Older students may still be in long study programmes, with longer study durations, but more opportunities for flexible study organisation.

Chapter 3 – Social make-up of national student populations

Key findings

- **Share of students from low education backgrounds**: This chapter focuses on the educational attainment of students' parents as a measure of the social make-up of the student body. In many countries, more than 50% of all students come from households with parents who have had no experience of higher education. On this measure, the higher education systems of Portugal, Turkey, Malta and Ireland are providing important chances for new social mobility in their respective countries. This finding does not mean that these systems are socially unbiased, but indicates a high level of recent growth in student numbers.
- **Underrepresentation by parents' education**: Only few countries' higher education systems can be classified as socially inclusive. Ireland, The Netherlands and Switzerland can be clearly identified as socially inclusive as they have both a minimal underrepresentation of students from low education backgrounds and a minimal overrepresentation of students from high education backgrounds.
- **Students from low education backgrounds by transition route and study modus**: These students are likely to have had a delayed transition (i.e. more than 2 years between leaving school and entering higher education or an alternative route) to higher education and to study de facto part-time. Irrespective of the actual share of students from low education backgrounds, the share of this student group entering via delayed transition routes is well over double compared to the counterpart group of direct transition students in the countries: Romania, Austria, France, Finland, Czech Republic, Ireland, The Netherlands and Norway.
- **Alternative measure 'blue collar'**: Around 1 in 3 fathers of students have a blue collar occupation, but this social group is more heterogeneous than for students from low education backgrounds. Comparison shows that the large majority of parents with blue collar status has not attained higher education, but in most cases has attained an educational level higher than up to lower secondary schooling (i.e. ISCED 0-2).
- **Alternative measure 'social standing'**: Students were asked to rate their parents social standing. One in 4 students with low education backgrounds assesses their parents' social standing as high. This latter result may be taken as both an expression of social aspiration, which may not be reflected in the socio-economic reality of a student and/or of the limits of focussing exclusively on educational background as a proxy measure for social background.

Main issues

One of the main topics of higher education policy debates over the last few years has been the social make-up of the student population. The latest documents from within the Bologna Process recognise a growth in participant numbers in higher education, but are increasingly turning their focus to the question of who is getting into higher education. The 47 ministers responsible for higher education concur that one of their main goals for 2020 is to ensure the 'maximisation of talent' by looking at what they term the 'social dimension" of higher education (Leuven/Louvain-la-Neuve Communiqué, 2009). This is an interesting juncture, as 2 separate agendas appear to be merging within the Bologna Process.

On the one hand, there is the social justice argument that the social dimension is about assuring equity – about an equality of opportunities in order to create a better, more socially cohesive society. On the other hand, the social dimension is being seen as a human capital argument about maximising talent and its application – a mechanism with which to assure sufficient participation in higher education to satisfy labour market demand. The quantitative demand for a highly skilled workforce can only be fulfilled in the long run, if countries recruit higher education students from all social strata and from different stages in their life course. This practical argument for the social dimension is made all the more urgent in view of the demographic developments expected for Europe (Moses, 2010; Orr, 2010).

This chapter focuses on certain characteristics of students' parents in order to investigate how well the student population represents the general population or the extent to which higher education is socially selective, i.e. certain groups are over-represented or under-represented. The data presented here largely reflect policy initiatives to improve equity of higher education participation (so-called 'participative equity').

Highest educational attainment of students' parents

This chapter, and indeed the ensuing chapters, will focus on the educational background of students, i.e. the highest education attainment of their parents. In international comparisons the educational attainment of students' parents is often viewed as a useful proxy-indicator for the impact of socio-cultural and economic factors on access to higher education. The International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) is accepted across most countries as an appropriate way of classifying different levels of educational attainment. Furthermore, using an educational indicator is thematically appropriate, since it can be assumed that parents' educational experiences and aspirations are passed on to their children as a minimum level, which their children are expected to reach.

Social mobility exists in a higher education system the moment a student, whose parents have not been to higher education themselves, enters a higher education institution. This could be called a *simple measure for social mobility*. Therefore, this chapter will start with a look at the share of students in the national higher education systems by different educational backgrounds. The focus will be on comparing students, who have neither a father nor a mother who attained higher education (i.e. ISCED 5A, 5B or 6) with those, whose parents did. The share of students with a low education background, namely neither with father or mother, who has reached a higher educational

level than first stage of secondary education (ISCED 0-2), will be highlighted. This group deserves special attention since it is often the focus of initiatives to widen participation.

It is furthermore interesting to ask which person in the students' family would seem to have the most influence on a students' participation in higher education. For this reason, data will be presented on the backgrounds of students differentiated by highest attainment of fathers (a standard indicator), mothers and parents (i.e. highest attainment of either father or mother). In his analysis using a different data set to the one presented here, Koucký (2010) has shown that there are differences in these influences between countries and over time.

Social reproduction is about the self-protection of the social elite and one way of doing this is to protect access to education; in other words, a relative exclusion of other social groups. This phenomenon is usually related to the MMI-theory, the theory of maximally maintained inequality (Raftery & Hout, 1993, pp. 41-62).

This means that the share of students, whose parents attained higher education, is often overrepresented. This can be measured by looking at the share of these students and comparing this share to the general population in a country. If the share is higher than the share of adults in the general population of corresponding age to the students' parents, one can talk about social reproduction and social exclusion. This is because, based on the assumption that intelligence is equally distributed throughout society, a fair system of entry to higher education would reflect the make-up of the general population. The measure presented here can be termed the *relative social mobility rate*.

The 'performance' of a country on relative social mobility is also related to the share of the population, whose parents have not been to higher education, because this group gives the volume of potential students, who have to be encouraged to enter higher education. It could be argued that the lower the share of people in a population, whose highest educational attainment is below tertiary education level, the harder it is to encourage this declining group into higher education.

Unique to this round of EUROSTUDENT is the availability of data on the characteristics of students by social background. This provides information on who the socially mobile students are. This is very relevant for a better understanding of what it means to open up higher education to new groups of students, since these student characteristics will determine the framework conditions around which students will want to and will have to organise their studies.

Alternative measures of social background

An additional – rather common – proxy-indicator of socio-economic background in international studies is the occupation of students' parents. Similarly to the ISCED-classification for education, there is an international classification for occupations called the ISCO-classification. However, this system is not so evenly operationalised between countries and so its reliability for comparison is more limited. In discussions within the EUROSTUDENT Network there was a general acceptance of this categorisation scheme. However, as in other international studies intent on using this scheme to reflect social strata, a number of critical issues have been raised which limit the value of the statistical picture drawn by it. The first is whether students are able to classify their parents' occupations in such abstract terms (e.g. craft and related trades workers vs. elementary occupations). The second is whether such a complex list is really necessary. In fact, the comparative

analysis focuses on parents with a so-called 'blue-collar occupation', i.e. an occupational group which performs (skilled or unskilled) manual or technical labour. This group is chosen because of its relatively low chances of entering higher education. When possible, country data provides a more detailed breakdown of participation, since the blue-collar group is only one part – in some countries a rather small part – of the working population. Comparative figures for other status groups can be useful for a more comprehensive assessment of how inclusive a higher education system is (see the National Profiles → DRM).

This chapter will present data for relative social mobility using the occupation of students' parents for reasons of comprehensiveness. The results will then be related to the results for students' parents' highest education attainment in order to check the fit of the education-based proxy for social background against this alternative.

In the comparative report from EUROSTUDENT III we wrote: 'For the next round of EUROSTUDENT it would be appropriate to follow discussions in this area concerning other approaches to capturing parents' socio-economic situation.' An alternative measure, which was developed based on the results of another comparative project (ISJP, 2001), asks students to self-assess the social standing of their parents. This measure was introduced into the EUROSTUDENT data set as an experiment in order to see if a subjective assessment could capture social background in a more comprehensive way than with the other 2 measures. Some first results will be presented in this chapter. However, further testing of the results will be necessary before this can be adopted as a key independent variable for analysis of differences in student study conditions.

What is not covered in this chapter

Since much attention is currently spent on looking at the social background of students in order to try and understand the questions of social equity in higher education, it may be useful to briefly state what is not in this chapter, but would be relevant for analysis. The 3 main blind spots in the data are related to (i) potential students, who do not enter higher education, (ii) the quality and stratification of higher education provision within the system and (iii) an assessment of who actually graduates from higher education and what their chances are on the job market.

We analyse students and not potential students (i). This means that we can only see the results of the phenomena of social exclusion or inclusion, but not where this process might have occurred. Information on the characteristics of people, who decide for higher education in comparison to those who decide against higher education, would allow for a better understanding of the causes of social mobility promotion or hindrance. At the same time, we would argue that the remedial argument for policy development is evident in most educational systems (Moses, 2010). This means, because higher education is at the top of the hierarchy of any educational system, higher education institutions have – to an extent – the task of remedying negative impacts, which might have occurred earlier in the system (→ Chapter 2).

We see that a share of the population has obtained a study place, but not what 'value' that place has in the higher education system (ii). A higher education system might have very explicit or rather covert forms of difference between institutions and between study programmes. An example of the first sort would be the existence of universities and colleges of applied science, on the one hand, and Bachelor degrees and associate (shorter, lower level) degrees, on the other. An example of the latter sort might be that all higher education institutions are called universities, but externally a very clear

hierarchy between the institutions is perceived. Burton Clark (1960, pp. 569-576) first pointed to this development in American higher education in the 1960s, terming it the 'cooling out function', i.e. allowing potential students to enter higher education, but offering them a provision at a lower level than normal, more appropriate to their abilities.[1] A proposition, which views the same phenomenon from a slightly different perspective, is the further development of the MMI-theory from Lucas (2001), who speaks about Effectively Maintained Inequality. In other words, the system structure is not binary – you are in or out – but stratified and the elite will always try to protect the higher echelons of the system. The problem with this issue for comparative higher education is that we have no way of systematically describing this hierarchy in a way which is reliably comparable between countries.[2] This is therefore an issue for further research in smaller scale cross-country studies (however, see also → Chapter 10 on international mobility by social background).

Arguments for improving the social equity in higher education do not only focus on access to higher education institutions, but also the conditions during a person's study path and also equal chances of successful completion of studies (iii). In other words, this chapter only provides insights into the first hurdle, which non-traditional students have to overcome. In the coming chapters, study conditions will be looked at in order to assess equal or non-detrimental treatment during studies. However, as the EUROSTUDENT data set captures only students within their study period, it cannot say anything about their success on completion of their course or their future prospects. We do, however, ask these students to give us their own conjecture on their course of studies and future chances on the job market (→ Chapter 11 – to be included in the book version of this report).

[1] Cf. also a recent analysis of this issue in French higher education: Verley & Zilloniz (2010).

[2] To a certain degree, the PISA study has solved this issue for schooling with the index for school separation which measures the extent to which a country has sorted children from different socio-economic backgrounds, with zero representing a country in which all schools have a similar social composition. However, since the EUROSTUDENT national samples are seldom representative at institutional level such a comparison of homogeneity and heterogeneity is not possible.

Data and interpretation

In many countries, more than half of all students' parents did not attend higher education themselves

As mentioned in the introduction, a simple measure for social mobility is the share of students coming from various backgrounds. The analysis will start out from the highest educational attainment of students' parents as a unit, i.e. it is the highest level which either of them attained. Using a standard demarcation, which will be used throughout the report, we differentiate between 3 educational levels according to the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED 97 – see also Box 3.1):

- **Low education**: students' father/mother/neither of them has attained an educational level higher than lower secondary education (ISCED 0-2).
- **High education**: students' father/mother/either of them has attained higher education (also termed tertiary education) (ISCED 5A, 5B and 6)
- **Non-tertiary education**: students' father/mother/neither of them has attained an educational level higher than post-secondary non-tertiary education (ISCED 0-4), i.e. not high education. This group includes 'low education'. It is used here occasionally, as the group 'low education' is very small in some countries.

Box 3.1 The International Standard Classification of Education for comparison of educational attainment across countries – Definitions

Low education: The ISCED levels 0, 1 and 2 are considered low as they do not progress beyond lower secondary education. They consist of qualifications obtained in pre-primary education (ISCED 0), primary education (1) and lower secondary education (2).
High education: This group is sometimes also referred to as 'tertiary education attainment', it encompasses the ISCED levels 5A, 5B and 6. ISCED level 5A programmes are programmes that are largely theoretically based and are intended to provide sufficient qualifications for gaining entry into advanced research programmes and professions with high skills requirements. Qualifications in category 5B are typically shorter than those in 5A and focus on occupationally specific skills geared for entry into the labour market, although some theoretical foundations may be covered in the respective programme. In some countries with strong vocational training systems (e.g. Austria and Germany), ISCED 5B is also the classification for high vocational qualifications, although these are not generally considered part of the tertiary education system. ISCED 6 is reserved for tertiary programmes which lead to the award of an advanced research qualification.
Non-tertiary: The group non-tertiary is used frequently in this chapter because the volume of students in the low education category is small in some countries. It encompasses the levels 0-2, as explained above and additionally the qualifications below the high education level, i.e. upper secondary education (ISCED 3) and post-secondary non-tertiary education (4). Both the organisation of these levels and indeed the problems of differing classifications make this group less comparable across countries than the low education group.
The ISCED classification is currently under review as it has become clear that it is not used consistently in all countries and because it is necessary to adapt it to account for the Bachelor and Master programmes, which are both classified currently under ISCED 5A. For further information on the system please see the UNESCO webpage at: www.uis.unesco.org/isced

In Figure 3.1, strong differences can be found on this measure between the EUROSTUDENT countries. 3 broad groups of countries can be identified in chart (a):

- Over 1/3 of students have parents whose combined highest educational attainment is classified as low education in Ireland, Malta, Turkey and Portugal.
- Between 10% and 25% of students have this background in Finland, Czech Republic, France, The Netherlands, Italy and Spain.
- In the remaining countries less than one in 10 students have this background.

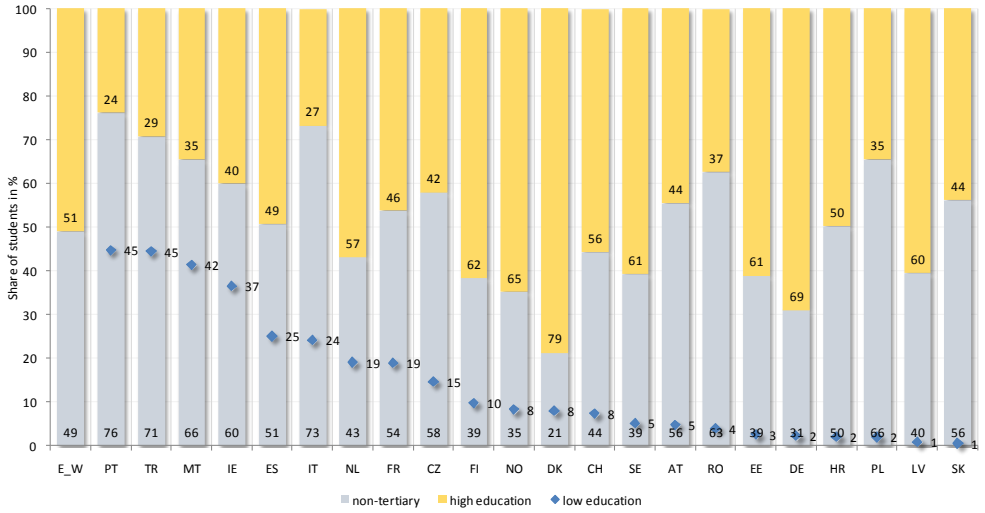
In 12 of the countries in chart (a), the share of students neither of whose parents attained higher education (i.e. classified as non-tertiary) is also high at over 50%. This is particularly the case for countries of the first 2 groups. That means that their higher education systems, especially, are performing the important integrative task of getting those students into and through higher education whose parents have had no experience of higher education. On this measure alone, the higher education systems of Portugal, Turkey, Malta and Ireland are providing important chances for new social mobility in their respective countries. These are countries, whose higher education systems have expanded rapidly within the last decade.

Chart (b) show the same indicator, this time focussed on students' fathers. This is because it is traditionally a standard indicator for looking at social mobility (and will be used extensively in this chapter). Using the same range of values as above, Spain, Italy, and The Netherlands join the countries Portugal, Turkey, Malta and Ireland in the first group with a share of low education background students over around 1/3 or over.

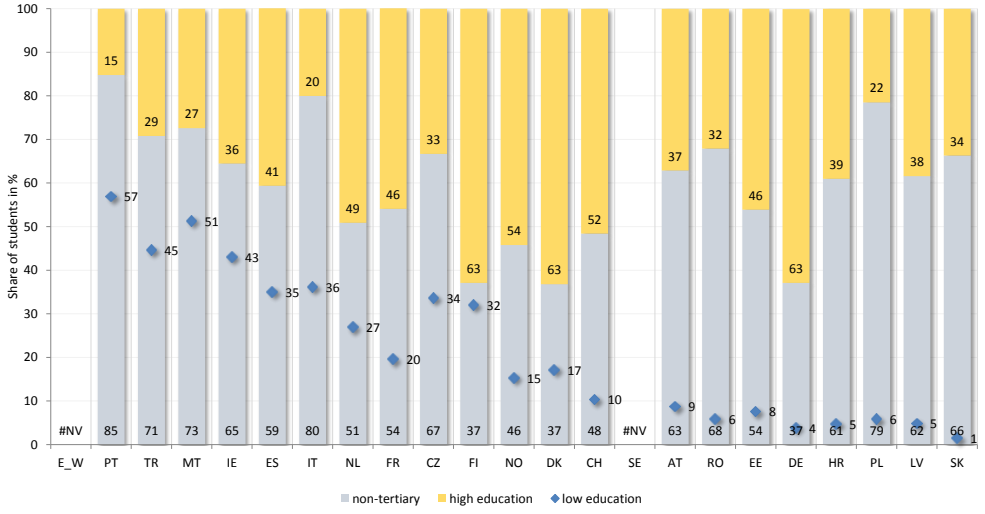
In chart (c), mothers' education background is shown and the 3 groups remain visible, although there is more movement between them on the margins.

Fig. 3.1 Social mobility of students by parental indicator – Highest educational attainment of students' parents as share of total student population

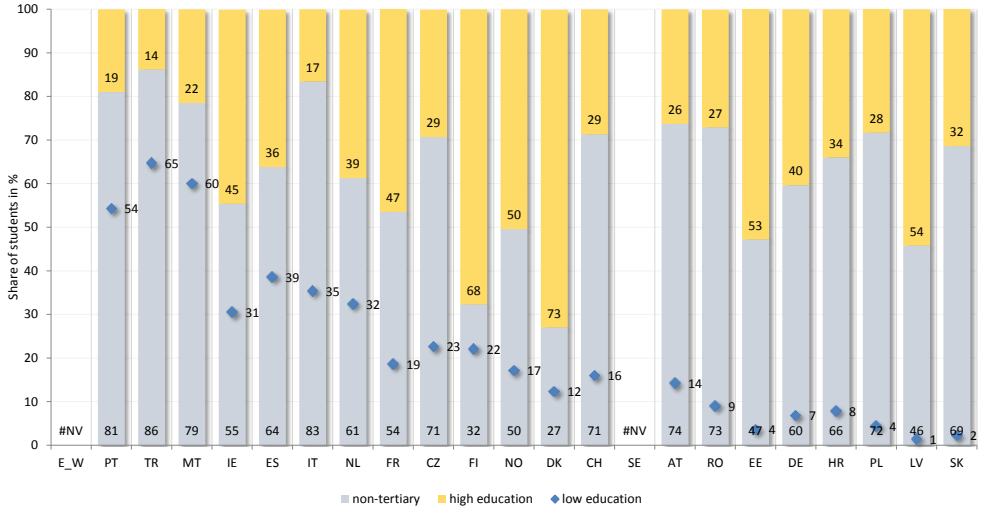
a) Highest attainment of at least one parent of student in %



b) Highest attainment of students' fathers in %



c) Highest attainment of students' mothers in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, C.3. No data: LT, SI. No data for highest attainment of mothers/fathers: E/W, SE. No part-time students in sample: DK, LV. High education background oversampled: DK. Low education includes ISCED 3c: CZ.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 6.1 What is the highest level of education your father and mother have obtained?

The limitation of this first analysis is that it gives little insight into the relative social mobility of a society. In each of the EUROSTUDENT countries, the relative share of potential students from each of the 3 groups differs. In Figure 3.2 chart (a), the 2 factors are displayed together. Namely: the share of fathers with high education attainment (y-axis) and the share of men of corresponding age (40-60) in the national population with the same level of educational attainment (x-axis). We compare the shares of students' fathers and 'potential' students' fathers in the general population to gain insight into the balance between them. If, for example, 10% of students' fathers had a low education background and 10% of the total national male population of corresponding age had the same, we could talk about equilibrium.

In chart (a) we investigate the overrepresentation of students' fathers with high education attainment as a measure of relative social exclusivity of the various higher education systems. The regression line gives an impression of the link. In general, the share of students' fathers with this background is twice as high as in the population of corresponding age. However, there are big country differences.

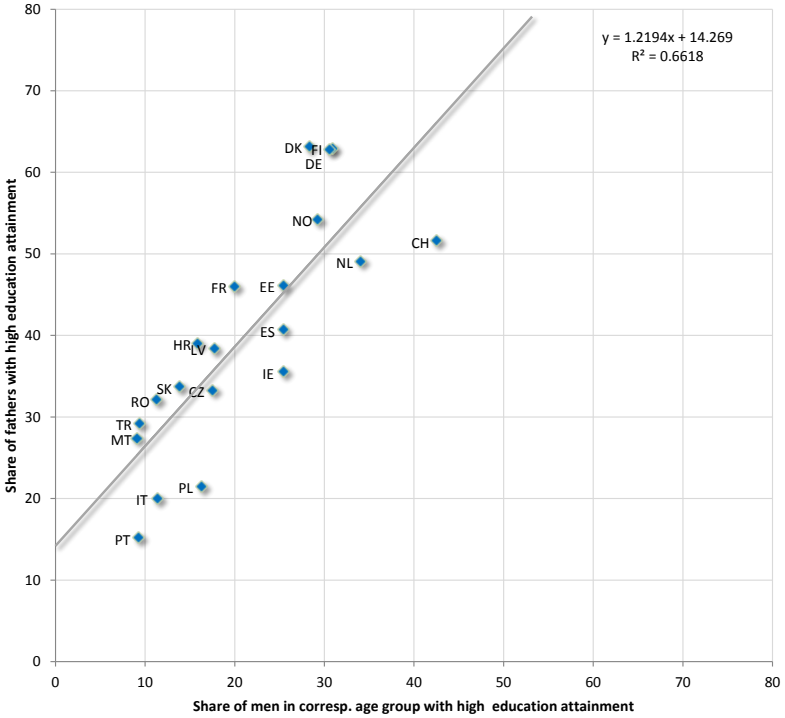
- In Switzerland, the share of students' fathers with high education attainment is 52% (see also Figure 3.1), whilst the share in the general population is 43%. This means that the overrepresentation is relatively low compared with the other countries. The same goes for The Netherlands, Spain, Ireland, Poland, Italy and Portugal (they are below the line in the chart). According to the national research team in Switzerland their country's result shows the contribution of the universities of applied science in encouraging participation of students from lower social backgrounds.
- In Finland, Germany, France and 9 further countries, the share of students' fathers with high education backgrounds is higher than the comparison with other countries would predict, i.e. there is a high overrepresentation (they are above the line in the chart).

In chart (b) the low education group of students is investigated, i.e. those whose fathers attained no higher than lower secondary education. In this case, the comparison shows a general tendency for the share of students with this background to be 30% lower than in the general population of males of corresponding age.

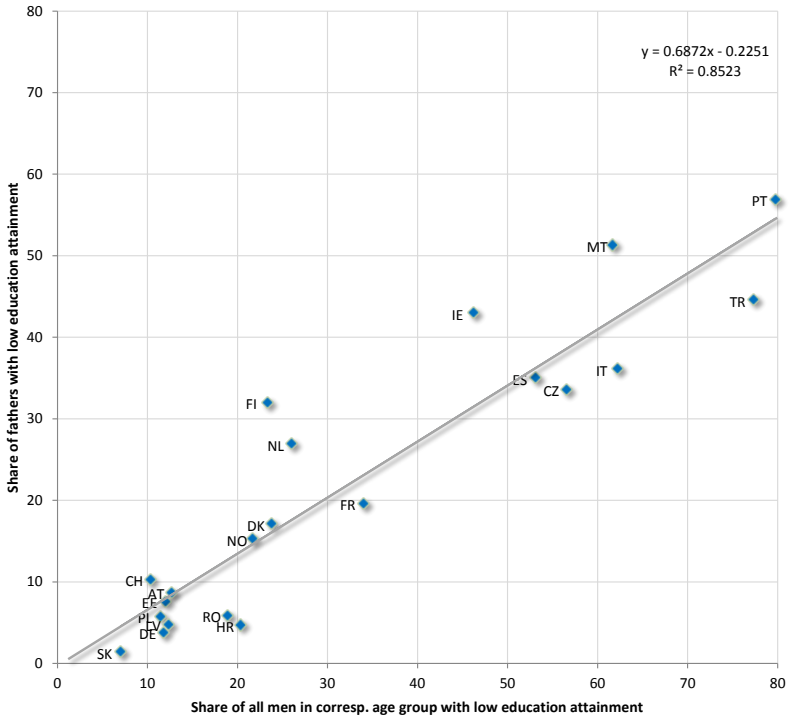
- Again, it is particularly Switzerland, The Netherlands and Ireland, but also Finland, Portugal and Malta which have a lower share than predicted by the comparison, i.e. with a lower overrepresentation (they are above the line in the chart). There are a further 5 countries on the borderline.

Fig. 3.2 Relative social mobility for students by social background – fathers' highest educational attainment against highest educational attainment of corresponding age group in the country population (national statistics)

a) Students' fathers with high education (ISCED 5-6) in %



b) Students' fathers with low education (ISCED 0-2) in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, C.3 and national statistics/LFS. No data: E/W, SE, LT, SI. No data fathers with high education: AT. Population statistics from the Eurostat LFS 2009 for: HR, NL, PT, RO. No part-time students in sample: DK, LV. High education background oversampled: DK. Low education includes ISCED 3c: CZ.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 6.1 What is the highest level of education your father and mother have obtained?
Note: The regression line shows the correlation between the 2 variables. In chart (a), countries above the line have a share of students whose fathers have attained higher education, which is higher than the share of males in the corresponding age group would predict (= overrepresentation). In chart (b), countries below the line have a share of students whose fathers have attained only low education, which is lower than the share of males in the corresponding age group would predict (= underrepresentation).

Only few countries' higher education systems can be classified as socially inclusive

The results of the comparison in Figure 3.2 have been brought together in Figure 3.3. For each country 2 index values have been calculated. They are:

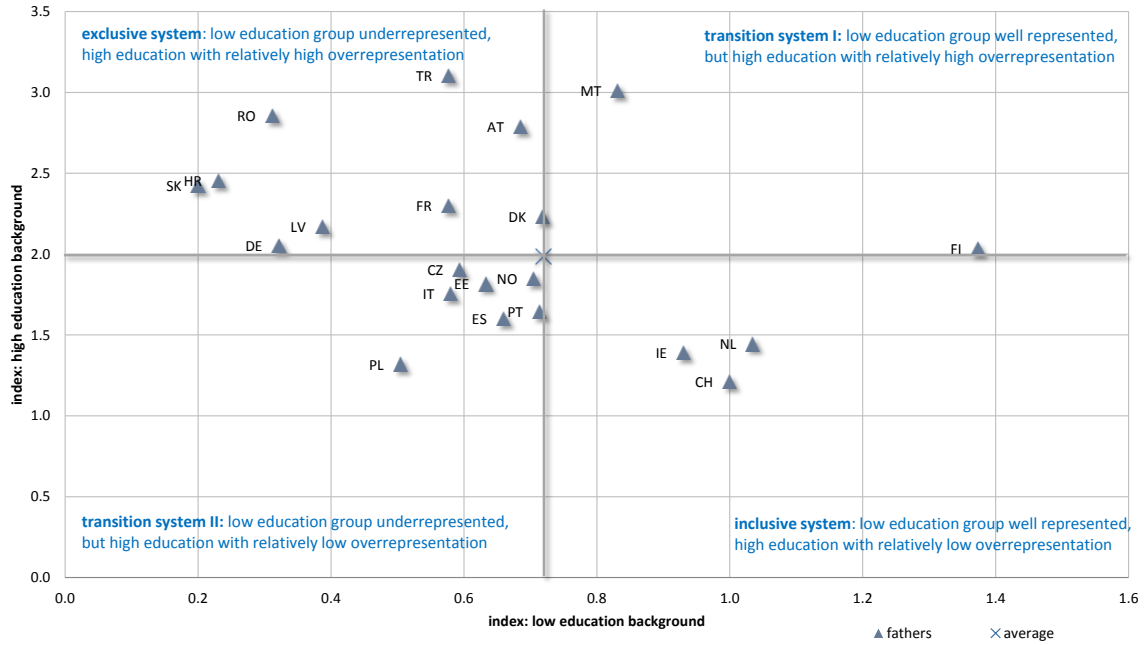
- X-axis: the share of fathers with low education attainment divided by the share of men of corresponding age (40-60) in the national population with the same level of educational attainment.
- Y-axis: the share of fathers with high education attainment divided by the share of men of corresponding age (40-60) in the national population with the same level of educational attainment.

It is important to bring both aspects together for the final analysis because between the groups of students with a low education and those with a high education background is a third group. These students have parents – in this case: fathers – who did not attain tertiary education, but did achieve a education level above lower secondary school, i.e. they have a high non-tertiary educational attainment. This group is interesting for 2 reasons: (i) initiatives may be carried out to especially assist students from low education backgrounds and their benefit may be to the detriment of the middle group, where some potential students may not have the strong educational aspiration or the means of the high education group and will miss out on support, and (ii) this group grows in size over time as the general population becomes better educated. By comparing the advantages and disadvantages of both the high and low education groups for each country we are implicitly accounting for this middle group.

Figure 3.3 uses the average index value for both measures – low and high education – in order to create a 4-field matrix. The result is typology of social inclusiveness of European higher education systems with 2 clear opposites: the inclusive and the exclusive systems and 2 transition groups. In the main, the clusters are the same as in Figure 3.2.

- Ireland, The Netherlands and Switzerland (and perhaps Finland) can be identified as socially inclusive on both measures: they display a minimal underrepresentation of low education students and a minimal overrepresentation of the high education group.
- Slovakia, Croatia, Romania, Germany, Latvia, Turkey and France (and on the borderline Austria) can be identified as socially exclusive on both measures.
- The remaining countries can be identified as transition systems, since they score well on one of the 2 measures, e.g. Poland, Italy, Spain and Portugal have an overrepresentation of the high education group, which is lower than the average, but have comparatively low scores on low education students. In fact, this means that they are good at motivating students from the middle group (non-tertiary, but above lower secondary level) to enter higher education.

Fig. 3.3 Typology of social inclusiveness of higher education systems - Highest educational attainment of students' fathers as share of corresponding age group in general population (index: 1 = perfect balance) in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, C.3 and national statistics/LFS. No data: SI, LT, SE, E/W. No part-time students in sample: DK, LV. High education background oversampled: DK. Low education includes ISCED 3c: CZ.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 6.1 What is the highest level of education your father and mother have obtained?
Note: The index compares the share of students' parents who have attained e.g. high education with the share of the national population of a corresponding age group (40-60 years) who have attained e.g. high education. An index value of 1 means that both groups are the same size in their respective populations. An index value of 2 means that the share of students' parents with this educational attainment is twice the size of the corresponding age group in the general population, i.e. they are overrepresented.

Low education students are likely to have had a delayed transition to higher education and to study part-time

The EUROSTUDENT data set offers the possibility of investigating the profile of students by their social background. In this section, data is shown on students' transition routes into higher education and their programme of study by educational background. The results show low education students to be likely to enter higher education after a period of interruption between school and university or college (→ Chapter 2) and to study de-facto part-time.

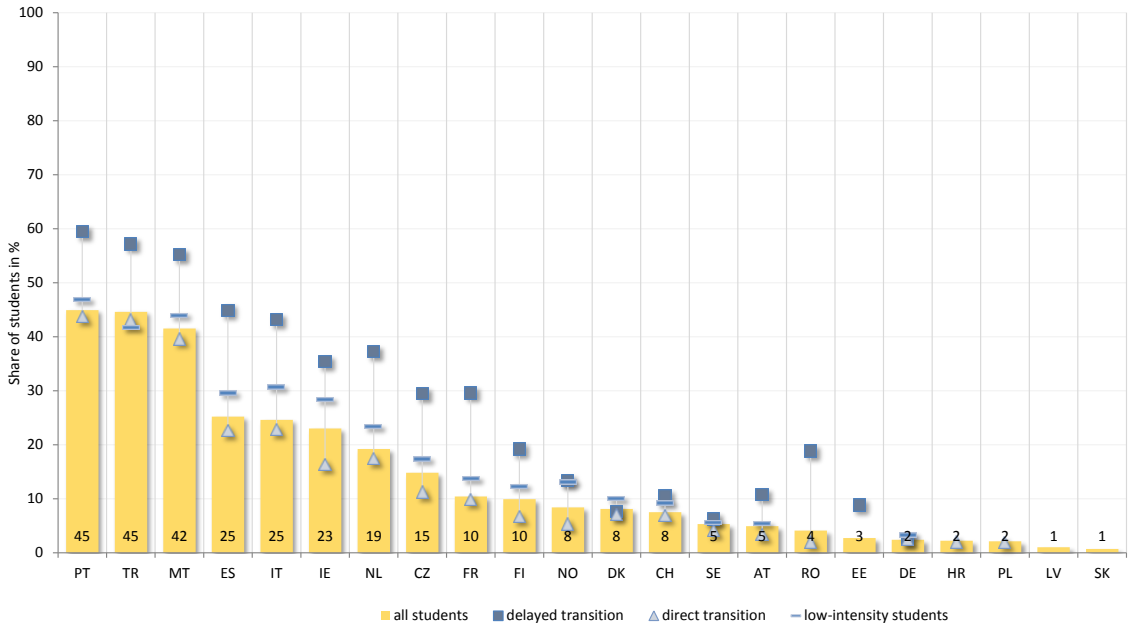
- Figure 3.4 chart (a) shows that the share of delayed transition students with a low education background is higher than for direct transition students. In fact, on average it is twice as high. Irrespective of the actual share of low education students, the share of low education students entering via delayed transition routes is well over double compared to their direct transition counterparts in the countries: Romania, Austria, France, Finland, Czech Republic, Ireland, The Netherlands and Norway.
- In the countries Germany, Denmark and Turkey there is little difference between the groups, but this has more to do with the fact that such a delay between leaving school and entering higher education is quite common (→ Chapter 2).
- Chart (a) also shows that low education students are likely to study de-facto part-time (i.e. low-intensity). On average, the share of low-intensity students with this background is 20% higher than in the general student population. The difference between the 2 groups is particularly high in Norway, Germany and France.
- In the cases of Turkey, Portugal, Malta and indeed Sweden, the difference between the 2 groups is negligible, meaning that student social background is not the main driver for low-intensity studies.

The picture is broadly the same in chart (b), which focuses on students whose parents have a non-tertiary background. However, in this case there is much less difference by intensity of studies.

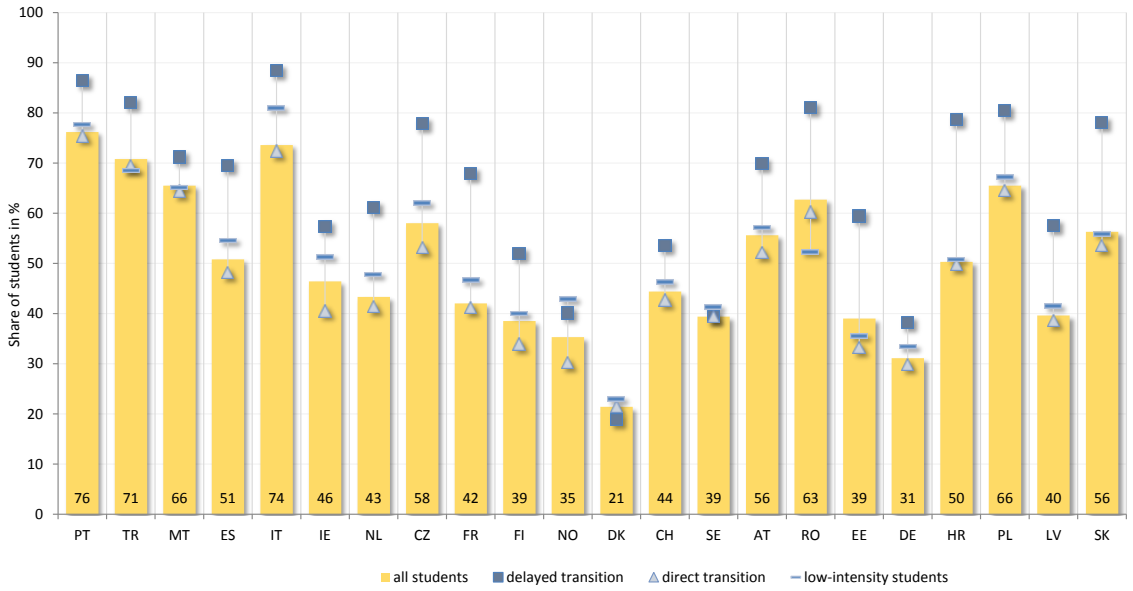
- In most countries, the share of students with non-tertiary backgrounds studying as de facto part-time students (i.e. low-intensity students) is roughly the same or lower than for the total student population.
- Major exceptions are Norway, France, Ireland, Italy and The Netherlands with shares around 10% higher for de facto part-time students from non-tertiary backgrounds.

Fig. 3.4 Students with low education and non-tertiary education background by transition route into higher education and study intensity

a) Low education background (ISCED 0-2) in %



b) Non-tertiary education background (including low educ.) (ISCED 0-4) in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, C.5. No data: E/W, LT, SI. Too few cases: low education/delayed transition: HR, LV, PL, SK; low education/direct transition: EE, LV, SK.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 6.1 What is the highest level of education your father and mother have obtained? 3.11 How many hours do you spend in a typical week…? 2.2 What qualification did you use for higher education entry? 2.3 When did you get the qualification used for entering higher education? 2.4. When did you enter higher education for the first time?

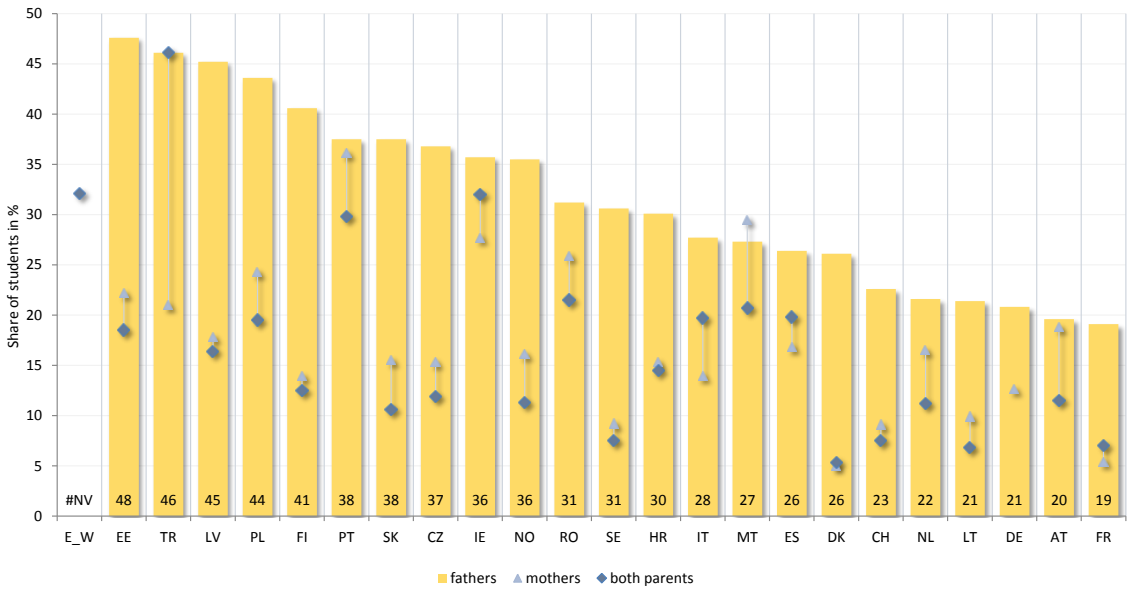
Around 1/3 of students' fathers have a blue collar occupation, but this group is more heterogeneous than for students from low education backgrounds

A further simple measure for social mobility is the share of students in a higher education system whose parents have or had a 'blue collar' occupation (see Box 3.2 for definition). As in the previous sections, the focus is set here on fathers' occupation. However, information on the mothers and whether students' parents have a blue collar occupation is also included in Figure 3.5 in order to provide a comprehensive picture.

The comparison shows that the share of students' fathers with a blue collar occupation ranges between 20% and 45%, whilst the share of mothers with such an occupation is much lower. This latter statistic is also related to whether mothers work at all, which is a further weakness of this statistic in comparison (since everyone has an educational background, but not everyone has an occupation). The share for parents as a unit is lower since at least one of the 2 parents is likely to have a higher occupational status than blue collar.

- In Figure 3.5, many of the countries on the left-hand side were also shown on the left-hand side in Figure 3.1, chart (b). This is especially the case for Portugal, Turkey and Ireland, where the share of students with blue collar backgrounds and low education backgrounds is over 1/3 in both cases.
- Again, the higher education systems of Estonia, Turkey, Latvia, Poland, Finland, Portugal, Slovakia, Czech Republic, Ireland and Norway can be said to be performing an important social integration role with the respective share of students whose fathers have a blue collar occupation lying over 1/3.
- On the assumption that the parents indicator shows that neither parents have a higher occupational status than blue collar, the highest level of integration is to be found in Turkey, Ireland, England/Wales and Portugal.

Fig. 3.5 Students' parents with 'blue collar' occupation as share of total student population by parent variables in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, C.2. No data: SI. No data fathers/mothers: E_W. No data for parents: DE. National definitions used for 'blue collar': AT, DE, E/W.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 6.3 What are the most recent or former occupations of your father and mother?

Box 3.2 The use of international categories to capture 'blue-collar' workers

The International Standard Classification of Occupations was developed in the 1950s to facilitate international comparisons of labour market structures and has been used widely to analyse social strata. The current coding was revised in 1988 and a further revision is planned. ISCO-88 organises occupations in a hierarchical framework.

The unit of classification at the lowest level – a job – is defined as a set of tasks or duties designed to be executed by one person. Jobs are grouped into occupations according to the degree of similarity in their constituent tasks and duties. Although each job may be distinct in terms of the output required from the person who executes the constituent tasks, the jobs are judged to be sufficiently similar in terms of the abilities required as inputs into these tasks for them to be regarded as a single occupational unit for statistical purposes. A key concept then is the skill level required to fulfil certain tasks. On the top level there are 10 occupational groups, which may be grouped for general purposes into 'white-collar' and 'blue-collar' occupations – see table below.

<table>
<tr><th>ISCO-88 Basic occupational groups</th><th>Eurostat hierarchy</th><th>EUROSTUDENT</th></tr>
<tr><td>1: legislators, senior professionals</td><td rowspan="3">Highly skilled white-collar</td><td rowspan="5">(not applicable)</td></tr>
<tr><td>2: professionals</td></tr>
<tr><td>3: technicians and associate professionals</td></tr>
<tr><td>4: clerks</td><td rowspan="2">Low skilled white-collar</td></tr>
<tr><td>5: service workers and shop and market sales workers</td></tr>
<tr><td>6: skilled agriculture and fishery workers</td><td rowspan="2">Highly skilled blue-collar</td><td rowspan="4">Blue-collar</td></tr>
<tr><td>7: craft and related trades workers</td></tr>
<tr><td>8: plant and machine operators and assemblers</td><td rowspan="2">Low skilled blue-collar</td></tr>
<tr><td>9: elementary occupations</td></tr>
<tr><td>0: military</td><td>(not applicable)</td><td>(not applicable)</td></tr>
</table>

For the purposes of the EUROSTUDENT study, national contributors were asked to use this classification system for their national surveys. In each case, the national survey should contextualise the 10 occupational categories by giving students examples of occupations in their own country. The main focus of the comparison between countries – blue-collar occupations – was defined widely to include both highly skilled and low skilled blue-collar workers. The national data sets in the → DRM distinguish in most cases by each of the 10 occupational groups.

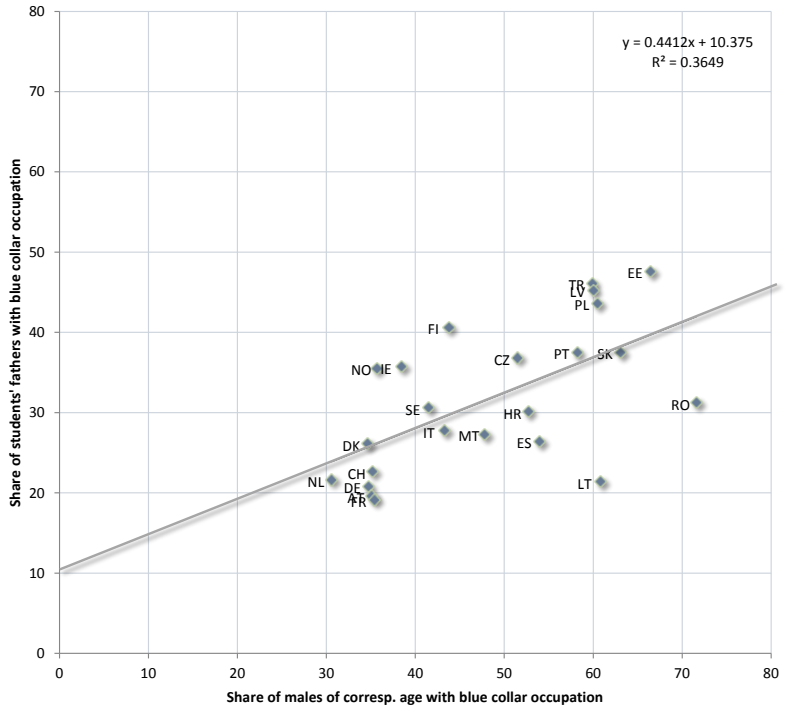
The countries which did not use the ISCO-88 coding to provide data on the occupational status of students' parents were: Austria, Germany, England/Wales.

As was done for educational background, it is also insightful for the blue collar background to compare the share of students' fathers with this occupational status to the share in the general population of males of corresponding age. This measure of relative social mobility is shown in Figure 3.6. It shows a link between the 2 shares across countries, but the correlation is weaker than for educational background.[3] However, on the basis of this general tendency, countries can still be broadly classified as having a higher or lower relative social mobility performance.

- Finland, Ireland, Norway, Sweden, Italy, Denmark, The Netherlands, Switzerland, Germany, Austria and France have a higher share of relative social mobility than the share of male blue collar workers in the general population would predict (they are above the line).
- A particularly low social mobility on this measure is to be found in Lithuania, Romania and Spain.

In comparison with Figure 3.2, chart (b), some countries perform well on both measures of relative social mobility – educational and occupational background of students – some underperform on both measures and some countries perform better on one indicator than the other.

Fig. 3.6 Relative social mobility for students according to 'blue collar' background – fathers' with blue collar occupation against blue collar occupation of corresponding age group in the country population (national statistics)



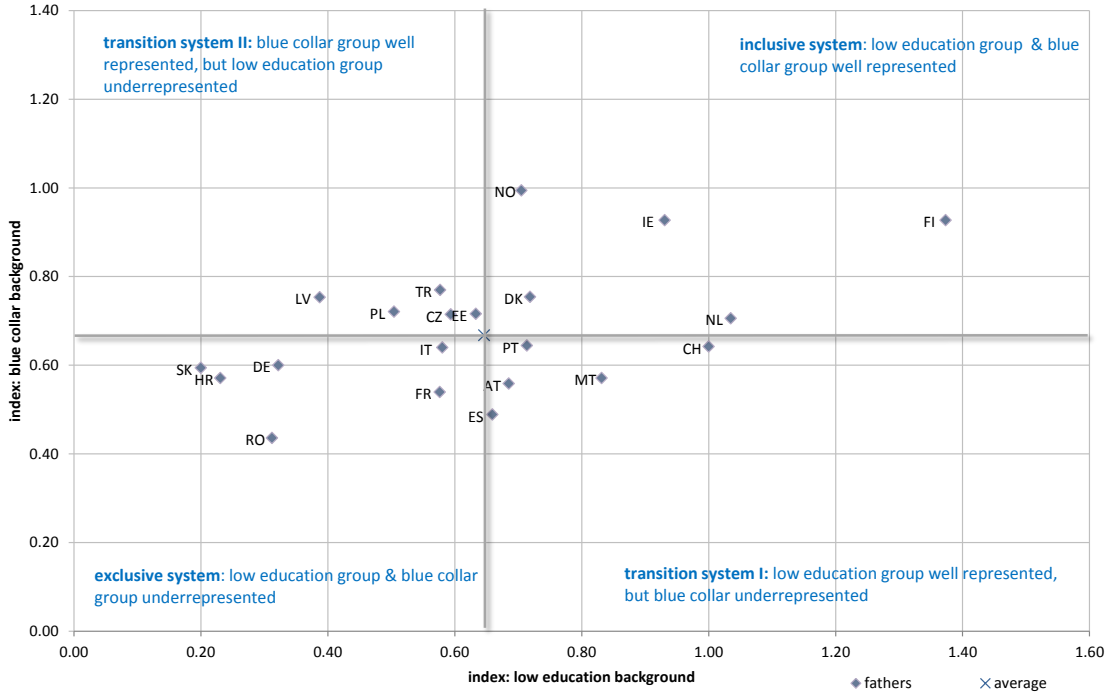
Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, C.2 and national data. No data: E/W, SI. National definitions used for 'blue collar': AT, DE. Population statistics come from the Eurostat LFS 2009 for: IE, LT, NL, PT, RO. No part-time students in sample: DK, LV. High education background oversampled: DK. Low education includes ISCED 3c: CZ.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 6.3 What are the most recent or former occupations of your father and mother?
Note: The regression line shows the correlation between the 2 variables. Countries below the line have a share of students whose fathers have a blue collar occupation, which is lower than the share of males in the corresponding age group would predict (= underrepresentation).

[3] Amongst other things, this may be related to 'status inconsistency" amongst parents, i.e. high level of education, low occupational status or vice versa.

The comparison of relative mobility indices for both blue collar and low education background is shown in Figure 3.7, which is an alternative way of viewing social inclusiveness to Figure 3.3.

- On these measures, 5 countries are shown to be relatively socially inclusive: Finland, Ireland, The Netherlands, Norway and Denmark.
- The more exclusive higher education systems are: Romania, Slovakia, Croatia, Germany, France and Italy.
- The remaining countries are transition systems as they score well on one of the measures, but not on the other.

Fig. 3.7 Typology of social inclusiveness of higher education systems – Highest educational attainment of students' fathers *and* fathers occupational status as share of corresponding age group in general population (index: 1 = perfect balance)



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, C.2 and national data. No data: DE, E_W, SI. No data: LT, PT, SK, CZ, IE, RO, SE, NL. No part-time students in sample: DK, LV. High education background oversampled: DK. Low education includes ISCED 3c: CZ.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 6.1 What is the highest level of education your father and mother have obtained? 6.3 What are the most recent or former occupations of your father and mother?
Note: The index compares the share of students' parents who have attained e.g. low education with the share of the national population of a corresponding age group (40-60 years) who have attained e.g. low education. An index value of 1 means that both groups are the same size in their respective populations. An index value of below 1 means that the share of students' parents with this educational attainment is lower than the size of the corresponding age group in the general population, i.e. they are underrepresented.

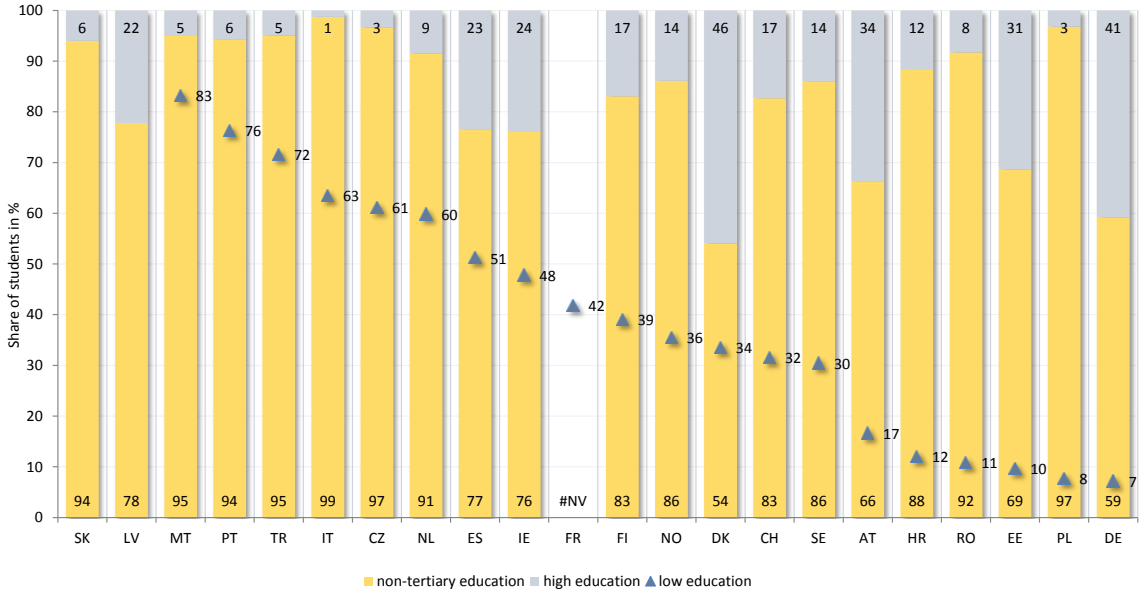
The indicator blue collar occupation has already been characterised here as a more heterogeneous group than the low education group. This is related to the structure of the economy and the job market in each country and is also related to the difficulty in operationalisation of the classification in different countries, despite the international standards.

Figure 3.8 shows the highest educational attainment of either parents (i.e. the household) with the highest occupational status of these parents being blue collar. This comparison shows that the large majority of parents with blue collar status has not attained high education (84% cross-country average), but in most cases (44%) has attained an educational level higher than up to lower secondary (i.e. low education). This may account for countries such as Poland and Estonia doing better on the blue collar index than on the low education index.

1/4 of all students with low education backgrounds assess their parents' social standing as high

A further alternative measure of social mobility, which was introduced in EUROSTUDENT IV, is the self-assessment of students regarding their parents' social standing. This indicator is used only once in this report on account of its exploratory character. Students were asked to assess their parents' social standing on a sliding scale of 10 between 1 'highest social standing' and 10 'lowest social standing'. Figure 3.9 chart (a) shows the respective share of students assessing their parents' social standing as low (between 7 and 10 on the scale) and in chart (b) as high (between 1 and 4). The first results show a strong connection between educational background and assessment of social standing of parents.

Fig. 3.8 Students' parents with 'blue collar' occupation by parents' highest educational attainment in %

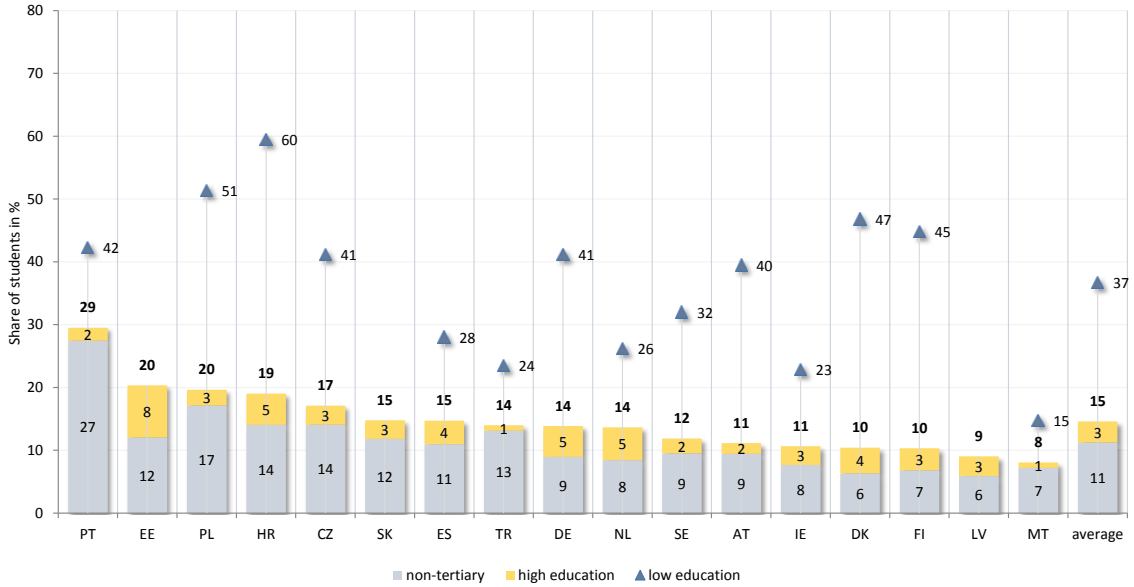


Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, C.4. No data: E/W, LT, SI. No data non-tertiary education: FR. No data high education: FR. No data up to lower secondary: SK, LV.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 6.1 What is the highest level of education your father and mother have obtained? 6.3 What are the most recent or former occupations of your father and mother?

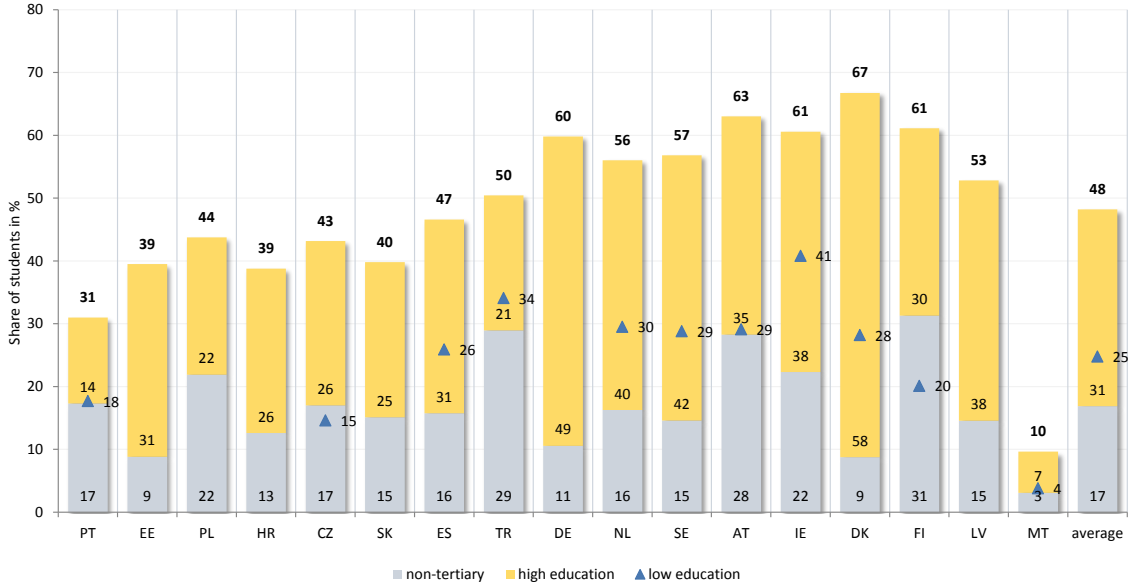
- Whilst 15% of students on average assess the social standing of their parents to be low, 37% of students with low education backgrounds make this assessment.
- Whilst 48% of students on average assess the social standing of their parents to be high, almost 2/3 of these students have a high education background (31% of all students).
- However, it is interesting to note that 1/4 of all low education background students also assess their parents' social standing as high.

Fig. 3.9 Students' assessment of their parents' social standing by highest educational attainment of either parent

a) Low social standing (7-10) in %



b) High social standing (1-4) in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, C.7. No data: CH, E/W, FR, IT, LT, NO, RO, SI. No data low education: EE, SK, LV. Too few cases low education, high social standing: DE, HR, PL.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 6.1 What is the highest level of education your father and mother have obtained?, 6.4 (…) where would you place your parents on this scale (…) 1-10.
Note: Countries ranked by share of students assessing their parents' social standing as low (7-10).

This latter result may be taken as both an expression of social aspiration, which may not be reflected in the socio-economic reality of a student and/or of the limits of focussing exclusively on educational background as a proxy measure for social background. An indication that this second explanation may be especially plausible for some countries is that Portugal, Estonia and Poland have the highest shares of students assessing their parents' social standing as low and are classified in the typology for social inclusiveness in Figures 3.3 and 3.7 as transition systems. Additional national and international research is necessary here to assess the further potential of this indicator.

Chapter 4 – Characteristics of national student populations

Key findings

- **General age profile:** One of the key differences between national student bodies is their age profile, but there are also similarities. Around 2 in 3 students are no older than 24 years. Indeed 80% of students are no older than 24 years in Croatia, Turkey, Lithuania, France, Latvia and Slovakia. Lifelong learners, in terms of a simple age dimension, are to be found most frequently in Norway, England/Wales, Portugal, Austria, Denmark, Estonia, Ireland, with around one in 5 students over the age of 30 years.
- **Age profile of delayed transition students:** Students with a transition period between leaving school and entering higher education of over 2 years (or who take an alternative route, i.e. delayed transition students) are often over 30 years old. However, in more open systems, delayed transition students are often more evenly spread across the age groups, e.g. in Scandinavian countries and Ireland. This suggests that these systems offer many chances of entering higher education via a 2nd chance route to students of various ages.
- **Age profile of de facto part-time students:** It might be assumed that this form of flexible study structure is largely taken up by older students. However, one in 10 students are de facto part-time students and no older than 24 years.
- **Age profile and social background:** Students from higher social backgrounds tend to be younger than students from lower social backgrounds. This result relates to the transition route of students from low social backgrounds, who often do not enter higher education directly after finishing school. In many countries students from low social backgrounds are over 30 years old. There is, however, also a group of countries (e.g. with Turkey and Portugal), where students from low social backgrounds are frequently under 30 years old.
- **Gender profile by programme and transition route:** The feminisation of higher education is apparent at all levels, only 3 countries have more or less balanced student populations: Germany, Turkey and Switzerland. However, differences between the sexes by study programme and transition route are also evident and relevant.
- **Students with children:** The share of students with children reaches one in 8 in some countries (e.g. Scandinavia and Estonia). However, more flexible study provision appears to help and de facto part-time students are more likely to have children than their full-time counterparts in all countries.

Main issues

The general characteristics of national student populations are the result of a mix between traditions, demographic trends and current reforms. They are shaped, therefore, by expectations, opportunities and personal circumstances. This profile is also influenced by transition routes into higher education (→ Chapter 2) and the social make-up of the student body (→ Chapter 3). This chapter focuses on the differences between countries and student groups on the basis of standard characteristics such as age, gender and whether students have children or not. Additionally, it will provide some data on the question of disabled students and how satisfied they are with the support they are offered.

Age will re-appear throughout the report as one of the key markers for differences between countries and student groups. This is related both to the transition routes and the social background of students. It also influences expectations of the appropriate framework conditions for studying. Although a very simple indicator itself, there is good reason to pay attention to it because of the prognoses which forecast an aging student population for almost all European countries during the next decade (Orr, 2010).

A lot has occurred over the past decade in terms of student gender, with an increasing amount of female students entering higher education and indeed dominating certain subject areas. This difference can be captured through standard administrative statistics and will not be dealt with here (Eurostat & HIS, 2009, pp. 54-55). In the previous 2 chapters, we have seen analyses of 2 very interesting student groups, which are both particularly relevant for equity policy. They are the students from low social backgrounds and students who enter higher education later in life. This section will consequently analyse gender differences for these 2 focus groups.

With an aging student population and the large share of women in higher education, the issue of students with children is gaining in importance. On the one hand, mature students already have a family and their successful completion of higher education relies on higher education provision which facilitates a balance between family and academia. On the other, research has shown that students are postponing families and children until later in life and, therefore, will also affect society's demographic balance in the future (e. g. due to later timing of births and lower fertility rates). Therefore, some countries aim to provide family-friendly higher education.

Students with children must divide their resources (time, money) between themselves and their dependent children. This often causes an additional burden for the students, which may put them at a disadvantage compared to their peers without children. Not just the number of children, but also the age of the youngest child is of interest as young children may require more parental resources in terms of time and maybe day-care costs compared to older children.

In many countries, policy or national law stipulates that prospective students should not be deterred from entering or completing their studies due to disabilities, in particular, physical disabilities. Chronic disease, physical disabilities or other kinds of health problems may impair students in taking up or completing studies. Students with severe health problems are more likely to require counseling and support during their studies than their counterparts.

However, the construction of a relatively simple subtopic inside of the EUROSTUDENT data set remains contentious, because of the difficultly of capturing information in this area. This is related

directly to the World Health Organisation's "International Classification of Impairments, Disabilities, and Handicaps" (ICIDH) from 1980. The ICIDH distinguishes between 3 dimensions concerning disabilities: impairment (organ and body dimension), disability (individual dimension) and handicap (social dimension). Thus "disability is a complex phenomenon, reflecting an interaction between features of a person's body and features of the society in which he or she lives."[1]

In discussions with stakeholders and experts from various countries we have found that the awareness of the issues related to disability differs and also the willingness of students to give information on possible disabilities. For this reason, the original EUROSTUDENT indicator was extended here to include both students' self-assessment of their disability (individual dimension) and their satisfaction with how their self-assessed disability is dealt with in the higher education system. To a certain extent, this latter response will reflect differences in the 'social' phenomenon, as it is understood in each country. We consider the combination of self-assessment of disability and then satisfaction rating of how well it is dealt with to provide informative insights into the situation across Europe. However, the value of the results is limited for an international comparison. Therefore, this area will only be dealt with briefly in this chapter.

[1] http://www.who.int/topics/disabilities/en/

Data and interpretation

Around 2 in 3 students are no older than 24 years, but in some countries 1 in 7 Bachelor students are over 30 years old

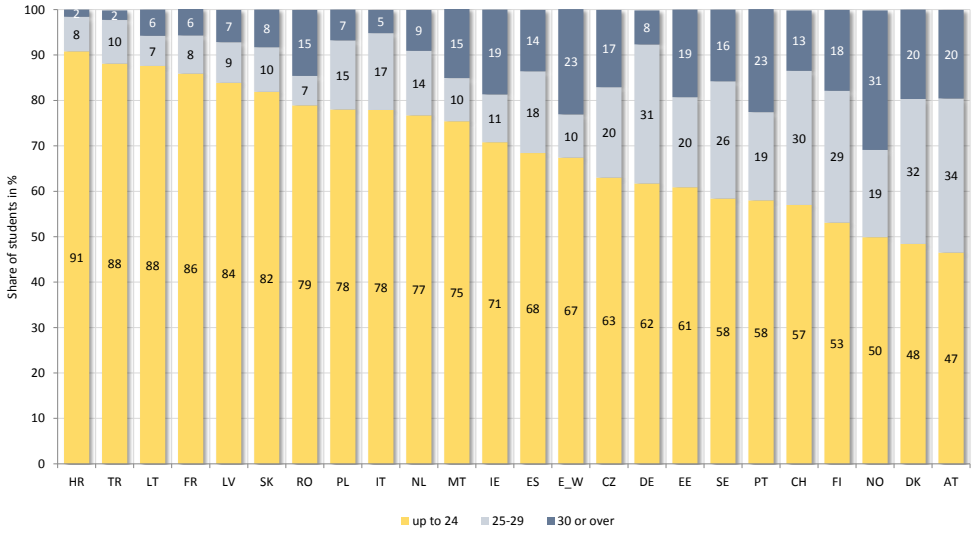
Differences in the age profiles of national student populations result from the different organisation of both higher education entry and progression through the university or college system (→ Chapter 2) and as a consequence of differences in the social background of national student bodies (→ Chapter 3). Around 2/3 of students are in the age bracket up to 24 years old, but large differences on both sides of the scale are apparent – see Figure 4.1, chart (a).

- 4/5 students are within this young age bracket in the countries Croatia, Turkey, Lithuania, France, Latvia and Slovakia. In these countries the share of students between 25 and 29 years old lies no higher than 10%, with the difference between profiles in this country cluster being related to the older age group, the 30 years or over.
- In the countries Austria, Denmark, Finland, Switzerland, Germany and Sweden between 1/4 and 1/3 of students are to be found in the middle age bracket. This is the result of a combination between later starts (→ Chapter 2) and longer (less intensive) studies (→ Chapter 5).
- A particularly interesting group in terms of lifelong learning consists of Norway, England/Wales, Portugal, Austria, Denmark, Estonia, Ireland, with around one in 5 students over the age of 30 years. In fact, this group is closely followed by another 5 countries. In every case this group represents countries which have been able to encourage students to re-enter either the education system via alternative routes (e.g. via special provisions for older students in Portugal; → Chapter 2) or to re-enter higher education following a break between graduating from a Bachelor course and entering Master level programmes within the Bologna study structure (e.g. Ireland and Estonia, → Chapter 2 & 5).
- A focus on Bachelor students (chart b) shows that 3/4 of all Bachelor students are in the youngest age bracket. The countries with the oldest Bachelor students are – in some cases surprisingly – Portugal, Denmark, Czech Republic, Norway and England/Wales, each with more than 15% of their Bachelor students aged 30 or older.
- In chart (c), which looks at Master students, 3 clear country clusters emerge. In the first and biggest group – Croatia, Slovakia, France, Lithuania, Sweden, Poland, Romania, Italy, The Netherlands, Latvia – where the majority of Masters students are no older than 24 years.[2] In the 2nd group – Switzerland, Austria, Denmark, Turkey – with more than 50% of Masters students between the ages of 25 and 29. In the final group – England/Wales, Ireland, Spain, Norway – where over 1/3 of MA students are over the age of 30. This group of students are likely to have had significant professional experience before they commenced their Master course.

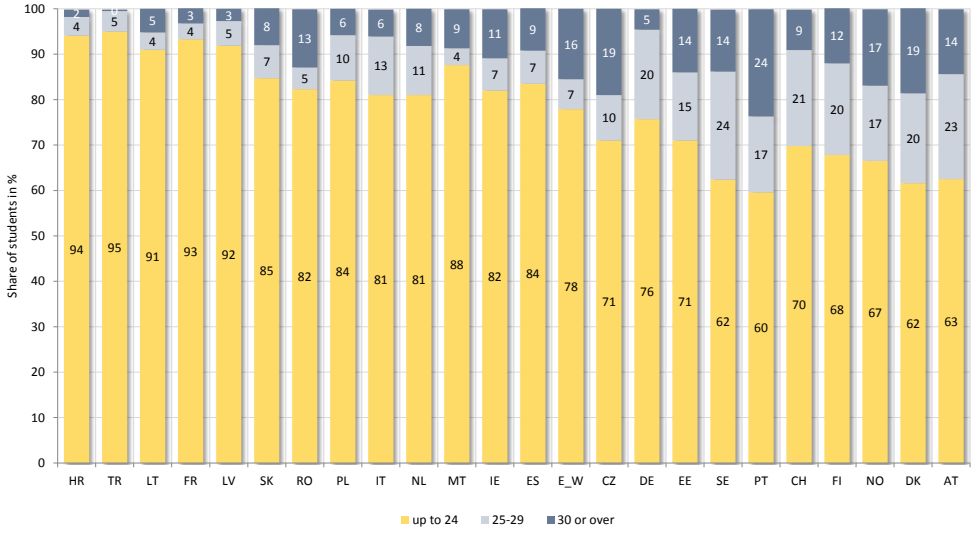
[2] It should be noted that we are looking at a cross-section of current students. This means that they may be a few years older when they finally complete their course.

Fig. 4.1 Students by age and study programme

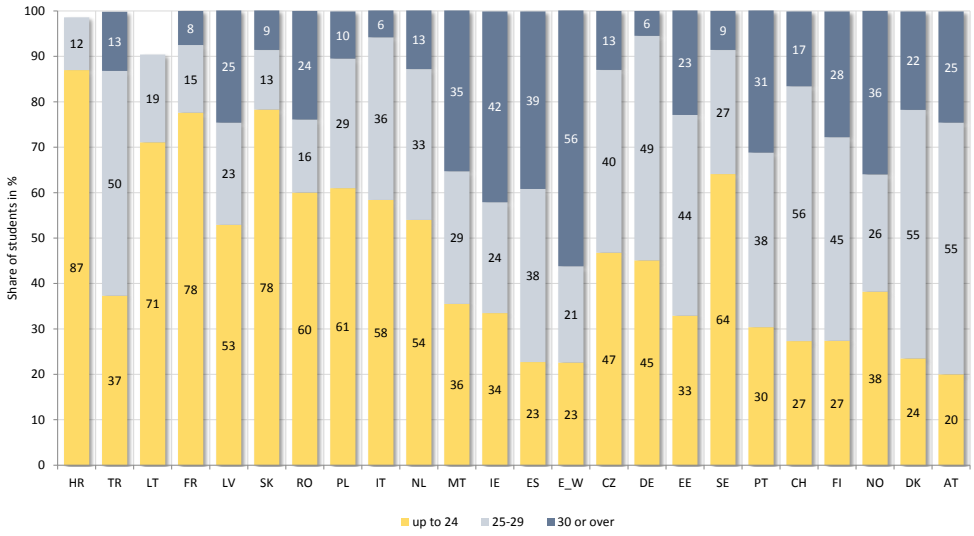
a) All students in %



b) Bachelor students in %



c) Masters students in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, A.1. No data: SI. Too few cases for MA students: HR, LT.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 5.1 When were you born? 1.4 What is the programme you follow?
Note: Older students underrepresented in DK and SE.

Students with a delayed transition into higher education are often over 30 years old and de facto part-time students often no older than 24 years

Beyond the differences by study programme, we can expect variations in age profiles by transition route into higher education and by study modus. In the former case, data for delayed transition students will be examined. According to the definition of this group, we know that they have delayed transition between school and college by at least 2 years, but here we will see the resulting age profile. In the latter case, the analysis shall look at low-intensity students (i.e. our statistical definition for part-time students). It is expected that this modus of studying will be particularly relevant for older students. Is this the case?

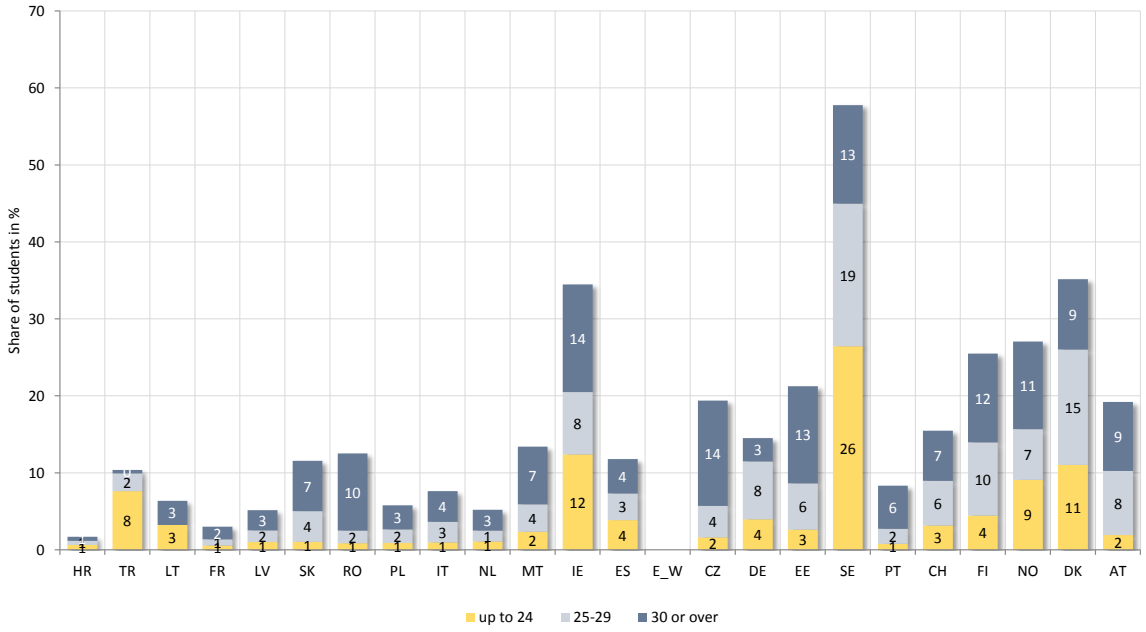
Because there are large differences in the national student populations in the size of these 2 groups, the chart will also reflect the quantitative relevance of the groups by presenting percentages for age brackets related to the overall student population – see Figure 4.2, charts (a) and (b) (→ Chapter 2 and DRM).

- On average, delayed transition students are aged 31 (not shown here). Indeed, chart (a) shows that a large share of delayed transition students – irrespective of their quantitative significance in the respective country – is aged 30 or older and certainly over 24 years old. A comparison between Figure 4.1, chart (a) and Figure 4.2, chart (a) shows that many of the students, who are shown as 30 or older in Figure 4.1 are indeed delayed transition students (e.g. for Romania: 10% of the 15% of students aged 30 or older are delayed transition students, the remaining 5% will be students who interrupted their path after entering higher education).[3]
- It is interesting to compare the countries with the highest quantitative share of delayed transition students in the overall population (e.g. above 25%). Here we see that the higher this share, the higher also the share of delayed transition students in the youngest age group – compare Sweden, Ireland, Denmark, Norway and Finland. In other words, it is a provision taken up by students of very different ages. This is lesser the case in Estonia, Czech Republic, Romania and Portugal, where the smaller overall share of delayed transition students are most likely to be over the age 30 years.
- Turning to low-intensity students, i.e. de facto part-time students (chart b), we see that around 10% of all students are in the age bracket up to 24 years old and – following the definition of low-intensity students – in a typical week spend less than 21 hours on their studies (→ Chapter 6). The biggest exceptions to this trend are Slovakia and Lithuania, where around 1/4 of low-intensity students is no older than 24.
- It is perhaps surprising that fewer older students study in the low-intensity modus. The highest shares of students aged 30 and over (of between 14% and 7%) are to be found in Norway, Austria, Finland, Estonia and Czech Republic. In other words, it is not only the older students which utilise more flexible forms of studying (→ Chapter 5).

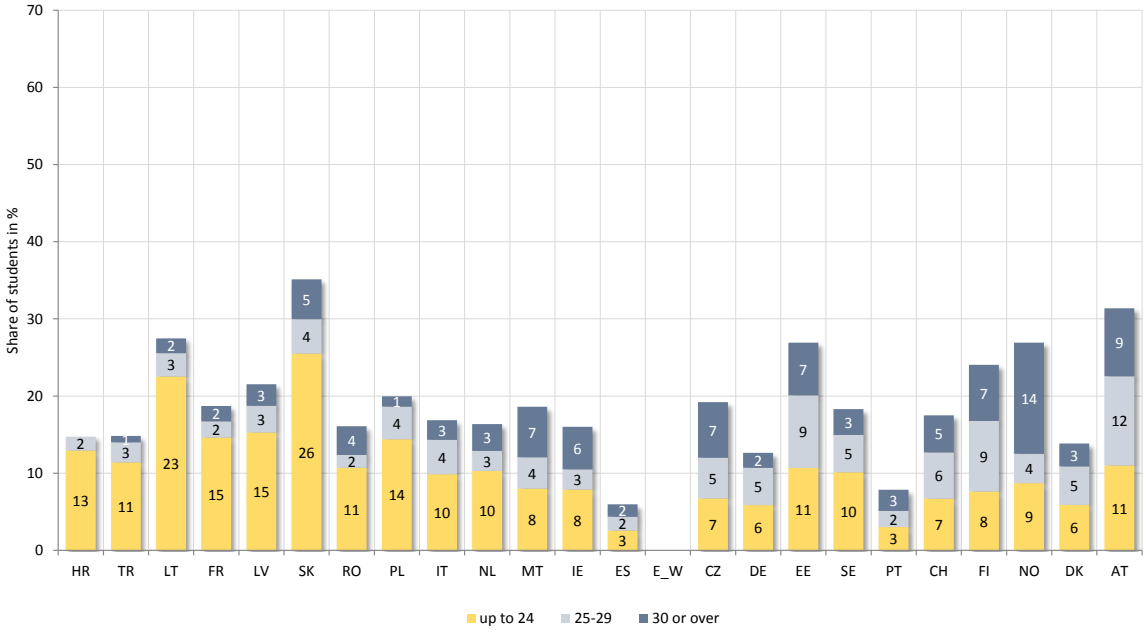
[3] Some differences in total values between the charts are on account of missing values, e.g. it was possible to classify a student by age, but not by transition route.

Fig. 4.2 Students by age, transition route and study intensity

a) Delayed transition students in %



b) Low-intensity students in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, A.1. No data: E/W, SI. Too few cases delayed transition/25-29: LT; low-intensity/30 and over: HR.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 5.1 When were you born?, 2.3 When did you get the qualification used for entering higher education?, 2.4 When did you enter higher education for the first time?, 2.5 When did you start your current programme?, 3.11 How many hours do you spend in a typical week on taught studies, personal study and on paid jobs?
Note: Some differences in total values between the charts are on account of missing values, e.g. it was possible to classify a student by age, but not by transition route.

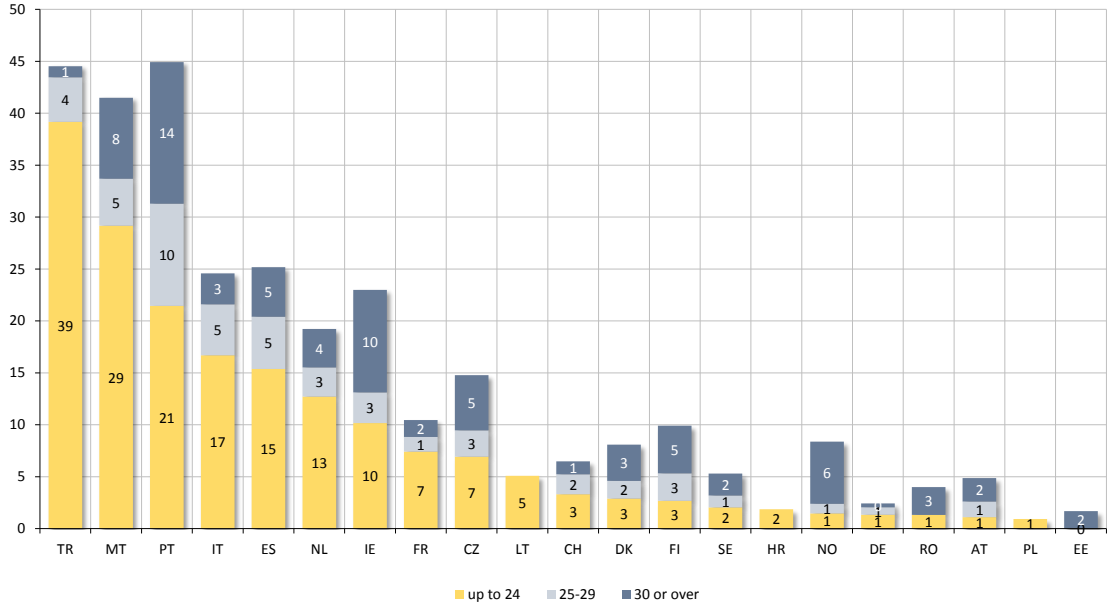
The higher the social background of students, the younger they are

For policies aimed at making higher education more inclusive, it is interesting to see if tendencies can be found for the age pattern of student bodies by education background. This is shown in Figure 4.4. Charts (a), (b) and (c) give age profile for students whose parents have attained higher education, upper secondary school or lower secondary school certificates as the standard EUROSTUENT proxy for social background (→ Glossary). The general trend is that students tend to be younger, the higher the educational attainment of their parents is. This is related to their direct or delayed transition into higher education.

In the chart on students from low social background (chart c), however, it is apparent that low education background students are not always recruited from the older age brackets. The differences between countries in this respect becomes clearer if we relate the overall share of the student population with a low education background with the overall share of said student population by age bracket – see Figure 4.3.

- The chart shows that more than 1/5 of students from lower education backgrounds are 24 years old or less in Turkey, Malta and Portugal.
- On the other hand, in the countries Portugal, Ireland, Malta and Norway substantial shares of students (over 6% of all students) are from lower education backgrounds and 30 years old or over. This result is both related to initiatives to widen participation in the respective countries and the absolute size of the low education background group (→ Chapter 3).

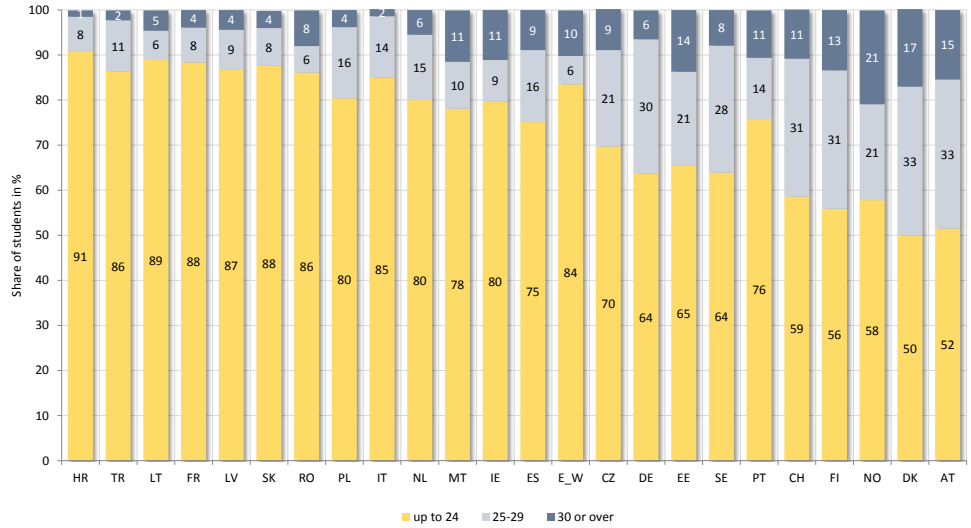
Fig. 4.3 Overall share of students from low social backgrounds by age bracket
Students with low education background (ISCED 0-2) in %



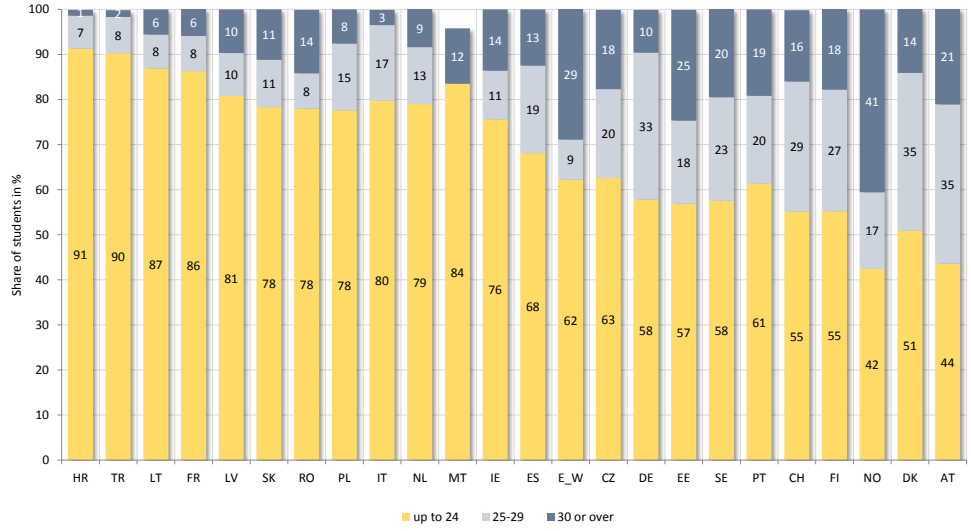
Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, A.2. No data: E/W, SI. Too few cases: LV, SK; for up to 24 & 25-29: EE; for 25-29: LT, RO; for 25-29 & 30 or older: PL, HR, LT.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 5.1 When were you born?, 6.1 What is the highest level of education your father and mother have obtained?

Fig. 4.4 Students by age and social background

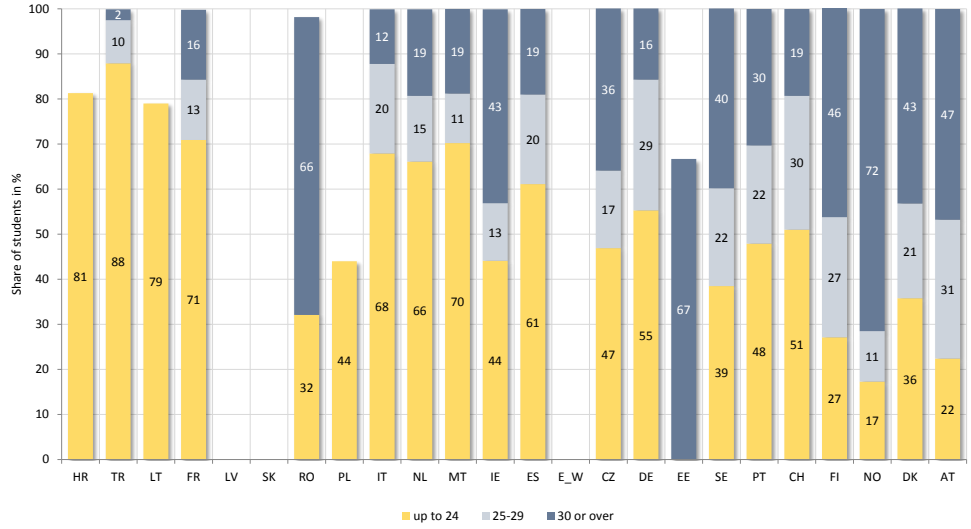
a) High education background (ISCED 5-6) in %



b) Medium education background (ISCED 3-4) in %



c) Low education background (ISCED 0-2) in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, A.2. No data: SI. Too few cases low education background: LV, SK, E_W; low/up to 24: EE; low education background/25-29: EE, HR, LT, PL, RO; low/30 or older: HR, LT, PL.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 5.1 When were you born?, 6.1 What is the highest level of education your father and mother have obtained?

The feminisation of higher education is apparent at all levels, only 3 countries have more balanced student populations

It might be argued that a share of 50% women and the same proportion of men in higher education is the ideal. On the basis of this criterion only Germany, Turkey and Switzerland are successful. The issue of a feminisation of higher education has been dealt with by many reports previous to this one, also using more comprehensive administrative data (Eurostat & HIS, 2009, pp. 54-55). The EUROSTUDENT data set allows an analysis of gender balance by study programme, but also by transition route into higher education and study intensity. The 2 latter measures are unique to this data set.

A comparison by study programme shows 3 country clusters – see Figure 4.5, chart (a).

- In the first group, a differentiation between all students, Bachelor students and Masters students leads to no differences in the gender balance. 11 countries fit into this pattern.
- In a second group, the share of women going on to Master programmes is lower than for Bachelor programmes. This is the case for Sweden, Malta, Austria, Spain, Norway and Denmark. At the same time, the share of female students at Master level is only below 50% in 3 of these countries.
- In the 3rd group, the opposite is true. In the case of Latvia, Romania, Estonia, Portugal, Slovakia and Czech Republic the share of women in Master programmes is higher than for men and, indeed, is not lower than 60%.

Turning to transition route, new countries clusters become evident – see Figure 4.4, chart (b).

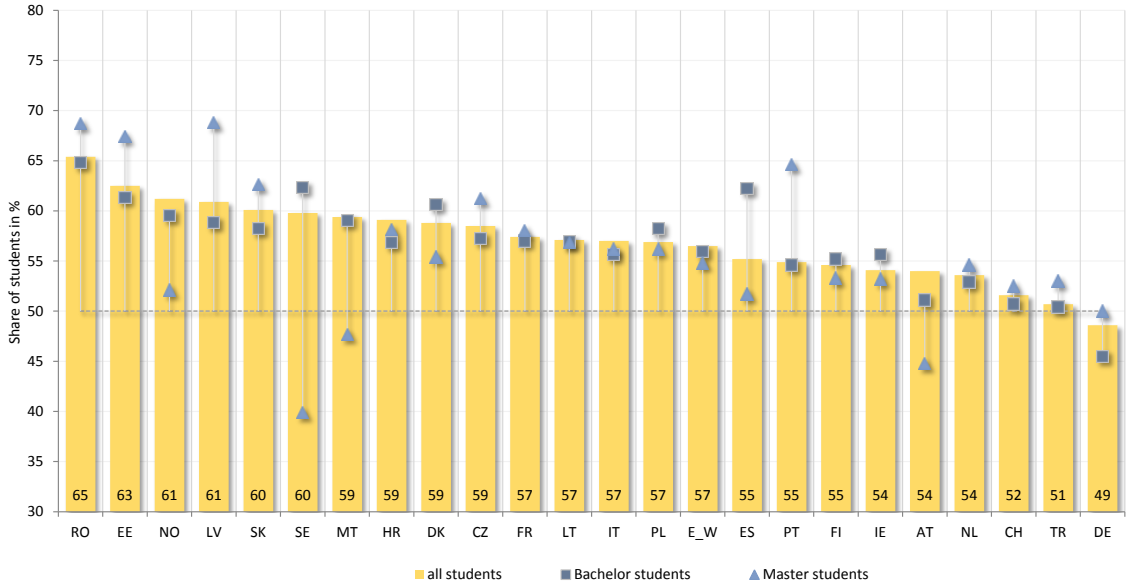
- In the case of Romania, Estonia, Slovakia, Czech Republic and Poland, it appears that female students are the main beneficiaries of delayed transition routes with more than 2 in 3 delayed students being female.
- However, in 3 countries – Finland, Austria and Turkey – the share of female delayed transition students drops below 50%.

The focus group low-intensity student is used by EUROSTUDENT in an attempt to capture de facto part-time students, irrespective of their formal enrolment status (→ Chapter 5). The data show some differences between the genders here.

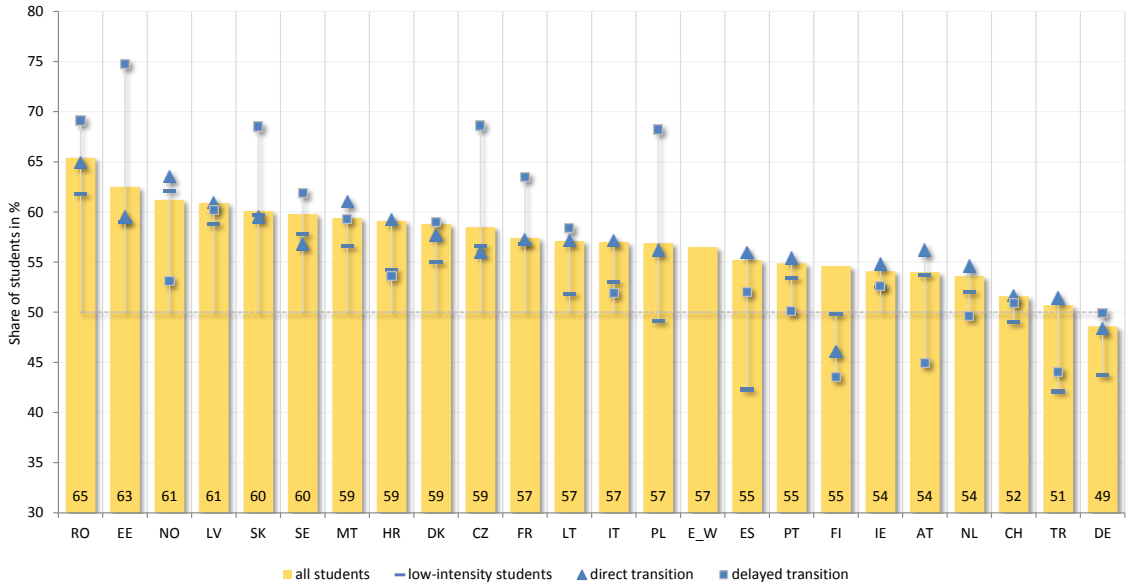
- In the majority of countries, there are more women studying de facto part-time than men.
- However, there are 5 exceptions to this: Poland, Spain, Switzerland, Turkey, Germany. In this case, it is possible that men are also taking on caring roles for their children or, perhaps more likely, that men taking this modus of study tend to be working alongside their studies. In the case of Switzerland national analyses show the main reason to be working alongside studies.

Fig. 4.5 Female students by study programme, study intensity and transition route

a) Students by study programme in %



b) Students by study intensity and transition route in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, A.3. No data: SI; no data low-intensity: E_W.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 5.2 What is your sex? & 1.1 Which programme are you currently enrolled in?, 2.3 When did you get the qualification used for entering higher education?, 2.4 When did you enter higher education for the first time?, 2.5 When did you start your current programme?, 3.11 How many hours do you spend in a typical week on taught studies, personal study and on paid jobs?

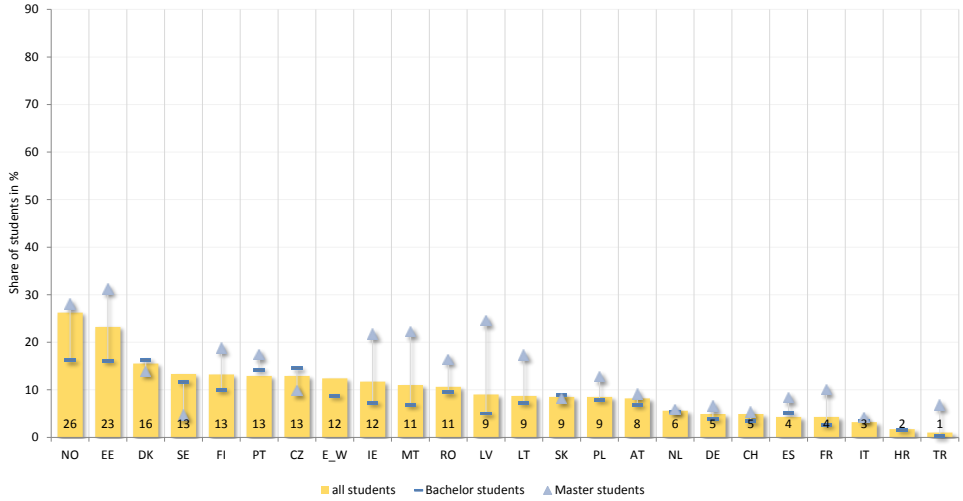
The share of students with children reaches 1 in 8 in some countries, but more flexible study provision leads to higher shares in all countries

The share of students with children can be taken as both an expression of success – the system has incorporated parents into higher education – and a challenge – such students have to organise their studies in a particular way, may come (back to) the higher education system with different expectations and will want to study in a more flexible manner. The charts in Figure 4.6 show that students who are older, have entered late and/or who are studying de facto part-time are most likely to have children.

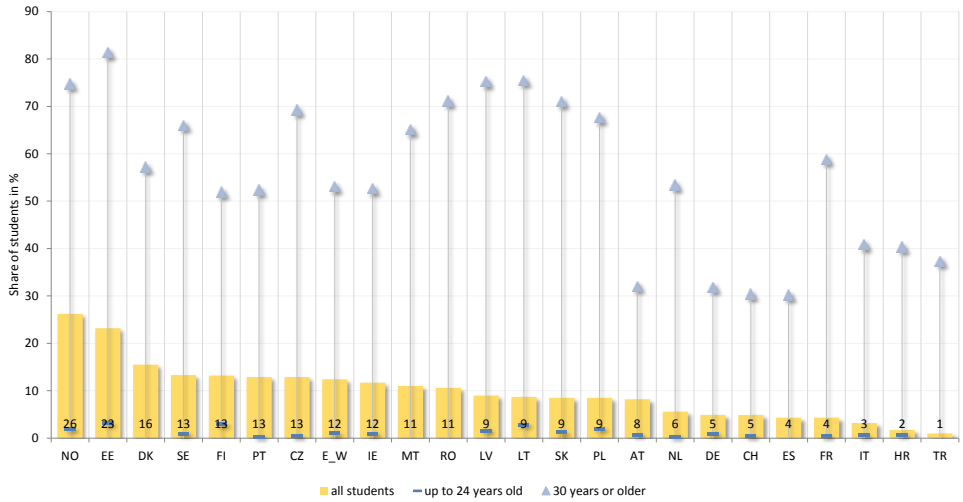
- In 7 countries – Norway, Estonia, Denmark, Sweden, Finland, Portugal and Czech Republic – more than one in 8 students have children. These are all northern European countries with the exception of Portugal – see chart (a).
- In all but 2 countries, the share of students with children rises for Master students (exceptions: Sweden, Denmark and Czech Republic). In Turkey the share rises from 1% to 7%.
- The clearest explanatory variable for the likelihood of a student having children is age – see chart (b). On average, 56% of students aged 30 or older have children, whereas only 1% of students up to the age of 24 have so. The lowest values for over 30 year olds are to be found in Spain, Switzerland, Germany and Austria, where less than one in 3 students in this age category have children.
- On average, one in 3 delayed transition students have children and in every case the share is higher than for all students. Indeed in 6 countries – Estonia, Czech Republic, Romania, Latvia, Slovakia and Poland – this share rises to over 50%.
- The share of low-intensity students with children is lower, but this is related to the age profile of such students, see above. In this case one in 6 low-intensity students have children, but in every country the share of such students with children is higher than for the average or for direct transition students.

Fig. 4.6 Students with children by study programme, age, transition route and study intensity

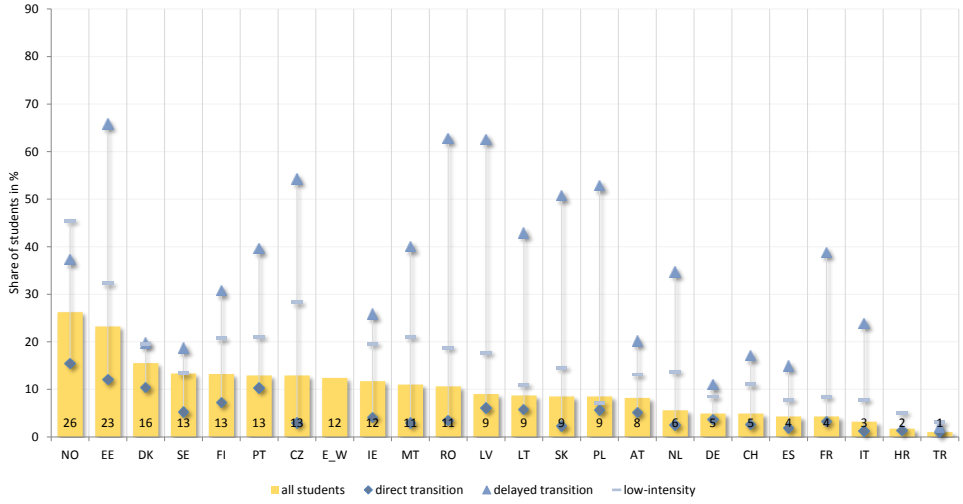
a) Students with children by study programme in %



b) Students with children by age in %



c) Students with children by transition route and study intensity in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, A.4. No data: SI. No data for Master, up to 24 years, 30 years or older, low-intensity, direct and delayed transition student: E/W. Too few cases for MA and delayed transition students: HR.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 5.6 Do you have any children? & 1.1, 2.3, 2.4, 2.5, 3.11

EUROSTUDENT can also provide information on the age of a student's youngest child. It might be assumed that studies are most difficult to organise, when a child is 6 years old or younger because these children do not go to school and so day care must be arranged for them. Therefore, Figure 4.7 compares the share of students whose youngest child is up to the age of 3 and up to the age of 6 by various characteristics.

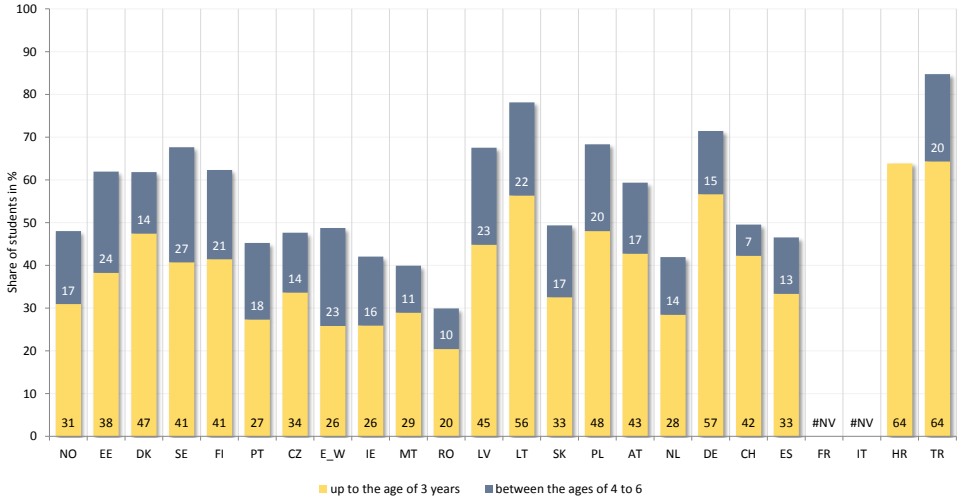
- In charts (a) and (b), we can see a very diverse picture in the age profile of student parents. In general, a tendency becomes apparent that the share of low-intensity students with young children is higher than for all students, although the data gaps limit this interpretation.
- At the same time, it appears that the countries on the left hand side of Latvia, i.e. those with an overall share of students with children above 10% (see Figure 4.6, above), generally have less young children than those on the right. In fact, the average share of students with children up to the age of 6 years is 52% in the 10 countries left of Latvia and 62% for the other countries. This would suggest that the share of students with children rises as the children get older (and require less day care).

In chart (c) those 2 facts are combined in a plot diagram. On the horizontal axis (x), the share of students with children up to the age of 6 is crossed with the vertical axis (y) for the overall share of students with children. No direct correlation between the 2 facts can be seen; indeed the context facts such as accessibility of kindergarten places and flexibility of studies are likely to keep this link weak. By comparing country data to the sample average, it is possible to construct a matrix.

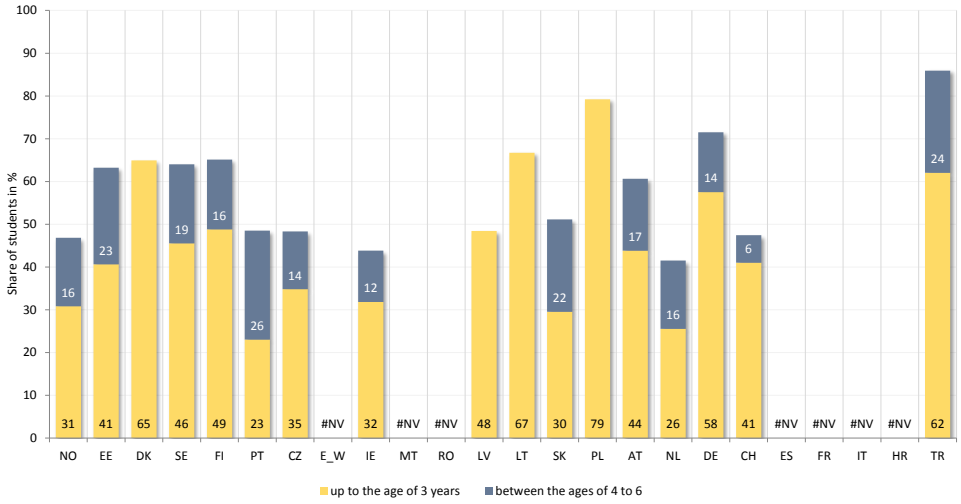
- In top right-hand corner, the countries Estonia, Denmark, Finland and Sweden show relatively high shares of students with children *and* relatively high shares of students with children up to the age of 6 years. Norway is slightly different, because the share of students with younger children is lower than the average.

Fig. 4.7 Age of students' youngest child by study intensity and XY-Plot

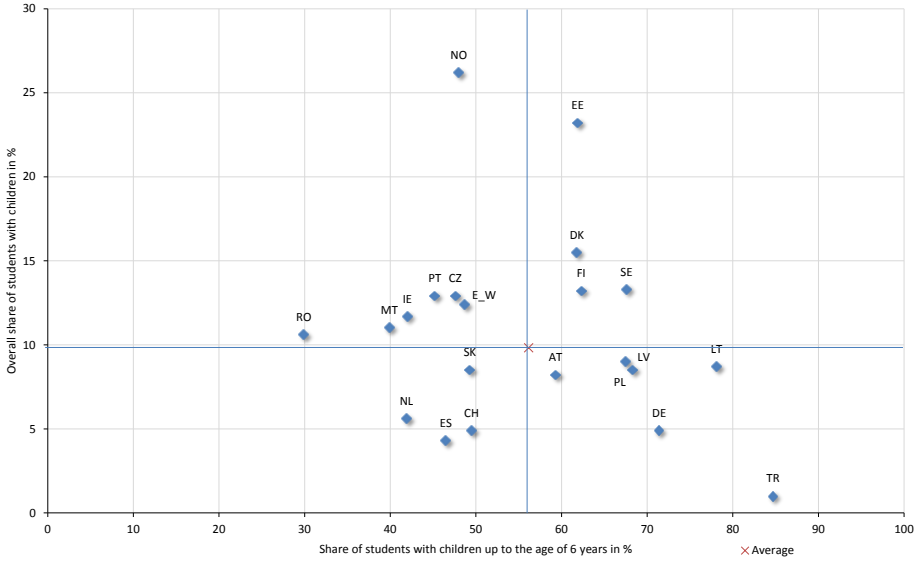
a) All students in %



b) Low-intensity students in %



c) XY-Plot of overall share of students with children by share of students with youngest child up to 6 years in %



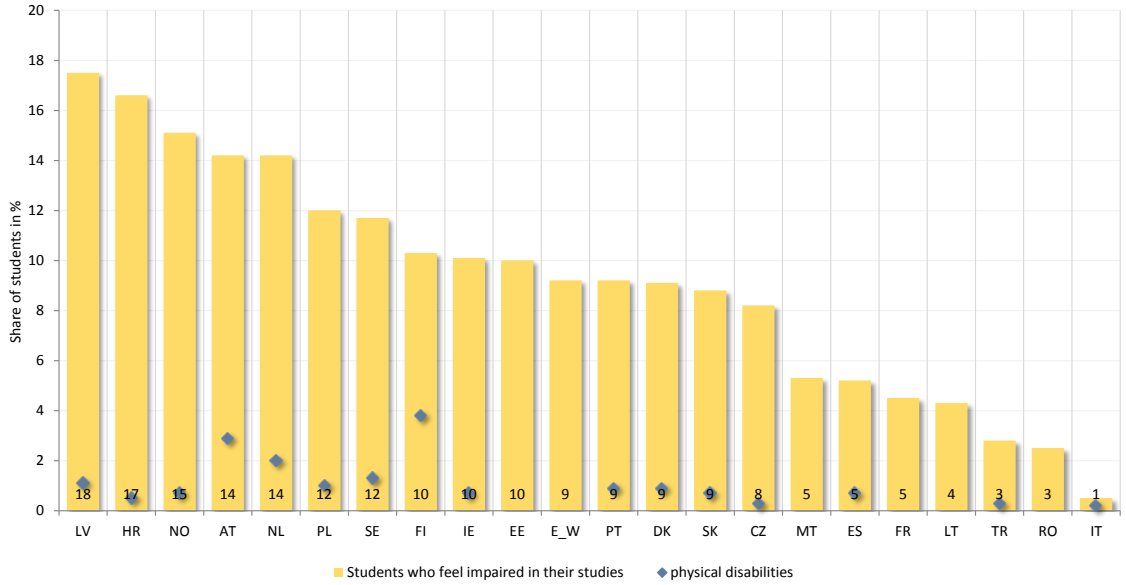
Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, A.4. No data: FR, IT, SI. Too few cases: all/4-6: HR; low-intensity 0-3: ES, HR, MT, RO; low-intensity 4-6: DK, ES, HR, LT, LV, MT, PL, RO.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 5.6 Do you have any children? 5.8 How old is your youngest child?, 3.11 How many hours do you spend in a typical week on taught studies, personal study and on paid jobs?

Students' assessment of the support of their study impairment varies considerably between countries

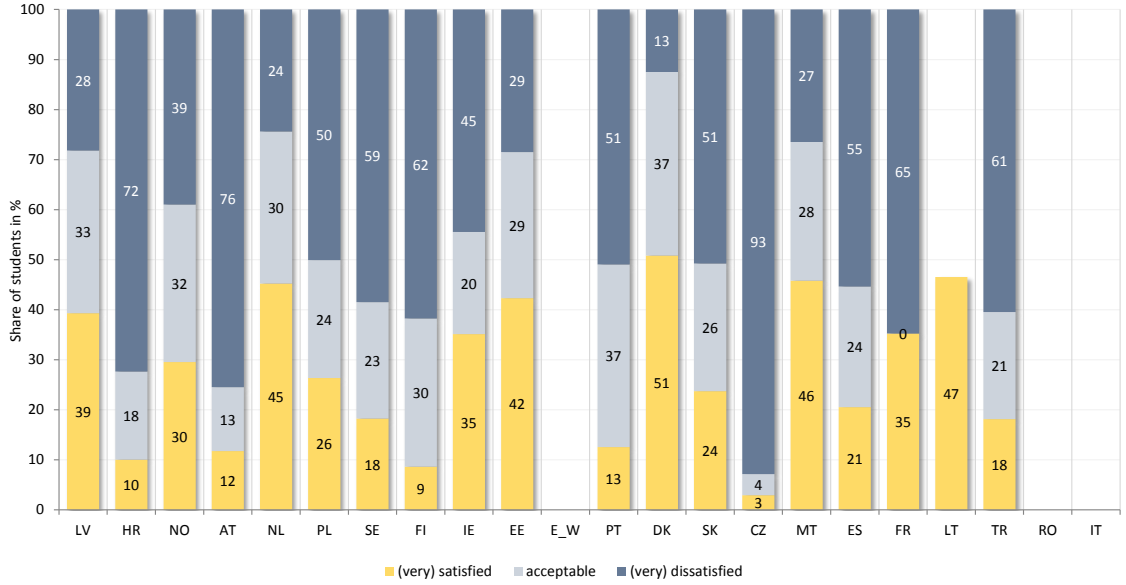
As already mentioned under the main issues, it is difficult to investigate disability in higher education in a brief manner. Therefore, the results in Figure 4.8 should be taken as an invitation for further research. The juxtaposition of the share of students assessing themselves as having a study impairment and their assessment of the support given to them provides first insights into differing treatment. In the 3 countries in which more than 15% of students see themselves impaired, the share of students (very) satisfied with the support ranges between 40% and 10%.

Fig. 4.8 Students' assessment of study impairment and of how it is taken account of

a) Students, who see themselves with a study impairment in %



b) Impaired students' satisfaction with support in studies in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, A.5. No data: CH, DE, SI. No data for phys. disabilities: EE, E_W, MT, FR, LT, RO. No data for satisfaction: E_W, RO, IT. Too few cases, acceptable and dissatisfied: LT.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 5.9 Are you impaired in your studies by any of the following?, 5.10 Do you feel that your impairment is sufficiently taken account of in your studies?

Chapter 5 – Types and modes of study

Key findings

- **Participation in Bachelor programmes:** Convergence is approaching, but not yet complete. Around 2 in 3 students are enrolled in Bachelor courses across Europe. These courses often include a higher share of students from low social backgrounds. In Portugal, Italy, Czech Republic and France the share of students studying Bachelor from low social backgrounds is at least 20% higher than for these students' high education counterparts.
- **Bachelor courses by subject area:** In many countries Bachelor courses in humanities and arts appear more supportive of social mobility than in engineering subjects. In Austria and Spain, especially, the share of students studying from low social backgrounds is 10% higher than the share for all students. In the countries Switzerland, England/Wales, Italy, Malta, Romania and Turkey the share of Bachelor students in an engineering subject area is 25% lower for students from low social backgrounds than for students from high social backgrounds.
- **Participation in Masters and remaining national programmes:** Students from low social backgrounds are underrepresented in many countries in both Masters and the remaining national programmes, which have yet to be made compatible with the Bologna structures. However, the data and national commentaries show that structural reform continues in many countries. Countries with a particularly high share of students in national programmes are Spain, Latvia, Sweden, Austria and Germany.
- **Full- and part-time status:** On average 86% of students in Europe study with full-time status. In 5 countries part-time studies do not exist formally, whereas in 5 other countries at least one in 4 students has a part-time status. Part-time students are often female and in England/Wales, Croatia, Romania, Slovakia, Czech Republic and especially Norway the share of women taking part-time Master courses is at least 20% higher than for males.
- **Differences between status and study intensity:** The link between part-time status and time students allot to their studies is weak in some countries. Indeed, part-time status entails much more heterogeneous study intensity than does full-time status. On average 51% of part-time students spend more than 21 hours a week on study-related activities. This is particularly the case in Poland, Switzerland and Croatia.
- **Centrality of studies:** Students assess their studies as a more central or less central activity in their week and allot time to their studies accordingly. Students assessing their studies as less important than other activities also spend much less time a week on study activities compared to students considering their studies more important. In many countries, study structures allow this type of flexibility, especially in Norway, Austria, Finland, Estonia and Germany.

Main issues

This chapter focuses on the enrolment of different student groups in various types of study programme, which may be offered in a more or less flexible modus. The reform of the structure and organization of higher education courses has been the main focus of debates on the benefits and disadvantages of the 3 cycle Bologna reform with Bachelor, Master and Doctorate levels. This reform was driven by a myriad of both international and national goals. The main focal points have been to reform the structures in order to make them more compatible between countries and to make study structures more flexible in order to encourage widened participation. Both of these issues will be investigated in this chapter.

Some of the central conclusions of the Bologna Independent Assessment from 2010 were that the introduction of these new structures has been uneven across Europe and across subject areas and that the provision of more flexible study structures is limited (Westerheijden et al., 2010). The EUROSTUDENT data set can reinforce and contextualize these results. It can also go further by investigating differences by student type.

Enrolment by study programme

The EUROSTUDENT data set provides an insight into the share of students undertaking Bachelor and Master courses and those still on national degree programmes. Since many higher education systems are still en route to reform it is interesting to further analyse these statistics by sex and by social background. The latter issue is important because there has been a hope that the new structures, with a shorter first phase (Bachelor) than many systems previously had, would be more attractive to potential students from lower social backgrounds. At the same time, such a result may be difficult to interpret because the Bologna Independent Assessment concluded that the majority of Bologna signatory states have excluded medical studies from the 2-cycle structure (Bachelor-Master) (ibid, p. 18), which could lead to this subject area becoming an enclave of the higher social milieu. Since various fields of study also offer different opportunities for learning, for organising study time (→ Chapter 6) and on the labour market, it is interesting to take the various (new) national Bachelor students and analyse them by certain characteristics. Are they more likely to be male or female, old or young, full or part-time and from which social background?

Flexibility of study programme and formal status

The Independent Assessment already concluded regarding modular study structures that their formal existence in countries does not guarantee their wide application (Westerheijden et al., 2010, p.22 & p.55). The previous EUROSTUDENT report made a similar conclusion regarding the formal existence or non-existence of part-time students.

This section of the report will look at the formal status of students in different countries and then at students' academic workload. Provision of higher education on a part-time basis is one way of facilitating a balance for students between their general living and their study conditions. This analysis is motivated by the expectation that truly flexible study structures are required by some parts of the student population and that giving them the formal status of part-time students recognises this. Students with this status can then be given an appropriate study framework in which to study. The analysis will compare formal status with the real time a student spends on his or her studies in order to provide an assessment of the current enrolment status.

An additional analysis will make an attempt to understand how flexible study structures in various countries really are. For this it will take as a basis the students' own assessment of how important their studies are to them in comparison with other activities such as work and family care. It will then analyse the difference in the hours spent attending taught lessons at university or college differentiated by this assessment of centrality of studies. This analysis wants to pick up on national studies, which are pointing to the flexibility of studies as being a facilitating factor for successful implementation of studies for particular student groups (Ariño Villarroya et al., 2008). It is an exploratory indicator, but provides a first insight into this important question.

Data and interpretation

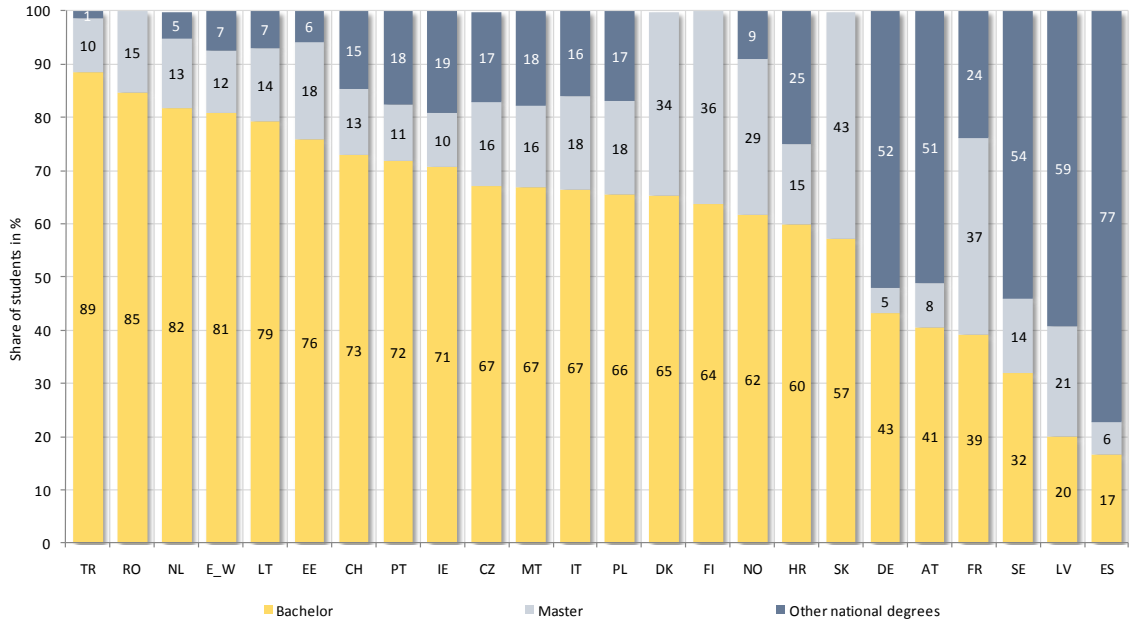
Around 2 of 3 students are enrolled in Bachelor courses across Europe, often including a high share of students from low social backgrounds

The EUROSTUDENT data set provides a first comparative glimpse of the significance of Bachelor and Master structures for European higher education.[1] The analysis must be understood in the context of different speeds of the implementation of the 2-cycle structure (Bachelor/Master) and differing coverage by subject area (as mentioned in the previous section). However, in this sense, the analysis can be seen as providing a snapshot of the current situation and therefore pointers for current implementation strategies. Furthermore – and as mentioned in other chapters of this report – if there are administrative statistics on this area, they will provide more reliable rates of participation. They will not, however, provide analyses of the types of student taking them up, certainly not in a comparative context.

On average across Europe, 61% of students are enrolled in Bachelor programmes, 18% in Master programmes and 25% in national programmes. These latter programmes may be more or less compatible with Bologna structures. Figure 5.1 shows the situation in cross-country comparison.

- In Turkey, Romania, The Netherlands, England/Wales, Lithuania and Estonia more than 3/4 of students are enrolled in a Bachelor course. In 2 of these countries (Turkey, England/Wales), Bachelor programmes are long established, whilst the other countries have completed this transition within the last decade.
- Under half of all students are to be found in Bachelor and Master structures in Germany, Austria, Sweden, Latvia and Spain. These are countries in which national programmes still play a

Fig. 5.1 Students by study programme in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, B.7. No data: SI.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 1.1 Which programme are you currently enrolled in?

[1] NB: Deviation from EUROSTUDENT conventions will affect the picture here. See ➝ Introduction and ➝ Appendix C.

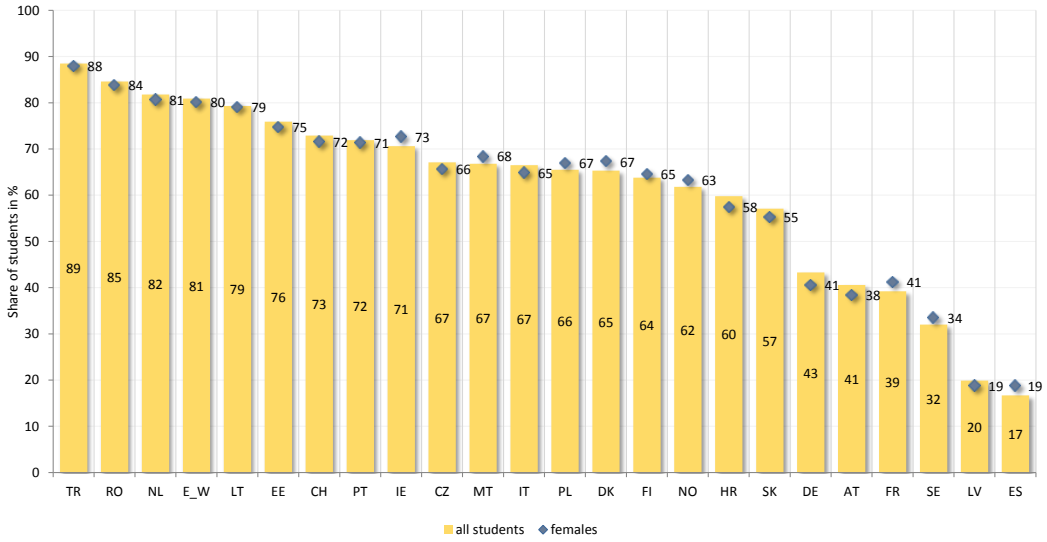
significant role in higher education. In all of these countries with the exception of Sweden, [2] the National Profiles speak of being en route to a more complete implementation of the Bologna structures, with subject such as medicine, law and engineering being the least likely to have been reformed (→ DRM). In Spain the first Bachelor students enrolled in 2009.

Figure 5.2, chart (a) looks at the situation by sex. It can be concluded that there is only little difference between the participation in Bachelor courses by sex.

In Austria and Germany, there is a lower share of females in the new Bachelor structures than for all students (41 v 43 and 38 v 41, respect.). Commentaries for both countries concur that this is to do

Fig. 5.2 Bachelor students by gender and social background

a) Students by gender in %



b) Students by education background in %

Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, B.7 & B.8. No data: chart (a): SI; chart (b): SI, E/W. Too few cases: chart (b): LV, SK.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 1.1 Which programme are you currently enrolled in?, 5.2 What is your sex?, 6.1 What is the highest level of education your father and mother have obtained?

[2] However, the research team for Sweden also states that irrespective of programme, most students will actually obtain the Bachelor qualification (for short programmes) or the Master (for long programmes).

with the speed of conversion into the new structures, where more vocationally orientated subjects and universities of applied sciences, where males dominate courses, have been quicker to implement the reform than, for instance, humanities, social sciences and medicine, offered at universities (→ DRM).

Chart (b) provides first information on enrolments by education background. Are Bachelor programmes apparently more attractive (or more accessible) than other programmes for students from lower education backgrounds?

- On average, the share of students from low education backgrounds is higher than for those from high education backgrounds (64% to 58%). The picture differs by country.
- In Portugal, Italy, Czech Republic and France the share of students studying Bachelor from low education backgrounds is at least 20% higher than for these students' high education background counterparts. In the National Profile for Italy, the researchers state that this result has to do with students from higher education backgrounds continuing to study long national programmes in subjects such as medicine and architecture (here the share is 3 time higher for students from high education backgrounds → DRM).
- In contrast, in Finland and Ireland the share of students in Bachelor courses from low education backgrounds is 10% lower than for students from high education backgrounds. In Finland, this result may be connected to the fact that students do not yet identify themselves as either Bachelor or Master students, but students en route to a higher qualification. This would also go some way to explaining the contrasting result from Finland that students from low education backgrounds are overrepresented compared to their higher education counterparts in Master studies (see national commentary → DRM). In Ireland this may be related to the existence of further qualifications below Bachelor level, which are taken up by students from low education backgrounds.

A final assessment of these results is dependent on the specific situation of reform in each of the countries and will have to be further analysed in more in-depth reports.

In many countries Bachelor courses in humanities and arts appear more supportive of social mobility than in engineering subjects

The EUROSTUDENT data set can also provide insights into the propensity for different student groups to study certain subject areas. In this section the analysis will focus on 2 clearly contrasting subjects and on the Bachelor level, but more comprehensive information is provided in the online data set (→ DRM).

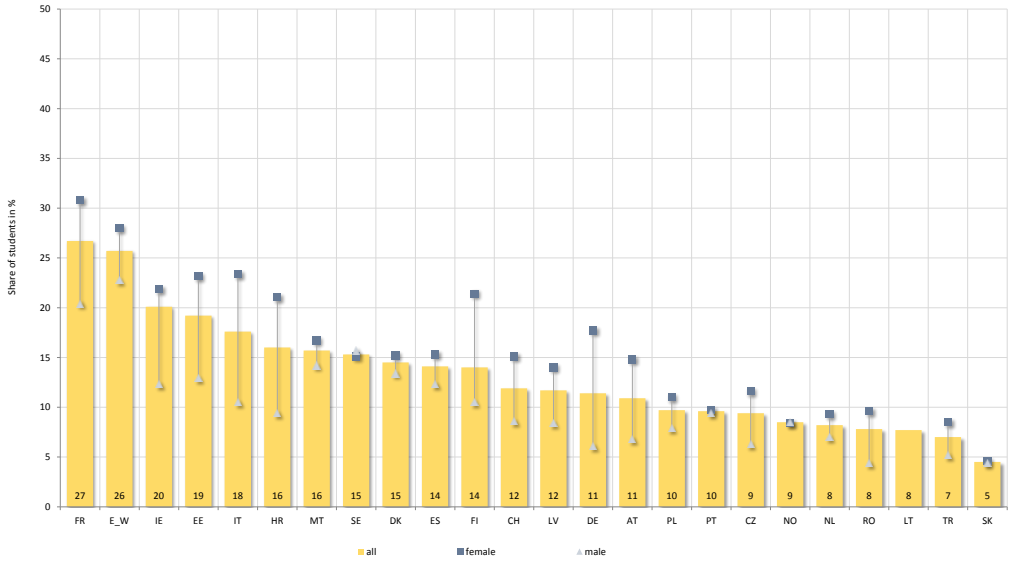
- Figure 5.3 shows the share of students studying humanities and arts subjects at Bachelor level. Chart (a) shows a dominance of female students in this subject area. Whilst 13% of all students take this subject, 16% of females are enrolled. In the countries Austria, Germany, Finland and Italy the share is even higher.
- Chart (b) turns to participation by education background. It shows that humanities and arts have a marginal transformative function for students from low education backgrounds (13% for all students and 14% for students from low education backgrounds). Indeed, the representation of students from low education backgrounds is much higher in Malta, Finland, Turkey and especially

Austria and Spain, where the share is at least 10% higher than for all students and generally much higher in direct comparison with high education background students.

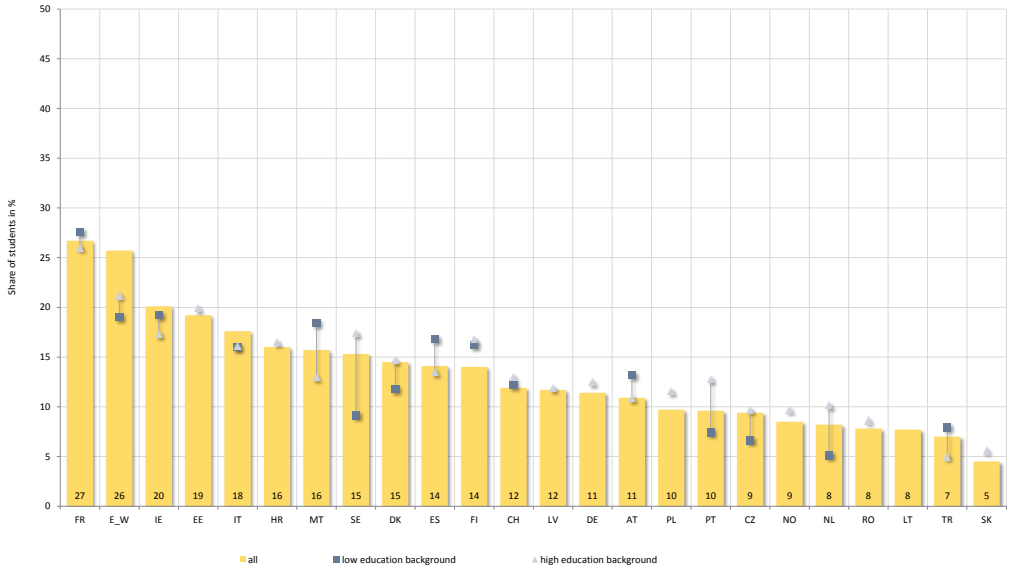
- Figure 5.4 shows the same analysis, this time for the share of students studying engineering at Bachelor level. Chart (a) shows a dominance of male students in this subject area. Whilst 15% of all students take this subject, 26% of males are enrolled (and 7% of females). In the countries Denmark, France, Ireland, Latvia and Norway the share of men is even double that for all students and near-to 6 times higher if compared directly to female student shares.
- Chart (b) turns to participation by education background. The transformative effect of engineering for students from low education backgrounds is lower than for humanities (15% for

Fig. 5.3 Bachelor students studying humanities and arts by gender and social background

a) Students by gender in %



b) Students by education background in %

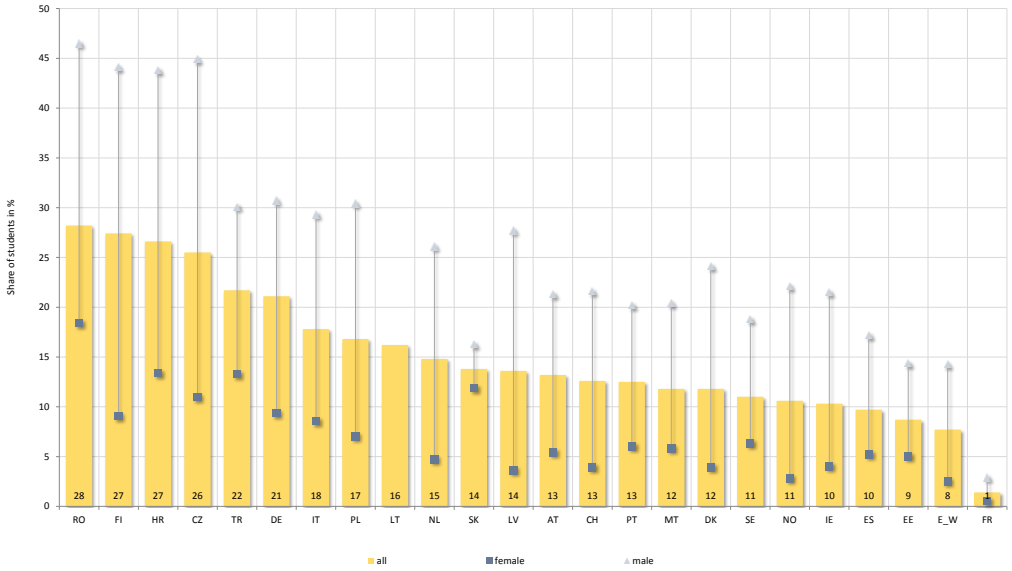


Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, B.9. No data: SI, LT. Too few cases for low education background: DE, EE, HR, LV, NO, PL, RO, SK. EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 1.1 Which programmes are you currently enrolled in?, 1.4 What is the programme you follow?, 5.2 What is your sex?, 6.1 What is the highest level of education your father and mother have obtained?

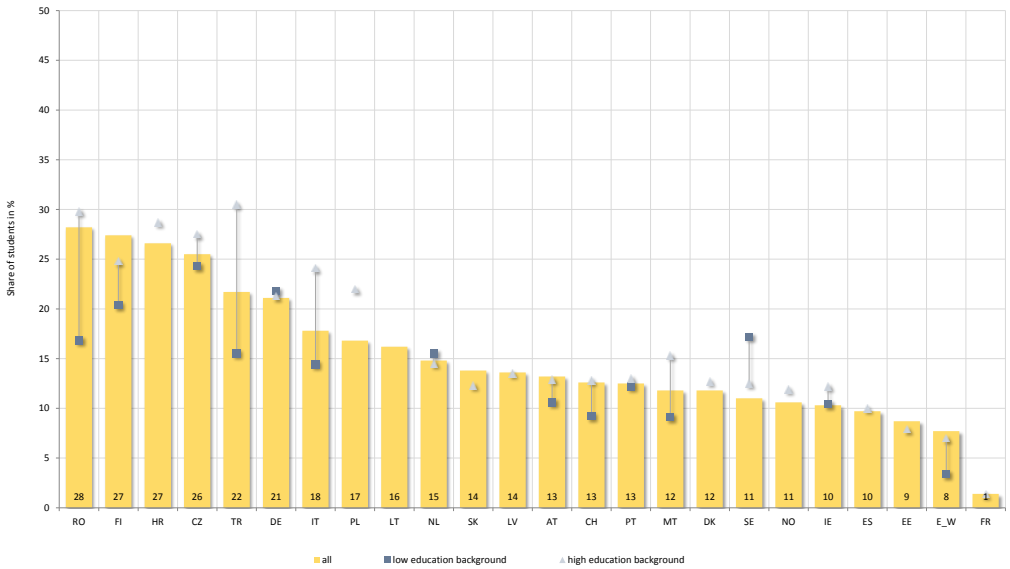
all students and 14% for low education background students). Indeed, in the countries Switzerland, England/Wales, Italy, Malta, Romania and Turkey the share of Bachelor students in this area is 25% lower for low education background students and in some cases near to half the share in direct comparison with high education background students.

Fig. 5.4 Bachelor students studying engineering by gender and social background

a) Students by gender in %



b) Students by education background in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, B.9. No data: SI, LT. Too few cases for low education background: FR, HR, PL, LT, SK, LV, DK, NO, ES, EE. EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 1.1 Which programmes are you currently enrolled in?, 1.4 What is the programme you follow?, 5.2 What is your sex?, 6.1 What is the highest level of education your father and mother have obtained?

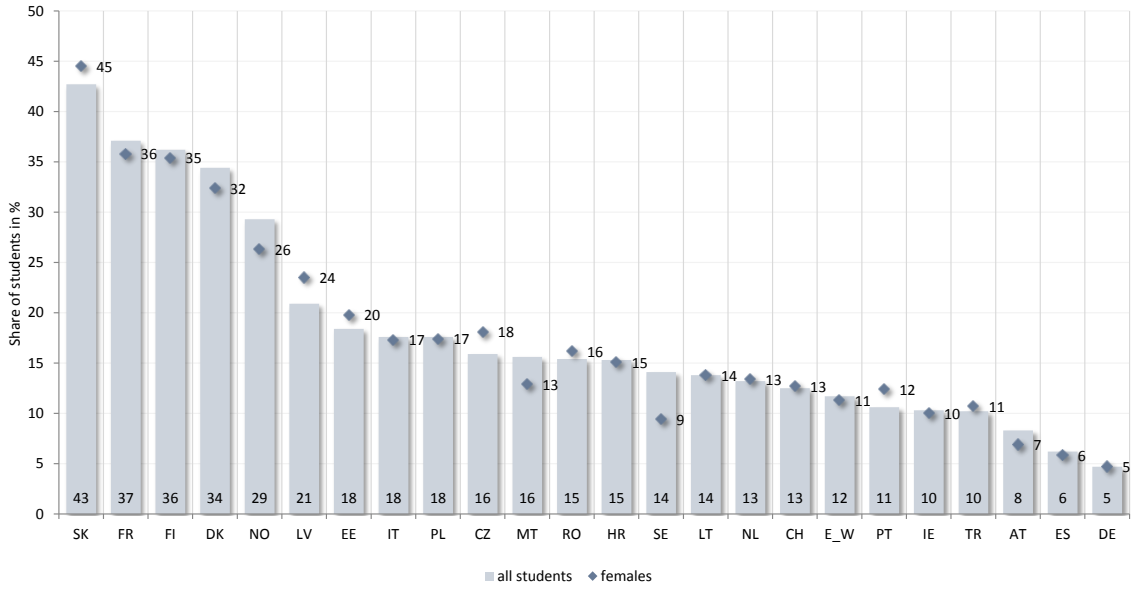
Students from low social backgrounds are underrepresented in many countries in both Masters and the national programmes, which have yet to be made compatible to the Bologna structures

An analysis of Master students by sex and education background shows some clear differences between student groups and countries – see Figure 5.5.

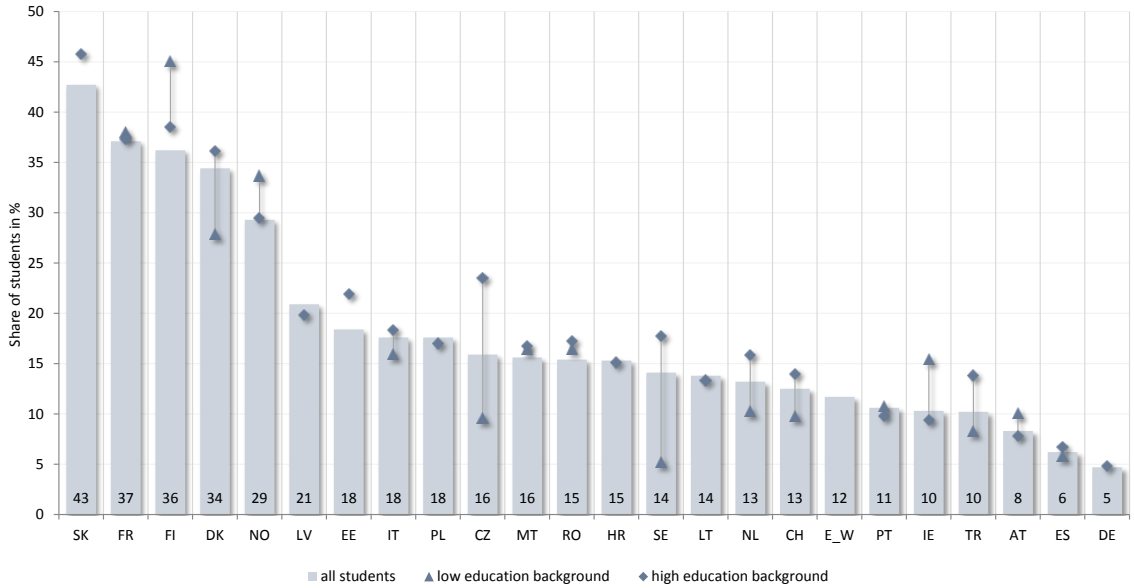
- On average, the share of all students and the share of female students studying for a Masters (chart a) is roughly the same. However, differences between countries are noticeable.
- In Austria, Denmark, Spain, Malta, Norway and Sweden the share of female students is at least 10% lower than for all students suggesting a lower participation of women at this level. In Czech

Fig. 5.5 Master students by gender and social background

a) Students by gender in %



b) Students by education background in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, B.7 & B.8. No data: SI. Too few cases for low education background: EE, LT, LV, PL, HR, SK, DE. No data for low education background: E_W.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 1.1 Which programmes are you currently enrolled in?, 1.4 What is the programme you follow?, 5.2 What is your sex?, 6.1 What is the highest level of education your father and mother have obtained?

Republic, Estonia, Latvia, Portugal and Romania the opposite is true.

- Regarding education background (chart b), the picture is very heterogeneous and the average across all countries deceptive (10% lower share of low education background students compared to all students). There are 6 countries in which the share of students from low education backgrounds is at least 20% lower than for all students (Switzerland, Czech Republic, Denmark, The Netherlands, Sweden and Turkey) and there are 4 countries (Austria, Finland, Norway and Ireland) in which the opposite is true. In The Netherlands this is related to the fact that students from low education backgrounds tend to study at universities of applied science and these institutions infrequently offer Masters level courses.
- There are only 3 countries (France, Portugal and Malta) in which the shares are in balance. This is a remarkable result for Malta, since rather high fees are charged for Master programmes there (→ Chapter 8).

This section of the analysis must be concluded with a caveat, but also a warning. The information shown is in part determined by the way the reform of study structures is being implemented in various countries (e.g. in some cases more vocationally orientated subject areas first and universities of applied science before full universities). That is the caveat. At the same time, this first information provided on a comparative scale on the character of students taking part in Bachelor and Master courses shows an uneven implementation, which leads to either an under- or an overrepresentation of female versus male students and low versus high education background.

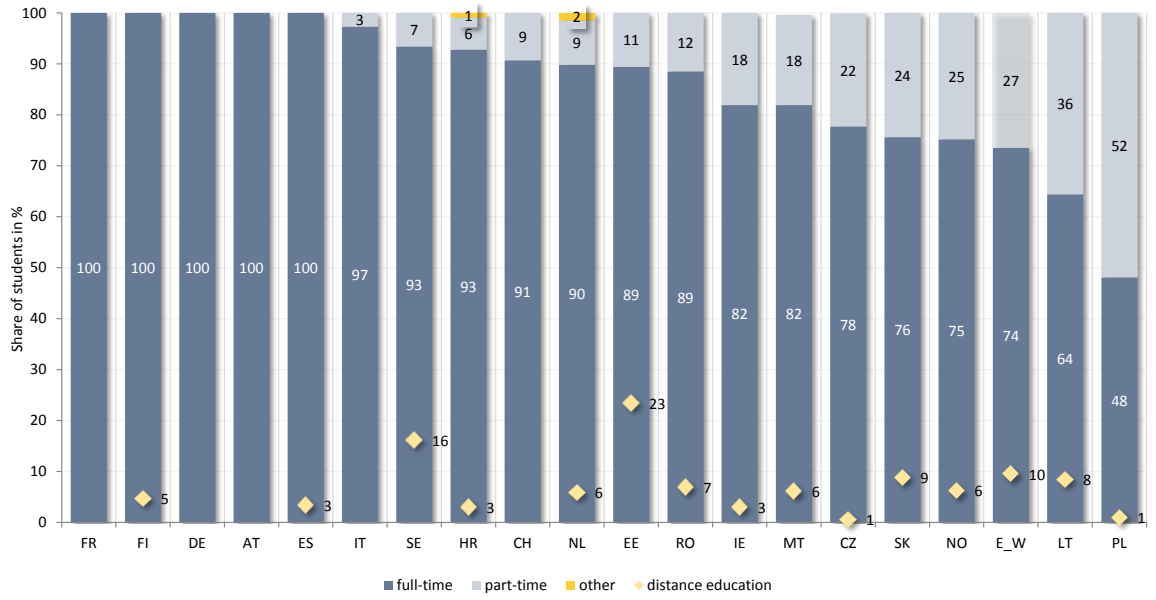
Of particular cause for concern might be the finding that there remains an overrepresentation of students from high education backgrounds in national programmes in 7 countries: Italy, Turkey, Portugal, France, Germany, The Netherlands and Czech Republic. Of these countries, Germany, France, Portugal and Italy have at least one in 4 students from high education backgrounds studying such programmes (→ DRM). These countries should consider this finding in their implementation strategies for further structural reform in order to avoid the type of “cooling out” mentioned in the introduction to → Chapter 3.

On average 85% of students in Europe study with full-time status, students with part-time status are often female

The formal status of a student is recorded on his or her matriculation record. The status often determines the framework conditions of course delivery – whether it is offered Monday to Friday during the daytime or occasionally evenings, whether courses require the physical presence of students and whether the course can be freely organized in a modular manner according to the situation of a student on certain days, weeks or months (i.e. more or less intensively). This status can also affect the fees students pay, their options for state support and whether the number of study places is influenced by state regulation or the choice of a university or college. Especially because of the latter points, a part-time study programme may not have the same implications in every country. These will be touched upon in the subsequent section. However, a start will be made with a comparison of students across Europe by formal status.

- On average 86% of students in Europe study full-time, but differences between countries are large – see Figure 5.6.
- In 5 countries (Finland, France, Germany, Austria and Spain) a part-time status does not exist or the share of students with this status is marginal.
- In contrast, in 5 countries (Slovakia, Norway, England/Wales, Lithuania and Poland) at least one in 4 students has part-time status.
- Since distance education may be defined as either part- or full-time status, students were asked especially to state whether they are distance education students. On average the value for Europe is 7%, but Portugal, Sweden and Estonia have shares which are significantly higher, reaching 23% in the latter country.[3]

Fig. 5.6 Students by formal status of enrolment in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, B.10. No data: SI, TR, PT, DK, LV. No data for distance education: DE, LV, IT, CH, FR.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 1.2 What is your current formal status as a student?, 1.3 Are you a student of distance education?

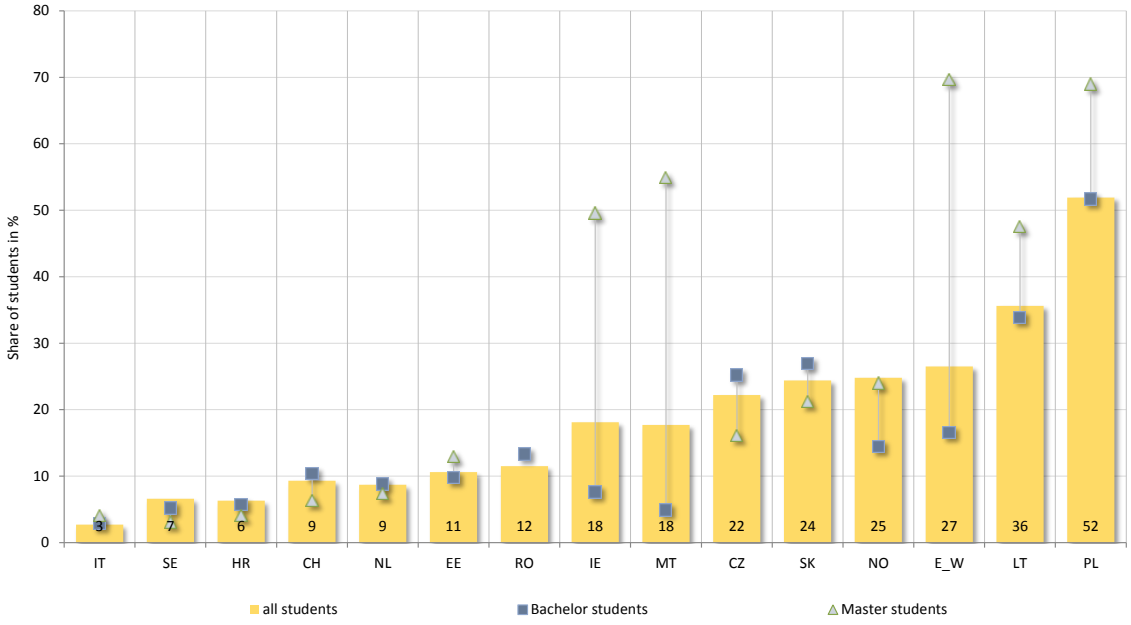
[3] According to the EUROSTUDENT conventions, only distance students that study at a 'normal' higher education institution are included in the sample. Excluded are institutions solely for long distance students like open universities, Fernuniversität Hagen and similar.

Figure 5.7 focuses on part-time students by formal status. Chart (a) shows the respective shares of students registered part-time by their study programme.

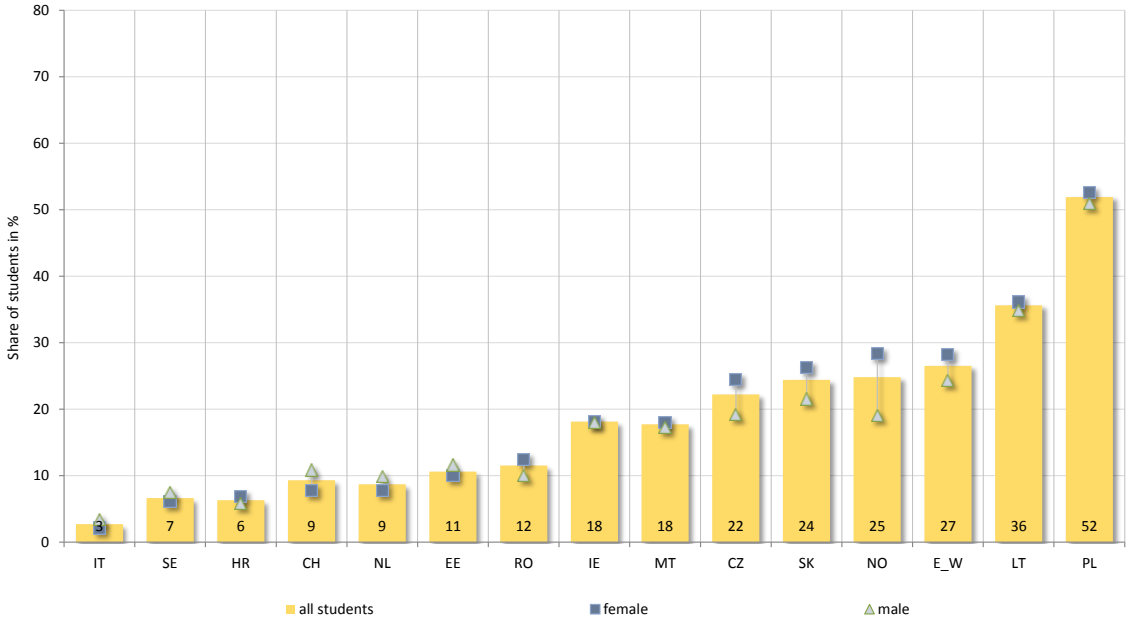
- Although there is little difference in status between Bachelor and Master students in most countries, this cannot be said for England/Wales, Ireland or Malta. In this country cluster, the share of Master students on a part-time course (and therefore probably working alongside the programme) is at least 4 times higher than for Bachelor programmes. In Poland and Lithuania the share is also higher, but the difference is not so extreme.

Fig. 5.7 Students with part-time status by study programme and gender

a) Students by study programme in %



b) Students by gender in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, B.10. No data: DK, LV, PT, TR, SI. No part-time status: AT, DE, ES, FI, FR. Too few cases: Master: RO.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 1.2 What is your current formal status as student?, 1.1 Which programme are you currently enrolled in?, 5.2 What is your sex?

- In chart (b) the analysis provides insight into part-time status by sex. On average there is little difference between men and women. However, at least 20% more women are to be found on part-time Master courses in England/Wales, Croatia, Romania, Slovakia, Czech Republic and especially Norway.

Part-time status entails much more heterogeneous study intensity than full-time status

Figure 5.8 now compares formal status with the hours spent on study-related activities in the EUROSTUDENT countries. This analysis provides insight into what it means to a student to have full- or part-time status. The data is based on student entries on how they divide their time in a typical week between taught courses, personal study time and paid jobs (→ Chapter 6). The first 2 categories are taken to be study-related time. The general picture fits expectations. However, there are some remarkable anomalies.

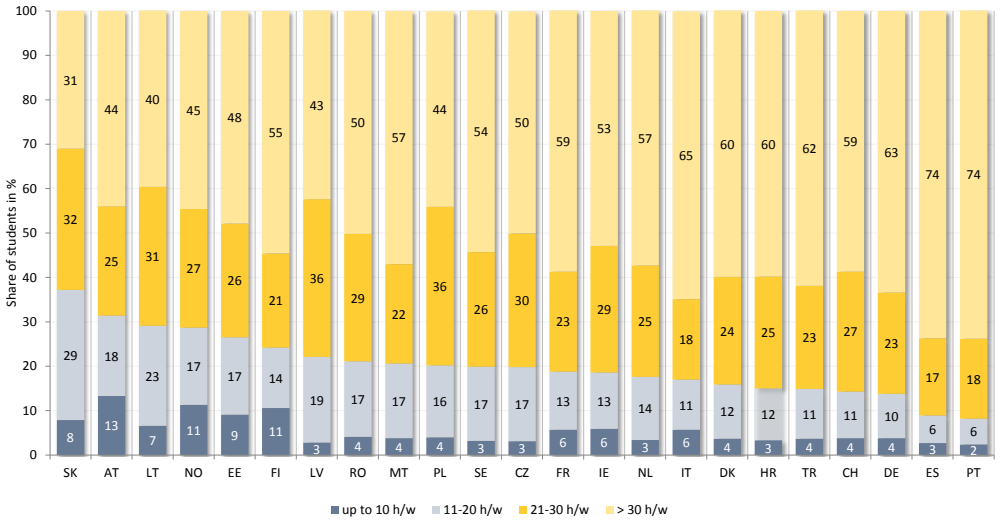
- Whilst on average 20% of students spend up to 20 hours a week on study-related activities, 49% of part-time students do this. However, 17% of full-time students also do not spend more than 20 hours a week on their studies.
- 57% of full-time students spend more than 30 hours a week on their studies. However, 20% of part-time students do the same.
- In Austria, Estonia, Finland, Latvia, Norway and Slovakia more than one in 5 students with a full-time status spend not more than 20 hours on study-related activities. In Finland and Austria more than 10% of full-time students do not even spend more than 10 hours per week on their studies. Finland and Austria are, however, 2 of the countries with no formal part-time status.
- Looking at part-time students, 2/3 of these spend no more than 20 hours a week on study-related activities in Malta and Slovakia. This means that for the large majority of students in these countries, the status reflects the time they spend on their studies. In Poland, Croatia and Switzerland, in contrast, less than 1/3 of students with part-time status also have a low study intensity on this measure (although in Switzerland 81% of part-time students spend no more than 30 hours a week on their studies).

A comparison of the match between time spent on studies and formal status is shown in Figure 5.9 in a more focused manner. This chart highlights the share of students with full-time status and study-related activities taking up to 20 hours per week and contrasts this with the share of part-time students with more than 21 hours per week spent on study-related activities. In other words, the chart gives the share of students who appear – at first look – to be displaced.

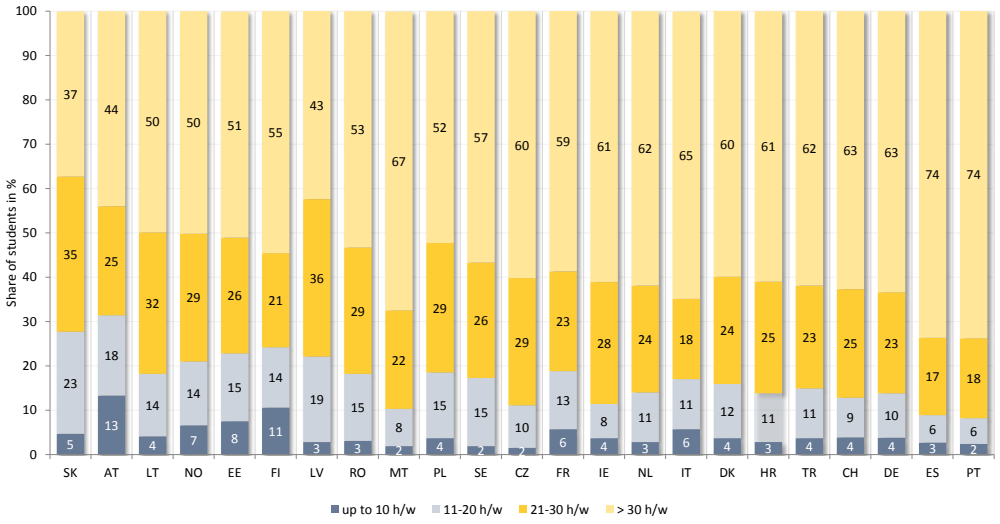
- On average, the share of displacement on this measure for full-time students is 17% and for part-time students it is 51%. The chart shows that part-time status entails much more heterogeneous study intensity than does full-time status.
- On this measure, a re-evaluation of the provision of part-time courses would appear prudent in Lithuania, Czech Republic, The Netherlands, Croatia, Switzerland and Poland.

Fig. 5.8 Students by formal status of enrolment and hours spent on study-related activities in a typical study week

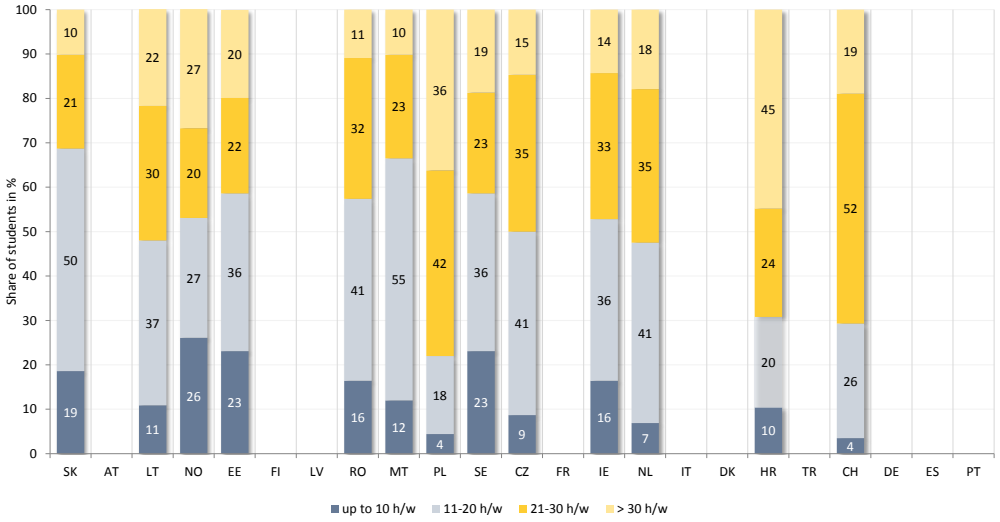
a) All students in %



b) Full-time students in %

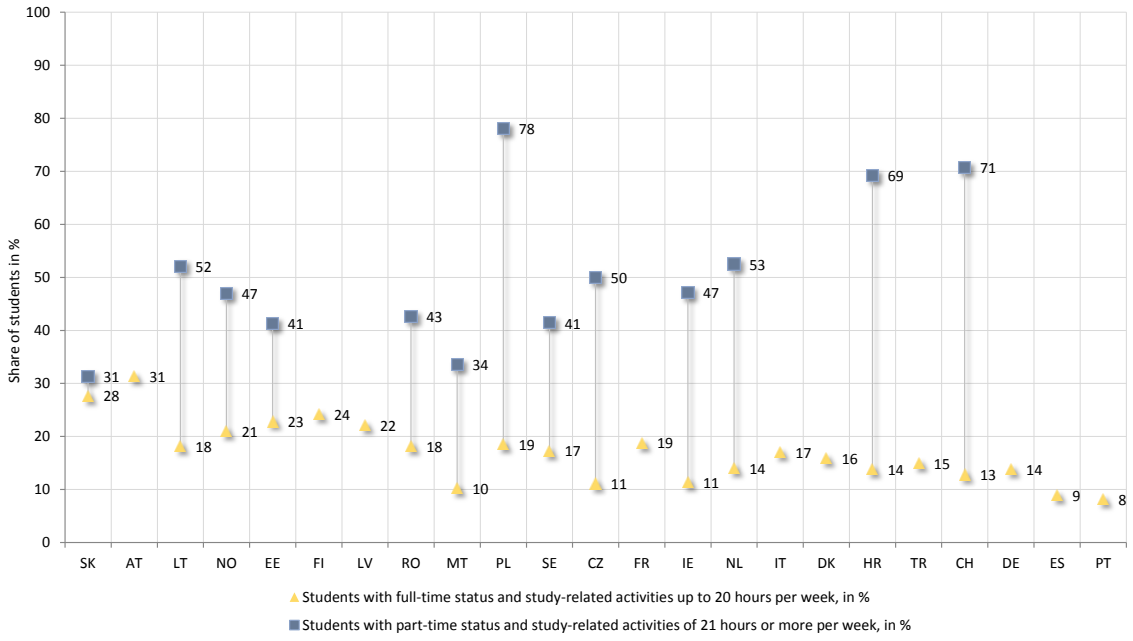


c) Part-time students in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, B.11. No data: E/W, SI. No data for part-time: LV, IT, DK, TR.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 1.2 What is your current formal status as a student?, 3.11 How many hours do you spend in a typical week in taught courses, personal study and on paid jobs?

Fig. 5.9 Students by formal status of enrolment and threshold of 20 hours spent on study-related activities in %



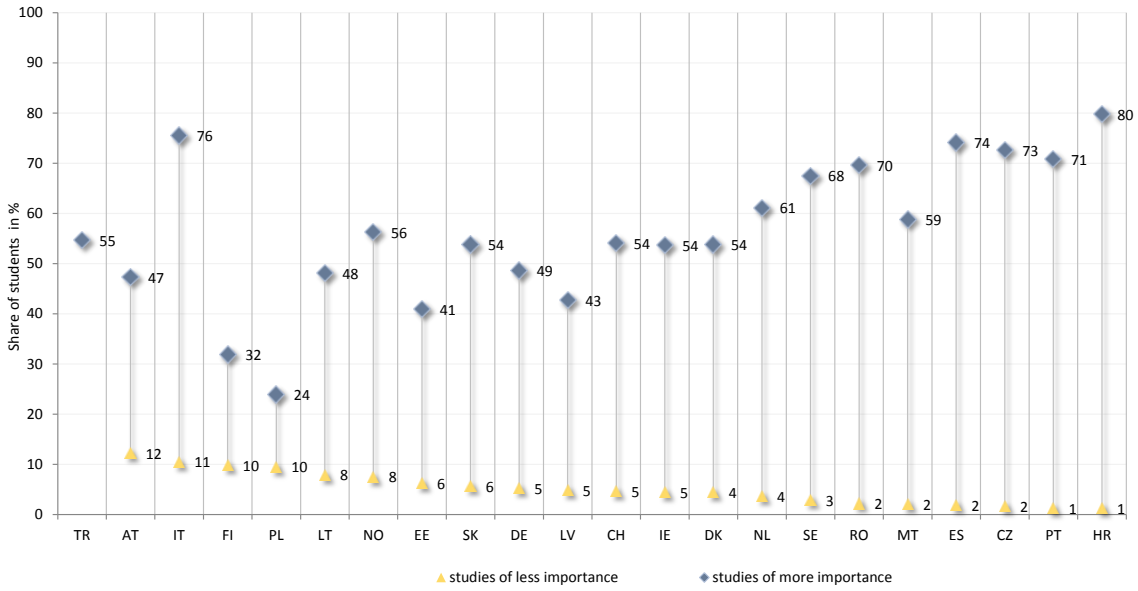
Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, B.11. No data: E/W, SI. No data for part-time: LV, IT, DK, TR.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 1.2 What is your current formal status as a student? 3.11, How many hours do you spend in a typical week in taught courses, personal study and on paid jobs?

Students assess their studies as a more central or less central activity in their week and allot time to their studies accordingly

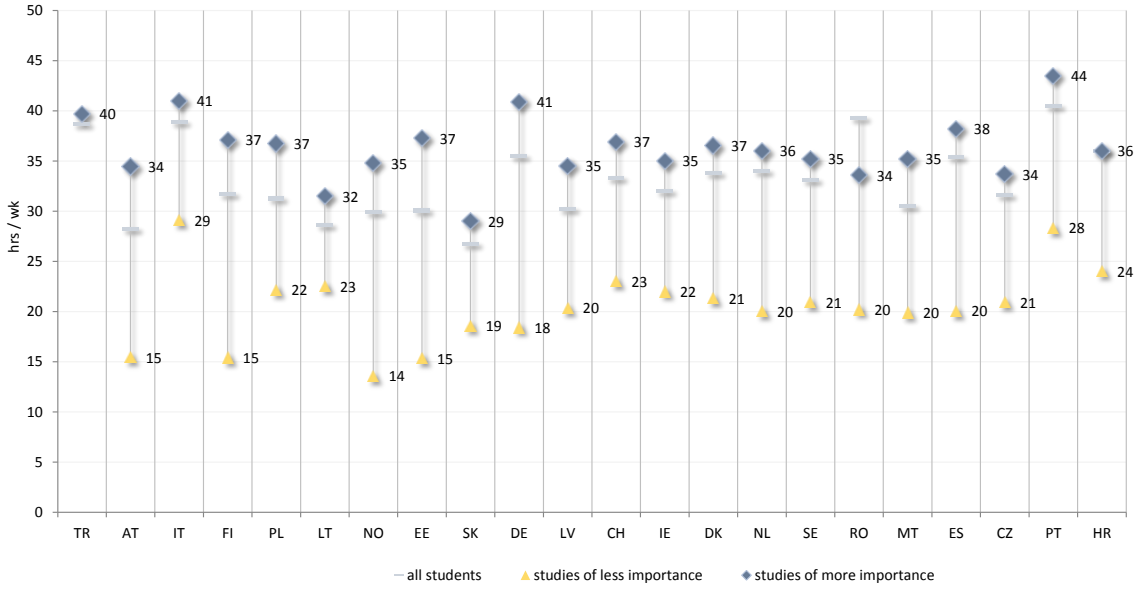
Another way of viewing hours spent on studies and study intensity is to look at the hours spent by a student related to their own assessment of how central their studies are to their daily life. Students were asked in the survey to say whether they saw their studies as more, less or equally important in comparison to their other activities in a typical week. Figure 5.10 shows the respective shares by country in chart (a) and the differences in the time spent on study-related activities in chart (b).

Fig. 5.10 Students by self-assessment of centrality of studies and amount of hours spent on study-related activities

a) Size of respective student population by centrality of studies in %



b) Centrality of studies by hours spent



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, G.7 (chart a) & H.5. No data: E_W, FR, SI. No data for studies of less importance: TR.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.10 How important are your studies compared to other activities for you?, 3.11 How many hours do you spend in a typical week in taught courses, personal study and on paid jobs?

- On average the share of students considering their studies a central weekly activity lies at 56% and those considering studies less important at 5% of the student population (chart a).
- In Austria, Finland, Italy and Poland the respective share is double this with more than one in 10 students assessing their studies as less important. In Czech Republic, Spain, Croatia, Italy, Portugal, Romania and Sweden over 2/3 of students consider their studies the most important activity. These figures tend to correspond with the more objective data on time spent in Figure 5.8.
- The EUROSTUDENT data set considers these 2 student groups – more or less importance of studies – as focus groups for time budget. For this reason it is possible to look into how much time these students spend on their studies. Students assessing their studies as less important spend on average 21 hours a week on study activities compared to 36 hours a week for students considering their studies more important. Chart (b) shows the difference by country.
- In Austria, Germany, Estonia, Finland and Norway students assessing their studies are more important spend more than twice the number of hours per week on study-related activities (taught lessons and personal study time) than their counterparts assessing studies as subordinate. In Norway they spend almost 3 times more time (14 vs. 35 hours).

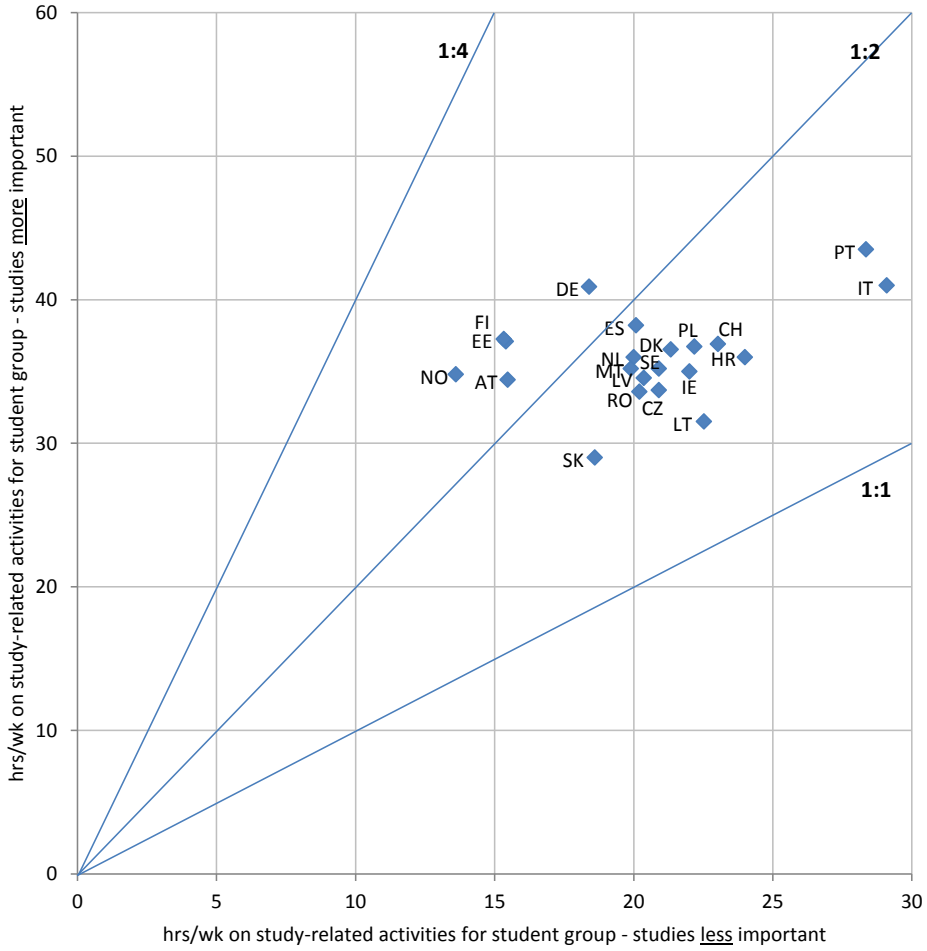
The final chart in this chapter combines the data on self-assessment of centrality of studies with amount of time spent in study-related activities as a way of viewing the flexibility of programmes offered in various countries (i.e. it is based on Figure 5.10). The chart starts out from the assumption that a flexible study structure is when those students, who need to, can reduce the number of taught lessons and course obligations and those who want to, can study more intensively. The self-assessment of centrality of studies is taken as a proxy for this wish.

The chart in Figure 5.11 shows the amount of hours spent study-related activities per week for students assessing their studies as less important (x-axis) and students assessing their studies as more important (y-axis). 3 lines are drawn to show countries in which students assessing their studies as more important attend the same amount of hours of taught courses as their counterparts (1:1), more than double (1:2) or even 4 times more (1:4).

- The first insight provided by this chart is that students considering their studies to be a central activity spend between 29 (Slovakia) and 44 (Portugal) hours a week on study-related activities. For the student group considering their studies less important in comparison to other weekly activities the country variation is much higher and between 14 (Norway) and 29 (Italy) hours per week.
- In the countries Austria, Germany, Estonia, Finland and Norway students assessing their studies as more important spend more than twice the number of hours on study-related activities as students assessing their studies as less important. These are all countries in which the share of students assessing their studies as less important is also comparatively high (see Figure 5.10). This may mean that these countries are more aware of the need for flexible study structures (although this is not always reflected in the formal status, Figure 5.6).
- In the countries Italy, Lithuania and Poland there is also a relatively high share of students assessing their students as less important, but the flexibility of study organisation appears more limited in country comparison.

Fig. 5.11 XY-Plot of flexibility of study structure: hours spend on study-related activities by self-assessment of importance of studies

Hours per week for student group 'Studies less important compared to other activities' versus '…more important…'



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, B.11, H5, G7. No data E_W, FR, SI, TR.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.10 How important are your studies compared to other activities for you?, 3.11 How many hours do you spend in a typical week in taught courses, personal study and on paid jobs?

Chapter 6 – Time budget for studies and employment

Key findings

- **Students' overall time budget:** What does the time budget of students look like in a typical study week? Students in most countries have a time budget of more than 40 hours in a typical study week, which they allocate to taught studies, personal study time and regular paid jobs. Students' time budget is particularly high in Portugal and Poland.
- **Composition of time budget:** While students allocate most of their time to study-related activities, regular paid employment is a reality of student life in most EUROSTUDENT countries. This is especially visible in Poland, Estonia and the Slovak Republic. The overall time budget and how it is composed depends on the field of study and above all students' age. On average, older students have a higher overall time budget, which is spent to a larger extent on regular paid jobs. In turn, they have a lower study-related time budget, especially for taught studies. Next to student characteristics, national customs and study environments seem to influence the time budget. For instance, most student types have a comparatively high personal study time in Italy, Malta and above all Sweden.
- **Trade-off between regular employment and studying:** With rising hours spent on regular paid employment, the time allocated to study-related activities tends to diminish. In Italy, Switzerland and Malta there seems to be a clear trade-off between these activities. In most other countries, time spent on paid jobs results in a slightly lower study-related time budget and an increase in the overall time budget.
- **Employment rate of students:** The importance of paid employment for students becomes apparent not only judging by the average weekly time spent on regular paid jobs, but also by the share of students who are regularly employed. In 1/2 of the EUROSTUDENT countries, at least 40% of students are regularly employed during term time. Most of them have a paid job in the term break as well. The employment rate is especially high among students from a low social background. Working is also common among students from a high social background, but the extent of their regular employment is much lower than that of their peers from low social background. For instance, students from low social background spend at least twice as many hours per week on regular paid jobs in Estonia, Italy, Croatia and Romania.
- **Satisfaction with overall time budget:** In about 1/2 of the EUROSTUDENT countries, at least 40% of students are (very) satisfied with their weekly time budget. The highest satisfaction levels are to be found in Denmark, Latvia, the Netherlands and Sweden. This good news is muted by the fact that in 3/4 of the EUROSTUDENT countries, at least 20% of students are (very) dissatisfied with their time budget. Students in Portugal and Italy have the highest levels of dissatisfaction. Generally speaking, students' dissatisfaction rises with an increasing time budget. Not least for that reason, students who are 30 years or older are disproportionately frequently (very) dissatisfied.

Main issues

Following up the analysis of the types and modes of study, this chapter examines in more detail what students' time budget looks like in a typical study week of the term time, how frequent employment is among students and how satisfied students are with the weekly time budget they have to tackle. The analysis of these 3 aspects is crucial in that it allows for a reconsideration of the prevailing premises about the organisation of student life across Europe.

Students' time budget for taught studies, personal study time and paid jobs

One long-established assumption is that students are exclusively devoting their time to studying. While it is in fact true that students spend most of their available time on studying, it is often forgotten that a substantial share of students' time budget is – or rather has to be – reserved for employment activities. In the examination of students' weekly time budget, a differentiation is therefore made between 3 basic components: taught studies, personal study time and paid jobs. Taught studies refer to the hours that students spend on study units organised by their higher education institution; this category includes activities such as lectures, seminars, tests or unpaid jobs in laboratories. Students' personal study time comprises activities such as reading, revising, practicing, preparing lectures as well as writing assignments. Taught studies and personal study time are collectively referred to as study-related activities. The category "paid jobs" includes regular and gainful employment activities during the term time.[1] Time dedicated to social engagement, household and caring duties, leisure activities or sleeping is not captured, although this would certainly be insightful for the analysis of students' time budget. The major intent of this chapter is indeed to show how the composition of students' study-related and job-related time budget varies across countries and where patterns for certain types of students can be identified beyond country characteristics. Moreover, the relation between time spent on regular paid jobs and the time devoted to study-related activities will be investigated.

Employment rate of students

One way to learn about the importance gainful employment has for students is to investigate how many hours an average student spends on regular paid jobs in a typical study week (see above). Another way is to calculate the employment rate of students. The employment rate illustrates how widespread the phenomenon of students having paid jobs alongside their studies is in different countries. In the analyses presented below, a general distinction is made between the rate of students being regularly employed during the term time[2] and the share of students who are (additionally) employed during their term break. Another aspect that is particularly relevant in analysing students' (regular) employment rate is the social background of students, as gainful employment during studies is not primarily a means to gain work experience or some extra money, but for many students – primarily from low social background – a way of covering the living costs. This issue should also be seen in relation to the question to what extent students from different social backgrounds rely on the income from gainful employment (→ Chapter 7).

[1] An employment activity is considered as regular if it forms part of a student's typical study week in the term time and lasts at least one hour per week. The terms "(regular) paid jobs", "(regular) paid employment", "(regular) gainful employment" and "(regular) job-related activities" are used interchangeably in this chapter. Data on students working on an occasional basis during the term time are not considered in this chapter, but are available via the → DRM (Subtopic G.1).

[2] See methodological note under previous footnote.

Students' assessment of their time budget

The description of students' weekly time budget and their employment rate raises the question whether students are coping with their time budget. In the EUROSTUDENT framework, students are therefore asked to provide information on their level of satisfaction with their current time budget. Next to a comparison of satisfaction levels across countries, the existence of systematic differences between groups of students will be investigated. As a conclusion to the chapter, we will turn to the question on whether an increasing time budget naturally leads to lower satisfaction levels, or whether the underlying dynamics are more subtle.

Data and Interpretation

Students in most countries have a time budget of more than 40 hours in a typical study week, which increases with students' age

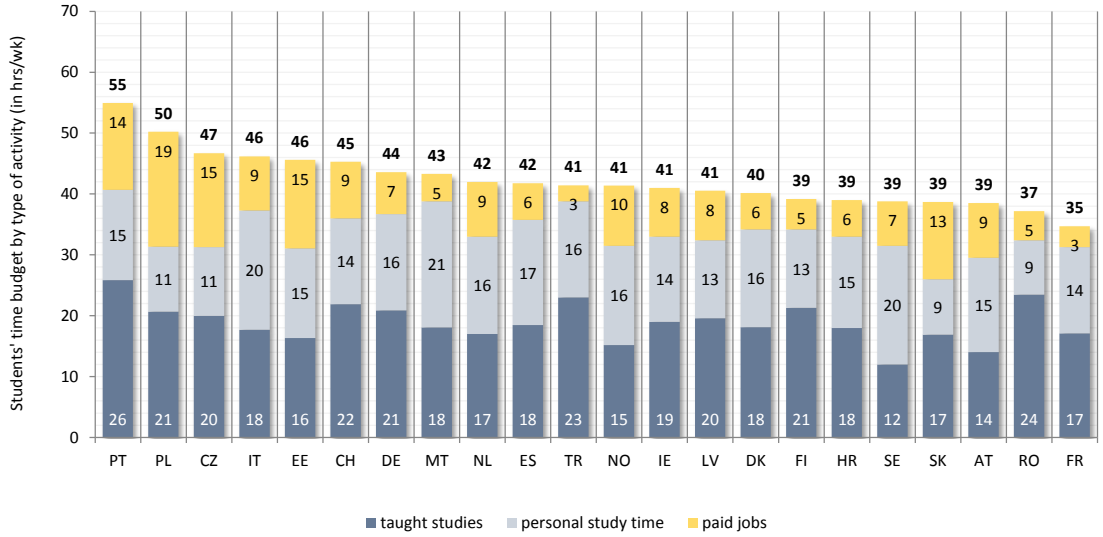
What is the weekly time budget students in different countries spend on taught studies, personal study time and regular paid jobs? In answering this question, it is crucial to note that beyond country characteristics, there are systematic differences between certain types of students that influence their time budget. This holds true not only with regard to their overall time budget, but also regarding its composition. To exemplify this, the following groups of students will be compared: Bachelor and Master students; students of humanities and arts as well as students of engineering, manufacturing and construction; students from high education background (ISCED 5-6) and students from low education background (ISCED 0-2); students who are up to 24 years old and students who are 30 years or older. This will form the basis for further analyses on the relation between time spent on regular paid jobs and time spent on study-related activities. To begin with, Figure 6.1 provides information on the time budget of Bachelor as well as Master students in a typical week of the term time.

- According to Figure 6.1 chart (a), Bachelor students' overall time budget varies across countries from under 40 hours in Finland, Croatia, Sweden, the Slovak Republic, Austria, Romania and France to 50 hours or more in Portugal and Poland.
- At Bachelor level, taught studies are the single largest component of students' time budget in approximately 3/4 of the countries covered in Figure 6.1. In the remaining countries, personal study time makes up the single largest component of Bachelor students' time budget.
- In Portugal, Romania, Turkey, Switzerland, Poland, Germany and Finland, Bachelor students spend more than 20 hours a week on taught studies, whilst in Norway, Austria and Sweden, they spend 15 hours a week or less. Bachelor students have the highest personal study time per week in Malta, Italy and Sweden (20 hours or more), and the lowest in the Slovak Republic, Romania, the Czech Republic and Poland (11 hours or less).
- The time Bachelor students spend on regular paid jobs varies markedly across countries. They dedicate a substantial share of their available time to regular paid jobs especially in the new EU Member States Poland, Estonia, the Czech Republic and the Slovak Republic. In Turkey and France, Bachelor students' share of their time budget spent on regular paid jobs is low in international comparison.

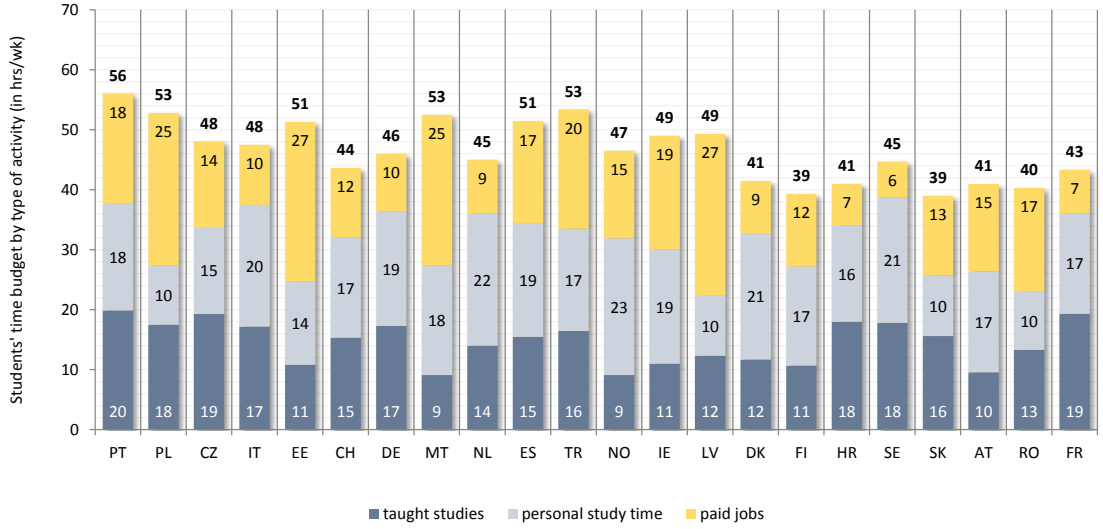
- The time budget of Master students (chart b) is higher than that of Bachelor students in all countries except for Switzerland, Finland and the Slovak Republic. The fact that Master students have a higher time budget than Bachelor students can be explained by the fact that they spend (notably) more time on regular paid jobs in all but 4 countries (the Czech Republic, the Netherlands, Sweden and the Slovak Republic).
- In contrast, the study-related time budget of Master students is lower than that of Bachelor students in the majority of countries. This, in turn, has to do with the fact that Master students spend considerably less time on taught studies than Bachelor students (in all countries but France, Sweden and Croatia). As far as the personal study time is concerned, Master students have a higher time budget than Bachelor students in all countries apart from Poland, Italy, Estonia, Malta and Latvia.

Fig. 6.1 Time budget of students by study programme and type of activity

a) Time budget of Bachelor students in hours per week



b) Time budget of Master students in hours per week



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, G.10. No data: E/W, LT, SI.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.11 How many hours do you spend in a typical week on taught studies, personal study and on paid jobs?, 1.1 Which programme are you currently enrolled in?
Note: In the case of CH the category "paid jobs" includes both regular and occasional paid employment during term time (→ DRM).

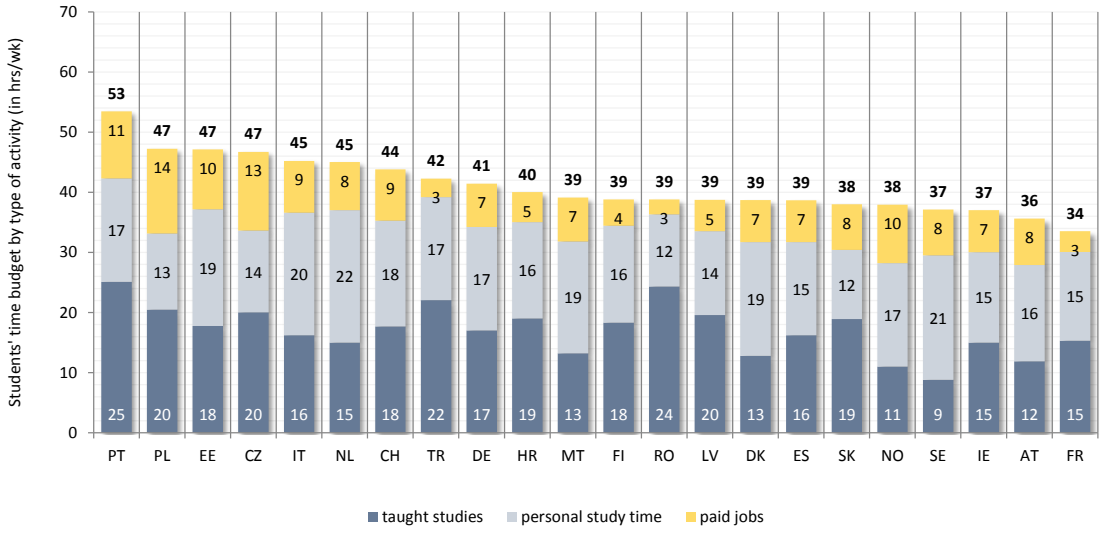
- In comparison to Bachelor students, Master students are thus reducing the pre-structured elements of their time budget (taught studies) with a view to extending the flexible elements (personal study time and time for regular paid jobs). This difference in the allocation of time can largely be explained by the difference in age between Bachelor and Master students (see below). The latter are on average older and therefore more advanced in their study and especially employment biographies than Bachelor students (➝ Chapter 4).

Figure 6.2 further differentiates the weekly time budget of Bachelor students by 2 fields of study, i.e. humanities and arts (chart a) as well as engineering, manufacturing and construction (chart b).

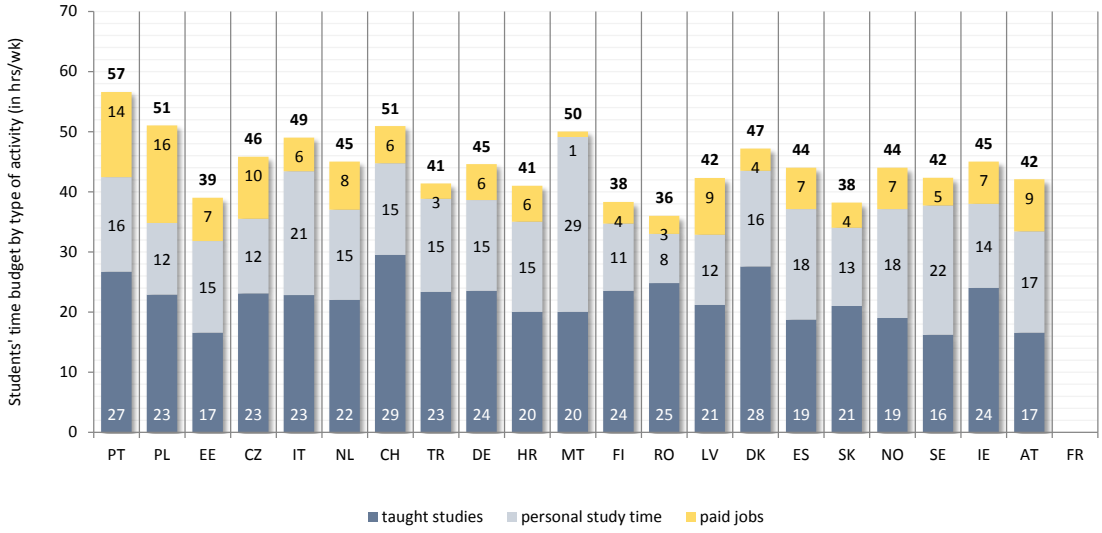
- In the majority of countries, the overall time budget of Bachelor students is higher in the field of engineering, manufacturing and construction than in the field of humanities and arts. This difference is on account of considerably more time spent on taught studies in the latter field.

Fig. 6.2 Time budget of Bachelor students by field of study and type of activity

a) Time budget of students of humanities and arts in hours per week



b) Time budget of students of engineering, manufacturing and construction in hours per week



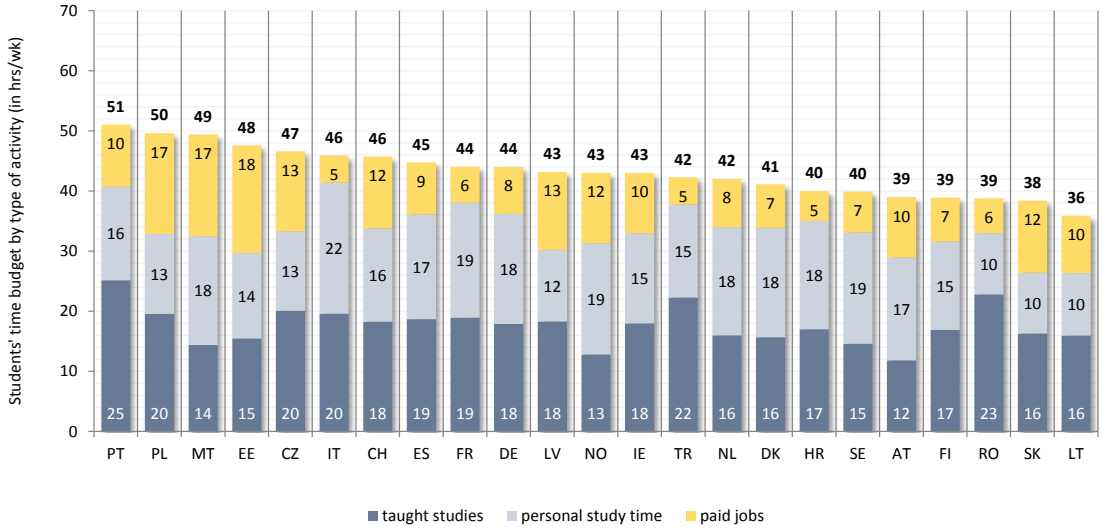
Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, G.10. No data: E/W, LT, SI. Too few cases for engineering, manufacturing and construction: FR.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.11 How many hours do you spend in a typical week on taught studies, personal study and on paid jobs?, 1.4 What is the programme you follow?, 1.1 Which programme are you currently enrolled in?
Note: In the case of CH the category "paid jobs" includes both regular and occasional paid employment during term time (➝ DRM).

- Not only in absolute terms, but also as a share of their overall time budget, students of engineering, manufacturing and construction spend more time on taught studies than students of humanities and arts. This is the case in all countries but Portugal and Latvia. In turn, students of humanities and arts tend to spend a larger share of their overall time budget on regular paid jobs and on personal study time in the majority of countries. This shows that the humanities and arts offer more flexible study environments to students than the engineering, manufacturing and construction disciplines.

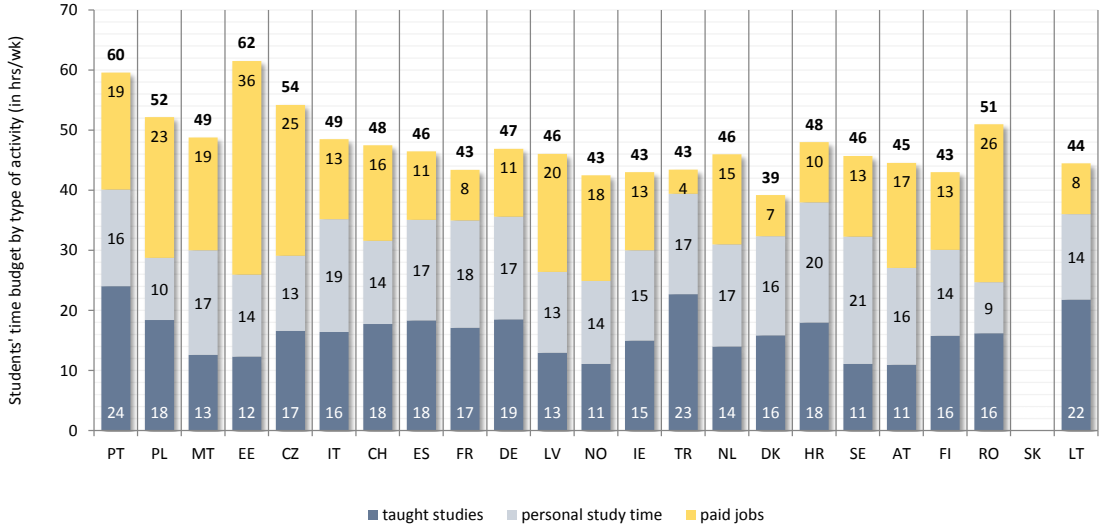
Figure 6.3 shows the time budget of students from high education background (ISCED 5-6) in comparison to that of students from low education background (ISCED 0-2). Only students not living with their parents are taken into account.

Fig. 6.3 Time budget of students <u>not</u> living with parents by social background and type of activity

a) Time budget of students with high education background (ISCED 5-6) in hours per week



b) Time budget of students with low education background (ISCED 0-2) in hours per week



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, G.8. No data: E/W, SI. Too few cases: SK (low education background, ISCED 0-2).
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.11 How many hours do you spend in a typical week on taught studies, personal study and on paid jobs?, 6.1 What is the highest level of education your father and mother have obtained?, 3.1 Who do you live with during the study term/semester (Monday until Friday)?
Note: In the case of CH the category "paid jobs" includes both regular and occasional paid employment during term time (→ DRM).

- In the large majority of countries, students from low education background have to tackle a higher overall time budget in a typical study week than students from high education background. Only in Denmark and France, students from low education background have a lower overall time budget.
- The overall time budget of students from low education background is higher mostly because they spend considerably more time on regular paid jobs in the striking majority of countries. This is arguably the case because they depend on the income from regular paid employment to finance their studies (→ Chapter 7). In Estonia, Italy, Croatia and Romania, students from low education background spend at least twice as many hours per week on regular paid jobs than their peers from high education background.
- There are indications that the additional time students from low education background spend on regular paid jobs goes along with a reduction in the time available for study-related activities. In fact, their study-related time budget is lower than that of students from high education background in all countries but Lithuania, Croatia and Turkey. In many countries, it is especially taught studies that students from low education background cut back in order to set free capacities for regular paid employment. Only in a few countries (Portugal, Latvia and Sweden) the reduction in taught studies is 'compensated' by an increase in the personal study time.

As in the case of Bachelor and Master students, the differences between students from high and low education backgrounds can largely be explained by the average age of the student groups in question. Students from low education background tend to be older than students from high education background, as they enter higher education through an alternative entry route more often (→ Chapters 2 and 4). In order to illustrate the role of students' age in explaining the magnitude as well as the composition of students' overall time budget, 2 extreme age groups are compared in Figure 6.4: students who are up to 24 years old and students who are 30 years or older. Both age groups comprise only students who are not living with their parents.

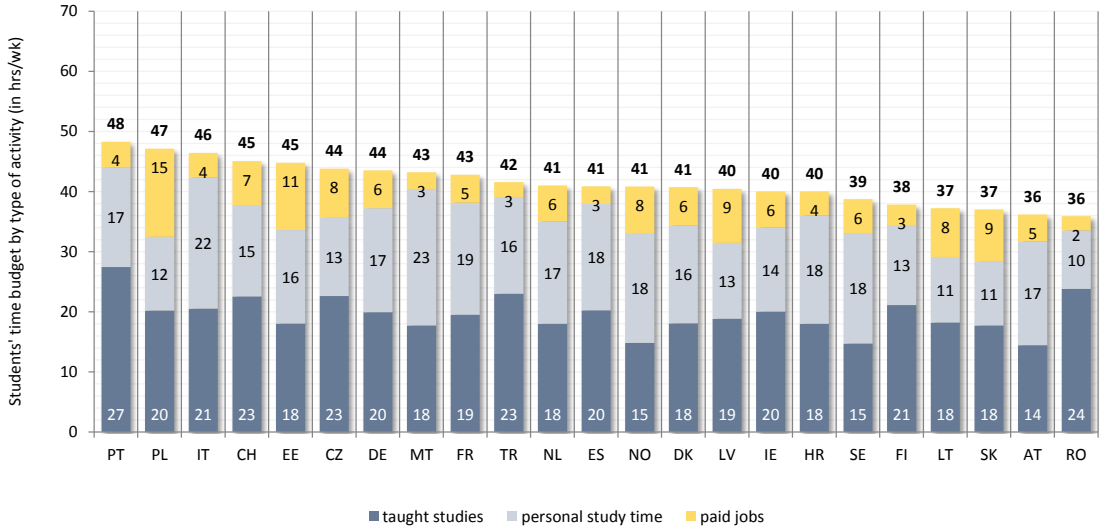
- In all countries apart from Denmark, the overall weekly time budget of students who are 30 years or older is substantially higher than that of students aged 24 years or younger. In the majority of countries, the difference in the overall time budget amounts to 10 hours or more.
- This difference can largely be explained by the fact that students who are 30 years or older spend considerably more time on regular paid jobs. In all countries covered in Figure 6.4, their time budget for regular paid jobs is higher than that of students who are up to 24 years old. In all countries apart from Denmark and Sweden, it is more than 10 hours higher. In almost 1/2 of the countries covered in Figure 6.4, students aged 30 years or older spend 50% or more of their overall time budget on regular paid jobs. Finally, there are 9 countries in which students aged 30 years or older spend 30 hours or more a week on paid jobs. This shows that a substantial share of students in this age group is employed full-time and follows studies on top.
- In contrast, students who are up to 24 years old concentrate primarily on study-related activities. Only in the 5 new EU Member States Poland, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and the Slovak Republic, their study-related time budget makes up *less* than 80% of the overall time budget. In absolute terms, their study-related time budget – and especially that for taught studies – is higher than that of their peers aged 30 years or older in all countries but Sweden and Lithuania.

Before the relation between the job-related and the study-related time budget is examined further in the next subsection, a few general trends shall be highlighted based on Figures 6.1 to 6.4.

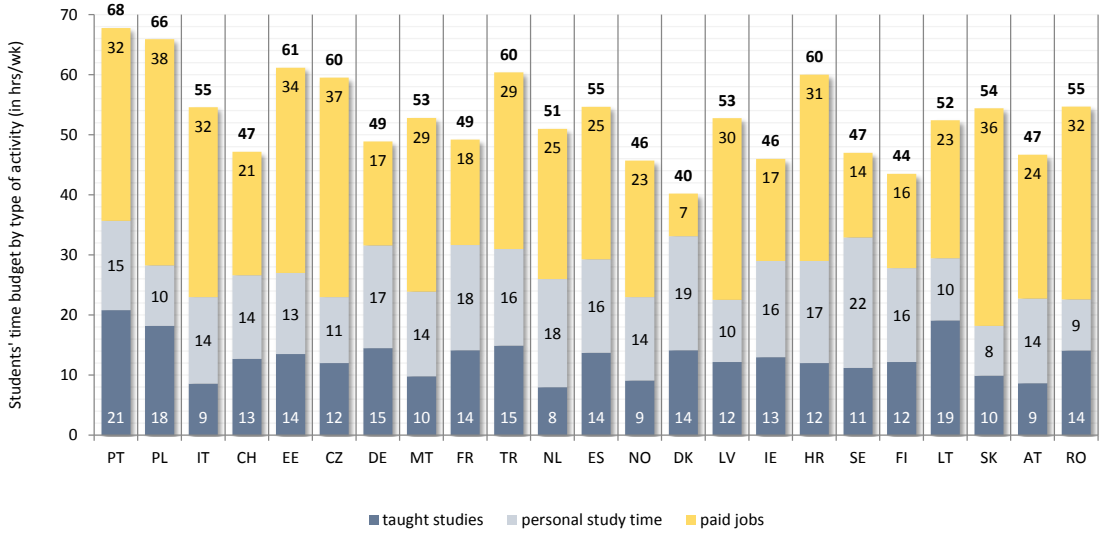
- Students in most countries have an overall time budget of more than 40 hours in a typical study week. However, this time budget strongly depends on students' study programme, field of study, education background and age. Independent of these background characteristics, students' time budget is very high in Poland and especially Portugal.
- While students allocate most of their time budget to study-related activities, regular paid employment is clearly a basic element of students' weekly time budget in almost all countries.

Fig. 6.4 Time budget of students <u>not</u> living with parents by age and type of activity

a) Time budget of students who are up to 24 years old in hours per week



b) Time budget of students who are 30 years or older in hours per week



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, G.7. No data: E/W, SI.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.11 How many hours do you spend in a typical week on taught studies, personal study and on paid jobs?, 5.1 When were you born?, 3.1 Who do you live with during the study term/semester (Monday until Friday)?
Note: In the case of CH the category "paid jobs" includes both regular and occasional paid employment during term time (→ DRM).

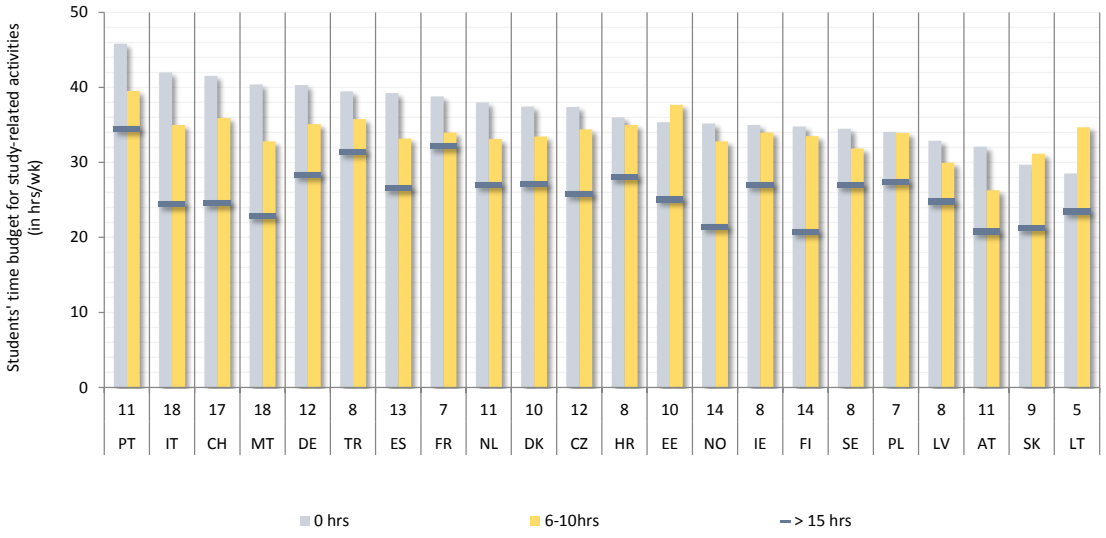
- In most countries, the relative importance of taught studies and personal study time differs by students' study programme, field of study, education background and age. In a few countries, personal study time makes up a substantial share of the overall time budget among most student groups. This is the case in Italy, Malta and above all in Sweden.
- The most influential factor in determining the overall weekly time budget and its composition is students' age. This hypothesis cannot be verified statistically based on the data presented here, but it is substantiated by the findings of the national research teams (→ DRM and → National Profiles).

With rising hours spent on regular paid jobs, the time budget for study-related activities diminishes

The relation between study-related activities and job-related activities is ambivalent. On the one hand, employment can prove to be beneficial for students. Next to its most obvious function as an (additional) source of income, employment enables students to gain work experience and can – in an ideal case – help students to internalise the theoretical knowledge they have acquired during their studies. On the other hand, employment also has a downside. Since students' weekly time budget is finite, employment can be assumed to go along with a reduction in the time available for study-related activities. This interrelation shall be examined in more detail below.

Figure 6.5 shows students' time budget for study-related activities in a typical study week during the term time. It is differentiated by the hours spent on regular paid employment, i.e. a distinction is made between students not being employed regularly, students being employed regularly for 6 to 10 hours and for more than 15 hours per week. Also, the difference in time budget devoted to study-related activities between students not being employed regularly and those being employed regularly for more than 15 hours is shown above the country labels under the bars.

Fig. 6.5 Time budget of students for study-related activities by extent of regular paid employment in hours per week



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, G.9. No data: E/W, RO, SI.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.11 How many hours do you spend in a typical week on taught studies, personal study and on paid jobs?
Note: In the case of CH the hours of employment per week include both regular and occasional paid jobs during term time (→ DRM).

- Students not being employed regularly spend most time on study-related activities in the majority of countries, followed by students being employed regularly for 6 to 10 hours. As expected, students being employed for more than 15 hours per week have the lowest study-related time budget. This holds true for all countries examined. It can thus be concluded that the study-related time budget diminishes with rising hours spent on paid employment.
- Students being employed regularly for more than 15 hours a week reduce their study-related time budget by (more than) 15 hours only in Italy, Switzerland and Malta. This implies that in all other countries, the additional time spent on paid jobs is not fully 'compensated' by a reduction in the study-related time budget, but also by an increase in the overall time budget – and thus a containment of students' leisure time. As can be seen in the → DRM (Subtopic G.9), this containment of students' leisure time exceeds the reduction of their study-related time budget in many countries.
- The data in the → DRM (Subtopic G.9) also show that students who are employed regularly for more than 15 hours per week tend to reduce their time for taught studies more strongly than their personal study time in the majority of countries. This may indicate that these students are deliberately opting for flexible, part-time study arrangements in order to be able to have regular paid jobs alongside their studies.

In 1/2 of the EUROSTUDENT countries, at least 40% of students are regularly employed during term time, many of which are additionally employed in the term break

As argued under the Main issues, analysing to what extent paid employment is part of students' everyday life can not only be done by calculating the average time spent on regular paid jobs in a typical study week, but also by calculating the employment rate of students. In a first step, the rate of students being employed on a regular basis is examined, as regular jobbers are more exposed to the challenge of reconciling employment and studying.[3] The focus is on students not living with their parents because gainful employment is more imperative for them than for students still living at home. Next to showing the regular employment rate of all students, Figure 6.6 further differentiates between students from low and high education backgrounds.

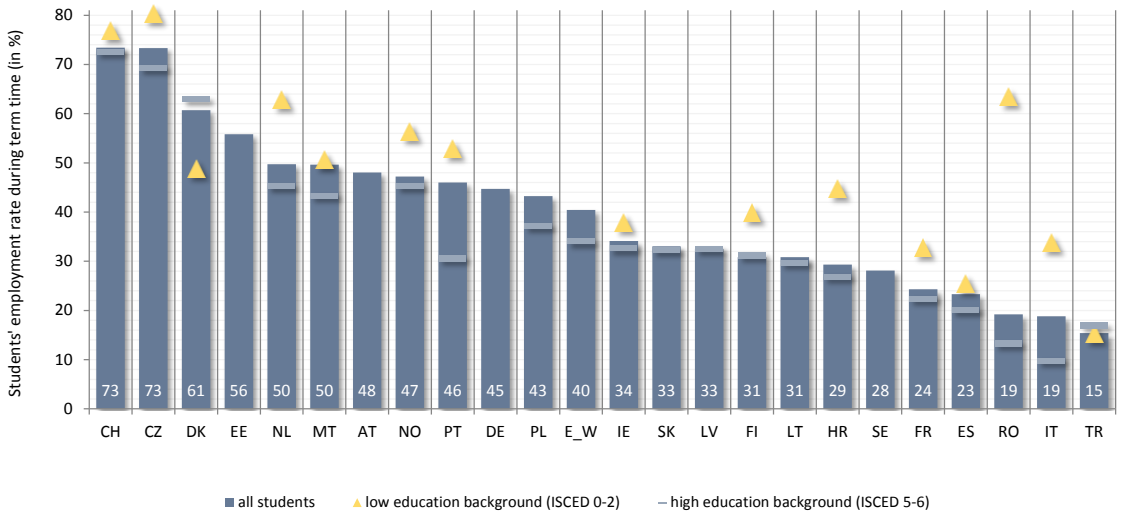
- The regular employment rate of students fluctuates enormously between countries. While it lies above 70% in Switzerland and the Czech Republic, it is lower than 20% in Romania, Italy and Turkey. This illustrates that regular employment alongside studies is a reality in all EUROSTUDENT countries, but by no means a matter of course applying to the totality of students.
- Still, at least 40% of students are regularly employed during term time in 1/2 of the EUROSTUDENT countries. In 6 countries, the regular employment rate even lies at 50% or above (Switzerland, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, the Netherlands and Malta).
- With regard to most countries, the magnitude of students' regular employment rate is broadly in line with the magnitude of time devoted to regular paid jobs. For instance, both the regular employment rate and the weekly time budget for regular paid jobs are comparatively high in countries such as the Czech Republic and Estonia, and they are both comparatively low in

[3] Data on students working on an occasional basis are available via the → DRM (Subtopic G.1).

countries such as Italy and Turkey. However, there are also countries with a comparatively high regular employment rate and a weekly time budget for regular paid jobs that is below average (e.g. Denmark). At the same time, there are countries with an average regular employment rate but a comparatively high weekly time budget for regular paid jobs (e.g. Poland). In the case of Denmark, this implies that many students are employed for only a few hours on average, whereas in the case of Poland, a smaller share of students is employed for many hours on average.

- As might have been expected, students from low education background are regularly employed visibly more frequently in most countries for which data are available. This holds true particularly for Romania, Italy, Croatia, Portugal and the Netherlands. Still, the regular employment rate of students from high education background is not much lower than that of all students in most countries, which shows that regular paid employment is rather common among students from high education background as well. However, what differs between students from low and high education backgrounds is the extent of their employment. As pointed out in Figure 6.3, students from low education background have a considerably higher time budget for regular paid jobs in a typical study week than their peers from high education background. Another difference between the 2 groups concerns the main motives for being regularly employed. Arguably, students from low education background are employed regularly to earn their living more frequently, whereas students from high education background are employed regularly with the intention to gain some extra money more often.

Fig. 6.6 Students <u>not</u> living with parents with regular paid job during term time by social background in %

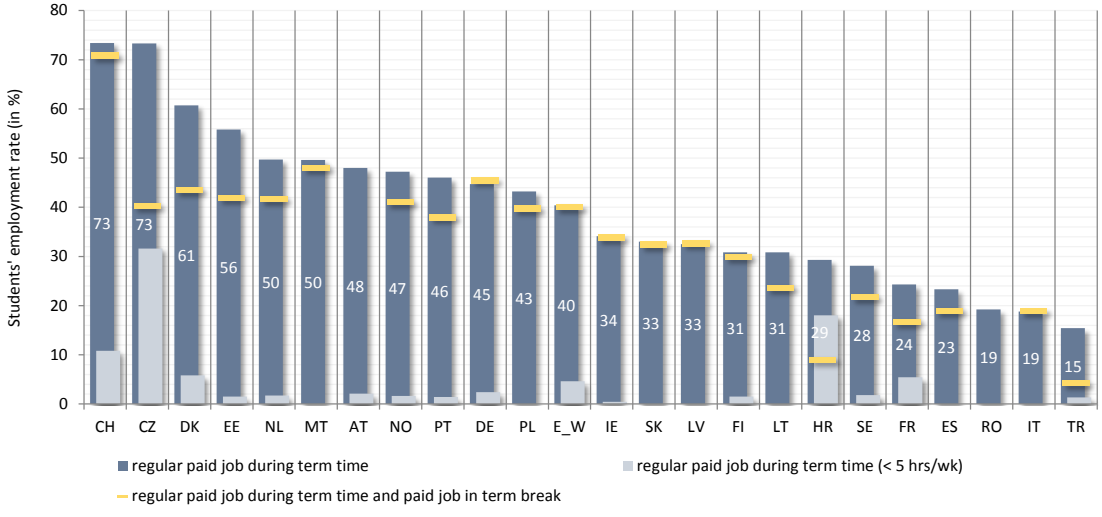


Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, G.2 & G.3. No data: SI. No data for low education background (ISCED 0-2): AT, DE, EE, E/W, PL, SE. No data for high education background (ISCED 5-6): AT, DE, EE, SE. Too few cases for low education background (ISCED 0-2): LT, LV, SK.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.8 Do you have a paid job during the current semester?, 3.11 How many hours do you spend in a typical week on taught studies, personal study and on paid jobs?, 6.1 What is the highest level of education your father and mother have obtained?, 3.1 Who do you live with during the study term/semester (Monday until Friday)?
Note: In the case of CH the employment rate during term time includes both regular and occasional paid jobs (→ DRM).

Figure 6.7 provides more details on students who are not living with their parents and have a regular paid job during the term time. On the one hand, it shows how large is the group of students being regularly employed for less than 5 hours a week in comparison to the overall regular employment rate. On the other hand, it shows how large is the share of students who are employed in the term break in addition to their regular employment during term time.

- Having a regular paid job of less than 5 hours a week is not common in the majority of countries for which data on this category are available. Students who are employed regularly tend to be employed for more than 5 hours per week. Being employed regularly for less than 5 hours a week is common only the Czech Republic and Croatia.[4]
- In about 1/2 of the countries for which data are available, students who are employed regularly during the term time also have a paid job in the term break. Despite the term break employment rate being lower than the term time employment rate in a number of countries, it remains at 40% or above in almost 1/2 of the countries for which data are available. Interrupting the regular term employment is common especially in the Czech Republic, Croatia and Turkey.

Fig. 6.7 Students <u>not</u> living with parents with regular paid job during term time and paid job in the term break in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, G.1 & G.2. No data: MT (<5 hrs/wk), SI. No data for regular paid job during term time and paid job in term break: AT, RO. Too few cases for regular paid job during term time <5 hrs/wk: ES, IT, LT, LV, PL, RO, SK.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.8 Do you have a paid job during the current semester?, 3.11 How many hours do you spend in a typical week on taught studies, personal study and on paid jobs?, 3.9 Did you have a paid job during the term break in the last 12 months?, 3.1 Who do you live with during the study term/semester (Monday until Friday)?
Note: In the case of CH the employment rate during term time includes both regular and occasional paid jobs (➝ DRM).

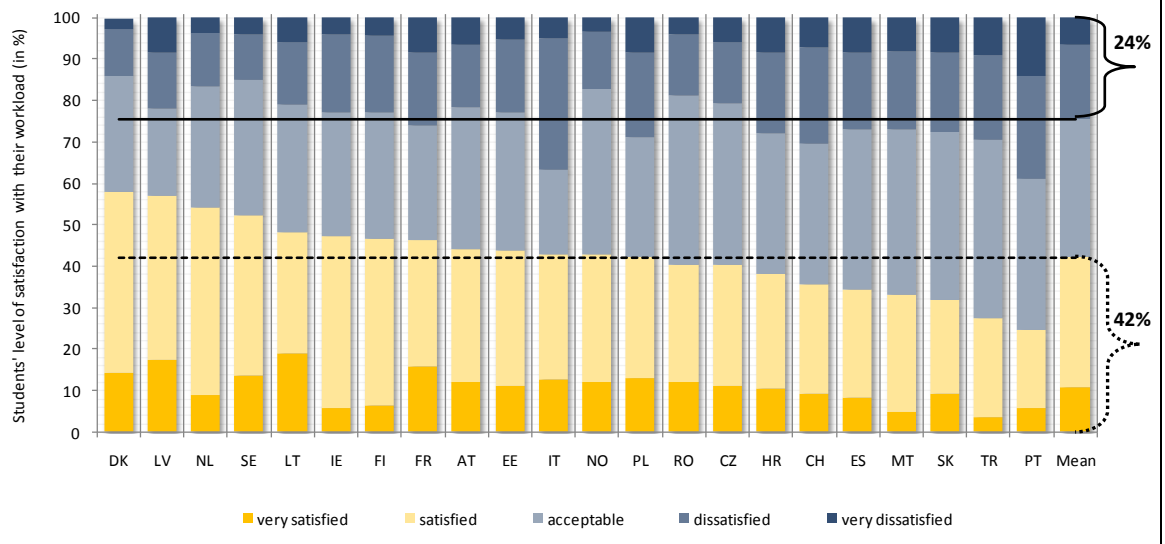
[4] The comparatively high value for Switzerland is related to the fact that both regular and occasional paid jobs are included in the figures.

In 3/4 of EUROSTUDENT countries, at least 20% of students are (very) dissatisfied with their weekly time budget, which can be partially explained by the fact that their time budget is comparatively high

The description of students' weekly time budget and their (regular) employment rate automatically raises the question whether students are coping with their time budget. In the EUROSTUDENT framework, students are therefore asked to provide information on their level of satisfaction with their current time budget. As can be seen in Figure 6.8, a differentiation is made between 5 levels of satisfaction. Next to the country values, the mean of all EUROSTUDENT countries for which data are available is shown (bar on the right). The dashed line indicates the average share of students being (very) satisfied with their time budget, the continuous line the average share of students being (very) dissatisfied.

- On average, more than 40% of students are (very) satisfied with their time budget, approximately 1/3 finds it acceptable and about 1/4 is (very) dissatisfied. The fact that in 3/4 of EUROSTUDENT countries at least 20% of students seem to be overstrained with their weekly time budget can be judged as critical.
- There are strong variations across countries regarding students' levels of satisfaction, especially in the share of students being satisfied with their time budget and those considering it as acceptable.
- In countries such as Denmark, Latvia, the Netherlands and Sweden, comparatively large shares of students are (very) satisfied with their time budget, while relatively small shares of students are (very) dissatisfied with their time budget. The opposite picture can be observed for students in Portugal and – at a lower level – Turkey, Switzerland and Italy. The Italian and – again at a less expressed level – the French case are interesting because they show that the student bodies are rather polarised in these countries. Both the share of (very) satisfied and of (very) dissatisfied students lie above the EUROSTUDENT mean.

Fig. 6.8 Students' assessment of their time budget by level of satisfaction in %



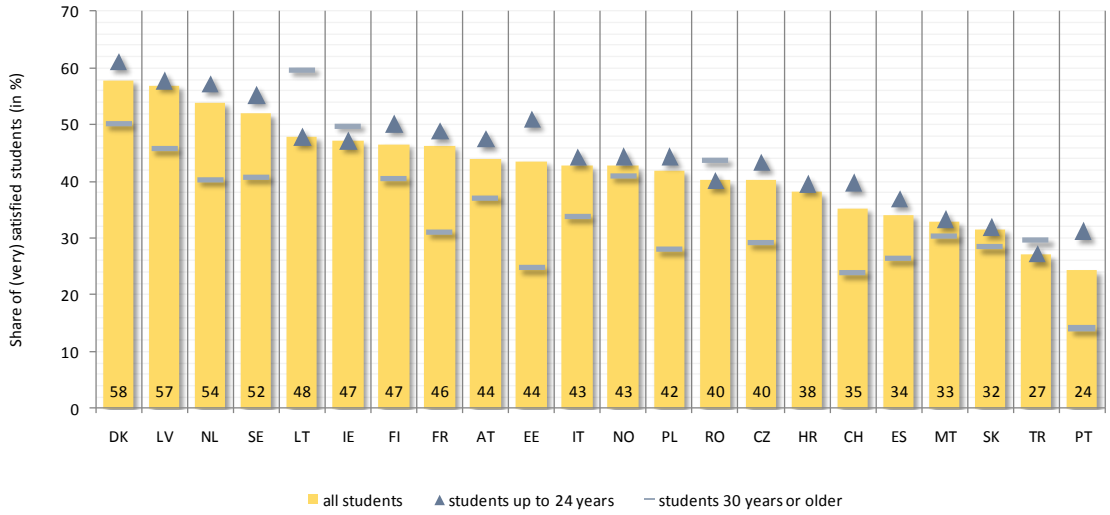
Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, G.11. No data: DE, E/W, SI.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.12 Looking at your total workload based on the time you spend in study-related activities and in paid jobs, please rate your satisfaction with your workload.

- In countries where a comparatively large share of students is (very) satisfied, students' time budget tends to be rather low in international comparison (like in Sweden, Denmark or Lithuania) or to lie in the middle field (like in the Netherlands). Among the countries where relatively low shares of students are (very) satisfied and high shares of students are (very) dissatisfied, both countries in which students' time budget is comparatively high (e.g. Portugal) and countries in which students' time budget is relatively low (e.g. the Slovak Republic) can be found. From this picture, it could be concluded that a relatively high time budget impedes student bodies from being (very) satisfied, but that a comparatively low weekly time budget does not automatically lead to student bodies being (very) satisfied. Clearly, the aggregate data presented in this chapter do not allow to examine this issue in detail; further research could examine to what extent other factors, such as the national study environments and the prevalent perceptions amongst students about an adequate weekly time budget influence the satisfaction of students.

Students' satisfaction levels do not only differ across countries, but also within countries across different types of students. These differences are particularly expressed between younger and older students, as is illustrated in Figure 6.9. This figure shows the share of students being (very) satisfied with their weekly time budget. The group of all students is further differentiated by students being up to 24 years old and students being 30 years or older.

- In most countries, the share of students being up to 24 years who are (very) satisfied with their weekly time budget is slightly higher than that of all students. In contrast, the share of (very) satisfied students being 30 years or older is (considerably) lower than both that of all students and that of students being up to 24 years. This holds true for all countries but Lithuania, Ireland, Romania and Turkey.

Fig. 6.9 Students who are (very) satisfied with their time budget by age in %



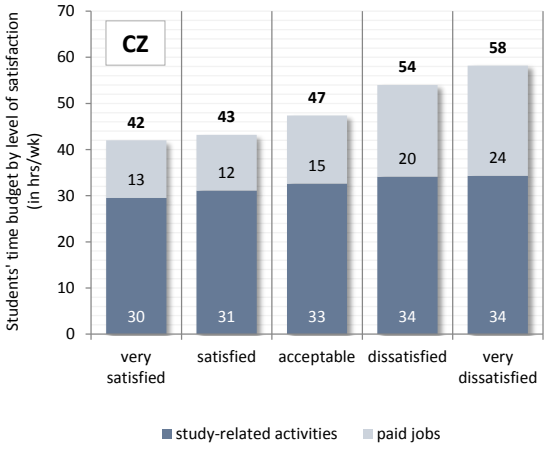
Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, G.11. No data: DE, E/W, SI. Too few cases: HR (students 30 years or older).
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.12 Looking at your total workload based on the time you spend in study-related activities and in paid jobs, please rate your satisfaction with your workload., 5.1 When were you born?

- As can be seen in the → DRM (Subtopic G.11), students being 30 years or older are in turn (very) dissatisfied more frequently than their peers being up to 24 years old. This can largely be explained by the substantially higher weekly time budget of students being 30 years or older (cf. Figure 6.4). Arguably, the fact that older students have to reconcile studying with employment and family obligations more often leaves them with a feeling of not having sufficient time to tackle their academic challenges.

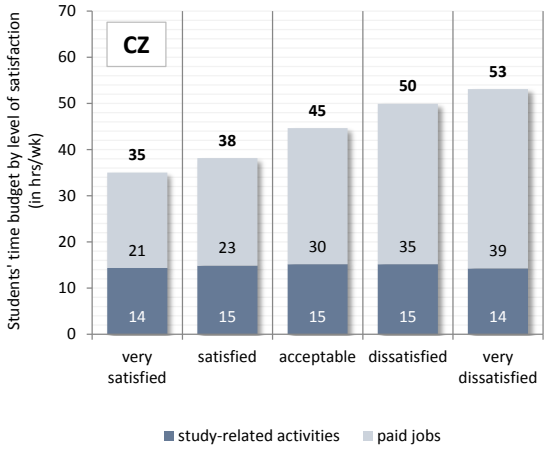
To conclude, Figure 6.10 provides further information on the question whether higher weekly time budgets lead to students being less satisfied. To this end, the time budget of all students and of low-intensity students (→ Glossary) is shown by their levels of satisfaction. The overall time budget is disaggregated by time devoted to study-related activities and time spent on paid jobs. The Czech Republic (charts a and b) and the Netherlands (charts c and d) serve as examples because they represent 2 different groups of countries.

Fig. 6.10 Time budget of students by country, type of student, level of satisfaction and type of activity in hours per week

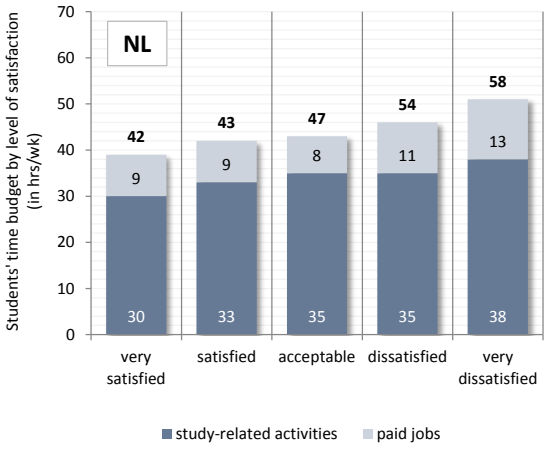
a) All students in the Czech Republic



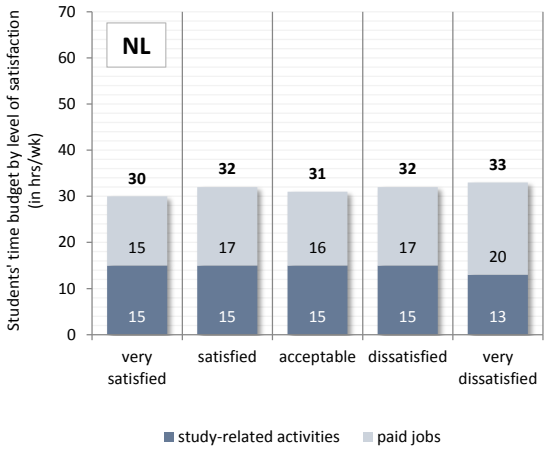
b) Low-intensity students in the Czech Republic



c) All students in the Netherlands



d) Low-intensity students in the Netherlands



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, G.12.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.11 How many hours do you spend in a typical week on taught studies, personal study and on paid jobs?, 3.12 Looking at your total workload based on the time you spend in study-related activities and in paid jobs, please rate your satisfaction with your workload.

- In both countries and across types of students, the group of very satisfied students has the lowest weekly time budget and the group of very dissatisfied students has the highest weekly time budget. Although there are exceptions to these dynamics, it can be concluded that students' dissatisfaction rises with their overall weekly time budget.
- As far as all students are concerned (charts a and c), the hours spent on regular paid jobs increase more strongly across satisfaction levels (in relative terms) than the study-related time budget. The pattern shown for the Czech Republic in chart (a) is similar to the ones that can be observed in most other countries. In a few countries (e.g. France, Malta and Croatia), a pattern as in the Netherlands can be observed, where not only the time for regular paid jobs, but also for the study-related time budget rises notably across satisfaction levels.
- Regarding low-intensity students, the patterns are different. Low-intensity students have by definition a study-related time budget of less than 21 hours in a typical week of the term time (→ Glossary). In most countries – as in the countries presented in Figure 6.10 charts (b) and (d) – the study-related time budget of low-intensity students lies on average at approximately 15 hours per week. In the case of the Czech Republic, the (dis)satisfaction of students can largely be explained by the hours they (have to) spend on regular paid jobs per week: the higher the job-related time budget, the less satisfied students seem to be on average. This pattern is visible in the majority of countries for which data are available. In a few countries – e.g. the Netherlands, Spain, Denmark, Finland and especially Sweden and Norway – this relation is not as straightforward as in the Czech Republic. In these countries, the time budget for paid jobs differs only marginally between different levels of satisfaction. Here, it is likely that mainly other factors than the magnitude of the job-related time budget have an influence on students' satisfaction.

Since they are based on highly aggregated data, the findings on the factors influencing students' (dis)satisfaction should be read with caution. They are meant to provide a point of departure for further research based on micro-level data.

Chapter 7 – Students’ resources

Key findings

- **Shares of private and public funding:** Where do students’ resources come from? Across all countries, students and their families together provide more than 3/4 of students’ aggregated monthly income; public support amounts to less than 1/4 of students’ income. This holds for both students who are living with their parents and those who have moved out of their parents’ home.
- **Main sources of student income:** Public support plays a major role in student funding for students who are not living with parents only in Denmark, England/Wales, Malta, the Netherlands, and Sweden. In a clear majority of countries, the major component of student income is either provisions from family/partner or students’ self-earned income.
- **Income difference by gender:** In most countries female students have a lower average total income than their male counterparts, but in the majority of cases the absolute and relative differences are small.
- **Income difference by study programme:** Master students receive on average less support from family and the state than Bachelor students; their income gap is filled by gainful employment. In a clear majority of countries, the most important source of income for Master students is employment alongside studies.
- **Distribution of student income:** The diversity of students’ total monthly income varies greatly between the countries. In Ireland, Estonia, the Slovak Republic, the Czech Republic, and Latvia the level of income diversity is high; it is low in Malta, Switzerland, Denmark, Germany, and the Netherlands.
- **Student income by social background:** On average across the countries, students from low social backgrounds clearly receive less support from family/partner and a bit more public support than their peers from high social backgrounds.
- **Earnings by social background:** Students from low social backgrounds rely to a much higher extent on paid work than students from high social backgrounds.

Main issues

One of the major factors of study conditions is students' resources. Students are subject to a multitude of expenses. Besides study-related expenditure, which can be substantial, there are most notably living costs that need to be covered by the students' budget (➝ Chapter 8). For many students it is not so easy to provide sufficient funds for this period of their life. On the one hand participation in higher education often means that the students become intellectually, socially and financially more independent of their parents. On the other hand the period in tertiary education compels the students to spend time on their studies and during these study-related activities they are not available for the labour market to make own earnings. The combination of higher expenditure and limited possibilities of earning money turns participation in higher education for the students into a medium-term phase of higher financial burden. Within the EUROSTUDENT framework student income is classified into 4 categories.

Contributions from family or partner

Contribution from family/partner is money which a student receives from his/her parents, other relatives or the person he/she is sharing his/her life with. For students who are not living with their parents, a further type of provision from family/partner, the so-called transfers in kind, is taken into account – see Box 7.1.

Box 7.1 Parental support: transfers in cash and in kind

In all countries, students profit in many ways from contributions which they receive from their parents or other relatives. Within the EUROSTUDENT framework 2 basic types of economic parental support are distinguished: On the one hand, parents may financially support their children by paying them money, which is not 'earmarked'. This means the student has this money at his/her disposal and is free to choose what to spend it for (= transfer in cash). On the other hand, parents may want to pay their children's bills directly, e.g. in order to make sure that the support is used exclusively for an intended purpose. In this case, the parents transfer the money straight to their children's creditor (e.g. this is the case when parents pay the rent for their children directly to the children's landlord). For the students the money for this type of support is intangible (= transfer in kind). Within this framework transfers in kind are a student's living costs and study-related costs which are paid directly by the parents or other persons to the student's creditor.

While one student may receive parental support completely in cash, another may receive the same magnitude of support as transfer in kind. Therefore, it is important to cover both types of support in order to get the whole picture of the students' living conditions. However, empirical research has shown that it is difficult to collect data on transfers in kind. For some types of household expenditure it is problematic to apply the costs-by-cause principle and assign the costs appropriate to the persons living in the household. This applies especially to students who are living with their parents, but also to students who are sharing an accommodation with their partner. According to the EUROSTUDENT project conventions, for students who are living with parents transfers in kind were left out of consideration as it was deemed too difficult for these students to estimate this kind of support (the only exception is Switzerland, where financial data on students who are living with parents contain these transfers (➝ Cf. Office fédéral de la statistique (2008)). By contrast, students who are not living with parents were asked to report transfers in kind. Although these students face basically the same problem as their peers who are living with their parents, it was assumed that students who moved out of their parents' home might have a better cost awareness and, therefore, are in the position to give at least a rough estimate for the non-cash support. Due to this convention it is important to note that income and expenses of students who are living with parents cannot be compared to those of students who are not living with their parents!

Despite the assumption of students' higher independence during tertiary education which was mentioned afore, there is a general expectation in some countries that the major stakeholders in higher education remain the parents of the students. In those countries, the parents are usually legally obligated to financially support their collegiate children although these children are already of full age. Sometimes the parents are – at least partially – compensated by special benefits from the

state for providing means for their children. These benefits may either take on the form of cash support (e.g. continuance of child benefit) or non-cash support (e.g. tax exemptions). In other countries, where students are considered as being (financially) independent persons, parents are just seen as one of multiple sources of student funding.

Public support

A dependency on parents is also a dependency on their economic resources. To alleviate this dependency, the state can introduce programmes to support students financially. Within the EUROSTUDENT framework support from public sources means financial contribution from the state, which the student receives directly, usually because of his/her student status. The category comprises repayable support (loans) and non-repayable support (grants/scholarships). The public support programmes are often targeted at those students in need of such support (e.g. means-tested support taking students’ own income and that of their parents into account). Other approaches are to support all students based on the premise that they are independent young adults (e.g. flat-rate support, which is not based on special social criteria). Some higher education systems support the best students according to merit; this is an option which is used in order to stimulate and reward students’ efforts. Mixed approaches also exist.

Self-earned income

This category refers only to income which the student receives from gainful employment. For some students this is an inevitable source of income, which is used to close the gap that is left by total expenses on the one hand and support from family and the state on the other hand. For other students self-earned income is used to just top-up other funding sources. Earnings are basically a flexible and self-directed source of income since they are based on the actions of the students themselves and not their parents or the state.

Other

This is a residual category which comprises income from other private or public sources which is not included in the other categories mentioned afore. Income from other private sources would be, for instance, capital income that the student receives if he/she is holding stocks. But also savings which the student previously accumulated are classified in this category. Income from other public sources includes on the one hand direct public support for the student which is not included in the category ‘public sources’ (e.g. housing benefits) and on the other hand indirect support which is meant for the student but is not paid directly to him/her (e.g. child benefit which is in some countries paid to the students’ parents). The analysis focuses primarily on the 3 main sources of income: family/partner contributions, public support and earnings.

Student funding is influenced by both the provision of funding possibilities and the utilisation of the funding sources by the students. Since the information here is based on student self-reported data, the focus is on students’ utilisation of the resources and opportunities presented to them by their respective higher education system.

This chapter analyses the magnitude and above all the composition of students’ income with a focus on the 3 main sources of income as mentioned above. It is differentiated by various characteristics of students such as age, social background, gender or study programme in order to provide an in-depth look at a heterogeneous student body. It is important to note that a comparison of income across the 2 basic forms of housing – living and not living with parents – is not possible! As mentioned before,

for students who are not living with parents the parental transfers in kind were added to the student income. This method was, however, for certain reasons not applied to those students who are living with their parents (→ Appendix A). As transfers in kind change the magnitude as well as the structure of income on country level, the results for the 2 groups cannot be compared to one another.

It should be noted that due to the use of common data cleaning rules the underlying samples for this chapter can slightly differ from those for other chapters.

Data and interpretation

Across all countries, students and their families together provide more than 3/4 of students’ aggregated monthly income

Figure 7.1 chart (a) shows the absolute nominal total monthly income in Euros, which students who are living with their parents have on average. Previous analyses in this area have shown that the magnitude of income is influenced mainly by an indispensable monthly amount which students need to cover living and study costs (→ Chapter 8).[1] Comparing the countries, the data show a substantial range of income.

- There are 3 countries – England/Wales, Switzerland, and Norway – where students (need to) have an income of more than €1,000 per month, although they are living with their parents. This is, however, not surprising as these countries are known to be ‘upscale’-countries, where the general price level is relatively high.
- At the other end of the scale, students in Croatia, Malta, and Romania cover their monthly expenses with less than €200.
- The median income amounts to €426 across all countries.

As indicated, the big differences in income level in international comparison should be expected because they are largely due to differences in the countries’ overall price level, which drives the magnitude of students’ necessary expenses. On the other hand, they are also influenced by different cost structures between countries and student groups (→ Chapter 8).

While the magnitude of income varies greatly between the countries, the same holds for its composition as is shown by chart (b).

- If the income source ‘other’ is disregarded (i.e. total income minus ‘other’ is set at 100%), across all countries 46% of the aggregated monthly income[2] is based on students’ gainful employment, 30% comes from the family or partner and 24% is provided by the public sector.

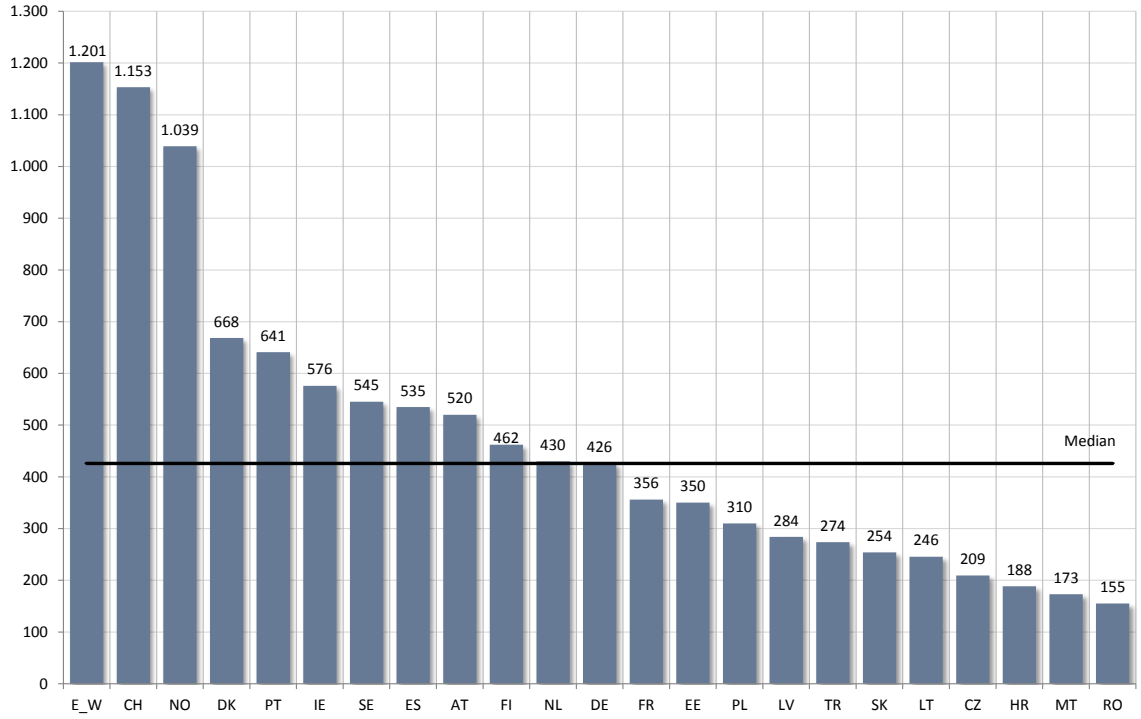
This means that more than 3/4 of the student income is generated by the private sector. The fact that both shares of the private sector clearly exceed the percentage of the public sector seems to relativize the assumption – at least on this level of aggregation – that employment is used by students to bridge the gap which is left by insufficient support from family and the state. Instead, it seems more that the public sector is the one that fills the gap. This would be also in line with the idea of the subsidiarity principle according to which the state provides help only in case that the private sector has already utilised all of its own sources. A closer look at the data (now taking the category ‘other’ into account) reveals, however, that 3 clusters of countries with a different main source of student funding can be distinguished.

[1] For more detailed analysis cf. Schwarzenberger (2008, pp. 134-137).

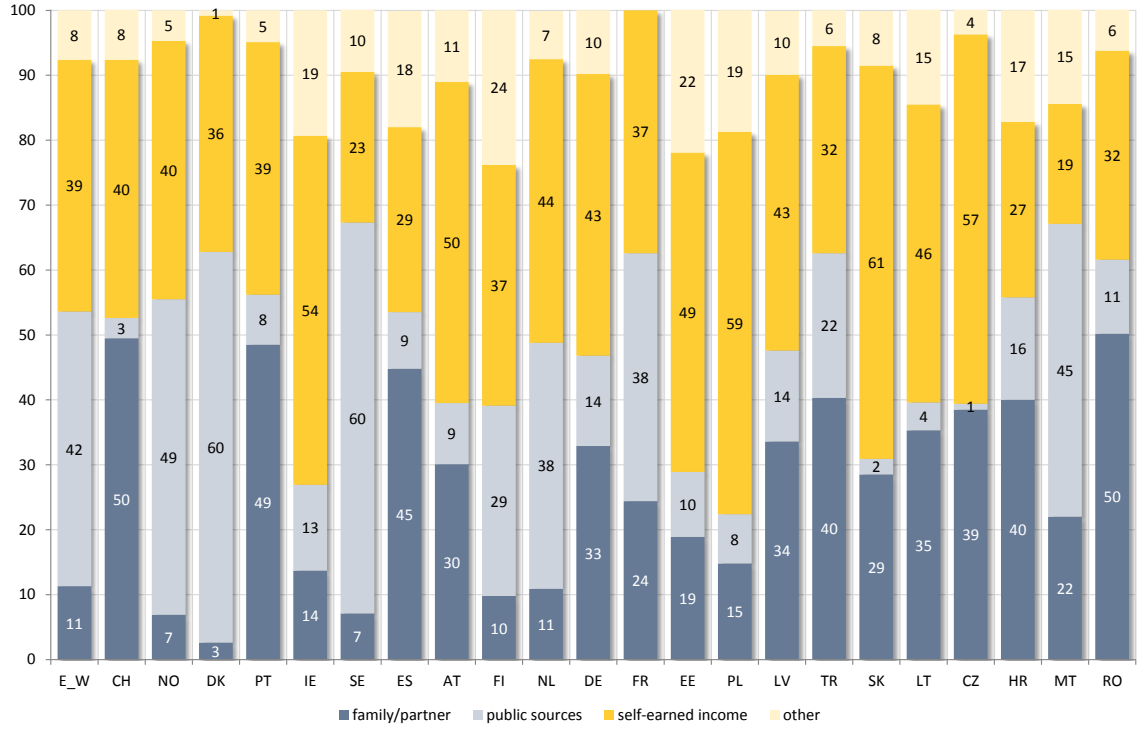
[2] The term ‘aggregate income’ is used every time the income category ‘other’ is disregarded.

Fig. 7.1 Magnitude and composition of students' income – students living <u>with</u> parents

a) Total monthly income without transfers in kind in Euros (arithm. mean)



b) Total monthly income without transfers in kind by source in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, F.1. No data: IT, FR (category 'other'), SI.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.1 Who do you live with during the study term/semester (Monday until Friday)?, 3.5 What is the average monthly income at your disposal from the following sources?
Note: Income data for Switzerland include transfers in kind.

- In the biggest group of countries (Ireland, Austria, Finland, the Netherlands, Germany, Poland, the Slovak Republic, the Czech Republic and all Baltic States) employment is the main source of students’ income (i.e. the income source with the highest share in total income). Within this cluster there is a group of 4 countries (Ireland, Poland, the Slovak Republic, and the Czech Republic) where self-earned income makes up more than 50% of all income sources.
- In 6 other countries – Switzerland, Portugal, Spain, Turkey, Croatia, and Romania – provisions from family/partner is the dominating source of income.
- Public support is the main source of income for students in England/Wales, Norway, Denmark, Sweden, France, and Malta. In Denmark and Sweden the state supplies more than half of the students’ income.

If the focus is not only on the income source with the highest share in student income, but on combinations of 2 dominating income sources (i.e. the 2 most fruitful sources that account for at least 2/3 of total income), 3 clusters of countries can then be distinguished:

- In a majority of 12 countries (Switzerland, Portugal, Spain, Austria, Germany, Latvia, Turkey, the Slovak Republic, Lithuania, the Czech Republic, Croatia, and Romania) student funding is dominated by a combination of family/partner contribution and self-earned income, hence, private funding prevails.
- In 7 countries – England/Wales, Norway, Denmark, Sweden, Finland, the Netherlands, and France – provisions from the state and students’ own earnings dominate the composition of income.
- In Ireland, Estonia, and Poland it is students’ self-earned income combined with income from the category ‘other’ which provides at least 2/3 of total income.
- Malta takes on a special position; there, it is the combination of public support and contributions from family/partner that accounts for most of student income.

Public support plays a major role in student funding for students who are not living with parents only in 5 countries

In Figure 7.2 the magnitude and composition of student income for those students who are not living with their parents is shown. For this basic form of housing the parental transfers in kind (→ Glossary) were taken into account for the calculation of student income. Chart (a) shows the average income per month in Euro values and chart (b) presents the structure of student income by the 4 income sources.

The absolute amount of total monthly income varies greatly between the countries in chart (a).

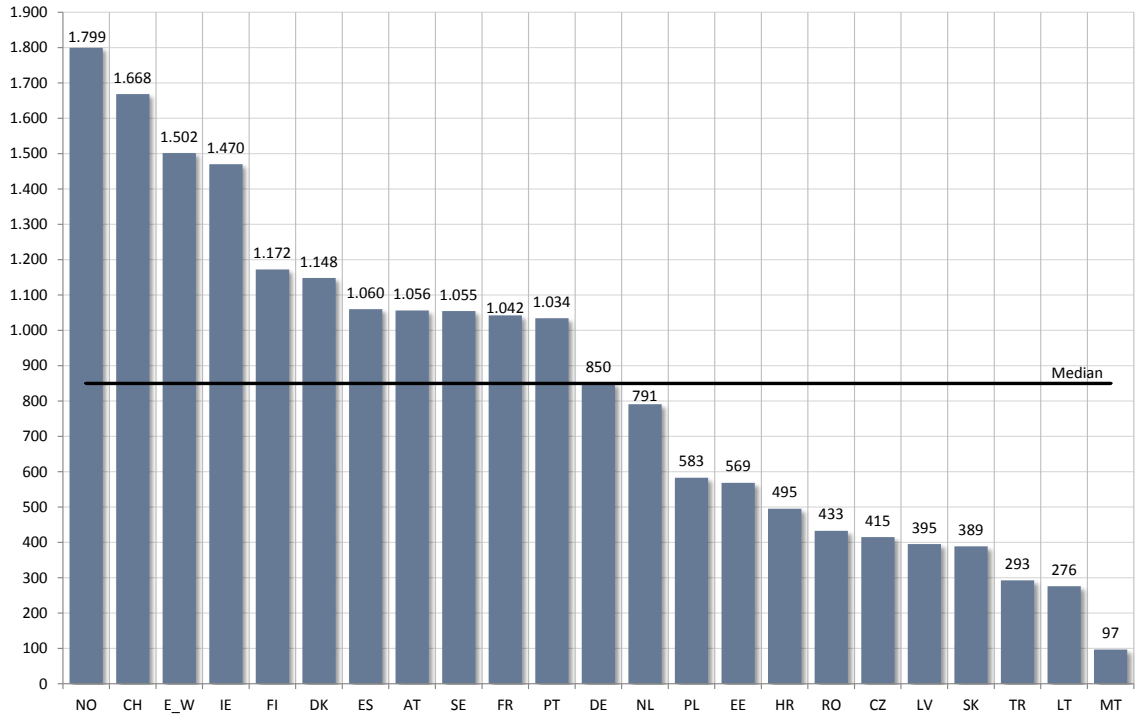
- In Norway, Switzerland, and England/Wales students receive an income of more than €1,500 per month. The meaning of the general price level in those countries was already emphasised.
- In contrast, students in Turkey, Lithuania, and Malta meet their financial obligations with less than €300 per month.
- The median income amounts to €850 across all countries.

Although it may be of interest to look at the magnitude of student income, it is sometimes more insightful to analyse its structure as is done by chart (b).

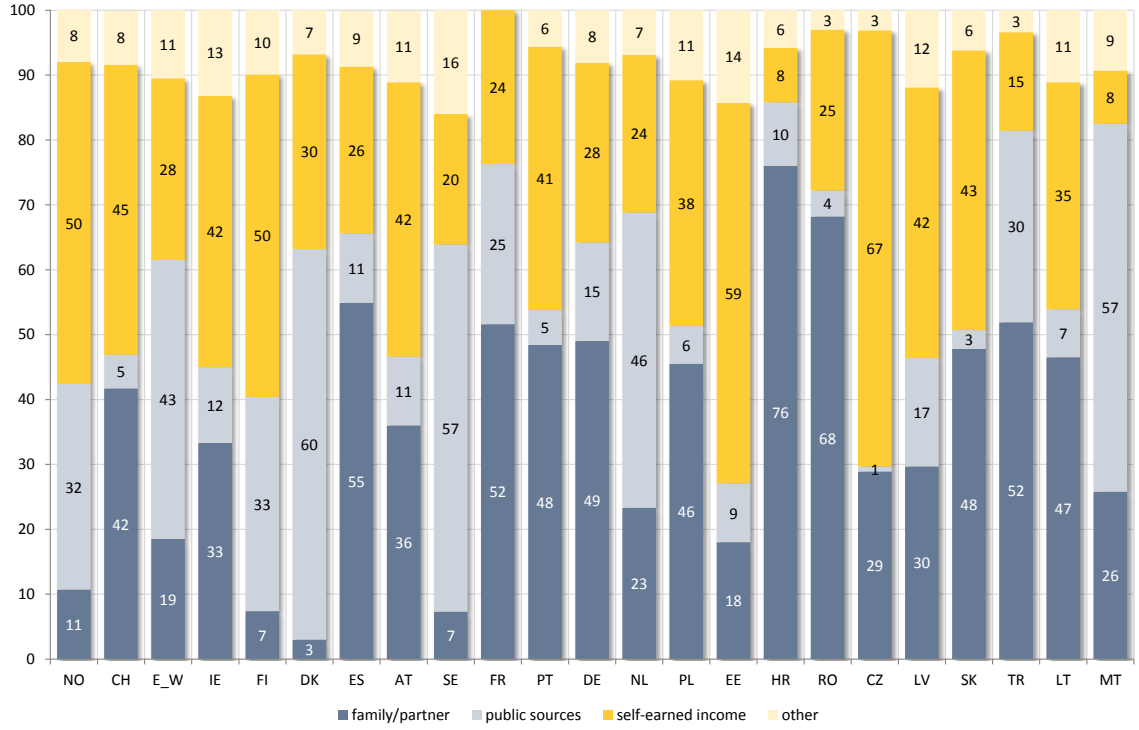
- If the income source 'other' is left out of consideration, on average across the countries 37% of aggregated monthly income is based on students' gainful employment, 39% is supplied by family or partner and 24% is provided by the state.

Fig. 7.2 Magnitude and composition of students' income – students not living with parents

a) Total monthly income including transfers in kind in Euros (arithm. mean)



b) Total monthly income including transfers in kind by source in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, F.1. No data: IT, FR (category 'other'), SI.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.1 Who do you live with during the study term/semester (Monday until Friday)?, 3.5 What is the average monthly income at your disposal from the following sources?, 3.6 What are your average monthly expenses for the following needs?
Note: Income data for Denmark and France do not include transfers in kind.

Again more than 3/4 of student income is generated by the private sector, while provisions from the public sector account for less than 1/4. This result is somewhat surprising as one might expect that also on a highly aggregated level the share of public support in student income would be higher for those students who moved away from their parents than for those who still live at their parents' home. The first group has to bear higher expenditure and, therefore, is more in need of support. However, irrespective of the housing form and whether transfers in kind are taken into account or not, on average across the countries it is students and their families who shoulder the lion's share of student funding. Of course, the picture looks different if one analyses data on a more disaggregated level (now taking the category 'other' into account).

- In 10 countries (Germany, Spain, France, Croatia, Lithuania, Poland, Portugal, Romania, the Slovak Republic, and Turkey) contribution from family/partner is the main source of students' income. In Spain, France, Croatia, Romania, and Turkey this source makes up even more than 50% of students' income.
- The 2nd cluster of countries encompasses Austria, Switzerland, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Finland, Ireland, Latvia, and Norway. In those countries students' employment is the most important source of income. In the Czech Republic and Estonia the students' occupation provides more than 50% of total income.
- There are 5 countries – Denmark, England/Wales, Malta, the Netherlands, and Sweden – where public support plays the major role in student funding. In Malta, Sweden, and Denmark the public sector provides more than half of students' income.

By looking at combinations of 2 dominating income sources which make up at least 2/3 of total income, there are 3 groups of countries:

- In 11 countries (Austria, Switzerland, Germany, Spain, Ireland, all Baltic States, Poland, Portugal, and the Slovak Republic) the major components of student income are provisions from family/partner and students' self-earned income.
- In 6 countries – Denmark, England/Wales, Finland, the Netherlands, Norway, and Sweden – public support and students' own earnings amount to at least 2/3 of students' total income.
- The combination of contributions from family/partner and public support is dominating the student funding system in France, Malta, and Turkey.
- There are 3 countries where only one source of income already provides more than 2/3 of total income; in Croatia and Romania this source is family/partner and in the Czech Republic it is students' employment.

The income data for both students who are living with parents and those who live away from parental home generally emphasise the predominant role of the private sector in student funding. And it is no surprise that the students' parents play a vital role, not only by supplying housing space for their collegiate children, but also by providing disposable income and intangible support (transfers in kind). But this also means that the ability to pay of students and their parents is of high importance for access to and retention in higher education.

In most countries female students have a lower average total income than their male counterparts, but in the majority of cases the absolute and relative differences are small

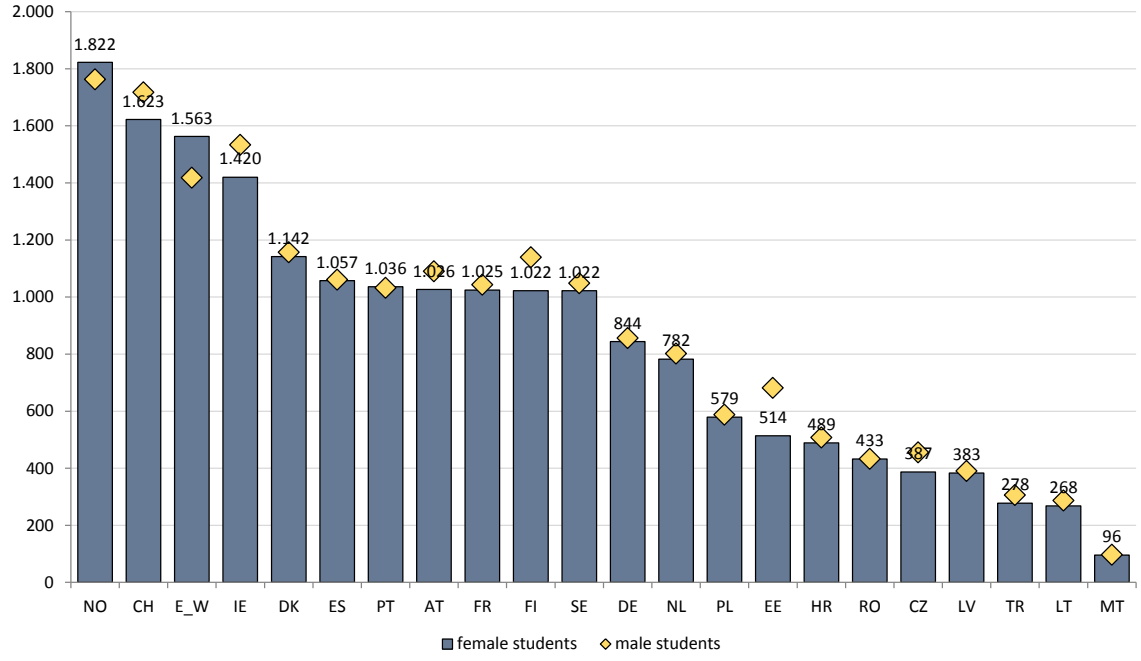
In Figure 7.3 the average total monthly income (including transfers in kind) of students who don't live with their parents is compared by gender.[3] The focus is, of course, on the question whether there are noticeable differences in income between female and male students within each country, not on differences between countries.

- In a majority of 17 countries female students receive a lower absolute total income than their male counterparts. In the majority of cases the absolute and relative differences between the groups are either small or even marginal. However, there are 3 countries – Finland, the Czech Republic, and Estonia – where this income difference ranges between 10% and 25%.
- In Norway, England/Wales and Portugal this relationship is reversed. Female students have higher absolute incomes compared to male students. The relative differences between the groups are very small as well; only in England/Wales the income difference is more pronounced (+10%).

Figure 7.4 explores the composition of aggregated income of female and male students. The analysis takes the 3 main components of student income into account: provisions from family/partner including transfers in kind, financial support from public sources (consisting of non-repayable grants/scholarships and repayable loans) and students' income from employment. The first 2 components are summed up in the category 'base income'. The base income is a theoretical construct which is used for comparison with the students' income from employment. Its relevance is

Fig. 7.3 Magnitude of students' income by gender – students <u>not</u> living with parents

Total monthly income including transfers in kind of female and male students in Euros (arithm. mean)



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, F.4. No data: IT, SI, SK.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.1 Who do you live with during the study term/semester (Monday until Friday)?, 3.5 What is the average monthly income at your disposal from the following sources?, 3.6 What are your average monthly expenses for the following needs?, 5.2 What is your sex?
Note: Income data for France do not include transfers in kind.

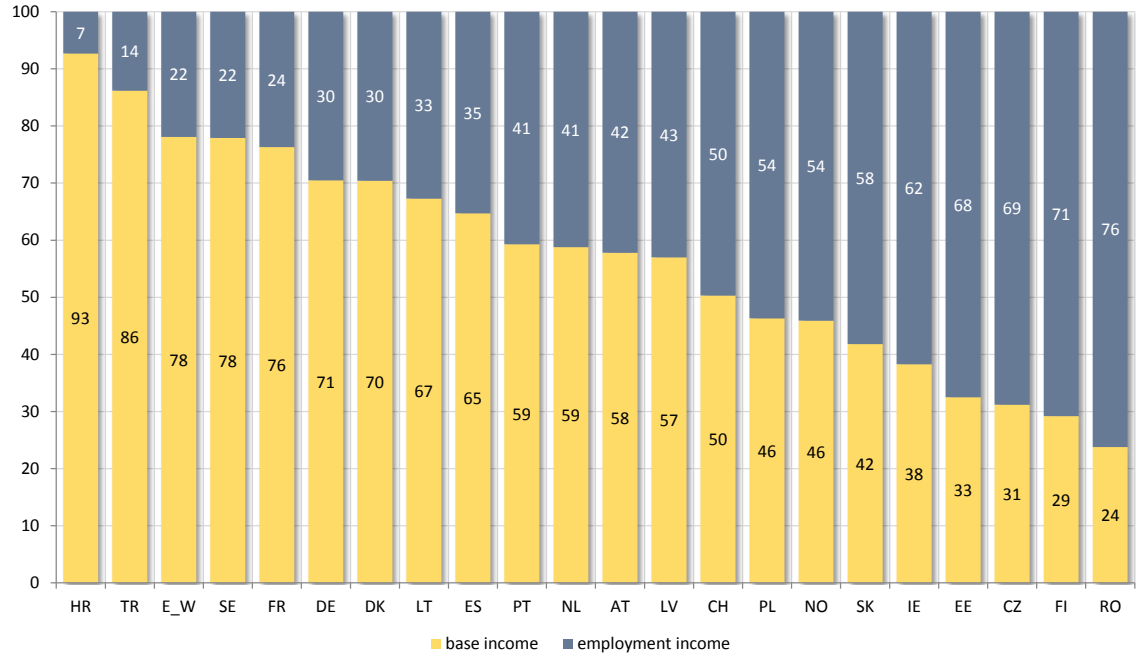
[3] The Euro values in Figure 7.3 show the total monthly incomes of female students.

based on the fact that state support is often introduced to compensate for a lack in family support, and paid employment is used by students to compensate for the resulting income gap.

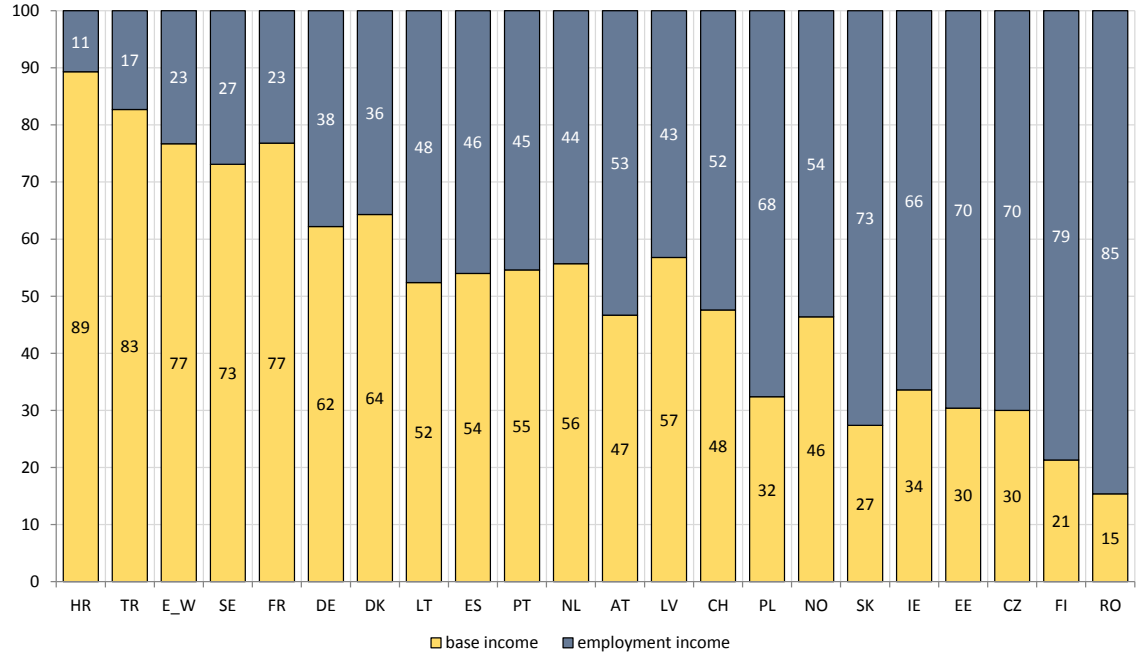
- Male students have on average across the countries a higher share of employment income in their aggregated income than female students (49% vs. 43%).

Fig. 7.4 Composition of students' income by gender – students not living with parents

a) Aggregate monthly income including transfers in kind of female students by source in %



b) Aggregate monthly income including transfers in kind of male students by source in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, G.5. No data: IT, MT, SI.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.1 Who do you live with during the study term/semester (Monday until Friday)?, 3.5 What is the average monthly income at your disposal from the following sources?, 3.6 What are your average monthly expenses for the following needs?, 5.2 What is your sex?
Note: Income data for France do not include transfers in kind.

- In turn, this means that female students rely more upon the base income than their male counterparts (57% vs. 51%).

Comparing the country data reveals that in almost all countries the share of employment income for male students is higher than for female students.

- There are 5 countries where the difference in the share of income from employment by gender is very pronounced. In Lithuania, Spain, Austria, Poland, and the Slovak Republic the share of earnings in aggregated income is for male students at least 10% higher than for females.
- In Latvia there is no difference in the income structure by gender. Female and male students show the same shares for base income and employment income.
- Only in France and Norway the women's share of self-earned income is marginally higher compared to male students.

The clear difference between the sexes in the reliance upon paid work on aggregated level, however, provides no satisfying explanation for the higher total incomes of male students. Especially for those countries, where male students have clearly higher total incomes in relative terms – the Czech Republic, Finland, and Estonia – further analysis has shown that there is no clear pattern concerning the differences in the shares of employment income and the relative differences in total income.

Master students receive on average less support from family and the state than Bachelor students; their income gap is filled by gainful employment

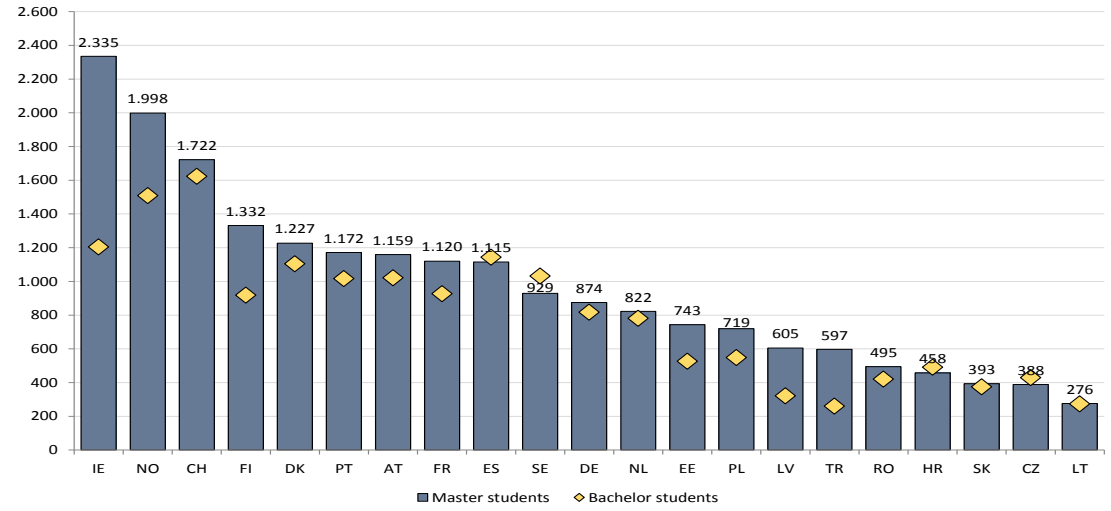
In Figure 7.5 the level and structure of average total monthly income (including transfers in kind) of Bachelor and Master students who are not living with their parents is compared.

- Master students have on average a clearly higher total income than Bachelor students (€975 vs. €827).
- This pattern is true for a vast majority of countries (17 out of 21 countries). Only in Spain, Sweden, Croatia, and the Czech Republic, do Bachelor students receive higher total incomes than their peers in Master programmes.
- In 7 countries – Ireland, Norway, Finland, Estonia, Poland, Latvia, and Turkey – is the income difference between the 2 groups very pronounced, i.e. Master students receive an income, which is at least 30% higher compared to Bachelor students. In Ireland and Turkey the income of Master students is near to or even more than double as high as for Bachelor students.
- In Spain, the Netherlands, the Slovak Republic, and Lithuania the average income of the 2 groups is very balanced; there, the income differences are not higher than 5%.

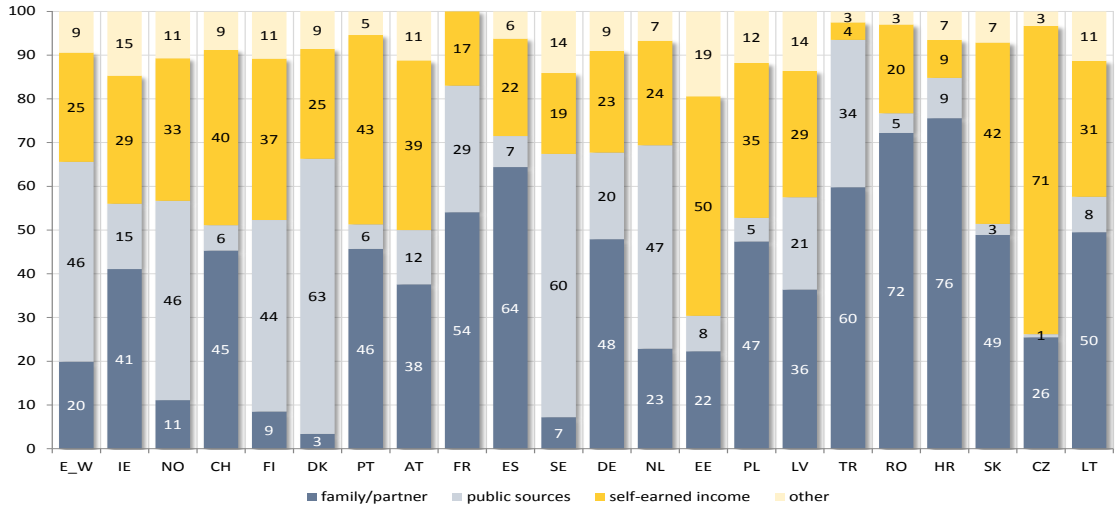
While the level of income is often quite different between the groups, so is the composition of income, as is shown by chart (b) and (c) in Figure 7.5. Data on aggregate indicate clear differences between Bachelor and Master students in utilising the 3 main sources of student funding.

Fig. 7.5 Magnitude and composition of students' income by study programme – students <u>not</u> living with parents

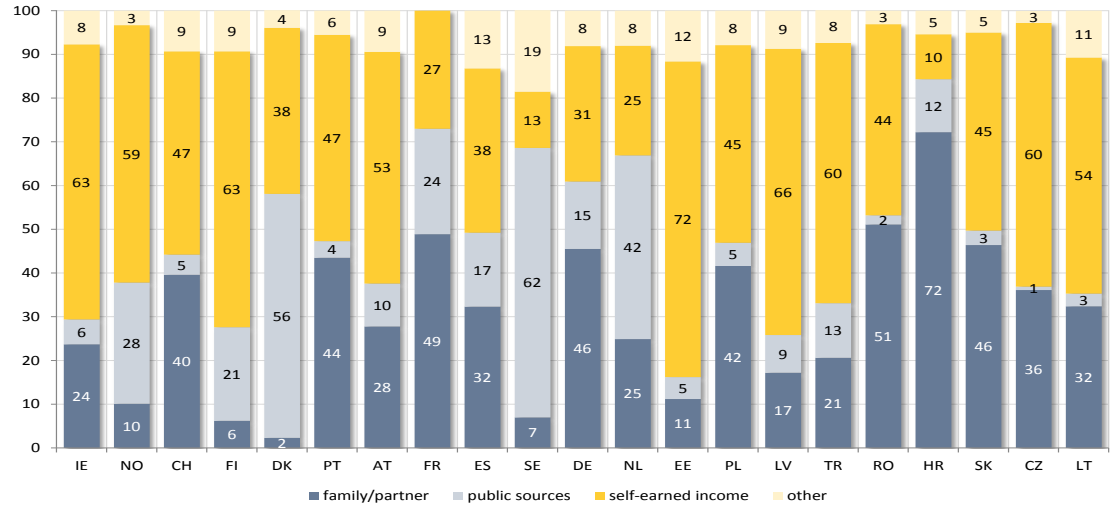
a) Total monthly income including transfers in kind of Bachelor and Master students in Euros (arithm. mean)



b) Total monthly income including transfers in kind of Bachelor students by source in %



c) Total monthly income including transfers in kind of Master students by source in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, F.1 & F.4. No data: E/W (Master students), FR (category 'other'), IT, SI. Too few cases: MT.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 1.1 Which programme are you currently enrolled in?, 3.1 Who do you live with during the study term/semester (Monday until Friday)?, 3.5 What is the average monthly income at your disposal from the following sources?, 3.6 What are your average monthly expenses for the following needs?
Note: Income data for France do not include transfers in kind. Total monthly income for Bachelor students E/W: €1,459.

- Bachelor students receive relatively more support from their family/partner than Master students (38% vs. 31%).
- The share of public support in total student income is also higher for Bachelor students (22% vs. 16%).
- Bachelor students rely to a much lower degree on self-earned income (30% vs. 46%).

In country comparison the picture for Bachelor students looks slightly different than on the highest level of aggregation.

- In a majority of 13 countries provisions from family/partner is the most important income source for Bachelor students. In 5 out of these countries – France, Spain, Turkey, Romania, and Croatia – this income source accounts for more than 50% of students' total income.
- The second most important source of income is public support. In 6 countries – England/Wales, the Netherlands and all Scandinavian countries – the Bachelor students rely mainly on transfers from the state. In Denmark and Sweden the state provides more than half of students' income.
- Only in Austria, Estonia, and the Czech Republic, does gainful employment supply the highest share in Bachelor students' income. In the Czech Republic own earnings amount to more than 50% of all income sources.

In financial terms Bachelor students have a quite strong dependence on their parents or partner. The state seems to tie in to compensate for a lack of family support, and it seems to be rather unusual for Bachelor students to have a strong reliance on paid work.

As mentioned above, Master students seem to have a fundamentally different income structure than their peers who attend Bachelor programmes.

- In 13 countries the most important source of income for Master students is employment alongside studies. In 9 out of these countries – Ireland, Norway, Finland, Austria, Estonia, Latvia, Turkey, the Czech Republic, and Lithuania – the students' occupation provides more than half of their total income.
- France, Germany, Romania, Croatia, and the Slovak Republic use funding systems which rely mainly on support from parents and partner. In Romania and Croatia family provisions make up more than 50% of student income.
- In Denmark, Sweden, and the Netherlands, Master students have a strong dependence upon state support. In the 2 Scandinavian countries the public sector supplies more than half of Master students' income.

Master students rely to a great extent on gainful employment. At the same time the so-called base income, which is the sum of provisions from family/partner and public sources is clearly less fruitful for Master students than for Bachelor students. The basic differences in magnitude and composition of income between Bachelor and Master students can be explained mainly by student age. In the EUROSTUDENT countries, Master students are on average older – and in most countries clearly older – than Bachelor students. Age definitely affects the students' employment behaviour; older students tend more to rely on gainful employment than their younger counterparts. One reason for this is that older students often have needs that are more costly. Also, the eligibility of students for public

support is in many countries tied to an age limit. Finally, parental support may also be reduced over time when students establish their own families, which is more likely for Master students. Further reasons for Master students' stronger reliance on paid work may be that they have a greater will to earn during their studies (→ Chapter 6) and also greater opportunity due to higher flexibility in study programme (→ Chapter 5) compared to their peers in Bachelor programmes.

The diversity of students' total monthly income varies greatly between the countries

The student body in different countries may be more or less homogenous in financial terms. In order to view the distribution of income levels between students in each country, each student's income can be ranked between the lowest and the highest levels and then ascribed to decile. The result is a cascaded increasing line from the first 10% of students with the lowest income levels up to the last 90% of students with the highest levels. The results of this analysis can be seen for each country in the National Profiles (→ DRM).

Figure 7.6 highlights for students who are not living with their parents the difference in income levels between 3 income groups for each country. These income groups are the first 20% of income receivers (2nd decile), the median income receivers (i.e. half-way point between all income levels) and 80% of the income receivers (8th decile). The 2nd decile, for instance, states that the 'poorest' 20% of the students receive an income, which does not exceed x Euros; the same holds mutatis mutandis for the other cut-off points (median and 8th decile). In countries where the vertical difference between 2nd and 8th decile is rather high, this indicates a rather unbalanced income distribution. In turn, if this difference is rather small, income is probably more evenly distributed among the students. Data are both presented in Euros (chart a) and as a percentage of deviation from the median income (chart b) in order to facilitate a cross-country comparison.

- In the Czech Republic, Ireland, Estonia, and the Slovak Republic the relative difference between the 2nd and 8th decile appears rather high.

This is very well reflected by chart (b).

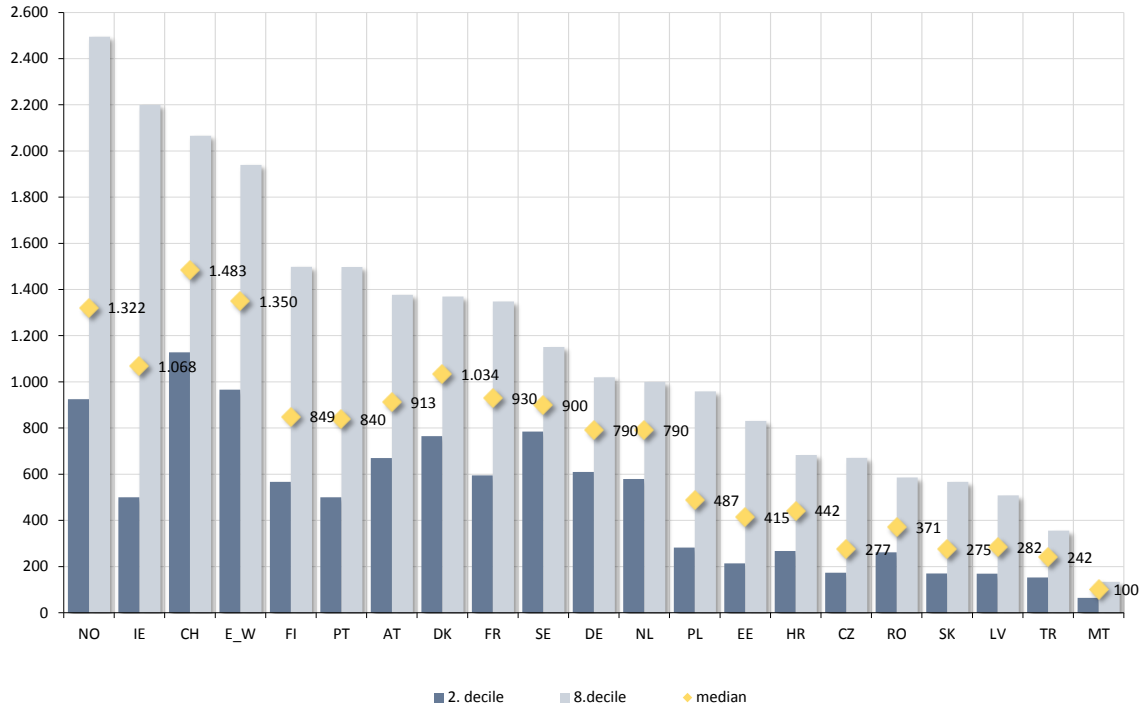
- In the Czech Republic, for instance, those 20% of students, who belong to the top income group (i.e. those who are beyond the 8th decile) have at least 143% more income than the median student; those 20% of students who are in the lowest income groups shown here (2nd decile) have at least 37% less than the median student.
- In the other 3 countries mentioned above these differences are very pronounced as well: Ireland (+106% vs. -53%), Estonia (+100% vs. -48%) and the Slovak Republic (+106% vs. -38%). This indicates a rather unbalanced income distribution among the students in those countries.
- In Sweden, Germany, the Netherlands, Switzerland, and Denmark the relative difference between the 2nd and 8th decile appears quite low. In Sweden, for example, the 20% top income receivers of students have at least 28% more income than the median student; the 'poorest' 20% of students have at least 13% less than the median income receiver. That means in those countries total monthly income seems to be rather evenly distributed among the students.

It is not so easy to reflect upon the effects of a large diversity in the financial means of students. It can certainly be the result of the interplay between the social make-up of the student population (→ Chapter 3) and the financial support strategies implemented in different countries. The significance of the finding lies in the fact that a high degree of financial diversity within a country

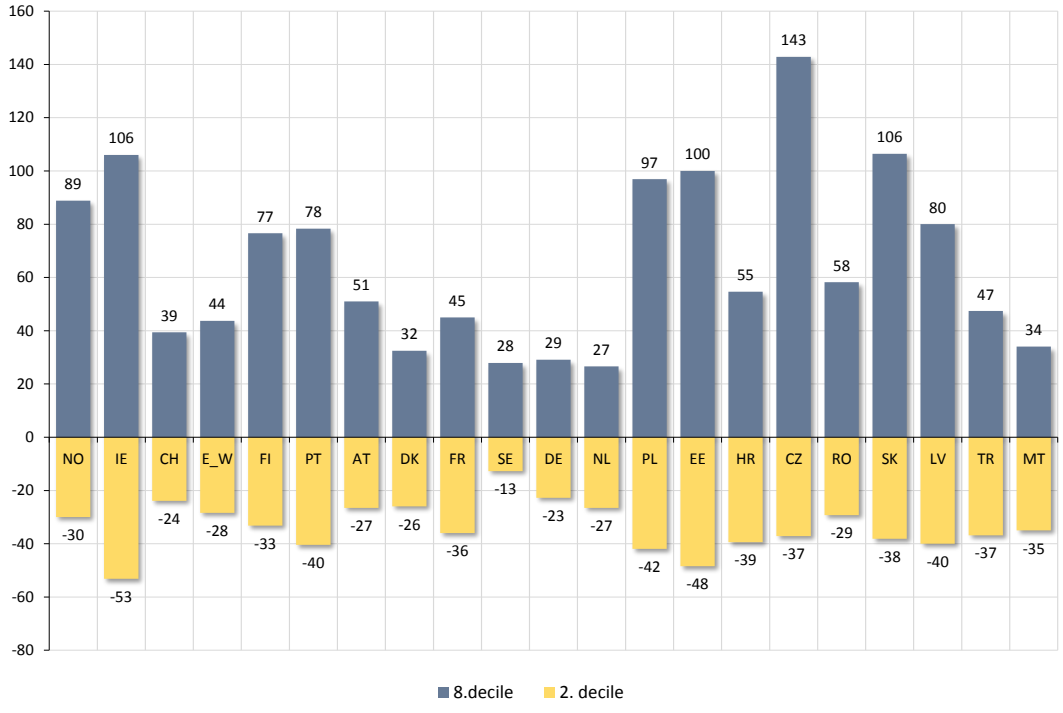
means that students have different basic framework conditions, which are most likely to affect their studies.

Fig. 7.6 Distribution of students' income by income decile – students not living with parents

a) Total monthly income including transfers in kind in Euros



b) Deviation from the median income level in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, F.5. No data: ES, IT, LT, SI.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.1 Who do you live with during the study term/semester (Monday until Friday)?, 3.5 What is the average monthly income at your disposal from the following sources?, 3.6 What are your average monthly expenses for the following needs?
Note: Income data for France do not include transfers in kind.

Another means to analyse the distribution of income is the Lorenz curve. This instrument relates the number of income receivers to the total income of the respective group of income receivers, both expressed as percentages – see Box 7.2.

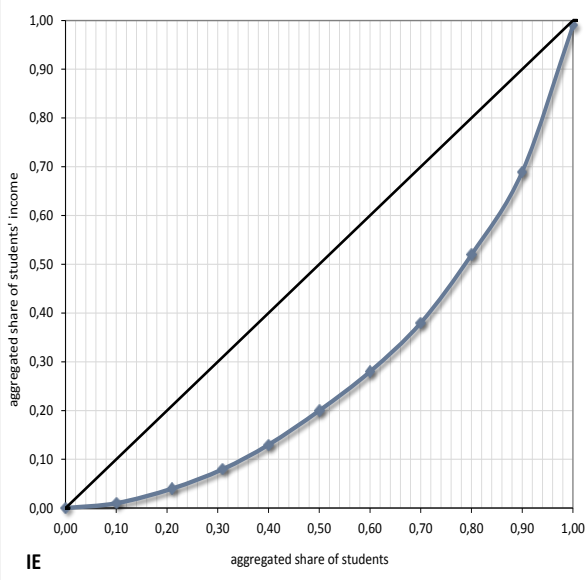
Box 7.2 A measure for the concentration of students' total monthly income – The Lorenz curve

The Lorenz curve compares the actual distribution of income to a hypothetical equal distribution, which is expressed by the 45°-diagonal in the graphs below. The horizontal axis measures among all income receivers the percentage of all persons whose income is between 0 and certain positive value. The vertical axis measures the percentage of the aggregated total income which the persons receive. The individuals are aggregated from 'bottom to top'. The Lorenz curve then shows – starting from the lowest income group on the left – the share of income receivers which have a certain share of total aggregated income. If all individual incomes were the same, the Lorenz curve would be identical with the 45°-diagonal. In this case of a totally equal distribution, x% of the income receivers would also have the same percentage of the total income (e.g. the 'poorest' 5% of the income receivers would have 5% of aggregated total income, the 'poorest' 10% of the income receivers would have 10% of aggregated total income, etc.). The factual income distribution, however, is not an equal distribution. Therefore, the Lorenz curve runs below the 45°-diagonal, i.e. it is an over proportional sloped curve. The divergence between the 45°-diagonal and the curve is the higher, the more the individual incomes deviate from one another. That means the more convex the Lorenz curve is the more uneven is the distribution of income.

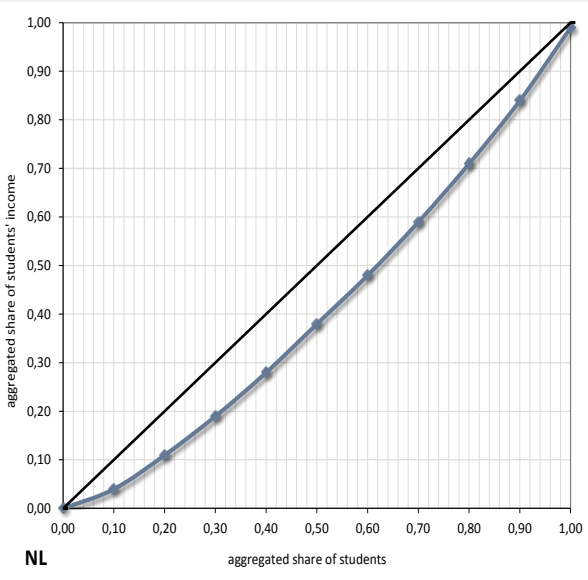
In the figures below, the Lorenz curve is shown exemplarily for the total monthly income of Irish and Dutch students who live away from their parents' home. Ireland and the Netherlands represent 2 cases on opposite ends of the spectrum with respect to concentration of income. In the case of Ireland the curve is quite strongly convex, which indicates a high degree of income concentration. To be more concrete: the 'poorest' 20% of all students in Ireland receive not more than 4% of all students' income. For the Netherlands the curve is clearly less convex, which means that total income is more evenly distributed among students. There, the 'poorest' 20% of all students have 11% of all students' income. It is not so easy to explain the difference between the 2 countries as the students' total income comprises 4 different categories: income from family/partner (in cash and – for students not living with parents – also in kind), public sources, gainful employment and other sources. However, by comparing the composition of total income in the 2 countries, it is striking that Irish students receive 42% of their income from gainful employment, while this share amounts only to 24% for Dutch students.

Lorenz curve based on total monthly income including transfers in kind for students not living with parents by country

Ireland



The Netherlands

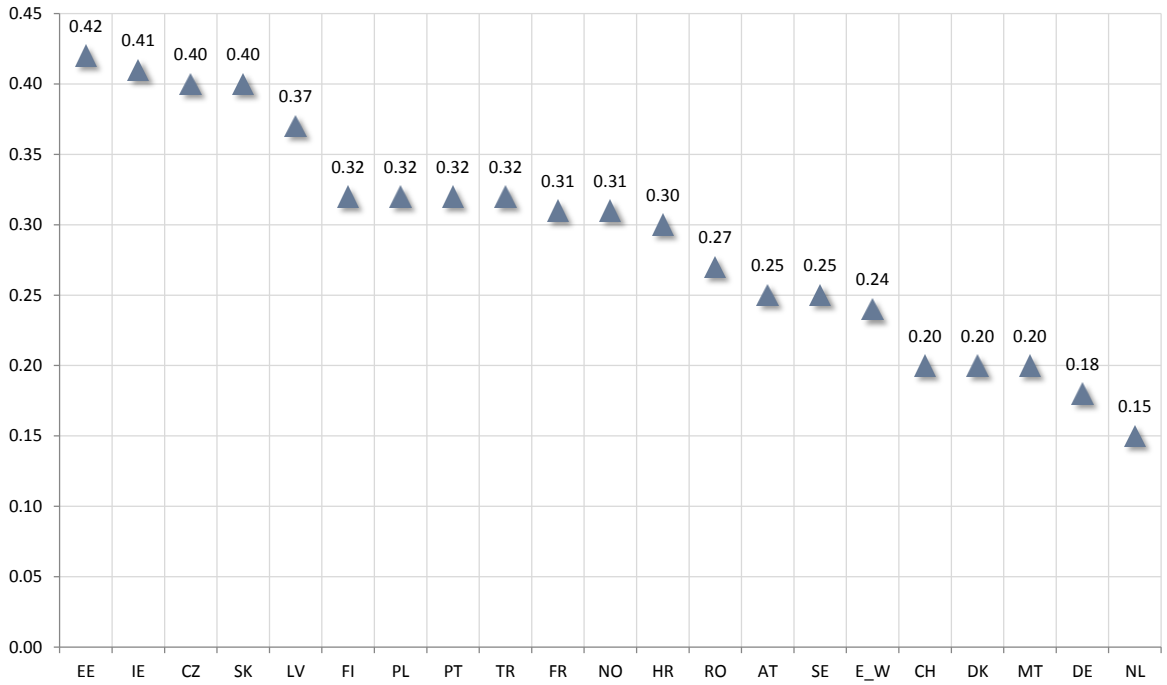


Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, F.5. EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.1 Who do you live with during the study term/semester (Monday until Friday)?, 3.5 What is the average monthly income at your disposal from the following sources?, 3.6 What are your average monthly expenses for the following needs?.

In Figure 7.7 the analysis of the Lorenz curve is complemented by the Gini coefficient. The Gini coefficient is a measure that highlights the analysis of the concentration of income using a single value. With respect to the Lorenz curve the Gini coefficient is the ratio of the distribution area between the 45°-diagonal and the Lorenz curve to the area of the triangle below the 45°-diagonal. For the possible values of the Gini coefficient holds: $0 \leq G \leq 1$. If there was no concentration of income at all (i.e. each income receiver has the same amount of income), the Lorenz curve would be identical with the 45°-diagonal and the value of the Gini coefficient would be 0. In case of maximum concentration (i.e. only one person received all income) the difference between the diagonal and the Lorenz curve would be maximal and the Gini coefficient would be equal to 1. That means the higher the concentration of income, the higher is the value of the Gini coefficient. In the figure below 4 clusters of countries can be distinguished.

- In Estonia, Ireland, the Czech Republic, the Slovak Republic, and Latvia the level of income concentration is very high.
- There is a higher medium concentration of student income in Finland, Poland, Portugal, Turkey, France, Norway, and Croatia.
- A lower medium level of income concentration can be observed for Romania, Austria, Sweden, and England/Wales.
- The distribution of student income is quite balanced and, therefore, shows only little concentration in Switzerland, Denmark, Malta, Germany, and the Netherlands.

Fig. 7.7 Gini coefficient for students' income – students not living with parents
Based on total monthly income including transfers in kind



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, F.5. No data: ES, IT, LT, SI.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.1 Who do you live with during the study term/semester (Monday until Friday)?, 3.5 What is the average monthly income at your disposal from the following sources?, 3.6 What are your average monthly expenses for the following needs?
Note: Income data for France do not include transfers in kind.

It is difficult to give a simple and at the same time satisfying explanation for the grouping of the countries. If one opposes only the 2 groups of countries with the highest and the lowest degree of concentration against each other, there are some differences in the composition of income. In those countries with the highest income concentration it shows that self-earned income seems to play a vital role.

- In Estonia (59%), Ireland (42%), the Czech Republic (67%), and Latvia (42%), gainful employment provides the highest share in students' total income. However, in the Slovak Republic this share is still high (43%), but contribution from family/partner are even higher (48%). So it seems that a rather high dependency on paid work is not the only explanation for a high degree of concentration of total income.

In the countries with a low level of income concentration it seems that – at least in some cases – public support has a certain meaning for this result.

- In Denmark (60%), Malta (57%), and the Netherlands (46%), public support is the most important source of students' total income. But again the explanatory power of only one variable proves to be limited. In Germany public support amounts only to 15% of students' total income and contributions from family/partner is the most important income source (49%); and in Switzerland public support accounts for even less (5%), while employment income amounts to 45% of total income.

These considerations point out that an in-depth analysis of the functioning of the countries' student support system is necessary in order to identify the reasons for a certain extent of concentration of student income.[4] Furthermore, an analysis of the heterogeneity of the student population in terms of age and modes of study (full-time vs. part-time) might be insightful.

On average across the countries, students from low social backgrounds clearly receive less support from family/partner and a bit more public support than their peers from high social backgrounds

The main sources of student income have a different meaning in the countries. In Figure 7.8 the importance of contributions from parents or partner for the students' income is examined by country. A further characteristic for differentiation is the students' social background, with a focus on high and low social background. The analysis is restricted to students who are not living with their parents.

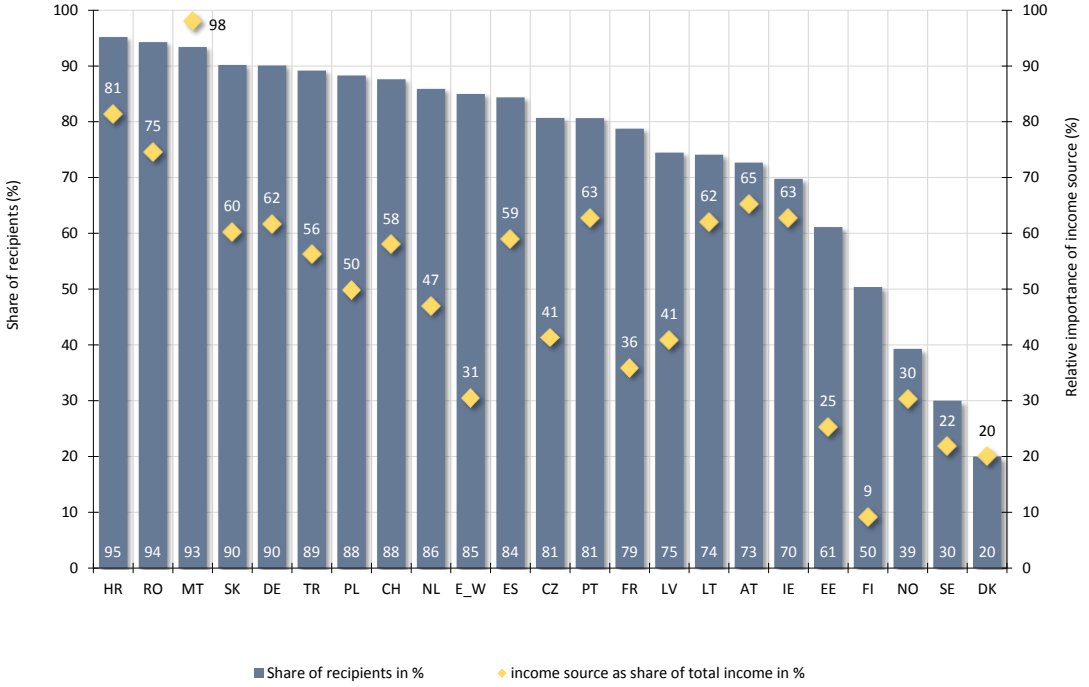
- On average across the countries 75% of students with high social background receive financial support from their family or partner. This type of support amounts to 50% of the recipients' total income.
- If students come from low social background, only 55% of them are supported by their family/partner. For this group of students the share of family support makes up only 42% in total income.

In country comparison both the level of coverage among students and the share of the source in total income varies greatly.

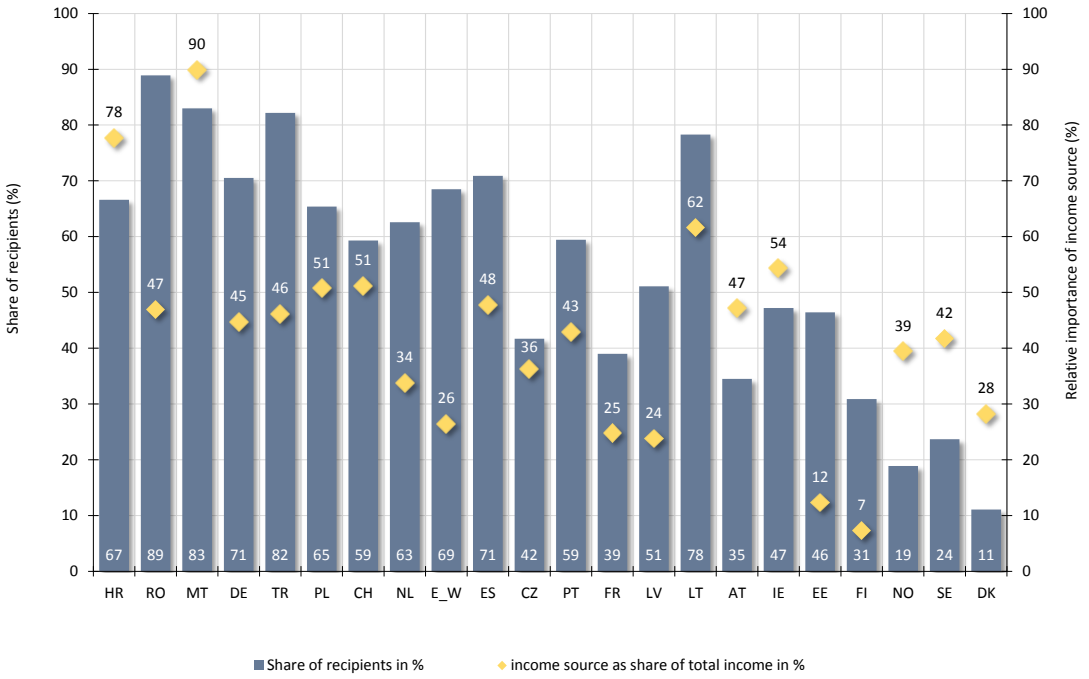
[4] For a detailed analysis on the German student support system providing indication for the extent of income concentration cf. Gwosć/Schwarzenberger (2010).

Fig. 7.8 Importance of family/partner contribution by social background – students <u>not</u> living with parents

a) Share of recipients with high education background (ISCED 5-6) and importance of income source (based on total monthly income including transfers in kind) in %



b) Share of recipients with low education background (ISCED 0-2) and importance of income source (based on total monthly income including transfers in kind) in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, F.6. No data: IT, SI. Too few cases: SK (low education background).
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.1 Who do you live with during the study term/semester (Monday until Friday)?, 3.5 What is the average monthly income at your disposal from the following sources?, 3.6 What are your average monthly expenses for the following needs?, 6.1 What is the highest level of education your father and mother have obtained?
Note: Income data for France do not include transfers in kind.

- In 19 countries a majority of the students with high social background are supported by their family/partner. In 15 countries the share of recipients amounts to 75% or more. Only in the Scandinavian countries the share of aided students is 50% or lower.
- In 12 countries (Croatia, Romania, Malta, the Slovak Republic, Germany, Turkey, Switzerland, Spain, Portugal, Lithuania, Austria, and Ireland) the relative importance of this income source is high for students from high social background and it amounts to more than 50% of the students' total income. In Finland, Sweden, and Denmark parents/partner contribute less than 25% to students' total income.

The picture for students with low social background looks very different as was already pointed out for the highest level of aggregation. The level of coverage with parental support among students with low social background is lower compared to their peers with high social background, but also the significance of parental support in total income is lower.

- There are 13 countries where a majority of students with low social background receives support from their parents/partner; this is roughly 1/3 less compared to students with high social background. Only in 4 countries – Romania, Malta, Turkey, and Lithuania – the share of supported students amounts to 75% or more. In 9 countries (the Czech Republic, France, Austria, Ireland, Estonia, Finland, Norway, Sweden, and Denmark) the share of supported students is 50% or below.
- In most of the countries support from family/partner accounts for less than 50% of total student income. Exceptions are Croatia, Malta, Poland, Switzerland, Lithuania, and Ireland, where the family supplies more than half of student income. In Latvia, Estonia, and Finland this type of income provides less than 25% to students' total income.

Public support is another important source of student income. Figure 7.9 quantifies the meaning of state support for students living away from parental home by social background.

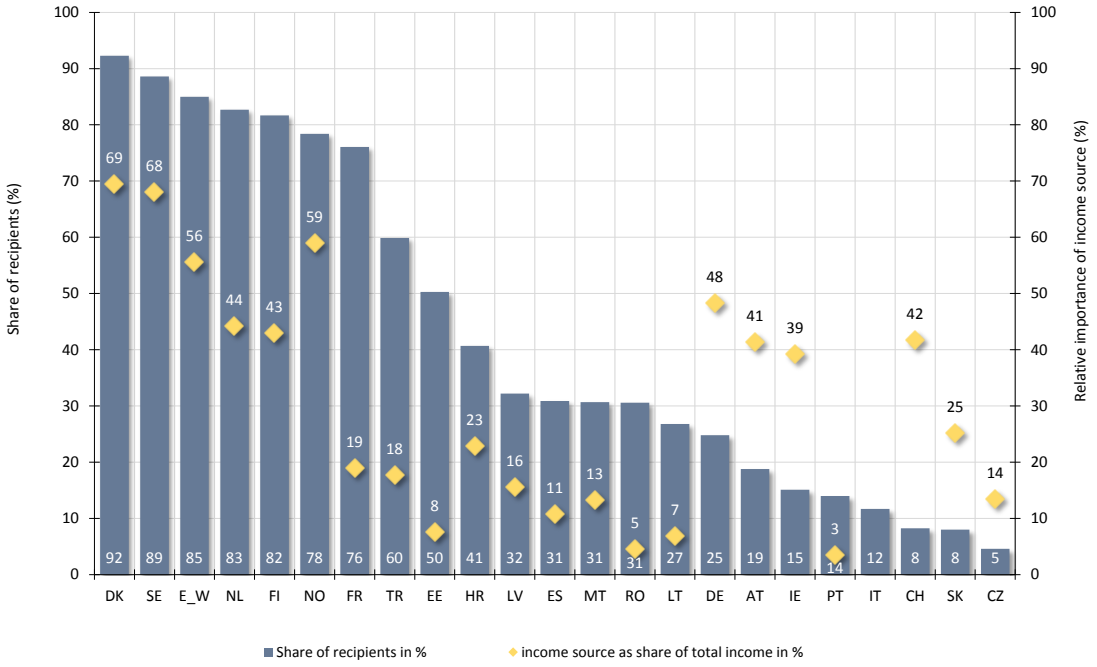
According to an overall analysis, there are relatively small differences between the high and the low social groups. This refers to both the share of recipients and the share of the source in total income.

- On average, 43% of all students with high social background receive public support. The state supplies 30% of total income of the recipients.
- The share of recipients of public support in the group of students with low social background amounts to 46%. The share of public funding accounts for 35% in total student income for this group.

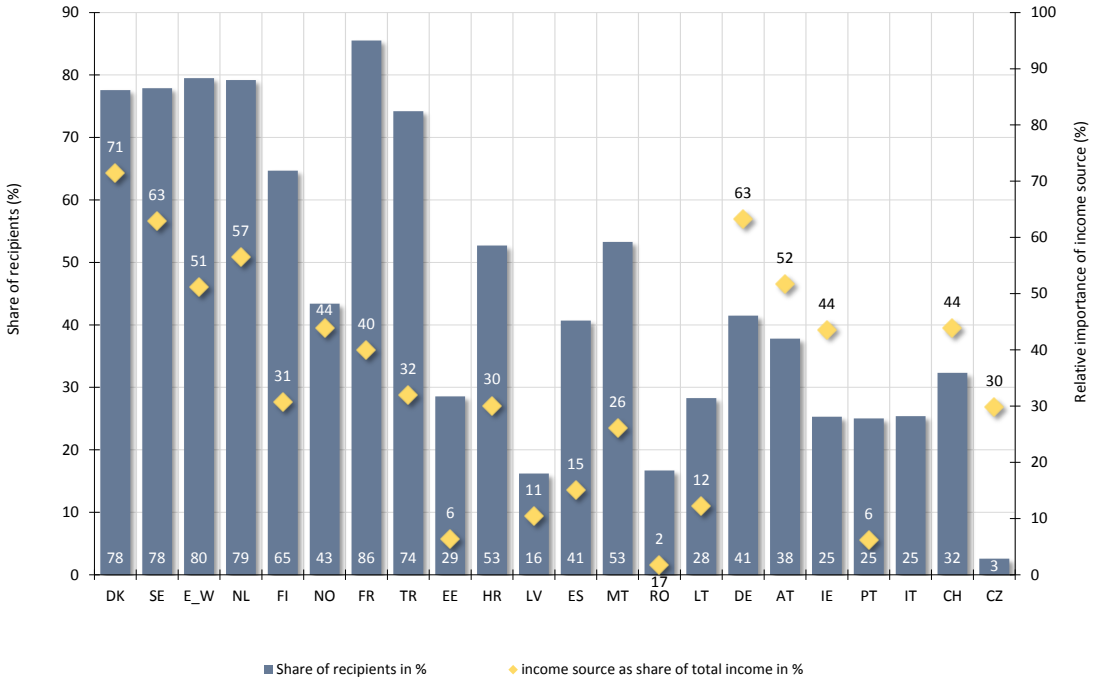
Comparing the countries, one can distinguish 3 different groups by the share of recipients among students with high social background.

Fig. 7.9 Importance of public support by social background – students <u>not</u> living with parents

a) Share of recipients with high education background (ISCED 5-6) and importance of income source (based on total monthly income including transfers in kind) in %



b) Share of recipients with low education background (ISCED 0-2) and importance of income source (based on total monthly income including transfers in kind) in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, F.7. No data: IT (income), PL, SI. Too few cases: SK (low education background).
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.1 Who do you live with during the study term/semester (Monday until Friday)?, 3.5 What is the average monthly income at your disposal from the following sources?, 3.6 What are your average monthly expenses for the following needs?, 6.1 What is the highest level of education your father and mother have obtained?
Note: Income data for France do not include transfers in kind.

- In all Scandinavian countries, England/Wales, the Netherlands, France, and Turkey provisions from the state reach more than 50% of the students with high social background. In another 8 countries – Estonia, Croatia, Latvia, Spain, Malta, Romania, Lithuania, and Germany – the share of recipients in this group of students ranges from 25% up to 50%. The share of students from high social background who benefit from public support is below 25% in Austria, Ireland, Portugal, Italy, Switzerland, and the Czech Republic.
- In half of the countries public support makes up less than 25% of total income of the receivers from high social background. Only in Denmark, Sweden, England/Wales, and Norway the state supplies more than half of the total income of students with high social background.

This shows that in many countries public support seems to be of minor importance for students with high social background. In comparison, the picture for students with low social background looks different, but not fundamentally different.

- In 9 countries – Denmark, Sweden, England/Wales, the Netherlands, Finland, France, Turkey, Croatia, and Malta – more than 50% of the students with low social background benefit from public support. In 10 countries the share of recipients ranges from 25% to 50%, which means that there are more countries in this group compared to students with high social background. In Latvia, Romania, and the Czech Republic less than 25% of all students with low social background are supported by the state.
- With respect to the significance of public support for student income, there are 6 countries – Estonia, Latvia, Spain, Romania, Lithuania, and Portugal – in which public support amounts to less than 25% of total income of the receivers. In another 6 countries – Denmark, Sweden, England/Wales, the Netherlands, Germany, and Austria the state provides more than 50% of the total income of students with low social background.

In international comparison the diffusion rate of public support – measured by the share of recipients – is generally higher for students with low social background. Also the relative importance of public support in total income is altogether higher for students with low social background. However, there are single countries where the opposite is true, i.e. the share of receivers is higher among students from high social background and the same goes for the share of state support in total income. The policy-makers in those countries should then review whether this result is intended and deemed appropriate.

A further major design issue concerning student funding schemes is the determination of public support as repayable or non-repayable funds. With respect to the provision of public support the systems can be quite different across the countries; in some countries grants/scholarships and loans are provided at national level, while in others they are supplied on local or institutional level. Students were, therefore, asked to report public support irrespective of the federal level of provision. This shows one of the advantages of student data providing information from the ‘receiver perspective’, since the effect of all schemes can be seen together. Figure 7.10 shows the distribution of the receivers of state support into groups of recipients of repayable and non-repayable support. 3 country groups can be differentiated:

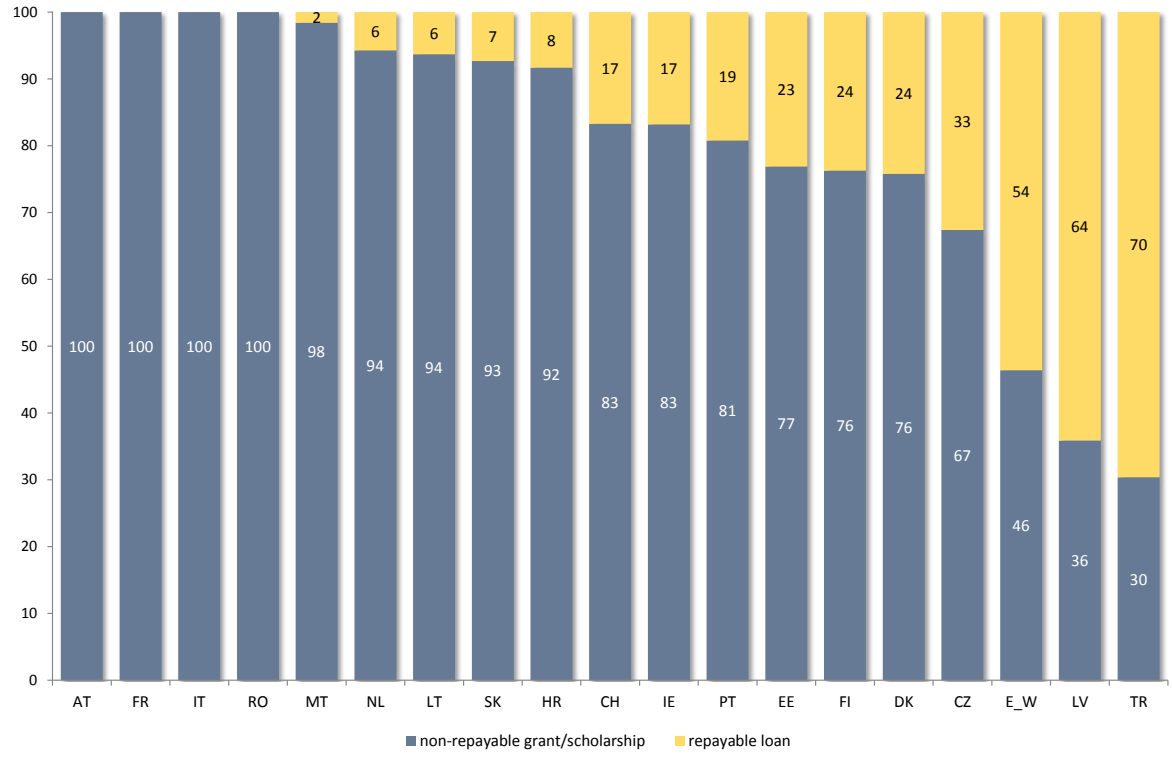
- Austria, France, Italy, and Romania rely exclusively on the provision of non-repayable public support for students who are eligible for public support.

- In 12 countries the public student support system is based mainly on non-repayable funds, but repayable support is used as well. The share of receivers of repayable loans ranges from a marginal 2% in Malta to up to 1/3 of all recipients of public support in the Czech Republic.
- In England/Wales, Latvia, and Turkey the majority of recipients of public support depend mainly on repayable loans.

The decision for supplying students either exclusively with non-repayable support or combined with repayable loans can be seen as a basic policy measure. Non-repayable grants and scholarships save the students from any present or future financial burden (disregarding possible future burdens that may be allocated via the country's tax system). The respective costs must then be borne by the state respectively the tax payers. Repayable loans reduce the state's costs for student funding in the long-run as the students have to bear these costs in the end (assumed that there is no loan default on the students' side). So from the students' point of view, the public support schemes in Austria, France, Italy, and Romania seem quite attractive as the entire support is non-repayable. The question, however, is whether the non-repayable support makes up a considerable share of total student income and whether it covers all students in need of state support.

Fig. 7.10 Receivers of public support by instrument

Share of receivers of repayable and non-repayable support based on all students who receive public support in %



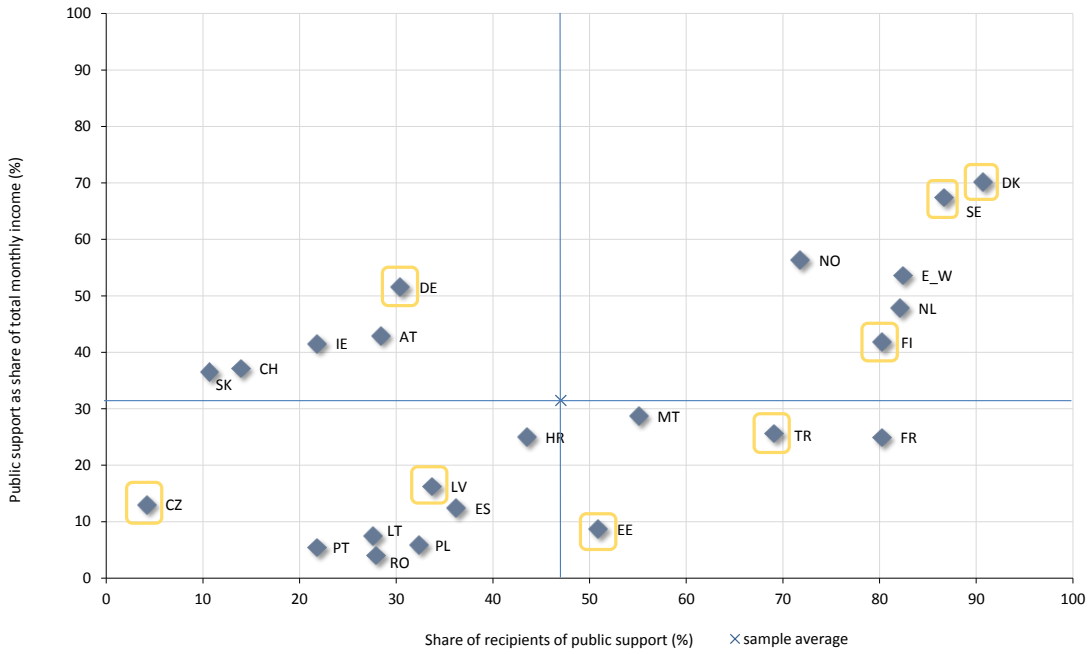
Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, F.8. No data: DE, ES, NO, PL, SE, SI.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.5 What is the average monthly income at your disposal from the following sources?
Note: In some countries students can receive repayable and non-repayable public support at the same time. In those cases the students were counted twice (i.e. once in the category 'non-repayable grant/scholarship' and once in the category 'repayable loan'). The shares are then based on the number of cases, not on headcounts; this refers to CH, E/W, DK, NL.

Figure 7.11 highlights further general aspects of the countries' public support systems. The chart combines the share of recipients of state support (on the x-axis) with the relative significance of public support (on the y-axis). The analysis focuses on students who are not living with their parents, their social background is disregarded.

- It appears that the public sector in Denmark, Sweden, England/Wales, Norway, and the Netherlands reaches a high share of the student population (over 70%) and is a significant contributor to the recipients' income (state assistance makes up 45% or more of students' total income). This may be a consequence of the underlying basic concept in those countries which considers students to be financially independent of their parents.
- Finland and France provide support schemes with a similar coverage, but a lower significance.
- 7 countries provide public support which has a comparatively low recipient quota (under 40%) and a rather low level of significance for students' total income (under 20%). In those countries students seem to be legally or de facto dependent on their parents in financial terms, which is also expressed by rather high shares of family/partner contribution in student income in many of these countries.

Fig. 7.11 Receivers of public support and importance of income source – students <u>not</u> living with parents

Share of recipients and public support as share of total monthly income including transfers in kind in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, F.7. No data: IT (public support as share of total income), SI.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.1 Who do you live with during the study term/semester (Monday until Friday)?, 3.5 What is the average monthly income at your disposal from the following sources?, 3.6 What are your average monthly expenses for the following needs?
Note: In the marked countries, near to or more than 25% of the public support is provided as repayable loan. Income data for France do not include transfers in kind.

The data, therefore, emphasise the differences in the funding systems which are used by countries with different policy agendas. From a student's point of view, the schemes offered by the countries in the first cluster seem advantageous. However, as indicated before, there are differences between the countries in the make-up of public support (e.g. with respect to the shares of repayable and non-repayable public support) that have to be taken into account. In the countries shown with a square box around them, the share of repayable loan in public support is near to or above 1/4.

It is not so easy to judge the excellence of the respective national funding systems as described above. On the one hand countries with funding systems with high shares of recipients of state support and also high relative significance of public support in student income seem to care especially well for their students. Yet, if most of the public support should take on the form of repayable loans that are, for instance, interest-bearing at market-rate of interest, redemption payment and interest can add to considerable amounts that may put a very high burden on the students or graduates during the period of repayment. On the other hand countries with low coverage and low significance of public support in student income seem not to be too generous. However, if those systems are very focussed and supply targeted support exactly for those students in need and if the support just closes the income gap that is left by private sources, the performance of those systems can be very efficient. The excellence of a public support system and its advantageousness over another can, therefore, only be judged against the background of the countries' political targets and requires an in-depth look at the functioning of the respective systems.

Students from low social backgrounds rely to a much higher extent on paid work than students from high social backgrounds

Another source of income for students is gainful employment. There may be different motives for students to take employment alongside studies:

1) It enables students to acquire income to compensate for missing base income (= provisions from family/partner and the state).
2) Students may, additionally, see it as a way of supplementing their income in order to cover non-necessary expenses.
3) Gainful employment can be a way of acquiring contact and soft-skills necessary for the transition to the labour market after graduation (→ Chapter 6).

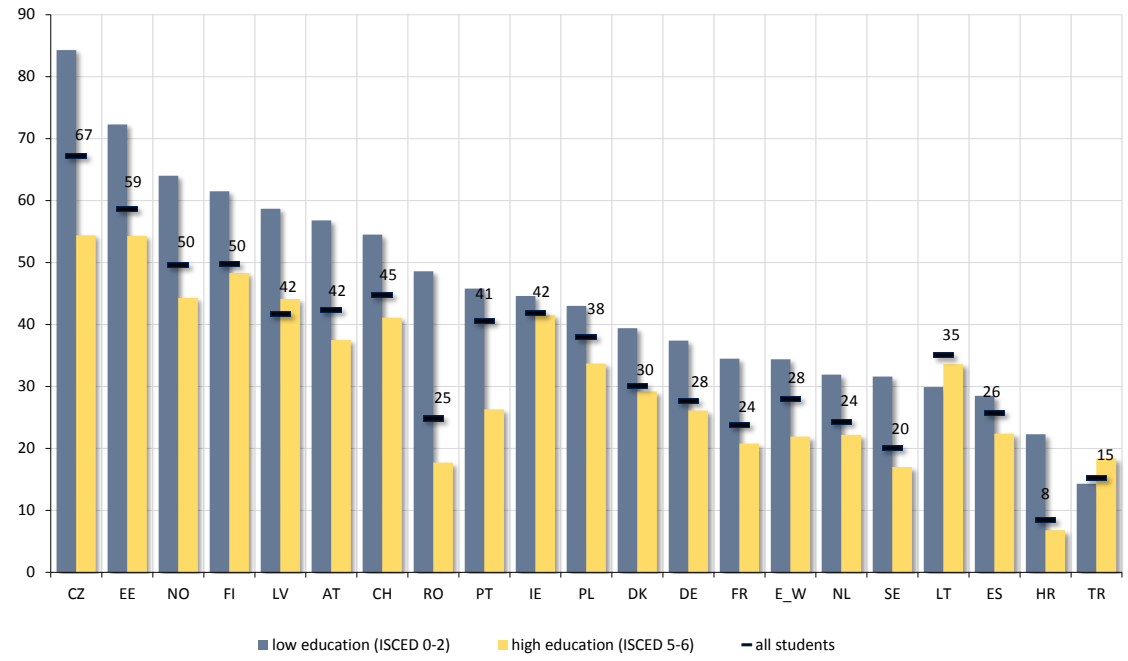
A comparison of the contribution of own earnings to a student's total income by social background (see Figure 7.12) confirms that students with a low education background rely to a much higher extent on this source than their social counterparts.

- Across all countries self-earned income makes up 45% of total income of students with low social background. Students with high social background depend only to 32% of their total income on this source.
- This basic trend is true for all countries except Lithuania and Turkey.

To some extent the difference is related to student age. Students from low social backgrounds are on average across the countries clearly older than their fellow students from high social backgrounds. As explained before, older students show a stronger reliance on paid work than younger students which is also related to some different needs of older students that are more expensive.

However, based on the data at hand, it is not possible to judge whether the social difference regarding job earnings could be reduced through provision of base income at a higher level. There is, however, a clear and simple consequence for a student's time budget, which is made up of study-related and work-related activities. If students (have to) spend time on paid work, this time is not available for study-related activities anymore. This may put the students affected at a disadvantage compared to their peers who (have to) work less or do not work at all. The time-related consequences of gainful employment for students and how they assess this situation is also described in this report (→ Chapter 6).

Fig. 7.12 Importance of gainful employment by social background – students <u>not</u> living with parents
Self-earned income as share of total income including transfers in kind in %



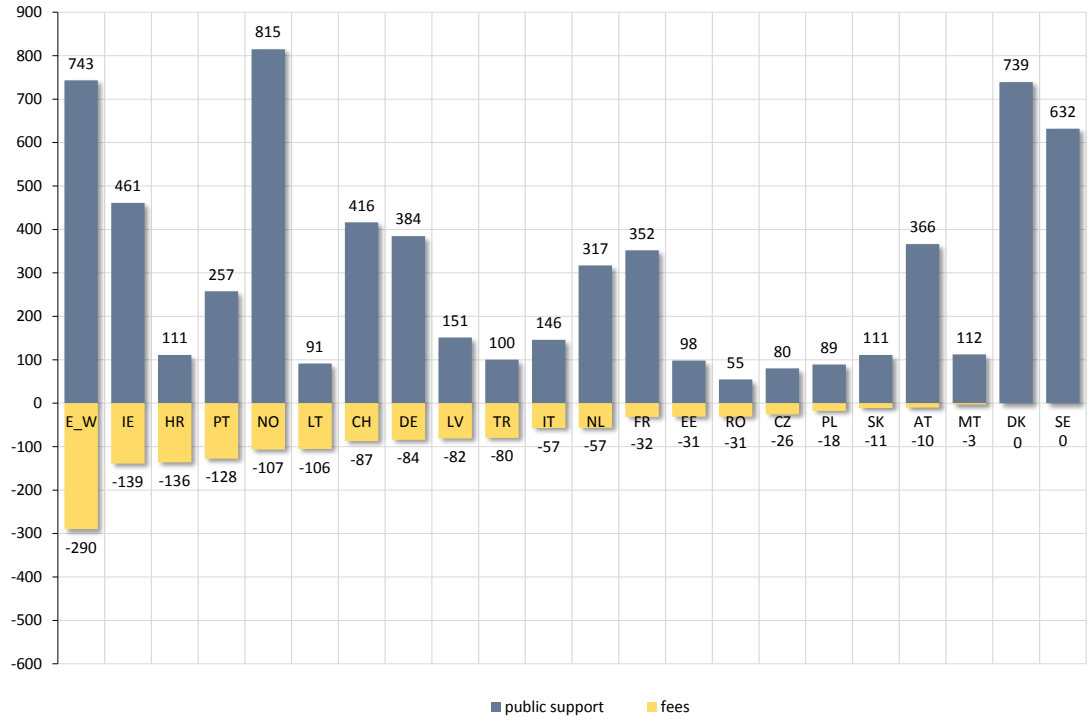
Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, F.1. No data: IT, SI. Too few cases: MT, SK.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.1 Who do you live with during the study term/semester (Monday until Friday)?, 3.5 What is the average monthly income at your disposal from the following sources?, 3.6 What are your average monthly expenses for the following needs?, 6.1 What is the highest level of education your father and mother have obtained?
Note: Income data for France do not include transfers in kind.

In Figure 7.13 the impact of state support and fees on the budget of Bachelor students is explored for the countries. The positive axis intercept measures the magnitude of average monthly public support for those students. The negative axis intercept was used to picture the average monthly amount of fees the students have to spend.[5] Both students' income and expenses are expressed in Euros.

- In a vast majority of 20 countries Bachelor students need to pay fees to higher education institutions. In England/Wales, Ireland, Croatia, Portugal, Norway, and Lithuania the students' fees amount to more than €100 per month.
- In almost all countries where students are subject to fees, the amount of state support exceeds the payment of fees and, therefore, covers a proportion of living costs as well; exceptions are Croatia and Lithuania.
- Bachelor students in Denmark and Sweden seem to be in an enviable position as they receive relatively high support from the state and they study free of charges. Apart from these countries, the best ratio of public support and fees in relative terms from the students' perspective are found in Malta and Austria.

A more in-depth analysis of fees is presented in → Chapter 8.

Fig. 7.13 Impact of fees for recipients of public support by study programme
Average monthly values for fees and public support for Bachelor students in Euros (arithm. mean)



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, F.9. No data: ES, FI, SI.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 1.1 Which programme are you currently enrolled in?, 3.5 What is the average monthly income at your disposal from the following sources?, 3.6 What are your average monthly expenses for the following needs?

[5] Note: In most countries students have to pay fees either per semester or per year. For this analysis the payments were re-calculated as per month expenses.

Chapter 8 – Students’ expenses

Key findings

- **Living costs and study-related costs:** Students spend the biggest share of their budget on living costs (as opposed to study-related costs), irrespective of whether they are living with their parents or not. In most of the countries observed living costs account for 75% or more of total expenditure. Study-related costs are in the majority of countries mainly – but not solely – driven by the payment of fees.
- **Accommodation costs:** With respect to living costs, expenses for accommodation are the students’ biggest financial burden in most of the countries. It is estimated that these costs determine between 1/4 and almost 1/2 of students’ monthly total budget depending on the housing form. Student halls of residence are the cheapest form of housing among all options outside the parental home.
- **Fees to higher education institutions:** Fees as part of study-related costs amount to less than 10% of total monthly expenditure of Bachelor students in half of the countries. However, in 3 countries – Ireland, Turkey, and Lithuania – Bachelor students spend more than 1/5 of their total monthly expenses on fees (maximum value: 41%). 3 out of 5 Bachelor students in cross-country average pay fees. In the case of 6 countries, the share of students paying fees is below 50%.
- **Students’ key expenditure:** Key expenditure on accommodation, fees, and transportation roughly amounts to 50% of total expenditure across the countries and varies by age and social background. Older students (who are in many cases from low social backgrounds) pay a smaller share of their budget on key expenditure compared to their younger fellow students; this is particularly true for Croatia, Poland, Ireland, Turkey, and Estonia. The reason is that older students usually have higher total incomes in absolute terms due to more gainful employment.
- **Assessment of the sufficiency of funding:** Students’ assessment of the sufficiency of their income is based on income differences, but perhaps also on other factors. Only in Italy, Switzerland, the Czech Republic, Norway, and the Netherlands, are the majority of all students (very) satisfied with their sufficiency of income.
- **Assessment by income source:** Students whose main source of income is parental support show the highest level of satisfaction with their financial situation, especially in Italy, Switzerland, and Norway. The lowest level of satisfaction is reported by students who rely on public support, which is, for instance, the case in Estonia, Portugal, and Romania.

Main issues

Types of expenditure and influential factors

This chapter analyses the structure of student expenditure as well as some of their main influential factors. Students are subject to a multitude of expenses. Some of them are directly related to participation in higher education such as fees for attending a higher education institution. Other expenditure may occur partially or even completely independent of taking part in higher education, examples are expenses for food or clothing. However, even though enrolment in higher education may not be constitutive for some of these expenses their magnitude may well be influenced by participation in higher education. In the following it is, therefore, distinguished between students' study-related costs and living costs. That way, one gets a first impression on the relevance of each type of expenses, which are also treated differently in many student support systems.

Within the EUROSTUDENT framework, the students' living costs and study-related costs are altogether divided into 12 subcategories. For reasons of lucidity, this chapter focuses in many cases only on a few expenditure categories, which are expected to be of special relevance for the students. These key expenses are accommodation, transportation, and fees. Spending on accommodation covers in this analysis not only the rent, but also utilities and other related costs such as electricity. Expenses for transportation refers to all means of transport, i.e. no matter if a student goes by his/her own car or by public transport. The category 'fees' contains students' expenses for 3 different types of fees: tuition fees, registration fees and examination fees.

Another crucial differentiation emphasises the meaning of the payer. In all countries, the burden of financing individual participation in higher education is not only borne by the students themselves, but also by their parents and other related persons. The parents' contribution takes on different forms: in some cases they provide their collegiate children with money to make them better off, in other cases the parents pay their children's debts directly. In empirical research it is a big challenge to capture the parents' support. For students it is far from easy to report especially the 2nd type of support, where they cannot observe cash flows and, therefore, may not be in the position to assess precise amounts. However, EUROSTUDENT makes the attempt to quantify parental support as it is of utmost importance to get the whole picture of the students' economic conditions.

The magnitude and structure of students' expenses is influenced by various factors. For differentiation the variables housing form, age, and social background were used. Students who are not living with their parents usually face higher expenses for accommodation and also for other purposes like meals, clothing etc. than their peers who are still living at their parents' home. For this reason it was differentiated by these 2 basic forms of housing. The age of students is a variable with high explanatory power. Older students tend more to live outside their parents' home (→ Chapter 9) and they are more likely to be married and to have children (→ Chapter 4), which is all reflected in their expenditure. Finally, the social background influences students' lives in many ways. On the one hand, the parents' social status is often based on their economic power, which determines the limits for the support of their children. On the other hand, the socialisation in the childhood home may influence the students' spending pattern.

It should be noted that due to the use of common data cleaning rules the underlying samples for this chapter can slightly differ from those for other chapters.

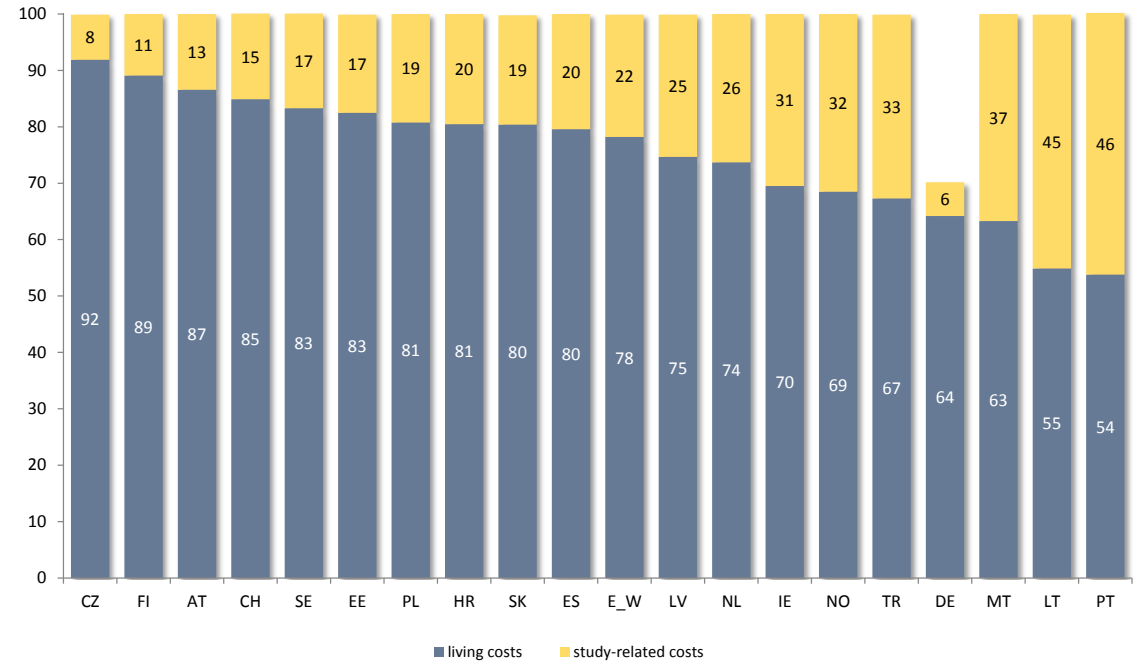
Data and interpretation

Students spend the biggest share of their budget on living costs

A first and very basic approach to analyse the structure of students’ expenditure is shown in Figure 8.1. It is a breakdown of students’ expenses into the 2 categories ‘living costs’ and ‘study-related costs’ as share of total monthly expenditure. The category living costs contains expenses for accommodation, daily expenses, social and leisure activities, transportation, health costs, communication, childcare, and other regular living costs (e.g. for tobacco, pets). Study-related costs cover expenditure on fees, social welfare contributions to the higher education institution, learning materials and other regular study costs (e.g. for training, private lessons). The analysis is restricted to students who are living with their parents. In all countries, students who stay at their parents’ home spend the lion’s share of their income on living costs.

Fig. 8.1 Profile of students’ expenditure – students living with parents

Living costs and study-related costs paid by students as share of total monthly expenditure in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, E.1. No data: DK, FR, IT, RO, SI.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.1 Who do you live with during the study term/semester (Monday until Friday)?, 3.6 What are your average monthly expenses for the following needs?
Note: In Germany data are not available for all expenditure categories as defined by EUROSTUDENT. In order to calculate percentages without overestimating the shares in total expenses, the absolute values for the specific expenditure categories were related to total student income, which was used as a proxy for total student expenses. Therefore, the shares do not sum up to 100%.
Note: Data for Switzerland include transfers in kind.

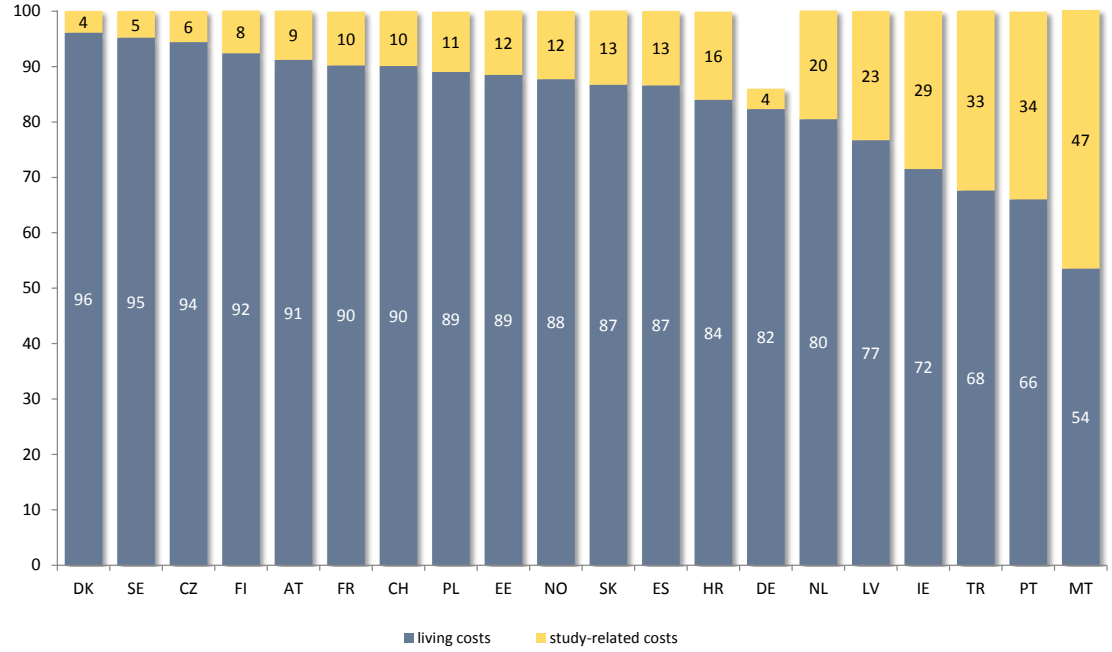
- There are 12 countries where living costs account for 75% or more of total expenditure. Across all countries, the mean value for students' living costs amounts to 75% as well. The highest shares are found in the Czech Republic and Finland with shares about 90% and the lowest values in Germany, Malta, Lithuania, and Portugal, with shares under 2/3. In the vast majority of countries the living costs are mainly driven by 'daily expenses'; this subcategory includes spending on food, clothing, toiletries and similar and across all countries students spend on average 23% of total expenditure on this. The 2nd most important expenditure item is in most countries 'social and leisure activities' with an overall average value of 17% of total expenses.
- Compared to living costs, study-related costs seem to be of minor importance. However, there are still 8 countries – Latvia, the Netherlands, Ireland, Norway, Turkey, Malta, Lithuania, and Portugal – where these costs range between 25% and almost 50% of total expenditure after all. As expected, in most countries study-related costs are mainly influenced by the payment of fees (average: 15%), whereas expenses for learning materials is usually the 2nd most important item in this cost category (average: 8%). High shares of study-related costs, however, cannot always be explained primarily by the charging of fees. In Norway and Turkey, for instance, there is only a medium magnitude of fees (see Figures 8.4 and 8.5 in this chapter). But in international comparison the 2 countries show the highest shares in the subcategory 'other regular study costs' (8% respectively 6% of total expenditure), which contains expenditure on training, private lessons, and further education.

Figure 8.2 takes a look at the spending profile of those students who are not living with their parents. Unlike students who are living with parents, Figure 8.2 analyses the combined expenditure of both students and their parents (see Box 8.1 for explanation). For students who live outside their parents' home, living costs play an even more dominating role.

- There are 16 countries where living costs make up for 75% or more of total expenditure and across all the countries observed on average 84% of total expenditure is absorbed by living costs. 7 countries have values of 90% or higher with only Portugal and Malta having shares of 2/3 or lower.
- It is not surprising that in the vast majority of countries the most important expenditure item in absolute and relative terms in the category living costs is accommodation, which requires on average 34% of total expenditure. The 2nd most important subcategory is in almost every country 'daily expenses' with a mean value of 23%.
- The relative meaning of study-related costs is not very pronounced for students who live outside their parents' home. In most countries the share of study-related costs is clearly dominated by the payment of fees. Exceptions to this rule are Denmark, Austria, and Sweden; there, study-related costs are mainly driven by expenses on learning materials, which includes spending on books, photocopy, field trips, etc. This can be explained by the fact that the 2 Scandinavian countries don't charge tuition fees and in Austria the magnitude of fees is very low (see below for further analysis of fees). Finland is an exception as well, but there the main expense factor for study-related costs is social welfare contributions.

Fig. 8.2 Profile of students' expenditure – students not living with parents

Living costs and study-related costs paid by students and parents, partner, others as share of total monthly expenditure in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, E.1. No data: E/W, IT, LT, RO, SI.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.1 Who do you live with during the study term/semester (Monday until Friday)?, 3.6 What are your average monthly expenses for the following needs?
Note: In Germany data are not available for all expenditure categories as defined by EUROSTUDENT. In order to calculate percentages without overestimating the shares in total expenses, the absolute values for the specific expenditure categories were related to total student income, which was used as a proxy for total student expenses. Therefore, the shares do not sum up to 100%.

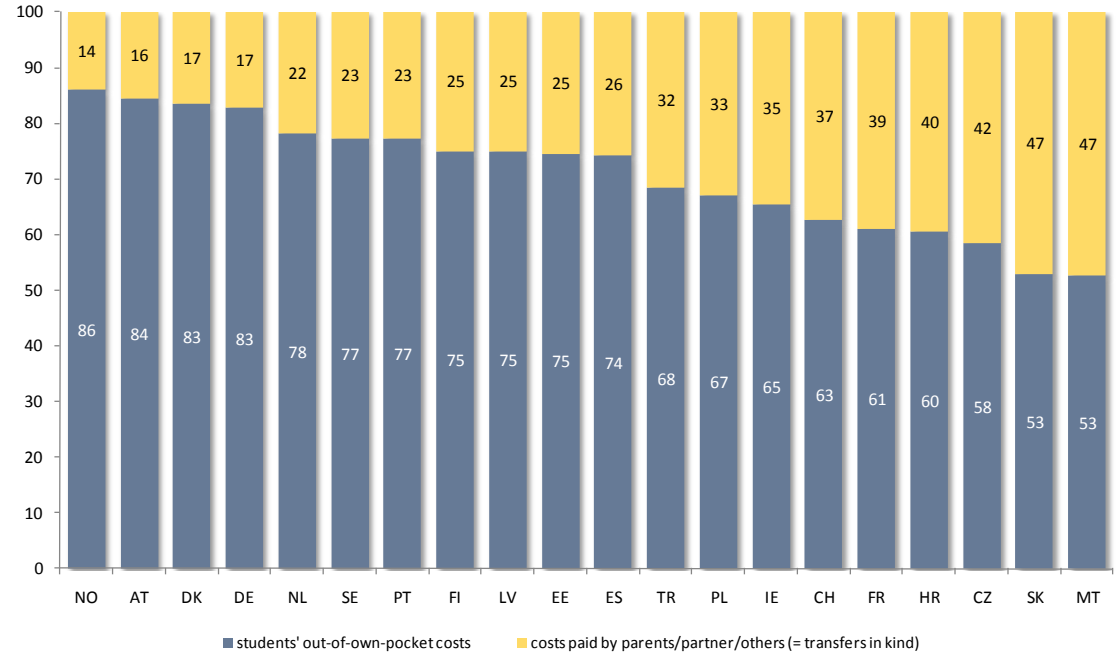
Box 8.1 Parental support: transfers in cash and in kind

In all countries students profit in many ways from contributions which they receive from their parents or other relatives. Within the EUROSTUDENT framework 2 basic types of economic parental support are distinguished: On the one hand, parents may financially support their children by paying them money, which is not 'earmarked'. This means the student has this money at his/her disposal and is free to choose what to spend it for (= transfer in cash). On the other hand, parents may want to pay their children's bills directly, e.g. in order to make sure that the support is used exclusively for an intended purpose. In this case, the parents transfer the money straight to their children's creditor (e.g. this is the case when parents pay the rent for their children directly to the children's landlord). For the students the money for this type of support is intangible (= transfer in kind). Within this framework transfers in kind are a student's living costs and study-related costs which are paid directly by the parents or other persons to the student's creditor.

While one student may receive parental support completely in cash, another may receive the same magnitude of support as transfer in kind. Therefore, it is important to cover both types of support in order to get the whole picture of the students' living conditions. However, empirical research has shown that it is difficult to collect data on transfers in kind. For some types of household expenditure it is problematic to apply the costs-by-cause principle and assign the costs appropriate to the persons living in the household. This applies especially to students who are living with their parents, but also to students who are sharing an accommodation with their partner. According to the EUROSTUDENT project conventions, for students who are living with parents transfers in kind were left out of consideration as it was deemed too difficult for these students to estimate this kind of support (the only exception is Switzerland, where financial data on students who are living with parents contain these transfers (→ Cf. Office fédéral de la statistique (2008)). By contrast, students who are not living with parents were asked to report transfers in kind. Although these students face basically the same problem as their peers who are living with their parents, it was assumed that students who moved out of their parents' home might have a better cost awareness and, therefore, are in the position to give at least a rough estimate for the non-cash support. Due to this convention it is important to note that income and expenses of students who are living with parents cannot be compared to those of students who are not living with their parents!

The figure below shows for students who are not living with their parents a breakdown of monthly total expenditure into costs which are paid by the students themselves (i.e. out of their own pocket) and costs that are paid by parents, partner or other persons directly to the students' creditor. On average across all countries, transfers in kind amount to roughly 30% of total monthly expenditure. It is important to note that the yellow bars (= costs paid by parents/partner/others) indicate only the parents' transfers in kind, which may be only a fraction of the total parental support. In addition to this, the grey bars (= students' out-of-own-pocket costs) may contain further support, which the students received from their parents as transfer in cash.

Total monthly expenditure of students not living with parents by payer in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, E.1. No data: E/W, IT, LT, RO, SI.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.1 Who do you live with during the study term/semester (Monday until Friday)?, 3.6 What are your average monthly expenses for the following needs?

With respect to living costs, expenses for accommodation are the students’ biggest financial burden in most of the countries

Accommodation is in all countries one of the most important expenditure item for students who moved away from their parents’ home and in more than 2/3 of the countries observed it proves to be the most important expense factor. However, depending on the type of housing, expenses for accommodation burden the budget of students and their parents in different ways, as is shown by Figure 8.3.

- Students who are living alone (supported by their parents or other persons) pay an average rent of €343, which make up roughly 40% of their total monthly expenses (chart a).
- For students who are living with their partner/children the monthly rent, which is paid for by students and their partner (or other persons) amounts to €398 on average across the countries. This makes up roughly 46% of their total monthly expenses (chart b).
- Student halls of residence turn out to be the cheapest form of housing among all options outside the parental home (chart c). The average payment for living in a student hall amounts to €255 per month and accounts for 27% of students total monthly expenses.[1]

These results suggest that the different housing options are being taken up by different student groups for which the costs have differing impacts (→ Chapter 9). The general picture sketched using averages across all countries fits broadly for the inner-country comparison as well.

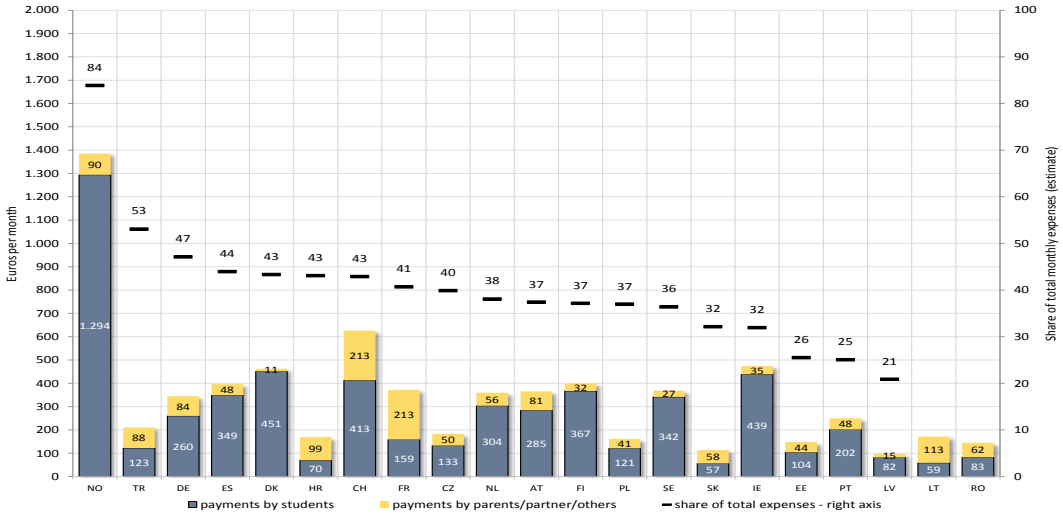
An interesting point for analysis is the share of support provided indirectly by parents through paying a portion of the costs for accommodation. Looking at the averages across the countries, this support makes up around 1/3 of the costs for living with partner/children and living in a student hall. In the case of students living alone, the share is about 1/5. There are differences between the countries.

- In France and Lithuania, for instance, between 57% and 66% of the costs of living alone is covered by parents. The shares remain similar across the other 2 accommodation forms. This appears, then, to be a common way to support children in these countries.
- In Ireland and Spain the share of support provided in this way by parents grows according to accommodation form – from living alone, to living with partner, to living in student halls.

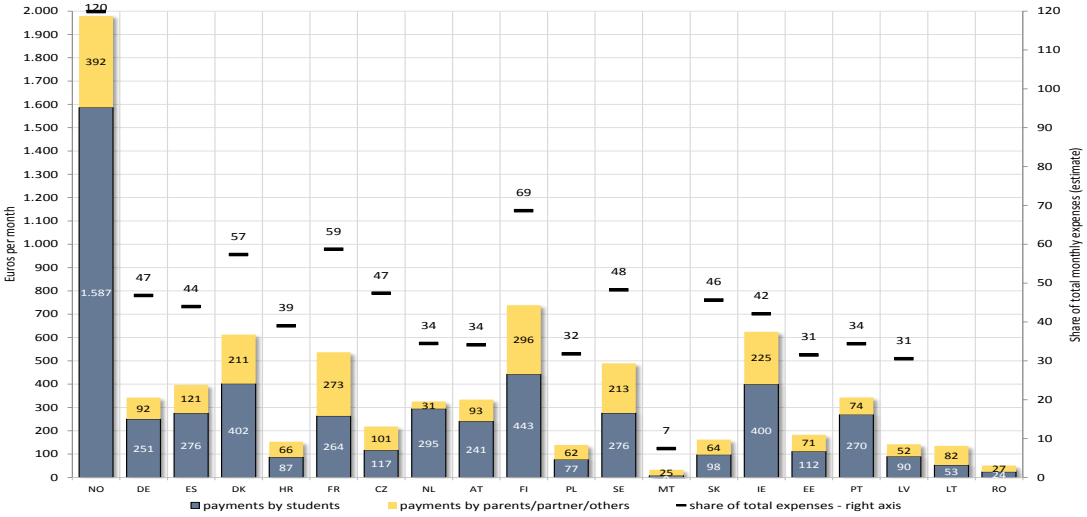
[1] Please note that the rent expressed as percentage of total expenses may be overestimated as the amounts for rent per housing form (alone, partner/children and student hall) were simply related to total expenses of students who are not living with their parents, i.e. a further differentiation of total expenses by form of accommodation was not possible.

Fig. 8.3 Accommodation costs by payer and by form of housing in Euros and as share of total monthly expenditure in %

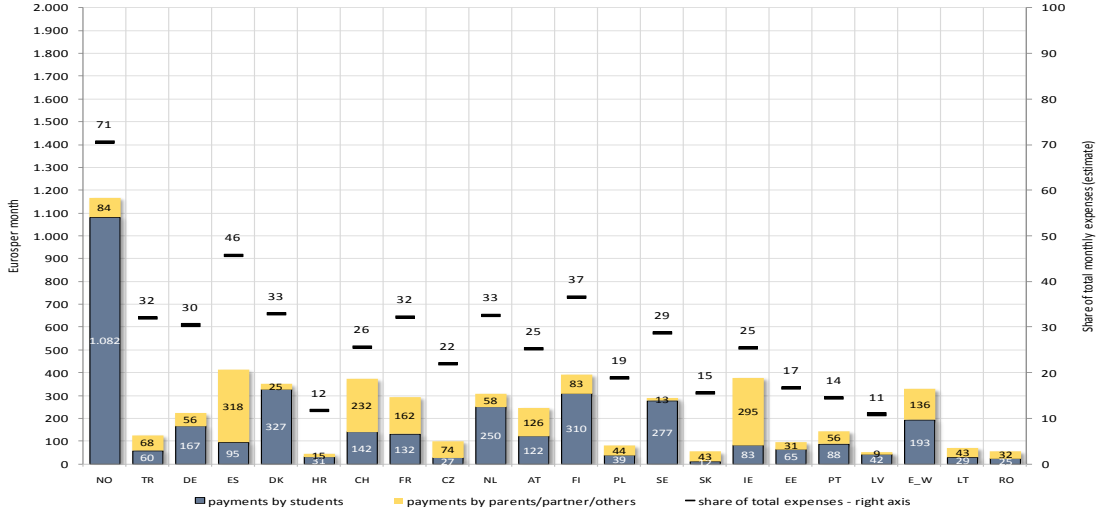
a) Students living alone



b) Students living with partner/child(ren)



c) Students living in student halls



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, D.6 & E.1. No data: IT, SI. No data for living alone: E/W. No data for partner/children: CH, E/W, TR. No data for total expenditure: E/W (student hall), LT, RO. Too few cases: MT (living alone, student hall).
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.1 Who do you live with during the study term/semester (Monday until Friday)?, 3.2 Do you live in a student hall?, 3.6 What are your average monthly expenses for the following needs?
Note: The right axis shows an estimation of the impact of the respective accommodation costs on total monthly expenditure. The accommodation costs per housing form are related to total monthly expenditure for all students not living with parents irrespective of their housing form outside parental home.

Fees as part of study-related costs amount to less than 10% of total monthly expenditure of Bachelor students in half of the countries

Fees to higher education institutions can as well amount to a considerable burden of the students' budget and, indeed, sometimes they do. Within the EUROSTUDENT framework the expenditure category 'fees' covers students' payments to higher education institutions for tuition fees, registration fees, and examination fees. Thus, it should capture the most relevant items of the institutional charges for students (only students' social welfare contributions to the university/college and to student associations are reported in a different category). Among the 3 different types of fees it is often tuition fees, which play the prominent role even though they are sometimes charged under another name.

Figure 8.4 illustrates the different meaning of fees in absolute and relative terms for students in Europe. In most cases fees are charged per semester, however, for the purpose of this analysis they were re-calculated as per month expenditure. As the analysis in chart (a) is restricted to Bachelor students who do not live with their parents, the combined payments of both students and their parents have been taken into account. The values are presented both as Euros (left axis in chart [a]) and as share of students total monthly expenditure (right axis in chart [a]). This 2nd measure is important in order to better assess the impact of fees on students' total monthly budget.

- In the majority of countries that are charging fees for Bachelor students, the average fee is below €100 per month. High absolute amounts of fees are charged in England/Wales, Ireland, and Lithuania, where the monthly values range from over €170 to almost €280. In Denmark, Finland, and Sweden, Bachelor students study free of charge.

The relative meaning of fees expressed as share of students' total monthly expenditure varies greatly between the countries.

- Bachelor students have to dedicate less than 10% of total expenditure on fees in half of the countries.
- In one group of countries – Ireland, Turkey, and Lithuania – the share of fees roughly ranges between 1/5 and 2/5 of the students' total monthly expenses. Along with accommodation costs, this, therefore, determines a large chunk of the students' budget.
- Besides the 3 Scandinavian countries which waive fees completely,[2] in 3 other countries – the Czech Republic, Malta, and Austria – the relative meaning of fees is rather low (below 5%).

These country clusters do not, however, remain intact, when one further element of the design of fee schemes is taken into consideration. That is the question of how many students actually have to pay these fees (→ Chapter 7) – see Figure 8.4, chart (b).[3]

- Around 60% of all Bachelor students in cross-country average actually pay fees.
- In Italy, Turkey, Ireland, England/Wales, the Netherlands, Portugal, Croatia, the Slovak Republic, Switzerland, and France, at least 75% or more of the Bachelor students are subject to paying

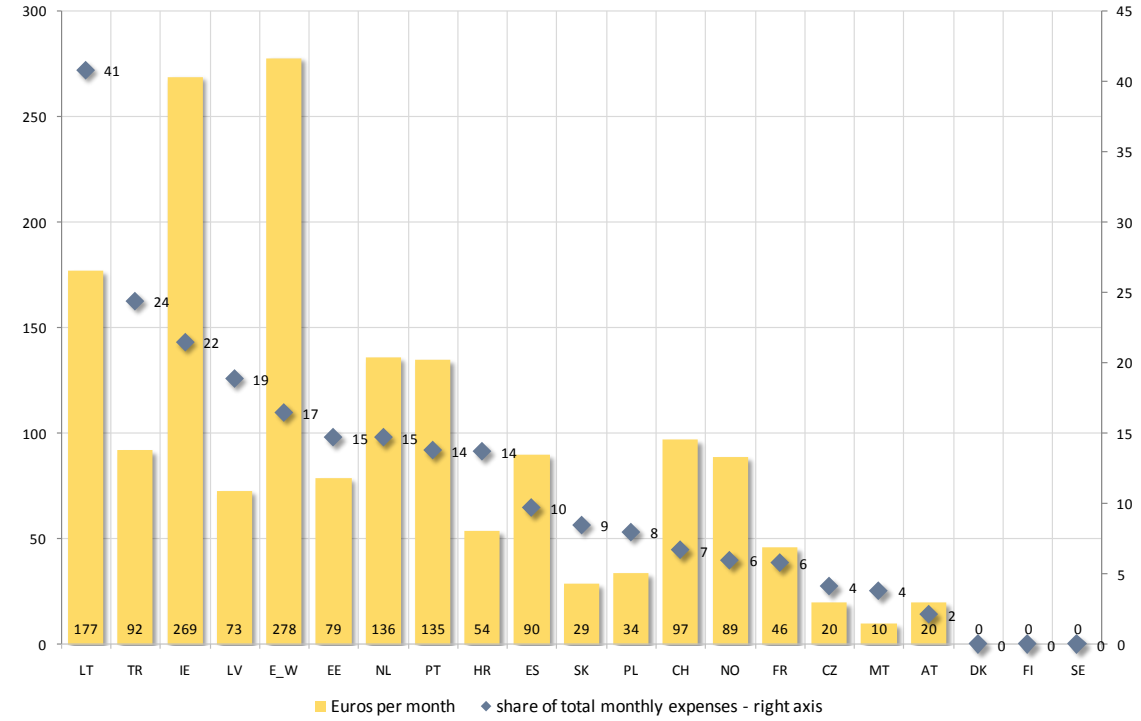
[2] In Denmark fees are waived completely for ordinary full-time students. Part-time students do have to pay fees, but these are not included in the Danish sample.

[3] Please note that the analysis in chart (b) is based on all Bachelor students irrespective of their form of housing, i.e. those students who are living with parents and those who are not.

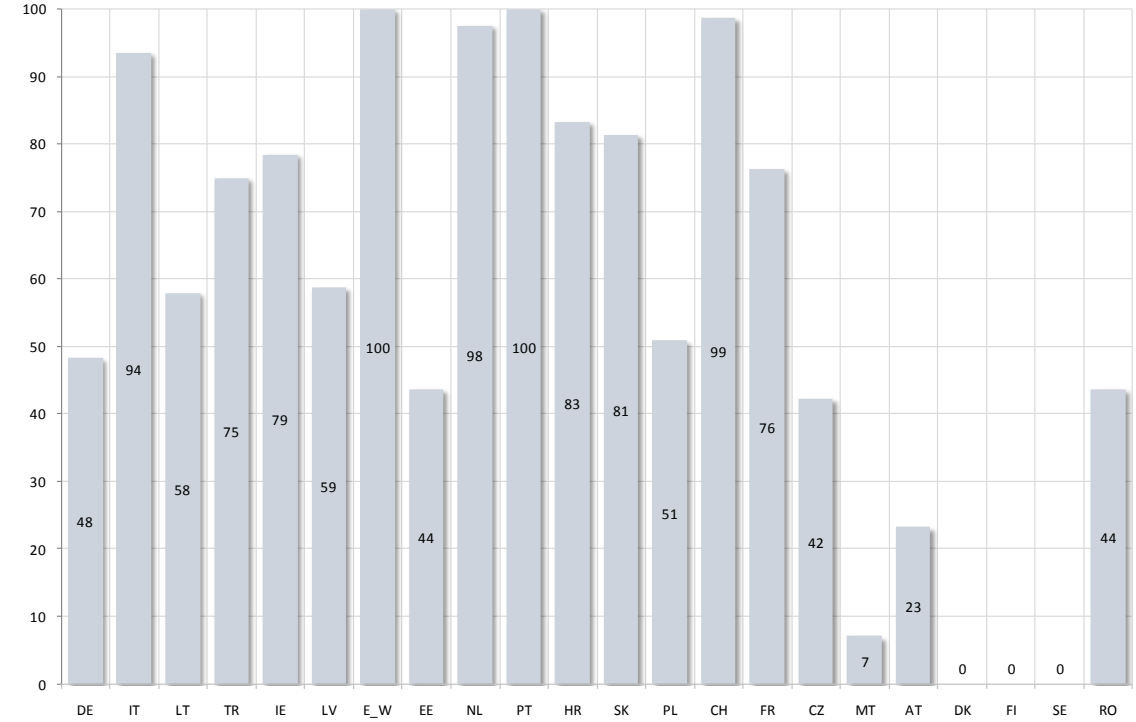
fees. In Italy, England/Wales, the Netherlands, Portugal, and Switzerland, is the cover ratio (almost) 100%.

Fig. 8.4 Monthly fees to higher education institutions for Bachelor students

a) Fees for Bachelor students not living with parents paid by students and parents, partner, others in Euros and as share of students' total monthly expenditure in %



b) Share of all Bachelor students (living and not living with parents) who are paying fees in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, E.2 & F.9. No data for amount of fees: DE, IT, RO, SI. No data for payer of fees: ES, NO, SI.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 1.1 Which programme are you currently enrolled in?, 3.6 What are your average monthly expenses for the following needs?

- In the case of 6 countries – Germany, Estonia, the Czech Republic, Malta, Austria, and Romania – the share of students paying is below 50%.

Provided that the shares of fee-paying Bachelor students do not differ by the basic form of housing this information would suggest that the relative significance of fees as described by chart (a) is underestimated for those countries where not all Bachelor students are affected by paying fees. That means if the impact of fees on the students’ budget were considered only for those students who actually pay fees, the share of fee in students’ total expenses would be higher for almost all the countries.

Figure 8.5 shows the absolute and relative meaning of fees for students in Master programmes. The analysis concentrates on Master students who live away from their parental home. Again the combined payments of students and their parents (or other persons) have been taken into account.

- The average fee for Master students do not exceed €100 per month in a majority of 12 countries, similar to the picture for Bachelor students. High absolute amounts of fees are charged again in Lithuania and Ireland, where students in Master programmes have to pay more than €300 respectively €700 per month. In Denmark, Finland, and Sweden, Master students are free of charge, just as their peers in Bachelor programmes.

Also for Master students the impact of fees on their total budget differs between the countries.

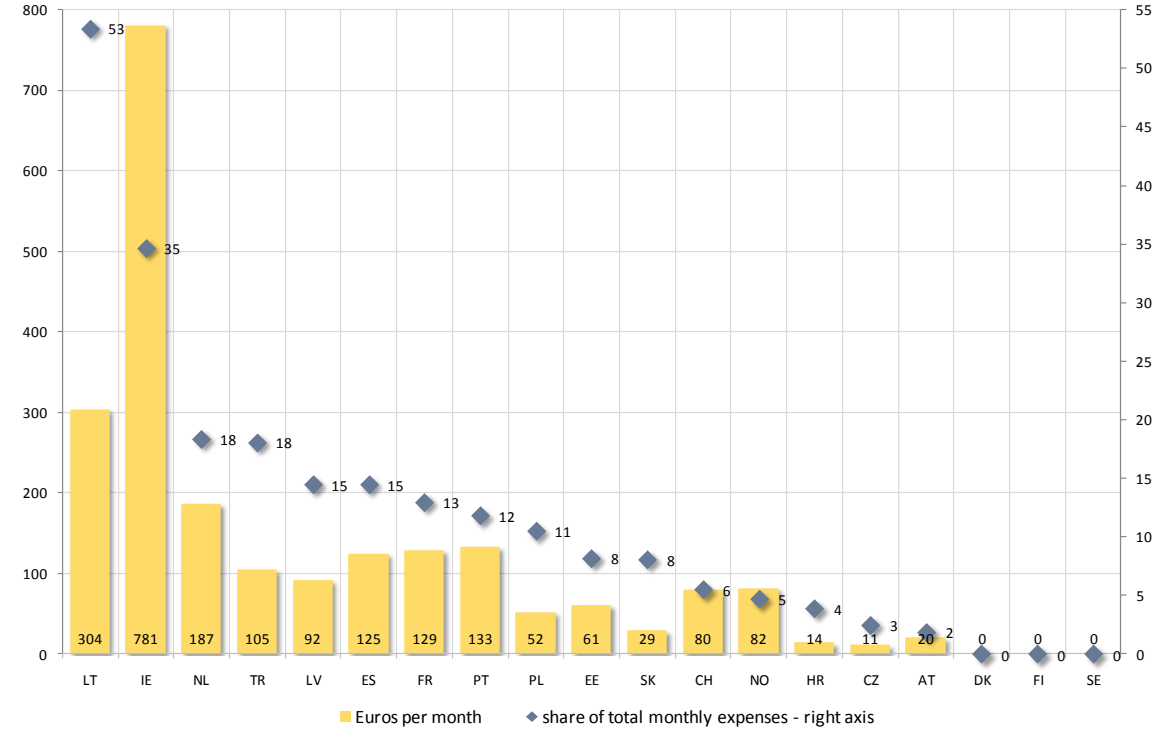
- Master students spend less than 10% of their total expenditure on fees in more than half of the countries.
- In the high fee countries Ireland and Lithuania the share of fees amounts to more than 1/3 respectively 1/2 of the students’ total monthly expenses. In those countries the relative burden of fees is clearly higher for Master students than for their counterparts in Bachelor programmes.
- In Croatia, the Czech Republic, Austria, and the fee-free countries Denmark, Finland, and Sweden, is the share of fees below 5% of total expenditure.

By comparing the situation of Bachelor and Master students, there is a tendency that Master students have to bear higher fees in absolute and relative terms than Bachelor students.

- Across the countries Master students spend on average €116 per month for fees, which makes up around 12% of their total monthly expenditure. For Bachelor students these payments amount to €82 or 11%.
- In 8 countries – Spain, France, Ireland, Lithuania, Latvia, the Netherlands, Poland and Turkey – the pattern of higher amounts of fees for Master students holds true. In Ireland and France the fees for Master students are more than 2 ½ times higher compared to Bachelor students.
- In 6 countries the opposite is true, i.e. the amounts of fees are lower for Master students than for Bachelor students. This refers to Switzerland, Estonia, Croatia, Norway, Portugal, and the Czech Republic.
- In the Slovak Republic and Austria students in Bachelor and Master programmes pay on average the same amounts for fees.

Fig. 8.5 Monthly fees to higher education institutions for Master students not living with parents

Fees paid by students and parents, partner, others in Euros and as share of students' total monthly expenditure in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, E.2. No data: DE, E/W, IT, SI, RO. Too few cases : MT.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 1.1 Which programme are you currently enrolled in?, 3.6 What are your average monthly expenses for the following needs?

Key expenditure on accommodation, fees, and transportation roughly amounts to 50% of total expenditure across the countries and varies by age and social background

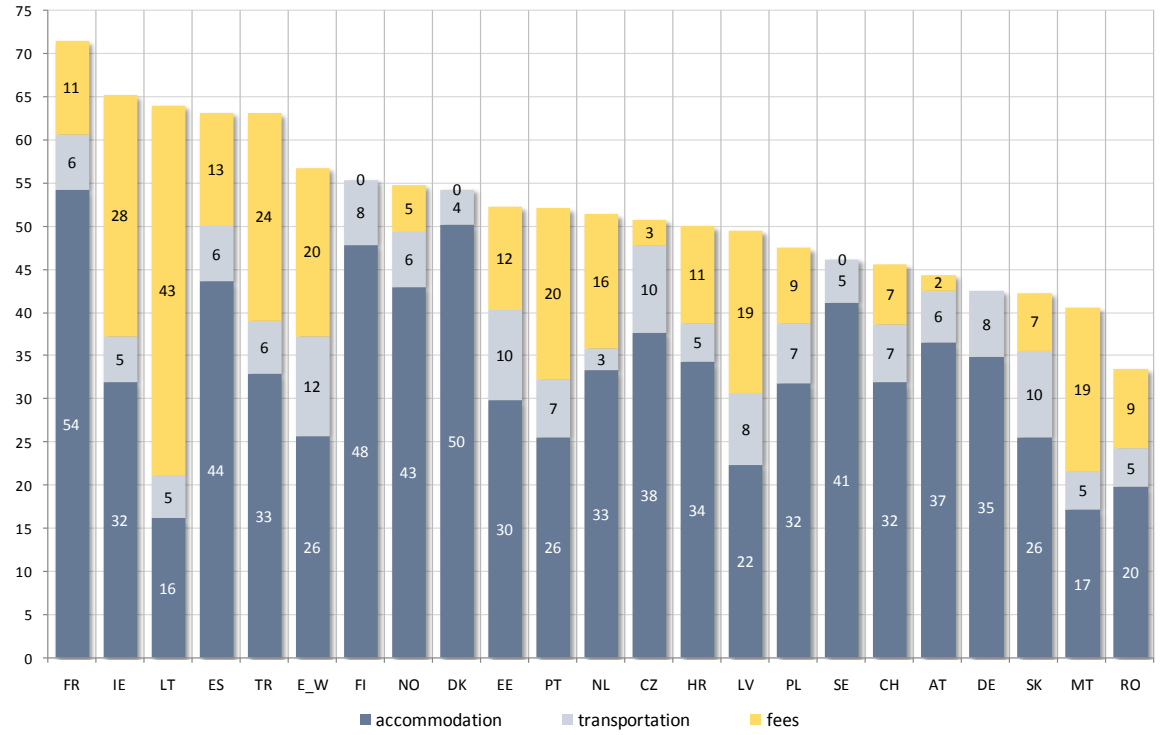
From the big range of students' expenses some items are defined as key expenditure; this refers to expenditure on accommodation, transportation, and fees. These are 3 types of costs which are most readily targeted through policy measures in the countries, i.e. through providing cheaper accommodation, subsidies for transportation and lower tuition fees for students. Charts 8.6 (a) and (b) quantify the importance of key expenditure for those students who are not living with their parents differentiated by age.

- In almost all countries, young students up to the age of 24 years dedicate the highest share of total expenses to accommodation (exceptions are Lithuania and Malta, where fees demand the lion's share). The students – financially supported by parents/partner/others – pay on average 1/3 of their income on housing. The highest burden is borne by students in all Scandinavian countries, Spain, and France, where the costs of housing absorb more than 40% of students' total expenses. At the other end of the spectrum there are Romania, Malta, and Lithuania, where students spend 20% or less of their budget on lodging.
- The 2nd cost category is fees, which requires on average 13% of the students' total expenditure. Similar to the picture of Bachelor students, the differences between the countries are remarkable: In Lithuania, Ireland, and Turkey, between 1/4 and almost 1/2 of a student's expenditure is determined by fee costs. By contrast, in the Scandinavian countries, the Czech Republic, and Austria, the share does not exceed 5%.
- The least important category of key expenditure is transportation for which the mean value across the countries amounts to 7%. In Estonia, the Slovak Republic, the Czech Republic, and England/Wales, students dedicate between 10% and 12% of their budget to commuting from place of residence to their higher education institution. Their fellow students in the Netherlands and Denmark have to spend only 3% and 4%, respectively, on transportation.
- In 7 countries the budget share which is spend on transportation is higher than that for fees (the Scandinavian countries, the Czech Republic, Austria, and Slovakia). This holds for countries where tuition fees are relatively low or don't exist. Nevertheless, such costs indirectly associated with accommodation choices should also be considered in an assessment of student costs. Indeed, this group of countries would be much larger, if only students living at home were assessed.

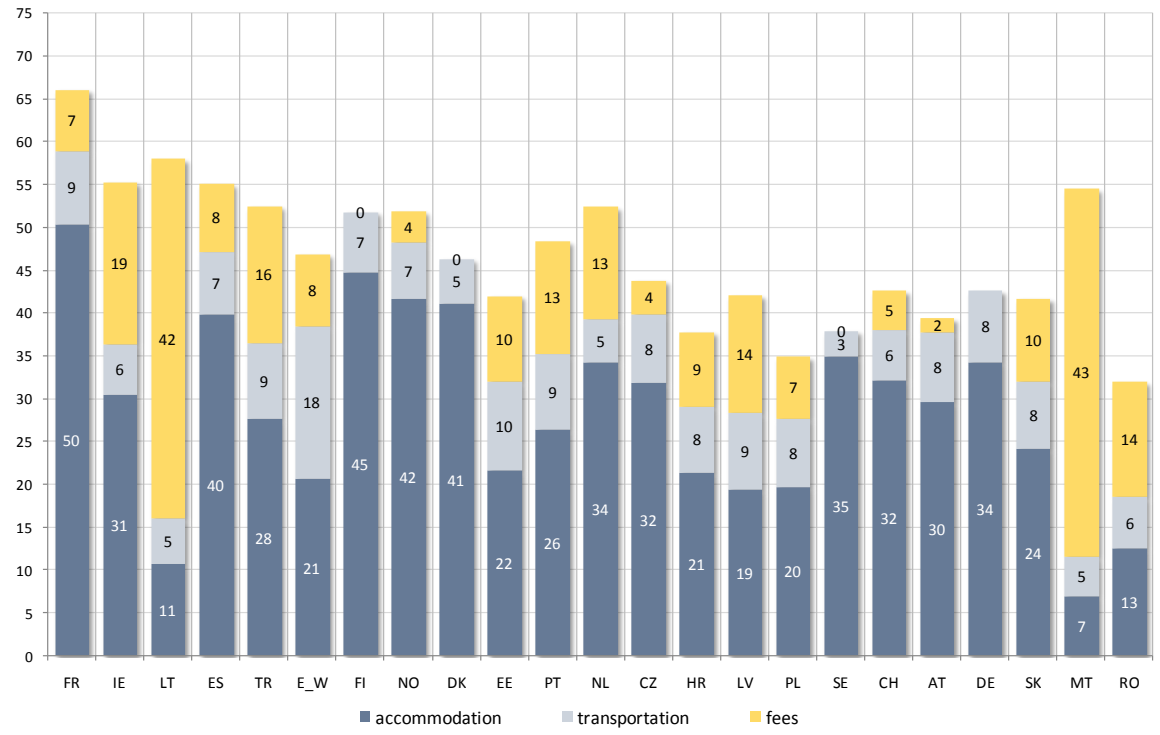
Chart (b) in Figure 8.6 shows the composition of key expenditure of students who are 30 years or older. Some basic spending patterns which were found for young students remain the same for older students. On average across the countries, the most expensive expenditure item is accommodation (29% of total expenditure) followed by fees (11%) and finally transportation (8%).

Fig. 8.6 Profile of students' key expenditure as share of total monthly expenditure by age – students <u>not</u> living with parents

a) Students up to 24 years old; expenditure paid by students and parents, partner, others in %



b) Students who are 30 years or older; expenditure paid by students and parents, partner, others in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, E.2. No data: DE (fees), IT, SI.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.1 Who do you live with during the study term/semester (Monday until Friday)?, 3.6 What are your average monthly expenses for the following needs?, 5.1 When were you born?

- In general, the relative significance of accommodation costs drops for older students. This might be explained by other data from the current EUROSTUDENT data set according to which older students spend more time on gainful employment and they earn higher amounts of money compared to their younger fellow students. This results in higher total income which loosens the older students' budget constraint noticeably (→ Chapter 6).
- The share of fees in total expenditure decreases for the older age group as well. This is true for a majority of 14 countries. This cannot be explained by the different design of fees for Bachelor and Master courses. The lower share of fees can be observed for both groups of countries, those countries where fees in absolute terms are lower for Master students than for Bachelor students and those where the opposite is true. Therefore, it is more likely that the lower share of fees is due to the higher total incomes of older students as well.

The result that older students spend a lower share of income on key expenditure than younger students is similar – and related – to the findings for students from different social backgrounds.[4] Students from low social backgrounds dedicate on average across the countries a lower share of income on key expenditure than students from high social backgrounds (48% vs. 51%). This is also due to the age of the students. Students from low social backgrounds are generally older than their peers from high social backgrounds. As older students have higher incomes due to more gainful employment they spend a smaller share on the key expenditure categories compared to their younger fellow students.

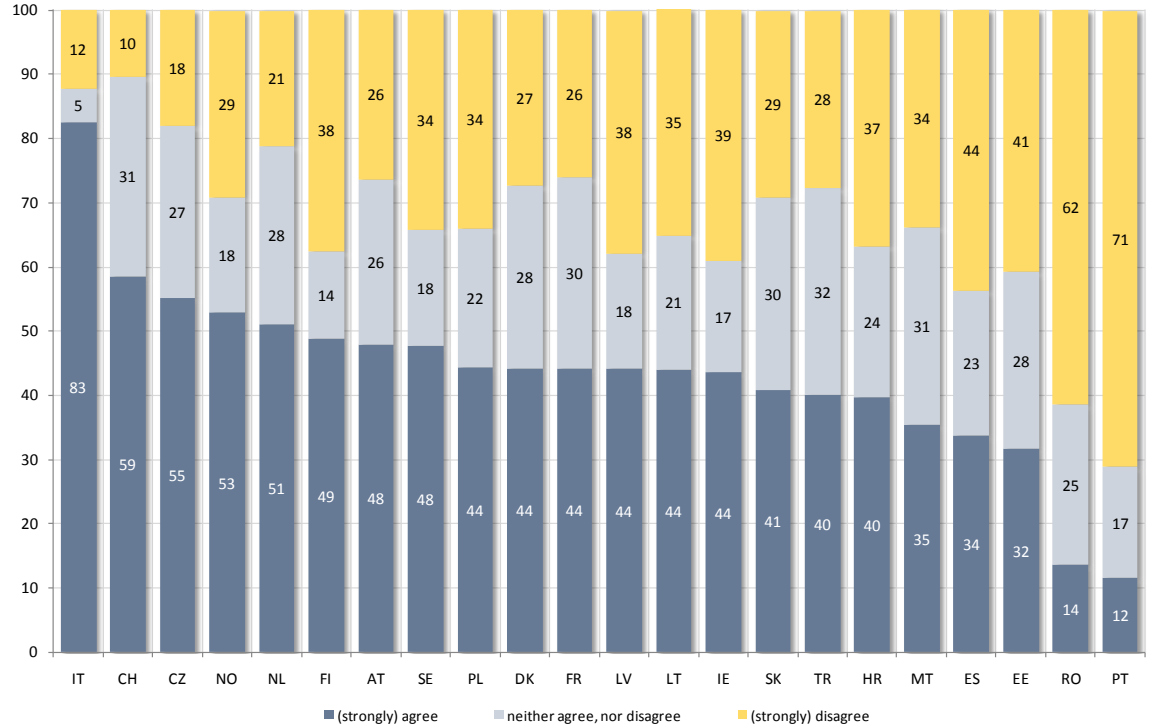
[4] The classification of students to different social backgrounds is approximated by the students' parents' highest educational attainment (→ Glossary).

Students' assessment of the sufficiency of their income is based on income differences, but perhaps also on other factors

Following on from an analysis of both the income situation of students (→ Chapter 7) and the structure of their monthly expenses, it is insightful to turn to students' own assessment of their financial situation. Figure 8.7 shows a general assessment of all students of their financial situation. The respective question of the questionnaire asked for the sufficiency of funding in order to cover monthly costs. The extent of agreement is taken as level of satisfaction. A high level of satisfaction – expressed by the share of students who agreed or even strongly agreed to the respective question – ranges from over 80% in Italy down to less than 15% in Romania and Portugal.

- Only in less than 1/4 of the countries, namely in Italy, Switzerland, the Czech Republic, Norway, and the Netherlands, a majority of students state that they are (very) satisfied with their funding.
- In more than half of the countries at least 1/3 of the students (strongly) disagrees to having sufficient means to cover monthly expenses. The situation seems to be especially problematic in Romania and Portugal and the judgement of the students appears unambiguous: in country comparison not only the level of satisfaction is lowest, but also the degree of dissatisfaction is highest with over 3/5 of the students being (very) dissatisfied with their ability to meet financial obligations.

Fig. 8.7 Students' assessment of sufficiency of funding to cover monthly costs
All students in %

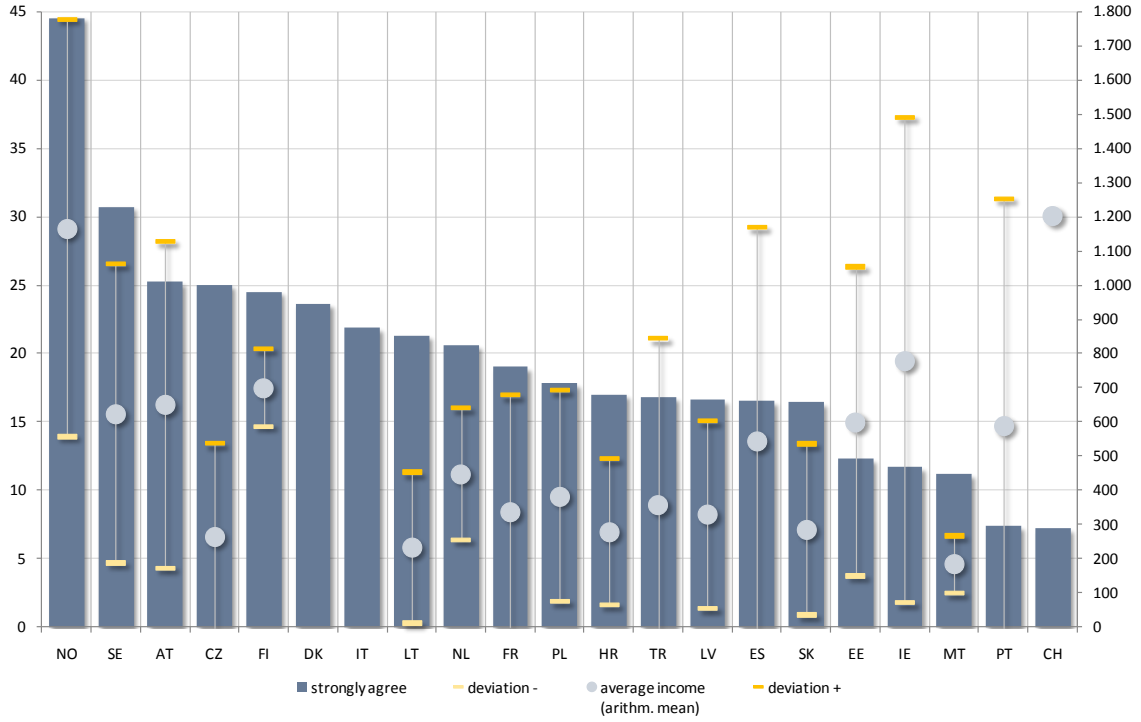


Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, E.5. No data: DE, E/W, SI.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.7 To what extent do you agree with the formulation? I have sufficient funding in order to cover my monthly costs.

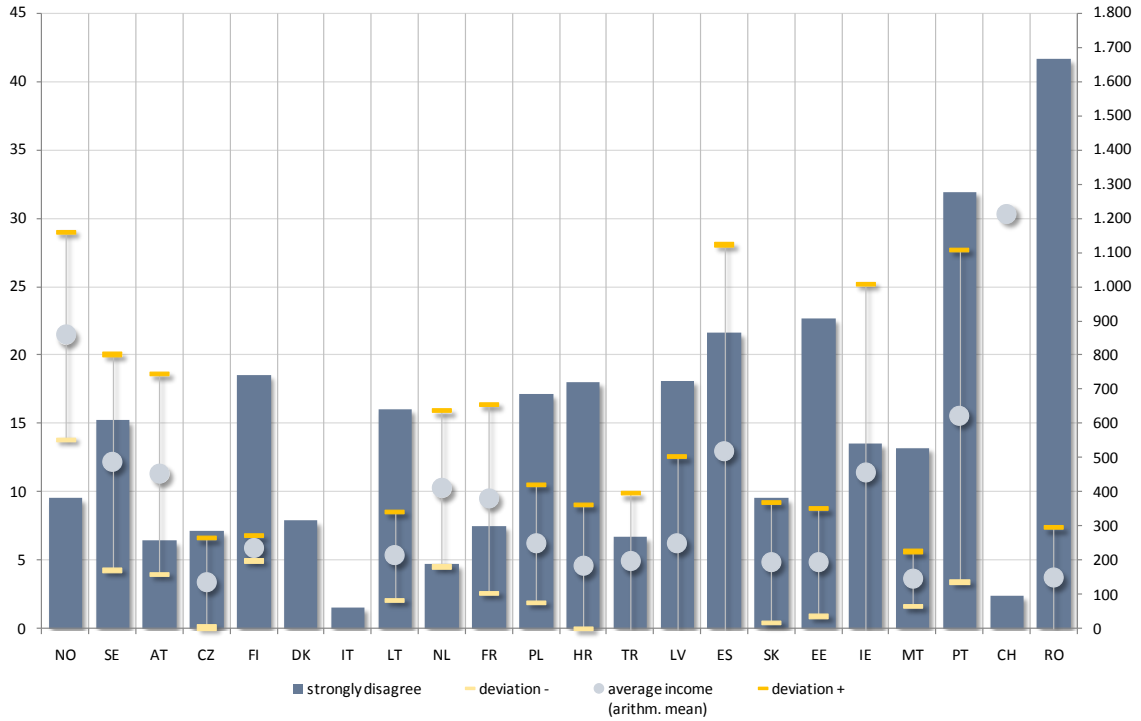
In order to shed some more light on this issue, Figure 8.8 combines the assessment of students who are living with parents of their financial situation with data on their income.

Fig. 8.8 Students' assessment of sufficiency of funding to cover monthly costs by average income – students living <u>with</u> parents

a) Students with strong agreement in %, average income and standard deviation in Euros



b) Students with strong disagreement in %, average income and standard deviation in Euros



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, E.6. No data: CH (standard deviation), DE (assessment), E/W, RO (category 'strong agreement'), SI. No data for income: DK, IT.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.1 Who do you live with during the study term/semester (Monday until Friday)?, 3.5 What is the average monthly income at your disposal from the following sources?, 3.7 To what extent do you agree with the formulation? I have sufficient funding in order to cover my monthly costs.

That way a rather subjective perception of satisfied and dissatisfied students within one country is compared to 'hard facts'. For students who are living with their parents their assessment of the sufficiency of funding to cover monthly costs (measured on the left scale) is contrasted to their average income (measured on the right scale). Besides the average income also the standard deviation was taken into account. This gives an impression of the spread of the income distribution and emphasises that the level of satisfaction should not only be judged against a single value (e.g. the arithmetic mean), but also the range of income should be regarded.

From the 5-staged satisfaction scale used in the questionnaire only the extreme categories, i.e. those students who strongly agree and those who strongly disagree, were taken into account for the graph. It should be noted that a comparison of Euro values between countries is not particularly insightful, instead of this the degrees of satisfaction and incomes within countries should be compared. For this kind of comparison one has to keep in mind, of course, that the picture is still incomplete in so far as the students' expenses are not taken into account.

- The highest shares of students who say they are very satisfied with their financial situation (chart a) are found in Norway, Sweden, Austria, the Czech Republic and Finland, with shares ranging from 45% down to 25%. The share of very satisfied students is below 15% in Estonia, Ireland, Malta, Portugal, and Switzerland.
- The highest shares of dissatisfied students (chart b) are to be found in Romania, Portugal, Estonia, and Spain, where the share reaches more than 1/5 of the students.

In general it can be stated that in 16 countries the group of very satisfied students has an average income which is higher compared to the group of very dissatisfied students. In some countries average figures show no big difference, but in others the difference is large.

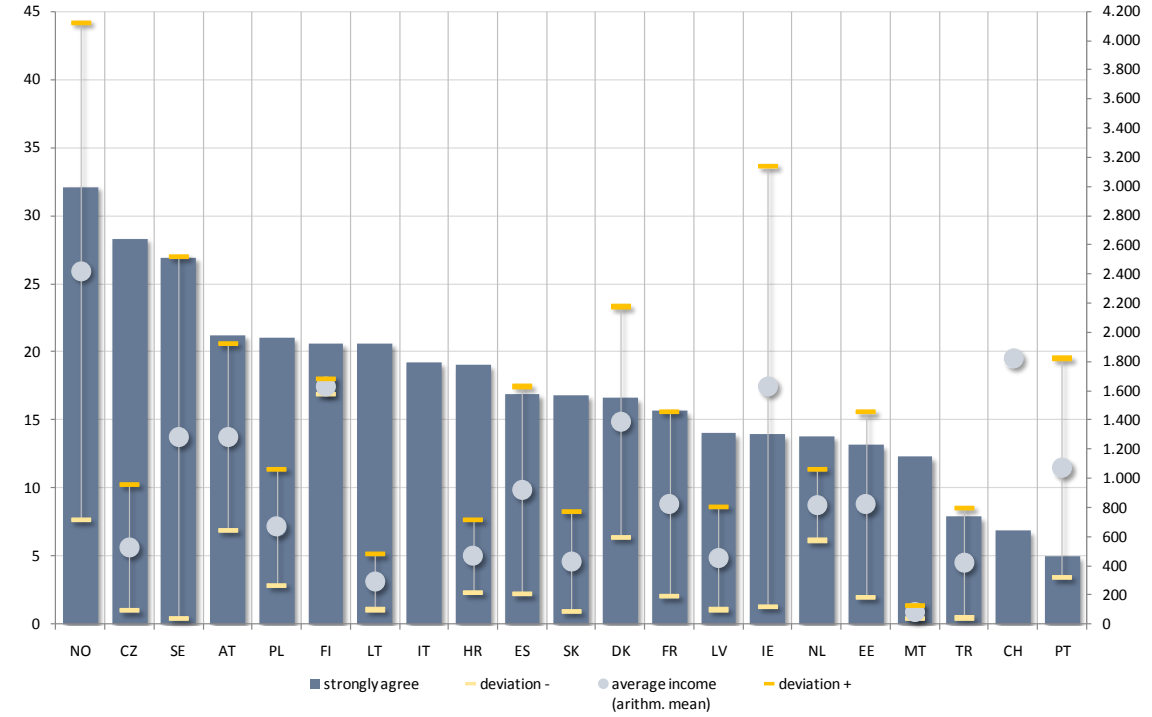
- In Finland and Estonia, both with relatively high levels of dissatisfied students, very satisfied students tend to have about 3 times more income than their very dissatisfied peers.
- In Switzerland, Portugal, and Spain, are no apparent differences in income levels between the 2 student groups visible. The different assessment of the 2 student groups may be based on different cost structures making an income level sufficient for one group, but less than sufficient for another. This may be related to different age structures of the 2 groups. Especially older students may have demands which are more costly compared to younger students. The same level of income for younger and older students may then result in different satisfaction levels.

Figure 8.9 shows the same analysis for students who are not living with their parents. As these students face higher costs than their fellow students who live with their parents and as the parental transfers in kind were added to their income, the scale on the right side of the graph shows a much higher maximum value.

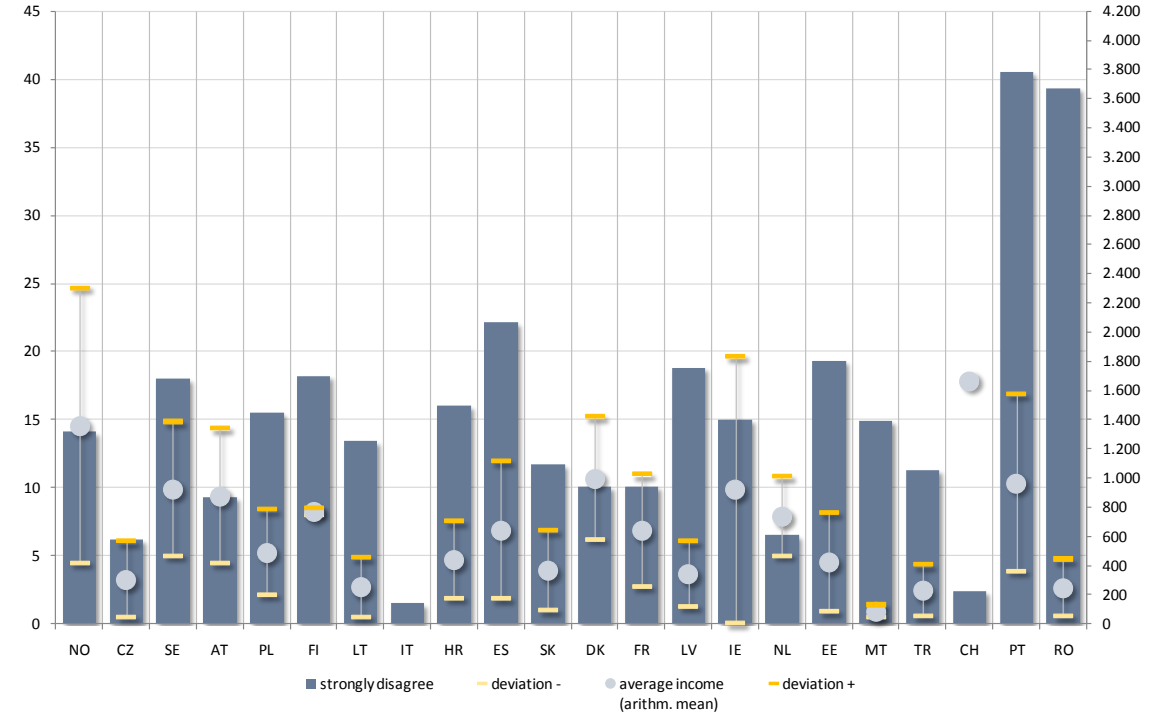
- In general, the level of high satisfaction is now lower than for students who are living with parents (chart a). There are only 3 countries – Norway, the Czech Republic and Sweden – where the share of very satisfied students is higher than 25%. In 8 countries (Latvia, Ireland, the Netherlands, Estonia, Malta, Turkey, Switzerland, and Portugal) this share is lower than 15%.

Fig. 8.9 Students' assessment of sufficiency of funding to cover monthly costs by average income – students <u>not</u> living with parents

a) Students with strong agreement in %, average income (including transfers in kind) and standard deviation in Euros



b) Students with strong disagreement in %, average income (including transfers in kind) and standard deviation in Euros



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, E.6. No data: CH (standard deviation), DE (assessment), E/W, RO (category 'strong agreement'), SI. No data for income: IT.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.1 Who do you live with during the study term/semester (Monday until Friday)?, 3.5 What is the average monthly income at your disposal from the following sources?, 3.7 To what extent do you agree with the formulation? I have sufficient funding in order to cover my monthly costs.

- The level of strong dissatisfaction for students who are not living with parents (chart b) is on average across the countries slightly higher than for students who are living with parents (15% vs. 14%). It is again Portugal and Romania that show the highest shares of very dissatisfied students (around 2/5 of the students).
- In Finland, Estonia, Turkey, Ireland, and Norway, is the income level of very satisfied students near to or above 2 times higher compared to their very dissatisfied fellow students. Again, only the income data cannot explain the whole picture. In Portugal, for instance, where the difference in satisfaction scale between the 2 student groups is very big (5% strongly agree vs. 41% strongly disagree), the difference in income levels is not so pronounced (average income of students who strongly agree: 11% higher).

Students whose main source of income is parental support show the highest level of satisfaction with their financial situation

There are certain focus groups of students, which are worth looking at when reflecting upon students' assessment of their financial situation. Direct and delayed transition students are new focus groups within the EUROSTUDENT framework. They have been developed in order to capture student patterns for higher education entry; a topic which is increasingly in the policy focus. Direct transition students are defined as students who entered higher education directly at a rather early stage in life. In contrast, delayed transition students are those students who entered higher education at a later stage in life, usually more than 2 years after obtaining their higher education entrance qualification (→ Glossary). Figure 8.10 displays the assessment of all students and the student focus groups of their financial setting.

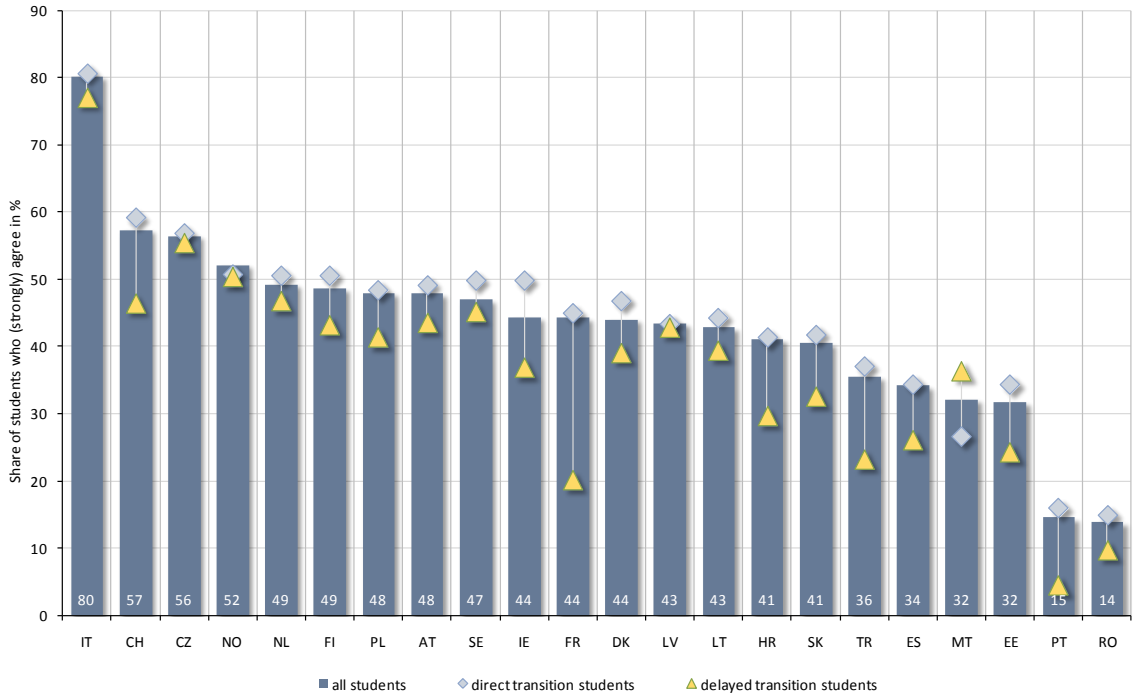
- According to chart (a), on average across the countries, 43% of all students are either satisfied or very satisfied with their financial situation. This figure stays roughly the same for direct transition student (44%), but drops to 37% for delayed transition students.
- The broad pattern shown for all students is followed in both of the special student groups. In Italy, Switzerland, the Czech Republic, Norway, the Netherlands, and Finland, over 50% of direct transition students are (very) satisfied, but the figure drops especially in Switzerland and Finland for delayed transition students. The same pattern can be seen on the right-hand side of the chart for Estonia, Portugal, and Romania.

Chart (b) shows the same data for students with low social background and students with children.

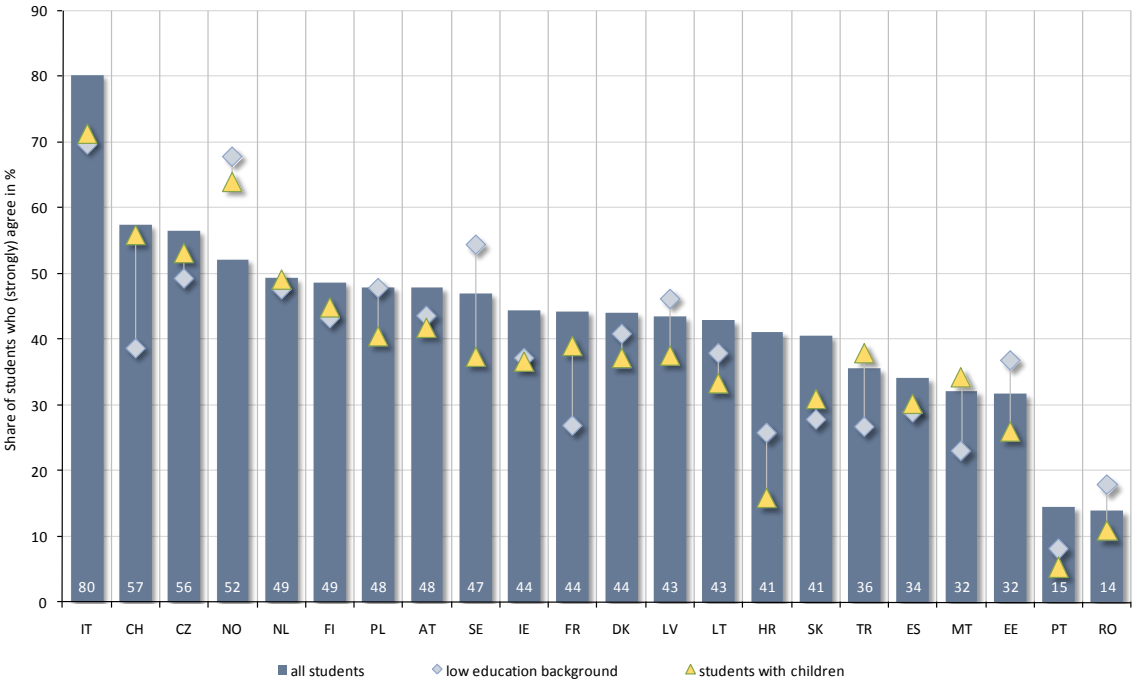
- There are some countries, e.g. Switzerland, Sweden, France, where there are clear differences in the level of (very) satisfied students between the 2 focus groups. However, on average across the countries, the level of (high) satisfaction of students with low social background is the same as for students with children (38% for each group).
- Only in Italy, Switzerland, the Czech Republic, and Norway, is the majority of students with children (very) satisfied with their financial situation. A (highly) satisfied majority of students with low social background is found only in Italy, Norway, and Sweden, in all other countries this share is below 50%.

Fig. 8.10 Students’ assessment of sufficiency of funding to cover monthly costs by various characteristics of students – students not living with parents

a) Students by transition route with (strong) agreement in %



b) Students with low education background (ISCED 0-2) and students with children with (strong) agreement in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, E.7 & E.8. No data: DE, E/W, SI.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.1 Who do you live with during the study term/semester (Monday until Friday)?, 2.3 When did you get the qualification used for entering higher education?, 2.4 When did you enter higher education for the first time?, 3.7 To what extent do you agree with the formulation? I have sufficient funding in order to cover my monthly costs.

In all countries study financing is a composition of different income sources. Depending on the country's basic concept, one or more of the income sources prevail. In countries like Spain or Germany, where students are considered to be depending on their parents – also in financial respect – family contributions play a much bigger role for study financing than in countries like Norway or Sweden, where students are regarded as independent individuals. The smaller the number of income sources, the more important is the sufficiency of these sources to cover students' monthly costs, due to lack of alternatives. Figure 8.11 shows the assessment of students who are not living with parents with a dependency upon a certain income source. Dependency means that the respective income source amounts to more than 50% of the students' total income. The focus of the analysis is on the 3 main components for funding of students: parental support, students' earnings from gainful employment and public support.

- The average satisfaction figures for the different components already tell a story: Whilst on average 48% of students depending on parental support assess their financial situation as (very) satisfying, 47% of students dependent on paid employment and 37% of students with a dependency on state support do so. The same picture is drawn if the focus is set on the share of (very) dissatisfied students.

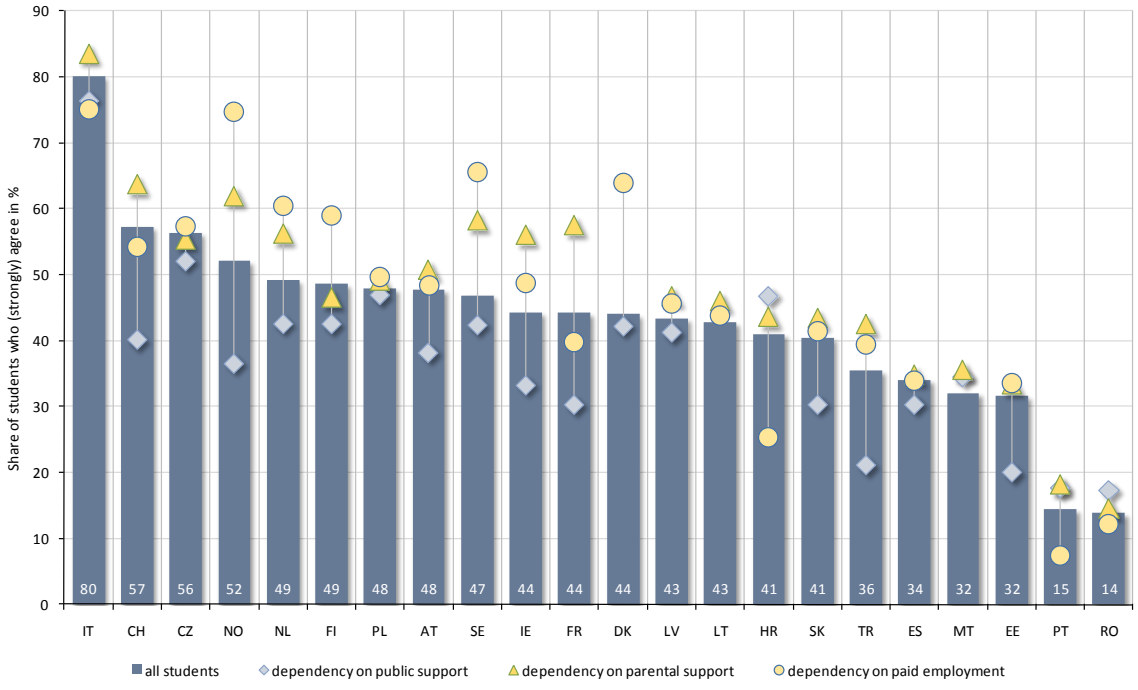
Concentrating on the highest shares of satisfaction by source, 3 country cluster become apparent:

- There are 9 countries where a majority of students who are depending on parental support are (very) satisfied with their financial situation: Italy, Switzerland, the Czech Republic, Norway, the Netherlands, Austria, Sweden, Ireland, and France.
- Dependency on paid employment is considered by a majority of students as (very) satisfying in countries with older students, but not exclusively so; this refers to Italy, Switzerland, the Czech Republic, Norway, the Netherlands, Finland, Sweden, and Denmark.
- When public support is the dominant source of income for students, only in Italy and the Czech Republic more than 50% of the depending students (strongly) agree that this income source provides sufficient means.

This last figure closes this and the previous chapters' look at student financing. The analyses have shown that there are some general trends, some trends in different groups of countries and clear differences between student groups. Policy developments must be sensitive to these facts. Of particular concern has to be the remaining significance of parental support, which may go some way to explaining the continued social exclusiveness of higher education participation shown in previous and ensuing chapters.

Fig. 8.11 Students’ assessment of sufficiency of funding to cover monthly costs by finance-related characteristics – students <u>not</u> living with parents

Students with a dependency on a specific income source with (strong) agreement in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, E.8. No data: DE, DK (parental support), E/W, LT (public support), MT (paid employment), SI.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.1 Who do you live with during the study term/semester (Monday until Friday)?, 3.5 What is the average monthly income at your disposal from the following sources?, 3.7 To what extent do you agree with the formulation? I have sufficient funding in order to cover my monthly costs.

Chapter 9 – Housing situation

Key findings

- **Dominant form of housing:** A student's housing situation is a key element of his/her living conditions. In most countries, living with parents is the dominant form of housing of all students. This accounts e.g. for 50% or more of all students in Malta, Italy, Spain, and Poland.
- **Form of housing by age:** Student age influences the choice of housing type. The older students are, the higher is the share of those who live away from their parents' home. Also, with increasing age of students, living with partner/children becomes more frequent, while living with (an)other person/s becomes a less utilised form of accommodation. Living alone is a form of housing which tends to increase with advancing age of students in most of the countries.
- **Supply of student halls:** Many countries use the supply of student halls to provide cheaper accommodation nearer to university and college campuses. In the Slovak Republic, Turkey, Sweden, Lithuania, Finland, Latvia, Romania, and the Czech Republic over 20% of all students benefit from this form of accommodation.
- **Form of housing by size of study location:** The size of the study location at least partially influences the choice of housing type. Altogether it seems that students whose university is located in a big city tend more to live with their parents compared to their peers in small cities; this holds for Italy, Spain, the Netherlands, France, Latvia, Turkey, Sweden, Norway, and Denmark.
- **Form of housing by social background:** Most students from low social backgrounds live away from their parents. For these students, the dominant form of housing is living with partner/children in most countries; this holds especially for Estonia, Norway, and Finland. Students from high social backgrounds tend to live with their parents, particularly in Malta and Italy.
- **Overall satisfaction with form of housing:** Students' overall satisfaction with their respective form of housing is high. In 14 countries, at least 75% of the students are either satisfied or very satisfied with their chosen accommodation form. Living with parents tends to receive the highest level of satisfaction. In 18 countries, at least 75% of the students who live in their parents' home are either satisfied or very satisfied with their accommodation.
- **Students' travel time:** Students travel about half an hour from their home to the higher education institution across all forms of housing. Students who are living with their parents have to spend most time on travelling (median: 37 minutes), while students who are residing in student halls have the least travel time (median: 15 minutes).

Main issues

This chapter focuses on the distribution of students in different forms of housing. An analysis of the housing form does not merely show where students reside, but can also describe social and financial dependencies. The choice of one form of residency over another is affected by the availability and the individual utilisation of this provision. The demand for a certain type of housing is affected by different factors such as the age of students, their gender, and social background. Furthermore, embedded societal expectations may affect the provision and choice of accommodation during studies. In some countries, where the societal role of the family is traditionally very strong, it is common to continue living with parents until a young person establishes his/her own family. In others, there is a strong tradition that personal independence – expressed also by the form of housing – comes in early life (e.g. with legal maturity).

Irrespective of these aspects, adequate accommodation is – together with sufficient funding – a main framework condition for the 'smooth operation' of studies. Financial concerns with accommodation as part of students' living expenses may have a negative impact on equity of access to higher education, especially for those potential students from families with lower income. For instance, students may have to make a choice between remaining with their parents and studying in the university nearest to this address or choosing an alternative study location, but having to work during studies to cover the expenses for rent. This explains the special relevance of this topic for policy-makers.

EUROSTUDENT differentiates between 4 categories of housing for students, which indeed should cover all alternative types of student accommodation:[1]

- living with parents,
- not living with parents, and...
    - living alone
    - living with partner and/or children
    - living with (an)other person/s (not mentioned above).

For those students who are not living with their parents a special emphasis was placed on those who are

- residing in a student hall.

All these categories of housing have their values; they have advantages and disadvantages, and whether one of them prevails altogether for each type of accommodation does not only depend on the general characteristics of the respective type of housing, but also on the individual conditions of the accommodation. Continuing to live with parents may be comfortable and cheap, but may impose more restrictions on personal liberties than living alone in one's own flat. In turn, living alone may promise a higher level of self-determination, but might require spending (more) time on gainful employment in order to afford this type of housing. Living in a student hall may be stimulating and

[1] Note that this is a new classification compared to EUROSTUDENT III, which only differentiated between 3 types: continue to live with parents or relatives, living in a hall of student residence and rent a private flat or lodging (maintaining own household).

conducive for studies, however, the housing standard might be rather low. There is, therefore, no one single type of housing which is best for all students, and one type of accommodation, which is generally assessed very well in one country may be viewed very differently in another.

Living with parents

Living with parents has for many students the advantage that no additional expenses for accommodation incur due to higher education enrolment (and accommodation is a key expense for students ➝ Chapter 8). Furthermore, this type of residency often includes meals, clothing, and other provisions, which a student receives as transfers in kind (i.e. not as money in cash). These transfers in kind which parents provide might be often considerably higher than transfers in cash the students would have received from their families if they had chosen other types of housing. It may also be quite comfortable to stay at the parents' house when this is located close to the higher education institution. These benefits might be outweighed by the restricted choice of study location, which results from students' immobility. Additionally, a certain independence of the studying 'children' from their parents, which may be conducive to their educational career, could not be achieved if the students continue to live in their parents' home. Moving out of the parents' house and choosing one of the housing forms mentioned below may become inevitable when students wish to or have to attend universities which are far away from their home town; this is especially the case for students from rural areas.

Living alone

Living alone includes any form of housing of the student by him-/herself, irrespective of the type of supply of accommodation. This may be in a private rented flat or in a public hall of residence, where the student is living in a single room. This type of housing best reflects the fact that the student is a young adult, independent and fully responsible for his/her life (if one does not consider parents' remaining financial responsibility in some countries). Even if a student who wants to live on his own has a preference for living in a rented flat, the final choice will be influenced not only by the financial resources available, but also by the availability of flats at affordable prices, which are not too far from the higher education institution.

Living with partner and/or children

Living with partner refers to the person the student shares his accommodation and life with, irrespective of the legal status, i.e. regardless of whether the partners are married or not. Children are in this respect any children the student is living with (e.g. own children, adopted children, stepchildren, etc.). Living with partner/children is clearly linked to the age of students and it is dominating among older students, especially among those who are 30 years or older. This category indicates that students are living in rather tight and stable relationships and that they may also face certain financial responsibilities, especially in the presence of children.

Living with (an)other person/s (not mentioned above)

This is a residual category and refers to any sort of shared accommodation other than 'with parents' or 'with partner/children'. Typical for this type of housing is the sharing of a private flat with other students, but also those dormitories where a student shares a room with fellow students is included. This sort of accommodation enables students to move away from their parents' home without finding themselves isolated. That way they can profit socially but also intellectually from each other. Furthermore, especially in private flats housing expenses can be shared (e.g. for commonly used

goods such as washing machine, dishwasher and furniture), which helps to save money for other purposes. This argument applies, of course, also to other forms of shared accommodation.

Residing in a student hall

Living in student halls is usually the least expensive alternative of the types of accommodation outside parental home. The reason for lower accommodation prices is that student halls of residence are usually subsidised by governments, institutions, charity or other organisations. While the lower expenses are an advantage compared to living in private lodgings, there is another important characteristic of students halls with which this type of housing excels compared to other private forms of accommodation: living in student halls enhances the integration and orientation of students, who might otherwise feel lost in big cities or big universities, or in academia in general. Living with fellow peers may be stimulating for intellectual development, be it in the context of respective studies or beyond. This stimulation might be enforced by extra-curricular services and offerings provided by the residence hall owner or management, or the related higher education institution. When living in student halls, it is likely that students see studying at a higher education institution as their main occupation in this period of their life, which as a consequence may have a positive effect on their duration of study and grades.[2]

General satisfaction with accommodation and daily time for travelling from home to higher education institution

The accommodation which a student ultimately chooses may simply express his/her preferences for a certain type of housing. However, sometimes the realised option is not what the student would prefer the most, instead of this his/her decision is rather driven by need, influenced by limited residential properties and disposable funds. Finally, the realised form of housing – especially when living with parents – may in particular cases not be the consequence of a student's deliberate calculus, but simply the continuation of a hitherto existing form of housing which is not reflected upon. In any case it is interesting to view students' individual assessments of the housing form in which they reside.

A student's decision for moving close to the higher education institution he/she attends or for staying rather far away is directly related to a basic decision on the travelling conditions. Although it may be more comfortable and less costly to live with parents than in a student hall, the students may face a longer journey (in terms of distance and/or time) from their home to the university. Hence, for particular types of housing the daily travelling time from the students' home to their higher education institution is looked at.

[2] Note: In our approach students who are living in a student hall are also included in other categories such as 'alone' and 'with (an)other person/s'. Therefore, to avoid double counting 'living in a student hall' is usually only opposed to 'not living in a student hall'. In case 'living in a student hall' is shown in a figure together with other forms of housing, it was assured that there is no double counting.

Data and interpretation

In most countries, living with parents is the dominant form of housing of all students

Figure 9.1 shows an overview of the forms of student housing in EUROSTUDENT countries. Chart (a) presents the data for all students, while chart (b) describes the situation for Master students.

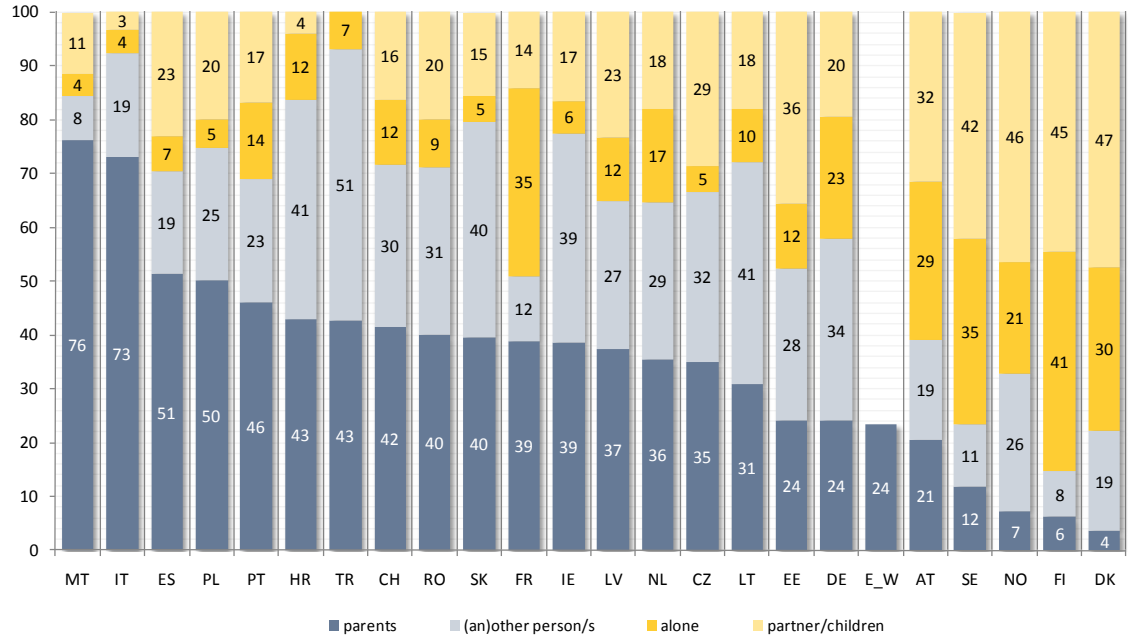
- The biggest group of countries by dominant form of housing consists of those in which the biggest share of students is living with parents. These countries are Malta, Italy, Spain, Poland, Portugal, Croatia, Switzerland, Romania, France, Latvia, the Netherlands, and the Czech Republic.
- The 2nd cluster of countries has the biggest share of students who are living with partner/child(ren) – this refers to Estonia, Austria, Sweden, Norway, Finland, and Denmark.
- In Turkey, the Slovak Republic, Ireland, Lithuania, and Germany, is the largest group of students living with(an)other person/s during their studies.
- There is no country, where living alone is a dominant form of accommodation of all students.

Master students tend to be older and age clearly affects the choice of type of housing. Compared with all students the picture for Master students changes visibly – see Figure 9.1, chart (b). There are 3 big clusters of similar size by number of countries, where a different form of housing dominates for Master students.

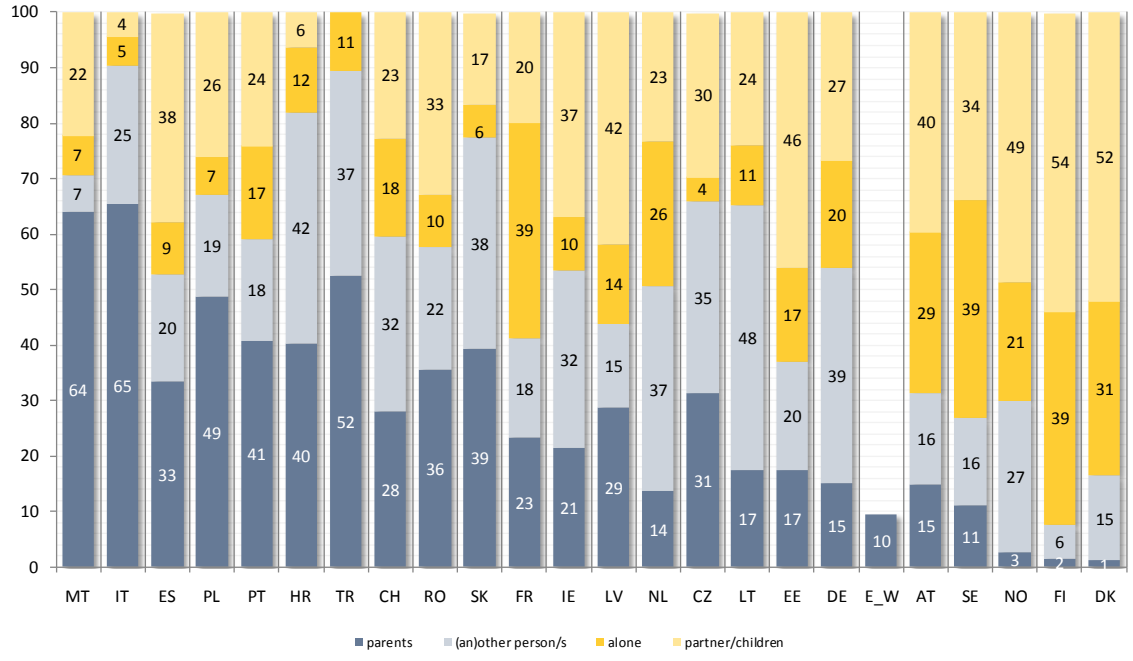
- The biggest group consists of 8 countries in which the biggest share of Master students is living with partner/children; this holds for Spain, Ireland, Latvia, Estonia, Austria, Norway, Finland, and Denmark. This indicates that with advancing age establishing one's own family becomes more frequent for students.
- There are 7 countries – Malta, Italy, Poland, Portugal, Turkey, Romania, and the Slovak Republic – where living with parents is the prevailing form of housing in relative terms.
- In the 3rd cluster of countries, living with (an)other person/s is the dominating form of housing of Master students; this refers to Croatia, Switzerland, the Netherlands, the Czech Republic, Lithuania, and Germany.
- Similar to the findings for all students, living alone is the least preferred type of housing and there are only 2 countries – France and Sweden – where this form of housing was chosen by a relative majority of Master students.

Fig. 9.1 Type of student housing by country

a) All students in %



b) Master students in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, D.1 & D.2. No data: SI. No data for all students (an)other person/s, alone: E/W. No data for all students partner/children: E/W, TR. No data for Master students (an)other person/s, alone: E/W. No data for Master students partner/children: E/W, TR.

EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 1.1 Which programme are you currently enrolled in?, 3.1 Who do you live with during the study term/semester (Monday until Friday)?

In the analysis for all students it was already pointed out that by far the biggest cluster of countries included those countries where the biggest share of students still live with their parents. However, if one compares only 2 basic forms of housing 'living with parents' and – as a residual category – 'not living with parents' with each other, in most countries more than 50% of all students has moved away from their parents' home.

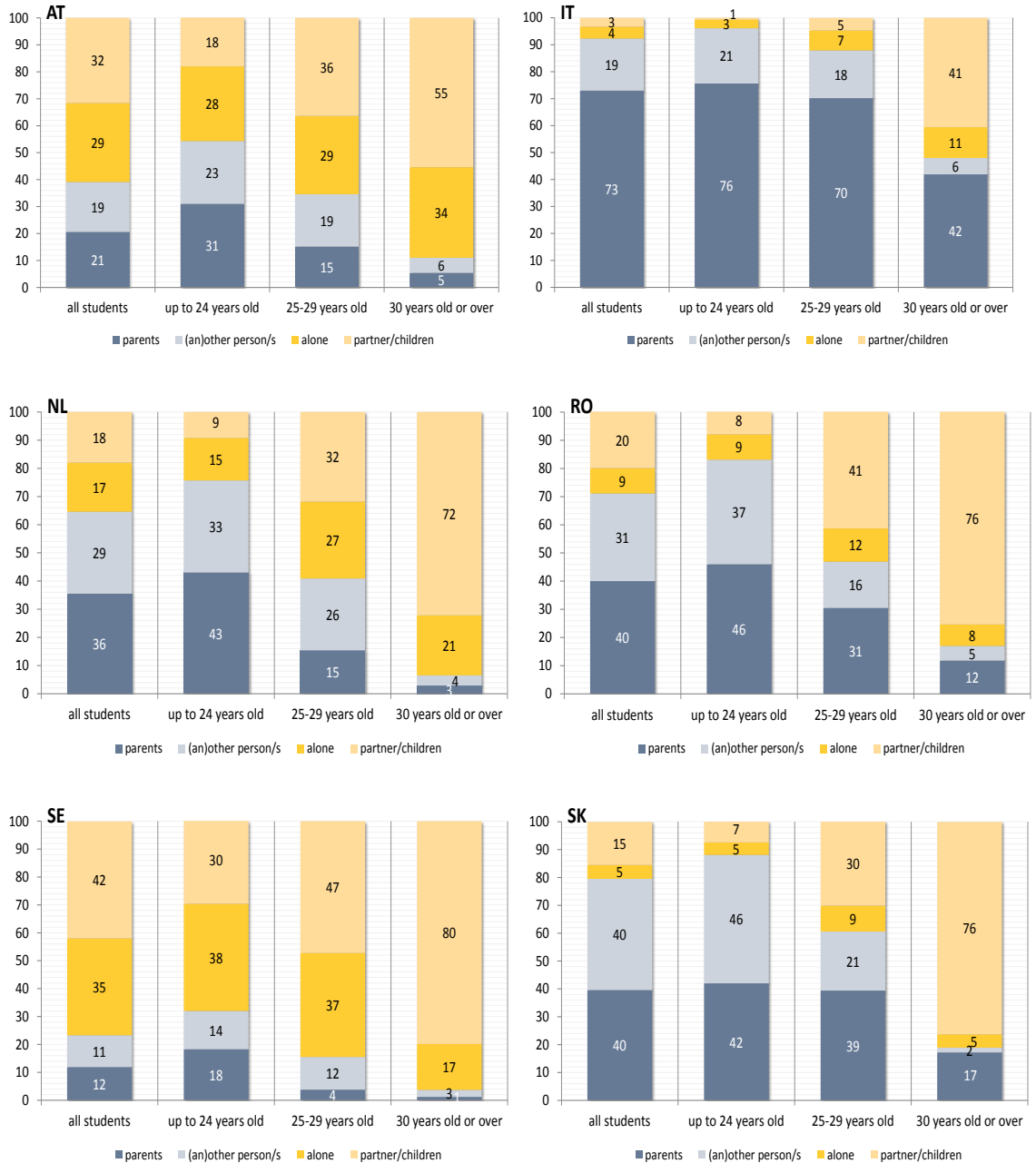
- Only in 4 countries (Malta, Italy, Spain, and Poland) living with parents accounts for 50% or more of the student housing forms. In terms of empowering students as critical consumers, living away from parental home can be viewed positively because this group can generally 'vote by feet' within a higher radius in space when choosing the most appropriate higher education provider. However, this inevitably results in increased student expenditure.
- It is striking that the highest shares of all students living with their parents are to be found predominantly in the Southern European Mediterranean countries (joined by Portugal and Poland): Malta (76%), Italy (73%), Spain (51%), Croatia (43%), and Turkey (43%). At the other end of the scale Denmark reports only 4% of students living with their parents, Finland 6%, Norway 7%, and Sweden 12%.

There are several reasons which could explain this pattern. First of all in the Southern European countries the student body is rather young; the average age of all students ranges between 22 years (Turkey, Croatia) and 24 years (Spain, Malta). In contrast, the student population in the Scandinavian countries is older; in those countries the average age of all students ranges from 25 years (Sweden) to 28 years (Norway). In general, older students clearly tend more to live away from their parents than their younger fellow students (→ Figure 9.2). Furthermore, due to financial constraints it is more difficult for students in the Southern European countries to afford living away from their parents. Further reasons for Scandinavian students for not living with parents may be the location of the higher education institution and the eligibility for public support. In Norway, for instance, the universities are located in regional cities and, therefore, students from outside these regions have to live away from their parents' home when attending those institutions. This might be contrasted with Italy, where there are more urban agglomerations with universities in the vicinity of students' parents' homes. A 2nd reason for the low proportion of students in Norway living with parents is that the Norwegian State Educational Loan Fund (NSELF) discourages students from living at parental home, by only providing grants to those students living in independent accommodations away from their parents (→DRM for Norwegian National Profile from EUROSTUDENT III).

Student age influences the choice of housing type

A further analysis of the share of students living in the 4 types of housing by age highlights several basic trends that can be internationally observed. Figure 9.2 shows these trends for selected countries.

Fig. 9.2 Type of housing by age for selected countries in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, D.1.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.1 Who do you live with during the study term/semester (Monday until Friday)?, 5.1 When were you born?

- The older the students get, the more likely they are to move out of their parents' house. Despite different housing profiles by age, Figure 9.2 shows this common trend for the selected countries including Italy, with the highest share of young students living with their parents (76%), and Sweden, with the lowest share at 18%.
- Also, with increasing age of the students, living with partner/children becomes more frequent, which is reflected by highly increasing shares for this form of housing. This trend can be particularly well seen in the Netherlands, the Slovak Republic, and Romania, but it is equally apparent – albeit on a lower level – for the other countries.
- Accommodations that are shared with (an)other person/s become less utilised, the older the students get. For instance, in the Netherlands and the Slovak Republic, where over 1/3 of students up to the age of 24 live in this form, the share drops to under 5% for the students who are 30 years or older. It is likely that those students change to living with partner/children by increasing age.
- Finally, the share of students who are living alone is increasing with advancing age of the students in most of the countries. In the selected countries this pattern is, however, only reflected by Austria and Italy for all age groups.

Many countries use the supply of student halls to provide cheaper accommodation nearer to university and college campuses

For students who are not living with their parents the analysis pays also attention to those who live in student halls. It is interesting to note how many countries clearly use the provision of student halls to support students – see Figure 9.3.

- In the Slovak Republic, Turkey, Sweden, Lithuania, Finland, Latvia, Romania, and the Czech Republic, over 20% of all students benefit from this form of accommodation.

5 out of these countries are from Central and Eastern Europe. There – as in most other countries – the student hall of residence is usually the least expensive alternative compared with private accommodation, if indeed the latter is sufficiently available. A further reason for high shares of students living in student halls in these former 'centrally planned economies' is high capacities. As a result of high building investments in the past many places in student halls of residence are available – although their quality standards might not always be up to date.

- In Denmark, Estonia, the Netherlands, England/Wales, and Croatia, is the share of students residing in student halls also quite high (at least 15%).

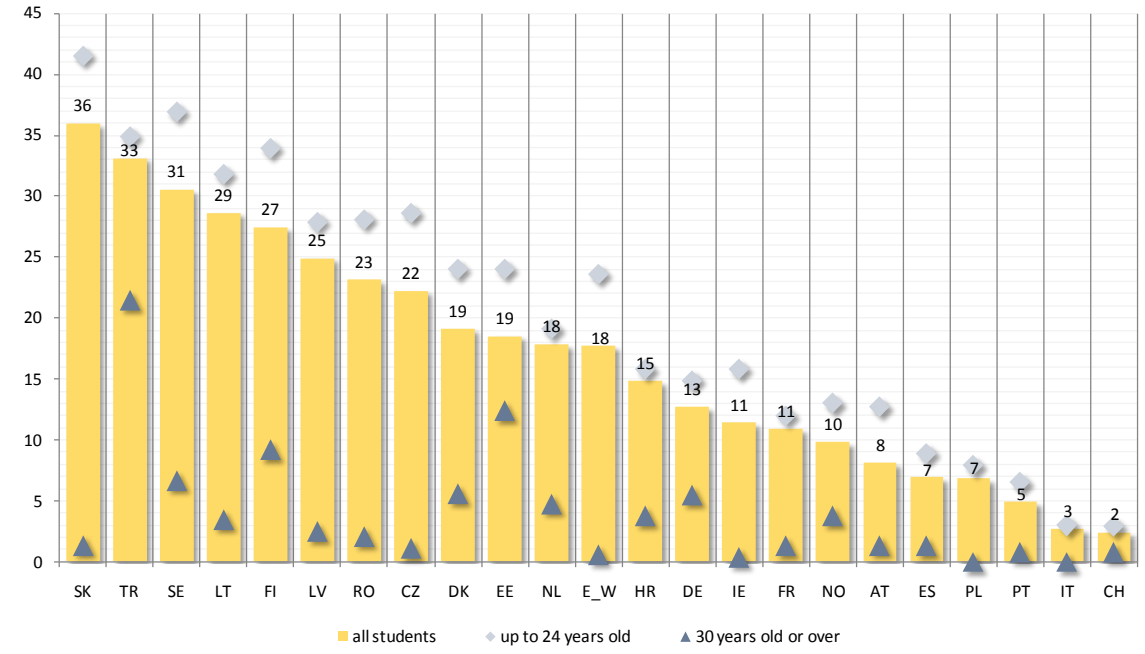
In England/Wales these halls are often owned by the local university or college and built on campus. Whilst they are not substantially cheaper than private accommodation, they offer a location close to the place of study and the chance to live in an academic community. In Finland, where more than 25% of the students are residing in student halls, the public support for this kind of housing is another explanation for the high share of Scandinavian students living away from their parents. The National Profile for Finland from EUROSTUDENT III (→ DRM) notes that these halls of residence are of high standards. They do not simply provide rooms or shared rooms, but also apartments for single students, small groups of students, and even students with families.

The age of the students clearly affects their choice for living in student halls as well, as can be seen in Figure 9.3.

- On average across all countries 20% of the young students (up to the age of 24 years) live in student halls, while this share amounts only to 4% of the older students (who are 30 years or older).
- In each country for which data are available the share of young students residing in student halls is higher than for older students. In the majority of 16 countries the relative difference in these shares are considerable (between 10 and 40 percentage points).
- The lowest differences between the age groups are found in Italy and Switzerland (below 5 percentage points). In these countries living in student halls shows generally the lowest level of utilisation in country comparison.

These findings highlight once more the fact that older students tend more to establish their own families and, therefore, rather live in flats or houses than in student halls of residence. As older students also have markedly higher incomes than their younger peers they are able to afford this form of accommodation.

Fig. 9.3 Students living in a student hall by age
All students, students up to 24 years old and 30 years or older in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, D.1. No data: SI. Too few cases: MT.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.2 Do you live in a student hall?

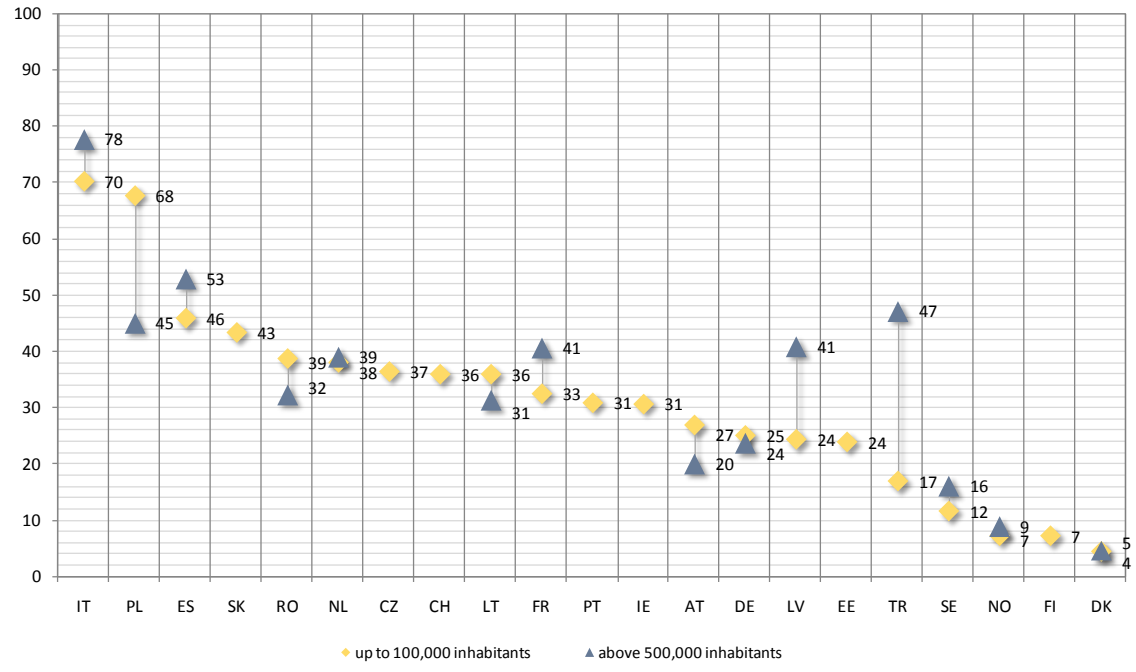
The size of the study location at least partially influences the choice of housing type

A further factor, which may affect the students' decision on the form of housing is the size of study location (i.e. the town in which the higher education institution is situated). Figure 9.4 focuses on the share of students living with their parents and distinguishes between small locations with up to 100,000 inhabitants and big ones that have more than 500,000 inhabitants.

- In the majority of the countries that delivered data for both categories – Italy, Spain, the Netherlands, France, Latvia, Turkey, Sweden, Norway, and Denmark – the share of students who are living with parents is higher in big cities.
- By contrast, in 5 other countries – Poland, Romania, Lithuania, Austria, and Germany – students in small study locations tend more to live with their parents.

The difference in the shares of students living with parents by size of study location is in many cases not very pronounced. Only 3 countries – Turkey, Poland, and Latvia – show a remarkable difference of more than 15 percentage points in these shares, but there is no clear pattern observable for them. While in Turkey and Latvia the share of students who stay with their parents is higher in big cities, the opposite is true for Poland. Altogether it seems that students whose university is located in big cities tend more to living with their parents compared to their peers in small cities. Among other things there are economic reasons for students in big cities to stay with their parents. In bigger cities the price level for accommodation is often higher than in small cities. This seems to be true e.g. for Spain, the Netherlands, France, Latvia, and Turkey, where the average monthly expenses for rent of students who don't live with their parents are higher in big cities than in small cities (→ Chapter 8).

Fig. 9.4 Type of housing by size of study location in % – students living <u>with</u> parents



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, D.3. No data: E/W, HR, MT, SI. No data for locations above 500,000 inhabitants: CH, CZ, EE, FI, IE, PT, SK.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 1.5 Please name the location of the higher education institution you attend., 3.1 Who do you live with during the study term/semester (Monday until Friday)?

This means in many cases students in big cities are either forced to stay with their parents because they simply cannot afford to reside somewhere else or even if they could, they decide in favour of living in their parents' house in order to save high expenses for rent.

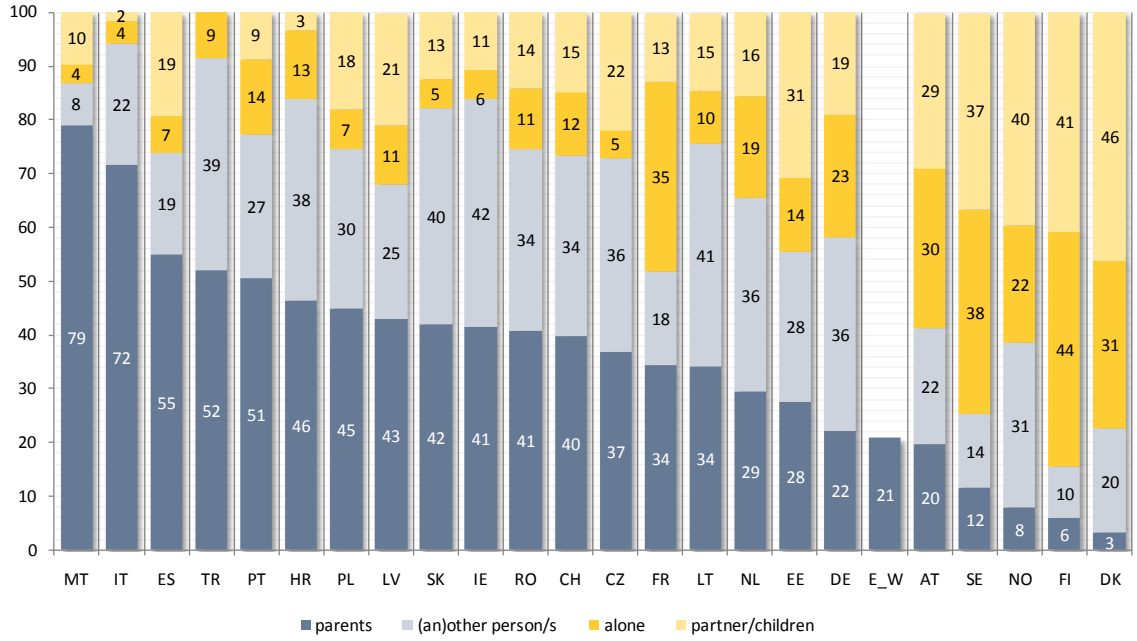
Most students from low social backgrounds live away from their parents

Figure 9.5 investigates whether there is a link between the social background of students and their choice of housing type. In this analysis the highest level of educational qualification of the students' parents – i.e. either of the father or the mother – is taken as an indicator for students' social background (→ Chapter 4). The focus is on the distinction between high and low social background. High social background means that at least one of the student's parents has graduated from education on International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) level 5 or 6, while low social background refers to students whose parents completed education on one of the ISCED levels from 0 to 2. A comparison across countries brings to light 3 main findings.

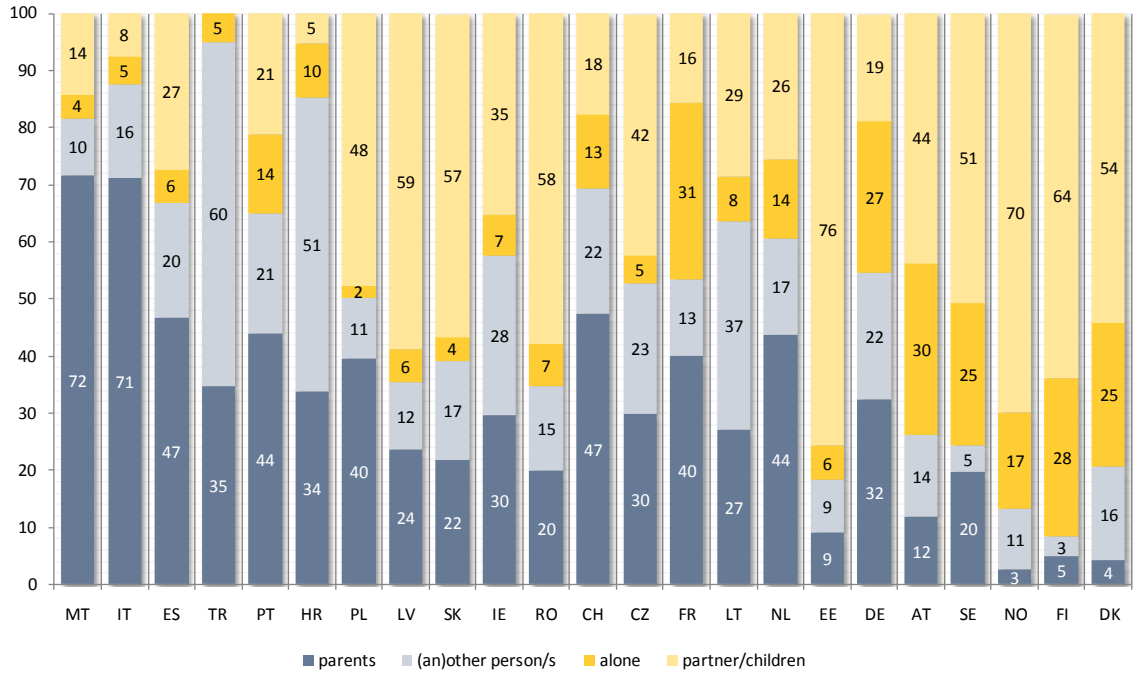
- In the biggest group of countries the most frequent form of housing for students with high social background is living with parents. This is true for Malta, Italy, Spain, Turkey, Portugal, Croatia, Poland, Latvia, the Slovak Republic, Romania, Switzerland, and the Czech Republic. It is striking that there is a regional agglomeration in Central/Eastern and Southern Europe. For the Southern European countries this can be explained among other things by the students' young age, but also by traditionally strong family bonds. These bonds seem not to loosen even if the students can afford to move out of their parents' house, especially as it can be expected that highly-educated parents are able to support their children financially with respect to rent payment.
- For students with low social background the dominant form of housing in most countries is living with partner/children. This is the case in Poland, Latvia, the Slovak Republic, Ireland, Romania, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Austria, Sweden, Norway, Finland, and Denmark. This can be explained best by the age of the students. In all EUROSTUDENT countries (except for Turkey) the average age of students with low social background is higher – and in many cases considerably higher – than for students with high social background (→ Chapter 3); and while younger students clearly tend more to living with their parents, the most frequent form of housing for older students is living with partner/children.
- In the case of Switzerland, Germany, Denmark, France, the Netherlands, and Sweden, is the share of students from low social backgrounds living with their parents higher than for their higher education counterparts. In this group of countries, one therefore might see signs of the economic benefit of remaining at home with parents in order to make participation in higher education affordable.

Fig. 9.5 Students' choice of housing by social background

a) High education background (ISCED 5-6) in %



b) Low education background (ISCED 0-2) in %

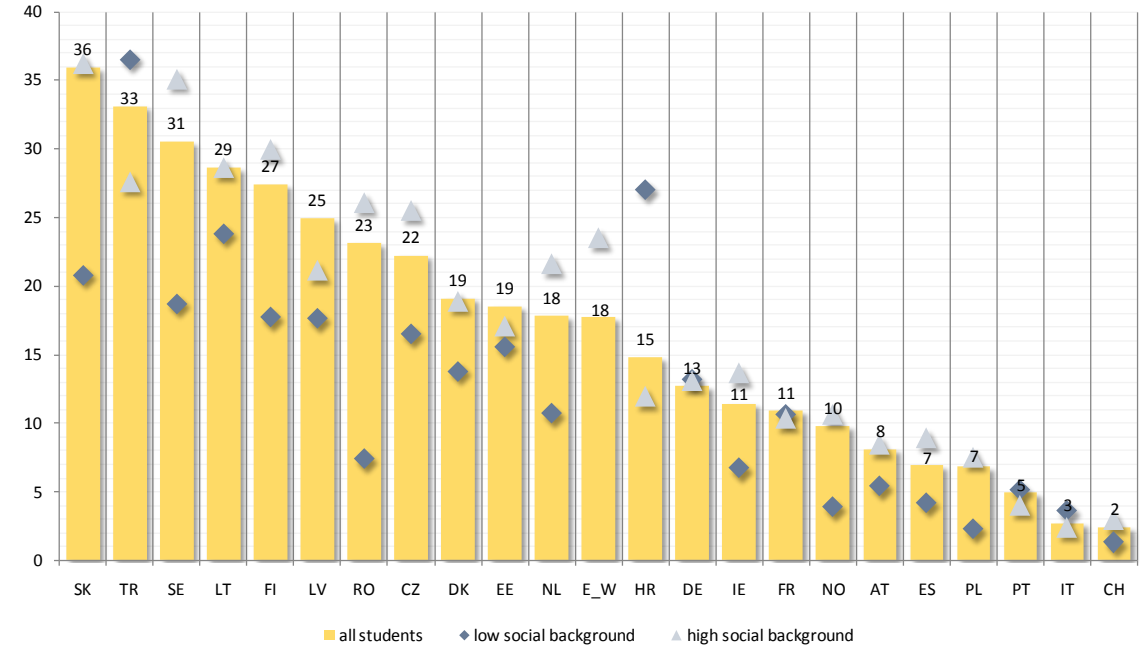


Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, D.4. No data: E/W (low education), SI. No data for high education (an)other person/s, alone: E/W. No data for high education partner/children: E/W, TR. No data for low education partner/children: TR.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.1 Who do you live with during the study term/semester (Monday until Friday)?, 6.1 What is the highest level of education your father and mother have obtained?

Figure 9.6 shows the use of student halls by all students and differentiated by social background. It is obvious that the students' social background also has an impact on their choice for living in student halls.

- 18% of the students with high social background are residing in student halls on average across all countries, while this share amounts only to 13% of the students with low social background.
- In a majority of 17 countries the share of students with high social background who have chosen to live in student halls is higher than for their peers with low social background. The differences in the shares are very pronounced (at least 10 percentage points or more) in the Slovak Republic, Sweden, Finland, Romania, and the Netherlands.
- Only in the European Mediterranean countries Turkey, Croatia, France, Italy, and (the geographical exception) Portugal, is the relationship between the social groups reversed. In those countries students with low social background tend more to live in student halls than their fellow students with 'privileged' social background.
- In Germany the distribution of students in student halls by social background is completely balanced in relative terms.

Fig. 9.6 Students living in a student hall by social background
All students, students with high education background (ISCED 5-6) and low education background (ISCED 0-2) in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, D.1 & D.4. No data: E/W (low education), SI. Too few cases: MT.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.2 Do you live in a student hall?

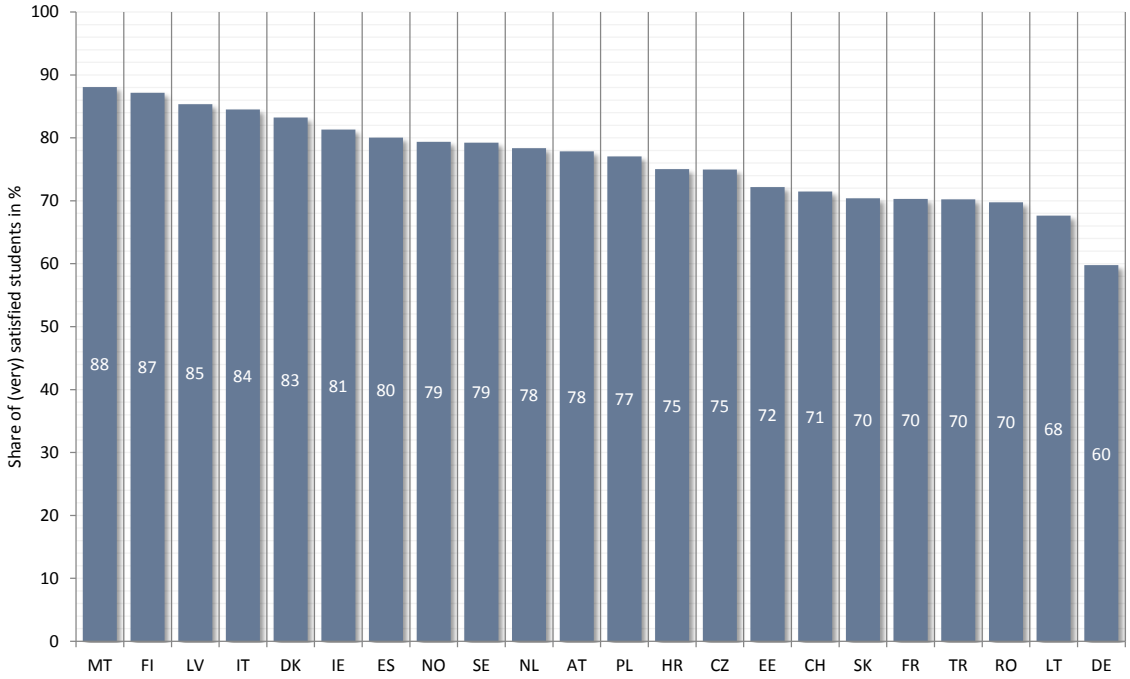
Students' overall satisfaction with their respective form of housing is high

The students' overall satisfaction with their housing situation was measured as the weighted percentage of all students who are either satisfied or very satisfied with the respective type of housing they have chosen. In this analysis the 2 basic types of housing 'living with parents' and 'not living with parents' were included. As shown in Figure 9.7, the general level of satisfaction with the form of housing of students in the EUROSTUDENT countries is very high.

- In 14 countries, at least 75% of the students are either satisfied or very satisfied with their chosen accommodation form. The overall average satisfaction ranges from nearly 90% of all students being (very) satisfied with their type of housing in Malta and Finland to the lowest values of under 70% in Lithuania and Germany.

Irrespective of whether the students' choice of accommodation is motivated either by preferences or rather by need, the overall result indicates that certain basic framework conditions for studies, which the accommodation is part of, are quite satisfying.

Fig. 9.7 Students' overall satisfaction with type of housing
All students in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, D.1 & D.5. No data: E/W, PT, SI.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.1 Who do you live with during the study term/semester (Monday until Friday)?, 3.3 How satisfied are you with your accommodation?
Note: To calculate the overall satisfaction scale, the relative value of satisfaction for each basic type of housing ('living with parents' and 'not living with parents') was weighted by the share of students residing in the respective type. The housing form 'student hall' was not counted again as it is already included in the category 'not living with parents'.

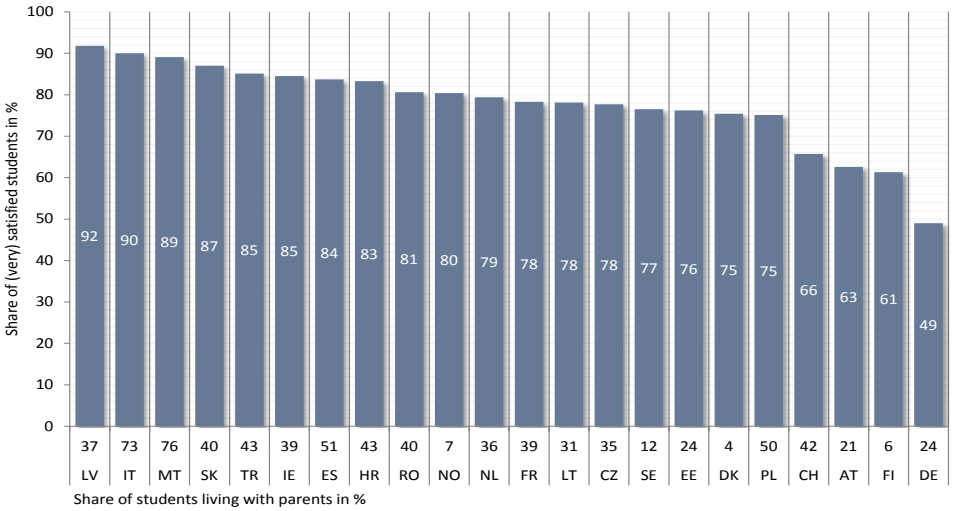
Living with parents tends to receive the highest level of satisfaction

A further analysis of the assessment of types of housing focuses on the question to which extent students are satisfied with different types of accommodation. In Figure 9.8 the share of students living in a certain form of housing is cross-referenced with the level of satisfaction the respective form receives. The focal point is again on those students who assessed their form of housing as satisfying or very satisfying. It is distinguished between the 2 basic forms of housing 'living with parents' and 'not living with parents'. From the latter category the accommodation form 'student hall' is shown separately as it is of special interest. In most countries, students who live with their parents are highly satisfied with this form of housing.

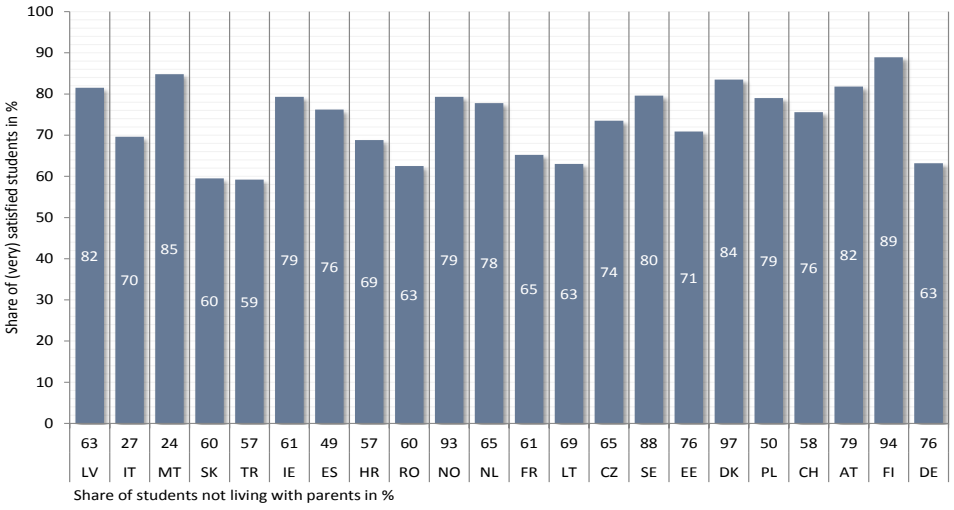
- In 18 countries, at least 75% of the students who live in their parents' home are either satisfied or very satisfied with their accommodation. The countries with the highest appraisal (90% or more) are Latvia and Italy. The high appreciation is independent of whether this form of housing is frequently used (as e.g. in Malta or Italy) or only marginally used (which is the case in Denmark and Norway). The lowest scale of satisfaction is reported for Finland and Germany with values around 60% and 50% respectively. In those countries that reach a comparatively low level of satisfaction for 'living with parents' – Germany, Finland, Austria, and Switzerland – the degree of contentment of the students for the category 'not living with parents' is clearly higher (→ chart [b]). The latter result – though on a lower scale – is also true for Poland, Denmark, and Sweden.
- The residual category 'not living with parents' contains all forms of housing outside the parents' home. Students who make use of one of these housing forms are on average less satisfied than their peers who are living with their parents. Only in 12 countries a satisfaction level of at least 75% of the students who are (very) satisfied is reached. It is interesting that in all those countries where the satisfaction level is rather low – the Slovak Republic, Turkey, Romania, Lithuania, and Germany – the most frequent form of housing for students outside their parents' home is living with (an)other person/s (→ Figure 9.1 chart [a]). This may indicate that this form of housing is considered only as 2nd best option.
- The housing form 'living in a student hall' is included in the category 'not living with parents', but is shown separately due to its importance for social policy. In comparison of the housing forms, 'living in student halls' shows the lowest average level of satisfaction. Only in the Netherlands, Poland, and Finland, reaches the share of (very) satisfied students 75% or more. In these countries the share of all students utilising this form of housing ranges between 7% (Poland) and 27% (Finland). At the other end of the scale the lowest shares of (very) satisfied students are found in Turkey, the Slovak Republic, and Romania, where the level of (high) satisfaction is around 45%. In these countries the share of all students living in student halls is relatively high (between 23% and 36%). This all suggests that a driving argument for this form of housing may have been low housing costs for many students. The more detailed data in the respective National Profiles (→ DRM) provide the opportunity for a more comprehensive analysis of this situation.

Fig. 9.8 Level of satisfaction with chosen type of housing and share of students living in this accommodation form

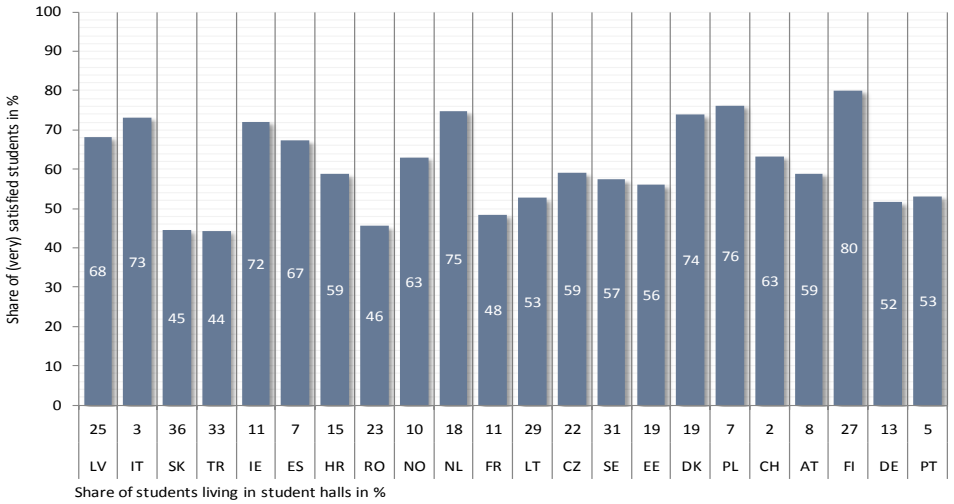
a) Level of satisfaction of students living with parents and share of students living in this form in %



b) Level of satisfaction of students not living with parents and share of students living in this form in %



c) Level of satisfaction of students living in student halls and share of students living in this form in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, D.1 & D.5. No data: E/W, PT (living with parents, not living with parents), SI. Too few cases: MT (student hall).
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.1 Who do you live with during the study term/semester (Monday until Friday)?, 3.2 Do you live in a student hall?, 3.3 How satisfied are you with your accommodation?

Students travel about half an hour from their home to the higher education institution across all forms of housing

The question of the time, which students spend per day on travelling from their home to the higher education institution is important for understanding the choice for a particular form of housing and the consequences of this choice. For example, by staying at their parents' home, students may be able to save some expenses (e.g. for rent and food), however, this may require spending more time – and perhaps also money – on commuting, whenever the parental home is not within immediate vicinity of the university. Data on the travel time of students were analysed for the categories 'all forms of housing' and as part of that for 'living with parents' and 'student halls'. Figure 9.9 shows for these categories the median travelling time of students. Furthermore, special attention was paid on the travelling time budget of those students who are living with their parents.

- Chart (a) shows for the 3 categories a clear trend in the observed countries that students spend the most time on travelling when they are staying at their parents' home. In some countries this is inter alia related to studying in big cities where students tend more to live with their parents and have rather long travel ways to their higher education institution. The median time for travelling from home to the higher education institution (only one way) for all students who are living with their parents is 37 minutes. In country comparison, students in this type of housing spend the most time on travelling (45 to 50 minutes) in the Netherlands, Austria, and the Czech Republic. At the low end of the continuum, there are Malta and Lithuania where students spend no more than 25 minutes on travelling.
- Another commonness of the countries is that students who are residing in student halls have to spend the least time on travelling. The median value for students in this form of housing is 15 minutes. However, Croatian students seem to profit less from this form of accommodation with respect to saving time as they still have to spend 28 minutes on daily commuting for one way. In Estonia, students literally seem to live on campus as it takes them only 5 minutes to cover the distance from student hall to university.
- The median value for the students' travel time across all forms of housing is 25 minutes.

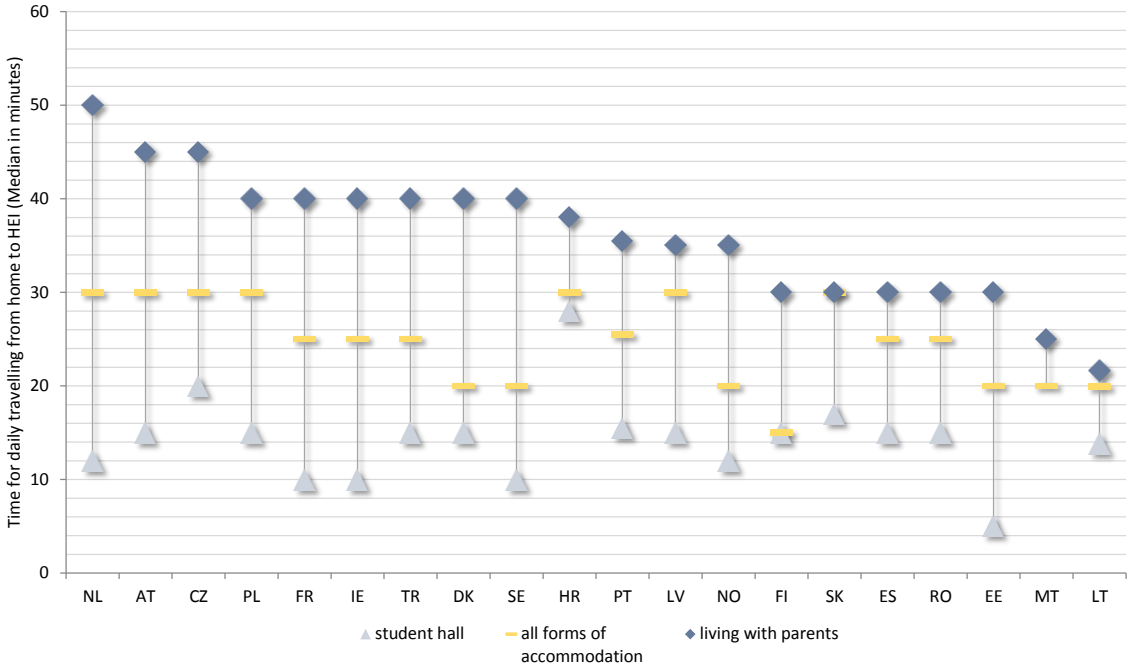
Chart (b) in Figure 9.9 shows the arithmetic mean and the standard deviation for the travel time of students who are living with their parents. As pointed out, living with parents requires the longest travel time in comparison of the 3 categories.

- The overall average travel time (arithmetic mean) across all countries is 40 minutes, which is very close to the median value of 37 minutes. This may indicate that there is an upper limit for the average daily travelling time of students, which is not exceeded or which students are not willing to exceed.
- The Netherlands and the Czech Republic show the highest values for the arithmetic mean (56 and 53 minutes), while the lowest values are found for Malta and Lithuania (29 and 10 minutes).

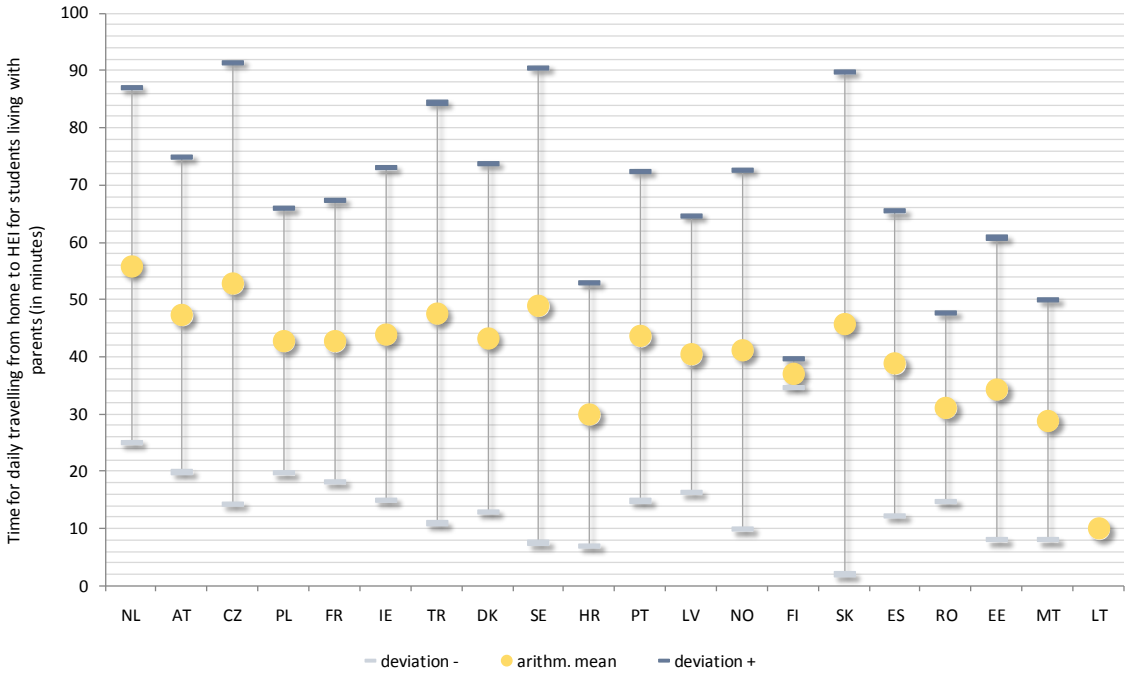
While the median and the mean are important parameters to characterise a distribution, they provide no information on the spread of the values. It is, therefore, also interesting to take a look at the standard deviation. In general, the spread of the values within each country seems to be rather high.

Fig. 9.9 Type of housing and daily time for travelling from home to higher education institution (one way)

a) Travelling time by form of housing in minutes (Median)



b) Travelling time for students living <u>with</u> parents (arithm. mean and standard deviation) in minutes



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, D.7. No data: CH, DE, E/W, IT, LT (standard deviation), SI. Too few cases: MT (student hall).
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.1 Who do you live with during the study term/semester (Monday until Friday)?, 3.2 Do you live in a student hall?, 3.4 On a typical day, what is the time and distance you cover from your home to your higher education institution?

- The highest value is found for the Slovak Republic, where the spread around the arithmetic mean amounts to 44 minutes. This means the travel time for Slovakian students who live with their parents ranges from 2 minutes to 90 minutes.
- The lowest spread is reported for Finland (3 minutes), i.e. there, the students' travelling time differs approximately between 35 and 40 minutes.

From economical point of view it would not be surprising that students who are living with their parents accept long times for travelling. The reason is that direct and indirect costs of travelling are often rather low for students. In many countries students can travel at relatively low direct costs as they receive state support for the use of public transportation. The students' time opportunity costs for travelling (= indirect costs) are generally rather low as well as the value of possible foregone earnings during travel times is low for many students; in addition, for students who are living at their parental home there is in many cases not so much need for earning own money during studies compared to their peers who have an accommodation of their own. This means if the decision for staying at the parents' home is based only on the students' preferences, they are obviously willing to sacrifice plenty of their time for travelling in order to save money for rent and food (as it is to be expected that parents will not charge market prices for these 'services'). If the students' decision for staying at their parents' home is simply driven by need, this means that an independent accommodation closer to the university is either not available or too costly. In this case the students certainly have no other choice but to bear longer travel times.

Chapter 10 – Student mobility

Key findings

- **Potential foreign enrolment rates:** This chapter examines temporary mobility phases that students have realised in the course of their studies. In all EUROSTUDENT countries and across fields of study, the potential foreign enrolment rates at graduation could be considerably higher than the currently measured rates. This does not imply, however, that there is no 'natural boundary' to increasing foreign enrolment rates. In fact, there are substantial shares of students in most countries who neither have foreign enrolment experience nor any plans to gain it. In Poland, the Slovak Republic, Ireland and Lithuania, these shares lie above 80%.
- **Selectivity of foreign enrolment:** Foreign enrolment is socially selective in most EUROSTUDENT countries – including those where the access to higher education in general is rather equitable (e.g. Switzerland, Ireland and the Netherlands). Firstly, the proportion of students who have been enrolled abroad is lower among students from low social background. Secondly, they are planning to enrol abroad less frequently than their peers from high social background. Finally, they are more frequently dissuaded by obstacles such as financial insecurities and a self-perception of language competencies being insufficient.
- **Obstacles to foreign enrolment:** Across EUROSTUDENT countries, the most critical obstacles to foreign enrolment – i.e. the ones perceived by the largest shares of students – are the expected additional financial burden, a separation from the partner, child(ren) and friends as well as an expected delay in the progress of studies. The Scandinavian countries and Romania are the only countries where not the expected financial burden, but the separation from the partner, child(ren) and friends (Finland, Norway, Denmark and Sweden) or problems with the recognition of the results attained abroad (Romania) are the most critical obstacle to enrolment abroad.
- **Sources of funding for enrolment abroad:** Public support is the primary source of funding for foreign enrolment phases, followed by support from students' families. Even in countries where public support is the primary source (especially in Finland, Norway, Estonia, Latvia, the Slovak Republic and Sweden), students fall back on some basic financial support from their families.
- **Organisation of enrolment abroad:** ERASMUS is the main route to foreign enrolment periods (particularly for students in Lithuania, Italy and Estonia), but in most countries the share of students realising a foreign enrolment phase outside of a mobility programme is not insignificant either. Foreign enrolment outside of ERASMUS is especially frequent in Turkey, Malta, Denmark, Sweden and Norway.
- **Foreign language proficiency:** In 2/3 of the EUROSTUDENT countries, more than 20% of students have a (very) good proficiency in at least 2 foreign languages. However, this rate differs by social background.
- **Assessment of foreign enrolment phases:** The overwhelming majority of students considers a foreign enrolment phase as a way to develop personally, but not all students are satisfied with the quality of education in their host countries.

Main issues

Since the initiation of the Bologna Process, the promotion of student mobility has been a key political goal (Sorbonne Joint Declaration, 1998; Bologna Joint Declaration, 1999). It is widely recognised as fostering desirable competences and serving as a catalyst to the realisation of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA). With the Leuven/Louvain-la-Neuve Communiqué (2009) and especially the most recent flagship initiative of the European Commission – Youth on the Move (2010) – the promotion of student mobility has gained new momentum. In 2012, the Bologna Follow-Up Group (BFUG) is expected to present a Mobility Strategy including a Mobility Benchmark for the EHEA.

In line with the increasing attention for student mobility, the awareness has risen that persistent obstacles prohibit the potential of student mobility being fully exploited. Having this in mind, policy-makers at both European and national levels have called for more and better information on the obstacles to mobility as well as the funding and organisational arrangements different countries make use of to support temporary mobility phases. This is the context in which the EUROSTUDENT data were collected. The following paragraphs delineate what these data can tell us about the mobility of students.

Types of mobility

As explained in the ➝ Introduction, the data presented in the Synopsis of Indicators comprise resident students who have obtained their higher education entrance qualification in the country where they were surveyed. In contrast, (foreign) students who have a higher education entrance qualification from another country – so-called diploma mobile students (Kelo, Teichler, & Wächter, 2006) – are not included in these data. This means that the analyses presented in the following refer to temporary mobility phases of returning students, i.e. to students who pursue their studies at a home institution after their stay abroad. Within the EUROSTUDENT framework, this type of student mobility is referred to as study-related experiences abroad or as foreign study-related experiences.[1]

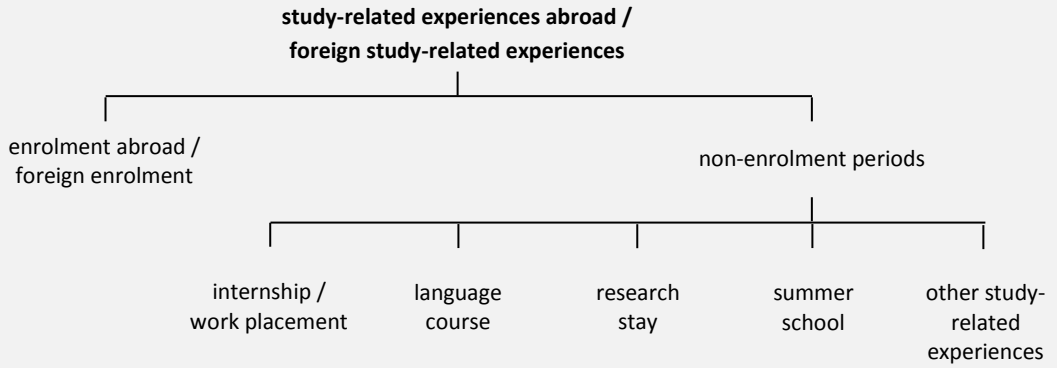
As Box 10.1 illustrates, different types of temporary study-related experiences abroad are captured in the national EUROSTUDENT surveys, including enrolment abroad/foreign enrolment, internships/work placements, language courses, research stays, summer schools and other study-related experiences abroad. In this respect, EUROSTUDENT is a unique data source, as no other study involving such a large number of countries captures systematically temporary mobility phases of students other than enrolment abroad. Still, this chapter concentrates primarily on temporary enrolment abroad, the reason being that it can be considered the archetype of a foreign study-related experience.

Foreign enrolment rates

An eminent issue in the debate about student mobility is the formulation of target marks. Whilst the Bologna Joint Declaration (1999) was still very generally aiming at “the most widespread student mobility”, concrete targets have been put forward in recent years. The most prominent mobility

[1] These 2 terms are used interchangeably in this chapter. In other studies on student mobility, study-related experiences abroad are referred to as credit mobility (cf. Kelo, Teichler, & Wächter, 2006). In terms of the types of sojourns captured, the concept of a study-related experience abroad is largely congruent with the notion of credit mobility. However, in contrast to credit mobility, a study-related experience abroad is not necessarily undertaken with the explicit intention of gaining credit.

Box 10.1 Different types of temporary student mobility



target is arguably that contained in the Leuven/Louvain-la-Neuve Communiqué (2009), which states that "[i]n 2020, at least 20% of those graduating in the European Higher Education Area should have had a study or training period abroad" (p. 4). The formulation of such a concrete political goal caused renewed debates on how to measure mobility rates. This, in turn, led to the realisation that there is currently no instrument that can assess whether this target has been reached or not. In principle, national graduate tracking systems in all EHEA countries capturing both diploma mobility and study-related activities simultaneously would be needed. At present, however, it is only possible to obtain estimates of graduates' mobility rates for a few countries, and in these countries usually only with regard to study-related activities (cf. Schomburg & Teichler, 2006).

A graduate survey has the advantage of tracking study-related experiences throughout the entire study biography; for that reason, it can provide information on the rate of students who have been mobile during their studies. In contrast, a student survey such as EUROSTUDENT addresses students during their ongoing studies. Since students can still have foreign study-related experiences later in their study biographies – i.e. after having been surveyed – a student survey tends to underestimate the eventual mobility rate of graduates.[2] However, an advantage of a student survey is its ability to provide information about students' plans for future mobility during their studies. This allows for a description of the potential mobility rate at graduation and for an estimation of what is referred to as the 'mobility reserve' – that is to say the share of students who are still planning to be mobile during their studies.

Obstacles to enrolment abroad and support infrastructure

Another advantage of a student survey such as EUROSTUDENT is its capacity to tell us how foreign study-related experiences are currently financed and organised, how well students are actually prepared for their stays abroad and which are the prevailing obstacles at present. Unlike a graduate survey, a student survey asks students about their current situation and about events – such as mobility phases – that prevalently date back not more than a few weeks, months or terms; therefore, the time lag between the event observed (here: a foreign study-related experience) and the point in time the survey takes place is usually smaller than in the case of a graduate survey. A student survey

[2] To a lesser extent and for other reasons, this also applies to a graduate survey: It usually misses out on those students who leave their home institution towards the end of their studies in order to complete their degree abroad (e.g. students enrolled in joint degree diplomas where the last study phase is spent abroad). Similarly, it usually does not capture students who abandon their studies shortly before graduation.

thus constitutes a valuable source of up-to-date information for policy-makers wishing to learn from other countries' approaches in dealing with obstacles to student mobility.

The analysis of mobility obstacles focuses on factors that obstruct an *enrolment abroad*. Where possible, the analysis of current obstacles to enrolment abroad should be read in conjunction with the description of national study frameworks (→ Chapters 2-4 & 7-9) and the examination of national support systems presented in this chapter. Thereby, the subjective assessment of the obstacles students perceive can be related to the facts describing their study environments. This procedure does not enable to explain the phenomena observed in a comprehensive manner, but it serves to formulate hypotheses that can inspire further, micro-level research.

As far as national support systems for enrolment phases abroad are concerned, there are huge differences between countries. In the majority of countries, foreign enrolment phases are primarily realised via ERASMUS or other mobility programmes, whereas in a few countries, self-organised foreign enrolment periods are the dominant form. However, in most countries students have to revert to (additional) support from their families in order to be able to realise their foreign enrolment plans, as is shown below.

Not only funding and organisational support influence the likelihood of students becoming temporarily mobile, but also their language interest and proficiency (Goldstein & Kim, 2006; Findlay, King, Stam, & Ruiz-Gelices, 2006; T. Bargel, Multrus, Ramm, & H. Bargel, 2009). For that reason, students' language skills are examined in international comparison in this chapter.

Students' assessment of their enrolment abroad

In the national EUROSTUDENT surveys, students assess to what extent their expectations concerning a selection of important aspects regarding their enrolment abroad were fulfilled. In order to make sure these aspects are relevant for students at all, they were also asked about the importance they attach to the aspects in question. This information adds up to the description of study frameworks as well as the perceived obstacles to enrolment abroad and can be regarded as a basis for rethinking national mobility support strategies. On the one hand, the importance of certain aspects from the students' viewpoint can be set in relation to the rationales policy-makers assert in promoting foreign enrolment periods. On the other hand, students' ex post assessment of different aspects of their foreign enrolment periods can help to identify areas for improvement. With a view to the general discourse on student mobility, this type of information can help to re-open the debate about the quality of mobility, which has recently been eclipsed by the enormous attention given to heightening the rates of temporarily mobile students.

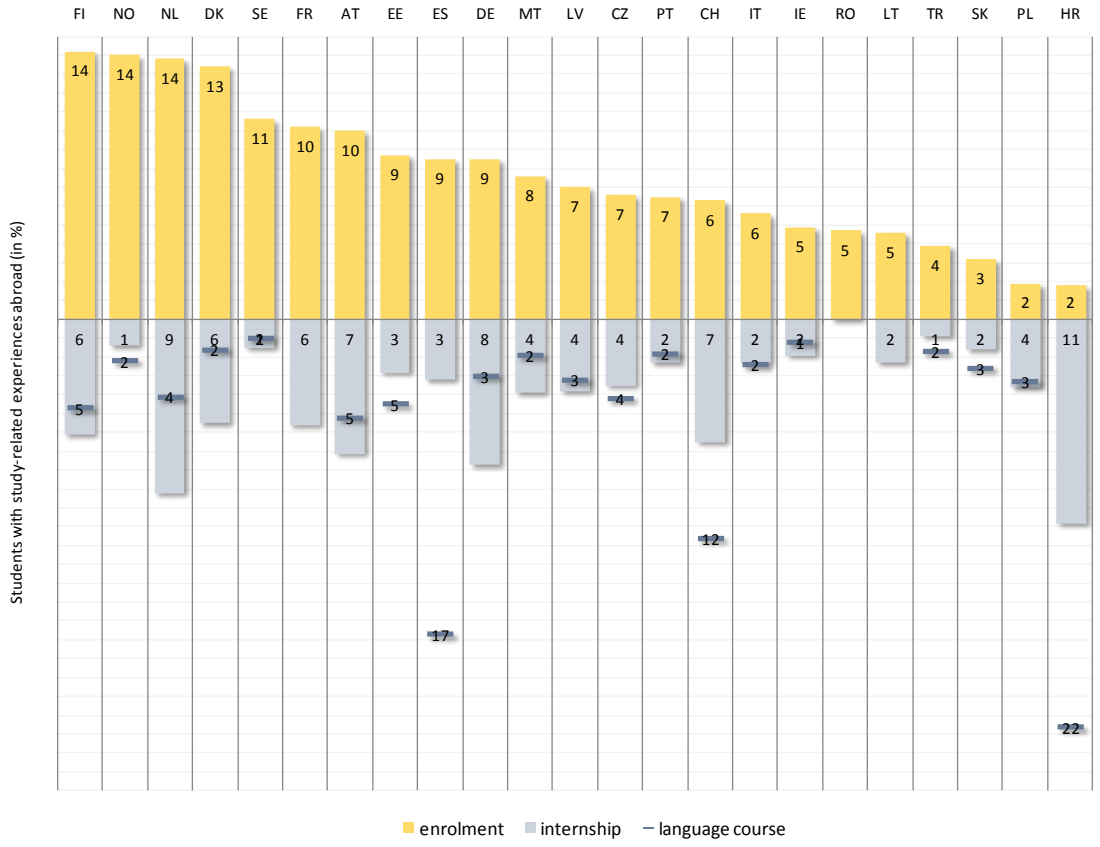
Data and Interpretation

Enrolment abroad is the most frequent foreign study-related experience in the majority of countries, but the enrolment rate differs notably across countries and types of students

How widespread is the phenomenon of students being mobile during their studies? And what types of mobility do students opt for? Which differences between countries are there? Tentative answers to these questions are given in Figure 10.1, which shows the rates of students who have been enrolled, realised an internship or taken a language course abroad. As was explained under the Main issues, these rates refer to the cross-section of EUROSTUDENT surveys and are therefore lower than they would be for graduates.

- By comparing the rates for different types of student mobility, it becomes apparent that enrolment abroad is the most frequent study-related experience in the majority of countries. The foreign enrolment rate varies from below 5% in Turkey, the Slovak Republic, Poland and Croatia to over 10% in Finland, Norway, the Netherlands, Denmark and Sweden. It is noticeable that foreign enrolment rates are comparatively low in Eastern and especially South-Eastern countries and comparatively high particularly in the Scandinavian countries.

Fig. 10.1 Students who have made study-related experiences abroad by type of experience in %
(multiple answers possible)



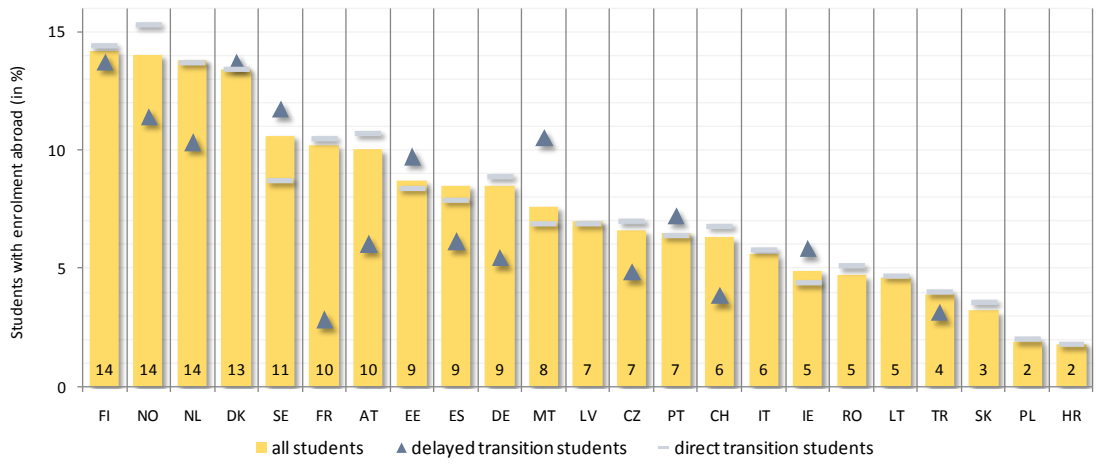
Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, I.1 & I.4. No data: E/W, MT, SI. Too few cases for internships: RO. Too few cases for language courses: FR, RO, LT.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 4.1 Have you been enrolled abroad in a regular course of study?, 4.6 Have you been enrolled abroad for other study-related activities during your study programme?

- In some countries – such as Norway, Sweden, Portugal and Ireland – mobile students focus almost exclusively on foreign enrolment phases. In a few countries with medium to low foreign enrolment rates, students take language courses abroad relatively frequently (e.g. Spain, Switzerland and Croatia). There is no country where the internship abroad is the most frequent study-related experience. Still, internships abroad are realised comparatively frequently among students in the Netherlands, Austria, Germany, Switzerland and Croatia.

The foreign enrolment rates presented in Figure 10.1 conceal that within countries, different types of students rarely have the same propensity to enrol abroad temporarily. One of the harshest differences exists between direct and delayed transition students (→ Glossary), which is illustrated in Figure 10.2.

- In the majority countries for which data on this type of student are available, delayed transition students have a much lower foreign enrolment rate than their peers entering higher education through a direct route. Arguably, delayed transition students are less mobile because they are older (→ Chapters 2 & 4) and not least therefore more attached personally and professionally to their current place of residence.
- However, this explanation does not apply to all countries shown in Figure 10.2. In a few countries, the foreign enrolment rate of delayed transition students is very similar or even higher than that of direct transition students (Finland, Denmark, Sweden, Estonia, Malta, Portugal and Ireland).

Fig. 10.2 Students who have been enrolled abroad by type of student in %



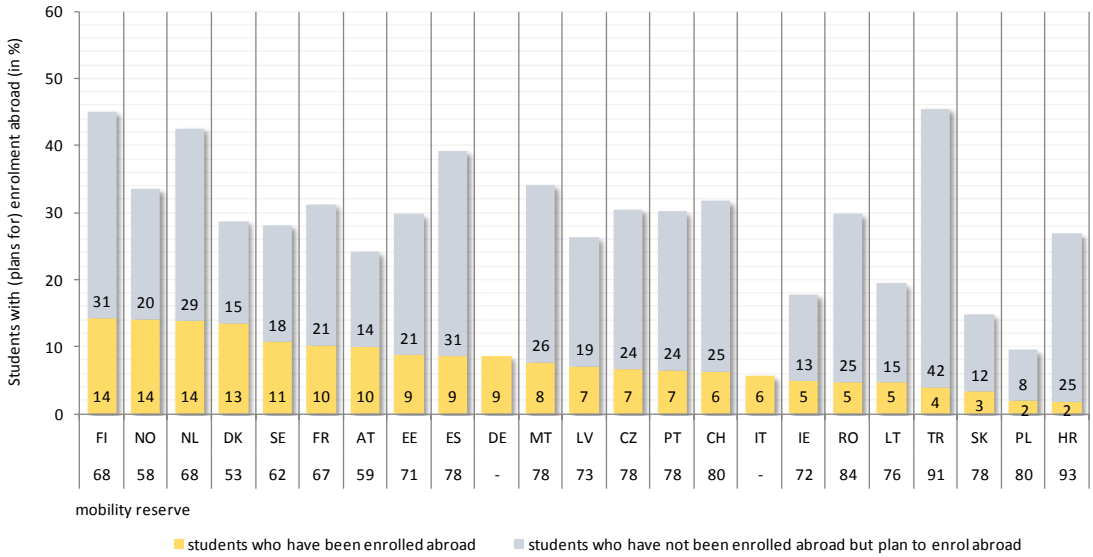
Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, I.1. No data: E/W, SI. Too few cases for delayed transition students: HR, IT, LT, LV, PL, RO, SK.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 4.1 Have you been enrolled abroad in a regular course of study?, 2.2 What qualification did you use for higher education entry?, 2.3. When did you get the qualification you used for higher education entry?, 2.3 When did you enter higher education for the first time?

In all EUROSTUDENT countries and across fields of study, the potential foreign enrolment rates at graduation could be considerably higher than the currently measured rates

As elaborated under the Main issues, there is currently a strong political interest in increasing the rate of temporarily mobile students. To do so, better knowledge is required about the willingness of national student populations to embark upon a foreign study-related experience. For that reason, most national EUROSTUDENT surveys ask students for their plans to realise a foreign enrolment period in the future, either during the ongoing programme, during a future programme or during the interim time between 2 programmes.

The lower bars in Figure 10.3 show the shares of students who have been enrolled abroad. The upper bars illustrate how large are the shares of students who have not been enrolled abroad (yet) but who intend to realise a foreign enrolment period in the future.[3] Taken together, the 2 bars indicate the *potential foreign enrolment rate*, i.e the foreign enrolment rate that would be measured after the graduation of all surveyed students, provided that all of the latter eventually took up their foreign enrolment plans. Figure 10.3 also contains an operationalisation of the term '*mobility reserve*': The numbers below the country labels show how large is the planned but yet unrealised foreign enrolment (upper bars) as a percentage share of the potential foreign enrolment (upper plus lower bars). 2 things should be noted as far as the 'mobility reserve' is concerned: Firstly, the 'mobility reserve' depends on the average semester of students in the national samples, which slightly differs across countries. Secondly, there is arguably no country where the 'mobility reserve' will be fully exploited, as students' plans might change in the course of their studies or – more importantly – be obstructed by external obstacles (see following subsections).

Fig. 10.3 Students who have been enrolled abroad in relation to students who have not been enrolled abroad but plan to enrol abroad in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, I.1. No data: E/W, SI. No data for plans for enrolment abroad: DE, IT.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 4.1 Have you been enrolled abroad in a regular course of study?
Note: The numbers below the country labels are an operationalisation of the term 'mobility reserve'. To obtain the 'mobility reserve', the values from the upper bars were divided by the sum of the values of the upper and the lower bars.

[3] Not included in Figure 10.3 are students who have not been enrolled abroad and who do not plan to enrol abroad (cf. Figure 10.6).

- In the majority of countries for which data are available, the share of students who have not (yet) been enrolled abroad but plan to enrol abroad in the future lies at 15% or higher. Only in Austria, Ireland, the Slovak Republic and Poland, this share lies below 15%.
- The 'mobility reserve' is substantial in all countries for which data are available. Countries where a lot of students' willingness to enrol abroad temporarily has been 'exploited' already are Norway, Denmark and Austria. On the contrary, the 'mobility reserve' is huge in international comparison in Romania, Turkey and Croatia.
- In the majority of countries for which data are available, the potential foreign enrolment rate exceeds 20%. It lies at 20% or below only in Ireland, Lithuania, the Slovak Republic and Poland.

Which implications do these findings have for the 20% Mobility Benchmark? As mentioned under the Main issues, the Mobility Benchmark refers to graduates within the EHEA. In its current design, it comprises both diploma and credit mobility. In the context of the Benchmark, credit mobility includes both study and training periods abroad. Figure 10.3, in contrast, gives account only on students' (potential) foreign enrolment rates – and thus only on one of the types of mobility to be captured in the Mobility Benchmark. Even assuming that a considerable number of students will not be able to realise their foreign enrolment plans due to obstacles they will be impaired by in the further course of their studies, many countries have reached the 20% goal by now or will do so in the coming years just based on the foreign enrolment rate of their graduates. Some of these countries (e.g. Spain) have comparatively low estimated outbound diploma mobility rates (Kelo, Teichler, & Wächter, 2006). This raises the question whether the 2 types of mobility should be considered together in one benchmark, or whether there should be several benchmarks for different types of mobility.

Both the share of students having been enrolled abroad and the share of students with plans for an enrolment abroad differ across fields of study. By way of an example, students of humanities and arts are compared to students of engineering, manufacturing and construction in Figure 10.4.

- In almost all countries where data on both fields of study are available, the foreign enrolment rate of students in humanities and arts is (considerably) higher than that of their peers in the fields of engineering, manufacturing and construction, the reason being discipline-specific traditions and the respective curricular contents. Students of humanities and arts – and especially of foreign languages – are enrolled in an inherently more culturally-orientated field of study than students of engineering, manufacturing and construction; spending part of the studies abroad to learn a foreign language or get to know a foreign culture is often a learning outcome in itself in the humanities and arts.[4]
- The share of students planning a foreign enrolment is also higher in the fields of humanities and arts. However, the difference to the share of engineering, manufacturing and construction students is not as expressed as in the case of the realised foreign enrolment rates. Therefore,

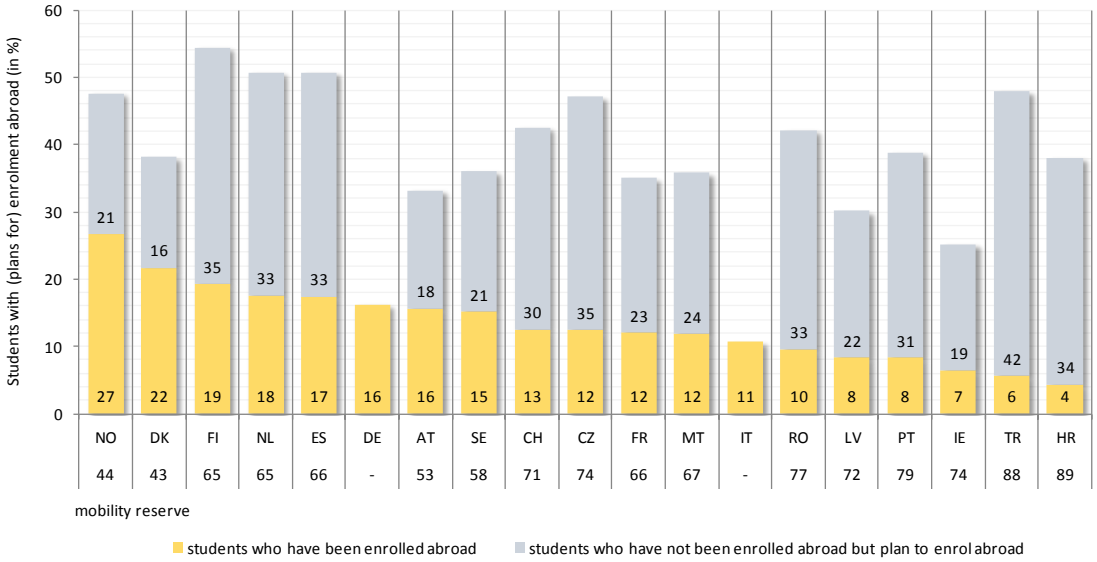
[4] A notable exception to this pattern can be found in France, where the foreign enrolment rate is higher for students of engineering, manufacturing and construction. According to Orr & Riedel (2009), this has to do with the fact that in France, many students of engineering, manufacturing and construction are enrolled at the *Grandes Écoles*, where it is obligatory to spend part of the studies abroad. Additionally, the recognition of an engineering diploma by the *Commission des Titres d'Ingénieur* is dependent on English language competence, which many students intend to gain or improve through study-related experiences abroad.

their willingness and determinedness to enrol abroad temporarily should not be underestimated. Still, a comparison of the potential foreign enrolment rates makes clear that foreign enrolment is and will for some time remain a less common phenomenon in the engineering, manufacturing and construction disciplines than in the humanities and arts.

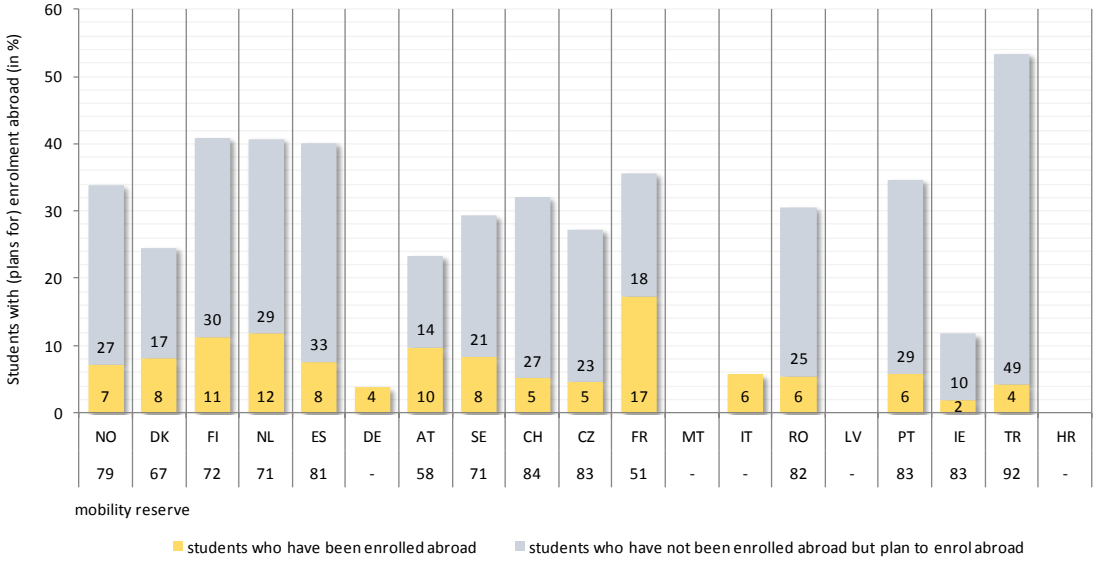
- Setting the share of students planning an enrolment abroad in relation to the potential foreign enrolment rates shows that the 'mobility reserve' is (substantially) higher for students of engineering, manufacturing and construction in all countries but France and Turkey.

Fig. 10.4 Students who have been enrolled abroad in relation to students who have not been enrolled abroad but plan to enrol abroad by field of study

a) Students of humanities and arts in %



b) Students of engineering, manufacturing and construction in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, I.2. No data: E/W, LT, SI. No data for plans for enrolment abroad: DE, IT. Too few cases for students of humanities and arts: EE, PL, SK. Too few cases for students of engineering, manufacturing and construction: EE, HR, LV, MT, PL, SK. EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 4.1 Have you been enrolled abroad in a regular course of study?, 1.4 What is the programme you follow? Note: The numbers below the country labels are an operationalisation of the term 'mobility reserve'. To obtain the 'mobility reserve', the values from the upper bars were divided by the sum of the values of the upper and the lower bars.

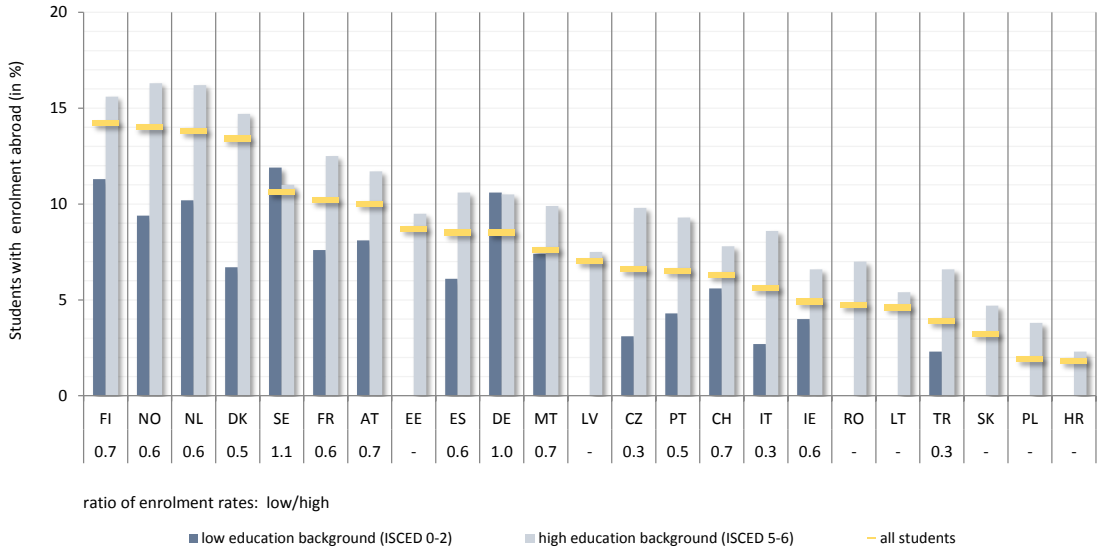
To what extent students in different fields of study manage to realise their foreign enrolment plans arguably depends on their personal motivation and the institutional support they receive. At least for the time being, many students still face motivational, organisational and especially financial obstacles to enrolment abroad during the course of their study (see subsection on obstacles to foreign enrolment below). Another important influence factor is the social background of students.

Foreign enrolment is socially selective in most EUROSTUDENT countries, which is visible already at the planning stage

Previous studies have pointed out that students' participation in study-related experiences is contingent on their social background in most European countries (Orr, Schnitzer, & Frackmann, 2008; Souto-Otero & McCoshan, 2006). Being aware of such social imbalances in the access to foreign study-related experiences, the European Minsters Responsible for Higher Education have called for "an improved participation rate from diverse student groups" (Leuven/Louvain-la-Neuve Communiqué, 2009, p. 5). As the data collected in the 4th round of EUROSTUDENT show, their postulation was indeed justified. Figure 10.5 juxtaposes the foreign enrolment rates of students from low education background (ISCED 0-2) and those of students from high education background (ISCED 5-6).

- Where data are available for both categories, the foreign enrolment rate of students from high education background (right bars) is substantially higher than that of students from low education background (left bars). In all countries where the ratios below the country labels are smaller than one, students from low education background are underrepresented in the group of students having realised a foreign enrolment phase. Only in Germany and Sweden, the ratios are (rather) balanced. It should be noted that students from low education background are a comparatively small group of the overall student body in these countries, which partially receives better (financial) support than students from medium education background (ISCED 3-4).

Fig. 10.5 Students who have been enrolled abroad by social background in %



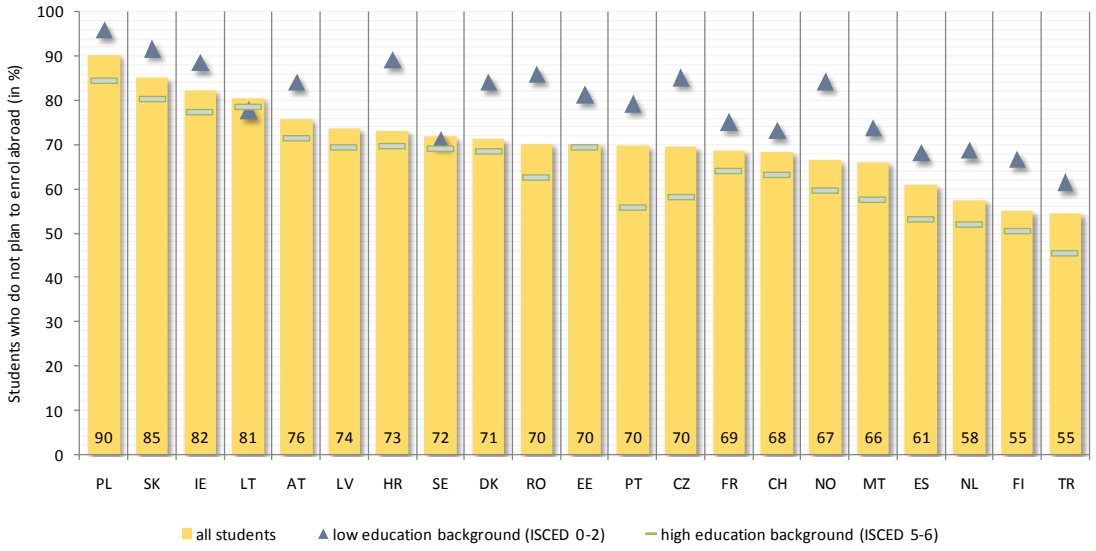
Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, I.1 & I.3. No data: E/W, SI. Too few cases for students with low education background (ISCED 0-2): EE, HR, LT, LV, PL, RO, SK.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 4.1 Have you been enrolled abroad in a regular course of study?, 6.1 What is the highest level of education your father and mother have obtained?

- Interestingly, the access to foreign enrolment periods is socially selective also in those countries where the access to higher education in general is rather equitable, like in Switzerland, Ireland and the Netherlands (→ Chapter 3). Possibly, this is not a mere coincidence, but the result of students from high education background trying to distinguish themselves from their peers with low education background through the realisation of foreign enrolment periods abroad. Further research in needed to test this hypothesis; there is currently no European-wide study on this issue.

Not only is the foreign enrolment rate of students from low education background lower, they are also planning a foreign enrolment period less frequently, as can be seen in the National Profiles and the → Data Reporting Module (DRM). This, in turn, implies that among students from low education background the aspiration to realise a foreign enrolment phase is less expressed (Figure 10.6).

- In all countries apart from Lithuania and Sweden, the share of students who have not been enrolled abroad and who do not plan to do so is visibly higher among students from low education background than among students from high education background. To a great extent, this finding can be explained by students from low education background experiencing a variety of obstacles more intensely than their peers from high education background (see following subsection).
- The magnitude of the share of students not planning an enrolment abroad is considerable regardless of students' education background. One can conclude that there are 'natural boundaries' to foreign enrolment rates. Clearly, the striking majority of students is not planning an enrolment period abroad in the majority of countries. This should be taken account of in the formulation of national as well as European mobility target marks.

Fig. 10.6 Students who have not been enrolled abroad and who do not plan to enrol abroad by social background in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, I.1 & I.3. No data: DE, E/W,IT, SI. Too few cases for low education background (ISCED 0-2): LV.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 4.1 Have you been enrolled abroad in a regular course of study?, 6.1 What is the highest level of education your father and mother have obtained?

In practice, it is difficult to distinguish between students who do not plan a foreign enrolment period simply because they do not wish to go abroad and those who would in principal like to enrol abroad for some time but are impaired by certain obstacles. The line between a conscious wish to refrain from enrolling abroad and socio-cultural imprints hindering students is thin. This poses a challenge not only for data collectors, but especially for policy-makers as well as people being involved in facilitating foreign enrolment phases on the ground. In this respect, students' assessment of the obstacles to foreign enrolment can serve as a toehold for identifying areas where supportive initiatives are needed.

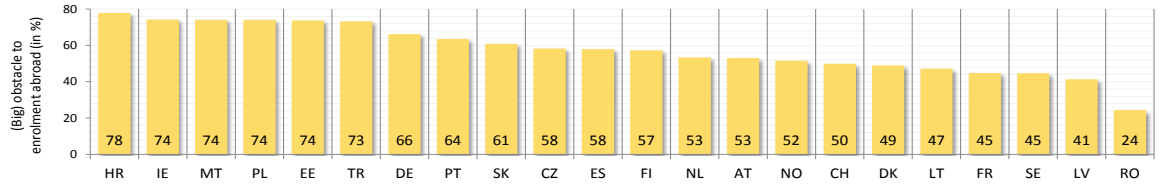
The assessment of obstacles to foreign enrolment varies by the type of student and country under observation, but financial difficulties are experienced across the board

Which are the major obstacles to realising foreign enrolment phases? And do these obstacles differ between countries and types of students? Answers to these questions are given in Figure 10.7, which shows the shares of students considering a selection of 7 issues as big or very big obstacle to enrolment abroad. Figure 10.7 refers to all students who have *not* been enrolled abroad temporarily and thus includes both students without any foreign study-related experiences and those with foreign study-related experiences other than enrolment.

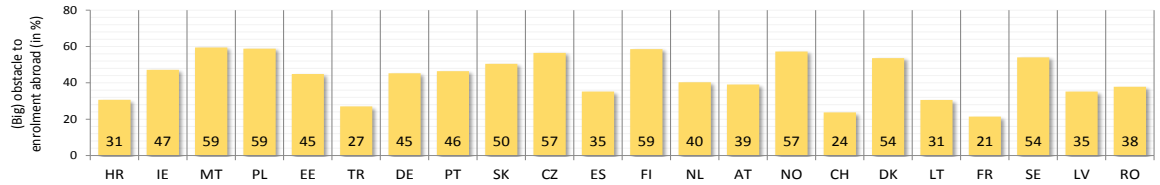
- In the striking majority of countries, the additional financial burden associated with a foreign enrolment period is the single most critical (big) obstacle dissuading students from realising a foreign enrolment period. The respective shares of students are particularly high (above 70%) in Croatia, Ireland, Malta, Poland, Estonia and Turkey. The Scandinavian countries and Romania are the only countries where not the expected financial burden, but the separation from the partner, child(ren) and friends (Finland, Norway, Denmark and Sweden) or problems with the recognition of the results attained abroad (Romania) are the most critical obstacle to enrolment abroad.
- The separation from the partner, child(ren) and friends is the 2nd most critical obstacle on average. Among the countries in which the largest shares of students regarding this issue as (big) obstacle to an enrolment abroad can be found are not only the Scandinavian ones, but also Malta, the Czech Republic and Poland. This can be explained by the fact that student populations in these countries – especially in Scandinavia – are comparatively old (→ Chapter 4) and that starting the family planning at an earlier age generally carries more weight than in other countries.
- An expected delay in the progress of studies is a (big) obstacle for more than 20% of students in all countries apart from Denmark, Latvia and especially Turkey. Countries in which a comparatively large share of students fears the progress of their studies being hampered by foreign enrolment periods are Portugal, Austria and above all Germany.
- Students consider problems with the recognition of results achieved abroad as a (big) obstacle to foreign enrolment especially in the South-Eastern and Eastern European countries Croatia, the Slovak Republic, the Czech Republic and Romania. In contrast, this issue is a (big) obstacle to enrolment abroad for much lower shares of students in Norway, Switzerland, Denmark, Sweden and Latvia.

Fig. 10.7 Students who have not been enrolled abroad considering certain issues as (big) obstacle to an enrolment abroad by specific obstacles in %
(multiple answers possible)

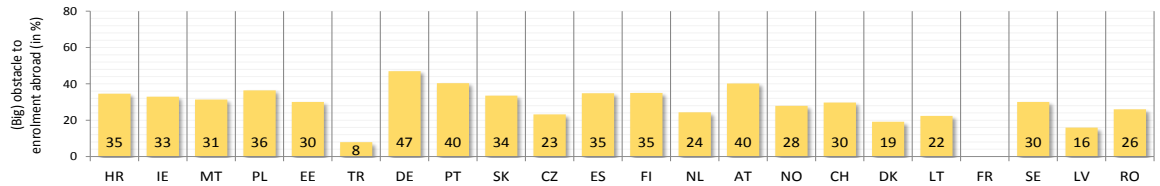
a) Expected additional financial burden



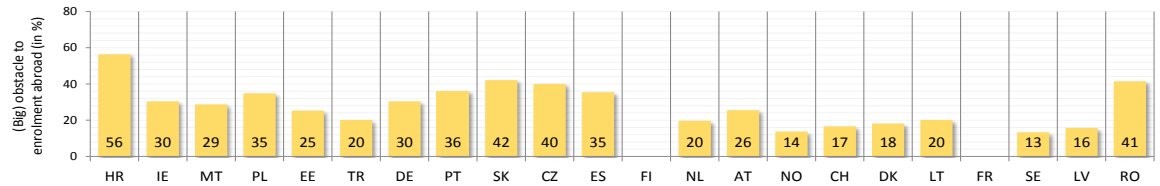
b) Separation from partner, child(ren), friends



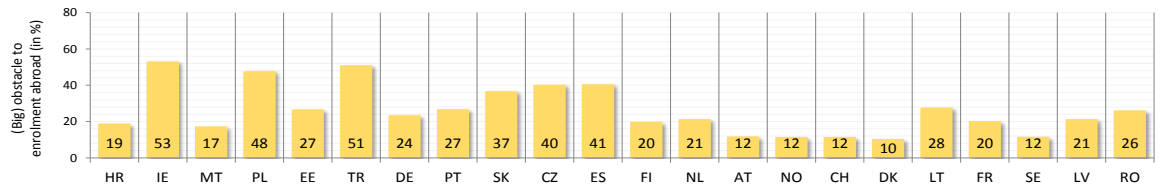
c) Expected delay in progress of studies



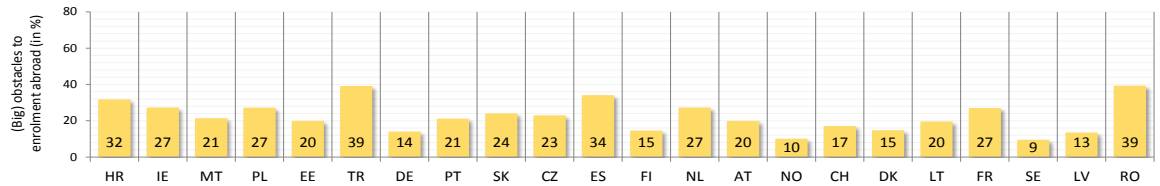
d) Problems with recognition of results achieved abroad



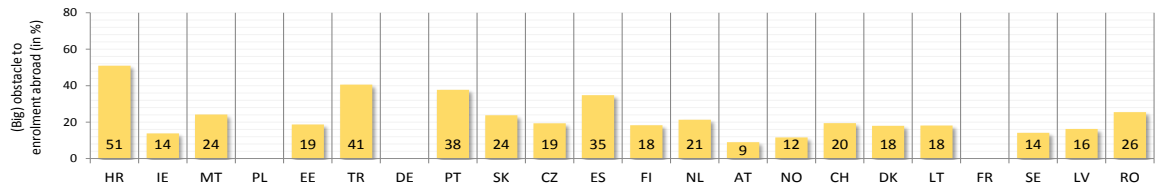
e) Insufficient foreign language skills



f) Difficulty in getting information



g) Limited access to mobility programmes in the home country



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, I.8. No data: E/W, IT, SI. No data for expected delay in progress of studies: FR. No data for problems with recognition of results achieved abroad: FI, FR. No data for limited access to mobility programmes in the home country: DE, FR, PL.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 4.1 Have you been enrolled abroad in a regular course of study?, 4.5 To what extent are the following aspects an obstacle to an enrolment abroad for you?

- In Austria, Norway, Switzerland, Denmark and Sweden, the shares of students considering their (supposedly) insufficient foreign language skills as a (big) obstacle to enrolment abroad are very low in international comparison. In contrast, there are a number of countries in different geographical regions where the perceived lack of language competency is of much greater concern (e.g. Ireland, Poland and Turkey).
- Students have difficulty in getting information on foreign enrolment especially in Croatia, Turkey, Spain and Romania. In these countries, comparatively large shares of students (above 30%) consider information deficits as a (big) obstacle to enrolment abroad. The respective shares are relatively low (at 15% or below) in Germany, Finland, Norway, Denmark, Sweden and Latvia.
- Finally, an (allegedly) limited access to mobility programmes is perceived as a (big) obstacle to enrolment abroad primarily in the Southern and South-Eastern European countries Croatia, Turkey, Portugal and Spain (by 35% or more of the students) and much less so in the Northern and Central European countries Ireland, Austria, Norway and Sweden (by less than 15% of students).

One the one hand, this analysis has shown that there exist major obstacles – mainly of financial and social nature – that are virulent in the majority of EUROSTUDENT countries. One the other hand, it has illustrated that in each country, an individual 'mix' of obstacles is dissuading students from enrolling abroad, which can only be explained comprehensively against the background of a country's history, its national student support schemes, the topics currently dominating the national higher education debate, etc.

The perceived obstacles to enrolment abroad do not only differ across countries, but also between types of students within countries, as is illustrated in Figure 10.8. This figure shows the shares of students from low and high education backgrounds who consider 2 selected issues as (big) obstacles to an enrolment abroad: financial insecurities (chart a) and the perceived lack of language competency (chart b). With regard to the category "financial insecurities", it has to be noted that it is an aggregate category of 4 items contained in the EUROSTUDENT core questionnaire (→ Appendix D).[5] Figure 10.8 refers to all students who have not been enrolled abroad temporarily.

- In all countries shown in Figure 10.8 chart (a), the share of students from low education background perceiving financial insecurities as a (big) obstacle to enrolment abroad is higher than the respective share of students from high education background. The difference between the 2 groups is comparatively large in countries such as Poland, Italy and – although at a lower absolute level – Switzerland. It is relatively small for instance in Croatia, Finland, Austria and Denmark.
- As far as the perceived lack of language competency is concerned, a similar picture is visible (chart b). In all countries but Denmark, the share of students considering insufficient language skills as an obstacle to foreign enrolment is larger among students from low education background than among students from high education background. Countries (next to Denmark)

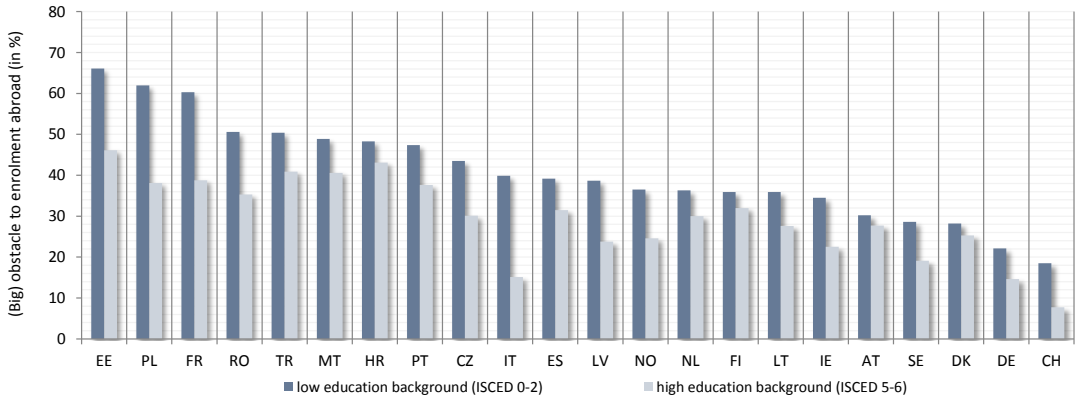
[5] The category "financial insecurities" is an aggregate of the following items: expected additional financial burden, loss of opportunities to earn money, loss of social benefits, problems with accommodation in the home country (→ Data Delivery Handbook).

in which the difference is rather small are France, Malta and the Netherlands. The difference is relatively large e.g. in Norway as well as the Czech Republic and enormous in Estonia and Poland.

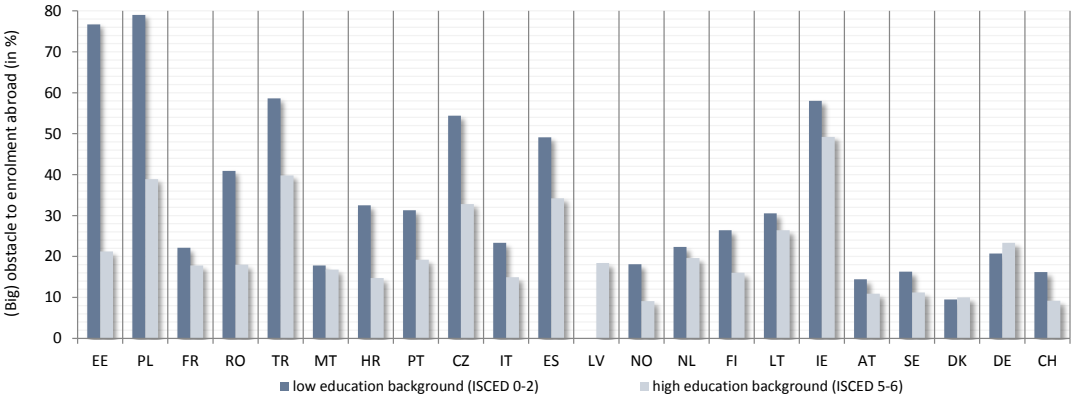
The fact that students from low education background experience these critical obstacles more intensely helps to explain why they are realising and even planning a foreign enrolment phase less frequently than their peers from high education background (see Figures 10.5 and 10.6).

Fig. 10.8 Students who have not been enrolled abroad considering certain issues as (big) obstacle to an enrolment abroad by specific obstacles and social background in %
(multiple answers possible)

a) Financial insecurities



b) Lack of language competency



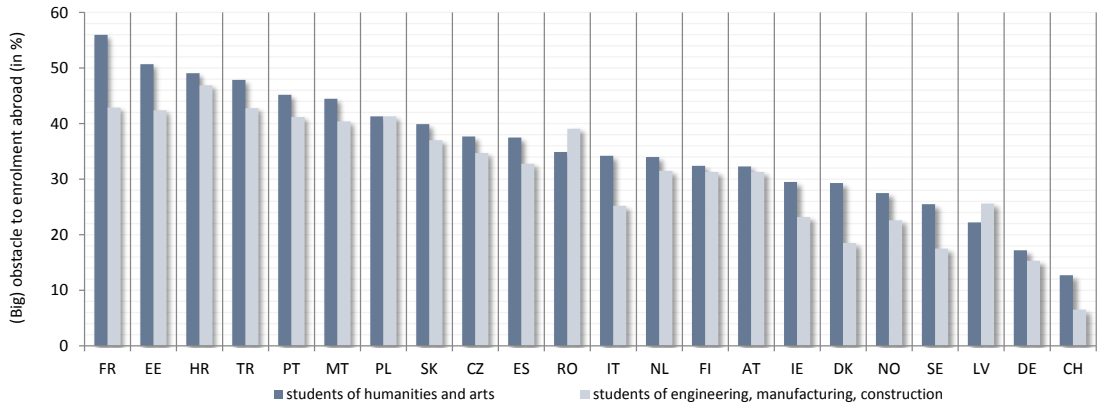
Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, I.10. No data: E/W, SI, SK. Too few cases for lack of language competency, students from low education background (ISCED 0-2): LV.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 4.1 Have you been enrolled abroad in a regular course of study?, 4.5 To what extent are the following aspects an obstacle to an enrolment abroad for you?, 6.1 What is the highest level of education your father and mother have obtained?
Note: The category "financial insecurities" is an aggregate of the following items: expected additional financial burden, loss of opportunities to earn money, loss of social benefits, problems with accommodation in the home country (→ Data Delivery Handbook).

Next to students' education background, the field of study they are enrolled in matters for their assessment of obstacles to foreign enrolment. On the one hand, this is due to the idiosyncratic study structures and learning modalities in certain fields of studies. On the other hand, it can be explained by the specific characteristics of students entering these study fields and the role a foreign enrolment period plays for their study biographies and labour market chances.

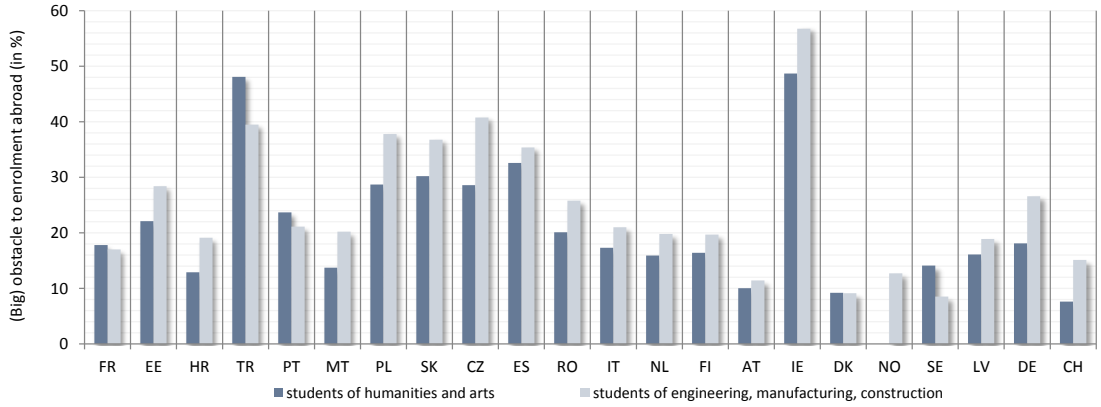
Exemplarily, the differences in the assessment of the 2 selected obstacles to foreign enrolment between students of humanities and arts and students of engineering, manufacturing and construction are displayed in Figure 10.9. Again, this figure concentrates on students who have not been enrolled abroad.

Fig. 10.9 Students who have not been enrolled abroad considering certain issues as (big) obstacle to an enrolment abroad by specific obstacles and field of study in %
(multiple answers possible)

a) Financial insecurities



b) Lack of language competency



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, I.9. No data: E/W, LT, SI. Too few cases for lack of language competency, students of humanities and arts: NO.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 4.1 Have you been enrolled abroad in a regular course of study?, 4.5 To what extent are the following aspects an obstacle to an enrolment abroad for you?, 1.4 What is the programme you follow?
Note: The category "financial insecurities" is an aggregate of the following items: expected additional financial burden, loss of opportunities to earn money, loss of social benefits, problems with accommodation in the home country (→ Data Delivery Handbook).

- In the majority of countries, the share of students considering financial insecurities as a (big) obstacle to enrolment abroad is larger among students of humanities and arts than among students of engineering, manufacturing and constructing. This difference is comparatively large in France, Italy, Denmark, Sweden and – again at a much lower absolute level – Switzerland. In a few countries, there is no noteworthy difference between the 2 groups (Croatia, Poland, Finland and Austria) and in Romania and Latvia, students of engineering, manufacturing and construction are refraining from foreign enrolment phases due to financial insecurities more frequently.
- The share of students perceiving a lack of language competency as (big) obstacle to an enrolment abroad is larger among students of engineering, manufacturing and construction in most countries. This difference is particularly visible in the Czech Republic and Germany. Students of humanities and arts are less often impeded from enrolling abroad by language skills perceived as insufficient because many of them are in fact studying foreign languages. Interesting exceptions in this respect are students of engineering, manufacturing and construction in Turkey and Sweden, who are often enrolled at schools which teach in English language or offer additional English courses. Presumably for that reason, they are less often dissuaded from enrolling abroad by language skills perceived as insufficient.

The analysis of the perceived obstacles to enrolment abroad calls for an examination of how foreign enrolment phases are supported financially and organised in different countries. This analysis is conducted in the following.

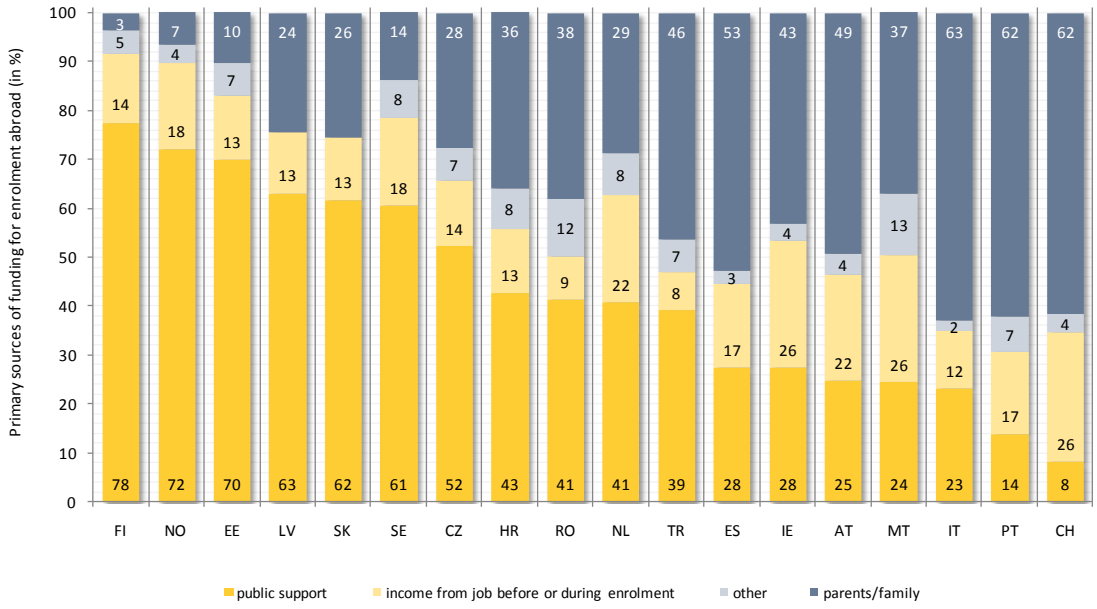
Public support is the primary source of funding for foreign enrolment periods, but support from students' families follows closely behind

As financial barriers are the most intensively felt obstacle to enrolment abroad, it shall be analysed in more detail how students actually fund their temporary enrolment phases in different countries. In first instance, it is important to note that there are various conceivable sources of funding. In Figure 10.10, a distinction is made between 4 basic types of sources: public support, resources from the parents or family, income from jobs and other sources of funding.

The category on public support is an aggregate of 4 subcategories: home state grants (non-repayable), home state loans (repayable), EU study grants as well as study grants or loans from the host country. In a similar vein, the category on income from jobs comprises revenues from employment both before and during a foreign enrolment phase.[6] Figure 10.10 illustrates which are the primary sources of funding for foreign enrolment phases in different EUROSTUDENT countries.

- In more than 50% of the countries for which data are available, public support is the primary source of funding for foreign enrolment periods. This type of funding is particularly important in Finland, Norway, Estonia, Latvia, the Slovak Republic and Sweden, where over 60% of students indicate public support to be the primary source. Only in Portugal and Switzerland is the share of students considering public support as the primary source below 20%. Public support can thus be considered as a backbone for the realisation of foreign enrolment phases.

Fig. 10.10 Students indicating a particular source as primary source of funding for their enrolment abroad by type of source in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, I.6. No data: DE, DK, E/W, FR, SI. Too few cases: LT, PL.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 4.3 Which of the following sources did you use to fund your enrolment abroad and which one of them was your primary source of funding?

[6] Disaggregated data on these 2 aggregate categories are available in the ➝ DRM.

- The 2nd most frequently mentioned primary source of funding is the support from students' parents and their families in general. In approximately 45% of countries presented in Figure 10.10, family support is considered as the primary source of funding for enrolment abroad. This source is primary for over 50% of students with foreign enrolment experience in Spain, Italy, Portugal and Switzerland.
- Even though income from work is not mentioned as primary source as often as public and family support, it should be noted that in all countries but Romania and Turkey, more than 10% of students mention income from work as the primary source of funding for foreign enrolment. This source the main source for over 20% of students in the Netherlands, Ireland, Austria, Malta and Switzerland.

Figure 10.10 provides information on the primary sources of funding for enrolment abroad. It is also possible to ask which of the various sources students are *utilising*. This is examined in the following. In doing so, special emphasis is placed on differences by education background.

In many countries, students from high education background utilise both public and private financial support disproportionately frequently

Among the sources of funding for enrolment abroad, public support has a particular position. Not only is public support the most frequently mentioned primary source of funding for foreign enrolment periods across countries; it is also the most important leverage policy-makers have at their disposal to influence the number of students enrolling abroad temporarily. Public support is arguably the most effective instrument to counterbalance social disparities in the access to foreign enrolment. Maybe not surprisingly, students from low education background indicate public support as their primary source for funding enrolment abroad more frequently than students from high education background in most countries for which data on both categories are available. In turn, students from high education background consider family support as primary source more frequently (→ DRM, Subtopic I.6). This, however, does not mean that students from high education background *utilise* public funds less frequently, as can be seen in Figure 10.11. This figure provides information on the share of students who utilise 2 selected types of public support to fund a foreign enrolment phase (home state grants and EU study grants). These sources are attractive because they do not have to be paid back by students.

- Both with regard to home state grants and EU study grants, the share of students utilising them varies substantially across countries. There is an – albeit vague – tendency that the share of students falling back on a home state grant is lower in countries where the share of students having an EU study grant is higher, and vice versa.
- The share of students with home state grant is particularly high in Norway, Italy, Sweden, the Netherlands and especially in Finland.[7] In contrast, the share of students utilising an EU study grant is comparatively high in Austria, Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania. This highlights an interesting regional difference between the Baltic and the Scandinavian countries: While public support is crucial for funding foreign enrolment phases in both the Baltic States and Scandinavia, they differ

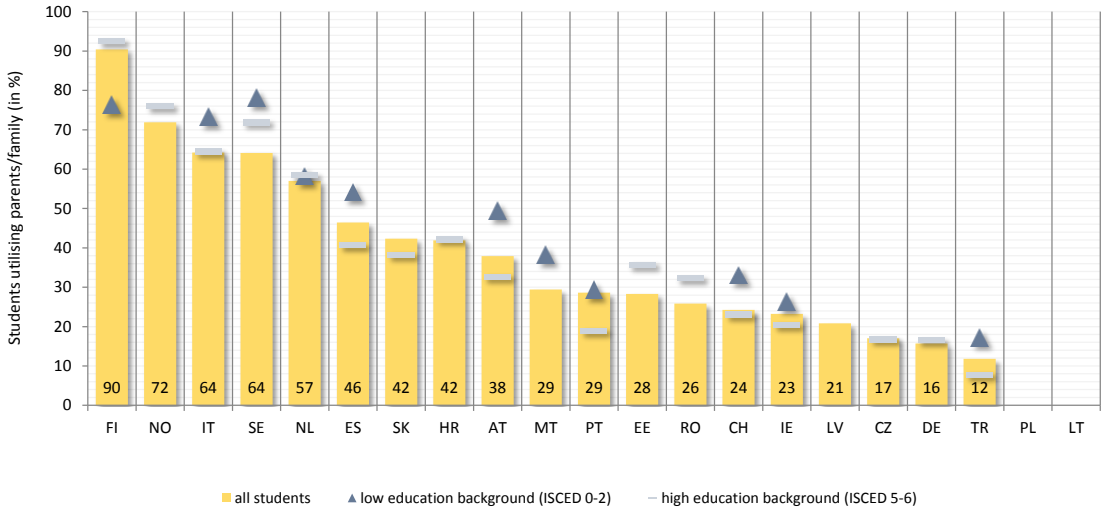
[7] The particularly high value for Finland can explained by the fact that students have access to an extra grant for mobility phases, next to their already notable universal student support and the funds from the Nordplus programme.

in that students from the former mainly revert to European funds, while the latter are primarily funded through national public sources.

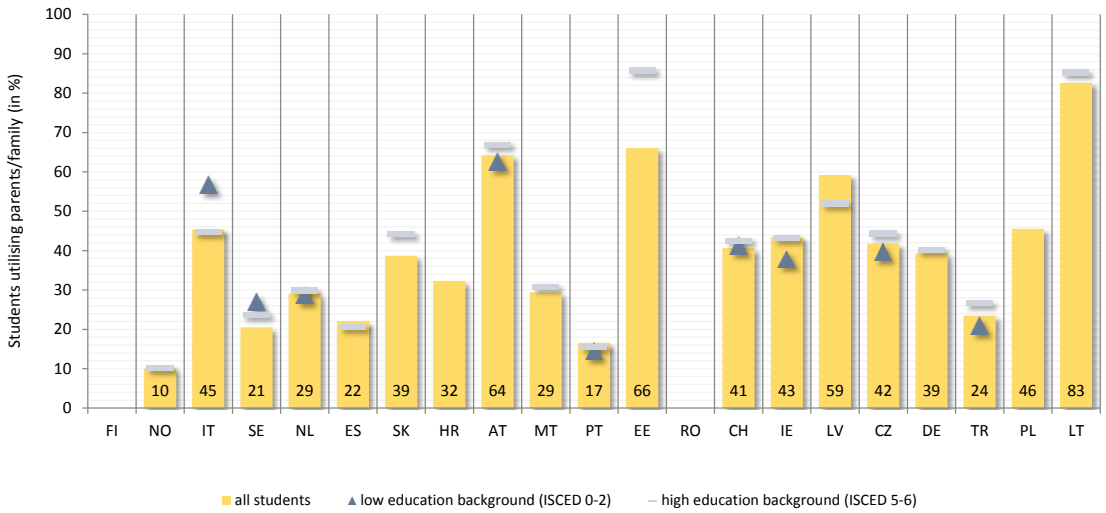
- Looking at the share of students utilising the 2 public sources in question, differences by students' education background can be observed. As far as home state grants are concerned, the share of students from high education background is lower than the share of all students in a narrow majority of countries and lower than the share of students from low education background in most countries for which data on both categories are available.

Fig. 10.11 Students having utilised a particular source to fund their enrolment abroad by type of source and social background
(multiple answers possible)

a) Students with home state grant in %



b) Students with EU study grant in %



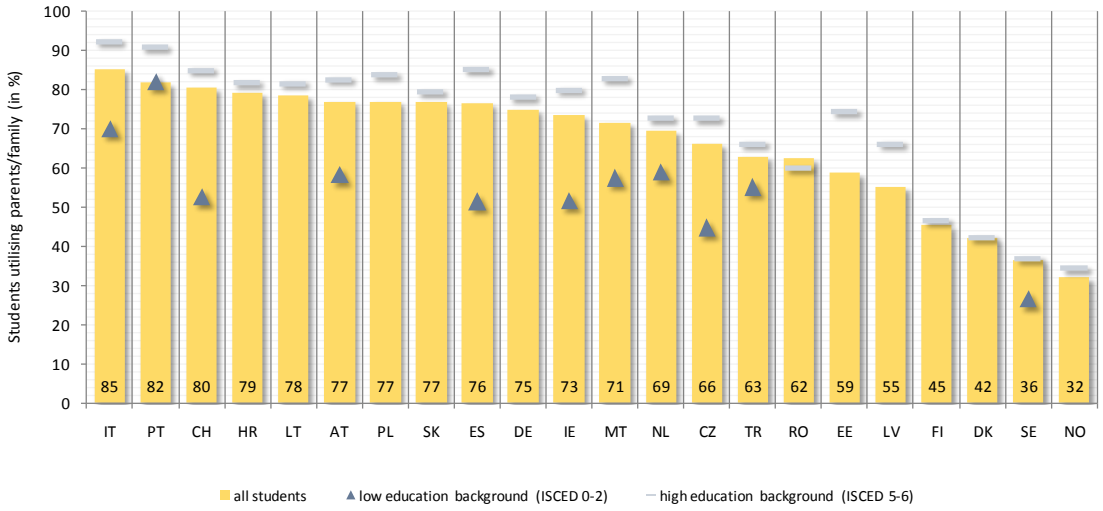
Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, I.6. No data: DK, E/W, FR, SI. Too few cases for home state grant, all students: LT, PL. Too few cases for home state grant, low education background (ISCED 0-2): CZ, DE, EE, HR, LT, LV, NO, PL, RO, SK. Too few cases for home state grant, high education background (ISCED 5-6): LT, LV, MT, PL. Too few cases for EU study grant, all students: FI, RO. Too few cases for EU study grant, low education background (ISCED 0-2): DE, EE, ES, HR, LT, LV, MT, NO, PL, RO, SK. Too few cases for EU study grant, high education background (ISCED 5-6): HR, PL, RO.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 4.3 Which of the following sources did you use to fund your enrolment abroad and which one of them was your primary source of funding?, 6.1 What is the highest level of education your father and mother have obtained?

- However, in a number of countries the share of students with high education background is actually somewhat higher than the share of all students. In Finland, their share is even higher than the share of students from low education background utilising a home state grant. This is quite a different picture to the one visible for public support receivers in study programmes at their home institution (→ Chapter 7).
- With regard to students utilising EU study grants, the share of students from high education background is slightly higher than the share of all students in the majority of countries. In a few countries, the share of students from high education background is also slightly higher than the share of students from low education background utilising EU study grants.

These results have to be read with caution for 2 reasons: Firstly, the group of students from medium education background (ISCED 3-4) is faded out in this analysis. Secondly, Figure 10.11 only provides information on students *utilising* the 2 sources under observation, it does not show the amount of financial support received and whether it is sufficient for students or not. However, as regards the 2 extreme groups (ISCED 0-2 and ISCED 5-6), there seems to be a tendency that the access to EU study grants for foreign enrolment periods is more socially selective than the access to national grants. The disproportionately high share of students from high education background utilising public funds becomes potentially problematic when considering that they can also rely on support from their parents/family more frequently, as can be seen in Figure 10.12.

- In all countries for which data on both categories are available, the share of students from high education background utilising support from their parents/family to fund their enrolment abroad is higher than the share of students from low education background doing so. Furthermore, the share of students from high education background is visibly higher than that of all students in the majority of countries.

Fig. 10.12 Students having utilised support from their parents/family to fund their enrolment abroad by social background in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, I.6. No data: E/W, FR, SI. Too few cases for students from low education background (ISCED 0-2): DE, DK, EE, FI, HR, LT, LV, NO, PL, RO, SK.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 4.3 Which of the following sources did you use to fund your enrolment abroad and which one of them was your primary source of funding?, 6.1 What is the highest level of education your father and mother have obtained?

- In the striking majority of countries, the share of all students utilising familial support to fund their enrolment abroad lies at above 50%. Thus although familial support might not always be the primary source of funding, it seems nevertheless indispensable for students in most countries to be able to realise a foreign enrolment period. This holds especially true for Italy, Portugal and Switzerland. A slightly different pattern can be observed for the Scandinavian countries, which have the lowest shares of students utilising support from their parents in international comparison. In their case, support from students' parents is arguably less crucial for the decision to realise an enrolment abroad, not least because students have access to relatively generous and internationally portable support schemes.

Based on the data presented in Figures 10.10, 10.11 and 10.12, it is not possible to appraise the distinct funding approaches chosen by different countries, e.g. with regard to their effectiveness in motivating students to study abroad temporarily. The national approaches to funding foreign enrolment periods should ideally be analysed in the context of (other) national welfare provisions, the general income levels and differentials within a country's population as well as the prevalent cultural attitudes towards foreign enrolment. Further information of this type is available in the → DRM as well as the → National Profiles and the publications of the national research teams to be found on the EUROSTUDENT website.

Although ERASMUS is the main route to foreign enrolment periods, a substantial share of students enrols abroad temporarily outside of mobility programmes

Next to funding opportunities, a related important issue is the organisation of foreign enrolment phases. This aspect shall be analysed from another angle than the sources of funding. While a basic distinction was made between public and private support in the analysis of funding sources, a differentiation between 2 general formats guides the analysis of organisational pathways to enrolment abroad: foreign enrolment through mobility programmes in contrast to self-organised enrolment abroad.

Figure 10.13 presents data on the share of students who have been enrolled abroad by the organisational form they have chosen and their study programme. As the most eminent representative of organised forms of foreign enrolment, the ERASMUS programme (chart a) is compared to foreign enrolment phases that were largely organised by students themselves (chart b).[8]

- Even though former ERASMUS students make up less than 5% of most national student populations (→ DRM, Subtopic I.5), ERASMUS is the dominant organisational form for enrolment periods abroad (Figure 10.13). In the majority of countries for which data are available, more than 50% of the students with foreign enrolment experience went abroad with ERASMUS. The respective share is particularly high in Lithuania and Estonia as well as Italy and France (i.e. above 70%) and it lies below 25% in Sweden and Norway. The comparatively low shares of students enrolling abroad through ERASMUS in the Scandinavian countries can be explained by the fact that Scandinavian countries have access to another large scale mobility programme, namely

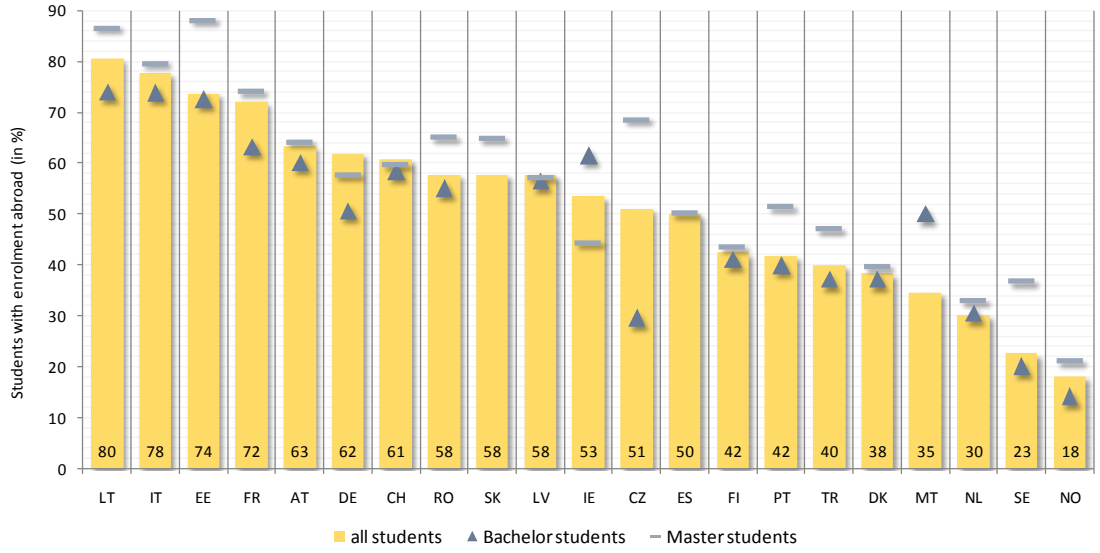
[8] Chart (a) in Figure 10.13 includes both ERASMUS and ERASMUS MUNDUS students. However, judging by the statistics presented on the website of the European Commission, the number of ERASMUS MUNDUS students is negligible in comparison to the number of ERASMUS students in most countries (cf. http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/erasmus_mundus/results_compendia/statistics_en.php).

Nordplus. Students from the Baltic countries enrol abroad through ERASMUS frequently in international comparison despite having access to the Nordplus programme.

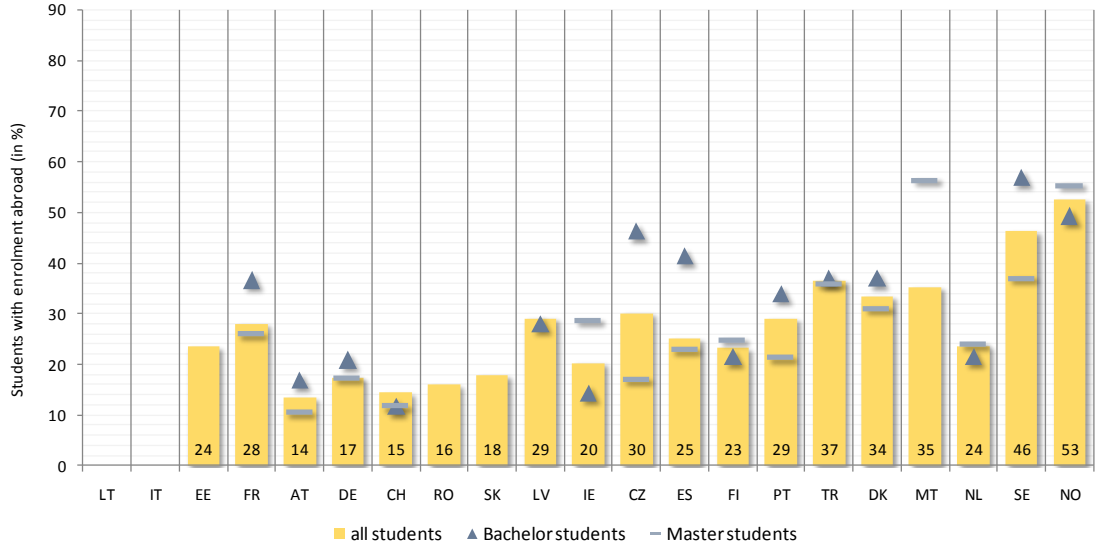
- Comparing charts (a) and (b), a tendency can be observed that in countries where ERASMUS plays a major importance, the share of students who have been enrolled abroad without a programme is usually lower, and vice versa.

Fig. 10.13 Students who have been enrolled abroad with ERASMUS and without a programme by study programme
(multiple answers possible)

a) Students who have been enrolled abroad with ERASMUS in %



b) Students who have been enrolled abroad without a programme in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, I.5. No data: E/W, SI. No data for enrolment without programme: IT. Too few cases for all categories: HR, PL. Too few cases for enrolment with ERASMUS, Bachelor students: ES, SK. Too few cases for enrolment with ERASMUS, Master students: MT. Too few cases for enrolment without programme, Bachelor students: EE, LT, MT, RO, SK. Too few cases for enrolment without programme, Master students: EE, LT, RO, SK.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 4.2 Was your enrolment abroad part of any of the following programmes?, 1.1 Which programme are you currently enrolled in?

- The share of students who realised their enrolment abroad outside of a mobility programme is comparatively high (above 30%) in Turkey and Malta as well as Denmark, Sweden and Norway. It lies at 20% or above in all countries but Austria, Germany, Switzerland, Romania and the Slovak Republic. Even in the latter countries, it lies above 10%. Thus, although ERASMUS is the main route to foreign enrolment periods, it is common in all countries for students to enrol abroad outside of the established mobility programmes.
- There are small, but clearly visible differences between Bachelor and Master students regarding their likelihood to embark upon mobility programmes and self-organised foreign enrolment phases, respectively. While Master students are more frequently enrolled abroad through ERASMUS in most countries (chart a), Bachelor students are more frequently enrolled abroad outside of a mobility programme (chart b).

Next to financial and organisational support, students' foreign language competency can have an influence on their propensity to embark upon a foreign enrolment experience. For that reason, students' language skills are analysed in the following subsection.

In 2/3 of the EUROSTUDENT countries, more than 20% of students have a (very) good proficiency in at least 2 foreign languages, but the rate differs by education background

Being interested or proficient in foreign languages increases the likelihood of students becoming temporarily mobile (Goldstein & Kim, 2006; Findlay, King, Stam, & Ruiz-Gelices, 2006). In contrast, the absence or even the perceived lack of language competency can cause students to refrain from such experiences, as the data presented on the obstacles to foreign enrolment phases show. Being aware of the benefits of foreign language competency, the European Commission has in the last decade promoted the long-term goal that all European citizens should have decent skills in 2 languages next to their mother tongues (European Commission, 2005). This long-term objective has also been endorsed by the Council of the European Union, which postulates that young people should be enabled to "master at least two foreign languages" (Council of the European Union, 2008).

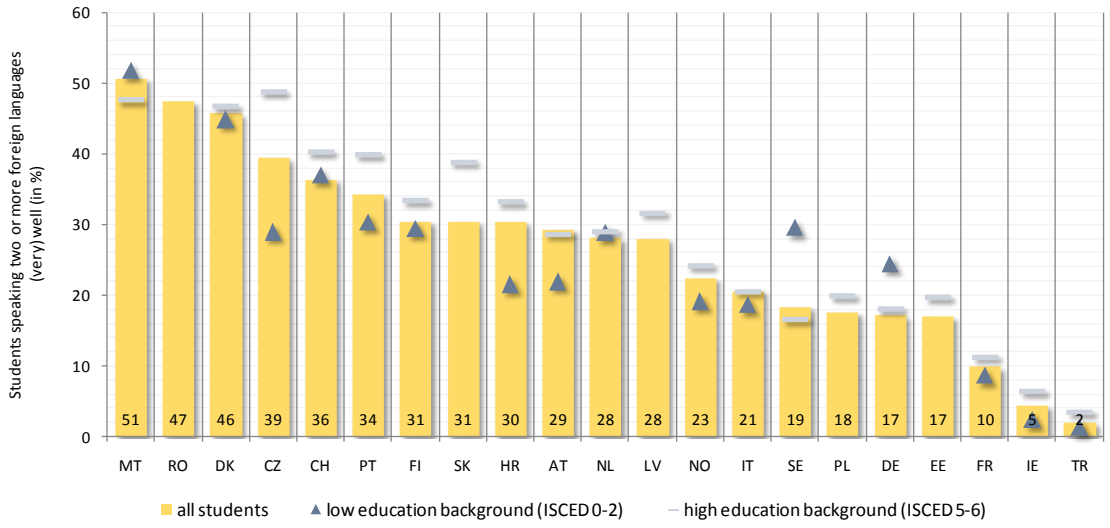
Although this might set the bar somewhat higher than originally intended by the European Commission, one approach to measuring whether this long-term goal has been reached with regard to students in EUROSTUDENT countries is to calculate the share of students with (very) good language proficiency in 2 or more languages. This information – which is based on students' self-assessment – is contained in Figure 10.14. With a view to continuing the discussion on lacking language competency as an obstacle to foreign enrolment, the respective figures are further differentiated by students from low and high education backgrounds.

- As can be seen in Figure 10.14, the share of students with (very) good language proficiency in at least 2 foreign languages lies above 20% in slightly more than 2/3 of the countries covered. This share is certainly respectable, but it also shows that having a (very) good competency in at least 2 foreign languages is not the normality in most countries.
- Figure 10.14 also illustrates that there are strong variations across countries in the share of students with (very) good proficiency in at least 2 foreign languages. It lies above 45% in Malta, Romania and Denmark at 5% or below in Ireland and Turkey. The self-assessed degrees of language proficiency can – to some extent – explain why Ireland and Turkey also have the highest shares of students considering insufficient language skills as an obstacle to enrolment abroad,

while students in Malta and Denmark hardly refrain from foreign enrolment because of lacking language competences (Figure 10.7).

- In about 3/4 of the countries for which data on both categories are available, the share of students with (very) good proficiency in at least 2 foreign languages is lower for students from low education background than for those from high education background. This finding is in line with the observation that students from low education background perceive the lack of language competency as an obstacle to foreign enrolment much more intensely than students from high education background.
- In Sweden and Germany, the respective share is higher for students from low education background than for students from high education background, the reason being that the former category includes many migrant students, who grew up inside the country learning the language of their parents in addition to the language(s) they learned at school.

Fig. 10.14 Students with (very) good language proficiency in 2 or more languages according to their self-assessment by social background in %



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, I.12. No data: ES, E/W, LT, RO (students from low education background, ISCED 5-6, and students from high education background, ISCED 5-6), SI. Too few cases for students with low education background (ISCED 0-2): EE, LV, PL, SK. EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 5.5 What are your language skills?, 6.1 What is the highest level of education your father and mother have obtained?

The overwhelming majority of students considers a foreign enrolment phase as a way to develop personally, but not all are satisfied with the quality of education abroad

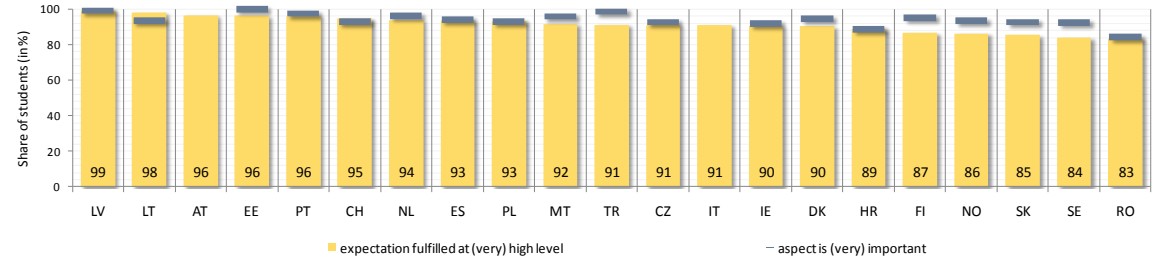
This chapter shall be concluded by taking a look at what students actually consider as important for an enriching foreign enrolment period and to what extent they see their expectations fulfilled regarding these aspects. Judging by the key political documents on mobility policies within the European Union, foreign study-related experiences yield a variety of desirable outcomes, ranging from the further development of students' personalities and the promotion of their linguistic capabilities to the generation of intercultural sensitivity and professional competences (European Commission, 2010; Leuven/Louvain-la-Neuve Communiqué, 2009). 2 of these aspects (students' personal development and their language gains) plus their social integration in the host country and the quality of education enjoyed abroad have been appraised by students in the national EUROSTUDENT surveys. Figure 10.15 illustrates how large is the share of students whose expectations concerning these 4 aspects were fulfilled at a (very) high level; it also shows the share of students considering these aspects as (very) important.

- Regarding all 4 aspects, the share of students considering them as (very) important is substantial in most countries. This implies that foreign enrolment periods constitute generally a very valuable experience for students. The most important aspect for students regarding a foreign enrolment phase is their personal development; the least important issue – although still at a high level – is the quality of education in their countries of destination.
- This pattern is visible also with regard to the share of students whose expectations concerning these aspects are fulfilled at a (very) high level. The respective share is lowest with regard to the quality of education students have experienced abroad. This shows for most EUROSTUDENT countries what has been pointed out in individual countries already (cf. Heublein, Hutzsch, Schreiber, & Sommer, 2007), namely that foreign enrolment phases are primarily a means to broaden students' cultural and social horizons, but possibly to a lesser extent a guarantee to make academic progress.
- As far as the personal development during a foreign enrolment phase is concerned, there are only minor variations across countries. In all countries, the striking majority of students considers the personal development as (very) important and sees the expectations fulfilled at a (very) high level in this regard.
- Language improvement is regarded as a (very) important aspect of foreign enrolment by more than 2/3 of students in all countries but Malta and Ireland. Students in Ireland are also an exception in international comparison in that they see their expectations fulfilled at (very) high level less frequently with regard to their language improvement abroad. This arguably has to do with the fact that students in Ireland often lack the basic foreign language skills to build upon during a temporary enrolment abroad (→ DRM, Subtopic I.12). Countries in which comparatively large shares of students see their expectations regarding their language improvement fulfilled at (very) high level are Latvia, Lithuania, Switzerland and Poland.
- Regarding the social integration abroad, the share of students whose expectations are fulfilled at (very) high level lies above 70% in all countries. The highest values are to be found in Lithuania, Switzerland, the Czech Republic and Denmark, and the lowest values in Malta, Ireland, Norway and Romania.

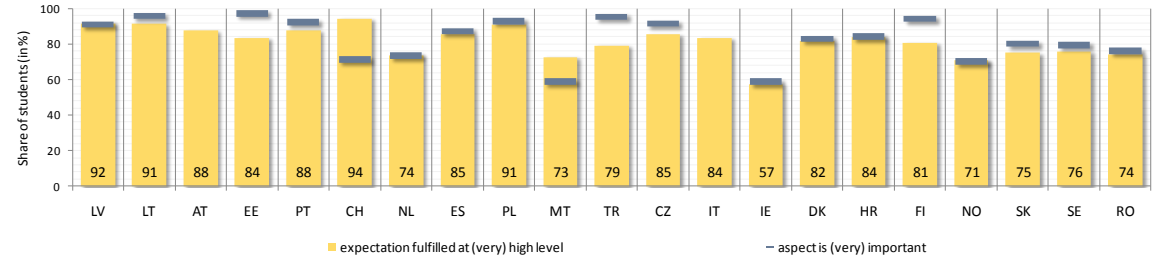
- As to the quality of education abroad, the strongest variations across countries can be observed. The share of students whose expectations are fulfilled at (very) high level is particularly large in Lithuania, Switzerland and Poland. The lowest shares can be found in the Netherlands, Italy, Denmark, Finland and Sweden. The share of students considering the quality of education abroad as (very) important is visibly higher than the share of students whose expectations are fulfilled at (very) high level in the majority of countries. At present, many students seem to consider their studies at home to be of better quality than the education they followed during their enrolment abroad. This could indicate that the quality of education students follow during their enrolment abroad is an area for improvement.

Fig. 10.15 Students whose expectations concerning a certain aspect regarding their enrolment are fulfilled at (very) high level and students considering this aspect as (very) important in %
(multiple answers possible)

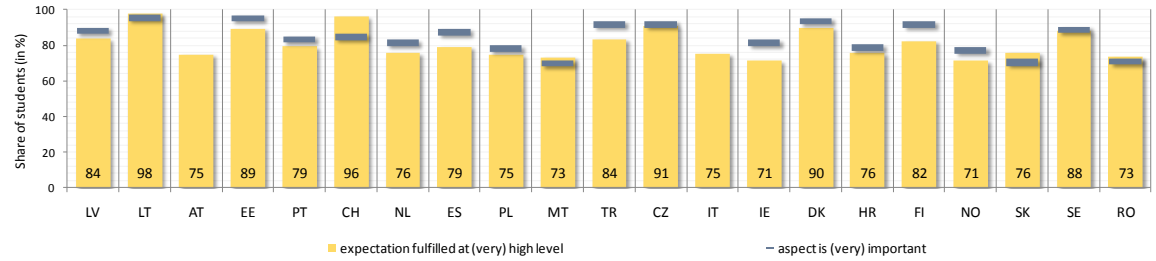
a) Personal development



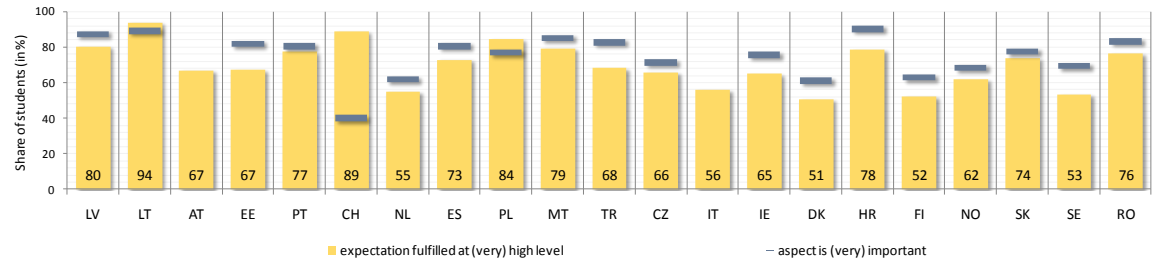
b) Language improvement



c) Social integration



d) Quality of education



Source: EUROSTUDENT IV, I.7. No data: DE, E/W, FR, SI. No data for importance of aspects: AT, IT.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 4.4 How important were the following aspects and were your expectations fulfilled concerning your enrolment abroad?

- The shares of students whose expectations are fulfilled at (very) high level are generally relatively high for all 4 aspects in Latvia, Lithuania and Switzerland, and generally comparatively low in the Netherlands, Ireland and Norway.

To better understand what causes students to say their expectations are fulfilled at a (very) high level, more country-specific information is needed. On the one hand, it has to be investigated which are students expectations before embarking upon a foreign enrolment experience, which is related to the study environments they are used to in their home country. On the other hand, their subjective assessment has to be set in relation to the study environments they are exposed to in a specific host country. This, however, will have to be done in further studies.

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Glossary of key concepts

Enrolment, formal status and de facto

Formal status of enrolment: Formal status of enrolment is any student modus which is officially registered and recognized as such by the state's order and/or higher education institution in the respective country. It may contain the categories full-time, part-time and other. A full-time/part-time student is a student who formally holds the respective status irrespective of the weekly number of hours spent on study-related activities (taught studies + personal study time). Any deviations from the two categories should be placed in the response category 'other', but only if the rule of mutual exclusiveness of response categories is observed.

Full-time / part-time status: A student who holds the formal status of a full-time or part-time student. National data should be delivered according to the classification of full-time and part-time students. Any deviations from this scheme should be placed in the response category 'other', but only if the rule of mutual exclusiveness of response categories is observed. For example, in some countries distance education refers to the official student status, while in others it refers to the organisational aspect of studies. In the first case, when distance education is defined as an official student status equal to full-time and part-time modes it should replace the response category 'other'. In the second case, distance students are allowed to answer according to the official status they have (full-time or part-time). Countries, which do not have a different status for full-time and part-time students may skip this question. In this case they should report for the Data Delivery Module that 100% of the students are full-time students. The formal current status of a student is any mode of study, which is officially registered and recognized as such by legal provision of the state and/or the higher education institution in the respective country.

Distance education: Variety of educational and academic models characterized by the spatial separation of the academic unit (faculty, department, etc.) and some or all of the students. Main components of the instruction process are presentation of content; interaction with the academic unit, peers and resources; practical application and assessment. Each distance education model uses technologies in various ways to address some or all of these components.

Low-intensity / de facto part-time student: A student who spends less than 21 hours per week on study-related activities (= taught studies + personal study time) irrespective of the formal status. That means for instance a student who is formally holding the status of a full-time student but who spends less than 21 hours per week on study-related activities would be considered a low-intensity student.

Social background / educational background

High education/social background: Socio-economic background of a student due to his/her parents' social standing. The parents' social standing is approximated by their highest educational qualification according to the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED 97). The highest educational attainment of either the father or the mother is taken into account. The ISCED levels 5 and 6 are considered as high qualification background. This group is referred to as 'high education' in the tables.

Low education/social background Socio-economic background of a student due to his/her parents' social standing. The parents' social standing is approximated by their highest educational qualification according to ISCED-97-code. The highest educational attainment of either the father or the mother is taken into account. The ISCED levels 0, 1 and 2 are considered as low qualification background. This group is referred to as 'low education' in the tables.

Age

Age groups: A student's age is one of the most important explanatory variables; therefore, we discriminate by age for many subtopics. We distinguish between 3 different age groups: students up to the age of 24, students between 25 and 29 years and finally students who are 30 years old or over. These categories are based on standards for Eurostat/OECD and as is well-known there are significant differences between these age groups, especially between those under 25 and those of 30 years and over. In order to precisely identify the age, refer to the student's age in the month when the survey was carried out. In case the survey lasted for more than one month, refer to the month in which the majority of interviewees were questioned.

Study programme

Bachelor: A student who is enrolled in a programme which is completed with a Bachelor's degree according to the Bologna-agreement on two-cycle qualification degrees.

Master: A student who is enrolled in a programme which is completed with a Master's degree according to the Bologna-agreement on two-cycle qualification degrees (consecutive Master programmes only).

National programmes: Programmes whose graduates do not receive a Bachelor or Masters qualification.

Transition route

Delayed transition: Characteristic used to define a type of student, who entered the higher education sector for the first time at a later stage in his/her life. This new focus group has been developed in order to capture a group of students on which a lot of policy focus is being laid. All students, whose delay between receiving HE entrance qualification at school and entering HE for the first time amounts to more than 2 years are considered delayed transition students. All students, whose delay was less than 2 years, but whose entry qualification was obtained outside the normal school system are also considered delayed transition students, i.e. according to the standard categories in subtopic 'Qualification routes into higher education' those students who entered on the basis of 'vocational training/work experience/accreditation of prior learning' or 'aptitude/entrance examination' are considered delayed transition students.

Direct transition: Characteristic used to define a type of student, who entered the higher education sector at a rather early stage of his/her life. This is the counterpart to the focus group 'delayed transition students'. All students who have a delay of not more than 2 years between receiving HE entrance qualification at school and entering HE for the first time and who entered via a typical qualification route are considered direct transition students.

Interruption of education career: This category covers different kinds of breaks in the students' educational career after graduating from secondary school. Three types of breaks are considered: a) between graduating from secondary education and entering HE, b) between entering HE and graduating from HE, c) between graduating from HE and re-entering HE. Category a) refers to those students who graduated from secondary school and who waited for at least one year (or more) after graduating from secondary school to enter HE for the first time. Category b) covers those students who entered HE and interrupted their studies for at least one year (or more) before graduating from HE for the first time. In this case an interruption is considered any break of the schedule of studies, which is not caused by the study regulations (e.g. a student takes a sabbatical or takes up employment for one year). Category c) refers to those students who graduated from HE for the first time and re-entered HE at least one year (or more) later for another academic qualification (e.g. a student obtained his/her Bachelor's degree and one year later he/she enters HE again to start a Master programme or a second Bachelor programme – please keep in mind that Eurostudent target groups cover only students in ISCED 5A-programmes including Master, but no postgraduate programmes above ISCED 5A). If a break in educational career (no matter at what stage) took less than one year it will not be taken into account. In rare

cases students may take up studies before graduating from secondary school (this refers for example to Austrian students at colleges of music). Those students should be counted for the category 'no interruption'.

Type of housing

Five basic forms: a) with parents, b) alone, c) with partner/child(ren), d) with (an)other person/s and e) student hall. The period of time refers to students study term/semester. The vacation periods or any other non-study periods are excluded.

Living with parents: Living with those persons who are/were the student's guardian, i.e. own parents, step-parents, foster parents, guardians, etc. If the student spent his/her time with more than one set of parents during his/her youth it should be referred to those he/she spent the most time with.

Not living with parents: Includes all other forms.

Student hall: Living in a student hall includes all sorts of accommodation in student halls, i.e. living in single rooms as well as living in rooms that are shared with other students. The category 'living in a student hall' is shown in a separate table as students who have chosen this form of housing are included in the categories 'alone' and 'with (an)other person/s' depending on whether they have a room of their own or have to share it with other students. Therefore, the category 'living in a student hall' cannot be integrated in the table for all forms of housing without double counting.

Time budget

Time budget in typical week: The students are asked to report the time spent on both study-related activities (= taught studies and personal study time) and employment-related activities day by day for a typical week. A typical week is defined as a week during the study term/semester which reflects the student's routine as well as possible.

***Study-related activities*:** This includes taught studies (e.g. lectures, tutorials) and personal study time (i.e. time of self-preparation).

Personal study time: Personal study time refers to a student's hours of self-preparation. This includes e.g. time spend on preparation, learning, reading, writing homework, etc. The students are required to report personal study time in clock hours.

Taught courses: Refers to a student's contact hours. This includes for instance lessons, seminars, hours in labs, tests, etc. The students are required to report taught studies in clock hours, even though course hours may differ from this format.

Occasional paid job during term: This refers to students who work alongside their studies, in this case during term time. Occasional jobs may be considered in general as unspecialised jobs, carried out casually and for low pay. Within our framework such a job is best characterised by the fact that the student takes up the job on a case-by-case basis and not regularly. If the student does a paid internship during term time this should also be reported as occasional paid job. Internships without payment should not be counted in any categories of paid jobs, instead they should be reported in the category 'no paid job'.

Regular paid job during term: This refers to students who work alongside their studies, in this case during term time. Regular paid jobs would tend to be those, which the students carry out continuously (e.g. the same job which is performed once or twice a week during the whole term time, perhaps for more than one semester). In this case there is no constituting time limit for regular paid jobs with respect to working hours per week (i.e. a regular paid job during term would be recorded even if the student worked only one hour per week, but, of course, the basic attribute of regularity must apply).

Costs / expenditure

Costs of living: The students' monthly living costs are subdivided into 8 categories: a) accommodation, b) living/daily expenses, c) social and leisure activities, d) transportation, e) health costs, f) communication, g) childcare and h) other regular costs. Accommodation includes expenses for rent but also other related costs such as for water, electricity, heating, etc. Living/daily expenses refer to ordinary expenses for nutrition, clothing, toiletries and stuff like that. Health costs include contribution to health insurance, costs for health services, pharmaceuticals, dressing materials, etc. The category communication covers expenses for telephone (fixed network, mobile phone, smart phone), internet, 'snail mail', and others. Finally, the category other regular costs is used as residual category for those expenditure which are not classified in the other categories. Examples for other regular costs are expenses for tobacco, pets, insurance (except health insurance), debt payment (this includes for instance also mortgage payments for student's own residential property), etc. It is important to point out that for living costs the target is clearly on 'ordinary, running costs' and not on extraordinary expenses, like buying a car or furniture.

***Out-of-own-pocket costs*:** This refers to living expenses and study-related expenditure that are incurred by the students themselves (see questionnaire question 3.6). The students do not necessarily have to make cash payments; also transfer orders and charging of credit cards have to be taken into account. The point is that the funds used to cover the expenses must be at the students' disposal.

***Costs paid by parents/partners/others*:** That is the students' living expenses and study-related expenditure, which are incurred by another person (e.g. payments made by the students' parents or the partner, see questionnaire question 3.6). This may be considered as a transfer in kind as the students don't have the money at their disposal, but the respective good is paid for by someone else. That is most likely to be the case with accommodation, tuition fees, communication and transportation. These transfers in kind will only be taken into account for students who are not living with their parents.

***Study-related costs*:** Costs that are directly related to studies. Four categories are distinguished: a) fees, b) contributions, c) learning materials and d) other regular costs. Contributions contain social contributions to the higher education institution and to student organisations which provide support services to students. Learning materials may include expenditure on books, photocopies, study-related CDs and DVDs, study trips, etc. The category other regular costs covers expenses for training, private lessons and further education. Study-related costs are to be reported per semester. However, in most cases they need to be recalculated in monthly amounts for analysis.

Fees: In this category three different types of fees are covered: tuition fees, registration fees and examination fees. According to the questionnaire (question 3.6) the students are asked to report fees as study-related costs per semester. However, in most cases fees need to be recalculated in monthly amounts for analysis.

Income sources

Income by source: In most cases the student overall income is based on different sources. With respect to the questionnaire (see question 3.5) it is the disposable income which is looked at here. The student must be able to dispose of the income with regard to the decision of what to spend it on. We distinguish between a) provision from family/partner, b) public sources, c) self-earned income, d) savings, and e) other sources.

Provision from family/partner: Money which the student receives from his/her parents, other relatives or the person he/she is sharing his/her life with. This category does not include non-cash benefits (or transfers in kind) such as rent or tuition fees paid e.g. by the students' parents.

Public sources / support: Financial contribution from the state, which the student receives directly usually because of his/her student status. The category 'public sources' comprises repayable support (loans) and non-repayable support (grants/scholarships). Any other kind of public support must be classified in the category

'other sources'. With respect to our data analysis in the topic 'funding and state assistance' (cf. for instance for subtopic: recipients of public support and importance of income source by form of housing) only public support in the category 'public sources' will be taken into account. All other kinds of public support which are classified in the category 'other sources' will be left out of the picture there.

Self-earned income: Refers only to income which the student receives from employment.

Other sources: Financial means from other private or public sources, which are not included in the explicitly given categories. Other private sources would be for instance capital income that the student receives if he is holding stocks. Other public sources include direct public support (e.g. housing benefits) and indirect public support which is meant for the student but is not paid directly to him/her (e.g. child benefits in Germany which is paid to the student's parents). In the latter case there may occur problems of correctly assigning the means and also of double counting. So if a student in Germany reports (ideally) to receive child benefits via his/her parents this should be counted – of course – only once and be reported in the category 'other sources' and not in the category 'provision from family/partner'. However, it is not to be expected that students (are able to) report the composition of their income so precisely. Note: In some of the tables (cf. for topic 'funding and state assistance', subtopic 'composition of monthly income by type of housing and characteristics of students') the categories 'savings' and 'other sources' from the questionnaire are summed up in only one category named 'other'.

Transfers in kind: Transfers in kind may take on two different forms: On the one hand, goods and services a student receives at reduced prices or exempt from charges are typical transfers in kind (e.g. in many countries students may use the public transport systems at reduced prices). On the other hand, bills of the student that are paid by other persons are considered as transfers in kind (e.g. a student is not living with his/her parents anymore and the parents pay the rent for their collegiate child directly to the landlord. In this case the financial support is intangible to the student). Within our framework transfers in kind are considered to be either living costs or study-related costs that are paid by parents/partner or others for the student. Note: With respect to calculating the student's total income and total expenses, for those students who are not living with their parents, transfers in kind must be added to expenses and to income (otherwise the income side would be underestimated). For students living with their parents transfers in kind will not be taken into account (neither on the income nor on the expenditure side).

Mobility periods abroad

***Activities abroad, study-related*:** This refers to all kinds of study-related activities abroad during course of study other than enrolment abroad. The category includes 5 sub-categories: a) research, b) internship/work placement, c) summer school, d) language course and e) other. The respective question (4.6) is designed to collect data on the different types of short-term international mobility by the duration of each listed type of foreign study experience and the countries students have been to. Students fill in the exact duration in months for each type of their study-related stay(s) abroad. Students who have never been abroad for the study purposes mentioned above (this applies also to students with enrolment abroad who have not undertaken other study-related activities in foreign countries) do not respond to this question. In this case, the research teams count the 'no response' for 'No'.

Enrolment abroad: This question relates to those students, who have been abroad for a regular course of study (normally for a temporary period, e.g. via the Erasmus programme). This approach allows the identification of returners: those 'national' students who have been enrolled at foreign higher education institution. The respective question (4.1) refers only to foreign enrolment where the student left the country of the survey to study a certain period abroad. The time period covered is from the moment of entering higher education until the date of the survey, i.e. former programmes, from which the student has already graduated, are included.

Appendix B – National contributors

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Project sponsor:	Department for Business, Innovation and Skills (BIS)
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National report:	http://www.bis.gov.uk/assets/biscore/corporate/migratedD/publications/D/DIUS_RR_09_05
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France (FR)	
Project sponsor:	French Ministry For Higher Education and Research (MESR)
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National report:	-
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Latvia (LV)	
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National report:	http://izm.izm.gov.lv/upload_file/petijumi/Atskaite_EUROSTUDENT_IV_10_11_2009.pdf
Lithuania (LT)	
Project sponsor:	Ministry of Education and Science
Implementation:	National Union of Student Representations of Lithuania (LSAS)
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National report:	-

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National report:	-
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National report:	-
Portugal (PT)	
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National report:	-
Romania (RO)	
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National report:	-
Slovak Republic (SK)	
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Slovenia (SI)	
Project sponsor:	Ministry for Higher Education, Science and Technology (MHEST)
Implementation:	University of Maribor (MB), ResearchNed
Contact person:	Meta Dobnikar (MHEST)
Research team:	Marko Marhl (MB), Meta Dobnikar (MHEST)
National report:	-

Spain (ES)	
Project sponsor:	Ministry of Education
Implementation:	University of Valencia (UVEG)
Contact person:	Ramon Llopis-Goig (University of Valencia)
Research team:	Ramon Llopis-Goig (University of Valencia)
National report:	-
Sweden (SE)	
Project sponsor:	Swedish Ministry of Education
Implementation:	The Swedish National Agency for Higher Education (HSV)
Contact person:	Åsa Rurling (HSV)
Research team:	Åsa Rurling (HSV), Per Gillström (HSV)
National report:	www.hsv.se/swedish-eurostudent-report
Switzerland (CH)	
Project sponsor:	State Secretariat for Education and Research (SER)
Implementation:	Federal Statistical Office (FSO)
Contact person:	Laurence Boegli (FSO)
Research team:	Laurence Boegli (FSO), Sarah Gerhard (FSO), Martin Teichgräber (FSO)
National report:	www.students-stat.admin.ch
The Netherlands (NL)	
Project sponsor:	Ministry of Education, Culture and Science (MinOCW)
Implementation:	ResearchNed
Contact person:	Anja van den Broek (ResearchNed)
Research team:	Anja van den Broek (ResearchNed), Froukje Wartenbergh-Cras (ResearchNed), Danny Brukx (ResearchNed), Steffie Hampsink (ResearchNed), Lette Hogeling (ResearchNed)
National report:	www.studentenmonitor.nl
Turkey (TR)	
Project sponsor:	Council of Higher Education (YÖK)
Implementation:	Middle East Technical University (METU)
Contact person:	Ayşe Gündüz Hoşgör (METU), Piril Akin (YÖK)
Research team:	Nezih Güven (METU), Özgür Arun (METU), Mustafa Şen (METU), Mete Kurtoglu (METU)
National report:	www.eurostudent.metu.edu.tr

Appendix C – Metadata on national surveys

Metadata is also available in the National Profiles available on the EUROSTUDENT website.

Country	Size of initial sample and return rate of final sample	Sampling method	Reference period	Survey method	Weighting scheme	Special notes on sample/ survey
AT	Initial sample: ca. 250,000 (incl. ISCED 6 and foreign students) Return rate gross 25%, net 17%	None; every student in Austria was invited via e-mail	May- June 2009	Online survey	By nationality, HEI, field of study, sex, age group	Analysis for Eurostudent IV is based on 38,407 cases (standard target group)
CH	24,500 Return rate 64%.	Stratified random sample by higher education institution and field of study	Spring 2009	Online questionnaire. Personal reference number and password sent by postal letter. Two postal reminders.	Weighting scheme based on sample selection probabilities and a correction for non-response. Data was calibrated on known population characteristics (gender, age, qualification, national origin)	
CZ	Size of sample: 24,000 Final sample: 12,573 Return rate: 49%.	Random (From student register)	2009/2010	Online survey	age, school	

DE	20,000 Return rate 35%.	Quota: every 27th permanent resident student	Summer semester 2009	Paper and pencil 1 reminder	By type of HEI, country, gender, subject	
DK	Size of final sample: 3,599 Return rate: 26%.	Stratified sample, strata: Age, gender, institution	Spring, 2010	E-survey (CSH), invitation by e-mail and reminders by e-mail, txt message (mobile phone) and postal letter	Age, gender, educational level	Part-time students, who have to pay fees, are not included. Students with high education background (ISCED 5-6) are overrepresented.
EE	Size of final sample: 8,000 Return rate: 15%	linear sampling	2009/2010	Online	Standard weighting	
ES	Size of final sample: 5,267 Return rate: 11.1%.		Second semester 2009/2010	Online survey	Sex and age	
E/W	4,500 Return rate: 72%.	Stratified random sample	Academic year 2007/08	Face to face interview for finance data and administrative data for more general information on the student body	Weighted by age, sex, mode of study and country of institution	Some register data used in the subtopics.
FI	9,000 Size of final sample: 8,453 Return rate 44.9%.	Systematic sampling	May- July 2010	Online	By age, gender, HEI, field of education	There were 140 E:IV questions and 30 national questions in the on-line questionnaire

FR	130,000 Size of final sample: 23,836 Return rate: 25%.	Random sample of a student	Academic year 2009-2010	Online, reminder letter	By region, type of HEI, level and field of study, gender, age, type of baccalauréat and nationality	
HR	Initial sample: 26,000 Realized sample: 1,541 Expected return rate: 31%.	All students had a possibility to access survey /Students who do not fit criteria were excluded from this analysis	Spring 2010, Sept. 2010	Online survey	Rim weighting by qualification, university, gender, level of education of mother and father	
IE	11,531 Return rate: Unknown.	Online survey to all students and additional booster paper survey to sample of part-time students	Semester 1, academic year 2009/2010	Online and paper	The data was weighted by Status (full-time/part-time), Type of college (University/Institute of Technology) and Gender.	
IT	Initial and final sample: 4,499 Return rate not applicable.	quota, by: programme, field of study, year of enrolment, geographical area, and gender.	Academic year 2008 - 2009.	CATI - computer assisted telephone interview	programme, field of study, year of enrolment, geographical area, and gender.	
LT	1,003 Return rate: Unknown.	Quota: stratified by type of HEI, field of study, geographical area	November-December 2009	Face-to-face interview		

LV	Size of sample: 2,000 Size of final sample: 1,709 Return rate: 100%.	Quota sampling	Fall semester 2009	Paper-and-pencil; Face-to-face; self-completed questionnaire	Age, gender, study program, type of higher education institution (public/private), thematic groups	Only full time students were surveyed.
MT	Initial sample: 9,225 Return rate: 16%	Total student population at University of Malta surveyed, except for students on short-term mobility	Winter semester 2009/2010	Online	By EQF Level (5, 6 or 7), intensity (full-time, part-time or other), gender (male or female), age (22 and younger, between 23 and 29 or 30 and older) and field of study (Agriculture, Education, Engineering, Manufacturing and Construction, Health and Welfare, Humanities and Arts, Science, Services or Social Sciences, Business and Law)	Both students at ISCED 5A and 6 were surveyed. Data submitted in the DDM includes only students at ISCED 5A
NL	Size of final sample: 74,415 return rate: 19.4%.	None. Students were invited based on an email address they provided in a national student survey contacting all students in NL	Spring 2010	Online survey	Weighting by programme (Bachelor-Master), type of institution (university/university of applied science), year in HE, sex and field of study	

NO	Final sample: 2,309 Return rate: 35.5% of gross sample. 37% when confirmed ineligibles are removed.	Random sample	Spring 2010	Online questionnaire (77.5%), paper & pencil follow-up (22.5%)	Gender (M,W), Eurostudent age group and type of institution (University, Public polytechnic and private polytechnic)	
PL	Final sample: 1,992 Return rate: 38.2%.	Random sample	Semester II, 2010	Online survey	Sex, formal status of student(full/part-time student)	Weighting scheme was based on joint distribution of two variables: sex and formal status of students (full/part-time). Weighting on variable age wasn't necessary due to right distribution of it in the Polish sample. Weight was created according to data from Central Statistical Office from 2008.
PT	n.d.	n.d.	2010	Online	n.d.	n.d.
RO	11,800 Return rate: 32.9%.	Stratified by fields of study and by study years/ selection type cluster.	2nd term of the academic year 2009/2010	Online		

SE	5,000 Size of final sample: 2,541 Return rate: 51%.	Random sample	Fall 2009	Questionnaire (paper+ web)	1: Type of study (single-subject course vs. study programme) * Gender. 2: Type of study * Country of birth (in Sweden vs. in other country).	
SI	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	Online survey	n.d.	n.d.
SK	Initial sample: 4,056 3,489 respondents Return rate: 88%.	Sample stratified according to type of study (full-time and part-time), study location, university, field of study, year of study and gender	September-December 2009	Anonymous questionnaire (paper)	None	
TR	Initial sample: 152,144 Return rate: 19,479 / 152144 =12.80%.	Simple random sampling (10% from each university)	2010-Spring Semester	Online survey	None	

Appendix D – Core Questionnaire

1. Current Study Situation

1.1 Which programme are you currently enrolled in?

If you study more than 1 course at the same time, please fill-in the survey for your main course (and only 1 of these courses) and stick to this course throughout the whole questionnaire.

Qualification

- ○ Bachelor
- ○ Master
- ○ Short national degree (up to 3 years)
- ○ Long national degree (more than 3 years)
- ○ Other postgraduate programmes

1.2 What is your current formal status as a student?

Formal status

- ○ Full-time student
- ○ Part-time student
- ○ Other

1.3 Are you a student of distance education?

○ Yes
○ No

1.4 What is the programme you follow?

Name of programme: _____

1.5 Please name the location of the higher education institution you attend.

Name of the city/town/place: _____

1.6 Do you plan to continue studying after finishing your current programme?

○ Yes, a BA in [my country]
○ Yes, a BA in a foreign country
○ Yes, a MA in [my country]
○ Yes, a MA in a foreign country
○ Yes, a PhD in [my country]
○ Yes, a PhD in a foreign country
○ Yes, but another programme not mentioned here
○ No, I don't plan to continue my studies
○ I don't know yet

1.7 What is the language of your programme?

Multiple answers possible.

☐ [Common language in your country]
☐ [Common language in your country]
☐ [Common language in your country]
☐ Other

1.8 What expectations do you have for your studies and how well is your programme achieving these?

My study programme as a whole is a good basis for starting work.

					
How important is this intention for you?	○	○	○	○	○
How well is your programme fulfilling this goal?	○	○	○	○	○

My study programme as a whole is a good basis for personal development.

					
How important is this intention for you?	○	○	○	○	○
How well is your programme fulfilling this goal?	○	○	○	○	○

2. Study Background

2.1 Where were you living, when you graduated from secondary education?

District: _____

2.2 What qualification did you used for higher education entry?

Qualification/Certificate/Other initiatives (access courses)
○ [*name of national qualification*]
○ [*name of national qualification*]
○ [*name of national qualification*]
○ [*name of national qualification*]
○ [*name of national qualification*]
○ [*name of national qualification*]

2.3 When did you get the qualification used for entering higher education?

Month _____ Year _____

2.4 When did you enter higher education for the first time?

Month _____ Year _____

2.5 When did you start your current programme?

Month _____ Year _____

2.6 Before entering higher education, did you have any experience on the labour market?

○ Yes, I had a regular paid job (for at least one year, working at least 20h per week)
○ Yes, casual minor jobs (less than 1 year or less than 20h a week)
○ Yes, through vocational training (e.g. apprenticeship)
○ No, no experience

2.7 Did you ever interrupt your education career after graduating from secondary school for at least one year?

Multiple answers possible.

☐ Yes, I interrupted between graduating secondary education and entering higher education
☐ Yes, I interrupted between entering higher education and graduating from higher education
☐ Yes, I interrupted between graduating from higher education and re-entering higher education
☐ No

3. Living Conditions

3.1 Who do you live with during the study term/semester (Monday until Friday)?

Multiple answers possible.

☐ Parents
☐ Partner
☐ Child(ren)
☐ With another person/s not mentioned above
☐ I live alone

3.2 Do you live in a student-hall?

○ Yes
○ No

3.3 How satisfied are you with your accommodation?

○ ○ ○ ○ ○

3.4 On a typical day, what is the time and distance you cover from your home to your higher education institution?

Home is here your place of living during term-time (Monday until Friday)

_____ minutes on average (one way)
_____ kilometres on average (one way)

3.5 What is the average monthly income at your disposal from the following sources?
**At your disposal is the money which is meant for monthly consumption, no matter when it was earned.*
(National currency) Add a '0' or strike-out box if you did not receive any income from a certain source.

	Average Income
Provision from family/partner	_____
Financial support from public sources - non-repayable grant/scholarship - repayable loan	 _____ _____
Self-earned income through paid job	_____
Savings (e.g. previously earned money)	_____
Other sources (incl. other public or private support)	_____
Total income	_____

3.6 What are your average monthly expenses for the following needs?
Add a '0' or strike-out box if no money was spent on a certain type of costs.

***A) Living costs* <u>per month</u>**	**I pay out of my own pocket**	**Paid by parents/partner/ others for me**
Accommodation (including utilities, water, electricity,…)	_____	_____
Living/daily expenses (food, clothing/toiletries etc.)	_____	_____
Social and leisure activities	_____	_____
Transportation	_____	_____
Health costs (e.g. medical insurance)	_____	_____
Communication (telephone, internet etc.)	_____	_____
Childcare	_____	_____
Other regular costs (tobacco, pets, insurance, debt payment...)	_____	_____
Total	_____	_____

***B) Study-related costs* <u>per semester</u>**	**I pay out of my own pocket**	**Paid by parents/partner/ others for me**
Tuition fees, registration fees, examination fees	_____	_____
Social welfare contributions to the university/college and student association	_____	_____
Learning materials (e.g. books, photocopying, DVDs, fields trips)	_____	_____
Other regular costs (e.g. training, further education)	_____	_____
Total	_____	_____

3.7 To what extent do you agree with the formulation? I have sufficient funding in order to cover my monthly costs.

3.8 Do you have a paid job during the current semester?

○ Yes, I work regularly during term-time
○ Yes, I work occasionally during term-time
○ No, I don't work during term-time

3.9 Did you have a paid job during the term break in the last 12 months?

○ Yes
○ No

3.10 How important are your studies compared to other activities for you?

○ More important
○ Equally important
○ Less important

3.11 How many hours do you spend in a typical week on taught studies, personal study and on paid jobs?
(Try to remember day by day and fill in the sum of hours over the whole week including the weekend. Add a '0' or strike-out box if no hours were spent on an activity on the respective day.)

	MO	TU	WE	TH	FR	SA	SU
Taught studies (lessons, seminars, labs, tests, etc.)	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
Personal study time (like preparation, learning, reading, writing homework)	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
Paid jobs	___	___	___	___	___	___	___

3.12 Looking at your total workload based on the time you spend in study-related activities and in paid jobs, please rate your satisfaction with your workload.

4. International Mobility

4.1 Have you been enrolled abroad in a regular course of study?

○ Yes, I have been (-> please go on to question 4.2)
○ No, but I plan to go (-> please go on to question 4.5)
○ No (-> please go on to question 4.5)

4.2 Was your enrolment abroad part of any of the following programmes?
Please specify the name of the programme. Multiple answers are possible.

☐ Part of my study programme (international programme)
☐ TEMPUS
☐ ERASMUS (MUNDUS)
☐ LINGUA
☐ Other EU-programme
☐ Other (Please, fill in the name of the programme: _____)
☐ No programme

4.3 Which of the following sources did you use to fund your enrolment abroad and which one of them was your primary source of funding?
Multiple responses expected! Please choose only one primary source of funding.

	Source of funding	Primary source of funding
Contribution from parents/family	☐	○
Own income from previous job	☐	○
By working during my studies abroad	☐	○
Study grants/loans from host country	☐	○
Support by home state loan (repayable)	☐	○
Support by home state grant (non-repayable)	☐	○
EU study grants	☐	○
Other	☐	○

4.4 How important were the following aspects and were your expectations fulfilled concerning your enrolment abroad?

Importance					
Personal development	○	○	○	○	○
Language improvement	○	○	○	○	○
Quality of education	○	○	○	○	○
Academic level	○	○	○	○	○
Social integration	○	○	○	○	○
Service from host institution	○	○	○	○	○

Fulfilment of expectations					
Personal development	○	○	○	○	○
Language improvement	○	○	○	○	○
Quality of education	○	○	○	○	○
Academic level	○	○	○	○	○
Social integration	○	○	○	○	○
Service from host institution	○	○	○	○	○

(-> please go on to question 4.6)

4.5 To what extent are the following aspects an obstacle to an enrolment abroad for you?

	Big obstacle				No obstacle
Insufficient skills in foreign language	○	○	○	○	○
Difficulties in getting information	○	○	○	○	○
Problems with accommodation in the host country	○	○	○	○	○
Separation from partner, child(ren), friends	○	○	○	○	○
Loss of social benefits (e.g. child allowance, price discounts for students)	○	○	○	○	○
Loss of opportunities to earn money	○	○	○	○	○
Expected additional financial burden	○	○	○	○	○
Lack of personal drive	○	○	○	○	○
Presumed low benefit for my studies at home	○	○	○	○	○
Expected delay in progress in my studies	○	○	○	○	○
Problems with recognition of results achieved in foreign countries	○	○	○	○	○
Limited access to mobility programmes in home country	○	○	○	○	○
Problems with access regulations to the preferred country (visa, residence permit)	○	○	○	○	○
Limited admittance to the preferred institution and/or study programme in foreign country	○	○	○	○	○
It doesn't fit into the structure of my programme	○	○	○	○	○

4.6 Have you been abroad for other study related activities <u>during your study programme</u>?
Fill in the duration in months and the country you have been to per activity.
If you've been abroad more than once per activity, please refer to your most recent stay abroad.

	Duration in months	Country
Research	_____	_____
Internship/work placement	_____	_____
summer school	_____	_____
language course	_____	_____
Other	_____	_____

5. Personal details

5.1 When were you born?

Please provide month and year of your birthday.

Month _____ Year _____

5.2 What is your sex?

○ Female
○ Male

5.3 Were you born in the country in which you are now studying?

○ Yes
○ No

5.4 Were both of your parents born in the country in which you are now studying?

○ Yes
○ No

5.5 What are your language skills?

Please rate your grade of proficiency in the applicable language(s).

	Mother tongue	Very good				No know-ledge
[official language in your country]	○	○	○	○	○	○
English	○	○	○	○	○	○
[other common language in your country]	○	○	○	○	○	○
[other common language in your country]	○	○	○	○	○	○

5.6 Do you have any children?

○ Yes
○ No (please go on to question 5. 9)

5.7 How many children do you have?

___ child(ren)

5.8 How old is your youngest child?

___ years of age

5.9 Are you impaired in your studies by any of the following?

Multiple answers possible.

☐ Yes, chronic diseases
☐ Yes, mental problems
☐ Yes, physical disabilities
☐ Yes, other health problems
☐ No (please go on to question 6.1)

5.10 Do you feel that your impairment is sufficiently taken account of in your studies?

6. Family Background

In this section you will be asked some questions about your family background. The following questions are about your mother and father or those person(s) who are like a mother or father to you — for example, guardians, step-parents, foster parents, etc. If you shared your time with more than one set of parents or guardians during your youth, please answer the following questions for those parents/guardians you spent the most time with.

6.1 What is the highest level of education your father and mother have obtained?

	father	mother
Up to lower secondary (ISCED 0, 1, 2)	○	○
Upper secondary (ISCED 3)	○	○
Post-secondary non-tertiary (ISCED 4)	○	○
First stage of tertiary education (ISCED 5B, vocational)	○	○
First stage of tertiary education (ISCED 5A, academic)	○	○
Second stage of tertiary education (ISCED 6)	○	○
Do not know	○	○

6.2 What is your father/mother currently doing?

Please tick only one box.

	father	mother
Working full-time for pay	○	○
Working part-time for pay	○	○
Not working, but looking for a job	○	○
Other (e.g. home duties, retired)	○	○
Do not know or deceased	○	○

6.3 What are the most recent or former occupations of your father and mother?

Please classify the job according to one of the following categories of occupation.

	father	mother
Legislators, senior officials and managers	○	○
Professionals	○	○
Technicians and associate professionals	○	○
Clerks	○	○
Service workers/sales workers	○	○
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	○	○
Craft and related trades workers	○	○
Plant and machine operators and assemblers	○	○
Elementary occupations/domestic and related helpers	○	○
Armed forces/military	○	○
Do not know	○	○

6.4 Some people are considered to have a high social standing and some are considered to have a low social standing. Thinking about your family background, where would you place your parents on this scale if the top indicated high social standing and the bottom indicated low social standing?

- ○ **high social standing**
- ○
- ○
- ○
- ○
- ○
- ○
- ○
- ○
- ○ **low social standing**

Appendix E – Key data on national student populations

Country / Source	Students in sample	Sex		Qualification			Study intensity*		Age groups			Transition route**		Educational attainment of parents			Form of housing	
		Female students	Male students	Bachelor students	Master students	Other national/ postgrad-uate degree students	low-intensity students	non-low-intensity students	up to 24 years old	25-29 years old	30 years old or over	direct transition students	delayed transition students	low qualification background (ISCED 0-2)	non-tertiary background (ISCED 3-4)	high qualification background (ISCED 5-6)	students living with parents	students not living with parents
	Meta-data	A3	A3	B7	B7	B7	B11	B11	A1	A1	A1	A3	A3	C3	C3	C3	D1	D1
AT	31,640	54	46	41	8	51	31	69	47	34	20	81	19	5	51	44	21	79
CH	24,500	52	48	73	13	15	14	86	57	30	13	84	16	8	37	56	42	58
CZ	12,573	59	42	67	16	17	20	80	63	20	17	81	19	15	43	42	35	65
DE	15,814	49	51	43	5	52	14	86	62	31	8	85	15	2	29	69	24	76
DK	3,599	59	41	65	34	0	16	84	48	32	20	62	38	8	13	79	4	97
EE	1,219	63	38	76	18	6	27	74	61	20	19	79	21	3	36	61	24	76
ES	5,163	55	45	17	6	77	9	91	68	18	14	87	13	25	26	49	51	49
E_W	3,400	57	44	81	12	7	n.d.	n.d.	67	10	23	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	49	51	24	77
FI	3,011	55	45	64	36	0	24	76	53	29	18	75	25	10	29	62	6	94
FR	21,547	57	43	39	37	24	19	81	86	8	6	97	3	10	32	58	39	61
HR	3,350	59	41	60	15	25	15	85	91	8	2	98	2	2	48	50	43	57
IE	11,531	54	46	71	10	19	19	81	71	11	19	65	35	37	23	40	39	61
IT	4,499	57	43	67	18	16	17	83	78	17	5	92	8	24	49	27	73	27
LT	1,004	57	43	79	14	7	29	71	88	7	6	92	8	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	31	69
LV	1,709	61	39	20	21	59	22	78	84	9	7	95	5	1	39	60	37	63
MT	1,574	59	41	67	16	18	21	79	75	10	15	84	16	42	24	35	76	24
NL	14,422	54	46	82	13	5	18	82	77	14	9	94	6	19	24	57	36	65
NO	2,309	61	39	62	29	9	29	71	50	19	31	68	32	8	27	65	7	93
PL	1,992	57	43	66	18	17	20	80	78	15	7	94	6	2	63	35	50	50
PT	11,941	55	45	72	11	18	8	92	58	19	23	91	9	45	31	24	46	54
RO	3,339	65	35	85	15	0	21	79	79	7	15	87	13	4	59	37	40	60
SE	2,541	60	40	32	14	54	20	80	58	26	16	40	60	5	34	61	12	88
SI	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
SK	3,489	60	40	57	43	0	37	63	82	10	8	88	12	1	56	44	40	60
TR	19,479	51	49	89	10	1	15	85	88	10	2	90	10	45	26	29	43	57
Mean	8,569	57	43	61	18	21	20	80	70	17	13	83	17	15	37	49	35	65
Median	3,544	57	43	66	15	16	20	80	70	16	14	87	13	8	34	50	38	62
Min	1,004	49	35	17	5	0	8	63	47	7	2	40	2	1	13	24	4	24
Max	31,640	65	51	89	43	77	37	92	91	34	31	98	60	45	63	79	76	97

Note: Shares without missings. Shares re-calculated to 100%. Rounding differences possible.

*Def: Low-intensity is: A student who spends less than 21 hours per week on study-related activities (= taught studies + personal study time) irrespective of the formal status.

**Def: All students, whose delay between receiving HE entrance qualification at school and entering higher education for the first time amounts to more than 2 years are considered delayed transition students. All students, whose delay was less than 2 years, but whose entry qualification was obtained outside the normal school system are also considered delayed transition students.