Education and Culture

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EUROSTUDENT Report 2005

Social and Economic Conditions of Student Life in Europe 2005

Synopsis of Indicators

for

Austria, Finland, France, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Portugal, Spain, The Netherlands and United Kingdom (England and Wales)

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Joint Project

coordinated by

HIS Hochschul-Informations-System, Hannover 2005, Germany

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IRELAND:	Higher Education Authority (HEA) and Department of Education and Science (DES)
ITALY:	Ministry for Education, University and Research – National University Evaluation Council
LATVIA:	Ministry of Education and Science
PORTUGAL:	Portuguese Directorate General for Higher Education/ Portuguese Ministry of Science, Technology and Higher Education
SPAIN:	Ministry of Education and Science (MEC)
THE NETHERLANDS:	Ministry of Education, Culture and Science
UNITED KINGDOM (E/W):	Department for Education and Skills (DfES)

Links to National Surveys:

- Austria: www.bmbwk.gv.at/studierenden-sozialerhebung
- Finland: www.otus.fi
- France: www.ove-national.education.fr
- Germany: www.his.de/www.sozialerhebung.de
- Ireland: www.hea.ie/new
- Italy: www.fondazionerui.it
- Spain: www.mec.es/univ/jsp/plantilla.jsp?id=2145
- Portugal: www.cies.iscte.pt
- United Kingdom: (E/W) www.dfes.gov.uk/research/programmeofresearch/projectinformation.cfm?projectId=13790&keyword=student%20income&keywordlist1=0&keywordlist2=0&keywordlist3=0&andor=or&type=5&resultspage=1

Abbrevations and Definitions

arithm.	arithmetic
AT	Austria
cont.	continued
DE	Germany
ES	Spain
E/W	England/ Wales
FI	Finland
Fig.	figure
FR	France
HEI	Higher Education Institution
h/w	hours per week
IE	Ireland
IT	Italy
ISCED	International Standard Classification of Education. For for more details, e.g. criteria for ISCED Levels 5A, 5B and 6 see: http://www.unesco.org/education/information/nfsunesco/doc/isced_1997.htm
LV	Latvia
nda	no data available
NL	the Netherlands
PT	Portugal
SE	Sweden
UK (E/W)	United Kingdom (England/ Wales)
USA	United States of America
vs.	versus

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Introduction

The importance of indicators on the social dimension of higher education

The European process is increasingly taking shape, especially with regard to the formation of a European knowledge society. Higher education plays a central role in this process. The Bologna Declaration of 1999 stated that shaping a European Higher Education Area is a common goal for the Bologna-process. This goal was reaffirmed by the European Ministers of Higher Education in Berlin 2003 and in the Communication of the Commission on "The Role of the Universities in the Europe of Knowledge".

The introduction of common study structures is being pursued with sweeping success within the Bologna process. In its capacity as a community action programme in the field of higher education, ERASMUS through its mobility programme is contributing actively to the realisation of a "European dimension" in higher education. However, the prerequisites for these reforms not only include changes to the study system which are already being tackled, but also the task of overcoming barriers which arise from the varying socio-economic framework conditions of studying in the individual countries taking part in the Bologna process. This is why it is just as urgent that these socio-economic dimensions are made visible to facilitate their incorporation into the deliberations on the structuring of the European area of higher education.

The EUROSTUDENT project has been committed to this task since 1997. In the political arena this dimension of the European higher education was picked up much later in Athens in the Bologna Follow-up Seminar "Exploring the Social Dimensions of the European Higher Education Area" in 2003 this issue was finally included as a new policy-objective for the progression of the Bologna process. In the Berlin Communiqué of the same year the social dimension of higher education was officially mentioned in the work programme of the Bologna process as an overarching or transversal action line. In the following discussions (Bologna Seminar in Paris 2005 "The Social Dimension of the European Higher Education Area and World Wide Competition") it became a common notion that the need to increase competitiveness must be balanced against the objective of improving the social conditions of the European higher education area. It was further realised that such an aim could only be discussed seriously on the basis of improved information on the social dimension. In many recommendations the EUROSTUDENT project is already seen as one of the basic tools for an ongoing monitoring of progress in the social dimension. The EUROSTUDENT approach aims to deliver fundamental information on the social and economic conditions of student life in Europe and to condense this information into the form of comparable indicators.

The indicators which EUROSTUDENT 2005 presents are intended to speak for themselves and to allow users to interpret them from their own perspective. The Synopsis of Indicators presented here provides a comparative view of the data and thus an assessment for each country of the extent to which each indicator differs from other countries. In addition to the Synopsis of Indicators, so-called National Profiles with a relevant topic-based structure are provided for each of the participating countries on the internet to aid further interpretation (http://www.his.de/Eurostudent). Web-users can examine the respective country specific indicators in the overall context of the national study system and view them in the context of their statistical basis (mean variations).

Highlights

The relevance of findings depends on how well the indicators may be exploited for the implementation of policies seeking to create equal educational opportunities in Europe. Discrepancies in equal opportunity reveal the scope of necessary action. Of major importance are the social and income-related

discrepancies in **educational participation** within and between states in Europe. The current magnitude of these discrepancies clearly indicates a great need for action. Only very few of the reporting countries have succeeded in narrowing the equity-gap between social groups. Social discrepancies continue to limit the opportunities of free movement.

Depending on the **social make-up of the student population**, the proportions of those student groups who face particular difficulties in their studies, e.g. students with children of their own or students with health impairments/disabilities, and who need special support in their studies on account of the double burden, also vary.

The student **financing patterns** encountered clearly reflect structural differences between the countries. Even when comparing only eleven countries currently participating in the survey, considerable qualitative differences emerge: If we compare the amount of money at a student's disposal to cover living and study costs, we encounter countries and/or student groups with budgets far below minimum standards, at one end, and examples of financial security for the whole study period at the other end. As only one of the new EU-member states, Latvia, took part in this survey, only part of the enormous new discrepancies in the student financial situation in the East of the enlarged EU is visible in the charts. If we compare structural characteristics of student financing at the one end of the spectrum we find subsistence-like financing (students living with parents) and at the other near complete self-financing (over 60% of students have jobs).

The traditional **dependence on parents and/or state support** is diminishing in many EU-countries. In deliberating these issues, indirect transfers (tax subsidies) need to be given even more consideration than before. However, such transfers cannot be brought to light by empirical polling of students. This calls for a collateral analysis of state budgets. Unfortunately most of the cooperating countries were not yet able, to provide such data. Indirect transfers are mainly means-tested in some of the countries. Others have abolished indirect transfers and converted them into direct transfers, which students can have at their direct disposal, but which have to be paid back after graduation. The model of direct transfers seems to promote non-traditional pathways of access to higher education and mobilise non-traditional students.

The overview of forms of **student housing** provides more than a descriptive outline. For the purpose of comparative analysis, the forms of student housing can be use to characterise types of households. In the context of international mobility, this analysis reveals housing-related barriers which deserve closer attention. Extremely high percentages of students live with their parents, especially in South-European countries. This subsistence-form of student living but also dependence on paid employment keep students immobile and thus represents a serious obstacle to **studying abroad**. Alongside findings on social mobility, an insight into international mobility is of major significance to the European objective of creating a European area of higher education. The current findings succeed in giving an overall picture of international student mobility in terms of groups, programmes and free-movers. When it comes to efforts to promote educational mobility in Europe, **foreign language** proficiency plays a major role, as do the effects of social standing on mobility. Here, too, the findings demonstrate the need for explicit action on a European level.

PART A

Technical Notes

PART A Technical Notes

1. Objective and Execution of the Survey

The EUROSTUDENT 2005 project aims to generate and present internationally-comparable indicators on the social and economic conditions of student life (students engaged in higher education). Such a comparison provides the participating EU countries with information of high relevance of educational policy. Together with the country specific surveys and analyses – the national profiles – the indicators serve to support governments in their efforts to reform education policy. Additionally, the profiles offer each country an opportunity to review its own education system in the light of the performance of systems operating in other countries. However, in order to be able to make responsible use of the information gained, users must always give ample consideration to the limitations in terms of the significance and comparability of these highly-condensed indicators.

The EUROSTUDENT 2005 "Synopsis of Indicators" presented here in the print version offers a comprehensive and up-to-date spectrum of comparable indicators, presenting information on the following areas concerning student life:

- Demographic Characteristics
- Access to Higher Education
- Study Performance
- Social Make-up of the Student Body
- Accommodation
- Funding and State Assistance
- Living Expenses – Student Spending
- Student Employment and Time Budget
- Internationalisation

Neither the national offices of statistics nor EUROSTAT at European level are currently able to provide data on these aspects in the way this survey does. This is why it was necessary to generate the indicators decentrally by carrying out dedicated national surveys.

The following eleven European countries participated in the project:

- Austria
- Finland
- France
- Germany
- Ireland
- Italy
- Latvia
- The Netherlands
- Portugal
- Spain
- United Kingdom (England and Wales).

Countries that currently have observer status and plan to join the survey in the next round are: Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Estonia, Greece, Hungary, Lithuania, Malta, Norway, Poland, Republic of Cyprus, Romania, Slovak Republic, Slovenia, and Switzerland.

1.1 From independent national surveys to European comparison

Comparable empirical surveys considering several countries are, by their very nature, highly involved and complex undertakings, even when – as in this case – the surveys collected data uniformly right from the start. In order to meet the data acquisition and compilation standards, the organisation and execution of the project incorporated a coordinated division of responsibilities made up of decentralized and central activities: The national surveys were undertaken decentrally in the participating countries, which were responsible for carrying out their own empirical surveys among students enrolled at their higher education institutions. They produced detailed data for their independent country reports and imported from these the prefixed core data for the National Profiles of EUROSTUDENT. The National Profiles, which already contained the EUROSTUDENT indicators, were

then sent to the project coordinator (HIS) for editorial processing. The national data was then compiled and comments were drawn up centrally by a HIS working group, which used the individual country monographs to develop an international "Synopsis of Indicators" from a comparative perspective.

Project conventions

Statistical indicators are becoming increasingly important as a tool for comparing spatial and temporal aspects of the social and economic (financial) situation of students in higher education. Indeed, only such standardised quantities enable comparative analyses to be made which extend beyond the monographic representations of individual countries. In order to guarantee the validity, representativeness and comparability of the findings of the EUROSTUDENT project, the participating partner organisations reached agreement in the run-up to the empirical surveys on common survey, data and representation conventions. These were then defined as a set of minimum standards for the individual national surveys. Bilateral agreements between the project coordination group and the participating countries as well as two decision-making meetings of experts were held in this respect.

Essentially, the conventions related to:

- definitions
  e.g. defining the surveyed group, the various student households, the various social indicators
- the execution of the survey
  postal/telephone/online/face-to-face interviews, random sample, plausibility
- the pre-fixed dataset
  the "Manual EUROSTUDENT 2005 Questionnaire", which prescribed a minimum set of questions with variables, and the prescribed results/charts together served to define the dataset which was to be surveyed
- the form of data provision
  namely on the basis of given tables and charts, the so-called templates.

Most of the participating countries embedded the survey into a more extensive national survey. In this case, the individually-designed national surveys supplied the EUROSTUDENT 2005 Report with agreed core data as a by-product. Despite the respective national orientation, the conventions on comparable core data were largely observed, meaning that it was possible to produce eleven comparable "National Profiles" and a synopsis of condensed indicators.

Report formats and structure

Two report formats resulted from the project:

- In their capacity as monographic reports, the "National Profiles" provide a systematic and comprehensive overview of the individual socio-economic situation of students enrolled at higher education institutions in the individual countries. They portray a wide range of education-relevant topics.
- The "Synopsis of Indicators", which is based on the National Profiles, provides an internationally-comparable, topic-based structure of condensed key aspects.

The present print version focuses on the comparative presentation of the statistical indicators, the "Synopsis of Indicators" (PART B), which enables comparison of aspects of student life in the eleven participating European countries. The Synopsis of Indicators can also be accessed on the web **(http://www.his.de/eurostudent)**.

The findings presented in the charts are accompanied by short supplementary comments which aim to assist the reader in drawing permissible conclusions from the indicators and interpreting country-specific differences. Further-reaching background information and special features in the respective countries, which cannot be illustrated by means of comparative indicators, are only to be found on the web. Helpful links are:

- Education Systems in Europe
  www.eurydice.org/Eurybase/frameset_eurybase.html
- Structure of Higher Education in Europe (2003/2004) with National Trends in the Bologna Process
  www.eurodyce.org/Doc_intermediaires/analysis/en/focus_framest_EN_html

- Financial Support for Students in Higher Education
  www.eurydice.org/Documents/Keytopics/en/FrameSet.htm
  www.minocw.nl/bhw/107/index.html
- Key Data on Education in Europe
  www.eurodyce.org/Doc_intermediaires/indicatorrs/en/framest_key_data.html

The full country profiles displayed in the web-version enable users to identify and understand national singularities, typical distributions and further-reaching information. Users of the web-version can either navigate systematically through all the topic areas of one country or can compare the findings of a specific topic area from one country to the next.

The following abbreviations have been used in the graphic figures for the participating countries:
Austria = AT, Finland = FI, France = FR, Germany = DE, Ireland = IE, Italy = IT, Latvia = LV, the Netherlands = NL, Portugal= PT, Spain= ES and United Kingdom (England and Wales = UK (E/W). They are listed in alphabetical order.

1.2 Project Implementation

EUROSTUDENT 2005 was initiated as a joint European project at the Conference of Directors General for Higher Education in the EU Member States held in Weimar, Germany, in 1999. The conference recommended that a European social survey be carried out among students enrolled in tertiary education. A feasibility and pilot study carried out in response to a suggestion made by the European Council for Student Affairs (ECSTA) formed a basis for this recommendation.

The EUROSTUDENT 2000 Report was the first successful attempt with eight countries to produce comparable data on the social dimension of European students. EUROSTUDENT 2005 Report represents the second run of EUROSTUDENT and the beginning of a time series.

Implementation of the EUROSTUDENT 2005 was carried out in several steps. As a first step a self-steering network of active partner-institutions was organized. Each of the participating countries was itself responsible for carrying out and funding its own national survey. HIS Hochschul-Informations-System, Hanover, was commissioned with managing the project and producing the final report. The German Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF) provided the main funding for these tasks. An additional grant was given from EU-SOCRATES-Programme "Accompanying Measures".

The data basis required for the production of a transnational report of comparative indicators was provided by the national surveys on the social and economic (financial) situation of students in higher education carried out in the individual countries. The core data have been incorporated into the EUROSTUDENT 2005 Report. The decentralized acquisition and processing of the respective data was carried out by experts in the participating countries. The following countries and institutions took part in the project:

Schedule

The initial meeting of the national coordinators for EUROSTUDENT 2005 was held in Berlin June 2003 where the organisation of the project and survey conventions were discussed and agreed upon. Jointly-devised survey instruments and delineations of the aspects to be depicted in the survey were developed. An interim-workshop in Berlin September 2004 was primarily addressed to the representatives of the observer countries, clarifying conditions for future participation in a planned third run of EUROSTUDENT.

Project field phases were carried out decentrally in the individual countries. National surveys were carried out in the participating countries in the year 2003. The subsequent phase of data processing and analysis lasted until beginning of 2005 due to technical problems of delivery. The national reports and previously-agreed results tables for the EUROSTUDENT report were delivered by the deadline of February 2005 to the project coordinator's working group for central assembling (March/April 2005). The Synopsis of Indicators, the

Austria	
Project sponsor:	Federal Ministry for Education, Science and Culture (BMBWK)
Implementation:	Institut für Höhere Studien (IHS)
National report:	Studierenden-Sozialerhebung 2002. Bericht zur sozialen Lage der Studierenden, Vienna 2003
Finland	
Project sponsor:	Ministry of Education, Department for Education and Science Policy
Implementation:	Student Research Foundation OTUS
National report:	Opiskelijatutkimus 2003. Opiskelijoiden toimeentulo ja toimeentulon ongelmat. (Student Research 2003), The Social Insurance Institution of Finland (KELA), Social security and health reports 65, Helsinki 2004
France	
Project sponsor:	Ministry of National Education
Implementation:	Observatoire National de la Vie Etudiante (OVE)
National report:	La vie étudiante, OVE, Paris, Repères, 2004
Germany	
Project sponsor:	Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF) and Deutsches Studentenwerk (DSW)
Implementation:	HIS Hochschul-Informations-System
National report:	Die wirtschaftliche und soziale Lage der Studierenden in der Bundesrepublik Deutschland 2003, Bonn, Berlin 2004
Ireland	
Project sponsor:	Higher Education Authority (HEA) and Department of Education and Science (DES)
Implementation:	Economic and Social Research Institute (ESRI)
National report:	Euroudent Survey 2003, Dublin, 2005
Italy	
Project sponsor:	Ministry for Education, University and Research – National University Evaluation Council
Implementation:	Fondazione Rui
National report:	Euro Student. Quarta indagine sulle condizioni di vita e di studio degli studenti universitari italiani (in press)
Latvia	
Project sponsor:	Ministry of Education and Science
Implementation:	Institute of Philosophy and Sociology (FSI), University of Latvia
National report:	Eirostudents 2003. Studentu ekonomisko un socialo dzives apstaklu petijums
Portugal	
Project sponsor:	Portuguese Directorate General for Higher Education/ Portuguese Ministry of Science, Technology and Higher Education
Implementation:	Centre for Research and Studies in Sociology (CIES-ISCTE)
National report:	Condições Socioeconómicas dos Estudantes do Ensino Superior em Portugal, Lisbon, 2005
Spain	
Project sponsor:	Ministry of Education
Implementation:	Departamento de Estructura Económica y Economía de Desarollo; Universidad Autònoma de Madric
National report:	Socio-Economic Living Conditions of University Students in Spain, Madrid, 2003
The Netherlands	
Project sponsor:	Ministry of Education, Culture and Science
Implementation:	ITS, Radboud Universiteit Nijmegen
National report:	Studeren in het hoger onderwijs – Studentenmonitor 2003, Den Haag, 2004
United Kingdom (E/W)	
Project sponsor:	Department for Education and Skills (DfES)
Implementation:	London South Bank University
National report:	2002/03 Student Income and Expenditure Survey (SIES) and Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA)

comparative representation of condensed indicators, was produced centrally. Finally, a joint workshop was held in Berlin in June 2005, where the results were subjected to a critical project review process and then presented to the public.

2 Methodological Remarks

2.1 Execution of the national surveys

The methods used in conjunction with the national surveys differed in several respects (cf. Table1).

In four countries students received the survey papers by post. Written questionnaires were used in Spain and

Table 1: Execution of national surveys

Country	Size of sample	Sampling method	Return-rate	Reference period	Survey method	ISCED Level	Weighting Scheme
Austria	10,045	stratified random sample	35% 3,303	summer term 2002	postal questionnaire, reminder letter	5A	by type of HEI, field of study, gender, age group
Finland	10,860	quota: every 50th	44% 4,780	October 2003	online, on request also paper questionnaire	5A, 5B	no
France	86,000	quota: every 20th	30% 25,385	2003	postal questionnaire, reminder letter	5A, 5B	by region, type of HEI, level and field of study, gender, age, type of baccalauréat
Germany	51,560	quota: every 32th	42% 21,060	summer term 2003	postal questionnaire, reminder postcard	5A	by type of HEI, field of study, gender
Ireland	12,000	stratified random sample	31% 3,720	2003	postal questionnaire	5A, 5B	to adjust for full-time/part-time status, HEI, gender
Italy	5,800	stratified random sample for all universities	86% 5,000	academic year 2002-2003	telephone interview	5A	by type of HEI, field of study, gender, year of enrolment, state assistance (fees exemption)
Latvia	1,000	stratified one-stage cluster sample covering 100% of full- time students	99% 994	study year 2003-2004	written questionnaire, answered in classes, presence of professional interviewer	5A	no
Portugal	3,000	quota: stratified by legal status, type of HEI, region, field of study, academic degree	100% 3,000	Febr - April 2004	face-to-face-interview	5A, 5B, 6	no
Spain	3,267	quota: stratified by course, gender, age	100% 3,267	June-July 2003	written questionnaire	5A	by university (total number of students), gender, age, year of study, field of study
The Netherlands	27,226	stratified by type of HEI, year of study and field of study	35% 9,026	2003	online or postal questioning (eligible by interviewee)	5A, 5B	by type of HEI, field and year of study, gender
United Kingdom (E/W)	no information	quota: year of study, subject of course, tuition fees (to pay, partial or nil)	1,249	Sept 2002-June 2003	face-to-face interview	5A, 5B	no

Latvia, too. In Latvia the students filled them out in their classes. The survey as such was carried out in the form of follow-up telephone interviews in Italy. Finland and The Netherlands chose to use an online questionnaire. Face-to-face interviews were carried out in Portugal and United Kingdom.

The scope of the random sample varied substantially from one participating country to the next. The smallest sample size was to be found in Latvia, with about 1000 cases, while the largest were found in France with more than 80,000 and Germany with about 52,000 cases. Various, in some cases stratified and quota random samples were used as sampling methods. Differentiated by individual countries and methods, the return rates ranged from 30% (postal survey) to 100% (face-to-face-interview). In some countries, slight differences in terms of certain structural features were found between the actual random sample and the basic population. It was possible to use weighting in individual cases to correct these differences. Satisfactory examination of the data validity was done in most of the countries, but clear improvements are needed in this respect in the future. This includes, for example, a plausibility test for the acquired data.

Again round 85% of the core topics of the survey – educational participation, income, expenditure, job activity, housing, international mobility, time budget and personal data – were covered using the data acquired in most of the participating countries. The survey showed that questions regarding data on student and study funding continue to be very sensitive. In Italy other priorities in the political agenda brought changes to the questionnaire. Due to this change only 30% of the core data of EUROSTUDENT could be delivered. In UK the questionnaire was created earlier for a slightly different purpose. Here as well, only one third of the core data were covered.

The aim of presenting data on public and private expenditure of higher education and distinguishing between student living expenses and expenditures to the institution had to be abandoned for lack of additional data from public files (cf. Fig.20). The same applied to Fig.19 where indirect state transfers for families with high and low income should be calculated.

2.2 Comparability

One of the first steps required for a comparative representation of the economic and social aspects of student life in several countries involves reaching agreement on which higher education institutions are to be included in the survey. Based on the ISCED 97 classification, all those programmes were recognised and incorporated into the survey which could be categorised as Level 5A.

The principle was applied that the national surveys should have room for national special features. In order to guarantee the comparability of the originally varied information for the core data, it was necessary to adopt some degree of standardisation and norms. For example, categories were established for the evaluation of the data which serve as standard classifications (male/female, children of blue-collar workers, age) or which form structural equivalents (e.g. subgroups of identical age). As differentiating categories running nearly through all presented figures gender and first year students were used. In Addition analytical distinguishing criteria were defined. Two household types were, for example, defined for the examination of the income and expenditure situation:

- Students who live with their parents
- Students who run their own household. This includes all students not living with parents.

Both household types are found in varying proportions in all countries. In countries of South of Europe the student body was clearly dominated by students who live with their parents; this group accounted for more than two thirds of the overall student population. By contrast, this household type is not typical among students in Finland, where students only live with their parents in exceptional cases. The financial situation of students living with their parents can only be approximately established and represented. Non-cash payments made by parents – in the form of free-of-charge board and

lodging – can only be converted into estimated cash values. Inquiries into the financial situation of students running their own household are easier by comparison. Without such distinguishing criteria based on homogenous household types, students of both groups would not show any comparative economic conditions.

3. Summary and Prospects

The EUROSTUDENT 2005 project has achieved its overriding goal, namely of providing internationally-comparable indicators on the social and economic (financial) situation of students in the tertiary sector. At decentral level, the national surveys were designed in such a way that across nearly all participating countries an average of around 85% of the agreed data reports were covered. Within this average, some countries, such as Spain, Portugal and Ireland, were able to provide more than 90% of the previously-defined information. Other countries failed to do this to that extent, but the overall concept nevertheless proved to be transferable in all countries, despite these gaps.

The same self-critical remarks pertain to the obedience to the time-schedule. The decentral national data surveys were not all carried out in the participating countries at the same time in the year 2003. Also the subsequent processing and analysis of the data varied greatly. This resulted in some countries only providing their data after some delay. The last set of results was received in March 2005. Thus the survey could only be published at a relatively late date, which in turn meant that the data had lost some of their relevance and topicality. With a view to the future when even more countries will hopefully take part, the "open source" character approach applied in the surveys has to undergo a critical inspection. A more binding character of participation seems to be necessary for the next run.

Even though extensive efforts had already been undertaken within the course of the EUROSTUDENT 2005 project to improve the acquisition and representation of comparative indicators in the field of higher education, the jointly-developed and applied survey tools need to be continually extended and developed in future projects. The definitions and delineations of the aspects to be portrayed need to be refined. Consideration needs to be given to incorporating more time series into the examination so that developments can be shown. A further option would involve the incorporation of indicators into greater contexts of the national system of higher education in order to be able to offer some initial answers to explain international differences. A "Technical Group" is needed to which every participating country can send a representative. This group would discuss questions of project design and project execution in detail.

The timing of the execution of the national projects needs to be better coordinated. This should not only apply to the survey as such, but also to the evaluation and delivery of the data, which need to be carried out quickly after the survey, so as to ensure that the data are as up-to-date and relevant as possible.

Besides aspects of content, method and organisation, efforts also need to be made to ensure that further EU member countries and signatory states of the Bologna process are included in the project in the future, since only such an approach will allow the social dimensions within the European Higher Education Area to be depicted across the whole of Europe, with all its peaks and troughs.

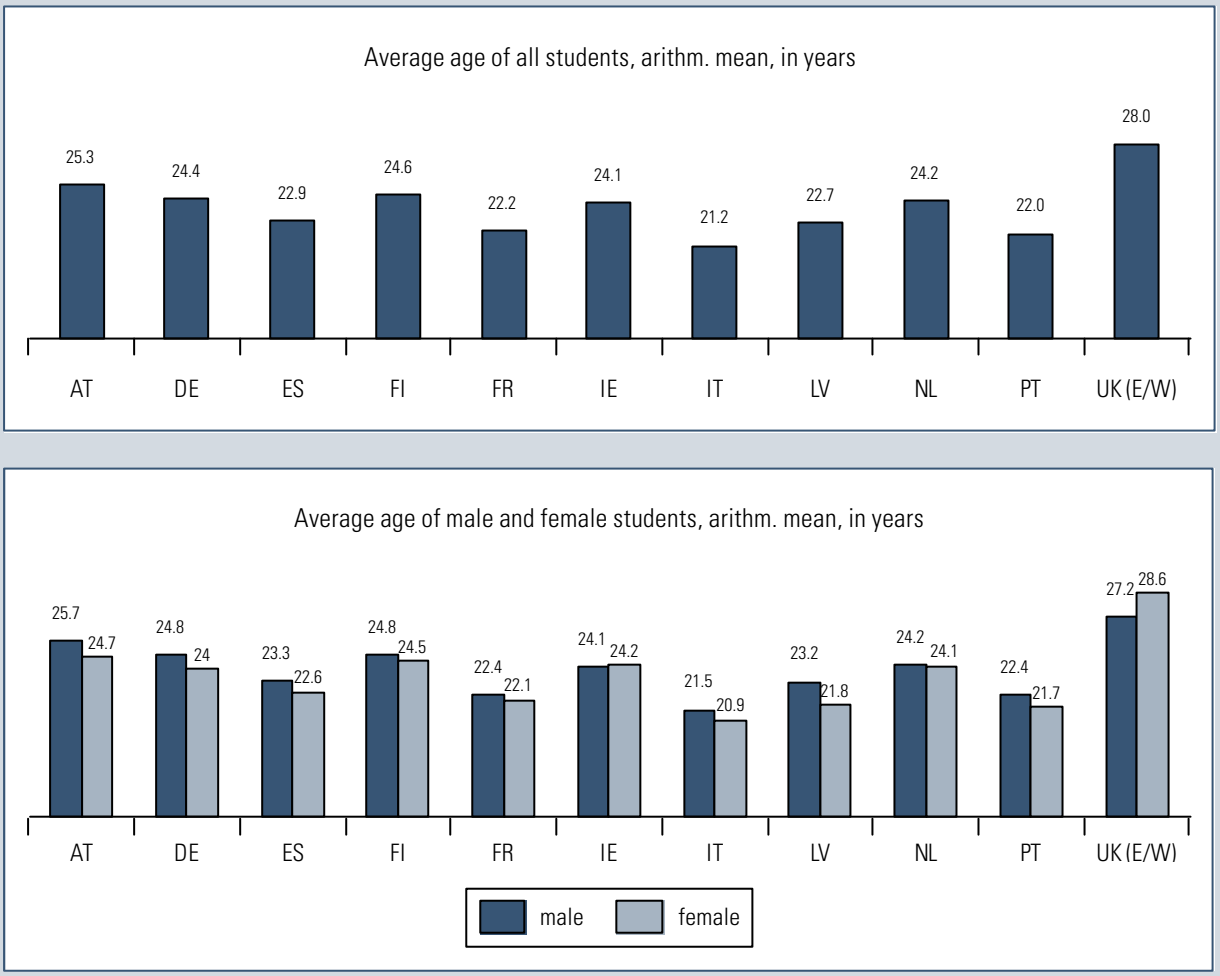
Until now the voluntary-nature of all participants of the EUROSTUDENT project was the driving force of shaping an EUROSTUDENT statistical system. In facing the efforts still necessary in order to enhance and enlarge the EUROSTUDENT approach as a monitor system covering the social dimension of the full European area of higher education, an attempt has to be made to put this approach on more stable grounds and increase statistical capacity. Information capacity building is the precondition for further progress in the measuring, monitoring and management of the social dimension of the European Higher Education Area.

PART B

Synopsis of Indicators

I	Demographic Characteristics	Fig. 1	-	Fig. 4
II	Access to Higher Education	Fig. 5	-	Fig. 10
III	Study Performance	Fig. 11	-	Fig 12.1
IV	Social Make-up of Student Body	Fig. 13	-	Fig. 15.2
V	Accommodation	Fig. 16	-	Fig. 18.1
VI	Funding and State Assistance	Fig. 19	-	Fig. 28.1
VII	Living Expenses – Student Spending	Fig. 29	-	Fig. 33
VIII	Student Employment and Time Budget	Fig. 34	-	Fig. 40
IX	Internationalisation	Fig. 41	-	Fig. 50

Fig. 1: Student age and gender profile



Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

Student age and gender profile

The average age of students varies substantially in the countries surveyed and is influenced by various factors. The age of first year students and their proportion among the student body as a whole belong, inter alia, to these factors. The average age of first year students itself is influenced by factors such as route to and duration of education necessary to achieve a higher education entrance qualification, and time lags between leaving school and entering higher education. Other factors are connected to the duration of study programmes, study performance, quotas of change or interruption to degree courses, including the respective ways in which degree courses are organised. All these factors differ from one country to the next. A high age of students in general is caused by various factors, including the proportion of students enrolled at higher education institutions on long or very long degree courses, the proportion of students, who pursue their studies alongside a full-time job and the share of students enrolled in full-time and part-time programmes, respectively.

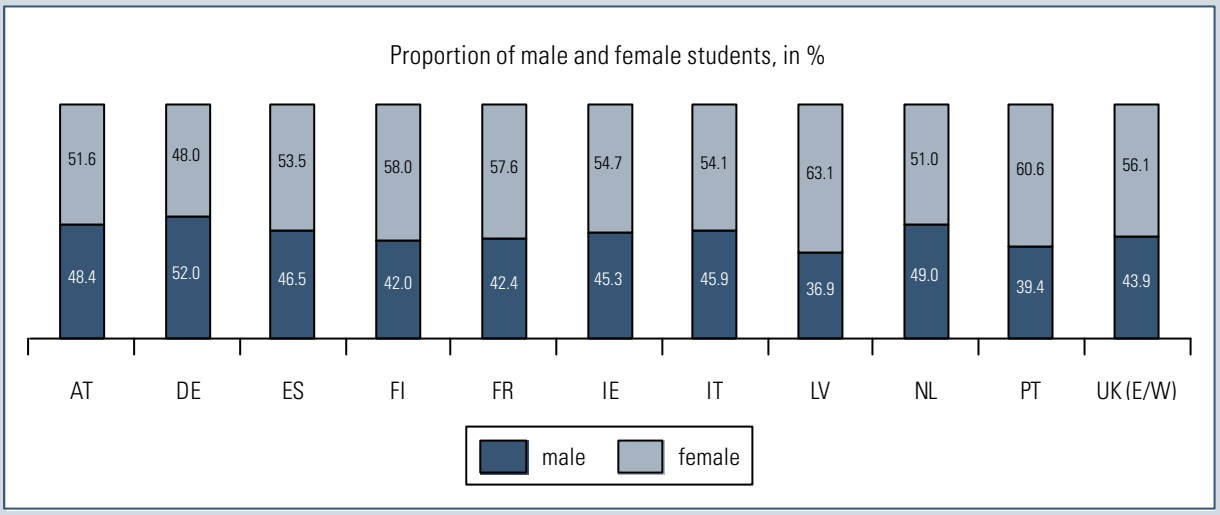
At 28 years, the very highest average age is found among students in United Kingdom, where a high percentage of students are enrolled at the age of 34 and higher and the share of students with part-time status is comparatively high (cf. Fig. 12). Especially women start their studies only after their children have reached school age.

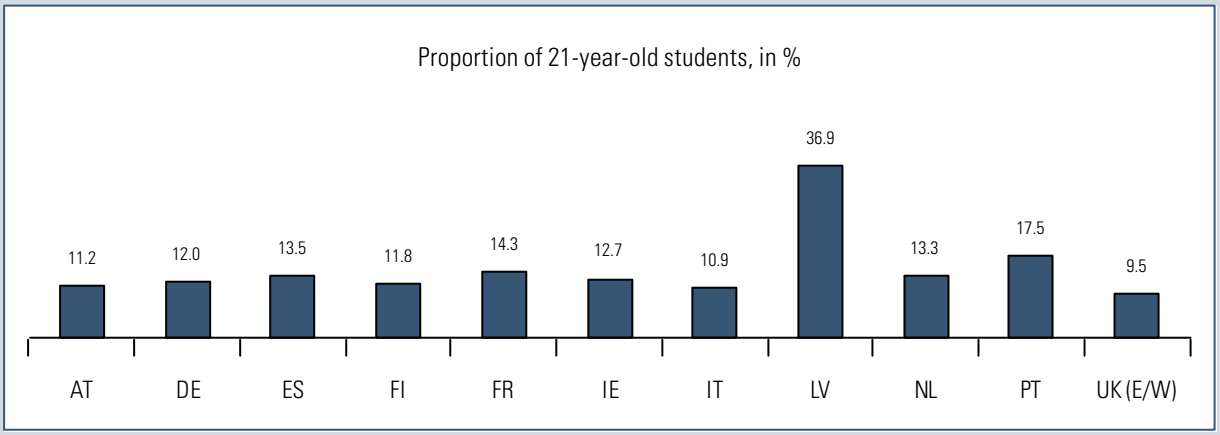
The high age of students in Austria, Finland and Germany, the Netherlands and Ireland (between 24-25 years) can also be explained, among other reasons, by the fact that, essentially, the first degree is awarded after completion of long or very long degree courses. And studies also commence at a later stage, namely after a gap between leaving school and entering higher education. Additionally, in Finland admissions restrictions also mean that studies often only commence after completion of a waiting period. A further reason is that a noticeably high proportion of students in Ireland and the Netherlands only gain entry to higher education at an older age via non-traditional access routes (cf. Fig. 5).

The situation in France and Portugal is different (average age of 22.0 and 22.2, respectively), where the transition from school to higher education generally occurs without any gaps. At 21, the average age of students in Italy seems to be very low. But bearing in mind that the Italian survey was restricted on students who enrolled in new study programmes since 2000 this figure does not reflect the whole picture.

With the exception of United Kingdom on average, male students are older than female students by up to one and a half year in all the surveyed countries. Among other reasons, male students are older than their female counterparts because in some countries (e.g. Austria, Germany) they have to complete a period of military or civilian service before entering higher education, male students use non-traditional routes for gaining higher education entrance qualification more often than female students (e.g. in Spain, the Netherlands; cf. Fig.5) or they gained work experience before entering higher education more frequently than their female counterparts (e.g. in Germany, France, Italy, Latvia; cf. Fig.6).

Fig. 1 cont.: Student age and gender profile





Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

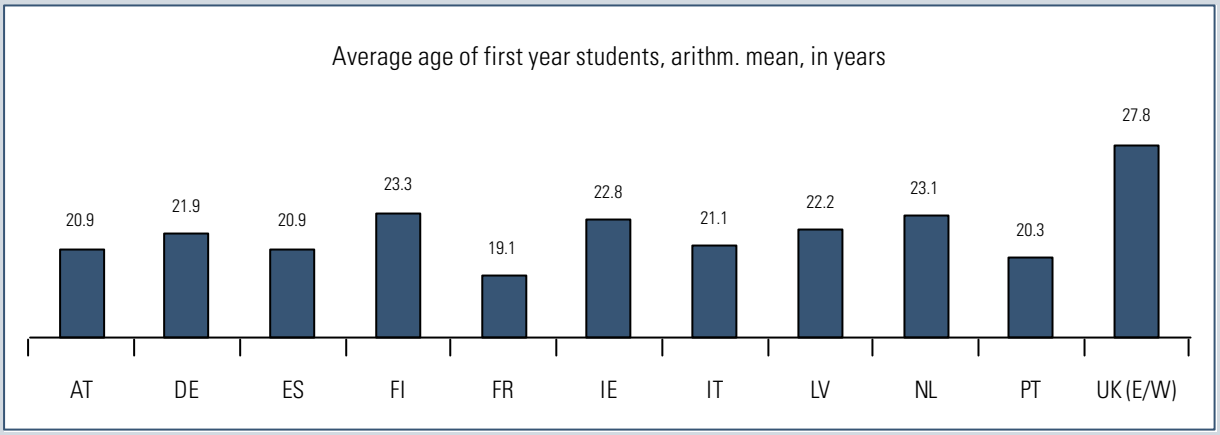
Proportion of male and female students

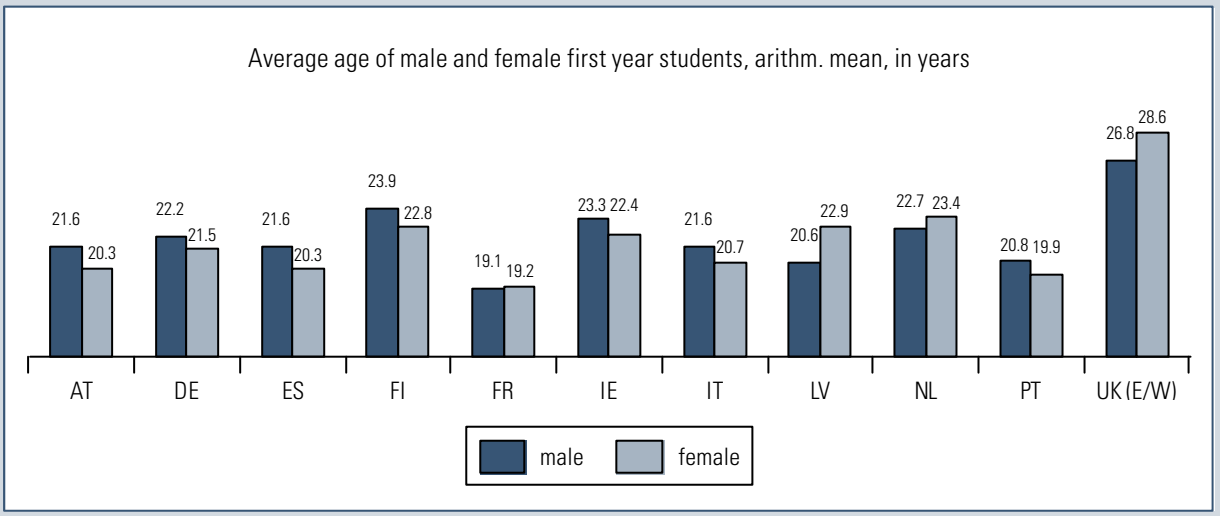
When examining the composition of the student body by gender, it can be stated that higher education is no male privilege. In all contributing countries the women's share has continuously increased over the last years and climbed to above half. The highest percentages of female students are enrolled in Latvia and Portugal with over 60%, each. There is only one execution from this trend: In Germany women are still in the minority, although they are clearly approaching the 50% level.

Proportion of 21-year-old students

The proportions of 21-year-old students amount between 10% and 18%. A striking feature is been reported for Latvia where 37% of all students are in the age of 21. This is to be explained with the very early start of tertiary education in Latvia, where more than a quarter of all first year students are up to 18 years old and even among all students about two thirds are younger than 22 years (cf. Latvian National Profile).

Fig. 1.1: Student age of first year students



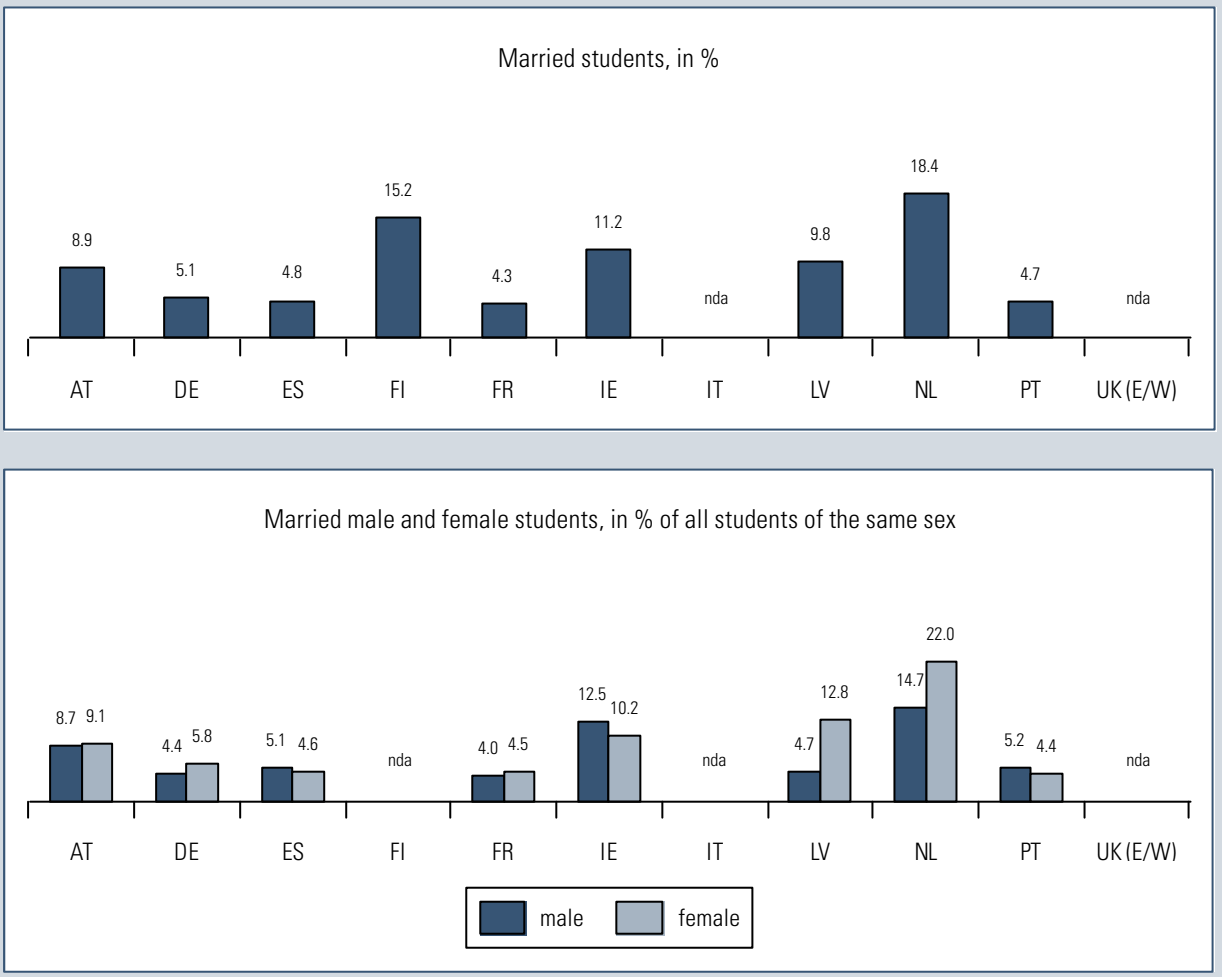


Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

Student age of first-year-students

At 19 years, the youngest first-year-students are reported by France, followed by Portugal with, on average, 20 year old beginners. In Austria, Spain and Italy, higher education is started at the age of 21 years, while in Germany and Latvia, freshmen are about 22 years old. At 23 years, first year students in Ireland, the Netherlands and Finland are comparetively old. The high age of first-year-students in the United Kingdom (28 years) underlines the special situation here due to a high percentage of over 34 year old (female) beginners (cf. fig. 1).

Fig. 2: Family status of students



Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

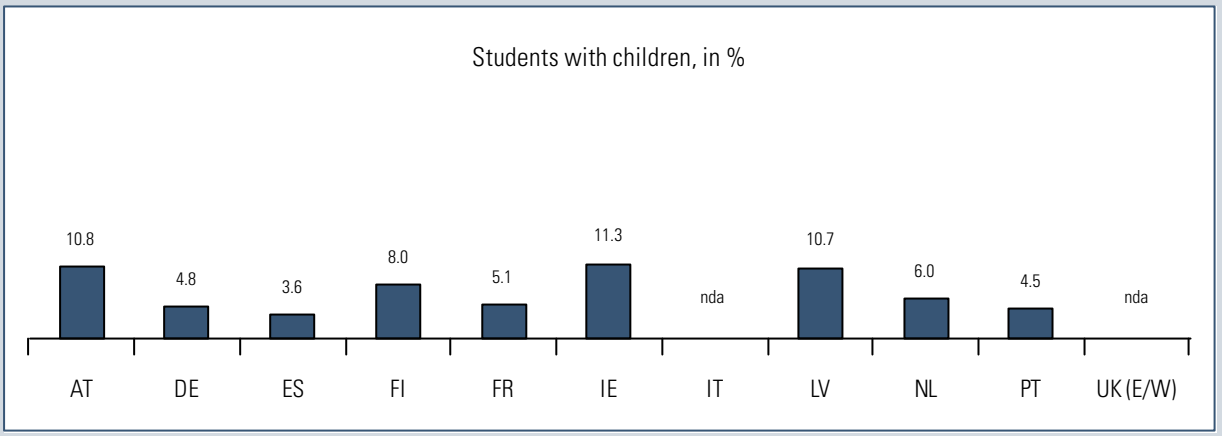
Family status of students

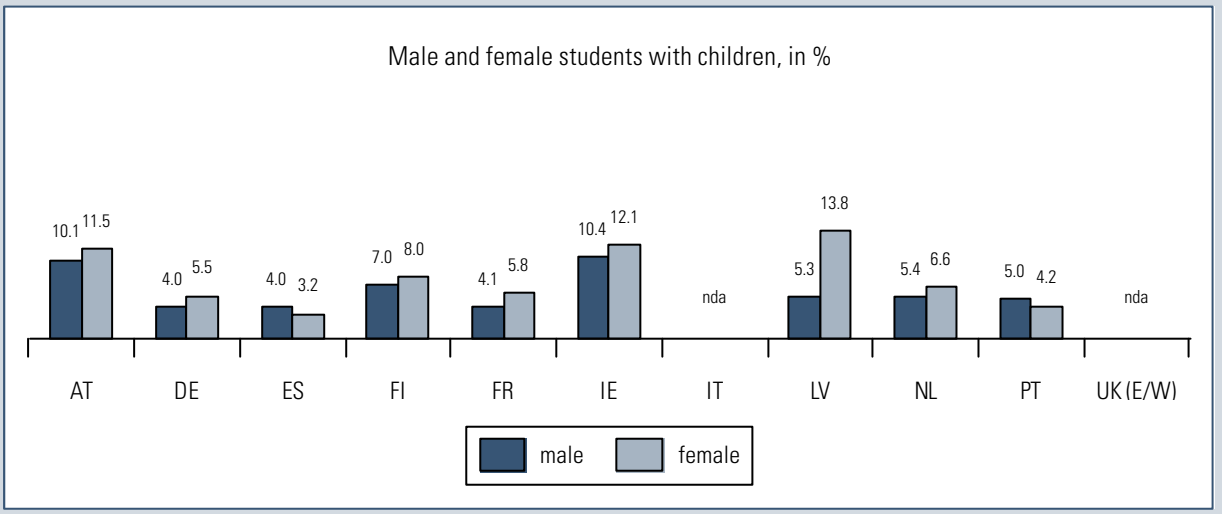
The proportion of married students among the student population differs from one country to the next (see top chart) and is highly age dependent. At more than 18% in the Netherlands, married students account for the comparatively highest proportion, particularly female students are already married here. The data on married status of students in Finland come from the former survey carried out in 2000. This data was not updated because in Finland the relevant issue is seen to be the living status of students, i.e. living alone or not (with partner, children, parents, in a commune; cf. National Profile).

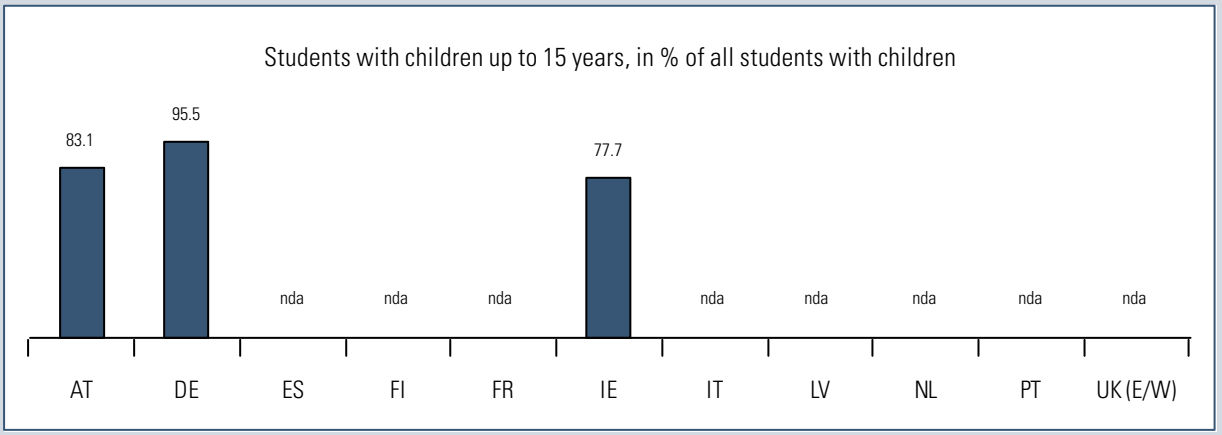
In Ireland, Latvia and Austria about every tenth student is married; but the female students in Latvia and the Netherlands are clearly more often married than their male counterparts. At around 5% the rate of married students in France, Portugal, Spain and Germany is markedly lower. Female students have to care for a child alongside their studies significantly more often than male students.

For the United Kingdom, no data are available because the survey was restricted to single and childless students.

Fig. 3: Students with children







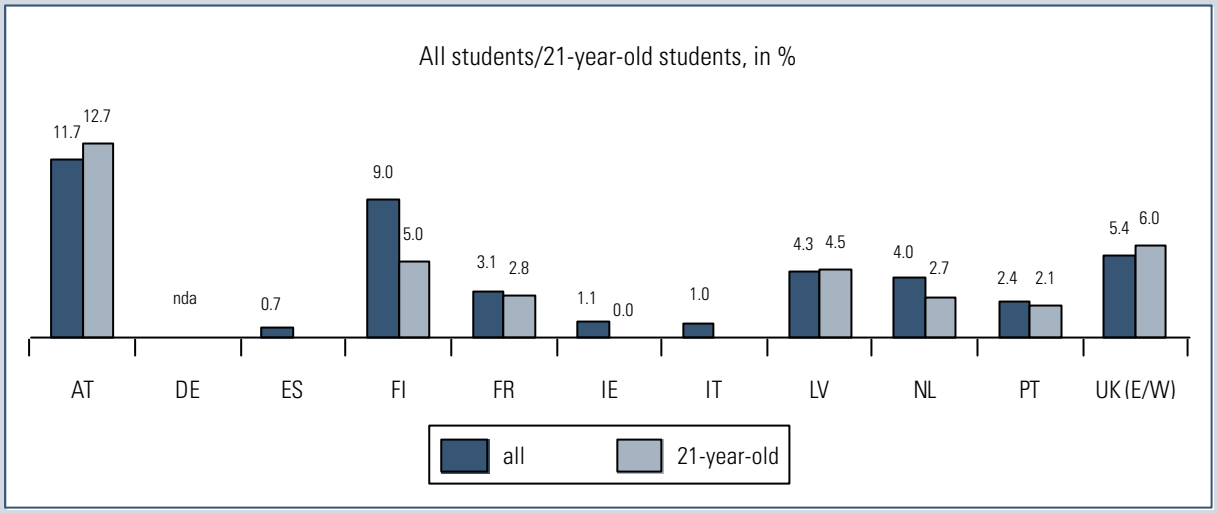
Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

Students with children

The percentage of married students in every case does not correspond proportionally with the quota of students parents. A look at the proportion of students with children reveals fewer differences between the countries (cf. fig.3). The largest proportion of student mothers and fathers is found among students in Ireland, Austria and Latvia, where it is around 11%. The lowest values are characteristic of Spain, Portugal and Germany. In these countries, only between around 4% and 5% of students have one or more children. In most of the countries female students have to care for a child alongside their studies significantly more often than male students.

For United Kingdom see comment regarding fig. 2.

Fig. 4: Physically disabled and chronically diseased students who feel impaired in their studies



Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

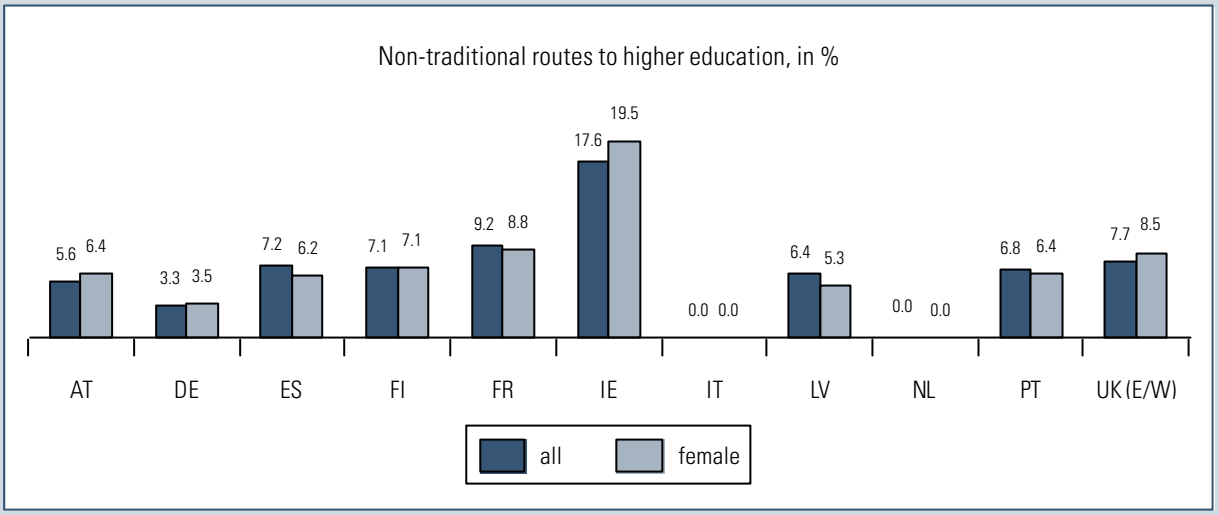
Physically disabled and chronically diseased students

In order to be able to give greater consideration to the special needs of disabled students and to promote their integration into society and the working world, various reform programmes are being developed in the surveyed countries. The basis for the design and structure of such programmes is provided, inter alia, by detailed information on the proportion of students with health impairments and disorders. The information above on students with health impairments/disorders relate to physically-disabled students. It must be assumed that the countries did not use absolutely identical definitions, although this only partly restricts the information value.

The details at hand are based on self-assessments made in response to given national categories. This shows that in the participating countries students with health impairments/disorders vary very broadly in the student body and account for a proportion of between about 1% (Spain, Italy, and Ireland) and 12% (Austria). In Austria, the reported high percentage of students with health impairments/disorders includes roughly 1% of students with a handicap and 8% who are chronically ill. The other countries produce values in the middle range.

Handicapped students do not automatically feel impaired in their studies. The consequences of particular health disorders or chronical illness vary and the need for study-related support depends on individual circumstances.

Fig. 5: Non-traditional routes to higher education



Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

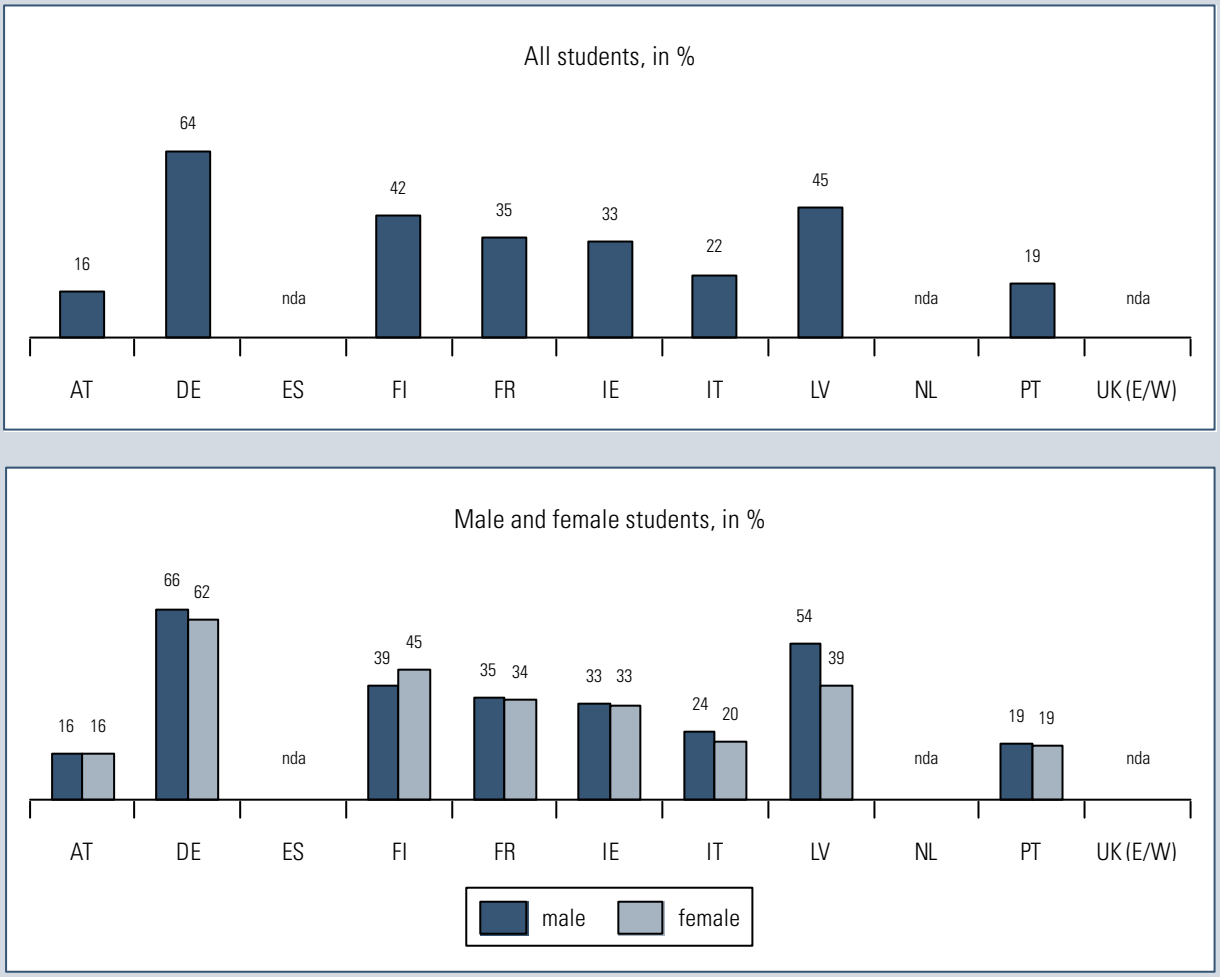
Non-traditional routes to higher education

The paths along which prospective students gained their higher education entrance qualification differed to varying degrees in the participating countries. Besides the classical access routes to higher education via the general schooling system, additional access opportunities, also called "non-traditional routes", are now being offered. What path to HE is defined as "non-traditional" depends, however, on the national education system and differs from one country to another.

The proportion of students deciding in favour of non-traditional routes varies from one country to the next. The biggest share of students who entered higher education via non-traditional routes is found in Ireland (18%). Every second student in this group gains access to college on the basis of mature years (being over 23 years of age). In the other countries, much less use is made of unconventional paths, namely only between 3% and 9% of students enter along such routes. The Open University and acknowledgement of prior learning (APEL) are the major non-traditional paths in the United Kingdom. In Spain, vocational training is the most frequent type of non-traditional entrance to higher education.

In Austria, many students without the normal entry requirements take a special aptitude test which enables them to enrol for specific degree courses only. The relatively few students in Germany who commence their higher education studies via a non-traditional route (3%) do so, in most cases, via the second-chance education route (evening school). In addition, there is a small proportion of talented or particularly qualified working people who can commence their studies via a third access route. In the Netherlands a distinction between traditional and non-traditional routes does not exist.

Fig. 6: Work experience before entering higher education



Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

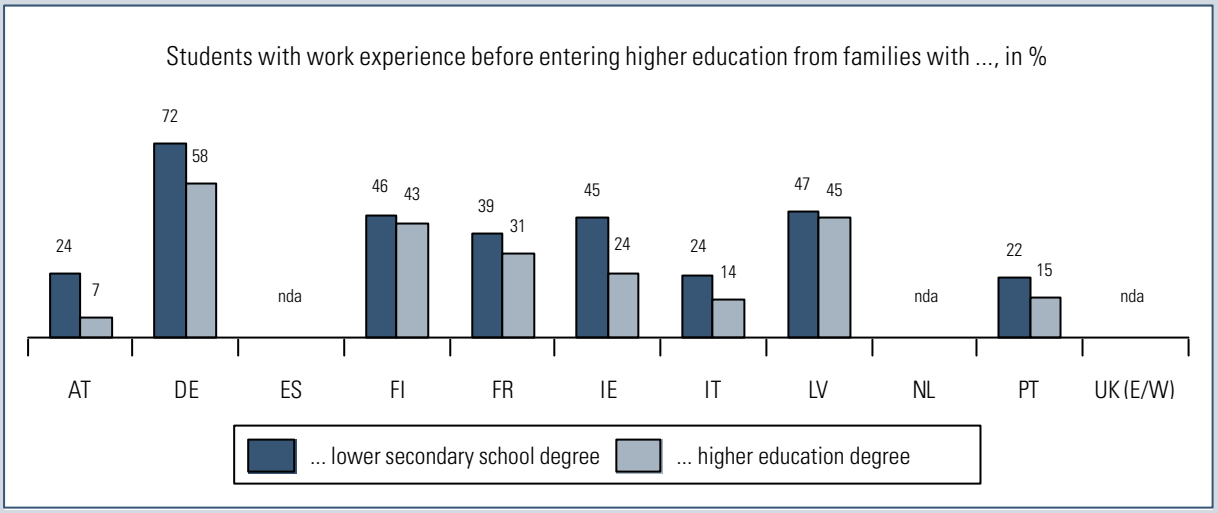
Work experience before entering higher education

Depending on which country was considered, either a higher or lower proportion of students had already gained work experience before commencing their studies.

Apart from Germany, students in all other countries who had already completed a vocational training and/or gained work experience before commencing their studies made up a minority in the overall student population. In Latvia and Finland, they made up more than 40% of the student population. In France and Ireland, around one third of students started their studies with experiences from work and/or a vocational training, while in Italy, Portugal and Austria their share was clearly less than a quarter.

In contrast a majority (64%) of German students had gained work experience in the one form or the other before commencing studies. The most important reason for this phenomenon is the tendency of German students to adopt a dual strategy concerning qualification – vocational training and study – to improve their chances of employment on a constantly changing labour market. A further explanation for this high share of students with work experience in Germany is related to recording practices: Irrespective of their duration all working periods between leaving school and matriculation in HE were counted.

Fig. 7: Students with work experience before entering higher education by educational background

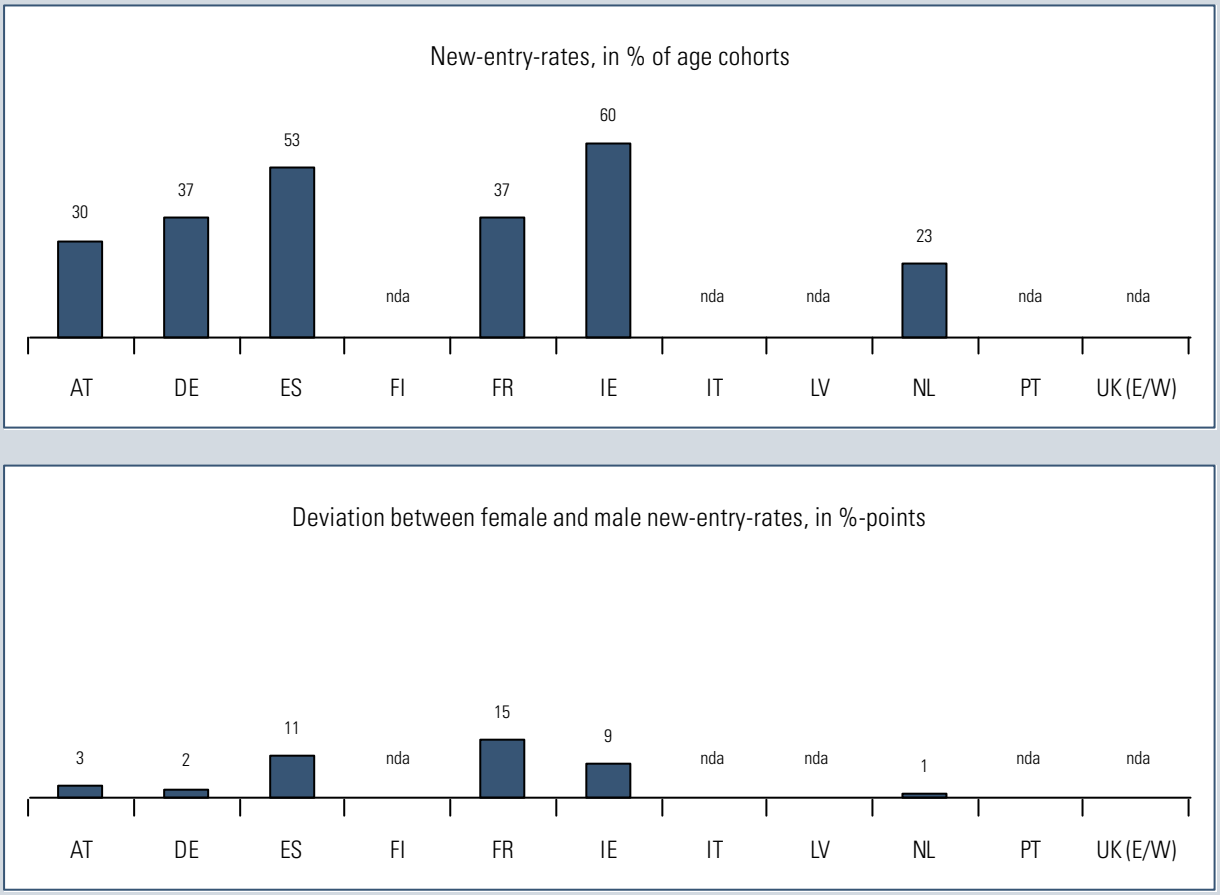


Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

Students' work experience by educational background of family

In some countries, there is a clear correlation between social background and students holding vocational qualifications previous to entering higher education (cf. Fig. 7). For example, students from less educationally-oriented and less educated homes in Ireland, Austria, Germany, Italy and Portugal will clearly more frequently have gained work experience than those whose parents hold a higher education degree as their highest educational qualification. Such a correlation between parental education and work experiences of students before entering higher education does not exist on this scale in countries like Latvia and Finland.

Fig. 8: Participation in higher education



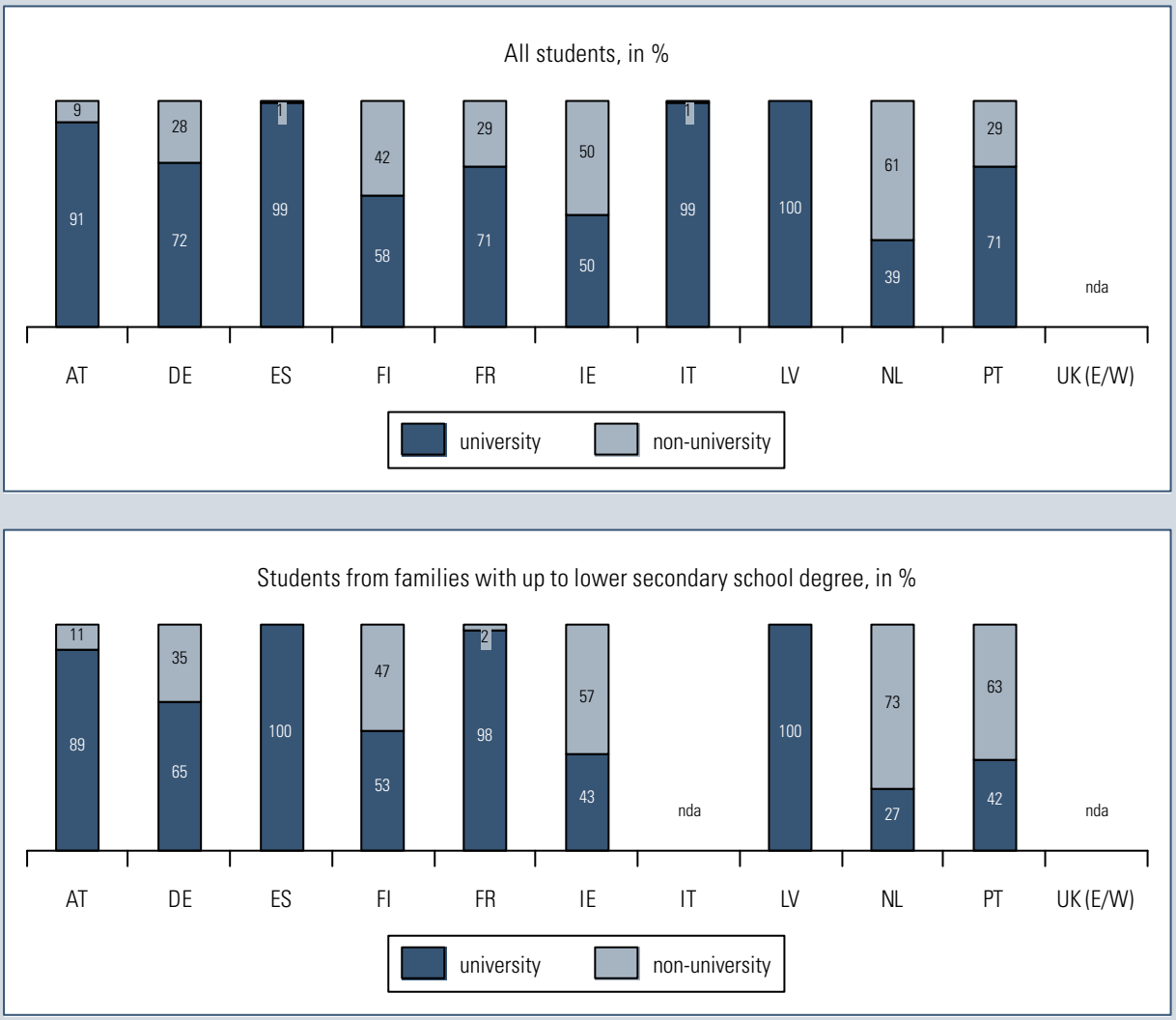
Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

Participation in higher education

In Ireland, about 60% of the young people of the respective age group commence a course of higher education study; while in Spain more than a half do so (top chart). In France and in Germany, around 37% of the respective age cohorts participate in higher education, while the entry rate in Austria is 30%. With 23% a substantially lower rate is recorded in the Netherlands for first course entry into tertiary education.

As far as access to higher education is concerned, women have meanwhile overtaken the men. The proportion of female study entrants in the age and gender-specific population is higher in all countries than that of male entrants (bottom chart). In France, the difference is +15 percentage points, in Spain and Ireland it still amounts to +11 and +9 percentage points, respectively. Austria and Germany (+3 and +2 percentage points, respectively) follow at a distance. The Netherlands have the most balanced new entry rates for the two genders, with a difference of around one percentage point only.

Fig. 9: Type of institution which students attend



Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

Type of institution which students attend

In order to meet the changing social and economic (financial) demands which higher education faces, most member countries are pursuing policies of diversification in their higher education systems. Several countries are pressing ahead with a process of institutional differentiation, such as Ireland with institutes of technology, colleges of art and design, teacher training colleges and other similar institutions. The Netherlands, with its practice-oriented institutions (Hoger Beroepsonderwijs – HBO), Finland with polytechnics (amk-institutions were founded in the 1990s alongside the traditional universities) and Germany with its universities of applied sciences (Fachhochschulen – FH). In the Netherlands a very high share of students are currently studying in institutions in which the teaching focuses strongly on applied and practical aspects (61%), followed by Ireland and Finland. Irish students are distributed more or less evenly, with half going to universities while the other half attends other kinds of tertiary education institutions. In Finland more than 40% of all students are enrolled at non-university institutions. In France, Portugal and Germany only a good quarter (between 28% and 29%) of all students attend non-university institutions.

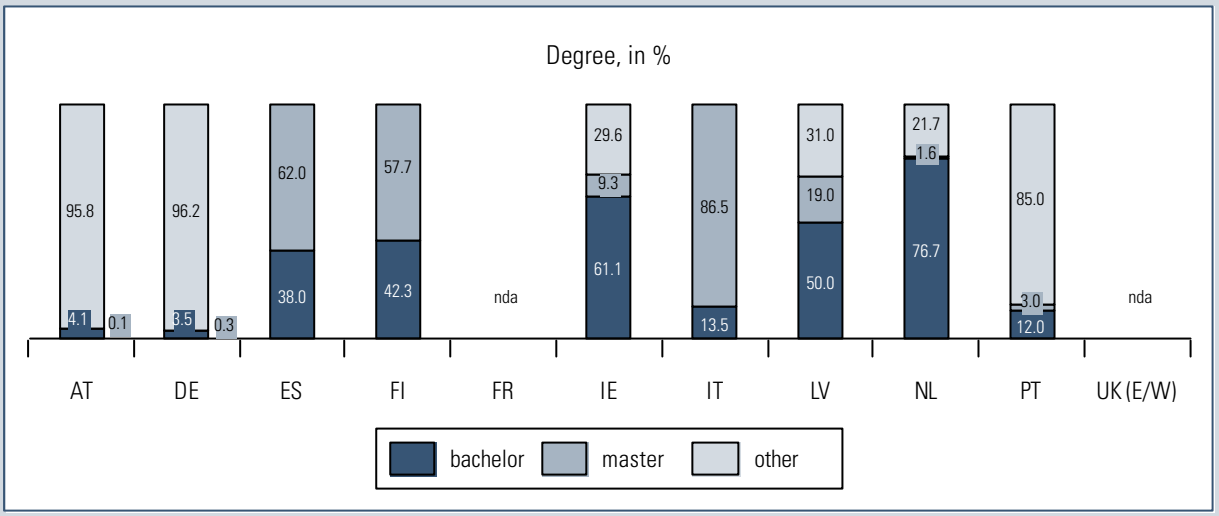
Additionally, the proportions between the different types of institution which students attend are influenced by the composition of surveyed students. In Austria, Germany, Spain, Italy and Latvia the survey was restricted on students enrolled at ISCED level 5A programmes, which are largely theoretical based and offered predominantly by universities. In contrast, in Finland, France, Ireland, the Netherlands and Portugal, students of ISCED level 5B programmes, which are typically shorter, focus on occupationally specific skills geared for entry into the labour market and are more typical for non-university institutions, were also included in the sample.

Measures to increase the differentiation within higher education systems have also been initiated and carried out in Austria. The expectation that the number of students at Fachhochschulen will continue to rise has been fulfilled: the current share of students enrolled at non-university institutions (FH) is about three times as high as it was in 2000.

In Latvia, Italy and Spain, the university sector is definitely prevalent in higher education. Virtually all students in these countries are enrolled at universities. There are only few exceptions such as in Spain students at military academies or at tourist schools and in Italy students who are enrolled in artistic fields of study (alta formazione artistica e musicale).

The findings of several countries document a close correlation between the type of higher education institution and the social background of students (bottom chart): Students from lower educational family backgrounds are more frequently enrolled at non-university institutions which usually have a more practical orientation and offer shorter study programmes. An exception to this trend is presented by France, where most of students from families with lower secondary education or below attend universities while a growing proportion of students particularly from well educated backgrounds obviously prefer to complete their studies in the more prestigious Grandes Ecoles and their preparatory classes (CPGE).

Fig. 10: Kind of degree students want to attain



Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

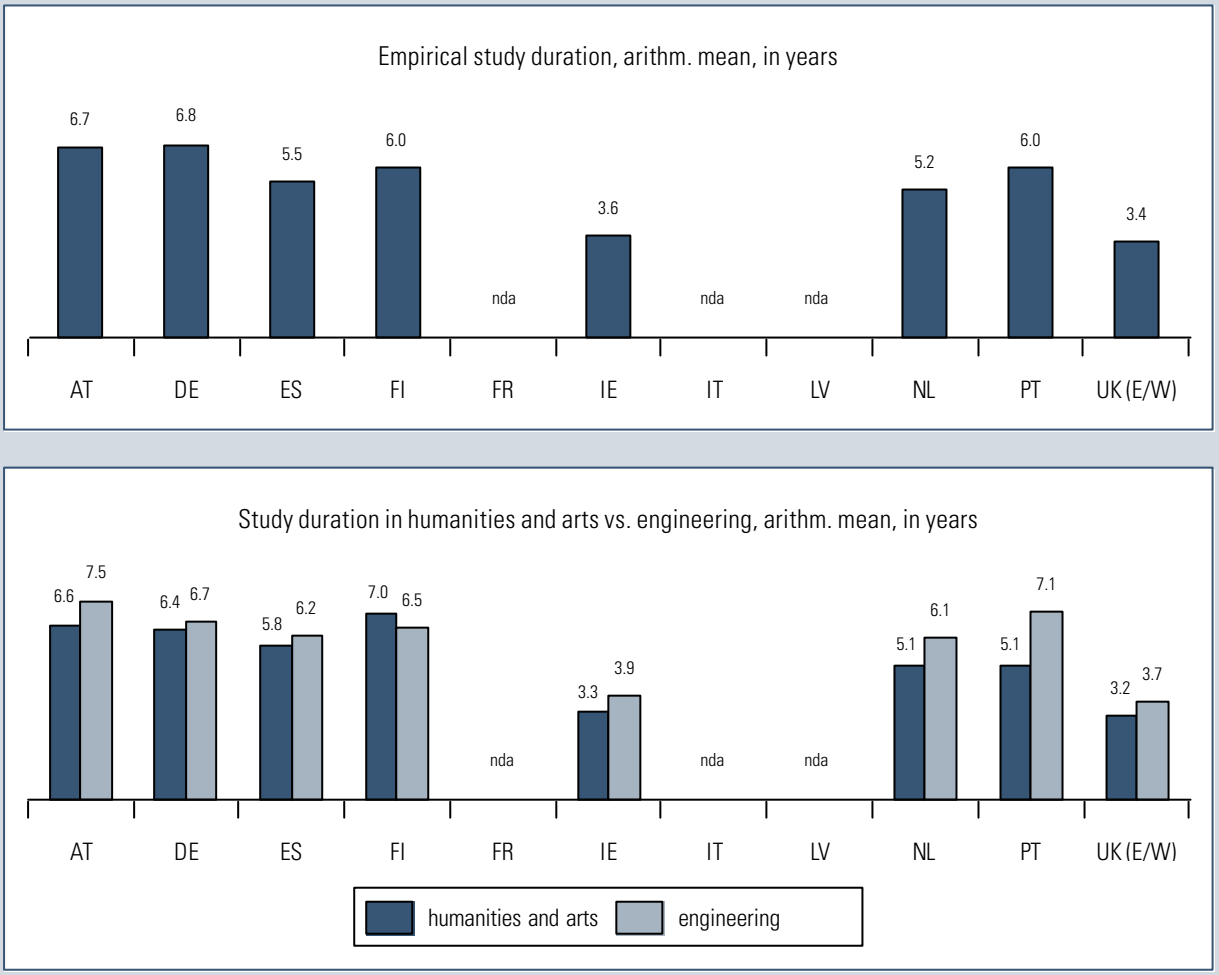
Kind of degree students want to attain

The kind of degree students want to attain first allows for conclusions to be drawn about the realisation of decisions within the framework of the Bologna process in every participating country. In Austria, Germany and Portugal the great majority of students are still enrolled in traditional long degree courses (Diplom, Graduation). Additionally, the very small share of students in Master programmes in theses countries has to be explained by the methodical convention to concentrate the analysis of students in their first degree course. Therefore only students in consecutive courses (Bachelor followed by a Master within one programme) and who already hold a Bachelor are counted as those who want to attain a Master degree next.

The data for Italy are separately in such a way that only students were surveyed who matriculated since the academic year 2000-2001 in the new first level laurea courses and second level courses regulated by EU directives. This special feature has to be considered when interpreting data in this chart and elsewhere.

The majority of students enrolled at higher education institutions in the Netherlands and in Ireland attain a Bachelor (77% and 61%, respectively). While in Latvia one fifth of the students attain a Master degree, already every second is seeking a Bachelor. In comparison to the other contributing countries, the Master degree is prevalent among students in Spain and in Finland.

Fig. 11: Duration of study programmes in universities



Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

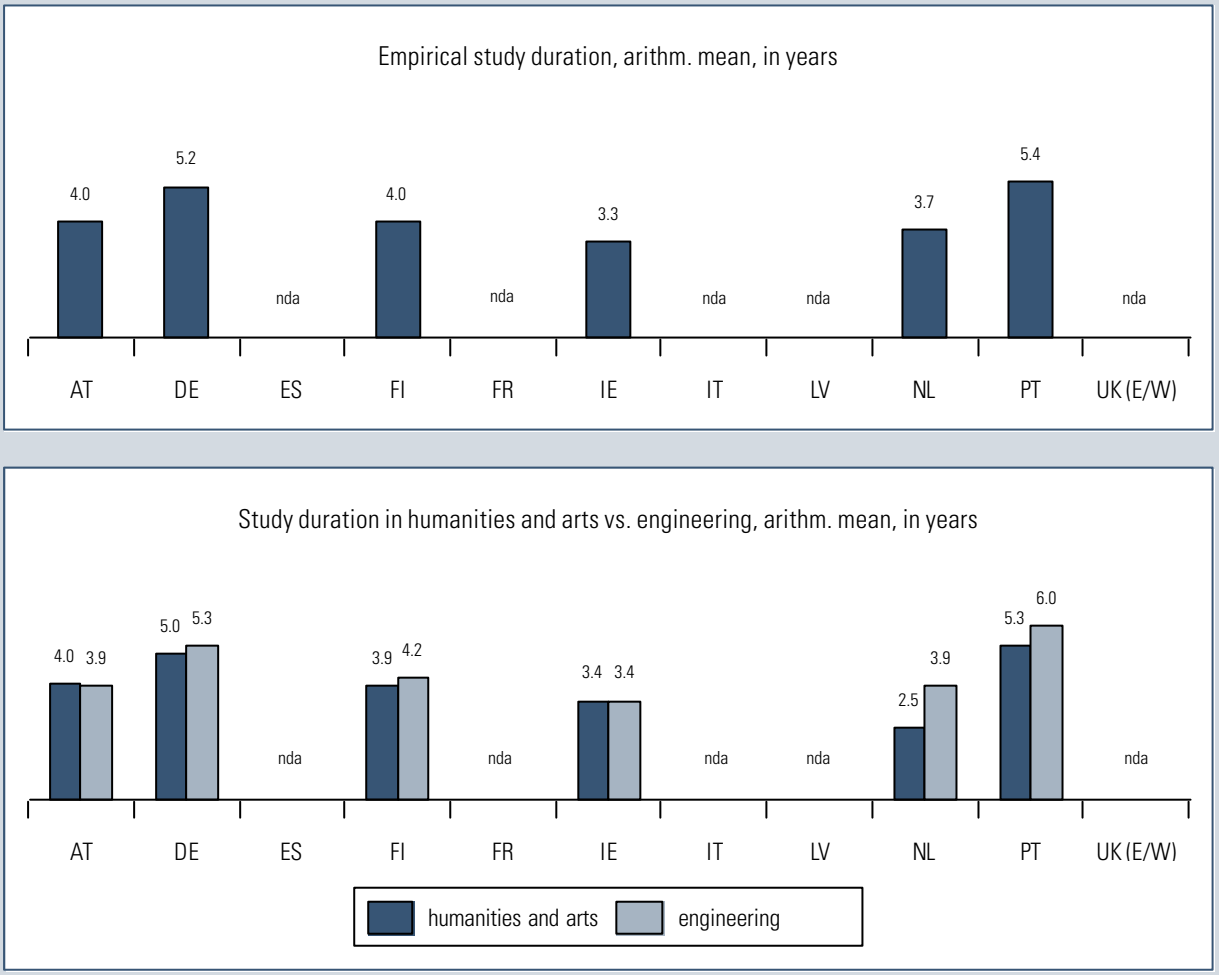
Duration of study programmes in universities

The empirical duration of study programmes in general tend to be longer than the theoretical one and vary widely between countries. Countries such as United Kingdom and Ireland have substantially shorter study times than those with above-average study times, for example, Germany and Austria. The latter are increasingly facing questions about the framework conditions for university study in their countries. The difference between study times can partly be attributed to structural differences, such as a two-cycle study structure with differentiated degrees (for example, in Ireland and United Kingdom) versus largely single-cycle study structures with long degree courses for the first degree (in Austria and Germany).

A comparison of the study time needed for completion of the first degree in the university sector (Fig. 11, top chart) shows that the United Kingdom clearly has the shortest study time, namely 3.4 years, closely followed by Ireland with 3.6 years. At the other end of the scale, we find graduates in Germany and Austria with an average of up to twice as long (6.8 and 6.7 years, respectively). In Finland and in Portugal it takes students about 6 years for graduation at universities. The Netherlands and Spain range on the middle position with average times of 5.2 and 5.5 years, respectively.

In most of the analysed countries a course in "engineering" takes a longer time than a degree in "humanities and arts". Especially in Portugal, the Netherlands and Austria these differences are large and amount to between one and two years, respectively (Fig. 11, bottom chart).

Fig. 11.1: Duration of study programmes in non-university institutions of tertiary sector



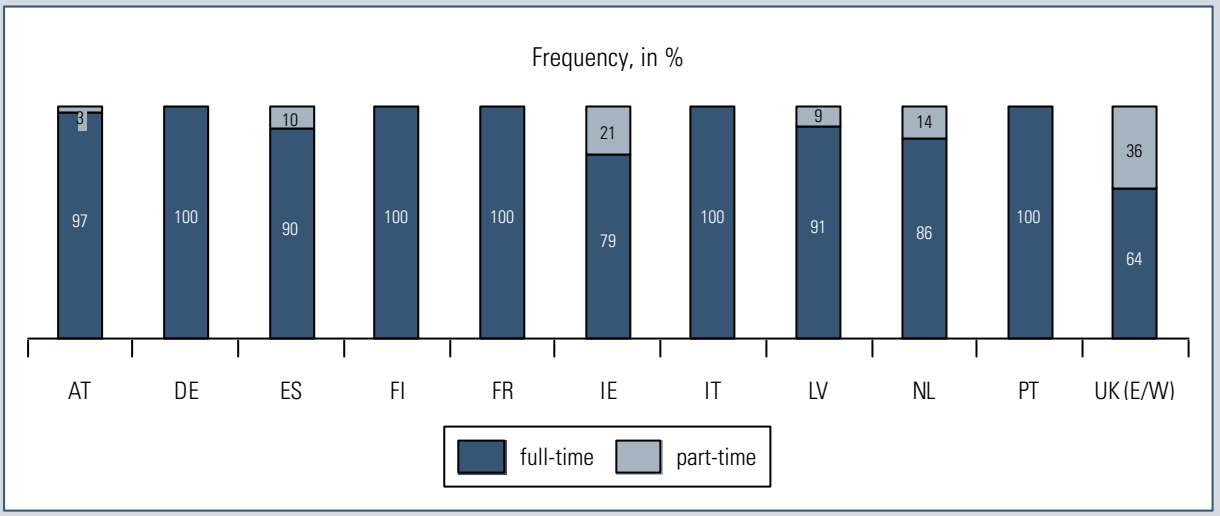
Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

Duration of study programmes in non-university institutions of tertiary sector

In non-university tertiary institutions, all countries which could supply appropriate data reported a shorter empirical duration of study programmes, as expected (Fig. 11.1, top chart): Irrespective of the exact study duration, the greatest deviation between the two types of HEI was observed for Austria (difference of 2.7 years). The counterexample is Ireland with a deviation of only 0.3 years between the study programmes of universities and non-university institutions.

A breakdown of these times based on the subject groups of "humanities and arts" and "engineering" (Fig. 11.1, bottom chart) shows again subject-specific variations in the average study time, even though the deviations between the fields of study at non-university institutions are smaller than those between the considered subject areas at universities (with the exception of the Netherlands).

Fig. 12: Students status: Full-time and part-time



Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

Students status: Full-time and part-time

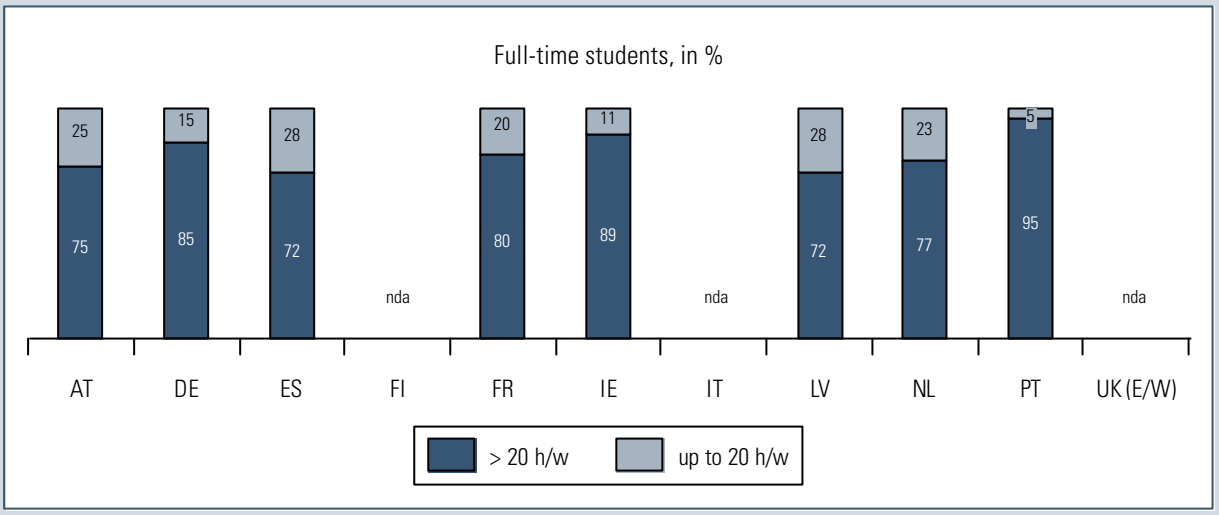
Formal part-time studies only exist officially at higher education institutions in a few countries, namely in the United Kingdom, Ireland and the Netherlands. However, even in these countries most of the students studying for a higher education degree are enrolled as full-time students.

Part-time studies are most common in United Kingdom, where this status applies to more than a third of students. In Ireland just over one fifth of students are enrolled on a part-time basis, with a more or less even split between male and female students. While among students in the Netherlands about one sixth of the students study part-time, and in Latvia only about every tenth is classified as a part-time student. Although Italian universities recognise part-time student status formally, these students seem to be rather low in number.

Officially, there is no part-time study format for regular university or college students in Spain, Austria, Finland or Germany, where students are expected to be full-time learners. However in Spain, Austria and Germany a number of special programmes do exist for students who have special requirements (e.g. employment, family commitments).

The time budgets (see Fig. 37) show that a significant proportion of students in these countries take up employment alongside their studies during terms/ semesters or care for children, and so spend much less time on their studies than those without employment and children, respectively, who are able to spend more hours per week on study-related activities.

Fig. 12.1: Full-time students: Time-budget for study-related activities



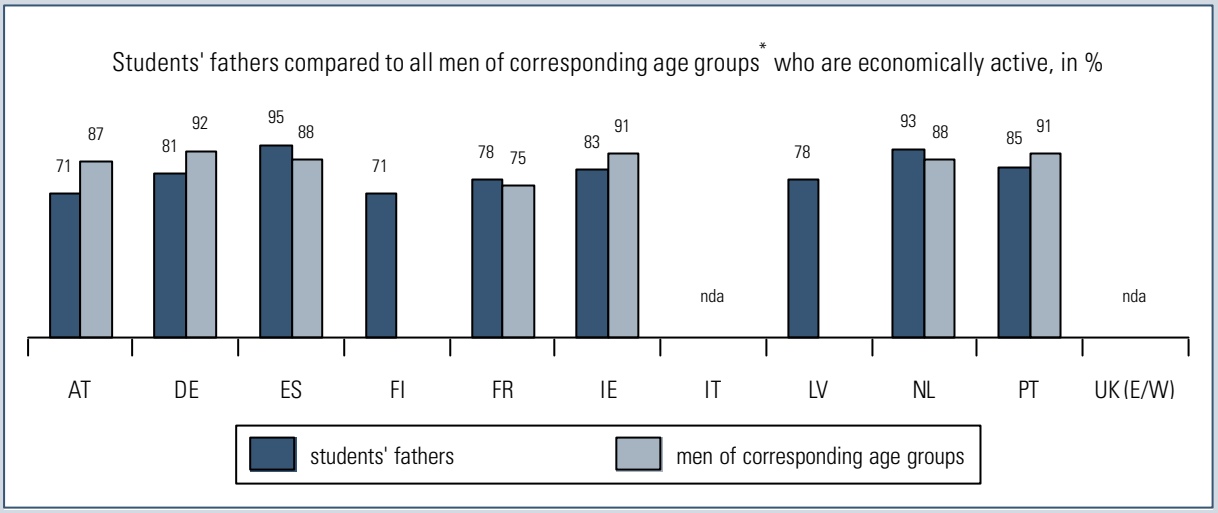
Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

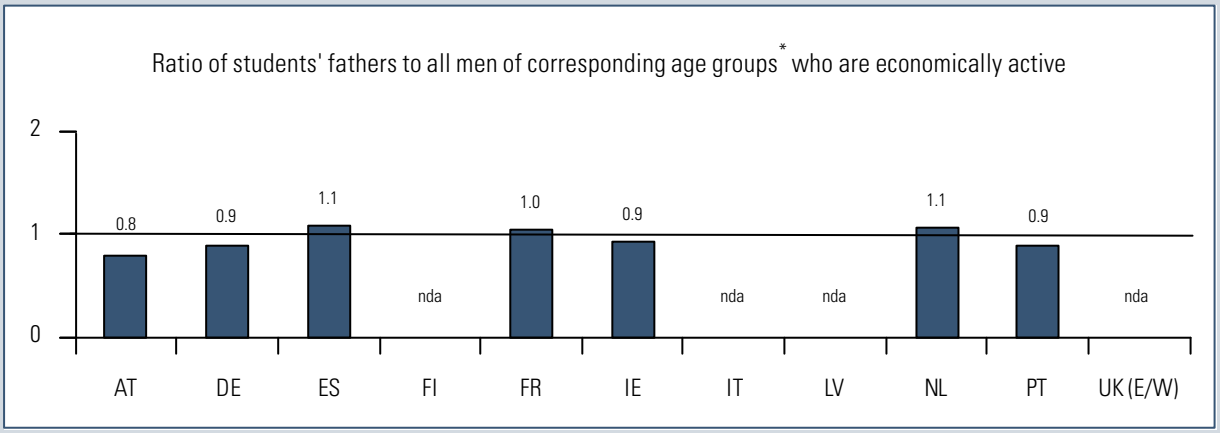
Full-time students: Time-budget for study-related activities

The extent of unofficial part-time studies is substantial (Fig. 12.1). In Spain, Latvia, Austria, and the Netherlands, about one quarter of those students who are officially enrolled in full-time programmes invest only up to 20 hours per week in their studies – these students study de facto part-time. In the other reporting countries, the share of such part-time students is smaller and amounts to between 5% in Portugal and 15% in Germany. And even in countries in which part-time study is provided for (Ireland and the Netherlands), a proportion of those students who chose full-time status actually spend so little time in pursuit of their studies that they should really be placed in the part-time category.

Overall, the large majority of students continue to practise a time budget which concentrates on study activities and largely corresponds with the ideal of a full-time student.

Fig. 13: Work status of students' parents





Interpretation aid: value < 1.0 = below-average
value > 1.0 = above-average

* Men aged in AT, DE, ES, NL, PT: 40 - 60; FR: 50 - 60; IE: 35 - 54.

Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

The following data on social make-up, educational and financial background (Fig. 13 to Fig. 15.2) aim to provide an international comparison of the social origin of students. In connection with data about the social composition of the same-aged male and female population as groups of reference, this information allowed e.g. conclusions about equity regarding participation in higher education in the participating countries.

Work status of students' parents

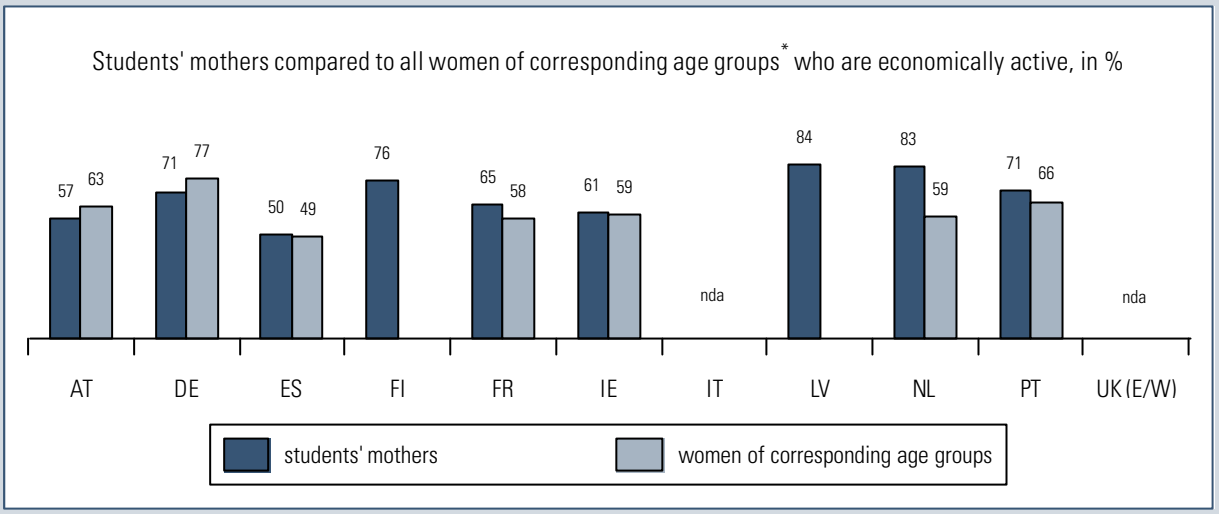
The employment status of parents is an important indicator of the social make-up of the student body and is divided into the main categories of economically active, unemployed, vocationally inactive, and retired. It is based on the work status of students' fathers and mothers, respectively.

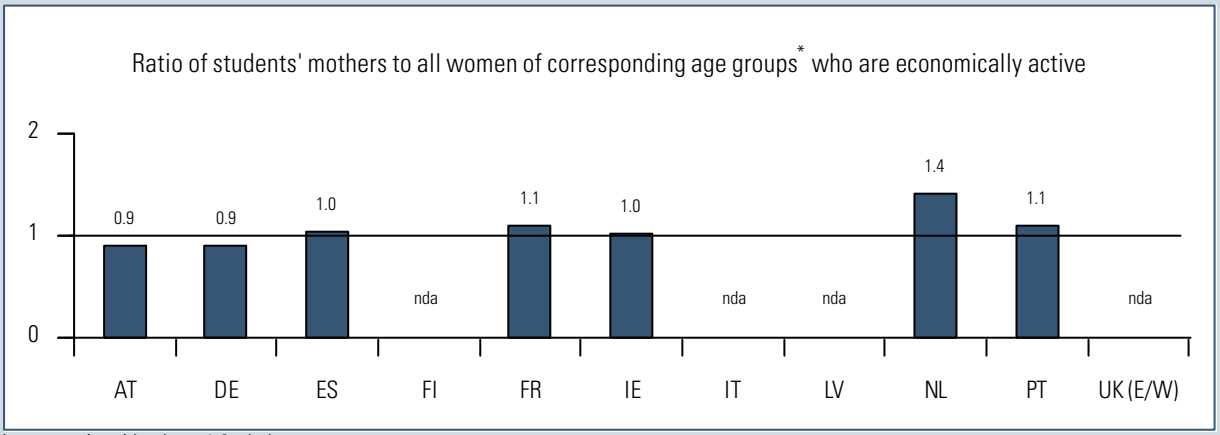
Work status of students' fathers

Fig. 13 presents the proportions of students whose fathers are economically active (dark columns). The proportional values range from 71% in Austria and Finland to over 90% in the Netherlands and in Spain. Except Latvia and Finland, the share of economically active students' mothers in all countries account for at least ten percentage points lower than those of students' fathers (see fig. 13 cont.). Spain is an extreme example with the highest quota of economically active fathers (95%) and the lowest quota of economically active mothers (50%).

For closer examination, the survey took the proportion of the same-aged male and female population (light columns), respectively, as a comparative benchmark. The survey could not confirm the assumption that the parents of students are more frequently in employment than the parents of the same-aged population. No uniform pattern of deviation is recognisable across all countries.
In the case of Austria, Germany, Ireland and Portugal, students' fathers are less economically active than are the men of the same-aged general population. This means that economically active men are under-represented among students' fathers, what also can be seen from the ratio (which amounts under 1.0) given in the chart below. However, the reason students' fathers are actually under-represented in that category does not lie in unemployment. Rather, the differences can largely be explained by the age-related greater frequency of entry into retirement. The situation in Spain, France and the Netherlands is slightly different: In these countries, employment among students' fathers is relatively more widespread compared to the same-aged male population (ratios amount 1.1). For explanation unemployment also plays a comparatively less significant role in these countries.

Fig. 13 cont.: Work status of students' parents





Interpretation aid: value < 1.0 = below-average
value > 1.0 = above-average

* Women aged in AT, DE, ES, NL, PT: 40 - 60; FR: 50 - 60; IE: 35 - 54.

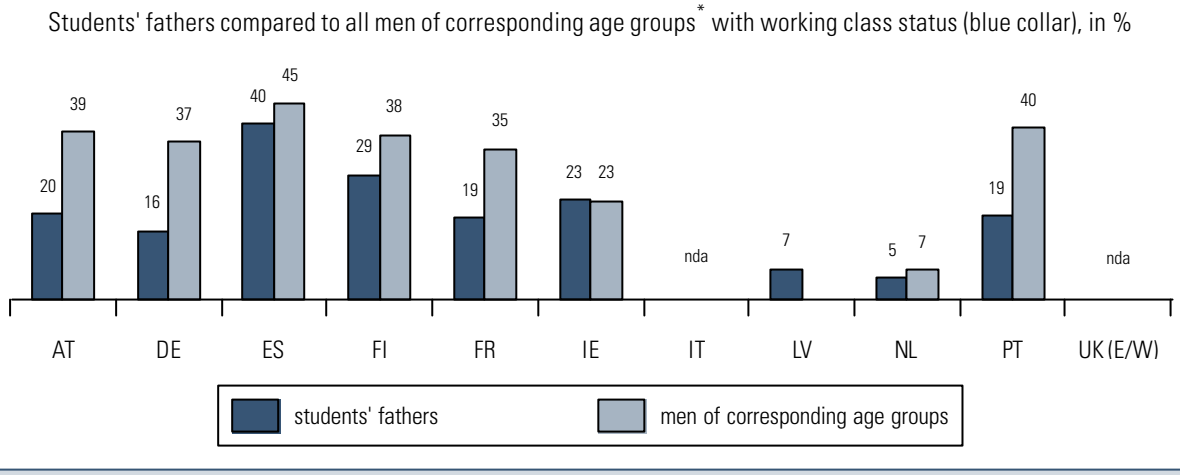
Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

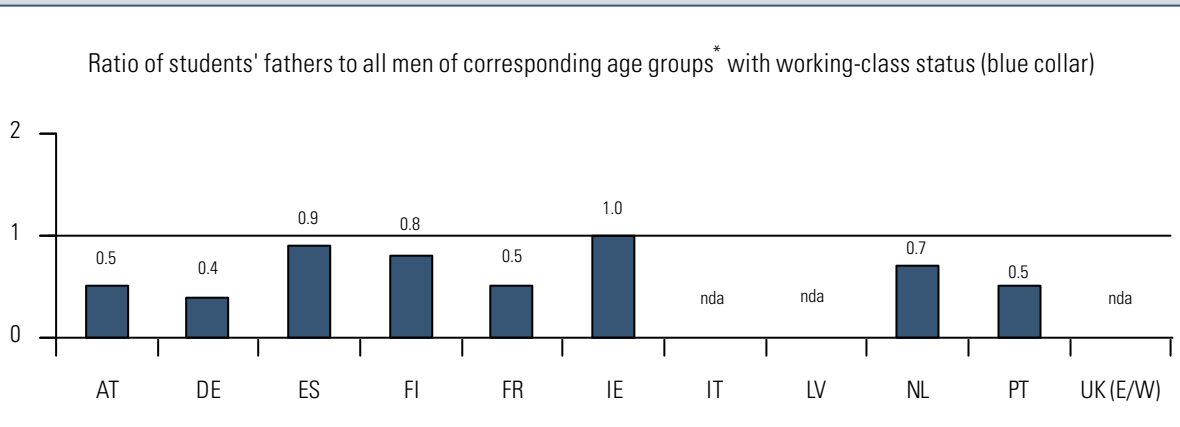
Work status of students' mothers

Similarly heterogeneous findings in the participating countries are to be found regarding the work status of students' mothers compared with those of the same-aged female population. While in Austria and Germany students' mothers are less often economically active than all women of the same age (ratio: 0.9), in Spain and Ireland these quotas are the same (ratio: 1.0), and in countries like France, Portugal and especially the Netherlands students' mothers are more often economically active than within the whole female population of roughly the same age (ratios between 1.1 and 1.4); see Fig. 13 cont.).

It should be noted that the structure of the work status of students' parents, on the one hand, and of the whole population, on the other, generally differ marginally from one another and that these differences are primarily caused by the age structure.

Fig. 14: Social background – Occupational status of students' fathers





Interpretation aid: value < 1.0 = below-average
value > 1.0 = above-average

* Men aged in AT, DE, ES, FI, FR, NL, PT: 40 - 60; IE: Fathers of up to 15 years old children.

Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

Occupational status of students' fathers

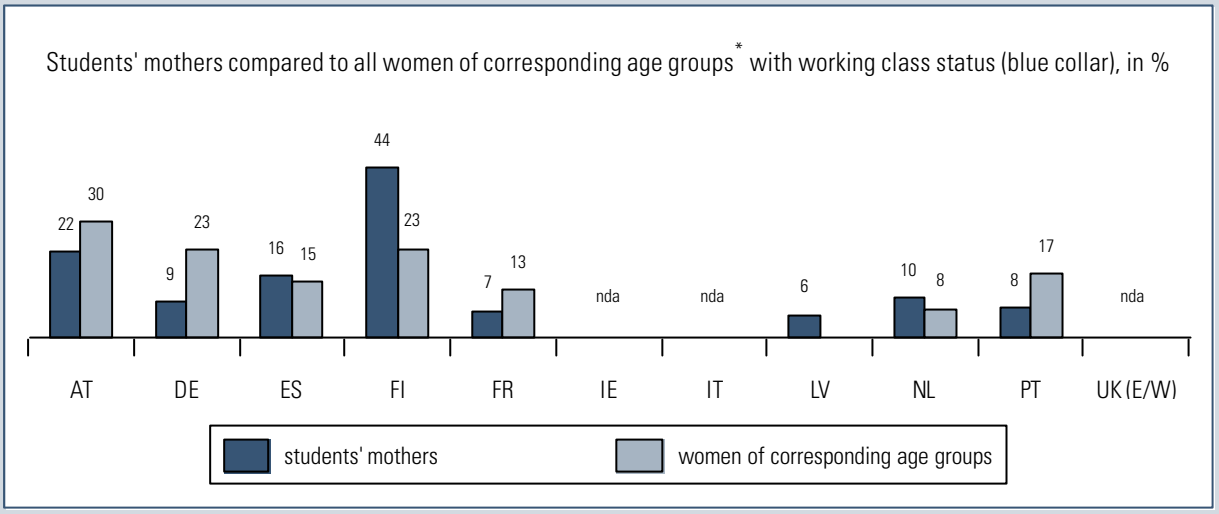
The proportion of students from working-class (blue-collar worker) families among the total student body differs substantially from country to country (see top, dark column).

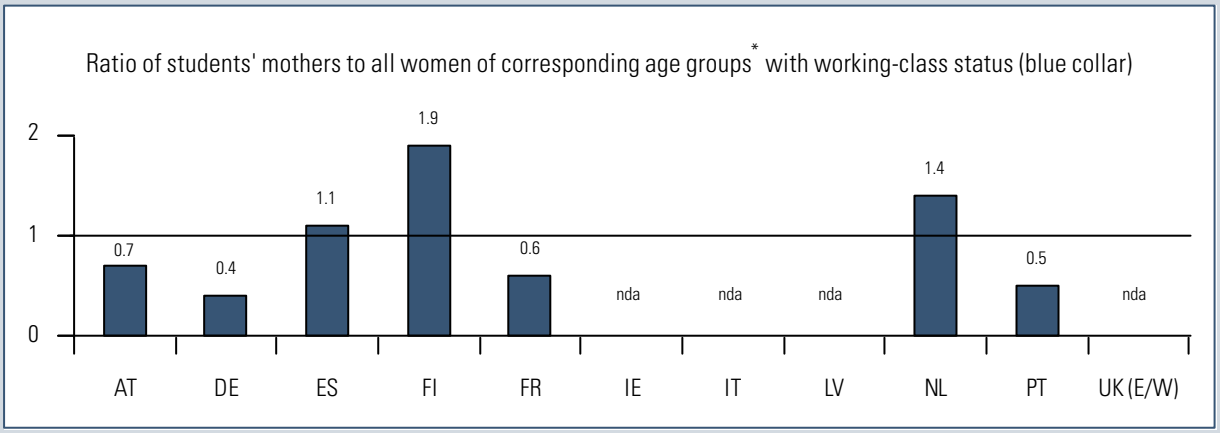
With a great difference to all other countries, the highest share of students whose fathers' occupational status is working class is reported for Spain (40%, Fig. 14). In Finland these students account for 29% of the total student body, while in Ireland they make up less than a quarter. In all the other surveyed countries this group drops gradually until it accounts for a share of only one fifth or even less. In this relation (proportion of working-class children in the total student body) the proportional values merely mirror national differences in the make-up of the student population.

An indicator in which the proportion of working-class children in the student population is set in relation to the proportion of blue-collar workers in the appropriately same-aged population is more informative (see Fig. 14, bottom chart). At a value of =1.0, a representative level of participation would have been achieved, while at values <1.0 an under-representation of working-class children and at values of >1.0 an higher educational participation of this group must be assumed.

As expected, the values are below 1.0 in all countries, meaning that the participation rate of working-class children in education is low in all countries. The only exception is Ireland, where the share of students' whose father is a blue collar worker is congruent to the proportion of working class men in the whole population of the same age. Children from blue collar backgrounds are extremely underrepresented at institutions of higher education in Germany, Austria, France and Portugal (ratios between 0.4 and 0.5).

Fig. 14.1: Social background – Occupational status of students' mothers





Interpretation aid: value < 1.0 = below-average
value > 1.0 = above-average

* Women aged in AT, DE, ES, FI, FR, NL, PT: 40 - 60.

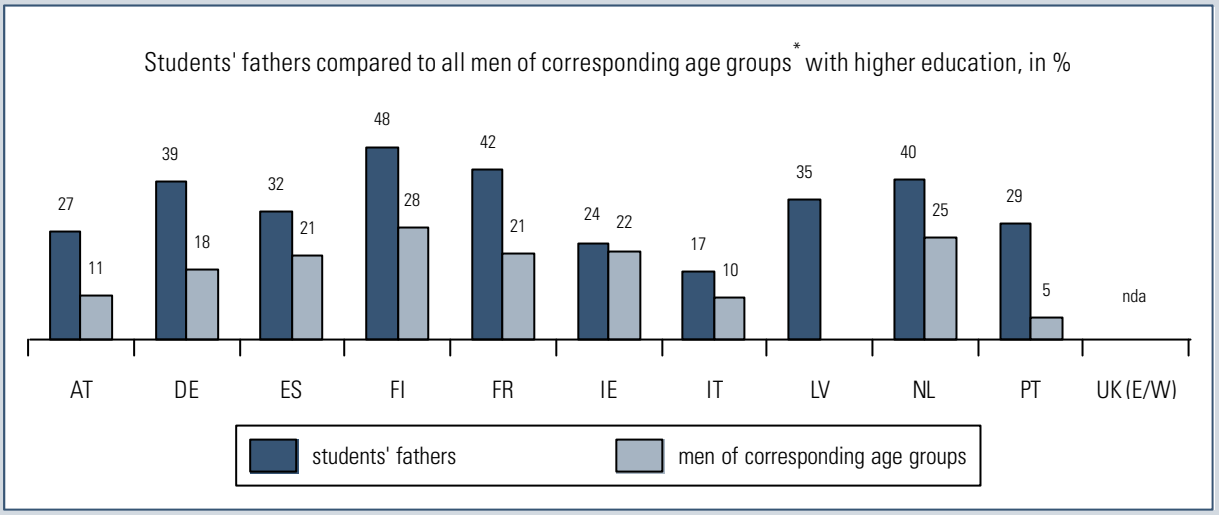
Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

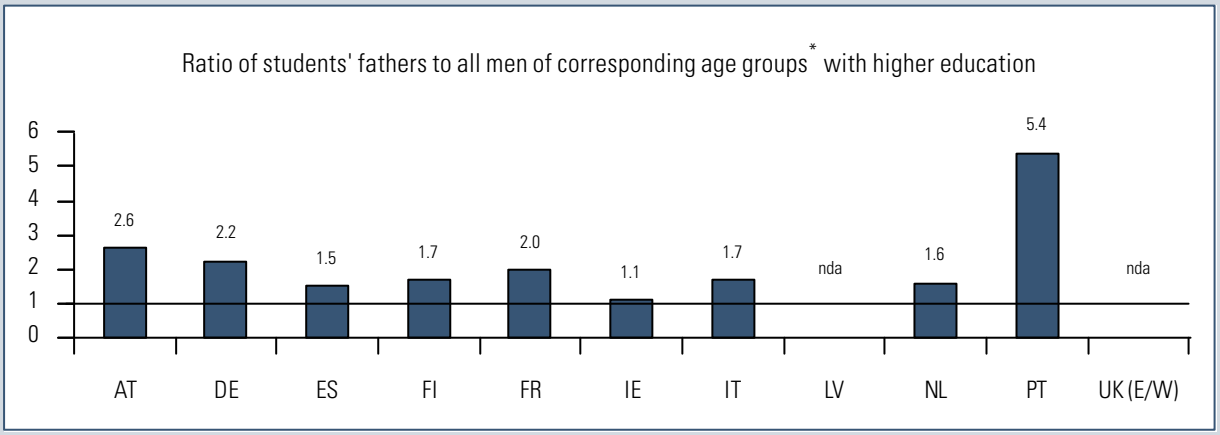
Occupational status of students' mothers

With reference to the occupational status of students' mothers (cf. Fig. 14.1), the findings confirm the unbalanced chances for children from different social origins to the disadvantage of blue collar families in countries like Germany, Portugal, Austria and France. In contrast to that, students whose mother has a blue collar occupational status are over-represented in Finland, the Netherlands and Spain.

However, we cannot rule out the possibility that the delineating definitions given to the "blue-collar worker" category in the individual countries do not absolutely coincide with each other, although such a lack of absolutely clear borderlines cannot fully explain the substantial differences found in the educational mobilisation of disadvantaged groups. So we can only make assumptions as to the possible reasons for the differing degrees of mobilisation. It can be supposed that greater differentiation in the school and higher education system, stronger direct financial incentives and special access routes for groups without an educational tradition have contributed to social barriers being more easily overcome in Ireland, Finland and Spain.

Fig. 15: Educational background – Students' fathers with higher education





Interpretation aid: value < 1.0 = below-average
value > 1.0 = above-average

* Men aged in AT, DE, ES, IE, FI, NL, FR, PT: 40 - 60; IT: 40 - 64.

Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

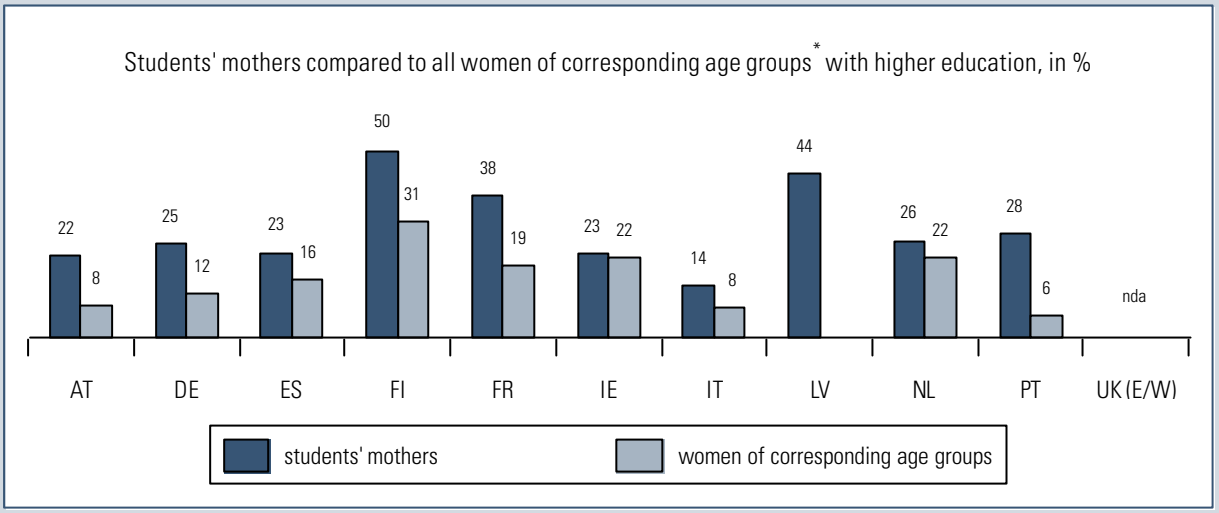
Students' parents with higher education (1)

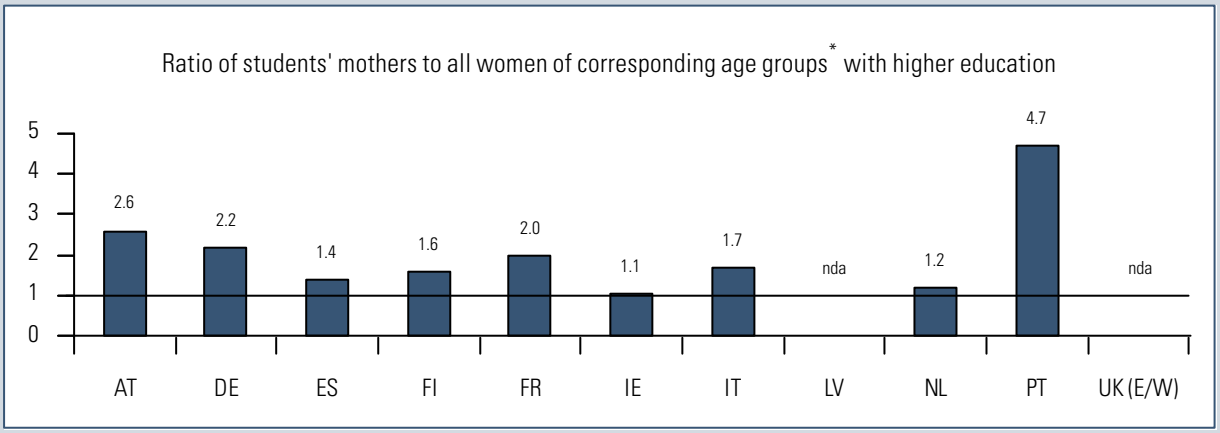
In comparing the social background of students, the survey not only considers the "Work status of parents" (Fig. 13) and the "Occupational status of students' parents'" (Fig. 14, Fig. 14.1), but also the highest educational qualification attained by students' fathers and mothers, respectively.

The proportions of students from households in which the father and the mother, respectively, holds a higher education degree varies substantially from one country to the next (fig. 15 and fig. 15.1, top charts each). At the one end of the spectrum, Finland easily has the highest proportion of students from families with higher education certificates with a value of 48% of fathers and 50% of mothers. At the other end of the spectrum, Italy reports the lowest share of students whose parents hold a degree from a HEI with 17% and 14%, respectively. Comparatively highly qualified are students' parents in France, the Netherlands, Germany and Latvia; above all the fathers.

In order to get a real and comparable picture of social selectivity in access to higher education the survey compares the proportion of students' parents holding a university degree among the general student population to the proportion of men or women of corresponding age groups holding a university degree in the base population (fig. 15 and fig. 15.1, bottom charts). The results demonstrate the well known pattern: The values are well above 1.0 in all countries, meaning that these families achieve above-average rates for reproducing their social section in the population. The leading country is Portugal with ratios of 5.4 and 4.7, respectively. In Austria and Germany the share of students with parents with university degrees is more than twice as high as the share among the whole population of corresponding age groups (ratios: 2.6 each and 2.2 each, respectively).

Fig. 15.1: Educational background – Students' mothers with higher education





Interpretation aid: value < 1.0 = below-average
value > 1.0 = above-average

* Women aged in AT, DE, ES, IE, FI, NL, FR, PT: 40 - 60; IT: 40 - 64.

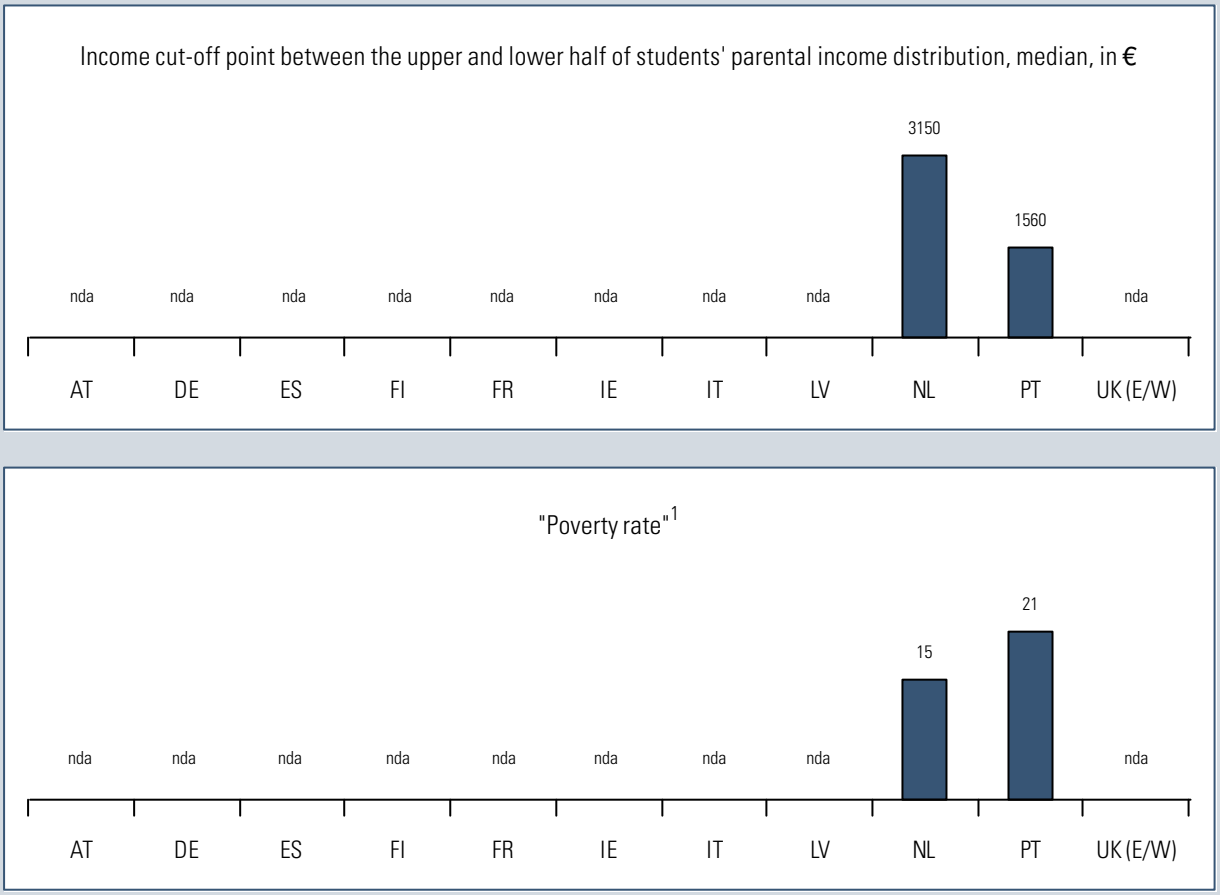
Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

Students' parents with higher education (2)

The access to higher education is less social selective but not balanced in countries as Finland, Italy, the Netherlands and Spain. The only country with very similar proportions of parents with higher education certificates within the student body and in the population of corresponding age groups is Ireland (ratios: 1.1 each).

Conversely, the described findings mean that none of the participating countries has managed to enable young people from families in which the parents merely holds a primary school or a lower secondary school qualification to participate in higher education at a level which is proportional to their share in the population. Single exemption is Ireland which is closest to achieving this.

Fig. 15.2: Financial background – Income of students' parents versus all private households



[1] "Poverty rate": Percentage of students' parents with an income below the income cut-off point for the lowest income quartile of all private households.

Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

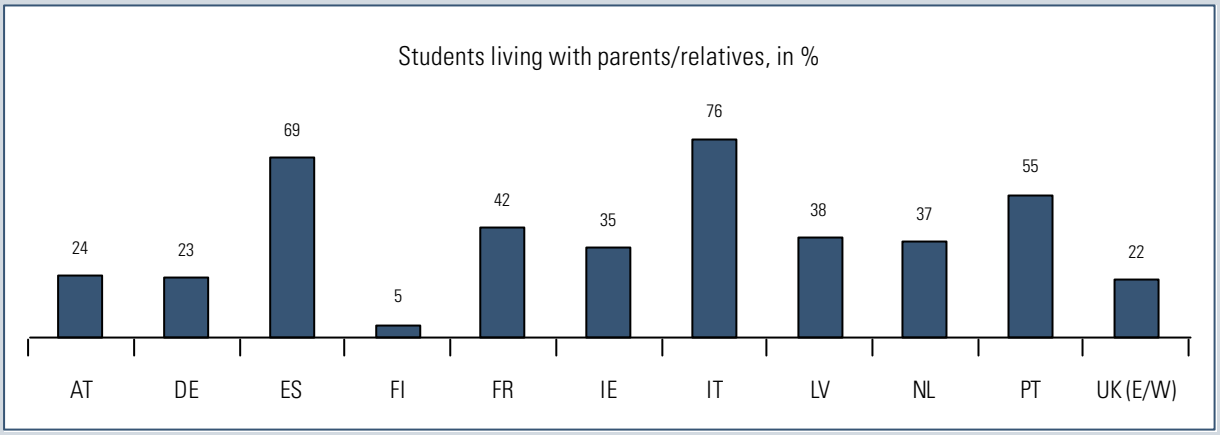
Income of students' parents

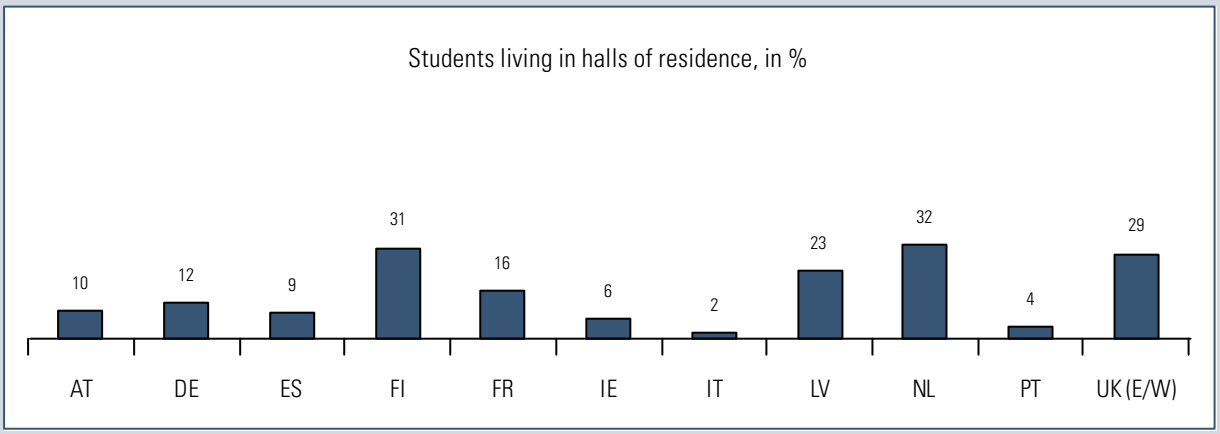
Although students' financial background in terms of their parents' income would be an interesting indicator, e.g. to assess the level of equity already attained with regard to accessibility of higher education, it appears to be difficult for most of the countries to collate appropriate data. Two kinds of data would have been necessary for calculating the indicators shown in this chart: the income of students' parents and the income of all private households. Only the Netherlands and Portugal were able to provide these indicators (cf. fig. 15.2), and so the indicator values cannot be assessed comparatively.

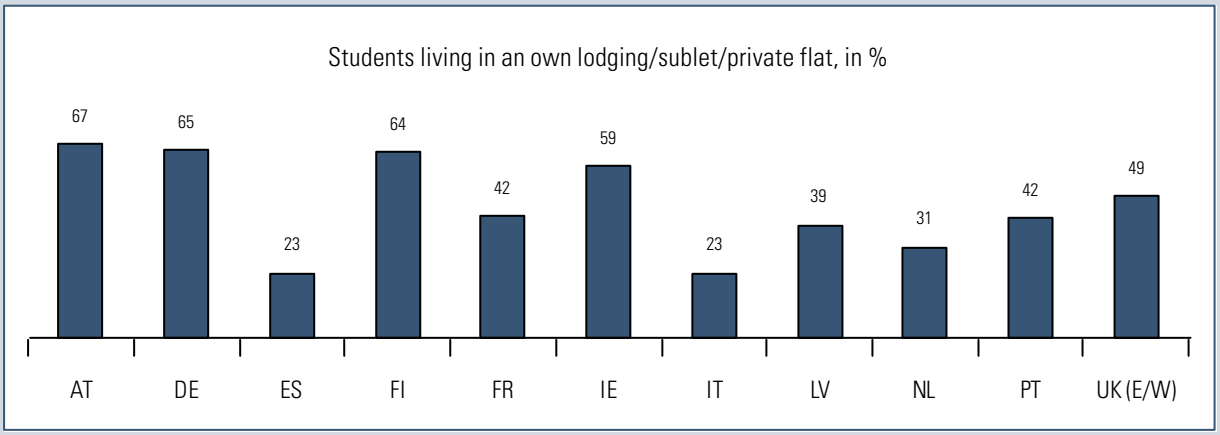
Statements on the income situation in general and those of students about their parents' income in particular are regarded as very sensitive in most countries. This is why students were asked to provide details on the income of their parents within general categories. In addition students very often do not have concrete information about their parents' income so they have to estimate their parents' financial budget.

Due to obviously vague results of previous surveys, Germany no longer ask the students about the income of their parents. Ireland, Latvia and Spain could only deliver data for the income of students' parents, but not for all private households. In Austria, different methods are used to measure the income of students' parents and the income of all private households. That is why the indicators could not be calculated for these countries.

Fig. 16: Student type of residence







Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

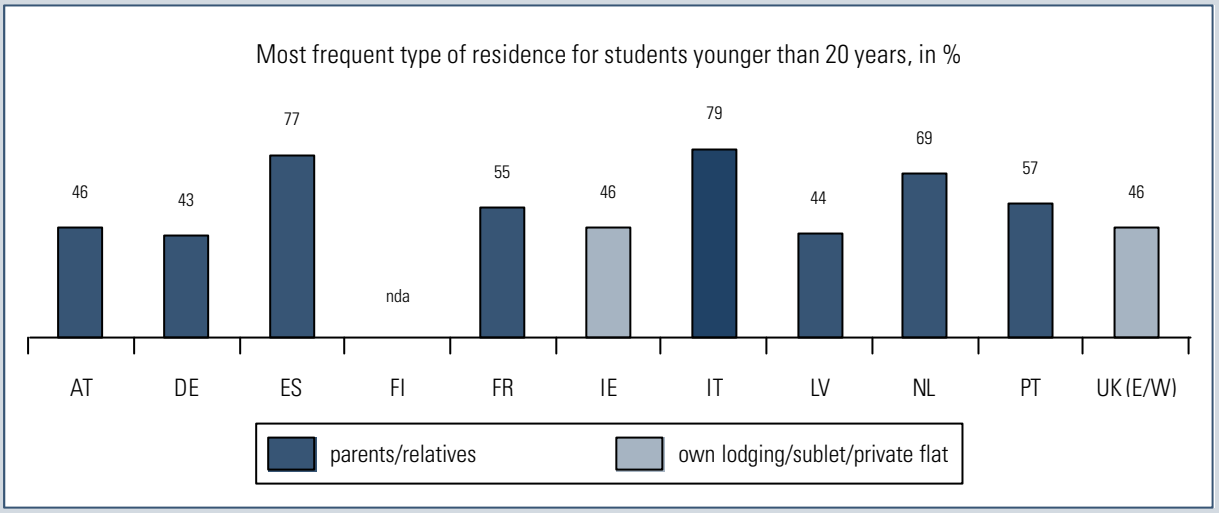
Student type of residence

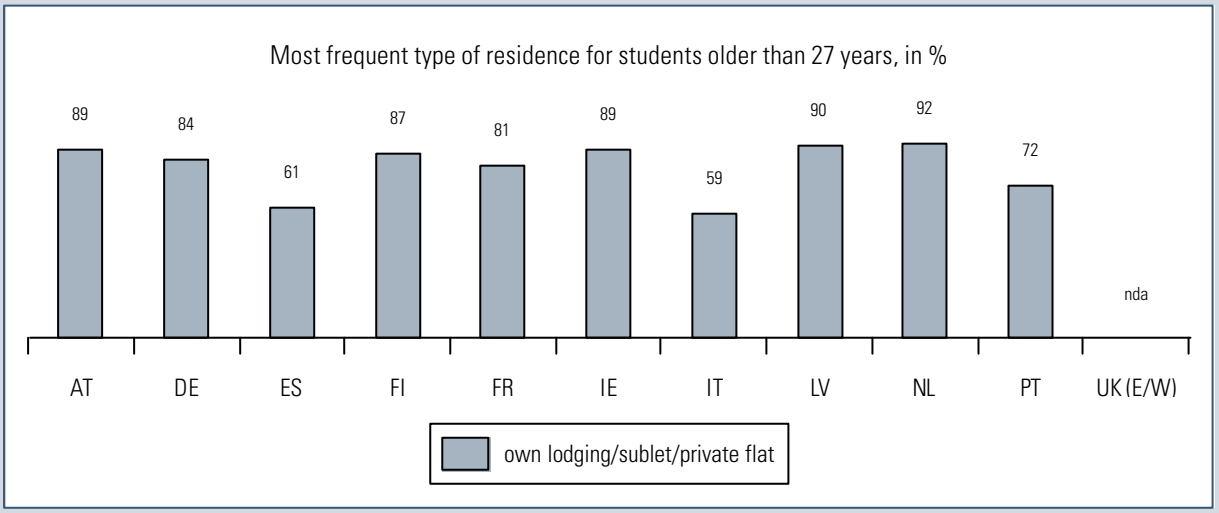
Accommodation of students differs typically from country to country. It seems to be closely connected with differences in national culture and economic dependence of the academic youth. Among the alternatives of living at home with parents, in a student hall or completely independently in rented or shared lodgings, students in the South of Europe live comparatively often in their parent's home. Students living with their parents clearly shape the profile of the student body in Italy, Spain and Portugal where between over half and about three quarters of the student population continue to live with their mothers and fathers (top chart). Living with parents is also popular – but to a much lesser degree – among French, Latvian, Irish and Dutch students (between 42% and 35%).

On the other hand, in Finland, where students prefer to live in their own household (64%) above all other forms of accommodation, an extremely very small proportion of students live with their parents (5%). The situation in Austria and Germany is similar with regard to the preference for independent lodgings. The proportion of students living in student halls of residence differs also substantially from one country to the next (second chart).

In the Netherlands and Finland, nearly a third of the student body lives in student halls. The United Kingdom, but also Latvia, as the only new-member state, follow with about one quarter of students doing so (29% and 23%, respectively). In Ireland, Italy, Portugal and Spain only a small proportion of fewer than 10% live in halls. France, Germany and Austria, where little more than one in ten students live in halls, hold a middle position. The average across all countries therefore shows that a relatively small proportion of the student population is accommodated in halls of residence.

Fig. 16 cont.: Student type of residence



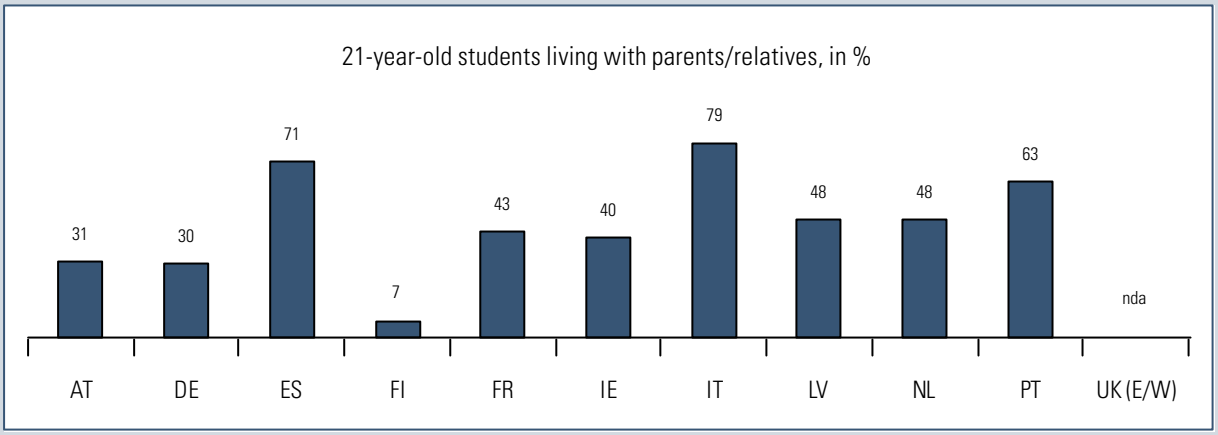


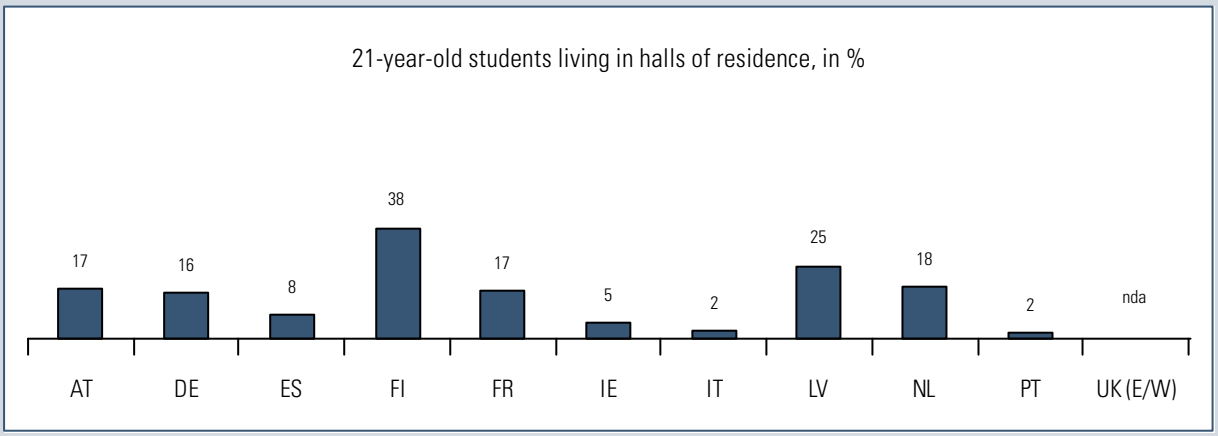
Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

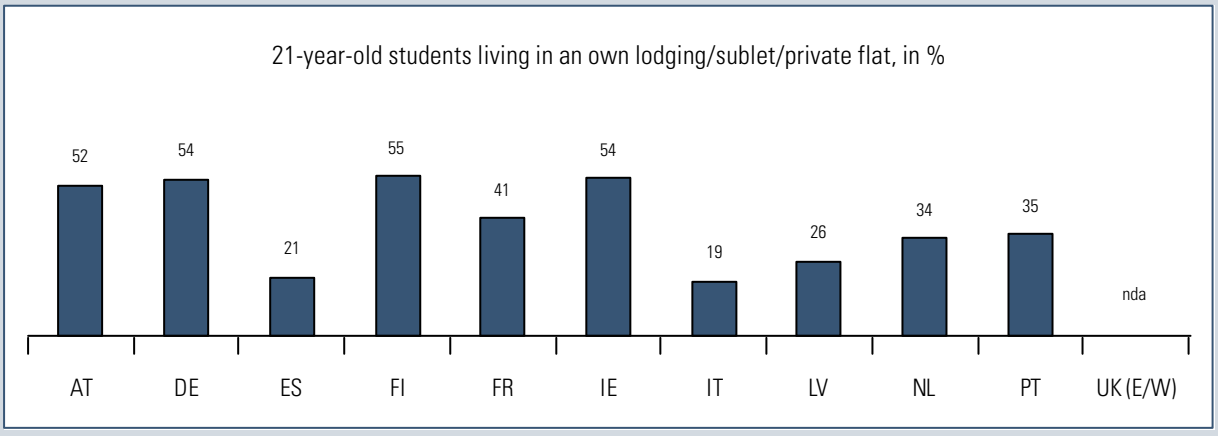
Most frequent type of residence

The choice of accommodation type depends greatly on the age of students (cf. fig. 16 cont., bottom chart). Younger students (up to 20 years of age) in eight of ten surveyed countries live in the parental home. In this age group, students in Ireland and UK most frequently live in their own household, with the proportion 46%. As students grow older, the proportion of students living with their parents or in student halls of residence falls in all countries, while the proportion of those living alone in a flat or sharing it with a partner rises. By the far most popular type of accommodation among those aged 27 and over is that of running their own household. As expected, Italy and Spain deviated downwards with not more than 61% from the otherwise very high values of between 72% and 92% found in all other countries.

Fig. 16.1: Student type of residence – 21-year-old students

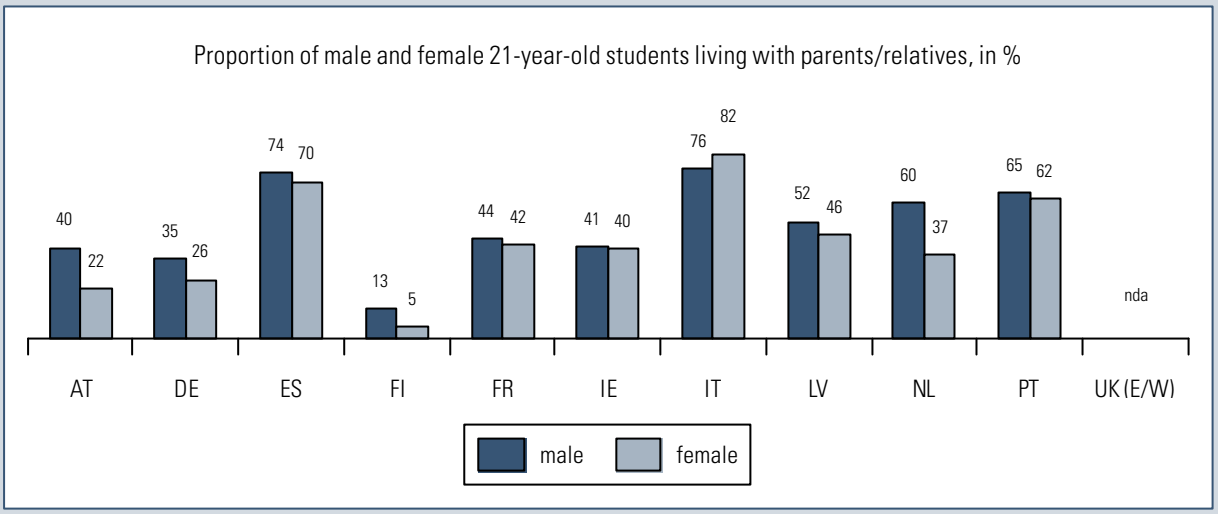






Data source: Eurostudent 2005 - National Profiles

Fig. 16.1 cont.: Student type of residence – 21-year-old students

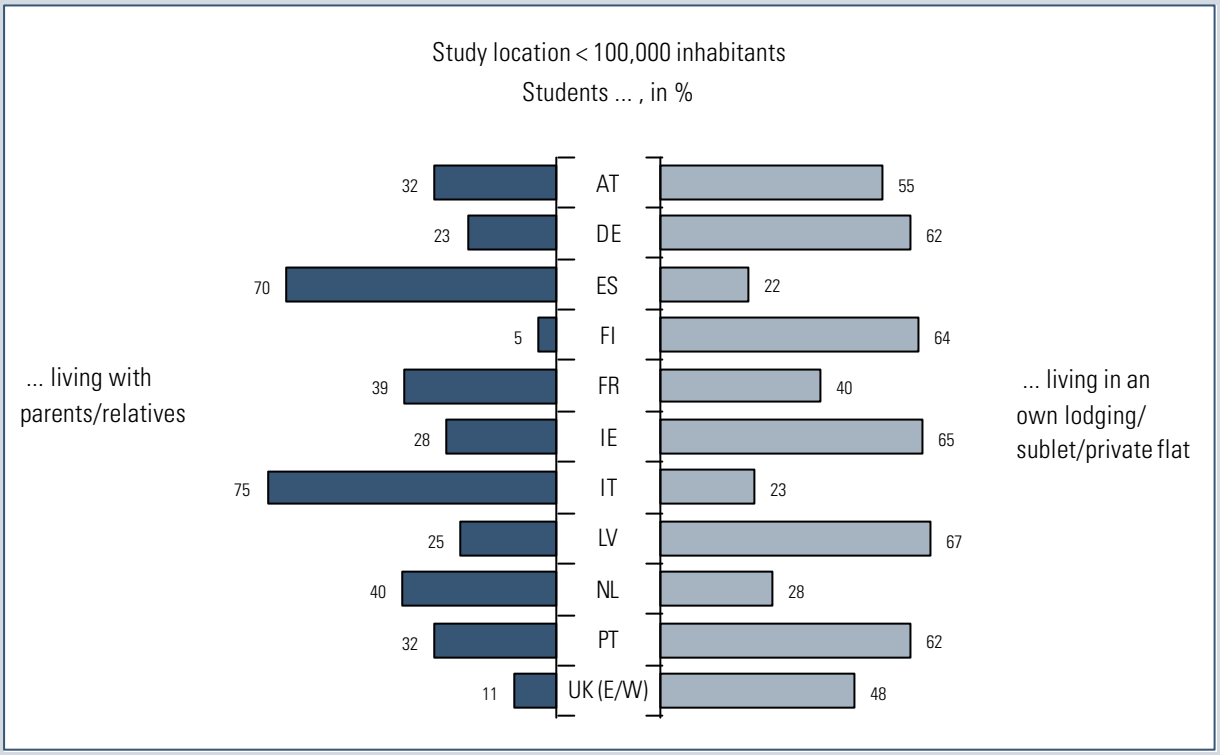


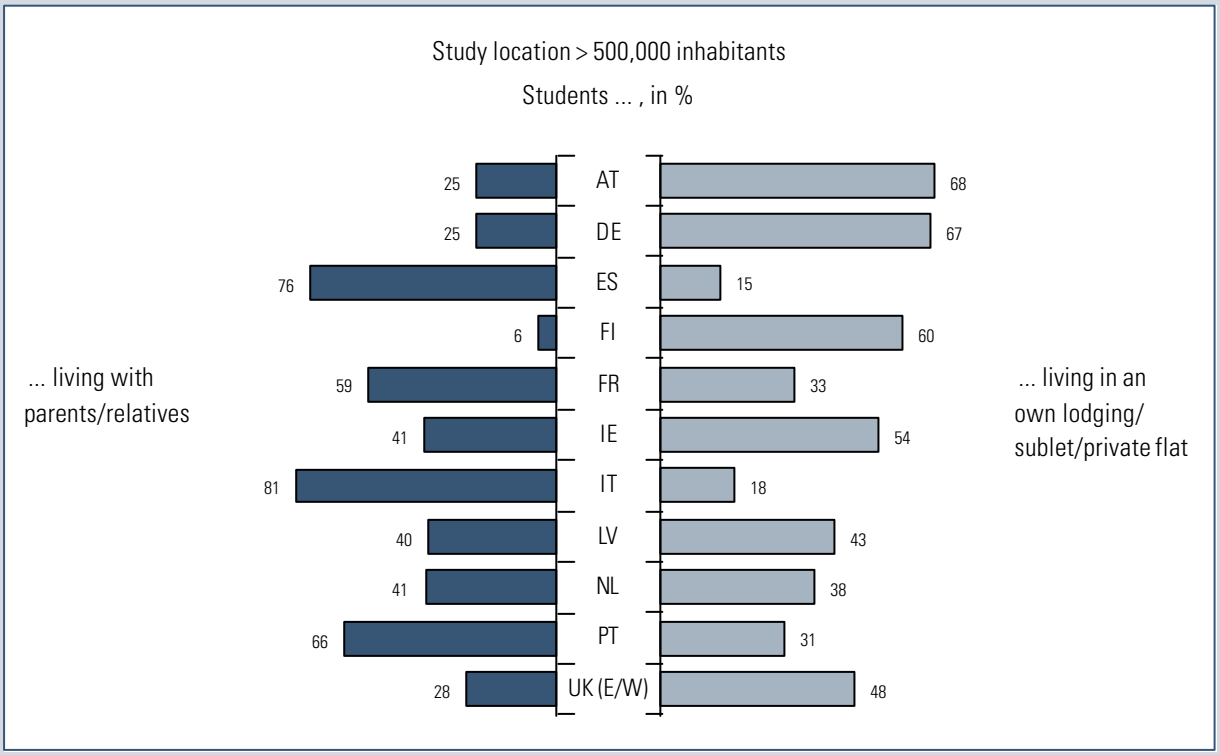
Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

Type of residence – 21-year-old students

It is possible to eliminate the age effect by showing type of residences of students of the same age (21 years; cf. fig. 16.1). The typical structural North to South differences are still visible, only varied by general higher proportions for students living at home or in dormitories and lower rates for those living in own lodgings. The proportion of male and female students (bottom chart) shows some interesting differences with regard to separation from home. In most of the countries the sons prefer to stay longer in the "hotel mama" than the daughters. Extreme gender differences can be noticed in Finland, the Netherlands, Austria and Germany.

Fig. 17: Type of residence by size of study location



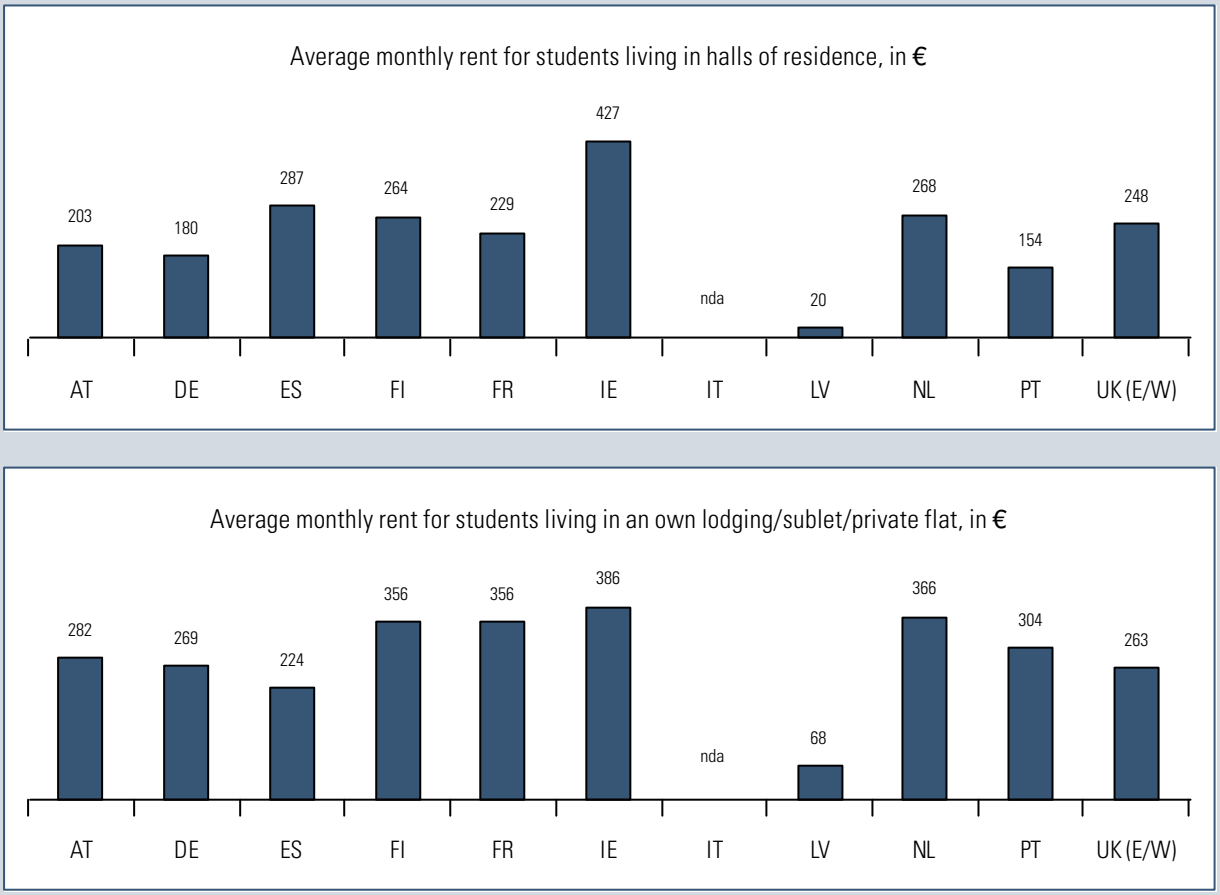


Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

Type of residence by size of study location

A further factor affecting the utilisation of particular forms of accommodation may be the size of university town (cf. fig. 17). However, no clear correlation can be identified between these two parameters. Whether students prefer to run their own household or alternatively decide in favour of living with their parents is a question that is determined by several factors, including the university's' catchment area, the situation on the local private housing market and the range of available places at halls of residence. These regional conditions are by no means uniform, neither between the participating countries nor within those countries themselves. Therefore, it is hardly possible to make any far-reaching generalisations applicable to all countries.

Fig. 18: Cost of accommodation[1]



[1] Accommodation including additional charges and costs for utilities.

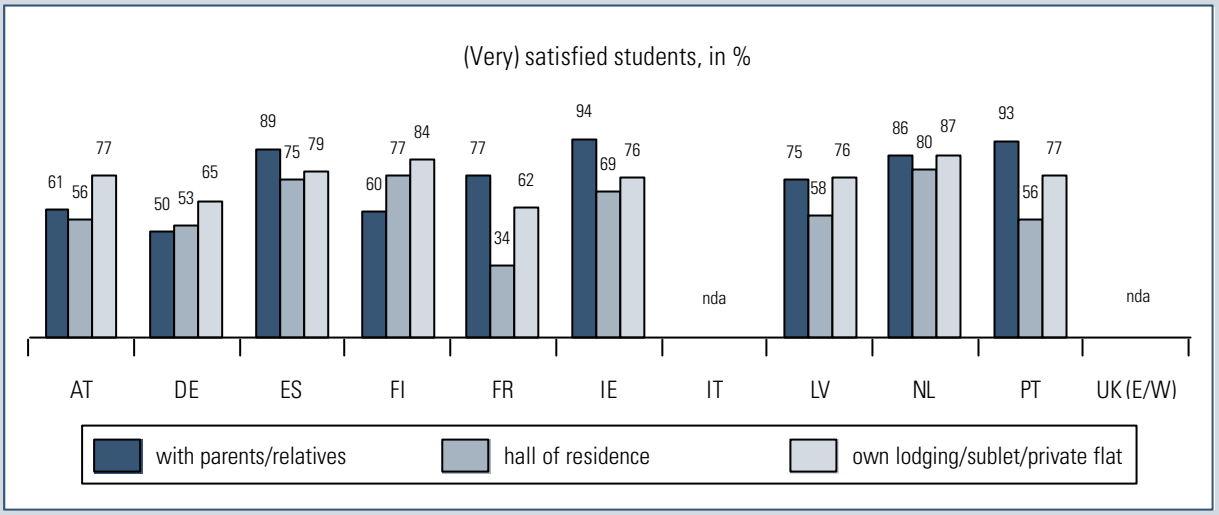
Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

Cost of accommodation

The average monthly amount spent on rent is, in particular, dependent on which of the variously expensive forms of accommodation students choose. Irrespective of the varying rent levels in the countries, living in student halls of residence is the most economical form of accommodation in most of the surveyed countries. Two exceptions are to be found in Spain and Ireland where rents for rooms in halls of residence are higher than on the free market. In contrast, in Austria, for example, students have to spend about 30% less on such accommodation than students running their own households. On average, rent levels are highest for students running their own households in Ireland, the Netherlands, France and Finland. This is primarily caused by the fact that students are concentrated above all in the metropolis, where high cost of living levels generally prevail.

In distinction to the general picture the level of costs in Latvia, as an example of the new member states in the East of Europe, is totally different. Compared with European standards, the monthly rent for living both in halls of residence and also in own lodgings – although more than three times higher than the halls – are extremely low. However, in relation to the low total income of Latvian students (cf. Fig.22) the burden to cover the rent is nearly the same as for West-European students; a little bit less with regard to halls of residence, but even stronger with regard to private lodgings (one third of the income has to be use to pay the rent).

Fig. 18.1: Assessment of student accommodation by type of residence



Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

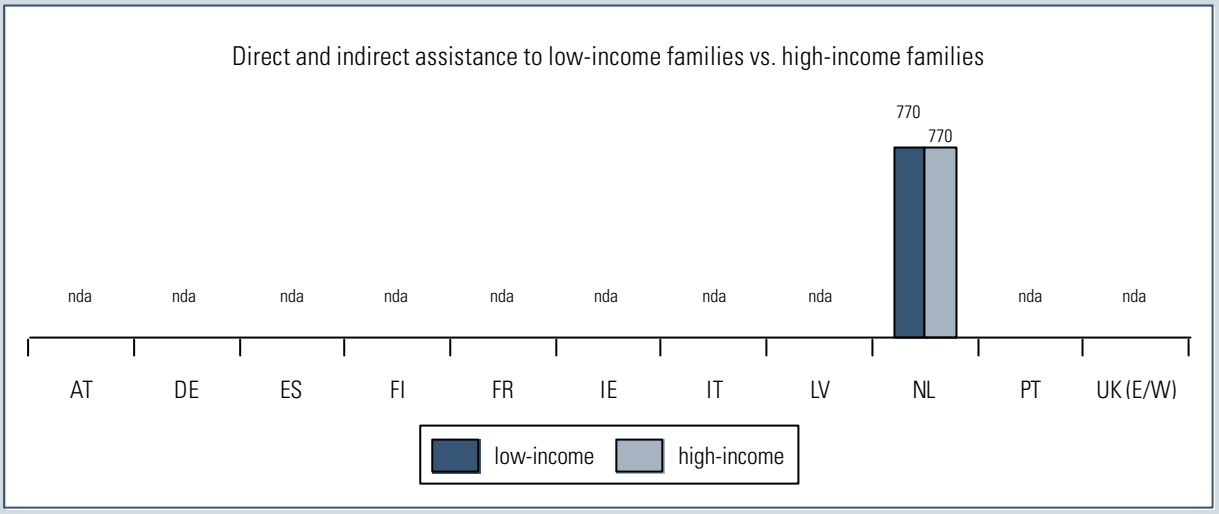
Assessment of student accommodation by type of residence

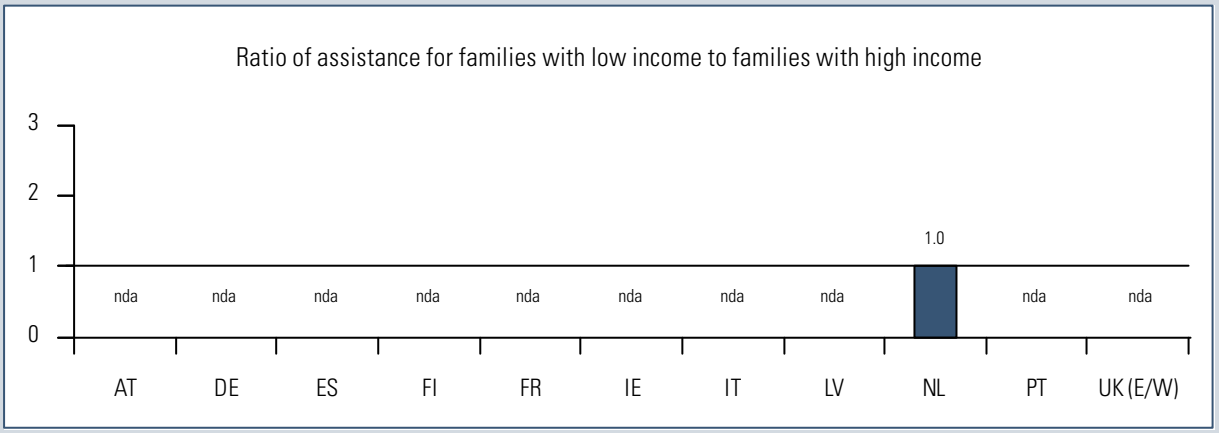
The proportion of students who assess their individual situation of accommodation as "good" or "very good" differs across the various countries. It seems that the general level of appreciation is higher in countries with a younger student population. In Germany and Austria with a more adult student population and corresponding adult aspirations the rate of positive statements is lower for all types of residence than in the other countries. In both countries living independently in own lodgings is preferred against living with parents or in halls of residence. The students in Finland also rate independent forms of living higher than less individual forms of living.

Staying at home and living with the parents is assessed as a convenient possibility for a student especially in the South European countries, but also in France and Ireland. The students in the latter country are extremely dissatisfied with the halls of residence (34%). Also in Latvia and Portugal, the assessment rate for halls is the lowest compared with other types of residence in these countries.

Fig. 19: Public transfer to families[1] with children in higher education

Indicator of social subsidiarity.





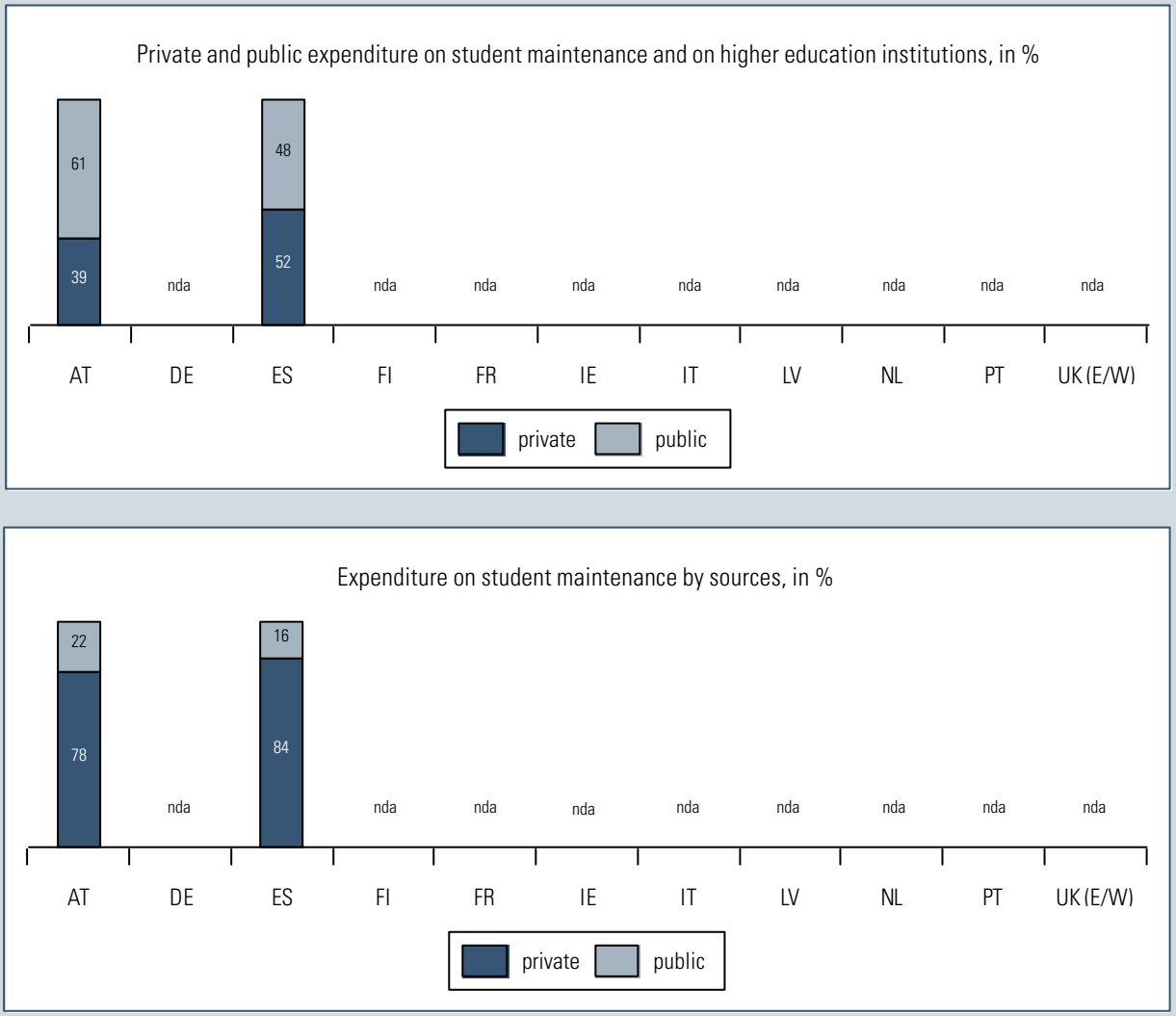
[1] Families with two children, one of whom is in higher education living distant from home, the other in secondary education livin g at home.

Data source: EUROSTUDENT - National Profiles

Public transfer to families with children in higher education

In most of the countries comparable indicators could not be produced for lack of data. The calculation was supposed to combine data of the social survey with external data (indirect aid for student maintenance, direct state expenditure on higher education) which could not be obtained in the required form. Therefore no further comment is possible.

Fig. 20: Public and private expenditure on higher education

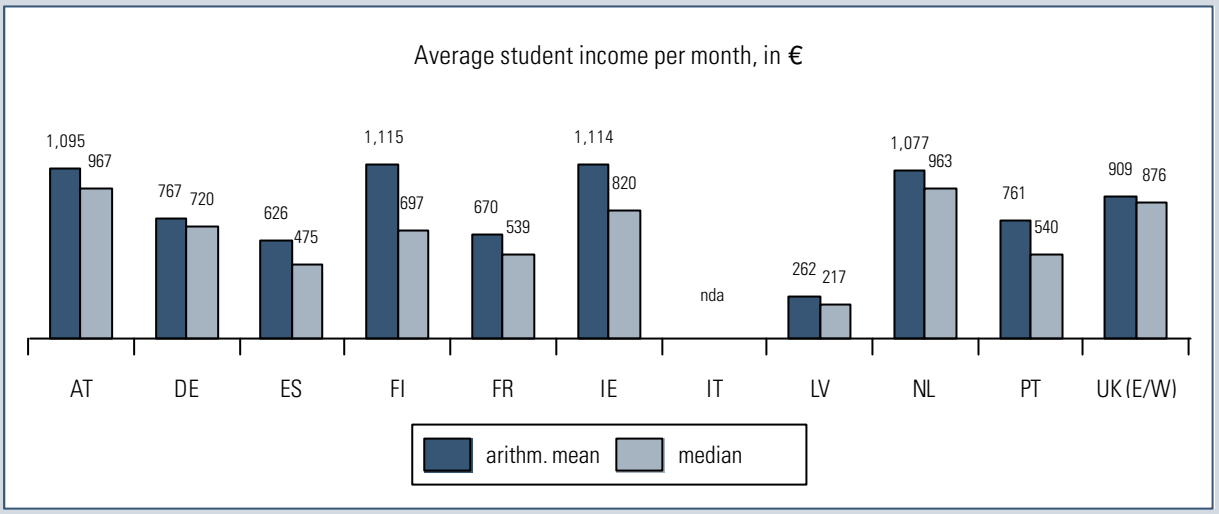


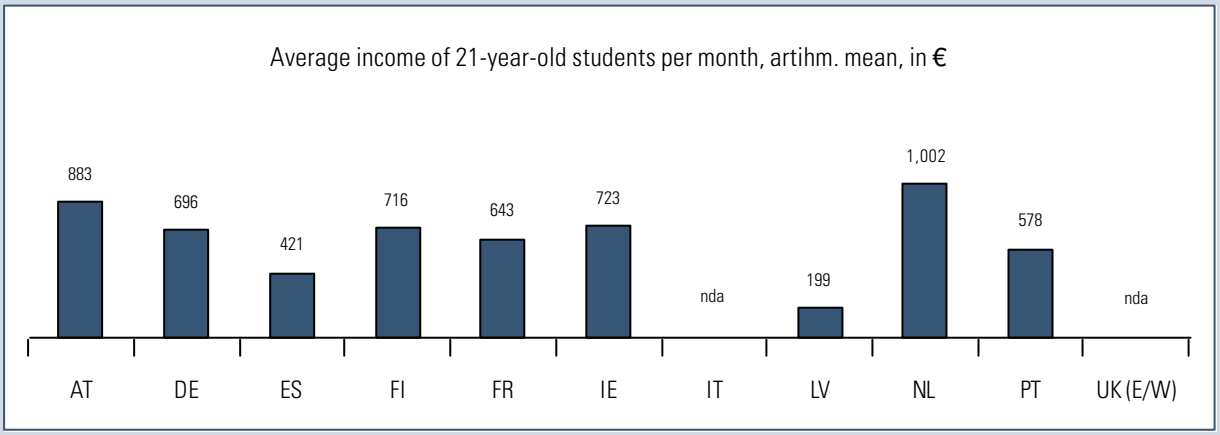
Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

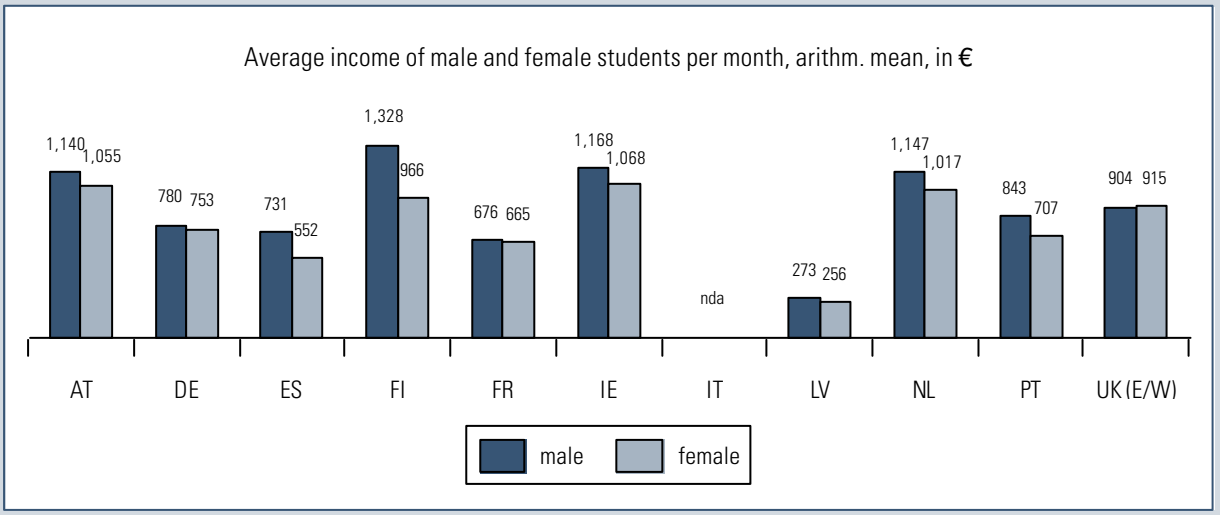
Public and private expenditure on higher education

In most of the countries comparable indicators could not be produced for lack of data. The calculation was supposed to combine data of the social survey with external data (indirect aid for student maintenance, direct state expenditure on higher education) which could not be obtained in the required form. Therefore no further comment is possible.

Fig. 21: Total income[1] of students – Students maintaining their own household







[1] Total income: cash and intangibles

Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profile

Income of Students – Students maintaining their own household

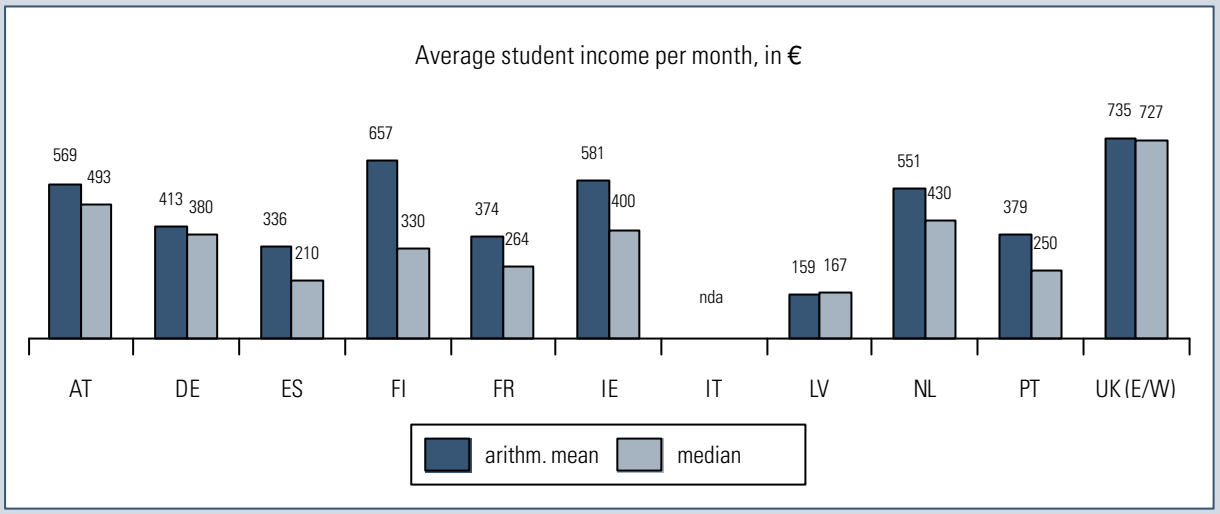
The average total income (arithmetic mean) which students maintaining their own household have at their disposal (Fig. 21, top chart) is highest in Finland and Ireland, closely followed by the Netherlands and Austria (where irregular payments are included in the calculation). Students in these countries have more than €1,000 per month at their disposal. Students placed in the middle range of income have between €600 and €900 (Spain, Germany, France, and Portugal). By comparison the financial resources available to Latvian students are very low (€262), even if purchasing power is taken into account.

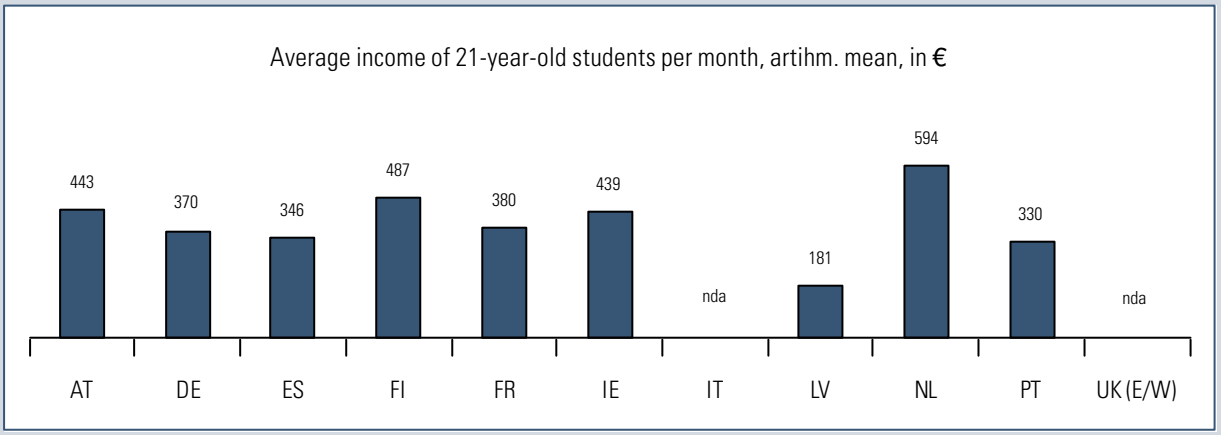
Extreme differences between a high arithmetic mean and a low median signal that high values are due to some individual extreme income values which distort the general picture of students' income in these countries. In Finland and Ireland this is probably caused by part-time students with full employment. In Portugal, it should be considered that only a minority of students maintains their own households. In such narrow groups a few individual outliers can produce statistical distortions. If only the median values are compared, the differences between countries are less severe, but still in the same order as those described above.

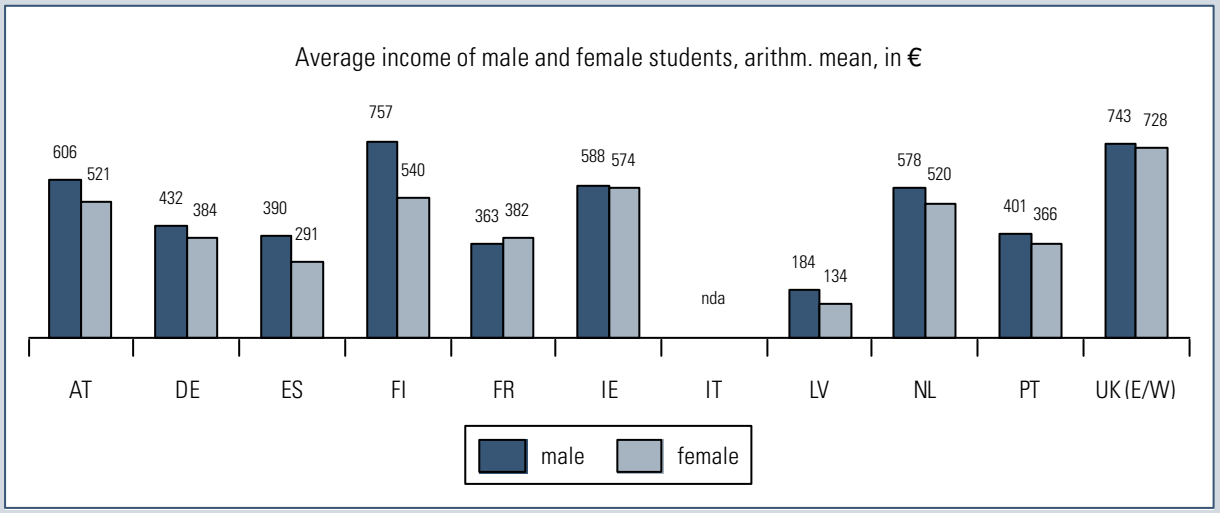
The same order of differences between the countries can also be observed if only the total income of 21-year students is compared (centre chart). Younger students have more modest pretensions compared with more adult students and do have smaller budgets in comparison to the total student population, in Spain for example €421 instead of €626.

In the majority of countries female students have less resources available to them than male students (Finland: male = €1,328 and female = €966). Further analysis clarify that these differences are no proof of discrimination, but due to structural differences (age differences etc.).

Fig. 22: Total income[1] of students – Students living with parents/relatives







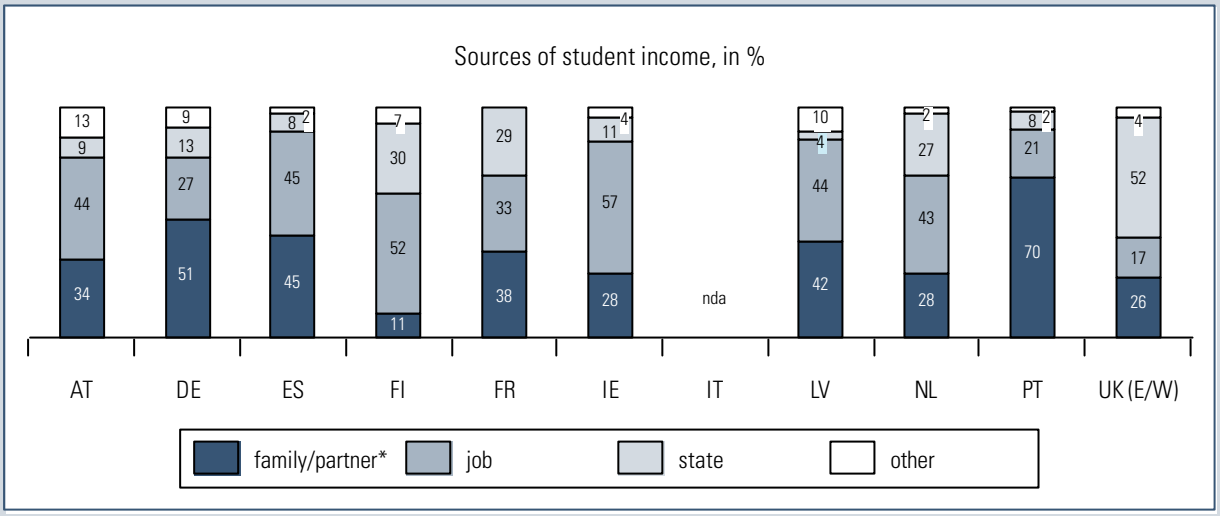
[1] Total income: cash only

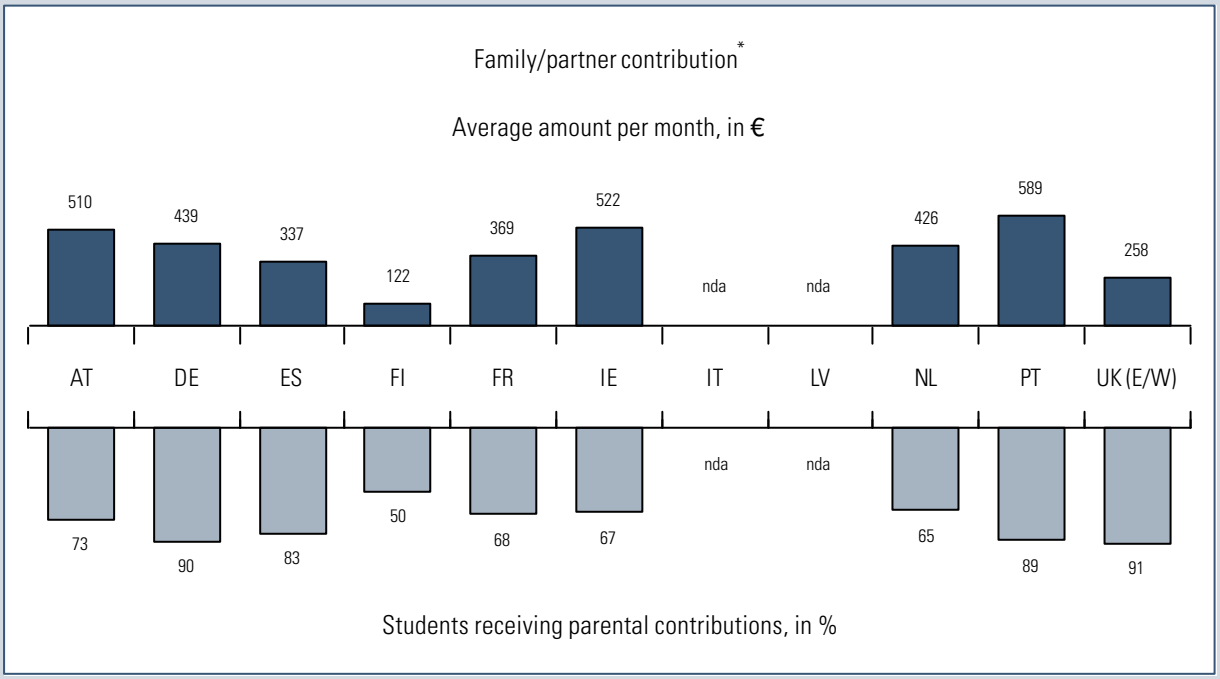
Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

Income of Students – Students living with parents/ relatives

Total income of students living with parents/relatives (Fig. 22) show similar structural differences to the ones described in Fig. 21, only at a lower level. Living at home with parents is a way of saving money on living-costs. In the countries in the South of Europe this form at subsistence-economy is very frequent (cf. Fig. 16) and constitutes the backbone of students' maintenance.

Fig. 23: Sources of student income – Students maintaining their own household





*Family/partner contribution: cash and intangibles

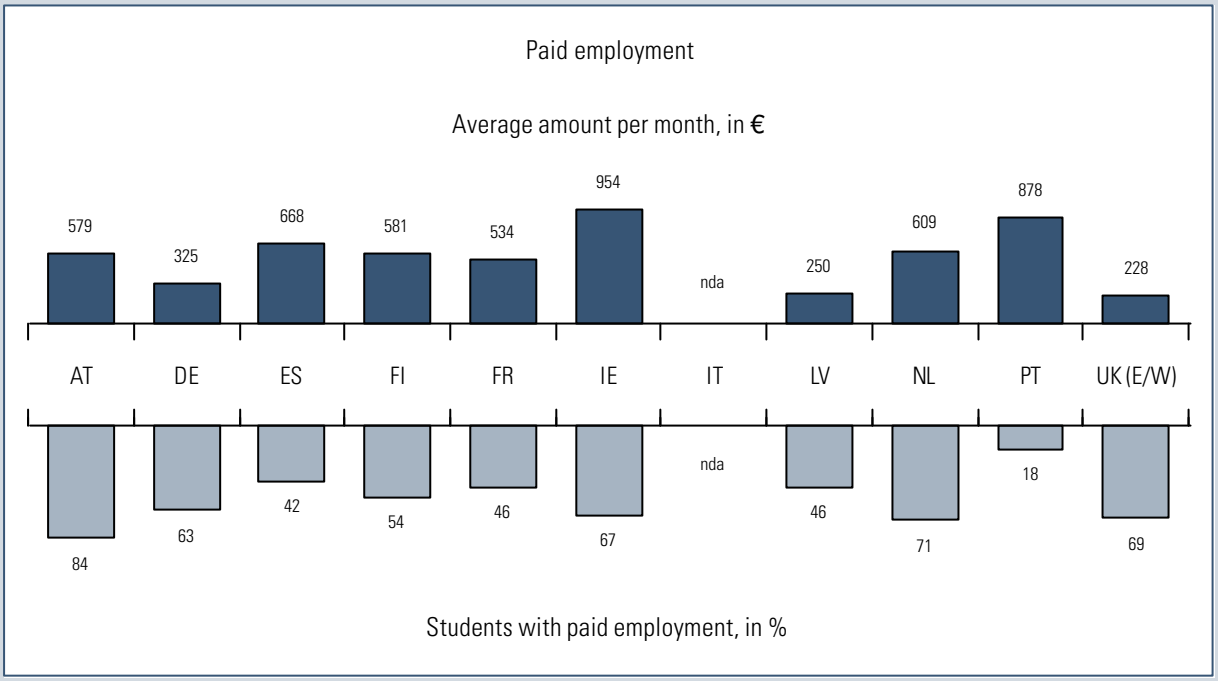
Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

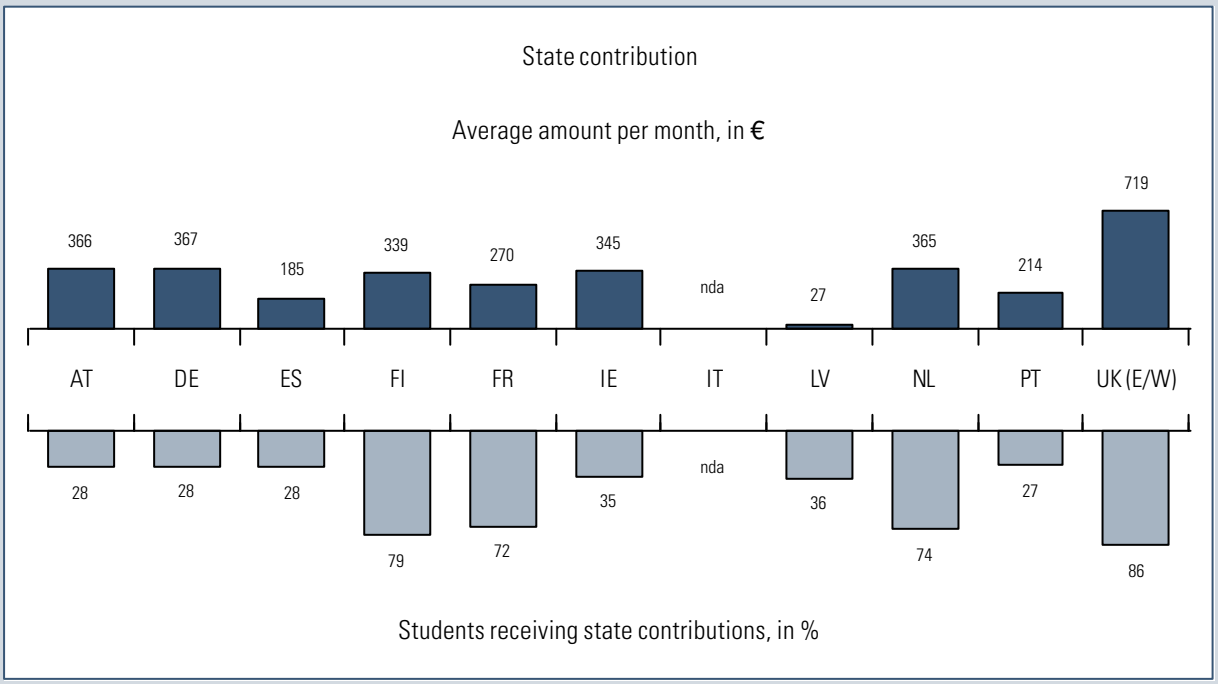
Sources of student income – Students maintaining their own household (1)

Students' monthly monetary income is essentially made up of three sources in all the countries: Parental contributions, personal earnings and state assistance (Fig. 23). However, the significance – defined by the share of the monthly income taken by each funding source – of the various sources does vary substantially from one country to the next (top chart). In Germany and Portugal, parents provide the largest share of the resources with which students cover their living expenses. In these countries, this source ranges from 51% to 70%. In countries such as Ireland, Austria, Spain, Finland, Latvia and the Netherlands, personal earnings form the major supporting pillar with a share of between 43% and 57%. State assistance is only the major income source in one of the surveyed countries: In the United Kingdom state assistance averages at a contribution of 52% to the monthly monetary income of students. In this case, state contributions also cover part of the tuition fees.

The significance of the various funding sources for those who receive them can be read from the following three charts. In these, each of the upper series of columns represents the average sums made available by each funding source. The lower series of columns in each case shows the proportion of students who have this source at their disposal.

Fig. 23 cont.: Sources of student income – Students maintaining their own household



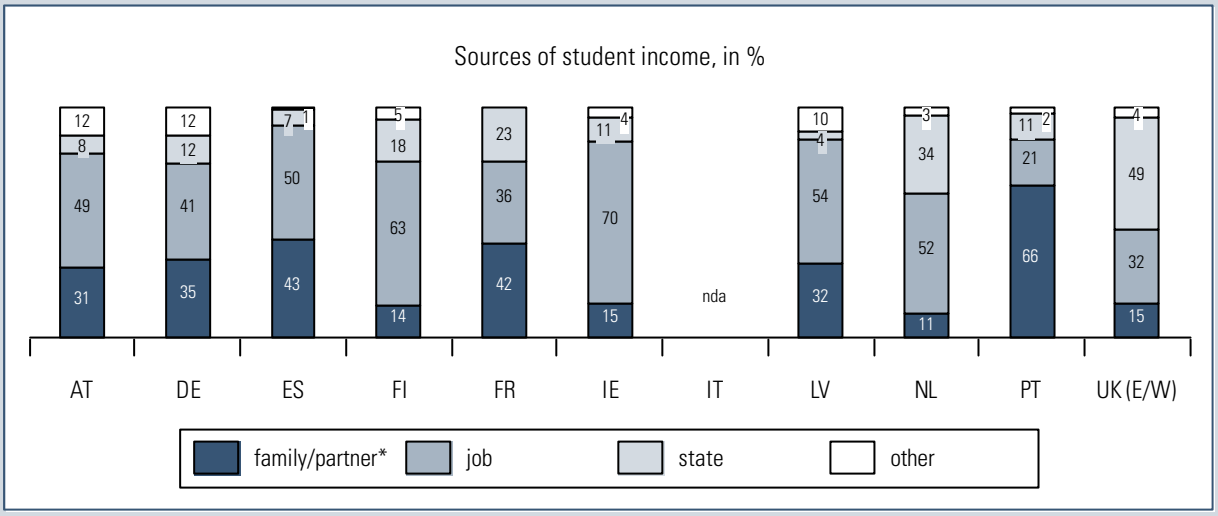


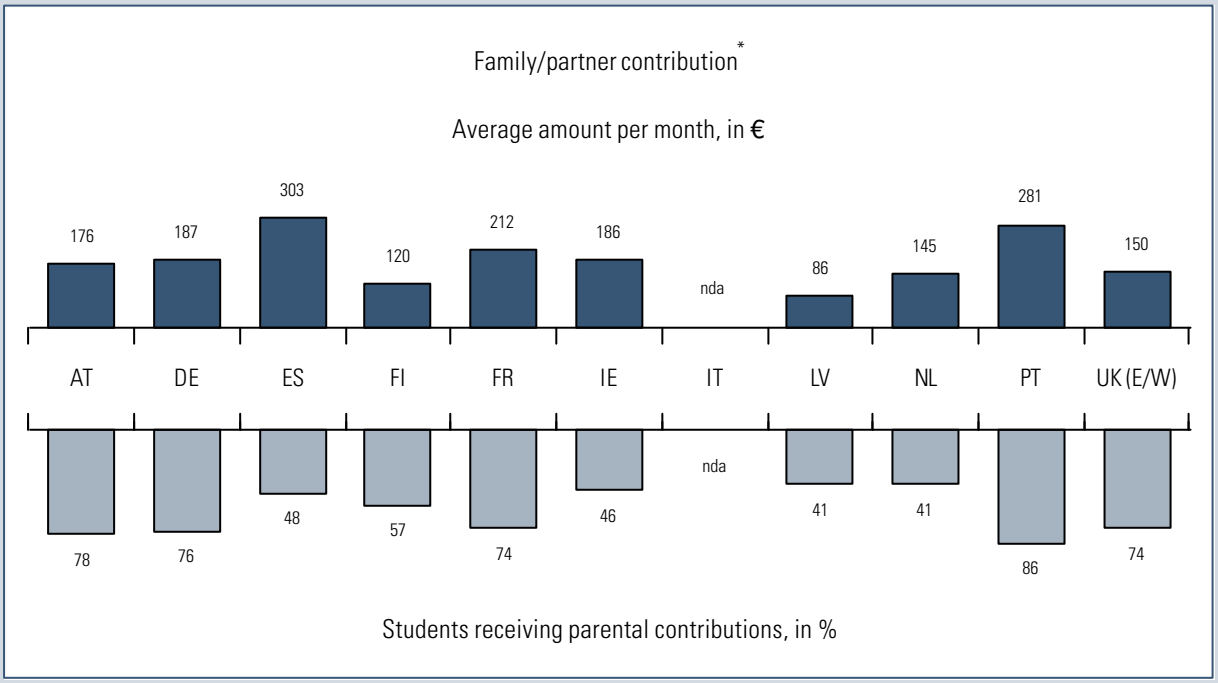
Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

Sources of student income – Students maintaining their own household (2)

The average amount which parents make available to their children in cash and in kind ranges from €122 to €589. Only in the case of Portugal and Germany is this sum also the highest contribution to students' total income. In the other countries, the proportions are – sometimes substantially – below those sums which students have at their disposal each month from personal earnings. In Austria, Spain, Finland, France, Ireland, and the Netherlands, the share from personal earnings makes the highest contribution to students total income. State contribution only is higher than all other sources in the United Kingdom.

Fig. 23.1: Sources of student income – Students living with parents/relatives





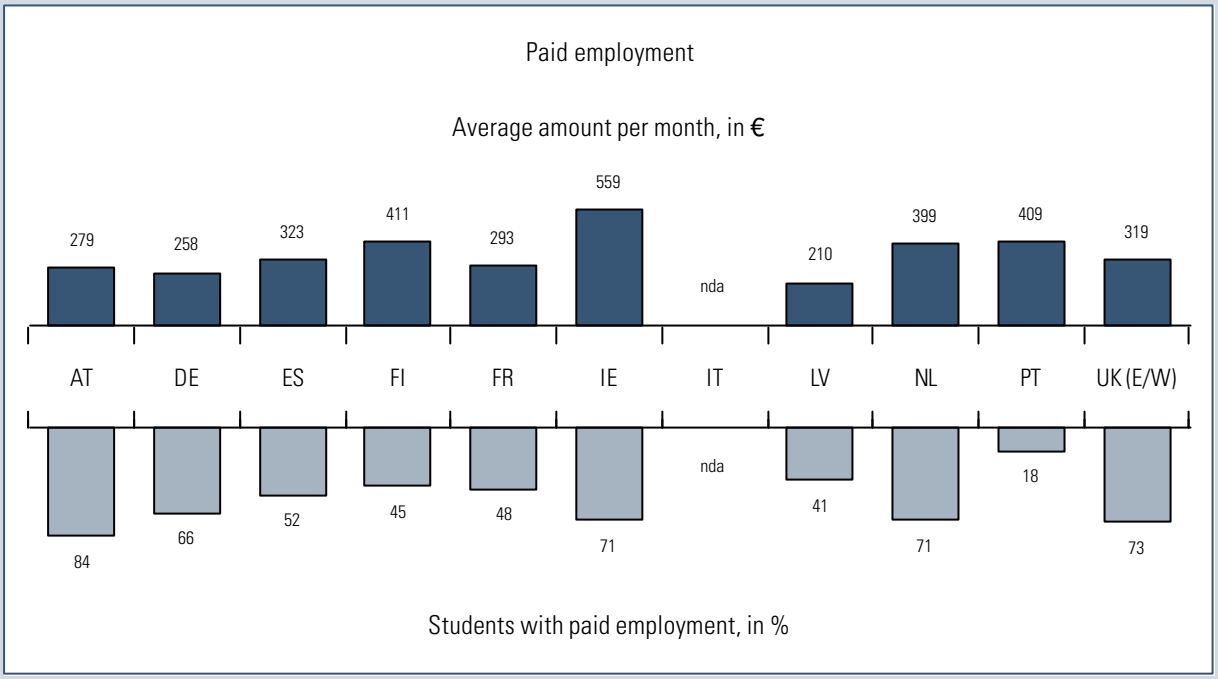
* Family/partner contribution: cash only

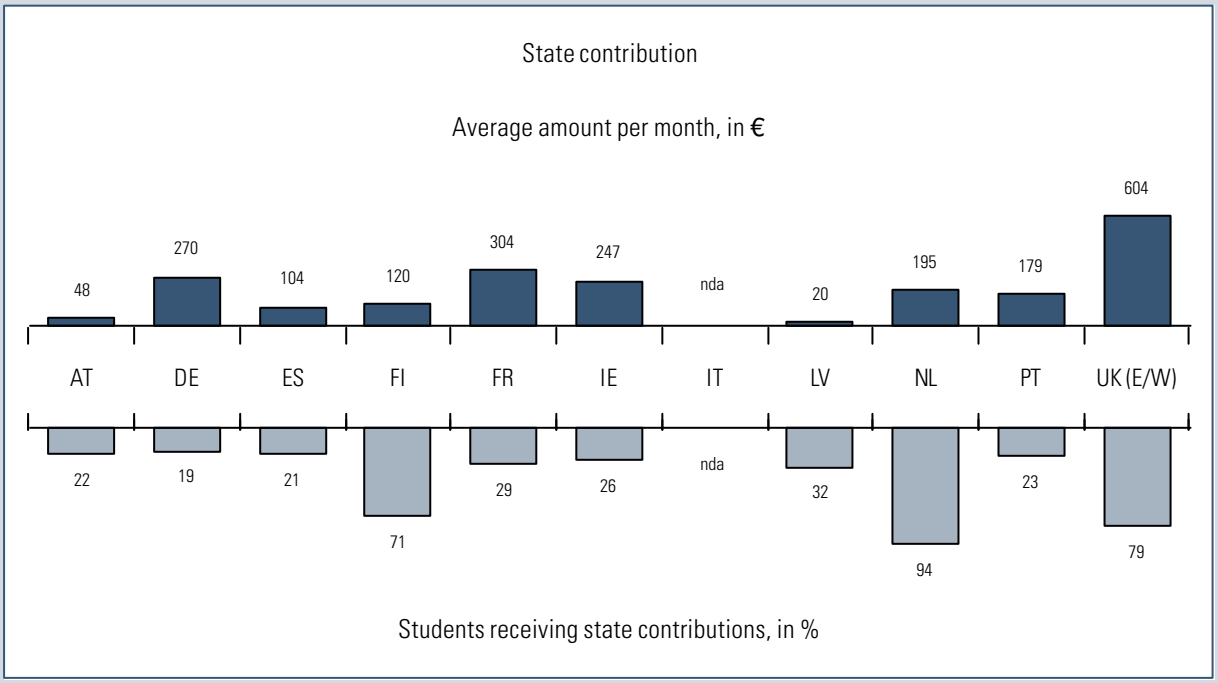
Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

Sources of student income – Students living with parents/relatives (1)

Students living with parents have a different income situation (Fig. 23.1) than those living outside their family. Most of the parents' support can be provided by contributions in kind. Thus, parents can save money and reduce their cash contribution.

Fig. 23.1 cont.: Sources of student income – Students living with parents/relatives



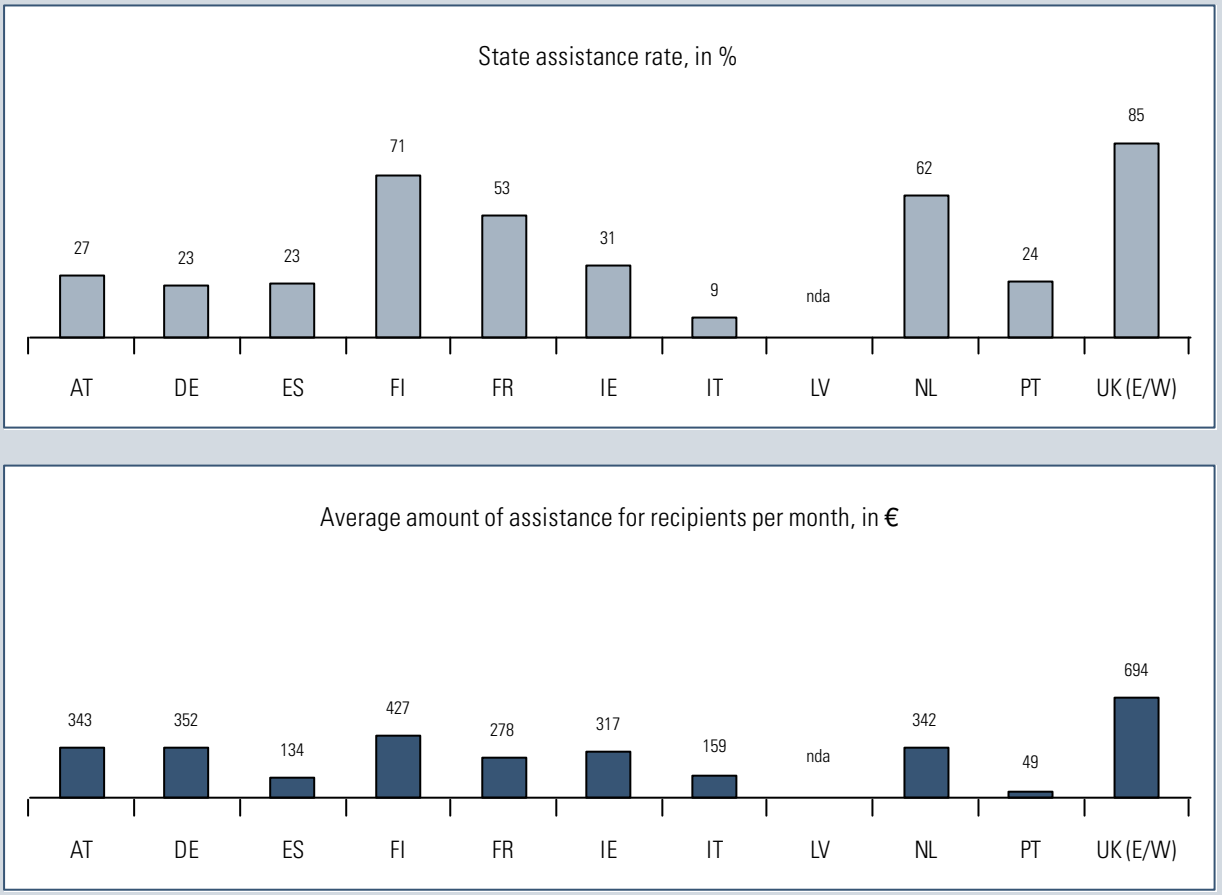


Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

Sources of student income – Students living with parents/relatives (2)

In most of the surveyed countries own extra-earnings make up the biggest part of the budget with the exception of France, Portugal, and UK. In comparison with students living on their own, in most countries student living with their families receive lower state support on account, the economic advantage of this subsistence form of living.

Fig. 24: State assistance for all students



Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

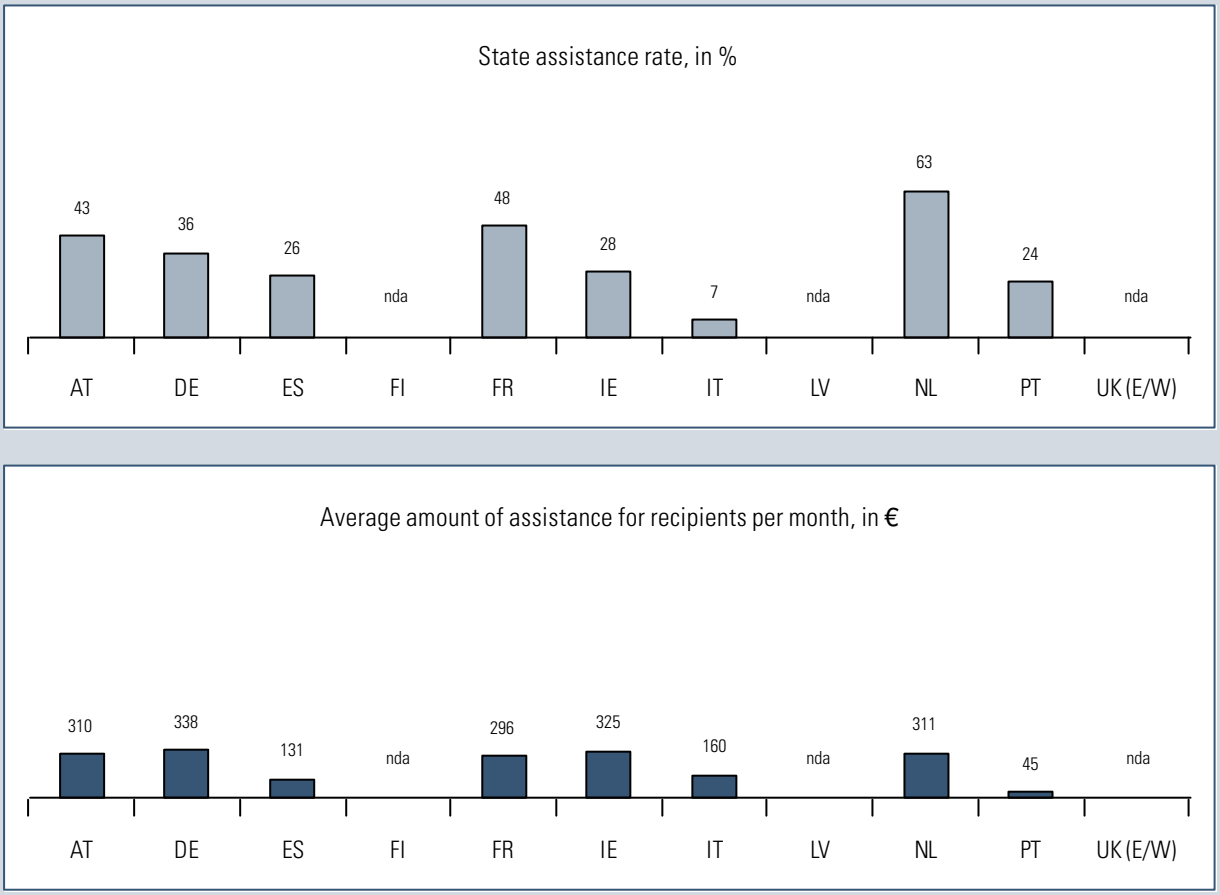
State assistance for all students

The structure of the entitlement to and the amount of educational assistance provided in the form of direct financial payments differs greatly in the individual countries.

The proportion of those receiving support among all students is by far the highest in the UK, Finland and the Netherlands. 85%, 71% and 62%, respectively, of the students enrolled in higher education in these countries receive state assistance towards their living expenses (Fig. 24, top chart). In France the state assistance rate (53%) is above European average. A middle position is held by Ireland (31%). Yet, around one in four students in Austria, Germany, Spain and Portugal do still receive financial assistance from the state. Italy is at the bottom end of the scale, with around one in ten students who are in receipt of educational assistance.

Compared with earlier years, the proportion of recipients has increased in Italy. The average monthly amount of assistance paid out also differs greatly from one country to the next (bottom chart). Its level varies depending on various criteria, e.g. level of parental income. In Austria, the Netherlands and Germany an assisted student receives an average sum of about €350 per month. Average sums in excess of €350 per entitled student are paid in the United Kingdom and in Finland.

Fig. 24.1: State assistance for first year students

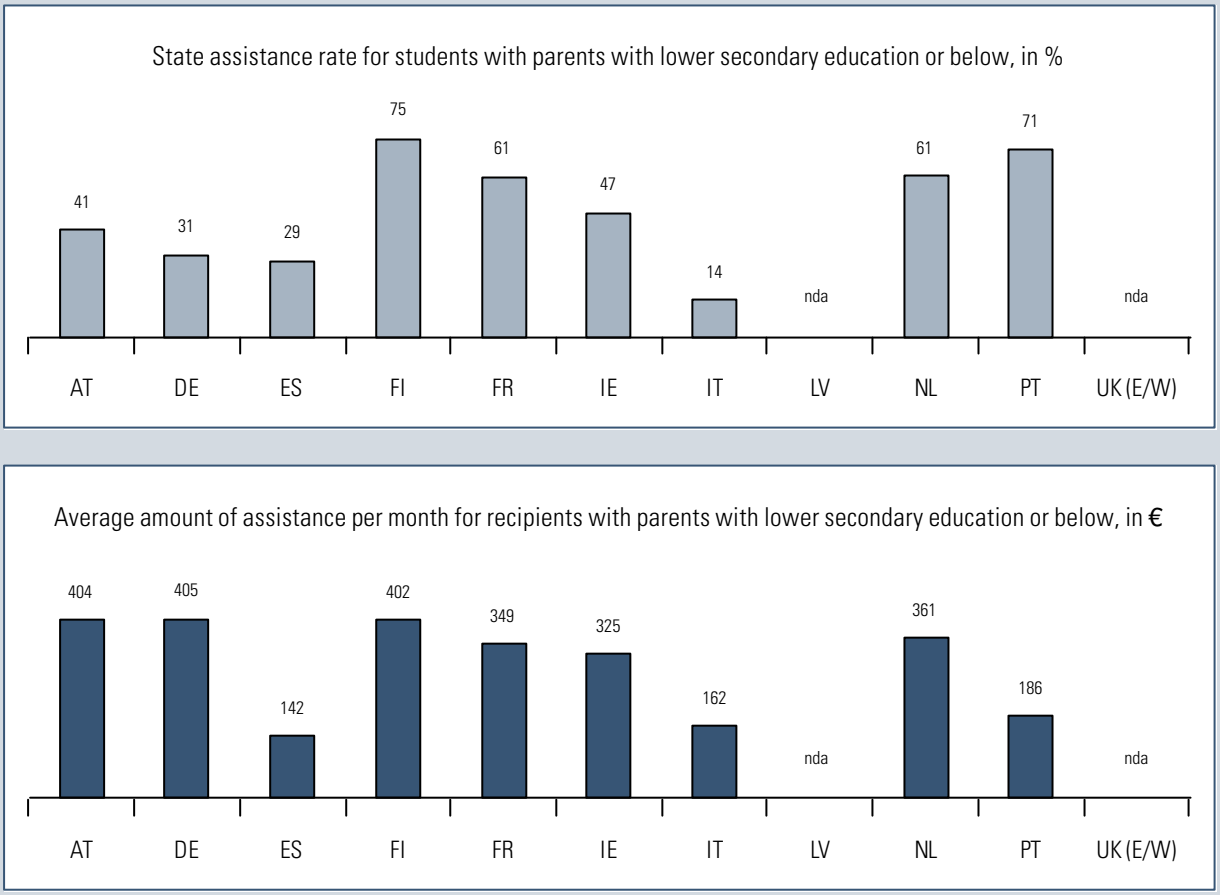


Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

State assistance for first year students

The structural features of state support remain more or less the same (as described for all students, cf. fig. 24) when only first year students are considered.

Fig. 25: State assistance by educational background



Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

State assistance by educational background

Within the context of direct state educational assistance for students, two different types of assistance systems can be identified in relation to the participating countries: On the one hand, there are assistance systems which take the income of students' parents into account when setting the award level (parent dependent), and, on the other hand, there are systems which support students irrespective of their parents' income (parent independent). Typical parent-dependent assistance systems are to be found in Austria and Germany. Finland has a parent-independent system, while the Netherlands operates a mixed system of parent-dependent and parent-independent assistance.

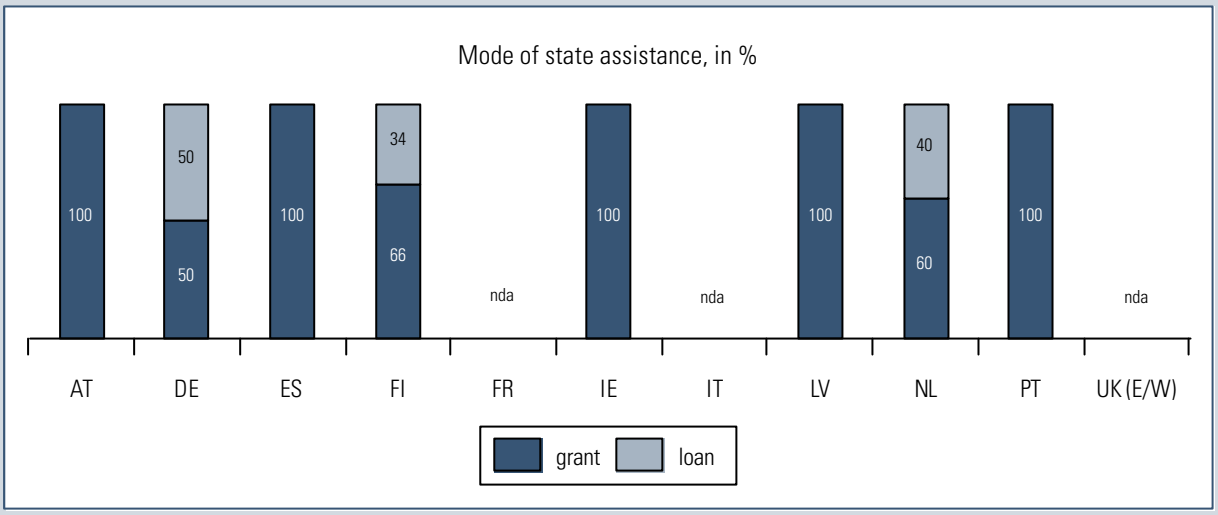
The upper chart compares the proportions of assisted students from socially and financially-disadvantaged families in this group as represented by educational qualifications at lower secondary school level or below. In those countries which award parent-dependent educational assistance, there is a close correlation between parental social class and the proportion of assisted students The respective support rates for students from families with lower educational background in Austria and Germany are, for example, substantially higher than the average national support rate (see previous Fig. 24). The values confirm the supplementary assistance given to students from under-privileged parental homes which can also be seen in all countries apart from the Netherlands. The parent-independent system in Finland makes support dependent on various factors, including students' personal earnings, although the assessment basis is set at a very high level. This means that only few students fail to receive any support at all, which in turn means that the rate of 75% for students from families with lower educational background is also relatively high.

The average amount of monthly assistance paid to students from families with lower educational background varies from country to country (bottom chart). With the exception of the countries from the South of Europe the amounts are all above €300. This once again clearly shows that in countries with parent-dependent systems students from low-income families generally receive a higher monthly sum than fellow students whose parents are well-off. In countries with parent-independent assistance systems no such correlation is given.

Footnote

A detailed review of the various educational assistance systems is provided in "Student financial support – an inventory in 23 European countries" by H.Vossensteyn, Beleidsgerichte studies, Hoger onderwijs en Wetenschappelijk onderzoek, 107, 2004.

Fig. 26: State assistance – Grants and loans



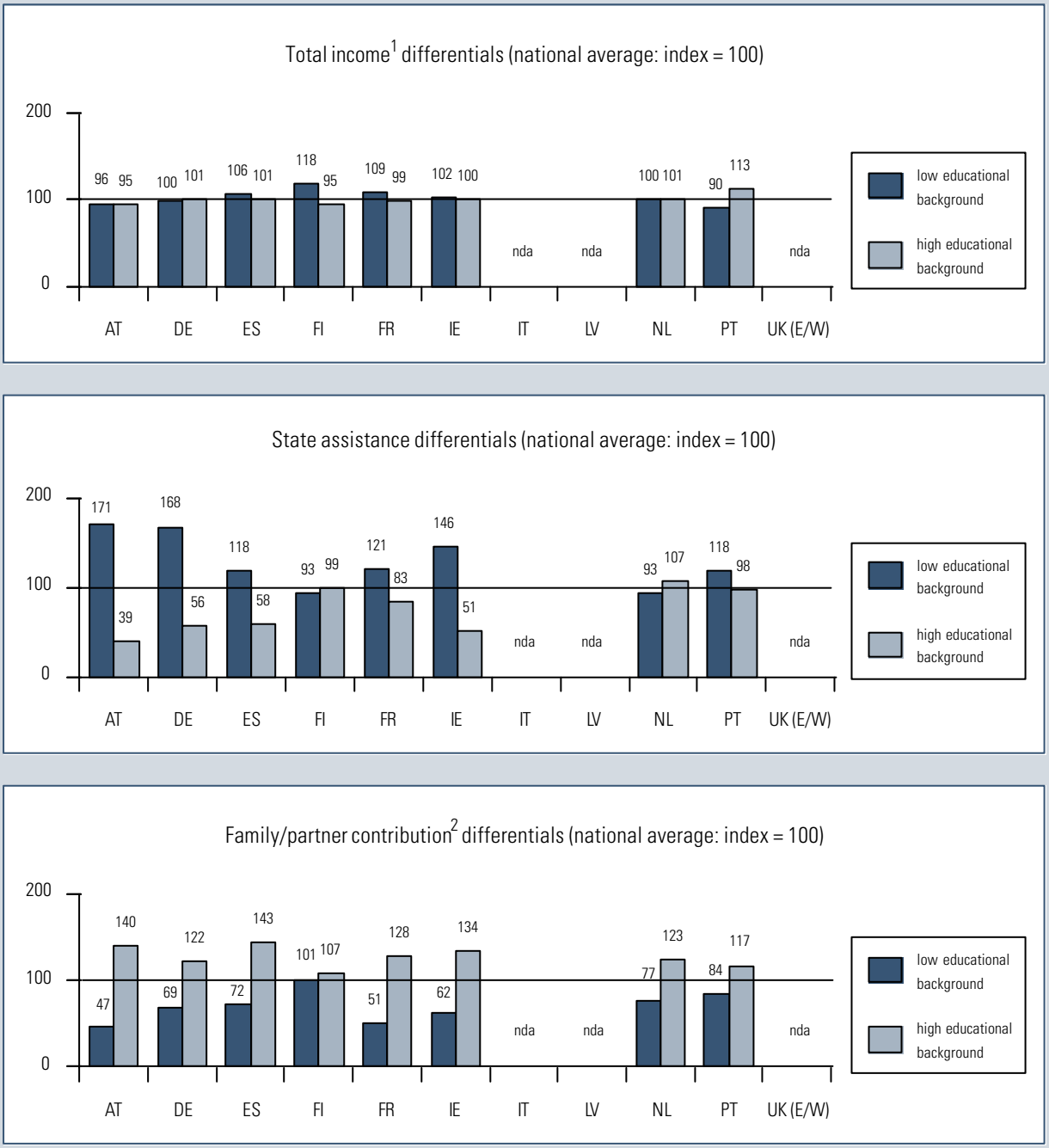
Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

State assistance – Grants and loans

The most important forms of direct financial educational assistance from the state for students in the surveyed countries are still non-repayable grants. A system of purely grant-based assistance, at least for students who engage in and complete their studies, is to be found in Austria, Spain, Ireland, Latvia and Portugal. In Finland and the Netherlands, the proportion of grants in the assistance systems is high. Germany awards educational assistance on a half-loan and half-grant basis. However, some of those countries in which the assistance system is solely or mainly based on grants are currently discussing the introduction of a loan system.

Fig. 27: Income profile of students by educational background – Students maintaining their own household

Students from families with a low and high educational background are compared with regard to total income, state assistance and family/partner contribution.



[1] Income: cash and intangibles

[2] Family/partner contribution: cash and intangible

Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

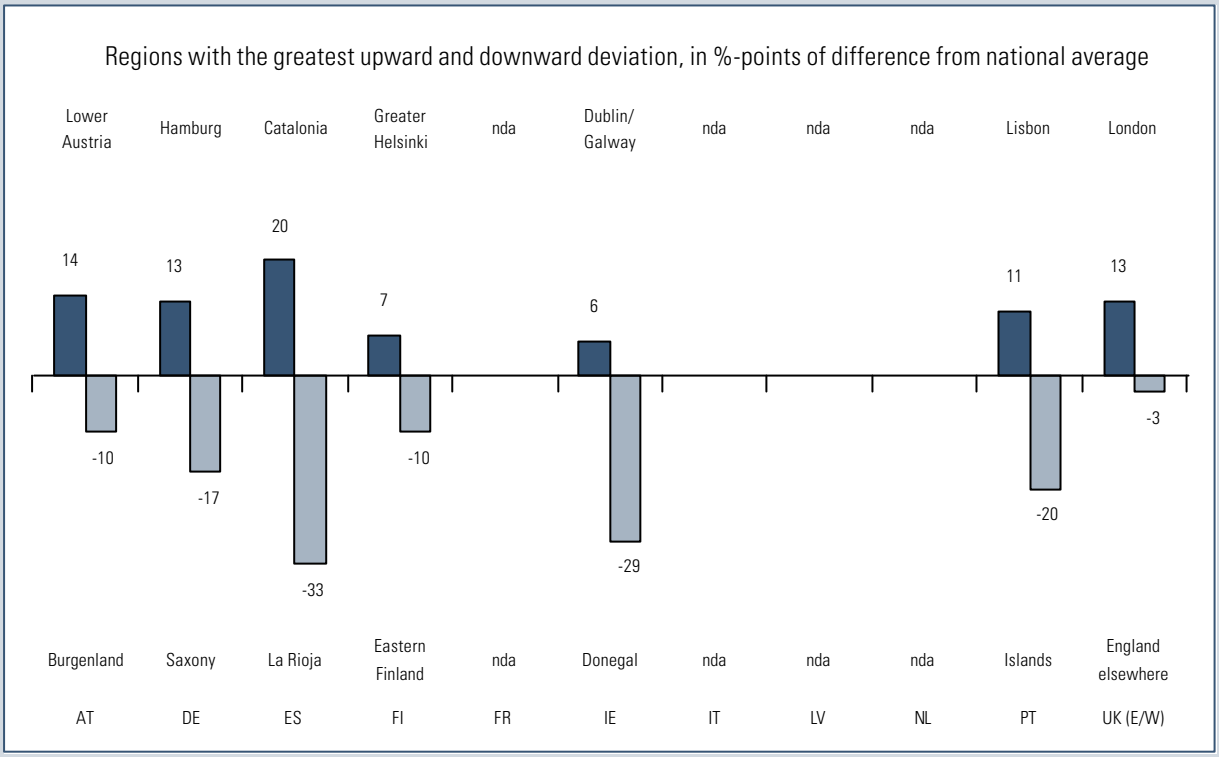
Income profile of students by educational background – Students maintaining their own household

These three charts illustrate the extent to which the social origin of students – here measured by "father's and mother's education" – influences the level or the make-up of students' total monthly income by various sources of funding. The difference is presented as a deviation from the respective national average value, which is set at an index value of 100. The level of total monthly income is only marginally influenced by students' social background. For example, the differences in the level of income between students who come from less educationally-oriented origins and all other students is small in almost all countries (top chart). Only in Portugal and Finland is the deviation slightly greater (in both cases 23 indexpoints).

Clearer gaps appear as far as state assistance is concerned (centre chart): State assistance is of above-average significance in the budget of students from families with a lesser educational background. The social component is strongest in Austria, Germany, Spain, France and Ireland. Finland, the Netherlands and Portugal show another picture. In these cases the state provides support more independently of any family income, and, therefore, the differences between groups of differing family educational background are minimal.

As far as family contributions are concerned, similar gaps are seen between students from parental homes with a lesser educational background and those with a greater educational orientation, but in reverse form. Ireland, France, Spain and Austria have the greatest range. In Finland, students from less educationally-oriented parental homes receive a level of parental support that corresponds with the average. While those from more educationally-oriented homes, receive maintenance from their parents at a level which is slightly above average.

Fig. 28: Student expenditure differences by region



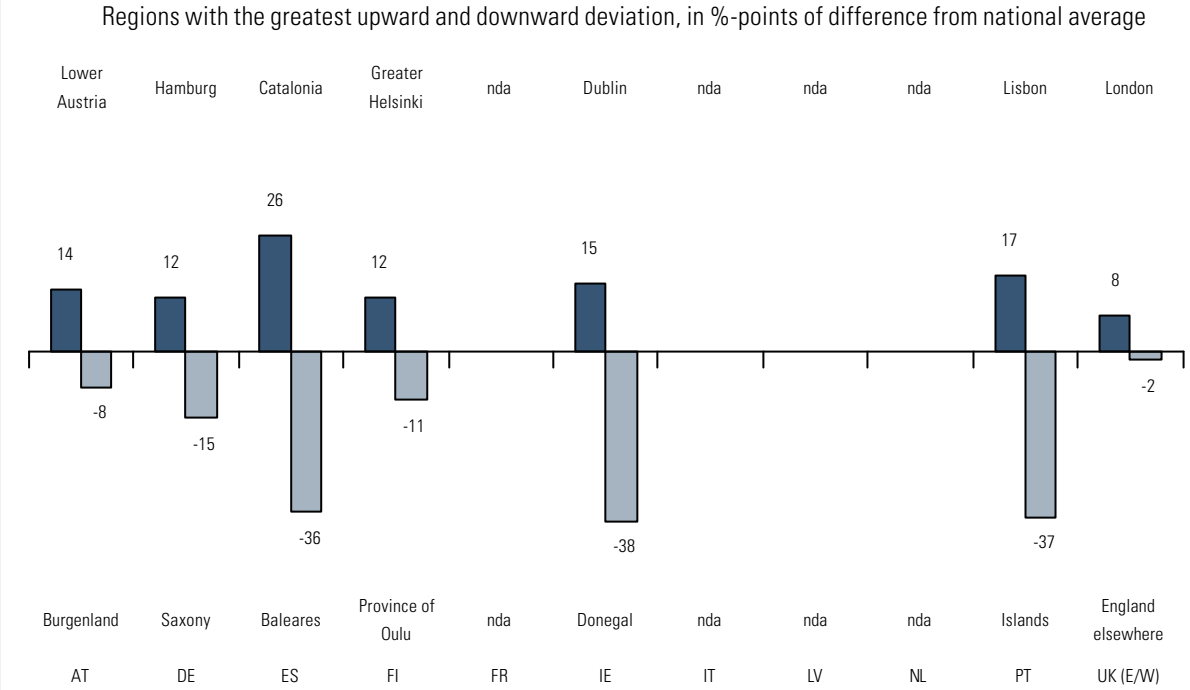
Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

The level of student monthly income and expenditure not only differs between the individual participating countries, but also within these countries. In some cases, substantial differences exist. In the following representation, the respective national average value was set at 100 and regional differences were set in relation to this index value. This identified regions in which students had the lowest expenditure as well as regions with the highest expenditure (fig. 28) and regions in which students had the lowest income as wellas regions with the highest income (fig. 28.1).

Student expenditure differences by region

Of the countries which provided information on the expenditure aspect, Spain has the greatest variations. Students with the highest average expenditures (20 percentage points above the national average) are to be found in more affluent Catalonia, while those with the lowest expenditures (33 percentage points below the national average) are to be found in La Rioja. As for Ireland, the deviations from the national average mirror the regional economic differences and the various cost of living levels which are closely related to this: The more affluent cities Dublin and Galway (+6 percentage points, each) compare with the economically relatively less well-developed county of Donegal (-29 percentage points). In Germany, substantial differences still exist between student economic levels in the old (formerly West Germany) and new (former East Germany) Länder: Students with the lowest expenditure levels are to be found in Saxony (-17 percentage points) and those with the highest in the prosperous city-state of Hamburg (+13 percentage points). The smallest deviations were found in Finland.

Fig. 28.1: Student income differences by region

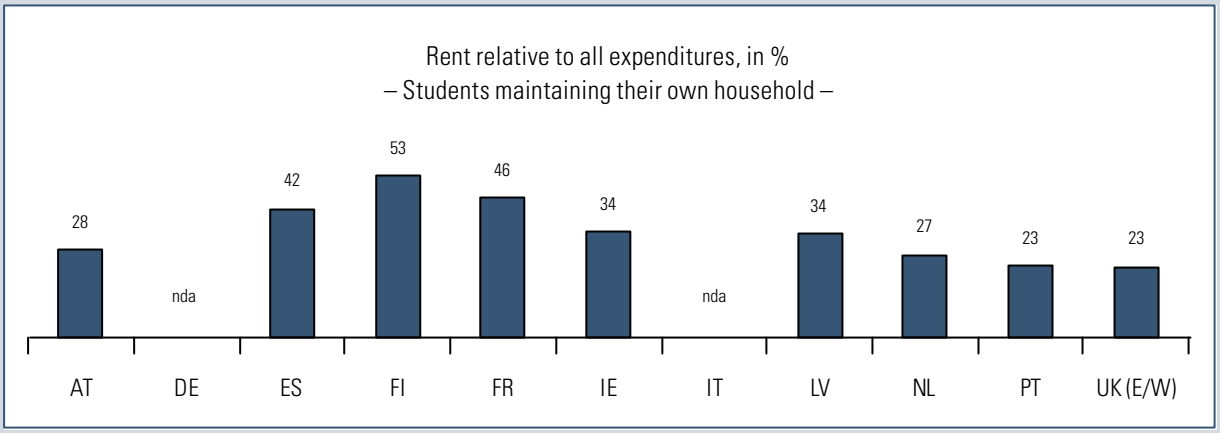


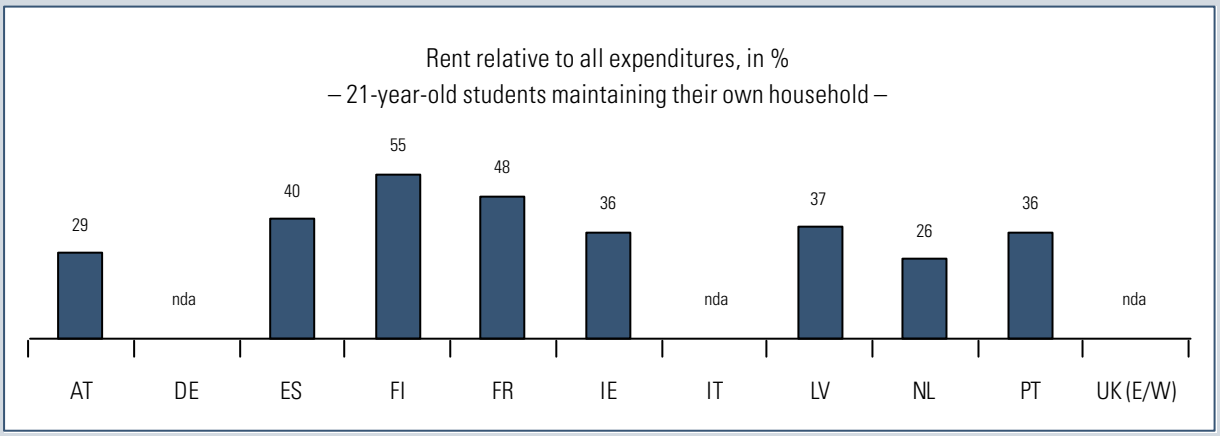
Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

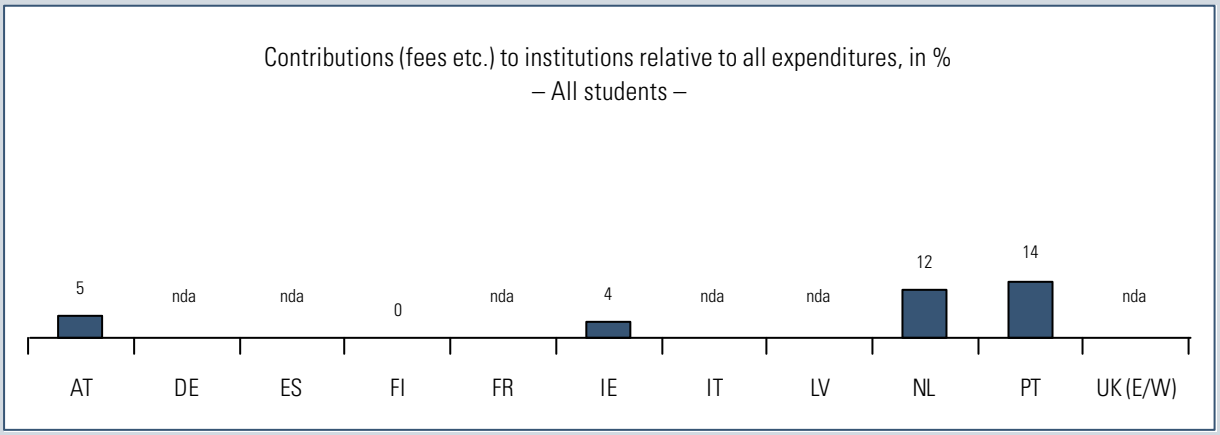
Student income differences by region

When income differences are compared (fig. 28.1), once again like in fig. 28, Ireland and Spain, closely followed by Portugal, show the greatest variations. Analogously to the expenditure situation, Donegal (-38 percentage points) is again the region in which students with the lowest income is to be found. In general, student income reveals similar regional structures as those for student expenditure. In the metropolitan regions of London, Dublin, Barcelona and Hamburg students need more money to cover their living costs.

Fig. 29: Profile of students' direct costs







Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

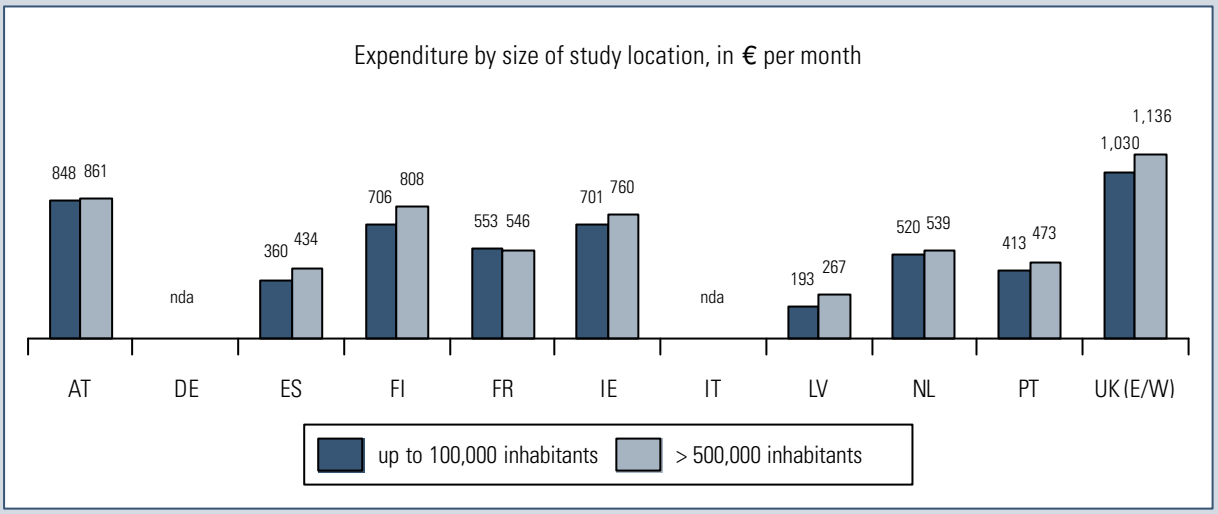
Profile of students' direct costs

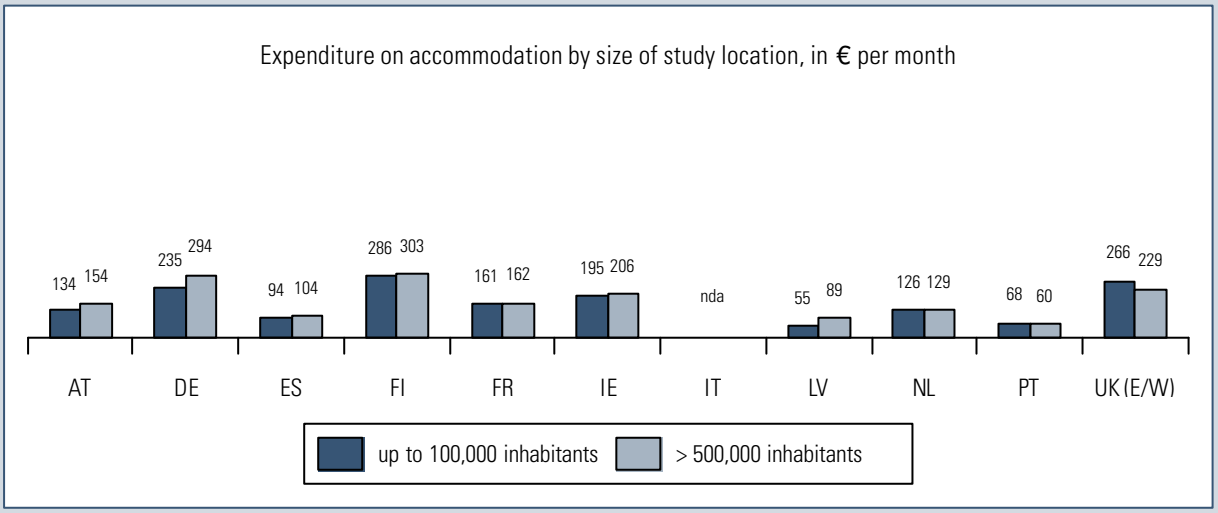
In all countries, students who maintain their own household spend the greatest proportion of their monthly outgoings on rent (including extra costs; top chart). In Finland students spend even more than a half of the total monthly budget on this item. And students in France (46%) and Spain (42%) spend only marginally less on this item. In the other surveyed countries between one quarter and one third of the budget is paid out on rent.

Even if age is controlled for as conditioning effect, the same relationship can be observed (centre chart). Although younger students prefer to rent cheaper types of accommodation, the rent relative to all expenditures remains the same. This can be explained by the fact that income is scheduled according to the needs. Mature students increase their income by earnings to the same extent as rents for more expensive forms of living grow.

Considerable proportions of an individual's budget are spent on tuition fees and social contributions in Portugal (14%) and the Netherlands (12%). Unfortunately, for many countries data on this item were not reported. In Austria, which introduced tuition fees from autumn 2001, these private contributions to the institution make up only 5% of the total budget..

Fig. 30: Student expenditure by size of study location





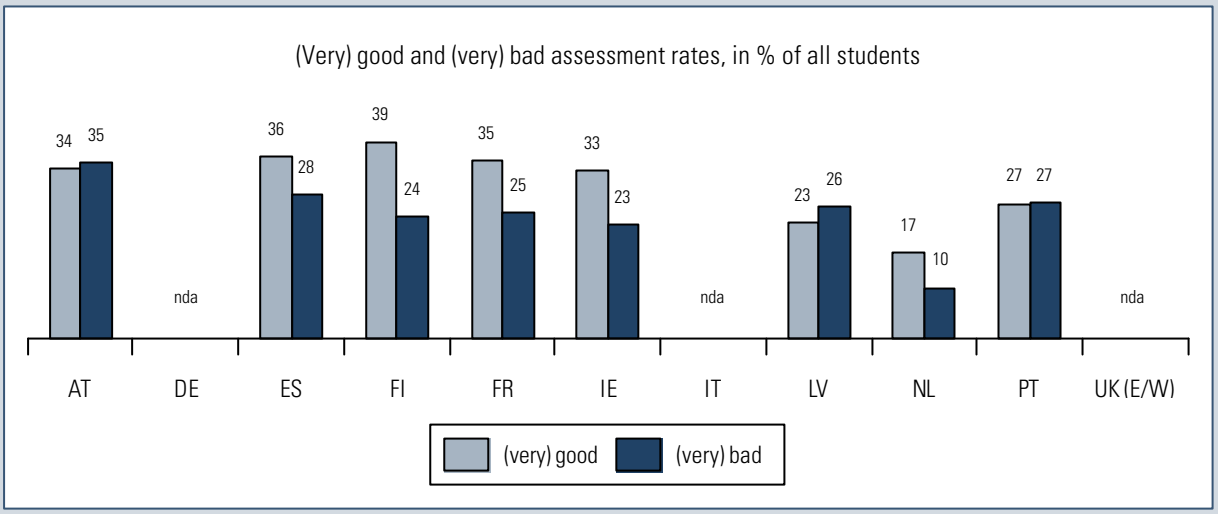
Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

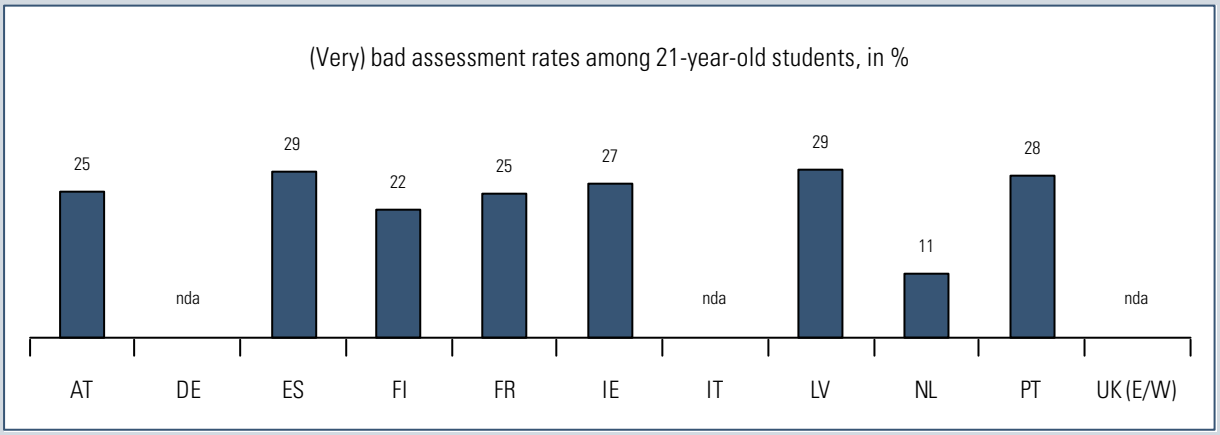
Student expenditure by size of study location

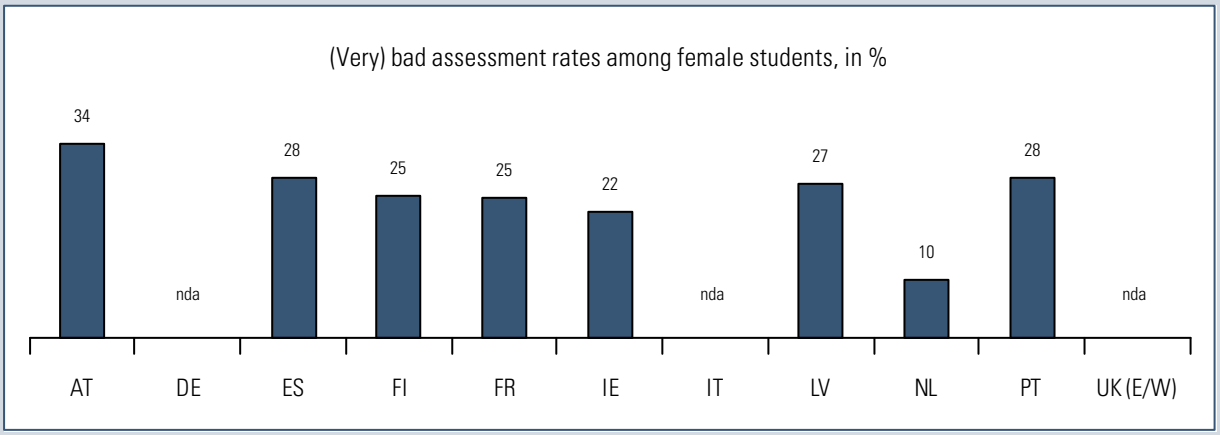
Regardless of the differing levels of average monthly expenses, the cost of living faced by students differs slightly depending on the size of study location and is influenced by the residential population in the study locations (top chart). This shows that in most of the participating countries students who are enrolled at higher education institutions in locations with fewer than 100,000 inhabitants have lower monthly expenses than their counterparts in larger study locations with up to 500,000 inhabitants. This correlation is clearly recognisable in Spain, Finland, Ireland, Latvia, Portugal and UK. In these countries, student life in the major cities is more expensive by between €59 and €102. This situation is slightly less pronounced in the Netherlands and Austria (where irregular expenditure is included).

The difference between students' monthly living expenses in smaller and larger study locations is influenced only to some degree by the lower rent levels in smaller locations. As the bottom chart illustrates, rent levels vary less than expenditure level. In UK it is even more expensive in smaller study locations than in urban areas. But in most countries students pay a slightly lower average sum for rent in the various forms of student accommodation in smaller towns than in the larger ones. It can be assumed that subsidies for students' regional rent mitigate some of these differences.

Fig. 31: Students' assessment of their financial situation







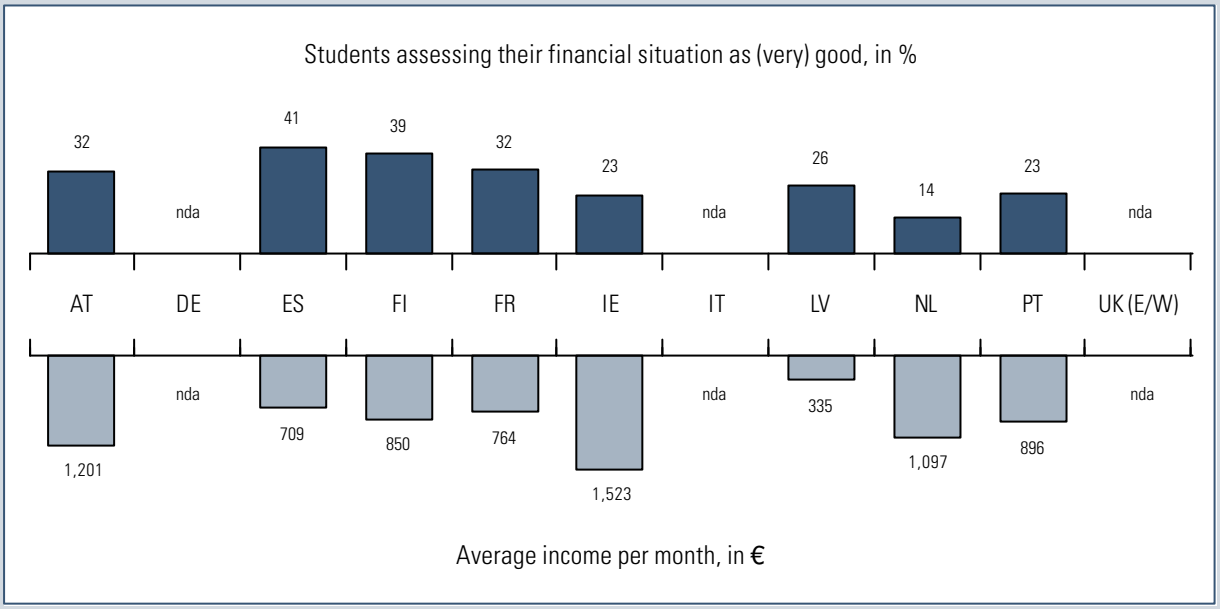
Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

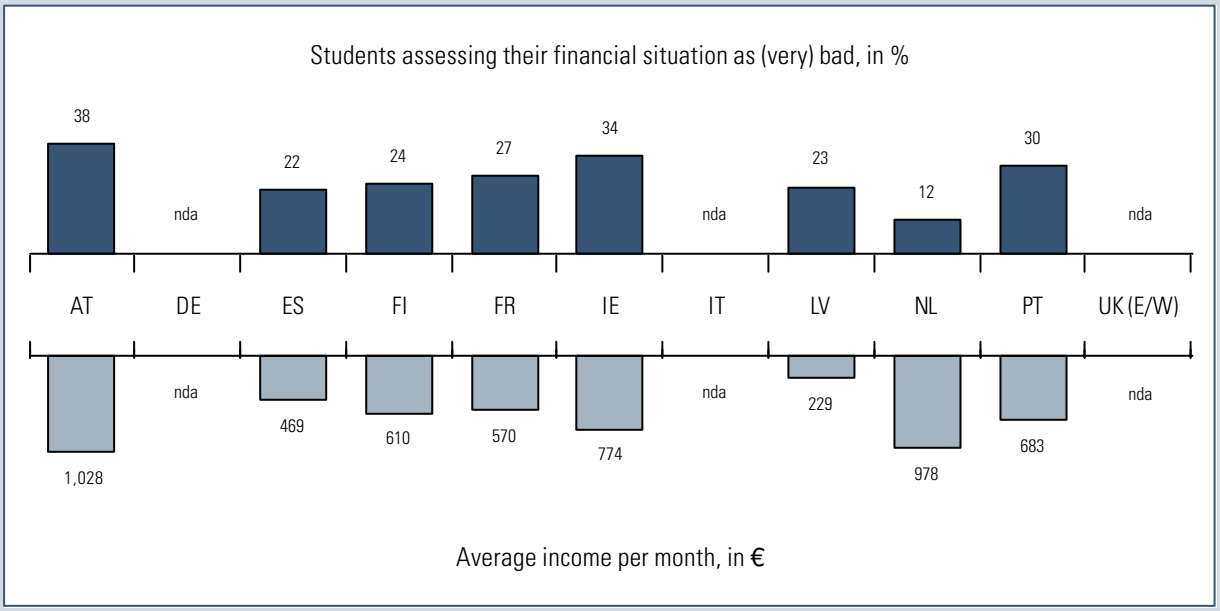
Students' assessment of their financial situation

The proportion of students who assess their individual financial situation as "good" or "very good" differs across the various countries (fig. 31, top chart). Among Austrian, Spanish, Finnish, French and Irish students, only a minority of about one third of the student population can be found who express this degree of satisfaction. Portugal and Latvia take a middle position. The lowest grade of satisfaction is found in the Netherlands with only 17% in agreement with an assessment of their financial situation as good.

However, more than one in five students across almost all countries assess their financial situation as "bad" or even "very bad". In Austria, such an assessment is given by one in three students. The assessment rates remain largely the same when younger students are asked with the exception of Austria, where younger students express dissatisfaction with their financial situation more often (centre chart). As it is illustrated by the bottom chart male and female students assess their financial situation more or less in same way.

Fig. 32: Students' assessment of their financial situation and their average income[1] – Students maintaining their own household





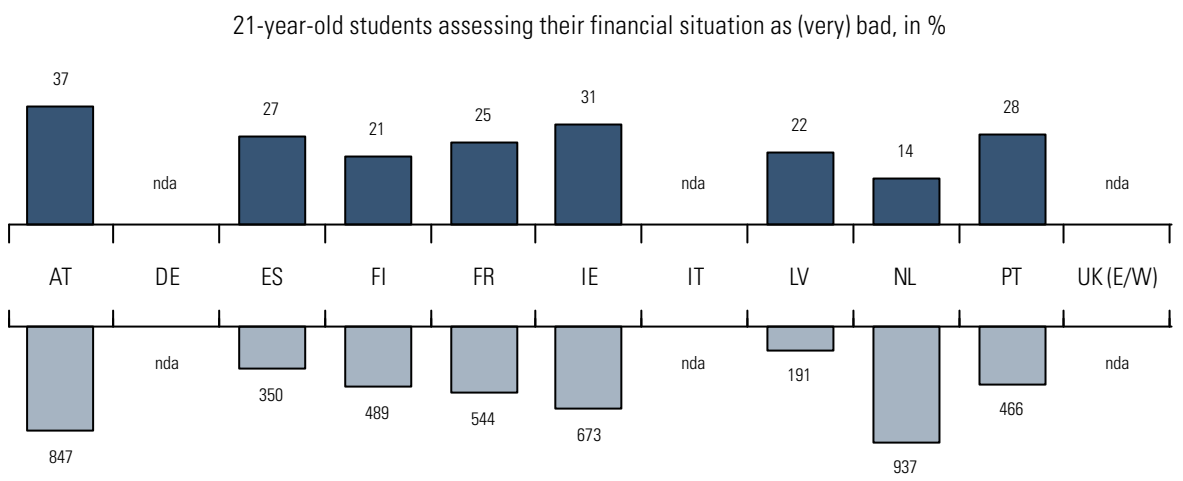
[1] Average income: cash and intangibles

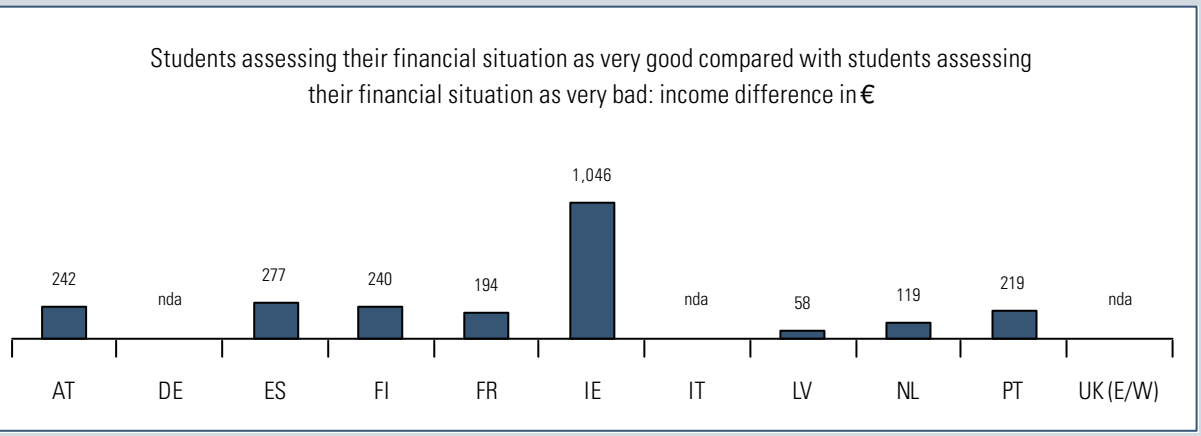
Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

Students' assessment of their financial situation and their average income – Students maintaining their own household

The degree of satisfaction with the individual financial situation rises as the average monthly income increases in the majority of countries (fig. 32). On Average, those students who assess their financial situation as "(very) bad" have a third less income than their counterparts who assess their situation an "(very) good". However, income differences vary in size. In Ireland, the former group have just under half as much income as those students with a much higher level of satisfaction. In the Netherlands the differences between both groups is equal to 11%. The objective income difference between a subjective "good" and subjective "bad" livelihood from the available income is, therefore, not always very great. Students' subjective assessment tends to depend on their expectations. The expectations attached to higher income levels rise as students grow older and is in line with the age-related consumer habits of the general public.

Fig. 32 cont.: Students' assessment of their financial situation and their average income[1] – Students maintaining their own household

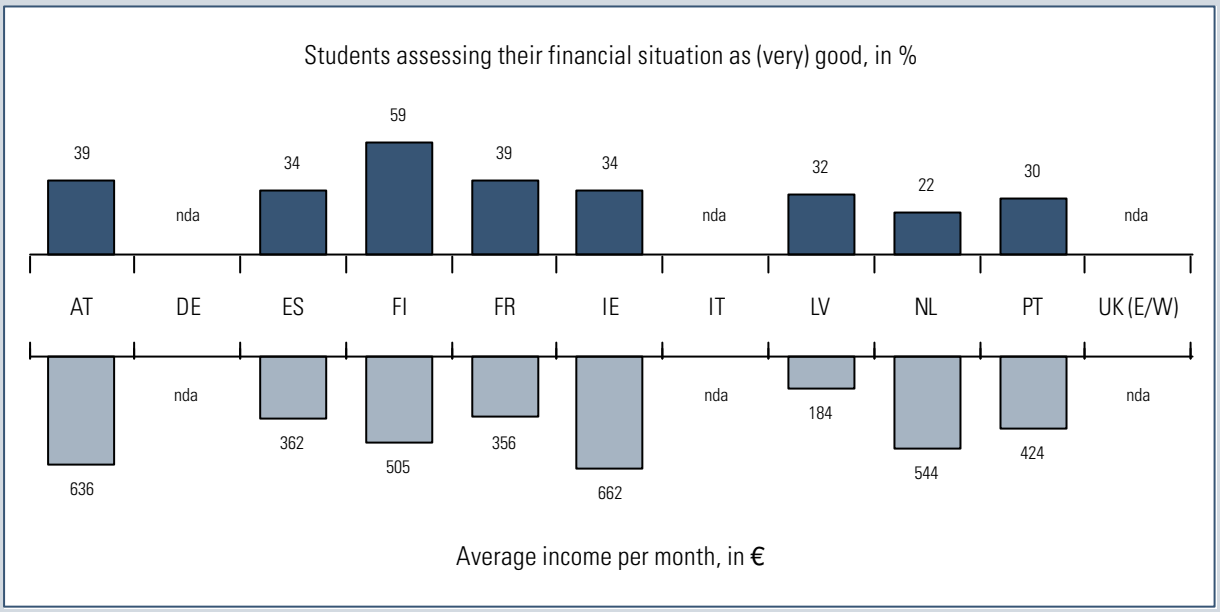


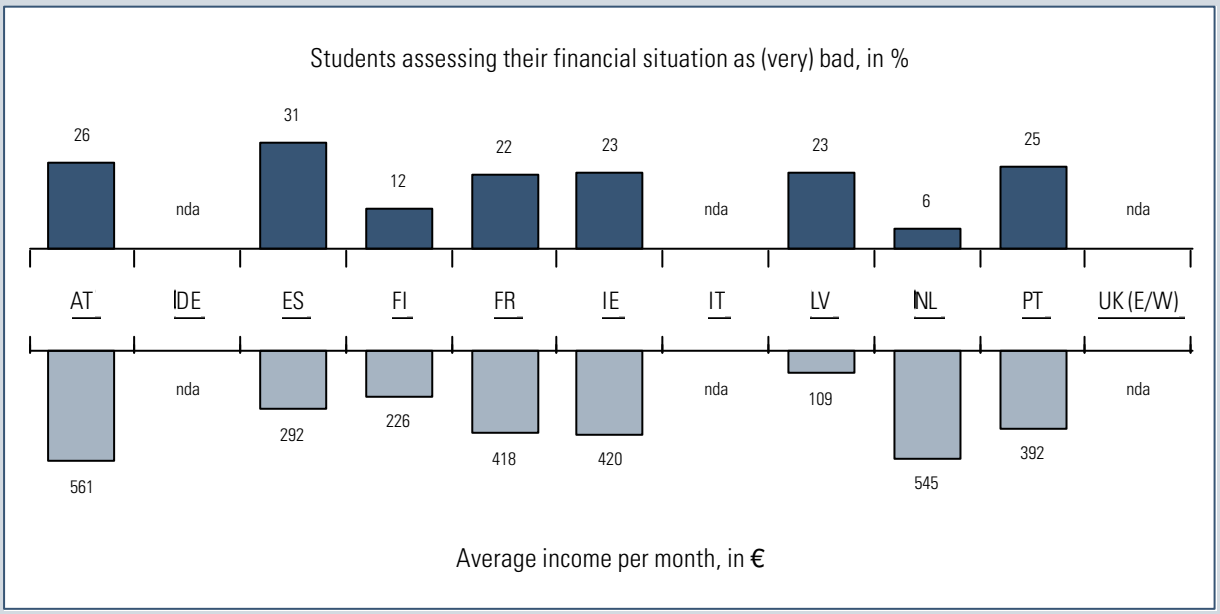


[1] Average income: cash and intangibles

Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

Fig. 32.1: Students' assessment of their financial situation and their average income[1] – Students living with parents/relatives

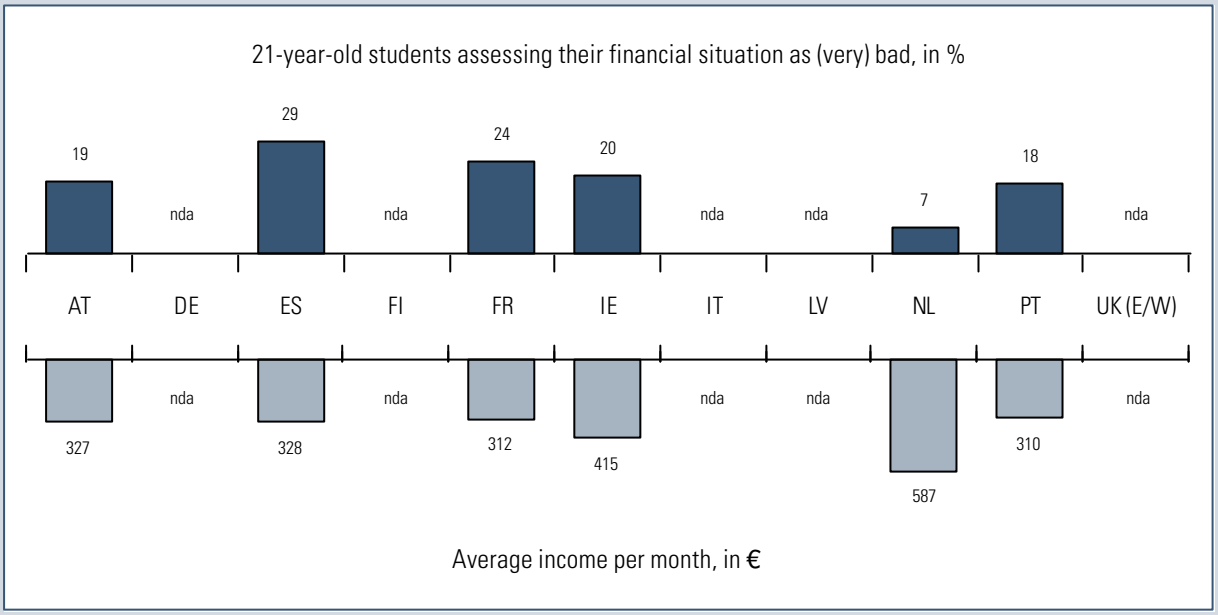


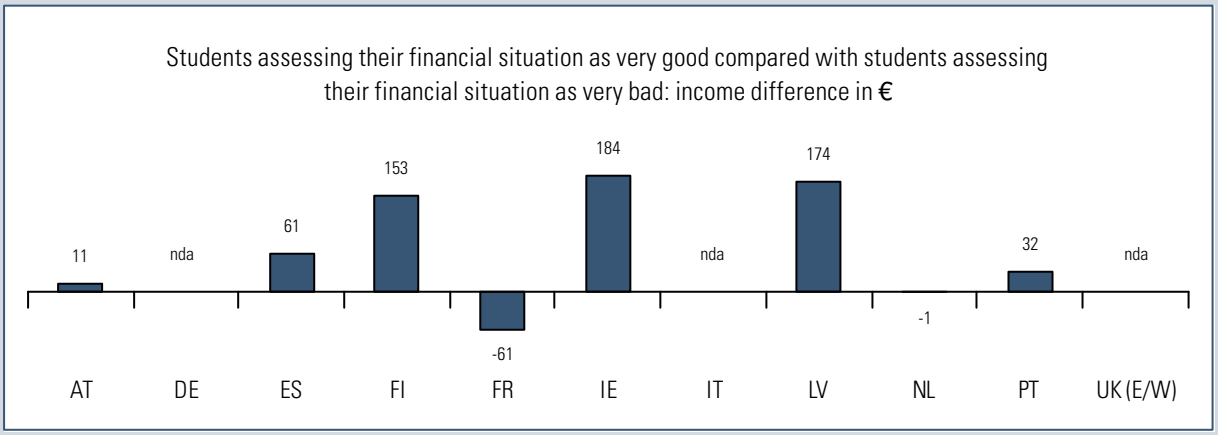


[1] Average income: cash only

Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

Fig. 32.1 cont.: Students' assessment of their financial situation and their average income[1] – Students living with parents/relatives





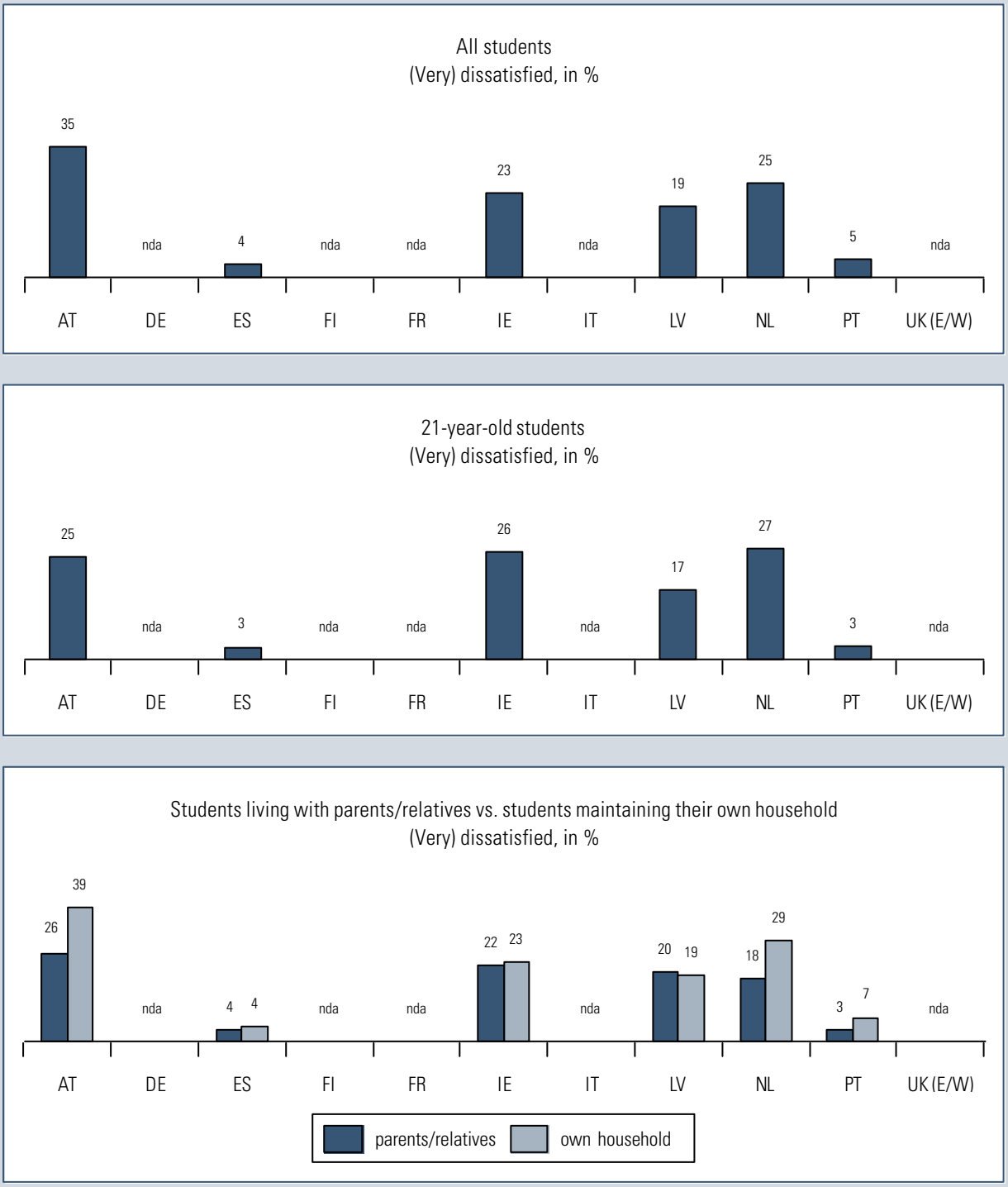
[1] Average income: cash only

Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

Students' assessment of their financial situation and their average income – Students living with parents/relatives

Students who live with their parents and who in general have only pocket-money for extra consumption needs at their disposal assess their financial situation more positively as the monthly amount of money rises (fig. 32.1), but – in contrast to the students having their own household – they tend to react more intensively. For example, in Austria, 39% of the students assess their financial situation as "(very) good" and 26% as "(very) bad", although the financial difference is marginal (€75). The highest percentages differences between the two groups are to be found in Finland, Latvia and Ireland. The same picture emerges if only students with an assessment in one of the extreme positions "very bad" or "very good" are compared (bottom chart).

Fig. 33: Students' assessment of their material well-being



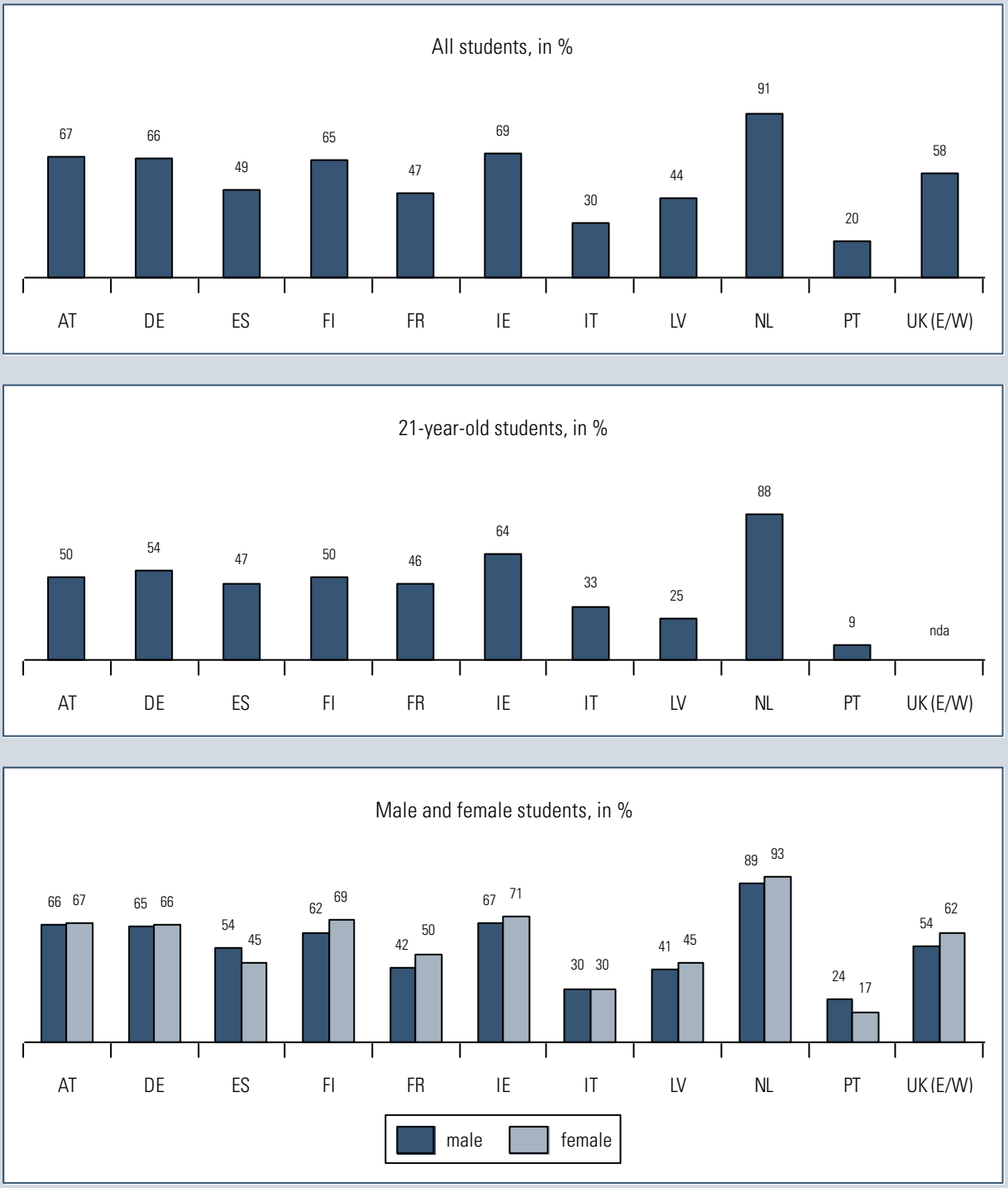
Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

Students' assessment of their material well-being

Students assess their overall situation with regard to material aspects of student life very differently from country to country. The rate of dissatisfaction varies between 4% in Spain and 35% in Austria. The variation does not appear to be highly correlated with differences in the objective variations of material well-being. One conditioning factor is age. The ratings of younger students are less critical than those of the older in a number of countries, particularly in Austria (-10 percentage points; centre chart).

In Austria and the Netherlands students living in their parents' home are less dissatisfied about their material well-being than those living on their own. In the other countries the rate of dissatisfaction is rather low on both sides.

Fig. 34: Student employment rate during term



Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

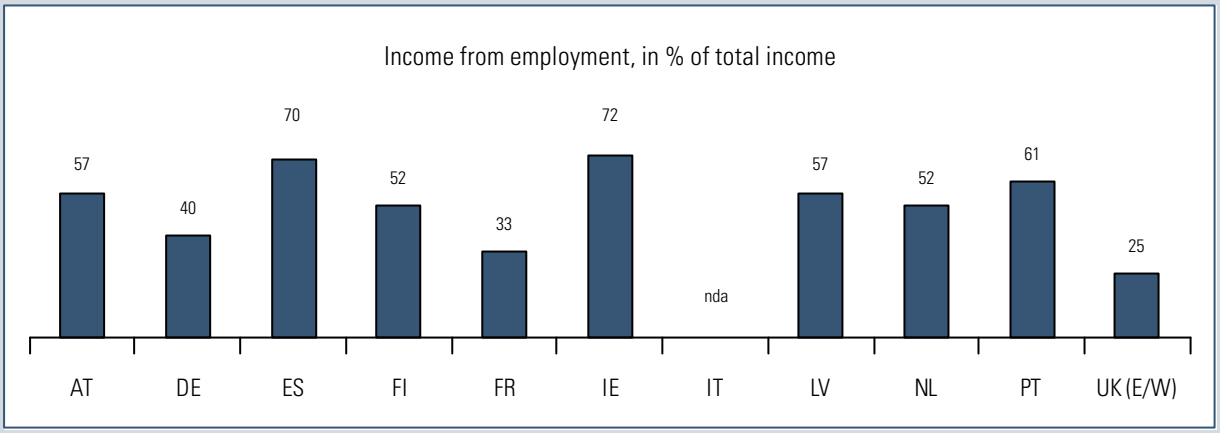
Student employment rate during term

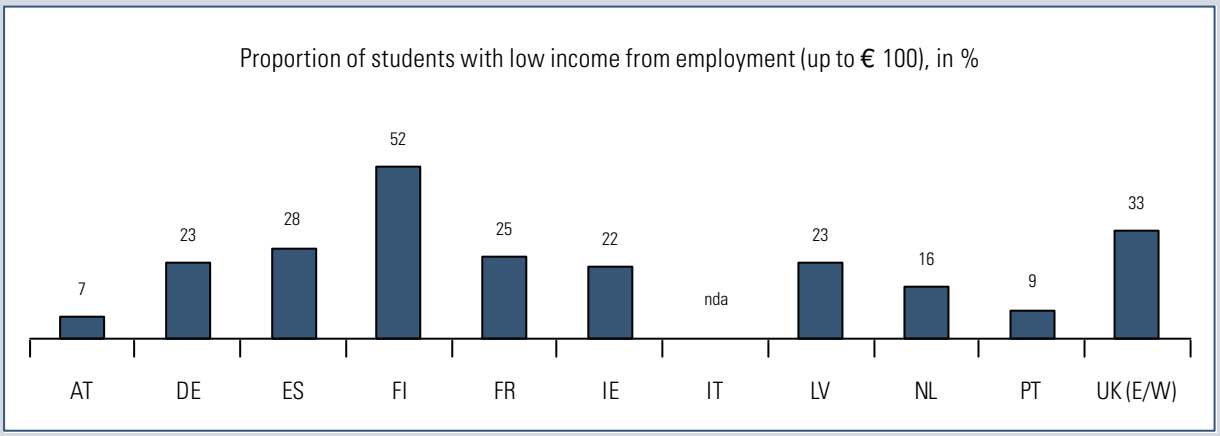
The practice of taking up employment while studying has become part of everyday life for a not insubstantial proportion of students, both during the lecture period (term/semester) as well as during the non-lecture period (recess). The proportion of students engaged in one type of employment or another, to varying extents and with varying regularity, ranges from 20% in Portugal or 30% in Italy to maximum values of 69% in Ireland or 91% in the Netherlands (top chart). Irrespective of employment rate weekly time spend in employment varies very widely (cf. fig. 37).

As the need to earn money tends to grow as students get older some of the differences between the countries might be explained by different age levels of the student population in the different countries. In the centre chart the age effect is controlled showing the differences of only the 21-years old students.

The frequency of gainful occupation reaches a slightly lower level if all countries are compared, but the typical differences between counties remain. The traditional pattern of more male than female students being employed can only be traced in the Iberian countries Portugal and Spain, while in all other countries the share of jobbing female students is slightly higher than that of male students.

Fig. 35: Income from employment – Working students maintaining their own household





Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

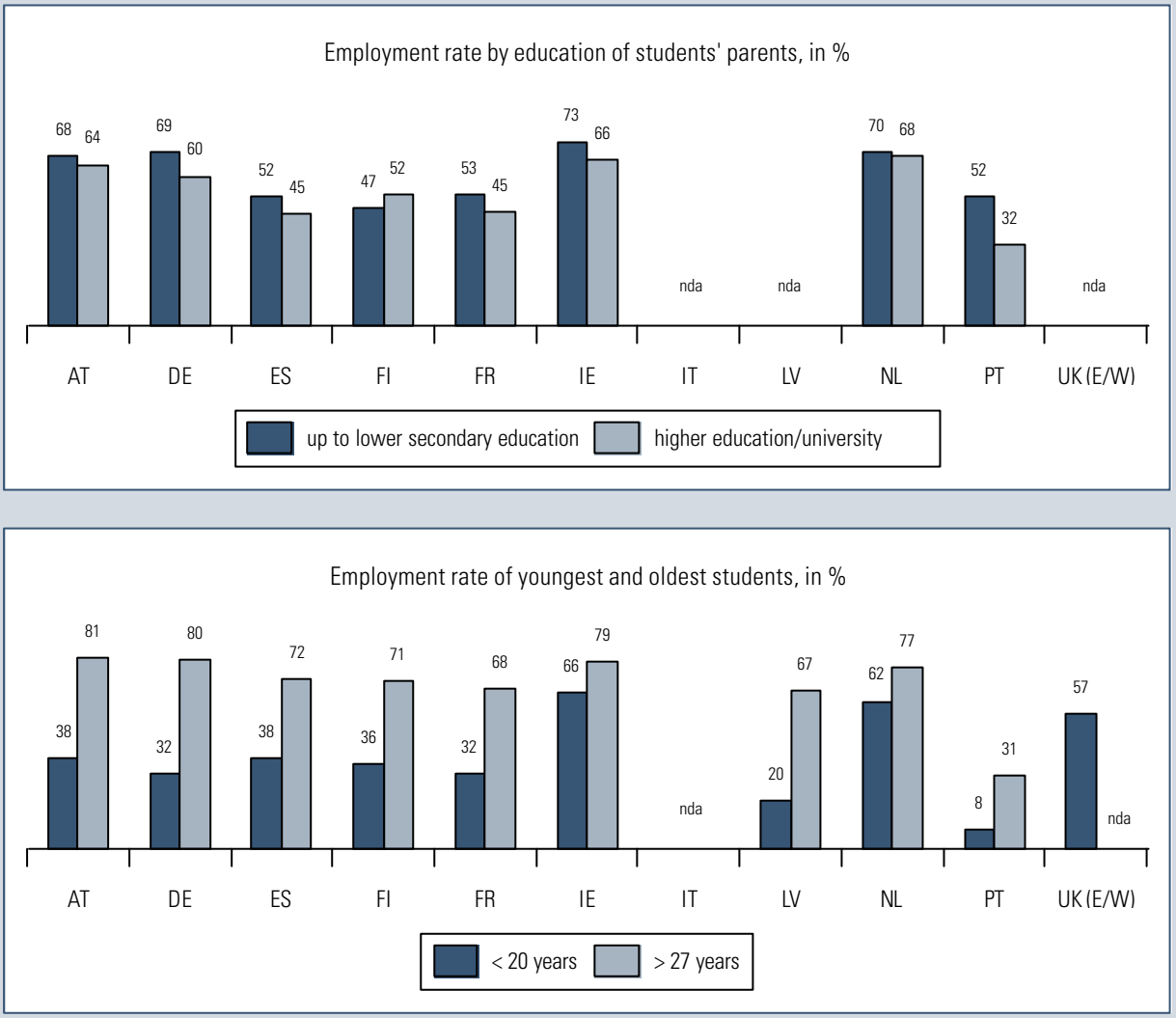
Income from employment – Working students maintaining their own household

Students with income from employment use these resources to fund a more or less high proportion of their living expenses (fig. 35, top chart). Students in Ireland and Spain cover nearly three quarters of their monthly income requirement through earnings from employment pursued alongside their studies. In Austria, Finland, Latvia, the Netherlands and Portugal, students cover more than half of their monthly income requirement, while in France and the United Kingdom only around a quarter to a third of the monthly income requirement is covered in this way. Germany lies somewhere in-between these two poles (40%).

The significance of student earnings from employment varies substantially from one country to the next. The proportion of students who earn no more than €100 per month from employment is used as an indicator for the significance of additional earnings.

It is assumed that additional earnings at such a level produce no problems for the time budget dedicated to studies. In Finland, more than half of the students make do with such a low level of earning. UK (33%) and Spain (28%) follow at an already substantial distance. And only around one tenth of Portuguese and Austrian students have such a low level of additional earnings. Conversely, this means that earnings from employment in most cases represent an important funding pillar in these countries.

Fig. 36: Student employment rate during term by parental education and by age of students



Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

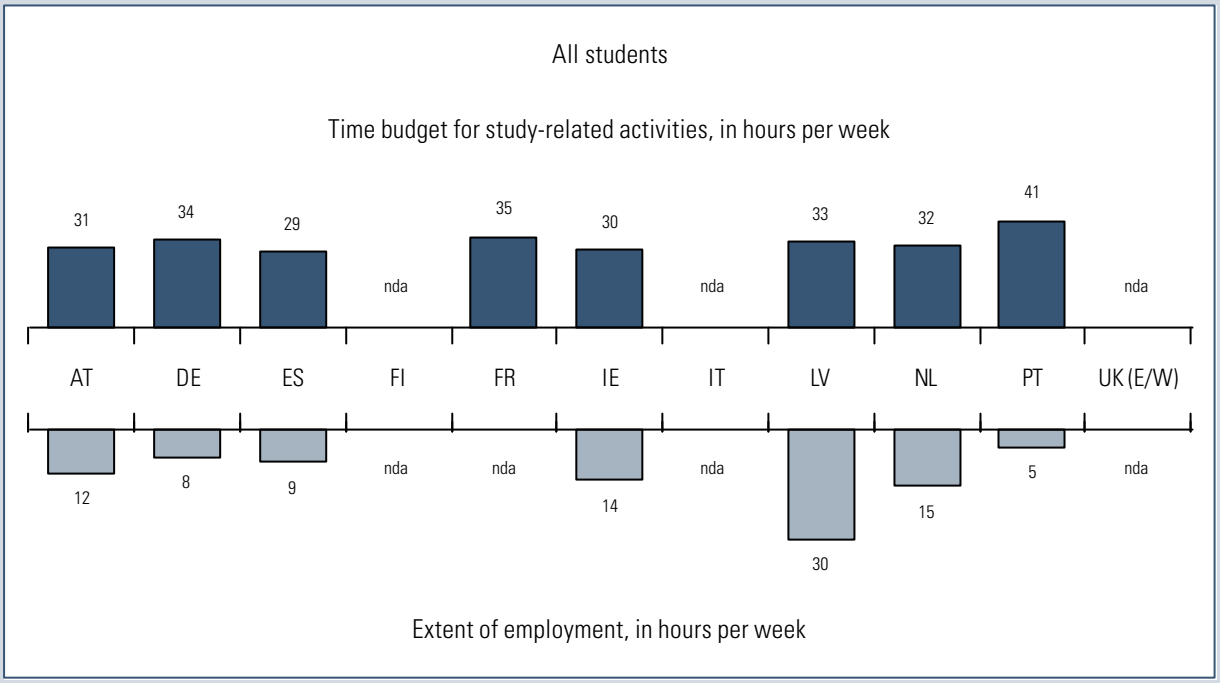
Student employment rate during term by parental education and by age of students

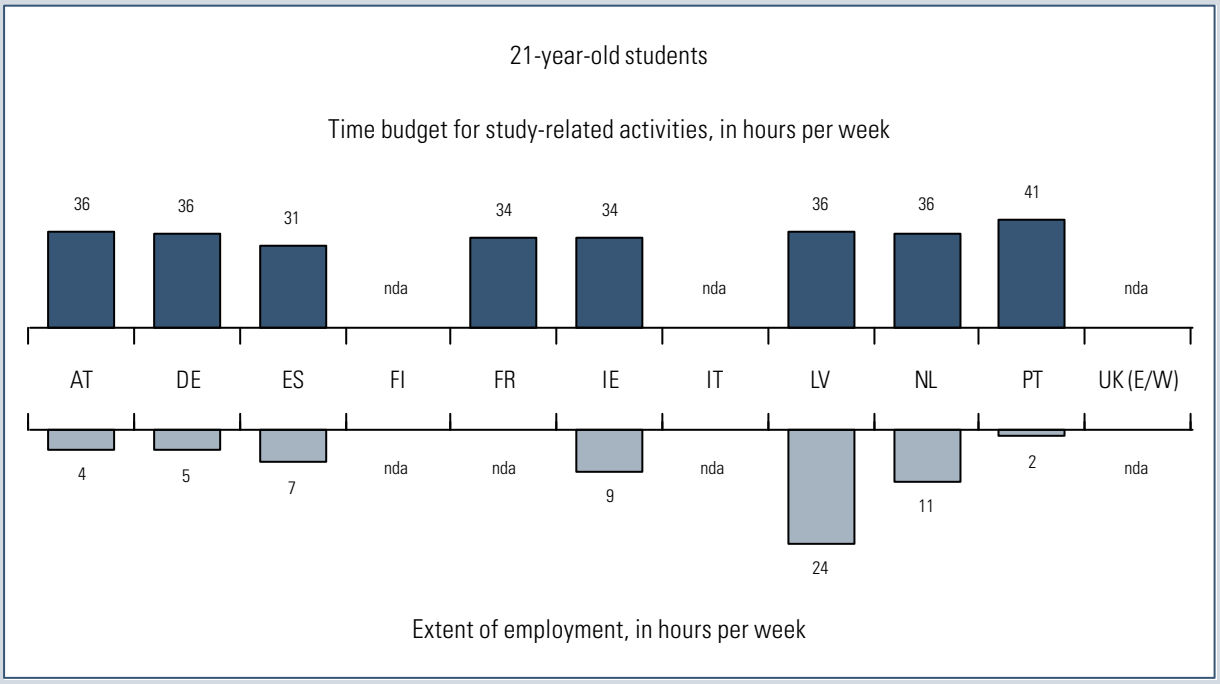
The proportion of working students in the student body varies from one country to the next. At the same time, the employment rate within countries differs depending on the social background of students as measured by the level of parental education (fig. 36, top chart).

Finland is one exception to this uniform pattern. However, it is also a country where all students are entitled for state support regardless of their social origin. In all other countries it can be seen that students with a lower social origin proportionally make more frequent use of personal earnings to cover their living expenses than their fellow students whose parents have a better education and assumedly a relatively high income. However, this identified correlation is relatively weak in some countries (Austria, the Netherlands).

A substantially clearer correlation exists between the age of students and the extent of their personal earnings (bottom chart). The degree of employment continues to increase as students grow older across all countries. The proportion of those whose personal earnings are used to cover their living expenses increases as does the average level of those earnings. Age-dependent changes in expectations are probably the main reasons for the increase in additional earnings.

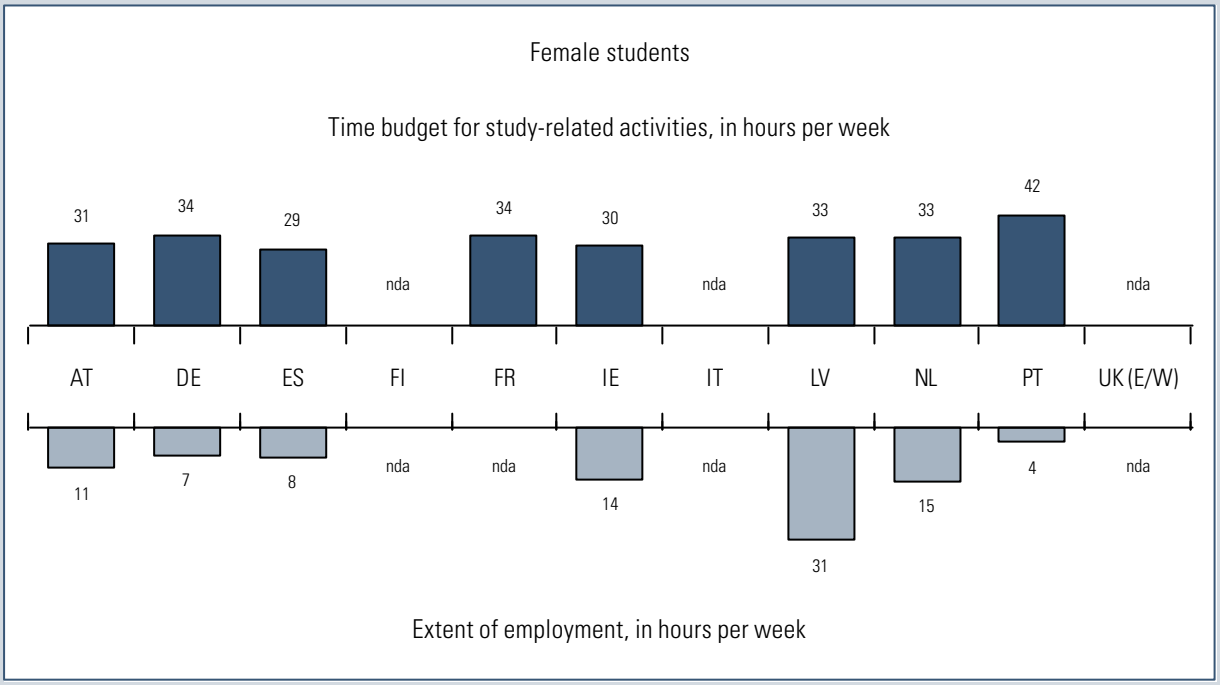
Fig. 37: Weekly time budget for study-related activities relative to the extent of employment





Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

Fig. 37 cont.: Weekly time budget for study-related activities relative to the extent of employment



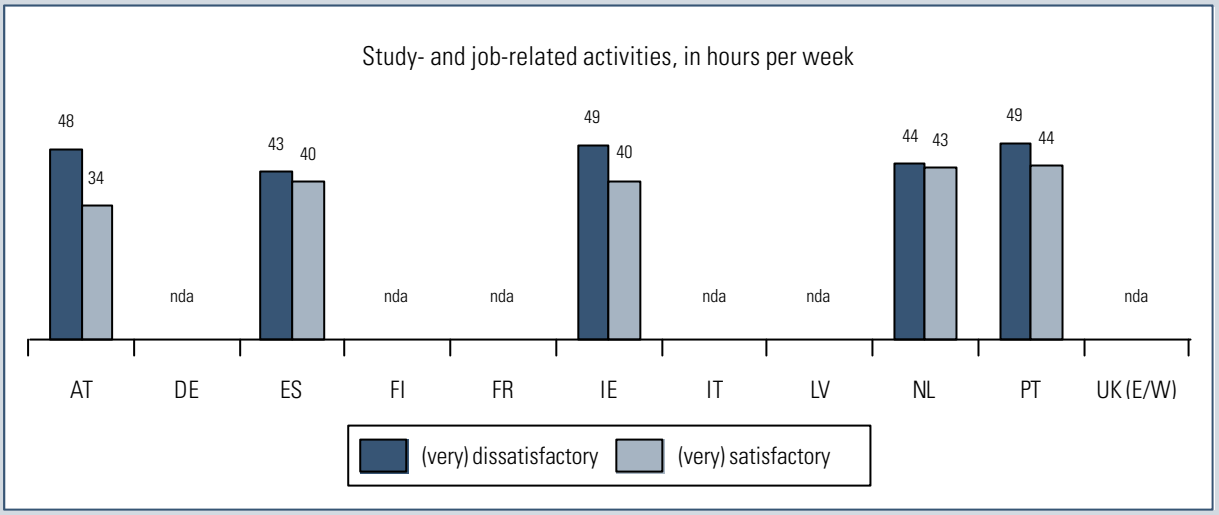
Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

Weekly time budget for study-related activities relative to the extent of employment

The average weekly time budget dedicated to the attendance of courses and personal study differs across the various participating countries: In Portugal, the average study week amounts to around 41 hours, in Spain it is 29 hours (fig.37). In all other surveyed countries, the study loads fall somewhere in-between these two poles in various gradations, but most between 30 and 35 hours per week. In addition to the study load comes time spent in employment. Apart from Latvia, working students spend 8 to 15 hours a week in paid employment. Portugal shows a much lower value of five hours per week which allows a full concentration on study work. Latvian students spend 30 hours per week in order to supplement of their budget to cover living costs.

The extent of student employment reduces the time budget dedicated to studies and to leisure activities. Added together, study load and employment load amount to a time budget of about 43 hours per week in most of the countries. Students in Latvia have the highest overall time budget at 63 hours per week. Even, if age effects are controlled, the structural differences remain the same, only the level of time spent on studying is slightly higher and the time spent in jobs slightly lower (bottom chart). There are no differences caused by gender (cf. 37 cont.).

Fig. 38: Students' assessment of their workload by extent of study- and job-related activity



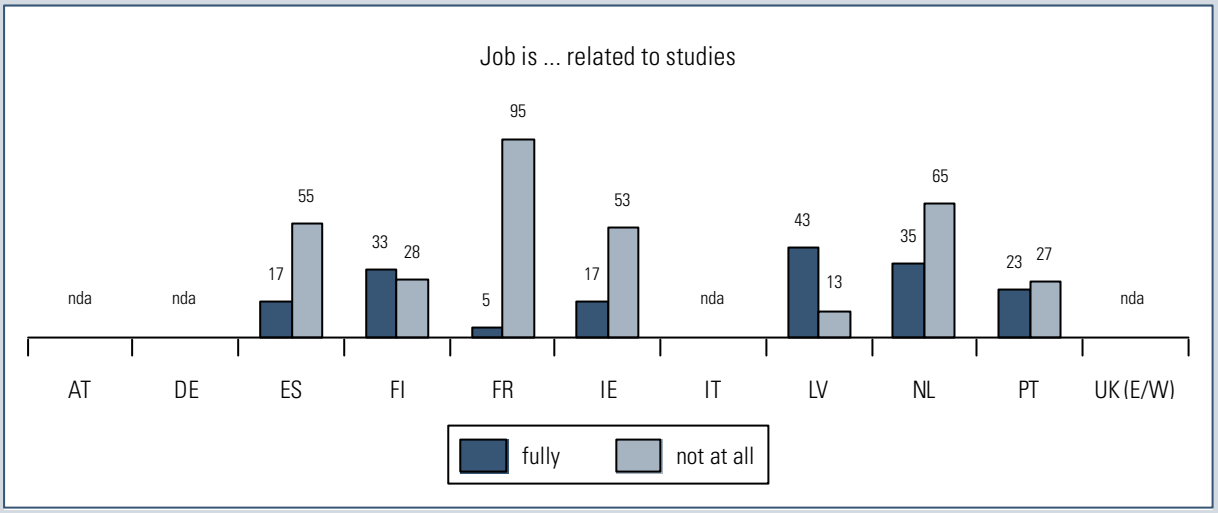
Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

Students assessment of their workload by extent of study- and job-related activity

Individual students have a greater or lesser overall workload than the average time budget which has been identified regarding the time dedicated to the attendance of courses, to personal study and to paid employment. In fact, the overall burden can scatter relatively widely. Seen against this background, it is necessary to ask how many hours workload per week students would still assess their as being acceptable. This answer was collected on the basis of self-assessments given by students. The spectrum of weekly hours which students considered to be (very) satisfactory ranged from 34 hours in Austria to 44 hours in Portugal. All other countries have values which lie in-between these two values.

Asked about which weekly time budget students considered to be (very) burdensome, students in Spain and the Netherlands quoted a value of 43 and 44 hours per week, while Austrian, Irish and Portuguese students cited 48 and 49 hours. It is therefore clear that students' assessment of the degree of satisfaction in the face of a certain workload is very subjective or system-bound.

Fig. 39: Relation of job to studies

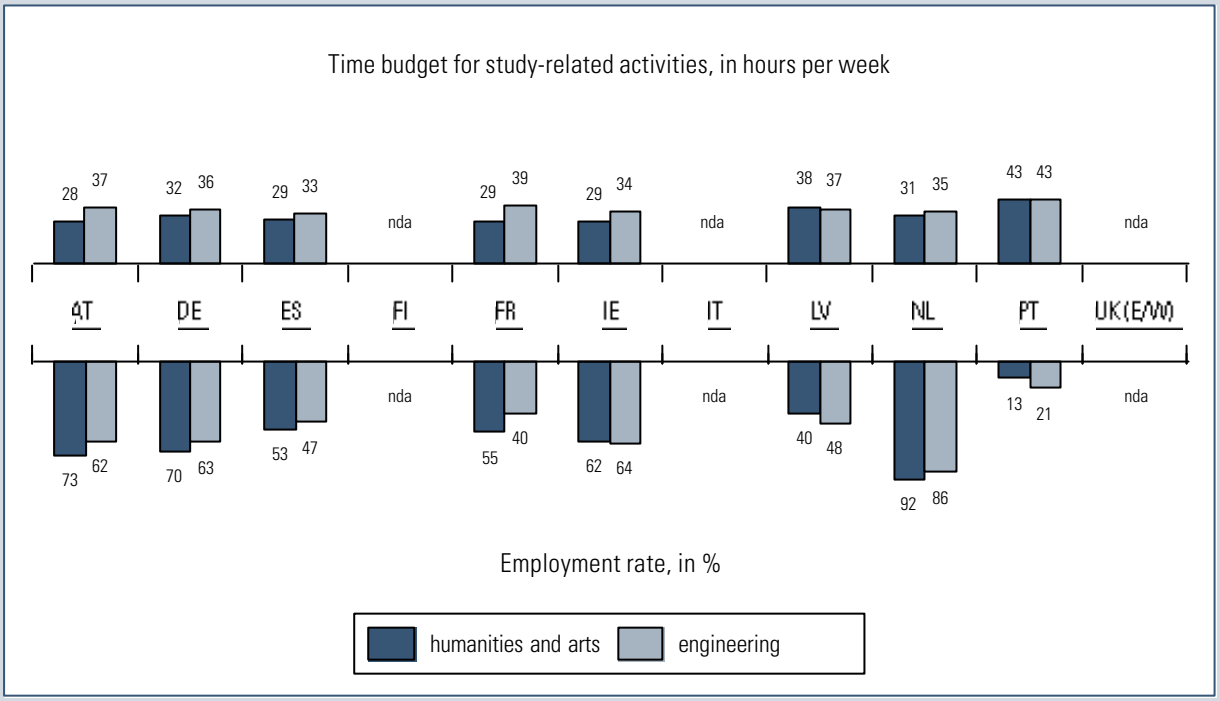


Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

Relation of job to studies

Data from the majority of countries indicate that the relationship between students' job and their studies is weak. In France only 5% of the jobbing students assess their work to be highly related to their studies. Latvian students succeed combining their studies and gainful employment. In Finland and the Netherlands about one in three jobbing students see their job as fully related to their studies.

Fig. 40: Weekly time budget for study-related activities and employment rate by field of study



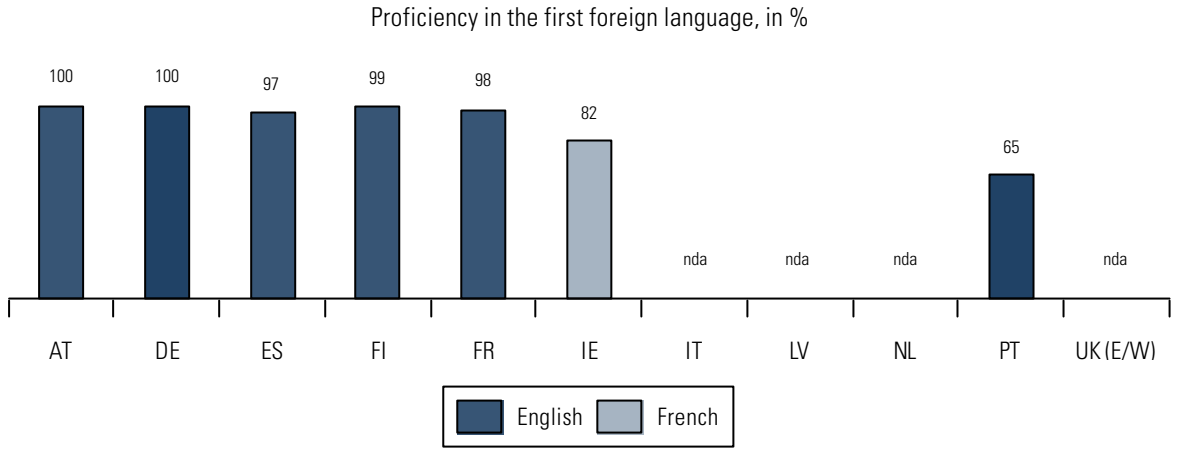
Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

Weekly time budget for study-related activities and employment rate by field of study

The culture of specific disciplines, including typical features, such as the extent to which a degree course is regimented, plays a substantial role as far as the weekly time budget for attendance of courses and personal study is concerned. Irrespective of the general level of the weekly time budget in the subject groups "humanities and arts" or "engineering", comparison of the two subject groups between the various countries reveals two clear-cut models. In the majority of the participating countries, namely in Austria, Germany, Spain, France, Ireland and the Netherlands, students reading engineering subjects spend between four and ten hours per week more on their studies than do their counterparts reading humanities and arts subjects. Hardly any significant subject-specific differences in the weekly time budget dedicated to studies are found among students in Portugal and Latvia.

The higher amount of time spent on study-related activities on courses in the subject area "engineering" appears to affect the proportion of students working alongside their studies. Except Ireland, Portugal and Latvia, the employment rate is higher for students of humanities and arts.

Fig. 41: Student language proficiency



Proficiency in first, second and third foreign language

	Language, in %					
	First		Second		Third	
AT	English	100	French	57	Italian	36
DE	English	100	French	73	Spanish	37
ES	English	97	French	36	German	10
FI	English	99	Swedish	92	German	41
FR	English	98	Spanish	63	German	60
IE	French	82	German	40	Spanish	22
IT	nda		nda		nda	
LV	English	nda	Russian	nda	German	nda
NL	nda		nda		nda	
PT	English	65	French	22	Spanish	17
UK (E/W)	nda		nda		nda	

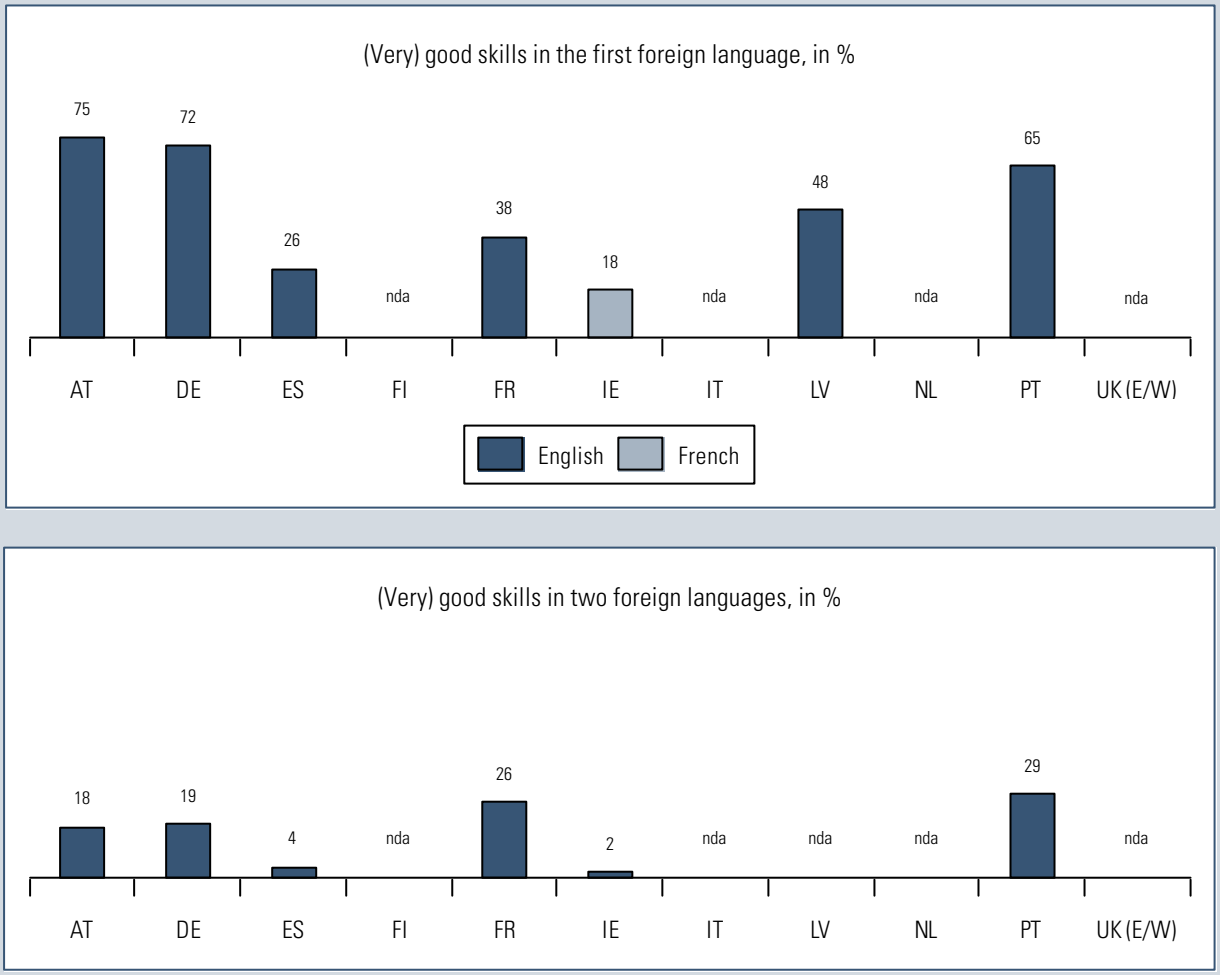
Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

Student language proficiency

The ability to communicate in another language is one of the key qualifications in a Knowledge Society. Sound foreign language skills are important prerequisites for international communication in business and industry, in science, research and education, and on the World Wide Web. It is essential for shaping the "European Higher Education Area" as well. In all surveyed countries except Ireland where English is the mother-tongue, English was the most widespread foreign language among the surveyed students (top chart). In each case (except Portugal 65%), at least 97% of the students stated that they had a knowledge of this first foreign language. Ireland is a special case. Four out of five of the Irish students have knowledge of a first foreign language, in this case French.

As far as the second and third foreign languages are concerned, the situation becomes less uniform and, in some cases, much less positive (see table). As an advanced example 92% of the Finnish students claim to have a knowledge of a second foreign language (Swedish), and 41% have a knowledge of a third foreign language (German). About three quarters of German students also have a second (French) and 37% a third foreign language (Spanish). Similar proportions are to be found among students in France. 63% claim to have knowledge of Spanish as a second foreign language, while 60% claim skills in German. Latvia is the only country where students are familiar with the Russian language as the second foreign language, partially due to the Russian speaking minority in the Latvian population and the recent history were Russian was an official language.

Fig. 42: Degree of language proficiency



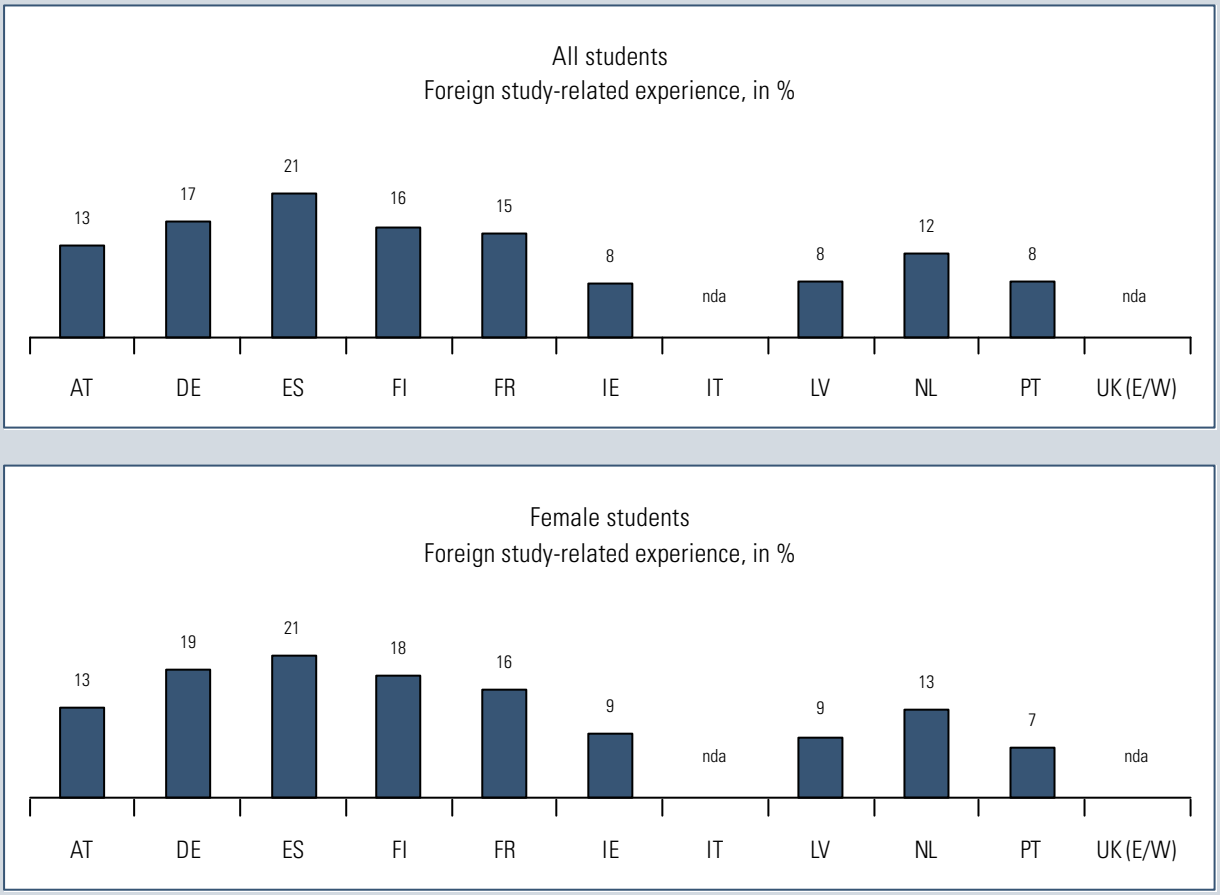
Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

Degree of language proficiency

Although English is most widespread as a foreign language among students, this fact cannot be regarded as any statement of the quality of these skills. The proportion of students who claim to have good to very good written and spoken language skills varies from one country to the next (top chart): In Spain, this group only accounts for one quarter of the student body, in France for only for little more than one third. The next best at a significant distance is Latvia (48%). The proportions in Austria and Germany are more than 70%, somewhat higher than in Portugal (65%).

The percentage of really multilingual students is at a very low state in most of the participating countries (bottom chart): In Portugal and France do a quarter of the students believe that they have a good or very good knowledge of two and more foreign languages. This is followed at a large distance by German (19%) and Austrian (18%) students. The corresponding values are even lower in Ireland and Spain at 2% and 4% each.

Fig. 43: International student mobility



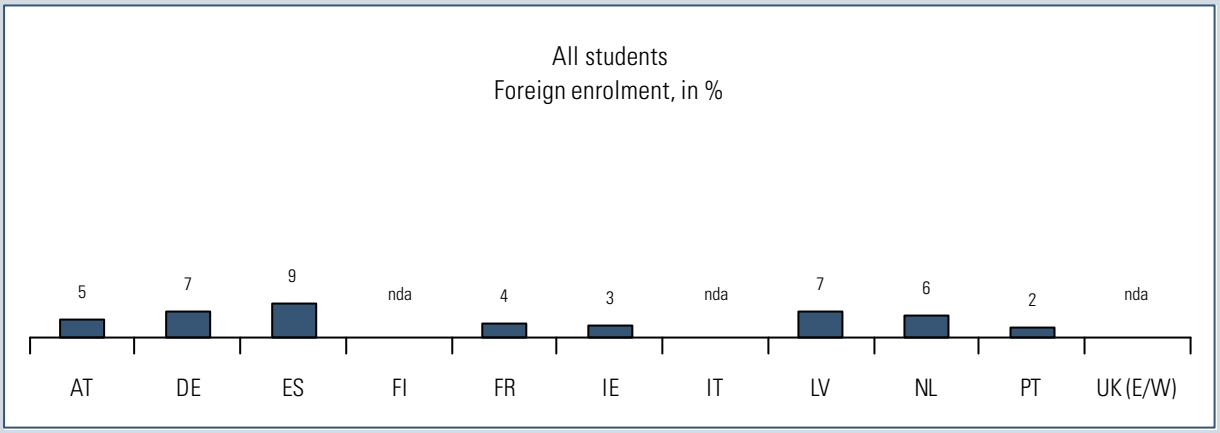
Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

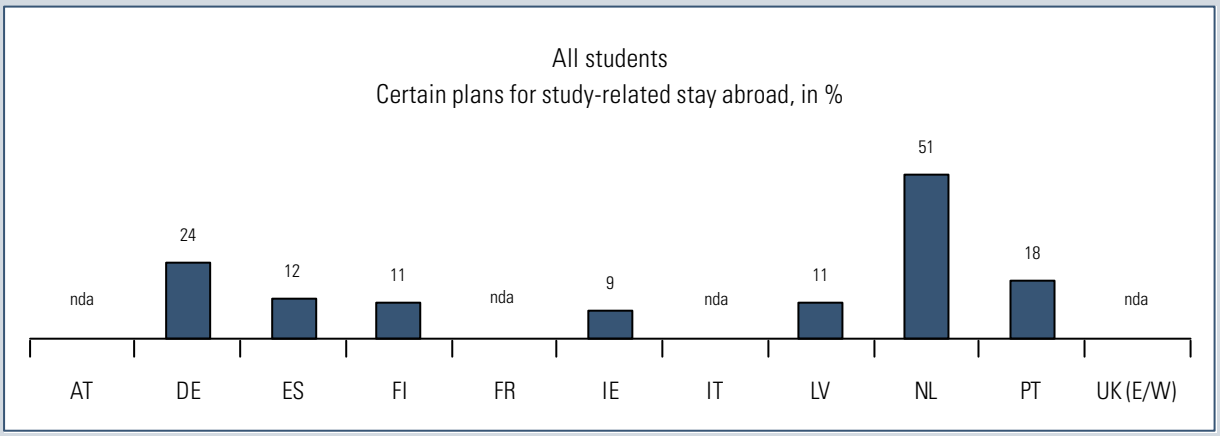
International student mobility (1)

Many students in the participating European countries venture across national borders to study, absolve an internship, a language course or similar (top chart). The most active students according to the data are Spanish, where one in five students had completed some form of study-related stay abroad. In the other countries between 8% and 17% of students had completed a period of practical training abroad, a language course or internship. The lowest ratios are to be found in Latvia, Portugal and Ireland, the highest of this range in Germany. Female students are more mobile than male students in nearly all countries (bottom chart).

The proportion of students who had completed a temporary period of study at a foreign university or college (fig. 43 cont.; top chart) is much lower. Portugal and Ireland have low ratios with just 2% to 3% and Latvia, Germany and Spain have the highest marks at between 7% and 9%. It is interesting to note that the league table of countries has changed for some countries, most notably for Latvia. The large majority of students who go abroad enrol in university courses.

Fig. 43 cont.: International student mobility





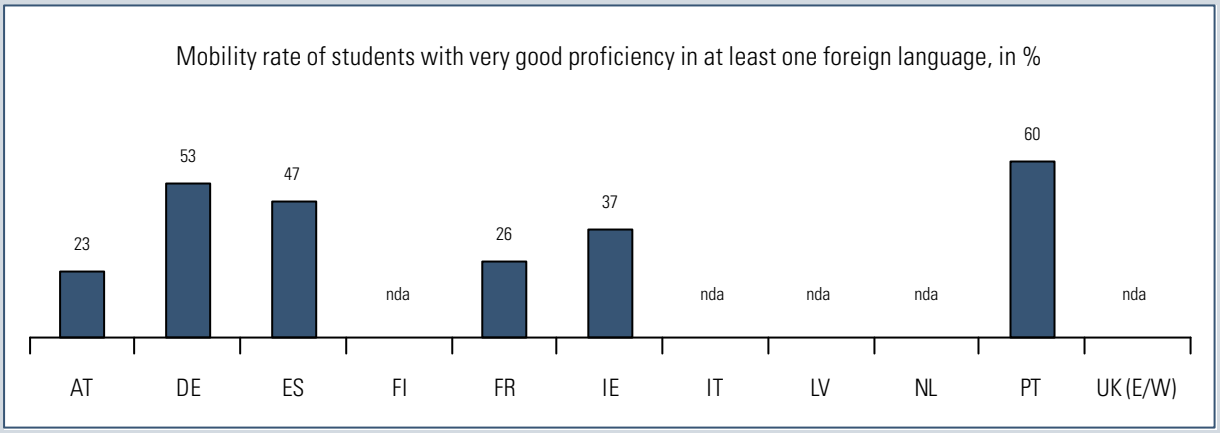
Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

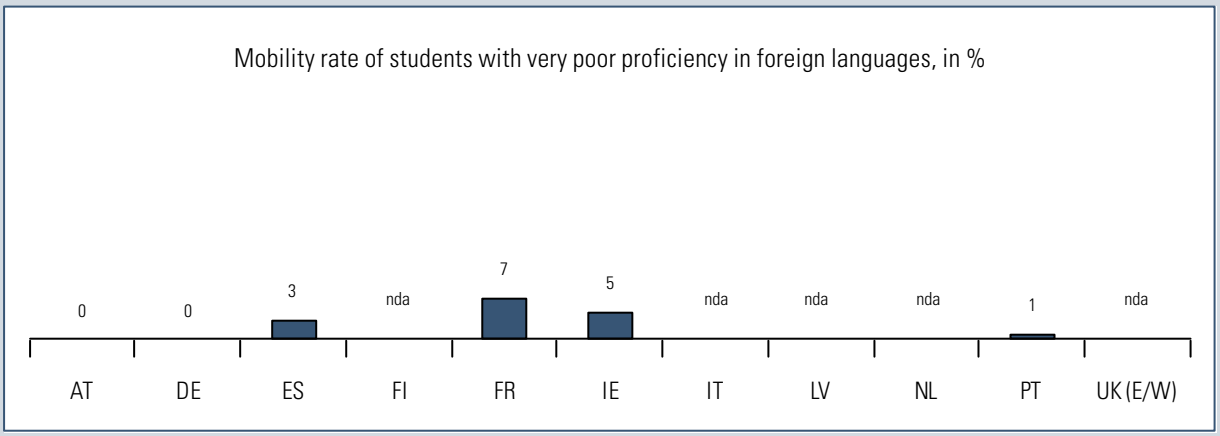
International student mobility (2)

A high foreign study rate does not necessarily mean a correspondingly high foreign enrolment rate and vice versa. Austrian students, for example, go abroad relatively frequently for study-related stays (e.g. language courses), however, only very few of them also enrol at a foreign higher education institution.

Taking the plans for going abroad for study related stays as indicators of potential demand (fig.43 cont.; bottom chart), nearly half of the Dutch students intend to study cross border. In Germany such an intention is declared by one quarter of the student body.

Fig. 44: Correlation between language proficiency and international student mobility





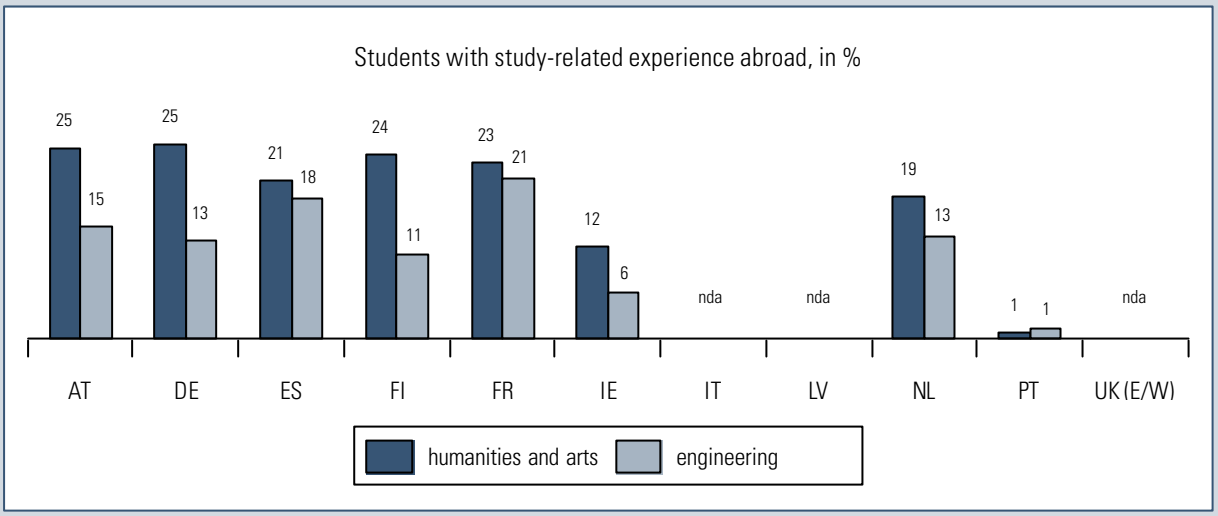
Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

Correlation between language proficiency and international student mobility

Besides other factors, foreign language skills have a strong influence on the international mobility of students. It can be seen in all countries that the better students assessed their spoken and written proficiency in the foreign language they had learnt, the higher was their participation rate in international student mobility. Of the students with very good foreign language skills (top chart), up to 60% (Portugal) completed a stay abroad. Compared with the overall figures of international mobility in Fig.43 the mobility rates of those with high foreign language competencies are higher by between just under a factor of two (France, Austria) up to a factor of eight (Portugal).

As the quality of the foreign language skills fell so too did the proportion of study-related stays abroad (bottom chart). The fact that the international student mobility values recorded here were much lower for students with very poor foreign language skills applied to all countries. They ranged from 1% (Portugal) to 7% (France) and thus only achieved a fraction of the above-mentioned values. The survey at hand provides no details on when language skills were acquired. This means that the question regarding the extent to which the foreign language skills affect international mobility and/or conversely international mobility affects foreign language skills remains unanswered.

Fig. 45: International student mobility by field of study

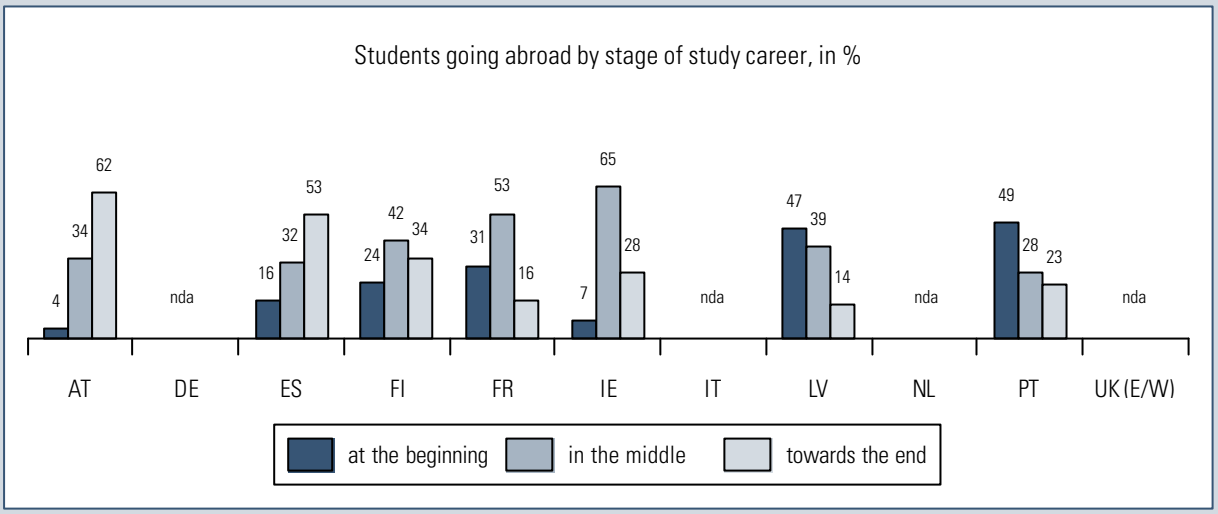


Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

International student mobility by field of study

International student mobility is dependent on a large number of determinants. Differences in the various subject-specific cultures are one important factor of influence. Regardless of the general degree of international mobility in individual countries, it is possible to ascertain that students of engineering are consistently much less likely to complete a study-related period abroad than are their fellow students reading humanities and arts disciplines. The differences in mobility frequencies between human arts and engineering students are greatest with more than ten percentage points in Austria, Germany and Finland and negligible in France and Spain.

Fig. 46: Study-related experience abroad by stage in study career



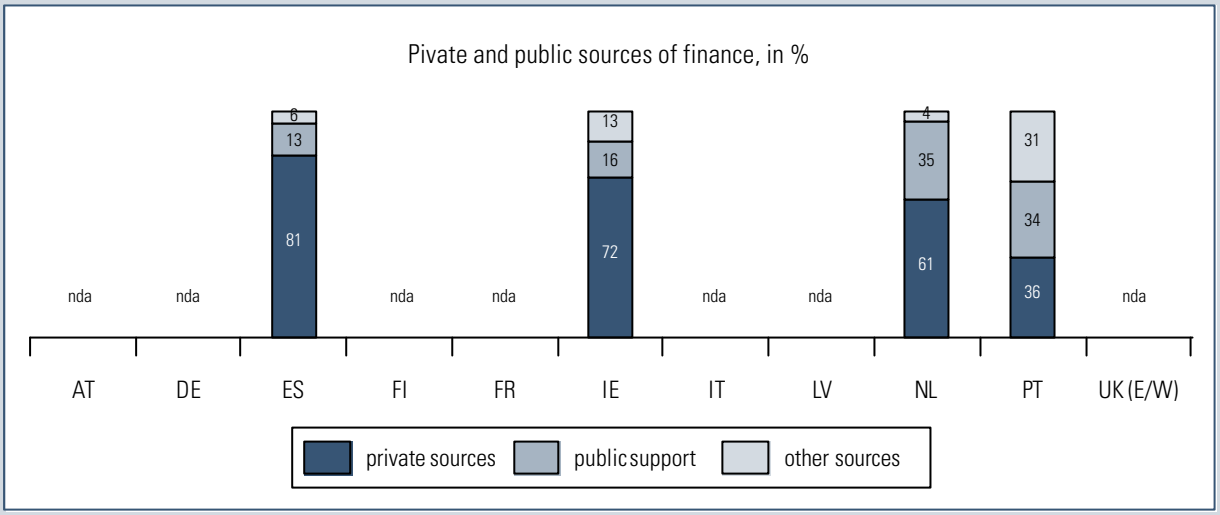
Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

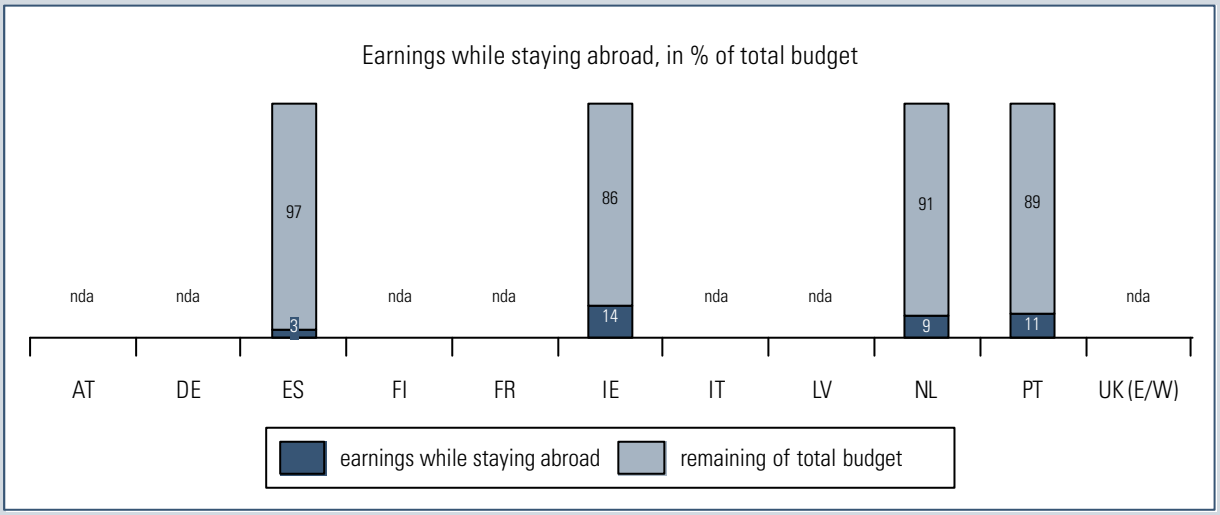
Study-related experience abroad by stage in study career

Only relatively few students complete study-related periods abroad at the beginning of their studies. This situation applies to all countries which provided data on this aspect with the exception of Portugal and Latvia. One reason could be that study periods abroad generally have to be extensively organised well in advance. In many cases, such preparations will not yet have been completed in the start-up phase of a degree course. Most students prefer to spend time abroad at a later period: In Austria and Spain clear preference can be seen for going abroad towards the end of the degree course, with highest proportions of doing so.

By contrast, in France, Finland and Ireland the majority who had been abroad for a study-related purpose had decided to do this midway through their studies. The different preferences might be conditioned partly by the still very different patterns of the national study systems which still persist. It will be interesting to see if the harmonisation of study systems within the Bologna process will change these preferences. Ireland can be taken as an example of the new two-tier system of bachelor and master degree courses. There, two thirds of the mobile students seem to go abroad in between these two levels.

Fig. 47: Sources of finance for study-related activities abroad





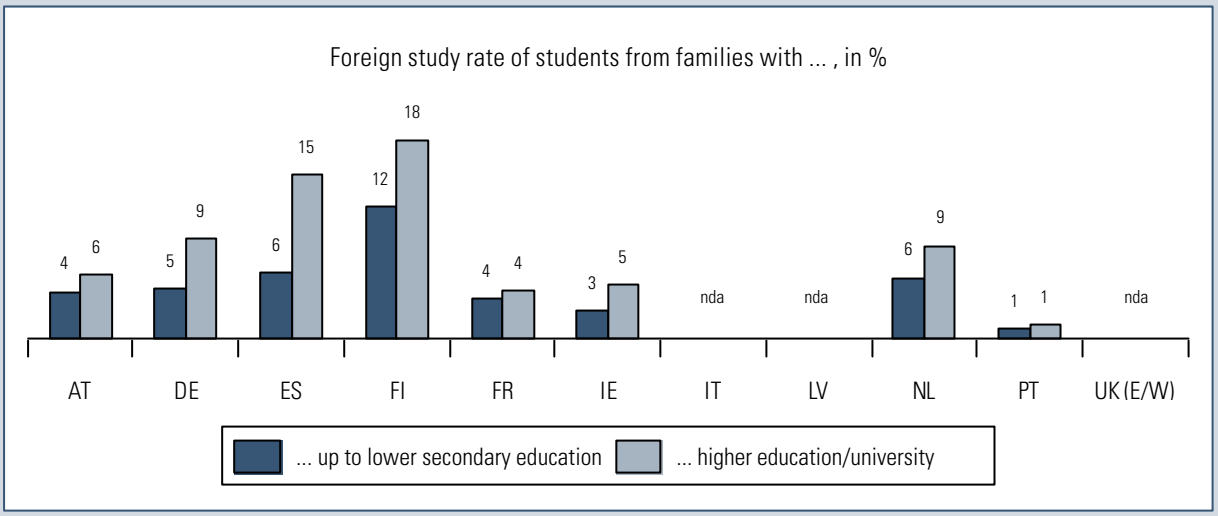
Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

Sources of finance for study-related activities abroad

As far as the funding of study-related periods abroad is concerned, typical structures can be identified although only four countries have reported corresponding data. In Spain and Ireland roughly three quarters of the funding for students' stays abroad are covered by personal resources (parental support, earnings from employment), as state support is either not substantial or not portable. Supplementary public resources, such as state support or national and international study grants make up a maximum of only one sixth (16%) of the expenditure required for this purpose.

The situation in the Netherlands is slightly more balanced where up to two thirds of funding comes from private sources and one third from public sources, including Erasmus-grants. Finland is an example of a country where public sources provide the biggest proportion of the budget as it can be seen in the data of the corresponding fig.47 of the National Profile: Nearly everybody (95%) gets portable home state support and additional grants for study abroad to promote student mobility.

Fig. 48: Study-related period abroad by parental education



Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

Study-related period abroad by parental education

In all countries, the probability that a study period will be completed abroad depends to a high degree on the social class the student belongs to (here measured by parental education). Regardless of the general degree of international mobility in the individual countries, it is possible to ascertain that students from non-academic families make substantially less use of the opportunities for studying abroad than do those from families with higher educational status. Higher or lower educational status correlates highly with the possession of economic and cultural capital of the family. In Spain, where an above-average degree of international mobility can be observed (fig. 43), 15% of the children from privileged families gained study experience abroad, while only 6% of the children from under-privileged families were able or inclined to make use of this opportunity.

Ireland, which generally has a low degree of mobility, actually shows a similarly sharp difference as far as the mobility of student children from varying cultural and economic backgrounds is concerned (3% vs. 5%). Even in Finland a completely class-independent participation cannot be found (12% vs. 18%), the same applies to the Netherlands (6% vs. 9%), although both countries offer portable state support. A substantial divide in the study abroad participation rate based on differing educational backgrounds is still found in Germany (5% vs. 9%), although the educational assistance system in Germany (BAföG) provides special generous financial support for students from financially less well-off families. This indicates that barriers for international mobility are not only to be found in the economic capital, but also in the cultural capital of students and their families.

Fig. 49: Choice of country for stay abroad

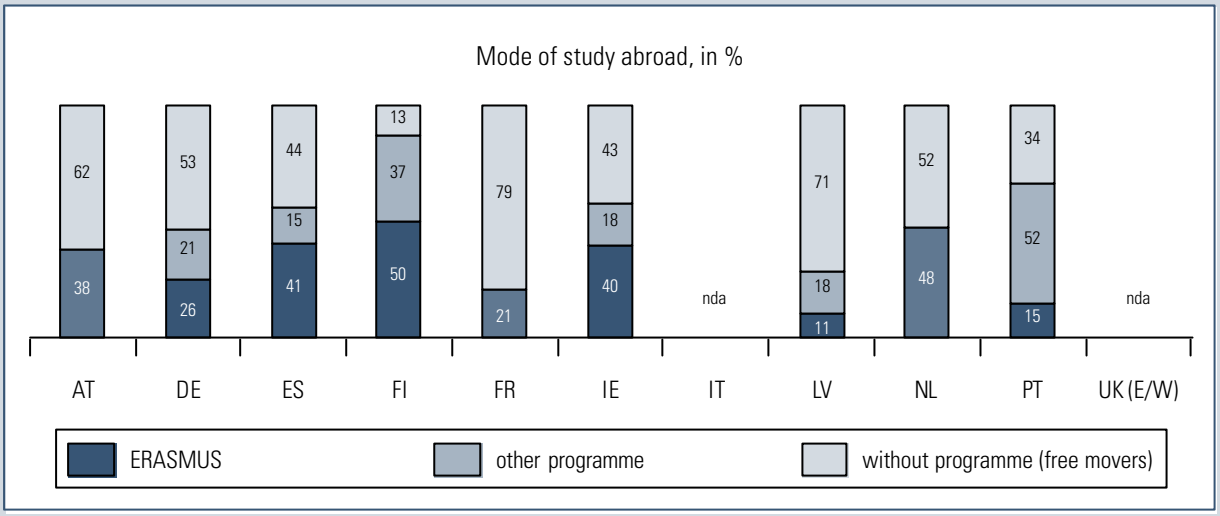
Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

Choice of country for stay abroad

European countries feature as a major preference in students' choices for their study period abroad (fig.49). Students in seven of a total of nine surveyed countries chose institutions in the United Kingdom as host country most frequently. Germany, Spain, France are also among the preferred target destinations. The USA follow at a distance, but is only in Austria and Germany second most preferred country. Language continues to be a decisive criterion for the choice of host country.

The greatest proportions of stays are English-speaking foreign countries. Although a large part of higher education instruction is increasingly being offered in English in many non-English speaking countries, this has – so far – not led to any substantial shifts in positions within the leading group.

Fig. 50: Organisation of study abroad



Data source: EUROSTUDENT 2005 - National Profiles

Organisation of study abroad

Study-related stays abroad are organised by students in various ways (fig. 50). However, students in many of the surveyed countries prefer or still have to choose the form of a self-organised stay abroad. As so-called "free movers", they account for a proportion of more than half of all the study-related periods abroad made by students from Austria, France, Germany, Latvia and the Netherlands. Nearly three quarters of the students in France and Latvia are free movers. Spain, Portugal and Ireland reach values between 34% and 44%.

A notable proportion of the periods abroad were completed within the framework of EU-programmes. The proportions range from 11% in Latvia to 50% in Finland. The extremely high proportion of programme students in Finland is related to the fact that general support from regional programmes, such as Nordplus, is included in the data.

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