# THE SOCIAL DIMENSION OF HIGHER EDUCATION. THE RESULTS OF EUROSTUDENT V IN HUNGARY





The Social Dimension of Higher Education. The Results of Eurostudent V in Hungary

Educatio Public Services Non-profit LLC

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Orsolya Garai – László Kiss

## **Eurostudent V National report**

In 2012, Hungary joined the Eurostudent higher education research programme supported by the European Commission. The research covers undergraduate students at ISCED levels 6 and 7, which, in Hungary, includes Bachelor programmes, Master programmes, unified and undivided programmes and traditional university or college programmes. Students of higher education technical programmes, technical programmes after degree and doctoral programmes were optional target groups, that is, the institutions were not obliged to include them in the research.

The research covered students of full-time (regular) programmes and part-time programmes alike. This obligation, when adapted to specific Hungarian circumstances, called for the inclusion of all work schedules. Hungarian and foreign citizens were asked to fill in the questionnaire; however, in the latter category only those participating in degree mobility programmes were included.

The sample used for the purposes of the research was compiled on the basis of the higher education typology created by Ildikó Hrubos and her colleagues.<sup>1</sup> The typology categorizes Hungarian higher education institutions into eight groups (clusters): (1) church colleges with a low number of students, providing religious training; (2) private colleges with a relatively low number of students, typically providing programmes in economic and business or in social sciences; (3) colleges with relatively high number of students and a general training profile; (4) specialized colleges with a specific training profile; (5) universities with a general training profile but of a nonconventional professional composition; (6) relatively small universities with a specialized training profile; (7) traditional universities; (8) international universities. We attempted to include all clusters in our sample with the exception of cluster 1 as the international methodology of the survey specified that institutions providing exclusively religious training are not subject to the research. Unfortunately, cluster 8 (international universities) were not included in the sample due to failure of cooperation.

Twenty-five Hungarian institutions of higher education participated in the survey. As evidenced by the data of the Higher Education Information System, the 25 participants represented 85% of all Hungarian higher education students (minus students of institutions of religious training).

For the purposes of the preparation of the research, we planned to use a five-per-cent student sample, and defined the data collection criteria of for each participant institution accordingly, on

<sup>1</sup> Hrubos, I. (2011): Intézményi sokféleség a felsőoktatásban [Institutional diversity in higher education] in: Hrubos, I. (ed.): Műhelytanulmányok. A felsőoktatási intézmények főbb típusai tevékenységük és vállalt miszsziójuk szerint. Nemzetközi piacorientáció, korszerű intézményi menedzsment. [Workshop studies. Institutions of higher education broken down by their major fields of activity and declared mission. International market orientation and modern international management], NFKK Füzetek 8, Budapesti Corvinus Egyetem, 2011; and Horváth, Á. (2011): Kísérlet az európai mapping rendszer hazai alkalmazására [Attempts to implement the European mapping system in Hungary], *Ibid.* 

the basis of the ratio of students of a specific type to student population in Hungary. The answers submitted were cleaned as specified in central methodological rules. A total of 19,375 questionnaires were submitted, 1,222 of which were removed due to the fact that the respondents were non-target-group individuals (had a foreign study grant or were in a passive status at the time of filling in the questionnaire); 672 were removed as the respondents were members of the optional target groups (such questionnaires were not deleted but were not subjected to the final analysis); 730 were removed due to incompleteness; and 6 due to the fact that the respondent apparently did not take the questionnaire seriously. Accordingly, the final sample contained 16,745 elements.

#### Age and gender distribution

As already specified in the methodological introduction, the final sample contained 16,745 persons. Most of them (47% of all respondents) fall into the 22–25 age group. The second largest group is that of the individuals under 22; similarly to the group of respondents above the age of 25, they make up more than one-fourth of the sample.

The average age of the sample is 25 years; the median of the age variable is 23.



#### Figure 1. Age distribution of respondents (N=16,745)

In the sample, there are more female students (9,155) than male (7,591). The average age of women is slightly lower that that of men (24.9 years as opposed to 25.3).

### Respondents and their parents categorised by their country of birth

The majority of the respondents (95.5%) were born in Hungary, 3.4% were born in Romania, Serbia and Slovakia (0.8–1.4% in each country), 0.4% in Ukraine, 0.1% in Croatia and 0.6% in other countries.

As for the respondents' parents, 91.4% of the fathers and 91.1% of the mothers were born in Hungary. The second largest group is that of parents born in Romania (2.6% of the fathers and 2.4% of the mothers). The third and the fourth largest groups are those of individuals born in Serbia (Yugoslavia) and Slovakia (Czechoslovakia), respectively.

Data on the parents' qualification reveal that the majority of both fathers and mothers have secondary qualifications. 33% and 39.1% of the fathers and mothers, respectively, have higher education qualifications. Most students (72.3%) believe that their parents' social standing is average (medium). 13.3% and 14.4% of the respondents indicated that their parents' social status falls into the three lowest deciles and three highest deciles on a ten-point scale, respectively.

## Students with children

8.4% of the respondents (1,403 persons) have children. 41.5% of them have one child, and approximately 41% have two children. One-third of them (2.2% of the total sample) have a child/children of 3 years or younger.

## **Disabled students and chronically ill students**

Eight per cent of the respondents (1,312 students) are disabled or chronically ill. The gender distribution in this group does not differ significantly from that of the total sample (43.8% men, 56.2% women). The gender distribution displays differences in the various age groups: disabled students and chronically ill students are underrepresented in the under 21 age group and are overrepresented in the 30+ age group. The former and the latter groups make up 22% and 15.2% of the group of chronically ill or disabled respondents, respectively, while their percentages in the group of all respondents are 26.1% and 12.3%, respectively. The average age of disabled or chronically ill students is 25.8 years; this is 0.8 years higher than that of the group of all respondents.

In several respects, the social standing of disabled or chronically ill students is lower than that of all respondents. As for the parents' qualification, 48.9% of all respondents have at least one parent with higher education qualification, while the percentage for the disabled or chronically ill students is only 43.2%.

Among the disabled or chronically ill respondents, the rate of chronically ill individuals is the highest (3.3%), and that of persons with other long-standing health problems is also high (2.9%). The rate of students with sensory impairments or learning disabilities is under 1%, while the rate of the individuals with movement impairment or mental health problems is under 0.5%.<sup>2</sup>

## Correlations between the structural background variables

Adapting to the analytical approach of the international, comparative Eurostudent analysis and in order to contribute to analysis and interpretation, on the basis of the Hungarian survey data we introduced socio-economic and education-related structural background variables

<sup>2</sup> In general, these data fall in line with the rate of disabled persons among the persons seeking admission to higher education institutions. For more information, please refer to Bódi, E. – Garai, O. (2011): Előnyben részesítés a felsőoktatási felvételi eljárásban [Positive discrimination in admission to higher education]. In: *Felsőoktatási Műhely*, Vol. 2011/1, pp. 71–80.

in addition to the primary demographic background variables such as gender, age group, etc. These are as follows:

- Does either of the parents have higher education qualifications?
- What is the respondent's main source of income/livelihood?
- The intensity of the respondent's study activity
- Was the transition from secondary education to higher education direct or was it interrupted?

The analysis of the intensity of study activity and the transition type indicates that those who entered higher education directly after finishing their secondary studies are more active. Of those who interrupted their studies for at least one years after finishing secondary education, the rate of individuals who study intensely (more than 40 hours per week) is only 28.7%, while this rate is 35.8% among those who started higher education without interruption.

Figure 2. The correlation between the entry type and the intensity of study activity (N=11,948)



The intensity of study activity is also related to income resources. Obviously, students who mainly rely on self-earned income lay greater emphasis on gainful activities than those who are financially supported by their family or by the state. Students who rely on self-earned income are underrepresented among individuals with high study activity, and their percentage in the low-activity group is significantly higher than that of the students receiving contribution from their families or the state.

Figure 3. The correlation between the main source of income and the intensity of study activity (N=12,830)



At the same time, the type of source of income is not independent of the parents' educational background. 58% of students whose parents have higher education qualification are in the position to rely mainly on family contributions for their livelihood and studies; their percent-

age among students whose parents do not have higher education qualification is only 45.8%. Students relying on their self-earned income are overrepresented in the group of students whose parents do not have higher education qualification and are underrepresented among students whose parents have higher education qualification.

Figure 4. The correlation between the main income resources and the parents' educational background (N=15,041)



The effect of the parents' educational background is also evident in the nature of the transition from secondary education to higher education. Almost 90% of respondents whose parents have higher education qualification started higher education immediately after acquiring their secondary school leaving certificate, while less than 80% the of respondents whose parents do not have higher education qualification did so.

Figure 5. The correlation between entry type and the parents' qualification (N=14,448)



## **Current studies**

## Levels of education

It is worth describing the total sample according to each element of the training structure. The majority of the respondents (74.6%) are participating in Bachelor programmes. The next largest category is that of students on Master programmes (14.4% of all respondents); 9.5% study on undivided programmes; 1.6% pursue their studies on traditional training programme (currently being phased out).



Figure 6. Distribution of respondents by educational level (N=16,745)

The examination of gender distribution sheds light on an interesting correlation: women are overrepresented among students of undivided programmes, while the vast majority of students in traditional university programmes are men. At the other educational levels, the gender ratio is approximately even.

With regard to the correlation between the structural background variables and the levels of education, the parents' qualification is a factor which is worth being analysed. It is evident that students whose parents have higher education qualification are overrepresented on undivided study programmes, which may indicate the relatively high social status of students attending programmes of law, medicine, dentistry, medicine, veterinary medicine, etc. Due to the low number of students studying on traditional programmes, there is no point in analysing their background separately in this respect. Nevertheless, it is evident that – similarly to undivided programmes are: 46.1% of Bachelor-level students have at least one parent who has higher education qualifications, while this percentage is over 50% among Master-level students.



## Figure 7. Qualification of parents by level of education (N=16,722)

The differences between family background are also outlined by the correlations between income resources and educational levels. 70% of those attending undivided programmes rely on financial contributions or transfer from their families as their main source of income; this rate is only 52.3% among students on Bachelor programmes.



Figure 8. Main income resources of respondents broken down by educational level (N=15,053)

With regard to the type of transition, the characteristics of undivided programmes are also worth mentioning. Approximately 16% of all respondents interrupted their studies for at least one year after finishing secondary education; their percentage is only 6.9% among students on undivided study programmes.



Figure 9. Main income resources by type of entry to higher education (N=14,467)

## Work schedules

Seventy-seven per cent of the respondents pursue their studies on full-time (regular) programmes. The average age of full-time students is 23.1 years, while the average age of those in other programmes (correspondence, evening or distance programmes) is 32.1 years. The majority of full-time students under the age of 26; while most students on part-time programmes are over the age 26.



Figure 10. Age groups of respondents by work schedule (N=16,745)

The gender distribution is slightly different in the groups of full-time and part-time students. The distribution is relatively balanced on full-time programmes, while women are overrepresented on part-time study programmes.

Programmes of various work schedules display considerable differences with regard to the transition from secondary education to higher education. The rate of students starting their tertiary studies immediately after finishing secondary education is 90% on full-time programmes, while more than 40% of students on part-time programmes interrupt their studies for more than one year after finishing secondary school.

Figure 11. Respondents by type of entry to higher education, broken down by work schedule (N=14,467)



The family background of students on different work schedules differs too: 56.2% of fulltime students and 36.3% of part-time students have at least one parent with higher education qualification.



Figure 12. Respondents by parents' qualification, broken down by work schedule (N=16,723)

Differences in age and family background result in different strategies of livelihood. Students on part-time programmes rely on their self-earned income as the main source of income, while more than 60% of full-time students rely mainly on the financial contribution and other types of transfer from their families.

Figure 13. Respondents by main source of income, broken down by work schedule (N=15,050)



## Foreign language skills

The level of foreign language skills as a factor does not correlate closely with school-based education yet is representative of an individual's situation as a student. Foreign language skills – or their objective certification, that is, the foreign language exam certificate – are a key prerequisite of completing one's studies. The rate of students who do not acquire their degree due to the lack of a language exam certificate differs by study fields and school types yet in every year represents a large number of individuals in the group as a whole.<sup>3</sup>

Most higher education students have skills in English. 22.2% indicated that they have good language skills and another 74.8% have some language skills. The second biggest language is German; approximately a total of 71% of the students speak it at some level. Skills in big European languages, in comparison with English and German, seem to be of less importance – 20% of the respondents have skills in French, 18% in Italian, 15% in Spanish and 15% in Russian.

<sup>3</sup> For more information on the graduation problems due to the lack of language exam certificate, see: Nándori, E. (2010): Átmenet a felsőoktatásból a munkaerőpiacra [Transition from higher education to the labour market]. In: Garai, O. et al. (eds.): *Frissdiplomások 2010* [Recent Graduates 2011], Budapest, Educatio Nonprofit Kft., pp. 193–202.

52% of the respondents have good skills in one foreign language, while another 17% have good skills in more than one foreign language. 31% do not have skills in any foreign language, which means that it can be assumed that approximately one-third of the students lack adequate linguistic competence.

Figure 14. The number of foreign languages at which the respondent have good skills (N=16,723)



## **Further study plans**

A key element of the Eurostudent research is the examination of students' further study plans. 46% of the respondents intend to start further studies within one year after finishing their current studies; 9% intend to do so after a period longer than one year. Only one-fifth of them indicated that they do not intend to pursue further studies, while another 25% have not decided yet.



Figure 15. Further study plans of respondents (N=16,314)

The great majority (75.8%) of those intending to pursue further studies want to do so in Hungary; 10% intend to study further abroad; 14% have not decided yet. Those who plan to interrupt their studies for more than one year want to be active on the labour market in that period: 22% plan to continue with their current job, 57% intend to seek new or first employment, while 3% intend to set up their own business.

Obviously, further study plans differ greatly by the educational level. 50% of the students on Bachelor programmes want to start their further studies within one year; another 9% intend to do so at some later point. Basically, these data fall in line with the data previously collected in the framework of the Graduate Career Tracking System, according to which 60% of students on Bachelor programmes plan to study further on Master programmes.<sup>4</sup>



Figure 16. Further study plans of Bachelor-level students (N=11,883)

A significantly lower rate of students on Master programmes want to study further: 27% intend to go on with their studies within one year, while 8% want to do so at some later point. The percentage of students who claim they do not intend to study further is also higher: 39%, as opposed to the rate of 15% among students on Bachelor programmes.

## Study background

The majority of the respondents obtained their secondary school leaving certificate in 2009. 43% studied in four-year secondary schools, 22% in structure changing institutions and 30% in secondary vocational schools. 7.2% of the respondents (approximately 1,100 persons) interrupted their studies for at least one year after the start of higher education and before the acquisition of their first degree. In this group, men are overrepresented: while the rate of all men subject to the research is 45%, 50.9% of the students who interrupt their studies are men.

<sup>4</sup> Kiss, L. – Veroszta, Zs. (2011): Bachelor Graduates in Hungary in the Transitional Period of Higher Education System. In: Schomburg, H. – Teichler, U.: *Employability and Mobility of Bachelor Graduates in Europe*. Rotterdam–Boston–Taipei, Sense Publ., p. 135.

Among the individuals who interrupt their studies, the rate of those who have at least one parent with higher education qualification is 2% higher. Three-fourths of the individuals interrupting their higher education entered higher education directly after finishing secondary school. The differences in strategies of livelihood are indicated by the fact that individuals relying mainly on the financial contribution from their families are overrepresented among those who interrupt their studies before the acquisition of the first degree, while those who rely on their self-earned income are overrepresented among the students who interrupt their studies between two programmes of higher education.

Before the start of higher education, 33% of the respondents acquired some work experience. 15% had full-time permanent jobs, while 18% worked part time or occasionally. The remaining part (approximately two-thirds) entered higher education without any labour market experience.



Figure 17. Respondents who had / did not have a job before entering higher education (N=15,704)

Obviously, individuals from the younger age group are more likely to have entered higher education without any work experience; still, more than 20% of the youngest age group (under 22) worked before commencing higher education.

In terms of the main resources of income, it is evident that the majority of those who start their studies in higher education after gaining some experience on the labour market are those who mainly rely on their self-earned income. The majority (almost three-fourths) of students who rely mainly on financial contribution from their family or the state did not have a job before entering a higher education institution. Obviously, this issue is closely related to that of transition: 75% of those who interrupted their studies before the transition to the higher education had a job before starting higher education; for individuals who did not interrupt their studies, the opposite is true: three-fourths of them entered higher education without any previous labour market experience.

Figure 18. Respondents who had / did not have a job before entering higher education, broken down by main source of income (N=14,935)



## **Housing conditions**

Forty-four per cent of the respondents live with their parents. This relatively high rate is a vivid illustration of the fact that the young persons subjected to the research are in a life situation that is sometimes referred to as "post-adolescence".<sup>5</sup> Entry to higher education does not necessarily involve "becoming independent" or leaving the parents' home – a fact indicated by the data on income resources as well.

About 20% of the individuals constituting the sample live with a partner/spouse or a child/ children during their studies; the others live with other persons (flatmates in shared flats or roommates in dormitories/halls of residence) or live on their own.



Figures 19. Respondents by persons they live with during their studies (N=16,210)

<sup>5</sup> For more information of post-adolescence, see: Vaskovics, L. (2000): A posztadoleszcencia szociológiai elmélete [A sociological theory of post-adolescence]. In: Szociológiai Szemle, Vol. 2000/4.

Among men, the rate of individuals living with their parents is higher while that of individuals living with their partners/spouses/children is lower than among women. In the period of studies, men are somewhat more likely to live alone than women are.

Figures 20. Respondents by persons they live with during their studies, broken down by gender (N=16,210)



An age group analysis illustrates that young people leave the family home and become independent later than previous generations. Above the age of 30 years, only a small proportion of students live with their parents. In all age groups under investigation, this rate is above 40% (albeit it decreases with age) and is close to 50% among students under 20 years and between 22 and 25 years.

Figure 21. Respondents by persons they live with during their studies, broken down by age group (N=16,210)



The higher education qualification of the respondents' parents show correspondence with the persons students live with. Students whose parents have a higher education qualification are more likely to live with their parents than those whose parents do not have such qualification. At the same time, in the latter group the rate of individuals living with a partner or a spouse is higher than in the former group.

Figure 22. Respondents by persons they live with during their studies, broken down by the parents' qualification (N=16,186)



Nevertheless, no evident correlation can be detected between the housing conditions and the main sources of income/livelihood; the vast majority of those sharing their flats with others (in shared flats, in dormitories or halls of residence, etc.) rely on financial contribution from their families. (Most probably, these young persons leave their parents' home due to the geographical distance between their parents' place of residence or their settlement of residence and the location of the higher education institution.) Nevertheless, the rate of students who rely on financial contribution from their family of those living with their parents is "only" 52.3%. These data show that leaving one's family is a process that has several stages which are not necessarily based on each other. Almost two-thirds of the students who have already left the family home receive financial support from their parents, while almost the half of those living with their parents have other resources as well to cover their expenses.

One-fifth (slightly more than 3,300 individuals) live in dormitories or halls of residence during their studies. An age group analysis of students living in dormitories reflects the dominance of the relatively young: in the category of students above 25 years, students who live in dormitories or halls of residence are underrepresented. Again, this is a manifestation of the fact that becoming independent of one's parents is a multi-stage process. Accommodation in dormitories – as referred to above, in the discussion of "living with other persons" – is a solution of the problem posed by the geographical distance between the parents' home and the higher education institution. 60.6% of the students accommodated in dormitories or halls of residence still rely on financial or other types of transfer from their families.

#### The "social dimension" of higher education

The "social dimension" was introduced as a key aspect of the Bologna process in 2001 at the meeting of European Ministers in charge of Higher Education. A strong social dimension provides equal access to higher education, contributes to the improvement of the individual's life chances, talent development, employability and thus, promotes social, economic and cultural development. Recent documents on the Bologna process – while considering the increase of the number of higher education students important – place increasing emphasis on the entrants, equal opportunities with regard to the entry and the "inclusive"/"exclusive" nature of the system.

Quite naturally, the "inclusive" nature of a higher education system is reflected by the presence or share of students whose parents have low/high qualifications; however, the family background of an individual does not exercise its effect in itself yet through various channels and in various fields.

## Students' incomes

The average monthly income of a student (calculated on the basis of the full sample) is HUF 85,686. With age, the available sums increases: students in the youngest age group (under 22) have an average monthly income of HUF 56,899, while those in the oldest age group (above 30) have access to a monthly average of HUF 179,736. The average income of students living with their parents is lower than that of those living with other persons; the average monthly incomes are HUF 98,951 and 145,490, respectively.

This correlation is evident during a joint analysis of all age groups, too. With age, the average amount of the monthly income increases yet the income of those living with their parents is lower in all age groups than that of those who have already left the family home.



Figure 23. Respondents' average monthly income indicated on the basis of whether they left the family home, broken down by age groups (HUF) (N=15,156)

### **Income structure**

Income data offer an opportunity for an analysis of the internal structure of students' income and the distribution of income among the main income types. The main income types are as follows: income from one's family/spouse/partner; self-earned income; income from state support; other income types. For the purposes of this analysis and due to the differences related to life conditions, students living with their parents and students who have left the family home are examined separately.

53% of the income of students who still live in the family home comes from family transfers. Student grants and other types of support from public sources have a share of 14% of the total income. Self-earned income and income from other resources make up 27% and 6% of the total income, respectively.





The internal structure of the income of students who have already left the family home displays a slightly different pattern. In their case, family transfers make up the half of the total income. Support from public sources is of less importance, while 34% of the total income is made up by self-earned income. (It is important to note that the above statements concern the whole sample, which means that they also refer to the individuals who mainly rely on other income sources than self-earned income.)

Figure 25. Distribution of the income of students who left the family home (by sources of income) (N=9,568)



The income structure of students who mainly rely on family contribution does not differ significantly in the categories of those living with their parents and those who have already left the family home. In both categories, family transfers have a share of more than 80% of the total income, while self-earned income and support from public sources make up 7-8% each. It can be established that for the young persons who mainly rely on self-earned income such income plays a relatively important role in terms of becoming independent of the parents'

household. Students who continue to live with their parents yet rely on self-earned income cover their expenses from family contribution to a certain degree (14%). This percentage is lower (11%) in the case of those who have an independent household.

#### Students' regular expenses

Similarly to income structure, the scope of students' expenses can be subjected to detailed analysis. Students' expenses were divided into two groups: (1) general living costs and (2) the costs of studies. The former category includes the costs of accommodation, debt payment, food, transport, healthcare and amusement, while the latter is that of the costs of the acquisition of study materials, textbooks, tuition fees, examination fees, registration fees and social welfare contributions. The groups of students who still live with their parents and those who have already left the family household are analysed separately in this respect, too, since it is expected that the costs patterns are different.

In terms of the absolute value of costs, the biggest item for both groups is the costs of accommodation, food and transport. The main difference between the two groups is detected with regard to the first two costs types: young persons who live with their parents spend HUF 24,000 less for accommodation and HUF 10,000 less for food than those who have left the family home. The examination of the total sample sheds light on the fact that the average costs of caring for a child, debt payment and tuition fee are not very high. Certainly, if these costs are analysed exclusively with regard to those involved in the payment of such costs types, the average amounts are considerably higher. (For example, when the analysis is narrowed down to tuition fee payers, the average monthly tuition fee per person is HUF 31,000.)

The two diagrams below illustrate the distribution of the monthly expenses of the two groups under analysis. It is apparent that the costs of accommodation, food and transport make up more than 50% of the monthly costs for both groups; however, this percentage is 54% and 66% for those living with their parents and for those who have left the family home, respectively.



### Figure 26. Distribution of income of respondents living with their parents

Figure 27. Distribution of income of respondents who have left the family home



## Gainful activity in the current semester

In the semester when the questionnaire was submitted, 46% of the respondents performed gainful activity of some regularity: 26% worked regularly and 17% worked occasionally.



Figure 28. Respondents who had / did not have a job in the semester in question (N=15,722)

The examination of age groups shows that more than the half of the individuals above the age of 25 years have a permanent job, yet only 25% of students in the youngest age group are present on the labour market and 7.9% of those under 22 have a permanent job.

Figure 29. Respondents who had / did not have a job in the semester in question, broken down by age group (N=15,722)



Obviously, the gainful activity performed during the studies has an effect on the intensity of studies. 43.1% of students who work on a regular basis reported the low intensity of their study activities; this rate is only 12.3% for those without jobs. In terms of the intensity of study activities, the group of those who work occasionally represent a medium category. The majority of students perform their study activity with a medium intensity; the rate of students who report low or high intensity are similar to the rates detectable in the other two groups. The investigation of the two extremes shows that these groups have different strategies: students who work regularly tend to focus on their work, while, as a rule, those who do not have a job concentrate on the studies.

Figure 30. Intensity of the study activities of respondents who had / did not have a job in the semester in question (N=13,071)



Students who work on a regular basis consider themselves to be working adults studying on the side. In this regard, they differ significantly from "temping" students: 87% of the individuals in the latter category consider themselves to be students who, while studying, perform gainful activity as well.

Figure 31. Self-definition of respondents who had / did not have a job in the semester in question (N=7,143)



I am primarily a student and perform other activities besides studying liver and study I primarily perform other activities (e.g. childcare) and study at the same time

## The correlation between work and studies

Another important issue is the relevance of the job/work of a student to his or her field of studies. The categories of students who work occasionally and those who work regularly show differences in this respect, too. 52.5% of those who work regularly perform work related to their current studies, and only 21.8% work in a field that is not related to their studies in any way. However, only 26.6% of those who work occasionally reported that their gainful activity is related to their current field of studies, and 46.9% work in a field not related to their studies in any way.

Students on Master programmes are more likely to perform professional work than Bachelor-level students. The percentages of the young persons performing such work are 60% and 38.8% for the Master level and for the Bachelor level, respectively. 15.4% of students on Master programmes and 34.9% of students on Bachelor programmes perform work that is not related to their fields of study in any way.

With age, the rate of those who perform study-related work increases: it is only 23% for students under 22, yet 60% for students above 30. The correlation between the age group and

study-related work is shown within the groups of students who work occasionally and regularly. In all age groups, the percentage of the individuals who work in a field related to their studies is lower among those who work occasionally than among those who work regularly. A similar trend is detected within each employment type.

Figure 32. Students who work in a field related to their studies, broken down by age group and employment type (%) (N=6,948)



## László Kiss

## Structural and socio-economic background factors of international student mobility

With regard to the positive effects of international mobility at the individual and social levels, relevant studies tend to emphasise contribution to excellence, the improvement of opportunities for preparing for a profession, the introduction of elite education (Lajos 2005), the support of professional and practical career building at the individual level (Hrubos 2005) and the facilitation of labour market integration. (Kasza 2010, Teichler 2011)

The correlations between international student mobility and the structure of education are easy to detect. The international mobility rates of students who are in a different status in terms of vertical factors (educational levels) and horizontal factors (fields of study, work schedule) differ from each other. The divergent rates of educational levels are due to – besides differences of orientation and motivation – differences in the number of years spent in higher education. A characteristic feature of international mobility surveys of students is that they measure mobility processes that are completed at the time of the survey is taken, and, consequently, cannot represent the mobility as a factor of a student's complete learning path. (Teichler 2011)

The diverging international mobility rates of the individual study fields are probably the results of structural reasons, too. In some fields, institutions have close international relations and a strong international orientation, while others are less likely to have cross-border relations; furthermore, students' general approach may also differ as in certain fields international experience is a must, while in other fields students may not see the positive effects of periods of study abroad. (Tót 2005)

Besides the mobility rate differences resulting from the educational structure, attention needs to be paid to the fact that the opportunity for involvement in international student mobility has specific social background factors, including the parents' status and the socioeconomic situation of the family or the student (gainful activity, having a family of their own, having children, health status, etc.).

This study seeks to elaborate on the nature of the combined operation of the disparity of opportunities that result from the structure of education and the socio-economic situation. Do these factors mutually reinforce each other, are independent of each other or have opposing effects?

# International student mobility and status in the educational structure

As evidenced by the Eurostudent V research data, 4.3% of students in Hungarian higher education studied at a foreign higher education institution for at least one semester. The educational levels display significant differences in this respect: the mobility rate is the highest in the group of students on Master-level programmes (11%). Not including traditional university and college programmes (currently being phased out), this rate is substantially higher than that of students of Bachelor programmes (2.9%) or students of undivided study programmes (of law, medicine, some branches of art, etc.) (4.4%).<sup>1</sup>

Figure 1. Students who studied abroad, plan to study abroad or do not plan to study abroad; all work schedules and forms of financing (N=16,053)<sup>2</sup>



When the survey is extended to cover not only completed mobility periods, the differences referred to above are no longer detectable. Many of the students attending Bachelor programmes or undivided programmes intend to study abroad in the future (32.8% and 36.8%, respectively), while only 21.5% of students on Master programmes plan to do so. Although these plans are not necessarily implemented, the general conclusion is that approximately 64–65% of students are "completely immobile", that is, they have not studied abroad and do not plan to so. It is interesting to note that the rate of such students is the highest on Master programmes: over two-thirds.

<sup>1</sup> The first Bologna-type Bachelor programmes were launched in 2004 and 2005 as pilot programmes. The transition process was completed in 2006, when more than 76,000 students began their Bachelor studies. Master programmes (constituting the second level of the Bologna system) commenced somewhat later. In 2007, only 500 students started their studies on Master programmes; by 2008, their number was more than 4,000. Albeit traditional university and college programmes were not launched after 2006, they are still present in Hungarian higher education in the form of programmes being phased out. (Kiss – Veroszta 2011)

<sup>2</sup> Source of the data of all tables: *Eurostudent V magyarországi felmérés, 2013* (Eurostudent V Research in Hungary, 2013) Educatio Társadalmi Szolgáltató Nonprofit K ft.

Figure 2. Students who studied abroad, plan to study abroad or do not plan to study abroad, by fields of study (N=15,818)



An analysis of international student mobility rates broken down by study fields shows that the fields of humanities, economics and social sciences have particularly high rates. By contrast, the lowest rates of completed mobility periods are evident in the fields of IT studies, administration, law enforcement and military training, medicine and health science, and teacher training. In terms of planned mobility, the rates are slightly different: the highest rates are evident in the study fields of arts and art mediation; moreover, a high number of students of natural sciences plan to study abroad. By contrast, the percentage of students who plan to study abroad is very low among students of administration, law enforcement and military training, law, and teacher training. All in all, these are three fields where the percentages of students who neither have participated in mobility programmes and nor do have such intention are the highest.

## Social background factors of international student mobility

The socio-economic status of students can be operationalized on the basis of the Eurostudent data with three variables: (1) the level of education of a student's parents,<sup>3</sup> (2) the monthly income of a student and (3) the student's subjective judgement of his or her family's social standing.

The parents' level of education is a factor that has substantial impact on a student's chances of involvement in international student mobility. The rate of students who participated in international mobility programmes is 6.2% among students whose parents (at least one of them) have higher education qualification, as opposed to the rate of 2.5% among those whose parents do not have such qualification. Such differences are evident in mobility plans as well. The rate of students who plan to participate in student mobility is 10% higher among those whose parent(s) has/have higher education qualification than among those whose parents did not acquire such qualification.

Figure 3. Students who studied abroad, plan to study abroad or do not plan to study abroad, by the parents' level of education (N=16,032)



However, the examination of students' total monthly income does not reveal such linear correlations. The monthly income of students who have participated in mobility programmes is higher than the average or the income of the two other groups (those who plan to study abroad and the "immobile"), yet the income of the "immobile" are above the average, too. Students who have not yet participated in mobility programmes but plan to do so have the lowest average income.

<sup>3</sup> The parents' level education was regarded as a two-value variable: being either higher education qualification or not. The level of education of a student's parents is regarded as higher education qualification if at least one of the parents has higher education qualification.

Figure 4. Total monthly income of students who studied abroad, plan to study abroad or do not plan to study abroad (HUF) (N=12,597)



Similarly to the parents' level of education, students' subjective judgement of their families' social standing shows a linear correlation with involvement in mobility. The rates of students who have participated in mobility programmes or have such plans are high among individuals of high social standing and the lowest among students coming from the low-status families.

Figure 5. Students who studied abroad, plan to study abroad or do not plan to study abroad, by the subjective judgement of the family's social standing (N=15,424))



An analysis of the joint effect of the subjective judgement of social standing and parents' qualification on mobility brings an interesting result. Even at first sight, it becomes apparent that once the groups of variegated social status and qualification are analyzed together, the linearity discussed above can no longer be detected. The rate of students who, by the time the questionnaire was submitted, had taken part in international mobility programmes is the lowest among the individuals who come from the highest-status families yet whose parents do not have higher education qualification. Consequently, the international mobility indicators of students whose parents do not have higher education qualifications exhibit the greatest differences in the group of families of the highest social standing. Only 1.6% of students from high-status families with parents who do not have higher education qualification reported in the questionnaire that they had not yet taken part in international student mobility; by contrast, their rate is 8.3% among students who come from the same-status background yet whose parents have higher education qualification. The differences between families where the parents have higher education qualification and where they do not are the smallest in the groups of the lowest-standing families. With the application of the same analytical process, the linear correlations are no longer evident with regard to mobility plans, either. Students who come from families of medium social standing and whose parents

have higher education qualification are more likely to report mobility plans than individuals who are in the highest status and whose parents have the same educational background.

The correlation between monthly income and involvement in mobility does not display any signs of linearity, even when the parents' level of education and the families' social standing are involved in the analysis. The "immobile" children of parents without higher education qualifications have a higher income than individuals who plan to participate or have already participated in mobility programmes. Those who plan to enter mobility programmes reported lower incomes than those with mobility plans did. The situation is similar with regard to the factor of social standing: individuals planning to study abroad have the lowest income in every group.

Figure 6. Students who studied abroad, plan to study abroad or do not plan to study abroad, by the parents' level of education (N=12,589)



On the basis of the results, it can be cautiously deducted that although involvement in international student mobility is interrelated with the student's financial situation – indicated by the fact that the individuals who have already participated in mobility have higher monthly incomes than the others – it is not primarily a money issue. The strongest correlation is evident between the family, the parents' educational background and mobility. For families of the highest and medium social status, the factor of the parents' level of education is definitely a determinant factor, while this impact is weaker in the lowest-status families; in other words, the disadvantage of individuals whose parents do not have higher education qualification is relatively smaller in the lowest-status group.

# The cumulative impact of socio-economic status and the status in the structure of education

An individual's status in the higher education structure is interrelated with his or her social background. The differences in social background in relation to some horizontal segments of higher education have already been discussed in our study on the choices of study programmes and admissions. We came to the conclusion that among the Bachelor-level study programmes there are "low-status" programmes with relatively easy access where students come from a lower educational background and families of lower than average social status, and, all in all, perform worse than the average; the factor of social standing being a factor of significance for the purpose of this research (Kiss 2013).

When levels of education and the parents' qualification are analyzed together, it becomes evident that the majority of Bachelor and Master students who have participated in international mobility come from families with parents who have higher education qualification, while this correlation is weaker in the case of undivided study programmes. This fact seems to show that among students on undivided programmes the factor of the parents' educational background is of less significance as far as involvement in international mobility is concerned.

An examination of the distribution of students among the educational levels in the light of the parents qualification brings an interesting result. Students on undivided programmes – not including traditional college programmes which are very small and, for that reason, were not analyzed separately in terms of the parents' qualification – constitute a homogenous group: only 31.7% of them have parents who do not have higher education qualification. The rate of individuals whose parents do not have higher education qualification is the highest on the Bachelor programmes (traditional university programmes are not included due to the low number of participants).



Figure 7. Respondents by their parents' qualification and their level of education (N=16,721)

A comparison of Bachelor programmes, Master programmes and undivided programmes reveals that at a given educational level the higher the rate of students whose parents have higher education qualification, the smaller its impact on students' involvement in international mobility. In other words, if we accept that a group's greater share of the achievement

of a specific goal reflects a group advantage with regard to the opportunities for achieving that goal, then we can deduce that at a given educational level the lower the rate of students whose parents do not have higher education qualification, the smaller the relative advantage of students whose parents have higher education qualification.

When this statement is tested with regard to the individual fields of study and all educational levels, the resulting data seem to be contradictory at first sight, and the correlation cannot be demonstrated. The proportional differences in fields of study, which were expected to be of interest for the purposes of the present research, are heterogeneous. On programmes of medicine and health science, the low rate of students whose parents do not have higher education qualification does not coincide with the low difference between the rates of the involvement in mobility among students whose parents have higher education qualification and who do not.

It has been previously established that the rate of individuals whose parents do not have higher education qualification is low on undivided study programmes. Having regard to the fact that undivided programmes are relatively high-status programmes in the fields of medicine and health sciences and law, the scope of research is narrowed down to Bachelor and Master students.<sup>4</sup>

In medicine and health sciences and of law, the distribution of students on the basis of their parents' educational background changes considerably as a result of narrowing down the research scope. In the fields of arts and art mediation, the rate of students whose parents do not have higher education qualification is only slightly above one-third; by contrast, the parents of 60-70% of students on Bachelor and Master programmes in teacher training, medicine and health science, law, administration, law enforcement and military training do not have higher education qualification. In this regard, the study fields of economics, natural sciences, social science, IT studies and sports science (the latter attracting only a low number of students) are of a more balanced nature.

<sup>4</sup> Students on traditional programmes were also removed from the research process, as they constitute a special group that may have specific characteristics and where the actual study periods of the individuals are longer than planned.

Figure 8. Respondents broken down by their parents' qualification and their field of study – Bachelor and Master students (N=14,533)



When the category of students subjected to analysis is narrowed down in this manner, the rate of individuals who have participated in mobility falls to 0.5% in the study field of law, thus becoming lower than the rates of low-mobility fields referred to in the first part of the present study (IT studies; administration, law enforcement and military training; medicine and health science; teacher training).

When the variable of the parents' qualification is included in the analysis, our previous statement on the distribution of the parents' qualification within the group and on the disparity of opportunities within the group needs to be expanded. In economics, social sciences and natural sciences, students whose parents have higher education qualification are significantly more likely to have participated in mobility programmes than students whose parents do not have such qualification are. In these fields, the ratio of students whose parents have higher education qualification to those whose parents do not have such educational background is relatively balanced. The same holds true for the fields of technology and humanities, where the parents' qualification indicators are average.

In arts and art mediation – where the rate of individuals whose parents do not have higher education qualification is significantly lower than the average – there is no major difference between the mobility of the two groups. At this point of the analysis, a new group of fields
emerges: study fields where the parents of the majority of Bachelor and Master students do not have higher education qualification. These are the fields of law, administration, law enforcement and military training, medicine and health science, and teacher training.<sup>5</sup> In these fields the parents' educational background does not have a major impact on students' involvement in mobility. In these study fields – where the mobility indicator is generally unfavourable – the parents' higher education qualification does not exercise a major positive impact on students' involvement in international mobility.

The links between the subjective judgement of social standing and involvement have already been discussed above. Falling in line with the analytical process employed so far, the next section investigates the correlations between the variable of social standing and students' status in the educational structure, as well as their combined effect on mobility indicators.

The first conclusion that can be derived from a combined examination of social status and educational levels concerns the distribution of students of various status groups at each educational level. As stated above, in the section discussing the groups defined on the basis of the parents' qualification, Bachelor and Master programmes are average in terms of the families' social standing. By contrast, on undivided programmes the rate of students coming from low-status families is considerably higher and the rate of those coming from families of low social standing is lower than the average. The indicators of social status fall in the mid-range, which is characteristic of results of questionnaires of this type. The significance of the data lies in the distribution of the extreme status values rather than in the size of the medium groups.

Figure 9. Respondents broken down by the subjective judgement of one's social standing and educational level (N=16,110)



An analysis of the indicators of involvement in international mobility based on social status and educational level indicates that – albeit social standing does have an impact on mobility rate at all educational levels – the mobility differences on Bachelor and Master programmes that are evident on the basis of social standing are statistically stronger than the rates evident on undivided programmes (the rates of residuals being considerably higher at the first two

<sup>5</sup> It should be noted that one-third of the above-mentioned low-status Bachelor programmes operate in the fields referred to above. In these fields, only a low number of Bachelor study programmes are offered (Kiss 2013).

educational levels).<sup>6</sup> This result is very similar to the result of the combined examination of the parents' qualification and the educational levels, inasmuch as higher the rate of high-status students and lower the rate of low-status students among students at a given educational level, the smaller the impact of the status variable.

The correlations between social status and fields of studies are also worthy of investigation. High-status students are strongly overrepresented in economics and humanities, and are significantly underrepresented in the fields of IT studies, law and technology. Lower-status individuals are highly underrepresented in economics, slightly underrepresented in sports science and significantly overrepresented in IT studies and teacher training.

The combined examination of social standing, fields of study and involvement in international mobility does not lead to a result similar to that of the analysis of the parents' educational background and field of study or educational level. In the fields of agriculture, arts, teacher training and natural sciences, no linear correlation is detected between the rate of mobile students and growth of the indicators of social status. What is more, in the two latter fields, it is the category of low-status students where the rate of those who have participated in mobility programmes is the highest.

In the fields of economics and technology, high-status students are significantly more likely to join international mobility programmes than the others are; however, among students who do not even plan to study abroad, individuals who come from families of low social standing are significantly overrepresented in the study fields of humanities, economics, IT studies, technology and social science.

To summarize, an individual's status in the horizontal or vertical structure of higher education and his or her social standing exercise a combined effect on international mobility chances. Given that social status in itself influences entry or admission into certain segments of higher education, the two categories of variables are not independent of each other.

In terms of mobility, educational levels and study fields exhibit significant differences. Of the possible indicators of socio-economic status, it is primarily the parents' educational background that shows strong correlation with an individual's involvement in international student mobility. The combined effect exercised by the parents' qualification and the individual's status in the educational structure on mobility displays specific patterns. In the fields characterized by a relative balance, students whose parents have higher education qualification are more overrepresented among mobile students than they are in the fields dominated either by students whose parents have higher education or by students whose parents do not have such qualification. No such correlation can be clearly established between an individual's social standing and his or her status in the educational structure.

<sup>6</sup> Due to their different social status distribution, students of undivided programmes were removed from the analyzed sample. In the case of students on traditional programmes, the number of elements is so low that it will not be represented or analyzed in the present study.

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## Szilvia Nyüsti

# Disparities in the income and use of time of full-time students

Obtaining a higher education qualification is an investment that pays off in the future and requires very significant commitment of time and money. The return on investment in one's higher education studies is lucrative in Hungary, as the wage advantage of higher education graduates as compared to holders of a secondary school leaving certificate is outstanding and the rate of degree holders is relatively low (OECD 2013). We already know quite a lot about the factors that determine entry into higher education (e.g. Róbert 2000; Nyüsti 2012; Nyüsti 2013) and labour market perspectives of degree holders (Graduate Career Tracking System (GCTS; Hungarian acronym: DPR)), but do not have access to much information about the investment of time and money and about other burdens. Yet without this information, it is difficult to evaluate an individual's reasons for not entering higher education or for dropping out. This study seeks to shed light on the structure of the time use and the income of full-time students and thus give an overall picture of the sacrifices an individual makes to acquire a higher education qualification.

While only one-fourth or one-fifth of full-time students in Hungary pay tuition fees, they still face considerable costs: students on full-time programmes have an average monthly expense of HUF 75,000 (around 250 EUR). State grants do not cover this amount, which means that students have to earn this amount in a life situation which makes employment difficult. On the average, students study 37 hours per week; therefore, they can earn money only at the expense of either their studies or free time. Consequently, students who cannot cover their living costs from the financial contribution of their family must decide whether to give up temporarily a part of their expenditures or time, or to rely on loans and thus postpone the payment of their costs.

Everyone has access to the same amount of time (24 hours a day), while the available financial resources are distributed unevenly among students of various characteristics; therefore, it is reasonable to assume that students' strategies of the use of their money and time are highly variegated. This study attempts to describe the characteristic features of the budget and use of time of full-time students and to map the strategies they employ to make sure they can pay the cost of living and, at the same time, to pursue their studies. The analysis also sheds light on students' relative deprivation, investigating it in the light of financial resources and time. These differences are described along the educational, demographic, social and accommodation background.

The study relies on the data of Eurostudent V collected in Hungary. The scope of analysis covers only full-time students, with all financing forms and target-group educational levels included (BA/BSc, MA/MSc, unified single-cycle training and conventional university/college programmes) (N=12,934 persons). The research questionnaire examines students' income and costs in detail (35 questions) and consequently offers an unprecedentedly comprehensive

picture of the operation of these factors in Hungary. However, the variables related to the use of time are limited yet can give information on the time used for the purposes of studies and employment.<sup>1</sup>

## Students' incomes

Being a full-time student is a lifestyle characterized by the phenomenon of post-adolescence (Somlai 2007). The majority of target-group individuals are young regarding to their age (only 2% of them are 30 or older), from a legal perspective, they are adults, yet approximately half of them live with their parents, only two-fifths of them have a self-earned income and nine-tenth of them rely on considerable financial contribution from their families.

An average full-time student lives on HUF 107,000 per month; nevertheless, as indicated by Figure 1, the demographic and social factors and the factor of accommodation are closely linked to students' financial background. Individuals who have been pursuing their studies for seven years or more, who come from a socio-culturally favourable background, who are relatively old, or more independent of their parents (have moved from the family home or formed a family of their own) have higher than average income.

Figure 1 illustrates not only the amount of income but its structure as well: it indicates the key role of financial contribution from family members. When transfers from family members (e.g. the direct payment of the costs of accommodation or studies) are taken into account, this income type accounts for in average three-fifths of the students' income, a monthly HUF 67,000 (Figure 1). The amount of family contribution is not independent of other factors; it should be emphasized, however, that this source of income is dominant in all student subgroups. With age and with family formation, the emphasis is shifted to self-earned income; still, even in the 30+ age group – where individuals enjoy the highest level of independence – the amount of self-earned income does not exceed that of family contributions. The difficulties of the quantification of the family contributions enjoyed by students who live with their family (e.g. costs of accommodation and food, etc.) (Eurostudent 2011) are illustrated by the fact that this group of students reports the lowest amount of family contributions, while students who have left the family home report considerably higher transfers from their family.

Young people who come from a more favourable socio-cultural background (whose parents have employment that require a degree or higher qualifications or those who consider themselves as of higher social standing) receive up to HUF 21,000 extra income from their families. During the analysis of a student's social background it is detected that other sources modify the differences in total income; such differences are interpreted as a result of disparities of family contribution.

Individuals who did not start their higher education studies directly after finishing secondary education tend to receive less contribution from their families. This can be the reason for and, at the same time, a consequence of late entry into higher education. Students on relatively

<sup>1</sup> The variables employed are only partially identical with those used in the international final report of Eurostudent, and data cleansing methods may also differ. Consequently, the comparability of the results is limited.

longer programmes, such as unified single-cycle training or conventional programmes, are likely to receive more contribution from their families as opposed to Master students with at least one higher education qualification; the latter group tend to receive the least. At the same time, an analysis of the educational background reveals that as family contribution decreases, the amount of self-earned income increases, which counteracts the decrease of family transfers. Students who started their current study programme at least 7 years ago report surprisingly high family contribution and, the same time, high average self-earned income. More than two-thirds of this group are students on unified single-cycle trainings, which explains why they receive high amount from their families despite the long study period.

	Average		67		17	1 6 5			
Transition	Immediate		66		15 1	2 6 5			
Transition	Delayed		53	27	9	98			
	0–3 years ago		66		15 1	2 6 5			
Entry into study	4-6 years ago		66		20	11 7 5			
programme	Min. 7 years ago		85			4	5	79	2
Undivided and traditio	nal university/college programmes		85			11 12	4 <mark>4</mark>		
Educational level	Bachelor		65		15 11	7 5			
	Master		59		32	15	3 6		
0 a m da m	Female		69	1	14 1	2 7 4			
Gender	Male		65		20	11 6 5			
	Up to 21 years		74	•	8 1	1 6 <mark>3</mark>			
A	22-24 years		64		16 12	7 5			
Age	25-29 years		66		35	10	88		
	30 years or over		57		55		89	11	
01.11.1	Has a child/children		67		30	12	7 12		
Child	Does not have a child/children		67		16 1	1 6 5			
Parents'	with HE background		75	ł	18	11 5	4		
qualification	without HE background		59	16	5 12	8 5	T		
	ISCO 1–2 level		61	1	5 12	8 5			
Parents' job	ISCO 3-4 level	1	75		18	11 5	5		
	Low		54	16	12 8	5			
Subjective status	Medium		70		16	11 6 4			
	High		85			18 1	1 5 5		
	With parents		55	16	10 6	4			
<b>A</b> 1	With partner/child(ren)	1	78			35	12	8 9	
Accommodation	With (an)other person(s)		75		12	13 6	5		
	Alone		1	04			32	10	8 6
	Yes		60	10	15 (	5 <mark>4</mark>			
Lives in dormitory	No		71		19	10 7	5		
		10	30 5	0 7	۱ ۲0 (	<u>ا الح</u>	10 1	+ 30 1	

Figure 1. Income of full-time students by the educational, demographical, social factors and the factor of accommodation (1,000 HUF/month)

# The specific features of students' use of time

The way students use their time shows a pattern different from that of the rest of the society. The life of full-time students is characterized, on the one hand, by a relatively free choice of strategies of the use of time and, on the other hand, by the constraints of organized time, with its characteristic structures and rules (Bocsi 2013; Nyüsti–Ceglédi 2010). This study refers to the students' use of time in terms of a daily number of hours of study or employment: a weekly average rate including weekends. The analysis examines exclusively the time spent on taught studies, personal study time and work hours, and deals with the remaining period of time as time that can be used for other purposes. With regard to the interpretation of the results, it should be noted that the social group which is relevant for our analysis spends an average of 14 hours a day on performing duties or physiological activities<sup>2</sup>; consequently, it is only the remaining time period that can be regarded as a free time.

Figure 2 indicates the average time spent on each activity every day, broken down by student groups. It is striking that the values of time spent on studies is not significantly less than five hours a day in any category. This fact also underlies that being a full-time student is a lifestyle where – regardless of which factors are analyzed – studying is the individual's main activity, which means that the time spent on other activities can only be increased through decreasing the time available for study-related activities. This is also illustrated by the fact that if a person spends more time than the average on employment-related activities, then, in most cases, his or her free time will decrease.

Students on unified single-cycle trainings tend to spend considerably more time than average on studying, which means that regardless of the fact that only a relatively small proportion take on work with relatively low intensity, they still do not have much time for other activities. Since this is the case, it is not surprising that – as discussed above – they receive higher than average contribution from their families. Students who entered higher education seven or more years ago (and presumably study in order to complete some remaining courses) and who study for their MA degree based on their previously acquired qualification spend the least time studying.

<sup>2</sup> The value calculated on the basis of the 2000 Time Use Survey where the reference group constituted of young persons aged 20–29 with secondary qualifications who were pursuing their studies. Other duties include house-hold work, transport, shopping and the average time spent on caring for children (Source: Hungarian Central Statistical Office). The published 2010 data do not display significant changes yet the required breakdowns are not available as of yet (Bittner 2013).

	Average	3.3	2.0	-0.8	3		1	8				
Taxatitian	Immediate	3.3	2.1	-0.8	3		17	'.9				
Iransition	Delayed	3.2	2.2	1.2			1	7.5				
	0-3 years ago	3.3	2.0	-0.8	3		18	.0				
Entry into study	4-6 years ago	3.1	2.2	1.1			15	7.7				
programme	More than 6 years ago	2.6	2.2	1.7			15	7.6				
	Bachelor	3.2	1.8	-0.9			18	.2				
Educational level	Master	2.9	2.0	1.4			17	7.8				
Undivided and traditior	al university/college programmes	3.8	2	.9	-0.9		1	6.9				
0	Female	3.4	2.1	-0.8	8		17	7.8				
Gender	Male	3.2	1.9	-0.9			18	.1				
	Up to 21 years	3.5	2.0	-0.5			18	.1				
4	22-24 years	3.2	2.0	-0.9			18	.0				
Age	25-29 years	3.0	2.1	1.5			15	7.5				
	30 years or over	3.0	2.2	2.0			1	17.1				
OL:14	Has a child/children	3.2	2.5	1.5			1	6.9				
Chita	Does not have a child/children	3.3	2.0	-0.8	3		18	.0				
Parents'	with HE background	3.3	2.1	-0.8	3		17	'.9				
qualification	without HE background	3.3	1.9	-0.9			18	.0				
	ISCO 1–2 level	3.3	2.0	-0.8	3		18	.0				
Parents' job	ISCO 3-4 level	3.2	2.1	-0.9	?		17	'.9				
	Low	3.3	2.1	-0.9	7		17	7.8	-			
Subjective status	Medium	3.3	2.0	-0.9	?		17	'.9				
-	High	3.2	2.0	-0.8			18	.1				
	With parents	3.3	1.9	-0.8			18	.1				
A	With partner/child(ren)	3.0	2.0	1.6			1	7.5				
Accommodation	With (an)other person(s)	3.4	2.1	-0.5	7		17	.9				
	Alone	3.1	2.0	1.2			17	7.8				
Line to describe	Yes	3.5	2.1	-0.7	7		17	.9				
Lives in dormitory	No	3.2	2.0	1.0			17	.9				
	0	2	4	6	8 10	12	14	16	18	20	22	24
	Taught studies	Pe	erson	al stu	dy time	P	aid jo	bs	Ot	her a	ictiv	ʻity

Figure 2. Time structure of full-time students along the educational, demographical, social factors and the factor of accommodation (hour/day)

# Indicators of student poverty

As referred to above, investment in the acquisition of a degree entails investment of money and time, which may easily result in life situations where the balance of students' income and free time tips and their resources related to the factors discussed above diminish. This, in turn, may lead to income poverty and/or time poverty, which – although to our knowledge no relevant research has been performed so far – are quite likely to increase the risk of drop-out and study-related problems. For this reason, it is a must to identify the highly exposed student groups, that is, individuals who can finish their studies and cover their living expenses only at the cost of such sacrifices. Time has been a factor in research on poverty for a long time (Vickery 1977), albeit to our knowledge it has not been used on populations of students. A reason for a combined analysis is the fact that time and income are interchangeable. Consequently, an analysis limited to financial aspects may be misleading as in certain cases a person can rise above the poverty line only as a result of the harmful limitation of his or her recreational opportunities or free time, or it is possible that he or she cannot do so even at the cost of such sacrifice (Burchardt 2008; Zacharias 2011; Heggenes et al. 2012). As for students on a full-time programme – for whom studying is the main activity besides work and free time – the combined analysis of the financial and temporal factors is particularly appropriate.

As all research on poverty, our analysis is sensitive to the definition of the poverty line. For a specific group like that of full-time students, the use of an absolute poverty line (a poverty line defined for the society as a whole) would be misleading<sup>3</sup>; therefore, we defined relative poverty lines for students, in term of both dimensions. In our definition, a student is poor if on the basis of his or her total monthly income he or she falls into the bottom fifth of students. The income line calculated in this manner is a monthly HUF 49,300. The category of those who lack the appropriate amount of time are defined similarly: young persons who on the basis of the time available to them for activities other than work and study belong to the bottom fifth of all students. In practice, this means that they have less than 15.9 hours a day to perform other activities. These two forms of poverty do not exclude each other: 3.5% of higher education students are affected by both types of deprivation.

Figure 3 shows the undergraduates' subgroups are exposed to the risk of income poverty and time poverty, in comparison to the average 20% detected in the total population of higher education students. The exchangeability of time and money is also reflected by the fact that the occurrence of these two poverty types in a given group displays opposite trends: if one of them is overrepresented, the other is less prevalent. Only two subcategories are exceptions to this rule. Individuals who did not enter higher education immediately after the acquisition of the secondary school leaving certificate are in an unfavourable position with regard to both factors, while those who regard themselves as of high social standing enjoy a position which is more favourable than the average in terms of both factors.

Individuals affected by income poverty are overrepresented among young students who have only recently entered higher education, are attending Bachelor programmes and living with their parents, and among young persons of an unfavourable socio-cultural status. By contrast, individuals exposed to time poverty tend to be older students who started their studies relatively long ago, are studying for their Master degree and are in a relatively advanced stage of becoming independent of their parents.

<sup>3</sup> If the poverty line defined by the Hungarian Statistical Office (HUF 85,960/month for one-person households) was applied to students, almost half of them would qualify as poor.



Figure 3. Frequency of relative time poverty and income poverty among full-time students, by the educational, demographical, social factors and the factor of accommodation [%]

# Students' livelihood strategies

Since the majority of student incomes (an average of 60%) comes from the families, for the purpose of the definition of livelihood strategy types we took into consideration if this type of income is sufficient for the young person to raise above the poverty line (in this case, HUF 49,300/month). These two groups were then divided on the basis of the income types other than family contribution. Thus six types were defined; for their illustration and frequency, see Figure 4.

Fifty-eight per cent of students do not use other resources than transfers from their families: they do not rely on study loans nor do they perform gainful activity. For students whose family contribution is inadequate are more likely to seek employment than rely on loans; 3% of them do both to improve their financial situation.



#### Figure 4. Types of students' livelihood strategies (%)

Figure 5 illustrates the differences of the income structure and total income of each type. Figure 6 indicates the differences in time structure. Spending the most time doing studyrelated activities are the students who choose to content themselves with funding from their families or rely on study loans to boost insufficient family contribution. The latter group live on approximately one-third of the monthly amount accessible to those who receive adequate family contribution; however, instead of study loans or employment they limit their living costs during their studies (delayed gratification) (cited by Bocsi 2013). Those who use study loans as an extra income type pay the costs of their investment in higher education after their graduation. The average time spent on gainful activities by students who rely on (among others) gainful activities as a source of income is compensated only partially by the decrease of the time available for studies, which, in turn, influences available free time. For students who receive adequate contribution from their parents, employment is only an activity that offers some extra income. By contrast, those who receive less contribution from their families must rely on gainful activities as their main source of income, regardless of the fact that they are full-time students. Several analyses discuss the negative effects of employment during full-time studies on study performance, drop-out rates and mental health while accepting the presence of positive effects on finding employment after graduation (e.g. Callender-Kemp 2000; Metcalf 2003). This means that employment taken up by students who do not have other opportunities to create income and pay their living costs carries several risks.

Apparently, Hungary's grant system is only a source of minor income, its average amount being HUF 11,000 per month or – if calculated on the basis of the number of grant holders (49%) – HUF 21,000 per month. Besides the fact these amounts are low, there is another reason why the Hungarian grant system is inadequate for financing higher education studies: incomes from grants are fragmented and difficult to plan as they normally change in every semester or academic year, and their exact amount is unknown. The analysis of Figures 1 and 5 gives the impression that direct and non-repayable grants are not targeted and the group of grant holders is difficult to identify. The reason for this is probably the fact that the system

entails grants based performance and social status alike and that the number of grants, eligible students and the available amounts may be different in each grade, type of funding, place of residence, institution or faculty.

Figure 5. Sources of monthly income of students with various livelihood strategies, by sources of income (1,000 HUF/month)



Figure 6. Daily use of time by students with various livelihood strategies, by activities (hour/day)



The types defined in this manner show strong correlation with poverty rates, not least because the categorization is partially based on the relative income poverty line. Figure 7 shows that more than two-fifths of students who receive moderate contributions from their families, do not rely on study loan and do not perform gainful activity cannot raise above the poverty line even with the help of other income resources; however, those who face the problem of time poverty are underrepresented. It seems that study loan can – at least in the short run – protect

students from being exposed to the various forms of poverty. By contrast, gainful activity performed parallel with the studies entails an increased risk of time poverty, and, in the case of individuals who lack family contribution, does not necessarily prevent income poverty.





The distribution of livelihood strategies discussed above displays great variation along the factors of demographic, educational, social and accommodation background (Figure 8). As a rule, a delayed entry into higher education results in a decreased family contribution and an increased rate of those who decide to look for extra sources of income. The time spent in higher education modifies the structure of extra incomes, and does not exercise major effects on the amount of family contribution. The more time young people spend in higher education, the less they tend to accept financial sacrifices, which means that they are more likely to perform gainful activity during their studies. It is not surprising that the same trend is detected to strengthen with age, albeit in that case it is coupled with a gradual decrease of family contribution. Students on unified single-cycle trainings and conventional programmes enjoy above the average family contributions and are less likely to take up employment, while Master students are more willing to perform gainful activities than the average. The gender of students does not seem to contribute to major differences in this respect. Having children, nevertheless, makes employment and moderate family contribution more likely, mostly due to the characteristics of the age group.

Unfavourable socio-cultural background, however, decreases the ratio of students who receive adequate family contribution with regard to each analyzed factor and, in parallel, increase the frequency of each type of extra income. Major differences are detected in terms of forms of accommodation, too. Students who live in dormitories/halls of residence or with their parents are in the most unfavourable situation.

Average Immediate Delayed 0-3 years ago 4-6 years ago Min. 7 years ago Bachelor Master Iniversity/college programmes Female Male Up to 21 years	25.0 26.2 23.2 26.6 22.1 14.4 3.0 26.3 22.5 21.2 24.0 26.3 24.9 26.3	4.2 4.3 6.0 3.9 5.7 24 4.6 2.5 3.3 10 4.0 4.3	16.8 16. 2 16. 17.7 .4 25.4 25.4 25.4 16.2	3 3.2 0 3.1 4.8 4 2.7 5.0 5.5 .6 3. 8	5.6 2 6 2.3 45	32.6 33.2 33.0 31.4 7.3 30.8 27.2 .5	4.5	18.2 17.2 15.9 17.4 18.1 25.4 18.1 19.7
Immediate Delayed 0-3 years ago 4-6 years ago Min. 7 years ago Bachelor Master Iniversity/college programmes Female Male Up to 21 years	26.2 23.2 26.6 22.1 14.4 3.0 26.3 22.5 21.2 24.0 26.3 24.0 26.3	4.3 6.0 3.9 5.7 24 4.6 2.5 3.3 10 4.0 4.3	16. 2 16. 17.7 .4 .4 25.3 .4 1.9 16.2	0 3.1 4.8 4 2.7 5.0 5.5 .6 3. 8	5.6 2 6 <b>2.</b> 3 45	33.2 2 33.0 31.4 7.3 30.8 27.2 .5	4.5	17.2 15.9 17.4 18.1 25.4 18.1 19.7
Delayed 0-3 years ago 4-6 years ago Min. 7 years ago Bachelor Master iniversity/college programmes Female Male Up to 21 years	23.2 26.6 22.1 14.4 3.0 26.3 22.5 21.2 24.0 26.3 24.0	6.0 3.9 5.7 24 4.6 2.5 3.3 10. 4.0 4.3	2 16. 17.7 .4 25. .4 1.9 16.2	4.8 4 2.7 5.0 5.5 .6 3. 8 3.1	5.6 2 6 2.3 45	2 33.0 31.4 7.3 30.8 27.2 .5	4.5	15.9 17.4 18.1 25.4 18.1 19.7
0–3 years ago 4–6 years ago Min. 7 years ago Bachelor Master Iniversity/college programmes Female Male Up to 21 years	26.6 22.1 14.4 3.0 26.3 22.5 21.2 24.0 26.3 24.8	3.9 5.7 24 4.6 2.5 3.3 10 4.0 4.0	16. 17.7 .4 16 25. .4 1.9 16.2	4 2.7 5.0 5.5 .6 3. 8 3.1	2 6 <b>2.3</b> 45	33.0 31.4 7.3 30.8 27.2 .5		17.4 18.1 25.4 18.1 19.7
4–6 years ago Min. 7 years ago Bachelor Master Iniversity/college programmes Female Male Up to 21 years	22.1 14.4 3.0 26.3 22.5 21.2 24.0 26.3	5.7 24 4.6 2.5 3.3 10 4.0 4.3	17.7 .4 25.3 .4 1.9 16.2	5.0 5.5 .6 3. 8 3.1	2 6 <b>2.</b> 3 45	31.4 7.3 30.8 27.2 .5		18.1 25.4 18.1 19.7
Min. 7 years ago Bachelor Master Iniversity/college programmes Female Male Up to 21 years	14.4 3.0 26.3 22.5 21.2 24.0 26.3	24 4.6 2.5 3.3 10 4.0 4.3	.4 16 25.3 .4 1.9 16.2	5.5 .6 3. 8 3.1	2 6 2.3 45	7.3 30.8 27.2 .5		25.4 18.1 19.7
Bachelor Master iniversity/college programmes Female Male Up to 21 years	26.3 22.5 21.2 24.0 26.3	4.6 2.5 3.3 10. 4.0 4.3	16 25. .4 1.9 16.2	.6 3. 8 3.1	6 2.3 45	30.8 27.2 .5		18.1 19.7
Master iniversity/college programmes Female Male Up to 21 years	22.5 21.2 24.0 26.3	2.5 3.3 10 4.0 4.3	25. .4 1 <mark>.9</mark> 16.2	8 3.1	<b>2.3</b> 45	27.2 .5		19.7
iniversity/college programmes Female Male Up to 21 years	21.2 24.0 26.3	<mark>3.3 10</mark> . <mark>4.0</mark> <mark>4.3</mark>	.4 1 <mark>.</mark> 9 16.2	3.1	45	.5		
Female Male Up to 21 years	24.0 26.3	<mark>4.0</mark> 4.3	16.2	3.1				17.7
Male Up to 21 years	26.3	<mark>4.3</mark>				33.9		18.8
Up to 21 years	26.0		17	.6 3	3	31.0		17.5
	20.8	<mark>3.6</mark>	12.4	1.6		38.9		16.7
22–24 years	25.4	<mark>4.5</mark>	17.	0 <u>3.</u>	5	31.0		18.5
25–29 years	18.8 4	4.1 	25.4	Ę	5.5	25.8		20.4
30 years or over	23.2	<mark>3.7</mark>		31.1	4	.6 15	i.O	22.4
Has a child/children	25.1	2 <mark>.3</mark>	22.	.8	5.6	22.8	3	21.4
Does not have a child/children	25.1	<mark>4.2</mark>	16.3	7 3.1		32.8		18.1
With HE background	23.3	<mark>2.8</mark>	15.5	2.5	3	5.1		20.8
Without HE background	27.0	5.	<mark>8</mark> 1	8.3	4.0	29	.7	15.2
ISCO 1–2 level	26.7	5.5	5 1	7.7	3.8	30	.8	15.5
ISCO 3–4 level	22.3	<mark>2.9</mark>	15.9	2.6	3	5.1		21.2
Low	29.2	(	6.0	19.3	4.1	2	6.4	15.0
Medium	22.9	<mark>3.9</mark>	16.7	3.2		34.7		18.6
High	20.5	1 <mark>.</mark> 8 13.	4 1. <mark>9</mark>		39.8	3		22.6
With parents	33.7	1	<mark>3.6</mark>	19.6	2.8	2	25.4	14.9
With partner/child(ren)	14.2 <mark>3.1</mark>	22.	8	4.5	28.	3		27.1
With (an)other person(s)	19.1	<mark>5.1</mark> 12	. <mark>2</mark> 3.3		41	1.1		19.2
Alone	12.2 <mark>4.1</mark>	16.6	3.3		37.8			26.0
Yes	27.1	5.	8 14	4.8 <mark>3</mark> .	0	35.	6	13.7
No	23.6	<mark>3.5</mark>	17.3	3.4		32.1		20.1
0	) 10 2	20 30	0 4	.0 5	0 6	0 7	n 8	. <u> </u>
	25–29 years 30 years or over Has a child/children bes not have a child/children With HE background Without HE background ISCO 1–2 level ISCO 3–4 level Low Medium High With partner/child(ren) With partner/child(ren) With (an)other person(s) Alone Yes No	25-29 years   18.8     30 years or over   23.2     Has a child/children   25.1     boes not have a child/children   25.1     With HE background   23.3     With background   23.3     With background   27.0     ISC0 1-2 level   26.7     ISC0 3-4 level   22.3     Low   29.2     Medium   22.9     High   20.5     With partner/child(ren)   14.2     With partner/child(ren)   14.2     With (an)other person(s)   19.1     Alone   12.2     4.1   Yes     27.1   No     23.6   0     0   10	25-29 years   18,8   4,1     30 years or over   23,2   3,7     Has a child/children   25,1   2,3     boes not have a child/children   25,1   4,2     With HE background   23,3   2,8     With Out HE background   27,0   5,5     ISCO 1-2 level   26,7   5,5     ISCO 3-4 level   22,3   2,9     Medium   22,9   3,9     High   20,5   1,8   13,     With partner/child(ren)   14,2   3,1   22,     With partner/child(ren)   14,2   3,1   22,     With partner/child(ren)   14,2   3,1   22,     With anyother person(s)   19,1   5,1   12     Alone   12,2   4,1   16,6     Yes   27,1   5,   5,     No   23,6   3,5   3,5     0   10   20   3,7	25-29 years   18.8   4.1   25.4     30 years or over   23.2   3.7   2.3   2.2     Has a child/children   25.1   2.3   2.2   16.7     With HE background   23.3   2.8   15.5   1     With HE background   27.0   5.8   1     ISCO 1-2 level   26.7   5.5   1     ISCO 3-4 level   22.3   2.9   15.9     Low   29.2   6.0   16.7     Heigh   20.5   18   13.4   1.9     With parents   33.7   3.6   3.6     With partner/child(ren)   14.2   3.1   22.8     With partner/child(ren)   14.2   3.1   22.8     With partner/child(ren)   14.2   3.1   22.8     With lan)other person(s)   19.1   5.1   12.2   3.6     Mith (an)other person(s)   19.1   5.8   14     No   23.6   3.5   17.3     Q   10   20   30   4	25-29 years   18.8   4.1   25.4   30     30 years or over   23.2   3.7   31.1     Has a child/children   25.1   2.3   2.2   3.7     Noes not have a child/children   25.1   4.2   16.7   3.1     With HE background   23.3   2.8   15.5   2.5     With HE background   27.0   5.8   18.3     ISCO 1-2 level   26.7   5.5   17.7     ISCO 3-4 level   22.3   2.9   16.7   3.2     Medium   22.9   3.9   16.7   3.2     High   20.5   18   13.4   1.9     With parents   33.7   3.6   19.6     With partner/child(ren)   14.2   3.1   22.8   4.5     With solution   12.2   4.1   16.6   3.3   14.8   3.5 <td>25-29 years   18.8   4.1   25.4   5.5     30 years or over   23.2   3.7   31.1   4     Has a child/children   25.1   2.3   22.8   5.6     bees not have a child/children   25.1   4.2   16.7   31     With HE background   23.3   2.8   15.5   2.5   33     With HE background   27.0   5.8   18.3   4.0     ISC0 1-2 level   26.7   5.5   17.7   3.8     ISC0 3-4 level   22.3   2.9   15.7   2.6   33     Low   29.2   6.0   19.3   4.1     Medium   22.9   3.9   16.7   3.2     High   20.5   18   13.4   1.9   39.8     With parents   33.7   3.6   19.6   2.8     With partner/child(ren)   14.2   3.1   22.8   4.5   28     With partner/child(ren)   14.2   3.1   22.8   4.5   28     With (an)other person(s)   19.1   5.1   12.2   3.5   37.8 &lt;</td> <td>25-29 years   18.8   4.1   25.4   5.5   25.8     30 years or over   23.2   3.7   31.1   4.6   15     Has a child/children   25.1   2.3   22.8   5.6   22.8     boes not have a child/children   25.1   4.2   16.7   31   32.8     With HE background   27.0   5.8   18.3   4.0   25     ISC0 1-2 levet   26.7   5.5   17.7   3.8   30     ISC0 3-4 levet   22.3   2.9   15.9   2.6   35.1     Low   29.2   6.0   19.3   4.1   2     Medium   22.9   3.9   16.7   3.2   34.7     High   20.5   18   13.4   1.9   39.8     With parents   33.7   3.6   19.6   2.8   3     With partner/child(ren)   14.2   3.1   22.8   4.5   28.3     With partner/child(ren)   12.2   4.1   16.6   3.3   37.8     With (an)other person(s)   19.1   5.1   12.3   37.8<td>25-29 years   18.8   4.1   25.4   5.5   25.8     30 years or over   23.2   3.7   31.1   4.6   15.0     Has a child/children   25.1   2.3   22.8   5.6   22.8     boes not have a child/children   25.1   4.2   16.7   31   32.8     With HE background   27.0   5.8   18.3   4.0   29.7     ISC0 1-2 level   26.7   5.5   17.7   3.8   30.8     ISC0 3-4 level   22.3   2.9   15.9   2.6   35.1     Low   29.2   6.0   19.3   4.1   26.4     Medium   22.9   3.9   16.7   3.2   34.7     High   20.5   18   13.4   1.9   39.8     With parents   33.7   3.6   19.6   2.8   25.4     With parents   33.7   3.6   19.6   2.8   25.4     With partner/child(ren)   14.2   3.1   2.2   3.4   1     No   27.1   5.8   14.8   30   35.6</td></td>	25-29 years   18.8   4.1   25.4   5.5     30 years or over   23.2   3.7   31.1   4     Has a child/children   25.1   2.3   22.8   5.6     bees not have a child/children   25.1   4.2   16.7   31     With HE background   23.3   2.8   15.5   2.5   33     With HE background   27.0   5.8   18.3   4.0     ISC0 1-2 level   26.7   5.5   17.7   3.8     ISC0 3-4 level   22.3   2.9   15.7   2.6   33     Low   29.2   6.0   19.3   4.1     Medium   22.9   3.9   16.7   3.2     High   20.5   18   13.4   1.9   39.8     With parents   33.7   3.6   19.6   2.8     With partner/child(ren)   14.2   3.1   22.8   4.5   28     With partner/child(ren)   14.2   3.1   22.8   4.5   28     With (an)other person(s)   19.1   5.1   12.2   3.5   37.8 <	25-29 years   18.8   4.1   25.4   5.5   25.8     30 years or over   23.2   3.7   31.1   4.6   15     Has a child/children   25.1   2.3   22.8   5.6   22.8     boes not have a child/children   25.1   4.2   16.7   31   32.8     With HE background   27.0   5.8   18.3   4.0   25     ISC0 1-2 levet   26.7   5.5   17.7   3.8   30     ISC0 3-4 levet   22.3   2.9   15.9   2.6   35.1     Low   29.2   6.0   19.3   4.1   2     Medium   22.9   3.9   16.7   3.2   34.7     High   20.5   18   13.4   1.9   39.8     With parents   33.7   3.6   19.6   2.8   3     With partner/child(ren)   14.2   3.1   22.8   4.5   28.3     With partner/child(ren)   12.2   4.1   16.6   3.3   37.8     With (an)other person(s)   19.1   5.1   12.3   37.8 <td>25-29 years   18.8   4.1   25.4   5.5   25.8     30 years or over   23.2   3.7   31.1   4.6   15.0     Has a child/children   25.1   2.3   22.8   5.6   22.8     boes not have a child/children   25.1   4.2   16.7   31   32.8     With HE background   27.0   5.8   18.3   4.0   29.7     ISC0 1-2 level   26.7   5.5   17.7   3.8   30.8     ISC0 3-4 level   22.3   2.9   15.9   2.6   35.1     Low   29.2   6.0   19.3   4.1   26.4     Medium   22.9   3.9   16.7   3.2   34.7     High   20.5   18   13.4   1.9   39.8     With parents   33.7   3.6   19.6   2.8   25.4     With parents   33.7   3.6   19.6   2.8   25.4     With partner/child(ren)   14.2   3.1   2.2   3.4   1     No   27.1   5.8   14.8   30   35.6</td>	25-29 years   18.8   4.1   25.4   5.5   25.8     30 years or over   23.2   3.7   31.1   4.6   15.0     Has a child/children   25.1   2.3   22.8   5.6   22.8     boes not have a child/children   25.1   4.2   16.7   31   32.8     With HE background   27.0   5.8   18.3   4.0   29.7     ISC0 1-2 level   26.7   5.5   17.7   3.8   30.8     ISC0 3-4 level   22.3   2.9   15.9   2.6   35.1     Low   29.2   6.0   19.3   4.1   26.4     Medium   22.9   3.9   16.7   3.2   34.7     High   20.5   18   13.4   1.9   39.8     With parents   33.7   3.6   19.6   2.8   25.4     With parents   33.7   3.6   19.6   2.8   25.4     With partner/child(ren)   14.2   3.1   2.2   3.4   1     No   27.1   5.8   14.8   30   35.6

Figure 8. Distribution of livelihood strategies, by the educational, demographical, social factors and the factor of accommodation (%)

Insufficient family contribution, no extra income
Insufficient family contribution, with study loan as an extra source of income
Insufficient family contribution, with work as an extra sources of income
Insufficient family contribution, with study loan and work as extra sources of income
Sufficient family contribution, no extra income
Sufficient family contribution, with work and/or study loan as an extra source of income

## Summary

As a rule, the costs of full-time studies in higher education are borne by the parents. Grants and state-subsidized study loans cover only an insignificant part of the costs of higher education, an investment that pays off at the social and individual level alike. As a consequence of the need for considerable family contributions, the current structure of funding does not promote equal opportunities. Young people whose parents cannot or will not provide adequate financial resources, have to make extra sacrifices during their studies. Therefore, one-fourth of students have access to extremely limited resources, while others have to opt for indebted-ness and/or performing gainful activities during their studies. That being the case, it is not surprising that students from relatively unfavourable social backgrounds are more likely not to enter higher education at all or to postpone their entry (Nyüsti 2012). The role of family contributions remains dominant throughout the entire study period and, as students grow older, it does not cease to exist, only reduces in significance.

The two-dimensional analysis of poverty sheds light on the fact that the prevention of income poverty often entails time poverty. Time poverty, however, may also be a consequence of the fact that a student spends much more time on his or her studies than the average (e.g. students on unified single-cycle programmes). Another reason why a combined examination of these two factors is necessary is that full-time students not only have to keep the balance of income, work and free time, but also need to spend much time on their studies.

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## Zsuzsanna Veroszta

# Employment effects on planned higher educational career track

On the basis of the Eurostudent V data, this study explores the factors that define the motivation of full-time BA/BSc students to pursue further studies. The objective is to identify determinants that underlie an individual's decision to continue his or her Bachelor-level studies. In Hungarian higher education, the examination of the transition from Bachelor to Master programmes is important in several respects. First, with a structural approach it can highlight the characteristics and operative features of the two-cycle (or, with the doctoral level included, three-cycle) system introduced in Hungary in 2004. Second, with a social reproduction approach it can offer valuable background information on the identification of mechanisms of (self-)selection within the system of higher education. Third, at the level of the individuals' acts and provided that it is well grounded in terms of rational choice theory, it can contribute to a better understanding of investment strategies that determine further studies and entry into the labour market. In addition, the exploration of factors determining an individual's intention to study further may give some basic information for educational policy to develop more efficient tools which strengthen transition between the educational levels or entry into the labour market.

This study – reflecting on the relevant research background and theoretical background – primarily defines factors that possibly determine plans of further studies in the higher education. Our hypotheses on the development of plans related to transition from the Bachelor level to the Master level (BA/MA transition) are formulated against this background. Then, the theoretical and practical framework of an explanatory model is described, the implemented background variables are specified and the methodology is described. The empirical section of the study evaluates the results, and, finally, the section "Conclusions" sums them up.

# Framework of interpretation

Our research is focused on a single point of the system of higher education: the (planned) transition between the Bachelor and the Master levels or entry into the labour market. Our approach is based on the theories of the transition from higher education to work. Our study deals with the possible interpretations of this specific phase; moreover, it takes into consideration the measurement of the effects of employment during the studies and the role of students' expectations in decisions concerning their further studies. Research on the BA/MA transition serves as a framework of interpretation; it analyzes educational strategies and selection between the educational levels.

## An interpretation of the school-to-work transition

The interpretation of the successful transition between the educational levels or the failure of such transition calls for, first of all, an interpretation of the process of school to work transition. Regardless of which approach is taken when discussing recent graduates' entry into the labour market (investment theories, conversion of capital, youth sociology or social policy), it is invariably deducted that the transition from school to work is a special period and, as such, calls for a specific treatment in the course of research. Special attention needs to be paid not only to the description and interpretation of the process itself but also to a re-interpretation of labour market indicators, taking into consideration - for example - the role of "life-cycle jobs" (Oppenheimer-Kalmijn 1995), atypical participation (Lindberg 2005), hetero-employment (Kostoglou–Paloukis 2007) or the relative nature of success (Teichler 2002). During the analysis of students' transition decisions, it should be noted that students themselves are aware of the special nature of the period between finishing education and entering the labour market and they take its transitory nature into consideration (Pollard–Bates 2005; Carvajal et al. 2000). In the framework of the interpretation of this transition as a phenomenon related to students' decision on further studies, the approach of youth research focuses on the vulnerability of the individuals who have recently left higher education and, consequently, on the delay of the decision (Furlong et al. 2003).<sup>1</sup> Teichler (1998) points out that the transitional phase between higher education and the labour market is marked by a special type of autonomy which is made up by the diversity of opportunities, chances and possible ways to take.

## The effect of study-related employment

The above considerations evidence that for the purposes of the explanation of a decision related to the BA/MA transition, determinants of the individual entry strategies (micro-level determinants) need to be taken into consideration besides the social, demographic or education determinants (macro-level determinants) of the decision. In the framework of this approach, we presume that an individual's connection to the labour market during his or her studies has a strong effect on his or her decision whether to continue higher education studies or to leave higher education. There is much research and theoretical data available and most relevant for the purpose of our research are those that focus on whether the employment of students during their studies corresponds to their prospective profession and on the effect of this relation on leaving higher education, or focus on the success of leaving higher education and finding employment. These distinctions are important; all the more so because research clearly evidences that employment which corresponds to one's prospective profession – as opposed to employment that is not related to one's field of expertise – contributes to successful transition to the labour market. At an international level, HEGESCO<sup>2</sup> data indicate the same. On the basis of these data, Róbert and Saar (2012) investigated the effect of employment during

<sup>1</sup> Hungarian studies on the issue of career start include, for instance, Galasi et al. 2001; Györgyi et al. 2006; Róbert 2002, 2010. As for international specialized literature, summaries of the topic are given by, among others, Lindberg (2008), Ryan (2001) and Teichler (1998).

<sup>2</sup> Higher Education as a Generator of Strategic Competences (HEGESCO) project: http://www.hegesco.org

one's studies on finding employment after graduation, and concluded that while employment related to the individual's prospective profession exercises positive influence on his or her entry into the labour market, employment unrelated to his or her professional field does not have such favourable effects. In Hungary, the issue was analyzed on the 2010 and 2011 data of the Graduate Career Tracking (GCT)<sup>3</sup> research programme. These investigations shed light on the fact that professional work experience gained during one's studies has a positive impact on finding employment (as opposed to work that does not correspond to one's prospective profession and is performed exclusively for financial reasons). They also highlight that an individual's opportunity to have such employment during his or her studies is determined by several socio-economic factors (Gáti-Róbert 2013). Moreover, the analysis of the GCT data shows that for recent graduates profession-related work performed during one's higher education studies has a favourable effect on the success of career and professionalism (but not on income) as factors of success (Veroszta 2010). While the positive effects of study-related work experience are easy to detect in terms of the indicators of the labour market entry, it is difficult to identify such effects on the income of recent graduates. As for international research, CHEERS research established that professional experience has a positive effect on finding employment that corresponds to one's profession, yet did not find evidence for such effects on incomes (Schomburg-Teichler 2006). In Hungarian specialized literature, Galasi (2004) drew the same conclusions with regard to the income of recent graduates.

## The role of students' expectations in further study plans

The studies cited above focus on the actual positive influence that work performed during studies (for financial or strategic reasons) has on the labour market entry. The present study, however, regards employment as a determinant of students' decision whether to continue their studies or to leave the higher education. If we intend to interpret employment during one's studies as a labour-market strategy of students, we need to give a picture (however incomplete it may be) of the way students tend to perceive the labour market, of their expectations concerning employment after graduation and the validity of these expectations. Relevant research results evidence that students' expectations concerning the labour market are basically realistic (albeit, in certain cases, they are slightly over-optimistic). This is based on a comparison between the expected and actual (measured) incomes of recent graduates in the relevant segment of the labour market (for details, see: Betts 1996; Wolter 2000; Brunello et al. 2001; with regard to Hungary: Varga 2001, Veroszta 2012). Therefore, when analyzing decisions about further studies, we can rely on students' expectations concerning the labour market as a key aspect that determines strategies. The same conclusion can be drawn from analyses investigating how expectations regarding income affect study plans. These analyses, based on the human capital theory, examine the interrelations between the income estimations of secondary school students and seeking admission to higher education (Galasi-Varga 2005; Varga 2004). The fact that students have realistic expectations regarding the labour market is

<sup>3</sup> Hungarian Graduates 2010, 2011, 2012 (Frissdiplomások 2010, 2011, 2012) – Educatio Nonprofit K ft. Graduate Career Tracking System http://www.felvi.hu/felsooktatasimuhely/research/about\_graduate\_career\_tracking/central\_system

important; all the more so as – if compared to other OECD countries – in Hungary the income benefit of higher education graduates, albeit is gradually decreasing, is still significant (Varga 2010). For the purpose of our research, it is probably even more important that this income benefit is detectable with regard to the Bachelor/Master degrees (Róbert–Veroszta 2013).

#### Transition as selection and strategy

In order to investigate the decision to continue one's studies (more specifically, the plans to study further on Master programmes), we included macro- and micro-level background variables in our explanatory model. Macro-level background variables are determinants of educational transition related to social selection and institutional structure, while micro-level background variables are elements of students' strategies. As for the exceptionally elaborate theoretical and research background of the transition between educational levels seen as a form of selection, at this point let us refer to the "persistent inequality" theory of Blossfeld and Shavit (1993) that highlights the selection mechanisms of the expansion of higher education and relevant research that underpins the theory, and to subsequent international investigations (Shavit - Arum - Gamoran 2007; Schindler - Reimer 2008; Breen et al. 2009). As a rule, research of the issue attempts to isolate the effects of social background on admission to higher education from the effects of study performance (meritocratic trends) or from the structural factors of education, taking into consideration the interrelations of these factors. Obviously, the expansion of higher education in Central Eastern Europe (which started several decades later) and the transformation of socio-political systems call for the re-formulation of the issue of selection. Mateju and Smith (2009) work with the same approach. They studied the developments of aspirations related to education and disparities in admission to higher education in a post-Communist Czech Republic, and - isolating the factor of the changes in the return of higher-education investment in the labour-market and the factor of the changes resulting from the reforms of the educational systems - they established that admission to higher education is a form of social selection. Hungarian studies on the effects of the expansion of education on plans of and access to further studies corroborated that selection in higher education is a socially determined factor (Csákó et al. 1998). However, it is the expansion that calls for investigation of the selection process that includes - besides admission to higher education - the transition between educational levels: it can be presumed that social selection will organize the study opportunities (which have grown in quantity due to the expansion) vertically and horizontally, thus creating new dimensions of inequality (Hrubos 2012). Relevant Hungarian studies deal with social inequality measured in terms of further study plans (Lannert 2003; Fehérvári et al. 2011) and the changes of the social background factors as reflected at each level of the new system of education (Gábor-Szemerszki 2006; Veroszta 2013). All these approaches take into consideration - besides the selective influence of the socio-demographic background - the structural effects the system of higher education and admission to it have on further studies. Analyses of the further study plans of higher education students shed light on the emphasis on vertical learning strategies, a characteristic feature of linear educational system (Veroszta 2009). It should be added that, besides the structural features of the educational system, labour-market considerations underlie these strategies. Such strategies include, for example, the BA/MA transition strategy, which, in the period

of the economic crisis, is a form of the utilization of the protective effects of staying in the higher education (Róbert–Veroszta, 2013).

# **Developments of BA/MA transition plans**

In Hungary, planned and accomplished transitions within the higher education system has been continuously investigated since the introduction of the two-cycle ("Bologna-type") system of education in 2004. As evidenced by data of early research, more than 50% of the Bachelor students intended to study further on MA/MSc programmes (Gábor-Szemerszki 2006). At a later time, as evidenced by the Graduate Career Tracking survey, in 2011 two-thirds (67%) of BA/ BSc students reported that they wanted to continue their studies on Master programmes; among full-time students, their rate was 70% (Garai-Veroszta 2013). Other student surveys also reflect such a high proportion of BA students who intend to study further on MA programmes (Fehérvári 2012). The latest figures of Eurostudent V, analyzed by the present study, prove that 58% of full-time Bachelor students plan to continue their studies on a Master programme. These rates are significant, and all the more so because the actual BA/MA transition rates are significantly lower in Hungary than in other European countries (for relevant international surveys, see: Schomburg-Teichler 2011; on surveys in Hungary: Kiss-Veroszta 2011; Garai-Veroszta 2013). The fact that the frequency of accomplished BA/MA transition is significantly lower than the frequency of BA/MA transition plans (approximately 25%) shows that the Hungarian system of higher education may be characterized by a powerful background mechanism of selection which dominates actual further studies stronger than planned further studies. The author of this paper, when looking for the factors that determine further study aspirations, defined the effects of the parents' qualification and the financial situation of students' families, while did not find differences attributable to gender (Veroszta 2013). She concluded that further study plans are strongly influenced by institutional factors of higher education such as works schedule, field of study, form of funding and the type of the educational institution. When selecting the background macro-variables of our explanatory model, we relied on these results.

# **Hypotheses**

On the basis of the theoretical frameworks and research data referred to above, this analysis intends to investigate the following hypotheses:

H1: Hypothesis of labour market involvement: both intensity and matching of students' labour market involvement during his or her studies have an impact on further study plans.

H2: Hypothesis of financial resources: the (perceived) favourable financial situation of a student has a positive impact on his or her further studies.

H3: Hypothesis of labour market expectations: positive labour-market expectations concerning one's current studies exercises a negative effect on further study plans.

## Explanatory model

The role of the factors of employment which affect a student's plans to continue his or her studies on Master programmes is investigated on the basis of the 2013 data collected in the framework of Eurostudent V research in Hungary. In the course of the analysis, the base population (N=16,745) was reduced to full-time Bachelor students (N=9,529). Selection on the basis of work schedule was necessitated by the need for a homogeneous group, as research results show that part-time students vary widely from full-time students in terms of their further study preferences (Szemerszki 2013) and employment patterns (Garai – Veroszta 2013).

We examine the effects that full-time Bachelor students' connection to the labour market has on further study plans along the above hypotheses, in a binary logistic regression model. In our explanatory model, the dependent variable is the plans of full-time Bachelor students to study further on Master programmes. The intensity, direction and significance of each background variable are detected on the basis of the changes of this binary variable in the form of odds ratios.

We included the explanatory variables in our model in five steps: the background variable groups that fall in line with each research hypothesis outlined above were introduced one by one.

When determining the background variables of *labour market participation*, our intention was to ensure that the variables represent not only the fact of labour market participation but also the strength and quality of connection to the labour market. Due to the strong cross-correlation among relevant variables (the horizontal match of employment, the amount of time used for work and the individual's perception of his or her status as a student and employee) we created an aggregate variable of labour market involvement which contains the following values:

- not employed student
- horizontal mismatch and low-intensity involvement
- horizontal mismatch and high-intensity involvement
- horizontal match.

The background variable of the *financial circumstances* is made up by a subjective factor. As for the perception of one's own financial circumstances, we used the values given on the five-point scale in the Eurostudent V questionnaire.<sup>4</sup> To remove the impact of employment during one's studies on one's financial circumstances, at this point we introduced an interaction variable for perceived financial circumstances.

In the course of investigating the effects of *labour market expectations*, we worked with the variable that contained the five-point scale of the Eurostudent V questionnaire.<sup>5</sup> Again, we introduced a control variable to define the interaction between employment and expectations.

<sup>4</sup> To what extent are you currently experiencing financial difficulties? (five-point scale where 1=very serious difficulties and 5=no difficulties at all)

<sup>5</sup> How do you rate your chances on the labour market [in Hungary] after graduating from your current study programme? (five-point scale, where 1=very unfavourable, 5=very favourable)

In our model, the *socio-demographic background* of students was represented by variables based on the individual's gender, secondary education background, the qualification of parents and the individual's subjective judgement of his or her family's social standing.<sup>6</sup>

For the purpose of investigating the effect of *higher educational institutional background*, we included in the model not only the study fields and the institution types but – given the fact Hungary's institutional structure is highly centralized and hierarchical – the location (region) of the higher education institution as well.

To interpret the results, we present the results of the complete regression model, but do not discuss the correlations detected during the introduction of each step above. The explanatory power of the model based on the above considerations is: Pseudo-R<sup>2</sup> (Nagelkerke R Square) 0.247.

## Results

It was concluded that both the quality and intensity of *student's involvement in the labour market* (H2) influences his or her further study plans. If compared to not employed students, students who have low-intensity labour market involvement that is not related to their study field are significantly more likely to plan to continue their studies. The same effect can be identified among students who work in a horizontally matching job. However, the high-intensity labour market involvement in mismatching positions does not increase the motivation for further learning. A major finding is that the decisive factor in this respect is not only the employment in itself but the strength and the quality of a student's connection to the labour market.

The results of the multi-variable model proved our hypothesis on the effect of *financial re-sources* (H2), namely, that students who enjoy a more favourable perceived financial situation are more likely to continue their higher education studies. Within a 10% confidence interval a significant correlation was established with regard to the effects of available financial resources on one's plans of investing into his or her own education.

Our hypothesis on *labour market expectations* was not proven by the results; quite the contrary, they reflected opposite trends. We assumed that students who expect a more favourable situation upon entering the labour market are more likely to leave higher education. However, it seems that positive expectations regarding one's labour-market status after graduation have a positive effect on further study plans. On the basis of the investment theory, it can be deduced that Bachelor students are motivated to pursue further studies by the perceived profitability of such studies on the labour market.

With regard to the two other (control) variable groups included in our explanatory model – the socio-demographic background and the structure of higher education –, the effects identified are similar to those investigated in detail in previous research of the issue. In other words, the more favourable family background and educational institutional background

<sup>6</sup> 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? (10-point scale where 1=very low social standing and 10=very high social standing)

inspire a student to plan further studies. The specific features of the specific professional fields also affect such plans. The qualification level of parents and a favourable background of secondary education have a positive impact on further study plans, too. At the same time, the effects of the individual's gender and the subjective judgement of his or her own social standing are not significant. Transition plans are also dominated by the structure of higher education. On the one hand, this effect is hierarchical in nature: if compared to students of traditional universities, the odds ratio of planned MA transition of students of other institution types (non-traditional universities and, mainly, colleges) is significantly lower. On the other hand, further study plans reflect the horizontal dimensions of the educational system as well. Accordingly, among students of natural sciences, social science, economics and humanities the proportion of those who want to study further is significantly higher than among students of engineering.

# Factors affecting plans of transition to MA programmes

Labour market participation	
Horizontal mismatch + low-intensity LM involvement	2.092***
Horizontal mismatch + high-intensity LM involvement	1.012
Horizontal match	1.373**
Financial circumstances	
Perceived financial circumstances	1.055+
Perceived financial circumstances* employment (interaction effect)	0.959
Labour market expectations	
Perceived chances of finding employment	1.140***
Perceived chances of finding employment* works (interaction effect)	0.967
Socio-demographic background	
Male	1.017
Secondary qualification: 4-grade grammar school	1.285***
Secondary qualification: 6-8-grade grammar school	1.450***
Parents with academic degree	1.295***
Perceived social standing of family	1.002
Higher education institutions – background	
Higher education institution: college	0.091***
Higher education institution: non-traditional university	0.461***

Odd ratios of the binary logistic regression model Exp(B)

Higher education institutions – background	
Field of studies: agriculture	1.374**
Field of studies: humanities	1.839****
Field of studies: economics	1.445***
Field of studies: information technology	0.828*
Field of studies: health science	0.455***
Field of studies: teacher training	0.557***
Field of studies: sports science	1.267
Field of studies: social science	1.877**
Field of studies: natural sciences	2.192***
Region of the institution: Central Hungary	1.459***
Region of the institution: Western Hungary	0.420***
Constant	1.212
Cox & Snell R Square	0.182
Nagelkerke R Square (Pseudo-R²)	0.247
Number of cases	6,945

Source: Eurostudent V - Educatio Nonprofit Kft.

Note: Reference groups: professional relevance: student (not employed); background of secondary education: vocational secondary school; study field: engineering; type of higher education institution: traditional university; region of institution: Eastern Hungary

Significance: \*\*\* p<0.001; \*\* p<0.01; \* p<0.05; + p<0.1

# Conclusions

On the basis of the theoretical and empirical preliminaries available with regard to the plans of further studies on Master programmes, the effect of several determining factors can be assumed with reasonable confidence. It is a well-known fact that socio-economic background factors play a decisive role in further study plans. It is also known that students' study plans reflect the vertical and horizontal structures embedded in the system of higher education. Our research corroborated the existence of these effects. Still, our opinion is that although due to previous research we have access to much information on the dynamics of the transition from higher education to the labour market and on the effects of employment during studies, little is known about how students' connection to the labour market affects their further study plans. The special nature of the transition from higher education to the labour market in itself calls for the deep investigation of the impacts of students' connection to the labour market. We assumed that students who face financial problems are more likely to finish their studies early and enter into the labour market. Based on the results it appears that plans to pursue further studies on Master programmes are slightly dominated by students' perceived financial circumstances.

The investigation of recent graduates leaving higher education highlights the consequences of employment during higher education studies. Taking into consideration the fact that stu-

dents themselves are aware of such positive impacts, we applied the research statements to the level of study plans and assumed that both the quality and intensity of labour market involvement during studies affect further study plans. Our research results evidenced that labour market involvement generally increases motivations for transition to MA courses, unless the employment in mismatched jobs is coupled with high intensity of labour market involvement. We also proved the basic assumption that the major factor of students' employment is not the fact of such employment but its intensity and the horizontal matching between work and students' specific professional field.

We are convinced that our model sheds light on an important aspect of students' expectations concerning employment. The fact that students who expect better labour market chances after graduation are more likely to plan further studies (a result that contradicts our preliminary expectations) suggests that this student group is more certain that their investment in education will pay off.

Obviously, when the subjects of research are not facts but plans, the identified macro-level effects are less distinct. Still, we are convinced that attention needs to be paid to social and structural effects and individual aspects that define students' plans concerning the transition between the two systems (education and labour market). The reason for this is that an analysis of plans and expectations records a phase before action is taken (a phase determined by several external factors) and thus may give a detailed and exact picture of the micro-level factors that determine transition from school to work. In addition, plans – when seen against the background of actions actually taken – give a vivid illustration of external limiting factors. This may be especially relevant for the Hungarian higher education, where more than half of students planning a BA/MA transition finally decide not to continue their studies on MA programmes.

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#### Orsolya Garai

# Is part-time education a form of adult training?

Pursuant to Article 17(1) of Act CCIV of 2011 on national higher education, higher education qualification can be acquired in the framework of full-time programmes, part-time programmes or distance programmes. As required by legislation, part-time programmes cover evening or correspondence programmes. With regard to non-full-time programmes, different interpretations of the same term exist, an example for this being the term "adult training" and "adult education" (Csirmaz 2012, Veres n.d., Györgyi 2004, 8). As specified by Act XI of 2003 (the amendment of Act LXXIX of 1993 on public education), persons who cannot or will not participate in full-time school-based education may, in the year when they reach the age of 16, start or continue their studies in the framework of adult education programmes appropriate to their employment, family or other activities, their existing knowledge and age. In other words, according to legislation school-based adult education defines "adulthood" on the basis of a work schedule defined by the student's opportunities or individual choice instead of age or other social factors.

This study seeks to examine – on the basis of the Eurostudent V research on Hungarian students – if there exists a detectable group of "adult students" participating in part-time Bachelor, undivided and Master programmes (categories of adult education). Our hypothesis is that the group of students who study on part-time programmes cannot be considered as a unified or homogeneous category. We presume that if the students on part-time programmes of higher education are categorized into the four age groups of the Eurostudent research, the cohort of the youngest persons (21 or younger) differs greatly from the two middle groups (aged 22–24 and 25–29), and from the oldest (30+) age group of part-time students.

Our hypothesis is that the reason for this difference, on the one hand, is that a vast majority of students elected part-time programmes as a consequence of an unsuccessful entrance examination and, on the other hand, is the fact that albeit they attend adult training courses, due to their lifestyle they cannot be considered (or can only be partly considered) as individuals in the adults' groups. Persons in the age group of 22–24 and 25–29 are expected to be significantly more likely to opt for part-time programmes than those in the youngest age group are; however, there are several dimensions of their lifestyle on the basis of which they cannot be categorized as adults. In these two cohorts, the ratio of persons who – on the basis of their specific lifestyle – are in the phase of post-adolescence is high. As Vaskovics points out, adult individuals in the state of post-adolescence are not yet completely independent of their parents. This group is difficult to define as each individual becomes independent at a different age. For this reason, it is impossible to define it as an age group; rather, it is identified on the basis of the specific social status characteristic. Vaskovics examines the process of becoming independent along five factors, out of which the present study analyzes (1) moving from the parental home and (2) becoming financially independent (Vaskovics 2000). Another subject of our research is the comparison of part-time and full-time students with respect to age. We believe that these two variables can only be examined together. Although full-time students – due to their special life situation – are more likely to remain in the phase of post-adolescence for a longer period of time, this phase (as referred to in our first hypothesis) exercises significant influence on part-time students as well.

For the purposes of the research, we relied on the Eurostudent V Hungarian database and the admission statistics of Hungary from 2006 to 2013.

## Part-time study programmes in admission statistics

Part-time study programmes are often regarded as study programmes for those who are employed, and, thus, as "fee-paying" programmes. Reality, however, is much more complex, and the last eight years have seen significant changes in this field as well. With the large decrease in the number of state state-funded places in 2012 and the effects of the major structural changes excluded, it can be deduced that since 2006, the ratio of fee-paying students to state-funded students has not undergone major changes: the rate of fee-paying students is approximately 20–25% of the rate of grant holders (Garai – Kiss 2012). With regard to part-time programmes, however, trend-like changes can be detected. While in 2007 four-fifths of the persons admitted to part-time higher education paid tuition fee and one-fifth pursued state-funded studies, in 2013 the ratio of fee-paying students to grant holders was lower (63%). This data does not show if this ratio change is the result of a conscious educational policy effort or a side effect of the decrease in the number of self-financed study programmes; however, it is still a fact that part-time students are nor necessarily fee-paying students.

year	regular (full-time)	part-time	
2006	0.18	3.02	
2007	0.27	3.95	
2008	0.22	2.42	
2009	0.20	1.45	
2010	0.21	1.44	
2011	0.25	1.40	
2012	0.43	1.07	
2013	0.26	0.63	

Table 1. The ratio of F/S students admitted to higher education\*

\* F: fee-paying/self-financed ; S: state-funded/state grant holders

Source: Jelentkezési és felvételi adatok [Application and admission data]. Educatio Nonprofit Kft.

Before discussing our basic hypothesis in detail, we need to consider if a person who starts his or her studies on a part-time programme necessarily regards it as an adult education programme. More specifically, the question is if he or she originally intended to enter the given part-time programme (marked it as the first option on the admission form) or decided to opt for it as a second opportunity in case he or she is not admitted to a selected full-time course. As evidenced by our time series results, only 4-6% of the individuals seeking admission to part-time higher education programmes sought admission to other programme types as their first choice. This low rate indicates that part-time programmes can be regarded as forms of adult education rather than "second best solutions".

Table 2. Individuals whose first choice was a full-time programme yet were admitted to a parttime course (% of all admitted individuals)

2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
4.8%	6.6%	4.3%	4.9%	4.4%	4.9%	4.8%	4.0%

Source: Jelentkezési és felvételi adatok [Application and admission data]. Educatio Nonprofit Kft.

Polónyi categorizes adult training in higher education into two major groups: (1) programmes leading to the first degree, and (2) postgraduate programmes (Polónyi 2012). As rule, the objective of attempts to make to acquire the first degree is seen as social mobility and counteracting disadvantages of young persons, while the acquisition of a second degree is normally regarded as a necessary development of professional skills. This interpretation, however, categorizes part-time programmes along the vertical dimension only, ignoring the internal differences and diverse strategies within each educational level. When the above data are broken down with the application of the categorical variable of age, an inherent contradiction is detected along the age groups, which, in part, proves that our expectations are correct. In the oldest age group of persons admitted to higher education, the rate of those who originally intended to start full-time study programmes is under 1%. Therefore - on the basis of their age and admission strategies – the individuals in the 30+ age group definitely participate in adult education. At some later point – on the basis of the Eurostudent research data – it will be determined if this means that these individuals are employed during their studies. In the under 21 age group, 16–22% of the students entering higher education fail their entrance examinations to a full-time programme. The vast difference between the age groups calls for the further investigation of the issue.

Table 3. Individuals who originally inten	ded to enter full-time	e programmes yet wer	re admitted
to part-time courses (% by age groups)			

age	-21	22–24	25-29	30 and above
2006	20.25%	5.01%	1.05%	0.55%
2007	21.21%	6.94%	1.70%	0.96%
2008	16.15%	4.17%	1.06%	0.50%
2009	20.89%	5.79%	1.39%	0.62%

age	-21	22-24	25-29	30 and above
2010	20.94%	6.30%	1.38%	0.77%
2011	21.50%	7.10%	2.07%	0.75%
2012	20.57%	6.72%	2.07%	0.70%
2013	16.20%	6.25%	1.46%	0.61%

Source: Jelentkezési és felvételi adatok [Application and admission data]. Educatio Nonprofit Kft.

# Part-time training programmes in Eurostudent research

## Personal data, current studies

In the framework of the Eurostudent V research of 2013, 17,000 Hungarian respondents submitted valid answers. 22.8% (3,812 individuals) pursue their studies in the Hungarian higher education on study programmes other than full-time programmes. 48% of belong to the 30+ age group; 29% are aged 25–29; one-fifth of them are aged 22–24; while younger people make up no more than 3%.

Women are more likely to opt for part-time programmes; their participation rate is 60%, which is 7% higher than their participation rate on full-time programmes. Still, the gender distribution differs greatly with age group. In the two youngest age groups, the rate of women is about 70%. Interestingly, the gender distribution of students aged 25–29 is very similar to that of full-time programmes. The average rate in the oldest age group equals to the average rate of the category of part-time students: the rate of women is about two-thirds.

	Female	Male
Full-time	53%	47%
Part-time	60%	40%
Part-time, under 21	70%	30%
Part-time, aged 22–24	69%	31%
Part-time, aged 25–29	54%	46%
Part-time, 30+ age group	61%	39%

Table 4. Gender distribution by work schedules and gender distribution in part-time programmes by age groups

> Source: Eurostudent V magyarországi felmérés, 2013 [Eurostudent V Research in Hungary, 2013], Educatio Társadalmi Szolgáltató Nonprofit Kft.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Source of all tables below: *Eurostudent V magyarországi felmérés, 2013* [Eurostudent V Research in Hungary, 2013], Educatio Társadalmi Szolgáltató Nonprofit K ft.

The high participation rate of women on evening and correspondence programmes may be due to the specific study fields. Invariably, the group under examination is overrepresented in "female study fields" (Garai 2012), these including economics, law and administration<sup>2</sup> and teacher training. Again, differences are detected between the age groups. In the oldest and youngest age group, only one-fifth of students purse their studies in the field of economics, while their rate in the two middle age groups is above 30%. It should be noted that – if compared to same-age full time students – individuals in the oldest age group are overrepresented in the field of social sciences as well.

Looking at educational levels, it can be established that on full-time programmes the apparent natural decrease of the BSc/BA-MA rate in the older age groups breaks at a certain point, parallel with the growth of the MA rate. In other words, in the age group of 25–29, the rate of Bachelor students is lower than in the oldest age group; the reason for this is that in this cohort the rate of students on undivided study programmes is very high, approximately 20%. No such break of trend can be detected among part-time students albeit the rate of students on undivided study programmes is the highest in the group of part-time students aged 25–29.

#### Study background

The majority of the institutions where students acquired their secondary school leaving certificates are four-grade grammar schools, with regard to part-time and full-time higher education programmes alike (40–50%). The reason for the fundamental difference between work schedules is the ratio of structure-changing grammar schools to vocational secondary schools. On full-time programmes, with students' age the rate of those with a secondary school leaving certificate acquired in structure-changing grammar schools is decreasing and the rate of those with vocational secondary school qualification is growing. However, on part-time programmes in the two middle age groups the rate of students who acquired their secondary school leaving certificates in structure-changing grammar schools is significantly higher (almost 20%) than in the two other groups (12% and 5% in the youngest age group and in the 30+ age group, respectively).

Language skills are a prerequisite of graduating and mobility. In this respect, part-time students do no differ from full-time students. The differences detected along this variable are also related to age. The proportion of those who do not have skills in the English language is below 5% in all age groups, with the exception of the 30+ age group. Among individuals above the age of 30, their rate is approximately 10% on full-time and part-time programmes alike. The data on students with skills in German or French do not differ greatly with work schedule; differences are detectable only in the oldest age group. The rate of those who have skills in German or French is the highest and the rate of those who have no such skills at all is the lowest in the oldest age group. By contrast, among part-time students, the rate of students who speak German or French is the lowest.

<sup>2</sup> By the time the questionnaire was taken, this field of study had ceased to exist in its original form: it is currently covered by the study fields of law and administration, and law enforcement and military training. However, as the majority of students in the survey were categorized into the study field of "social sciences" at the time of their admission, this study also uses this categorization.
It may seem obvious that on part-time programmes the introduction of the age group variable in the analysis will reveal that with age the rate of those who had entered higher education previously in some form – in the framework of higher educational technical programmes, the two-cycle Bologna system or the pre-Bologna educational system – grows. (Our research is not suitable for detecting if these are completed study programmes or not. This means that it is not known if an individual's current study programme is the continuation of a previous one or a second "attempt.") On full-time programmes, this gradual growth is clearly detectable, albeit the two last age groups display only slight differences: half of the students entered higher education before starting their current study programmes. Among part-time students, the proportion of those who entered higher education before is higher in all age groups than among full-time students. The rate among students aged 25–29 is 71%, which is very high; being 10% higher than the rate in the 30+ age group, it breaks the trend.

Table 5. Students who pursued higher education studies before starting their current study programme, by age groups and work schedules

Age group	Part-time	Full-time
21 years old or younger	13%	6%
22–24 years old	51%	31%
25–29 years old	71%	51%
30 years old or older	62%	52%

When the analysis is extended – besides previous entry to higher education – to whether respondents entered higher education directly after finishing their secondary studies, it becomes evident that although the proportion of those who did not enter higher education immediately after finishing secondary school is higher among part-time students than among full-time students, regardless of the age group, the age group factor still has a much greater influence than the factor of work schedule does. Above the age of 30, the probability of not entering higher education immediately after finishing secondary school is 40%, even on full-time programmes (regardless of whether respondents participated in a higher-educational programme before their current studies). Among part-time students, this rate is two-thirds.

Table 6. Students who did not start their higher education studies immediately after finishing secondary education, by age groups and work schedules

Age group	Part-time	Full-time
21 years old or younger	9%	1%
22–24 years old	20%	8%
25–29 years old	31%	20%
30 years old or older	62%	40%

A criterion of being an adult is performing regular work. With this regard, it is interesting to examine if the respondents had regular employment (of minimum 20 hours per week) before commencing their higher education studies. Part-time students are more likely to have had regular employment of minimum 20 hours per week before entering higher education; the factor of age, however, exercises considerable influence in this respect, too. In the oldest age group, at least one-third of full-time students had regular employment before staring their studies. However, with regard to occasional work, work schedule does not exercise influence in the two youngest age groups: in both groups, approximately 20% of students had performed occasional work before they started their studies. The rate is the same among full-time students aged 25–29, while among part-time students of the same age group the proportion of students with regular employment is higher.

Table 7. Students who were/were not employed before starting their studies, by work schedules and age groups

	For at least one year and at least 20 hoursFor less than 1 year or less than 20 hour per week		an 1 year n 20 hours	Gender		
Age group	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time	Full-time
21 years old or younger	17%	2%	17%	18%	67%	79%
22–24 years old	22%	5%	20%	20%	58%	75%
25–29 years old	33%	15%	10%	21%	56%	64%
30 years old or older	66%	35%	6%	16%	28%	49%

## Further study plans

In terms of further study plans, the issue of the differences between work schedules cannot be discussed without reference to the effects of the various age groups. Among individuals of the two younger age groups who entered higher education immediately after finishing their secondary studies, the difference between the work schedules is almost 15%, while in the two older age groups it decreases to 7–8%. As for persons who do not have specific plans, an effect of the age group factor can be detected. In the oldest and youngest age groups, the rate between the work schedules are similar, while in the age groups of 22–24 and 25–29, it varies by 7%.



Figure 1. Further study plans, by work schedules and age groups<sup>3</sup>

Obviously, in terms of study plans for the year after graduation the plans of persons who are sure that they will not study further are of equal importance for our research.

On the basis of the answers it is deducted that persons in the two youngest age groups (regardless of work schedule) are more likely to seek new employment or first employment, while in the two older age groups most full-time students seek first or new employment and part-time students intend to continue to work in their current jobs. A reason for this may be that among part-time students studies serve as a tool to strengthen their existing job positions while for younger students studies determine their future jobs. In other words, the latter group is not characterized by stability or a stable career.

<sup>3</sup> Source of the data of all tables: Eurostudent V magyarországi felmérés, 2013 (Eurostudent V Research in Hungary, 2013) Educatio Társadalmi Szolgáltató Nonprofit Kft.



Figure 2. Plans of individuals who do not plan to study further within one year, by work schedules and age groups

## **Living conditions**

The process of becoming an adult is best detected in students' living conditions. A key factor is leaving the parental home; however, it does not necessarily makes an individual functionally adult. A factor of students' lifestyle which may "preserve" a characteristic lifestyle of the young is living in a community, that is, in a shared flat, dormitory or hall of residence. Accordingly, this research regards living with the parents or with other persons as a factor of a lifestyle characteristic of the young, while living with one's partner/child or living alone is regarded as a sign of an independent household or a factor of an adult lifestyle. As evidenced by our data, in terms of this factor only part-time students aged 30 or above qualify as adults; even in this category, 16% of the individuals live with their parents or other persons, and 84% of them live with their partners/spouses or alone. With regard to this factor too, full-time students aged 30+ and part-time students aged 25-29 can be regarded as representatives of a transition: in both categories, the proportion of independent individuals is approximately 50%. In the other age groups, the rate of students who do not live in independent households is slightly lower among part-time students yet is still above 70%. Although Vaskovics points out that having children is not a criterion of becoming an adult as the period between setting up an independent household and having children is becoming longer and longer. Without contradicting his statement, let us note that the proportion of individuals who have children is only 7% in the age group of 24–29 while 60% in the 30+ age group.



Figure 3. Living conditions (persons the respondents live with), by work schedules and age groups

A precondition of an independent lifestyle is the availability of funding assets or an independent income. This lifestyle, however, involves not only higher income but also higher expenses than living with one's parents or living in communities. Certainly, it must not be ignored that part-time students have higher incomes and higher costs. Students on part-time programmes are more likely to have regular employment (although, as it will be discussed below, being a full-time student does not exclude regular employment either); in many cases, part-time students have employment at the time of their entry into higher education. As shown by our research data, it is only in the oldest age group that full-time students have expenses and income of an average HUF 100,000. By contrast, part-time students in the same age group have an average income/expenses of HUF 190,000. In the category of part-time students, it is evident that resources and expenses are considerably more limited in the younger age groups. In the 24–29 age group and in the two youngest age groups, the average incomes are HUF 150,000 and HUF 100,000, respectively, which again shows that the younger are less likely to have an independent household, and suggests that their gainful activity (if any) is likely to be part-time or occasional employment.

As shown by the research variable available for us for the purpose of verifying our hypothesis, in the two oldest age groups the proportion of those with regular employment is only 30%, while it is under 10% in the youngest age group. The rate of full-time students who perform occasional work is between 17 and 25%. The majority part-time students work on a regular basis. Nevertheless, it should be noted that while their rate is 83% in the oldest age group, it is only approximately 50% among the youngest.



Figure 4. Students who currently have / do not have employment, by work schedules and age groups

Finally, yet another factor needs to be considered in terms of becoming an adult: subjective judgement. With regard to the subjective judgement of one's main activity, in the two younger age groups of students on correspondence study programmes 14–18% say that they feel that they are primarily students. Their proportion is only 5% in the age group of 25–29 and practically insignificant in the oldest age group. Among full-time students, 93% of the youngest feel this way, yet in the age group of 22–24 one-fifth of the respondents report that the see themselves as persons who work during their studies. Their rate is 35% and 41% in the age group of 25–29 and in the oldest age group, respectively.



Figure 5. Subjective judgement of one's own status, by work schedules and age groups

## Conclusion

Examination of full-time students in higher education reveals that this group is not homogeneous. In the course of investigating part-time study programmes, one must not ignore the fact that if the age groups are not included in the analysis, the results will show high variation rates with regard to the most of the analyzed dimensions. Although part-time education is officially defined as adult education, only in connection with the oldest of the four involved age groups can it be said that the majority of students are no longer in the stage of post-adolescence, a transitional phase between youth and adulthood. A large number of individuals in the youngest age group have not left the parental home as of yet and are studying on part-time programmes because they were not admitted to the programme which they chose as the first option during the admission procedure.

The differences between part-time and full-time programmes are clearly evidenced by our research, yet even in this respect the age dimension cannot be ignored. A strong indicator of this is the self-definition of respondents: it still shows the basic differences between the work schedules and, at the same time, highlights the fact that the age group factor has a strong explanatory power regardless of the work schedule.

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