Kristina Hauschildt, Christoph Gwosć,
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Social and Economic Conditions of Student Life in Europe

EUROSTUDENT VII Synopsis of Indicators 2018–2021

DZHW
German Centre for Higher Education Research and Science Studies

eurostudent.eu

Funded with the support of all participating countries.
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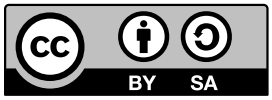

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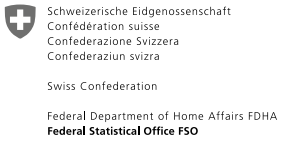

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Country abbreviations

The following abbreviations are used in all figures and tables to refer to the EUROSTUDENT countries.

AL	Albania	IS	Iceland
AT	Austria	IT	Italy
CH	Switzerland	LT	Lithuania
CZ	The Czech Republic	LU	Luxembourg
DE	Germany	MT	Malta
DK	Denmark	NL	The Netherlands
EE	Estonia	NO	Norway
FI	Finland	PL	Poland
FR	France	PT	Portugal
GE	Georgia	RO	Romania
HR	Croatia	SE	Sweden
HU	Hungary	SI	Slovenia
IE	Ireland	TR	Turkey

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Background

Part A

A 1

Chapter A1
Foreword

Strengthening the social dimension of higher education as a top priority in the post-COVID-19 recovery in higher education

Ninoslav Šćukanec Schmidt

Since "reliable data is a necessary precondition for an evidence-based improvement of the social dimension of higher education" (Annex II to the Rome Communiqué, 2020), the EUROSTUDENT survey, with its data on the social and economic conditions of student life in the European Higher Education Area (EHEA), has been the key driver of improving social dimension policies in the EHEA for the past 20 years. The EUROSTUDENT survey findings allow for the identification of underrepresented, disadvantaged, and vulnerable students in higher education, which is a precondition for creating strategies and action plans for improving the social dimension. This EUROSTUDENT mission could gain particular importance in the post-COVID-19 recovery in the coming decade, as will be explained in the following chapter.

The impact of COVID-19 on the social dimension of higher education

Increasingly, the evidence shows that at-risk students will be disproportionally affected by the COVID-19 pandemic. The NESET analytical report (Farnell, Matijević, & Schmidt, 2021) demonstrates that "the crisis is exacerbating pre-existing education disparities rather than causing those disparities". Many of the underrepresented, disadvantaged, and vulnerable students now face a range of additional obstacles in accessing and participating in higher education, and successfully completing their studies.

Results of the European Students' Union survey (Doolan et al., 2021) provide an overview of additional obstacles faced by EHEA students during the pandemic.

- Almost 60 % reported that they do not always have a reliable internet connection.
- Almost 70 % reported that they do not always have access to course study materials.
- Almost 35 % of students often do not have a quiet place to study.
- Almost 40 % of students who worked during their studies lost their jobs.
- Students have frequently felt frustrated, anxious, and bored in their academic activities since on-site classes have been cancelled.
- Lower levels of general well-being were reported by students without a supportive social network. Almost 10 % of students indicated that they do not have several people they can trust to help solve their problems.

Due to these additional obstacles, the following groups of students consistently face more difficulties in adjusting to studying during the COVID-19 pandemic lockdown: students at lower levels of study, students lacking a supportive social network, students

who reported having mental health problems, students with lower levels of digital skills, students who do not have a quiet place to study, a good internet connection, and material for studying at their disposal (Doolan et al., 2021).

The pandemic will also have a negative impact on equity and social inclusion in pre-tertiary education, creating a knock-on effect of reducing equitable access to higher education and lowering the level of participation of at-risk students in higher education in the coming years. Therefore, the pandemic could have "long-term 'scarring' effects for young people under the age of 25 – the 'COVID generation' – resulting in an unprecedented decline in social mobility due to rising economic and educational inequalities" (Farnell, Matijević, & Schmidt, 2021).

To mitigate the negative impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on higher education, the social dimension should become central to higher education strategies at the system and institutional level, and be aligned with concrete targets and measures to resolve the challenges of at-risk students. It will be particularly important to collect, analyse, and use different types of data to better understand the immediate and future impact of the pandemic on the social dimension in higher education. Future EUROSTUDENT surveys and their results could gain additional importance by helping understand the challenges that at-risk students face when accessing, participating in, and completing higher education in the post-COVID-19 period.

Despite the negative impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on higher education, it is also important to consider the opportunities of the crisis to place the social dimension as a top priority in the post-COVID-19 recovery in higher education.

New policy developments and opportunities for the social dimension in the EHEA

In a recent development within the EHEA, one of the three key priorities until 2030 is related to building an inclusive EHEA – the latest 2020 Rome Ministerial Communiqué stresses that "socially inclusive higher education will remain at the core of the EHEA and will provide opportunities and support for equitable inclusion of individuals from all parts of society". The 2020 Rome Communiqué takes as its starting point the definition of the social dimension provided in the 2007 London Communiqué, namely that "the composition of the student body entering, participating in, and completing higher education at all levels should correspond to the heterogeneous social profile of society at large in the EHEA countries". This definition allows the creation of policy levers for identifying underrepresented, disadvantaged, and vulnerable students in higher education.

The novelty of the 2020 Rome Communiqué is that it goes beyond this definition and has enlarged it by stressing that the social dimension encompasses the creation of an inclusive environment in higher education that fosters equity and diversity, and is responsive to the needs of local communities. It means that public authorities and higher education institutions (HEIs) need to integrate the newly adopted "Principles and Guidelines to Strengthen the Social Dimension of Higher Education in the EHEA" in the core of their higher education mission: learning and teaching, research, innovation, knowledge exchange and outreach, institutional governance and management, as well as in the policies for empowering present and future students, and higher education staff.

Therefore, improving the social dimension by moving beyond widening accessibility and integrating the social dimension principles in the core higher education mission and governance is a crucial step forward in the Rome Communiqué when looking to strengthen inclusion, equity, and diversity in higher education. For the first time, the 49 ministers of the EHEA adopted a new, forward-looking strategic document, "Principles and Guidelines for the Social Dimension" (Annex II to the Rome Communiqué, 2020), that aims to help countries continuously improve their social dimension policies and the effective implementation thereof at the national and institutional level. The document defines ten social dimension principles for the coming decade as the basis for conceptualising different policies for social dimension enhancement. The guidelines are recommendations intended to advise policy makers on how to put the principles into practice.

It is important that, having committed to the implementation of the principles and guidelines, EHEA ministers of higher education have charged the Bologna Follow-Up Group (BFUG) with establishing the Working Group for Social Dimension for the period 2021–2024 with three main tasks: (1) to develop tools for the implementation of the principles and guidelines, (2) to develop a system of monitoring the implementation of the principles and guidelines, and (3) to organise peer support activities for social dimension among the EHEA members. This Working Group will continue the highly effective and visionary work of the previous BFUG Advisory Group for Social Dimension 2018–2020, which produced the principles and guidelines. These promising developments should ensure that, by the next ministerial conference in 2024, there will be a structured European movement for strengthening the social dimension in higher education.

Building a European movement for the social dimension of higher education

It is evident from the COVID-19 impact on higher education and the new policy initiatives in the EHEA that the period until 2030 has the potential to become an ambitious decade of social dimension in higher education in the EHEA. This vision could become a reality if all EHEA stakeholders succeed in creating a European movement for the social dimension in higher education that combines the top-down and bottom-up approaches to policy making and policy advocacy.

From a top-down perspective, it will be important to focus on building capacities of public authorities and HEIs for enhancing the social dimension, advocating policy support, facilitating transnational learning, and providing incentives to those who are successful in implementing social dimension principles. The mandate of the BFUG Working Group for Social Dimension 2021–2024 falls under this remit. Since needs related to the social dimension differ depending on the context, each public authority and higher education institution must adopt context-specific interventions for improving the social dimension.

In the communication from the European Commission on "Achieving the European Education Area (EEA) by 2025" (European Commission, 2020), one of the six dimensions necessary to further develop the EEA refers to inclusion and gender equality. EUROSTUDENT with its surveys and resources will be increasingly important in systematically documenting progress in strengthening the social dimension.

From a bottom-up perspective, it will be important to identify universities committed to developing the social dimension, to build a network of institutions similarly committed, and organise capacity-building events with them. The social dimension could be fostered by the newly established European Universities alliances in 2019 and 2020, whose mission is to foster inclusive higher education – as the alliance Young Universities for the Future of Europe already demonstrates. One of the three priorities for action of the European University Association in its vision for 2030 (Universities Without Walls, 2021) relates to the strengthening of universities' civic engagement, where social inclusion, diversity, and equity play important roles.

Conclusion

A favourable environment for the combination of the top-down and bottom-up initiatives as detailed above may create a European movement for social dimension enhancement. In the short term, this movement could mitigate the negative impact of COVID-19 on the social dimension of higher education. In the longer term, the European movement could create an effective framework for the continued progress towards diversity, equity, and inclusion in higher education in the EHEA.

The EUROSTUDENT data could prove valuable in creating a European movement for the social dimension from both the top-down and bottom-up perspective until 2030. Forthcoming national EUROSTUDENT data collections are expected to examine the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on higher education by providing "information on the composition of the student body, access and participation, drop-out and completion of higher education, including the transition to the labour market after completion of studies, and allow for the identification of vulnerable, disadvantaged and underrepresented groups" (Annex II to the Rome Communiqué, 2020) in the post-pandemic period. Comparing international EUROSTUDENT data within the EHEA should foster transnational learning and capacity building in social dimension enhancement for public authorities and HEIs, providing them with resources and solutions to ameliorate the negative impact of COVID-19. Thus, EUROSTUDENT is instrumental in building a European movement for social dimension in higher education.

About the author

Ninoslav Šćukanec Schmidt is Executive Director of the Institute for the Development of Education in Zagreb, Croatia. He is currently co-chairing the Bologna Follow-up Working Group on Social Dimension for the period 2021–2024. He successfully co-chaired the previous 2018–2020 Bologna Follow-up Advisory Group on Social Dimension, which created the strategic document "Principles and Guidelines for Social Dimension" to help 49 countries in the EHEA improve social dimension policies.

A 2

Chapter A2
Introduction

Context of the Synopsis: monitoring the social dimension of higher education and student mobility in Europe

This Synopsis of Indicators presents the findings of the seventh round of the EUROSTUDENT project. In the current round, 26 countries of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) contributed between 2018 and 2021 to the success of the project and thus made this report possible. The synopsis is a compendium of key indicators on the social and economic conditions of student life, including temporary student mobility, in Europe.

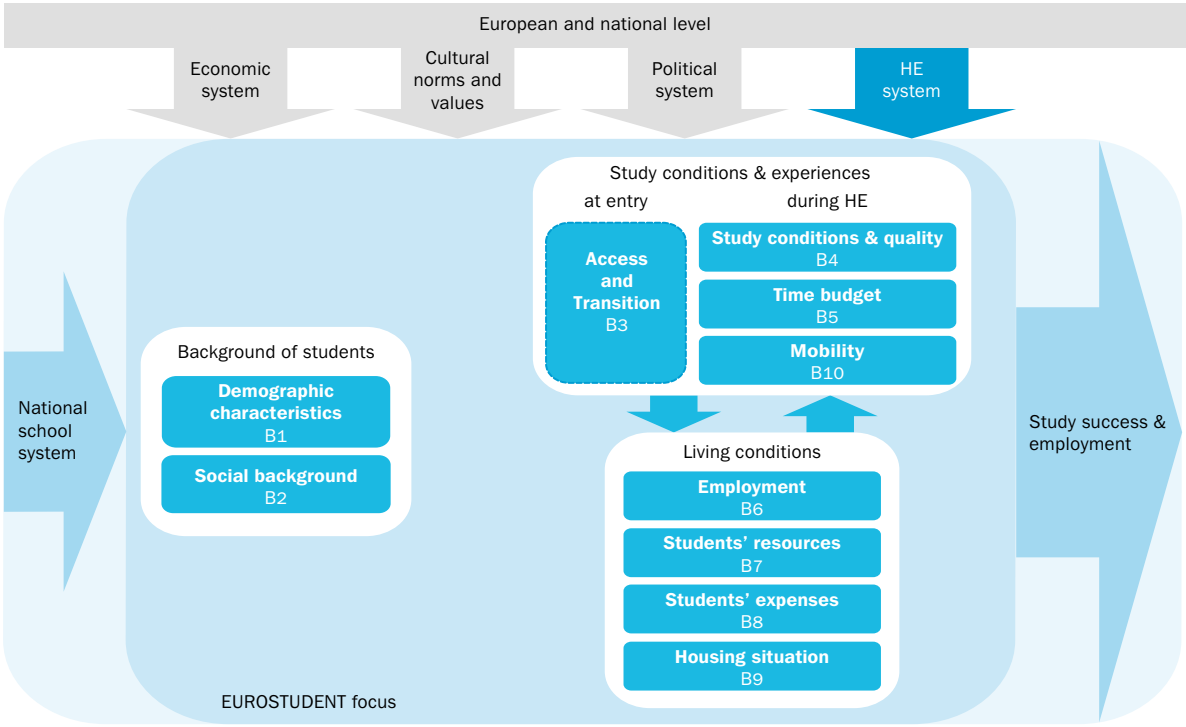
The social dimension of higher education (HE) has played an important role in the Bologna Process of the EHEA since it was chosen as a central theme in the Prague Communiqué (2001) at the beginning of this millennium. With the Rome Communiqué (2020), the ministers responsible for HE in the EHEA reinforced the importance of the social dimension by adopting principles and guidelines designed to advise member states on how to define and implement policy for improving the social dimension of the EHEA (Annex II to the Rome Communiqué, 2020). According to this document, the main objective of the social dimension is "that the composition of the student body entering, participating in and completing higher education at all levels should correspond to the heterogeneous social profile of society at large in the EHEA countries." Furthermore, "the social dimension encompasses creation of inclusive environment in higher education that fosters equity, diversity, and is responsive to the needs of local communities." (Annex II to the Rome Communiqué, 2020). In its Modernisation Agenda for Higher Education, the European Commission also defined "building inclusive and connected higher education systems" as a priority for action (European Commission, 2017, p. 6).

By collecting data on the social and economic conditions of student life in Europe, the EUROSTUDENT project ensures that important indicators are available on the current state of the social dimension in many EHEA countries, thereby providing a data basis for monitoring and evaluation. The current situation of students is the result of many influencing factors at the national and European levels (Figure A2.1). These include the school system, the economic and political system, cultural norms and values, as well as the HE system. Current and past experiences of students, in turn, influence their future success.

The EUROSTUDENT topics cover all aspects of current student life: 1) their backgrounds (demographic characteristics and social background), 2) study conditions and experiences (access to and transition within HE, study conditions and quality, time budget, and mobility) and 3) their living conditions (employment, resources, expenses, and housing situation). With regard to international student mobility (ISM), EUROSTUDENT not

Figure A2.1

EUROSTUDENT VII topics



only offers insights into students' activities abroad and recognition thereof by HEIs in their home country, but also into obstacles to mobility for students who have not spent study periods abroad.

To achieve greater analytical depth, EUROSTUDENT divides the student population into a variety of focus groups based on their socio-demographic characteristics, living and study conditions, as well as their study-related background. In this way, the study experience can be presented in all its diversity. An overview of the EUROSTUDENT focus groups is provided in Table A2.1.

EUROSTUDENT is based on students' self-reported data. Due to the nature of these data, the EUROSTUDENT dataset contains a great deal of information that is not available from other sources, for example, from official statistics. The EUROSTUDENT dataset, therefore, serves an important monitoring function to describe, explain, and assess the state of the social dimension in the EHEA. In addition to Eurostat and Eurydice, EUROSTUDENT has delivered data for several Bologna Process Implementation Reports (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2018; European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015; European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2012; Eurostat & HIS, 2009).

The following sections include some notes on the Synopsis and the EUROSTUDENT dataset that are important for the use of this report, as well as general information about the EUROSTUDENT project. Detailed methodological information on the EUROSTUDENT survey is provided in > *Chapter A3*.

A 2

Notes on the Synopsis

Student surveys during the COVID-19 pandemic

The COVID-19 pandemic held up the data collection and subsequent delivery in some countries. The ensuing delays have led to delays within the EUROSTUDENT project.

21 countries conducted a student survey with a reference period before the COVID-19 pandemic: Austria, Switzerland, the Czech Republic, Germany (2016), Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Georgia, Croatia, Hungary, Ireland, Iceland, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Sweden, and Slovenia. Albania, Germany, Italy, Portugal, Romania, and Turkey were affected by the pandemic and conducted a survey with a reference period during this time (see > *Appendix C3* for more information).

The figures in this report distinguish between countries with a reference period before the pandemic-related restrictions and lockdowns implemented in the spring of 2020 on the left-hand side of the figures, and countries in which students were surveyed during this unusual situation on the right-hand side[1]. The EUROSTUDENT average depicted in the figures and tables is based on survey data referring to before the pandemic (i.e. the 'normal' situation). Albanian data could not be finalised in time for inclusion in this report, but will be available in the > *EUROSTUDENT database*.

Concept and structure

Scope

The Synopsis is a compendium of indicators on the social and economic conditions of student life in the EUROSTUDENT countries; in this way, the social dimension of higher education is taken into account. The report is designed to adopt a broad, comparative perspective to allow for simple but meaningful international comparison. It mostly presents analyses on an aggregate level.

Reporting infrastructure

The Synopsis is embedded into a reporting infrastructure consisting of different elements, such as the EUROSTUDENT database, Thematic Reviews, or Intelligence Briefs. In the text, reference is made to the other elements of the reporting infrastructure, which are indicated by an arrow and colour highlighting (e.g. > *Database*).

Additional information

Each chapter in part B concludes with a table appendix providing additional data on topics covered in the respective chapter. This report further includes a glossary (> *Appendix C1*), methodological notes on figures (> *Appendix C2*), metadata on the national surveys and key background data on the higher education systems covered in this report (> *Appendix C3*), references (> *Appendix C4*), and a list of the national contributors to EUROSTUDENT VII (> *Appendix C5*).

1 *German indicators are based on two sources – the 'Sozialerhebung' conducted in 2016 and a student survey focusing on the impact of the COVID-19 crisis carried out in the summer of 2020.*

Glossary

To keep the text free of definitions and certain concept descriptions, an overview of terms and key concepts is provided in > *Appendix C1*.

Reading the Synopsis

- *Watch out for deviations from EUROSTUDENT conventions:* The basis for data comparisons across countries are the EUROSTUDENT conventions. Inter alia, they define the standard target group of the national surveys (Box A3.1). Not all countries manage to fully comply with the conventions (Box A3.2). This is indicated in the respective figures, with detailed explanations of the deviations found in > *Appendix C2*. Cases that should only be directly compared to other countries with extreme caution are marked with an asterisk beneath or next to the country abbreviation in figures and tables.
- *Focus groups are not mutually exclusive:* Many indicators further differentiate the figures for all students by means of focus groups, groups of students considered to be particularly relevant (Table A2.1). The various focus groups may overlap, for instance, a student can be a Master student, a delayed transition student, and 30 years or older at the same time.
- *The EUROSTUDENT average refers to unweighted cross-country means/median:* Unweighted mean and median values of all EUROSTUDENT countries with available data on the respective indicator are used in the charts and text as a first orientation. They should be read with caution because they may conceal differences between countries in terms of the size of the national student and sample populations. The EUROSTUDENT average depicted in the figures and tables is based on survey data referring to before the pandemic (i.e. the 'normal' situation).
- *Comparisons over time are possible only for selected indicators:* For selected indicators, the Synopsis of Indicators undertakes a comparison between EUROSTUDENT V, EUROSTUDENT VI, and EUROSTUDENT VII data. However, such comparisons are not possible for all countries as changes in a target group or survey question may have taken place, despite the EUROSTUDENT conventions having stayed the same. It should be noted that the indicators for a comparison over time have been carefully selected. Not all EUROSTUDENT indicators can be directly compared over time due to changes in the core questionnaire.

EUROSTUDENT focus groups

The EUROSTUDENT focus groups allow the identification of certain groups of students, based on their socio-demographic characteristics, past and current educational situations, and current living situation, throughout the report (Table A2.1). These groups of students are considered particularly relevant for analysing different aspects of the social dimension of higher education.

A 2

Table A2.1

EUROSTUDENT VII focus groups

Name of variable	Values	Further explanation
Socio-demographic characteristics of students		
Age group	◆ < 22 years ◆ 22–24 years ◆ 25–29 years ◆ 30 years and older	–
Educational background	▲ with a tertiary education background ▼ without a tertiary education background	Students are grouped according to the highest educational attainment of at least one of their parents. In EUROSTUDENT, students with a tertiary education background have parents of which at least one has attained a tertiary education degree. In terms of ISCED 2011, this means that at least one of the students' parents has successfully completed a short cycle tertiary degree (level 5), a Bachelor's (level 6) or Master's degree (level 7), a doctorate (level 8), or their national equivalent. In some countries, these national equivalents may not be considered part of HE (Box B2.1). Students without a tertiary education background have parents whose highest educational qualification is no higher than ISCED 2011 level 4 (post-secondary non-tertiary education).
Impairments	● students with impairments ● students without impairments	This focus group distinguishes between students with and without impairments in their studies. 'With impairments' refers to students self-reporting as severely limited or limited, but not severely, based on an impairment. 'Students without impairments' either do not have any impairment, or any impairment they have does not limit them in their studies. Impairments include physical chronic diseases, longstanding health problems, functional limitations, mental health problems, sensory, vision, or hearing impairments, learning disabilities, and mobility impairments.
Migration background	students without a migration background, domestically educated second-generation migrants, domestically educated	EUROSTUDENT categorises students according to their migration background based on their own and their parents' place of birth. In addition, to be able to distinguish international students, EUROSTUDENT considers the place of attainment of the HE entry qualification or, in absence of this, the place they last attended the regular school system (Figure B1.1). Students without a migration background, domestically educated, are students who were born in the country of survey, as were their parents, and who attended/completed the national school system. Second-generation migrants, domestically educated, are students with at least one parent born abroad, who were born in the country of survey, and who attended/completed the national school system.
Sex	■ male ● female	–
Living conditions		
Dependency on income source	✚ dependent on family support ✚ dependent on self-earned income ✚ dependent on national public student support	A student is considered dependent on an income source if one of the three sources "support from family/partner" (including transfers in kind), "self-earned income" or "national public student support" provides more than 50 % of the student's total income (total income includes transfers in kind). Students with a mixed budget (i.e. no source providing more than 50 % of total income) are not assigned to a group.
Financial difficulties	✸ with financial difficulties ✸ without financial difficulties	This focus group distinguishes between the two groups based on students' self-assessment.
Housing situation	⌂ living with parents ⌂ not living with parents	–
Students in paid employment	❖ students working in a paid job up to 20 h/week ❖ students without paid employment during the semester	The groups are differentiated based on the extent of their regular paid employment or employment from time to time during term time, not taking into account paid jobs during the holidays.

Name of variable	Values	Further explanation
Study conditions		
Field of study	○ education (incl. teacher training) arts and humanities business, administration, and law natural sciences, mathematics, and statistics health and welfare services □ engineering, manufacturing, and construction social sciences, journalism, and information information and communication technologies (ICTs) agriculture, forestry, fishery, and veterinary	This focus group distinguishes students based on their field of study (according to ISCED-F2013).
Study intensity	⊖ low intensity ○ medium intensity ⊕ high intensity	This indicator groups students according to their weekly workload in a typical week for study-related activities (taught courses and personal study time). Low intensity students spend between 0 and 20 hours a week on study-related activities. Medium intensity students spend more than 20 but no more than 40 hours a week on study-related activities. High intensity students spend more than 40 hours a week on study-related activities.
Type of higher education institution (HEI)	■ university ■ non-university	Types of HEIs are distinguished based on national legislation and understanding. If a distinction exists between types of HEIs in a country, institutions classified as universities are typically allowed to award doctoral degrees. Other types of HEIs, depending on national legislations, may include universities of applied sciences, polytechnics, professional HEIs and similar institutions that offer higher education programmes covered in the EUROSTUDENT standard target group. These are included in the EUROSTUDENT focus group non-university.
Type of study programme	◌ short-cycle programmes ◌ short national degrees ✹ Bachelor ✹ Master ◌ long national degrees	Within the EUROSTUDENT standard target group, which covers all types of HE study programmes, students currently enrolled in a Bachelor degree programme and students currently enrolled in a Master degree programme are two special focus groups often used throughout the report.
Study experience	✥ First-year students	Students currently enrolled in their first year of HE (i.e. not current study programme).
Study-related background		
Access route	↺ alternative access route ⊙ standard access route	This focus group distinguishes students based on their entry qualification into HE. Students are classified as having followed the standard access route if they possess an upper secondary qualification obtained in direct relation to leaving school for the first time (e.g. Matura, Abitur, Baccalauréat), either in the country of survey or abroad. The alternative access route has been used by students who either do not possess such a qualification or obtained it later in life, e.g. via evening classes or adult learning.
Educational origin	★ international students ✪ domestic students	Educational origin of the students is determined based on the origin of the HE entrance qualification or – in the absence of such a qualification – the place they left the school system for the first time. International students are studying in the country of the survey and left the school system for the first time outside the country of the survey. That means the status as an international student is not related to place of birth, nationality, or citizenship. Domestic students hold a HE entry qualification from the country of survey or left the school system for first time there.
Transition duration	▮ delayed transition ▬ direct transition	This focus group distinguishes students according to the duration between leaving the school system for the first time and entering HE. Direct transition students delay of no more than 24 months between leaving school and entering HE. Delayed transition students entered HE for the first time more than 24 months after leaving the school system for the first time.

Access to EUROSTUDENT data and figures
The present Synopsis of Indicators presents only a small selection of EUROSTUDENT data. All data are available online in the EUROSTUDENT > *Database*: database.eurostudent.eu.

Any corrections possibly made to the data after publication of the Synopsis will be updated in the EUROSTUDENT database.

The data used for the figures in the Synopsis, as well as high-resolution pdf files of the figures, can be directly downloaded by clicking on the download symbol in the top left-hand corner of each figure: ⬇

A Scientific Use File based on voluntary deposits of national-level micro data is available at the Research Data Centre for Higher Education Research and Science Studies on application.

About the EUROSTUDENT project

Project organisation

EUROSTUDENT is a network of researchers, data collectors, representatives of national ministries, and other stakeholders who have joined forces to examine the social and economic conditions of student life in higher education systems in Europe. The seventh round of the project took place from June 2018 to May 2021, with an extension until August 2021 due to delays encountered during the COVID-19 pandemic.

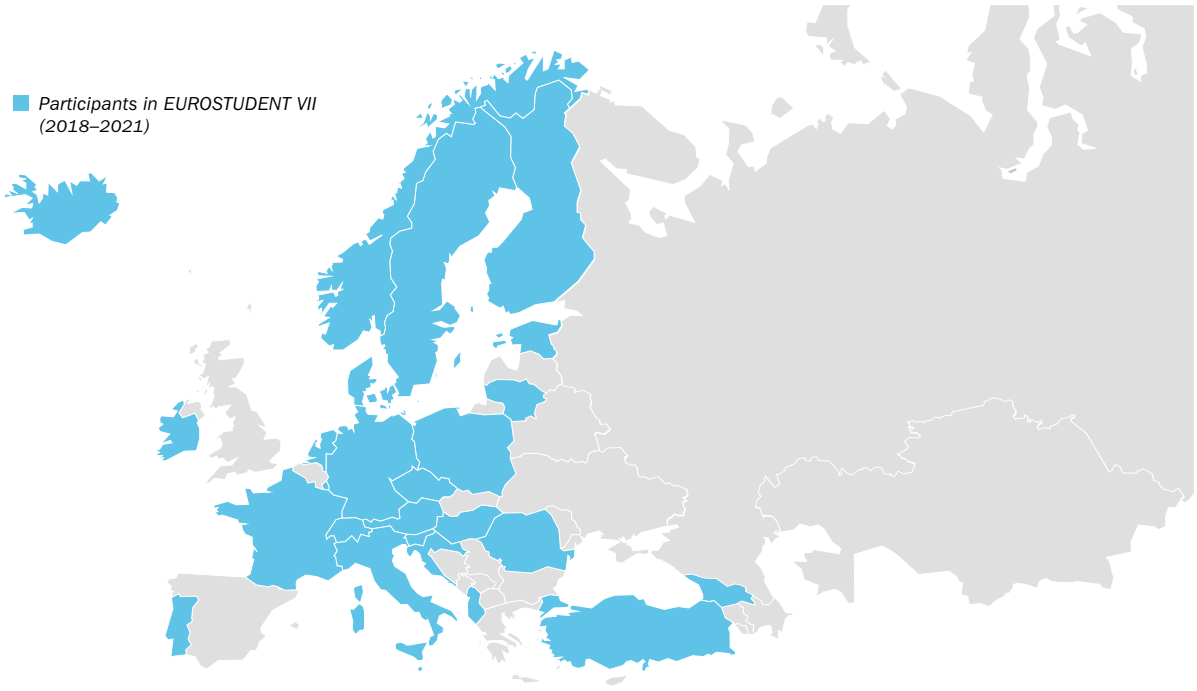
Responsibilities in EUROSTUDENT

EUROSTUDENT combines a central coordination approach with a strong network of national partners in each participant country. The EUROSTUDENT consortium provides a core questionnaire and extensive instructions for data cleaning and calculating indicators. The implementation and analysis of the national student surveys in line with the central conventions is the responsibility of the contributing countries. Throughout the project, the EUROSTUDENT consortium collaborates closely with the participating countries to assure a common understanding of and compliance with the data conventions. More information on the methodology behind EUROSTUDENT can be found in > *Chapter A3*.

The network aspect of the project allows the knowledge of experts from different countries to be collated. This not only enriches the project, but also ensures that its design is suitable for international comparative analyses and that country-specific context information is taken into account.

Figure A2.2

The EUROSTUDENT VII network



EUROSTUDENT participant countries

EUROSTUDENT VII data cover a large part of the EHEA: participants range from Iceland in the north all the way to Turkey in the south and from Portugal in the west to Georgia in the east. The EUROSTUDENT VII indicators presented in this report are based on survey responses collected from more than 370,000 students (> *Appendix C3*).

Figure A2.2 and Table A2.2 provide an overview of the 26 countries participating in EUROSTUDENT VII. More information on the contributing network members can be found in > *Appendix C5*.

Table A2.2

EUROSTUDENT VII participant countries

Participating countries in EUROSTUDENT VII		
Albania*	Germany	Poland
Austria	Hungary	Portugal
Croatia	Iceland	Romania
The Czech Republic	Ireland	Slovenia
Denmark	Italy	Sweden
Estonia	Lithuania	Switzerland
Finland	Luxembourg	The Netherlands
France	Malta	Turkey
Georgia	Norway	

*results included in database

A 2

The seventh round of the project was funded with the support of all EUROSTUDENT countries and co-funded by the Erasmus+ programme of the European Union, the German Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF), and the Dutch Ministry of Education, Culture and Science (MinOCW).

EUROSTUDENT consortium

The central coordination of the EUROSTUDENT project is directed by the German Centre for Higher Education Research and Science Studies (DZHW), which is based in Hannover, Germany. In its function as the central coordinator, DZHW heads the EUROSTUDENT consortium consisting of seven international partners:

- German Centre for Higher Education Research and Science Studies (DZHW, Germany)
- Institute for Advanced Studies (IHS, Austria)
- ResearchNed (the Netherlands)
- Praxis Centre for Policy Studies (Praxis, Estonia)
- Malta Further and Higher Education Authority (MFHEA, Malta)
- Government Strategic Analysis Center (STRATA, Lithuania)
- The Swiss Federal Statistical Office (FSO, Switzerland)

EUROSTUDENT steering board

The steering board guides the EUROSTUDENT consortium in the development of a reliable, contextually sensitive, and policy-relevant, comparative study of the social dimension in European higher education. On the basis of the assigned tasks, the steering board actively contributes especially to the medium- and long-term development of the project. The EUROSTUDENT VII steering board was composed of representatives from the European Commission (EC), the European Students' Union (ESU), the Bologna Follow-Up Group (BFUG), the German Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF), the Dutch Ministry of Education, Culture and Science (MinOCW), as well as three country representatives of the fee-paying countries from France (L'Observatoire national de la vie étudiante, OVE), Slovenia (Ministry of Education, Science and Sport), and Austria (Federal Ministry of Education, Science and Research).

Acknowledgements

EUROSTUDENT is based on the international cooperation of many people and institutions. Without its network, the work of EUROSTUDENT would simply not be possible. The Central Coordination Team at DZHW would like to sincerely thank the network partners at ministries and research institutions in the 26 contributing countries (> *Appendix C5*) for their indispensable role in conducting the national surveys and their great efforts to deliver reliable and accurate data on the EUROSTUDENT indicators. The discussions and comments by the participants at the various EUROSTUDENT conferences and workshops have also been very helpful in gaining insight into the national and international contexts, and we are exceedingly grateful to everyone who participated and contributed. Valuable insights and advice provided by the former and current members of this round's steering board (Julie Anderson, Berto Bosscha, Martina Darmanin, Odile Ferry, Ksenja Hauptman, Renske Heemskerk, Hans Hermsen, Robert Napier, Frank Petrikowski, Helga Posset, Linda Pustina, Mourad Saidi, Caroline Sundberg, Kinga Szuly, Lucie Trojanova, and Vincenzo Zara) are deeply appreciated. Special thanks are due to all our partners in the EUROSTUDENT VII consortium for a

very successful and pleasant collaboration, especially under pandemic conditions in the second half of the project. The Zofar team members at DZHW, Andrea Schulze, Kim Dabrat, Christian Meisner, and Silina Schirmer made the online EUROSTUDENT survey possible in eight countries. The colleagues from the Research Data Center for Higher Education Research and Science Studies (FDZ-DZHW), Daniel Buck, Andreas Daniel, and Marten Wallis provided invaluable advice and practical support on creating the project's first Scientific Use File. For very helpful comments on draft versions of this report, we are grateful to our 'chapter buddies' Louise Bank, Yassin Boughaba, Marina Crnčić Sokol, Irina Gewinner, Anna-Lena Keute, Madonna Maroun, Alison Morrisroe, Thijs Vroegh, and Amanda Weber. The authors of this report are also very much obliged to the colleagues 'behind the scenes': Britta Frankel, Hayastan Avetisyan, Amber Hoots, Tatevik Avetisyan, Isabelle Heine, Joyce Bendig-Jacobs, Ruth Cordes, Matthias Liedtke, and Jeanette Ihnen, all of whom supported the project in various ways and with great commitment.

A 3

Chapter A3
General methodological notes

Data collection

EUROSTUDENT couples a central coordination approach with a strong network of national partners in each participant country (> *Appendix C5*). The EUROSTUDENT consortium (> *Chapter A2*) provides national contributors with the EUROSTUDENT core questionnaire, as well as extensive instructions for conducting the field phase at the national level, data cleaning and weighting, calculation of indicators, and data delivery.

The national research teams are chosen and funded by the participating national ministries. The national research teams are responsible for implementing a national student survey and delivering the data to the EUROSTUDENT VII data team in accordance with EUROSTUDENT conventions, and providing national interpretations of the delivered data. The delivered data are checked in a series of feedback loops for accuracy and comparability, before being validated for publication by the national research team.

In the seventh round of the EUROSTUDENT project, the process of data collection and delivery was headed by the consortium partner Institute for Advanced Studies (IHS) in Vienna, Austria.

EUROSTUDENT conventions are the instruments used to ensure the comparability and quality of the data collected. Since the first round of EUROSTUDENT, these conventions have been continuously refined and are the result of productive discussions during several project meetings, intensive seminars, and workshops organised by the EUROSTUDENT consortium. They are documented in several handbooks, which are provided to all EUROSTUDENT partners as well as the interested public on the project website.

EUROSTUDENT core questionnaire

The EUROSTUDENT core questionnaire details the items, responses, and instructions to be used in the national surveys. The questionnaire handbook provides in-depth explanations of the purpose of each question and instructions on adapting it, if necessary, to the national context. EUROSTUDENT employs hashtags (#) to mark instances where the national teams need to go beyond simply translating the question by making adaptations to the particular national context. For example, '#common language(s)' would, in Germany, mean German, whereas in Switzerland it would be German, French, Italian, and Rhaeto-Romanic. This method is used to ensure that the resulting national questionnaires will be easily understood by and applicable to the students being surveyed in each country. The EUROSTUDENT VII questionnaire handbook is made available on the EUROSTUDENT website after each project round.

Survey execution

The questionnaire handbook also includes guidelines for the preparation and execution of the survey at the national level. It provides information on the EUROSTUDENT standard target group, sampling guidelines, as well as information on the survey organisation and method. Mandatory preparatory seminars for all national teams also offered an opportunity to present and discuss the plans for national implementation with other national teams and the EUROSTUDENT data team.

Box A3.1

EUROSTUDENT target group

The EUROSTUDENT target group comprises all students who are – at the time of observation (usually: semester) – enrolled in any national study programme regarded as higher education in a particular country. As a rule, this corresponds to ISCED levels 5, 6, and 7.

This means all students should be included, regardless of

- nationality – national and foreign students should be included, as long as they are studying for a full degree in the country of observation (and not only obtaining a limited number of credits, e.g. as an Erasmus student)
- full-time/part-time status – full-time, part-time and/or correspondence students should be included as long as the study programmes in which they are enrolled offer a minimum of physical, face-to-face interaction in lectures/classes (not only exams)
- character of the HEI or study programme – general as well as professional orientations of HEIs and study programmes should be included, as long as the programmes and institutions are considered to be higher education in the national context
- legal character of the HEI – public and private institutions should be included, as long as private institutions are considered to be a regular part of the higher education system in the national context

Excluded from the EUROSTUDENT target group are

- students on (temporary) leave, in other words, students who have officially or non-officially interrupted their studies at the time of observation for whatever reason
- students on credit mobility, short-term mobile students (e.g. Erasmus students), in other words, students who are currently studying in the country of observation (incoming) or who have currently left the country of observation (outgoing) for a short time period (e.g. one or two semesters) with the purpose of gaining only a relatively small number of credits
- students in ISCED 8 study programmes (PhD and doctoral programmes)
- students in distance learning study programmes that do not offer any physical, face-to-face lecture period, but are solely based on written/online interaction (apart from exams)
- students at very specialised HEIs, e.g. military or police academies, or HEIs directly affiliated with one company. This might also include programmes providing training for public administration only

- students in programmes classified as ISCED (2011) levels 5 or 6, which are not regarded as higher education in the national context. This could encompass, for example, further vocational training programmes for master crafts(wo)men, upper-secondary schools, or post-secondary programmes not regarded as higher education
- students enrolled in higher education but not entitled to finish a regular programme. These may be students with an 'extra-ordinary' or 'guest' status, or students only enrolled in single courses if they are not allowed to graduate from an entire, ordinary programme (i.e. their achievements will not be recognised for a common title like Bachelor or Master)

Box A3.2

Notes on national samples and deviations from the EUROSTUDENT standard target group

Not all countries were able to fully comply with the standard target groups. The following list provides additional information on the national samples and indicated deviations from the EUROSTUDENT conventions.

Austria: Short national degrees, 'other' postgraduate degrees and 'other' degrees (e.g. single subjects) do not exist in Austria. Short-cycle programmes are not considered to be higher education and are therefore not included in the sample.

Switzerland: According to the Swiss ISCED Mapping, professional higher education is defined as educational programmes on the tertiary level that are designed for students to acquire the practical/technical/occupationally specific/entrepreneurial skills and knowledge needed for employment in a particular occupation with high levels of expertise and/or managerial responsibility, or for entry into a profession with high skill requirements. Professional programmes are typically provided by institutions or enterprises outside the university context and are designed for direct entrance into the labour market or are linked to existing employment. Therefore these programmes are not included in the sample of the survey.

Croatia: Students on short-cycle programmes, BA, MA and integrated BA+MA are included in the sample in the proportion in which they are represented in the population. 'Other' postgraduate degrees do not exist.

Czech Republic: No short-cycle programmes are included in the sample as they do not exist in the Czech higher education system. Short national degrees, 'other' postgraduate degrees, and 'other' degrees (e.g. single subjects) are not included in the sample as they do not exist.

Denmark: Short national degrees, long national degrees, and 'other' degrees (e.g. single subjects) are not included in the sample as they do not exist or constitute a neglible group not considered to be higher education. Part-time studies were only introduced in 2017 in a pilot scheme for Master programmes (erhvervskandidatuddannelse), on special terms for people in parallel employment. As the first students in such programmes started in September 2018, part-time students only make up a very minor part of the student population and were thus not included in the sample.

Germany: The data presented in this report draw on two sources of data: 1) The German student survey conducted in 2016 (Sozialerhebung), which was previously presented in the context of EUROSTUDENT VI. This German sample does not include students with non-German citizenship holding foreign HE entry qualifications ('Bildungsausländer'). International students according to EUROSTUDENT conventions are therefore not part of the target group. **This constitutes a deviation from the EUROSTUDENT target group**. No short-cycle programmes are included in sample as they do not exist or are not considered to be higher education. 2) Indicators drawn from a survey conducted in the summer of 2020 for selected topics covering 23 selected HEIs.

Estonia: Short-cycle programmes, 'other' degrees (e.g. single subjects), short national degrees, and 'other' postgraduate degrees are not included in the sample as they do not exist or are not considered to be higher education.

Finland: The sample consists of BA (ISCED 6), MA (ISCED 7), and Licenciate of Medicine (ISCED 7) degrees. Other degree programmes do not exist, or are not considered to be higher education.

Georgia: Universities of applied sciences do not exist in Georgia. Data provided for the group 'non-universities' in the EUROSTUDENT context refer to teaching universities and colleges. Teaching universities deliver only BA and MA-level programmes (no doctoral programmes); colleges run only BA programmes. No distinction is made between full- and part-time students.

Hungary: Short national degrees, 'other' degrees (e.g. single subjects), and 'other' postgraduate degrees.

Ireland: Long national degrees do not exist in Ireland. 'Other' degrees (e.g. single subjects) are not included in the sample. No private institutions are included in the sample. **This constitutes a deviation from the EUROSTUDENT target group.**

Iceland: No non-universities exist in Iceland.

Italy: No non-universities exist in Italy. State and non-state universities are included in the survey. Post graduate programmes ISCED 7 with professional orientation (master universitario di primo livello) are not included in the survey. International students are not included in the sample. **This constitutes a deviation from the EUROSTUDENT target group.**

Lithuania: Short-cycle degrees, short national degrees, long national degrees, 'other' degrees (e.g. single subjects), and 'other' postgraduate degrees are not included in the sample as they do not exist or are not considered to be higher education.

Luxembourg: The sample includes short-cycle degrees (brevet de technicien supérieur, ISCED 5), BA degrees (ISCED 6), and MA degrees (ISCED 7). Other degree programmes do not exist or are not considered to be higher education.

Malta: 'Other' degrees (e.g. single subjects) are not included in the sample as they are not considered to be higher education.

Norway: Short-cycle programmes are not included in the sample as they are not considered to be higher education. 'Other' postgraduate degrees are not included in the sample as they do not exist or are not considered to be higher education.

The Netherlands: Long national degrees and 'other' postgraduate degrees are not included in the sample as they do not exist or are not considered to be higher education. 'Other' degrees (e.g. single subjects) are not included in the sample. No private institutions are included in the sample due to the negligible size of the sector.

Poland: Short-cycle programmes, short national degrees, and 'other' degrees (e.g. single subjects) are not included in the sample as they do not exist or are not considered to be higher education. 'Other' postgraduate degrees are not included in the sample. **This constitutes a deviation from the EUROSTUDENT target group.**

Romania: No non-universities exist in Romania. Short national degrees, 'other' degrees (e.g. single subjects), and 'other' postgraduate degrees are not included in the sample as they do not exist, are not considered to be higher education, or constitute a negligible group.

Sweden: No non-universities exist in Sweden.

Slovenia: 'Other' postgraduate degrees do not exist in Slovenia.

TR: Short national degrees, 'other' postgraduate degrees, and 'other' degrees are not included in the sample as they do not exist or are not considered to be higher education. Part-time studies do not exist. HEIs are distinguished by 'public' and 'private' status. Data shown for 'non-universities' refer to private institutions.

Survey mode

EUROSTUDENT encourages the use of online surveys. Most national contributors have followed this recommendation, while others have chosen other methods based on the national context (Table A3.1).

Table A3.1

Main survey modes used by national contributors

	Online survey	Telephone interview
Countries	AT, CH, CZ, DE, DK, EE, FI, FR, GE, HR, HU, IE, IS, LT, LU, MT, NL, NO, PL, PT, RO, SE, SI, TR	DK, IT
Total number	24	2

**several modes per country possible*

Data cleaning and analysis

After the data collection, national contributors clean the data and prepare the calculation of national indicators. Detailed cleaning and coding instructions are given for each variable so that a national dataset adhering to EUROSTUDENT standards is created. SPSS syntax supporting this process is also provided.

EUROSTUDENT recommends weighting the raw data using population data on sex, age, study programme (BA, MA, etc.), type of HEI, and field of study. Additional weighting variables are encouraged. > *Appendix C3* provides an overview of the implemented weighting schemes at the national level.

The EUROSTUDENT data team supports the national research teams during the data cleaning and delivery process. Furthermore, each national team is required to attend a seminar at which the process is explained in detail and the steps are discussed between the national teams and the EUROSTUDENT data team.

The calculation of the indicators in EUROSTUDENT VII is carried out using a (semi-) automatic SPSS syntax. The results of these calculations are uploaded into the EUROSTUDENT database, where they are checked and commented on by the national teams. Delivered data are checked by the EUROSTUDENT data team before being validated for publication by the national researchers. Small deviations between the Synopsis of Indicators and the > *Database* may occur due to rounding.

Any deviations from the EUROSTUDENT conventions in national questionnaires or calculations are noted beneath each figure/table and explained in greater detail in > *Appendix C2*.

Empirical findings and interpretation

B

Part B

Chapter B1
Characteristics of national student populations

B 1

Key

Subject choice by gender

Despite the fact that, in the majority of EUROSTUDENT countries, women make up the majority of students in higher education, large gender imbalances exist with regard to subject choice. Female students in all countries are much more likely to study education or health and welfare than ICTs or engineering, manufacturing, and construction.

Age of students

Students' age varies widely across the EHEA.
On average, 64 % of students are under the age of 25. Across countries, older students are more often found among those who started higher education with a delay or entered using alternative access routes, and among those whose parents did not attain tertiary education and tend to have a different living situation with regard to family, housing, and work.

Students with children

On average, 11 % of students report having at least one child. Student parents are mainly found among older students, particularly 30 years of age and above. Students with children tend to study at non-universities and are more likely to be pursuing their studies with a low intensity, and having entered using alternative access routes.

findings

B 1

Students with impairments

Across EUROSTUDENT countries, 15 % of students report an impairment that is at least somewhat limiting in their studies, most commonly either mental health issues or physical chronic diseases. The proportions of students indicating feeling out of place in higher education are higher among students indicating an impairment than among their peers who do not.

Migration background

On average, 15 % of students have a familial migration background and 10 % of students possess a foreign entry qualification, that is, are international students. Compared to the population, students from the second generation of migrants, in other words, with at least one parent born abroad, are underrepresented in many (but not all) countries, particularly those students with two foreign-born parents.

B 1

Main issues

Previous EUROSTUDENT reports have shown that the student populations across Europe are diverse in their composition, varying in age, educational background, familial status, impairment status, and migration experience (DZHW, 2018; Hauschildt et al., 2015). Students' background characteristics may play an important role in determining their experience of higher education. Thus, it is important to avoid conceptualising students as a relatively uniform group and pay attention to aspects that may create diverging educational experiences. Recent studies in six European countries found that interviewed policy actors failed to emphasise any aspects of diversity beyond students' age (Brooks, 2019), whereas higher education staff, and particularly students themselves, showed greater awareness for the various diversity dimensions as well as their interplay (Brooks et al., 2020). Nevertheless, in the policy realm, the inclusion of different student groups has (re-)gained importance: in the most recent Bologna Communiqué (Rome Communiqué, 2020), building on the work of the Advisory Group for the Social Dimension in the past Bologna Follow-Up round, ministers responsible for higher education adopted the Principles and Guidelines for the Social Dimension. This document re-emphasises the intent to create a student body reflective of the heterogeneous social profile of EHEA societies, stressing the need to establish an inclusive higher education environment that fosters equity and diversity (Annex II to the Rome Communiqué, 2020). Making education and training more inclusive is also a stated goal at the European level with a view to the European Education Area in 2025 (European Commission, 2020).

In the higher education context, a variety of characteristics has been subsumed under the diversity term, such as gender, age, parental educational attainment, socio-economic background, ethnic/cultural/migration background, type of entry qualification, caring responsibilities, aspects related to health and disabilities, religious beliefs, as well as individual performance and competencies, objectives, expectations, and ambitions (Claeys-Kulik et al., 2019; Wolter, 2015). The EHEA's social dimension strategy mentions students' socio-economic status, age, gender, ethnicity, and disability as potential barriers to access, participation, and completion of higher education (European Higher Education Area, 2015, p. 2).

The EUROSTUDENT survey covers many of these aspects. This chapter presents data on students' gender and age, students with children, students' migration background, and students with impairments. The parental background of students and its implications are analysed in the next chapter (> *Chapter B2*).

Gender

Higher education has become "feminised" in the last decade (Hendley & Charles, 2015), to the point of individual HEIs reportedly recently pursuing "equality for men" (Kamakas, 2017), but gender imbalances still exist with regard to field of study. Men represent the majority of students enrolled in STEM subjects, whereas women are overrepresented in the humanities, the social sciences, teacher training, and, to a lesser extent, in medicine and other health-related fields (Barone & Assirelli, 2020; OECD, 2017). These imbalances are carried over into the labour market (Barone & Assirelli, 2020; World Economic Forum, 2020), contributing to a gender pay gap. In this way,

gender segregation in higher education leads to economic gender inequality (Ochsenfeld, 2014, p. 536).

Mechanisms behind the differences in enrolment across fields that have been posited include gender differences in the perception and assessment of expected earnings, gender differences in risk-aversion and confidence, as well as different preferences of men and women with regard to fields of study (Declercq et al., 2018). Differences in mathematic or scientific skills and abilities, however, have not been conclusively shown to explain the pattern of study choice (Barone & Assirelli, 2020; Declercq et al., 2018), although early tracking into different school types in secondary school may contribute to different abilities by the time students enrol in higher education (Barone & Assirelli, 2020). Peer effects (Barone & Assirelli, 2020; Gabay-Egozi et al., 2015) and gendered stereotypes (Gewinner, 2017) have also recently been examined as a potential influencing factor. While EUROSTUDENT data do not permit examination of the reasons behind gendered enrolment, they allow insights into the situation of male and female students with regard to a wide range of indicators, going beyond the well-known unequal distribution.

Age

Students' age is one of the most characteristic distinctions between student populations in the EHEA, varying greatly between countries (DZHW, 2018; Hauschildt et al., 2015). It is an important aspect to take into account when comparing the situation across different higher education systems. Older students' lives are more likely to be settled, whereas younger students tend to be in a more open, developmental phase (Arnett, 2000, 2007). The personal and living situation is therefore related to students' age, as is in many cases the academic and study history of mature students. In this way, age is a proxy for relevant information to understand students' circumstances. Additionally, students' age may play a role with regard to study-related laws, rules, and regulations – it is used in many countries, for example, to determine eligibility for financial student support, health insurance, or alternative access routes into HE.

Students with children

Caring for (minor) children puts constraints on students' time, finances, and attention. Previous studies have highlighted some challenges students face in reconciling the need to care for their offspring with the demands of studying for a higher education degree: besides a general time paucity and financial struggles, restrictive policies regarding attendance or bringing children to class, as well as a lack of childcare facilities challenge student parents' organisation (Alsop et al., 2008; Brooks, 2012b; Marandet & Wainwright, 2010), particularly if they do not have a co-parent to support them (Byrne & Murray, 2017; Lyonette et al., 2015). Measures to counteract the challenges of parenting while studying have been put in place by individual institutions as well as countries (Brooks, 2012a, 2012b), for example, by introducing more flexible study paths. Corresponding to the varying average age of students and the associated relationship development, the percentage of students with children varies greatly across countries in the EHEA (DZHW, 2018; Hauschildt et al., 2015). The degree to which studying as a parent is regarded as "normal" in a certain country or educational context may affect students' experiences (Pearson, 2019) as well as the services and support available to them.

Students with impairments

Enabling the participation of people with disabilities in (higher) education is a stated goal of European policy (European Commission, 2010). Students with impairments often face particular challenges in accessing and completing higher education (Järkestig Berggren et al., 2016; Pavone et al., 2019). This includes difficulty in fulfilling the required attendance or study intensity (Poskowsky et al., 2018; Terzieva et al., 2016), but also increased expenditure, lower income, less earning potential from paid jobs, and more financial difficulties compared to their peers (DZHW, 2018). In addition, transitioning into the labour market after graduation has been identified as less smooth for this group (Pavone et al., 2019; Weedon, 2017). Not all impairments are immediately apparent (Langørgen & Magnus, 2018; Zaussinger & Terzieva, 2018) – mental health struggles are not uncommon among higher education students (DZHW, 2018; Holm-Hadulla & Koutsoukou-Argyraki, 2015), and bodily impairments are not necessarily visible either (e.g. chronic diseases, loss of hearing). Depending on the nature of a particular student's impairment, higher education institutions (HEIs) may support a successful course of study in different ways. Systemic measures taken by HEIs include ensuring alternative ways of accessing teaching materials, improving physical access, and providing accessible information, whereas individual adjustments are more directly geared towards the individual student's specific need (e.g. note takers, lab assistants, individual learning plans, learner support services, exam accommodations) (Collins et al., 2019). A recent systematic review has identified the positive impact of assistive technology on academic engagement, psychological well-being, and social participation of students with disabilities (McNicholl et al., 2019). Beyond institutional measures, the attitudes and behaviour of staff and fellow students have also been identified as relevant contextual factors for the success of students with impairments (Langørgen & Magnus, 2018).

EUROSTUDENT indicators provide insight into the percentage of students self-reporting a disability, impairment, long-standing health problem, or functional limitation, as well as these students' assessments regarding their feelings of belonging and the public and institutional support they receive.

Students' migration background

In many European countries, immigrants and their descendants face disadvantages in the educational system (Bilgili et al., 2019; Camilleri & Mühleck, 2013; Hadjar & Gross, 2016; Teltemann & Schunck, 2016). Particularly earlier educational outcomes (i.e. at primary and secondary school) may be strongly related to a pupil's migration background, especially in systems with early tracking into different school types (Murdoch et al., 2016; van de Werfhorst & Heath, 2019). In many countries, lower levels of educational attainment of migrants can be traced back to the lower socio-economic background of students' parents (Oberdabernig & Schneebaum, 2017). Language skills and institutional hurdles based on legal status are additional factors of relevance with potentially negative effects on migrants' educational trajectories (Griga, 2013). However, several studies have shown immigrants' educational aspirations to be higher than their native counterparts (Griga, 2013; Hadjar & Scharf, 2019), and research focusing on educational transitions, taking into account students' socio-economic status and performance, has indeed found that disadvantaged migrants are more likely to choose more demanding educational settings (Murdoch et al., 2016). Migrants'

educational outcomes are therefore not necessarily lower than those of the majority population; in fact, certain immigrant groups, e.g. Asians in the United States, in fact routinely outperform it (van de Werfhorst & Heath, 2019).

EUROSTUDENT analyses focus on second-generation migrants – that is, students with at least one parent born in another country (Figure B1.1). These students, especially those with only one foreign parent (Camilleri & Mühleck, 2013), are less likely to face language-related barriers and problems related to their legal status – many have the national citizenship (Table B1.6). However, differences between the majority population and their family with regard to social background and educational aspirations remain relevant.

The chapter presents data on the diversity of student populations in the EHEA countries, focusing on students' gender, age, students with children, students with impairments, and students' migration background. The socio-economic background of students is analysed separately in > *Chapter B2*.

Methodological and conceptual notes

Measuring students' migration background

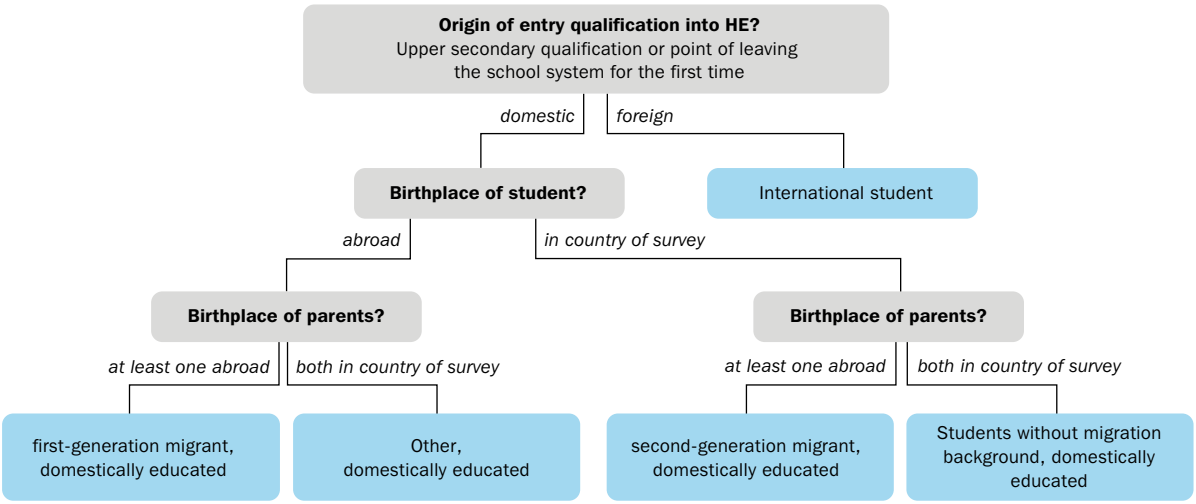
The EUROSTUDENT focus group distinction employed throughout this report categorises students according to their migration background, based on their own and their parents' place of birth. In addition, to be able to distinguish international students, EUROSTUDENT considers the place of attainment of the higher education entry qualification, or, in the absence of this, the place of last attending the regular school system. Application of this scheme results in the following categories:

- students without a migration background, domestically educated: students who were born in the country of survey, as were their parents, and who attended/completed the school system in the country of the survey
- first-generation migrants, domestically educated: students born abroad who attended/completed the national school system
- international students: students born abroad who attended/completed a foreign school system
- second-generation migrants, domestically educated: students with at least one parent born abroad, who were born in the country of survey, and who attended/completed the national school system
- other students, domestically educated: students born abroad, with parents born in the country of survey, who attended/completed the national school system

In addition, the EUROSTUDENT survey covers both students' and parents' citizenship to provide a slightly different perspective on students' backgrounds (Aspinall, 2007; Gorodzeisky & Leykin, 2019; Gresch & Kristen, 2011). This information is reported in this chapter, whereas other chapters mainly employ the focus group classification described above.

Figure B1.1

Concept of migration background in EUROSTUDENT



EUROSTUDENT does not collect information about students' (or their parents') reasons for migration, or any information about their official residency status. No distinction can be made between refugee students and other students with a migration background. It is therefore not possible to identify, for example, students seeking or having been granted asylum. Any such students will be classified as international students (if they completed school abroad) or first-generation migrants (if they last attended school in the country of survey).

Measuring students' impairment

In the EUROSTUDENT context, the term "impairment" is used to refer to any self-perceived disability, impairment, long-standing health problem, or functional limitation. The EUROSTUDENT focus group takes into account only those students who report some limitations in their studies due to such an impairment[1]. This focus on limitations represents an adaptation of the Global Activity Limitation Indicator (GALI), a measure that is also used in official European statistics (Bogaert et al., 2018). It should also be noted that, compared to the GALI, the EUROSTUDENT survey likely underestimates the share of students with limitations, as only students indicating an impairment are asked to indicate the extent of their limitation.

It should be noted that measuring impairments and activity limitations in a cross-national comparison is challenging. Previous studies have confirmed the relevance of the GALI for measuring activity limitations in Europe, but caution against direct comparisons between two countries (Berger et al., 2015). Instead, the authors advise focusing on patterns and trends.

1 *This represents a change from previous EUROSTUDENT rounds, where "students with impairments" referred to all students indicating an impairment, regardless of the limitations experienced.*

Data and interpretation

Gender

Women are the majority of students in most countries, but large gender imbalances by fields of study exist.

In all EUROSTUDENT countries except Germany and Turkey, women make up the majority of students in higher education (Figure B1.2).

- In Iceland, Norway, and Sweden, female students represent at least 60 % of all students, whereas the gender balance in the Netherlands, Georgia, and Ireland is almost even, with women making up only slightly more than half of all students. In Germany and Turkey, the share of female students is slightly lower than that of males.

In several countries, large differences between universities and non-universities can be observed with regard to the gender balance. However, while in some countries clearly higher shares of women attend universities, the pattern is reversed in others (Table B1.1).

- In Germany, France, Georgia, Croatia, Ireland, and Slovenia, the proportions of women are at least eight percentage points higher at universities than at non-universities. In Lithuania, Denmark, and Turkey, on the other hand, larger shares of female students can be found at non-universities (at least eight percentage points higher).

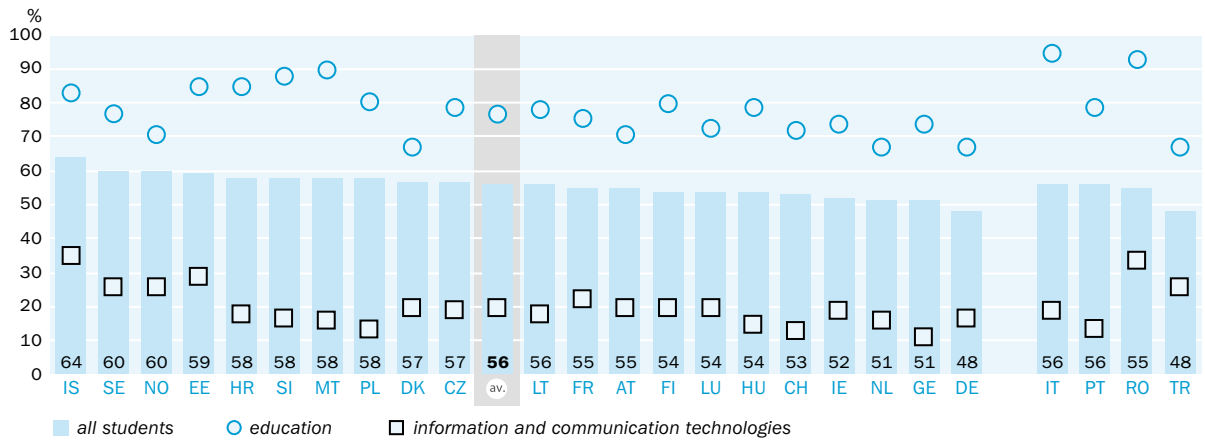
Similarly, no clear pattern can be observed regarding the gender balance in Bachelor's vs. Master's programmes. In fourteen countries, the share of women between the two types of programmes does not differ by more than two percentage points in either direction.

- In Austria, Sweden, and Turkey, however, clearly higher percentages of female students are enrolled in Bachelor programmes than can be observed in Master programmes. By contrast, in Estonia, Finland, Georgia, Ireland, Iceland, Poland, Portugal, and Romania, more women are studying in Master programmes. Both patterns point to unequal transitions between educational cycles according to gender.

Figure B1.2

Female students in selected fields of study

Share of female students (in %)



Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, A.3.

EUROSTUDENT question(s): 6.2 What is your #sex?

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: FI, IT, SE.

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, IT, PL.

Particularly striking is the large imbalance in gender in the different fields of study (Figure B1.2). Female students in all countries are much more likely to study in the field of education or health and welfare than in information and communication technologies or engineering, manufacturing, and construction.

- Compared to the average share of women in the country, the overrepresentation of female students in education subjects is comparatively high in Slovenia, Malta, Italy, and Romania, where the proportions of female students in the field of education are more than 30 percentage points higher than the average share of female students.
- The greatest underrepresentation of female students in the field of ICTs is in Croatia, Slovenia, Malta, Poland, Switzerland, Georgia, and Portugal. The shares of female students are between 40 and 44 percentage points lower among students of ICTs than on average in the country.

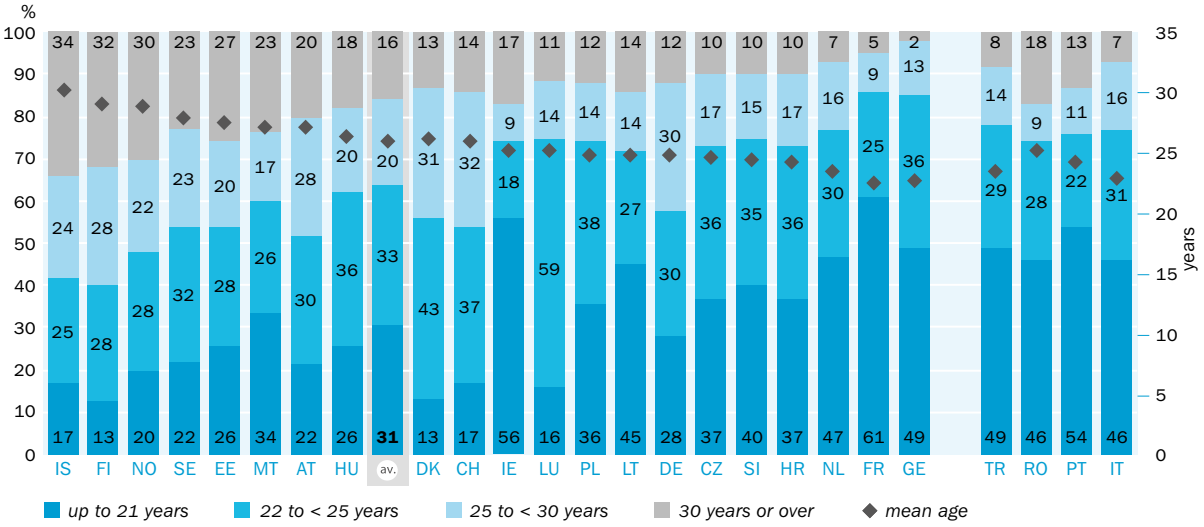
On average, female students tend to make up larger percentages of students without a tertiary education background – in the Czech Republic, Croatia, Iceland, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, and Turkey, their share is at least five percentage points higher in this group (Table B1.1). The reversed pattern appears to emerge in Denmark, Georgia, Luxembourg, and Portugal, but the difference between the groups is at most three percentage points.

On average, slightly higher proportions of female students than male students appear to have made use of direct transition routes into higher education (Table B1.1). In Austria, Georgia, Croatia, Ireland, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal,

Figure B1.3

Age profile of students

Share of students in different age groups (in %) and mean age (in years)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, A.1.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *6.1 When were you born?*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *IS, IT, NO, SE.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Romania, and Turkey, clearly higher shares of female students enter higher education directly after leaving school. By contrast, in Switzerland, Estonia, Sweden, and Italy, the percentages of women are larger among delayed transition students (Table B1.1). With regard to alternative vs. standard access routes, female students are (at least slightly) more often found to have used standard access routes in all countries except Switzerland, Estonia, France, Iceland, and Lithuania. Especially in Austria, Georgia, Croatia, Slovenia, Portugal, Romania, and Turkey, the share of women having entered through standard access routes is clearly higher than that of women using non-traditional access routes (at least 11 percentage points higher).

With regard to migration background, no difference is apparent among female students on average across countries (Table B1.1). However, looking into the pattern in more detail, it becomes clear that, in many countries, there are marked differences in the share of women between second-generation migrant students who have been domestically educated and students without a migration background.

In most countries, women are more likely to be living in separate accommodation than with their parents (Table B1.1). The only exceptions to this pattern are Austria, Georgia, Luxembourg, Malta, Italy, Romania, and Turkey.

Age

Students' age varies widely across the EHEA. On average, 64 % are under the age of 25.

Students' age varies widely across the EHEA. On average, 64 % of students are under the age of 25 (Figure B1.3).

- In Iceland, Finland, and Norway, students aged 30 and over make up the largest part of the student population. Roughly a third of students in these countries have celebrated their 30th birthday. At most 20 % of students are in the age group up to 21 years.
- In Malta, Ireland, Lithuania, the Czech Republic, Slovenia, Croatia, the Netherlands, France, Georgia, Turkey, Romania, Portugal, and Italy, by contrast, the youngest student group is the largest: roughly between a third and up to 61 % of all students fall into this youngest age category and represent the largest age group within the country, respectively.
- In Sweden, Estonia, Austria, Hungary, Denmark, Switzerland, Luxembourg, Poland, and Germany, the largest share of students is between the ages of 22 and 24[2].

The living and study situation of older students is often very different to that of their younger peers.

The average age of students varies between under 24 years in Georgia, France, the Netherlands, and Turkey, and between 28 and 30 years in Iceland, Finland, and Norway (Figure B1.3). Older students tend to be those who entered higher education with a delay or via alternative access routes (Table B1.3). Similarly, students without a tertiary education background – who usually enter higher education through delayed or alternative access routes – are on average older than their peers in all countries except Georgia. Students engaging in paid jobs for more than 20 hours per week are also clearly older than their peers in all countries. With regard to their living situation, older students are more likely to have moved out of the parental home, and more often depend on their own income, rather than on their family or public support (Table B1.3, also > *Chapters 7 and 9*). Among other issues, this finding is likely related to eligibility criteria preventing them from receiving financial support from the state.

2 *In Germany, an equal share of students (30 %) is between the ages of 25–29.*

B 1

Students with children

Student parents make up 11 % of all students, and 7 % of first-year students.

Across EUROSTUDENT countries, the percentage of students who are parents varies widely (Figure B1.4). On average, 11 % of students report having at least one child, with the average number of children being 1.9 (Table B1.4). Among first-year students, the share of student parents is 7 % on average across countries (Table B1.5)

- At least 20 % of students are parents in Iceland, Norway, and Estonia, whereas this applies to not even every tenth student in the Czech Republic, Slovenia, Austria, Croatia, Switzerland, Germany, Georgia, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, France, Portugal, Turkey, and Italy.
- The largest proportions of student parents among first year students – in other words, those students who have entered higher education as either expecting or actual parents can be found in Finland, Iceland, and Malta. Here, between 13 % and 17 % of students studying in their first year of higher education are parents (Table B1.5).

On average, around half of student parents report that their youngest child is under the age of six (Figure B1.4).

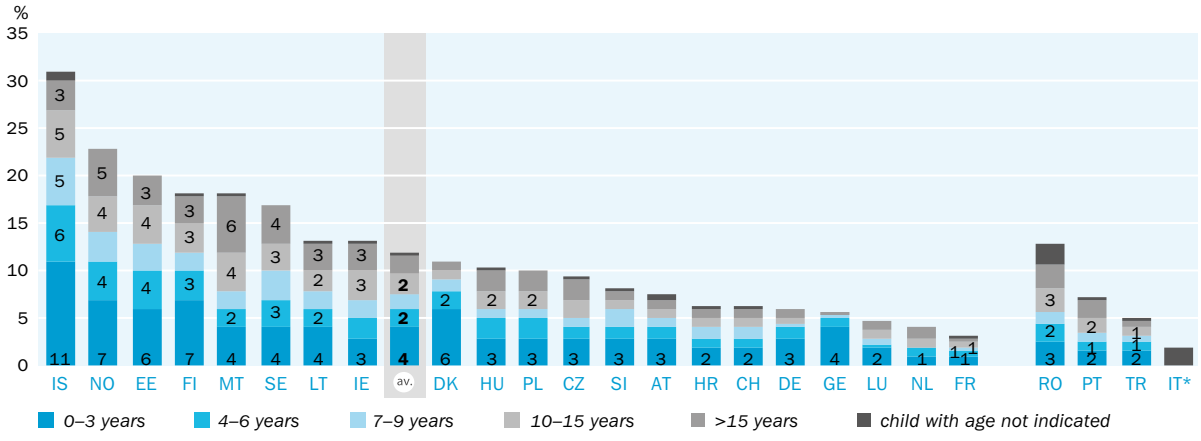
- Particularly large shares of young children can be found in Iceland, Finland, Denmark, Austria, Germany, Georgia, and Turkey – in these countries, more than half and up to 90 % of students' children are no older than six years.
- In Malta, Ireland, and Portugal, on the other hand, at least 60 % of children are above the age of six.

Student parents are mainly found among relatively older students. In the age group 30 years of age and older, on average across countries, more than half of all students indicate having children (Table B1.5).

Figure B1.4

Students with children by age of youngest child

Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, A.17. No data on age of children: IT.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *6.8 Do you have children? 6.9 How old is your youngest child?*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *AT, SE.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

- In Denmark, Estonia, Georgia, Iceland, Lithuania, and Romania, the share of student parents exceeds 10 % in the age group of students between 25 and 29.
- No more than 10 % of students are parents in any other age groups across countries.

The percentage of students having entered using alternative access routes and who are parents is, on average, almost three times higher than among their peers with a standard entry qualification (Table B1.5). In line with the higher age of student parents, they are more commonly found among Master students than among students pursuing a Bachelor's degree. Furthermore, students with children tend to study at non-universities and purse their studies with a low intensity. In a majority of countries, female students are more likely to be parents than male students.

Students with impairments

15 % of students report an impairment that limits their studies.

The share of students indicating a disability, impairment, long-standing health problem, or functional limitation that is limiting or extremely limiting in their studies varies between 5 % in Romania and 31 % in Iceland (Figure B1.5). Across EUROSTUDENT countries, 15 % of students report an impairment that is at least somewhat limiting in their studies.

- In five countries, this applies to at least every fifth student; namely, in Iceland, Finland, Norway, Sweden, and the Netherlands.
- In Germany, Estonia, Georgia, Hungary, Turkey, and Romania, on the other hand, the share of students indicating a limiting impairment is less than 10 %.

The most reported impairments are mental health issues, physical chronic diseases, and 'other long-standing health issues'.

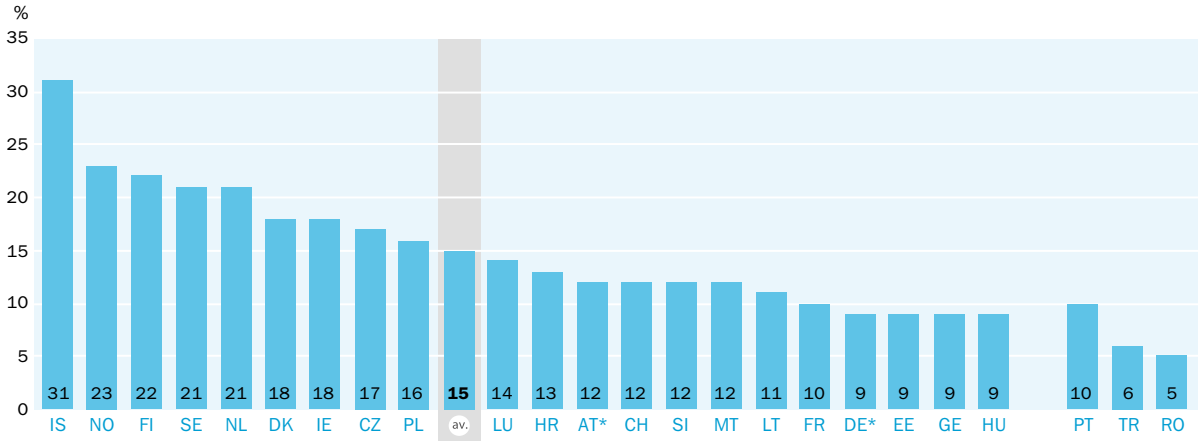
As noted in this chapter's methodological and conceptual notes, however, cross-country comparisons using percentages of impairment are of limited comparability and should therefore not be over-interpreted. Regardless of the share of students indicating any impairment, however, some common patterns emerge across countries. In almost all EUROSTUDENT countries, the types of impairment most often reported are either mental health issues, physical chronic diseases, or 'other long-standing health issues' (> *Database*). Mobility impairments are on average the least frequent type of impairment – in no country does the share of students reporting mobility impairments exceed three percent.

- In Austria, Georgia, Lithuania, Norway, and Poland, the commonest impairments indicated by students are physical chronic diseases.
- In Denmark, Estonia, Iceland, Ireland, Luxembourg, Malta, the Netherlands, and Sweden, the largest share of students reports having mental health problems compared to other types of impairments.
- In Croatia, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Romania, and Turkey, students most often indicate 'other long-standing health problems/functional limitations/impairments', and in Slovenia, percentages of physical chronic diseases and mental health problems are equal. In Portugal, the most commonly reported type of limitation is 'sensory impairment (vision or hearing)'.

Figure B1.5

Students at least somewhat limited in their studies due to a health impairment

Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, A.4.* ***No data:*** *IT.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *6.10 Please indicate whether you have a disability, impairment, long-standing health problem, functional limitation, or learning disability. 6.12 Due to your impairment(s), to what extent are you limited in in your studies?*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

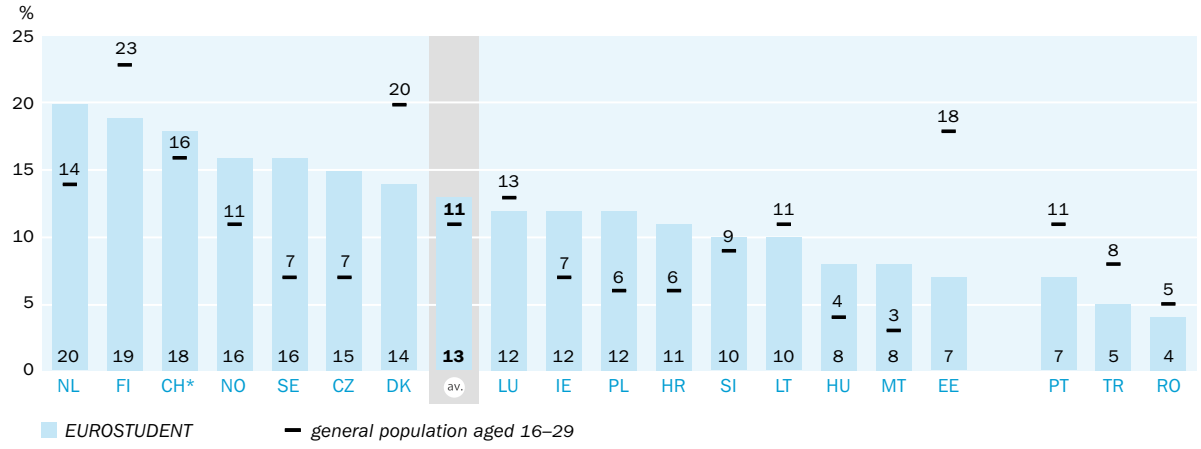
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *AT, CH, DE, SE, SI.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Figure B1.6

Students with impairments in EUROSTUDENT and the general population

Share of respondents indicating severe or somewhat severe limitations in their daily life due to an impairment (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, A.8. Eurostat: EU-SILC 2019 [hlth_silc_07], age group 16–29.* ***No data:*** *AT, DE, FR, IT.* ***No EU-SILC data:*** *GE, IS.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *6.12 Due to your impairment(s), to what extent are you limited in activities people usually do?*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *CH, SE, SI.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

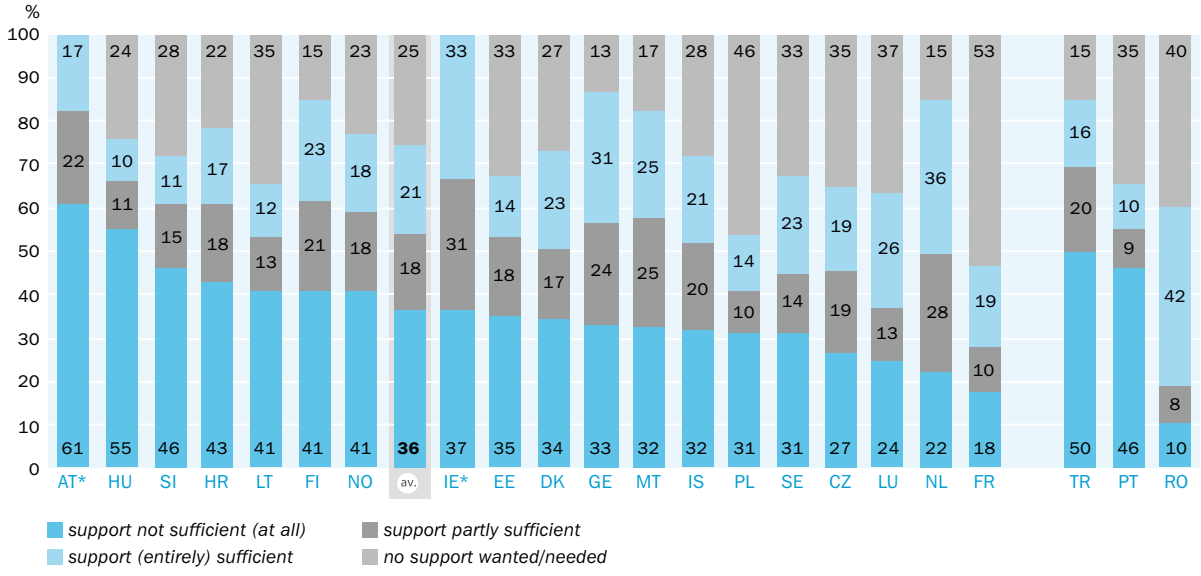
The types of impairment students have are therefore not necessarily visible or apparent to their HEI, teachers, and fellow students. This is reflected in students' assessment of the noticeability of their impairment: on average across EUROSTUDENT countries, around 70 % of students report that their impairment is not noticeable, and slightly more than one in five students believe it is only noticeable after some time (> *Database*). Not even every tenth student indicates that their impairment would be immediately noticeable. Compared to the population aged 16–29, students in higher education, on average in the EUROSTUDENT countries, report an impairment limiting their daily life somewhat more frequently at 13 % vs 11 % (Figure B1.6). There is no clear pattern across countries, however.

- Clearly higher percentages of students report a limitation in daily life through an impairment than the general population in the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, the Czech Republic, Ireland, Poland, Croatia, Hungary, and Malta. The percentages of students with limiting impairments are roughly 1.5 to two times higher than among the general population.
- In Denmark, Estonia, Portugal, and Turkey, the shares of students with an impairment limiting their daily activities are below 75 % of the respective figures in the general population.
- In Finland, Switzerland, Luxembourg, Slovenia, Lithuania, and Romania, comparable shares of students and general population respondents indicate that they are limited by an impairment in their daily life (80 %–115 %).

Figure B1.7

Impaired students' assessment of public and institutional support

Share of students with impairments that are at least somewhat limiting in their studies (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, A.12.* ***No data:*** *CH, DE, IT.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *6.13. Please think of the limitations you face in your studies due to your impairment: How would you rate the public and institutional support you receive to overcome these limitations?*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *AT, IE.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Satisfaction of students with impairments regarding the support they receive varies widely – on average, 36 % of students rate it as insufficient.

On average, across EUROSTUDENT countries, 36 % of students with impairments rate the public and institutional support they receive as not (at all) sufficient (Figure B1.7). 18 % of students find the support to be at least partly sufficient, while 21 % consider it (entirely) sufficient. A quarter of students with impairments (25 %) state that they do not want or need any support.

- Comparatively large percentages of students are dissatisfied with the support they receive in Austria, Hungary, Slovenia, Croatia, Lithuania, Finland, Norway, Turkey, and Portugal, where this applies to more than 40 % of students.
- In Ireland, Georgia, the Netherlands, and Romania, more than 30 % of students are satisfied with the public and institutional support they receive.

Finally, previous EUROSTUDENT analyses (Hauschildt, Gwosc, Schirmer, & Cras, 2020) indicated that higher education in the EHEA is apparently not always a welcoming environment for students with impairments. This finding still holds: in all analysed countries, the share of students indicating they often feel that they do not belong in higher education are – often clearly – higher among students indicating an impairment than among their peers who do not. On average, a quarter of students with impairments often feel out of place in higher education – this figure is 10 percentage points higher than among students without an impairment.

A quarter of students have an international background through family or education.

Migration background

On average, across EUROSTUDENT countries, 15 % of students have a familial migration background and 10 % of students possess a foreign entry qualification, that is, are international students (Figure B1.8). Among domestically educated students with parents born abroad, second-generation students with one or both parents born abroad outnumber first-generation students who were born abroad themselves in almost all countries.

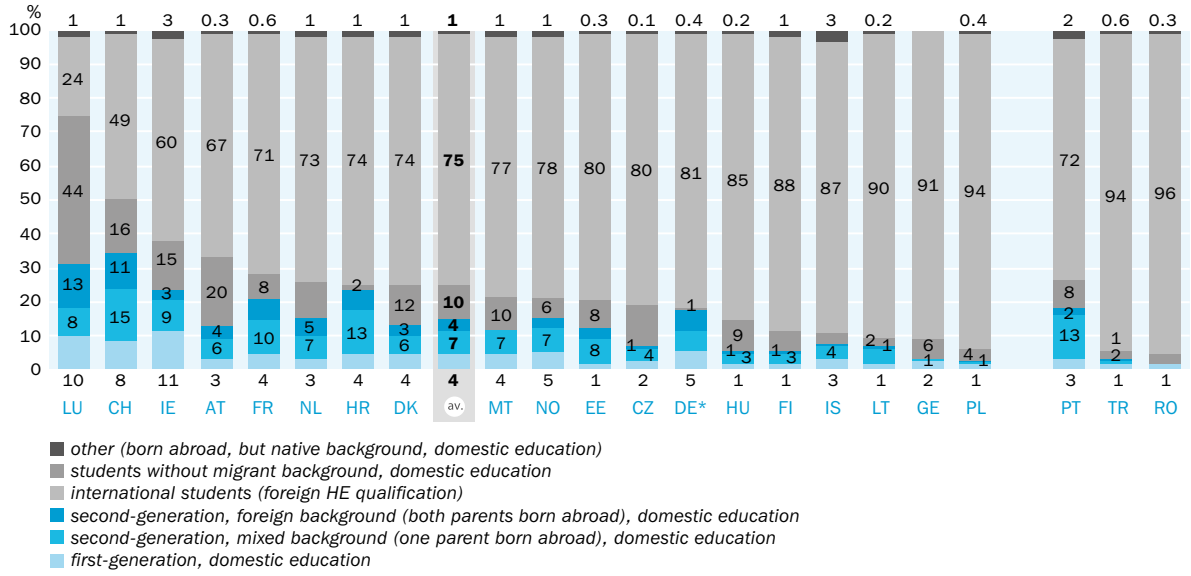
- The largest shares of students with an international background can be found in Luxembourg, Switzerland, Ireland, Austria, France, the Netherlands, Croatia, Denmark, and Portugal. In these countries, at least a quarter of students were either born abroad, have at least one parent born abroad, or possess a foreign entry qualification.
- Lithuania, Georgia, Poland, Turkey, and Romania are relatively homogeneous with regard to students' international background, with at most ten percent of students coming from an international family or educational background.

The percentages of students with (only) foreign citizenship are lower than those of students with any kind of migration background in all countries (Table B1.6). This is because students' migration background is a more encompassing concept than students' citizenship, as it also takes students' parents into account. Unsurprisingly, students holding only foreign citizenship are mainly found in the group of international students, among whom this applies to 74 % to 96 % in all countries but three. Among first-generation migrants with a national education background, an average 39 % of students do not hold a national citizenship, although there is great variation among countries. Among second-generation migrants, and of course, students born and educated in the country of the survey, foreign citizenship holders are rarer.

Figure B1.8

Migration and education background of students

Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, A.18.* ***No data:*** *IT, SE, SI.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *6.4 In which country were you and your parents (or those who raised you) born?*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *DK, NO.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Compared to the general population (Figure B1.9), on average, about as many students from the second generation of migrants, that is, with at least one parent born abroad, are found among higher education students as would be expected; but there is relatively large variation across countries.

- The figures are more or less equal in Switzerland, Croatia, Ireland, Norway, and Poland.
- In France, Lithuania, Hungary, and Portugal, more second-generation migrants are found among higher education students than among the population aged 15–26.
- Underrepresentation can be observed in Germany, Austria, the Netherlands, Slovenia, Estonia, the Czech Republic, and Finland, where the share of second-generation students only reaches at most 80 % of the population level.

Closer analysis reveals that, in the majority of countries, second-generation students with both parents born abroad tend to be less well represented, compared to the population, than students with only one parent not born in the country of the survey.

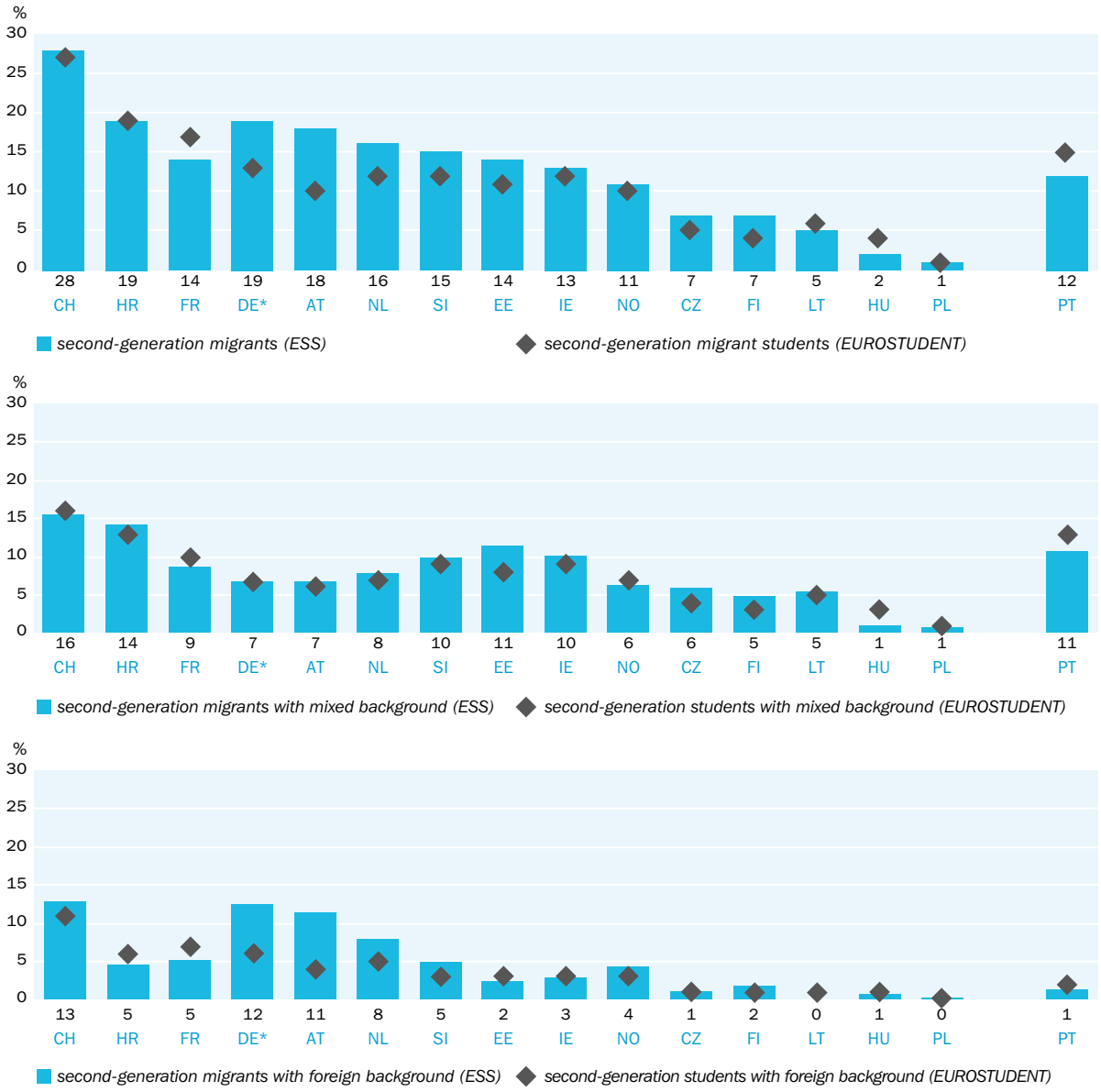
- Exceptions to this pattern are Croatia, France, Estonia, Ireland, the Czech Republic, and Portugal, where students with two foreign-born parents are better represented compared to the population than those with only one.

Over time, the percentage of second-generation students has increased in most student populations in the EUROSTUDENT countries (Figure B1.10). While the change in the average across countries with available data is minor (8 % in EUROSTUDENT V & VI,

9 % in E:VII), a slow increase in values can be observed in all countries except Estonia, Malta, the Czech Republic, and Romania, where a slight decrease can be observed. No changes in the percentage of migrants are apparent in France, Lithuania, and Turkey, whereas Georgia shows an inconclusive pattern across the three rounds.

Figure B1.9

Students' migration background compared to the population (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, A.18. Population data: European Social Survey 2018. ESS values refer to the population aged 15–29.* ***No data:*** *IT, SE. No ESS data: DK, GE, IS, LU, MT, RO, TR.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *6.4 In which country were you and your parents (or those who raised you) born?*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

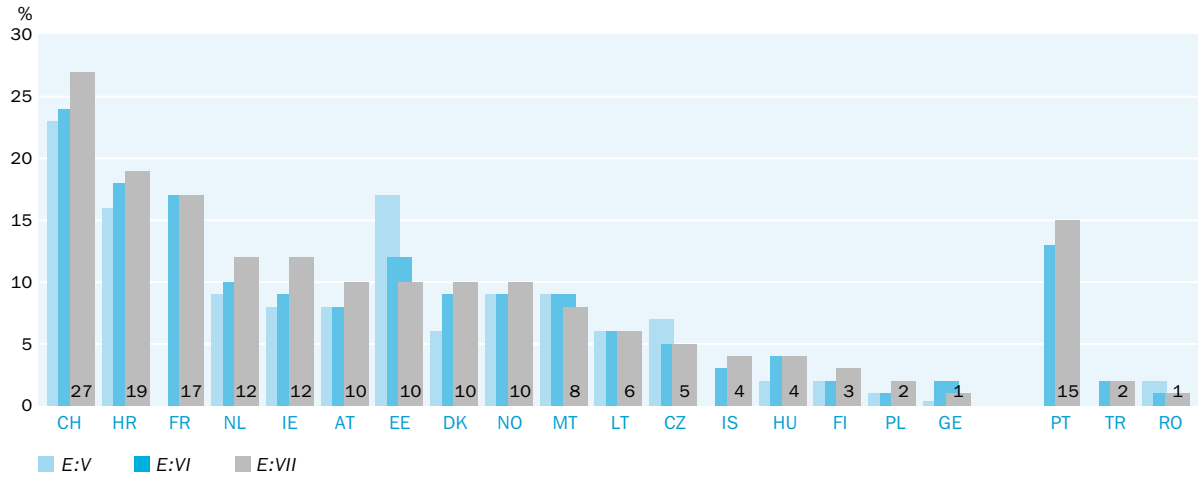
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *DK, NO.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Figure B1.10

Second-generation migrant students in EUROSTUDENT V, VI and VII

Share of second-generation migrant students (regardless of educational background), in %



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, A.18.* ***No data:*** *E:VII: DE, IT, SE, SI. E:VI: LU. E:V: FR, IS, PT, TR.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *6.4 In which country were you and your parents (or those who raised you) born?*

Data collection: *E:V: 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014. 3; E:VI: 2016, 2017. E:VII: Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions*: DK, NO.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Discussion and policy considerations

As the Principles and Guidelines to Strengthen the Social Dimension of Higher Education in the EHEA (Annex II to the Rome Communiqué, 2020) highlight, data on students' background characteristics are highly relevant to create awareness and, in turn, develop policies and practices enabling equitable access, participation, progress, and completion of higher education for different demographic groups. Such data can also help raise awareness at the institutional level to enable HEIs to create inclusive learning environments that adequately address and support students (Annex II to the Rome Communiqué, 2020; Brooks et al., 2020; Claeys-Kulik et al., 2019).

The EUROSTUDENT data on the demographic composition of the student population presented in this chapter highlight once again the diversity of Europe's student populations. Between EHEA countries, the average student age may differ by up to eight years. By the same token, the percentages of students who are parents vary greatly; however, on average across countries, more than half of students over the age of 30 indicate that they have children. Similarly, while shares of students indicating an impairment vary greatly across countries, a common finding in almost all EUROSTUDENT countries is that the types of impairment most commonly reported are either mental health issues or physical chronic diseases. Also, there is a large variation in the shares of students with a migration background: while more than 90 % of students in some countries have a national family background and domestic education, Luxembourg, Ireland, Austria, and Switzerland stand out as countries with a particularly large

percentage of students (> 30 %) with some kind of international background (either being migrants or international students). With regard to gender, the continuing gender divide by subject found across all countries, in which men more often pursue ICTs subjects, whereas women are more often enrolled in education, is particularly striking.

Understanding the needs of specific student groups to develop adequate policies and measures to address them at the European, national, and institutional level remains highly relevant. Examples of such specific measures include ensuring physical and virtual accessibility for all students, the creation of lactation spaces for nursing mothers (Sturtevant et al., 2020), or family-friendly library areas (Moore et al., 2020). However, many policies and measures may simultaneously serve needs related to different aspects of students' backgrounds, for example,the flexibilisation of studies. While the data presented in this chapter focus on individual characteristics one by one, it should be highlighted that different demographic categories typically apply to one student at the same time, creating individualised experiences. For example, it has been argued that students from lower socio-economic backgrounds who are also disabled may suffer a double disadvantage (Weedon, 2017). Mental health may be experienced differently by ethnic minorities (Arday, 2018). Balancing the student identity with others, such as that of a parent, can create uncertainties (Scharp et al., 2020).

An awareness for this intersectionality should guide the development of policies and measures, taking into account the fact that, as the student population as a whole, the intended target group is not homogeneous, but made up of students with a variety of intersecting identities. An equitable and inclusive learning experience "addresses factors that make the student's learning path harder or discontinuous" (EUA, 2021). Supporting students from all backgrounds through national level policies as well as institutional measures can create an environment in which diversity is an asset and not a deficit (Moriña et al., 2020; Smith, 2015).

Tables

Table B1.1

Female students by type of HEI, study programme, field of study, educational background, transition duration, migration background, entry qualification, and housing situation

Share of students (in %)

		Type of HEI		Study programme		Field of study				Educational background		Transition duration		Migration background		Entry qualification		Housing situation	
	Female students	University	Non-university	Bachelor	Master	Education	ICTs	Engineering, manufacturing, and construction	Health and welfare	Non-tertiary education background	Tertiary education background	Direct transition	Delayed transition	2nd gen. migrant, domestically educated	Without migration background, domestically educated	Alternative access route	Standard access route	Living with parents	Not living with parents
AT	55	54	55	55	52	71	20	29	66	56	54	57	49	56	54	43	56	57	54
CH	53	52	54	53	53	72	13	23	71	55	52	53	57	54	53	53	53	52	54
CZ	57	57	53	56	55	79	19	34	73	60	53	57	59	57	57	55	57	53	58
DE	48	52	42	47	47	67	17	25	68	49	49	48	50	50	48	41	49	43	50
DK	57	53	63	59	57	67	20	31	78	56	58	58	58	59	58	57	58	55	59
EE	59	59	59	58	61	85	29	33	77	60	60	58	64	55	63	60	59	55	60
FI	54	54	53	52	57	80	20	19	80	56	53	53	55	53	54	52	54	40	54
FR	55	60	42	58	57	76	23	28	70	56	54	54	58	57	55	58	55	55	55
GE	51	52	43	50	56	74	11	16	55	50	52	52	25	54	52	31	51	52	49
HR	58	60	47	56	58	85	18	34	75	62	52	58	51	60	57	39	58	55	60
HU	54	54	56	52	54	79	15	27	67	57	53	54	55	51	55	48	54	53	55
IE	52	55	47	53	57	74	19	23	71	51	51	53	49	51	50	47	53	49	53
IS	64	64	n/a	62	70	83	35	32	80	69	61	64	64	73	65	66	63	56	69
LT	56	54	62	56	58	78	18	24	80	62	53	56	58	56	57	68	56	48	60
LU	54	54	57	54	53	73	20	16	71	55	56	55	51	58	50	47	55	55	53
MT	58	59	55	55	53	90	16	34	65	60	54	58	59	51	58	52	60	59	54
NL	51	52	51	52	51	67	16	23	74	52	52	52	49	53	51	46	52	50	52
NO	60	59	62	59	60	71	26	32	80	64	60	62	54	56	61	57	61	56	61
PL	58	57	60	53	67	81	14	36	75	61	55	58	58	56	58	53	58	57	59
SE	60	60	n/a	61	52	77	26	34	78	62	59	58	63	n.d.	n.d.	57	60	52	61
SI	58	61	49	59	59	88	17	21	78	59	58	59	46	n.d.	n.d.	44	59	55	60
av.	**56**	**56**	**53**	**55**	**57**	**77**	**20**	**27**	**73**	**58**	**55**	**56**	**54**	**56**	**56**	**51**	**56**	**53**	**57**
IT	56	56	n/a	54	55	95	19	28	66	58	54	56	60	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	57	55
PT	56	56	57	57	60	79	14	27	93	55	58	57	47	60	56	45	57	55	58
RO	55	55	n/a	51	58	93	34	34	65	57	53	56	45	54	54	40	56	56	55
TR	48	47	58	48	43	67	26	24	69	50	45	50	40	56	49	40	51	54	46

n/a: not applicable. n.d.: no data.

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, A.3.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *6.2 What is your #sex?*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *FI, IT, SE.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Table B1.2

Age profile of students and mean age by sex, type of HEI, and study programme

Share of students (in %), (in years)

	Age				Mean	SD	Median	Mean age					
								Sex		Type of HEI		Study programme	
	Up to 21 years	22 to <25 years	25 to <30 years	30 years or over				Female	Male	University	Non-university	Bachelor	Master
AT	22	30	28	20	27.0	7.6	24.8	26.4	27.7	27.1	26.7	25.9	29.4
CH	17	37	32	14	25.8	5.7	24.3	25.8	25.8	25.0	26.8	24.8	28.3
CZ	37	36	17	10	24.6	5.8	22.9	24.6	24.6	24.3	26.6	23.9	26.8
DE	28	30	30	12	24.7	5.2	24.0	24.4	24.9	24.7	24.7	23.8	26.8
DK	13	43	31	13	26.0	5.3	24.5	26.1	25.9	25.5	26.6	25.6	27.1
EE	26	28	20	27	27.4	7.7	24.4	28.0	26.7	27.1	28.7	26.2	31.3
FI	13	28	28	32	29.0	8.2	26.3	29.3	28.5	28.3	29.5	28.0	31.8
FR	61	25	9	5	22.4	5.0	21.2	22.3	22.4	22.7	21.5	21.1	25.6
GE	49	36	13	2	22.6	2.8	22.2	22.5	22.7	22.6	22.7	22.2	26.1
HR	37	36	17	10	24.2	4.9	22.9	23.8	24.7	23.8	26.1	23.5	26.2
HU	26	36	20	18	26.2	7.3	23.8	26.3	26.2	26.2	26.6	26.0	27.6
IE	56	18	9	17	25.1	8.7	21.6	25.1	25.0	24.6	26.1	23.2	31.9
IS	17	25	24	34	30.1	9.7	26.7	30.6	29.2	30.1	n/a	27.4	35.8
LT	45	27	14	14	24.8	6.8	22.3	25.0	24.4	24.4	25.6	24.0	29.3
LU	16	58	14	11	25.1	5.7	23.4	24.8	25.4	25.3	23.4	23.4	29.4
MT	33	26	17	23	27.1	9.5	23.6	26.9	27.4	26.9	27.6	24.4	31.4
NL	47	30	16	7	23.3	5.5	22.2	23.0	23.7	23.0	23.6	22.7	26.1
NO	20	28	22	30	28.7	9.1	25.2	29.2	27.9	28.3	29.5	26.2	32.7
PL	36	38	14	12	24.8	6.3	22.8	24.7	24.9	23.7	27.7	23.8	27.6
SE	22	32	23	23	27.9	8.8	24.9	28.6	26.9	27.9	n/a	25.8	28.7
SI	40	35	15	10	24.3	5.6	22.8	23.9	24.9	23.4	27.1	23.4	26.9
av.	**31**	**32**	**20**	**16**	**25.8**	**6.7**	**23.7**	**25.8**	**25.7**	**25.5**	**26.2**	**24.5**	**28.9**
IT	46	31	16	7	22.8	4.2	22.0	22.8	22.8	22.8	n/a	21.9	25.2
PT	54	22	11	13	24.1	7.3	21.7	23.9	24.4	24.0	24.2	23.2	28.3
RO	46	28	9	18	25.2	7.6	22.3	24.9	25.5	25.2	n/a	24.3	28.5
TR	49	29	14	8	23.4	5.1	22.0	22.7	24.1	23.4	23.2	23.4	29.5

n/a: not applicable.

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, A.1.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *6.1 When were you born?*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *IS, IT, NO, SE.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Table B1.3

Students' mean age by study intensity, educational background, transition duration, dependency on income source, extent of paid employment, entry qualification, and housing situation

Mean age (in years)

	Study intensity		Educational background		Transition duration		Dependency on income source			Extent of paid employment		Entry qualification		Housing situation	
	Low intensity	High intensity	Without a tertiary education background	With a tertiary education background	Direct	Delayed	Dependent on family	Dependent on self-earned income	Dependent on public student support	No paid emplyoment during semester	Employed during semester > 20 h/week	Alternative access route	Standard access route	Living with parents	Not living with parents
AT	29.4	25.0	27.9	26.2	25.2	31.0	23.7	30.2	27.0	25.3	31.6	32.4	26.5	23.4	27.9
CH	28.1	24.5	26.4	25.2	24.9	32.3	24.1	28.2	26.2	24.5	29.6	28.8	25.3	23.8	27.5
CZ	26.4	23.2	25.3	23.8	23.4	37.3	22.6	27.3	22.8	22.5	28.9	28.2	24.5	22.8	25.3
DE	25.9	24.0	25.5	24.3	23.8	28.1	23.4	26.7	24.4	23.8	28.7	31.4	24.3	22.7	25.2
DK	25.6	26.5	26.7	25.7	25.0	29.4	25.2	n.d.	n.d.	26.9	27.2	29.2	25.7	23.3	26.3
EE	27.9	27.5	28.7	27.0	26.2	35.6	24.3	30.2	26.4	24.4	30.7	31.2	27.2	24.5	28.1
FI	31.0	28.5	31.3	27.8	27.1	32.8	29.4	31.2	25.7	27.4	33.0	32.3	28.7	24.7	29.2
FR	22.9	22.1	22.9	22.1	22.1	29.4	21.3	25.5	21.8	21.4	25.9	34.5	22.2	20.8	23.2
GE	22.6	22.0	22.5	22.6	22.5	25.8	22.1	24.1	22.0	22.1	24.0	24.3	22.5	22.4	23.0
HR	25.5	23.1	24.4	23.9	23.7	28.3	22.9	27.0	21.4	22.5	27.4	27.2	24.1	23.5	24.7
HU	27.9	24.6	27.9	25.1	24.8	33.4	23.8	29.8	23.8	23.4	30.7	34.4	25.8	24.3	26.7
IE	30.2	24.4	27.5	23.9	23.5	37.4	22.5	27.8	21.9	24.4	33.1	30.9	24.6	21.8	28.1
IS	33.6	28.2	33.7	27.7	27.6	36.8	29.4	29.9	29.3	30.1	35.8	36.7	28.4	24.5	33.1
LT	25.8	25.0	25.8	23.9	23.5	35.3	22.5	27.1	25.0	22.5	27.2	30.6	24.6	22.7	25.6
LU	26.4	23.5	25.4	24.9	24.8	29.0	24.3	31.0	23.5	24.1	29.6	30.1	24.5	23.3	27.0
MT	33.1	23.9	28.8	26.1	24.3	36.4	24.1	31.1	21.9	23.9	35.0	n.d.	25.4	23.0	35.8
NL	24.1	22.3	24.1	22.7	22.7	28.2	21.7	26.0	22.6	22.8	28.7	26.9	23.0	21.1	25.0
NO	32.5	26.9	31.6	27.8	27.2	33.9	29.3	34.3	24.2	25.9	37.1	32.3	28.1	23.4	29.2
PL	25.2	23.5	25.7	23.6	23.6	34.7	22.7	26.8	22.9	22.5	27.5	31.3	24.3	23.2	25.7
SE	31.4	27.3	30.0	26.9	26.3	31.0	29.1	n.d.	n.d.	27.2	38.8	34.9	27.3	23.2	28.7
SI	27.4	22.6	25.6	23.5	23.6	34.8	22.5	26.4	21.9	22.3	27.5	35.0	23.7	23.0	25.2
av.	**27.8**	**24.7**	**27**	**25**	**24.6**	**32.4**	**24.3**	**28.5**	**23.9**	**24.3**	**30.4**	**31.1**	**25.3**	**23.1**	**27.2**
IT	25.0	22.2	23.1	22.2	22.3	30.5	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	22.1	26.9	n.d.	n.d.	22.7	23.1
PT	29.3	22.4	24.8	22.8	23.0	33.9	21.8	30.8	22.2	21.7	32.6	30.4	23.3	22.0	26.5
RO	27.5	24.0	26.4	24.4	23.8	36.3	23.1	30.1	23.1	22.4	30.1	28.3	24.9	22.7	28.6
TR	24.1	23.5	23.5	23.0	22.4	29.4	22.5	28.7	21.6	22.3	27.9	26.3	22.4	23.0	23.6

n.d.: no data

***Data source**: EUROSTUDENT VII, A.1.*

***EUROSTUDENT question(s):** 6.1 When were you born?*

***Data collection:** Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

***Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions**: IS, IT, NO, SE.*

***Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group:** DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Table B1.4

Students with children, number of children, and age of youngest child

Share of students (in %), mean, median, and SD

	Share of students with children in %	Number of children			Age of youngest child – share of students in %					
		Mean	Median	SD	0–3 years	4–6 years	7–9 years	10–15 years	>15 years	Age of child not indicated
AT	9	1.7	2.0	0.9	3	1	1	1	1	0.7
CH	5	1.8	2.0	0.9	2	1	1	1	1	0.1
CZ	8	1.8	2.0	0.7	3	1	1	2	2	0.1
DE	5	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	3.0	1	0.5	0.5	1	0
DK	11	1.8	2.0	0.9	6	2	1	1	1	0.0
EE	21	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	6	4	3	4	3	0.0
FI	19	2.0	2.0	1.1	7	3	2	3	3	0.1
FR	3	1.9	2.0	1.0	1	1	0.4	1	1	0.1
GE	5	1.4	1.0	0.6	4	1	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.0
HR	4	1.8	2.0	0.8	2	1	0.5	1	0.5	0.1
HU	11	1.9	2.0	0.9	3	2	1	2	2	0.1
IE	12	2.2	2.0	1.0	3	2	2	3	3	0.1
IS	32	2.0	2.0	1.0	11	6	5	5	3	1.5
LT	13	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	4	2	2	2	3	0.1
LU	4	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	2	0.4	0.5	1	1	0.0
MT	17	1.8	2.0	0.9	4	2	2	4	6	0.1
NL	4	2.0	2.0	1.0	1	1	0.4	1	1	0.0
NO	23	2.1	2.0	1.0	7	4	3	4	5	0.0
PL	10	1.7	2.0	0.9	3	2	1	2	2	0.0
SE	16	2.0	2.0	0.9	4	3	3	3	4	0.0
SI	9	1.8	2.0	0.9	3	1	2	1	1	0.2
av.	**11**	**1.9**	**2.0**	**0.9**	**4**	**2**	**2**	**2**	**2**	**0.2**
IT	2	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
PT	7	1.7	2.0	0.8	1	1	1.0	1	2	0.1
RO	13	1.5	1.0	0.6	2	2	1.0	2	2	2
TR	5	1.8	2.0	0.8	2	1	1	1	1	0.1

n.d.: no data

Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, *A.17.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *6.8 Do you have children? 6.9 How old is your youngest child?*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *AT, SE.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Table B1.5

Students with children by age, sex, type of HEI, study programme, study intensity, entry qualification, and study progress

Share of students (in %)

	Students with children	Age				Sex		Type of HEI		Study programme		Study intensity		Entry qualification		Study progress	
		< 22 years	22 – 24 years	25 – 29 years	30 years and older	Female	Male	University	Non-university	Bachelor	Master	Low intensity (< 20 h/ week)	High intensity (> 40 h/ week)	Alternative access route	Standard access route	First-year students	Students in second year or higher
AT	9	0.3	1	4	35	9	8	8	10	7	11	15	3	23	8	4	9
CH	5	0	0.2	1	32	6	4	3	7	4	8	11	1	11	4	3	5
CZ	8	0.2	1	6	66	9	7	7	18	8	10	15	2	20	8	6	8
DE	5	0.1	1	5	31	6	5	5	6	5	7	8	4	24	5	n.d.	n.d.
DK	11	0.3	1	11	57	14	7	7	17	11	12	7	13	22	11	7	12
EE	21	0.2	1	15	65	25	14	18	29	19	29	22	23	45	19	8	23
FI	19	0.4	1	7	52	23	14	13	25	17	24	25	17	27	18	13	20
FR	3	0.1	0.5	4	50	4	3	4	1	2	7	5	2	36	3	1	4
GE	5	3	4	15	23	5	5	5	6	5	13	6	4	4	5	2	6
HR	4	0.0	0.4	3	37	5	4	3	9	5	5	9	1	14	4	3	5
HU	11	0.0	1	5	54	12	9	10	14	11	12	15	6	36	9	7	11
IE	12	0.2	1	8	58	12	11	9	19	8	23	25	7	29	10	5	13
IS	32	1	5	26	70	37	23	32	n/a	23	51	41	24	61	25	17	35
LT	13	1	2	15	78	16	10	9	23	13	23	17	15	43	13	7	15
LU	4	0	1	3	32	5	3	5	0	2	11	7	1	13	3	5	4
MT	17	1	0.4	7	60	18	17	17	18	12	22	31	9	36	11	15	18
NL	4	0	0.4	3	46	4	4	2	5	3	6	5	1	11	3	2	5
NO	23	0.3	1	10	69	28	16	21	27	15	34	40	14	38	21	8	26
PL	10	1	2	10	63	11	8	5	24	9	17	10	5	35	8	6	11
SE	16	0.2	1	8	62	20	10	16	n/a	9	13	24	15	39	14	9	17
SI	9	1	2	9	60	8	10	4	21	8	12	22	2	52	6	5	10
av.	**11**	**0.5**	**1**	**8**	**52**	**13**	**9**	**10**	**15**	**9**	**17**	**17**	**8**	**29**	**10**	**7**	**13**
IT	2	0	0.2	2	22	2	1	2	n/a	1	2	6	1	n.d.	n.d.	1	2
PT	7	0	1	3	48	7	7	6	9	6	12	17	3	23	5	2	8
RO	13	0.3	2	11	58	13	13	13	n/a	12	21	22	7	21	12	9	15
TR	5	0.1	0.2	4	52	3	6	5	5	4	19	8	4	13	2	2	4

n/a: not applicable. n.d.: no data

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, A.13.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *6.8 Do you have children? 6.9 How old is your youngest child?*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *AT, SE.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Table B1.6

Students with foreign citizenship by migration background

Share of students (in %)

	All students	Second-generation (at least one parent born abroad)	First-generation, domestic education background	Students without migrant background, domestic education background	International students (foreign HE qualification)	Other (born abroad, but native background, domestic education background)
AT	23	9	46	0.1	96	2
CH	20	9	46	0.6	86	1
CZ	13	0.3	39	0.2	95	t.f.c.
DE	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
DK	12	3	44	0.1	84	3
EE	9	6	t.f.c.	0.7	91	t.f.c.
FI	7	5	50	0.1	84	0
FR	9	1	55	0	84	1
GE	7	0	100	0	92	n.d.
HR	0.5	0.3	0	0.2	13	t.f.c.
HU	8	1	13	0.2	76	t.f.c.
IE	17	2	38	0.1	82	2
IS	1	0	0	0.3	24	0
LT	3	0.8	t.f.c.	0.1	85	t.f.c.
LU	45	13	40	0.3	87	t.f.c.
MT	12	0	70	0.3	81	t.f.c.
NL	9	1	18	0.3	74	0.5
NO	7	3	27	0.1	75	0
PL	3	0.5	38	0.1	82	0
SE	8	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
SI	4	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
av.	**11**	**3**	**39**	**0.2**	**77**	**1**
IT	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
PT	7	1	25	0.1	73	0
RO	1	2	21	0.1	33	t.f.c.
TR	2	3	59	0.2	73	2

n.d.: no data. t.f.c.: too few cases.

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, A.19.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *6.5 Do you and your parents (or those who raised you) have #country citizenship?*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *NO, SE.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Chapter B2
Socio-economic background of students

Key

B 2

Education of students' parents

On average, slightly more than half of students' parents hold a tertiary degree at ISCED levels 6–8 (51 %). Large percentages of students whose parents have not attended tertiary education can be found in Malta, Croatia, Poland, the Czech Republic, Luxembourg, Turkey, Italy, Portugal, and Romania – between half and roughly three quarters of students' parents do not hold a tertiary degree in these countries.

Representation of students by educational background

Compared to the population, students from lower educational backgrounds are underrepresented in almost all EUROSTUDENT countries. On EUROSTUDENT average, only around 80 % of the expected number of students whose fathers' degree does not exceed ISCED level 0–4 are currently enrolled in higher education.

Students without tertiary educated parents

In all countries, students whose parents did not attain tertiary education are older than their peers. Similarly, in all countries, these students are more likely to have entered higher education with a delay of at least 24 months after leaving school and, in all but one country, through alternative access routes.

findings

Study situation of students without tertiary educated parents

In the vast majority of countries, students without a tertiary background are more commonly enrolled in non-universities, as well as in Bachelor and, particularly, short-cycle programmes vs. Master programmes. They are more likely to be studying at a low intensity and with part-time status, and tend to rely on public support or their own earnings rather than family support in a clear majority of countries.

Financial status of students' parents

A clear relationship between parental education and family financial status is apparent. On average, the percentage of students from self-rated, well-off families is almost twice as high among students with highly educated parents (43 %) than among students whose parents' highest education is at ISCED levels 0–4 (22 %).

Study intention, belonging, drop-out, and performance

Students whose parents have a low level of educational attainment less often report a clear study intention before beginning higher education. Once in higher education, on average (but not in all countries), these students indicate a lower sense of belonging in higher education. Neither students' drop-out intentions nor study performance clearly vary according to educational background across countries.

Main issues

Students' socio-economic background has been shown to have a particularly strong influence on their educational careers and outcomes (Avram & Cantó-Sánchez, 2017; Thompson, 2019), as well as more general effects on later life pathways and experiences (Mazzonna, 2014). Therefore, this chapter discusses the educational and economic background of students, focusing particularly on equity-related aspects and differences in experience.

Equity policies in higher education

In the most recent Bologna Communiqués (Paris Communiqué, 2018; Rome Communiqué, 2020; Yerevan Communiqué, 2015), the ministers responsible for higher education committed to strengthening the social dimension of European higher education, underscoring the goal to create an inclusive, equitable system. In the context of the Bologna Process, the social dimension was initially defined as the extent to which the student body entering, participating in, and completing higher education should reflect the diversity of the population (London Communiqué, 2007, p. 5), that is, as participative equity (Mühleck & Griga, 2010). The latest document – the Principles and Guidelines to Strengthen the Social Dimension of Higher Education in the EHEA – expands this definition by "stressing that the social dimension encompasses the creation of an inclusive environment in higher education that fosters equity, diversity, and is responsive to the needs of local communities" (Annex II to the Rome Communiqué, 2020). European-level policies also reflect the desire to foster inclusive higher education systems in which students' background does not impact their access, progress, and educational outcomes (European Commission, 2020; European Higher Education Area, 2015). On a more global level, the UN's Sustainable Development Goal 4 also aims to "ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all." (United Nations, 2019).

Socio-economic background and educational career and experiences

When talking about equality and equity within a higher education system, the socio-economic status of students' families, particularly parents' educational attainment (European Commission, 2020; OECD, 2018; Salmi, 2019, p. 22), is a highly relevant consideration. It is a consistent finding across countries and studies that students from more highly educated families have better chances of entering higher education and completing a tertiary degree themselves (Bar Haim & Shavit, 2013; European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2020a; OECD, 2018; Vossensteyn et al., 2015). Family income and wealth have also been shown to strongly influence the educational attainment across generations in families in different countries (Palmisano et al., 2019; Pfeffer, 2018; Stuhler & Biagi, 2018; Wightman & Danziger, 2014).

Furthermore, studies have repeatedly demonstrated that widened access to higher education often goes along with an increased differentiation within the educational system, that is, with regard to types of higher education institutions (HEIs), degrees, or study fields. Past EUROSTUDENT studies confirm these findings, in other words, that students without a higher education background are more likely to study at non-universities and in short-cycle courses or first degrees (DZHW, 2018; Hauschildt et al., 2015). If these choices yield different results and outcomes, such horizontal stratification within a

system can create inequalities based on students' socio-economic background (Brezis & Hellier, 2018; Marginson, 2016; Salmi, 2019; Triventi, 2014a).

Beyond entry and attainment, students of low social origin are reported to experience less smooth trajectories through higher education (Haas & Hadjar, 2020), and the effect of the parental socio-economic background has been shown to extend even beyond graduation, affecting graduates' job position and wages (Avram & Cantó-Sánchez, 2017; Meng et al., 2020).

What is behind these seemingly universal patterns? Family financial means allow direct financial support to students, and also lend them the security that they have alternatives should their educational endeavour fail (Pfeffer, 2018; Wightman & Danziger, 2014). With regard to educational background, two main explanatory approaches have been used to account for the observed inequality: one focuses primarily on the experience of students, positing that the unfamiliar 'habitus' of actors in higher education (teachers, students) and the unknown culture and practices within higher education prevents students without a higher education background from developing a feeling of belonging and integration at their education institutions (Bourdieu, 1984; Holmegard, Madsen, & Ulriksen, 2017). The other approach models the behaviour of (potential) students and their families as the result of rational reasoning shaped by background-specific norms, resources, and constraints, which influence educational and career choices in different ways, even when the academic performance is equal (Becker & Hecken, 2009; Boudon, 1974; Breen & Goldthorpe, 1997; Callender & Dougherty, 2018; Thompson, 2017).

This chapter focuses on students' socio-economic background by investigating to what extent equitable conditions exist and to what extent students' parents' socio-economic status is related to their study choices and conditions. Of particular interest are students' individual experiences.

The main questions this chapter strives to answer are therefore:
- What is the educational and socio-economic background of students' parents?
- How well-represented are students without a tertiary education background in the EUROSTUDENT countries?
- In what ways do their study conditions differ from those of their peers?
- How do these students assess their past and current study situation?

Methodological and conceptual notes

Students without a tertiary education background

EUROSTUDENT uses the highest educational degree attained by either of students' parents, as reported by the students, to classify students according to their educational background (Box B2.1).

Financial status of students' parents

In the EUROSTUDENT VII survey, an item adapted from the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS), which was carried out by the International Association

for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA), was used to assess the financial status of students' parents[1]. Students were asked to rate the financial well-being of their parents in comparison to other families using the five categories: (1) not at all well-off, (2) not very well-off, (3) average, (4) somewhat well-off, and (5) very well-off (Caro & Cortes, 2012).

Calculating representation indices

As an indicator of the representation of students from different educational backgrounds, the actual percentages of students from a particular group are set against the percentage of students from this group in the general population. The index used in this chapter – as in previous rounds of EUROSTUDENT (DZHW, 2018; Hauschildt et al., 2015) – is based on characteristics of students' fathers, as the population statistics needed in the calculations regarding students' parents as a unit are not available. The index sets the percentage of students with fathers with a certain educational background, for example, without higher education, against the percentage of 40–59-year-old men with the same educational attainment in the population. This comparison group is chosen to represent the parent generation of students. In order to avoid different percentages of international students in the national student populations biasing the index, only domestic students (i.e. students educated in the country of survey) are drawn on for the analyses.[2]

If the shares are equal, for example, if the percentage of 40–59-year-olds attending higher education equals that of the fathers of the students who attained a tertiary degree, the index takes on the value of one. This value indicates perfect participative equity with regard to the group in question. Values above one indicate that students with the educational background in question are more common than expected, based on the population (overrepresentation); values below one indicate underrepresentation.

This index makes cross-country comparisons possible because it takes into account country-specific differences in overall educational attainment. However, it does not make allowance for the fact that the countries under investigation may be observed at different stages of educational expansion (Blossfeld et al., 2015) – the educational opportunities available to the parent generation may, therefore, be more or less similar to the current student generation in the different countries. A further limitation of the index is that it draws only on potential or hypothetical parents, as more relevant data – percentages of young people from specific educational backgrounds – are not available for most of the EUROSTUDENT countries. The choice of 40–59-year-olds as the parent generation, along with the assumption that adults from all educational backgrounds have the same number of children at about the same time in their lives, may not be fully adequate in all countries (see Mühleck, 2013).

International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED)

The EUROSTUDENT project draws on the 2011 revision of the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) in classifying the educational attainment of students' parents (UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2012). ISCED is an instrument for compiling and presenting internationally comparable education statistics. The ISCED classifies

1 *Copyright © 2005 International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA). Publisher: TIMSS & PIRLS International Study Center, Lynch School of Education, Boston College.*

2 *This constitutes a change from previous rounds of EUROSTUDENT.*

educational programmes by assigning them to an ISCED level, which indicates the level of education conveyed by the respective programme. The EUROSTUDENT core questionnaire stipulates that parents' highest educational attainment be classified according to ISCED 2011.

The table below indicates how ISCED categories were aggregated in the EUROSTUDENT analyses (Box B2.1). Detailed information on the exact national qualifications behind each ISCED level can be found in the ISCED mappings: *http://uis.unesco.org/en/isced-mappings*.

The aggregation applied in EUROSTUDENT into 'without a tertiary education background' and 'with a tertiary education background', based on only two categories, absorbs some of the problems that have been associated with the comparability of ISCED in the past (Ortmanns, 2020; Ortmanns & Schneider, 2016). Still, the fact that, in the different EUROSTUDENT countries, qualifications at the same ISCED level may be regarded as higher education in one country and as vocational training in another remains[3]. Differences also exist relating to the implementation and status of short-cycle qualifications (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2020a)[4] and concerning the coding of parental degrees that are no longer awarded. To enable comparisons with external data sources such as the Labour Force Survey, the ISCED classification has been applied despite these caveats.

Box B2.1

Parental education background in EUROSTUDENT

ISCED 2011	Notes	Labour Force Survey	EUROSTUDENT focus groups	
ISCED 01: Early childhood educational development		Non-tertiary education ISCED (0–4)	Without a tertiary background[5]	Low education background
ISCED 02: Pre-Primary education				
ISCED level 1: Primary education				
ISCED level 2: Lower secondary education				
ISCED level 3: Upper secondary education				Medium education background
ISCED level 4: Post-secondary non-tertiary education				
ISCED level 5: Short-cycle tertiary education	Not implemented in all countries. Not considered to be HE in all countries. May include vocationally oriented programmes typically not considered to be HE in a country.	Tertiary education (ISCED 5–8)	With a tertiary education background[6]	Not assigned due to different understanding across countries
ISCED level 6: Bachelor's or equivalent level	May include vocationally oriented programmes typically not considered to be HE in a country.			High education background
ISCED level 7: Master's or equivalent level				
ISCED level 8: Doctoral or equivalent level				

3 *For example, German master crafts(wo)men vocational qualifications are at ISCED level 6 (professional) in the qualification framework, i.e. equivalent to the level of higher education. However, these types of degrees are not typically regarded as part of the higher education system in Germany. Austrian master crafts(wo)men qualifications, in contrast, are at ISCED level 5 (and are not regarded as higher education either).*

4 *For example, in Austria, a qualification attained at a college for higher vocational education ('Berufsbildende Höhere Schulen') is at ISCED level 5, but is not typically regarded as higher education in Austria.*

5 *In previous rounds: without a higher education background*

6 *In previous rounds: with a higher education background*

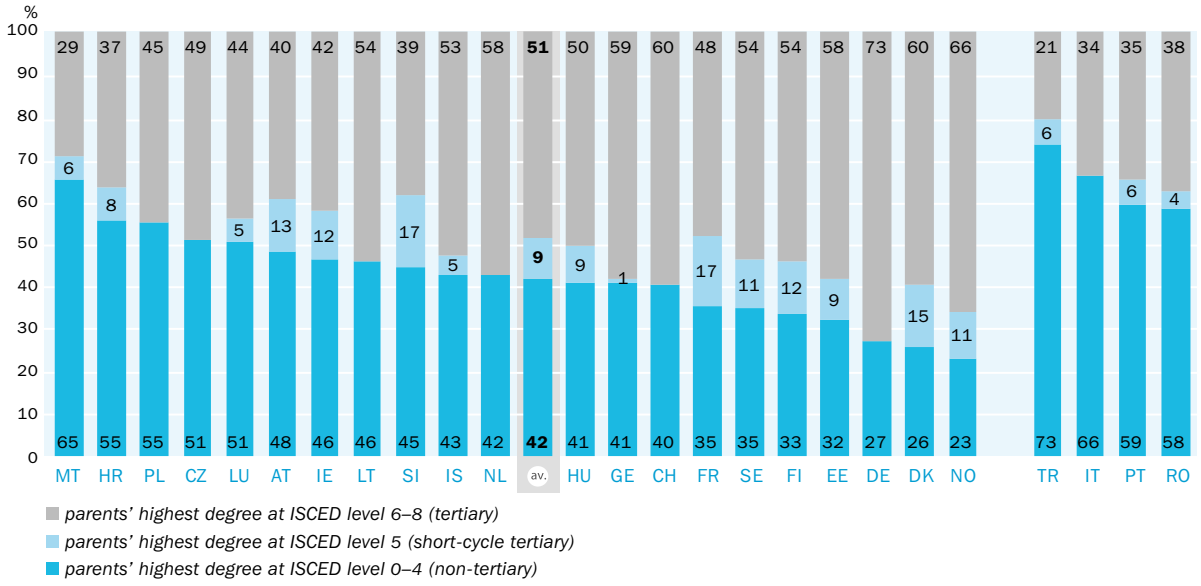
Data and interpretation

B 2

Figure B2.1

Educational attainment of students' parents (in %)

Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, D.2.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *7.1 What is the highest level of education your mother/guardian and father/guardian have obtained? [indicated separately]*

Note(s): *Per student, the highest educational attainment of either the father or the mother is counted. 'Don't know' responses were excluded.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviation from EUROSTUDENT target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Educational background

Around half of students' parents hold a tertiary degree.

EUROSTUDENT data show a large variation in the educational background of students (Figure B2.1). On average, slightly more than half of students' parents hold a tertiary degree at ISCED levels 6–8 (51 %). Across EUROSTUDENT countries, the percentage of students with parents whose highest educational attainment is at ISCED level 5 (short cycle) amounts to 9 %. 42 % of students' parents have an education level at ISCED levels 0–4, in other words, below tertiary education.

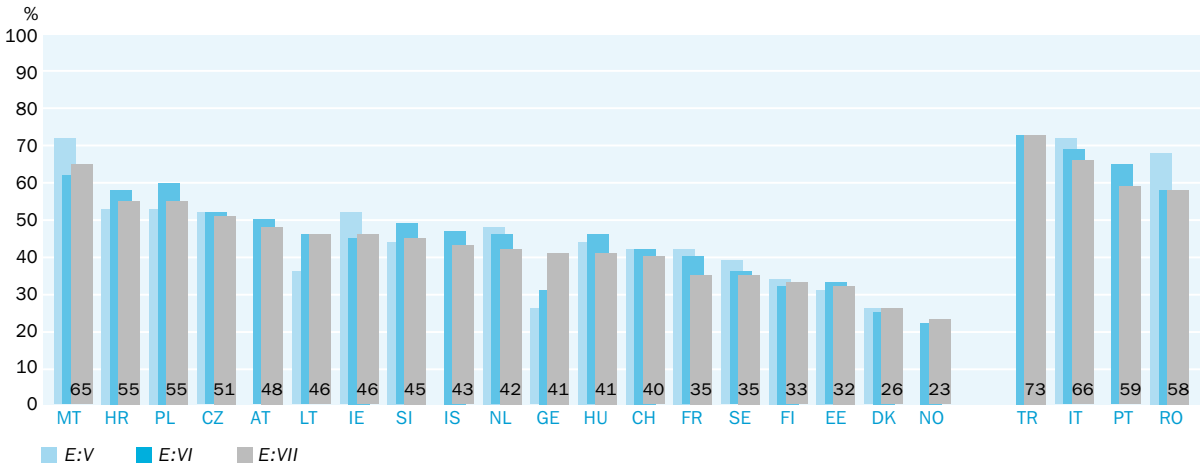
- Large percentages of students whose parents have not attended tertiary education can be found in Malta, Croatia, Poland, the Czech Republic, Luxembourg, Turkey, Italy, Portugal, and Romania – between half and roughly three quarters of students' parents do not hold a tertiary degree in these countries.
- In France, Sweden, Finland, Estonia, Germany, Denmark, and Norway, this applies only to between approximately a quarter and a third of all students currently in higher education. Here, students with tertiary educated parents are clearly the majority.

Over the past three project rounds, no clear pattern of increasing or declining shares of students without tertiary education background has become apparent (Figure B2.2).

Figure B2.2

Educational attainment of students' parents in EUROSTUDENT V, VI, and VII (in %)

Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, D.2. Data not comparable over time: AT, DK, NO. No data for E:V: IS. No data for E:V and E:VI: LU. No data for E:VII: DE.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *7.1 What is the highest level of education your mother/guardian and father/guardian have obtained? [indicated separately]*

Note(s): *Per student, the highest educational attainment of either the father or the mother is counted. 'Don't know' responses were excluded.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviation from EUROSTUDENT target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

- No or only small changes are found in around 40 % of EUROSTUDENT countries with available data. This is the case in the Czech Republic, Austria, Switzerland, Finland, Estonia, Denmark, Norway and Turkey, where the shares of students without a tertiary education background change by at most two percentage points across rounds, mostly without a clear direction.
- In Malta, Ireland, Iceland, the Netherlands, France, Sweden, Italy, Portugal, and Romania, decreasing shares of students whose parents did not attend tertiary education becomes apparent, with the current EUROSTUDENT round registering at least four percentage points lower than in EUROSTUDENT V or VI.
- Lithuania and Georgia show a strong rising trend over the three rounds, with percentages of students without a tertiary background increasing. In Croatia, Poland, Slovenia, and Hungary, no clear pattern can be determined over the three rounds.

Students from non-tertiary backgrounds are underrepresented in almost all countries.

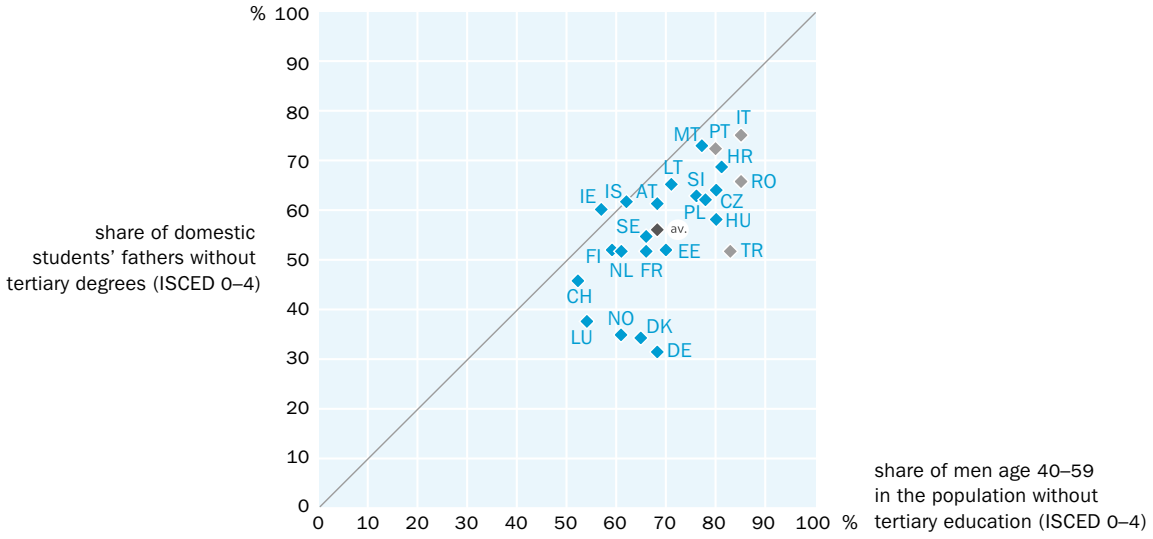
Compared to the population, students from lower educational backgrounds are underrepresented in almost all EUROSTUDENT countries (Figure B2.3). On EUROSTUDENT average, only around 80 % of the expected number of students whose fathers' degree does not exceed ISCED level 0–4 are currently enrolled in higher education.

- Students from non-tertiary education backgrounds (as measured by fathers' educational attainment) are relatively well-represented in Malta, Portugal, Lithuania, and Austria, where the share of domestically educated students from non-tertiary backgrounds currently enrolled in higher education amounts to at least 90 % of what would be expected, based on the educational attainment of their fathers' generation.

Figure B2.3

Representation of domestic students with parents not holding a tertiary degree (based on fathers' educational attainment) (in %)

Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, D.2. Percentage of men aged 40–59 in population: EU-LFS data from the respective year of survey (2016/2019/2020) [lfsa_pgaed].*

No LFS data*: GE.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *7.1 What is the highest level of education your mother/guardian and father/guardian have obtained? [indicated separately]*

Note(s): *Per student, the highest educational attainment of either the father or the mother is counted. 'Don't know' responses were excluded. The graph compares the percentage of students' fathers who have not attained tertiary education (ISCED 5–8) with the corresponding percentage of 40–59 year-old men in the population. Shares of equal size result in a position on the diagonal (index value = 1). An index value of 1 indicates that there are exactly as many students from non higher education backgrounds as would be expected, based on the distribution of educational attainment in the population. Values over 1 indicate overrepresentation of this group and lie above the diagonal, values below 1 and below the diagonal indicate underrepresentation. Comparisons to LFS data may be influenced by several factors, such as the age distribution of students' parents, reproductive patterns.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

- In Estonia, Hungary, Luxembourg, Norway, Denmark, Turkey, and Germany, less than three quarters of the expected percentage of students with fathers who did not attend tertiary education are currently enrolled in higher education.
- In Finland, Italy, Switzerland, Croatia, the Netherlands, Slovenia, Sweden, the Czech Republic, Poland, France, and Romania, between 75 % and 90 % of the expected shares of domestically educated students from non-tertiary backgrounds can be found.
- In Iceland and Ireland, the percentage of domestically educated students from non-tertiary backgrounds currently enrolled in higher education indicates good or even over-representation of students without highly educated fathers: it is equal or even slightly higher than would be expected, based on the population.

Students without a tertiary education background are usually older and have entered higher education with a delay.

Despite different levels of representation, common patterns emerge across countries with regard to students with a non-tertiary education background. In all countries, students whose parents did not attain tertiary education are older than their peers – they make up much larger percentages of students aged 30 and older than among students in the youngest age group up to 21 years (Table B2.2). Similarly, in all coun-

tries, these students are more likely to have entered higher education with a delay of at least 24 months after leaving school and, in all but one country, through alternative access routes (Table B2.2; > *Chapter B3*). In most countries, higher percentages of students with lower educated parents are found among women (Table B2.2). With the exception of Denmark, Luxembourg, and Norway, the level of parental education is higher among international students than among domestic students. No clear pattern is apparent with regard to the migration background of domestic students, however – on average across countries, slightly higher percentages of students without tertiary educated parents are found among domestically educated students with no migration background, but this pattern is clearly reversed in Switzerland, Germany, Denmark, France, Georgia, Croatia, Luxembourg, and the Netherlands, where the share of students with non-tertiary parental backgrounds are between three and 16 percentage points higher among domestically educated, second-generation migrants than among students without a migration background (Table B2.2). In the vast majority of countries, students without a tertiary background are more commonly enrolled in non-universities, as well as in Bachelor and, particularly, short-cycle programmes vs. Master programmes (Table B2.3; > *Chapter B4*). They are more likely to be studying at a low intensity and with part-time status, probably due to the higher extent of employment they typically engage in to finance their studies (Table B2.3; > *Chapter B6*). Students without a tertiary background tend to rely on public support or their own earnings rather than family support in a clear majority of countries (Table B2.3; > *Chapter B7*).

Students without a tertiary background tend to rely on their own earnings or public support.

Parental financial status

Students' self-assessment of their family's financial status places them firmly in the 'average' category in the large majority of countries. Across countries, almost half of all students (47 %) regard their family's financial status as average. Roughly a third (34 %) of students report that their family is not (at all) well-off, and around one in five students (19 %) rates their family as very or somewhat well-off (Figure B2.4).

- In Lithuania, Georgia, Malta, the Czech Republic, Turkey, Romania, and Portugal, students who rate their parents as 'averagely' well-off make up the majority with respective shares of over 50 %
- Germany, Luxembourg, Ireland, Turkey, and Romania register the highest percentages of students from not well-off families, with roughly between a quarter (27 %) and a third (34 %) of students indicating this to be the case. In the Czech Republic, Poland, Iceland, and Sweden, fewer than 15 % of students regard their parents as not well-off.
- The highest percentages of students with very or somewhat well-off families can be found in Poland, Iceland, the Netherlands, and Sweden: this applies to at least 40 % of students here.

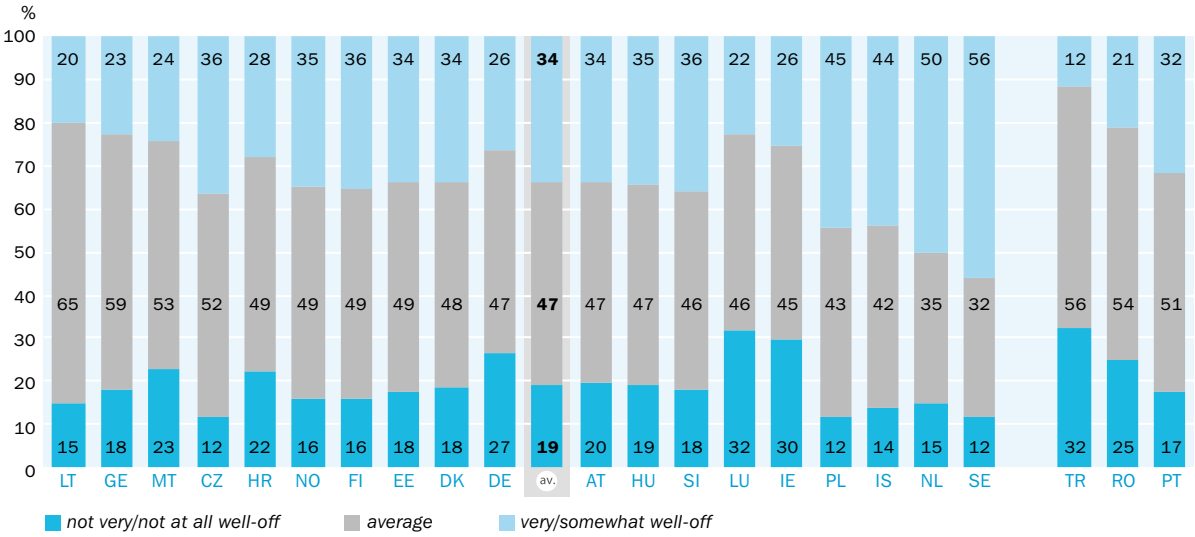
A clear relationship is apparent between parental education and family financial status (Figure B2.5). On average, the percentage of students from self-rated well-off families is almost twice as high among students with highly educated parents (43 %) than among students whose parents' highest education is at ISCED levels 0–4. (22 %). By contrast, the percentage of students indicating that their family is not well-off is only half as large (13 % vs. 27 %). A comparable pattern is found in every country with the exception of Luxembourg.

Parental education and financial situation are strongly related.

Figure B2.4

Students' assessment of parents' financial status (in %)

Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, D.4.* ***No data:*** *CH, FR, IT.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *7.2 How well-off financially do you think your parents (or #guardians) are compared with other families? Source: PIRLS 2006. Copyright © 2005 International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA). Publisher: TIMSS & PIRLS International Study Center, Lynch School of Education, Boston College*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *DK, GE, HR, NO.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Subjective experience

Students with non-tertiary backgrounds report having had clearer study intentions.

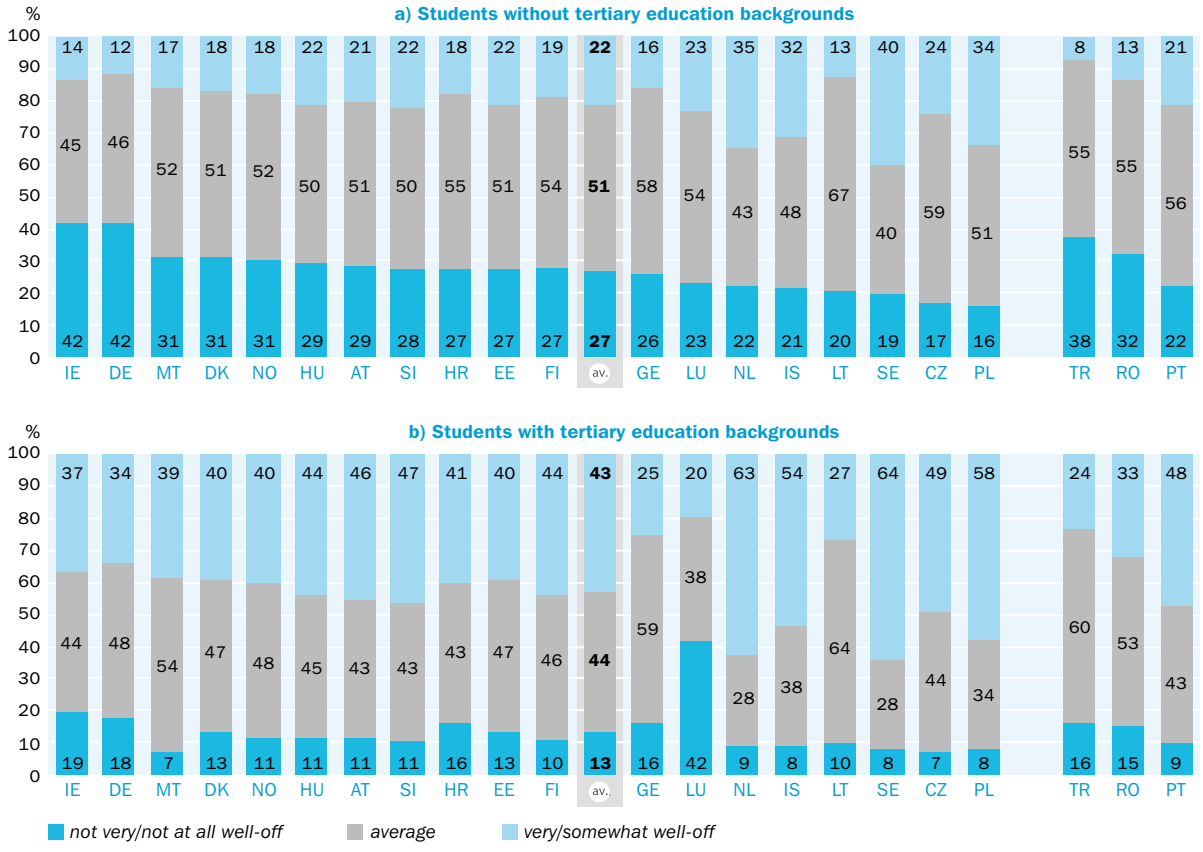
Turning to the differences between students from diverse educational backgrounds regarding their more subjective experiences, a marked contrast becomes apparent in their retrospectively assessed study intention (Figure B2.6). On average, around three quarters (74 %) of all students indicate that "it was always clear [they] would study in higher education one day". Among students whose parents have a low level of educational attainment, however, this figure is considerably lower at 62 %, and noticeably higher among students with a high educational background (81 %). Such a difference can be found in all countries to a varying extent, with between 7 and 36 percentage points more students with highly educated parents having had a clear study intention than their counterparts with a low educational background. Students whose parents have a medium level of educational attainments tend to fall in the middle.

- Marked contrasts in study intention between students from low and high educational backgrounds are found in Croatia, the Czech Republic, Austria, Iceland, and Finland. In these countries, the share of students from high educational backgrounds with a clear study intention is at least 25 percentage points higher than among students with low educational backgrounds.
- In Hungary, Estonia, Malta, Georgia, and Turkey, on the other hand, the differences between the two groups are relatively small and do not exceed 10 percentage points.

Figure B2.5

Students' assessment of parents' financial status by educational background (in %)

Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, D.4.* ***No data:*** CH, FR, IT.

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *7.2 How well-off financially do you think your parents (or #guardians) are compared with other families? Source: PIRLS 2006. Copyright © 2005 International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA). Publisher: TIMSS & PIRLS International Study Center, Lynch School of Education, Boston College*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *DK, GE, HR, NO.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Students with highly educated parents report a higher sense of belonging in higher education.

Students with highly educated parents report a higher sense of belonging in higher education (Figure B2.7). Whereas on average 16 % of students admit to sometimes doubting whether they should be enrolled in higher education, this figure rises to 20 % among students from low educational backgrounds. The pattern is not found in all countries, however.

- In Georgia, Lithuania, Croatia, Luxembourg, and Estonia, the share of students indicating that they often feel they do not belong in higher education is at least seven percentage points higher among students with low educational backgrounds than among students from medium or high educational backgrounds.
- In the Czech Republic, Switzerland, and Romania, students' feeling of belonging also increases with parental education, but the differences between groups are smaller.

- In Ireland and Denmark, no difference can be found between students with low and medium educational backgrounds but students with high educational backgrounds less often doubt whether they belong in higher education.
- In Poland, Hungary, Iceland, Finland, the Netherlands, Portugal, and Turkey, there are only minor distinctions, if any, between students from different educational backgrounds with regard to their feelings of belonging in higher education.
- In Slovenia, Norway, Malta, and Sweden, students from medium educational backgrounds stand out: in Malta, they doubt least often whether they belong in higher education compared to students from low and high educational backgrounds; in the remaining countries, they report particularly often feeling that they do not belong.

No difference in students' self-rated performance is found by educational background.

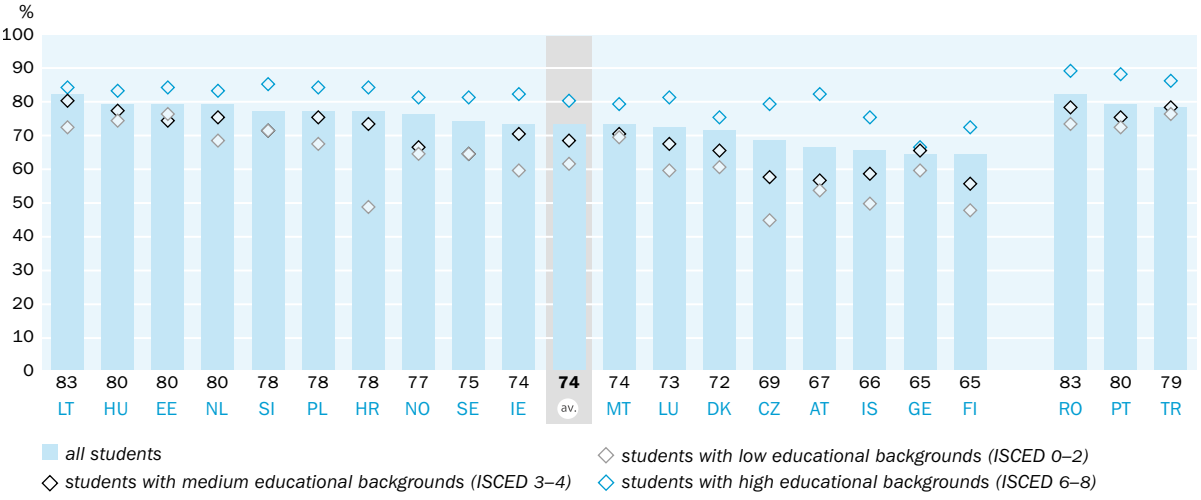
With regard to students' performance, no differences are apparent on average across countries between students with diverse parental education backgrounds (Figure B2.8). In all three groups, 14 % of students rate their performance as worse than that of their peers (Figure B2.8). In some countries, however, some groups of students deviate markedly from their peers in the assessment of their performance.

- In France, Austria, Luxembourg, and Malta, students with low educational backgrounds rate their performance as worse than their peers' more often than students with medium and high educational backgrounds. In the Netherlands, Georgia, and Romania, the data suggest a similar pattern, but the differences between groups are not as marked.

Figure B2.6

Clearness of study intention by educational background

Share of students with a clear study intention (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, C.24.* ***No data:*** *CH, DE, FR, IT.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *3.6. Generally, to what extent do you agree with the following thoughts regarding your studies? It was always clear I would study in higher education one day. Values shown indicate the percentage of students agreeing or strongly agreeing (values 1 + 2) with the statement on a five-point scale from 'strongly agree' to 'do not agree at all'.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

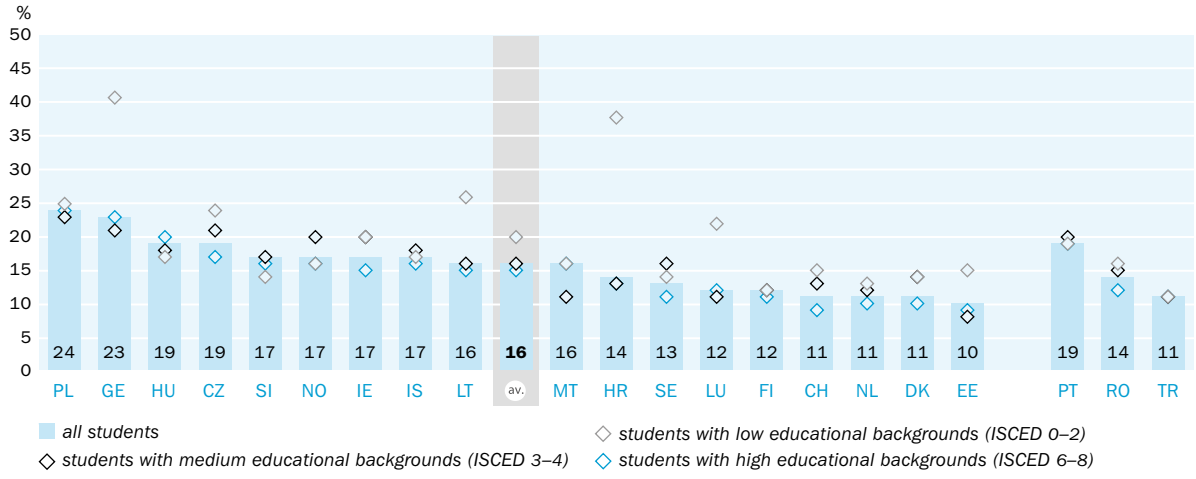
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *DK.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Figure B2.7

Students' sense of lack of belonging by educational background

(Strong) agreement with the statement 'I often have the feeling that I don't really belong in higher education'
Share of students (in %)



***Data source**: EUROSTUDENT VII, C.23. **No data:** AT, DE, FR, IT.*

***EUROSTUDENT question(s):** 3.6. Generally, to what extent do you agree with the following thoughts regarding your studies? I often have the feeling that I don't really belong in higher education. Values shown indicate the percentage of students agreeing or strongly agreeing (values 1 + 2) with the statement on a five-point scale from 'strongly agree' to 'do not agree at all'.*

***Data collection:** Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

***Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions**: DK.*

***Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group:** DE, IE, IT, PL.*

- In Finland, Norway, Ireland, and Slovenia, students with medium educational backgrounds most often rate their performance as worse than their peers, particularly compared with students from low educational backgrounds.
- In Iceland, Lithuania, Portugal, and Turkey, students with high educational backgrounds most often rate their performance as worse than their fellow students, again, particularly so when compared with students from low educational backgrounds. In the remaining countries, the differences between the three educational groups are non-existent or very minor.

Drop-out intentions do not vary according to educational background across countries.

Students' drop-out intentions do not vary noticeably with their educational background (Figure B2.9). On average, 7 % of students report that they are currently considering it. Slightly higher agreement with this sentiment can be found among students with low educational backgrounds (9 %), which is more than among students from medium (7 %) and high educational backgrounds (6 %).

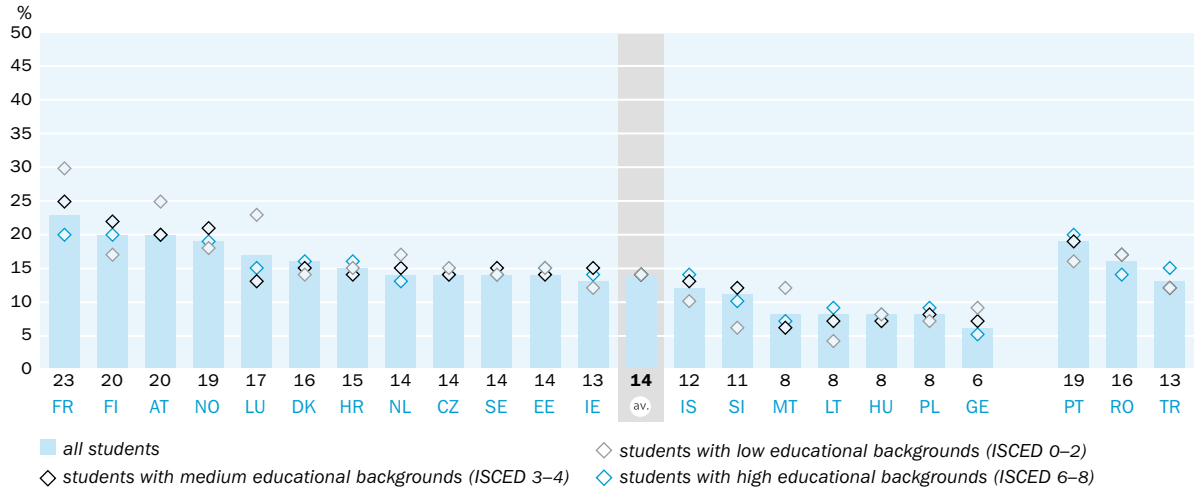
- In Georgia, the Czech Republic, Malta, Ireland, Sweden, and Luxembourg, students whose parents have attained a low level of education consider abandoning their studies distinctly more often: average agreement with this statement is at least three percentage points higher in the group with low educational backgrounds than among their peers whose parents have attained a medium or high level of education.
- In Lithuania, Austria, the Netherlands, Switzerland, Denmark, Germany, and Turkey, the data suggest a similar pattern, but the differences between the groups are not as marked.

B 2

Figure B2.8

Students' self-rated performance by educational background

Share of students self-rating their performance as worse than their peers (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, C.34.* ***No data:*** *CH, DE, IT.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *3.8. How would you rate your performance so far in your current #(main) study programme in comparison to that of your fellow students? Overall, my performance is much better/somewhat better/just as good/somewhat worse/much worse. Values shown indicate percentage of students rating their performance as somewhat or much worse. Item adapted from Trautwein et al. (2007).*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

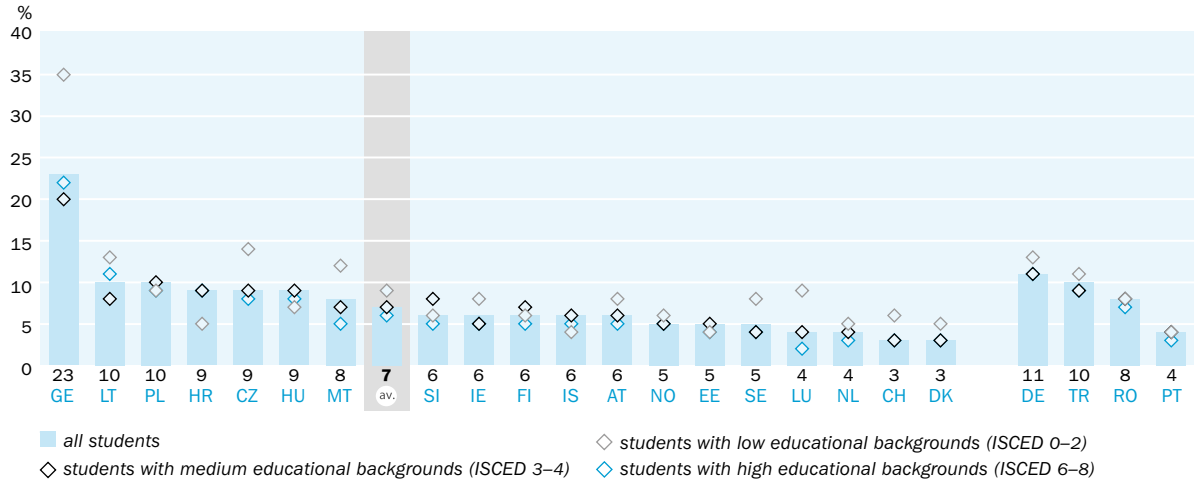
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *AT, DK, NO.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Figure B2.9

Students' drop-out intention by educational background

Share of students agreeing with the statement 'I am seriously thinking of completely abandoning my higher education studies' (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, C.27.* ***No data:*** *FR, IT.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *3.6. Generally, to what extent do you agree with the following thoughts regarding your studies? I am seriously thinking of completely abandoning my higher education studies. Values shown indicate students' agreement with the statement (response options 1+2 on a five-point scale). Item adapted from Trautwein et al. (2007).*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE, IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *DK, EE.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

- In Croatia, Hungary, Finland, and Iceland, the pattern is reversed, with students from low educational backgrounds harbouring drop-out intentions least or less often than one other group.

In the remaining countries, the differences between groups are minor or non-existent.

Discussion and policy considerations

This chapter shows that the findings of previous EUROSTUDENT rounds (DZHW, 2018; Hauschildt et al., 2015; Orr et al., 2011) still hold true: the educational and financial background of students' parents is still strongly related to their participation in and experience of higher education. One the one hand, students whose parents did not attain a tertiary degree are clearly underrepresented in almost all EUROSTUDENT countries. On the other hand, for those who do enter the higher education system – often through alternative access routes, or with a delay – the experience of higher education, including study and living conditions, often still differs from that of their peers with tertiary-educated parents. In some countries, this appears to result in fewer doubts among socio-economically advantaged students regarding their choice to enter higher education.

A recent analysis of social inclusion measures in the EU (Kottmann et al., 2019) classifies policy instruments into four types: regulations explicitly governing access and social inclusion, funding targeted to students and students' families, as well as HEIs, organisational policies addressing the organisation of education to increase their fit to the needs of non-traditional students, as well as information policies. The EUROSTUDENT findings in this chapter can be seen to reflect these categories: socio-economically disadvantaged students tend to make greater use of special regulations to access higher education, such as recognition of prior learning (> *Chapter B3*), and more frequently enroll in non-universities, as well as in Bachelor and, particularly, short-cycle programmes vs. Master programmes (> *Chapter B4*). These types of institutions and programmes are more often directed at and accessible to students with alternative access qualifications, offering more practically oriented degrees that are particularly attractive to returning lifelong learners and students with work experience. These institutions and programmes seem to provide particularly attractive opportunities for students without a tertiary background – perhaps by offering organisational opportunities that allow this student group to better balance their studies, which are more often conducted with a low intensity and with part-time status, likely due to the higher extent of employment they typically engage in to finance their studies (> *Chapters B5* and *B6*). Students' increased use of part-time and low-intensity arrangements confirms the necessity for flexible organisational set-ups to accommodate their needs. On the one hand, the finding that certain degrees and institutions serve particularly large shares of disadvantaged students represents a success in widening access, but also points towards a potential stratification of the higher education system (Marginson, 2016; Salmi & Bassett, 2014). If the different types of programmes and institutions yield unequal results and outcomes, existing educational and income inequalities may be reinforced.

With regard to their living situation, students without a tertiary background tend to rely on public funds or their own earnings rather than family support in a clear majority of countries (> *Chapter B7*). Public support – a 'hard' lever (Kottman, 2019; p. 11) – has indeed repeatedly been identified as central to facilitating access and graduation of disadvantaged students in other (review) studies (Kottmann et al., 2019; Salmi & Sursock, 2020), with Herbaut and Geven (2019) finding that this holds particularly for adequate, needs-based support. The fact that students whose parents have a low level of educational attainment more rarely report a clear study intention before embarking on higher education and, once in higher education, indicate a decreased sense of belonging in many countries, may point towards an increased need for guidance of this student group, before and during their studies, to encourage and inform them of the options available.

As with other categories of diversity (> *Chapter B1*), both national policies and institutional approaches should be fruitfully combined to support access, progress, and completion of higher education for these students (Salmi & Sursock, 2020). This is also highlighted in the Principles and Guidelines to Strengthen the Social Dimension of Higher Education in the EHEA (Annex II to the Rome Communiqué, 2020), which call on public authorities to "engage in a policy dialogue with HEIs and other relevant stakeholders about how the above principles and guidelines can be translated and implemented both at national system and institutional level" (p. 8). HEIs are in a prime position to lower the institutional barriers faced by disadvantaged students (Naylor & Mifsud, 2019), which highlights the need to utilise all levels of the higher education system to encourage the widening of access and completion. Additionally, earlier stages of the education system play a key role in determining which students even have the chance of entering higher education. The higher the degree of differentiation in a school system and the more choices students (or parents) can or must make, the more likely it is that the mechanisms behind the inequality found in higher education wil come into play at earlier points in students' educational careers (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2020b; Orr et al., 2017). Coherent strategies covering the entire educational trajectory therefore have the potential to greatly increase the access of socio-economically disadvantaged students. Cross-sector coordination of a coherent approach across all policy areas with relevance to students' lives (e.g. health, finance, employment) would also be desirable to ensure synergies and avoid unintended dysfunctional effects.

Tables

Table B2.1

Educational attainment of students' parents

Share of students according to either parent's highest degree (in %)

	Highest degree of either parent			
	Low educational background (ISCED 0–2)	Medium educational background (ISCED 3–4)	Short-cycle educational background (ISCED 5)	High educational background (ISCED 6–8)
AT	4	44	13	40
CH	7	34	n/a	60
CZ	1	50	n/a	49
DE	2	25	n/a	74
DK	5	20	15	60
EE	6	26	9	58
FI	6	28	12	54
FR	7	28	17	48
GE	3	38	1	58
HR	2	53	8	37
HU	8	33	9	50
IE	18	28	12	42
IS	12	31	5	53
LT	1	45	n/a	54
LU	18	32	5	44
MT	40	25	6	29
NL	9	34	0	58
NO	5	18	11	66
PL	17	38	n/a	45
SE	7	28	11	54
SI	3	41	17	39
av.	**9**	**33**	**9**	**51**
IT	10	56	n/a	34
PT	24	35	6	35
RO	5	53	4	38
TR	29	44	6	21

n/a: not applicable.

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *7.1 What is the highest level of education your mother/guardian and father/guardian have obtained? [indicated separately]*

Note(s): *Per student, the highest educational attainment of either the father or the mother is counted. 'Don't know' responses were excluded.*

Data collection*: Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

B 2

Table B2.2

Students without a tertiary education background (ISCED 0–4) by sex, age group, educational origin, migration background, access route, and transition duration

Share of students (in %)

	All students	Sex		Age group		Educational origin		Migration background		Access route		Transition route	
		Female	Male	Up to 21 years	30 years or over	Domestic student	International student	2nd gen. migrant backgr., domest. ed.	Without migration background, domestic education	Alternative	Standard	Direct	Delayed
AT	48	49	47	41	57	51	36	50	51	72	49	45	56
CH	40	42	39	33	52	41	32	45	41	48	39	39	50
CZ	51	54	47	48	70	54	26	50	55	56	50	48	76
DE	27	27	27	22	35	n.d.	n.d.	35	26	43	26	25	34
DK	26	25	27	23	33	24	26	29	26	29	26	25	28
EE	32	32	32	30	39	33	22	34	33	42	32	29	53
FI	33	34	32	23	45	34	24	28	34	38	33	28	44
FR	35	36	34	34	49	36	31	42	33	62	35	34	53
GE	41	43	39	42	44	41	32	48	41	36	41	40	53
HR	55	60	50	54	61	56	24	63	54	67	55	53	72
HU	41	42	39	34	57	42	29	31	43	56	40	36	65
IE	46	46	46	41	65	49	32	38	51	50	46	43	69
IS	43	45	37	26	61	43	40	31	45	63	38	36	61
LT	46	50	41	43	63	46	25	47	46	62	45	42	73
LU	50	50	51	37	52	28	69	81	65	61	49	49	74
MT	65	68	62	58	73	68	38	48	71	68	64	62	73
NL	42	43	42	39	59	43	36	51	42	52	41	40	61
NO	23	24	21	18	33	23	30	23	22	34	21	21	30
PL	55	58	52	48	74	56	28	55	57	71	54	52	78
SE	35	36	33	31	49	36	28	n.d.	n.d.	52	33	31	44
SI	44	45	44	43	72	44	t.f.c.	50	78	69	43	42	74
av.	**42**	**43**	**40**	**37**	**54**	**42**	**32**	**44**	**46**	**54**	**41**	**39**	**58**
IT	66	67	64	62	79	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	65	78
PT	59	58	61	56	72	61	33	48	64	76	60	57	81
RO	58	60	56	54	70	59	37	29	60	75	57	55	81
TR	73	75	71	74	78	74	38	58	74	78	72	72	81

t.f.c.: too few cases

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, D.2.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *7.1 What is the highest level of education your mother/guardian and father/guardian have obtained? [indicated separately]*

Note(s): *Per student, the highest educational attainment of either the father or the mother is counted. 'Don't know' responses were excluded.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group*: DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Table B2.3

Students without a tertiary education background (ISCED 0–4) by type of HEI, study programme, study intensity, extent of paid work, dependency on income source, and official status

Share of students (in %)

	All students	Type of HEI		Study programme			Study intensity		Extent of paid work		Dependency on income source			Official status	
		University	Non-university	Short-cycle	Bachelor	Master	Low intensity	High intensity	0 h paid work/wk during semester	> 20 h paid work per week during semester	Dependent on family	Dependent on self-earned income	Dependent on public student support	Full-time	Part-time
AT	48	46	58	n/a	49	48	50	44	43	56	36	54	70	48	n/a
CH	40	34	49	n.d.	42	36	45	37	36	51	33	48	62	38	54
CZ	51	50	59	n/a	54	51	56	43	43	62	44	59	52	47	n/a
DE	27	24	33	n/a	29	26	30	27	24	35	18	33	42	n.d.	n.d.
DK	26	22	31	35	26	23	28	25	27	28	21	n.d.	n.d.	26	n.d.
EE	32	30	42	n.d.	34	29	32	33	30	37	26	36	37	32	46
FI	33	24	43	n.d.	35	28	36	33	33	40	28	36	32	29	61
FR	35	37	30	48	37	37	43	31	35	41	24	40	55	n.d.	n.d.
GE	41	41	41	51	43	29	39	43	40	39	40	40	38	41	n/a
HR	55	54	64	t.f.c.	59	55	59	52	51	64	49	66	56	52	63
HU	41	39	50	61	44	35	46	34	34	53	32	52	37	35	57
IE	46	41	59	54	45	43	52	41	42	58	31	51	67	43	62
IS	43	43	n/a	65	37	53	50	38	43	57	40	43	40	42	52
LT	46	39	59	n/a	48	46	48	46	43	52	40	52	48	42	62
LU	50	48	73	73	53	36	70	50	53	51	45	31	t.f.c.	50	t.f.c.
MT	65	66	63	77	64	63	67	63	57	74	56	73	70	60	76
NL	42	30	50	59	44	34	46	38	36	53	30	53	45	41	58
NO	23	22	25	n.d.	24	24	26	22	20	32	23	30	18	21	31
PL	55	50	70	n/a	56	59	55	48	49	65	43	64	76	48	69
SE	35	35	n/a	71	37	25	39	31	34	42	31	37	34	34	44
SI	44	40	58	70	48	41	56	41	42	53	34	49	58	42	53
av.	**42**	**39**	**50**	**60**	**43**	**39**	**46**	**39**	**39**	**50**	**34**	**47**	**49**	**41**	**56**
IT	66	66	n/a	n/a	67	69	73	64	65	71	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	66	n.d.
PT	59	51	74	86	62	61	65	54	55	75	51	74	80	57	70
RO	58	58	n/a	n/a	61	62	64	52	53	66	53	68	69	58	68
TR	73	75	62	87	70	62	77	66	72	80	64	81	83	n.d.	n.d.

n.d: no data; t.f.c.: too few cases; n/a: not applicable

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, D.2.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *7.1 What is the highest level of education your mother/guardian and father/guardian have obtained? [indicated separately]*

Note(s): *Per student, the highest educational attainment of either the father or the mother is counted. 'Don't know' responses were excluded.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Chapter B3
Transition into and within higher education

Key

Transition time into higher education

The majority of students enter higher education within a period of two years after leaving the regular school system in all EUROSTUDENT countries. Generally, students without a tertiary education background or students whose parents are not financially well-off are more likely to enter higher education with a delay of more than two years after leaving school than students with tertiary educated or financially well-off parents.

B 3

Type of entry qualification

Vast majorities of students either use national standard minimum access requirements (e.g. secondary school leaving certificates) or their foreign equivalents for higher education access, with shares ranging between 100 and 87 % between countries.

Alternative access routes into higher education

While only two percent of students in Lithuania, Georgia, and France access higher education without an upper secondary school-leaving qualification or equivalent obtained within six months after leaving school, the same holds true for every fifth student in Iceland and every fourth student in Malta and Turkey. Students without a tertiary education background as well as older students more commonly access higher education via alternative routes.

findings

Work experience before entering higher education

On cross-country average, 61 % of students indicate regular, casual, or periodical prior experience in the labour market. Generally, the percentage of students who have regularly worked prior to entering higher education is much greater among alternative access route students than among standard access route students.

Transition time into Master programmes

On cross-country average, 25 % of Master students have spent at least two years outside the tertiary education system between graduating from their previous course of study and entering their Masters' programme. Large shares of part-time Master students as well as Master students who study alongside their gainful employment have spent at least two years outside higher education.

Main issues

Ensuring and widening equitable access into higher education and vertical mobility between degrees (Wiers-Jenssen, 2013) has been one of the main goals of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) almost from its beginning, as discussed under the topic of 'lifelong learning' in order "to improve social cohesion, equal opportunities and the quality of life" (Prague Communiqué, 2001). This goal still holds true today and was recently emphasised in the Rome Communiqué with the expressive catchphrases of 'socially inclusive higher education' as well as 'flexible and open learning paths' (Rome Communiqué, 2020) in the midst of the profoundly challenging COVID-19 pandemic. In general, two main aspects must be considered with respect to the question of accessibility: the different entry routes and regulations in national higher education systems on the one hand, and the (potential) students, with their differing resources, aims, and expectations on the other.

Several instruments ensure equitable access to higher education, all with the intention of opening access requirements to alternative pathways and allowing for higher education entrance through routes that deviate from traditional and more rigid requirements (Reay et al., 2001). For example, work experience may be taken into account, or possibilities of obtaining the requirements after leaving school may be established, or special entry routes for graduates from different school-tracking paths to the traditional tertiary tracking path may be set up (Altbach et al., 2009; Brunello & Checchi, 2007; Müller et al., 2015; Poelman et al., 2019). Examples of alternative pathways into higher education include *Berufsreifeprüfung* or *Studienberechtigungsprüfung* in Austria, *Begabtenprüfung* in Germany, as well as the '23/5' route and widened accessibility due to the *Competence Reform* in Norway (Rawsthorne, 2020).

The topic of equitable access into and within higher education also raises the question of which (potential) student groups are targeted by the different measures. Some common themes regarding the diversity of socio-economic and cultural realities across the EHEA "are inevitable across countries: low socio-economic background (in the form of low income or the low educational background of parents), gender, immigrant status and disability are often taken as main aspects of disadvantage. Furthermore, mature students are specifically targeted in many countries, as students from underrepresented groups often enter higher education with a delay" (European Commission et al., 2020a, p. 101). Thus, when discussing the (re-)accessibility of the EHEA's higher education systems, one has to take a closer look at these underrepresented groups to assess the success and efficacy of higher education's broadened access possibilities (Orr, 2016; Orr et al., 2017; Salmi, 2018; Salmi & Sursock, 2020).

Taking the above aspects into account of how and to whom – accessibility of higher education along the life course, the diversity of possible paths into higher education, and the openness of transition between different types of study programmes (e.g. from Bachelor to Master studies) – this chapter answers the following questions.

- How do student populations vary with regard to transition time between leaving the school system and entering higher education, access routes, and work experience prior to studies?

- How do students' educational and economic backgrounds, impairments, age, sex, and migration backgrounds relate to transition time, access routes, and work experience prior to entering higher education?
- How do students pass on to Master studies after finishing a qualifying degree (e.g. Bachelor or other undergraduate degrees) and how is the transition time to Master studies affected by individual characteristics such as educational and economic background, impairments, age, sex and migration background?

Methodological and conceptual notes

Due to the cross-sectional design of this study, it is not possible to measure the extent of higher education participation within certain peer groups as would be possible, for example, through longitudinal school leavers observation (to analyse transition rates into higher education) or graduate studies (to analyse transition rates between Bachelor graduates into Master courses of study). Thus, in interpreting the analyses of this chapter, it must be noted that only those who are already enrolled at HEIs are included in the study and selection processes before entering and during higher education cannot be observed.

To measure the diversity of routes into higher education and within different types of study programmes, EUROSTUDENT makes use of three major concepts: *transition duration* (the length of time between leaving the regular school system and entering higher education for the first time), *access route* (both the type of access requirement used for entering higher education and the point in time of acquiring the access requirement after leaving the secondary school system), and (the length and extent of) *work experience prior to entering higher education* (Box 3.1). As not all of these concepts are self-explanatory, some definitions must be kept in mind when interpreting the findings.

'Regular school' in the EUROSTUDENT context refers to the (upper) secondary school system for teenagers, which may be a public or private school, an academic school, a vocational or professional school, whether a 'classical' school or a school with alternative forms of learning (e.g. Montessori). Regular school may refer to compulsory schools. Schools targeting only adults (mostly on evenings or weekends) are not regarded as regular schools, even if they are public schools and part of the national education system. Consequently, any kind of preparatory classes for obtaining the standard minimum access requirement 'later in life' are not regarded as regular schools.

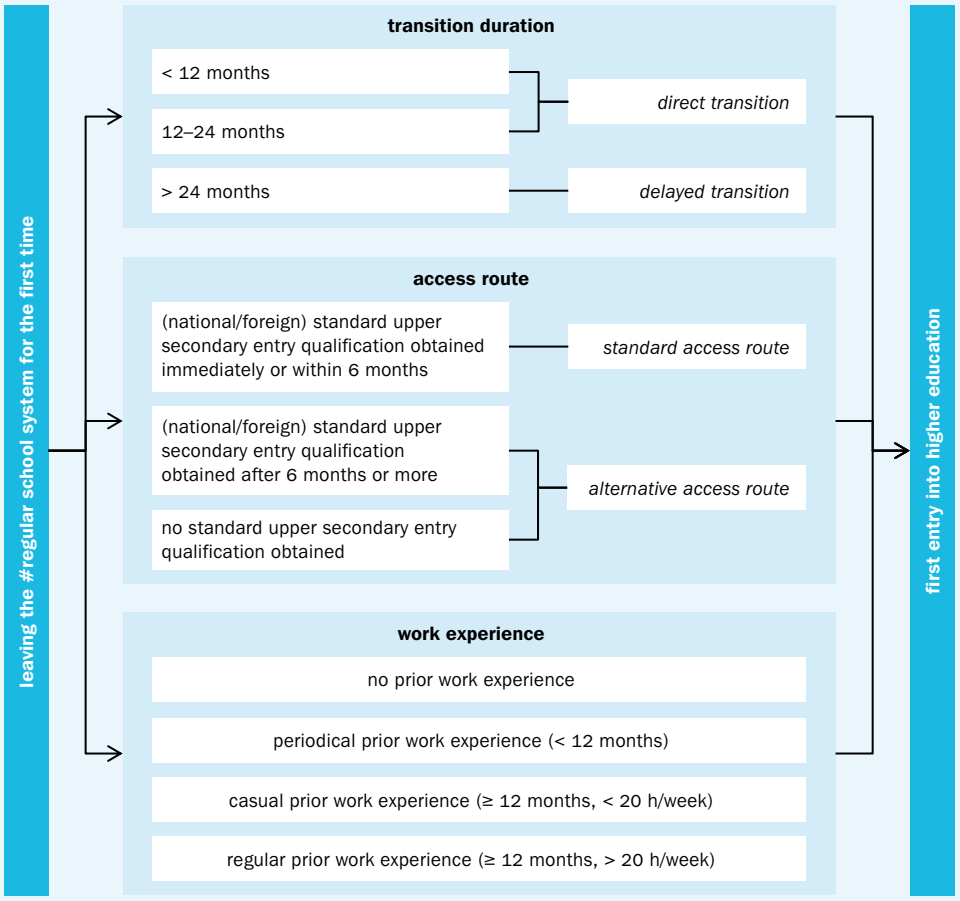
Every country has a Standard or Minimum Access Requirement (SMAR) for accessing higher education. It is 'standard' because there might be alternatives, and it is 'minimum' because there might be additional requirements. The SMAR is obtained in different ways in different countries: either the successful passing of the final year in upper secondary school, a specific exam at the end of secondary schooling (matriculation exam, such as *Matura*, *Abitur*, *Baccalaureat*), a state exam, or by another, country-specific route. Some countries have several upper secondary school types (usually academic or professional tracks), and sometimes these different schools lead to different types of SMAR (European Commission et al., 2020c). The different SMAR

types may be the minimum requirement to enter any type of higher education (general SMAR) or only allow access to specific types of higher education or specific fields of study (specific SMAR). In any case, one type of SMAR is needed to access higher education; however, there may be additional requirements such as admission exams or specific minimum grades.

Entering higher education using a SMAR obtained in conjunction with leaving regular schooling is considered the standard access route. Students entering higher education without a SMAR, or who did not obtain the qualification in direct conjunction (within six months) with leaving the school system for the first time, are defined as having used alternative access routes (▶ Alternative access route).

Box 3.1

Differentiation of higher education entry routes



The time between acquiring one degree (mostly a Bachelor or other undergraduate degree) and entering a Master course of study is investigated to analyse variations in transition duration into Master studies. Again, as with processes of selectivity in entering higher education altogether, selection processes in entering Master/postgraduate studies cannot be observed due to the cross-sectional design of this study.

Data and interpretation

Transition time from leaving school to entering higher education

Relatively direct transition into HE after school is the norm in most EUROSTUDENT countries.

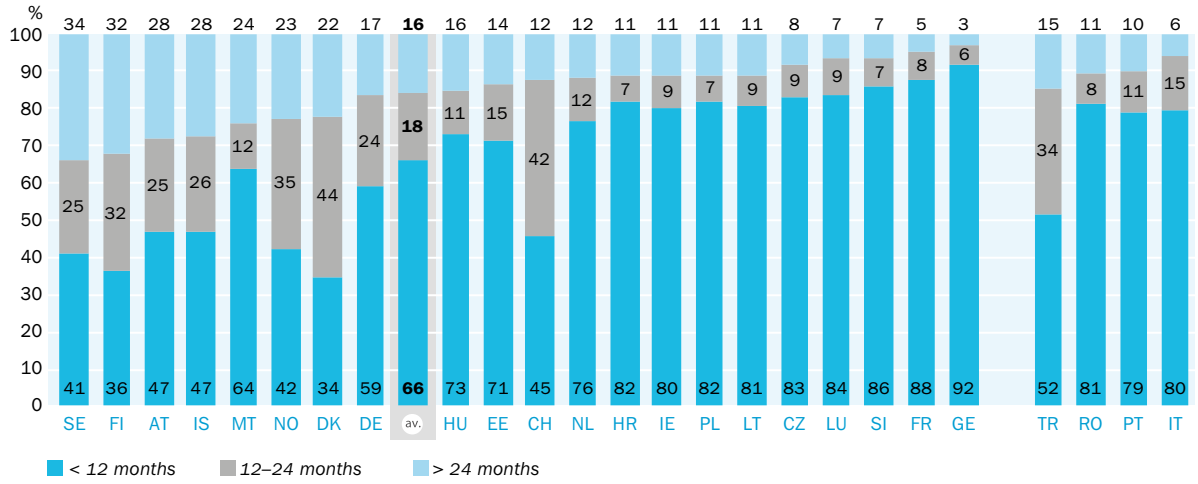
Against the background of the EHEA's aims of social mobility and continuous professional development at any stage in life, the transition time between leaving the regular school system for higher education is a valuable indicator in measuring the openness of educational systems with regard to their accessibility. Across all EUROSTUDENT countries, the vast majority of students take a more or less direct route into higher education, in other words, within two years of leaving the regular school system for the first time. While on cross-country average, about two thirds of students first entered higher education within twelve months of leaving school (66 %), an additional 18 % entered between 12 and 24 months of finishing secondary school (Figure B3.1). About every sixth student (16 %) entered the higher education system with a delayed transition, meaning more than two years after leaving school. There are large variations between countries with regard to transition duration:

- Comparably few students in Sweden (41 %), Finland (36 %), Norway (42 %), and Denmark (34 %) take a direct route to higher education of less than 12 months after leaving the secondary school system.
- Exceptionally large percentages of students in Finland (32 %), Norway (35 %), Denmark (44 %), Switzerland (42 %), and Turkey (34 %) enter higher education between one and two years after leaving school. This finding coincides with compulsory military services in all of these countries (Bieri, 2015).

Figure B3.1

Duration of transition from secondary school to higher education

Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, B.15.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *2.4 How long after leaving the #regular school system for the first time did you enter higher education for the first time?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *AT, CH, DE, IT.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Delayed transition into HE of more than two years after leaving school is most common in Sweden, Finland, Austria, and Iceland.

- While a delayed transition into higher education is common in Sweden (34 %), Finland (32 %), Austria (28 %), and Iceland (28 %) – with more than a quarter of students reporting at least two years between leaving school and first enrolling at an HEI – less than 10 % of students in the Czech Republic (8 %), Luxembourg (7 %), Slovenia (7 %), France (5 %), Georgia (3 %), and Italy (6 %) report such long transition periods.

Delayed transition duration into higher education and students' educational backgrounds

Delayed transition into HE is more common among students without tertiary educated parents.

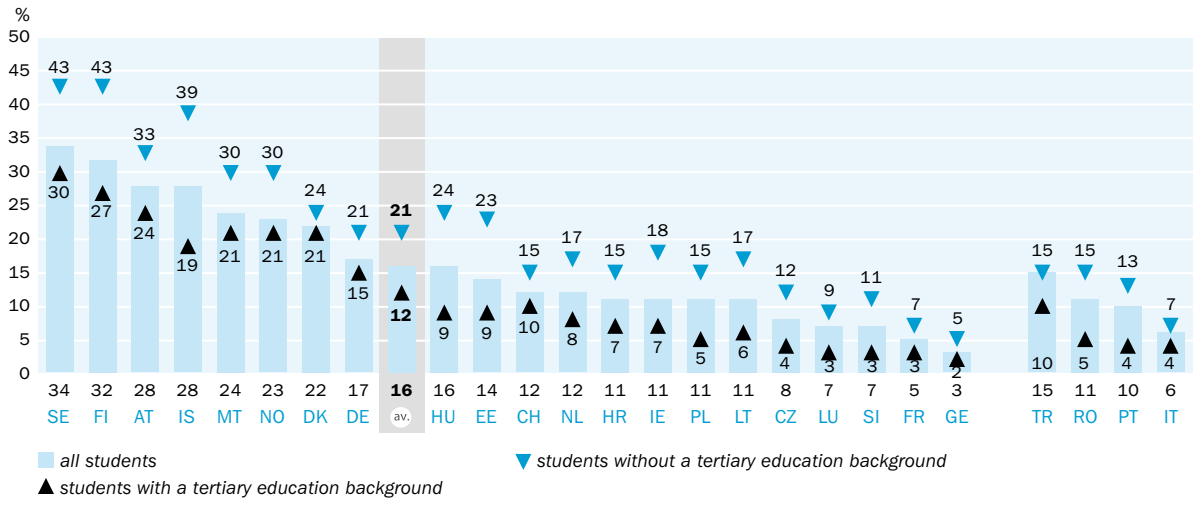
While assessment of equitable access to higher education generally takes several aspects into account (such as sex, migration background, or impairment status), people from low socio-economic backgrounds represent a group of particular interest as they often follow varying educational paths and frequently enter higher education at a higher age (if at all; see > Chapter B2). This pattern becomes obvious when distinguishing students from different educational backgrounds by their transition time from school to higher education (Figure B3.2). The percentages of delayed transition students are (in many cases considerably) larger among students whose parents have not attained a tertiary education degree compared to students with a tertiary education background in all countries. On cross-country average, the percentage of delayed transition students is almost twice as high among students without a tertiary education background (21 %) than among students with a tertiary education background (12 %).

- The largest differences in the percentages of delayed transition between leaving the secondary school system and entering higher education with regard to educational background can be observed in Sweden, Finland, Iceland, Hungary, and Estonia.

Figure B3.2

Delayed transition students by educational background

Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, B.16.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *2.4 How long after leaving the #regular school system for the first time did you enter higher education for the first time?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *AT, CH, DE, IT.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

- By contrast, in some countries the differentiation by educational background shows comparably small variations of at most five percentage points (e.g. Denmark, Georgia, Italy, France, and Switzerland).

Relationships between delayed transition and financial status of parents, age, sex, migration background, and impairment status

Students with less well-off parents tend to enter HE with a delay of more than two years.

As can be expected due to the strong relationship between educational background and the financial status of students' parents (see > Chapter B2), students who assess their parents as not very well-off or not at all well-off more frequently report a delayed transition time than students with parents who are very or somewhat well-off (Table B3.1). This finding reflects the necessity of financial backing in being able to afford higher education. Leaving school and being able to depend on the family's economic resources apparently promotes a quick transition into higher education. In comparison, a less affluent background may require school leavers to first acquire the necessary resources themselves and to only later enter higher education.

- Differences with respect to students' parents' financial status are most apparent in the Czech Republic, Ireland, Poland, Slovenia, and Romania.
- While the general trend is also observable in Austria, Denmark, Finland, and Sweden, it is less distinct in these countries, which have large percentages of delayed transition students anyway. This may be due to a well-developed student/study support system infrastructure, which promotes lifelong accessibility and less dependency on parental resources.

Students who have entered HE with a delay of more than two years are clearly older, but differences due to sex, migration background, or impairments are not found in all countries.

Generally, age is strongly related to delayed higher education entry. In all countries, students from higher age groups more commonly report a delayed transition duration than their fellow younger students. Still, this is no surprise as a delayed transition time goes hand in hand with progressing age. Less clear patterns emerge when differentiating by sex, migration background, and impairment status.

- There are no major differences with respect to delayed transition into higher education due to sex. However, male students in Austria, Norway, and Turkey are more likely to be delayed transition students than women, while female students in Sweden more frequently report a delayed transition than their male peers.
- Students without a migration background tend to enter higher education with a delay of more than two years more often than students with a migration background, particularly in Finland, Hungary, Ireland, Malta, Norway, and Romania. By contrast, students without a migration background in Poland are far less likely to have entered higher education after a delayed transition duration than their fellow students with a migration background.
- There is no striking difference in the percentages of delayed transition between students with or without impairments in most EUROSTUDENT countries, except for Denmark, Hungary, and Slovenia, where at least five percentage points more of impaired students indicate a delayed transition than their fellow students without impairments.

Higher education access qualifications

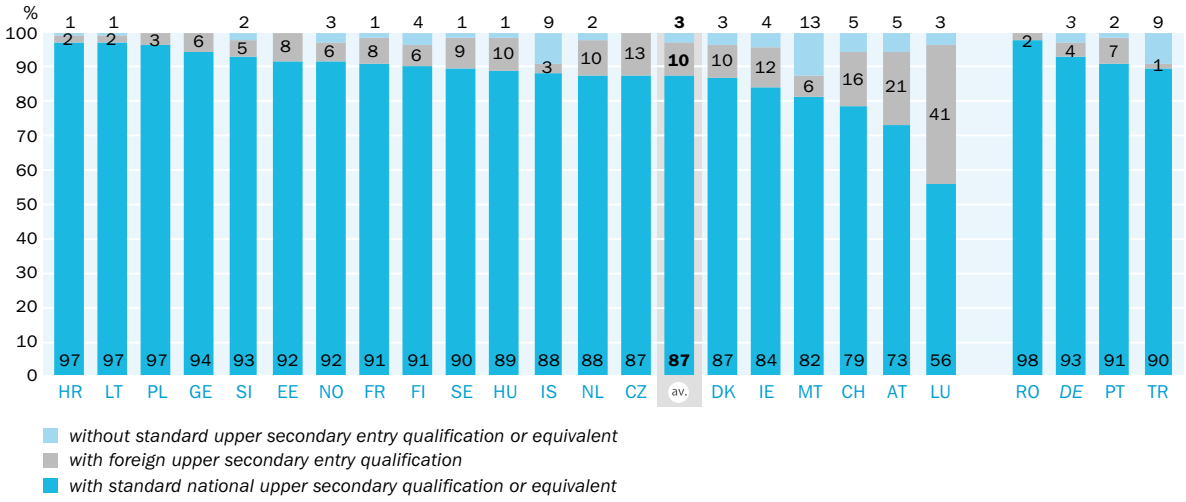
The majority of students in all countries use standard upper secondary entry qualifications.

In all EUROSTUDENT countries, the majority of students access higher education via standard national upper secondary qualifications or their respective equivalents (Figure B3.3). Correspondingly, only small percentages of students use alternative qualifications for higher education entry – on cross-country average, only three percent draw on qualifications other than standard secondary school leaving certificates.

Figure B3.3

Type of qualification used for access to higher education

Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, B.10.* ***No data:*** *IT.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *2.1 Do you have a Standard Minimum Access Requirement (#SMAR) or foreign equivalent?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *EE, MT.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

- Almost all students in Croatia, Lithuania, and Poland access higher education with a standard entry qualification, with figures of 97 % in each of these countries.
- Comparably large shares of students in Malta (13 %), Iceland (9 %), and Turkey (9 %) have accessed higher education without a standard minimum access requirement.
- Foreign entry qualifications are common in some higher education populations of Europe's geographic centre, with the higher education systems of Luxembourg (41 %), Austria (21 %), and Switzerland (16 %) attracting larger percentages of students with foreign qualifications than other higher education systems.

Relationships between access routes and educational background, impairment, and age

Alternative access routes have been used by an average eight percent of students in EUROSTUDENT countries.

A further dimension in evaluating accessibility are the requirements for entering higher education. Taking the various educational systems among EHEA countries into account, students who obtained a ◉ standard minimum access requirement (SMAR) in conjunction with leaving the regular school system for the first time (standard access route) may be differentiated from students who entered higher education without a standard access requirement or obtained it later in life – meaning more than six months after leaving secondary school – (alternative access route) to illustrate variations in the flexibility of entering higher education (◉ Alternative access route). On cross-country average, eight percent of students entered higher education via alternative access routes (Figure B3.4).

- The proportions of students indicating non-traditional access routes range from one or two percent in Georgia, Lithuania, and France, up to 20 % in Iceland, and 25 % in Malta and Turkey.

While variation is considerable among national student populations with regard to the percentage of students entering higher education via alternative access routes, some consistent patterns emerge when differentiating alternative routes by educational background, impairment, and age. Students without a tertiary education background more frequently report an alternative access route into higher education in all EUROSTUDENT countries. On cross-country average, ten percent of students without a tertiary education background entered higher education via alternative access routes, compared to six percent of students with at least one parent who attained a higher education degree.

- However, differences related to educational background are more noticeable in some countries (e.g. Iceland and Norway) than in others (such as Ireland, Denmark, the Czech Republic, Georgia, Lithuania, and France).

In many countries, students with impairments or other long-standing health issues access higher education using an alternative route.

- Most notably, students with impairment(s) in Iceland, Norway, and Slovenia indicate alternative access routes much more frequently than their peers without impairments.

A further consistent pattern relates to students' age. Students in older age groups accessed higher education more frequently via alternative routes.

- The largest percentages of students with alternative access routes can be found among those aged 30 or more in Turkey (65 %), Malta (47 %), Iceland (40 %), Switzerland (30 %), Luxembourg (30 %), and Slovenia (30 %).

Findings with respect to the financial status of parents, students' sex, and migration background are less distinct (Table B3.2):

- Even though students who assess their parents' financial status as (very) well-off less frequently indicate an alternative access route than students whose parents are assessed as not (very/at all) well-off in many countries (e.g. Austria, the Czech Republic, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Poland, Slovenia, Sweden), some countries show no or only minor differences with respect to the financial status of students' parents (e.g. Croatia, Denmark, Finland, Georgia, or Romania).
- Differences regarding percentages of alternative access routes due to sex or migration background are minor in most countries.

Patterns of when and how to enter higher education

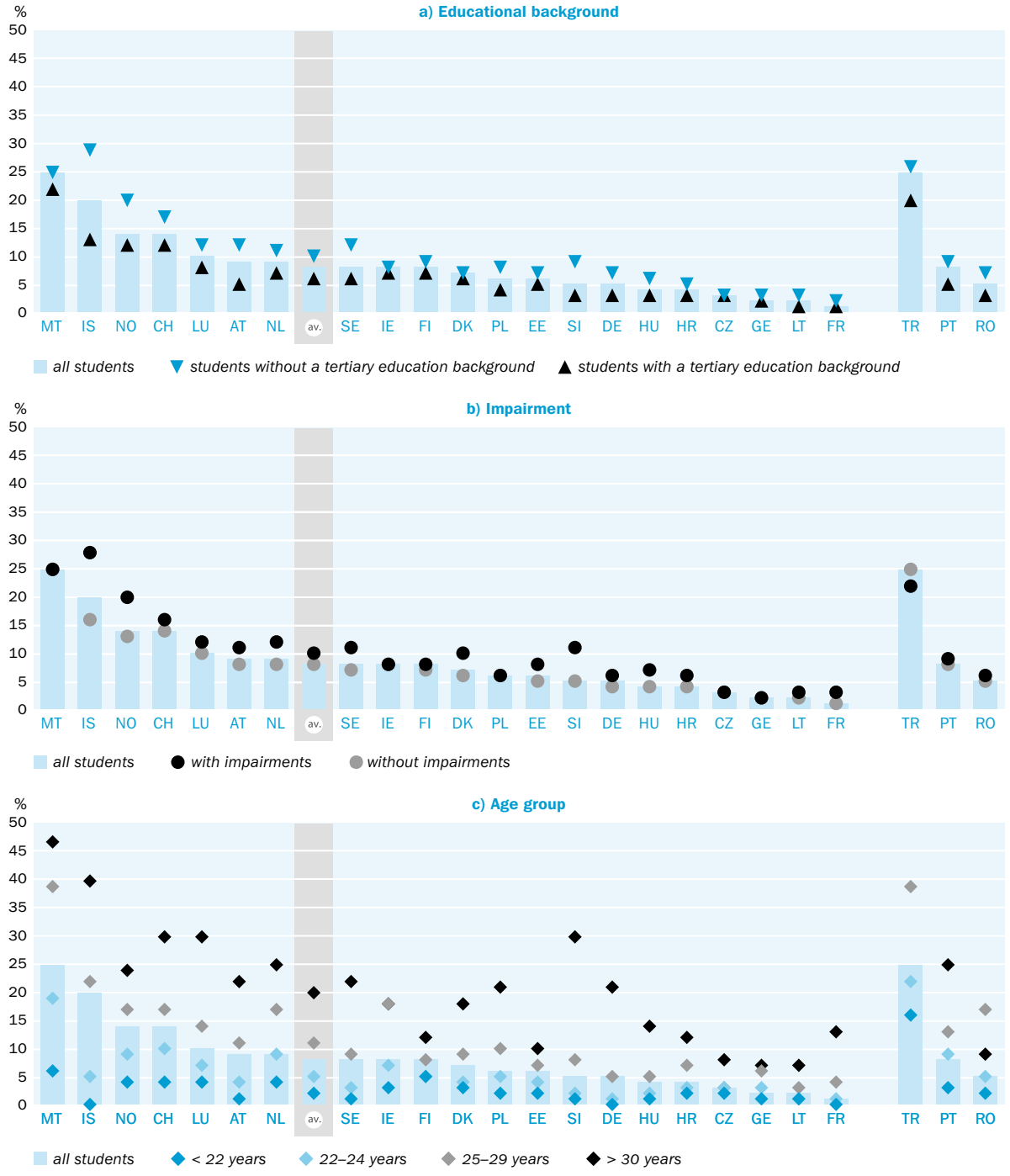
Malta, Iceland, and Norway can be described as relatively flexible systems with regard to entry into HE.

A comparison between the shares of delayed transition students and the shares of students with alternative access routes into higher education allows for a cautious characterisation of higher education systems with respect to their accessibility (Table B3.1 and Table B3.2). While the higher education systems of a small group of countries may be described as flexible with regard to both how and at what stage in life higher education may be entered (most distinctly in Malta, Iceland, and Norway), a larger group of countries may be described as relatively rigid (e.g. France, Georgia, Slovenia, the Czech Republic, and Lithuania). The systems of a few countries may be characterised as either flexible for entering later in life but not particularly open to alternative access routes (e.g. Denmark) or, the other way round, flexible with regard to alternative access routes but less so at later points in life (e.g. Luxembourg, Switzerland, or Turkey). An in-depth analysis of these cross-country patterns regarding access to higher education is presented in Chapter 3.1.2 of the Thematic review on 'Flexible pathways into and within higher education' (Šaukeckienė et al., 2021).

Figure B3.4

Alternative access route into higher education

Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, B.17.* ***No data:*** *IT.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *2.1 Do you have a Standard Minimum Access Requirement (#SMAR) or foreign equivalent?; 2.2 [Only students with #SMAR] When did you obtain your #SMAR?; 2.3 [Only students without #SMAR] Where did you last attend the #regular school system?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *AT, CH, DE, EE, MT.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Work experience prior to entering higher education

On average, 61 % of students have work experience prior to entering HE.

The majority of students in most EUROSTUDENT countries have at least some kind of work experience prior to entering higher education, with a total of 61 % on cross-country average (Figure B3.5):

- Total percentages of students with any kind of work experience are largest in Iceland, Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, where more than three quarters of students have worked before first enrolling at an HEI.
- Compared to the other countries, relatively few students in Croatia (42 %), France (40 %), Luxembourg (40 %), Georgia (19 %), Portugal (40 %), Turkey (38 %), Romania (38 %), and Italy (21 %) have any kind of work experience prior to entering higher education.

On cross-country average, 25 % of students have gained periodical work experience of less than one year prior to entering higher education, and 10 % of students casually worked for at least one year with fewer than 20 hours per week. Regular work experience of at least one year and with more than 20 hours per week is indicated by 25 % of students on cross-country average. However, the intensity of work experience varies considerably.

- Periodical work experience is prevalent among students in Poland (41 %), Estonia (38 %), Slovenia (37 %), and Lithuania (35 %), where more than a third of students worked for less than a year before first enrolling at an HEI.
- Students in Austria (31 %), the Netherlands (23 %), and Norway (22 %) most frequently indicate casual work experience of fewer than 20 hours per week for a period longer than a year.
- Comparably large proportions of the student populations in Iceland (53 %), Denmark (42 %), Sweden (42 %), Norway (36 %), Malta (35 %), Finland (38 %), and Switzerland (34 %) have gained regular prior work experience.

Between a third and half of all students report regular prior work experience in some countries.

Commonly, students without a tertiary education background more frequently acquire regular work experience before entering higher education than students with a tertiary education background (Table B3.3) – this holds true across countries, with the between-group difference most distinct in Iceland and much less apparent in Denmark, Italy, or Georgia. These differences with regard to educational background are reflected in differentiation by the financial status of students' parents as well as students' age, with students from less well-off families more frequently indicating regular prior work experience than those from well-off families in most countries and older students having worked on a regular basis more frequently than younger students. The diversity of findings on regular prior work experience is broader between countries with regard to sex, migration background, and impairment status.

Students whose parents did not attain a tertiary degree and are less well-off financially are more likely to have prior regular work experience.

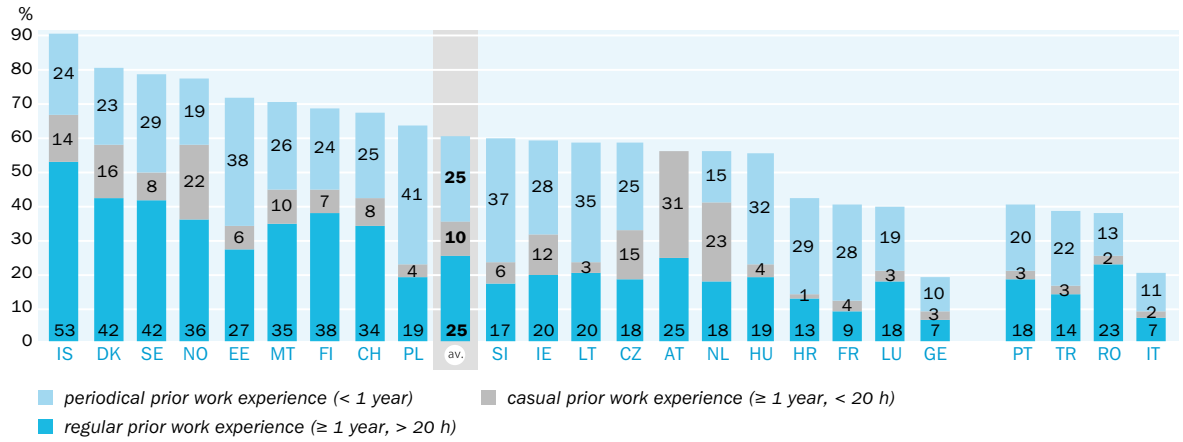
- Female students in Finland, Iceland, Luxembourg, and Sweden indicate regular work experience prior to entering higher education with considerably larger percentages than male students. The opposed relationship can be found in Austria, Croatia, Romania, and Turkey.
- While domestically educated students without a migration background in Austria, Denmark, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Malta, Norway, Romania, and Switzerland have more frequently worked regularly before enrolling in higher education, domestically educated second-generation migrants in Estonia, Lithuania, and Poland more frequently indicate regular work experience than their fellow students without a migration background.

- In a few countries, students with impairment(s) more frequently enter higher education after regular work experience than students without impairment (e.g. Georgia, Hungary, Malta, and Slovenia). In most cases, however, there are no major differences with regard to impairment status.

Figure B3.5

Students with work experience prior to entering higher education

Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, B.20.* ***No data:*** *DE.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *2.9 Did you have any paid job(s) prior to entering higher education for the first time?*

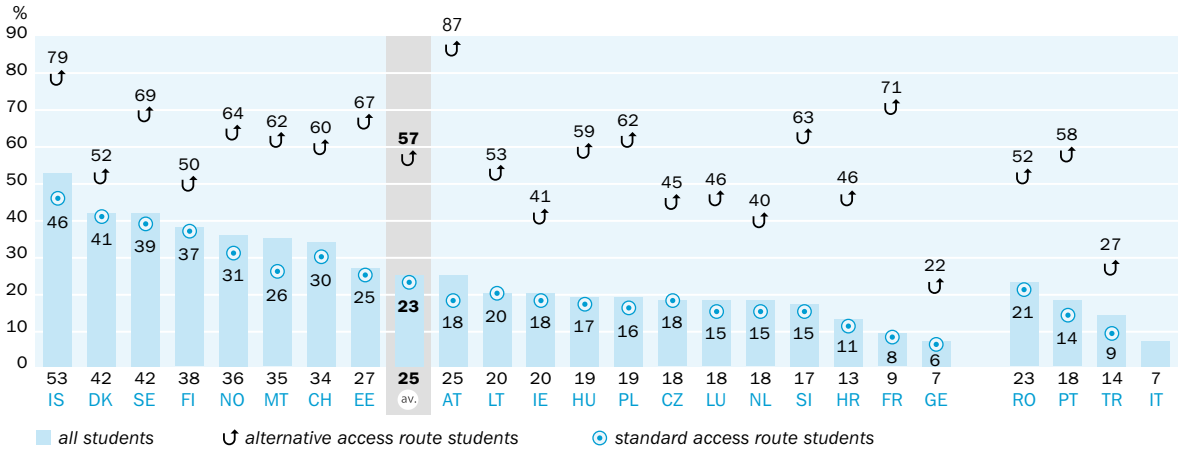
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *AT.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Figure B3.6

Students with regular prior work experience by access route into higher education

Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, B.20.* ***No data:*** *DE.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *2.9 Did you have any paid job(s) prior to entering higher education for the first time?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *AT.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Alternative access routes and regular work experience

Students using alternative access routes are more than twice as likely to have regular prior work experience.

Students with regular prior work experience can be expected to have acquired further qualifications that allow them to enter higher education through alternative access routes (meaning either the standard entry qualification earned while working, or non-standard qualifications for higher education entrance).[1] This becomes obvious when differentiating students with regular prior work experience by access route into higher education (Figure B3.6). On cross-country average, 57 % of alternative access route students have worked for longer than a year and more than 20 hours per week before first entering higher education. In comparison, only 23 % of standard access route students entered higher education with regular work experience prior to higher education.

- This relationship is particularly strong in Austria (alternative access: 87 % vs. standard access: 18 %), Slovenia (63 % vs. 15 %), Poland (62 % vs. 16 %), Portugal (58 % vs. 14 %), Estonia (67 % vs. 25 %), and Hungary (59 % vs. 17 %). In these countries, students entering higher education via alternative access routes are much more likely to have gained regular work experience prior to entering higher education.
- Although students who entered higher education by an alternative access route in Denmark (alternative access: 52 % vs. standard access: 41 %) and Finland (50 % vs. 37 %) have also gained regular work experience more frequently than standard access route students, the difference between groups is much less distinct than in the other countries.

Transition time from previous studies to a Master's programme

One of the leading principles of the Bologna Process is to facilitate access to lifelong further higher education. Therefore, it is essential to look at re-entering higher education, for example, to attain a Master degree, in addition to higher education entry in general. Thus, while in the context of the two-/three-cycled degree structure, Bachelor's degrees are principally meant to allow for labour market entry and participation in themselves (European Commission et al., 2020a, p. 35), they also serve the purpose of allowing for easy re-entry into higher education for additional studies after (longer) periods outside the educational system.

Three quarters of students entered their MA programme within two years of completing a prior degree.

On cross-country average, 61 % of Master students entered their programme less than twelve months after graduating from their previous course of study, while 14 % indicate a transitional period of one to two years between their previous degree and their current Master's studies (Figure B3.7). A quarter of Master students register a delay of more than two years between obtaining their previous degree and enrolling in their current programme.

- In most countries, the majority of Master students take a more or less direct transition duration of less than twelve months or twelve to 24 months from finishing their previous degree to starting a Master programme. The percentages of these direct transition duration between degrees are particularly large in Germany, Italy, the Czech Republic, Slovenia, and Denmark, with more than 90 % of all Master students reporting such a short period between degree cycles.

1 *For an in-depth discussion of the relationship between recognition of prior learning and higher education entry via alternative access routes, see Chapter 3.3.2 in the Thematic review on 'Flexible pathways into and within higher education" (Šaukeckienė et al., 2021).*

The percentages of Master students with at least two years outside HE before their current programme are highest in Iceland, Estonia, Norway, Ireland, and Malta.

- The percentages of Master students with a delayed transition duration into Master programmes are largest in Iceland (41 %), Estonia (41 %), and Norway (43 %), and particularly in Ireland (49 %) and Malta (51 %), where about half of the students in Master programmes took more than two years between graduation from their previous course of study and before entering their Master's programme.

As discussed, a delayed transition duration into Master programmes is likely to go hand in hand with labour market experience between degree programmes. Consequently, Master students who have already gained labour market experience are very likely to be in gainful employment, continuing to work alongside their further studies and thus pursuing their second-cycle degree in the form of part-time studies (see > Chapter B6). The apparent pattern strongly supports the relationship between delayed transition into Master studies and continuation of studies in formal part-time status (Figure B3.8).

B 3

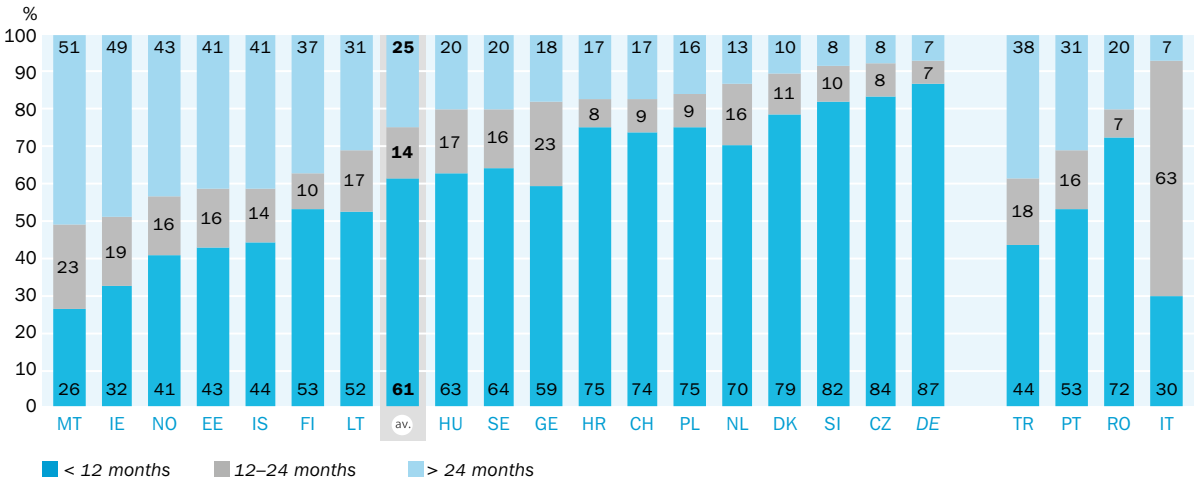
MA students with part-time status more often report a longer break between their previous and current programme.

- On cross-country average, every second part-time student in a Master programme indicates a delayed transition into Masters' studies. By contrast, only every sixth full-time Master student indicates such a delayed transition between graduating in the previous programme and enrolling in the current Master programme.
- This difference between part-time and full-time Master students is particularly large in Finland, Norway, and the Netherlands, with group differences of more than 50 percentage points.

Figure B3.7 ⬇

Duration of transition between graduating from previous programme to current Master programme

Share of students in a Master programme (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, B.8.* ***No data:*** *AT, LU, FR.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *1.9 [Only for Master students] How long after graduating from your previous study programme did you start your current Master programme?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *DE, DK, IT, SE.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Several general trends and nationally specific characteristics in delayed transition between graduating from one degree and entering a Master programme can be found with respect to the educational and financial background, sex, migration background, impairment, and notably the self-identification as student or worker (Table B3.4).

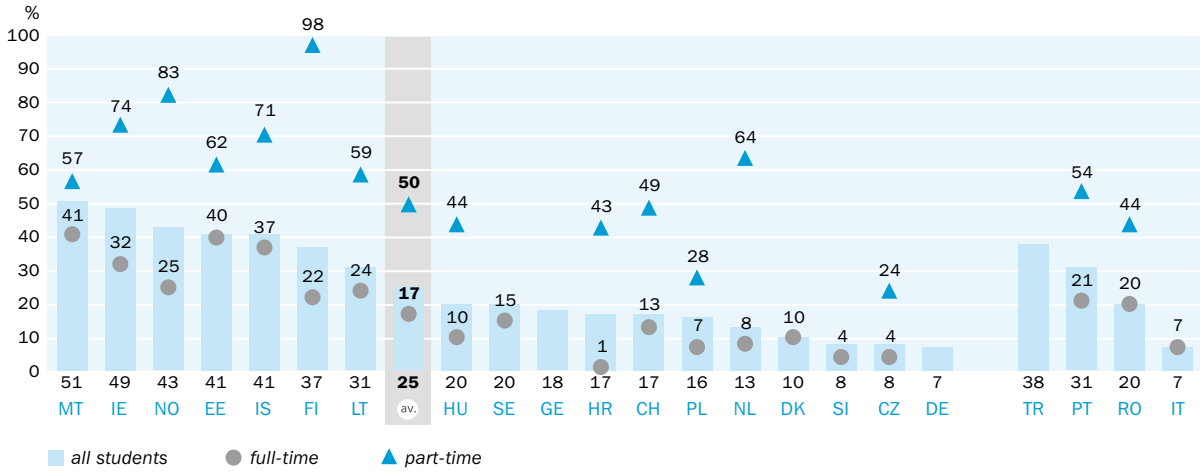
- In many countries (e.g. Croatia, Estonia, Finland, Iceland, Turkey, and Norway), students without a tertiary education background re-enter higher education to attain a Master's degree at least two years after graduating from their previous programme more frequently than Master students with a tertiary education background.
- While female students on average are more likely to start a Master degree programme after a delayed transition period than male Master students, there are no major differences in most other countries, with Croatia's and Turkey's male Master students more frequently taking such a delayed transition duration within higher education than female Master students.
- On cross-country average, 26 % of domestically educated Master students without a migration background indicate a delayed transition into their Master programme, while only 17 % of domestically educated second-generation migrants have a gap of more than two years before entering Master studies. While there are a few exceptions to this trend (e.g. Estonia, Lithuania, and Poland), it holds true in most countries (most distinctly in Finland and Ireland).

In many countries, starting a Master's degree more than two years after a previous programme is more common among students with non-tertiary educated parents.

Figure B3.8

Delayed transition (> 24 months) between graduating from the previous programme to current Master programme by the formal status of enrolment

Share of Master students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, B.8.* ***No data:*** *AT, LU, FR.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *1.9 [Only for Master students] How long after graduating from your previous study programme did you start your current Master programme?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *DE, DK, IT, SE.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

- Differences of delayed transition into Master studies between students with and without impairments are minor in about half of the EUROSTUDENT countries. Exceptions are Finland, Iceland, Ireland, Norway, Slovenia, and Sweden, where Master students with impairments are less likely to indicate a delayed entry into Master studies, as well as Estonia, Hungary, and Turkey, where comparably large shares of students with impairments spent more than two years outside higher education before entering their Master studies.
- Employed Master students who tend to primarily work and study in addition to their paid job(s) are much more likely to have entered their Master programme more than two years after finishing their previous degree. Thus, it can be noted that a delayed re-entry to attain a Master degree frequently goes hand in hand with continued work alongside studies, which further supports the findings on the delayed transition into Master studies with regard to the formal status of enrolment (Figure B3.8).

Studying for a Master's more than two years after a previous degree is particularly common among students self-identifying primarily as workers.

Discussion and policy considerations

While large shares of students enter higher education with a delay of more than 24 months and even larger shares of students gain work experience before entering higher education in many countries, only a few students make use of alternative access routes (in contrast to traditional access with a standard secondary school qualification attained when leaving the school system) in most EUROSTUDENT countries. Comparably large proportions of the respective student bodies in Norway, Iceland, Sweden, and Malta are made up of delayed transition and alternative access, as well as work-experienced students. Commonalities between patterns regarding the above indicators are partly due to correlations between indicators (e.g. students with regular work experience are bound to enter higher education delayed and very likely acquire qualifications that allow them to use alternative access routes into higher education). Nevertheless, the findings strongly point towards implications regarding the easier accessibility of higher education in these countries. The notable differences with regard to transitioning into higher education relate to students' socio-economic backgrounds, as was the case in earlier rounds of the EUROSTUDENT project (DZHW, 2018, pp. 66–85). Students without tertiary education backgrounds or from families who are financially not well-off tend to enter higher education with a delay or after long periods of regular work. This is in line with the finding in > *Chapter B2* that students without tertiary education backgrounds less often have clear study intentions at an early stage.

Large proportions of students who re-entered higher education to attain a Master's degree can be found in Malta, Ireland, Norway, Estonia, and Iceland. Students who re-enter higher education often pursue their studies in part-time mode and characterise themselves mainly as workers who study alongside their employment. This finding suggests that prioritising the flexibility of Master programmes and allowing for compatibility with gainful employment can help attract potential students looking to take up further studies alongside work.

On the one hand, large percentages of student populations indicating delayed entry, alternative access routes, and regular prior work experience, as well as delayed transition into Master programmes, may generally be a positive indication of lifelong accessibility. Large proportions of delayed transition students, without standard national upper secondary qualification, taking alternative access routes into higher education, or with regular work experience prior to first enrolling in higher education as well as large percentages of Master students with a delayed transition into their programme, indicate the success of the openness of the respective higher education systems. On the other hand, the percentages of the leading indicators of this chapter by specific disadvantaged populations tell another story. The larger the differences between students from different social and economic backgrounds, genders, migration, and health statuses with regard to transition duration into and within higher education, the more strongly the findings suggest inequalities that remain to be overcome. Major between-group differences thus point towards educational inequalities and suggest that certain disadvantaged groups are prohibited from regular or 'easy' access into and transition within higher education.

It is a good sign that students with disadvantages (such as a low socio-economic background, with impairment(s) or of older age) enter higher education with a delay, via alternative access routes that deviate from traditional pathways, or even after more extended periods of regular work. Nevertheless, it should be noted that obstacles to higher education entrance should be eliminated in the first place (e.g. in the form of school tracking; Ozer & Perc, 2020) over the long term to allow for populations as a whole to benefit equally from higher education outcomes, such as long and successful labour market participation for each individual. In the medium term, it remains to be seen whether the economic effects of the COVID-19 pandemic affect underprivileged groups and an increase can be observed in the delayed transition of students without a tertiary education background or from families that are not well-off.

Tables

Table B3.1

Delayed transition students by educational background, financial status of parents, sex, migration background, age, and impairment

Share of students (in %)

	All students	Educational background		Financial status of parents					Sex		Migration background		Age				Impairment	
		Students without a tertiary education background	Students with a tertiary education background	Very well-off	Somewhat well-off	Average	Not very well-off	Not at all well-off	Female	Male	Second-generation migrants, domestically educated	Students without a migration background, domestically educated	< 22 years	22–24 years	25–29 years	> 30 years	With impairments	Without impairments
AT	28	33	24	21	22	29	34	47	25	32	19	23	3	18	39	57	30	28
CZ	8	12	4	5	4	10	13	24	9	8	11	8	0	2	8	62	7	9
DE	17	21	15	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	17	16	13	17	2	12	26	40	16	17
DK	22	24	21	14	18	24	26	30	22	22	20	24	2	14	29	52	29	21
EE	14	23	9	5	10	15	21	17	15	12	15	13	0	4	19	33	13	14
FI	32	43	27	28	26	34	40	42	33	32	27	34	2	20	39	49	35	32
FR	5	7	3	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	5	4	4	4	1	4	15	29	8	4
GE	3	5	2	5	2	2	2	10	1	4	0	2	1	2	10	13	4	3
HR	11	15	7	6	9	11	14	18	10	13	12	11	4	9	16	39	12	11
HU	16	24	9	9	8	16	27	30	16	15	9	16	1	7	25	46	21	15
CH	12	15	10	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	13	11	6	10	0	4	15	44	14	12
IE	11	18	7	4	6	11	15	26	10	12	6	11	1	5	24	43	14	11
IS	28	39	19	16	22	29	41	54	28	27	25	27	1	9	30	53	29	27
LT	11	17	6	12	6	11	14	37	11	11	12	11	1	4	19	50	12	11
LU	7	9	3	5	7	7	6	2	6	7	3	2	1	4	15	20	8	6
MT	24	30	21	t.f.c.	22	24	37	56	24	24	21	26	5	13	29	61	30	27
NL	12	17	8	6	9	14	18	22	11	13	13	11	4	12	23	40	14	11
NO	23	30	21	18	19	24	26	29	20	26	18	23	2	14	28	41	24	22
PL	11	15	5	5	8	13	16	24	11	11	22	11	1	4	20	52	10	11
SE	34	43	30	27	32	38	44	42	36	31	n.d.	n.d.	4	27	53	55	36	34
SI	7	11	3	5	4	7	10	24	5	8	n.d.	n.d.	0	2	12	40	12	6
av.	**16**	**21**	**12**	**10**	**12**	**17**	**21**	**28**	**16**	**16**	**13**	**15**	**2**	**9**	**23**	**44**	**18**	**16**
IT	6	7	4	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	6	5	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	4	12	39	n.d.	n.d.
PT	10	13	4	9	5	10	17	25	8	12	6	10	1	7	24	37	10	10
RO	11	15	5	5	5	10	16	24	9	13	4	11	1	4	23	39	8	11
TR	15	15	10	18	10	13	19	20	12	17	11	14	4	12	29	65	16	14

n.d.: no data. t.f.c.: too few cases.

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, B.16.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *2.4 How long after leaving the #regular school system for the first time did you enter higher education for the first time?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT conventions: *AT, CH, DE, IT.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Table B3.2

Alternative access route into higher education by educational background, financial status of parents, sex, migration background, age, and impairment

Share of students (in %)

	All students	Educational background		Financial status of parents					Sex		Migration background		Age				Impairment	
		Students without a tertiary education background	Students with a tertiary education background	Very well-off	Somewhat well-off	Average	Not very well-off	Not at all well-off	Female	Male	Second-generation migrants, domestically educated	Students without a migration background, domestically educated	< 22 years	22–24 years	25–29 years	> 30 years	With impairments	Without impairments
AT	9	12	5	3	5	9	13	23	7	11	7	9	1	4	11	22	11	8
CZ	3	3	3	2	3	3	4	10	3	3	2	2	2	3	3	8	3	3
DE	5	7	3	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	4	5	4	4	0	1	5	21	6	4
DK	7	7	6	8	4	7	10	8	7	7	7	5	3	4	9	18	10	6
EE	6	7	5	3	4	6	9	5	6	5	5	6	2	4	7	10	8	5
FI	8	9	7	8	6	9	7	7	7	8	9	7	5	5	8	12	8	7
FR	1	2	1	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	1	1	1	1	100	99	97	87	97	99
GE	2	3	2	3	2	2	2	4	2	4	3	1	1	3	6	7	2	2
HR	4	5	3	7	4	5	4	3	3	6	3	5	2	3	7	12	6	4
HU	4	6	3	5	3	4	6	12	4	5	1	4	1	2	5	14	7	4
CH	14	17	12	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	14	14	13	18	4	10	17	30	16	14
IE	8	8	7	8	6	8	9	15	7	9	3	4	3	7	18	18	8	8
IS	20	29	13	15	15	21	30	34	21	19	16	20	0	5	22	40	28	16
LT	2	3	1	0	2	2	4	11	2	1	2	2	1	1	3	7	3	2
LU	10	12	8	3	11	11	8	19	9	12	4	5	4	7	14	30	12	10
MT	25	25	22	t.f.c.	25	21	29	47	22	28	20	21	6	19	39	47	25	25
NL	9	11	7	5	6	10	15	19	8	10	11	7	4	9	17	25	12	8
NO	14	20	12	14	11	14	18	24	13	15	12	13	4	9	17	24	20	13
PL	6	8	4	4	5	7	8	13	6	7	10	6	2	5	10	21	6	6
SE	8	12	6	5	6	9	14	29	8	9	n.d.	n.d.	1	3	9	22	11	7
SI	5	9	3	0	3	5	10	29	4	7	n.d.	n.d.	1	2	8	30	11	5
av.	**8**	**10**	**6**	**6**	**6**	**8**	**10**	**16**	**8**	**9**	**7**	**7**	**7**	**10**	**16**	**24**	**15**	**12**
IT	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
PT	8	9	5	9	5	7	11	18	6	10	6	7	97	91	87	75	91	92
RO	5	7	3	6	4	5	6	9	4	7	6	5	98	95	83	91	94	95
TR	25	26	20	20	20	23	28	30	20	29	25	24	84	78	61	35	78	75

n.d.: no data. t.f.c.: too few cases.

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, B.17.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *2.1 Do you have a Standard Minimum Access Requirement (#SMAR) or foreign equivalent?; 2.2 [Only students with #SMAR] When did you obtain your #SMAR?; 2.3 [Only students without #SMAR] Where did you last attend the #regular school system?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT conventions: *AT, CH, DE, EE, MT.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Table B3.3

Students with regular prior work experience by educational background, financial status of parents, sex, migration background, age, and impairment

Share of students (in %)

	All students	Educational background		Financial status of parents					Sex		Migration background		Age				Impairment	
		Students without a tertiary education background	Students with a tertiary education background	Very well-off	Somewhat well-off	Average	Not very well-off	Not at all well-off	Female	Male	2nd generation migrants, domestically educated	Students without a migration background, domestically educated	< 22 years	22–24 years	25–29 years	> 30 years	With impairments	Without impairments
AT	25	31	18	15	17	25	32	44	22	27	19	24	6	14	30	52	24	25
CZ	18	24	13	15	12	20	27	43	19	18	22	18	6	12	23	75	19	18
DE	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
DK	42	44	41	41	41	43	40	48	42	42	32	46	26	40	44	59	39	43
EE	27	37	23	23	20	29	36	34	29	25	34	26	11	19	31	49	26	28
FI	38	47	33	33	32	39	43	51	42	34	37	38	10	28	39	57	37	38
FR	9	12	7	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	9	9	8	8	6	7	17	40	11	9
GE	7	7	6	11	7	6	6	13	5	9	9	6	4	7	15	10	14	6
HR	13	17	8	7	10	14	14	23	10	17	13	12	6	4	25	51	13	12
HU	19	27	13	10	13	20	27	33	20	18	9	19	4	9	27	53	25	18
CH	34	42	29	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	34	34	30	39	9	24	41	77	37	34
IE	20	26	15	10	13	20	24	29	19	21	13	20	6	16	41	53	21	20
IS	53	64	45	40	47	57	64	57	55	48	44	53	24	44	57	70	54	52
LT	20	25	16	35	15	20	23	43	20	21	30	19	9	15	31	56	18	21
LU	18	22	16	26	18	18	16	17	21	15	12	13	2	12	27	60	20	18
MT	35	39	27	t.f.c.	22	36	40	59	37	33	27	35	12	25	47	66	44	34
NL	18	23	13	12	14	19	24	34	17	19	18	15	9	16	34	49	19	17
NO	36	45	33	33	31	37	40	43	35	37	29	36	15	26	41	55	35	36
PL	19	25	12	15	15	21	25	36	18	20	29	19	8	15	26	54	15	20
SE	42	50	37	37	41	44	46	48	45	37	n.d.	n.d.	19	38	53	57	41	42
SI	17	24	12	20	11	18	21	43	16	19	n.d.	n.d.	6	14	26	61	22	17
av.	**25**	**32**	**21**	**21**	**20**	**26**	**29**	**37**	**26**	**25**	**23**	**25**	**10**	**19**	**34**	**55**	**27**	**25**
IT	7	8	6	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	7	7	n.d.	n.d.	4	6	10	33	n.d.	n.d.
PT	18	24	10	15	13	18	27	37	17	20	12	17	3	15	42	67	20	18
RO	23	30	17	17	14	23	33	48	20	27	14	23	5	12	44	77	18	25
TR	14	15	9	8	11	13	16	17	9	18	9	14	5	8	24	69	10	14

n.d.: no data. t.f.c.: too few cases.

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, B.20.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *2.9 Did you have any paid job(s) prior to entering higher education for the first time?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT conventions: *AT.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Table B3.4

Delayed transition (> 24 months) between graduating from the previous programme to current Master programme by educational background, the financial status of parents, sex, migration background, age, impairment, and self-identification

Share of Master students (in %)

	All students	Educational background		Financial status of parents					Sex		Migration background		Impairment		Self-identification	
		Students without a tertiary education background	Students with a tertiary education background	Very well-off	Somewhat well-off	Average	Not very well-off	Not at all well-off	Female	Male	2nd generation migrants, domestically educated	Students without a migration background, domestically educated	With impairments	Without impairments	Student	Worker
AT	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
CZ	8	8	7	5	5	9	10	17	8	8	7	7	5	8	3	15
DE	7	7	7	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	8	6	7	6	6	7	n.d.	n.d.
DK	10	12	11	4	10	10	19	20	12	8	10	9	10	11	11	12
EE	41	51	38	32	39	43	48	39	44	37	47	41	47	41	25	53
FI	37	57	29	28	29	38	48	52	39	35	4	36	26	39	19	55
FR	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
GE	18	18	18	t.f.c.	26	14	18	t.f.c.	21	13	t.f.c.	18	17	18	5	34
HR	17	25	6	t.f.c.	18	18	23	t.f.c.	15	22	10	16	t.f.c.	17	0	46
HU	20	26	17	12	14	22	27	29	20	20	10	19	25	20	5	41
CH	17	21	14	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	21	13	10	15	20	17	8	44
IE	49	48	47	42	45	49	45	50	48	50	22	51	38	49	34	70
IS	41	45	34	42	43	38	38	t.f.c.	42	39	t.f.c.	39	35	42	17	60
LT	31	36	28	t.f.c.	35	29	40	t.f.c.	36	24	36	31	33	31	9	43
LU	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
MT	51	47	54	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	49	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	49	52	t.f.c.	47	t.f.c.	51	t.f.c.	60
NL	13	18	11	9	13	14	16	17	16	10	10	11	17	13	6	52
NO	43	52	41	28	36	47	48	49	50	33	26	43	37	45	21	79
PL	16	19	12	10	13	19	16	35	18	13	23	16	15	16	6	28
SE	20	18	20	15	19	21	24	t.f.c.	22	17	n.d.	n.d.	12	21	13	t.f.c.
SI	8	10	7	t.f.c.	7	7	11	t.f.c.	9	6	8	t.f.c.	3	8	3	18
av.	**24**	**27**	**21**	**16**	**23**	**25**	**29**	**32**	**25**	**21**	**17**	**26**	**21**	**24**	**12**	**43**
IT	7	8	5	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	9	4	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	5	33
PT	31	33	27	44	28	31	35	22	32	30	14	27	32	31	21	62
RO	20	22	19	26	13	21	24	24	20	20	t.f.c.	22	18	21	7	36
TR	38	42	31	t.f.c.	28	41	40	30	33	43	t.f.c.	38	67	36	39	56

n.d.: no data. t.f.c.: too few cases.

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, B.8.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *1.9 [Only for Master students] How long after graduating from your previous study programme did you start your current Master programme?*

Note(s): *The indicator on self-identification as a student or worker only covers students in paid employment.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT conventions: *DE, DK, IT, SE.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Chapter B4
Types and modes of study

Key

Type of higher education institution

Variations in percentages of enrolment at different types of institution are remarkable across binary higher education systems, ranging from 90 % of students enrolled at universities in the Czech Republic to majorities of students enrolled at non-universities in Finland and the Netherlands. Students without a tertiary education background are more likely to be enrolled at non-universities than students with a tertiary education background.

Field of study

On cross-country average, large proportions of students are enrolled in subjects in the fields business, administration, and law (22 %), health and welfare (15 %), and engineering, manufacturing, and construction (14 %). In most countries, students without a tertiary education background tend to enrolment in subjects in the field of education compared to students with a tertiary education background, who more frequently study natural sciences, mathematics, and statistics.

Degree structure

In most countries, the majority of students are enrolled in Bachelor or Master programmes. Students without a tertiary education background generally indicate above-average shares of enrolment in Bachelor and short-cycle programmes.

findings

Status of enrolment

Students in formal part-time studies amount to 16 % on cross-country average. Formal part-time study status is most common in Poland, Malta, Croatia, and Hungary. Generally, shares of part-time students are highest among students without a tertiary education background as well as employed students with workloads of at least 20 hours per week.

Students' satisfaction

While, across countries, students' satisfaction with the support provided by their higher education institutions (HEIs) is moderate, their intention to abandon and drop out of studies may be considered low. Students enrolled in subjects in the field health and welfare are less likely to consider dropping out as a rule, while the drop-out intention in the field of ICTs is above average across countries.

Main issues

One important goal in the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) is to widen participation and increase higher education accessibility through greater diversity in the types and modes of study (Vögtle, 2019a; Waller et al., 2014). This chapter focuses on these diverse types and modes of study, and their relationship to students' satisfaction with studies as well as their intention to drop out. The most important characteristics in this regard are the types of HEIs, the distribution of fields of studies, the degree structure, and the formal status of enrolment. Recently, growing trends of social stratification in higher education have been noted and attributed to an increased degree of diversification in higher education (Marginson, 2016). To approach these social stratification trends in higher education, the analysis of types and modes of studies in this chapter is based on students' socio-economic backgrounds.

Type of HEI

Higher education systems in the EHEA may be divided into unitary systems, meaning higher education systems that are dominated by universities (or make no formal differentiation between institutional types), and binary systems with considerable numbers of students enrolled at HEIs that deviate from the traditional university model (Rawsthorne, 2020; Wagner-Schuster et al., 2019). In binary systems, universities are generally expected to offer a large variety of study programmes with emphasis on theoretically driven contents and are, in some cases, associated with selectivity/elitism (institutional habitus; Thomas, 2002). Other types of HEIs, such as universities of applied sciences (UAS), typically have more specialised foci (e.g. on technical subjects) and/or are generally more practice-/or labour market oriented with regard to learning outcomes. This is why the socio-economic backgrounds in the form of students' educational backgrounds and the financial status of students' parents as well as sex (due to women's common reluctance to choose technical subjects; Charles & Bradley, 2009), typically relates to students' distribution among different types of HEIs.

Field of study

The study subject is of particular interest on account of labour market considerations. Labour markets rely on a constant (re-)supply of tertiary educated graduates becoming part of the workforce in specialised fields, which is one of the most important motivations of (public) investment in higher education in the first place (St. Aubyn et al., 2009; Vossensteyn et al., 2018). Several trends of selectivity with regard to students' choice of study subject have been identified, foremost with regard to sex (women tend to be reluctant to study science, technology, engineering, or mathematics for example; Barnard et al., 2012; Charles & Bradley, 2009; Sobieraj & Krämer, 2019; > *Chapter B1*) and socio-economic background (Georg & Bargel, 2017) due to self-perception of their own skills, cultural reproduction (maintaining their parents' status), and outcome expectations of studies (expected monetary returns and expected risks of unemployment; Núñez & Livanos, 2010). Therefore, the distribution of fields of study is expected to relate to educational background and sex.

Degree structure

From the start of the Bologna Process, the two-cycle degree structure comprising undergraduate (concluding in a Bachelor degree) and graduate (Master degree) studies (followed by the third cycle of postgraduate/PhD studies) has been established as a means of standardisation within the diversity of higher education systems in Europe to "promote European citizens' employability and the international competitiveness of the European higher education system" (Bologna Declaration, 1999). Although the process of standardisation within the EHEA has been identified as an "extraordinary success story in developing convergent degree structures" (European Commission et al., 2020a), processes of selectivity emerge. While Bachelor studies are understood and conceived as "relevant to the European labour market as an appropriate level of qualification" (Bologna Declaration, 1999), Master degrees are expected to yield increased labour market outcomes (e.g. with regard to job entry and salaries; Meng et al., 2020, pp. 48–54, 93–179); access to and participation in graduate courses of study that award these degrees have, however, been found to be economically and socially selective due to the affordability of more time outside the labour markets (Matković & Kogan, 2014).

More recently, an additional focus on short-cycle programmes as a stand-alone qualification has developed in the EHEA (i.e. complementing the two-cycle degree structure) within the overarching framework of qualifications of the EHEA. These programmes are expected to "play an increasingly important role in preparing students for employment and further studies as well in improving social cohesion by facilitating access for many who would otherwise not have considered higher education" (Paris Communiqué, 2018). Short-cycle higher education is to work as an "instrument for widening access to higher education for previously underrepresented student populations (...) and expanding lifelong learning choices" (Slantcheva-Durst, 2010). In general, differences in students' distribution across degree programmes can thus be expected with regard to students' socio-economic backgrounds (also see > *Chapter B3* for information on differences with regard to delayed transition into Master studies).

Status of enrolment

In recent years, European policymakers have paid amplified attention to the mode of studies, calling for "student-centred learning and open education in the context of lifelong learning" through "diverse learning methods and flexible learning" to "foster social mobility and continuous professional development" of learners throughout their lives (Paris Communiqué, 2018). Thus, the mode of studies is of central interest in determining to what extent formal part-time and other (e.g. evening, correspondence, e-learning, blended learning formats) modes of study are distributed throughout the EHEA. In the context of the present chapter, the status of enrolment is the main indicator measuring flexible study modes, which is analysed with regard to diverse student characteristics such as educational background, sex, and employment status. To apprehend student populations' need for flexible modes of study, the status of enrolment is subsequently compared to students' study intensity.

Students' satisfaction

From the perspective of EHEA policymakers, students' study success in the form of completing and graduating from their programmes is of the highest interest with

regard to the expected labour market outcomes as a return on the (public) investment in higher education. In the EUROSTUDENT context, students' assessment of their studies as well as their intention to drop out of studies are the main indicators measuring the quality of studies, giving insight into expected study success. The types and modes of study (types of HEIs, fields of study, the degree structure, and the status of enrolment) can, in return, yield valuable information on the perceived quality, as it is crucial to identify particularly dissatisfied and 'at-risk' groups of students to prevent drop-out.

Tying all these aspects together, the following questions are the underlying topics for analyses in this chapter:

- How are higher education systems structured with regard to students' distribution across types of institution, fields of study, the degree structure, and status of enrolment?
- How do students' various characteristics relate to types of institution, fields of study, the degree structure, and status of enrolment?
- How do types of institution, fields of study, the degree structure, and the status of enrolment relate to students' satisfaction and their drop-out intention?

Methodological and conceptual notes

When looking at the analyses in the present chapter, it is important to keep several definitions and restrictions in mind.

Types of HEIs differentiate between universities and non-universities. In some countries, the distinction between universities and non-universities is rather clear, in others the boundaries are more blurred. In general, universities are HEIs that are allowed to award doctoral degrees. However, characteristics of national legislation and the distinctions made there are also taken into consideration to take the structure of national higher education systems into account (e.g. institutions that are, by law, classified as universities are also regarded as universities). Other HEIs, such as universities of applied sciences, polytechnics, or professional institutions offering higher education programmes covered in the EUROSTUDENT standard target group are considered non-universities if the national legislation differentiates them (e.g. *Fachhochschulen*, *Hogescholen*, *university colleges*, *polytechnics*). Special attention is paid to teacher training colleges, art academies and the like with regard to national specifics, to be able to make a clear distinction between the two groups of institutions.

To neatly present findings regarding the multitude of study subjects with greater clarity, subjects are aggregated into fields of study. For purposes of comparability, the aggregation of ISCED 'Fields of education and training 2013' (ISCED-F 2013; UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2015) is applied. Accordingly, the indicator on fields of study consists of ten groups: education (including teacher training); arts and humanities; social sciences, journalism, and information; business, administration, and law; natural sciences, mathematics, and statistics; information and communication technologies (ICTs); engineering, manufacturing, and construction; agriculture, forestry, fisheries, and veterinary; health and welfare; services.

The type of study programme reflects the degree structure according to the 'International Standard Classification of Education 2011' (ISCED; UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2012). All students studying at ISCED levels 5 (short cycle), 6 (Bachelor), and 7 (Master) are grouped accordingly. In addition to Bachelor and Master programmes (according to the Bologna framework), the indicator also differentiates between the categories of national degrees at both ISCED levels 6 (short national degree) and 7 (long national degree, e.g. integrated Bachelor and Master programmes for medicine, such as *Staatsexamen*). A further, 'other', category refers to any kind of national higher education programme that does not fall into any of the other categories (e.g. 'single subjects' describes the situation of students who are not enrolled in full study programmes and therefore not included in the classification of ISCED). PhD/third-cycle students of ISCED level 8 are not included the EUROSTUDENT target group and therefore not included the analyses.

The status of enrolment refers only to students' de jure or formal status and not their de facto status (e.g. students unofficially studying part-time) and differentiates between full-time students, part-time students, and other statuses (e.g. correspondence, blended learning students). It must be kept in mind that full-time study status is the only possible formal study status in some EUROSTUDENT countries (e.g. Austria and Denmark). As the survey only includes students enrolled in study programmes offering a minimum of physical face-to-face interaction in lectures/classes (not only exams), students in correspondence or blended learning formats are non-existent or at least underrepresented in the analyses.

The scale of students' average satisfaction is calculated as individual mean value on five items covering the satisfaction with regard to their institutions' (or cooperating organisations') provision of study support services (e.g. organised tutoring, (academic) writing/bridging courses, mentoring), provision of learning facilities (e.g. library, computer centre, work places), support to balance studies and paid job, support to balance studies and family, and support in the preparation for (future) working life. The indicator on the intention to drop out of studies is measured by students' (strongly) agreeing with the statement "I am seriously thinking of completely abandoning my higher education studies" (adapted from Trautwein et al., 2007). Due to the cross-sectional design of this study it should be noted that the drop-out intention is not a hard indicator of realised drop-out of studies.

Data and interpretation

Type of HEI

Around three quarters of students in EUROSTUDENT countries are enrolled at universities.

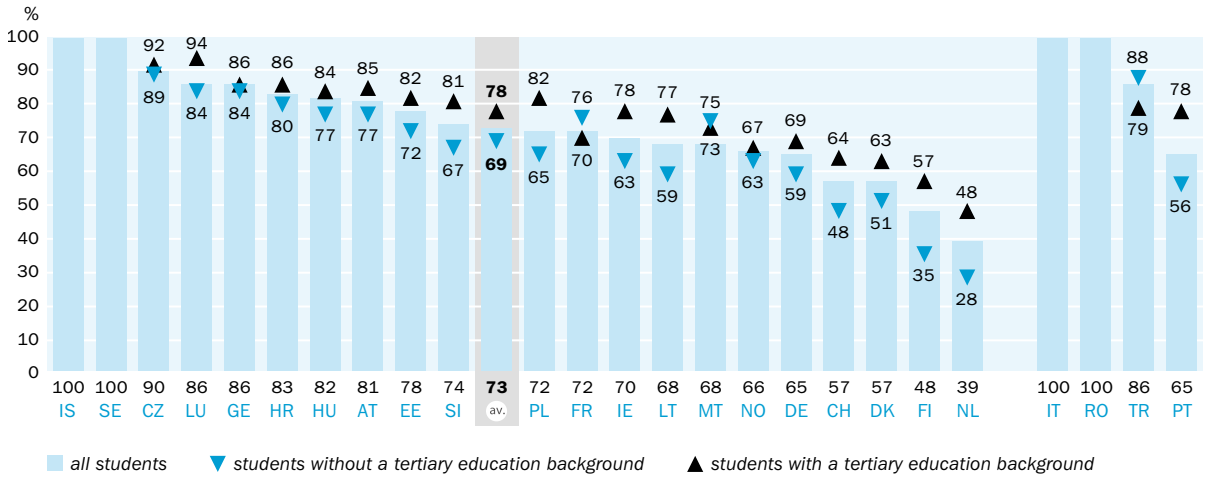
The majority of students in the EUROSTUDENT countries are enrolled at universities in most higher education systems, with a cross-country average of 73 % (Figure B4.1). However, variation between countries is large.

- Only university students are found in Iceland, Sweden, Italy, and Romania, systems in which no distinction is made between different types of institutions.
- Within binary higher education systems, the figures of students enrolled at universities range from 39 % in the Netherlands to 90 % in the Czech Republic.
- The majority of students in Finland (52 %) and the Netherlands (61 %) are enrolled at non-universities.

Figure B4.1

Students' enrolment at universities by educational background

Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, C.1.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *1.3 At what type of HEI are you studying in the current semester?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *CH, CZ, DE, DK, EE, HU, IE, MT, NO.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

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In most systems, students from non-tertiary education backgrounds are more likely to be enrolled at non-universities.

A clear trend emerges with regard to educational background. On cross-country average, 78 % of students with a tertiary education background are enrolled at universities, while only 69 % of those without a tertiary education background study at universities. This trend holds true across most binary higher education systems.

- Enrolling at a university vs. a non-university is a great deal more common among students with a tertiary education background in some countries. In Poland (among students with a tertiary education background 82 % and 65 % among students without a tertiary education background), Lithuania (77 % vs. 59 %), Finland (57 % vs. 35 %), the Netherlands (48 % vs. 28 %), and Portugal (78 % vs. 56 %), the difference between the two groups amounts to at least 15 percentage points.
- Less distinct contrasts between students from different educational backgrounds can be found in the Czech Republic (92 % vs. 89 %), Georgia (86 % vs. 84 %), and Norway (67 % vs. 63 %).
- Exceptions to the general trend regarding educational background can be found in Malta, France, and Turkey[1], where students with a tertiary education background are in fact more frequently enrolled at non-universities.

The pattern emerging through the differentiation by educational background is partly mirrored when contrasting the percentages of enrolment at non-universities by financial status of parents, while no general findings can be made with regard to sex (Table B4.1):

1 *Non-universities in Turkey refer to private institutions.*

- Across countries, the percentage of students enrolled at non-universities increases from 24 % among students whose parents are perceived as well-off to 29 % among students whose parents are not at all well-off. While this trend is clearly visible in Ireland, Finland, Hungary, and Poland, the opposite holds true in some countries (e.g. Estonia, Georgia, and Croatia).
- In most countries there are no differences in enrolment at different types of institution according to students' sex. Male students in France, Germany, Croatia, Ireland, and Slovenia, however, are clearly more frequently enrolled at non-universities than female students in their countries. By contrast, female students in Denmark and Lithuania are considerably more likely to be enrolled at non-universities than male students.

Field of study

Business, administration, and law, health and welfare, and engineering, manufacturing, and construction are the largest fields of study.

On cross-country average, the largest field of study is business, administration, and law, comprising 22 % of students, followed by the fields of health and welfare (15 %) and engineering, manufacturing, and construction (14 %; Figure B4.2). About ten percent of students are enrolled in the fields of education (including teacher training), arts and humanities, and social sciences, journalism, and information respectively. Comparatively small shares of students are enrolled in the fields of natural sciences, mathematics, and statistics (6 %), ICTs (6 %), services (4 %), and agriculture, forestry, fisheries, and veterinary (2 %). Some national specifics emerge when taking a closer look at the distribution of students across fields of study.

- An exceptionally large percentage of students in Norway (21 %) are enrolled in the field of education while, in comparison, students in Lithuania, France, Portugal, and Romania (all ≤ 4 %) are seldom enrolled in subjects in this field.
- More than a quarter of students in Malta (29 %), the Netherlands (28 %), Luxembourg (26 %), Croatia (28 %), Lithuania (27 %), and France (28 %) are enrolled in the field of business, administration, and law, while comparatively small shares of students in Sweden (14 %) and Estonia (16 %) are enrolled in subjects in this field.
- The field of engineering, manufacturing, and construction is taken up by at least every fifth student in Germany (22 %), Sweden (21 %), Turkey (20 %), Portugal (22 %), and Romania (23 %), but is not in great demand in Estonia (7 %), Malta (8 %), Luxembourg (9 %), or the Netherlands (9 %).
- While large percentages of students in Norway (22 %), Sweden (20 %), and Denmark (27 %) are enrolled in the field of health and welfare, comparatively few students in Germany (9 %) and Austria (10 %) are studying subjects in this field.

Women are considerably more likely to be enrolled in subjects related to education and health and welfare, men in engineering and ICTs.

Major differences in the distribution of fields of study become apparent through differentiation by sex (Table B4.2; also see > *Chapter B1*). On cross-country average, women are considerably more likely to be enrolled in the fields of education (13 % vs. 5 %) and health and welfare (20 % vs. 9 %) than male students. Men, by contrast, tend to be enrolled in subjects in engineering, manufacturing, and construction (23 % vs. 7 %) as well as ICTs (11 % vs. 2 %), compared to female students. These differences with regard to sex can be found in all EUROSTUDENT countries. Furthermore, there are some differences in fields of study regarding educational background (Figure B4.3):

- In all countries except Slovenia, Denmark, and Finland, students without a tertiary education background are more likely to be studying subjects in the field of education, compared to students with a tertiary education background. This finding is in

line with analyses that point out the risk-reduction of educational climbers with regard to expected outcomes of higher education and low rates of unemployment among teachers (Núñez & Livanos, 2010).

- Apart from students in Luxembourg and Romania, studies in the field of natural sciences, mathematics, and statistics are more commonly pursued by students with a tertiary education background than by those without.
- Other differences in fields of study with regard to educational background are distinct to certain groups of countries, such as business, administration, and law is a much more common field of studies among students without a tertiary education background in Hungary, Lithuania, Poland, and Slovenia, while more students with a tertiary education background choose to study subjects in this field compared to their fellow students without a tertiary education background in Luxembourg and, to a lesser extent, Sweden (Table B4.3).

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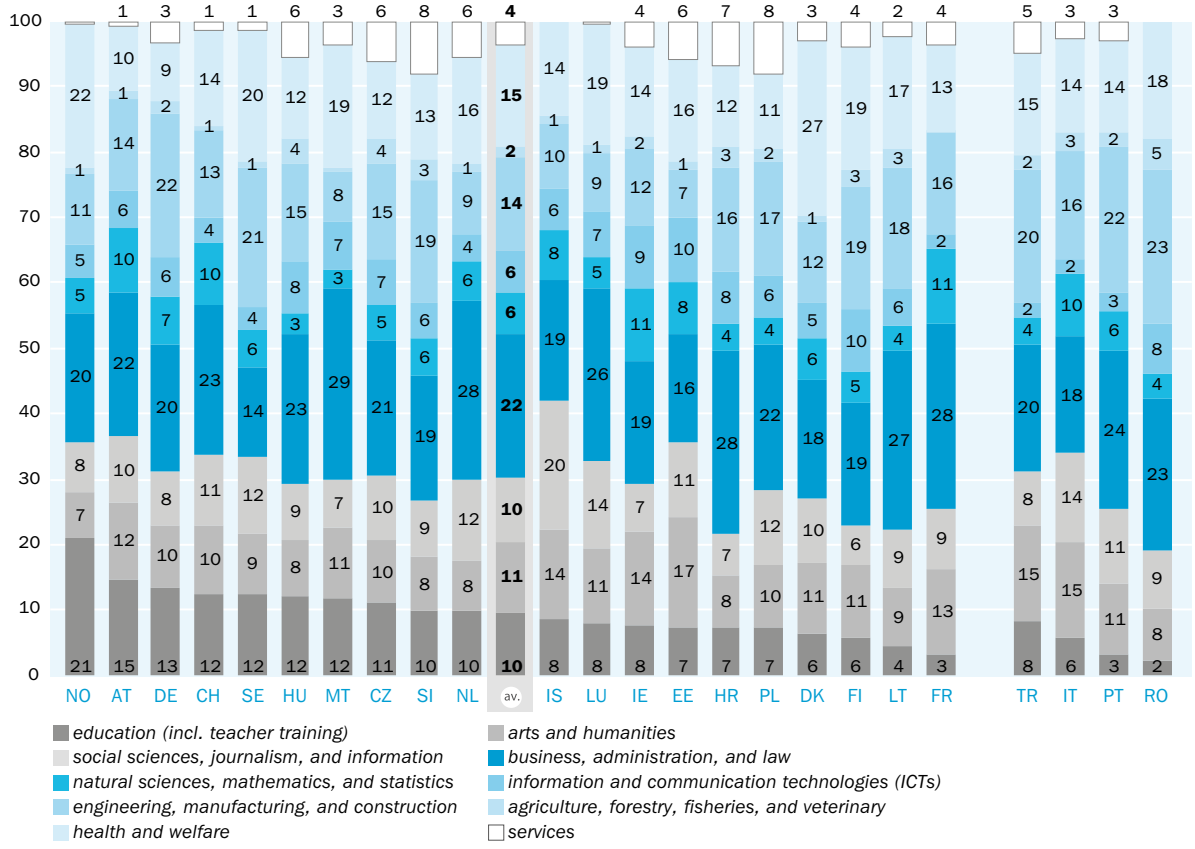
Figure B4.2

Students' enrolment in fields of study

Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, C.3.* ***No data:*** *GE.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *1.7 What is your current #(main) study programme?*

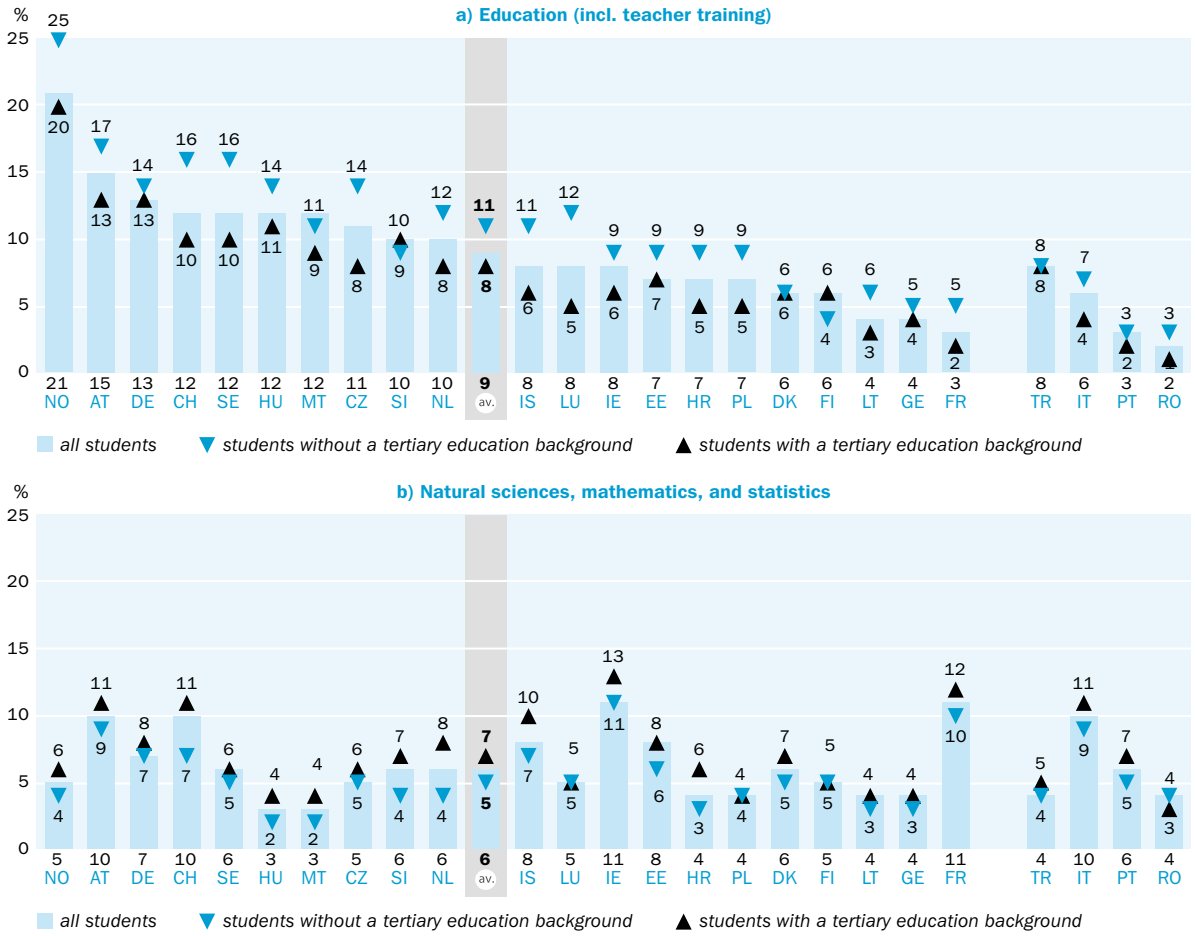
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *CH, DK, IT, NL, SE.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Figure B4.3

Students' enrolment in selected fields of study by educational background

Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, C.3.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *1.7 What is your current #(main) study programme?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *CH, DK, IT, NL, SE.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Degree structure

Around 80 % of students are studying in BA and MA degree programmes.

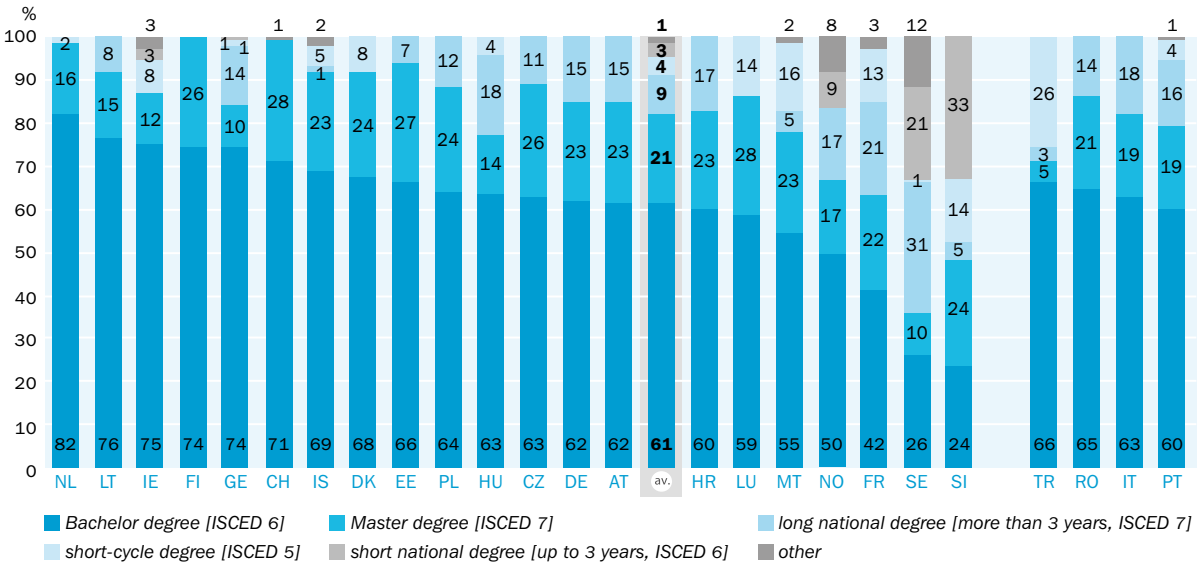
In most EUROSTUDENT countries, the vast majority of students are studying undergraduate and graduate courses in the form of Bachelor and Master programmes within the framework of the Bologna process. On cross-country average, 61 % of students are enrolled in Bachelor programmes and 21 % in Master programmes, amounting to 82 % in total (Figure B4.4). Still, there is a large variation between countries with regard to the degree structure.

- Shares of Bachelor students range from 82 % in the Netherlands and about three quarters in Lithuania (76 %), Ireland (75 %), Finland (74 %), and Georgia (74 %) to 26 % in Sweden and 24 % in Slovenia.

Figure B4.4

Enrolment in different study programmes

Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, C.4.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *1.5 With what degree does your current #(main) study programme conclude?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *DK, IT, MT, CH.*

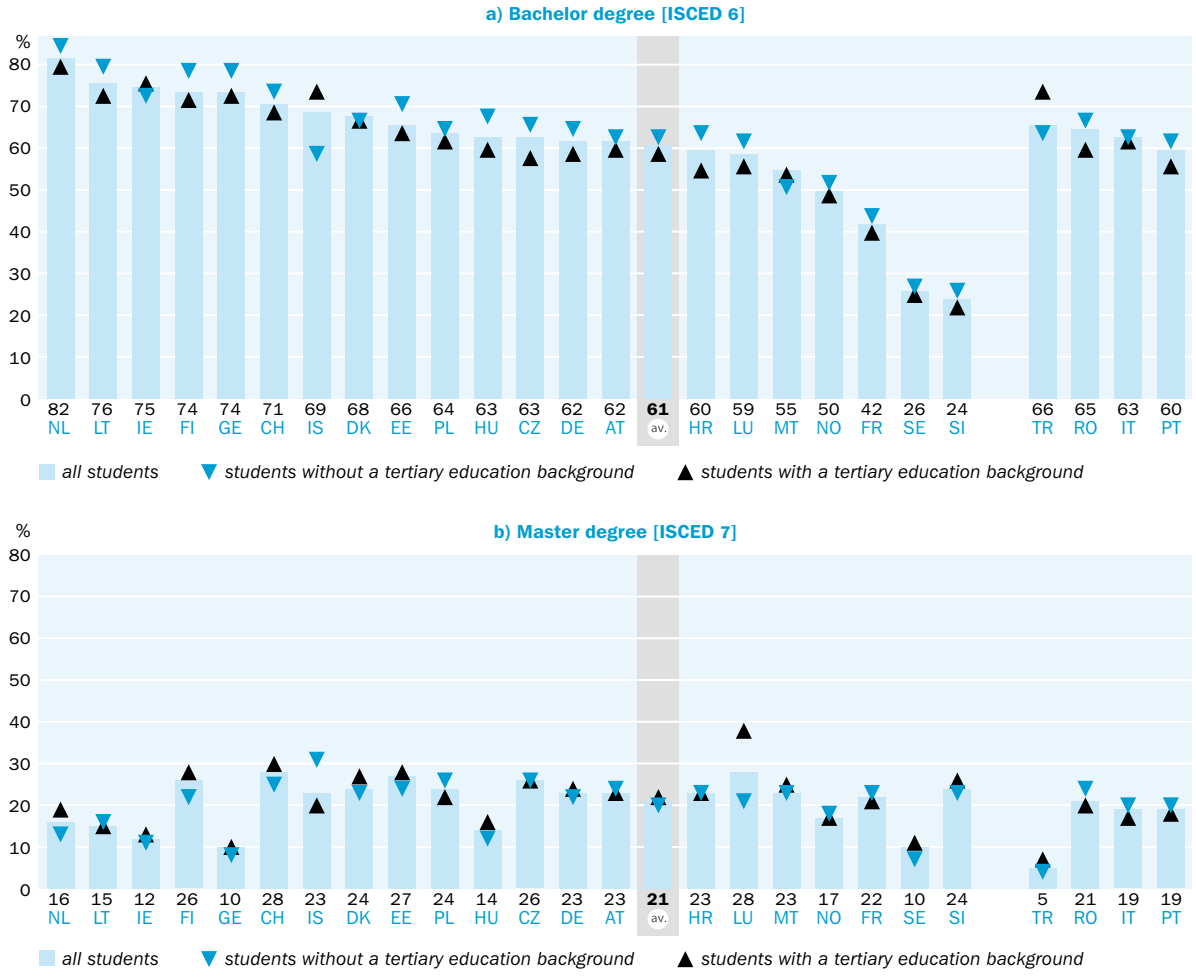
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

- More than a quarter of students in Finland (26 %), Switzerland (28 %), Estonia (27 %), the Czech Republic, and Luxembourg (28 %) are enrolled in Master programmes. The proportions of students in Master programmes are lowest in Georgia, Sweden (both 10 %), and Turkey (5 %).
- The aggregated percentages of students in Bachelor and Master programmes range from (almost) 100 % in Finland (100 %), Switzerland (99 %), and the Netherlands (98 %) down to two thirds in Norway (67 %), and France (64 %) and less than half of all students in Slovenia (48 %) and Sweden (36 %).
- Some countries have comparably large proportions of students enrolled in national study programmes. Almost a third of students in Sweden (31 %), and at least 15 % of students in Hungary (18 %), Germany, Austria (both 15 %), Croatia (17 %), Norway (17 %), Italy (18 %), and Portugal (16 %) are enrolled in a long national degree programme of ISCED level 7. Students in Slovenia (33 %), Sweden (21 %), and Norway (9 %) are more likely to be enrolled in short national programmes (ISCED 6) than in other countries; in addition, percentages of students in other, non-classified degree programmes are highest in Sweden (12 %) and Norway (8 %).
- Despite the cross-sectional design of this study, cautious conclusions may be drawn regarding transition from Bachelor (or equivalent national undergraduate/ISCED 6 programmes) to Master studies. The larger the difference between the proportion of students enrolled in ISCED 6 programmes in relation to those enrolled in Master studies, the more uncommon it is to continue studies from undergraduate to graduate courses (e.g. Georgia, Ireland, or Turkey). The other way round, the smaller

Figure B4.5

Enrolment in Bachelor and Master programmes by educational background

Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, C.4.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *1.5 With what degree does your current #(main) study programme conclude?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *DK, IT, MT CH.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IT, PL.*

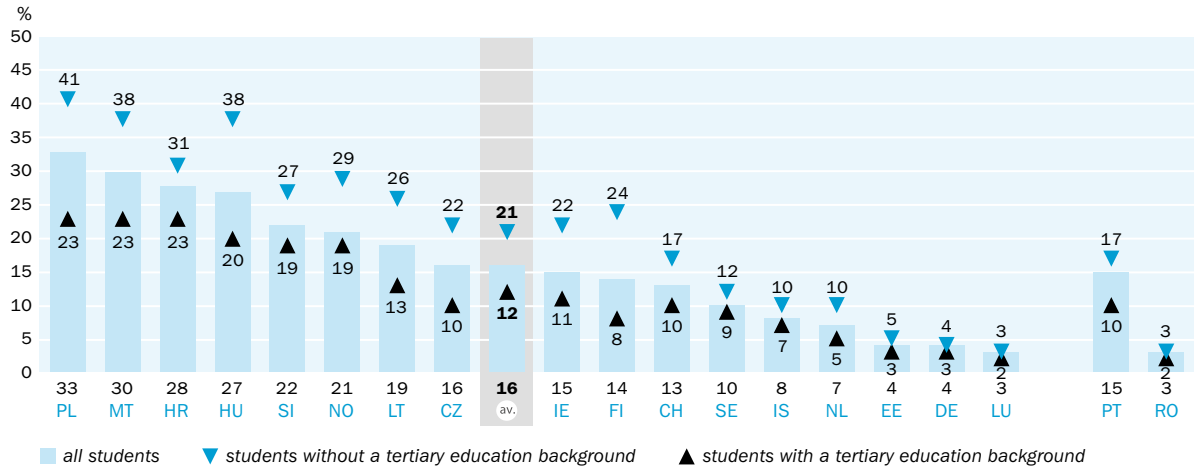
the relation of percentages of students in Bachelor and Master programmes, the more likely is a progression of studies from undergraduate to graduate courses (e.g. Estonia, the Czech Republic, Luxembourg, Malta, France, or Slovenia).

A closer look at study programmes besides Bachelor and Master courses of study reveals further differences with respect to students' educational background (Table B4.4).

Figure B4.6

Students' formal part-time study status by educational background

Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, C.5.* **No data:** *AT, DK, FR, GE, IT, TR.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *1.6 What is your current formal status as a student?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *CH, MT.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

B 4

Students with a tertiary education background are more frequently enrolled in long national degree programmes in most countries.

- Across countries (where such study programmes are offered), students with a tertiary education background are more frequently enrolled in long national degree programmes than students without a tertiary education background. This between-group difference is largest in Norway, Portugal, and Romania, and less pronounced in Austria, Estonia, and Iceland.
- In all countries in which short-cycle degrees are offered, students without a tertiary education background are more likely to be enrolled in such programmes than those with a tertiary education background, most distinctly in Slovenia and Luxembourg. This finding ties in with the policy aim of widening participation in higher education through short-cycle degrees (see ◘ Main issues section in this chapter; also > *Chapter B2*).

Status of enrolment

16 % of students are formally enrolled as part-time students.

Part-time studies are particularly attractive for certain groups, for example, students from low socio-economic backgrounds, working students, or students with familial responsibilities as they allow for increased flexibility of studies. This becomes apparent through a differentiation of part-time studies by students' educational background (Figure B4.6). On cross-country average, every fifth student without a tertiary education background is studying in part-time mode (21 %), while only a tenth of students with a tertiary education background are pursuing formal, part-time studies (12 %).

- In all countries where students can formally register as part-time students, those without a tertiary education background are more likely to study in part-time mode than students with a tertiary education background. Between-group differences are largest in Poland (41 % vs. 23 %), Malta (38 % vs. 23 %), Hungary (38 % vs. 20 %), and Finland (24 % vs. 8 %).

Students who hold a paid job while studying make use of the option of part-time studies particularly often: on cross-country average, almost half of students (48 %) who work more than 20 hours per week in paid jobs indicate that they are studying in formal part-time mode, compared to only five percent of students without paid jobs and six percent of students with paid jobs amounting to 20 hours per week or less (Table B4.5).

- This finding is prevalent in all EUROSTUDENT countries that allow formal part-time studies. Across countries, percentages of formal part-time studies are largest among working students with a workload of more than 20 hours per week in Hungary (65 %), Ireland (65 %), Malta (86 %), Norway (68 %), Poland (68 %), and Sweden (65 %).

With regard to sex, no clear pattern is apparent regarding formal part-time studies.

- Female students in Norway (25 % vs. 16 %), Malta (33 % vs. 25 %), Hungary (30 % vs. 24 %), and Finland (16 % vs. 11 %) indicate that they are engaging in part-time studies considerably more likely than their fellow male students. Male students are more frequently pursuing their studies in part-time mode in some other countries (Slovenia, Portugal, and Romania).

Formal and de-facto status do not always match – students often study with low intensity, even as full-time students.

Comparing the formal status of enrolment to actual study intensity, measured by time spent studying (taught studies and personal study time), some findings are remarkable (Figure B4.7). On the one hand, formal part-time status apparently does not always go hand-in-hand with actual low study intensity. On the other hand, notable shares of students appear to be creating part-time studies by studying with a low intensity despite officially being enrolled in full-time studies.

- In countries above the diagonal, higher shares of low intensity students can be found than would be expected, based on students' official part-time status. Even in Denmark or Austria, where there are no formal part-time studies, large proportions of students report de-facto studying with a low intensity, indicating that there are potentially unmet needs for part-time studies[2].
- Roughly corresponding percentages of formal full-time studies and low intensity students can be found in Hungary, Malta, Slovenia, Lithuania, and Ireland for example. It may be assumed that the need for low intensity students for formal part-time studies is more or less satisfied in these countries.
- In Poland and Croatia, despite part-time study status being relatively common, fewer students than would be expected study with a low intensity of less than 20 hours per week. This implies that in these countries, many students with official part-time status nevertheless spend considerable time on their studies.

Students' satisfaction

Students' average satisfaction with support provided by the institution is 53 out of 100.

On cross-country average, satisfaction with aggregated indicators on certain aspects of support provided by students' HEI amounts to a mean of 53, almost in the middle of the scale ranging from 0 (not sufficient support at all) to 100 (entirely sufficient support; Figure B4.8). While students' average satisfaction is close to this cross-country average in all countries, some minor differences are identifiable.

- Satisfaction with support provided by students' HEIs is greatest in Georgia, with an average of 60 on the aggregated score.

2 *Denmark has recently introduced part-time study programmes (> Chapter A3).*

Figure B4.7

Students' status of enrolment and study intensity

Share of students (in %)

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, C.5, H.54.* ***No data:*** *GE.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *1.6 What is your current formal status as a student? 3.4 How many hours do you spend in taught courses and on personal study time in a typical week during the current #lecture period?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *CH, MT.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

B 4

- At the other end of the spectrum, students tend to be more dissatisfied with the support provided by their HEIs in a small group of countries, foremost Turkey (39 %), Croatia (41 %), Hungary (46 %), and Luxembourg (48 %), with the mean satisfaction at least five points below the cross-country average.

Taking the types and modes of study in the type of HEI, field of study, type of study programme, and formal status of enrolment into account, certain differences can be observed in students' satisfaction (Table B4.6).

- Students enrolled at non-universities are, on cross-country average, more satisfied than university students (51 % vs. 57 %). This finding is most pronounced in Poland (45 % vs. 58 %), the Czech Republic (54 % vs. 64 %), Georgia (58 % vs. 68 %), Croatia (39 % vs. 49 %), and Slovenia (51 % vs. 61 %).
- While no clear pattern of satisfaction with the support provided by the HEI by fields of study emerges across countries, some findings are of interest. For example, on cross-country average, students in the fields of health and welfare as well as natural sciences, mathematics, and statistics are less satisfied than students in the other fields. While variation of average satisfaction between different fields of study is low in most countries (e.g. Ireland, Iceland, and Sweden), there are considerable differences in other countries such as Luxembourg, Georgia, Croatia, Estonia, Malta, Romania, and Turkey.

- No consistent pattern becomes apparent across countries with regard to satisfaction in different types of study programmes. Students enrolled in long national degree programmes are, however, less satisfied with the support provided by their HEI in many countries (e.g. in the Czech Republic, Estonia, Croatia, Hungary, Lithuania, Poland, Romania, and Turkey).
- With regard to the formal status of enrolment, no general difference emerges between formal full- and part-time students. On the one hand, part-time students for example, in Luxembourg (48 % vs. 42 %) and Portugal (50 % vs. 45 %) are less satisfied than full-time students. On the other hand, part-time students in countries such as Malta (48 % vs. 63 %), the Czech Republic (54 % vs. 63 %), Norway (53 % vs. 61 %), Lithuania (55 % vs. 61 %), and Romania (48 % vs. 54 %) are noticeably more satisfied with the support provided by their HEIs than full-time students.

Seven percent of students are considering dropping out of their study programme.

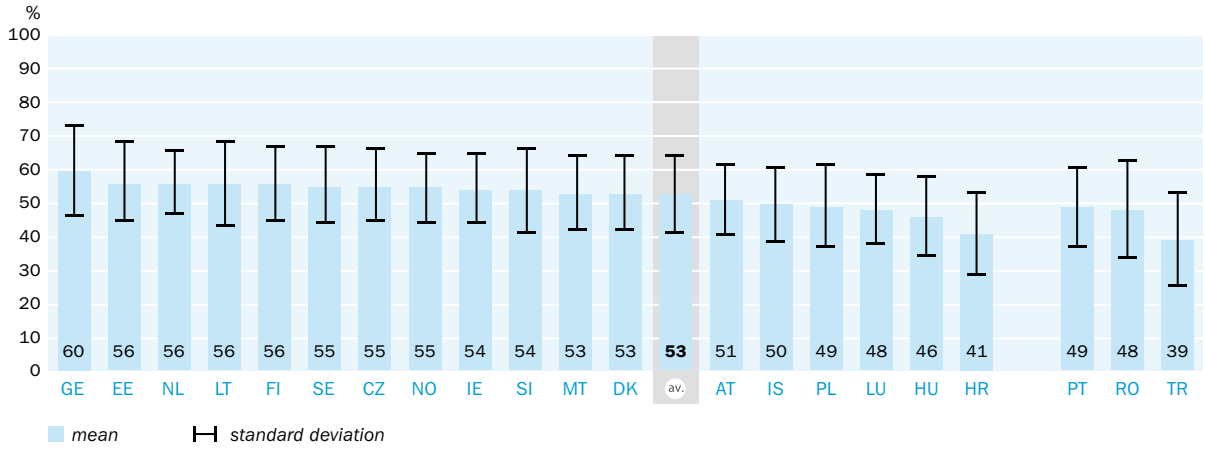
Across most countries, the average intention to drop out of studies can be regarded as low – on cross-country average, only seven percent of students are (seriously) considering completely abandoning their higher education studies (Figure B4.9). Drop-out intention varies tremendously between fields of study. While, on cross-country average, only five percent of students in the field of health and welfare may be dropping out, the average amounts to ten percent among students in the field of ICTs.

- The proportion of students with the intention of dropping out of their studies is lowest in Denmark (3 %) and Switzerland (3 %), and comparatively large in Georgia (23 %).

Figure B4.8

Students' average satisfaction with the support provided by their HEI

Mean satisfaction on a scale from 0 = not sufficient at all to 100 = entirely sufficient



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, C.33.* ***No data:*** *DE, CH, FR, IT.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *3.7 How satisfied are you with the support provided to you by your #HEI or #cooperating organisations (#example organisation for student affairs) regarding the following aspects?*

Note(s): *Aggregated satisfaction regarding 'Study support services (e.g. organised tutoring, (academic) writing/bridging courses, mentoring)', 'Provision of learning facilities (e.g. library, computer centre, work places)', 'Support to balance my studies and paid job', 'Support to balance my studies and family', 'Support in the preparation for my (future) work life'. High values indicate larger satisfaction.*

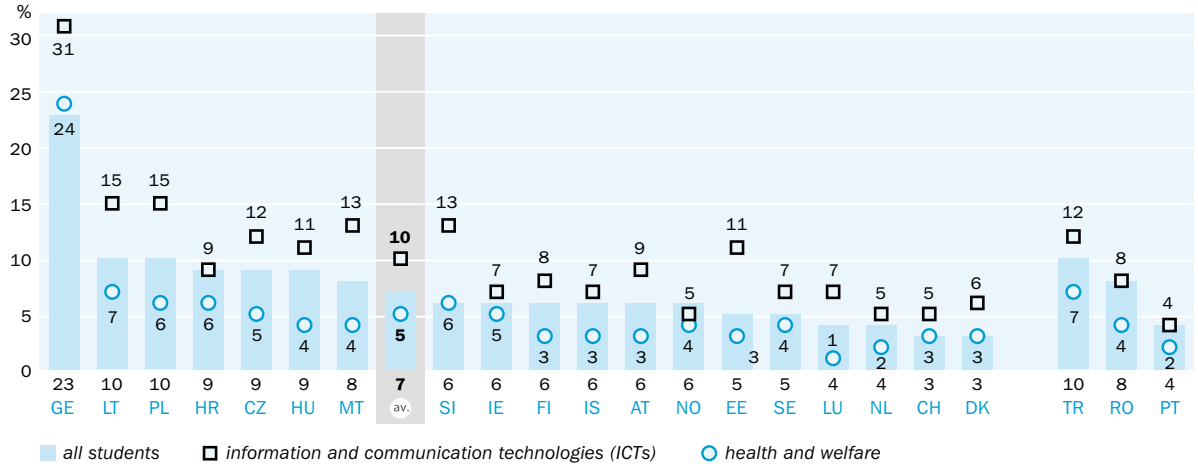
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *AT, DK, MT, NO.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, PL.*

Figure B4.9

Students' drop-out intention by field of study

Share of students agreeing with the statement 'I am seriously thinking of completely abandoning my higher education studies' (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, C.26.* ***No data:*** *DE, FR, IT.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *3.6 Generally, to what extent do you agree with the following thoughts regarding your studies? I am seriously thinking of completely abandoning my higher education studies. Values shown indicate students' agreement with the statement (response options 4 and 5 on a five-point scale).*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *DK, EE.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, PL.*

B 4

- Differences in drop-out intention between the fields of study of health and welfare and ICTs are present in all EUROSTUDENT countries. The degree of differences between these fields varies across countries, however, being largest in Poland and Malta (with nine percentage points difference respectively) and almost negligible in Norway.

A closer look at students' intention to drop out of studies differentiated by types and modes of study reveals a number of contrasts, foremost with respect to the national specifics between types of study programmes and to a lesser extent to the type of HEI and formal status of enrolment (Table B4.7).

With regard to the type of study programme, students enrolled in Master programmes, long national degree programmes, and other types of study programmes are less likely to consider abandoning their studies, with cross-country averages of six percent. Contrarily, the drop-out intention is greater among students enrolled in short national programmes, with 12 percent on average in countries where such programmes are offered.

While there are no considerable differences between university (7 %) and non-university students (8 %), or full- (6 %) and part-time (8 %) students on cross-country average, some nationally specific findings are of remarkable.

- Students enrolled at non-universities are slightly more likely to intend to drop out of studies in some countries, such as Georgia (26 % vs. 22 %) and Malta (11 % vs. 7 %).
- Part-time students in Iceland (9 % vs. 5 %), Luxembourg (16 % vs. 4 %), and Sweden (9 % vs. 4 %) consider dropping out more frequently than their fellow students pursuing studies in full-time mode.

Discussion and policy considerations

This chapter shows that the types and modes of study in the EUROSTUDENT countries, although more and more aligned over the years, still leave room for national specifics and a diversity of cultures within the respective higher education sector. The degree structure in Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Iceland, Lithuania, the Netherlands, and Switzerland is shaped by (almost) complete adoption of the two-cycle degree structure. National degree programmes are persistently popular in Slovenia and Sweden. Short-cycle degree programmes (ISCED level 5) complement the BA/MA model in several countries (as was the intention; Paris Communiqué, 2018), with particularly large shares of students enrolled in these types of programmes in Luxembourg, Malta, Slovenia, and Turkey. Most countries' higher education landscapes include institutions beyond the classic university model, for example, universities of applied sciences, or teaching colleges, whereas no such differentiation is made between different types of institutions in Iceland, Italy, Romania, and Sweden. Comparing across countries, the popularity of different study fields also varies, sometimes with notable differences between countries. While the field of health and welfare is especially popular in Denmark and Norway, students in Germany, Sweden, Portugal, Romania, and Turkey tend to study subjects in the field of engineering, manufacturing, and construction, whereas large proportions of students in Croatia, France, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, and the Netherlands are enrolled in the field of business, administration, and law. With regard to the organisation of studies, large shares of students formally enrolled in part-time studies can be found in Poland, Malta, Croatia, and Hungary; a more rigid formal structure, on the other hand, is found in Austria, Denmark, France, Georgia, Italy, and Turkey.

Despite differences in the formal framework of higher education, common patterns emerge across countries when analysing which students study at the different institutions, in the different types of degree programme, and various fields of study. A striking finding across (almost) all countries is that students without a tertiary education background, are more commonly enrolled at non-universities, frequently in subjects in the field of education, in Bachelor or short-cycle programmes, while their participation in Master programmes is low, and are more likely to be studying in formal part-time mode, compared to their fellow students with a tertiary education background. These findings, on the one hand, confirm the intended beneficial role of short-cycle degrees in widening participation and increasing accessibility within the EHEA, highlighting the attractiveness of part-time study arrangements, which offer students increased flexibility to combine studies and employment with large workloads. On the other hand, these patterns point to risks associated with unequal outcomes for different student groups – if the participation of socio-economically disadvantaged students is restricted to types of institutions and degrees with lower labour market outcomes, this potentially creates new inequalities within higher education.

Analysis of students' satisfaction and drop-out intentions can be helpful in investigating which students face particular challenges and are potentially at risk of abandoning their studies. Some clear cross-country findings in this regard are that, in most EUROSTUDENT countries with binary higher education systems, students enrolled at non-universities are on average more satisfied with the support provided by their

institutions or cooperating organisations than university students, while students in the fields of health and welfare as well as natural sciences, mathematics, and statistics are less satisfied than students in other fields of study. Across countries, drop-out intentions vary most clearly along the lines of study fields, with students studying information and communication technologies in all countries most likely to be seriously considering dropping their study programme completely. Closer analysis of these findings at the national level can help reveal potentially at-risk student groups grappling with the organisation of their studies, who might particularly benefit from additional support.

Tables

Table B4.1

Type of HEI by sex and financial status of parents

Share of students (in %)

	University							Non-university						
	Sex		Financial status of parents					Sex		Financial status of parents				
	Female	Male	Very well-off	Somewhat well-off	Average	Not very well-off	Not at all well-off	Female	Male	Very well-off	Somewhat well-off	Average	Not very well-off	Not at all well-off
AT	81	81	86	83	79	81	83	19	19	14	17	21	19	17
CH	56	58	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	44	42	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
CZ	90	89	86	90	90	91	90	10	11	14	10	10	9	10
DE	69	61	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	31	39	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
DK	53	62	70	65	56	54	58	47	38	30	35	44	46	42
EE	79	78	80	79	78	77	87	21	22	20	21	22	23	13
FI	49	48	55	52	48	46	46	51	53	45	48	52	54	54
FR	79	64	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	21	36	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
GE	88	83	81	84	85	90	91	12	17	19	16	15	10	9
HR	86	79	78	84	83	84	85	14	21	22	16	17	16	15
HU	81	82	88	84	80	82	72	19	18	12	16	20	18	28
IE	73	67	89	82	68	63	63	27	33	11	18	32	37	37
IS	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
LT	65	72	66	70	68	71	51	35	28	34	30	32	29	49
LU	86	87	91	85	87	87	85	14	13	9	15	13	13	15
MT	69	65	t.f.c.	75	71	76	80	31	35	t.f.c.	25	29	24	20
NL	39	39	50	42	35	34	36	61	61	50	58	65	66	64
NO	65	68	64	67	66	67	66	35	33	36	33	35	33	34
PL	71	74	76	75	70	72	61	29	26	24	25	30	28	39
SE	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
SI	78	69	73	79	72	75	77	22	31	27	21	28	25	23
av.	**71**	**70**	**76**	**75**	**71**	**72**	**71**	**29**	**30**	**24**	**25**	**29**	**28**	**29**
IT	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
PT	65	65	74	70	63	59	60	35	35	26	30	37	41	40
RO	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
TR	83	88	88	70	86	91	92	17	12	12	30	14	9	8

n.d.: no data. t.f.c.: too few cases. n/a: not applicable.

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, C.1.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *1.3 At what type of HEI are you studying in the current semester?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT conventions: *CH, CZ, DE, DK, EE, HU, IE, MT, NO.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Table B4.2

Fields of study by sex

Share of students (in %)

	Education (incl. teacher training)		Arts and humanities		Social sciences, journalism, and information		Business, administration, and law		Natural sciences, mathematics, and statistics		Information and communication technologies (ICTs)		Engineering, manufacturing, and construction		Agriculture, forestry, fisheries, and veterinary		Health and welfare		Services	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
AT	19	9	14	9	13	8	22	22	9	11	2	10	8	22	1	1	12	7	1	1
CH	17	7	12	8	14	7	20	26	8	11	1	7	6	22	1	0	19	9	2	1
CZ	15	5	12	7	11	8	22	20	5	5	2	13	9	23	4	3	15	7	4	9
DE	18	8	13	7	11	6	19	20	6	8	2	10	11	32	2	2	13	6	4	2
DK	7	5	13	9	10	10	16	21	7	6	2	10	7	20	1	1	36	14	2	5
EE	10	3	18	16	12	11	18	14	8	9	5	17	4	12	1	1	20	9	4	8
FI	8	2	14	7	8	4	19	18	5	5	4	17	7	33	3	3	28	8	4	3
FR	4	2	16	10	11	7	31	25	10	14	1	4	8	25	0	0	17	9	3	5
GE	5	2	13	5	20	11	28	29	5	3	1	6	3	17	2	4	18	15	3	3
HR	11	2	8	7	8	4	34	20	3	5	3	16	9	24	3	4	16	7	4	10
HU	18	6	9	8	10	7	25	21	2	4	2	15	8	24	4	3	16	9	7	4
IE	11	4	17	11	9	6	19	19	11	12	3	16	5	19	2	2	18	8	4	4
IS	11	4	14	14	23	13	17	21	7	9	3	11	5	19	1	2	18	8	0	0
LT	6	2	12	6	11	7	30	24	4	4	2	11	8	32	3	3	24	8	1	3
LU	10	4	12	11	18	8	24	29	5	5	3	12	3	17	1	2	24	12	0	0
MT	18	3	11	11	9	5	29	30	2	3	2	15	5	12	1	0	22	16	3	4
NL	13	7	8	8	16	9	24	32	5	7	1	8	4	15	1	1	23	9	5	6
NO	24	15	7	7	8	7	17	24	5	7	2	9	6	19	1	1	29	11	0	0
PL	10	3	12	7	13	9	24	20	5	3	2	13	11	27	2	2	15	7	7	9
SE	16	7	9	9	12	11	15	12	5	7	2	7	12	35	1	0	26	11	1	1
SI	15	3	10	6	12	5	21	16	5	7	2	11	7	35	4	2	18	7	8	8
av.	**13**	**5**	**12**	**9**	**12**	**8**	**23**	**22**	**6**	**7**	**2**	**11**	**7**	**23**	**2**	**2**	**20**	**9**	**3**	**4**
IT	10	1	19	9	15	12	17	19	10	10	1	4	8	27	2	3	17	11	2	4
PT	4	1	12	10	14	9	25	23	6	6	1	6	11	37	2	2	23	2	2	4
RO	4	0	9	7	12	5	26	19	5	3	5	11	15	34	4	6	21	14	0	0
TR	11	5	16	13	9	8	21	18	5	4	1	3	10	30	2	3	22	9	4	6

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, C.3.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *1.7 What is your current #(main) study programme?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT conventions: *CH, DK, IT, NL, SE.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Table B4.3

Fields of study by educational background

Share of students (in %)

	Education (incl. teacher training)		Arts and humanities		Social sciences, journalism, and information		Business, administration, and law		Natural sciences, mathematics, and statistics		Information and communication technologies (ICTs)		Engineering, manufacturing, and construction		Agriculture, forestry, fisheries, and veterinary		Health and welfare		Services	
	Students without a tertiary education background	Students with a tertiary education background	Students without a tertiary education background	Students with a tertiary education background	Students without a tertiary education background	Students with a tertiary education background	Students without a tertiary education background	Students with a tertiary education background	Students without a tertiary education background	Students with a tertiary education background	Students without a tertiary education background	Students with a tertiary education background	Students without a tertiary education background	Students with a tertiary education background	Students without a tertiary education background	Students with a tertiary education background	Students without a tertiary education background	Students with a tertiary education background	Students without a tertiary education background	Students with a tertiary education background
AT	17	13	11	12	10	11	23	21	9	11	6	6	14	14	1	1	9	10	1	1
CH	16	10	10	10	11	11	24	22	7	11	3	4	12	14	1	1	15	14	1	1
CZ	14	8	10	10	10	11	21	20	5	6	5	9	14	15	4	3	11	13	6	5
DE	14	13	9	10	8	8	21	19	7	8	6	6	22	22	2	2	9	10	3	3
DK	6	6	12	10	8	11	19	18	5	7	6	5	12	13	1	1	27	25	4	2
EE	9	7	13	19	12	12	18	16	6	8	9	9	7	7	1	1	17	15	7	5
FI	4	6	10	12	5	7	18	19	5	5	9	10	20	18	3	3	23	17	5	3
FR	5	2	15	12	11	8	31	27	10	12	2	2	13	17	0	0	9	16	4	3
GE	5	4	8	10	16	15	31	28	3	4	2	3	15	9	3	3	11	18	3	3
HR	9	5	7	9	7	6	29	27	3	6	7	9	14	18	4	2	12	13	8	5
HU	14	11	8	8	9	9	28	20	2	4	8	8	13	16	2	4	10	14	6	5
IE	9	6	15	14	7	8	20	17	11	13	10	10	11	13	2	2	12	15	5	3
IS	11	6	14	13	19	19	19	17	7	10	5	7	9	10	2	1	14	16	0	0
LT	6	3	7	11	7	11	30	24	3	4	4	7	18	18	4	2	17	17	3	2
LU	12	5	8	15	17	12	21	31	5	5	9	4	10	8	2	0	16	19	0	0
MT	11	9	11	12	10	7	30	27	2	4	6	9	7	6	0	0	20	23	3	4
NL	12	8	7	9	10	14	29	26	4	8	4	4	8	11	1	1	18	15	7	5
NO	25	20	6	7	7	8	19	20	4	6	3	5	9	11	1	1	25	21	1	0
PL	9	5	9	11	11	13	25	19	4	4	6	7	17	18	2	2	11	13	8	7
SE	16	10	10	9	11	12	12	15	5	6	4	3	18	23	1	1	22	20	1	1
SI	9	10	6	9	8	10	22	18	4	7	5	5	21	17	3	3	12	14	9	7
av.	**11**	**8**	**10**	**11**	**10**	**11**	**23**	**21**	**5**	**7**	**6**	**6**	**13**	**14**	**2**	**2**	**15**	**16**	**4**	**3**
IT	7	4	15	14	14	14	17	18	9	11	2	2	16	17	3	3	14	15	3	2
PT	3	2	10	12	11	12	26	22	5	7	4	2	22	23	2	3	14	14	3	2
RO	3	1	8	8	9	9	25	19	4	3	6	11	25	21	6	4	14	22	n.d.	n.d.
TR	8	8	15	12	8	10	20	19	4	5	2	2	19	25	2	2	16	14	6	3

n.d.: no data.

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, C.3.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *1.7 What is your current #(main) study programme?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT conventions: *CH, DK, IT, NL, SE.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Table B4.4

Degree structure by educational background

Share of students (in %)

	Bachelor degree [ISCED 6]		Master degree [ISCED 7]		Long national degree [more than 3 years, ISCED 7]		Short-cycle degree [ISCED 5]		Short national degree [up to 3 years, ISCED 6]		Other	
	Students without a tertiary education background	Students with a tertiary education background	Students without a tertiary education background	Students with a tertiary education background	Students without a tertiary education background	Students with a tertiary education background	Students without a tertiary education background	Students with a tertiary education background	Students without a tertiary education background	Students with a tertiary education background	Students without a tertiary education background	Students with a tertiary education background
AT	63	60	24	23	13	16	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
CH	74	69	25	30	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	1	1
CZ	66	58	26	26	8	15	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
DE	65	59	22	24	12	17	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	0	0
DK	67	67	23	27	n/a	n/a	10	6	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
EE	71	64	24	28	5	8	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
FI	79	72	22	28	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
FR	44	40	23	21	13	26	17	10	0	0	3	3
GE	79	73	8	10	10	15	2	1	1	1	0	0
HR	64	55	23	23	13	22	0.0	0.1	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
HU	68	60	12	16	14	22	6	3	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
IE	73	76	11	13	n/a	n/a	8	6	4	2	3	2
IS	59	74	31	20	0.5	1	8	3	1	0	1	2
LT	80	73	16	15	4	11	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
LU	62	56	21	38	n/a	n/a	16	6	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
MT	51	54	23	25	4	8	20	12	n/a	n/a	1	1
NL	85	80	13	19	n/a	n/a	2	1	n/a	n/a	0	0
NO	52	49	18	17	9	19	n/a	n/a	10	8	11	7
PL	65	62	26	22	8	16	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
SE	27	25	7	11	26	34	1	0.2	27	18	12	11
SI	26	22	23	26	2	7	21	7	28	38	n/a	n/a
av.	**63**	**59**	**20**	**22**	**10**	**16**	**9**	**5**	**10**	**10**	**3**	**3**
IT	63	62	20	17	16	21	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
PT	62	56	20	18	11	23	6	2	n/a	n/a	1	1
RO	67	60	24	20	9	20	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
TR	64	74	4	7	2	7	30	12	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a

n/a: not applicable.

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, C.4.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *1.5 With which degree does your current #(main) study programme conclude?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT conventions: *DK, IT, MT, CH.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Table B4.5

Students' formal status of enrolment by sex, educational background, and employment status

Share of students (in %)

	Full-time study status							Part-time study status						
	Sex		Educational background		Students in paid employment			Sex		Educational background		Students in paid employment		
	Female	Male	Students without a tertiary education background	Students with a tertiary education background	Students without paid employment during the semester	Students working in a paid job, ≤20 h/week	Students working in a paid job, > 20 h/week	Female	Male	Students without a tertiary education background	Students with a tertiary education background	Students without paid employment during the semester	Students working in a paid job, ≤20 h/week	Students working in a paid job, > 20 h/week
AT	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
CH	88	86	83	90	98	94	44	12	14	17	10	2	6	56
CZ	82	85	78	90	97	97	51	18	15	22	10	3	3	49
DE	97	96	96	97	99	98	78	3	4	4	3	1	2	22
DK	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
EE	96	96	95	97	99	98	93	4	4	5	3	1	2	7
FI	84	89	76	92	93	95	67	16	11	24	8	7	5	33
FR	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
GE	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
HR	72	73	69	77	86	86	41	28	27	31	23	14	14	59
HU	70	76	62	80	95	88	35	30	24	38	20	5	12	65
IE	85	85	78	89	97	96	35	15	15	22	11	3	4	65
IS	91	92	89	93	96	97	78	9	7	10	7	3	3	21
LT	79	83	74	87	91	88	67	21	17	26	13	9	12	33
LU	96	99	97	98	100	97	75	4	1	3	2	0	3	25
MT	67	75	62	77	96	93	14	33	25	38	23	4	7	86
NL	92	91	88	94	98	98	54	7	8	10	5	2	2	40
NO	75	84	71	81	95	93	32	25	16	29	19	5	7	68
PL	67	68	59	77	93	89	32	33	32	41	23	7	11	68
SE	89	92	88	91	95	95	35	11	8	12	9	5	5	65
SI	79	75	72	81	94	91	49	21	24	27	19	6	9	50
av.	**83**	**85**	**79**	**88**	**95**	**94**	**52**	**17**	**15**	**21**	**12**	**5**	**6**	**48**
IT	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
PT	86	84	83	90	97	79	46	14	16	17	10	3	21	54
RO	94	92	92	94	98	93	84	2	4	3	2	1	3	6
TR	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a

n/a: not applicable.

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, C.5.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *1.6 What is your current formal status as a student?*

Note(s): *Answering option 'other study status' excluded from table as, in most countries, there are no study statuses apart from full- and part-time studies and percentages are very low in the few countries where other study statuses exist.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT conventions: *CH, MT.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Table B4.6

Students' average satisfaction with the support provided by their HEI by type of HEI, field of study, type of study programme, and formal status of enrolment

Mean satisfaction on a scale from 0 = not sufficient at all to 100 = entirely sufficient

	Type of HEI		Field of study										Type of study programme						Formal status of enrolment	
	University	Non-university	Education (incl. teacher training)	Arts and humanities	Social sciences, journalism, and information	Business, administration, and law	Natural sciences, mathematics, and statistics	Information and communication technologies (ICTs)	Engineering, manufacturing, and construction	Agriculture, forestry, fisheries, and veterinary	Health and welfare	Services	Bachelor degree [ISCED 6]	Master degree [ISCED 7]	Long national degree [more than 3 years, ISCED 7]	Short-cycle degree [ISCED 5]	Short national degree [up to 3 years, ISCED 6]	Other	Full-time	Part-time
AT	50	57	46	53	51	53	49	57	51	51	49	57	52	51	45	n/a	n/a	n/a	51	n/a
CH	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
CZ	54	64	54	55	59	58	54	59	55	52	50	55	57	54	49	n/a	n/a	n/a	54	63
DE	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
DK	52	54	52	54	49	53	54	53	57	50	52	54	53	52	n/a	57	n/a	n/a	53	n/a
EE	55	62	50	56	56	58	56	59	59	t.f.c.	52	68	58	56	47	n/a	n/a	n/a	57	55
FI	55	57	52	52	51	60	53	59	61	56	51	60	56	57	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	56	57
FR	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
GE	58	68	65	61	59	63	56	69	50	62	56	64	61	62	55	50	65	n/a	n/a	n/a
HR	39	49	42	41	45	44	35	44	37	t.f.c.	36	33	41	44	35	n/a	n/a	n/a	40	43
HU	45	51	44	49	50	48	41	47	45	45	40	53	47	51	41	47	n/a	n/a	46	47
IE	54	55	53	52	53	57	53	56	54	53	55	58	53	57	n/a	59	60	63	53	59
IS	50	n/a	47	51	48	52	47	47	52	t.f.c.	50	n.d.	50	49	49	49	43	39	50	48
LT	56	57	59	53	56	59	57	57	57	59	50	61	57	60	37	n/a	n/a	n/a	55	61
LU	48	48	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	54	47	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	46	t.f.c.	42	t.f.c.	48	49	n/a	48	n/a	n/a	48	42
MT	51	57	53	54	56	54	t.f.c.	52	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	53	54	49	59	49	58	n/a	50	48	63
NL	55	57	59	54	53	54	57	57	57	61	59	55	57	54	n/a	58	n/a	54	56	55
NO	53	57	56	56	54	57	53	57	52	54	53	t.f.c.	53	56	54	n/a	58	66	53	61
PL	45	58	54	47	49	54	46	47	44	53	44	55	51	49	41	n/a	n/a	n/a	48	52
SE	55	n/a	55	56	53	56	56	57	57	t.f.c.	55	57	56	57	56	49	53	59	55	58
SI	51	61	46	44	51	61	52	55	61	52	46	55	55	51	50	62	51	n/a	53	57
av.	**51**	**57**	**52**	**52**	**53**	**55**	**51**	**55**	**53**	**54**	**50**	**56**	**53**	**54**	**47**	**54**	**55**	**55**	**51**	**55**
IT	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
PT	48	50	47	43	48	50	52	54	49	45	50	49	48	49	49	55	n/a	55	50	45
RO	48	n/a	52	49	46	49	52	42	50	60	44	n.d.	49	52	40	n/a	n/a	n/a	48	54
TR	40	36	47	42	39	38	34	35	32	41	42	44	36	51	34	43	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.

n.d.: no data. t.f.c.: too few cases. n/a: not applicable.

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, C.33.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *3.7 How satisfied are you with the support provided to you by your #HEI or #cooperating organisations (#example organisation for student affairs) regarding the following aspects?*

Note(s): *Aggregated satisfaction regarding 'Study support services (e.g. organised tutoring, (academic) writing/bridging courses, mentoring)', 'Provision of learning facilities (e.g. library, computer centre, work places)', 'Support to balance my studies and paid job', 'Support to balance my studies and family', 'Support in the preparation for my (future) work life'. High values indicate larger satisfaction.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT conventions: *AT, DK, MT, NO.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Table B4.7

Students' drop-out intention by type of HEI, field of study, type of study programme, and formal status of enrolment

Share of students (in %)

	Type of HEI		Field of study										Type of study programme						Formal status of enrolment	
	University	Non-university	Education (incl. teacher training)	Arts and humanities	Social sciences, journalism, and information	Business, administration, and law	Natural sciences, mathematics, and statistics	Information and communication technologies (ICTs)	Engineering, manufacturing, and construction	Agriculture, forestry, fisheries, and veterinary	Health and welfare	Services	Bachelor degree [ISCED 6]	Master degree [ISCED 7]	Long national degree [more than 3 years, ISCED 7]	Short-cycle degree [ISCED 5]	Short national degree [up to 3 years, ISCED 6]	Other	Full-time	Part-time
AT	6	4	5	8	5	4	6	9	7	6	3	5	6	5	5	n/a	n/a	n/a	6	n/a
CH	3	3	3	4	4	3	4	5	2	2	3	4	3	3	n/a	n/a	n/a	4	3	4
CZ	9	9	9	10	7	10	8	12	9	10	5	10	9	10	4	n/a	n/a	n/a	9	10
DE	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
DK	3	4	1	3	2	3	3	6	4	0	3	4	3	3	n/a	6	n/a	n/a	3	n/a
EE	6	3	5	8	5	3	4	11	4	0	3	2	6	4	3	n/a	n/a	n/a	5	6
FI	6	6	5	7	6	5	4	8	8	5	3	8	6	5	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	6	6
FR	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
GE	22	26	29	20	27	22	27	31	10	11	24	29	23	19	25	14	25	n/a	n/a	n/a
HR	10	8	15	11	7	9	7	9	8	19	6	11	10	10	8	n/a	n/a	n/a	9	10
HU	9	8	8	12	6	9	9	11	10	3	4	10	9	7	7	13	n/a	n/a	8	9
IE	5	7	5	6	6	5	6	7	7	4	5	6	6	6	n/a	8	6	3	6	5
IS	6	n/a	9	8	6	6	6	7	3	t.f.c.	3	0	6	5	4	5	26	10	5	9
LT	10	9	7	13	7	9	10	15	12	4	7	14	10	9	8	n/a	n/a	n/a	10	8
LU	4	4	0	0	11	5	7	7	4	t.f.c.	1	t.f.c.	6	1	n/a	4	n/a	n/a	4	16
MT	7	11	11	6	12	7	10	13	3	t.f.c.	4	15	11	5	4	5	n/a	n/a	8	7
NL	3	4	5	4	4	5	3	5	3	2	2	4	4	4	n/a	8	n/a	n/a	4	6
NO	6	5	5	9	8	5	7	5	5	2	4	6	6	5	4	n/a	7	5	6	5
PL	10	10	10	11	9	9	9	15	11	12	6	9	11	9	5	n/a	n/a	n/a	10	9
SE	5	n/a	6	8	4	5	7	7	4	0	4	6	6	4	4	5	4	8	4	9
SI	6	8	5	9	4	5	4	13	8	7	6	6	6	7	1	10	6	n/a	6	8
av.	**7**	**8**	**7**	**8**	**7**	**7**	**7**	**10**	**7**	**5**	**5**	**8**	**8**	**6**	**6**	**8**	**12**	**6**	**6**	**8**
IT	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
PT	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	4	5	5	5	5	5	5	4	n/a	5	5	5
RO	4	n/a	5	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	0	4	4	5	n/a	n/a	n/a	4	4
TR	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a

n.d.: no data. t.f.c.: too few cases. n/a: not applicable.

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, C.26.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *3.6 Generally, to what extent do you agree with the following thoughts regarding your studies? I am seriously thinking of completely abandoning my higher education studies.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT conventions: *DK, EE.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Chapter B5
Students' time budget

Time budget

Students have a full schedule: on average, they spend 47 hours a week on study-related activities and work. Students in Georgia, Malta, and Estonia spend the highest mean number of hours per week studying and working (53 hours and more). In Austria, Finland, Sweden, France, Germany and Turkey students spend at least ten hours per week less.

Time spent on work

The weekly workload of students is strongly influenced by the time spent on a paid job. For students without a paid job during term time, the total adds up to 38 hours per week, whereas students with a paid job of more than 20 hours per week spend a total of 62 hours per week on the combination of working and studying. Working more than 20 hours per week comes at the expense of studying: these students (who work 36 hours a week, on average) spend 26 hours per week on their studies.

Time budget by study programme

Time needed for studying differs by field of study. Study programmes in the field of natural sciences have a study load of on average 38 hours, eight hours more than studies in the social sciences, for example. This leaves less time for combining studying with a paid job, which results in a lower percentage of working students in the natural sciences.

Satisfaction with time budget

Four out of five students (82 %) are dissatisfied with at least one aspect of their weekly time budget. An average 40 % of students would prefer to work more and 39 % to study more. One in three students would like to study less, 13 % to work less. Students in Georgia and the Netherlands are most satisfied with their time budget, while students in Poland and Lithuania are least happy with the number of hours they spend working and/or studying.

Time budget and study performance

Students who spend more time studying tend to rate their study performance as better than that of fellow students. This effect is most visible in Georgia, Luxembourg, Austria, Norway, and Romania. Students who work a great deal (more than 20 hours per week) are more likely to experience (many) more difficulties in their studies because of their job obligation than students who work less. Despite these conclusions, the percentage of students considering dropping out of their study programme is only loosely related to an increased number of working hours.

Main issues

Time budget

Unlike secondary school, most study programmes in higher education give students a certain amount of freedom: besides the taught lectures and seminars, students are expected to spend time on individual studies to fulfil the requirements of their study programme. This freedom comes with choices: how to spend your time? In his rational choice theory, Becker (1965) suggests that people, and thus students, can make decisions based on weighting of expected gains and risks (both short-term and long-term). Time spent on studying cannot be spent on work or leisure time. The choices students make depend on their circumstances. Boudon (1989), for instance, shows how students make different choices at several decision points in their studies because of differences in their assessment of the risks, costs, and benefits, depending on their economic and social background. Given budget and time constraints, each student seeks to obtain the greatest possible satisfaction. Students who could not afford to study without having a paid job (> *Chapter B6*), for example, will make different choices compared to students who do not need to work (Fermex et al., 2015, Stevens and Weale, 2004, Masevičiūtė et al., 2018). In fact, the same applies to the requirements that different study programmes place on students: the amount of scheduled lecture time differs between type of HEI and field of study, thus putting unequal constraints on the total time budget of students (Darmody et al., 2008; Fernex et al., 2015, Vögtle and Hámori, 2020).

Juggling the hours

An enormous amount of research has been conducted to untangle the time balance of students and the consequences of spending time in a certain way. Most researchers focus on the effects of time spent on working, identifying both positive effects (increased human capital, better chances on the labour market, e.g. Baert et al., 2015; Sanchez-Gelabert, 2017) and negative effects (study performance, e.g. Darolia, 2014; Apolinarski and Gwosć, 2020). Beerkens et al. (2011) found in their Estonian data that the relation between work and study success is not linear: working fewer than 25 hours per week has no significant effect; only students who work more than 25 hours per week experience a negative effect on their academic performance. In the case of France, Body et al. (2014) found a lower threshold: working eight hours or fewer per week seems to be without consequences, and the most 'harm' is done when working over 16 hours per week. The impact furthermore seems to depend on both the type of work and the study programme: the more flexible either one of these, the less negative effect on studies. In line with this finding, for the UK, Callender (2008) shows that more than the number of hours worked, the point in time makes the difference: working during term time instead of during the lecture-free period has a negative effect on academic achievement.

Time pressure and well-being

Not only academic achievement is at stake, the mental well-being of students is also endangered when students work (a large number of hours) besides the time spent on their studies (Carney et al., 2005, Creed et al., 2015; Shankland et al., 2019). As early as in 1977, Vickery called this 'time poverty': quality of life and well-being are under pressure when people experience insufficient time to complete necessary tasks.

This chapter looks at students' time budget. Starting by unravelling its composition, the chapter also deals with differences in time budget between groups of students and the consequences of certain choices in terms of the amount of time spent on study and work. Questions to be answered include: does a high study intensity also translate into more study success? And to what extent is the likelihood of dropping out increased by the number of hours students work alongside their studies?

Methodological and conceptual notes

Time budget in EUROSTUDENT is measured by asking students to think of a typical week during the lecture period (including the weekend) and then asking them to fill in their time commitment per day for taught study time (lessons, seminars, labs, tests, live online courses, etc.) and personal study time (e.g. preparation, studying, homework, unpaid internships). The time spent on paid jobs was to be indicated in hours per week. The focus group of working students consists of students who either do not work in addition to their studies, who work up to 20 hours per week during the lecture period or who work more than 20 hours per week during the lecture period. Besides indicating the hours spent on each of these categories, students were also asked about their satisfaction with their time budget: would they prefer to spend more, less or the same amount of time on each of these activities? To describe (at least indicatively) the relationship between time budget and study performance, this chapter uses the following indicators: self-assessment of study performance in comparison to fellow students, and the intention to drop out of the study programme.

Data and interpretation

Students' time budget

With a total of 47 hours per week, the average student in EUROSTUDENT countries spends 16 hours per week on taught studies, 17 hours on personal study time and 14 hours on one or more paid job(s) (Figure B5.1). Full-time students spend more time on study-related activities, part-time students (who combine a regular job with studying) obviously work more hours per week. On average, full-time students spend 17 hours per week on taught studies (part-time students: 11), 19 hours on personal study time (part-time students: 13) and 10 hours on work (part-time students: 31). Looking at the total time budget, part-time students have nine hours per week less 'free time': their weekly time budget adds up to 55 hours, whereas the full-timers spend 46 hours on the combination of study and work.

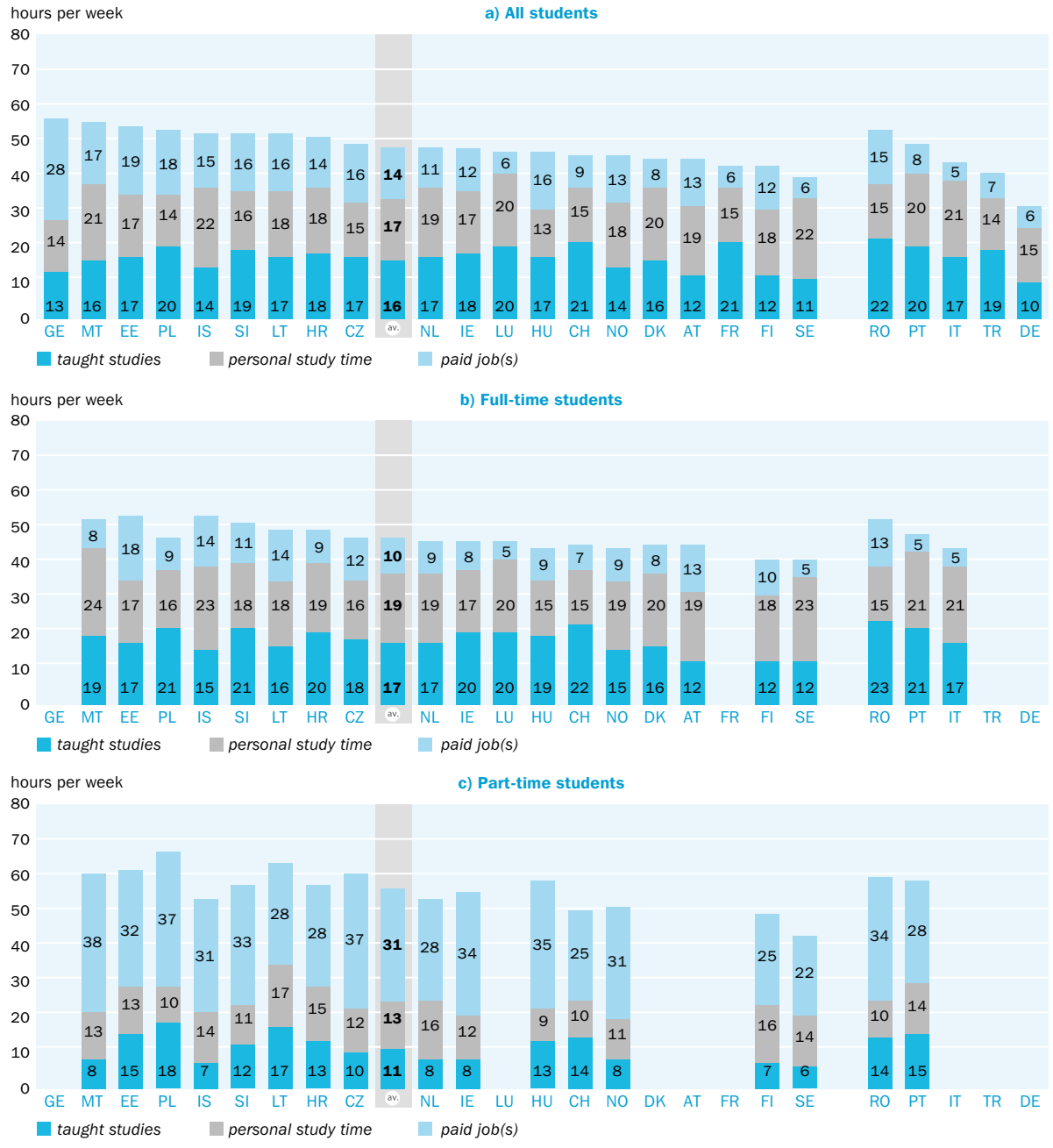
Part-time students spend nine hours more than full-time students on the combination of work and study.

- The three countries with the highest total time budget of students are Georgia (55 hours per week), Malta (54 hours per week), and Estonia (53 hours per week). On average, the time budget of these students is over 10 hours per week higher than that of students on the other end of the spectrum: Austria (43 hours per week), Finland (42 hours per week), and Sweden (40 hours per week). Also lower than in the other EUROSTUDENT countries is the total time spent on study in Turkey (39 hours per week) and Germany (30 hours per week), but this may have been caused by the abnormal study situation during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Figure B5.1

Time budget of students by type of activity and formal status

In hours per week (mean)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, H.26, H.32, H.38.* ***No data:*** *no data on formal status in GE, DE, FR, TR; no data on part-time students in AT, DK, IT.*
Too few cases: *LU: part-time students.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *3.4. How many hours do you spend in taught courses and on personal study time in a typical week during the current #lecture period? 4.6. How many hours do you spend on your paid job(s) in a typical week in the current #lecture period?*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE, IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *CH, FR, IT.*

Deviation from EUROSTUDENT target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

- Compared to other EUROSTUDENT countries, students in Georgia spend the fewest hours per week on their studies (average of 27 hours), while students in Luxembourg spend the most (average of 40 hours). In terms of time spent on work, this is exactly the opposite: students from Luxembourg work, on average, the least number of hours per week (six hours), whereas students from Georgia work more hours per week (28 hours), more than double the average of students in EUROSTUDENT countries (14 hours).
- Full-time students in Switzerland, Slovenia, Poland, Croatia, Hungary, and Malta spend relatively large amounts of time on taught studies: on average, 19 hours per week or more. In Austria, Finland, and Sweden, the number of hours spent on taught studies is much lower: full-time students in these countries spend on average 12 hours per week in the classroom.
- Part-time students in Poland and Lithuania spend over 60 hours per week on the combination of working and studying. They have, on average, the least free time. Part-time students in Malta, Poland, the Czech Republic, and Hungary combine a full-time job of, on average, 35 hours and more per week, with their studies. Although the number of working hours for part-time students is higher, the time spent on taught studies is not necessarily lower, as is the case for Estonia, Lithuania, and Poland. For these students, the time spent on working influences their personal study time and free time.
- It is difficult to assess the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the time budget of students. Apart from Romania, students in the countries where the field phase took place during the pandemic work (much) less than the EUROSTUDENT average. In terms of time spent on their studies, German students spend relatively little time, but that apparently hardly applies to the other four countries.

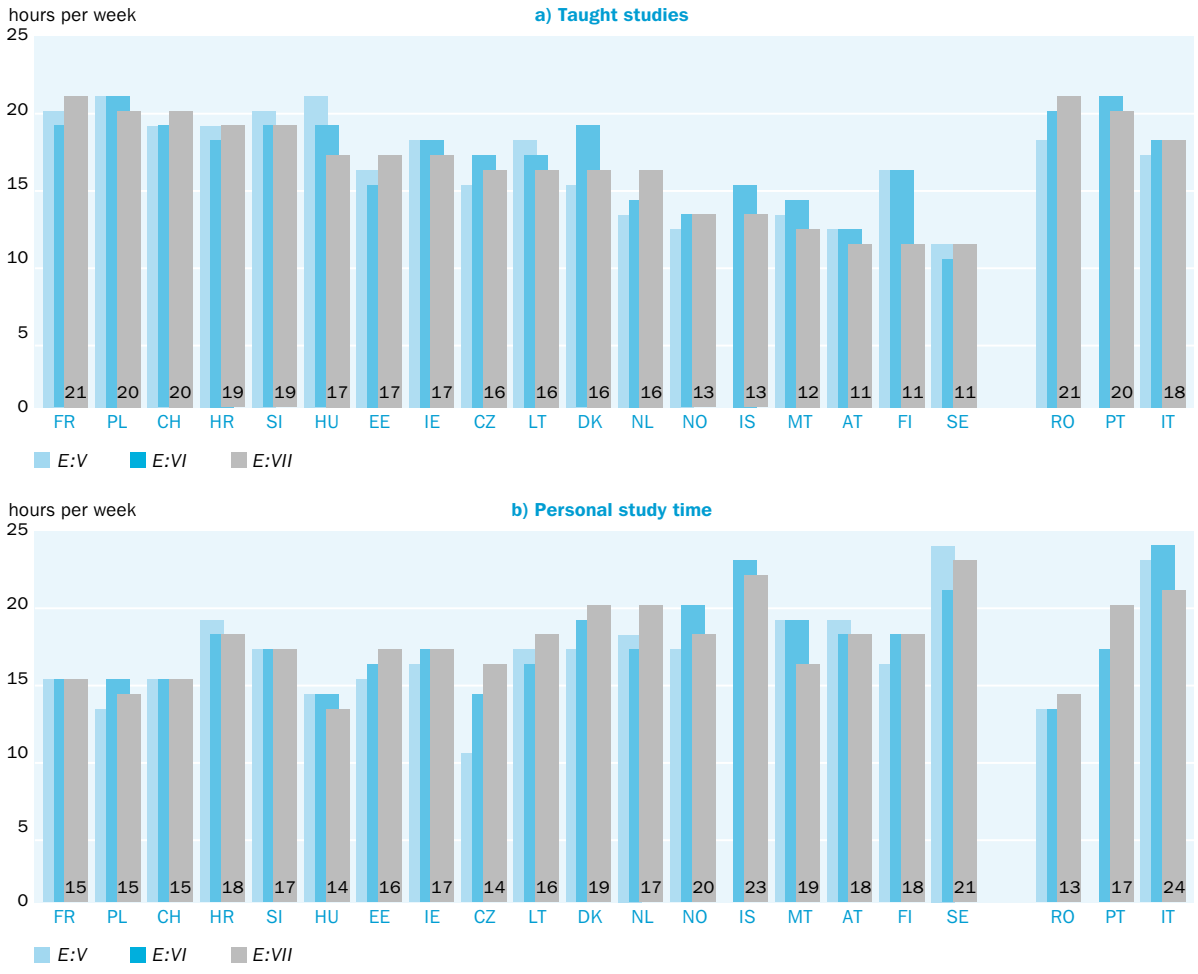
In most countries, there are very few changes over time with regard to the study-related activities (changes of no more than one or two hours per week). Looking at the changes, the following observations can be made (Figure B5.2).

- The number of hours spent on taught studies has decreased in Hungary (E:V: 21 hours, E:VII: 17 hours) and Finland (E:V: 16 hours, E:VII: 11 hours). In the Netherlands, the time spent on taught studies has increased slightly over time (E:V: 13 hours, E:VII: 16 hours).
- Personal study time is more stable over time – with small increases or decreases of one hour per year. Slightly larger changes can be found in Denmark (E:V: 17 hours, E:VII: 20 hours) and Finland (E:V: 16 hours, E:VII: 20 hours). The largest difference over time is apparent in the Czech Republic, with an increase from 10 hours per week in EUROSTUDENT V to 16 hours per week in EUROSTUDENT VII.

Figure B5.2

Time spent on study-related activities in EUROSTUDENT V, VI, and VII

In hours per week (mean), only students not living with parents



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT V, I.1, EUROSTUDENT VII, H.4, H.7, EUROSTUDENT VII, H.28, H.34.* ***Data not comparable over time:*** *GE, DE. No data for E:V: IS. No data for E:V and E:VI: LU, TR.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *3.4. How many hours do you spend in taught courses and on personal study time in a typical week during the current #lecture period?*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE, IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *CH, FR, IT.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *E:V: DE, GE, IT; E:VI: DE, IE, IT; E:VII: DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Combining work and study

Since time is limited, students who combine their studies with one or more jobs are faced with choices: do they sacrifice the time they spend on their studies to take up work or does work come at the expense of their free time? The trade-off between time spent on studying and working on a cross-country average, clearly shows that a job comes at the expense of the time students can spend on their studies (Figure B5.3). This effect is most pronounced for time-consuming jobs: especially with a job demanding more than 15 hours per week, the time spent on study decreases. Within the time spent on study, both taught studies and personal study time are lower compared

to students with a more casual job or no job at all. But more than study time, students' free time suffers from their paid employment. Where students without a job have a weekly workload of (on average) 38 hours, students with a job of 21 hours per week or more have a total workload of 61 hours.

Combining a job of 21 hours per week or more with studying comes at the expense of free time.

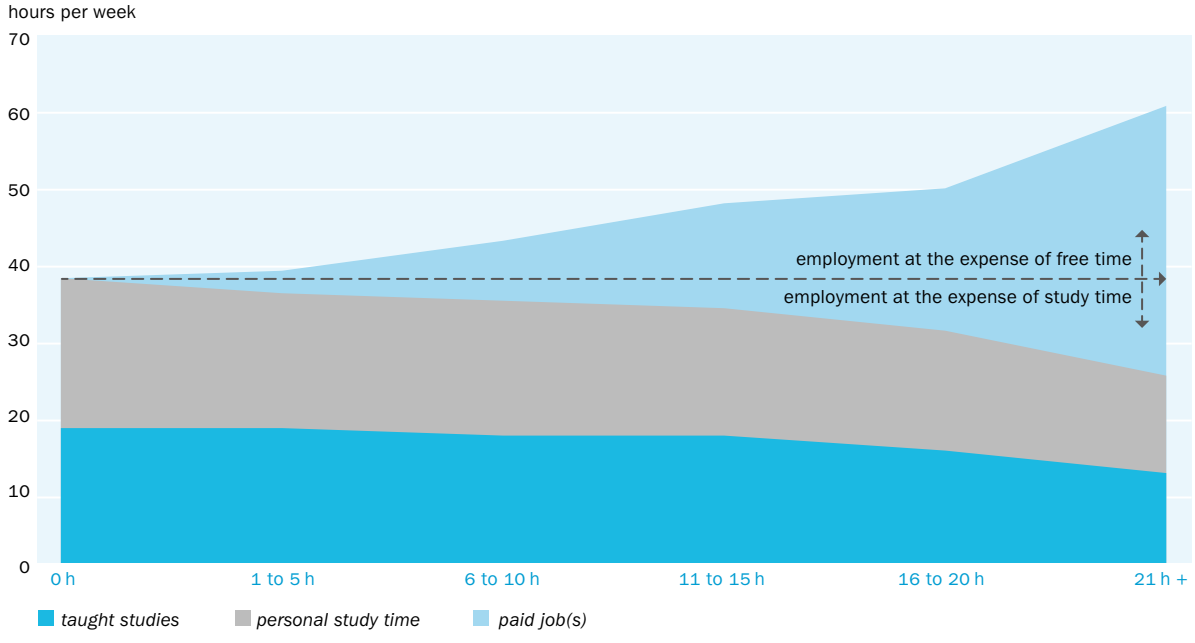
The previous comparison is illustrated for nine countries: five countries in which work has the strongest relationship to time spent on study and four countries in which the opposite is the case (Figure B5.4).

- In Malta and Switzerland, students with a job of 21 hours per week or more spend half the amount of time on studies as students without a job (around 20 hours less). In Norway, Sweden, and Slovenia, students with a job of 21 hours or more spend an average of 15 hours less on their studies.
- In Estonia, Lithuania, and Georgia, students with a paid job of 21 hours and more study around just under 10 hours less. The difference is smallest in Denmark: here students without a job spend 38 hours on their studies, while students with a time-consuming job only spend seven hours less.

Figure B5.3

Time spent on taught studies, personal study time, and paid jobs by time spent on paid jobs during term time

In hours per week (mean), unweighted cross-country average



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, H.26, H.32, H.38.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *3.4. How many hours do you spend in taught courses and on personal study time in a typical week during the current #lecture period? 4.6. How many hours do you spend on your paid job(s) in a typical week in the current #lecture period?*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE, IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

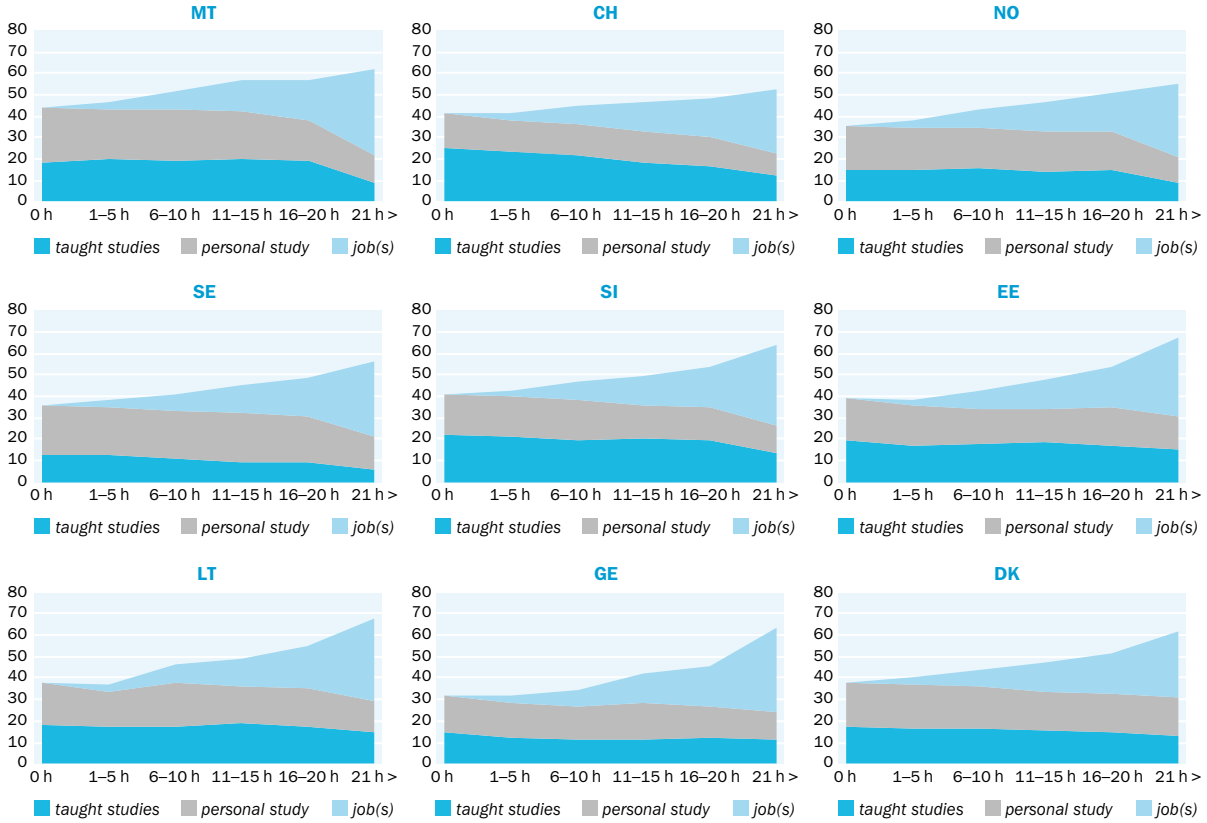
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *CH, FR.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Figure B5.4

Time spent on taught studies, personal study time, and paid jobs by time spent on paid jobs during term time

In hours per week (mean), unweighted cross-country average



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, H.26, H.32, H.38.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *3.4. How many hours do you spend in taught courses and on personal study time in a typical week during the current #lecture period? 4.6. How many hours do you spend on your paid job(s) in a typical week in the current #lecture period?*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE, IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *CH.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

B 5

Time spent on study-related activities

A higher study load makes it more difficult to combine studying with a job, and some studies have a higher study intensity than others.

Studies with less taught study time make it possible for more students to combine their studies with a job.

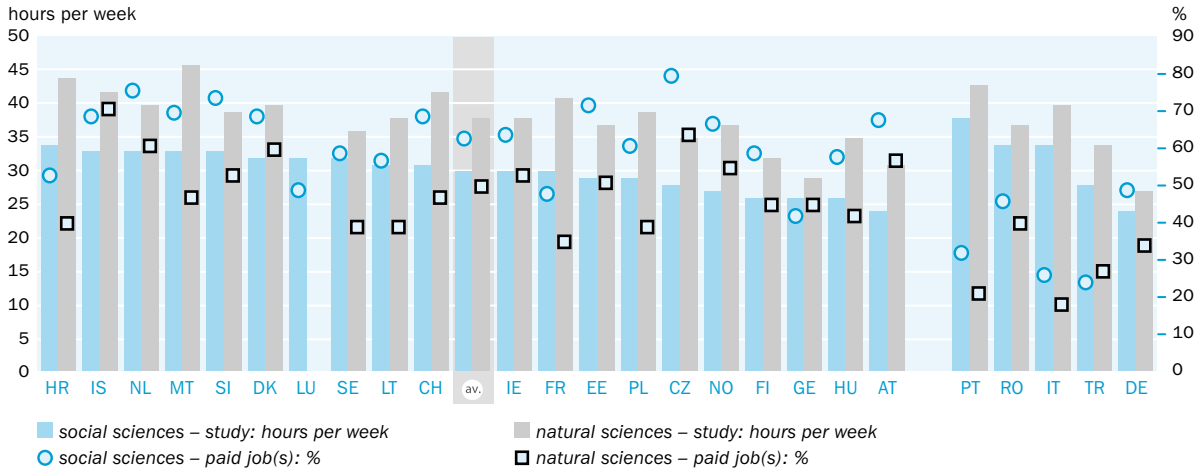
For two extremes ('social sciences, journalism, and information' and 'natural sciences, mathematics, and statistics'), the number of hours that students spend on their studies is compared to the proportion of students who have a job (Figure B5.5). Students with a lower study intensity are more likely to work alongside their studies. In the case of social sciences, with an average study load of 30 hours, 63 % of students have a job. In natural sciences, the study load is on average eight hours higher (38 hours), with 50 % of students in paid employment.

- The assumption that more time spent on study-related activities is related to fewer students working holds up for most countries, with this pattern most visible in Malta, Slovenia, Sweden, Lithuania, Switzerland, and Estonia.

Figure B5.5

Students' time spent on study-related activities and the proportion of students with paid job(s) by field of study (social sciences and natural sciences)

In hours per week (mean) and share of students with paid job(s) in %



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, H.1, H.17.* ***Too few cases:*** *LU (natural sciences).*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *3.4. How many hours do you spend in taught courses and on personal study time in a typical week during the current #lecture period? 4.5. Do you have (a) paid job(s) during the current #lecture period?*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE, IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *CH, FR, IT.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

- In Iceland, however, it can be observed that, although there is a difference in study load, there is no clear contrast in the percentage of working students. A slightly different situation applies to Georgia: here the number of hours that students spend on their studies hardly varies between social sciences and natural sciences, while the percentage of students who work is lower in social sciences than in natural sciences.

When comparing the time spent on study-related activities across all study programmes (Table B5.1), it becomes apparent that study programmes requiring a relatively large amount of time investment are 'natural sciences, mathematics, and statistics', 'ICTs', 'engineering, manufacturing, and construction', 'agriculture, forestry, fisheries, and veterinary', and 'health and welfare'. On the other side are the study programmes ('education', 'arts and humanities', 'social sciences, journalism, and information', 'business, administration, and law', and 'services'), where students spend fewer hours per week on their studies by comparison.

Comparing the time spent on taught studies by study years and type of institution (Table B5.2), becomes the number of hours students spend on their studies decreases as their degree progresses. This shows that the number of hours students spend on their studies decreases as their degree progresses. Where students attend an average of 16 hours a week in their first year, this drops to an average of 14 hours in the fourth year. The difference according to the type of institution is not the same for every country.

- While, in most countries, the number of hours of taught studies is higher at ● non-universities, this is not the case in the Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, or Slovenia, where the number of hours of taught studies is higher at ● universities.

- In Switzerland, Georgia, Croatia, Malta, Norway, and Poland, the number of hours students spend on taught studies is roughly equal at universities and non-universities.

Master students spend more hours per week on personal study time than Bachelor students.

Personal study time is compared between ○ Bachelor and ○ Master students (Figure B5.6). On average, students spend 18 hours per week on personal study time. Bachelor students tend to spend a slightly less (17 hours), whereas Master students spend on average 19 hours per week on personal study time.

- The difference in personal study time between Bachelor students (who spend less time) and Master students (who spend more time) is most obvious in Sweden, Denmark, the Netherlands, Norway, and Ireland.
- In Malta and Romania, the situation is reversed: Bachelor students in both countries tend to spend more time on personal study than Master students.
- In Iceland, Austria, Lithuania, Estonia, Georgia, and Poland, there is hardly any difference in personal study time between Bachelor and Master students.

One hour of personal study time is added for every year of study.

The number of hours spent on personal study time is also compared between students in different study years and by type of institution (Table B5.3). In most countries, students spend the least time on personal study in their first year as a student: on average 16 hours per week. Looking at the average, one hour of personal study time is added for every year of study.

- In some countries, the differences are more obvious. Comparing the personal study time of first- and fourth-year students, the difference is five hours and more in the Czech Republic, Ireland, Lithuania, and Malta. In Switzerland, Estonia, Georgia, the Netherlands, and Germany, the time spent on personal study is more or less stable over the different study years.

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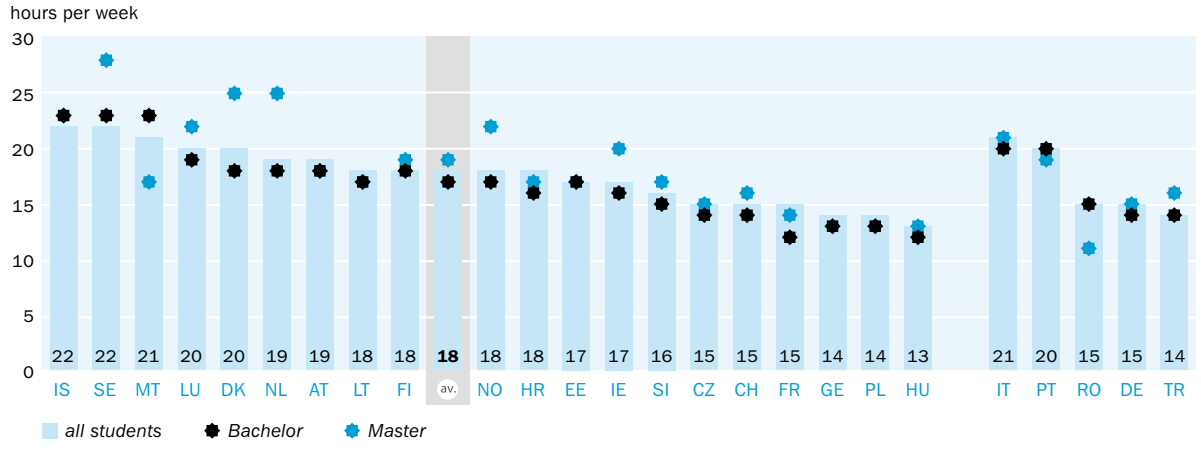
Figure B5.6 ⭳

Time spent on personal study in an average week by degree course

In hours per week (mean)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, H.32.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *3.4. How many hours do you spend in taught courses and on personal study time in a typical week during the current #lecture period?*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE, IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *CH, FR, IT.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

- Generally, students at universities spend more time on personal study (18 hours per week) than students at non-universities (15 hours per week). In Slovenia, the difference is more visible than in the other EUROSTUDENT countries (universities: 18 hours; non-universities: 11 hours). Considerable differences of around five hours can also be seen in Denmark and Croatia, however.

Satisfaction with time budget

The majority of students are dissatisfied with their weekly time budget.

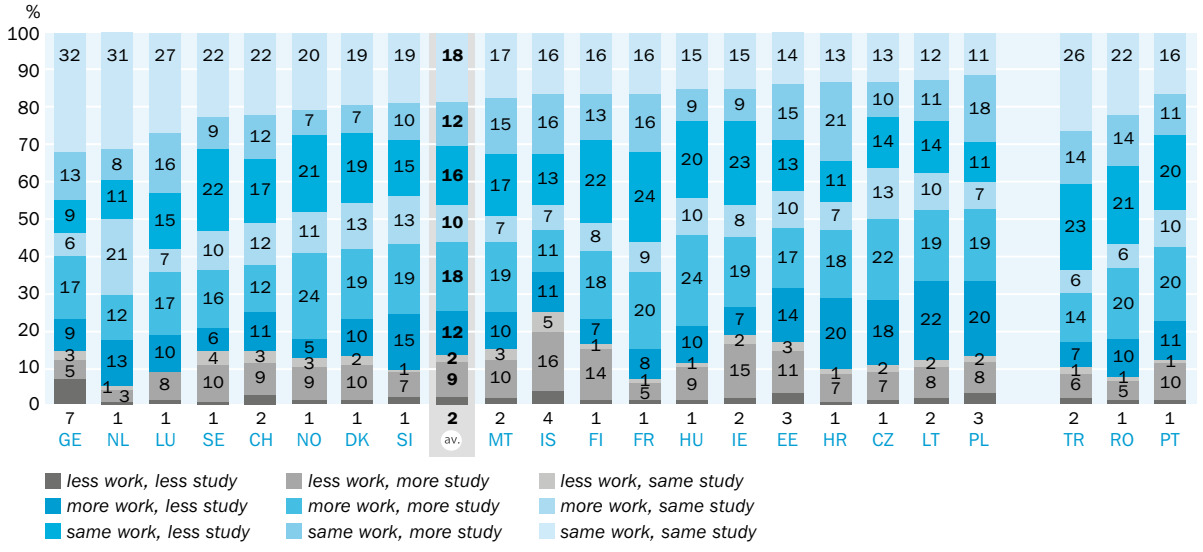
Four in five students in the EUROSTUDENT countries are dissatisfied with their weekly time budget (Figure B5.7). In total, 39 % indicate that they want to spend more time on their studies, whether in combination with an increase or decrease in the time spent on work. Moreover, 40 % would like to work more hours per week. Around one in five students would like to work and study more. One in three students indicate that they would rather spend less time on their studies, and 13 % would rather work less.

- Compared to students in other EUROSTUDENT countries, students in Georgia, the Netherlands, Luxembourg, and Turkey are most satisfied with their time budget: between one in four and one in three students in these countries indicate that they would not change anything. Students in Poland and Lithuania, on the other hand, are relatively unhappy: 90 % indicate that they would like to see some change in their time budget.
- Over 45 % of students in the Czech Republic, Lithuania, Poland, Slovenia, and the Netherlands would like to work more hours per week. In Iceland (25 %) and Ireland (19 %), the highest proportion of students would like to work less.

Figure B5.7

Students' satisfaction with their time budget

Share of students, in %



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, H.60.* ***No data:*** *AT, DE, IT.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *3.5. Looking at the time you spend on study-related activities and paid job(s) during the current #lecture period, please indicate if you would like to spend less or more time on the following activities: less – same – more / time on taught studies, personal study time and time on paid job(s).*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE, IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *DK.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

- When asked, around 45 % or more in Malta, Finland, Croatia, and Poland, would like to spend more time on their studies.

Time budget and study success

Students who spend more time on their studies are more confident about their study performance.

On EUROSTUDENT average, 45 % of students rate their study performance as better than that of fellow students (Figure B5.8). Of the students who spend more than 40 hours per week on study-related activities, 48 % believe that their study progress is better than that of fellow students, as opposed to 39 % of those who spend 20 hours or less per week on their studies.

- The increase in self-perceived study performance for students who spend more time studying is most evident in Georgia, Luxembourg, Austria, Norway, and Romania, where the proportion of students assessing their study performance as superior is between 15 and 21 percentage points higher for high-intensity students than for low-intensity students.
- In other countries, the time spent on study-related activities is less conclusive: in Lithuania, Poland, the Netherlands, Slovenia, and Estonia, the difference is less than five percentage points.

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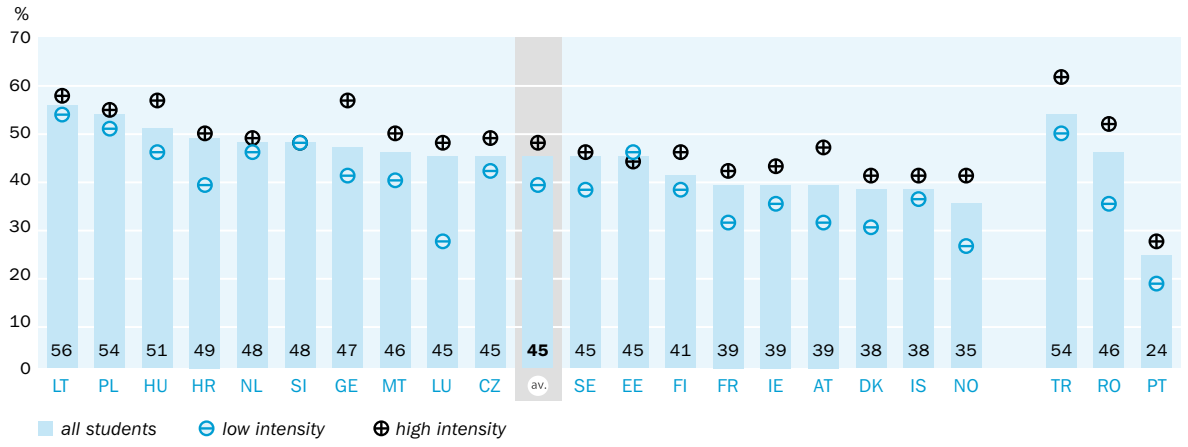
Almost every fifth student experiences study difficulties due to the combination of work and study.

The EUROSTUDENT survey asks students to what extent they experience difficulties in their studies because of their work (Figure B5.9). On average, 17 % of all students experience difficulties in their studies due to the obligations of their paid job. Students who work more than 20 hours per week are particularly affected. Of these, the proportion of students reporting difficulties more than doubles to 42 %.

Figure B5.8

Share of students who rate their study performance as better than that of fellow students, by study intensity

Share of students who estimate their study performance as somewhat or much better, in %



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, C.34.* ***No data:*** *CH, DE, IT.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *3.8. How would you rate your performance so far in your current #(main) study programme in comparison to that of your fellow students. Item adapted from Trautwein et al. (2007).*

Note(s): *Low intensity students spend between 0 and 20 hours a week on study-related activities, and high intensity students spend more than 40 hours a week on study-related activities.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE, IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

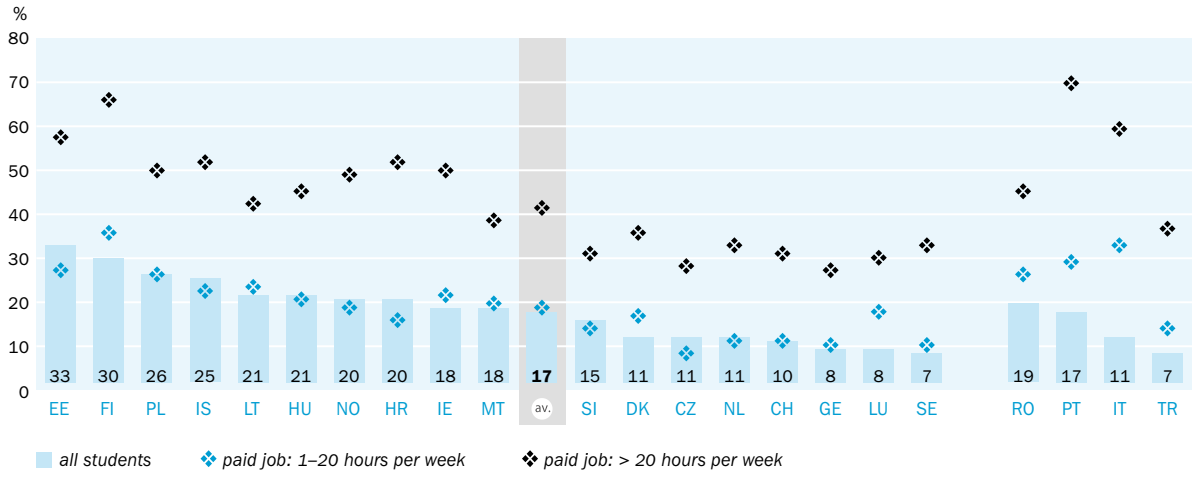
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *AT, DK, NO.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Figure B5.9

Difficulties due to job obligation by extent of working

Self-assessed experience of current difficulties in studies due to job obligation, share of students, in %



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, C.7.* ***No data:*** *DE, FR.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *3.1. During the current #lecture period, are you experiencing any difficulties in your current #(main) study programme due to any of the following? ['Yes, due to financial difficulties']*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE, IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

B 5

- In Estonia, Finland, Poland, Iceland, Croatia, Ireland, Portugal, and Italy, more than half of the students who work more than 20 hours per week report that they encounter difficulties in their studies due to their paid job.
- In the Czech Republic and Georgia, on the other hand, just above a quarter of the students who work more than 20 hours experience these problems. Students who work because they otherwise could not afford to study (> *Chapter B6*) are disproportionately likely to report experiencing difficulties in their studies because of their job.

Students who work do not consider dropping out more often than students without a paid job.

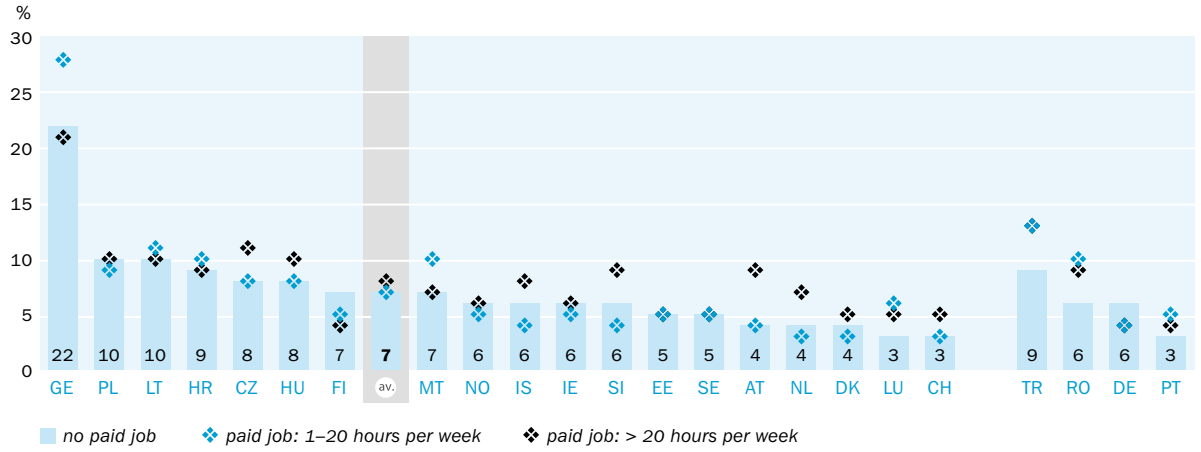
Despite the larger proportion of students with a relatively time-consuming job who experience problems in their studies, no major differences can be found in the percentage of students who indicate that they are seriously considering dropping out of the study programme (Figure B5.10). For the EUROSTUDENT average, 7 % of students without a job are considering dropping out, whereas this figure is the same for those with a more casual job (< 20 hours) and 8 % for students with a large job (21 hours and more). In some countries, however, students appear to struggle fairly often.

- The percentage indicating that they want to drop out of the study programme is relatively high in Georgia. The share of students who intend to do so is highest among students with a more casual job of maximum 20 hours per week. This pattern can also be observed in Lithuania, Croatia, Malta, Luxembourg, and Portugal.
- In Finland, students without a job are more likely to consider abandoning their studies than other Finnish students.
- In the Czech Republic, Iceland, Slovenia, Austria, and the Netherlands, the proportion of students considering dropping out is highest among the group who work more than 20 hours in addition to their studies.

Figure B5.10

Intention to drop out of current (main) study programme by time spent on work

(Strong) agreement with the statement 'I am seriously thinking of completely abandoning my higher education studies', share of students, in %



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, C.26.* ***No data:*** *DE, FR, IT.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *3.6. Generally, to what extent do you agree with the following thoughts regarding your studies? [I am seriously thinking of completely abandoning my higher education studies]. Item adapted from Trautwein et al. (2007).*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE, IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *DK, EE.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

B 5

Discussion and policy considerations

The findings in this chapter clearly show that students are busy: for most students, the time spent each week on study and work corresponds to more than a full-time job of 47 hours per week on average. Time pressure is not equal for all students. The weekly workload in hours of those who combine studying with a relatively time-intensive job is (much) higher than students without a job: 62 versus 38 hours per week. Students can spend their time only once, which means they have to make choices, both for the long and the short term (Becker, 1965). And although students can benefit from working in the sense that it will finance their living expenses in the short term (> *Chapter B6*), and might open up better labour market opportunities over the long term, a higher amount of time spent on work comes at the expense of both the time they can devote to their studies as well as their free time. The latter is certainly not unimportant for the well-being of students (Carney et al., 2005, Creed et al., 2015; Shankland et al., 2019), while the time spent on studying will be reflected in their study results, as was also noted by Darolia (2014) and Apolinarski and Gwosć (2020).

This chapter shows the struggle: self-perceived study performance is under pressure when students spend less time on their studies, whereas having a (time-consuming) job can lead to difficulties in their studies due to job obligations. Most students (82 %) would like to change at least one aspect of their current time budget. If they had the chance, 39 % would spend more time on their studies and 40 % would (also) prefer to spend more time working.

Another finding in this chapter concerns the differences between study settings: the time requirements are not the same in all study programmes and institutions. The natural sciences necessitate more time for both the taught studies and personal study time than most other study programmes, while studying social sciences, for example, puts considerably less pressure on the time that students have at their disposal. In most countries, studying at a university gives students more 'autonomy' to plan their own time: students have fewer classes to attend and are expected to spend more time studying by themselves, compared to students in non-universities.

This leads to the question: are all study programmes and degrees realistically accessible, that is, manageable for all students or should more attention be paid to students who have to combine work and study? It is clear that a more heterogeneous student population (> *Chapter B1*) places new demands on higher education. Greater flexibility and, where possible, also recognition of knowledge acquired in the work environment is essential in making higher education more accessible and aligning it with the demands placed on students today. Unger and Zaussinger (2018) point out that flexibility is needed in the form and place of education, inter alia. This is already being implemented in several European countries, for example by being able to take part in part-time or dual studies, and the recognition of work experience for access to and/or credits in the study programme itself. However, the way it is done differs by country, institution, and often even study programme. The lessons learned during the COVID-19 pandemic can also help to reorganise education in such a way that time spent on taught studies is also increasingly flexible (blended learning). This gives students more and more control over their daily schedule. However, it is important to keep in mind that not every student has the skills to manage their study and planning. And of course, there is also a limit to the degree of flexibility that institutions can offer. With still a great deal to be learned, Unger and Zaussinger (2018) plead the case for a more structured approach (in individual countries and at European level), in which knowledge is shared through peer learning on what works and what does not and, where the potential effects of more flexibility on learning outcomes are also taken into account.

Tables

Table B5.1

Time spent on study-related activities by field of study

Hours per week

	All students	Field of study									
		Education	Arts and humanities	Social sciences, journalism, and information	Business, administration, and law	Natural sciences, mathematics, and statistics	ICTs	Engineering, manufacturing, and construction	Agriculture, forestry, fisheries, and veterinary	Health and welfare	Services
AT	30	28	26	24	29	31	31	34	33	40	28
CH	36	31	33	31	32	42	39	44	42	39	37
CZ	32	28	32	28	27	35	33	36	33	44	26
DK	36	32	33	32	33	40	35	42	38	38	38
EE	34	32	34	29	33	37	33	33	39	41	32
FI	30	29	30	26	26	32	28	30	30	34	28
FR	35	31	31	30	33	41	32	37	35	47	27
GE	27	30	29	26	26	29	26	16	21	35	26
HR	36	38	36	34	30	44	31	43	37	40	33
HU	30	30	30	26	24	35	28	34	36	41	26
IE	34	31	33	30	29	38	36	37	41	41	30
IS	36	29	31	33	31	42	46	45	t.f.c.	43	n.d.
LT	35	32	38	31	31	38	34	33	37	41	33
LU	39	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	32	38	t.f.c.	42	37	t.f.c.	47	t.f.c.
MT	36	33	34	33	31	46	38	46	t.f.c.	43	34
NL	35	35	38	33	32	40	35	39	40	37	33
NO	31	26	31	27	29	37	34	41	36	33	34
PL	34	31	35	29	28	39	33	39	35	43	30
SE	34	28	27	32	30	36	34	39	39	37	31
SI	35	32	38	33	28	39	34	38	44	43	29
av.	**34**	**31**	**33**	**30**	**30**	**38**	**34**	**37**	**36**	**40**	**31**
DE	25	26	22	24	22	27	25	25	25	28	20
IT	38	31	35	34	38	40	39	42	40	43	35
PT	40	35	40	38	39	43	38	41	42	47	37
RO	37	34	40	34	32	37	39	37	34	44	n.d.
TR	32	30	33	28	29	34	33	35	35	35	27

n.d.: no data. t.f.c.: too few cases.

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, H.17.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *3.4. How many hours do you spend in taught courses and on personal study time in a typical week during the current #lecture period?*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE, IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Table B5.2

Time spent on taught studies by study year and type of HEI

Hours per week

	All students	Study year						Type of HEI	
		1st year	2nd year	3rd year	4th year	5th year	6th year	University	Non-university
AT	12	14	13	12	10	9	8	10	18
CH	21	23	22	21	19	18	17	21	22
CZ	17	18	18	16	14	15	14	17	15
DK	16	18	16	n.d.	16	15	13	14	20
EE	17	19	17	15	12	17	t.f.c.	16	21
FI	12	14	14	11	9	8	6	10	13
FR	21	0	0	0	0	0	0	19	25
GE	13	13	13	12	12	10	11	12	13
HR	18	20	19	18	18	18	14	18	18
HU	17	18	17	16	17	17	19	18	15
IE	18	17	18	19	17	20	19	17	19
IS	14	15	14	15	14	15	18	14	n/a
LT	17	17	18	17	16	13	11	15	20
LU	20	21	21	20	14	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	18	30
MT	16	15	16	16	19	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	15	16
NL	17	18	17	16	15	12	10	15	18
NO	14	14	14	13	13	10	12	13	14
PL	20	21	20	20	20	16	17	20	19
SE	11	12	12	10	12	9	14	11	n/a
SI	19	20	17	17	19	17	t.f.c.	20	16
av.	**16**	**16**	**16**	**15**	**14**	**13**	**13**	**16**	**18**
DE	10	11	11	10	8	8	8	10	10
IT	17	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	17	n/a
PT	20	20	20	21	22	21	19	20	22
RO	22	21	21	23	24	26	25	22	n/a
TR	19	18	19	19	19	19	18	18	20

n.d.: no data. t.f.c.: too few cases. n/a: not applicable.

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, H.26.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *3.4. How many hours do you spend in taught courses and on personal study time in a typical week during the current #lecture period?*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE, IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Table B5.3

Time spent on personal study time by study year and type of HEI

Hours per week

	All students	Study year						Type of HEI	
		1st year	2nd year	3rd year	4th year	5th year	6th year	University	Non-university
AT	19	17	19	20	20	21	20	19	15
CH	15	14	15	15	14	15	17	16	12
CZ	15	13	14	15	18	20	27	16	12
DK	20	18	20	n.d.	20	21	23	22	17
EE	17	17	17	17	18	18	t.f.c.	17	16
FI	18	16	17	19	20	20	18	20	16
FR	15	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	16	12
GE	14	14	14	14	14	15	12	14	14
HR	18	15	18	17	18	18	23	19	13
HU	13	12	13	13	14	16	16	14	10
IE	17	15	15	17	22	25	27	17	14
IS	22	20	23	26	24	21	t.f.c.	22	n/a
LT	18	14	16	18	19	22	22	19	16
LU	20	23	19	18	21	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	20	21
MT	21	19	21	21	29	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	21	19
NL	19	19	19	19	20	20	20	22	17
NO	18	15	18	20	19	27	27	19	16
PL	14	13	14	14	16	17	16	15	10
SE	22	20	22	25	24	29	27	22	n/a
SI	16	15	16	18	18	18	t.f.c.	18	11
av.	**17**	**16**	**17**	**18**	**19**	**20**	**21**	**18**	**15**
DE	15	15	15	15	14	15	15	15	13
IT	21	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	21	n/a
PT	20	20	21	21	22	22	23	22	18
RO	15	14	14	16	17	18	19	15	n/a
TR	14	13	13	14	15	15	15	13	17

n.d.: no data. t.f.c.: too few cases. n/a: not applicable.

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, H.32.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *3.4. How many hours do you spend in taught courses and on personal study time in a typical week during the current #lecture period?*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE, IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Chapter B6
Students' employment and internships

Key

Employment

Almost 80 % of the students in the EUROSTUDENT countries combine studying with one or more paid job(s). Around 60 % of all students work during term time. The highest shares of working students can be found in the Czech Republic, Iceland, Norway, Slovenia, the Netherlands, Romania and Turkey (85 % and over), while working is least common in Georgia (46 %) and Portugal (49 %).

Employment by educational background

Students whose parents have not attended tertiary education more often work only during the lecture period, whereas students with a tertiary education background tend to work only during the lecture-free period. This difference is most pronounced in Malta, Hungary, and Poland.

Reasons for working

Over half of students work to cover living costs (68 %), to afford things they otherwise would not buy (65 %), and/or to gain experience on the labour market (57 %). Half of all working students combine studying with a paid job because they would not be able to study otherwise. Of the students whose parents are financially not at all well-off, 73 % work to fund their studies.

findings

Student or worker

One in every five students would describe themselves first and foremost as a worker. In Malta, Poland, Estonia, and Hungary, this applies to even one in every three students. In the Netherlands, Georgia, Luxembourg, Sweden, Denmark, Turkey, and Italy, most students (90 % and more) identify primarily as students.

Income from paid job(s)

On average, the earnings of students who work during the lecture period make up two thirds of their income. In Malta, Estonia, the Czech Republic, and Slovenia, both the importance of the paid job for students' income and the percentage of working students is above average.

Internships

On average, 43 % of students have completed an internship during their studies in higher education (HE), mostly in the country where they are studying. Internships are more common at non-universities than at universities. Most internships are unpaid (67 %) and mandatory (73 %). On EUROSTUDENT average, mandatory internships are most common in the fields of 'health and welfare' (87 %), and 'education' (86 %).

Main issues

Student life often involves more than just studying. Combining studying with paid employment is becoming increasingly widespread in Europe (Masevičiūtė et al., 2018). Furthermore, work is often a part of study programmes in the form of internships. This chapter focuses on working students and internships.

Employment

The previous chapter already showed that time spent on work often comes at the expense of time spent studying (> *Chapter* B5). The current chapter further explores which students work and for what reasons. Reasoning from the Human Capital Theory (Becker, 1962), a job ensures that students build up 'capital' in the form of practical knowledge of the profession, work experience as such, and practical life skills. These skills can help students in finding a (more suitable) job after graduation, with a higher salary, while reducing the risk of unemployment (Jackson et al., 2017; Irwin et al., 2019; Neill et al. 2004). At the same time, a job means that students can focus less on their studies (Creed et al., 2015; Callander et al., 2015; Keute, 2017; Moulin et al., 2013; Masevičiūtė et al., 2018). Looking into the relationship between employment, study duration, and benefits for the transition to the labour market, Franzen et al. (2002) conclude that, although part-time employment extends the study duration slightly, it significantly reduces the time required to find a job after graduation if the gainful employment is related to the content of the study programme. However, the interplay between working and academic performance is not always in one direction: it may indicate both struggling and outstanding students. Students who might fear not being able to finish their studies may decide to start working since it makes more sense with regard to their future, while students who are doing very well in their studies may decide to work alongside (Moulin, 2013).

Working alongside studying is also a twofold signal for an employer: on the one hand, it can be seen as an advantage that students were able to complete their studies while successfully holding down a job and, on the other hand, as a disadvantage that students may not have been fully committed to their studies, especially when the job is not related (Baert et al., 2015).

The first part of this chapter focuses on the social dimension of students' employment: who works, why, and how important is their job for their overall budget?

Internships

The employability of graduates is one of the focal points in the Bologna Process as mentioned in the Bologna Process Implementation Report 2018, for example "[...]one prevalent way to ensure that graduates gain the necessary competences is to include work placements in higher education programmes" (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2018). The second topic of this chapter therefore focuses on these work placements or internships. As part of a study programme, internships are designed to be the bridge from the world of education to the world of work, thereby improving the employability of students (Knouse et al., 1999). Students may benefit from doing an internship in various ways. In addition to being able to apply their theoretical knowledge in a real-life situation, it also allows them to acquire practical work skills and start building a network early, giving them the opportunity to gain access to a job faster after finishing their studies (Silva et al. 2016). Work-related learning environments (internships or work placements

as part of the study programme) have also proved to be useful, especially for developing entrepreneurial and social skills (Meng et al., 2020). Although Bittmann and Zorn (2020) find no effect of mandatory internships on labour market outcomes, they do for voluntary placements that were organised extracurricularly. Furthermore, students can benefit from an internship in their studies with regard to their academic outcomes (Mergoupis, 2019). Meng et al. (2020) show that having completed an internship or other study-related work experience during the study period reduces the probability of having a (very) weak job position one year after graduation, although the probability of being unemployed does not appear to be reduced in itself by an internship or study-related work experience.

Not only students benefit, both higher education institutions (HEIs) and firms also profit from the closer cooperation between education and the labour market from the perspective of exchange of knowledge, innovation, and, in the case of the HEIs, additional funding for research, and for companies, early selection and 'testing' of possible new employees (Franco et al., 2019). Companies can assess graduate employability more realistically if students have undertaken extracurricular activities (Irwin et al., 2019).

In 2016, almost all countries in the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) had regulations or incentives to include practical training and work placements for at least some HEIs and/or programmes. However, monitoring the proportion of students who complete an internship is not common yet (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2018). EUROSTUDENT VII fills this gap by providing comparable European insights into the frequency and types of student internships.

Methodological and conceptual notes

The employment rate describes the extent of ○ paid employment during the lecture period. In calculating the employment rate, both jobs performed from time to time during the semester and jobs kept during the whole semester are taken into account. The focus group distinguishes between students who do not work during the semester, students working in paid jobs up to 20 hours per week, and students working in paid jobs more than 20 hours per week.

○ Internships refer to a period of work experience as part of a study programme (excluding practical courses or lab exercises at the HEI). The main purpose of an internship is gaining practical experience on the labour market.

Data and interpretation

Students with paid jobs

60 % of students work during the lecture period.

On average, almost 80 % of students in the EUROSTUDENT countries have a paid job; around 60 % directly combine work and study by working during the ○ lecture period; 18 % work only during the ○ lecture-free period (Figure B6.1).

- Across countries, the highest proportions of working students can be found in the Czech Republic (92 %), Iceland (89 %), Norway (87 %), Slovenia (86 %), the Netherlands (85 %), Romania, and Turkey (both 100 %).

- In Luxembourg (60 %), Georgia (46 %), and Portugal (49 %), students are least likely to have a paid job.
- Working only outside the lecture period is relatively common in Finland (27 %), Sweden (30 %), and Turkey (47 %), while most of the working students in the Netherlands and Romania work at least during the lecture period, often in combination with working during the lecture-free period.

Table B6.1 compares students' employment rate during the lecture period between students of different age groups, between Bachelor and Master students, and between students either receiving or not receiving public support. The older students are, the more likely they are to work alongside their studies. On EUROSTUDENT average, just under half of students under 22 have a paid job during the lecture period. By the time students reach the age of 30 or over, 77 % of students combine studying with a paid job.

In line with the usually older age of Master students, more (on average 71 %) tend to have a paid job than Bachelor students (on average 57 %).

Students who receive public support less often work during the lecture period.

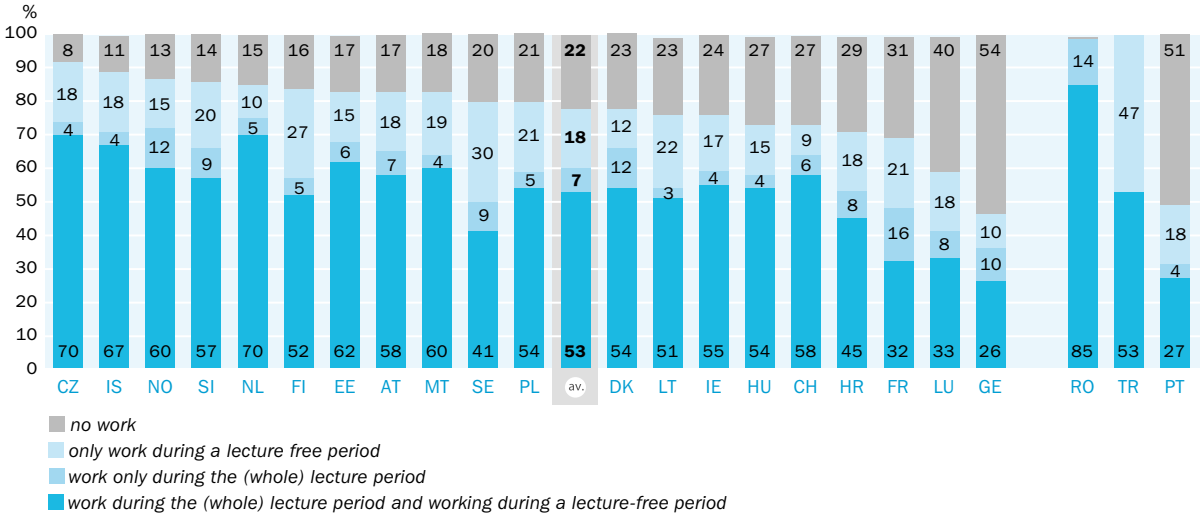
The necessity to work seems to be less pronounced for students who receive public student support: on EUROSTUDENT average, 51 % of these students work during the lecture period. In the group of students who do not receive public support, 67 % combine studying and working during the lecture period.

B 6

Figure B6.1

Students' employment during the lecture period and the lecture-free period

Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, H.3.* ***No data:*** *DE, IT.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.5. Do you have (a) paid job(s) during the current #lecture period? 4.10. Did you have (a) paid job(s) during the #lecture-free period/holidays during the last 12 months?*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE, IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *CH, FR, RO, TR.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, PL.*

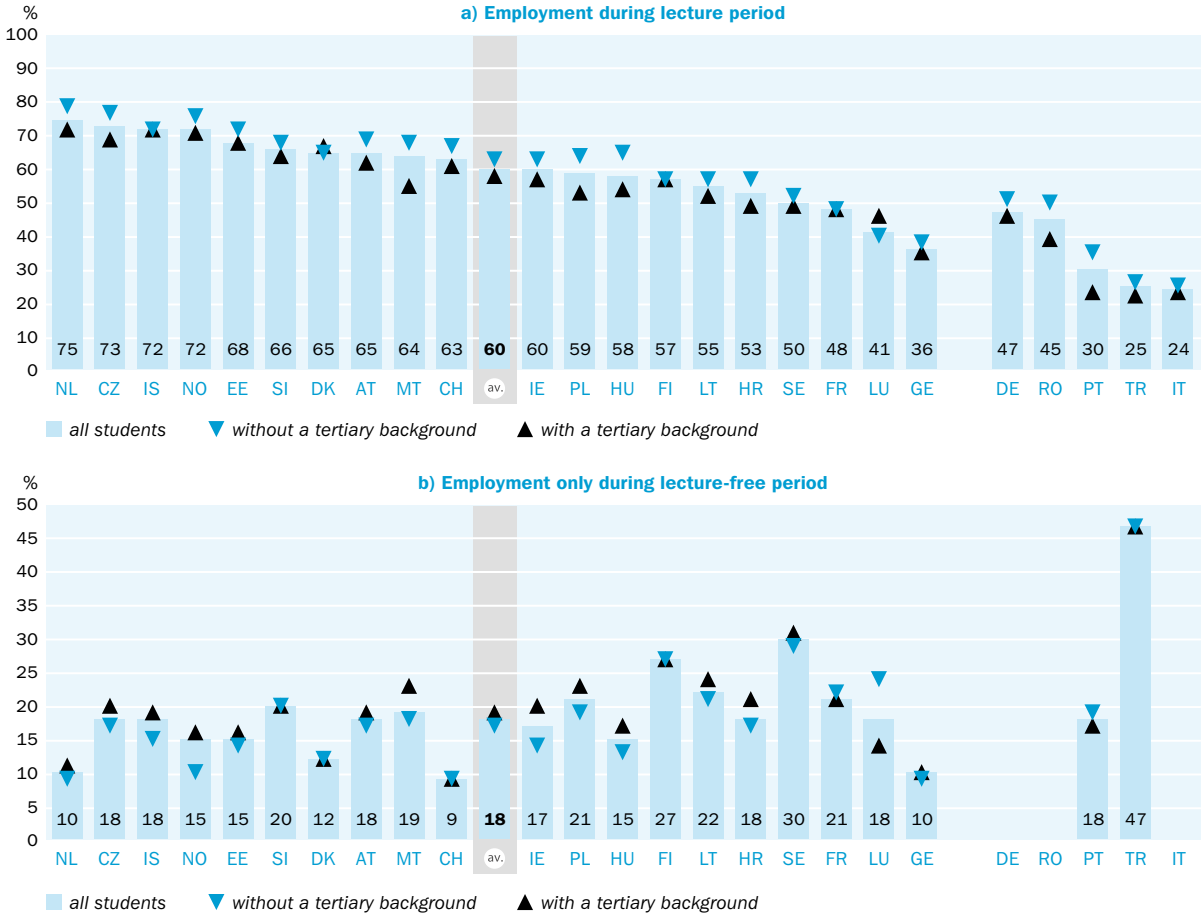
Students of parents without a tertiary education work more often during the lecture period (Figure B6.2). With regard to students who work only during the lecture-free period, it appears that the ratio is reversed: in this case, students relatively often have parents with tertiary education.

- In Iceland, Denmark, Finland, and France, the differences between students based on their educational background are minor or even non-existent.
- In Malta, Poland, and Hungary, the gap between students with and without tertiary educated parents is larger than in the other EUROSTUDENT countries.

Figure B6.2

Students' employment during the lecture period and the lecture-free period by educational background

Share of students with (a) paid job(s) (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, H.1, H.3.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.5. Do you have (a) paid job(s) during the current #lecture period? 4.10. Did you have (a) paid job(s) during the #lecture-free period/holidays during the last 12 months?*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE, IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

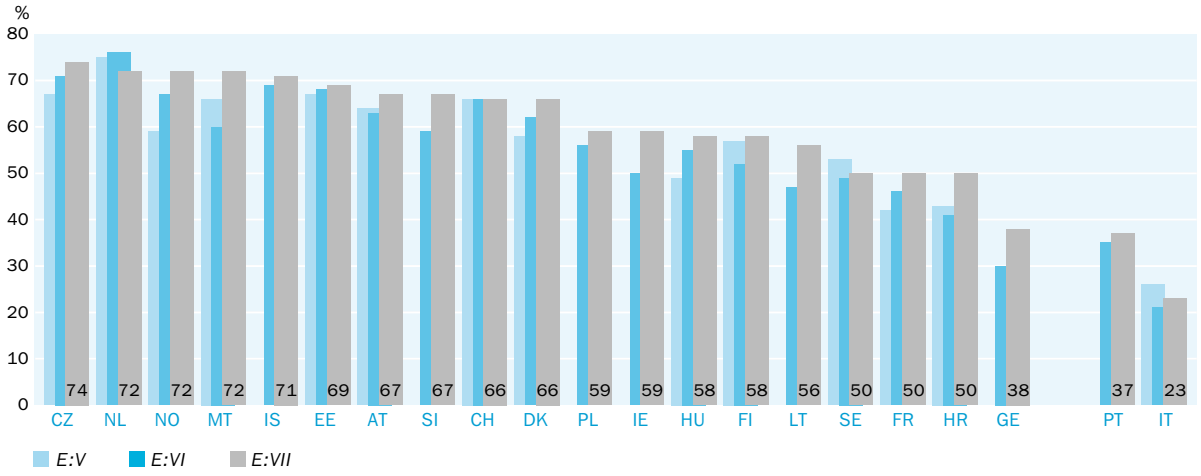
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *DE, CH, RO, FR, IT.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, PL.*

Figure B6.3

Students' employment during the lecture period in EUROSTUDENT V, VI, and VII

Share of students (in %), only students not living with parents



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT V, H.1, EUROSTUDENT VII, H.31, EUROSTUDENT VII, H.1.* ***Data not comparable over time:*** *IE, LT, PT, RO.* ***No data for E:V:*** *GE, IS.* ***No data for E:V and E:VI:*** *LU, TR.* ***No data for E:VII:*** *DE.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.5. Do you have (a) paid job(s) during the current #lecture period?*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE, IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *CH, FR.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *E:V: DE, GE, IT; E:VI: DE, IE, IT; E:VII: DE, IE, PL.*

B 6

There have been changes in the percentage of students with a paid job during the lecture period over three rounds of EUROSTUDENT (Figure B6.3).

- In most countries, the proportion of working students has been steadily increasing.
- In Malta, Slovenia, Ireland, Lithuania, and Croatia, the proportion of working students has risen the most since EUROSTUDENT VI, with around 10 percentage points.
- In comparison to EUROSTUDENT V, the share of working students has decreased slightly (three percentage points) in the Netherlands and Sweden.

Study-related jobs

The majority of students' jobs are not related to their studies.

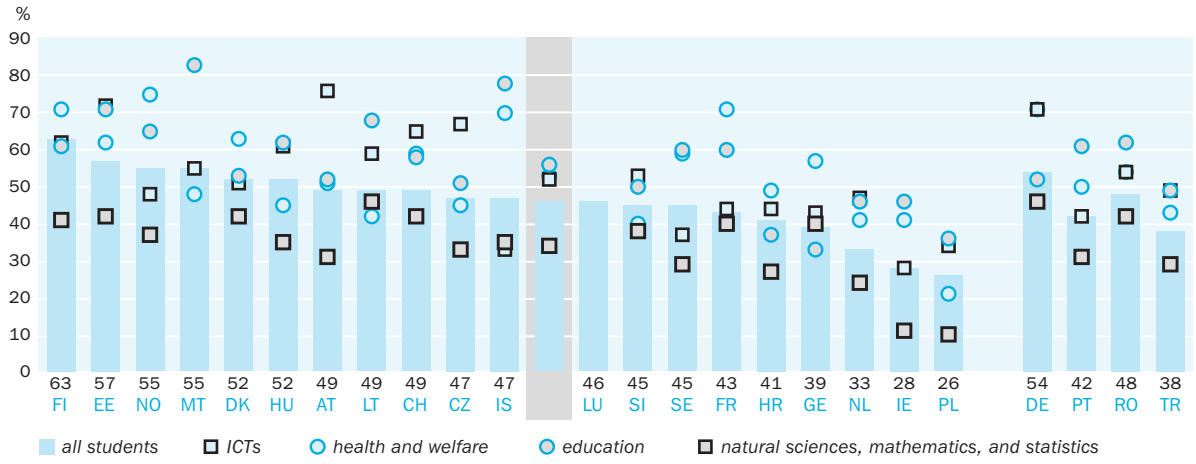
A closer look at the students in paid employment shows that less than half have a job related to their studies (Figure B6.4). On EUROSTUDENT average, students studying 'education' (56 %), 'health and welfare' (53 %), and ICTs (52 %) most often have a job that is related to their studies, while working students in 'natural sciences, mathematics, and statistics' (34 %) are least likely to have a job that is related to their studies. At the country level, the following patterns emerge:

- In Finland, Estonia, Norway, Malta, Denmark, Hungary, and Germany, more than half of working students have a study-related job.
- In the Netherlands, Ireland, and Poland, less than a third of working students have a job related to their studies.
- Looking at the different ○ fields of study, Maltese students in 'education' subjects most often work in a paid job close to their study subject (83 %), while this is least common for Polish students in 'natural sciences, mathematics, and statistics' (10 %).

Figure B6.4

Study-related jobs by field of study

Share of working students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, H.6.* ***No data:*** *IT.* ***Too few cases:*** *LU (field of study).*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.8. How closely related is/are your paid job(s) to the content of your current study programme?*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE, IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *AT, DK, FR.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, PL.*

B 6

Reasons for working

Every second student works because they otherwise would not be able to afford studying.

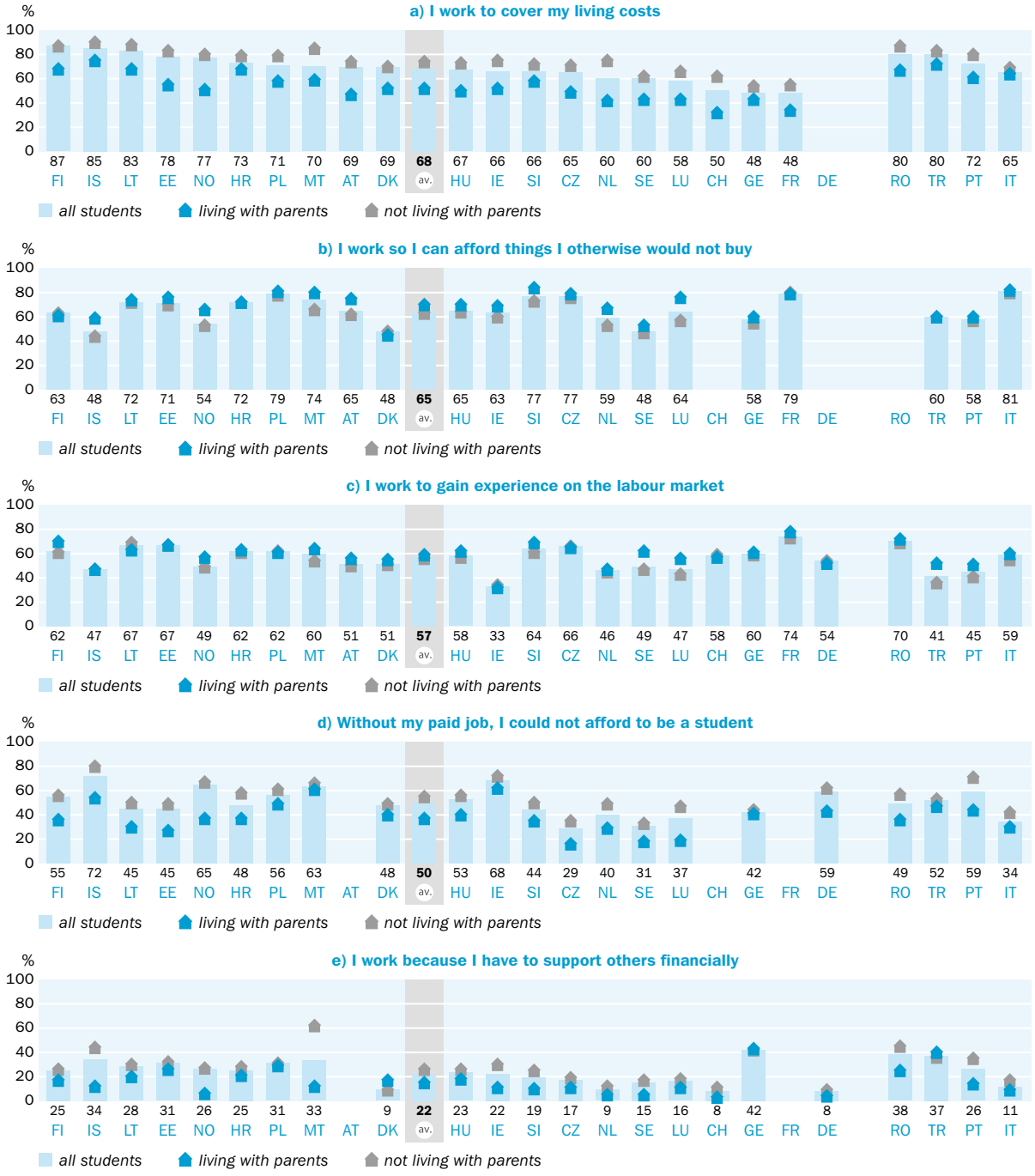
Why do students work? In the most frequently listed order, students give the following reasons for working alongside their studies (Figure B6.5): to cover their living costs (68 %), to afford things they otherwise would not buy (65 %), to gain experience on the labour market (57 %), because they would not be able to afford to study without their paid job (50 %), and to support others (22 %). Working out of necessity (to cover living costs, to be able to afford to study, and/or to support others) is most common for students who no longer live at home. Students who live with their parents tend to work to have some discretionary money to pay for things they usually would not buy. Looking at differences between countries, the following patterns can be observed:

- Working to cover living costs is most common in Finland, Iceland, Lithuania (all over 80 %), and least common in Switzerland (50 %), Georgia (48 %), and France (48 %).
- Working to afford things students otherwise would not buy is most often cited by students in Poland, Slovenia, the Czech Republic, and France (close to 80 %), and least often by students in Iceland, Denmark, and Sweden (all 48 %).
- Gaining experience on the labour market as a reason to combine studying with a paid job is most common (for around two thirds of working students) in Lithuania, Estonia, France, and Romania, and least cited by working students in Ireland (33 %), Turkey (41 %), and Portugal (45 %).
- Students who indicate that the money they earn from their jobs is necessary to be able to study at all are relatively overrepresented, compared to the other countries, in Iceland (72 %), Norway (65 %), and Ireland (68 %). In the Czech Republic (29 %), Sweden (31 %), and Italy (34 %) this is less often a reason to have a paid job.

Figure B6.5

Reasons for working by basic form of housing

Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, H.5.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.7. To what extent do the following statements apply to your situation? a) I work to cover my living costs, b) I work to gain experience on the labour market, c) Without my paid job, I could not afford to be a student, d) I work because I have to support others financially (children, partner, parents etc.), e) I work so I can afford things I otherwise would not buy.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *AT, CH, DE, DK, EE, FR, IT, RO.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, PL.*

- Working to support others is most common in Georgia (42 %), Romania (38 %), and Turkey (37 %), and least common in Denmark, the Netherlands, Switzerland, and Germany (all less than 10 %).

A comparison of students by their parental educational background and their parents' financial status further explores those students who would not be able to afford to study without a paid job (Table B6.2). On average, working students with parents who also studied in tertiary education less often indicate that they work to be able to study than students with parents who did not (45 % vs. 56 %).

- The differences are particularly marked (around 20 percentage points) in Croatia, Hungary, Poland, Portugal, and Turkey.

The necessity to work to afford studying is lower for students with wealthier parents.

The wealthier their parents, the less likely it is that students work to be able to study. On EUROSTUDENT average, of the group of students whose parents are very well-off, 32 % indicate that they work to fund their studies. By contrast, 73 % of students whose parents are not at all well-off work to pay for their studies.

- In this case, the differences between these two groups are the largest (at least 50 percentage points) in the Czech Republic, Germany, Croatia, the Netherlands, and Slovenia.

Self-perception: worker or student?

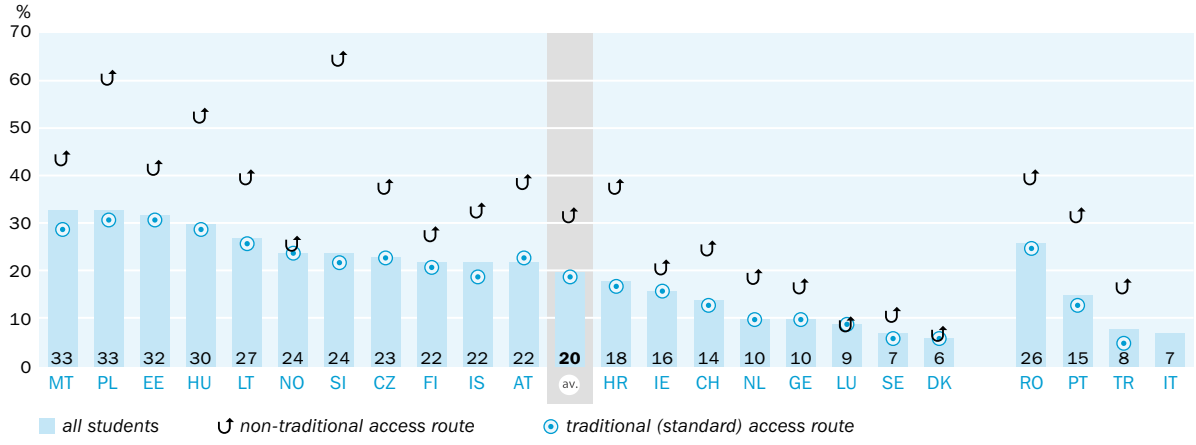
On average, one in every five students describes themselves first and foremost as a worker rather than a student (Figure B6.6).

- The highest percentage of students identifying as workers can be found in Malta, Poland, Estonia, and Hungary, where around one in three students self-identifies primarily as a worker.

Figure B6.6

Self-identification primarily as a worker by access route

Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, H.4.* ***No data:*** *DE, FR.* ***No data for access routes:*** *IT.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.9. Which of the following describes your current situation best? 1) Primarily I am a student, and I am working alongside my studies, 2) Primarily I work, and I am studying alongside my paid job(s).*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE, IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *DE, HU.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, PL.*

- The Netherlands, Georgia, Luxembourg, Sweden, Denmark, Turkey, and Italy are on the other side of the spectrum. In these countries, 90 % or more consider themselves to be primarily students.

Students who have entered higher education via an ◉ alternative access route more often perceive themselves as workers and not as students: 32 % versus 19 % of students who enter higher education via a ◉ traditional (standard) access route.

- Looking at the differences based on the access route into higher education, it is remarkable that, in a few countries (Norway, Luxembourg, Denmark), the difference is a great deal smaller (even non-existent) than in other countries (Poland, Slovenia).

Income from paid job

Half of the income of all working students (and 64 % of those working during lecture period) consists of job earnings.

How much do students earn from their paid jobs and how important is this income for their total budget? Although students' income is discussed in detail in > *Chapter B7*, this section takes a first look at the income that students generate with their jobs. On average, half the income of all working students (both working during and/or outside the lecture period) consists of earnings from their paid job. The median amount students earn (in PPS: Purchasing Power Standard, > *Chapter B7*) differs amongst countries, with a EUROSTUDENT median of 557 PPS (Figure B6.7).

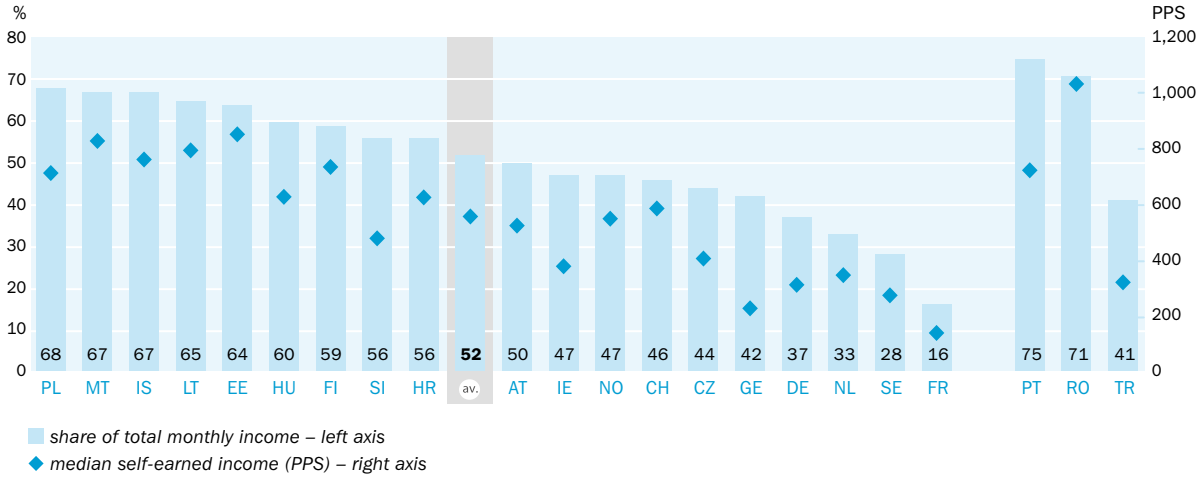
- Job earnings are relatively important for the total income of students in Poland, Malta, Iceland, Lithuania, Estonia, Portugal, and Romania. In these countries, income from their job accounts for at least two thirds of their total income.

B 6

Figure B6.7 ⬇

Students' income from their current paid job

The median monthly self-earned income of all students with paid jobs (in PPS) and as a share of their total monthly income incl. transfers in kind (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, G.126.* ***No data:*** *DK, IT, LU.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.16. What is the average monthly amount available to you in cash or via #bank transfers from the following sources during the current #lecture period?*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *FR, SI.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, PL.*

- In the Netherlands, Sweden, and France, job earnings are less important for a student's budget; in these countries, this income makes up one third or less of students' total income.
- In Estonia, Malta, and Romania, the median income of working students in PPS is the highest (over 800 PPS), compared to the other EUROSTUDENT countries.
- In Ireland, Georgia, the Netherlands, Sweden, and Turkey, the median income is comparatively low (less than 400 PPS).

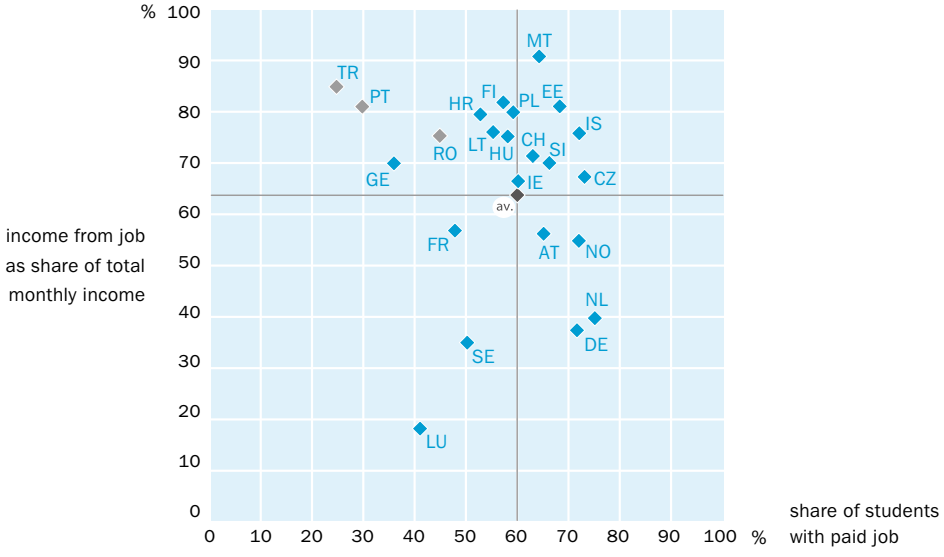
The importance of working alongside studying with regard to students' budgets is shown by combining the proportion of students with a paid job during the lecture period and the income generated by that job as a percentage of students' total income (Figure B6.8). The higher the position in the right upper corner of this matrix, the more hours students work during the lecture period and are largely dependent on their income from that job.

- In the top right corner are six countries: Malta, Estonia, Iceland, the Czech Republic, Switzerland, and Slovenia. The percentage of working students is high in these countries and the share of the money they earn from their job is an important part of their income.

Figure B6.8

Share of students with a paid job and students' income from current paid job as share of total monthly income

Share of students and share of monthly income (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, G126, G127.* ***No data:*** *DK, IT.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.5. Do you have (a) paid job(s) during the current #lecture period? 4.16. What is the average monthly amount available to you in cash or via #bank transfers from the following sources during the current #lecture period?*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *CH, SI.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, PL.*

- Austria, Norway, Germany, and the Netherlands are in the bottom right corner. The percentage of working students is high in these countries but the importance of the job for their total budget is considerably less. These are the countries where students usually work a relatively small number of hours per week (> *Chapter B5*).
- At the bottom left are Luxembourg, Sweden, and France. Here, the number of students who work is low and the proportion of income formed by earnings from their employment is low compared to other countries.
- In Finland, Poland, Hungary, Lithuania, Croatia, Georgia, Turkey, Portugal, and Romania, located in the top left corner, a relatively small number of students work but their salary constitutes a significant part of their income.
- Ireland scores in the middle: the proportion of working students and the proportion of job earnings of total income correspond closely to the EUROSTUDENT average.

Internships

43 % of all students have done an internship during their studies, most of the time within the country, sometimes (also) abroad.

For the first time in EUROSTUDENT history, more extensive information has been collected regarding internships as part of study programmes in higher education. On average, 43 % of students in the EUROSTUDENT countries have completed an internship at some point in their studies (Figure B6.9). The majority (40 %) do so in the country where they are studying, whereas a small part (also) goes abroad (5 %). The differences between countries are considerable:

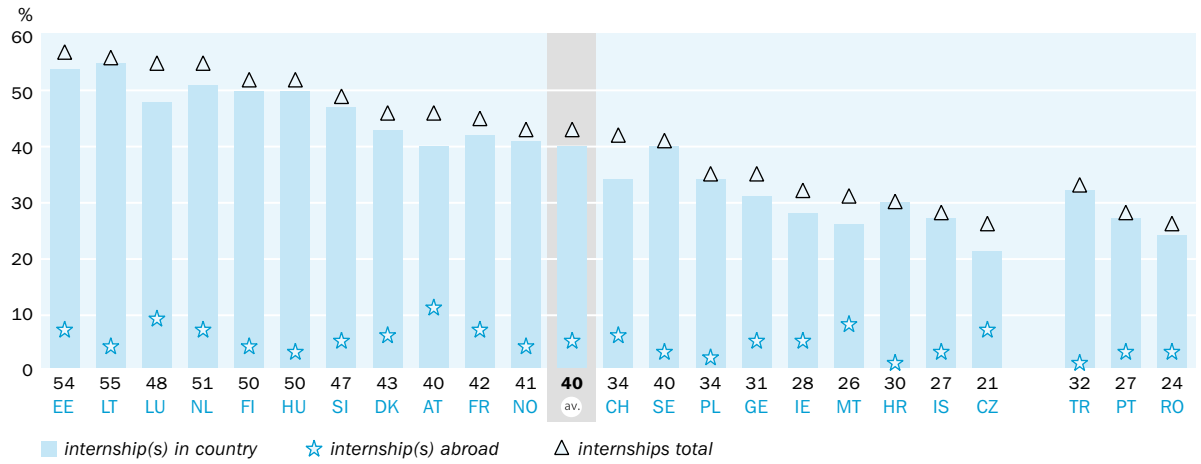
- In Estonia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Finland, and Hungary at least 50 % of current students have completed an internship during their studies.
- In Iceland, the Czech Republic, Portugal, and Romania, this is least common: around a quarter of the students in these countries have completed an internship.

B 6

Figure B6.9

Internship(s) since first entering HE (in country or abroad)

Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, H.7.* ***No data:*** *DE, IT.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.20. Have you done any internships (of at least one week, mandatory or voluntary) since you first entered higher education in #country?*

Note(s): *Multiple internships possible.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE, IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, PL, PT, RO.*

- For all countries, the percentage of students who do an internship at home is higher than the share of students who cross borders to do so. In some countries, the proportion of students who go abroad is higher than in others. This is the case in Austria (11 %), Luxembourg (9 %), and Malta (8 %). More insights into internships abroad can be found in > *Chapter B10* on international student mobility (ISM).

Internships are more common at non-universities.

Differences can be observed, not only between countries, but also within countries (Figure B6.10). In general, internships are more common among students at ○ non-universities (48 %) than at ○ universities (36 %). This makes sense, given that non-universities tend to be oriented towards a certain profession.

- However, this general observation is not shared in all countries: in Hungary, Poland, Georgia, and Ireland, internships are more common at universities than at non-universities.
- In other countries the pattern is very much in evidence: in Denmark, the proportion of students who complete an internship is 2.5 times higher at non-universities (67 %) than at universities (26 %). Although the difference is not as pronounced as in Denmark, a similar observation applies to the Netherlands and Luxembourg (around 1.75 times higher).

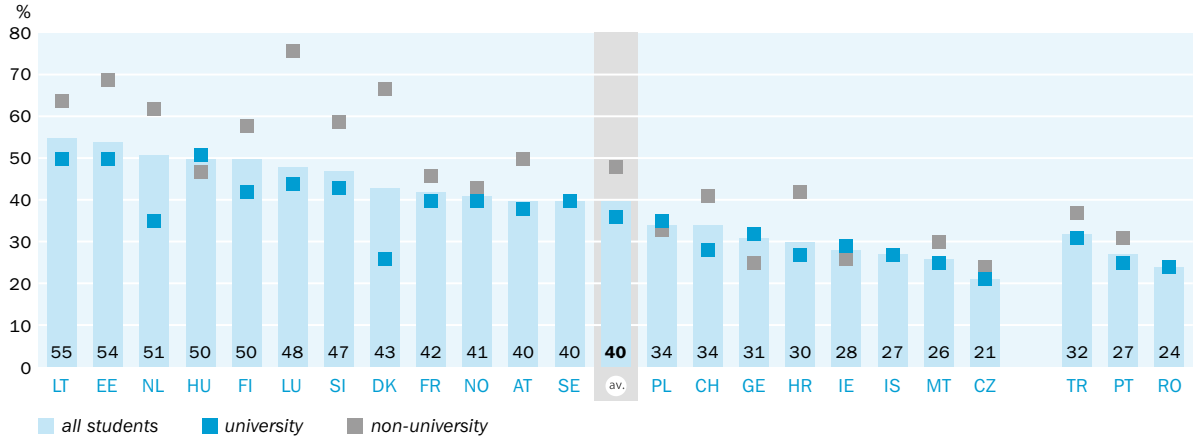
In Table B6.3 several other differences are apparent. On average, 29 % of students completed an internship during their first year, with this figure almost doubling to 53 % of fourth-year students.

- The breakdown by study year also adds nuance to the averages. For example, in the Netherlands and Hungary, on average, around half of students have completed an internship during their studies, whereas this applies to about three quarters of the students in these countries by the time they reach the end of their studies.

Figure B6.10 ⭳

Internship(s) in country since first entering HE, by type of HEI

Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, H.10.* ***No data:*** *DE, IT. No non-universities exist in IS, RO, SE.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.20. Have you done any internships (of at least one week, mandatory or voluntary) since you first entered higher education in #country?*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE, IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, PL.*

- Another contrast can be observed for full-time versus part-time students (Table B6.3). Although there is a small difference between full-time (40 %) and part-time (38 %) students at the level of the EUROSTUDENT average, it varies more between countries. For example, in Luxembourg and Malta, the proportion of full-time students who have undertaken an internship is considerably higher than that of part-time students. Exactly the opposite can be seen in Croatia and Portugal, where part-time students are more likely to do an internship.

More than half of internships are mandatory but unpaid.

In addition to the variations in the percentages of students completing an internship, there are also differences in the type and remuneration of the internships (Figure B6.11). On average, 19 % of internships are mandatory and paid, 54 % mandatory and unpaid, 14 % voluntary and paid, and 12 % voluntary and unpaid.

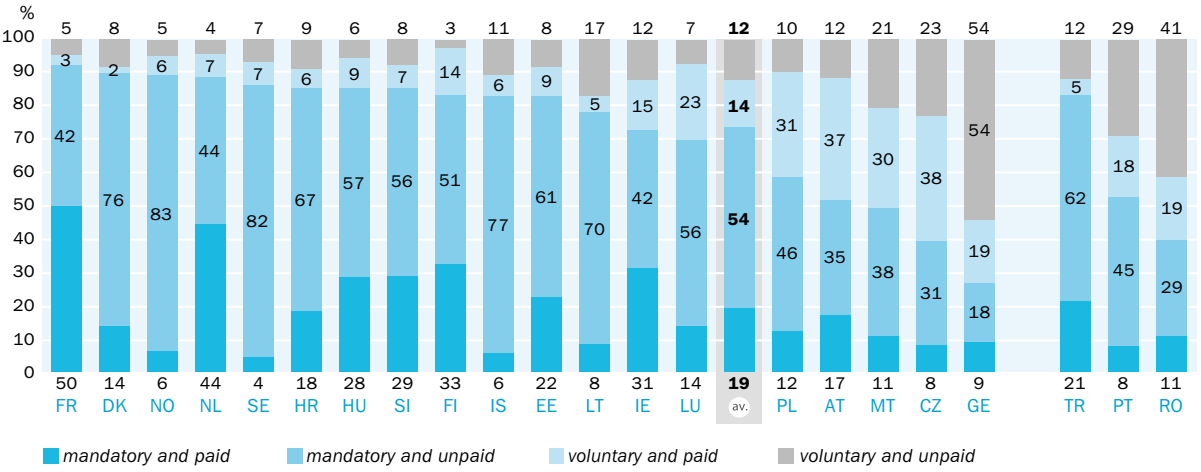
- Although mandatory and unpaid internships make up the largest shares in most EUROSTUDENT countries, France, Austria, the Czech Republic, and Georgia, are exceptions. In France, most internships are mandatory but paid (50 %), in Georgia most (54 %) are voluntary and unpaid, while in the Czech Republic (38 %) and Austria (37 %), they are voluntary but paid.
- The highest proportions of mandatory internships, namely 90 %, can be found in Denmark, Norway, and the Netherlands: (EUROSTUDENT average: 73 %).
- In France, the Netherlands, Finland, and Austria, around half of internships are paid (EUROSTUDENT average: 33 %).
- Paid internships are least common in Norway, Sweden, Iceland, and Lithuania, where this applies to around 10 %.

B 6

Figure B6.11

Type and remuneration of internship(s) in country

Share of (most recent) internships (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, H.10.* ***No data:*** *CH, DE, IT.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.21. Was your most recent internship in #country mandatory or voluntary? 4.22. Was your most recent internship in #country paid or unpaid?*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE, IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *FR.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, PL.*

The percentages of mandatory internships can be compared between the different fields of study (Table B6.4). On average, mandatory internships are most common in the fields of 'health and welfare' (87 %) and 'education' (86 %). Mandatory internships are least common in the fields of 'natural sciences, mathematics, and statistics' (59 %), 'business, administration, and law' (60 %), 'social sciences, journalism, and information' (62 %), and ICTs (63 %).

Most compulsory internships are done by students studying health and welfare and education.

Discussion and policy considerations

This chapter focused on employment and internships. Work and preparation for entry into the labour market play an increasingly important role for students. The majority of students in EUROSTUDENT countries work several hours a week in addition to their studies. In fact, for one in five students, this work occupies such a prominent place in their lives that they self-identify primarily as workers, rather than students. Students from a non-tertiary background work more often during term time than those from a tertiary background, whereas students from a tertiary background are overrepresented in the group of students who work only during the lecture-free period.

Employment is not always a choice; half of students work because they would not be able to afford to study otherwise. This is most often the case for students without a tertiary education background. It also turns out that their earnings largely determine students' budget, accounting on average for almost two thirds of the income of students working during the lecture period. As discussed in > *Chapter B5*, this means that HEIs must be aware of the pressure this puts on students, and the necessity for greater flexibility, to better combine studying and working (e.g. Unger and Zaussinger, 2018), also taking into account the lessons learned with regard to digital learning during the COVID-19 pandemic.

The benefits of working in addition to (or even within) the course of studies are also evident: students learn valuable skills in their daily work practice for their entry into the labour market. These skills are crucial with regard to the human capital that Becker references: practical knowledge of the profession, work experience as such, and practical life skills (Becker, 1962). It is therefore not surprising that the importance of internships and work placements is regularly emphasised in the Bologna Communiqués as a subject meriting attention and support, for example, in the Paris Communiqué (2018, p. 3): "We will support higher education institutions to develop and enhance their strategies for learning and teaching. We also encourage them to provide inter-disciplinary programmes as well as to combine academic and work-based learning. Students should encounter research or activities linked to research and innovation at all levels of higher education to develop the critical and creative mind-sets which will enable them to find novel solutions to emerging challenges. In this regard, we commit to improving synergies between education, research and innovation."

Internships can be a way of integrating work experience into the higher education curriculum. At the moment, there are still major differences between and within countries (for example, between fields of study) in how common it is to complete an internship during studies. It is important to look for structured ways to make work experiences

and practical training part of all study programmes. The first step, gaining insight into the current status and highlighting where things are going well and where there is room for improvement, has been taken in this seventh round of the EUROSTUDENT project. For the first time, information on internships in higher education has been collected that can be compared systematically on an international level. It is a striking finding that the majority of internships, even mandatory ones, are unpaid. With regard to the social dimension of higher education, an important question is to what extent this raises budget issues for different student groups. The requirement to take a few weeks or months to fully concentrate on a work experience or internship, while undoubtedly potentially beneficial for studies, may cause problems for students relying on a paid job to finance their studies if this cannot be continued. Ensuring recognition of work-based skills can be a chance to integrate the experiences of these students and facilitate a smooth study progression.

Tables

Table B6.1

Students' employment during the lecture period, by age, qualification studied for, and (non-)recipients of public support

Share of students (in %)

	All students	Age				Qualification studied for		(Non-)recipients of public support	
		< 22 years	22–24 years	25–29 years	> 30 years	Bachelor	Master	Recipients of public support	Non-recipients of public support
AT	65	44	62	75	79	60	76	55	67
CH	63	38	60	74	77	59	73	52	70
CZ	73	61	76	83	93	72	85	67	79
DK	65	65	71	63	51	64	69	n.d.	59
EE	68	48	64	76	85	64	81	59	72
FI	57	36	50	64	65	54	68	49	75
FR	48	36	66	67	66	39	64	46	51
GE	36	24	43	59	54	34	70	32	40
HR	53	35	55	68	88	52	62	34	60
HU	58	35	53	73	86	60	64	45	70
IE	60	56	56	59	72	57	69	51	64
IS	72	66	74	72	73	70	76	57	77
LT	55	37	59	74	83	51	83	49	57
LU	41	26	38	50	68	33	66	35	52
MT	64	45	55	75	86	55	76	48	76
NL	75	74	75	74	81	75	72	73	79
NO	72	58	68	74	83	69	77	67	88
PL	59	40	60	75	91	56	73	42	62
SE	50	39	50	53	58	50	46	49	62
SI	66	48	73	78	94	66	76	56	72
av.	**60**	**46**	**60**	**69**	**77**	**57**	**71**	**51**	**67**
DE	47	33	48	58	62	45	57	38	49
IT	24	13	25	39	60	24	28	17	25
PT	30	11	34	61	80	26	52	21	37
RO	45	21	48	67	85	41	74	32	48
TR	25	14	23	41	70	24	56	21	29

n.d.: no data.

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, H.1.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.5. Do you have (a) paid job(s) during the current #lecture period?*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE, IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, PL.*

Table B6.2

Reason for working 'without job could not afford to study', by parental education background and financial status of parents

Share of working students for whom the statement 'Without my paid job, I could not afford to study' applies (totally) (in %)

	All students	Educational background		Financial status of parents				
		Without a tertiary background	With a tertiary background	Very well-off	Somewhat well-off	Average	Not very well-off	Not at all well-off
AT	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
CH	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
CZ	29	35	22	15	17	32	54	72
DE	59	70	53	27	36	59	77	85
DK	48	52	47	43	44	48	57	67
EE	45	52	42	23	34	47	70	59
FR	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
FI	55	64	51	45	46	58	65	75
GE	42	46	42	37	34	41	54	57
HR	48	57	37	7	29	51	62	81
HU	53	63	44	37	36	56	70	79
IE	68	75	64	38	54	70	80	86
IS	72	81	66	53	67	76	86	t.f.c.
LT	45	52	39	t.f.c.	29	46	57	70
LU	37	34	37	t.f.c.	43	34	35	t.f.c.
MT	63	65	56	t.f.c.	44	67	70	71
NL	40	48	33	18	30	47	66	73
NO	65	69	64	59	60	65	73	80
PL	56	64	45	37	47	62	77	79
SE	31	35	29	23	27	33	42	61
SI	44	53	36	25	30	44	66	80
av.	**50**	**56**	**45**	**32**	**39**	**52**	**64**	**73**
IT	34	37	28	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
PT	59	67	42	39	43	59	80	84
RO	49	56	39	30	31	45	64	76
TR	52	56	36	59	33	41	65	79

n.d.: no data. t.f.c.: too few cases.

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, H.5.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.7. To what extent do the following statements apply to your situation?*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *AT, CH, DE, DK, EE.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, PL.*

Table B6.3

Internships in country by study year and full-time vs. part-time students

Share of students (in %)

	All students	Study year						Full-time vs. part-time students	
		1st year	2nd year	3rd year	4th year	5th year	6th year	Full-time	Part-time
AT	40	29	38	47	49	50	51	40	n.d.
CH	34	19	34	40	41	50	65	35	24
CZ	21	16	17	24	27	35	46	22	15
DK	43	26	39	0	50	56	64	43	n/a
EE	54	37	59	72	72	64	80	54	54
FR	42	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
FI	50	25	48	63	68	67	60	51	44
GE	31	24	25	34	50	52	53	n/a	n/a
HR	30	34	30	29	27	26	26	25	43
HU	50	34	48	58	70	79	82	49	53
IE	28	16	22	42	53	54	50	29	20
IS	27	23	28	27	40	35	t.f.c.	27	20
LT	55	50	42	53	66	76	79	54	58
LU	48	38	45	54	66	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	49	16
MT	26	18	31	32	36	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	33	12
NL	51	42	51	63	75	83	76	50	63
NO	41	34	41	48	53	56	63	40	46
PL	34	25	32	41	48	59	59	35	34
SE	40	28	39	55	58	59	65	39	50
SI	47	41	47	52	59	69	40	45	54
av.	**40**	**29**	**38**	**44**	**53**	**57**	**60**	**40**	**38**
DE	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
IT	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
PT	27	22	25	27	44	47	47	25	42
RO	24	19	22	25	36	42	44	25	15
TR	32	24	24	36	39	50	60	n/a	n/a

n.d.: no data. t.f.c.: too few cases.

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, H.7.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.20. Have you done any internships (of at least one week, mandatory or voluntary) since you first entered higher education in #country?*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE, IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, PL.*

Table B6.4

Share of mandatory internships among all internships, by field of study

Share (in %)

	All students	Field of study									
		Education	Arts and humanities	Social sciences, journalism, and information	Business, administration, and law	Natural sciences, mathematics, and statistics	ICTs	Engineering, manufacturing, and construction	Agriculture, forestry, fisheries, and veterinary	Health and welfare	Services
AT	52	80	37	48	26	35	40	36	63	82	70
CH	70	96	33	41	22	48	52	55	47	92	90
CZ	39	49	38	37	28	34	15	29	53	73	36
DK	90	99	74	54	83	84	84	85	68	96	98
EE	83	94	75	76	83	60	71	82	t.f.c.	96	93
FR	93	98	83	85	90	88	93	95	t.f.c.	98	95
FI	83	95	78	74	69	59	76	76	93	98	97
GE	27	33	22	19	25	18	26	43	44	31	25
HR	85	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	88	t.f.c.	83	88	t.f.c.	92	t.f.c.
HU	85	92	75	77	86	79	77	79	87	94	88
IE	73	93	56	58	55	61	76	72	91	86	83
IS	83	100	76	75	49	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	98	n.d.
LT	78	91	79	67	76	64	50	88	67	81	t.f.c.
LU	70	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	54	38	t.f.c.	67	35	t.f.c.	100	t.f.c.
MT	49	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	37	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	66	t.f.c.
NL	89	98	82	74	82	89	91	86	89	96	93
NO	89	99	80	77	54	73	42	47	t.f.c.	98	t.f.c.
PL	59	47	65	56	48	62	53	59	62	79	64
SE	86	98	71	57	83	43	59	45	t.f.c.	99	t.f.c.
SI	85	95	76	81	81	45	76	85	90	89	96
av.	**73**	**86**	**65**	**62**	**60**	**59**	**63**	**66**	**71**	**87**	**79**
DE	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
IT	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
PT	53	73	41	40	43	35	73	49	40	71	71
RO	39	26	26	37	37	32	53	42	33	40	n/a
TR	83	81	77	37	63	80	88	93	81	92	96

n.d.: no data. t.f.c.: too few cases. n/a: not applicable.

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, H.8.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.21. Was your most recent internship in #country mandatory or voluntary?*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE, IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, PL.*

Chapter B7
Students' resources

Key

Level of student income

In Estonia, Iceland, Norway, Romania, and Switzerland, students' total monthly median income, including transfers in kind, is relatively high with values above 1,000 Purchasing Power Standard (PPS). In Georgia, Luxembourg, and Turkey, the median income is below 700 PPS.

Composition of student funding

From a macro perspective, students receive, on cross-country average, 36 % of their total monthly income from their family or partner. Students' self-earned income accounts for 43 %, national public student support provides another 14 %, and other income sources make up 7 %.

Importance of family/partner contributions

On average across EUROSTUDENT countries, 70 % of students receive support in cash and in kind from their parents, partner, or other relatives. This type of support accounts for an average of 53 % of the recipients' total monthly income.

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Importance of public support

On cross-country average, 42 % of students receive national public student support in the form of grants, loans, or scholarships. Public support, on average, accounts for 42 % of the recipients' total monthly income.

Recipients of public support

Student groups receiving state support disproportionately often are, for example, young students (< 25 years), those with a medium education background, students with a migration background, and those who do not pay fees.

Extent of students' financial difficulties

When measured by the international average, it appears that 24 % of students report serious or very serious financial difficulties. In Georgia, Iceland, Malta, and Turkey, the share of students with (very) serious financial problems amounts to 30 % or more.

Main issues

To participate in higher education, students need sufficient funding to cover their living and study-related costs. Previous analyses (DZHW, 2018; Hauschildt et al., 2015; Orr et al., 2011) have shown that, from a system perspective, three main categories account for the bulk of student income: a) family/partner contributions, b) students' self-earned income, and c) public support.

Family/partner contributions are often comparatively easy to obtain for students and a stable source of funding (Gwosć, 2019; for Germany see Middendorff et al., 2013). This type of support, however, prolongs students' dependency on parents, even for students who are of age and no longer live in their parents' home. Family/partner contributions, which normally take the form of non-repayable grants and transfers in kind, place a financial burden on the family rather than the students. Some students feel that they are overburdening their parents with this type of study financing (e.g. in Germany this holds especially true for students with impairments, female as well as Bachelor students, Middendorff et al., 2013). However, it is sometimes the only way for students to bear the costs of studying. Financing studies through *self-earned income*, on the other hand, can be exhausting for students. Not only do they have the personal responsibility to earn enough money, they sometimes also have to spend a considerable amount of time on gainful employment; time that is no longer available for other purposes and often at the expense of their study time (Apolinarski & Gwosć, 2020; Keute 2017; Creed et al., 2015; > *Chapter B5*). However, self-earned income gives students a certain independence from their parents and may sometimes allow additional expenditure (e.g. for non-essential goods, Orr et al., 2011). Finally, students may receive *public support* to finance studies. This way of funding studies often places a financial burden on taxpayers as a whole, rather than on the students or their parents.[1] According to previous analyses, public support is not an abundant source of income for students, compared to the other two sources. In the vast majority of EUROSTUDENT countries, students depending on state support have the lowest median income per month compared to their peers who depend[2] either on self-earned income or family/partner contributions (Gwosć, 2019). Although state support does not seem to be a substantial source, it gives students a certain financial independence from their parents and, in many cases, makes it possible, from a financial perspective, to attend university in the first place. However, the use of public loans as one instrument of financing studies may have a marked deterrent effect on (potential) students, especially on those from low social backgrounds (Brown et al., 2011; Callender & Jackson, 2005). In several countries, the granting of public support is linked to various legal restraints for the recipients, such as regularly submitting proof of performance and temporarily limiting eligibility (Schwarz & Rehburg, 2002). These are some of the reasons why students receiving public support often show high study intensity (Hauschildt et al., 2015).

1 *This applies at least to financing studies through non-repayable public support (grants and scholarships), which is the main type of public support in almost two thirds of EUROSTUDENT countries (DZHW, 2018). In their capacity as taxpayers, students and their parents are indeed involved in funding studies. However, this means that they only have to bear a very small fraction of the actual costs incurred.*

2 *Dependence on an income source means that a student receives more than half of his total income, including transfers in kind, from only one source of income.*

The issue of student funding is regularly addressed in the ministerial declarations of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA). With regard to the social dimension of the EHEA, students should be "able to complete their studies without obstacles related to their social and economic background" (London Communiqué, 2007). Furthermore, in the Yerevan Communiqué, the ministers responsible for higher education emphasised a public responsibility for higher education and a reliance on strong public funding (Yerevan Communiqué, 2015). With the Rome Communiqué, the ministers expressed a clear preference for specific student financing systems for the first time: "Financial support systems should aim to be universally applicable to all students, however, when this is not possible, the public student financial support systems should be primarily needs-based and should make higher education affordable for all students, foster access to and provide opportunities for success in higher education." (Annex II to the Rome Communiqué, 2020). This gives the public sector an explicit and quite well-defined role in financing.

Magnitude of student income

Student income can be considered as a flow of money, goods, and services to students from different sources in a given time unit. From an economics point of view, the magnitude of income determines the power of the income recipient to consume or invest (Pindyck & Rubinfeld, 2018; Becker, 1993). The level of income is, therefore, a decisive factor in determining whether, and to what extent, higher education can be pursued. Previous analyses have shown that student income levels vary considerably, not only between countries but also within countries (DZHW, 2018; Hauschildt et al., 2015; Orr et al., 2011). Without a benchmark, the level of income reveals little about the prosperity of students. However, as insufficient income can be one reason for students' financial difficulties (Unger et al., 2019; Finocchietti, 2015; Forsyth & Furlong, 2003), the relation between students' income levels and their assessment of financial difficulties is investigated among other things.

Composition of student funding

At system level, the structure of student funding depends, inter alia, on the fundamental design principle behind a country's social policy. In some countries, such as Austria, Switzerland, and Poland, student funding is mainly organised according to the welfare principle (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2018; Gwosć, 2019). The granting of public support is tied to a special need, which potential recipients must prove. State support is then directed at rather small groups, usually with low incomes (Althammer & Lampert, 2014). In other countries like Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, student funding is primarily based on the supply principle. According to this principle, students are generally regarded as being financially independent of their parents and are usually entitled to public support as part of a general citizenship provision (Bäcker et al., 2010; European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2017; Gwosć, 2019). To some extent, the design in place then determines the shares of public and private funding of students. Additional general factors for the composition of student funding are access to financial sources (e.g. to family support or public support) and the productivity of those sources. Our analysis places special emphasis on the meaning of the 'big three' funding sources (family/partner contributions, students' self-earned income, and public support) for various student groups.

Distribution and concentration of student income

A high degree of financial dissimilarity between students and the associated different living and study conditions may affect the duration and success of studies, particularly to the detriment of low-income students, who often come from socio-economically disadvantaged families (for Sweden, Avdic & Gartell, 2015; for Italy, Triventi, 2014b; for the UK, Callender, 2008). This chapter analyses the distribution and concentration of student income within a country's student population, providing not only information on the degree of students' financial heterogeneity within the EUROSTUDENT countries, but also delivering a basis for discussions on distributional justice.

Financial difficulties of students

The last EUROSTUDENT report showed that about a quarter of students report considerable financial difficulties, resulting from too little income, a high level of (essential) expenses, or a combination of the two. Financial pressures may encourage students to seek (additional) employment, with the associated difficulties and potentially negative outcomes, such as a prolonged duration of studies (Theune, 2015), a lower number of credits acquired (Triventi, 2014b), worse grades (Jirjahn, 2007; Callender, 2008), or even dropping out of higher education (Heublein et al., 2017; Hovdhaugen, 2015; Quinn, 2013). Due to the limitations set by available time and jobs (> *Chapter B5*), many students suffering from financial difficulties may not be able to increase their income through employment. Moreover, a tight financial situation can put a strain on students' mental health. Our analysis focusses on the question of which student groups are especially challenged with financial difficulties and are thus more prone to such negative effects.

Methodological and conceptual notes

For the analyses in this chapter, student income is grouped into four categories: a) family/partner contributions, b) self-earned income, c) national public student support, and d) other income.

Family/partner contributions

Contributions from family/partner are transfers in cash (legally required or voluntary) that students receive from their parents, partner, or other relatives. The transfers comprise disposable income such as cash and money transfers that students can use freely for their monthly spending. The amounts for transfers in kind have also been added to family/partner contributions in the figures and tables in this chapter.

Transfers in kind

Transfers in kind are students' living and study-related costs that are not paid by the students themselves, but by the students' parents, partner, or other relatives. The respective payments go directly to the students' creditors, in other words, the money is intangible for the students. One example of transfers in kind is the rent that parents whose collegiate child lives away from the parental home pay directly to their child's landlord. Transfers in kind can also be provided in the form of free goods and services by the family and partner (e.g. free meals, clothes, etc.). The concept of transfers in kind is used to capture the full extent of material support for students.

Self-earned income

The category 'self-earned income' includes students' income from gainful employment, be it dependent employment or self-employment. Income from both current and previous employment (i.e. savings) is taken into consideration. With respect to income from previous employment, only the average amount that students use to cover their costs of living and studying per month during the current lecture period is considered.

National public student support

National public student support comprises payments that students receive, usually because of their student status, directly from the state in which they are permanently studying. This type of support includes, on the one hand, non-repayable support (i.e. grants and scholarships) and repayable support (i.e. loans) that may be subject to interest on the other. Support from all levels of state (i.e. national level, province, and municipality) as well as from higher education institutions (HEIs) is taken into account. However, as the EUROSTUDENT data are based on students' self-report, some public support items cannot be covered. This applies, for example, to tax relief for students and their parents or when the state assumes costs to the benefit of students (e.g. state payments to HEIs intended to cover students' tuition fees).[3]

Other income

'Other income' is a residual category covering various income items from either private or public sources not assigned to one of the other categories mentioned above. Student income from other private sources could be grants and loans from private companies. Income from other public sources refers, for example, to pension payments and child benefit for students, in other words, public support items that are not exclusively granted to students in higher education. Finally, 'other income' may include student support from outside the country of study, from foreign countries or international entities such as the EU, for example.

Purchasing Power Standard

Since the EUROSTUDENT countries use different currencies (e.g. the Euro, Danish Krone, Croatian Kuna, Swiss Franc), a common benchmark must be used to make the data comparable. To achieve a great degree of comparability, Purchasing Power Standard (PPS) has been used as a common currency. PPS is an artificial currency used to eliminate the influence of exchange rates and differing price levels between countries, both of which may distort the international comparison of monetary values. One PPS can be depicted as a tiny goods basket that costs exactly the same amount of money (= 1 PPS) in all EU-28 countries.[4] If, for example, income recipients in country A have 800 PPS and those in country B have 500 PPS, the data clarify that income recipients in country A can buy 800 units of the goods basket, while their counterparts in country B can purchase only 500, although the price is the same in both countries. To calculate PPS, the monetary values reported by the EUROSTUDENT countries in national currency have been converted using the Euro as reference. The respective currency conversion factors applied are Purchasing Power Parities (PPP) for 2019, as reported

3 *In Georgia, for instance, about 30 % of students do not have to pay fees (> Chapter B8). Instead, their fees are borne by the state, which makes corresponding payments directly to the universities. In accordance with the EUROSTUDENT conventions, this state financial contribution to the institutional costs of higher education is not included in public support for students.*

4 *As the latest available data for the PPS conversion were taken from 2019, the EU still included 28 Member States.*

by Eurostat (Eurostat, 2021) and – in the case of Georgia – by the World Bank (World Bank, 2021).

The interested reader can view all financial data, including Euro and national currency units, in the EUROSTUDENT database (> *Database*).

Data and interpretation

Magnitude of student income

Students' median income per month is comparatively high in Estonia, Iceland, Norway, Romania, and Switzerland.

What income is available to students per month in the EUROSTUDENT countries? The median of students' total monthly income per country is displayed below (Figure B7.1). In addition to monetary income, transfers in kind received by students in the form of goods, services, and bills paid by their parents, partner, and other relatives were also taken into account.

Across all countries, the median income of students amounts to 861 PPS per month.

- Student income is above the international median in Switzerland, Estonia, Iceland, Norway, the Netherlands, Lithuania, Austria, Finland, Croatia, Malta, and Romania. In the remaining countries, the income values are below the international median (861 PPS).
- The comparatively highest income values are reported for students in Switzerland, Estonia, Iceland, Norway, and Romania, where students' median income is higher than 1,000 PPS per month.
- By contrast, student income in Luxembourg, Georgia, and Turkey does not reach 700 PPS in the same time span.

As expected, there are income differences between countries; and the difference between the highest student income in Switzerland and the lowest in Georgia with a factor of three is remarkable. However, by using PPS, the differences between countries are much smaller than if income had been expressed in Euro, since PPS eliminates not only exchange rate effects but also price level differences between countries. The use of PPS also influences the order of countries (Figure B7.1). For example, Ireland and Luxembourg would not be below the international median if the data were displayed in Euro.

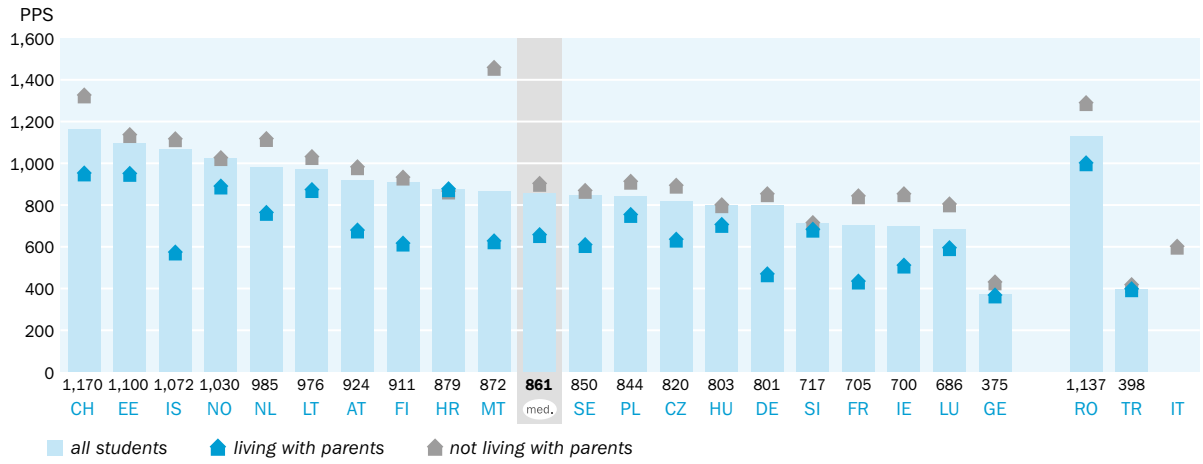
The magnitude of student income within a country is generally driven, on the one hand, by the expenses that students must (or wish to) cover, which include living costs and study-related costs. With respect to the latter, the cost structures in higher education and the cost sharing between the public and the private sector play an important role. On the other hand, the level of income is also influenced by the availability of income sources and the extent to which students may use them.

As students' expenses, especially their accommodation costs, affect the income required, students' basic form of housing (living with parents vs. not living with parents) was used as the differentiation criterion. Across countries, the median income of students living with parents is 659 PPS per month, while that of their peers living independently amounts to 906 PPS monthly. In more than 80 % of countries, students

Figure B7.1

Student income by form of housing

Total monthly income including transfers in kind. Median income (in PPS)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, G.1 (PPP), G.2 (PPP) and G.3 (PPP).* ***No data:*** *AL, DK, PT.* ***Too few cases:*** *IT: all students, students living with parents.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.16 What is the average monthly amount available to you in cash or via bank transfers from the following sources during the current lecture period?, 4.17 What are your average expenses for the following items during the current lecture period?*

Note(s): *The values above the country abbreviations represent the median income of all students. Transfers in kind are goods and services for students financed or provided by their parents, partner, or others.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *FR, RO, SI.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

not living with parents receive the highest income. Exceptions are only Norway, Croatia, Hungary, and Slovenia. In all countries except Croatia and Turkey, students who live in the parental home have the lowest income of the three groups.

- The income difference between students living away from parents and their peers who live in the parental home is particularly large in Iceland, Malta, and France, where the median income of students living independently is almost or more than twice as high as that of their counterparts.
- In Norway, Lithuania, Hungary, Slovenia, Georgia, and Turkey, the income difference between the two groups is rather small, with less than 20 % difference.

Students' income level changes with their age. As they get older, the median income rises continuously in almost all countries (Table B7.1). This is mainly due to the increasing share of self-earned income of older students. On cross-country median, students with low educational backgrounds have a higher income than their peers with tertiary education backgrounds as the first group often generates more employment income. When students have a dominant source of income, it appears that students depending on self-earned income have usually the highest income and those depending on public support the lowest income. Students' financial difficulties are seemingly related to their income level. In the large majority of countries, students with financial difficulties have a lower median income than their peers without such difficulties. Finally, in most countries, it comes as no surprise that fee-paying students have a higher median income than those who do not pay fees as they have higher costs to cover.

Distribution and concentration of student income

In Iceland, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Portugal, and Turkey, the income distribution among students is rather unbalanced.

Within a student population, income can be distributed more or less evenly, in other words, differences between various income groups can be more or less pronounced. One compact indicator quantifying the degree of financial heterogeneity of a national student population is the Gini coefficient. The measure describes the concentration of income using only a single value. The value range of the coefficient lies between 0 and 1. If there were no concentration of income at all (i.e. each income recipient has the same amount of income), the value of the Gini coefficient would be 0. By contrast, if the income concentration were at a maximum (i.e. one person received the entire income, while all others have no income at all), the Gini coefficient would be equal to 1. This means that the more heterogeneous the student population is in financial terms, the higher the value of the Gini coefficient. The Gini coefficient for the students' income distribution is displayed in the following (Figure B7.2a). Three groups of countries can be distinguished.

- In Luxembourg, Malta, Lithuania, Iceland, Turkey, and Portugal, the income concentration among students is fairly high, with a Gini coefficient value of at least 0.40.
- In the largest group, encompassing 57 % of all countries, a medium to higher medium degree of income concentration can be found. The coefficient value ranges from 0.39 in Georgia to 0.30 in Germany.
- Finally, in Austria, the Netherlands, Sweden, and Norway, the distribution of student income is rather balanced and shows only a low degree of concentration; the value of the Gini coefficient does not exceed 0.27.

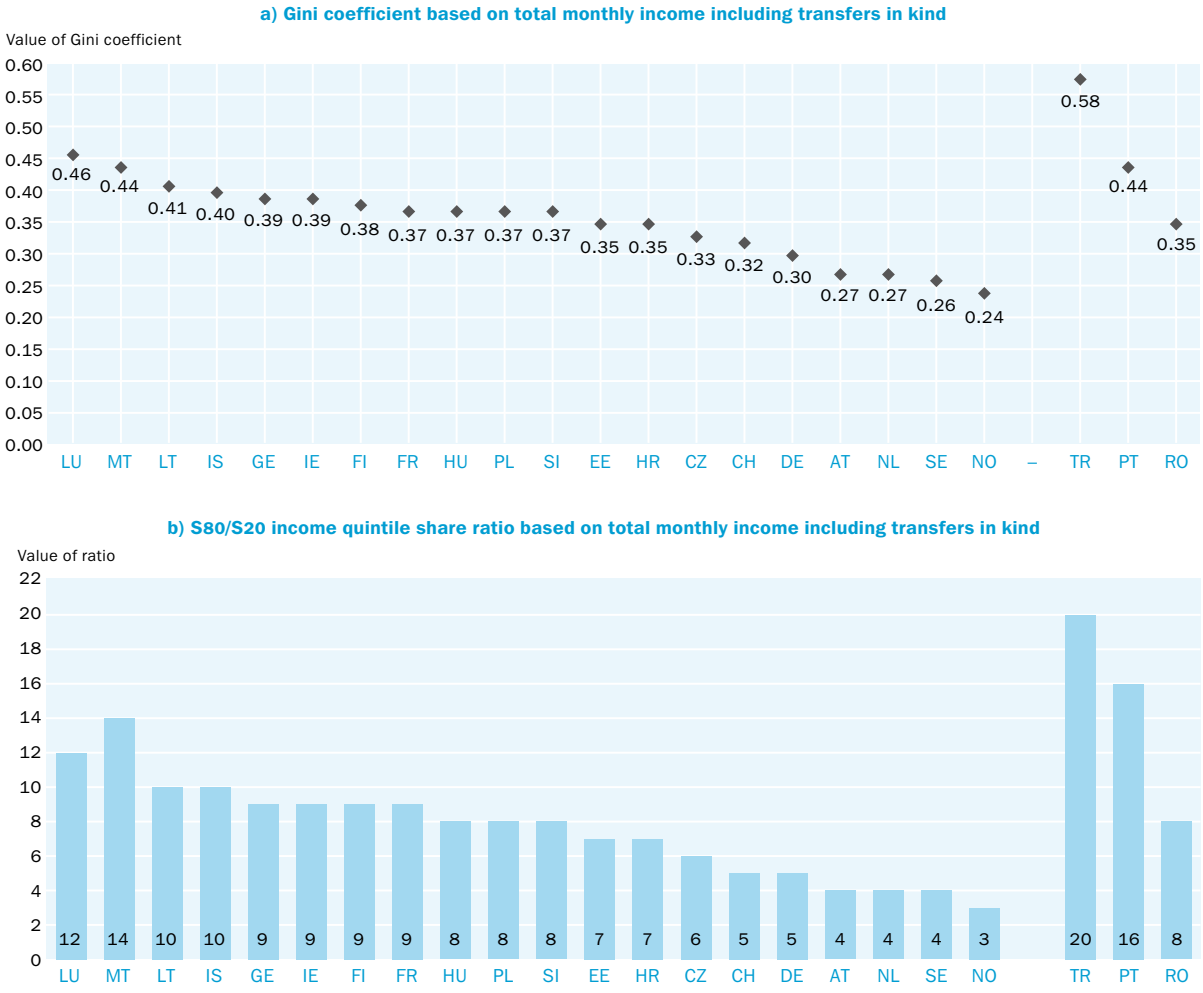
To better illustrate the meaning of the Gini coefficient, another measure of inequality of income distribution is used, namely the S80/S20 income quintile share ratio (Figure B7.2b). Based on the students' income distribution, the S80/S20 income quintile share ratio is calculated as the ratio of total monthly income (including transfers in kind) received by the 20 % of the student population with the highest income (= top quintile) to that received by the 20 % with the lowest income (= bottom quintile). The indicator thus shows by how many times the total income of the upper fifth exceeds that of the lower fifth. From left to right, the value of the ratio generally decreases across countries, as does the Gini coefficient.

- In Luxembourg, Malta, Lithuania, Iceland, Turkey, and Portugal, where the value of the Gini coefficient is comparatively high, the total monthly income of the top quintile of students is at least ten times that of the bottom quintile. This means that the amount the top 20 % of income recipients earn in one month is equal to that earned by the lowest 20 % in at least ten months.
- In Austria, the Netherlands, Sweden, and Norway, where the value of the Gini coefficient is low, the total monthly income of the top quintile of students is at most 'only' four times that of the bottom quintile.

Although the Gini coefficient is a somewhat rough and simple measure, the latter property does not apply to an explanation of its different manifestations in the countries. Further cross-country correlation analyses have shown, however, that the level of income concentration is related to students' income structure to a certain extent. Contributions from family/partner and students' self-earned income generally have a concentration-amplifying effect, whereas public support has a concentration-levelling influence.

Figure B7.2

Distribution and concentration of student income



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, G.130.* ***No data:*** *AL, DK, IT.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.16 What is the average monthly amount available to you in cash or via bank transfers from the following sources during the current lecture period?, 4.17 What are your average expenses for the following items during the current lecture period?*

Note(s): *Transfers in kind are goods and services for students financed or provided by their parents, partner, or others.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *FR, RO, SI.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

The structure of student income

Across countries, students themselves and their families/partners provide the largest part of students' total income.

From which sources do students draw their income? Across all countries, students receive, on average, more than one third (36 %) of their total monthly income (including transfers in kind) from their families and partners (Figure B7.3). Students generate 43 % of their total income through gainful employment. The public sector provides 14 % of student income by giving out grants, scholarships, and loans. The remaining 7 % come from other private or public sources. As in the past, the lion's share of study funding (79 %) thus comes from private sources, that is, from students and their fami-

lies, while public sources account for more than a tenth.[5] When comparing at country level, the following patterns can be observed. In about one third of countries, family/partner contributions are students' dominant source of income, that is, the income source with the single highest percentage of total income.

- This is the case in Georgia, Luxembourg, Germany, France, Croatia, Turkey, and Romania, where students receive almost half or more than half of their total income from their family or partner.

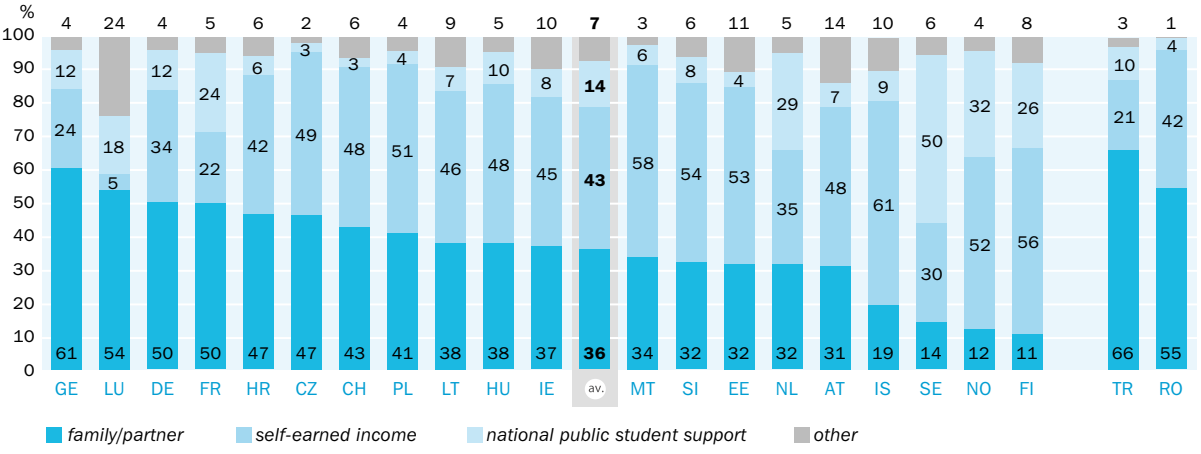
In almost two thirds of countries, self-earned income is students' most important source of income in relative terms.

- In Poland, Malta, Slovenia, Estonia, Iceland, Norway, and Finland, more than half of students' total income is the result of their own gainful employment. In the other countries in this group, including the Czech Republic, Switzerland, Lithuania, Hungary, Ireland, the Netherlands, and Austria, the share varies between 35 % and 49 %.
- Only in Sweden is national public student support the dominant source, accounting for half of students' total income.

Figure B7.3

Composition of students' funding

Based on total monthly income including transfers in kind. Source of funding (in %, macro perspective)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, G.87, G.88, G.89, G.90, and G.91.* ***No data:*** *AL, DK, IT, PT.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.16 What is the average monthly amount available to you in cash or via bank transfers from the following sources during the current lecture period?, 4.17 What are your average expenses for the following items during the current lecture period?*

Note(s): *The category 'other' also includes in this case income from sources outside the respective country. Transfers in kind are goods and services for students financed or provided by their parents, partner, or others.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *FR, RO, SI.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

5 *This calculation of the shares of private and public sector funding is only approximate. The category 'national public student support' may not cover all state contributions to student funding. On the one hand, some items of national public support, such as housing benefits for students, are reported in the category 'other'. On the other hand, the contributions from family/partner may contain income that the family or partner has received from the state beforehand (e.g. in Austria and Germany, students' parents may receive child benefit for their children in higher education, and the parents may pass on this support to their children). As a result, the share of public support may be underestimated.*

The composition of student income changes with students' age (Table B7.2). As they get older, the average amount of family/partner contributions and national public student support decreases noticeably in the vast majority of countries. At the same time, the amount of self-earned income increases. Differences in the income structure can also be observed with respect to students' educational background. Students with a tertiary education background often receive considerably higher family/partner contributions than their peers without a tertiary education background (cross-country averages: 416 PPS vs. 308 PPS). Conversely, students with a tertiary education background receive less income from employment than their counterparts (cross-country averages: 429 PPS vs. 541 PPS). The difference between the two groups is smaller, on aggregate, when it comes to receiving state support (students with a tertiary education background: 137 PPS, students without a tertiary education background: 150 PPS).

The importance of contributions from family/partner

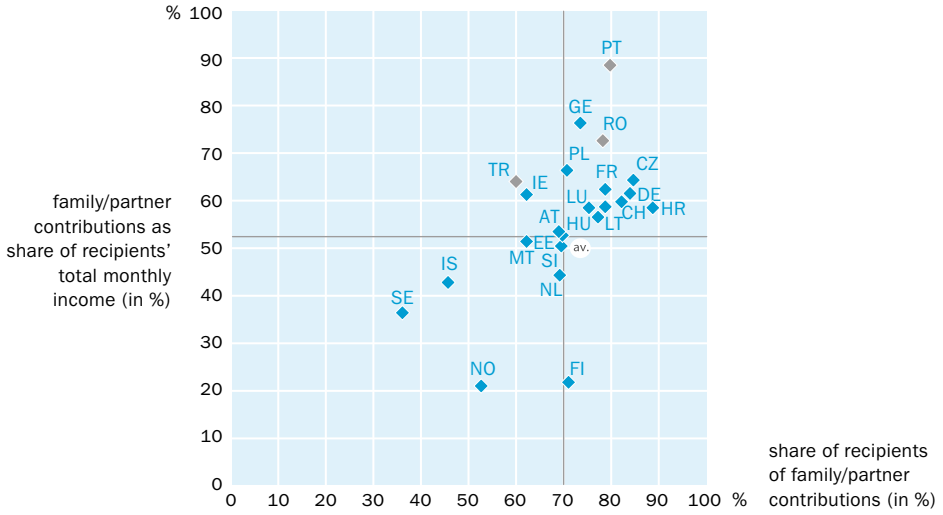
The importance of family/partner contributions to students' funding has already been examined (Figure B7.3). To this end, data were calculated across valid cases of recipients and non-recipients of family/partner contributions. The following analysis takes only the recipients of this funding source into account (Figure B7.4), affording better insight into the distribution and meaning of the funding source. On cross-country average, 70 % of students receive support in cash and in kind from their parents/partner/others. On average, this type of support accounts for 53 % of the recipients' total monthly income.

On cross-country average, 70% of students receive more than half of their total income from family/partner.

Figure B7.4

Recipients of family/partner contributions and importance of income source

Based on total monthly income including transfers in kind, micro perspective



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, G.115 and G.120.* ***No data:*** *AL, DK, IT.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.16 What is the average monthly amount available to you in cash or via bank transfers from the following sources during the current lecture period?, 4.17 What are your average expenses for the following items during the current lecture period?*

Note(s): *Transfers in kind are goods and services for students financed or provided by their parents, partner, or others.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *FR, RO, SI.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Based on the international average, four groups of countries can be distinguished.

- In the countries of the lower left quadrant, both the share of recipients and the income share of family/partner contributions are below the sample average. This group of countries encompasses Estonia, Slovenia, the Netherlands, Malta, Norway, Iceland, and Sweden. The share of recipients is lowest in Sweden with 36 % and highest in Estonia with 70 %. The income share ranges from 21 % in Norway to 52 % in Malta and Estonia.
- In the upper right quadrant, which includes Croatia, the Czech Republic, Germany, Switzerland, Portugal, Lithuania, France, Romania, Hungary, Luxembourg, Georgia, and Poland, both the share of recipients and the share of family/partner contributions in the recipients' income are above the international average. The share of recipients ranges from 71 % in Poland to 89 % in Croatia. The share of family/partner contributions in the recipients' income varies between 57 % in Hungary and 89 % in Portugal.
- In the other two quadrants (upper left and lower right), one variable is above and the other below the international average. In Finland, the share of recipients is slightly above the cross-country average. In Ireland, Austria, and Turkey, the proportion of family/partner contributions in students' total income is (marginally) higher than average.

The countries in the upper right quadrant form the largest group. Here, study funding rests to a particularly high degree on the shoulders of the students' families. Countries with such a student funding system could basically run the risk of social selectivity, in other words, of tending to exclude children from financially not well-off families from higher education, unless the state succeeds in closing the funding gap, for instance.

B 7

The importance of public support

On cross-country average, the state supports 42 % of students, providing more than two fifths of the recipients' total income.

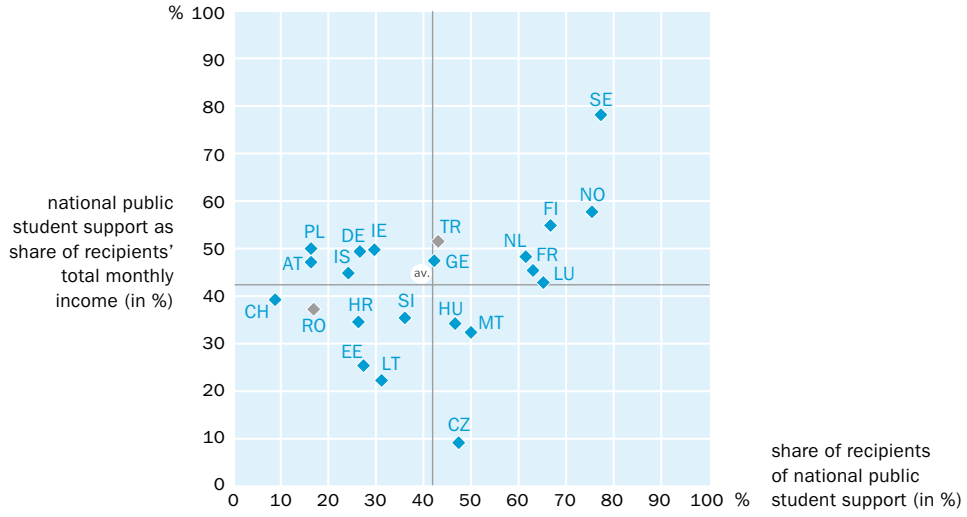
The same analysis that was carried out for family support (Figure B7.4) is performed below for the recipients of public support. On average across countries, 42 % of students receive national public student support and this type of support represents, on cross-country average, 42 % of the recipients' total monthly income. In relation to the international average, four groups of countries can again be distinguished.

- In the lower left quadrant, both the share of recipients and the share of public support in the recipients' total income are below the EUROSTUDENT average. Six countries – Slovenia, Lithuania, Estonia, Croatia, Romania, and Switzerland – belong to this group. The share of recipients varies from 9 % in Switzerland to 36 % in Slovenia. The income share of public support ranges from 22 % in Lithuania to 39 % in Switzerland.
- In the countries of the upper right quadrant, both variables are above the international average. This refers to Sweden, Norway, Finland, Luxembourg, France, the Netherlands, Turkey, and Georgia. The proportion of recipients of public support is no less than 42 % (Georgia) and not higher than 77 % (Sweden). The share of public support in the recipients' income varies from 43 % in Luxembourg to 78 % in Sweden.
- The income share of state support is above the EUROSTUDENT average in five countries of the upper left quadrant. The share fluctuates only slightly between 45 % in Iceland and 50 % in Ireland, Germany, and Poland. The proportion of recipients of public support is below the international average in these countries.

Figure B7.5

Recipients of national public student support and importance of income source

Based on total monthly income including transfers in kind, micro perspective



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, G.105 and G.114.* ***No data:*** *AL, DK; source as share of total income: IT; share of recipients: PT.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.16 What is the average monthly amount available to you in cash or via bank transfers from the following sources during the current lecture period?, 4.17 What are your average expenses for the following items during the current lecture period?*

Note(s): *Transfers in kind are goods and services for students financed or provided by their parents, partner, or others.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *FR, RO, SI.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

- Finally, three countries in the lower right quadrant are characterised by the fact that the share of recipients is above the international average, while the other variable is below average. The share of recipients ranges from 46 % in Hungary to 50 % in Malta.

With respect to a previous analysis (Figure B7.3), the dominance of a funding source can be perceived more clearly here for some countries. In the Netherlands, Norway, and Sweden, both the share of recipients of public support and the share of public support in the recipients' income are above the international average, while the respective shares for family support are below the international average in these countries. The opposite is true for Croatia, Romania, Switzerland, and Lithuania. In these countries, family support has an above-average level, while state support is below average. These examples point to the two different fundamental principles of social policy applied in the EHEA countries, in other words, supply vs. welfare principle (see the introductory section of this chapter).

It is also interesting to note that several countries in which large parts of the student population receive large income shares through family/partner contributions have a rather low GDP per capita, whilst many countries where national public student support plays a key role have a high GDP per capita.[6]

6 *A comparison of countries' GDP per capita in PPS with the average value of the EU-27 countries for the year 2019 (EU-27 = 100) produces the following results: countries in which family/partner contributions play a major role: CZ = 92, GE = 34 (own estimate), HR = 65, HU = 73, LT = 82, PT = 79. Countries in which public support is key: NL = 128, FI = 111, NO = 147, SE = 119 (Eurostat, 2020; World Bank, 2020).*

Recipients of public support

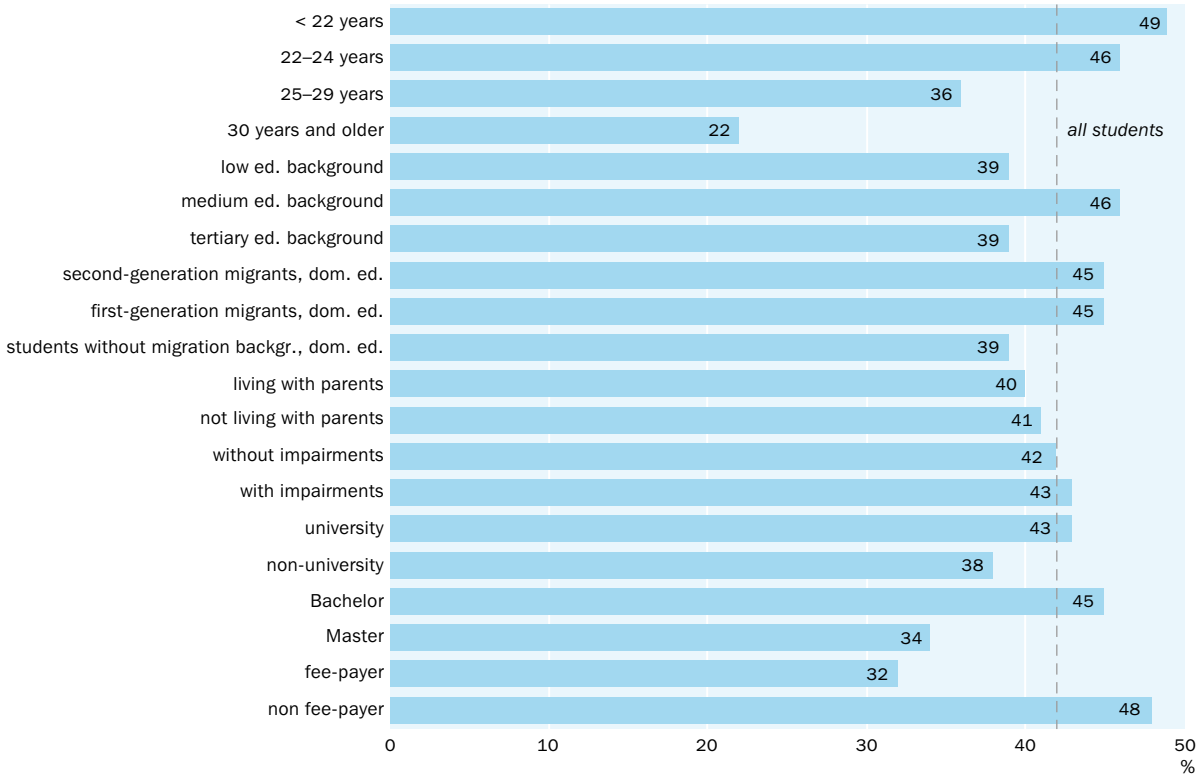
Students who benefit to an above-average extent from public support are, for example, those at a young age, with a medium education background, and with a migration background.

This section explores the differences between various student groups receiving national public student support. In interpreting the data, it should be noted that public support systems often include multiple streams of funding in different forms (e.g. repayable and non-repayable support) and with different target groups (e.g. disadvantaged groups and high-performing students) that exist concurrently, but cannot be differentiated in the following analysis. In addition, there are overlaps between various student groups, for example, a student receiving public support may be aiming for a *Bachelor's* degree at a *university* and studying with *high intensity*. For this reason, the focus of comparison should be on contrastive pairs (e.g. university vs. non-university).

Figure B7.6

Recipients of national public student support

Students receiving national public student support by socio-demographic and study-related characteristics
Share of students on cross-country average (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, G.105.* ***No data:*** *AL, DK, PT; low and medium educational background: DE; second-generation migrants: SE; first-generation migrants: DE, SE; students without a migration background: SE.* ***Too few cases:*** *first-generation migrants: EE, LT, SI.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.16 What is the average monthly amount available to you in cash or via bank transfers from the following sources during the current lecture period?*

Note(s): *The dotted line represents the cross-country average for all students receiving national public student support. Non-universities do not exist in Iceland, Italy, Romania, or Sweden.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *TR.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

On average across countries, 42 % of students benefit from national public student support in the form of grants, scholarships, or loans (Figure B7.6). Some groups of students benefit from state support more than others. This applies especially to younger students. In the under 22 age group, 49 % of students receive public support; in the age group of 22 to 24-year-olds, this figure is still 46 %. Comparatively older students, on the other hand, are less likely to be recipients (25-29 years: 36 %; 30 years and older: 22 %).

This pattern reflects the regulations in place with regard to government student support. Eligibility is often determined based on a certain age, support can only be provided for a certain duration, and there are limits to the additional income students can earn – all factors making it less likely for older students to receive financial student support. Other student groups who receive public support more often than average are, among others, those with a medium education background (46%), second and first-generation migrant students (45 %), Bachelor students (45 %), and students who do not pay fees (48 %). The latter point can be explained in part by the fact that social policy uses targeted tuition waiver for certain groups of students as an instrument to complement other state social policy measures. By contrast, students benefiting less often than average from state support are those attending non-universities (38 %), Master students (34 %), and students who pay fees to HEIs (32 %). Country-specific data for most of these student groups can be found in Table B7.3.

Structure of national public student support

National public student support can be composed of different types. A very simple distinction is that between repayable and non-repayable support. Based on the total amount of national public student support received by students in the respective countries per month, the recipients' support was then divided into repayable support (loans) and non-repayable support (grants and scholarships) (Figure B7.7).

In 70% of countries, students receive public support predominantly or completely in non-repayable form.

On average across EUROSTUDENT countries, 71 % of national public student support is provided as non-repayable support, whilst 29 % is repayable support. However, across countries, the make-up of state support varies greatly.

- Austria, the Czech Republic, Georgia, Italy, and Romania use a system of national public student support that relies completely on non-repayable funding for their students.

All other countries, however, use both types of public support.

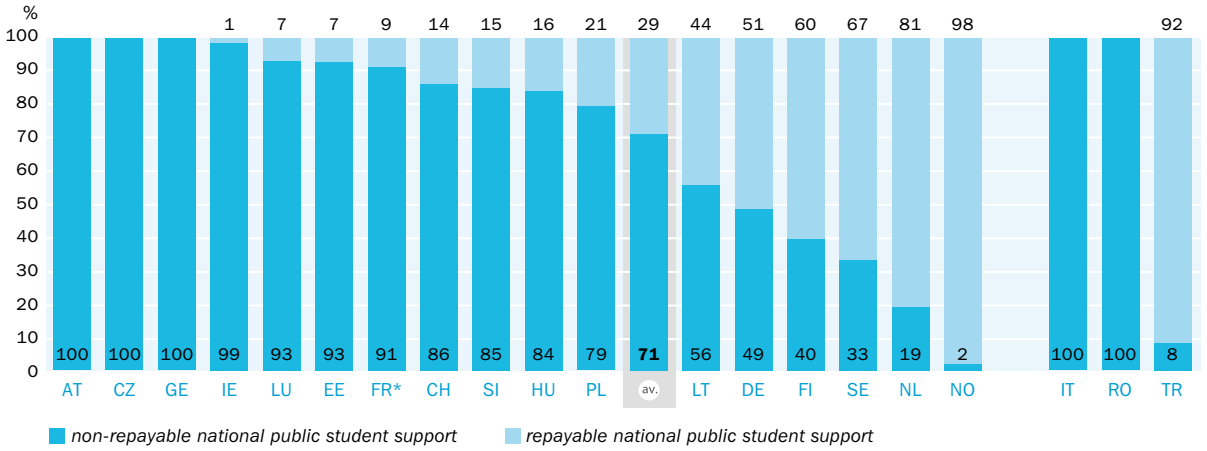
- In more than two fifths of countries, including Ireland, Luxembourg, Estonia, France, Switzerland, Slovenia, Hungary, Poland, and Lithuania, non-repayable support dominates, ranging from 56 % in Lithuania to 99 % in Ireland.
- In 30 % of countries, the recipients of national public student support receive more than half their support in the form of repayable funds. Students in Sweden, the Netherlands, Norway, and Turkey receive particularly large shares of repayable support, amounting to more than two thirds of all national public student support.

When comparing these findings with the abovementioned data (Figure B7.5), it appears that these countries rely mainly on repayable support, with state support made available to a large proportion of students and providing a large share of recipients' total income. This holds true for Finland, Sweden, the Netherlands, Norway, and Turkey.

Figure B7.7

Composition of national public student support

Support categories as a share of total national public student support per month (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, G.110 and G.111.* ***No data:*** *AL, DK, PT.* ***Too few cases:*** *HR, IS, MT.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.16 What is the average monthly amount available to you in cash or via bank transfers from the following sources during the current lecture period?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *FR, SI.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

B 7

Students' financial difficulties

On cross-country average, about a quarter of students report (very) serious financial difficulties.

An imbalance between students' income and expenditure may result in financial difficulties. How do students rate their financial situation? For the subsequent analysis, students were asked to reply to the following question: "To what extent are you currently experiencing financial difficulties?" A five-point scale was available for the response, with values ranging from 'very seriously' to 'not at all'. When compared to the international average, it appears that 8 % of students report very serious financial difficulties, while another 16 % state that they have serious financial problems. 27 % are facing moderate financial difficulties and 21 % only experience slight problems in this respect. Finally, 28 % of students indicate that they have no financial difficulties at all (Figure B7.8).

- In Georgia, Iceland, Malta, and Turkey, the share of students with serious or very serious financial difficulties is comparatively high, at 30 % or more.
- By contrast, the proportion of students experiencing the same level of difficulty (serious or very serious) is rather low, namely no higher than 19 %, in Germany, Croatia, France, Sweden, the Czech Republic, Switzerland, and Portugal.

Financial difficulties by different characteristics of students

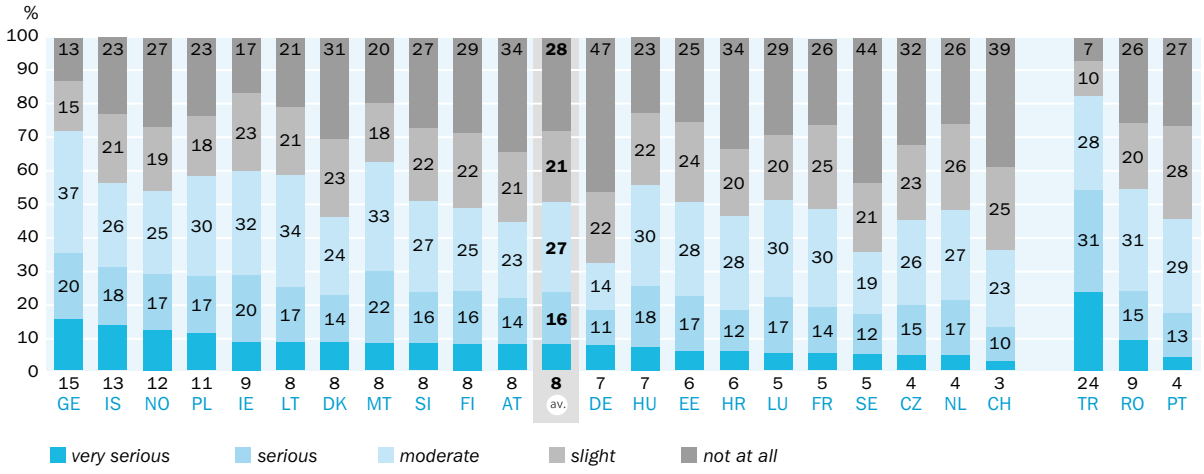
Students who rate their parents as financially not at all well-off report particularly often (very) serious financial difficulties.

Which student groups are particularly affected by financial problems? In all but one country, students who rate their parents as financially not at all well-off are disproportionately more likely to experience serious or very serious financial difficulties (Figure B7.9a). On cross-country average, more than half of these students report (very) serious financial problems. The proportion is thus more than twice as high as for all students.

Figure B7.8

Students' assessment of their financial situation

Extent of current financial difficulties of all students. Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, F.148.* ***No data:*** *AL, IT.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.18 To what extent are you currently experiencing financial difficulties?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *DK.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

- In about one third of countries with available data, including Georgia, Poland, Hungary, Slovenia, Croatia, Turkey, and Portugal, more than 60 % of students whose parents seem to be financially not at all well-off have (very) serious financial problems.
- The proportion is comparatively low in Finland, Luxembourg, and Germany, where the share of these students with (very) serious money worries ranges from 17 % to 44 %.

By contrast, in all but one country are students who consider their parents to be financially very well-off affected by severe financial hardship to a below-average extent. The international average for this group of students is 16 %.

- In Georgia, Norway, Luxembourg, and Turkey, relatively large shares of students with (very) serious financial difficulties can be found in the group of students who rate their parents as financially very well-off. The proportion varies between 25 % in Norway and 35 % in Turkey.
- In Germany, Croatia, and Portugal, less than one in ten students in this group have severe financial problems.

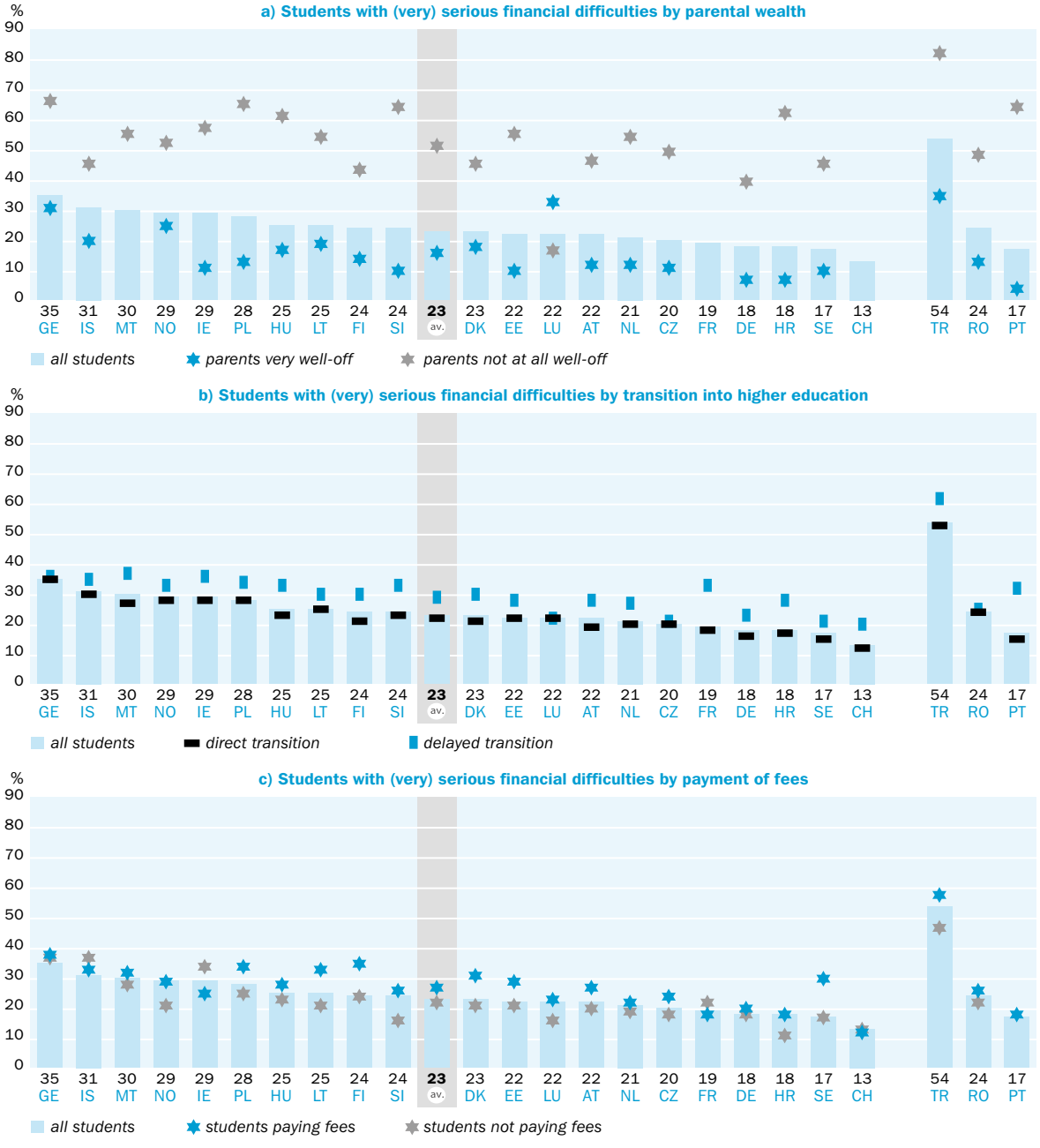
Georgia, Poland, Hungary, Croatia, and Portugal, where the share of students from less well-off families with (very) serious financial problems is particularly high, are characterised by two features. On the one hand, these countries have student funding systems that are based on relatively strong support from the family/partner.[7] On the

7 *In these countries, the share of recipients of family/partner contributions among all students ranges from 71 % to 89 % and the share of family/partner contributions in the recipients' total income varies between 57 % and 89 %.*

Figure B7.9

Students' assessment of their financial situation by parental wealth, transition into higher education, and payment of fees

Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, F.148.* ***No data:*** *AL, IT; parents very well-off and not at all well-off: FR, CH.* ***Too few cases:*** *parents very well-off: MT.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.18 To what extent are you currently experiencing financial difficulties? Source Figure B7.9a: PIRLS 2006. Copyright © 2005 International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA). Publisher: TIMSS & PIRLS International Study Center, Lynch School of Education, Boston College.*

Note(s): *In Portugal, all students are fee-paying. Values above the country abbreviations represent the share of all students with (very) serious financial difficulties.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *DK.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

other hand, the GDP per capita of these countries is below the EU average.[8] This could suggest that the combination of these two characteristics has a particularly negative impact on the financial situation of students who appear to come from low-income families.

Students who access higher education with a delay of more than two years also have financial difficulties to an above-average extent (Figure B7.9b). On cross-country average, 29 % of these students report (very) serious financial problems, while the share for their direct transition counterparts is 22 %. In almost all countries, the share of students with severe financial problems is higher among delayed transition students than those with direct transition. At the same time, their share is also above the respective country average.

- Relatively high proportions, at least 35 %, of delayed transition students with (very) serious financial difficulties can be found in Georgia, Iceland, Malta, Ireland, and Turkey.
- In Luxembourg, the Czech Republic, Sweden, and Switzerland, by contrast, the proportion of delayed transition students experiencing severe financial hardship does not exceed 22 %.

The share of direct transition students with (very) serious financial difficulties is (slightly) below the average for all students in 75 % of countries.

- Comparatively large differences between delayed and direct transition students can be found in Slovenia, Austria, France, Croatia, and Portugal, where the share of students with (very) serious financial distress is at least ten percentage points higher among delayed transition students.

The financial problems of delayed transition students are not easily explained. In all countries, delayed transition students have a higher median income than their direct transition counterparts (> *Database*) and, in many cases, the income difference is quite pronounced. However, delayed transition students are much older than direct transition students (> *Database*), they are more likely to live away from their parents, and have children. Objectively, they therefore have higher financial requirements than direct transition students, which apparently cannot be covered in a satisfactory way by their higher income.

A comparison of students with and without payment of fees shows that the first group tends to experience financial difficulties more often (Figure B7.9c). Across countries, 27 % of fee-paying students report (very) serious financial difficulties, whereas only 22 % of students who do not pay fees indicate comparable problems. In 83 % of countries, fee-paying students are more likely to have financial difficulties than their counterparts.

- The difference between the two groups is particularly pronounced in Lithuania, Finland, Slovenia, Denmark, Sweden, and Turkey, where the difference between fee-paying and non-fee-paying students amounts to at least ten percentage points.

8 *A comparison of the countries' GDP per capita in PPS with the average value of the EU-27 countries for the year 2019 produces the following results: EU-27 = 100, GE = 34 (own estimate), HR = 65, HU = 73, PL = 73, PT = 79 (Eurostat, 2020; World Bank, 2020).*

- In Georgia, Malta, the Netherlands, Germany, and Romania, the difference between fee-paying and non-fee-paying students is fairly small, at less than five percentage points.

Further student groups who report (very) serious financial difficulties to an above-average extent are those of advanced age (25 years and over), from low educational backgrounds, international students, students depending on national public student support, first-generation migrant students, and especially students with impairments (Table B7.4).

In most countries, the proportion of students with (very) serious financial difficulties has decreased over the last decade.

Comparison over time: students' assessment of their financial situation

Do students' financial problems tend to increase or decrease over time? A comparison has been drawn up of the proportion of students with serious or very serious financial difficulties across the last three project rounds of EUROSTUDENT (Figure B7.10).

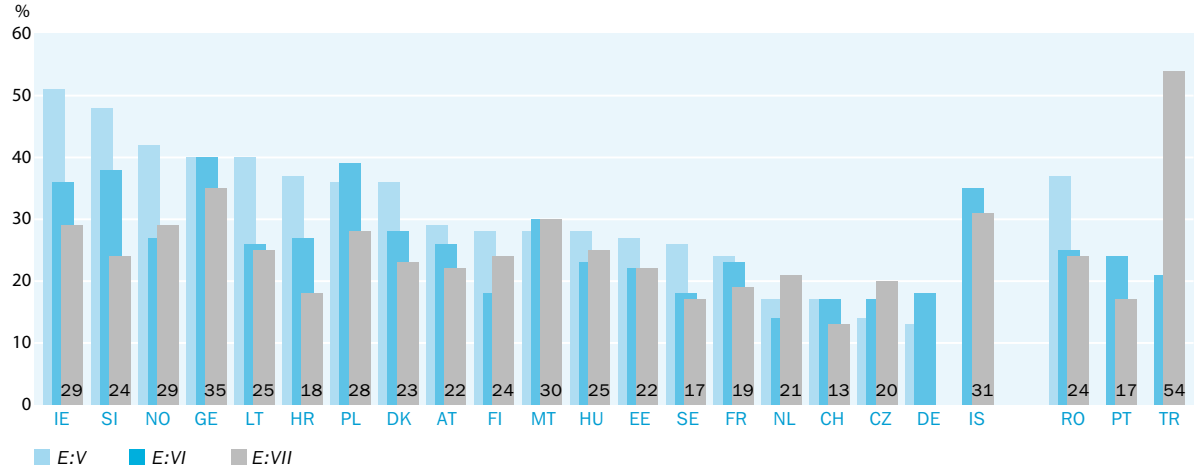
Over the last decade, a trend has seen the proportion of students with severe financial problems decrease, especially when compared to the levels of EUROSTUDENT V. In 78 % of countries, the share of students with (very) serious financial difficulties dropped between E:V and E:VII.[9]

- The decline between E:V and E:VII is most pronounced in Ireland, Slovenia, Norway, Lithuania, Croatia, Denmark, and Romania, with at least 13 percentage points' difference.

Figure B7.10

Comparison over time: students' assessment of their financial situation

Students with (very) serious financial difficulties. Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT V, F.6, EUROSTUDENT VI, F.168, and EUROSTUDENT VII, F.148.* ***No data:*** *E:V: AL, IS, LU, PT, TR; E:VI: IT, LU; E:VII: AL, DE, IT.*

Data collection: *E:VII: Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *3.8/3.5/4.18 To what extent are you currently experiencing financial difficulties?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *DK.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

9 *In Iceland and Portugal, the decrease took place between E:VI and E:VII.*

- In the other countries, the decrease ranges from three percentage points in Hungary to nine percentage points in Sweden.
- In five countries, Malta, the Netherlands, the Czech Republic, Germany, and Turkey, the share of students with (very) serious financial difficulties rose between the fifth round and the current seventh round of the project.[10] The increase ranges from one percentage point in Malta to 34 percentage points in Turkey.

Needless to say, the decrease in the proportion of students suffering severe financial hardship in most countries is encouraging. Nevertheless, the question arises as to the reasons for this development. It could be due to the fact that the material situation of students has actually improved. Perhaps the public sector in the EUROSTUDENT countries provides more support to distressed students, students' families are assuming a larger part of students' expenses, or students are more gainfully employed (> *Chapter B6*) and thus able to finance their own studies more extensively. However, there could also be a completely different and – against the background of the social dimension of the EHEA – less gratifying explanation. The composition of students may have changed so that fewer persons from disadvantaged backgrounds participate in higher education, reducing the share of students with major financial problems(> *Chapter B2*). To answer this question, country-specific in-depth analyses are required.

Discussion and policy considerations

As expected, students' income, which provides the financial conditions for their participation in higher education, varies across countries. Although the effects of exchange rates and price level differences on income have been eliminated through the use of Purchasing Power Standard, the income range between countries is still remarkable: in Switzerland, the monthly median income of students is three times as high as in Georgia. Besides Switzerland, students in Estonia, Iceland, Norway, and Romania also have a high median income by international comparison (more than 1,000 PPS per month). Their peers in Georgia, Luxembourg, and Turkey have to get by on a considerably lower income (less than 700 PPS monthly).

Private sources continue to provide the lion's share of student funding. 70 % of students benefit from support in cash and in kind provided by their families, accounting for 53 % of the recipients' total monthly income. In Croatia, the Czech Republic, France, Georgia, Germany, Hungary, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Poland, Portugal, Romania, and Switzerland, both values, that is, the recipient rate and the share of family support in the recipients' total income, are even above the international average. Given this great reliance on parental support, there is a danger that children from low-income families might tend to be excluded from higher education if the state does not intervene with support (Callender, 2017). According to our findings, this risk could be more common in countries with a low GDP per capita. In fact, not least because of budget constraints, not only do students from disadvantaged backgrounds refrain from entering higher education more often, they are also more likely to choose less desired universities and study programmes (Forsyth & Furlong, 2003; Koucký et al., 2010). Financial difficulties,

10 *In Germany, the increase took place between E:V and E:VI, and in Turkey between E:VI and E:VII.*

which are more common among students with a low socio-economic background, are also one of the most important reasons for dropping out of higher education in Europe (Quinn, 2013; Thomas & Quinn, 2007).

Although private student financing dominates, public support also remains an important funding source and is certainly indispensable in achieving the objectives of the social dimension of the EHEA. On international average, 42 % of students receive national public student support, which accounts for 42 % of their total monthly income. In Finland, France, Georgia, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, and Turkey, both values are actually above the international average. Most of these support systems appear to best meet the first preference of the ministers responsible for higher education in the EHEA, according to which "financial support systems should aim to be universally applicable to all students" (Annex II to the Rome Communiqué, 2020). By contrast, some countries also employ targeted public support, which is only aimed at small, particularly disadvantaged student groups. With regard to the generosity of public student funding systems, however, there are indications that public student support is less generous in countries that concentrate benefits on students from low-income families compared to those systems that also include students from middle-class families (Czarnecki et al., 2020).

Student groups benefiting from public support to an above-average extent – with respect to the recipient rate – across the EUROSTUDENT countries are, for example, young students (up to 24 years), those with a migration background, and students who do not pay fees. By contrast, those who benefit from state support clearly below average are, inter alia, mature students (especially those 30 years of age and older), students at non-universities, students in Master programmes, and fee-paying students. Most of these groups have strong overlaps, while the students' advanced age is a common feature, reflecting both the increased financial needs of older students (due to different living situations) and the eligibility criteria for many state grants and loans, which often include an age threshold. Evidence from some countries suggests that older students are more likely to drop out of higher education, not least for financial reasons (for Canada, Quinn, 2013; for Croatia, Kosor, 2009; and for the UK, Smith & Naylor, 2001). With regard to the idea of lifelong learning, national policies should be examined for such potentially exclusionary effects.

The EUROSTUDENT countries follow different concepts when it comes to the structure of national public student support. While Austria, the Czech Republic, Georgia, Italy, and Romania rely completely on non-repayable funding for their students, all other countries use a mix of repayable and non-repayable support. In 30 % of countries, recipients of national public student support receive more than half their support in the form of repayable funds. Students in the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, and Turkey receive particularly large shares of repayable support, amounting to more than two thirds of all national public student support. With regard to public loans as a means of financing studies, however, the problem may arise that students with a low education/socio-economic background are less willing to take them out than their fellow students with a higher education/socio-economic background (Middendorff et al., 2017; Brown et al., 2011; Gayardon et al., 2019; Palameta & Voyer, 2010). As a result, these students may be gainfully employed to a greater extent in addition to their studies. Depending on the number of hours worked, this could have detrimental effects on their studies

(> *Chapter B5*). Another consequence may be that – due to debt aversion – prospective students from low educational/socio-economic backgrounds may refrain from taking up studies in the first place (Callender & Mason 2017; Callender & Jackson 2005). In some countries, however, young people feel compelled to accept educational loans, despite their debt aversion, due to a perceived lack of both financial and educational alternatives (for England, Clark et al., 2019). These problems could certainly be avoided by awarding public grants, benefiting both students and the state. Denning et al., for instance, found for the United States that eligibility for additional grant aid significantly increased first-time students' degree completion and later earnings (Denning et al., 2019). The estimated impact on earnings alone would have been enough to fully recoup government expenditure within ten years, suggesting that public support likely pays for itself several times over. Another study for Italy found that public need-based grants have a positive, substantial, and statistically robust effect on university students' academic performance and their completion of undergraduate degree courses (Graziosi, Sneyers, Agasisti, & De Witte, 2021).

Although the proportion of students experiencing (very) serious financial difficulties has generally decreased in the vast majority of countries over the last decade, almost a quarter of students on average are currently facing (very) serious financial difficulties in all EUROSTUDENT countries. Comparatively large shares of students with severe financial hardship can be found in Georgia, Iceland, Malta, and Turkey. Among the students experiencing (very) serious financial difficulties to an above-average extent are those who rate their parents as financially not at all well-off, students who transitioned into higher education with a time delay of more than two years, and fee-paying students. The first group, students considering their parents financially not at all well-off, are affected by their parents' inability to support them sufficiently in financial terms. This problem seems particularly serious in countries in which student funding relies greatly on contributions from families or partners and which also have a comparatively low GDP per capita. The causes of the financial problems suffered by delayed transition students are not clear. However, it is very likely that their incomes will not be sufficient to cover the high financial needs – such as financing their own family – related to their more mature age. In the case of the third student group, it appears that the study-related expenses, in the form of fees, cause financial problems or at least contribute to them. These examples show that students' financing problems can be quite different for various groups. A common solution, however, would be for the public or even the private sector (including private companies and foundations) to provide additional financial support. It is a simple instrument, even if making it available is not necessarily straightforward.

The current COVID-19 pandemic is also impacting many students' finances. Immediate and short-term consequences include the loss of earning opportunities and income, difficulties in meeting expenses, and problems in obtaining scholarships (Farnell, Matijević, & Schmidt, 2021). Some EUROSTUDENT countries, such as Romania or Turkey, that collected their data during the pandemic show some conspicuous changes, for example, in income levels (Figure B7.1) or income concentration (Figure B7.2), which may indeed have been caused by the pandemic. Unfortunately, the 'COVID impact' cannot be verified in the current EUROSTUDENT aggregate data because it cannot be distinguished from other conceivable causes (effect decomposition). Further in-depth analyses will be needed in the future to determine the actual grounds.

Tables

Table B7.1

Students' total monthly income including transfers in kind by age, educational background, dependency on an income source, financial difficulties, and student fees

Income (median, in PPS)

	Age groups				Educational background			Dependency on income source			Financial difficulties		Student fees	
	< 22 years	22–24 years	25–29 years	30 years and older	Low educational background	Medium educational background	Tertiary education background	Dependent on family/ partner contributions	Dependent on self-earned income	Dependent on national public student support	With financial difficulties	Without financial difficulties	Students paying fees	Students not paying fees
AT	716	847	1,017	1,396	1,047	960	873	785	1,161	947	838	977	1,047	873
CH	906	1,039	1,264	1,972	1,247	1,178	1,124	1,018	1,482	1,039	1,170	1,172	1,172	1,013
CZ	671	806	1,042	1,494	1,013	810	832	718	1,099	82	772	851	909	781
DE	686	776	903	1,072	n.d.	n.d.	826	825	799	733	752	827	n.d.	n.d.
DK	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
EE	767	990	1,256	1,633	1,120	1,161	1,074	884	1,462	462	886	1,268	1,357	1,068
FI	725	822	877	1,309	1,269	951	904	496	1,636	695	787	1,067	835	942
FR	595	881	903	1,317	611	649	768	767	1,128	527	612	789	779	658
GE	358	413	449	488	242	384	384	435	662	169	375	375	497	281
HR	730	834	1,149	1,610	1,032	886	880	804	1,218	375	853	876	1,032	626
HU	582	718	1,004	1,305	989	843	753	668	1,155	402	743	874	963	673
IE	592	678	904	1,357	754	678	744	754	764	396	653	761	791	603
IS	638	763	1,097	1,602	1,346	1,346	897	1,310	1,054	893	987	1,259	1,099	942
LT	796	1,020	1,354	1,516	940	1,003	971	780	1,229	733	940	1,035	1,197	924
LU	784	647	682	972	564	724	774	894	t.f.c.	410	587	717	703	457
MT	505	656	1,405	1,720	1,180	769	889	888	1,423	165	1,017	1,003	1,305	593
NL	881	1,036	1,127	1,408	957	963	1,008	1,005	950	1,019	993	981	996	864
NO	790	893	1,030	1,922	1,716	1,098	975	1,453	1,785	790	906	1,160	1,016	1,716
PL	714	840	1,050	1,275	855	840	870	756	1,134	420	798	921	1,121	702
SE	783	817	868	1,169	1,040	853	850	1,040	1,115	844	850	868	761	855
SI	550	717	895	1,315	801	681	717	647	956	287	693	717	777	696
median	**715**	**820**	**1,023**	**1,376**	**1,013**	**853**	**871**	**795**	**1,134**	**494**	**818**	**898**	**996**	**781**
AL	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
IT	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
PT	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
RO	945	1,197	1,295	1,510	1,226	1,135	1,182	1,079	1,510	466	1,079	1,222	1,295	1,079
TR	359	418	478	1,394	319	398	598	717	956	299	359	618	438	398

n.d.: no data. t.f.c.: too few cases.

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, G.1 (PPP).*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.16 What is the average monthly amount available to you in cash or via bank transfers from the following sources during the current lecture period?, 4.17 What are your average expenses for the following items during the current lecture period?*

Note(s): *Transfers in kind are goods and services for students financed or provided by their parents, partner, or others.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *FR, RO, SI.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Table B7.2

Students' monthly income including transfers in kind from family/partner, employment, and national public student support, by age and educational background

Income (mean, in PPS)

	Age groups						Educational background					
	< 22 years			30 years and older			Without a tertiary education background			With a tertiary education background		
	Family/ partner contribu-tions	Self-earned income	National public student support	Family/ partner contribu-tions	Self-earned income	National public student support	Family/ partner contribu-tions	Self-earned income	National public student support	Family/ partner contribu-tions	Self-earned income	National public student support
AT	462	152	47	148	1,033	79	256	582	107	401	443	45
CH	752	191	34	479	1,584	44	508	771	61	651	578	24
CZ	525	211	29	245	1,319	3	380	539	23	530	415	26
DE	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
DK	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
EE	500	280	51	328	1,158	41	365	736	77	429	680	49
FI	134	279	402	151	958	161	120	728	279	132	621	310
FR	433	70	187	273	713	267	277	198	260	511	176	171
GE	292	51	64	208	305	24	264	110	55	288	110	55
HR	507	191	85	314	1,337	14	434	507	58	543	344	60
HU	417	145	108	315	1,037	49	325	580	81	409	406	101
IE	382	209	94	208	959	34	254	454	99	430	366	50
IS	167	678	55	363	1,121	142	307	969	128	253	745	122
LT	558	300	82	379	1,077	109	416	635	89	552	547	100
LU	784	22	178	542	172	68	470	32	208	624	65	141
MT	414	187	113	313	1,407	41	366	752	74	595	570	68
NL	392	217	272	217	1,019	110	251	425	308	399	319	299
NO	133	237	500	224	1,362	215	165	837	350	155	615	417
PL	526	278	48	292	1,066	27	339	588	57	540	459	27
SE	102	123	500	237	629	338	135	320	467	135	266	477
SI	301	285	83	95	1,119	3	214	516	78	329	430	55
av.	**409**	**216**	**154**	**281**	**1,020**	**93**	**308**	**541**	**150**	**416**	**429**	**137**
AL	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
IT	n.d.	n.d.	17	n.d.	n.d.	7	n.d.	n.d.	18	n.d.	n.d.	9
PT	489	82	n.d.	245	959	n.d.	373	364	n.d.	535	213	n.d.
RO	791	195	58	591	1,147	34	647	606	77	817	482	64
TR	672	51	114	588	1,144	21	518	205	95	1,009	175	92

n.d.: no data.

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, G.57 (PPP), G.58 (PPP) and G.59 (PPP).*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.16 What is the average monthly amount available to you in cash or via bank transfers from the following sources during the current lecture period?, 4.17 What are your average expenses for the following items during the current lecture period?*

Note(s): *Transfers in kind are goods and services for students financed or provided by their parents, partner, or others.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *FR, RO, SI.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Table B7.3

Recipients of national public student support by age, educational background, migration background, study programme, and student fees

Share of students (in %)

	Age groups				Educational background			Migration background			Study programme		Student fees	
	< 22 years	22–24 years	25–29 years	30 years and older	Low educational background	Medium educational background	Tertiary education background	Second-generation migrants, domestically educated	First-generation migrants, domestically educated	Students without a migration background, domestically educated	Bachelor	Master	Students paying fees	Students not paying fees
AT	18	17	17	11	22	23	7	23	26	20	18	13	10	19
CH	10	9	9	6	19	11	6	12	13	6	9	8	9	14
CZ	60	53	33	4	26	46	50	40	34	47	44	48	39	54
DE	25	26	28	25	n.d.	n.d.	22	33	n.d.	25	26	28	23	28
DK	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
EE	29	30	32	20	48	34	22	25	t.f.c.	27	29	22	23	29
FI	88	85	66	43	51	68	72	81	61	71	74	47	27	70
FR	63	68	60	45	71	75	55	67	72	63	64	67	49	88
GE	50	40	22	20	36	42	46	36	38	44	46	23	31	57
HR	37	30	9	3	9	28	24	23	26	27	25	29	20	47
HU	63	56	35	15	40	43	50	46	45	44	44	51	35	60
IE	38	28	15	13	36	40	18	36	49	28	34	10	15	52
IS	11	21	37	23	25	20	25	28	22	24	23	27	25	32
LT	30	29	31	38	20	31	31	35	t.f.c.	31	30	26	25	35
LU	70	74	53	24	74	76	51	91	89	84	72	43	65	62
MT	90	54	23	11	41	65	53	68	31	54	68	19	34	65
NL	60	70	61	36	62	65	59	71	70	60	62	61	63	54
NO	92	92	80	44	50	72	79	80	76	76	86	60	77	45
PL	18	17	14	11	25	20	10	16	20	16	17	16	12	20
SE	89	85	77	55	58	81	78	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	85	57	30	79
SI	48	38	24	1	38	43	30	40	t.f.c.	2	34	33	35	46
av.	**49**	**46**	**36**	**22**	**39**	**46**	**39**	**45**	**45**	**39**	**45**	**34**	**32**	**48**
AL	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
IT	10	9	5	5	14	10	5	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	8	13	5	47
PT	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
RO	18	19	13	11	24	24	20	18	27	24	17	17	4	22
TR	51	49	21	8	44	43	42	41	17	44	44	17	41	50

n.d.: no data. t.f.c.: too few cases.

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, G.105.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.16 What is the average monthly amount available to you in cash or via bank transfers from the following sources during the current lecture period?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Table B7.4

Students' assessment of their financial situation by age, educational background, educational origin, dependency on an income source, migration background, and impairments

Share of students experiencing (very) serious financial difficulties (in %)

	Age groups				Educational background			Educational origin		Dependency on income source			Migration background		Impairments	
	< 22 years	22–24 years	25–29 years	30 years and older	Low educational background	Medium educational background	Tertiary education background	Domestic	International	Dependent on family/ partner contributions	Dependent on self-earned income	Dependent on national public student support	Second-generation migrants, domestically educated	First-generation migrants, domestically educated	Without impairments	With impairments
AT	13	19	27	27	32	23	20	20	29	18	25	26	26	32	20	36
CH	8	10	16	20	25	15	10	12	19	10	14	27	13	17	12	18
CZ	17	19	26	21	26	21	18	19	25	19	21	25	22	32	17	30
DE	10	15	23	31	n.d.	n.d.	15	n.d.	n.d.	15	22	26	23	n.d.	16	25
DK	17	19	25	35	30	24	20	21	23	23	n.d.	n.d.	23	35	20	35
EE	20	22	26	23	26	24	21	22	32	26	20	33	24	t.f.c.	21	34
FI	15	20	27	28	33	27	22	23	32	36	15	26	23	19	19	41
FR	16	20	32	27	31	23	15	18	36	16	18	26	20	30	18	28
GE	33	36	42	26	52	40	33	36	27	36	39	34	30	39	34	48
HR	15	18	23	23	27	20	14	18	21	15	24	12	21	16	16	32
HU	20	24	31	30	32	27	22	24	39	24	24	39	25	21	24	41
IE	25	32	37	30	33	31	25	28	32	23	28	40	26	34	27	38
IS	25	29	38	30	28	33	31	31	40	32	26	62	37	26	27	41
LT	24	25	28	28	37	26	24	25	34	27	22	32	22	t.f.c.	24	40
LU	17	19	28	33	28	21	22	28	17	17	t.f.c.	11	19	18	22	22
MT	22	33	35	33	33	28	28	29	35	33	31	26	36	41	28	40
NL	15	23	33	28	30	22	19	20	35	15	20	30	26	37	21	23
NO	27	30	34	25	29	30	28	29	31	34	20	35	31	41	26	38
PL	25	29	34	32	34	31	24	28	35	25	30	37	39	33	26	39
SE	11	14	22	22	21	18	15	16	26	25	19	15	n.d.	n.d.	15	25
SI	19	22	34	33	28	28	19	23	37	20	26	22	31	t.f.c.	21	38
av.	**19**	**23**	**30**	**28**	**31**	**26**	**21**	**23**	**30**	**23**	**23**	**29**	**26**	**29**	**22**	**34**
AL	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
IT	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
PT	12	18	29	26	21	19	12	15	41	14	25	25	13	29	16	26
RO	22	25	30	23	33	26	19	23	34	25	25	24	36	37	23	37
TR	50	56	67	51	61	55	43	54	50	47	60	63	33	55	54	59

n.d.: no data. t.f.c.: too few cases.

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, F.148.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.18 To what extent are you currently experiencing financial difficulties?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *DK.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Chapter B8
Students' expenses

Key

The composition of students' expenses

The lion's share of students' total monthly expenses is dedicated to living costs and, to a much smaller degree, to study-related costs. On cross-country average, the breakdown of students' total monthly expenses is as follows: 64 % living costs paid by students, 23 % living costs paid by others (e.g. parents or partner), 8 % study-related costs paid by students, and 5 % study-related costs paid by others.

Selected living costs

Students who do not live with their parents allocate, on average across EUROSTUDENT countries, 35 % of their total monthly expenses (including transfers in kind) to accommodation, 23 % to food, and 7 % to transportation.

Accommodation costs by form of housing

On aggregate across countries, students who are living with partner/children spend 407 PPS per month on accommodation (including utilities). Their peers who share their accommodation with other persons dedicate 321 PPS to this purpose, and the respective amount for student accommodation is 268 PPS.

findings

Study-related costs

Students devote, on aggregate across countries, 13 % of their total monthly expenses (including transfers in kind) to their studies. 10 % of their total expenses go on fees, 0.2 % to student organisations, and 3 % to other study-related purposes.

Fee-paying students

On average across EUROSTUDENT countries, 57 % of students pay fees to higher education institutions (HEIs). In Switzerland, Norway, Luxembourg, Iceland, the Netherlands, and Portugal, more than 90 % of students pay fees. In Sweden and Finland, the share of fee-paying students is only marginal, with no more than 1 %.

Fees and public support

Students who pay fees and receive public support at the same time get, on cross-country average, 335 PPS per month from the public sector; in the same time span they spend 105 PPS on fees. Thus, average public support is more than three times as high as fees.

Main issues

Students' expenses can be regarded as the part of their income that is spent on goods and services (in contrast to the income part that is used for savings) (Pindyck & Rubinfeld, 2018). With regard to this definition, this chapter supplements the analysis of the previous chapter on student income. Students are confronted with a variety of living and study-related costs,[1] the sum of which can be considerable and is often not easy to cover. In many cases, students do not have to bear their expenses alone, but receive support from their private environment (e.g. from parents, other relatives, and their partner, DZHW, 2018; Hauschildt, Gwosć, Netz, & Mishra, 2015). Therefore, to capture the full range of student costs, the expenses shouldered by students' families on behalf of the students were also surveyed. Such information is important to properly reflect the cost-sharing between the private and the public sector. Indeed, it is essential for policymakers to be able to identify the full extent of the costs of participating in higher education and to determine the appropriate level of public support.

Surprisingly, though, for a long time, the declarations of the ministers responsible for higher education in the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) did not contain explicit statements or recommendations for student expenditure in general or specific expenditure items (e.g. Bucharest Communiqué, 2012; London Communiqué, 2007; Paris Communiqué, 2018). Instead, this issue was only indirectly addressed in the context of the social dimension, which postulates, inter alia, that students should be "able to complete their studies without obstacles related to their social and economic background" (London Communiqué, 2007). It is only the recently adopted 'Principles and Guidelines to Strengthen the Social Dimension of Higher Education in the EHEA' as an Annex to the Rome Communiqué that highlights that public student support systems – where they are to be used – "should mainly contribute to cover both the direct costs of study (fees and study materials) and the indirect costs (e.g. accommodation,...)." (Annex II to the Rome Communiqué, 2020)

Composition of students' expenses

According to human capital theory (Becker, 1993) and economic consumer theory (Varian, 2020), student expenditure can be categorised as either investment or consumption expenditure, whereby the use of the respective good or service generally determines which category the corresponding expenses can be classified as (Woll, 2014). In simple terms, an investment can be considered an expenditure that students incur in the present, expecting it to generate a future income stream that overcompensates for expenditure (Becker, 1993; Schultz, 1960). Investment expenditure, therefore, serves above all to satisfy future needs. In contrast, consumer spending serves mainly to satiate current needs (Pindyck & Rubinfeld, 2018).[2] The EUROSTUDENT data allow a simple approximation of these two categories of expenditure. Students' consumption expenditure is mainly expressed in their costs of living, whilst their investment expenditure is essentially manifested in their study-related expenditure. A corresponding analysis gives a first impression of how participation in higher educa-

1 *The terms expenses, expenditure, and costs are used synonymously in this chapter.*

2 *This is not inconsistent with the fact that some consumer goods provide benefits over more than one period of time (e.g. computers and cars).*

tion influences the students' cost structure and to what extent the countries differ in this. A further differentiation is made between 'costs paid by students' and 'costs paid by others'. This takes into account the fact that many students receive financial support from their families to help them with their expenses (DZHW, 2018; Hauschildt et al., 2015). The composition of students' living and study-related expenses will be examined in greater depth to see which expenditure items are of special importance to students' budget.

Students' expenses for accommodation

Students often have to dedicate a large part of their expenses to housing, especially if they live away from the parental home. In fact, previous analyses have shown that accommodation costs are frequently the single most important expenditure item of students not living with their parents (DZHW, 2018; Hauschildt et al., 2015; Orr, Gwosć, & Netz, 2011; Orr, Schnitzer, & Frackmann, 2008). In an international comparison of the housing situation of students in 16 European countries, the European Students' Union (ESU) concludes that "the substantial lack of available students' accommodation and the continuous rise of housing costs appears to be the biggest overall issue in the assessed countries" (Berger, 2019). To examine the current significance of housing costs for students living away from parents, the share of accommodation costs in students' total expenses will be calculated and compared to other selected items of living costs. The analysis of the current share of housing costs is supplemented by a longitudinal analysis. By comparing the data from EUROSTUDENT V, VI, and VII, we examine how the share of accommodation costs has developed over time for students not living with parents. The magnitude of accommodation costs typically varies by the size of the place of residence; this criterion is also used for differentiation.

Students' expenses for fees

Fees, especially tuition fees, are individual payments required by students to participate in higher education. They can be viewed as being part of a larger context of cost-sharing between the public and the private sector for funding higher education (Johnstone, 1986, 2006; Orr, 2020). A country's fee policy is shaped by a number of key elements, including a) the group size of fee payers, b) the level of fees, c) the date of fee payment, and d) public support to offset fee costs (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2018; OECD, 2019; Orr, 2020). A country's fee policy at the macro level affects the individual level of students via various transmission channels. The EUROSTUDENT data will shed some light on the results of this transmission. The share of fee-payers among all students will be displayed and compared to the share of fee-payers in specific groups of students. This identifies groups that are either particularly frequently or rarely charged with fees. To determine the importance of fees for students, the share of fees in students' total expenses is displayed. In doing so, fees are compared to other study-related expenses of students, since the former are often the most important but not the only category of study costs (DZHW, 2018). In addition, the relationship between fees and public support is examined, providing information on the extent to which the state mitigates the payment burden for students (and their families).

Methodological and conceptual notes

EUROSTUDENT uses several differentiation criteria for analysing student expenditure in order to achieve sufficient analytical depth. These approaches and further concepts that are important in interpreting the data are shortly explained in the following.

Living costs

Nine sub-categories are distinguished for students' living costs. These include costs for a) accommodation (rent or mortgage and utilities), b) food, c) transportation, d) communication (telephone, internet, etc.), e) health (e.g. medicine, medical insurance), f) childcare, g) debt payment (except mortgage), h) social and leisure activities, and i) other regular living costs, such as clothing, toiletries, tobacco, pets, insurance (except medical insurance), or alimony. Since the students' regular monthly costs are in focus here, extraordinary costs, such as for a washing machine or holiday travel were excluded.

Study-related costs

Students' study-related costs contain three sub-categories: a) university fees, including fees for tuition, registration, and administration, b) contributions to student unions/associations/councils, for student services, or insurance (except medical insurance), and c) other study-related costs, such as field trips, books, photocopying, private tutoring, or additional courses. In the EUROSTUDENT questionnaire, study-related costs for the sub-categories a) and b) were asked per semester. However, for data delivery the values have been re-calculated as monthly expenses to ensure comparability with the other data on costs.

Total costs

Students' total costs are the sum of their monthly living and study-related costs. Furthermore, total costs contain any expenses of students' parents/partner/others that are either directly paid to students' creditors or take on the form of free goods and services for the students (transfers in kind, see also costs by payers). As the EUROSTUDENT project focusses on students' ordinary running costs that typically occur per month, total costs do not include any extraordinary expenses.

Costs by payer

When recording expenses, the fact that students often do not have to bear the costs of participating in higher education alone is also taken into account. During studies, students may receive economic support from their private environment, for example, from their parents, other relatives, or their partner. The support that students obtain may be in two basic forms: on the one hand, students may simply receive money, such as cash or bank transfers (transfers in cash). On the other hand, students' parents, other relatives, or their partner may provide the students with goods and services or pay students' debts directly to their creditors so that the money is intangible to the students (transfers in kind). When collecting data, it is sometimes not easy to record transfers in kind as it can be difficult for students to be aware of both the quantity and value of these transfers. Nevertheless, EUROSTUDENT tries to quantify both types of transfers in order to show the full extent of support to students and illustrate their economic situation as well as possible. Therefore, in the following, expenditures will also be separated into payments of students (out-of-own pocket) and payments of

parents/partner/others.[3] In the EUROSTUDENT questionnaire, payments by the second group were captured for both students' living costs and study-related costs. In the following figures, these transfers in kind are either explicitly presented or already included in students' expenses.

Despite great efforts to record as many of students' costs as possible, students' opportunity costs were not taken into account. These costs arise because students (have to) spend time on their studies and cannot earn income during this time (= foregone earnings). Estimating such costs is rather challenging and requires data that go beyond the scope of the available EUROSTUDENT data set.

Purchasing Power Standard

This chapter contains several figures in which the magnitude of student expenses is shown. To ensure a high level of data comparability, the absolute values are displayed in Purchasing Power Standard (PPS). An explanation of the concept of PPS and its interpretation can be found in the previous chapter (> *Chapter B7*).

Data and interpretation

The structure of student expenses

Students allocate, on cross-country average, 87 % of their total monthly expenses (including transfers in kind) to living costs.

In all EUROSTUDENT countries, students (financially supported by parents/partner/others) dedicate more than half of their total monthly expenses to living costs (Figure B8.1). On cross-country average, living costs paid by students and others account for 87 % of total monthly expenses, while study-related costs make up 13 %.

- The aggregated share of living costs, in other words, the sum of shares of living costs paid by students and others, is particularly high in Finland, Norway, Sweden, Iceland, Austria, Estonia, and Germany, at more than 90 % of students' total monthly expenses. This is because students in these countries face comparatively low study-related costs. The proportion of the aggregated study-related costs in these countries varies from 2 % in Finland to 9 % in Iceland.
- By contrast, the share of all study-related costs is relatively high in the Netherlands, Croatia, and Luxembourg, ranging between 21 % and 47 % of students' total monthly expenses. Accordingly, the aggregated share of living costs is rather low in these countries.[4]

When looking at the general cost-sharing between students and their private environment, it appears that – measured by the cross-country average – students pay 72 % of their total monthly expenses directly, while students' parents/partner/others pay the remaining costs (28 %).

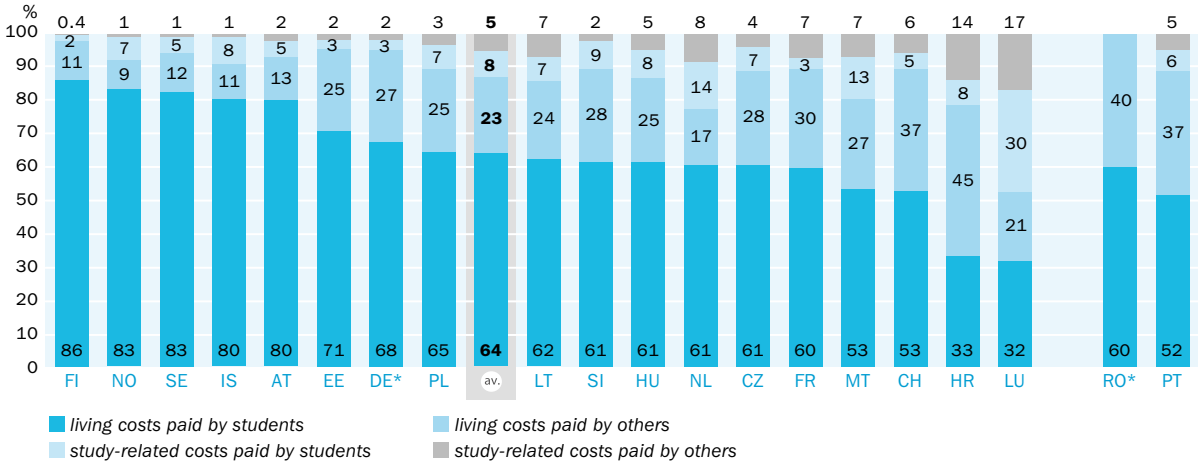
3 *It should be noted that the concept of payer does not reveal the origin of the sources of funding in every case. The payments of students (out-of-own pocket) may be financed, for example, by students' self-earned income, cash/money transfers from their family/partner (transfers in cash), or public support. Similarly, direct payments of parents/partner/others to students' creditors (transfers in kind) may be based on income streams that parents/partner/others themselves have received from different private and public sources of income. The crucial point of the concept of payer is simply that the support for students by parents/partner/others in the form of transfers in kind, which is a money-worth advantage for the students, is taken into account to describe students' economic situation as comprehensively as possible.*

4 *In these countries, the share of fee-paying students is rather high, ranging between 87 % in Croatia to 92 % in Luxembourg (Figure B8.7).*

Figure B8.1

Composition of students' expenses by payer

Regular living and study-related costs as a share of students' total monthly expenses (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, F.24, F.34, F.105 and F.109.* ***No data:*** *AL, DK, GE, IE, IT, TR. Study-related costs: RO.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), PT, RO (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.17 What are your average expenses for the following items during the current lecture period?*

Note(s): *Interpretation aid: In Austria, students' total monthly expenses consist of the following: 80 % living costs paid by students, 13 % living costs paid by students' parents/partner/others, 5 % study-related costs paid by students, and 2 % study-related costs paid by students' parents/partner/others.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *DE, FR, RO.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

- In Finland, Norway, Sweden, Iceland, and Austria, students' share of total expenses is especially high, ranging from 85 % in Austria to 90 % in Norway.
- In Switzerland, Croatia, and Portugal, students have to bear the lowest shares in family cost-sharing in an international comparison. In Switzerland and Portugal, students themselves pay 58 % of their total monthly expenses, while the figure is 41 % in Croatia.

An analysis of the cost-sharing within the category 'living costs' shows that, in all countries except Croatia, students themselves assume larger shares of their living expenses than their families.

- The differences between the two groups are very pronounced in Finland, Norway, Sweden, and Iceland. In these countries, the share of living costs in total expenses paid by students is at least 80 %, while the respective share paid by parents/partner/others does not exceed 12 %. By contrast, the differences are rather small in Switzerland, Luxembourg, and Portugal.

The picture for the sharing of study-related costs appears more mixed. In almost four fifths of countries, students' payments for study-related purposes are higher than those of their parents.

- The differences in the study-related expenses of students and that of their families are largest in Iceland and Luxembourg. In these countries, students' share of study-related costs in total expenses ranges between 8 % in Iceland and 30 % in Luxembourg. The share paid by parents/partner/others varies between 1 % in Iceland and 17 % in Luxembourg.

- Very small or no differences in the payments of the two groups can be found in Finland, Estonia, Germany, Lithuania, and Portugal, where the share paid by students is at most 1 % higher than that of their parents.

In three countries, namely France, Switzerland, and Croatia, the relation described above is reversed, in other words, students' payments for study-related purposes are lower than those of their families.

The composition of students' expenses changes with their basic form of housing (Table B8.1). When compared by the cross-country average, it shows that students living with parents pay a much smaller proportion of living costs compared to their peers who are not living with parents (50 % vs. 66 %). The opposite is true for the share of students' living costs paid by others (34 % vs. 21 %). The differences in study-related costs are, on cross-country average, only marginal between the two forms of housing.

Selected items of students' living costs

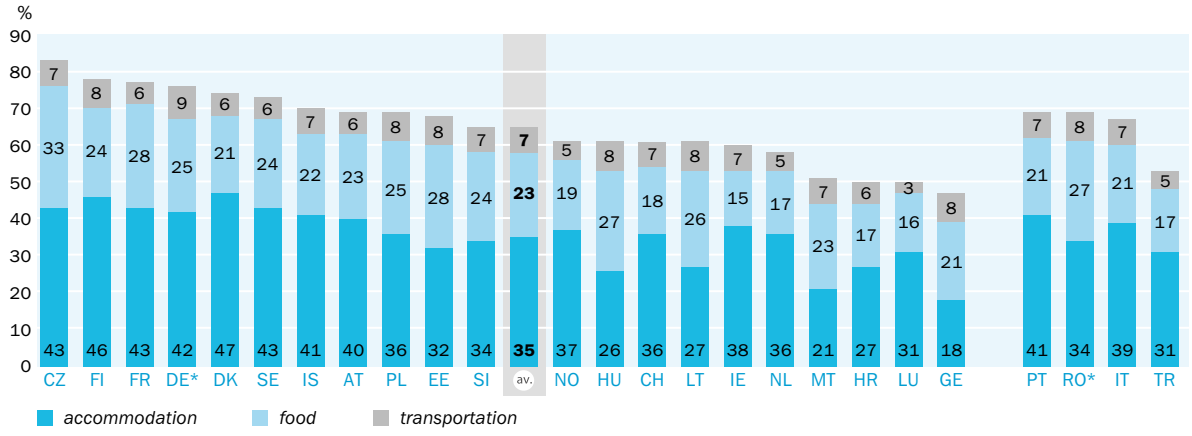
To which purposes do students allocate their living expenses in detail? The following analysis investigates students' living expenses for specific items, namely accommodation, food, and transportation. The analysis is restricted to students who are not living with parents, as living expenses and especially accommodation costs have a greater significance for them than their peers who are living with parents. On cross-country average, the expenses for accommodation, food, and transportation absorb 65 % of students' total monthly expenses (including transfers in kind).

Students not living with parents dedicate, on aggregate across countries, 65% of their total monthly expenses to accommodation, food, and transportation.

Figure B8.2

Costs for accommodation, food, and transportation – students not living with parents

Expenses paid by students and others, monthly expenses as a share of total expenses including transfers in kind (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, F.3, F.68, F.142, and F.143.* ***No data:*** *AL.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.17 What are your average expenses for the following items during the current lecture period?*

Note(s): *Included are expenses of parents/partner/others in favour of the students as well as their provision of goods and services (= transfers in kind).*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *DE, FR, RO.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

- The sum of these expenses is comparatively high in the Czech Republic, Finland, France, Germany, and Denmark, with around 75 % or more of total expenses. By contrast, it is rather low in Croatia, Luxembourg, and Georgia, with no more than 50 %.

When measured against the international average, it appears that accommodation costs are of the greatest importance for students. They amount to more than one third of students' total monthly expenses. Food requires almost a quarter and transportation slightly less than a tenth of students' total expenses. In all countries except Hungary, Malta, and Georgia, accommodation costs account for the largest part of living expenses and, furthermore, of total expenses.

- The share of accommodation costs is highest in Finland and Denmark, with at least 46 % of students' total expenses. By contrast, students in Malta and Georgia allocate, on average, not more than 21 % of their total monthly expenses to residential purposes. This also means that the range of shares is widest for this expenditure category (29 percentage points).

Spending on food is the second most important expenditure category in the vast majority of countries.

- In the Czech Republic, France, and Estonia, food expenditure amounts to at least 28 % of students' total expenses; this clearly exceeds the cross-country average of 23 %. In more than a quarter of countries, the share of food expenses is below 20 %.

In all countries, transportation clearly requires the lowest share of the three key expenditure categories. Across countries, students dedicate 7 % of their total expenses per month to traffic mobility.

- In Finland, Germany, Poland, Estonia, Hungary, Lithuania, Georgia, and Romania, the expenditure share is slightly above the international average at 8 and 9 % respectively. The share of transportation costs is rather low in Norway, the Netherlands, Luxembourg, and Turkey, where it does not exceed 5 % of students' total monthly expenses.

Both accommodation and transportation costs are associated with students' type of housing. Living with parents is usually the most cost-saving type of housing for students with respect to rent. However, students who live in the parental home have to cover longer distances to get to university, which causes higher indirect transportation costs in terms of the commuting time (= time opportunity costs, > *Chapter B9*). Direct transportation costs, that is, payments for the mode of transportation, may also be higher for these students as they often cannot use particularly inexpensive modes of transportation, such as walking or cycling due to the long distances. Instead, they must resort to more expensive means of transport, such as public transport or cars. By contrast, students residing in student accommodation usually have the shortest commuting time (> *Chapter B9*). This often allows them to reach the university on foot or by bicycle (low indirect and direct transportation costs). However, these students have to pay a higher rent than their fellow students who live with their parents.

Since housing costs claim the largest part of student expenditure, it may be insightful to differentiate them further by groups of students (Table B8.2). With respect to students' educational background it shows that students with a tertiary education background spend, on cross-country average, the largest share on housing compared to their peers

with medium or low educational backgrounds (cross-country averages: 36 % vs. 35 % vs. 34 %). When differentiating by dependency on an income source, it appears that students depending on national public student support spend the largest proportion on accommodation, whilst their fellow students depending on self-earned income dedicate the least share to accommodation (cross-country averages: 38 % vs. 32 %). These expenditure shares are inversely proportional to students' income levels, meaning that students depending on national public student support are most likely to have the lowest total monthly income, whilst their peers depending on self-earned income have the highest total income per month in the vast majority of countries (> *Chapter B7*).

Accommodation costs of students not living with parents

As the previous analysis has shown, accommodation costs require a large chunk of students' budget, especially when they live away from their parents. What is the actual magnitude of student expenditure on accommodation and how does it differ by the form of housing? The level of accommodation costs (including ancillary costs) that students not living with parents spend per month in different forms of housing are displayed below (Figure B8.3). On cross-country average, students who live with their partner and/or children spend 407 PPS per month on accommodation (chart a). Their peers who share their accommodation with other persons (e.g. fellow students or friends) dedicate, on average across countries, 321 PPS monthly to accommodation (chart b), and the respective amount for student accommodation is 268 PPS per month (chart c).

Students living with partner/children have the highest level of accommodation costs (cross-country average: 407 PPS per month).

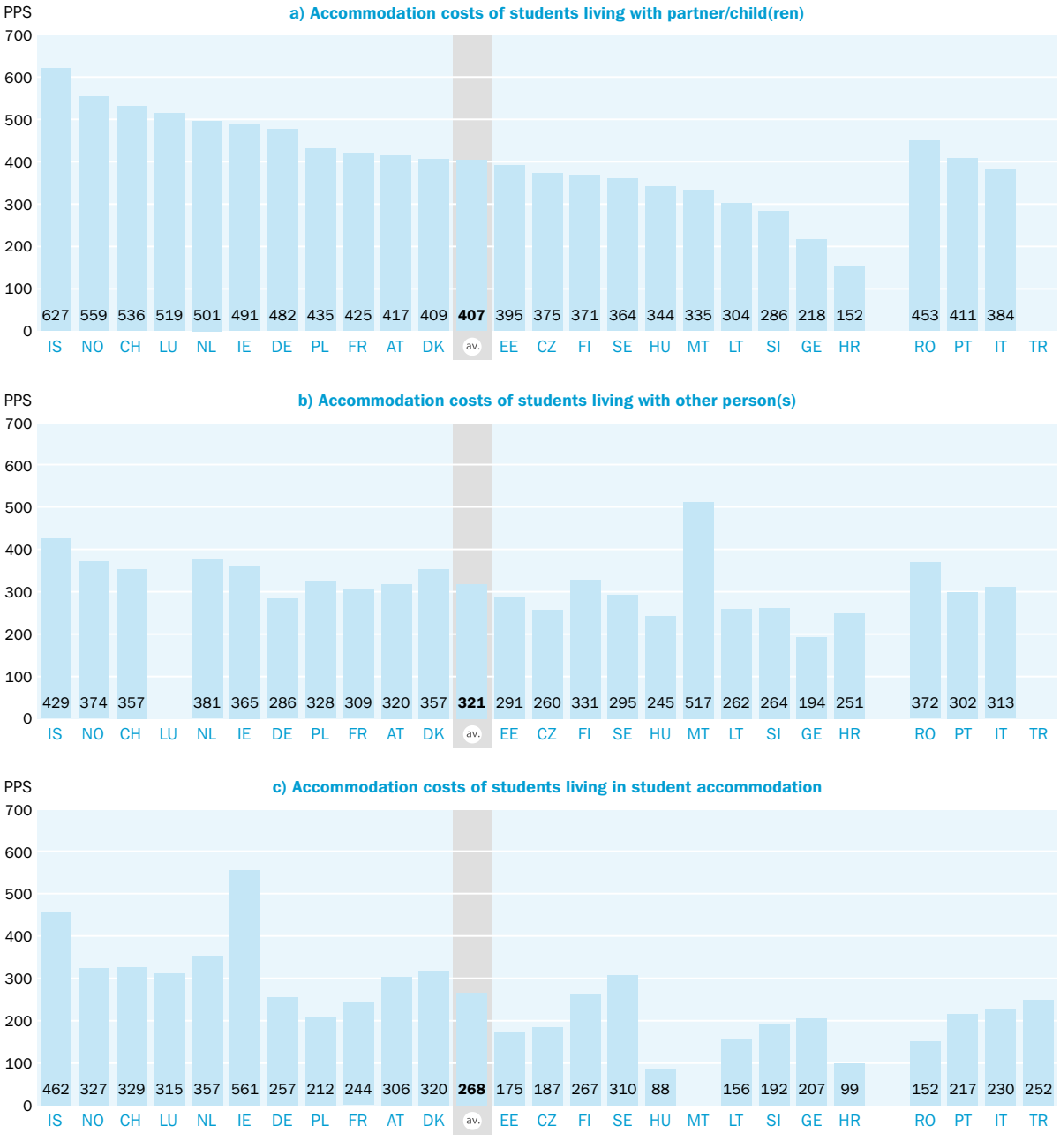
On this measure, students living with partner/children have the highest level of expenses. There are several reasons for this. Students who have their own family need more living space than their fellow students who live alone or who just need a room in a shared flat; this need for larger living space results in higher rents for the first group. Furthermore, students who live with partner/children clearly tend to be older (> *Chapter B9*). Older students usually have markedly higher levels of total income (> *Chapter B7*), which enables them to afford more expensive housing space. This argument is all the more important when students live with their partner in a double-income household. Student accommodation appears to be the cheapest form of housing among all options outside the parental home (including the option 'living alone outside student accommodation', which is not displayed in Figure B8.3 [cross-country average: 382 PPS per month]). This holds true for more than four fifths of countries; exceptions are Georgia, Ireland, Iceland, and Sweden. In many countries, student accommodation is subject to state support in order to provide students with affordable housing space. This type of social policy reduces the accommodation prices below market level, which makes this form of housing particularly inexpensive. In addition, students residing in student accommodation are rather young (> *Chapter B9*) and considerably more often dependent on public support (> *Chapter B9*). Both result in rather low total income making it more likely (or sometimes indispensable) that these students will choose the cheapest form of housing.

- When looking at further patterns, it seems that housing costs vary with a country's GDP per capita. Iceland, Norway, and the Netherlands are among the countries with the comparatively highest levels of accommodation costs in all three charts. In two charts, this is also true for Switzerland. All countries have a GDP per capita above the international average.

Figure B8.3

Accommodation costs by form of housing – students not living with parents

Monthly amounts paid by students and others (mean, in PPS)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, F.66 (PPP).* ***No data:*** *AL. With partner/children, with other person(s): TR.* ***Too few cases:*** *With other person(s): LU. Student accommodation: MT.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.17 What are your average expenses for the following items during the current lecture period?*

Note(s): *Included are expenses of parents/partner/others in favour of the students as well as their provision of goods and services (= transfers in kind).*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

- By contrast, Lithuania and Croatia belong to a group of countries where the opposite holds true, in other words, the level of housing expenditure is rather low for all three types of accommodation displayed. For two out of three types of housing, Hungary and Georgia can also be included in this group. In these countries, the GDP per capita is below average.[5]

When looking at the share of accommodation costs in students' total monthly expenses, it appears that a higher *level* of expenditure does not necessarily result in higher expenditure *shares*. For example, students living with partner/children have, on cross-country average, the highest level of accommodation costs. However, in the majority of countries, they concurrently show the lowest share of accommodation costs in total monthly expenses of the four types of housing outside the parental home (Table B8.2).

Accommodation costs of students not living with parents by size of study location

In all countries, students living in the capital city have higher accommodation costs than their peers in cities with up to 100,000 inhabitants.

It is not only the type of housing that influences the accommodation costs of students, but also the size of the place of residence. The following analysis compares the average accommodation costs of students not living with parents in study locations with up to 100,000 inhabitants with those in the respective capital city. On cross-country average, students living away from parents in cities with up to 100,000 inhabitants spend 323 PPS per month on accommodation (Figure B8.4).

- In country comparison, the level of housing expenditure is relatively high in Iceland, Norway, and Ireland, with (clearly) more than 400 PPS monthly.
- Students in Croatia and Georgia living in smaller cities away from parents spend less than 200 PPS per month on accommodation.

Students who reside in the capital city devote, on average across countries, 373 PPS per month to housing. In all countries with data on both study locations, students pay higher amounts on accommodation in the capital city.

- The largest differences between students' accommodation expenses in smaller cities and the capital city can be found in Ireland, France, Poland, Lithuania, Georgia, Portugal, and Turkey. In these countries, students' housing expenses are at least 30 % higher in the capital city.
- The smallest differences are found in Iceland, Denmark, and Austria, where the relative difference in accommodation costs between students in smaller cities and the capital city does not exceed 1 %.

Across all countries, the relative difference in the average accommodation costs of students in cities with up to 100,000 inhabitants and those in the respective capital city amounts to 16 %. When data for other sizes of study locations are taken into account (> 100,000–300,000 inhabitants, > 300,000–500,000, and > 500,000), it becomes apparent that, on cross-country average, accommodation costs tend to increase with the size of the study location, though not strictly linear (> *Database*).[6]

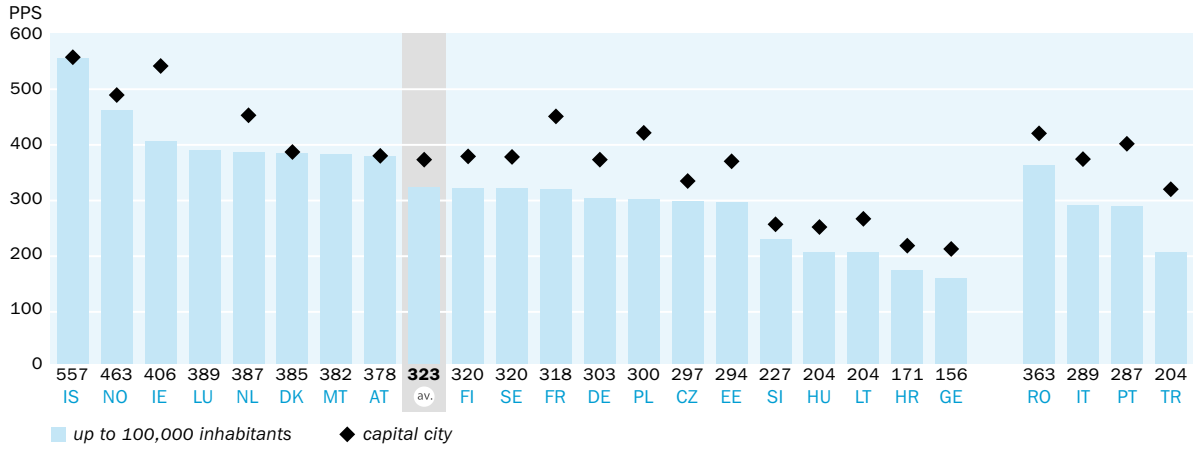
5 *If the GDP per capita in PPS for the EU-27 countries in 2019 is normalised to 100, the following values result for the first group of countries: Iceland = 126, Netherlands = 128, Norway = 147, Switzerland = 158. The respective results for the second group are: Croatia = 65, Georgia = 34 (own estimate), Hungary = 73, Lithuania = 84 (Eurostat, 2020; World Bank, 2020).*

6 *Please note that only few country data are available for the categories '> 300,000–500,000 inhabitants' and '> 500,000 inhabitants'.*

Figure B8.4

Accommodation costs by size of study location – students not living with parents

Monthly amount paid by students and others (mean, in PPS)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, F.66 (PPP).* ***No data:*** *AL, CH. Capital city: LU, MT.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.17 What are your average expenses for the following items during the current lecture period?*

Note(s): *Included are expenses of parents/partner/others in favour of the students as well as their provision of goods and services (= transfers in kind). Values above the country abbreviations represent the accommodation costs of students (financially supported by others) in cities with up to 100,000 inhabitants.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

One reason for this growth in spending on accommodation could be that residents of larger cities tend to have higher incomes than those of smaller cities.[7] Housing providers in larger cities may then skim off the households' higher ability to pay. Another reason why housing expenses can increase with the size of the place of residence is the rising price level (not only due to housing providers' pricing policy). This is, however, not reflected in the above data as the use of PPS eliminates price level differences.

B 8

When the share of accommodation costs in students' total monthly expenses is considered by the size of the study location, it appears that the lowest share of accommodation costs is often found in cities with up to 100,000 inhabitants (cross-country average: 33 %, Table B8.2). The cross-country average only increases with the size of the study location (> 100,000–300,000 inhabitants: 37 %, > 300,000–500,000 inhabitants: 43 %) and then decreases again (> 500,000 inhabitants: 40 %). The cross-country average of accommodation costs in the capital city amounts to 'just' 36 %.

Comparison over time: accommodation costs of students not living with parents from E:V to E:VII

In the majority of countries, the share of accommodation costs of students not living with parents has risen over the last decade.

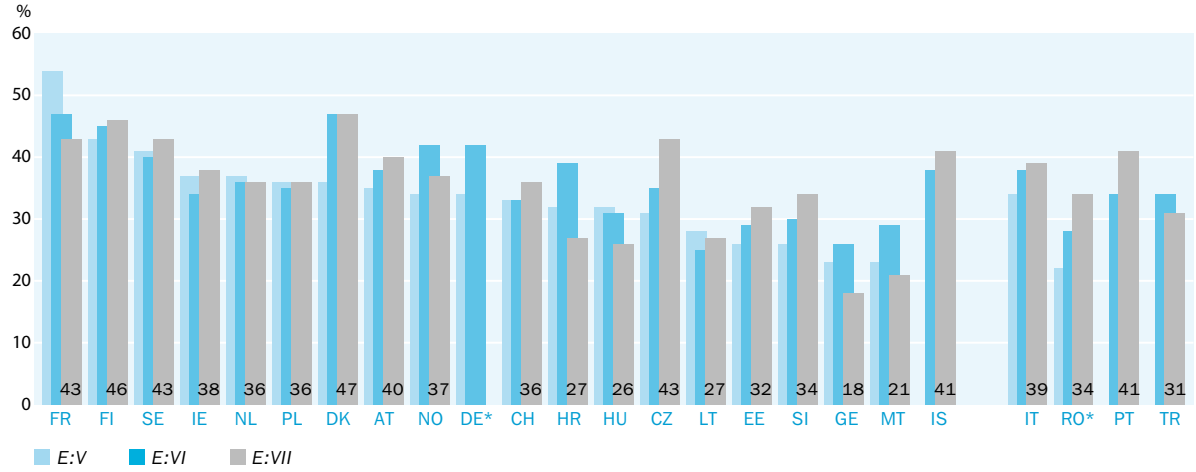
How has the burden of accommodation costs developed over time? The relative accommodation costs of students not living with parents over the last three rounds of EUROSTUDENT are shown below (Figure B8.5). The monthly accommodation costs are displayed as a share of students' total expenses including transfers in kind. There is a trend of increasing accommodation costs for students not living with parents between E:V and E:VII.

7 *This can be seen, for example, when comparing the household income by the degree of urbanisation. Across the EU-27 countries, the following values have been identified for the mean equivalised net household income in 2019: cities: 20,953 PPS, towns and suburbs: 20,385 PPS, and rural areas: 17,430 PPS (Eurostat, 2021).*

Figure B8.5

Time comparison of accommodation costs – students not living with parents

Monthly accommodation costs as a share of total expenses including transfers in kind (in %, micro perspective)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT V: F.2, EUROSTUDENT VI: F.10 and F. 76, EUROSTUDENT VII: F.142.* ***No data:*** *AL. E:V: IS, LU, PT, TR. E:VI: LU. E:VII: DE.*

Data collection: *E:VII: Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *3.7/3.4/4.17 What are your average expenses for the following items during the current semester (E:VI and E:VII: lecture period)?*

Note(s): *Transfers in kind are expenses of parents/partner/others in favour of the students as well as their provision of goods and services.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *DE, FR, RO.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

- In 54 % of countries, the share has risen by at least three percentage points. The cost increase is particularly marked in Denmark, the Czech Republic, and Romania, with at least 11 percentage points.
- In France, Croatia, Hungary, Georgia, and Turkey, a rather clear decrease is apparent in the share of accommodation costs between E:V and E:VII. In these countries, the decline amounts to at least four percentage points.[8]
- Finally, in a quarter of countries, there are either no changes or only minor changes, not exceeding two percentage points up or down. This group of countries encompasses Sweden, Ireland, the Netherlands, Poland, Lithuania, and Malta.

Despite some country-specific variations, in a majority of countries, there is a general trend of rising shares of housing costs in students' total monthly expenses among those not living with parents. One possible explanation is that an increasing number of home-seekers meet a supply of housing that is clearly increasing more slowly. This would result in a rising price level for housing and consequently lead to a possible increase in the proportion of accommodation costs in students' total expenses. Another explanatory factor could be that student income in general, and public support as part of it in particular, is rising at a lower rate than the general price level (including the price level for accommodation). This reduces the purchasing power of the students' budget, which is why a larger share of it has to be spent on accommodation.

8 *In Turkey, the decrease took place between E:VI and E:VII.*

The structure of study-related expenses

Across countries, students allocate 10 % of their total monthly expenses to fees.

In all countries, students devote more than half of their total expenses to living costs. Nevertheless, study-related expenses also play an important role and can account for a considerable proportion of students' budget. The structure of study-related expenses paid by students and their families per month is analysed below (Figure B8.6).[9] Study-related expenses are divided into three categories: 1) fees[10] for tuition, registration, and administration, 2) contributions to student unions/associations/councils, for student services, or insurance (except medical insurance), and 3) other study-related costs (e.g. field trips, books, photocopying, private tutoring, or additional courses).

- The share of all study-related expenses is, on cross-country average, comparatively high in Luxembourg, the Netherlands, and Croatia, accounting for more than 20 % of students' total monthly expenses (including transfers in kind). This is clearly above the international average (13 %).
- In Sweden, Germany, Estonia, and Finland, the proportion of study-related expenses is rather low, not even half the international average.

In almost 90 % of countries, fees are the expenditure category with the single highest share of all study-related expenses. The only exceptions are Sweden and Finland, where the single highest share is reported for other study-related expenses. On aggregate across countries, students allocate 10 % of their total monthly expenses to fees.

- The share of fees is relatively large in Luxembourg, the Netherlands, and Croatia, with at least 17 % of students' total monthly expenses.
- In about a third of countries, namely Norway, Austria, Sweden, Germany, Estonia, and Finland, fees absorb less than 5 % of students' total expenditure per month.

Other study-related expenses are the second most important category of all study-related expenses. On average across countries, students dedicate 3 % of their total monthly expenses to this category.

- In five countries, the Netherlands, Malta, Hungary, Slovenia, and Sweden, the share of other study-related costs lies above the international average. In just as many countries, including Luxembourg, Austria, Germany, Estonia, and Finland, the proportion is below the EUROSTUDENT cross-country average.

Contributions to student organisations appear to be the category with the least importance for students' budget. Measured against the international average, students devote less than 1 % of their total monthly expenses, including transfers in kind, to this purpose.

It shows that fees, as the most typical expenditure category for participating in higher education, continue to be the most important part of students' study-related expenses in the large majority of countries. The following section will, therefore, examine which parts of the student population pay fees.

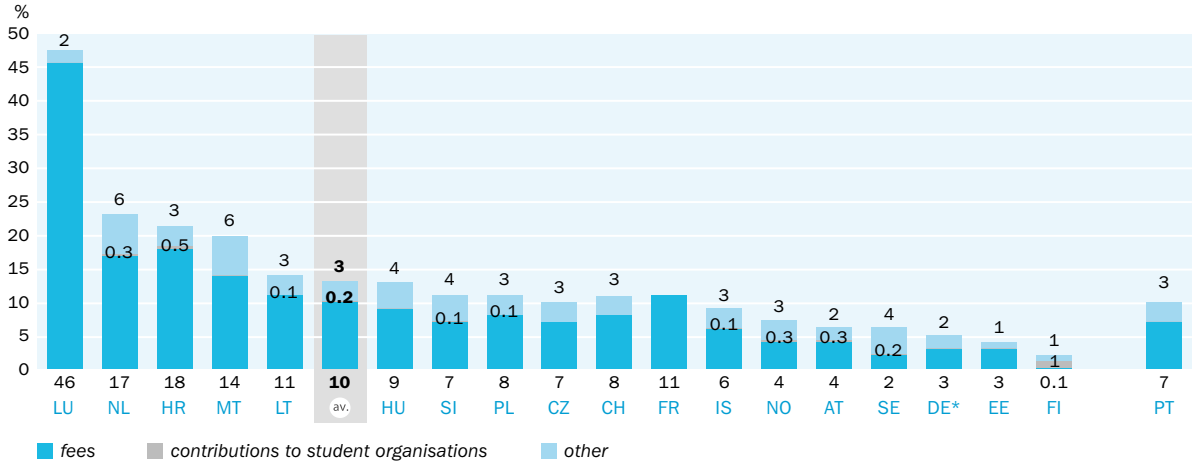
9 *Some study-related expenses, especially fees, are often paid per semester. In order to assure comparability with other study-related expenses, all expenditure per semester was converted to a monthly basis.*

10 *It should be noted that the definition as well as the naming of fees varies across countries. This means that a study-related expense that is not designated as a fee may nevertheless have the character of a fee.*

Figure B8.6

Composition of study-related expenses

Share of total monthly expenses paid by students and others (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, F.1, F.97, F.98 and F.99.* ***No data:*** *AL, DK, GE, IE, IT, RO, TR. Contributions to student organisations: CH, CZ, FR. Other: FR.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), PT (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.17 What are your average expenses for the following items during the current lecture period?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *DE, FR.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Fee-paying students

Across EUROSTUDENT countries, 57 % of students pay fees to HEIs.

In many countries, the obligation to pay fees to public and private HEIs is not all-encompassing, in other words, not all students are affected. In the following, an overview is provided of the fee-paying proportion of the student population in the EUROSTUDENT countries and which student groups pay fees with above- or below-average frequency (Figure B8.7). On average across countries, more than half (57 %) of students pay fees to HEIs. There are, however, large differences between countries.

- In about one quarter of countries, nearly all students pay fees. This is the case in Switzerland, Norway,[11] Luxembourg, Iceland, the Netherlands, and Portugal, where more than 90 % of students pay fees.
- In more than one third of countries, between more than half and almost 90 % of students pay fees. This includes Croatia, Slovenia, Georgia, Ireland, Malta, France, Hungary, Italy, and Turkey.
- Finally, in 40 % of countries, fee-paying students are only a minority. In Poland, the Czech Republic, Lithuania, Austria, Germany, and Romania, the minority is quite large, ranging between 48 % and 30 %. In Sweden and Finland, the share of fee-paying students is only marginal, with no more than 1 %.

A comparison by the type of HEI shows that students at non-universities pay fees more often than their fellow students at universities (Figure B8.7a). On aggregate across countries, 66 % of students at non-universities pay fees, while the respective share

11 *Students at public HEIs in Norway do not pay fees. However, institutions may charge tuition fees for certain specialised courses within continuing and further education aimed at people in employment. Furthermore, government-dependent private HEIs charge tuition fees (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2020). Included in the Norwegian data are semester fees that every student at public HEIs has to pay, granting membership to local student organisations and other services.*

among students at universities amounts to 55 %. This pattern is reflected in two thirds of EUROSTUDENT countries with available data. There are different reasons why non-universities charge fees more often than universities. In Austria, for example, universities of applied sciences (= non-universities) have by law more extensive opportunities to charge fees than universities. In some countries, this is a consequence of the fact that universities of applied sciences are often privately owned and receive clearly less or no state support. Furthermore, the obligation to pay fees is sometimes tied to certain programmes, such as part-time or short-cycle programmes, which are provided more often by non-universities in many countries (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2018). The payment of fees also varies by study subject. If the supply of certain study subjects differs across the types of HEIs, this may also result in different fee-payer quotas.

When differentiating by students' formal status of enrolment, it appears that part-time students pay fees more often than full-time students (Figure B8.7b). On aggregate across countries, 70 % of part-time students pay fees, while this applies only to 54 % of full-time students. In 56 % of countries with available data on both groups of students, part-timers show higher proportions of fee-payers than full-timers. Why do part-time students pay fees more often than full-time students? First of all, students' formal status of enrolment is related to the type of HEI. Part-time students are enrolled at non-universities much more frequently than at universities (DZHW, 2018). As shown above, non-universities charge fees more often than universities. Furthermore, regardless of the type of HEI, it can be stated that the organisation and administration of part-time programmes causes additional costs for the HEIs, which have to be covered, for example, by means of fees. Finally, in all EUROSTUDENT countries, part-time students have a higher total monthly income than their full-time counterparts.[12] This is because the first group receives considerably larger parts of their income from gainful employment. Part-time study programmes are often specifically geared towards this population of salaried, returning students.

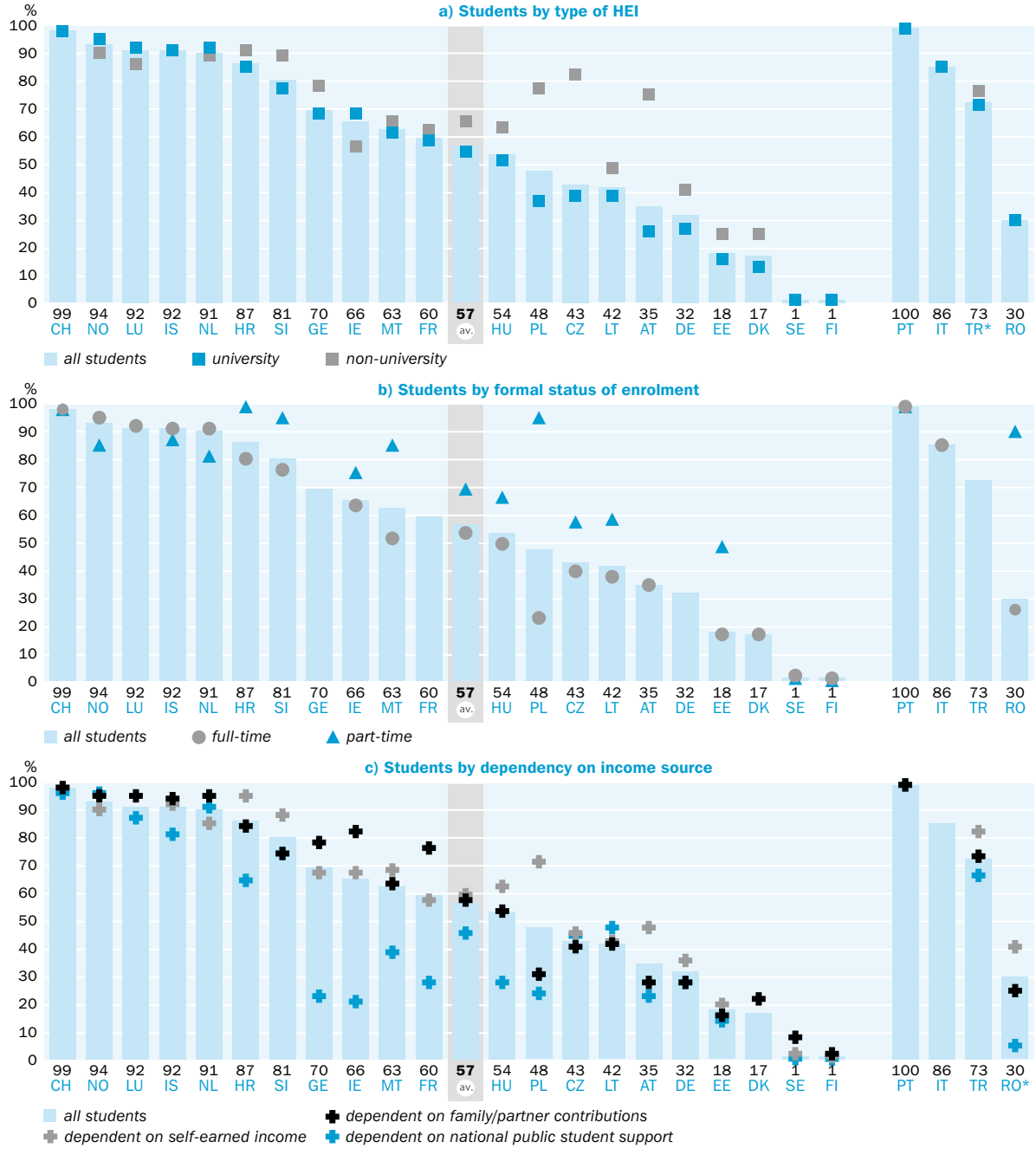
The share of fee-paying students also differs when distinguishing by students' dependency on an income source (Figure B8.7c). Across all countries, students depending on self-earned income are most often charged with fees (60 %) in a group comparison. Their fellows who depend on family/partner contributions are affected slightly less frequently (58 %) and students depending on national public student support pay fees the least often of all three groups (46 %). The relatively low proportion of fee-payers among students depending on national public student support in most countries can be attributed to different reasons. On the one hand, these students may be exempt from paying fees for reasons of social policy. This is the case in Ireland, for students receiving need-based grants or for students in Switzerland, Croatia, Hungary, and Lithuania, who are in difficult economic circumstances or belong to socially disadvantaged groups (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2018). On the other hand, it is common practice in several countries, including Georgia, Hungary, and Lithuania, for high-performing students to receive state support also through the allocation of

12 *Across EUROSTUDENT countries, the mean income (including transfers in kind) of part-time students amounts to 1,635 PPS per month, while that of full-time students is 1,009 PPS in the same time span (> Database).*

Figure B8.7

Fee-paying students by type of HEI, formal status of enrolment, and dependency on an income source

Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, F.153.* ***No data:*** *AL. Full-time: DE, FR, GE, TR. Part-time: DE, DK, FR, GE, IT, TR. Dependent on family/partner contributions: IT. Dependent on self-earned income and national public student support: DK, IT.* ***Too few cases:*** *Part-time and dependent on self-earned income: LU.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.17 What are your average expenses for the following items during the current lecture period?*

Note(s): *Values above the country abbreviations represent the share of fee-payers among all students. There are no non-universities in Iceland, Italy, Romania, or Sweden. There are no part-time students in Austria.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *RO, TR.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

state-funded study places (free of charge), while students who are not supported by the state have to pay fees (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2018). Furthermore, for cost reasons, it may well be that students receiving national public student support deliberately enrol at certain HEIs or in specific study programmes that do not charge fees.

When analysing data on further student groups, it appears that, on aggregate across countries, students with a low education background are most likely to pay fees (58 %), whilst their peers with a tertiary education background are those with the lowest proportion of fee-payers in a group comparison (56 %, Table B8.3). Master students pay fees as often as their fellow students in Bachelor programmes, at least on cross-country average (57 %). When differentiating by the field of study, the range for the share of fee-paying students is remarkable. On cross-country average, the proportion of fee-paying students varies from 50 % in 'natural sciences, mathematics, and statistics' to 61 % in 'business, administration, and law'. Finally, international students are more likely to pay fees than their domestic counterparts (cross-country averages: 64 % vs. 58 %).

The amount of fees paid to HEIs differs sometimes markedly across various groups of students. On cross-country average, fee-paying students dedicate 221 PPS per month to this purpose (Table B8.4). When differentiating by students' educational background, it appears that students with a medium education background spend the lowest amount on fees (181 PPS) and their counterparts with a tertiary education background the highest (250 PPS). Further student groups that spend an above-average amount on fees are, for example, students attending universities (234 PPS), students in Master programmes (289 PPS), students majoring in engineering, manufacturing, and construction (240 PPS), and students who do not receive public support (263 PPS).

The cost recoverability of public support

In the vast majority of countries, fee-paying students who receive public support get higher support than they have to pay in fees.

Public support to students is often meant to cover parts of both living costs and study-related costs. Would state support be sufficient to fully cover the expenses for fees as they are usually the most important sub-category of study-related costs? The following analysis contrasts national public student support with fees to HEIs. For students who pay fees and – at the same time – receive national public student support, the average monthly amounts of both items are displayed (Figure B8.8).[13] The blue bars show the magnitude of public support, while the grey bars illustrate the amount of fees. Students in the focus group, that is, fee-payers receiving public support get, on cross-country average, 335 PPS per month from the public sector; in the same time span they spend 105 PPS on fees. This means public support is more than three times the fees.

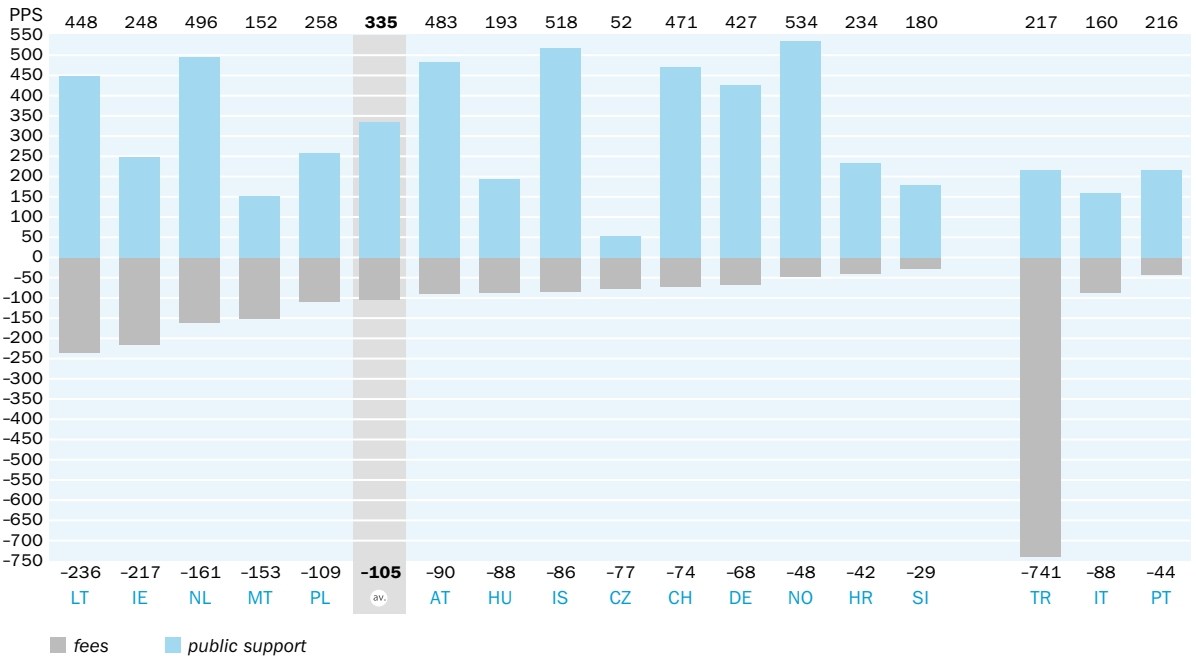
In 82 % of countries, the average amount of public support is higher than the average amount of fees.

13 *In most countries, students have to pay fees either per semester or per year. For this analysis, fees were recalculated as per-month expenses.*

Figure B8.8

Cost recoverability of public support

Average amount of fees (paid by students and others) and national public student support per month (in PPS) – only fee-paying students who receive national public student support



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, F.154 (PPP) and F.155(PPP).* ***No data:*** *AL, DK, RO. Public support: EE, FR, GE, LU.* ***Too few cases:*** *FI, SE.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.16 What is the average monthly amount available to you in cash or via bank transfers from the following sources during the current lecture period?, 4.17 What are your average expenses for the following items during the current lecture period?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *IE, IT, SI.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

- The cost recoverability of public support is especially high in Iceland, Switzerland, Germany, Norway, and Slovenia. In these countries, the average monthly amount of public support is more than six times as high as the average monthly amount of fees.
- In the remaining countries in this group, the surplus of public support over fees varies between 14 % in Ireland and 460 % in Croatia.

In three countries, Malta, the Czech Republic, and Turkey, the relationship between public support and fees is reversed, in other words, the average amount of fees exceeds (if only marginally) the average amount of public support.

- In these countries, the proportion of fees covered by public support ranges from 99 % in Malta to 29 % in Turkey. This means that parts of study-related costs and living costs of the recipients of public support need to be covered by other sources.

Students' ability to pay for an unexpected required expense

The above analysis examined the extent to which students can cover fees through public support. The following examines whether students would be able to generally cover an unexpected required major expense (Figure B8.9). The underlying question in the EUROSTUDENT survey was: "Would you be able to pay for an unexpected required

Almost half of students whose parents are financially not at all well-off are unable to pay for an unexpected required major expense.

expense of xx currency units?". The amount in question varied across countries; a threshold value was generally used that corresponds to 60 % of the national median income of all students from the sixth EUROSTUDENT survey.[14] The figure displays only the share of students who responded that they were unable to afford the unexpected expense through their own resources and that nobody else would be able to pay this on their behalf.

On cross-country average, a fifth of students state that they (and their private environment) would not be able to pay for an unexpected required major expense.

- The share is particularly high in Switzerland, Ireland, and Georgia, where more than a third of students are affected. By contrast, in Sweden and the Czech Republic, less than every tenth student feels unable to pay.

When differentiating by students' parents' financial status, it appears that students who consider their parents financially not at all well-off are much more often confronted with this problem than their fellow students whose parents are seemingly very well-off.

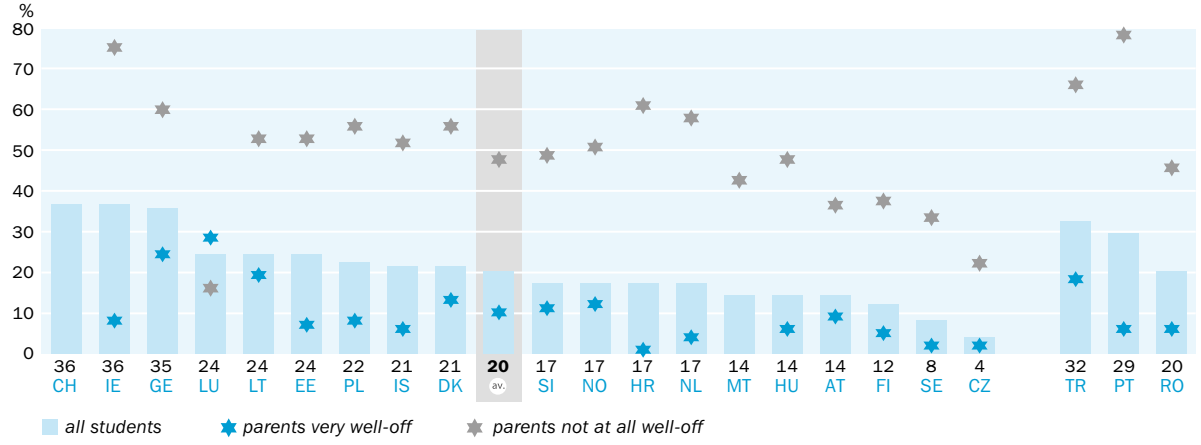
- On average across countries, almost every second student (47 %) whose parents are not at all well-off feels unable to pay for an unexpected required major expense. In the group of those whose parents are very well-off it is only every tenth student.

In all but one country with available data on the two groups, the share among students with not well-off parents is at least 20 percentage points higher than in the comparison group.

Figure B8.9

Students' ability to pay for an unexpected required expense by parental wealth

Share of students who cannot afford to pay via their own or third-party resources (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, F.152.* ***No data:*** *AL, DE, FR, IT. Parental wealth: CH.* ***Too few cases:*** *Parents very well-off: MT.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.19 Would you be able to pay for an unexpected required expense of xx currency units? Source: Item adapted from Eurostat (ilc_mdes04). Parents' financial status: PIRLS 2006. Copyright © 2005 International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA). Publisher: TIMSS & PIRLS International Study Center, Lynch School of Education, Boston College.*

Note(s): *Values above the country abbreviations represent the share of all students who would not be able to pay.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *CZ.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

14 *In case data from E:VI were not available, reference should have been made to 60 % of the median income of the national population age-matched to the student body.*

- In Ireland, Estonia, Poland, Iceland, Croatia, the Netherlands, Turkey, and Portugal, the difference between the two student groups amounts to at least 45 percentage points.

Further student groups that express an inability to pay for an unexpected required major expense disproportionately often are, for instance, students with financial difficulties, delayed transition students, international students, students depending on national public student support, and students from low educational backgrounds (> *Database*).

Discussion and policy considerations

Covering one's own expenses is a fundamental objective of students' financial activities. A look at the structure of students' total monthly expenses shows that living costs continue to dominate. In all countries, this type of costs requires more than half of all expenditure and, on cross-country average, living expenses amount to 87 % of students' total expenses. By this measure, living costs appear to be the greatest financial barrier that students and their families have to surmount. This should be kept in mind in the search for cost-effective ways of reducing financial barriers for students (see also Johnstone, 2013), especially for students belonging to disadvantaged groups who, according to various Bologna Communiqués (London Communiqué, 2007; Yerevan Communiqué, 2015; Annex II to the Rome Communiqué, 2020), are among the target groups of social policy measures.

In many cases, students receive support from their private environment to finance their studies, especially from their parents and partner. Across all EUROSTUDENT countries, students' families cover 28 % of students' total monthly expenses; in some countries, like Switzerland, Croatia, and Portugal, it is even more than 40 %. In the recent past, the importance of family support for student funding has increased in Europe (Antonucci, 2016). While parents assuming large parts of students' expenses used to be mainly a characteristic of southern European countries, this has now spread to other regions in Europe (Antonucci, 2016; Brooks, 2017). Callender points out that the increasing private sources for the funding of higher education imply the danger of only substituting public sources (Callender, 2017; Janeba et al., 2007). Such a 'crowding-out' of public means by private ones is to be expected especially in times of austerity. Such a government policy may violate, however, widely drawn notions of equity (Callender, 2017) as it is to be expected that predominantly (potential) students from low-income families will be negatively affected; this increases inequalities.

A more in-depth look at student expenditure brings to light that accommodation costs (including utilities) continue to be the largest expense item for students not living with parents. Across all countries and all forms of housing outside the parental home, students devote, on average, slightly more than a third of their total monthly expenses (including transfers in kind) to accommodation; in the Czech Republic, Finland, France, Germany, Denmark, Sweden, Iceland, and Portugal, it is even more than 40 %. In the last decade, the share of accommodation costs (including utilities) for students not living with parents has increased in the majority of countries. In Denmark, the Czech Republic, and Romania, the cost increase was most pronounced with at least 11 percentage points. The trend of increasing accommodation costs is probably due to

rising housing costs on the one hand and, presumably, to more slowly increasing student income on the other. As accommodation plays an essential, multi-functional role in students' lives, the increasing accommodation costs are one of the most pressing problems, especially for students in shared accommodation (> *Chapter B9*).

In terms of study-related costs, fees have a similarly dominant role as accommodation costs have for the costs of living. In the vast majority of countries, fees are the expenditure category with the single highest share of all study-related expenses. On cross-country average, students allocate one tenth of their total monthly expenses to fees. In Luxembourg, the Netherlands, and Croatia, fees amount to at least 17 % of students' total monthly expenses. The proportion of students paying fees varies greatly between the EUROSTUDENT countries. In Switzerland, Norway, Luxembourg, Iceland, the Netherlands, and Portugal, more than 90 % of students pay fees. By contrast, in Sweden and Finland, no more than 1 % of students do so. On average across countries, 57 % of students pay fees to HEIs. Within the student populations, fee-payers are unevenly distributed. Student groups that pay fees overproportionately often include, for example, students at non-universities, part-time students, students who depend on self-earned income, and international students.

Fees can be ambivalent in their effects. On the one hand, they are an addition to students' living costs and other study-related costs. One coping strategy of students then seems to be to reduce their total expenditure, as a study for Germany has shown (Thomsen & Haaren-Giebel, 2016). For students with low incomes, fees can cause or at least exacerbate financial difficulties (> *Chapter B7*), which can lead to a higher risk of dropping out of higher education (Heineck et al., 2005) or discourage potential students from enrolling in the first place (Hübner, 2012; Quast et al., 2012; Heine et al., 2008). On the other hand, if fees are used by universities to hire additional staff, improve material and spatial equipment, and provide better services, this can potentially improve the quality of teaching (Hauschildt, Jaeger, & Quast, 2013). By imposing fees, different areas of politics and HEIs themselves can pursue diverse objectives. These include, above all, providing HEIs with additional resources, increasing their efficiency, advancing social justice, and improving the quality of teaching (Krause, 2008). These objectives may be mutually exclusive and conflict with further social or economic objectives. Some of these conflicts cannot be resolved. In this case, priorities must be set by policymakers. In their considerations they should take the objectives of the social dimension of the EHEA into account so that "access, participation, progress and completion of higher education depend primarily on students' abilities, not on their personal characteristics or circumstances beyond their direct influence." (Annex II to the Rome Communiqué, 2020). In the current COVID-19 pandemic, many countries have increased their public spending on health and social policies. For subsequent budget consolidation in the future, it might be necessary to considerably reduce government spending again, possibly also in the higher education sector. As a result, HEIs might feel compelled to introduce or increase fees in order to compensate for the loss of public funds.

According to the Rome Communiqué, public financial student support systems "should mainly contribute to cover both the direct costs of study (fees and study materials) and the indirect costs (e.g. accommodation,...)." (Annex II to the Rome Communiqué, 2020). Our analysis on the cost recoverability of public support focussed on the situation of fee-paying students who receive public support at the same time. In more than 80 % of countries, the average amount of public support is higher than the average amount of fees. Thus, the respective students would be able to cover at least parts of other study-related costs and living expenses in addition to fees. This is especially true for students in Iceland, Switzerland, Germany, Norway, and Slovenia. In three countries, the average monthly amount of fees (marginally) exceeds the average amount of public support per month. Thus, students need additional sources of funding to cover their remaining expenses. This case appears to miss the objective of the EHEA that public support should *mainly* contribute to cover students' direct and indirect costs. This could be a more widespread problem beyond fee-paying students. One reason for this problem could be that public support is miscalculated and/or not regularly adjusted to price level developments. Kelchen et al. have found for the U.S. that nearly half of all colleges provide living cost-allowances for their students at least 20 % above or below estimated county-level living expenses (Kelchen, Goldrick-Rab, & Hosch, 2017). However, the phenomenon that state support does not sufficiently take (regional) price level developments into account – and the demand for remedial action – is not restricted to the U.S., but can also be found in the EHEA (for England, Hordósy & Clark, 2019; for Germany, Steiner & Wrohlich, 2008). To keep student expenses and income in a reasonable proportion, at least for those students who receive public support, state support should be regularly adjusted to the regional costs of living.

Tables

Table B8.1

Composition of students' expenses by payer and form of housing

Living costs and study-related costs as a share of total monthly expenses (in %)

	Living with parents				Not living with parents			
	Living costs		Study-related costs		Living costs		Study-related costs	
	Paid by students	Paid by others	Paid by students	Paid by others	Paid by students	Paid by others	Paid by students	Paid by others
AT	68	25	3	3	84	12	3	2
CH	41	46	5	8	58	33	5	4
CZ	43	45	7	5	65	24	7	4
DE*	67	19	7	7	68	28	3	1
DK	51	38	8	3	58	22	6	14
EE	57	39	2	2	73	22	3	2
FI	54	42	3	1	88	10	2	0.4
FR	47	40	3	9	63	27	3	7
GE	49	30	9	13	53	24	11	11
HR	27	51	9	13	39	40	6	14
HU	48	37	9	6	65	23	8	4
IE	40	29	10	21	46	34	8	13
IS	68	16	15	2	80	13	6	1
LT	51	32	8	9	66	21	7	6
LU	28	31	24	17	34	16	34	17
MT	42	38	12	9	66	16	13	5
NL	42	28	17	13	70	11	13	6
NO	58	28	12	2	85	8	6	1
PL	53	35	8	4	69	21	7	3
SE	60	33	7	1	85	10	5	1
SI	54	34	10	3	66	25	8	2
av.	**50**	**34**	**9**	**7**	**66**	**21**	**8**	**6**
AL	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
IT	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
PT	28	61	5	6	62	26	8	4
RO*	44	56	n.d.	n.d.	73	27	n.d.	n.d.
TR	28	13	28	32	45	10	21	24

n.d.: no data.

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, F.55, F.65, F.86, F.96, F.118, F.122, F.131, F.135.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.17 What are your average expenses for the following items during the current lecture period?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *DE, FR, RO.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Table B8.2

Relative accommodation costs by educational background, dependency on an income source, form of housing, and size of study location – students not living with parents

Accommodation costs as a share of total monthly expenses including transfers in kind (in %)

	Educational background			Dependency on income source			Form of housing				Size of study location				
	Low educational background	Medium educational background	Tertiary education background	Dependent on family/ partner contributions	Dependent on self-earned income	Dependent on national public student support	Student accommodation	With partner/children	With other person(s)	Alone	Up to 100,000 inhabitants	> 100,000–300,000 inhabitants	> 300,000-500,000 inhabitants	> 500,000 inhabitants	Capital city
AT	39	40	40	42	38	39	43	37	41	40	36	40	n.d.	n.d.	40
CH	36	35	36	36	34	36	36	34	35	38	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
CZ	34	41	44	43	40	35	43	40	46	43	39	53	42	n.d.	43
DE*	n.d.	n.d.	42	44	38	43	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
DK	44	48	47	45	n.d.	n.d.	47	46	48	50	46	48	50	n.d.	46
EE	27	31	33	34	29	t.f.c.	29	30	35	39	32	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	31
FI	40	46	47	45	43	50	47	42	50	52	45	47	48	n.d.	46
FR	43	45	42	43	43	44	42	44	39	45	41	44	45	45	43
GE	25	21	18	18	17	19	19	14	20	17	16	16	n.d.	n.d.	19
HR	t.f.c.	28	25	36	12	t.f.c.	25	13	37	30	25	27	n.d.	n.d.	29
HU	27	25	27	26	26	27	18	29	34	27	23	26	n.d.	n.d.	27
IE	35	41	41	41	35	45	42	32	41	35	37	38	n.d.	n.d.	40
IS	39	42	41	43	40	43	46	39	39	41	41	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	41
LT	t.f.c.	26	28	28	26	25	25	25	32	30	22	27	n.d.	n.d.	27
LU	27	29	32	34	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	33	30	t.f.c.	34	31	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
MT	22	20	24	22	20	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	17	30	26	21	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
NL	37	35	36	35	36	36	35	35	35	39	35	36	35	35	36
NO	36	36	38	37	36	39	38	35	39	39	36	40	n.d.	n.d.	36
PL	34	36	36	39	33	37	32	33	41	36	28	34	38	37	34
SE	39	43	43	42	41	44	46	39	46	46	43	44	43	44	42
SI	23	33	35	36	30	39	33	29	41	35	30	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	35
av.	**34**	**35**	**36**	**37**	**32**	**38**	**36**	**32**	**38**	**37**	**33**	**37**	**43**	**40**	**36**
AL	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
IT	40	38	39	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	34	31	40	39	39	38	41	38	41
PT	40	40	44	44	37	35	37	36	46	41	40	42	n.d.	n.d.	41
RO*	28	35	34	36	33	29	24	33	44	39	29	33	36	n.d.	33
TR	31	31	30	32	28	32	30	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	26	31	28	31	31

n.d.: no data. t.f.c.: too few cases.

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, F.142.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.17 What are your average expenses for the following items during the current lecture period?*

Note(s): *Included are expenses of parents/partner/others in favour of the students as well as their provision of goods and services (= transfers in kind).*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *DE, FR, RO.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Table B8.3

Fee-paying students by educational background, study programme, field of study, and educational origin

Share of students (in %)

	Educational background			Study programme		Field of study						Educational origin	
	Low ed. background	Medium ed. background	Tertiary ed. background	Bachelor	Master	Arts and humanities	Social sciences, journalism, and information	Business, administration, and law	Natural sciences, mathematics, and statistics	ICTs	Engineering, manufacturing, and construction	Domestic	International
AT	43	36	33	35	38	30	25	43	22	49	49	34	38
CH	98	99	99	99	99	98	99	99	99	99	99	99	97
CZ	50	46	40	48	37	38	40	48	32	33	42	43	46
DE	n.d.	n.d.	30	36	27	29	30	35	26	35	34	n.d.	n.d.
DK	23	15	17	19	13	17	15	16	14	13	18	19	17
EE	20	18	18	19	19	32	14	28	14	12	12	14	56
FI	1	0.3	1	0.4	1	1	1	0.4	2	1	1	0.1	7
FR	50	44	72	60	59	58	57	58	58	55	61	58	82
GE	72	66	70	67	86	68	74	81	61	78	35	70	75
HR	t.f.c.	87	88	86	90	84	91	92	77	87	82	87	91
HU	61	58	50	59	35	43	52	72	46	59	59	57	33
IE	55	59	74	66	73	66	70	67	67	58	67	67	58
IS	92	92	92	92	92	90	92	92	94	93	94	92	87
LT	t.f.c.	44	40	44	35	31	38	61	17	23	27	41	82
LU	95	90	93	94	92	86	95	93	84	88	99	93	92
MT	69	60	56	54	80	69	60	70	t.f.c.	52	66	63	64
NL	90	92	91	92	90	92	90	92	93	94	92	92	88
NO	89	93	95	96	95	94	97	92	95	97	96	94	93
PL	62	51	41	49	53	36	49	64	20	54	39	48	62
SE	1	1	2	1	11	1	2	2	1	2	3	0.3	13
SI	80	85	78	87	79	77	78	83	73	70	78	80	96
av.	**58**	**57**	**56**	**57**	**57**	**54**	**56**	**61**	**50**	**55**	**55**	**58**	**64**
AL	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
IT	76	85	92	87	82	85	84	89	84	93	88	n.d.	n.d.
PT	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
RO	37	29	30	31	28	19	36	47	14	26	14	30	34
TR	75	72	69	71	75	71	73	76	72	73	73	73	78

n.d.: no data. t.f.c.: too few cases.

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, F.153.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.17 What are your average expenses for the following items during the current lecture period?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

B 8

Table B8.4

Fees paid to HEIs by educational background, type of HEI, study programme, field of study, and receipt of public support – only fee-paying students

Monthly amount of fees paid by students and others (mean, in PPS)

		Educational background			Type of HEI		Study programme		Field of study					Receipt of national public student support	
	All students	Low educational background	Medium educational background	Tertiary education background	University	Non-university	Bachelor	Master	Arts and humanities	Business, administration, and law	Natural sciences, mathematics, and statistics	ICTs	Engineering, manufacturing, and construction	Recipients of public support	Non-recipients of public support
AT	107	71	84	149	141	57	107	96	75	76	59	59	61	90	109
CH	84	82	82	85	76	95	86	78	76	94	65	78	77	74	83
CZ	127	165	101	151	97	251	119	135	77	157	53	112	88	77	158
DE	65	n.d.	n.d.	69	57	75	60	84	75	93	44	44	48	68	62
DK	484	707	642	448	709	289	246	1,424	363	389	t.f.c.	542	1,109	n.d.	820
EE	197	t.f.c.	163	228	208	172	170	210	164	244	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	181	202
FI	96	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.
FR	114	78	81	135	39	303	90	113	28	223	28	35	176	130	98
GE	270	271	281	266	272	254	261	273	265	258	257	270	267	278	266
HR	121	t.f.c.	117	127	84	273	148	82	63	177	45	216	71	42	142
HU	131	113	135	137	126	153	127	119	98	182	77	94	82	88	155
IE	233	229	222	241	239	215	214	356	220	236	227	234	234	217	235
IS	77	63	75	82	77	n/a	69	103	86	129	37	101	87	86	75
LT	247	t.f.c.	213	277	283	184	214	304	292	228	218	156	221	236	251
LU	577	516	426	782	628	190	667	543	154	590	t.f.c.	548	329	487	743
MT	248	178	220	377	219	321	189	372	279	300	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	153	297
NL	176	181	170	178	185	169	173	193	177	183	171	158	172	161	200
NO	48	46	49	48	13	122	59	43	38	137	12	46	19	49	45
PL	148	125	135	175	171	120	128	154	146	145	122	127	117	109	153
SE	1,029	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	1,001	1,029	n/a	721	1,062	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	1,126	t.f.c.	1,081
SI	62	60	68	49	29	160	129	33	18	78	6	65	30	29	81
av.	**221**	**192**	**181**	**250**	**234**	**189**	**171**	**289**	**142**	**206**	**95**	**170**	**240**	**142**	**263**
AL	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
IT	165	105	140	220	165	n/a	158	173	151	205	140	157	145	88	170
PT	62	59	57	68	67	51	53	88	47	68	58	67	56	44	63
RO	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n/a	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
TR*	862	453	894	1,549	289	3,994	1,013	426	661	1,284	364	826	1,011	741	945

n/a: not applicable. n.d.: no data. t.f.c.: too few cases.

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, F.158 (PPP).*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.17 What are your average expenses for the following items during the current lecture period?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *IE, IT, TR.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Chapter B9
Housing situation

Key

Types of housing

In two thirds of countries, living with parents is the single most common form of housing out of five different forms of housing. In almost a third of countries, living with partner/children is the most widespread type. Sharing accommodation with other persons is a form of housing that 13 % of students use on average across countries. Living alone is the least used form of housing; on cross-country average, around every tenth student lives this way.

Types of housing by age

Students' housing situation correlates with their age. Among older students, living with parents and in student accommodation becomes less common. Furthermore, with the rising age of students, living with partner/children becomes more frequent; this also applies to living alone.

Student accommodation

On average across countries, 18 % of students live in student accommodation. This special type of housing is particularly often used by international students (32 %), students who depend on national public student support (27 %), and students who are younger than 22 years (24 %). By contrast, it is rarely chosen by (or available to) students who are 30 years and older (6 %), and students depending on self-earned income (10 %).

findings

Commuting between home and the higher education institution (HEI)

Students who live with their parents spend the longest time commuting from their home to the HEI they attend; the cross-country median time for a one-way commute is 40 minutes. By contrast, students living in student accommodation have the shortest commuting time of 15 minutes one way.

Students' satisfaction with the costs of accommodation

On average across countries, 28 % of students who live with other persons state that they are not satisfied (at all) with their accommodation costs. For students in the other types of housing, the respective values are 25 % for those living alone, 24 % for students in student accommodation, and 21 % for students living with partner/children.

Students' satisfaction with other aspects of accommodation

Students living with their parents are quite dissatisfied with their daily commuting times, but hardly discontent with the general condition of their homes. Students residing in student accommodation are rather unhappy with the overall condition of their dormitories, but express only little dissatisfaction with the location of their accommodation and their commuting times.

Main issues

Accommodation plays an essential, multi-functional role in students' lives. First of all, it fulfils basic functions by providing opportunities for living, sleeping, and self-study. Depending on its characteristics and the environment, a form of housing also fulfils a security function in both physical and psychological terms (Paltridge, Mayson, & Schapper, 2010). Accommodation is associated with a social function, especially when it is shared with others, such as parents, partner, children, or fellow students. Some forms of housing, for example, student accommodation, may also be particularly conducive to the socio-academic integration of students (Riker & Decoster, 2008; Schudde, 2011) and may even help reduce drop-out (Bozick, 2007). Furthermore, housing is apparently also an essential influencing factor for life satisfaction (Diaz-Serrano, 2006; Dukeov et al., 2002; Davis & Fine-Davis, 1991; Peck & Stewart, 1985). Parameswaran and Bowers attach such great importance to student accommodation that they even recommend residential environments should meet the same pedagogic standards as coursework (Parameswaran & Bowers, 2014). The housing forms also have different financial implications. If students (continue to) live with their parents, they can often do so free of rent or at least at reduced costs (EUROSTUDENT, 2018). If they live outside the parental home, they usually have to pay rent or a mortgage, which can amount to a major financial burden (DZHW, 2018). Affordable housing is, therefore, an important part of study framework conditions, making it also of interest to social policymakers. Until recently, this topic was not explicitly mentioned in the ministerial declarations of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) (Bucharest Communiqué, 2012; Yerevan Communiqué, 2015; Paris Communiqué, 2018). It is only in the Rome Communiqué that the issue is taken up by pointing out that accommodation becomes "increasingly problematic for students across the EHEA due to the increased housing, living, and transportation costs" and that public support – where needed – should mainly contribute to cover these costs as well (Annex II to the Rome Communique', 2020).

Forms of housing

Students may use a variety of housing forms, based on several factors such as their personal preferences including requirements for independence, living standard, and personal lifestyle (Middendorff, Apolinarski, Poskowsky, Kandulla, & Netz, 2013), their age (Aassve, Arpino, & Billari, 2013; Fischer, Boughaba, & Gerhard Ortega, 2017; Unger et al., 2020), family status, financial restrictions (i.e. housing costs, fees, and student income), availability of housing options in terms of quantity and quality, as well as cultural and societal norms, which act as social mechanisms of behaviour control and restraint (Luetzelberger, 2014). Every form of housing has its value, but also its downsides. Living with parents, for example, is often the most cost-saving form of housing for students as they receive plenty of transfers in kind from their parents, such as living space, nutrition, clothing, and insurance coverage (DZHW, 2018; EUROSTUDENT, 2018). However, the need to rely on this form of housing may limit students' choice of HEIs to those that are within reach of the parental home. In this way, the academic mobility of the students concerned is restricted (Frenette, 2006; Spiess & Wrohlich, 2010). By contrast, the availability of student accommodation gives students more freedom with regard to their choice of institution. Furthermore, although it is more costly than living with parents, student accommodation is usually the cheapest form

of housing outside the parental home. However, students' satisfaction with student accommodation may be lower than with other forms of housing (Hauschildt, Gwosć, Netz, & Mishra, 2015). Older students in long-term partnerships, perhaps with children, may often not feel adequately accommodated either in their parents' home or in student accommodation due to their family situation. For this reason, they often live in their own rented or owned private properties. This certainly promotes independence from their parents and may be conducive to family life, but also requires relatively high expenses for accommodation; in fact, it is often the form of housing with the highest costs (Hauschildt et al., 2015; Orr, Gwosć, & Netz, 2011).

Commuting between home and the HEI

An important feature of housing forms is their geographical proximity to universities. The physical distance to a university determines the possibility of participating in higher education, at least in the case of attendance studies (for Germany, Spiess & Wrohlich, 2010; for Canada, Zarifa, Hango, & Pizarro Milian, 2017). Living with parents, for instance, may be comfortable and cost-saving with respect to rent, food, and other items. However, this form of housing may be associated with a longer journey – in terms of distance and time – from home to the HEI (Spiess & Wrohlich, 2010), especially for students living in the outer boroughs of big cities, who may not be able to reach their HEI by walking or cycling. In fact, students who live with parents have been shown to have clearly longer commuting times than their peers in other forms of housing in many European countries (Orr, Gwosć, & Schirmer, 2012). This could also mean that these students have to bear higher costs for transportation compared to students living in other forms of housing in closer vicinity to the university. Furthermore, the commuting time of students living in the parental home can negatively affect their study time, as the total commuting time for the outward and return journey of some of these students amounts to more than two hours per day in several European countries (Orr et al., 2011). In order to be able to attend university at all, it is sometimes unavoidable for students to move out of the parents' home (Bonaccorsi, 2017). Student accommodation is then most often the form of housing with the shortest commuting times, as students often live directly on campus (Orr et al., 2011). Such a proximity to university is also associated with less need for public and private transportation, parking spaces, and less traffic congestion around campus (Ike, Baldwin, & Lathouras, 2016).

Satisfaction with the housing situation

Since housing is a multi-functional and important part of life, satisfaction with the form of housing contributes to a person's general well-being (Coates, Anand, & Norris, 2015). Furthermore, with respect to students, there is empirical evidence that the type of housing has an influence on their retention in higher education and graduation (for the United States, Chickering & Kytle, 1999; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005; Schudde, 2011; Tinto, 2012; for different regions of the world, Parameswaran & Bowers, 2014). Accordingly, it is important to determine students' individual assessments of their realised form of housing and whether certain groups of students are particularly dissatisfied. There is a variety of characteristics that can influence students' satisfaction with their accommodation. This involves, for example, the location of the residence (vicinity to university, friends, parents, workplace, shopping facilities, cultural offers, transport connections), housing characteristics (size, light conditions, condition of renovation), the amount of

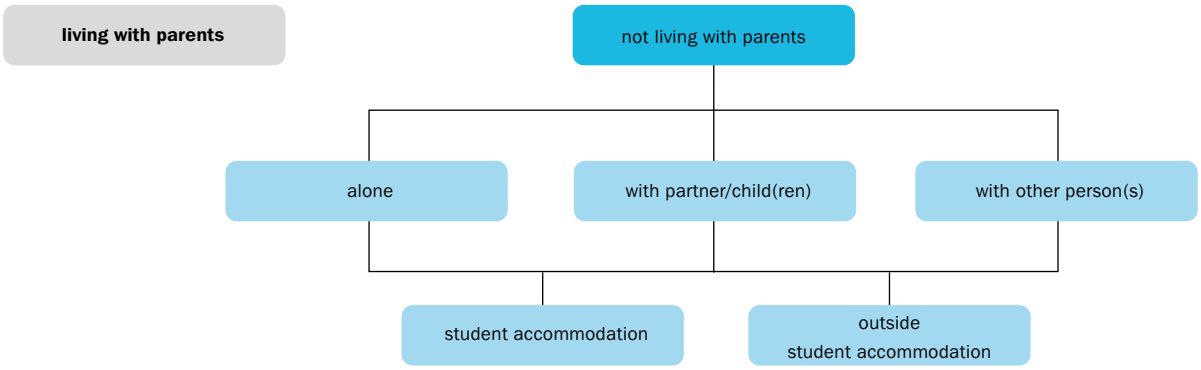
rent, the type of ownership (public vs. private) (Thomsen & Eikemo, 2010) or even the availability of a swimming pool and internet speed (Moore, Carswell, Worthy, & Nielsen, 2019). Students' satisfaction with their housing situation could also be influenced by their motivation for choosing a certain type of housing, in other words, is the current type of housing their first choice according to preferences (Verhetsel, Kessels, Zijlstra, & van Bavel, 2017) or was the decision rather the second or third-best option, driven by need, influenced by very limited residential properties and tight budget constraints?

Methodological and conceptual notes

The following data refer to students' housing situation during the week (Monday to Friday) in the lecture period. For analysis purposes, a first fundamental distinction is made between students living with parents and those not living with parents (Figure B9.1). The two groups differ, among other things, in their personal responsibility for financing and organising their accommodation (Hauschildt et al., 2015). Among students not living with parents, a further differentiation is made between the housing forms 'alone', 'with partner/child(ren)', and 'with other person(s)' (e.g. friends, fellow students, professionals, etc.), which are all mutually exclusive in our analysis. In practice, these three forms of housing can be found both inside and outside of student accommodation. In the analysis of student accommodation, however, no distinction will be made between these three forms of housing. The category 'student accommodation' refers to all sorts of accommodation in dormitories or halls of residence that is especially designated for the use of students in higher education, regardless of whether the providers are public, private, or churches.

Figure B9.1

Types of student housing



Data and interpretation

In Malta, Georgia, Luxembourg, Italy, Romania, and Portugal, more than half of students live with their parents.

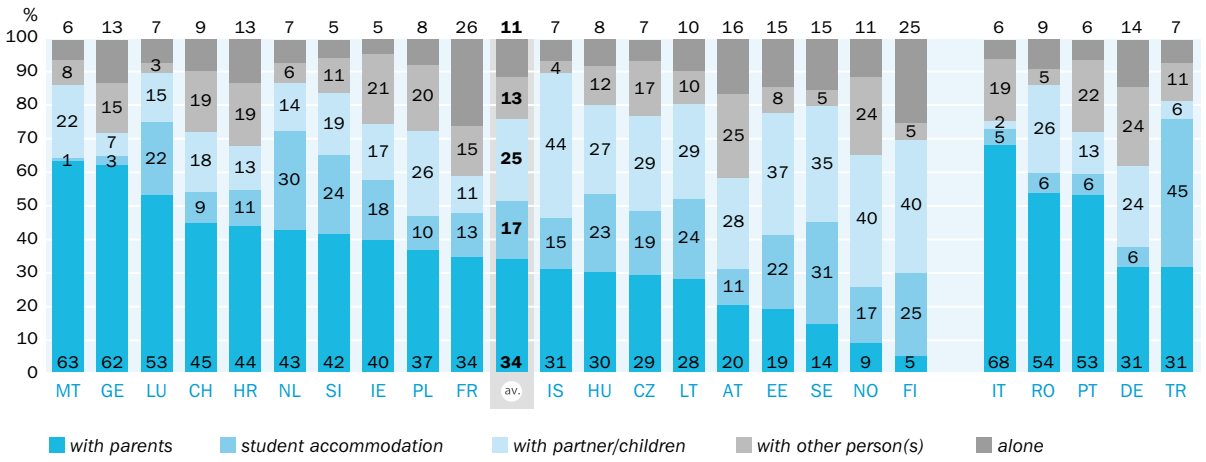
The housing situation of students: an overview

Students in the EUROSTUDENT countries predominantly live outside the parental home. In three quarters of countries, the majority of students live away from their parents. Across all countries, about a third of students live with their parents. In some countries, however, this type of housing is particularly common (Figure B9.2).

Figure B9.2

Students' housing situation

Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, E.2.* ***No data:*** *AL, DK.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE, IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.1 Who do you live with during the current lecture period (Monday to Friday)?, 4.2 Do you live in a student accommodation?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *FR, IT.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

- In Malta, Georgia, Luxembourg, Italy, Romania, and Portugal, the majority of students are living with parents. This applies to more than half of all students in Luxembourg, Romania, and Portugal, and to more than three fifths in the other three countries.

In some countries, although only a minority of students live with their parents, they still represent the highest proportion of the five types of housing compared.

- This applies to ten countries, namely Switzerland, Croatia, the Netherlands, Slovenia, Ireland, Poland, France, Hungary, the Czech Republic, and Germany. The share of students living with parents varies from 45 % in Switzerland to 29 % in the Czech Republic.

The second most common form of housing is living with partner/children. Across countries, a quarter of students have opted for this form of housing.

- In Iceland, Lithuania, Austria, Estonia, Sweden, Norway, and Finland, the largest proportion of students live this way. The shares are particularly high in the Nordic countries, ranging from 44 % in Iceland to 35 % in Sweden. This is because students in these countries are among the oldest in Europe and, with increasing age, starting and living with one's own family is connected.

Across countries, 17 % of students reside in student accommodation.

- In a country comparison, this form of housing is most popular in the Netherlands, Sweden, and Turkey, where at least 30 % of students live this way. But also in Luxembourg, Slovenia, Hungary, Lithuania, Estonia, and Finland, it is a widespread form of housing, adopted by more than 20 % of students.

- By contrast, the use of student accommodation is particularly rare in Malta and Georgia, where less than 5 % of students live in this special type of housing.

Sharing accommodation with other persons, such as friends, fellow students, etc., outside student accommodation is a form of housing that is not particularly widespread, at least when measured by the international average of 13 %. Living alone (outside of student accommodation) appears to be the least common type of housing for students. Across all countries, only around a tenth of students have decided to live on their own (11 %). In more than half of countries, the respective share of students is even below 10 %.

Students' housing situation changes with their age (Table B9.1). On cross-country average and also within most countries, the following patterns can be observed. The share of students living with their parents decreases as the age of students increases. The same pattern holds true for students living in student accommodation. Also for students who live in shared flats outside student accommodation, a decreasing trend can basically be observed with the rising age of students. By contrast, the proportion of students who live with partner/children increases with the rising age of students, as does the share of students who live alone. Thus, despite different housing traditions in individual countries and regions of Europe, common cross-country patterns also unfold during the life course of students.

Students living with parents

Students whose parents are financially very well-off live with their parents more often than students whose parents are not at all well-off.

Besides age, other factors play a role in determining students' housing, such as the financial situation of students' parents. For example, parents who are financially not well-off have fewer opportunities to pay for their children's accommodation outside the parental home. It could, therefore, be expected that students from low-income families live with their parents more often than their fellow students from high-income families. In fact, however, the data show that students who subjectively rate their parents as financially not at all well-off tend to live with their parents *less* often than their counterparts who assess their parents as financially very well-off (Figure B9.3).

On cross-country average, one third of students who assess their parents as financially very well-off live with their parents; this corresponds roughly to the international average of all students living with parents (34 %). By contrast, in the group of students whose parents are regarded as financially not at all well-off, only 26 % live in the parental home on cross-country average.

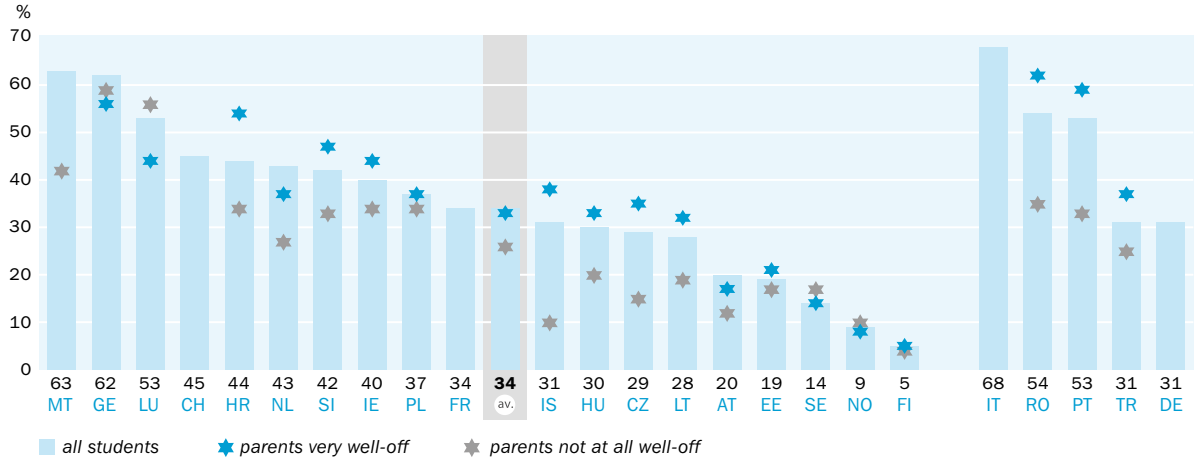
In 79 % of countries with available data on both groups, there are higher shares of students living with parents among those with financially very well-off parents, compared to their peers whose parents are not. In 58 % of countries, the share of residents in the parental home within the group of students with very well-off parents is also above the respective national average.

- When comparing the two student groups that are defined by their parents' financial status, it appears that in more than half of countries – Croatia, the Netherlands, Slovenia, Iceland, Hungary, the Czech Republic, Lithuania, Romania, Portugal, and Turkey – the share of students living with parents is at least ten percentage points higher in the group of students with well-off parents.

Figure B9.3

Students living with parents by parents' financial status

Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, E.2.* ***No data:*** *AL, DK. Parents' financial status: CH, FR, IT, DE.* ***Too few cases:*** *Parents very well-off: MT.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE, IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.1 Who do you live with during the current lecture period (Monday to Friday)? Source: PIRLS 2006. Copyright © 2005 International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA). Publisher: TIMSS & PIRLS International Study Center, Lynch School of Education, Boston College.*

Note(s): *Interpretation aid: In Luxembourg, 53 % of students live with their parents. Within the group of students whose parents are considered financially not at all well-off, 56 % live in the parental home and 44 % within the group of those whose parents are regarded as financially very well-off. Values above the country abbreviations represent the share of all students living with parents.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

- The pattern is reversed in about one fifth of countries. In Georgia, Luxembourg, Sweden, and Norway, the share of students living in their parents' home is higher among those whose parents are presumably not at all well-off. The relative difference between the two groups ranges from one percentage point in Norway to 12 percentage points in Luxembourg.

Furthermore, the share of students living with parents within the group of those whose parents are seemingly not well-off is below the national average in 85 % of countries. The fact that students from not well-off families less often live with their parents can partly be explained by the circumstance that they enter higher education at a later stage in life and are, therefore, older than their peers from well-off families.[1] Older students, however, are generally more likely to live away from home. Furthermore, students from not well-off families might want to relieve their parents financially, so they move out and are more often gainfully employed than their counterparts to be able to afford their own homes.[2]

Students who live with their parents can save money in several ways compared to their fellow students living away from their parents. The first group usually pay no rent, or

1 *When looking at the age of students entering higher education, students whose parents are not at all well-off are, on average across countries, 22.7 years old, whilst their peers from very well-off families are only 20.3 years old (> Database).*

2 *Students whose parents are not at all well-off and who live away from the parental home spend 18.1 hours (cross-country average) on paid jobs in an average week during the lecture period. Their counterparts, whose parents are very well-off and who live in the parental home, spend only 9.9 hours on gainful employment (> Database) during the same time span.*

only relatively small amounts, and often receive free meals or other transfers in kind. The above analysis provides evidence that students from well-off families more often live in the parental home compared to their peers from not well-off families. When students who live in the parental home generally benefit from the wealth of their parents, this would also have to be reflected in the extent of students' financial difficulties. In fact, such a relation is shown in the data below (Figure B9.4).

Among students who do not report current financial difficulties, clearly more than one third (37 %) live with parents on cross-country average. This exceeds the share of all students living with parents (cross-country average) by three percentage points. When looking at students who report current financial difficulties, the share of residents in the parental home amounts to just 28 % across countries. In more than 90 % of countries, students without financial difficulties live with parents to an above-average extent.

- The share of students living with parents in the group of students without financial difficulties is strongly above the national average with at least eight percentage points in Luxembourg, the Netherlands, and Turkey.

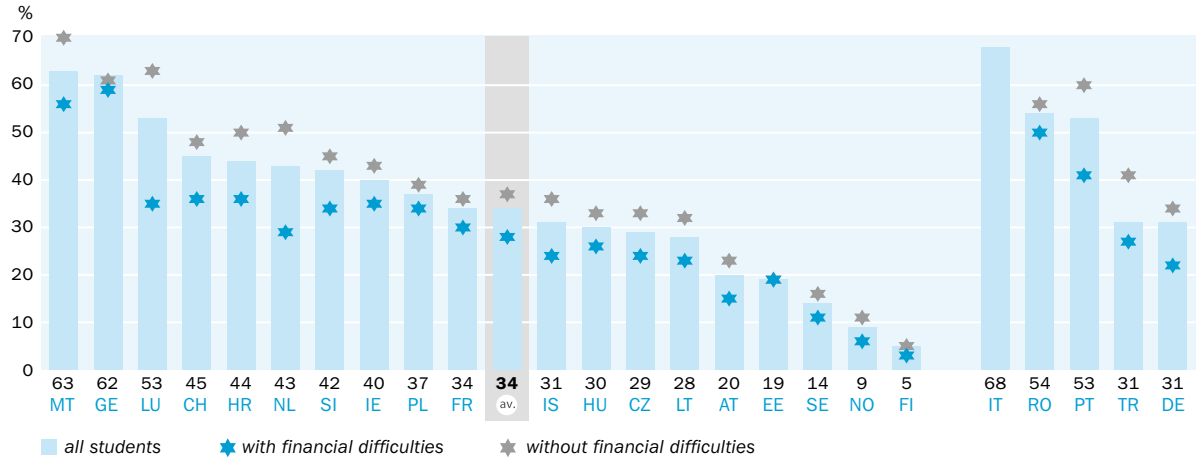
In considerably more than 90 % of countries, students with financial difficulties live with their parents to a below-average extent.

- The difference between the national average and the share of students living with parents among those with financial difficulties is largest in Luxembourg, the Netherlands, and Portugal, with at least 13 percentage points. In Malta, Switzerland, Croatia, Slovenia, Iceland, and Germany, the difference is also rather large with eight to nine percentage points.

Figure B9.4

Students living with parents by students' financial difficulties

Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, E.2.* ***No data:*** *AL, DK. With(out) financial difficulties: IT.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE, IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.1 Who do you live with during the current lecture period (Monday to Friday)?, 4.18 To what extent are you currently experiencing financial difficulties?*

Note(s): *Values above the country abbreviations represent the share of all students living with parents.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

- When looking at the difference in the share of students living with parents between the two focus groups (those with and without financial difficulties), it appears that this difference is smallest in Estonia and Finland, with no more than two percentage points.

Students living in student accommodation

Students who are living in student accommodation to an above-average extent are young students, those with tertiary ed. background, and international students.

The share of students residing in student accommodation varies with students' age (Figure B9.5a). There is a general pattern according to which students are less likely to live in student accommodation as they grow older. In more than 80 % of countries, the highest shares of students living in student accommodation can be found in the young age groups (< 22 years and 22–24 years). At the same time, in more than 90 % of countries, students who are 30 years and older register the lowest shares of students living this way. On cross-country average, the share of students residing in student accommodation decreases continuously from roughly a quarter in the youngest age group (< 22 years) to 6 % in the highest age group (30 years and older).

Student accommodation is, on average, used more often by students with higher educational backgrounds (Figure B9.5b). In 56 % of countries, it is students with a tertiary education background who most often live in student accommodation. At the same time, students from low educational backgrounds tend to use this type of housing the least often. On cross-country average, the proportion of students residing in student accommodation increases from 15 % in the group with a low educational background to 16 % in the group with a medium educational background and 19 % in the group of those whose parents acquired tertiary education. The social structure of students is associated with a certain age distribution. In almost all countries, the average age of students is lower, the higher their educational background. Accordingly, the low proportion of dormitory residents in the group with a low educational background can be explained, at least in part, by the relatively high average age of this group. In some countries, however, the pattern is reversed, with students from lower educational backgrounds clearly more often living in student accommodation. This is the case in Lithuania, Estonia, and Turkey, and to some extent also in France, Croatia, Georgia, Portugal, and Germany.

With respect to students' educational origin, it can be clearly seen that international students live in student accommodation more often than domestic students (Figure B9.5c). This pattern holds true for all EUROSTUDENT countries with available data on both groups. On average across countries, 16 % of domestic students live in student accommodation, while the share for international students is twice as high (32 %).

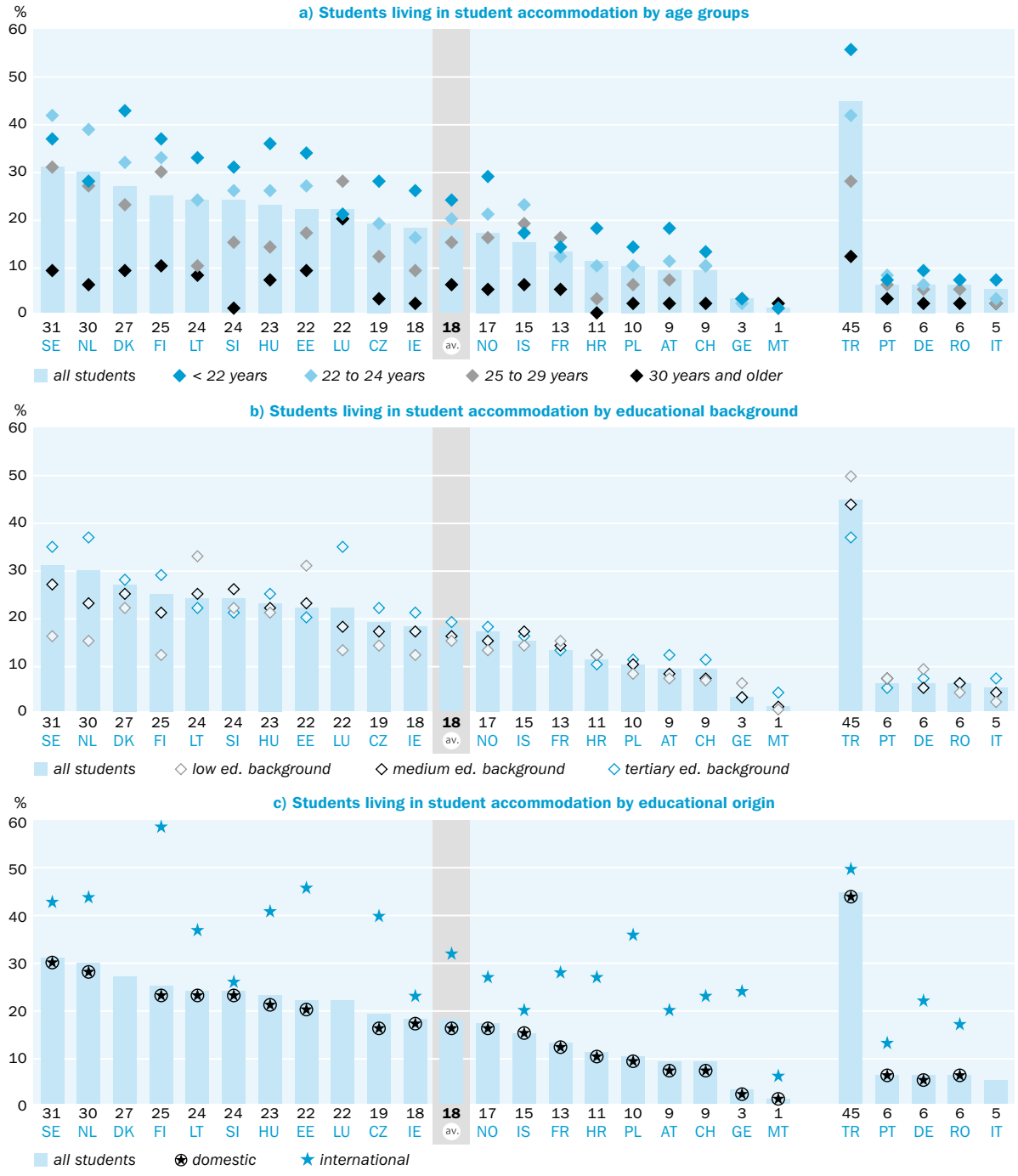
- The proportion of international students living in student accommodation is particularly high in Sweden, the Netherlands, Finland, Hungary, Estonia, the Czech Republic, and Turkey, with at least 40 %.
- Comparatively low shares can be found in Iceland, Austria, Malta, Portugal, and Romania, where no more than 20 % of international students reside in student accommodation.

When differentiating by demographic, study-related, and finance-related characteristics, it appears that – on cross-country average – male students are more often found in student accommodation than female (20 % vs. 16 %) (Table B9.2). The same is true for students at universities compared to their peers at non-universities (20 % vs. 12 %).

Figure B9.5

Students living in student accommodation by age, educational background, and educational origin

Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, E.1.* ***No data:*** *AL. Domestic and international: DK, IT, LU.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE, IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.2 Do you live in a student accommodation?*

Note(s): *Values above the country abbreviations represent the share of all students living in student accommodation.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *IT.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Students enrolled in Master programmes, on international average, are as likely to reside in student accommodation as Bachelor students (18 %), although less aggregated data show that, in more than two thirds of countries, Bachelor students more often use student accommodation. The proportion of residents in student accommodation is extraordinarily high among students depending on public support (27 %) and below average among those depending on self-earned income (10 %). Finally, students with financial difficulties live in dormitories more often than their counterparts without financial problems (19 % vs. 17 %).

Student accommodation and study intensity

Students who are studying with high intensity live in student accommodation particularly often.

Students differ in their weekly workload that is dedicated to study-related activities. When looking at the use of student accommodation by students who differ in their study intensity, a clear pattern emerges (Figure B9.6). The share of students residing in student accommodation rises with increasing study intensity. According to the cross-country average, 12 % of low-intensity students live in student accommodation. Among their fellow students studying with medium intensity, 19 % opted to live in student accommodation and among those with a high study intensity, 21 % of students have chosen this type of housing. This basic pattern holds true for almost three quarters of countries.

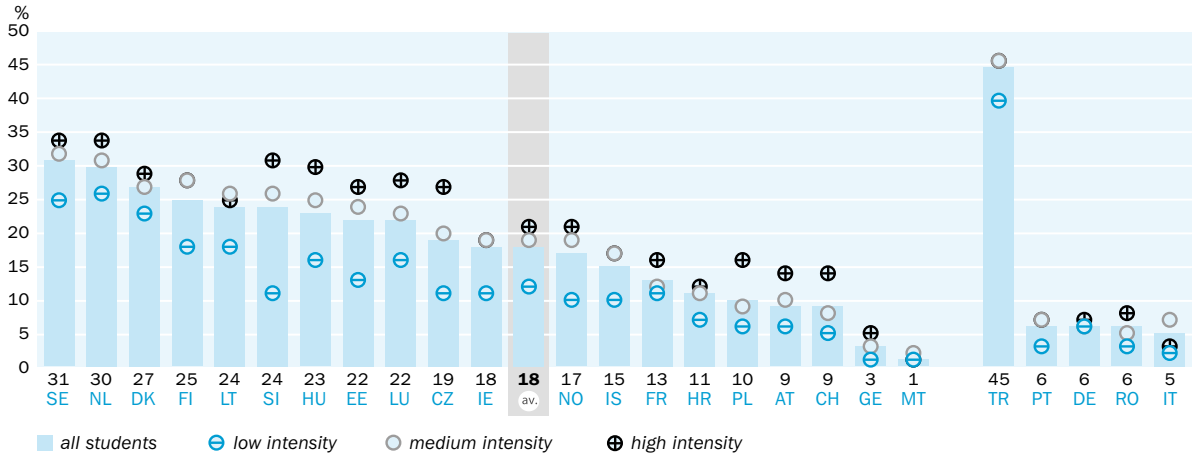
In all countries except Malta and Italy, students with a high study intensity live in student accommodation to an above-average extent.

- The largest difference between the share of all students living in student accommodation and high-intensity students can be found in Slovenia, Hungary, and the Czech Republic, with at least seven percentage points.

Figure B9.6

Students living in student accommodation by study intensity

Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, E.1.* ***No data:*** *AL.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE, IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.2 Do you live in a student accommodation?*

Note(s): *Values above the country abbreviations represent the share of all students living in student accommodation.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *IT.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

- The difference between the two groups is very small, with a maximum of two percentage points, in Lithuania, Ireland, Iceland, Croatia, Georgia, Turkey, Germany, and Romania.

In 56 % of countries, students with a medium study intensity live in student accommodation to an above-average extent as well. However, the difference to the respective country average is rather small and does not exceed three percentage points.

The share of low-intensity students residing in student accommodation is below the country average in all countries but Malta and Germany, and these students have the lowest proportion of all groups (the only exception being Malta).

- The share of dormitory residents within this group is clearly below the country average in Slovenia, Estonia, and the Czech Republic, with at least nine percentage points difference.

The different living behaviour of the three groups can be associated with their age, on the one hand. In a group comparison, high-intensity students are youngest, whilst their low-intensity peers are oldest (> *Chapter B1, Database*). The first group is, therefore, more likely to use student accommodation more frequently. On the other hand, high-intensity students are more likely to depend on national public student support compared to the other two groups (cross-country recipient rates: high-intensity: 19 %, medium-intensity: 17 %, low-intensity: 13 %). Students who depend on public support, however, receive a clearly lower total income than those who depend on other income sources (> *Chapter B7*), so that student accommodation likely provides a welcome, affordable housing option (> *Chapter B8*).

Comparison over time: Bachelor students living in student accommodation

Over the last decade, the proportion of BA students residing in student accommodation has risen in half of EUROSTUDENT countries.

How has the proportion of dormitory users changed over the last decade? In an analysis at country level, three groups of countries can be distinguished (Figure B9.7).

- In half of countries, the proportion of Bachelor students residing in dormitories has risen between E:V and E:VII. The increase is relatively pronounced in Sweden, Ireland, and Denmark, with at least six percentage points.
- In 13 % of countries, there are either no changes at all or only marginal increases in the share of Bachelor students living in student accommodation between E:V and E:VII. This holds true for the Czech Republic, Austria, and Georgia.[3]
- Finally, in more than one third of countries, the proportion of dormitory residents among Bachelor students has decreased over time. In Finland, Slovenia, Poland, Malta, Iceland, Romania, Germany, and Turkey, the decrease was at least two percentage points between E:V and E:VII; in Portugal, the decline was only marginal.[4]

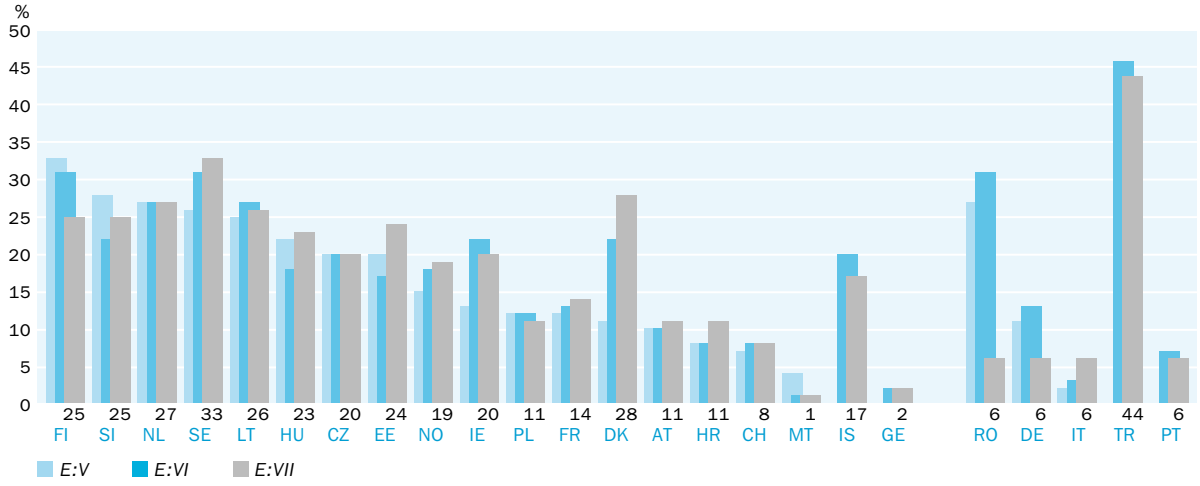
3 *In Georgia, the comparison is between E:VI and E:VII.*

4 *In Iceland, Turkey, and Portugal, the decrease took place between E:VI and E:VII.*

Figure B9.7

Comparison over time: Bachelor students living in student accommodation

Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT V, E:VI, and E:VII, E.1.* ***No data:*** *E:V: AL, GE, IS, LU, PT, TR. E:VI: LU. E:VII: AL.*

Data collection: *E:VII: Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE, IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *3.2/3.1/4.2 Do you live in a student accommodation?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *IT.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Commuting between home and the HEI

Students who are living with parents have the longest commuting time to get from home to their HEI (40 minutes one way).

The form of housing not only has implications for the social life of students and their finances, it also affects their time allocation, as they have to spend time commuting between home and the HEI. Data on the commuting time of students were analysed for the two basic forms of housing 'living with parents' and 'not living with parents' and – as part of the latter – 'student accommodation' (Figure B9.8). The median time is displayed in minutes for students' regular commuting one way on a typical day in the current lecture period.

Students usually spend most time commuting when they are staying at their parents' home. According to the international median, the time for commuting from the parental home to the HEI (one way only) amounts to 40 minutes across all countries. Students who do not live with their parents have a clearly shorter commuting time of 20 minutes one way. Their peers residing in student accommodation have the shortest commuting time at 15 minutes. This general pattern indicated by the international median values is reflected in more than 90 % of countries with available data on all three forms of housing.

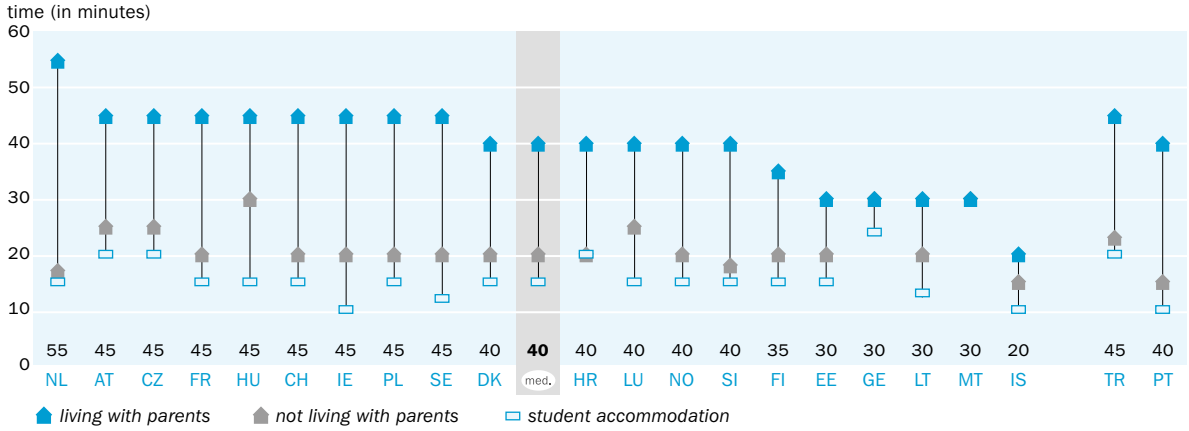
Students living with parents have the longest commuting times in the vast majority of countries.

- In the Netherlands, Austria, the Czech Republic, France, Hungary, Switzerland, Ireland, Poland, Sweden, and Turkey, the median travel time for these students is quite long with at least 45 minutes one way. In about a quarter of countries – encompassing Estonia, Georgia, Lithuania, Malta, and Iceland – the commuting time of students living in the parental home is relatively short at no more than half an hour.

Figure B9.8

Regular time for commuting from home to the HEI (one way) by basic type of housing

Median one-way commuting time (in minutes)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, E.8.* ***No data:*** *AL, DE, IT, RO.* ***Too few cases:*** *Student accommodation: MT.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), PT, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.4 On a typical day, how much time does it take you to get from your home to your higher education institution during the current lecture period?*

Note(s): *Values above the country abbreviations represent the median commuting time of students living with parents.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

- For students living away from parents, the longest commuting times can be found in Hungary, Georgia, and Malta, with half an hour one way. By contrast, the commuting time for students in this form of housing is comparatively short in the Netherlands, Slovenia, Iceland, and Portugal, with no more than 18 minutes.
- If the difference in commuting time is considered between students living with parents and those not living with parents, the largest differences are found in the Netherlands, France, Switzerland, Ireland, Poland, Sweden, and Portugal, with at least 25 minutes. This difference is rather small (or non-existent) in Estonia, Georgia, Lithuania, Malta, and Iceland, with no more than 10 minutes.

In almost all countries, students residing in student accommodation have the shortest commuting time.

- It is shortest in Ireland, Iceland, and Portugal, where these students spend no more than 10 minutes commuting from their dormitory to their HEI (one way). The longest commuting times with at least 20 minutes are reported by students in Austria, the Czech Republic, Croatia, Georgia, and Turkey.

B 9

Students who are living with other persons are, on cross-country average, most dissatisfied with the costs of accommodation.

The short commuting times of students living in student accommodation are also reflected in their satisfaction with this aspect of housing (Figure B9.10c and Table B9.4).

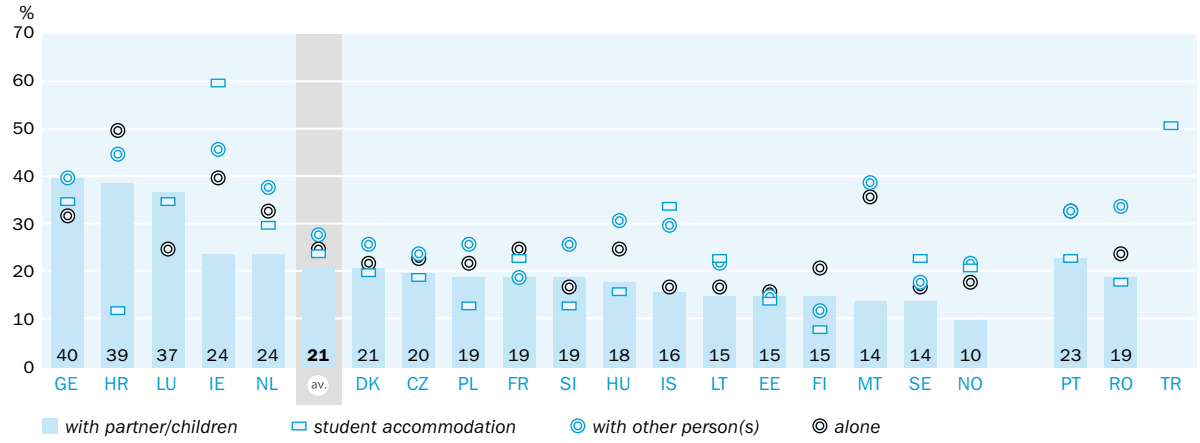
Students' satisfaction with the costs of accommodation

Students' spending on accommodation regularly requires the largest share of their total monthly expenses, especially when students' live away from their parents (> *Chapter B8*). How satisfied or dissatisfied are students with the costs of their accommodation? Data on students' satisfaction with the costs of accommodation are presented below (Figure B9.9).

Figure B9.9

Students' satisfaction with the costs of accommodation by form of housing outside the parental home

Share of students who are not satisfied (at all) (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, E.4.* ***No data:*** *AL, AT, CH, DE, IT. With partner/children, with other person(s), alone: TR.* ***Too few cases:*** *student accommodation: MT. With other person(s): LU.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.3 How satisfied are you with your accommodation concerning the following aspects?*

Note(s): *Values above the country abbreviations represent the share of students not satisfied (at all) among students living with partner/children.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *DK, FR, HU.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Since accommodation costs vary with the type of housing, this criterion was used for differentiation. On average across countries, students who live with other persons report the highest level of dissatisfaction with the costs of accommodation. 28 % of students who live with other persons state that they are either not satisfied or not satisfied at all with their accommodation costs. For students in the other types of housing, the respective values are 25 % for those living alone, 24 % for students in student accommodation, and 21 % for students living with partner/children. As expected, students who live with their parents are clearly the least dissatisfied with their housing costs (Table B9.3). The cross-country average for this group amounts to only 9 %.

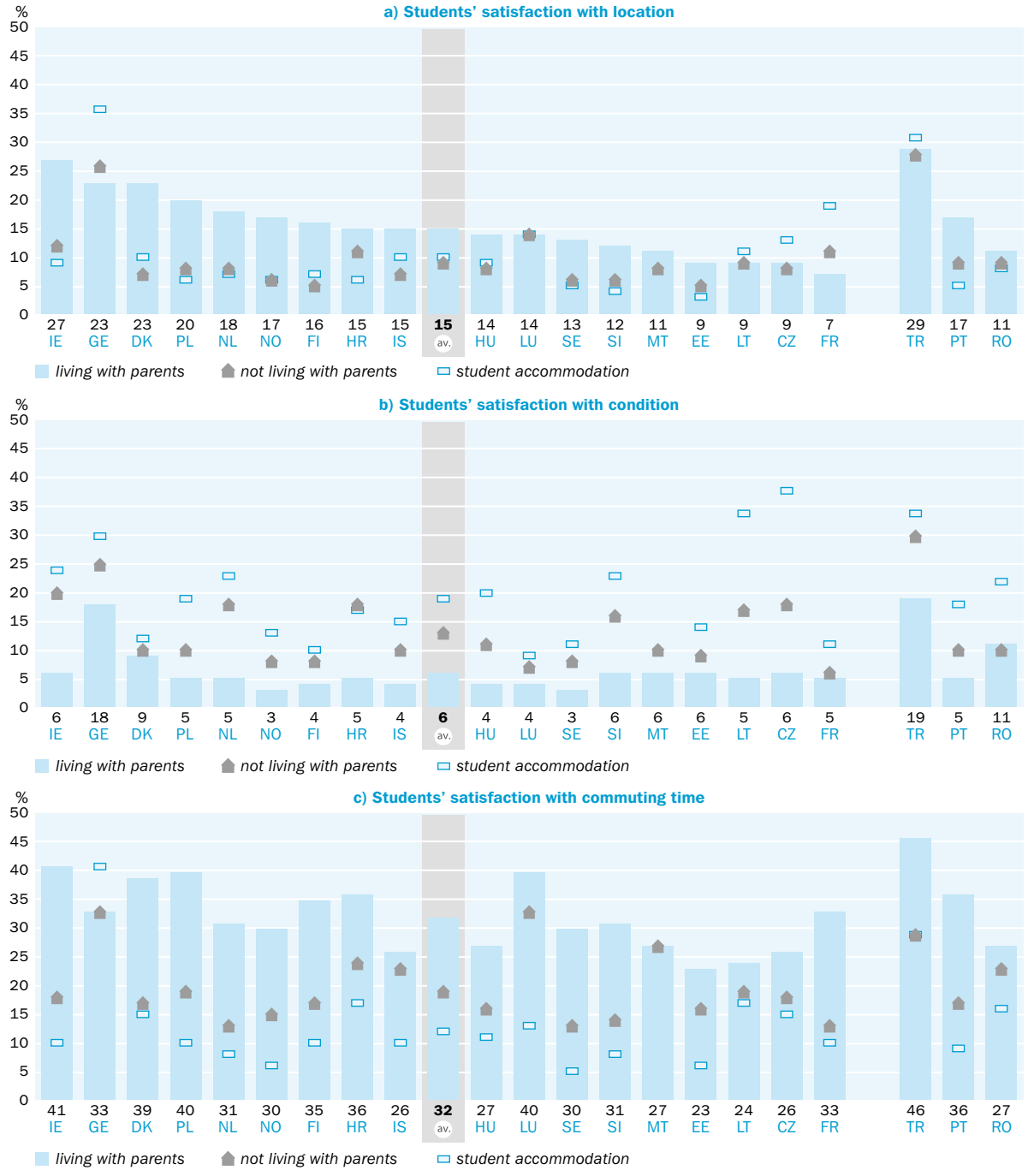
- When looking only at countries with available data on all four types of housing (Figure B9.9), it appears that in half of countries, students living with other persons register the highest levels of students who are not satisfied (at all) with their costs of housing. This holds true for Georgia, the Netherlands, Denmark, the Czech Republic, Poland, Slovenia, Hungary, Norway, and Romania.
- In five countries – Croatia, France, Estonia, Finland, and Portugal – the largest share of students who are dissatisfied with accommodation costs are found among students living alone.
- In another four countries, namely Ireland, Iceland, Lithuania, and Sweden, the highest share of students who are not satisfied (at all) are found among those living in student accommodation.

There is no country in which students living with partner/children report the highest level of dissatisfaction (the only exception being Luxembourg, which could not provide data on all categories). In fact, in about two fifths of countries with available data on all four types of housing, students sharing their living space with partner/children

Figure B9.10

Students' satisfaction with different aspects of accommodation by various forms of housing

Share of students who are not satisfied (at all) (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, E.5, E.6 and E.7.* ***No data:*** *AL, AT, CH, DE, IT.* ***Too few cases:*** *Student accommodation: MT.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.3 How satisfied are you with your accommodation concerning the following aspects?*

Note(s): *Values above the country abbreviations represent the share of students not satisfied (at all) among students living with parents.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *DK, HU.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

report the lowest shares of those who are not satisfied (at all) with the costs of accommodation. Further data on the proportions of students who are neither satisfied nor dissatisfied and those who are (very) satisfied are compared in Table B9.3.

The findings presented here are also consistent with the basic results on relative accommodation costs (> *Database*). On cross-country average, students living with other persons devote the highest share of total monthly expenses to accommodation (38 %). For students living alone, the respective share amounts to 37 % and students living in student accommodation pay 36 %. Students who live with partner/children dedicate the lowest share of total monthly expenses to accommodation (32 %).

Students' satisfaction with the location, condition, and commuting time of accommodation

Students express the highest level of dissatisfaction with their commuting times.

Data are presented on the satisfaction of students with the location and overall condition of their accommodation as well as with the time for commuting between their home and the HEI (Figure B9.10).[5] Three forms of housing are differentiated, namely living with parents, not living with parents, and, as part of the latter, living in student accommodation (further data on students' satisfaction with student accommodation can be found in Table B9.4).

When looking at students' assessment of the location of their accommodation, it appears that the general level of dissatisfaction is rather low. Of the three groups, students living with their parents are most often not satisfied or not satisfied at all (Figure B9.10a). Based on the cross-country average, 15 % of students who live with their parents are not satisfied (at all) with the location of their home. In 70 % of countries with available data on all three student groups, these students are most often dissatisfied with this aspect by group comparison. Students who are not living with parents report the lowest level of dissatisfaction with the location of their housing. On average across countries, the share of students who are not satisfied (at all) is less than one tenth (9 %). In more than one third of countries, students not living with parents show the lowest proportion of students who are not satisfied (at all) compared to their peers in the other two groups.

The picture appears different when looking at the dissatisfaction with the general condition of housing (Figure B9.10b). On cross-country average, students residing in student accommodation show the highest level of dissatisfaction (19 %), whilst their fellow students who live in the parental home report the lowest level of discontent (6 %). The residents of student accommodation report the largest shares of those who are not satisfied (at all) in all but one country with available data on all three groups. In all countries except one, students who live with their parents are least often dissatisfied with the general condition of their accommodation. Among the residents in the parental home, the proportion of those who are not satisfied (at all) is less than 10 % in 85 % of countries. In about three fifths of countries, the share of students living with parents who are not satisfied (at all) does not exceed 5 %.

5 *The criteria 'location' and 'overall condition' were not further specified in the underlying questionnaire.*

Students generally express the highest level of dissatisfaction with their commuting time (Figure B9.10c). On aggregate across countries, students living with parents report the highest level of dissatisfaction (32 %) with the time commuting from their home to the HEI. In all but one country, students living with parents are most often not satisfied (at all) with their commuting time in a group comparison. Students who reside in student accommodation are least often dissatisfied with this aspect (cross-country average: 12 %). In almost all countries with available data, those living in student accommodation report the lowest levels of dissatisfaction with their commuting time. The findings for the satisfaction with commuting times are consistent with the results for students' commuting times (Figure B9.8). On cross-country median, students living with parents have the longest time for a one-way commute from their home to the HEI at 40 minutes, whilst their fellow students who live away from parents spend only half as much time on this purpose, and students residing in student accommodation only dedicate 15 minutes to commuting.

Discussion and policy considerations

The distribution of students among different types of housing shows a familiar pattern that has already been noted in previous EUROSTUDENT reports (DZHW, 2018; Hauschildt et al., 2015). Students in Southern European countries tend to live with their parents particularly often, while their peers in the Nordic countries rarely live in their parents' home. This is a well-known regional pattern, found not only in young population groups in general (Buchmann & Kriesi, 2011) but also in the student populations. Despite such region-specific patterns, several patterns also exist across many national borders. One of these is that, as students grow older, they swap living in the parental home and in student accommodation for living with partner/children and living alone.

Living with parents is a type of housing utilised by a minority of students in most countries; however, they are often a large minority. One of the economic advantages of this form of housing for students is that the accommodation costs are lowest of all types of housing compared in this report (> *Database*). Paying no or only token rent is certainly economically supportive for students, especially for those from a disadvantaged background. In almost all EUROSTUDENT countries, the share of residents in the parental home is higher among students without financial difficulties compared to their fellow students with financial difficulties. Interestingly, in more than three quarters of countries, student residents in the parental home are more likely to come from financially well-off families (for Ireland, see Gormley, 2016). Thus, students who belong to a disadvantaged group, as mentioned in the Bologna declarations (London Communiqué, 2007; Yerevan Communiqué, 2015; Annex II to the Rome Communiqué, 2020), clearly benefit less often from the lowest housing costs. Due to the nature of its data, EUROSTUDENT cannot provide information on the duration of living with parents. However, there is indication that this duration is prolonged by the effects of economic crises (for students in Portugal, Cairns, 2011). It is, therefore, to be expected that this result will also occur in the wake of the current COVID-19 pandemic. Regardless of such crises, it is also not uncommon for students to move back into their parents' home for a transitional period, even after graduation (West, Lewis, Roberts, & Noden, 2017). The importance of the parental home can thus have great significance beyond the study period.

In contrast, student accommodation is a form of housing especially designed for students. This type of accommodation continues to cater particularly for young students up to the age of 24 years. Students who are dependent on state support are also more likely than average to be found in student halls of residence. The common feature of both groups is that they tend to have a comparatively low total income per month (> *Chapter B7*). Accordingly, this type of housing seems to especially attract students with rather low purchasing power. As other analyses have shown, student accommodation is indeed in most countries the cheapest form of housing for students outside the parental home (> *Chapter B8*). Nevertheless, the resident structure of student accommodation is not exclusively made up of low-income students: the share of students living in student accommodation generally rises, the higher the students' educational background. The composition of dormitory residents is also mixed according to their educational origin. In all EUROSTUDENT countries with available data, international students live in student accommodation more often than domestic students. The frequent use of this form of housing by international students may not only be the result of low rent, better chances of socio-academic integration (Schudde, 2011)[6], and convenient location. In some cases it may also be due to the negative experiences, including ethnic discrimination, of international students in the private housing market (for the Netherlands, Fang & van Liempt, 2020). Access to suitable accommodation, however, is an important factor for the overall satisfaction of international students with their study-related stays abroad, as Ammigan found in an international quantitative study (Ammigan, 2019; Ammigan and Jones, 2018).

Over the last decade, an increase in the share of Bachelor students residing in student accommodation is noticeable in around half of countries. This suggests that either already existing dormitory capacity has been better exploited or new capacities have been created, which is probably also a reaction to increasing housing shortages in university cities. The public provision of additional student accommodation is certainly an appropriate measure to supply students with affordable housing space. However, developing new housing options may be quite difficult, not only because of limited space, but sometimes also due to opposition from the local neighbourhood (Sage, Smith, & Hubbard, 2012).

The type of housing chosen has an impact on the commuting time of students. Students living with parents usually have the longest commuting time (international median for a one-way commute: 40 minutes). Students not living with parents spend only 20 minutes on the same journey, and their fellows residing in student accommodation merely need 15 minutes. The long commuting times of students living with parents can also be seen as an indication of the limited choice of HEIs available to them. This is true at least if students cannot afford to move into their own accommodation for reasons of cost. The commuting time is, of course, related to the spatial distance to the nearest HEI. There is empirical evidence that this is a relevant criterion for potential students when deciding whether to attend university at all (for Germany, Spiess & Wrohlich, 2010 and for Canada, Frenette, 2006). Potential students who live at 'out-of-reach distance' and

6 *Holton points out, however, that student accommodation is a highly dynamic place in which very heterogeneous actors come together. The residents differ by social background, country of origin, ethnic affiliation, familial bonds, and other characteristics. Acquiring the various social and domestic skills required to make the transition into 'adult lives' may sometimes not be easy in such a place (Holton, 2016).*

cannot afford to live away from parents would thus be lost to higher education. The same applies to potential students who live within reach of universities but do not have adequate access to (public) transport (Kenyon, 2011). Remedial political action could be taken by paying (more) housing subsidies to students, building low-cost dormitories or – as a last resort as it is most expensive – founding additional universities.

In the EUROSTUDENT countries, students' satisfaction with the housing characteristics of costs, location, overall condition, and commuting time is generally rather high. On aggregate across countries, a clear majority of all students are (very) satisfied with these aspects (> *Database*). When looking at the lower range of the satisfaction scale, it appears that students' greatest dissatisfaction can be found with commuting time (cross-country average for all students not satisfied [at all]: 24 %) followed by costs (20 %), location (12 %) and condition (11 %). Satisfaction differs also with the type of housing. With respect to commuting times, students living with parents are particularly dissatisfied. The discontent with accommodation costs is most pronounced among students living with other persons. Displeasure with the overall condition of housing is rather high among students residing in student accommodation. This exemplifies that each form of housing has different strengths and weaknesses. Insofar as a need for action is identified for social policy – and the Rome Communiqué is quite clear with regard to housing costs (Annex II to the Rome Communiqué, 2020) – this requires group-specific solutions. Regarding the two generally most pressing housing problems for students – long commuting times and high accommodation costs – the development of new housing through student accommodation seems to be one reasonable solution, even if it may sometimes not be easy to implement.

Tables

Table B9.1

Students' housing situation by age

Share of students (in %)

Age groups

	< 22 years					22–24 years					25–29 years					30 years and older				
	With parents	Student accommodation	With partner/ children	With other person(s)	Alone	With parents	Student accommodation	With partner/ children	With other person(s)	Alone	With parents	Student accommodation	With partner/ children	With other person(s)	Alone	With parents	Student accommodation	With partner/ children	With other person(s)	Alone
AT	39	19	8	25	9	25	12	17	33	13	12	8	34	28	18	5	4	56	9	26
CH	63	13	2	16	7	57	10	7	20	7	36	10	21	22	11	9	2	62	9	17
CZ	37	28	13	18	4	32	19	25	19	6	21	12	40	17	9	6	3	77	2	14
DK	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
EE	28	34	15	9	13	24	27	27	8	14	14	17	46	9	15	9	9	61	5	16
FI	12	37	14	6	31	6	33	25	8	28	4	30	37	6	23	2	10	65	1	22
FR	44	14	5	13	25	25	12	14	19	31	17	16	24	17	26	5	5	45	17	27
GE	66	3	4	16	12	62	2	7	16	13	51	3	19	11	17	42	3	21	9	25
HR	44	18	4	22	12	49	10	9	21	12	43	3	20	18	17	26	0	52	4	17
HU	34	36	8	13	9	34	26	16	15	8	30	14	37	11	9	15	7	71	4	4
IE	52	26	1	20	2	44	16	5	32	3	31	9	24	29	8	7	2	69	9	13
IS	70	17	6	3	4	47	23	23	3	5	24	19	46	6	6	7	6	74	3	10
LT	37	33	12	11	8	28	24	24	14	10	18	10	52	5	15	10	8	70	2	10
LU	64	21	7	1	7	61	21	7	4	8	42	28	23	4	4	12	20	59	1	7
MT	91	1	1	6	1	85	1	3	8	3	56	1	18	13	12	12	2	68	6	12
NL	61	28	3	5	3	36	39	12	7	7	18	27	28	10	16	4	6	68	3	19
NO	19	29	13	33	6	10	21	23	37	9	7	16	39	24	15	2	5	75	4	15
PL	42	14	11	27	6	41	10	21	21	7	34	6	35	13	11	12	2	72	3	11
SE	33	37	11	6	13	15	42	22	6	15	7	31	39	5	18	3	9	72	1	15
SI	46	31	7	13	3	46	26	13	11	5	39	15	28	11	8	16	1	71	1	12
av.	**46**	**23**	**8**	**14**	**9**	**38**	**20**	**16**	**16**	**11**	**26**	**14**	**32**	**14**	**14**	**11**	**5**	**64**	**5**	**15**
AL	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
DE	51	9	9	19	12	32	6	20	28	14	17	5	34	28	16	5	2	59	13	20
IT	69	7	0.3	18	5	68	3	0.4	22	6	69	2	3	19	7	58	2	25	7	9
PT	62	7	1	26	4	58	8	7	22	5	42	6	25	18	10	19	3	58	7	14
RO	72	7	9	5	7	55	7	22	7	9	36	5	41	5	13	18	2	68	1	11
TR	31	56	0.2	9	4	33	42	1	17	8	36	28	7	15	14	20	12	54	3	11

n.d.: no data.

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, E.2.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE, IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.1 Who do you live with during the current lecture period (Monday to Friday)?, 4.2 Do you live in a student accommodation?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *FR, IT.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Table B9.2

Students living in student accommodation by sex, type of HEI, study programme, dependency on an income source, and extent of financial difficulties

Share of students (in %)

	Sex		Type of HEI		Study programme		Dependency on income source			Extent of financial difficulties		
	Female	Male	University	Non-university	Bachelor	Master	Dependent on family/ partner contribu-tions	Dependent on self-earned income	Dependent on national public student support	With financial difficulties	With somewhat financial difficulties	Without financial difficulties
AT	9	10	10	8	11	8	14	5	10	10	9	9
CH	9	10	13	5	8	12	11	5	14	12	9	9
CZ	17	23	21	4	20	15	26	9	23	19	20	19
DK	23	32	31	21	28	26	28	n.d.	n.d.	25	26	29
EE	18	28	21	27	24	17	26	14	45	24	24	21
FI	20	31	32	18	25	24	26	17	33	23	25	27
FR	11	15	12	17	14	13	11	9	20	15	13	12
GE	2	4	2	5	2	1	3	1	2	3	2	3
HR	9	13	11	7	11	9	10	4	32	11	9	12
HU	21	26	24	20	23	24	26	12	48	25	25	22
IE	19	16	17	19	20	11	26	9	23	17	18	18
IS	15	16	15	n/a	17	13	8	13	39	25	15	10
LT	22	26	25	21	26	13	31	14	30	24	25	23
LU	18	27	25	2	18	40	15	t.f.c.	19	30	26	17
MT	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	0.3	0	1	1	2
NL	30	29	47	19	27	45	27	14	44	35	32	26
NO	14	22	18	14	19	15	10	7	26	18	17	16
PL	9	12	12	4	11	8	12	4	33	11	10	10
SE	26	38	31	n/a	33	43	19	21	36	30	31	31
SI	26	21	30	7	25	22	29	15	41	23	25	23
av.	**16**	**20**	**20**	**12**	**18**	**18**	**18**	**10**	**27**	**19**	**18**	**17**
AL	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
DE	6	7	7	5	6	6	8	3	8	7	5	6
IT	5	5	5	n/a	6	3	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
PT	6	7	7	6	6	6	6	3	24	11	8	4
RO	5	7	6	n/a	6	4	7	4	15	7	6	5
TR*	50	40	48	23	44	14	43	20	60	47	45	36

n.d.: no data. t.f.c.: too few cases. n/a: not applicable.

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, E.1.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE, IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.2 Do you live in a student accommodation?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *IT, TR.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Table B9.3

Satisfaction with costs of accommodation of students living with parents, with partner/children, with other person(s), and alone

Share of students (in %)

	With parents			With partner/children			With other person(s)			Alone		
	(Very) satisfied	Neither satisfied nor dis-satisfied	Not satisfied (at all)	(Very) satisfied	Neither satisfied nor dis-satisfied	Not satisfied (at all)	(Very) satisfied	Neither satisfied nor dis-satisfied	Not satisfied (at all)	(Very) satisfied	Neither satisfied nor dis-satisfied	Not satisfied (at all)
AT	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
CH	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
CZ	86	9	5	60	21	20	58	18	24	56	20	23
DK	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	60	19	21	52	21	26	59	19	22
EE	76	14	10	65	20	15	71	15	15	62	22	16
FI	75	22	3	67	18	15	69	20	12	60	19	21
FR	66	28	7	52	29	19	56	26	19	45	30	25
GE	44	28	28	40	21	40	32	27	40	44	24	32
HR	68	19	13	37	24	39	35	20	45	29	22	50
HU	71	18	11	59	23	18	48	21	31	57	19	25
IE	72	15	13	51	25	24	36	19	46	39	22	40
IS	87	10	3	67	17	16	56	14	30	69	15	17
LT	81	12	7	65	20	15	58	20	22	63	21	17
LU	68	18	14	46	17	37	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	42	33	25
MT	76	16	9	58	27	14	32	29	39	28	36	36
NL	78	14	8	52	24	24	40	23	38	43	24	33
NO	83	13	4	67	23	10	53	25	22	58	25	18
PL	76	15	9	57	23	19	51	23	26	55	23	22
SE	87	8	6	72	15	14	67	15	18	70	13	17
SI	83	10	7	61	21	19	51	23	26	59	24	17
av.	**75**	**16**	**9**	**57**	**22**	**21**	**51**	**21**	**28**	**52**	**23**	**25**
AL	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
DE	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
IT	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
PT	69	21	10	52	25	23	39	28	33	45	23	33
RO	61	23	16	56	25	19	39	27	34	49	27	24
TR	51	23	26	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.

n.d.: no data. t.f.c.: too few cases.

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, E.4.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.3 How satisfied are you with your accommodation concerning the following aspects?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *DK, FR, HU.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Table B9.4

Satisfaction with student accommodation concerning costs, location, condition, and time to commute (between accommodation and HEI)

Share of students (in %)

	Costs			Location			Overall condition			Commuting time		
	(Very) satisfied	Neither satisfied nor dis-satisfied	Not satisfied (at all)	(Very) satisfied	Neither satisfied nor dis-satisfied	Not satisfied (at all)	(Very) satisfied	Neither satisfied nor dis-satisfied	Not satisfied (at all)	(Very) satisfied	Neither satisfied nor dis-satisfied	Not satisfied (at all)
AT	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
CH	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
CZ	62	19	19	73	15	13	41	22	38	71	14	15
DK	65	15	20	77	13	10	65	23	12	71	14	15
EE	74	12	14	92	5	3	64	21	14	84	11	6
FI	81	11	8	84	10	7	72	19	10	79	11	10
FR	50	28	23	58	23	19	65	24	11	81	10	10
GE	46	20	35	43	22	36	46	24	30	41	18	41
HR	76	12	12	88	7	6	66	17	17	72	11	17
HU	69	15	16	78	14	9	59	22	20	78	10	11
IE	20	20	60	78	14	9	52	24	24	79	11	10
IS	50	16	34	86	4	10	67	18	15	84	6	10
LT	62	14	23	77	11	11	37	29	34	72	12	17
LU	52	13	35	71	15	14	74	17	9	81	7	13
MT	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.
NL	49	21	30	81	11	7	56	22	23	80	12	8
NO	56	23	21	81	14	6	62	25	13	82	12	6
PL	72	15	13	86	8	6	56	25	19	82	8	10
SE	60	17	23	86	9	5	70	19	11	86	9	5
SI	65	21	13	89	8	4	59	18	23	82	10	8
av.	**59**	**17**	**24**	**78**	**12**	**10**	**60**	**22**	**19**	**77**	**11**	**12**
AL	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
DE	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
IT	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
PT	61	17	23	80	15	5	54	28	18	74	18	9
RO	66	16	18	79	13	8	53	25	22	70	14	16
TR	29	21	51	52	18	31	34	32	34	56	16	29

n.d.: no data. t.f.c.: too few cases.

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, E.4, E.5, E.6, and E.7.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.3 How satisfied are you with your accommodation concerning the following aspects?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *DK, HU.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Chapter B10
International student mobility

Key

Intention to study abroad temporarily

On cross-country average, about every third student who has not been temporarily enrolled abroad intends to realise such a study abroad period. The intention to take part in an enrolment period abroad is generally greater among students with a tertiary education background than among their fellow students without a tertiary education background.

Obstacles

Across countries, students who do not plan to enrol abroad perceive an expected financial burden to be the main obstacle, followed by the separation from partner and/or child(ren) and the fear of losing their job. Moreover, these three obstacles are also more frequently mentioned by students without a tertiary education background.

Types of international mobility

A total 19 % of students have realised temporary enrolment, an internship/work placement, or other types of study-related activities abroad, on cross-country average. In general, students without a tertiary education background are less likely to complete stays abroad compared to those with a tertiary education background, while ICTs students go abroad less frequently than students of arts and humanities, for example.

findings

Organisation and funding

While periods of enrolment abroad are commonly organised through the Erasmus+ programme and publicly funded (either by the EU or national funding structures), internships abroad tend to be independently organised and not remunerated.

Recognition practice

The majority of students who have been temporarily enrolled abroad indicate a complete or at least partial recognition of the credits gained abroad in their studies at home. Internships abroad are less commonly recognised, however.

Perceived labour market preparation

While there is no distinct difference between students with and without international mobility experience regarding self-assessed preparation for the respective national labour market in most countries, mobility strongly relates to the perceived international labour market preparation across countries.

Main issues

Promoting international student mobility (ISM) is one of the main objectives of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) (Vögtle, 2019a), with the aim of fostering 'personal development and employability' as well as 'respect for diversity and a capacity to deal with other cultures', to encourage 'linguistic pluralism', and increase 'cooperation and competition between higher education institutions' (Leuven and Louvain-la-Neuve Communiqué, 2009). In 2009 and 2012, the mobility targets of the EHEA were specified and ambitiously formulated as follows: "In 2020, at least 20 % of those graduating in the European Higher Education Area should have had a study or training period abroad" (Leuven and Louvain-la-Neuve Communiqué, 2009) and "We include in our mobility target the periods spent abroad corresponding to at least 15 ECTS credit points or three months within any of the three cycles (credit mobility) as well as stays in which a degree is obtained abroad (degree mobility)" (EHEA Ministerial Conference, 2012). In line with these goals, the European Commission has expanded its funding structure for ISM, particularly the Erasmus(+) programme, with considerable increases in the programme's budget over the years (European Commission, 2019).

Existing research has identified a number of factors that play a role in determining whether a student becomes internationally mobile, and has pointed out social and economic inequalities regarding the accessibility of international mobility. Students with a low socio-economic background are more reluctant to study abroad, not only due to inferior financial resources, but also because of stronger ties to their social environment at home as well as a lack of cultural capital, for example, language skills or previous intercultural experience in the form of participation in pupils' exchange programmes (Finger, 2011; DZHW, 2018; Lörz & Krawietz, 2011; Netz, 2015; Netz & Finger, 2016). Furthermore, different fields of study have been associated with varying degrees of internationalisation, resulting in considerable differences regarding the temporary mobility behaviour of students (Vögtle, 2019b, 2021). Even though the Erasmus(+) programme places 'a strong focus on social inclusion' (European Commission, 2021), past research has identified social and personal barriers (e.g. family relationships, costs and benefits, or personal anxieties) to participation in the programme (Souto-Otero et al., 2013). Thus, keeping the EHEA's aims of equitability in higher education in mind (European Commission et al., 2020a, pp. 124–133), social aspects of access to ISM are of particular interest.

ISM in itself is diverse by nature, with several different types of stays abroad; for example, temporary enrolment abroad, internships, summer schools, research or field trips, and language courses – to name just a few types. This chapter focuses on temporary mobility (or, in the terminology of the EHEA, 'credit mobility'), with an emphasis on temporary study periods abroad and internships abroad. These specific types of temporary student mobility are analysed with regard to their organisational framework (including the financial aspects) and to students' socio-economic background (tying in with the current research into the social selectivity of international mobility).

Regarding the outcomes of ISM, the most immediate interest relates to recognition practice and integrating credits earned abroad into studies at home (European Commission, 2019), as the transferability and comparability of learning achievements is one of the core pillars of the EHEA overall (Vögtle, 2019a). The long-term labour market outcomes of ISM have been the subject of several recent studies, identifying the beneficial effects of ISM, for example on wages, the risk of unemployment, and the risk of skills mismatch (Kratz & Netz, 2018; Meng et al., 2020, pp. 225–242; Netz & Grüttner, 2020; Van Mol et al., 2020; Wiers-Jenssen & Støren, 2020). While the study at hand, as a survey among students who have typically not yet fully entered the labour market (> *Chapter B6*), does not allow for analyses of these long-term labour market outcomes of international mobility, a more subjective measurement exists in the form of students' perceived preparation for the labour market. Thus, it is of interest whether international mobility experience relates to students' expected labour market outcomes of studies.

The chapter gives an impression of temporary ISM with regard to intention and obstacles towards mobility, the character and framework of realised mobility, as well as (perceived) outcomes of mobility, along the lines of the following questions.

- To what extent do students intend to go abroad during their studies and what are the perceived obstacles to stays abroad? Does students' socio-economic background relate to their motivation to go abroad?
- What are the commonest types of stays abroad?
- How do students commonly organise and fund periods of enrolment and internships abroad?
- What are the immediate (ECTS-related) and long-term (expected labour market preparation by studies) outcomes of ISM?

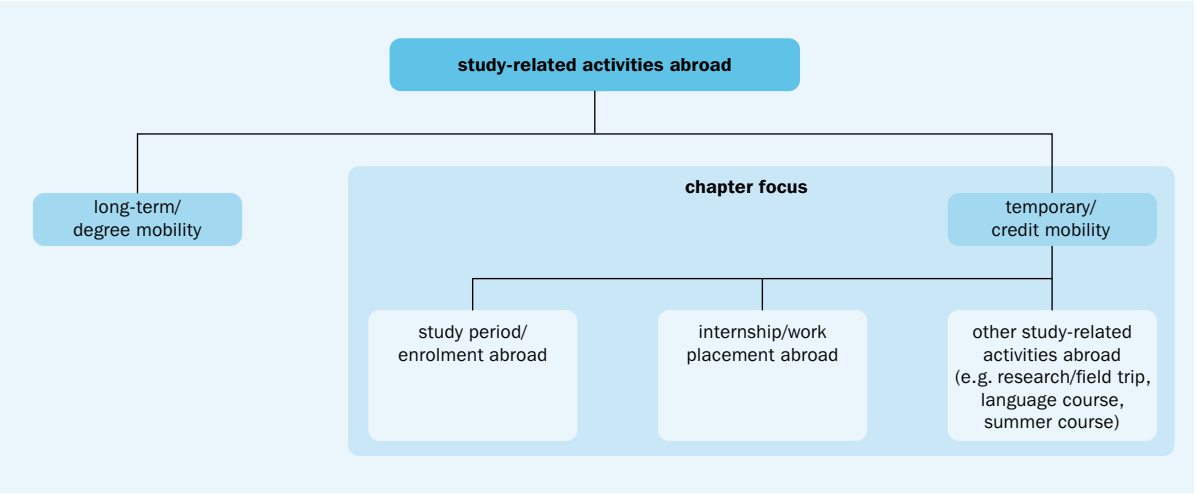
Methodological and conceptual notes

The analyses in this chapter cover temporary types of mobility, also referred to as credit mobility. Credit mobility covers study periods ('enrolment abroad'), internships and work placements abroad, and other short-term study-related activities abroad, such as research/field trips, language courses, summer courses of less than or at least three months' duration (Box 10.1). The analyses only cover students of the EUROSTUDENT target group (> *Chapter A3*). Thus, only students who are studying for a degree in the country of the respective survey are included, while incoming temporarily mobile students are excluded. Incoming long-term mobile students (degree mobility) are covered as ● International students in > *Chapter B1*.

The EHEA's mobility goal of 20 % of graduates having realised a study or training period abroad corresponding to at least 15 ECTS credit points or three months is not verifiable with EUROSTUDENT data, due to the cross-sectional design of the study, as would be possible with longitudinal graduate data (Meng et al., 2020). The differentiation of types of mobility by degree programme can therefore only serve as a rough estimate of international mobility realisation along the student life cycle (Figure 10.4).

Box B10.1

Types of international student mobility



Data and interpretation

Intention to study abroad

A third of non-mobile students still intend to go abroad for studies.

On cross-country average, about a third of students who have not realised a temporary study abroad period indicate either intending to embark on or already preparing a study abroad period (32 %; Figure B10.1). However, there are large variations across countries with regard to students' intention to complete a study period abroad.

- The intention to study abroad is highest in Italy (58 %), Georgia (57 %), Turkey (55 %), and Estonia (51 %), with more than half of students who have not been temporarily enrolled abroad so far indicating their willingness to become mobile.
- Comparatively low rates of students planning to study abroad temporarily can be found in Poland (20 %), Finland (19 %), and Lithuania (16 %), where only every fifth to sixth student without study experience abroad intends to realise such a temporary enrolment.

Students without a tertiary education background less frequently indicate intending or preparing a temporary study abroad period.

A consistent relationship regarding students' intention to study abroad is revealed through a differentiation by students' educational background. Generally, across all EUROSTUDENT countries, students without a tertiary education background less frequently indicate intending or preparing a temporary study abroad than students with a tertiary education background. On cross-country average, this between-group difference amounts to about ten percentage points.

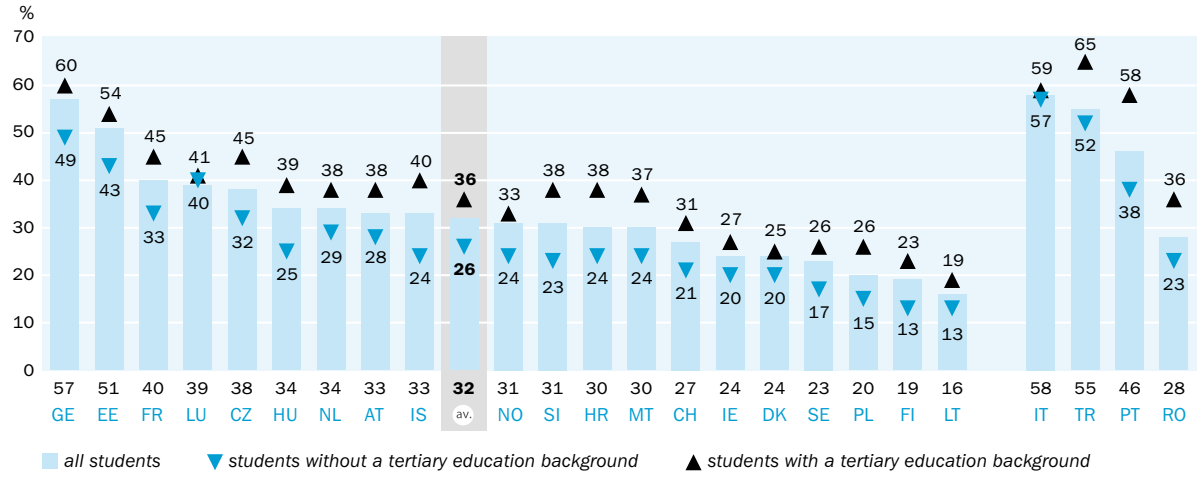
- The gap in study abroad intention between students from different educational backgrounds is particularly large in Portugal (58 % vs. 38 %), Iceland (40 % vs. 24 %), and Slovenia (38 % vs. 23 %), while it is less distinct in countries like Luxembourg (41 % vs. 40 %), Italy (59 % vs. 57 %), or Denmark (25 % vs. 20 %).

While educational background clearly relates to students' intention to study abroad across countries, an additional differentiation by financial difficulties does not result in a correspondingly clear pattern (Table B10.1).

Figure B10.1

Students' intention to study abroad for limited periods by educational background

Share of students without experience of studying abroad temporarily (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, I.20.* ***No data:*** *DE.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *5.2 [Only students who have not done a temporary study period abroad yet] Taking a closer look at temporary study periods abroad: How would you best describe your intentions?*

Note(s): *Aggregated shares of students without previous enrolment abroad who indicated 'I am currently preparing a temporary study period abroad' or 'I haven't made any arrangements, but I am intending to go abroad for a temporary study period'.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *EE.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

- While in some countries, such as Luxembourg, Switzerland, Georgia, Croatia, and Denmark, students with financial difficulties less frequently indicate preparing for or intending to undertake temporary studies abroad than students without financial difficulties, the groups' intentions are distinctly reversed in other countries, for example in Malta, Estonia, and Norway.

This finding implies that the intention to study abroad for a limited period is not solely tied to students' economic background and resources, but also linked to their social and cultural background. Thus, it is important to take a more detailed look at students without the intention of studying abroad and the perceived obstacles to international mobility.

Obstacles to studies abroad

Expected financial burden, separation from partner and/or children, and separation from social circle are the biggest obstacles to mobility.

The most frequently cited obstacle to temporary enrolment abroad across countries by far is the expected financial burden (Table B10.2). On a cross-country average, 60 % of students not planning to enrol abroad mention this obstacle. This is followed by (in descending order) the separation from partner and/or child(ren) (cross-country average: 41 %), loss of paid job (39 %), and the separation from social circles other than family (35 %). Some national specifics are noteworthy with regard to the obstacles to temporary enrolment abroad.

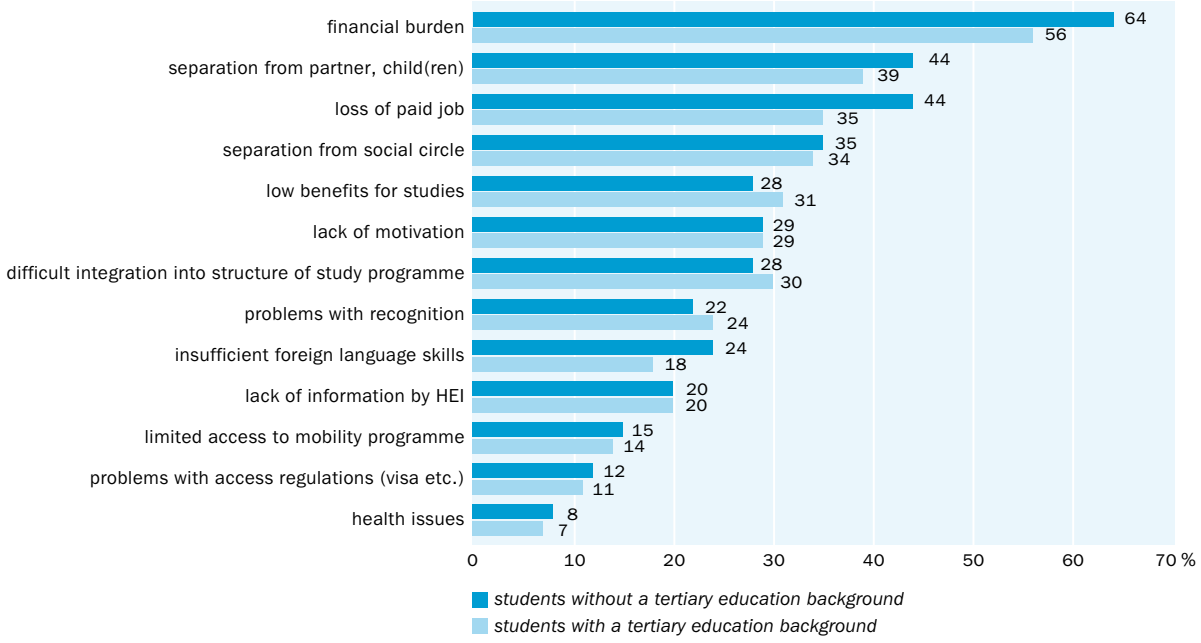
- Students with no intention to enrol abroad temporarily in Turkey (84 %), Portugal (74 %), Iceland (73 %), Poland (72 %), Ireland (71 %), and Germany (70 %) very frequently mention the financial burden.

- The separation from partner and/or child(ren) is indicated as an obstacle by majorities of students in Iceland (56 %), the Czech Republic (55 %), Estonia (54 %), Finland (52 %), and Poland (52 %). This finding mirrors the demographic make-up of student populations with regard to age and parenthood in some of these countries (e.g. Iceland, Estonia, Finland; > *Chapter B1*).
- A majority of students without plans to enrol abroad in Norway (55 %), Iceland (53 %), and Germany (51 %) fear the loss of their paid jobs (which correlates to a certain extent with the employment structure in student populations; > *Chapter B6*).
- Students in the Czech Republic (46 %), Poland (42 %), Austria (41 %), Croatia (40 %), Hungary (40 %), and Turkey (40 %) commonly mention difficulties in integrating temporary enrolment abroad into the structure of their study programme.
- Students with no intention to study abroad in Turkey (59 %), Poland (39 %), Ireland (38 %), the Czech Republic (35 %), and Hungary (35 %) most frequently indicate insufficient foreign language skills.
- Problems with the recognition of results achieved abroad are common obstacles for non-mobile students in Croatia (47 %), the Czech Republic (40 %), Poland (39 %), and Turkey (38 %).

Figure B10.2

Obstacles to temporary enrolment abroad by educational background

Cross-country average share of students who do not plan to enrol abroad (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, I.30.* ***No data:*** *AT (problems with access regulations (visa etc.), limited access to mobility programme), CH (health issues), FR, IT (problems with access regulations (visa etc.), limited access to mobility programme, health issues, lack of information by HEI, separation from social circle, loss of paid job, lack of motivation, low benefits for studies).*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *5.8 To what extent are or were the following aspects an obstacle to you for enrolment abroad?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *AT, DE, DK.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

As, consistently across countries, students without a tertiary education background are less intent on temporarily enrolling abroad than their fellow students with a tertiary education background, differentiating the perceived obstacles to temporary enrolment abroad by students' educational background is of interest (Figure B10.2). Not only do students without a tertiary education background, on cross-country average, more frequently indicate the loss of their paid job (44 % vs. 35 %) and the additional financial burden (64 % vs. 56 %) – obstacles that both primarily relate to students' economic backgrounds – than students with a tertiary education background, they are also more likely to cite insufficient foreign language skills (24 % vs. 18 %) and the separation from partner and/or children (44 % vs. 39 %). Thus, students from lower educational backgrounds are deterred from going abroad by their economic ties and disadvantages on the one hand, and by their (self-perceived) lack of cultural resources and their familial responsibilities on the other. By contrast, students with a tertiary education background are slightly more put off studying abroad temporarily due to benefit-oriented aspects, such as low benefits for their studies (28 % vs. 31 %), problems with recognition of results achieved abroad (22 % vs. 24 %), or difficulties in integrating a stay abroad into the structure of their study programme (28 % vs. 30 %).

Students with a non-tertiary education background perceive the financial burden and the potential loss of paid job as bigger obstacles.

Types of realised international mobility

On cross-country average, seven percent of students have undertaken temporary enrolment abroad and four percent have been abroad for study-related internships or work placements, with one percent having been abroad for both temporary enrolment and an internship/work placement (Figure B10.3). An additional seven percent of students have been abroad for other types of study-related activities (e.g. research/field trips, language courses, summer school), on cross-country average. Accordingly, the total cross-country proportion of students who have completed a stay abroad during their studies amounts to 19 %. This figure varies enormously between EUROSTUDENT countries with regard to the percentage of students who realised stays abroad as well as the commonest types of international mobility.

Temporary enrolment abroad is the single commonest type of study-related activity abroad.

- The total share of students with international mobility experience is highest in Luxembourg at 39 %, followed by the Netherlands (26 %), Switzerland (25 %), Austria (25 %), Norway (24 %), and France (23 %), where about a quarter of students have been abroad during their studies respectively. Comparatively low shares of students who have completed a stay abroad can be found in Poland (7 %), Romania (8 %), and Turkey (7 %).
- Temporary enrolment abroad is the commonest type of international mobility among students in Luxembourg (26 %), Germany (11 %), Finland (11 %), and Italy (8 %).
- Internships and work placements are more frequently indicated by students in Austria (11 %) and Malta (8 %) than other types of stays abroad.
- Types of stays abroad other than enrolments or internships are most often cited by students in the Netherlands (12 %), Switzerland (12 %), and Norway (11 %).

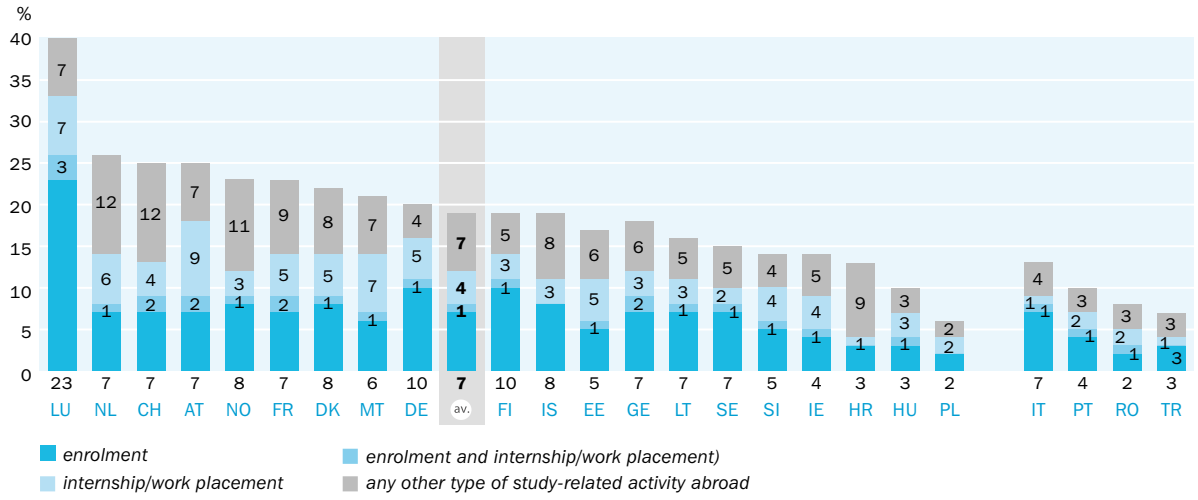
On cross-country average, periods of temporary enrolment have a mean duration of roughly five months while internships have a shorter mean duration of roughly three months (Table B10.3). The mean duration of temporary enrolment abroad hardly varies between countries, while the duration of internships shows a greater contrast.

The average duration of studies abroad is five months, internship last on average three months.

Figure B10.3

Types of students' international mobility experience

Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, I.4.* ***No data:*** *CZ.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.20 Have you done any internships (of at least one week, mandatory or voluntary) since you first entered higher education in #country? 5.1 Have you ever taken part in any of the following temporary study-related activities abroad since you first entered higher education in #country?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *CH, FR, IT, MT, SE, PT, RO.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

- On the one hand, the mean duration of enrolment periods abroad ranges from 4.3 months among mobile students in Malta (median: 4.0 months) to 6.8 months among students in Iceland (median: 6.0 months).
- On the other hand, the mean duration of internships ranges from 2.0 months among students in Luxembourg (median: 1.5 months) to 4.4 months among students in the Netherlands (median: 5.0 months).

Relationship between educational background and international mobility

Study-abroad intentions and experiences are strongly related to students' background.

Both the intention to enrol abroad and the perceived obstacles to enrolment abroad have been shown to relate to students' educational backgrounds. This is, in turn, reflected in the realisation of ISM (Table B10.4):

- Across all countries, the shares of students engaging in any type of international mobility are lower among students without a tertiary education background than among students with a tertiary education background. However, the degree of between-group differences varies from distinctly lower shares among students without a tertiary background, for example in France (6 % vs. 24 %), Malta (17 % vs. 26 %), Norway (18 % vs. 26 %), Estonia (14 % vs. 21 %), and Sweden (11 % vs. 18 %), to almost negligible differences in Iceland (18 % vs. 20 %), Portugal (10 % vs. 12 %), and Romania (8 % vs. 9 %).
- On cross-country average, students with a tertiary education background are somewhat more likely to have studied abroad temporarily than their fellow students without a tertiary education background (7 % vs. 9 %). This finding holds true in most EUROSTUDENT countries except Luxembourg (76 % vs. 26 %) and Georgia (7 % vs. 7 %).

Types of international mobility experience by type of study programme

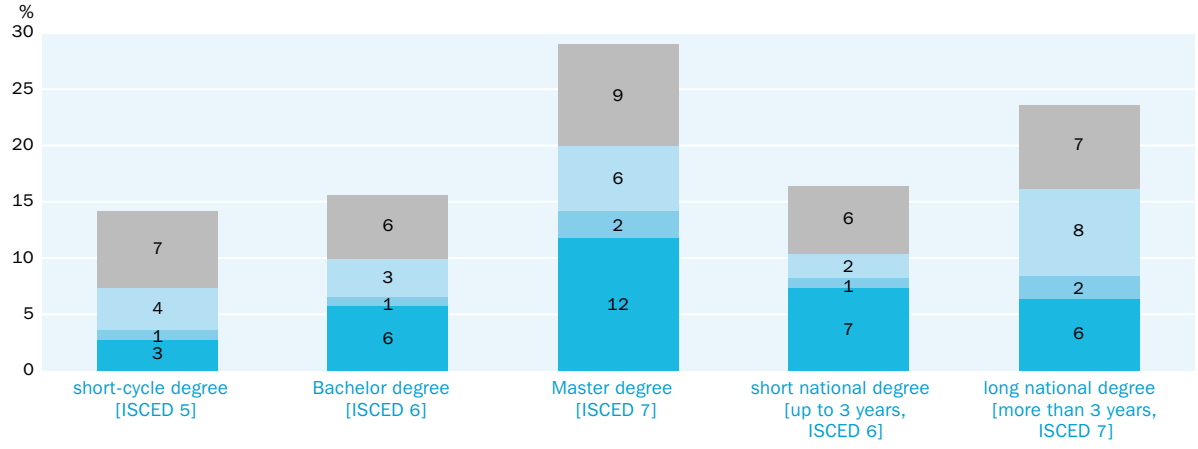
Although the EUROSTUDENT survey has a cross-sectional design that does not allow for the EHEA's goals to be monitored with regard to international mobility rates at the time of graduation (Meng et al., 2020, pp. 225–242), a differentiation of realised mobility by students' type of study programme serves as a cautious estimator for the development of mobility undertaken over the course of studies. The total percentages of students who have completed a study-related stay abroad since entering higher education are considerably lower among students in short-cycle degree programmes of ISCED level 5 (14 %) and Bachelor (16 %) or short national (16 %) degree programmes of ISCED level 6 than among students enrolled in long national (24 %) and, in particular, Master (29 %) degree programmes of ISCED level 7 on cross-country average (Figure B10.4). A closer look at the specific types of mobility reveals that students in short-cycle degree programmes (3 %), or Bachelor (6 %) and short national degree programmes (7 %) have seldom realised temporary enrolments abroad, while a cross-country average of twelve percent of the students in Master degree programmes indicate an enrolment abroad. Shares of students who participated in 'other' types of mobility (research/field trips, language courses, summer school) vary to a much lesser degree between the different types of study programmes, however. Thus, it can be cautiously concluded that, on the one hand, students' general participation in international mobility increases over the course of the student life cycle, especially in terms of more challenging and time-consuming stays like studies abroad. Shorter and less demanding stays, such as research trips or summer schools, on the other hand, tend to be undertaken at any time during the course of studies.

Participation in international mobility increases over the course of the student life-cycle.

Figure B10.4

Types of students' international mobility experience by type of study programme

Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, I.4.* ***No data:*** *CZ.* ***Too few cases:*** *HR, CH, SE (short-cycle), IS (short and long national).*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.20 Have you done any internships (of at least one week, mandatory or voluntary) since you first entered higher education in #country? 5.1 Have you ever taken part in any of the following temporary study-related activities abroad since you first entered higher education in #country?*

Note(s): *Cross-country averages for students enrolled in respective degree programmes, where applicable (> Chapter B4).*

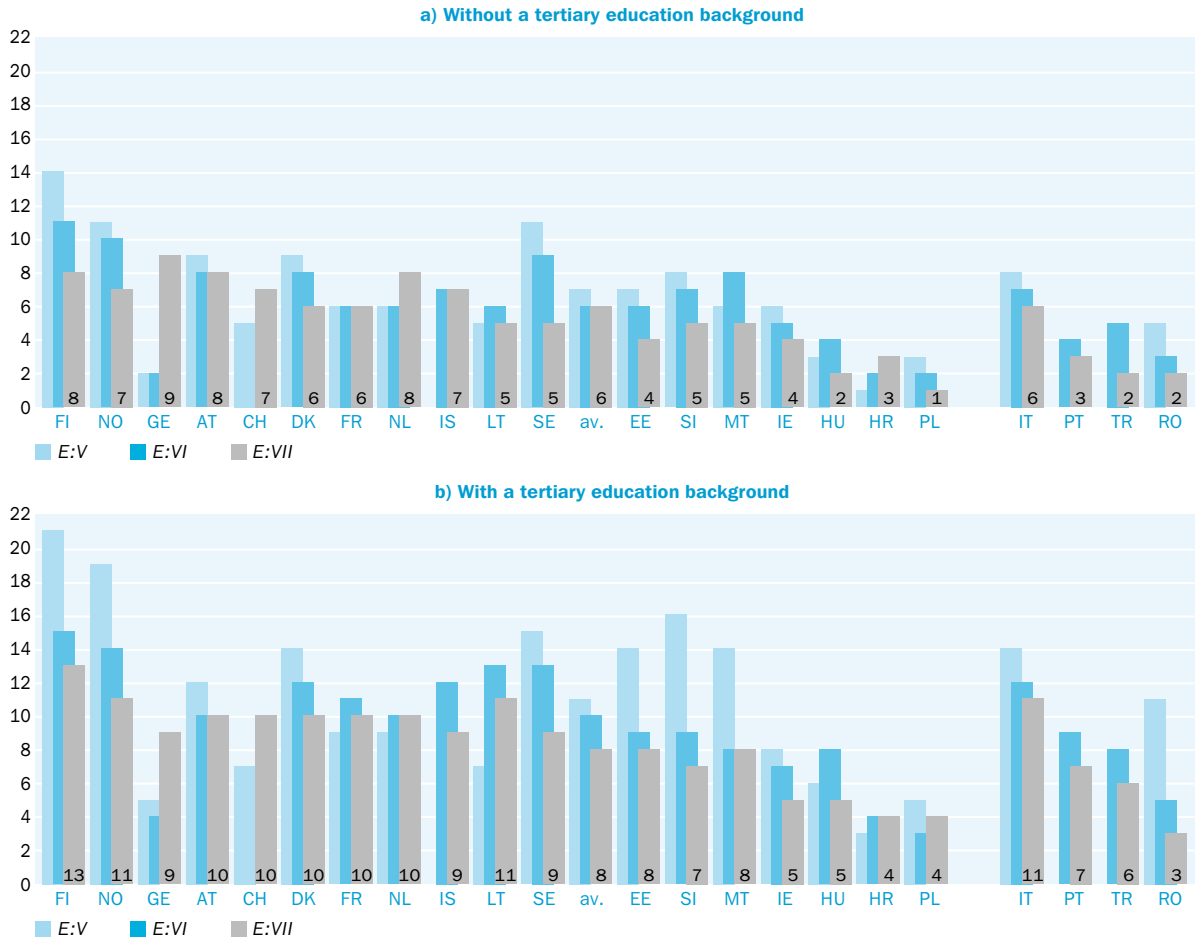
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *CH, FR, IT, MT, SE, PT, RO.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Figure B10.5

Temporary enrolment abroad by educational background in E:V, E:VI, and E:VII

Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT V, K.2; EUROSTUDENT VI, I.3; EUROSTUDENT VII: I.4.* ***No data:*** *EUROSTUDENT V: IS; EUROSTUDENT VI: CH; EUROSTUDENT VII: CZ, DE.*

Data collection for EUROSTUDENT VII: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *5.1 Have you ever taken part in any of the following temporary study-related activities abroad since you first entered higher education in #country?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *CH, FR, IT, MT, SE, PT, RO.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

B 10

Relationship between field of study and international mobility

Mobility varies strongly across fields of study.

Different fields of studies, with their varying academic cultures and habits, and the varying make-up of diverse student subgroups (> *Chapter B4*) are associated with a contrasting affinity to international mobility (Vögtle, 2019b, 2021). This is illustrated through a differentiation of percentages of students with international mobility by fields of study (Table B10.5). While, on one end of the spectrum, every fourth student enrolled in subjects in the arts and humanities on cross-country average has study-related international mobility experience, the share amounts to only 14 % among students in information and communication technologies on the lower end of the spectrum. While shares of students with international mobility experience are largest in the arts and humanities in most EUROSTUDENT countries, some national specifics are worthy of note.

- In Austria (37 %), Germany (28 %), and Slovenia (25 %), the largest shares of students with international mobility experience can be found among students in the field of agriculture, forestry, fisheries, and veterinary.
- Students in the field of services in Finland (31 %), Switzerland (58 %), and the Netherlands (40 %) are more likely to have been abroad than their fellow students in other fields of study.
- Bucking the trend across countries, students in the field of information and communication technologies in Georgia more frequently undertake stays abroad than students in other fields. Similarly, students in the field of engineering, manufacturing, and construction in France and Malta indicate stays abroad more frequently than students in any other field, while in most other countries the percentage of students with mobility experience tends to be below average among students of engineering, manufacturing, and construction.

Temporary enrolment over time

Differences in temporary enrolment abroad due to educational background persistently hold true over time.

As a comparison of data collected in the last three rounds of the EUROSTUDENT project illustrates, differences in temporary enrolment abroad due to educational background persistently hold true over time in all EUROSTUDENT countries (Figure B10.5). Shares of students who have been temporarily enrolled abroad are lower among students without a tertiary education background than among those with a tertiary education background in all countries at each measurement period. Additionally, the time comparison of students' enrolment abroad shows that the share of students completing a stay abroad is more or less consistent over time in many countries. This is reflected in the cross-country average for each measurement period, which decreases only marginally for both groups of students with and without a tertiary education background.

- However, in some countries (most notably Finland, Italy, Malta, Norway, Romania, Sweden, and Slovenia), students are distinctly and consecutively less likely to indicate enrolment periods abroad over time.

Organisation, funding, and characteristics of international mobility

The Erasmus(+) programme is the commonest organisation framework for enrolment abroad.

To promote ISM, the EHEA provides an increasingly extensive infrastructure for students' stays abroad, most prominently in the form of the Erasmus(+) programme (Main issues; European Commission, 2021). Indeed, the majority of students who have been temporarily enrolled abroad in most EUROSTUDENT countries organised the mobility period via the Erasmus(+) programme, with a cross-country average of 64 % (Figure B10.6). Distinctly smaller shares of enrolment periods abroad are organised via other EU programmes (5 %), other programmes not funded by the EU (18 %), or are altogether independently organised (14 %), on cross-country average.

- Less than half of students who were temporarily enrolled abroad in Iceland (46 %), Sweden (42 %), Denmark (37 %), Georgia (33 %), and Norway (29 %) organised their stay through the Erasmus(+) programme. Considerable proportions of enrolments abroad in these countries are either organised via other EU programmes (as is often the case among students in Georgia, 22 %), organised through non-EU programmes (as frequently indicated in Iceland, 44 %, Denmark, 38 %, and Sweden, 27 %), or independently organised (as commonly indicated by students in Norway, 57 %, Sweden, 29 %, and Georgia, 29 %).

Internships abroad are more frequently self-organised.

Internships abroad are much less likely to have been organised through the Erasmus(+) programme although, on cross-country average, the share of internships abroad that were organised via Eramus(+) amounts to 28 %. Instead, internships are independently organised much more frequently than enrolment periods, with a cross-country average of 51 %. Shares of internships organised through other EU programmes (6 %) or non-EU programmes (15 %) are relatively low compared to the respective cross-country percentages of enrolment periods abroad.

- Students in Malta (59 %), Lithuania (64 %), Slovenia (55 %), Estonia (41 %), the Czech Republic (39 %), Portugal (38 %), Romania (40 %), and Turkey (39 %) tended to organise their internships abroad via Erasmus(+) more often than students who were abroad for internships in the other EUROSTUDENT countries.
- Independent organisation of internships abroad is commonest among students in Luxembourg (77 %), Austria (76 %), Sweden (80 %), and Norway (72 %).
- Students in Iceland (49 %), Georgia (24 %), and Portugal (22 %) frequently organised their internships abroad through non-EU programmes.

A wide variety of funding sources is used to fund mobility.

The varying patterns of the organisation of temporary enrolment periods abroad between countries are reflected in the respective funding sources utilised by students (Figure B10.7). While the cross-country average accounts for 28 % of enrolments abroad on EU study grants and loans, 23 % on funding by parents, other family members, and/or partners, 19 % on regular grants from the home country, 17 % on own income or savings, and a total of 13 % on other funding sources (like special grants from the home or host country or paid jobs during the stay abroad), there are considerable differences between countries.

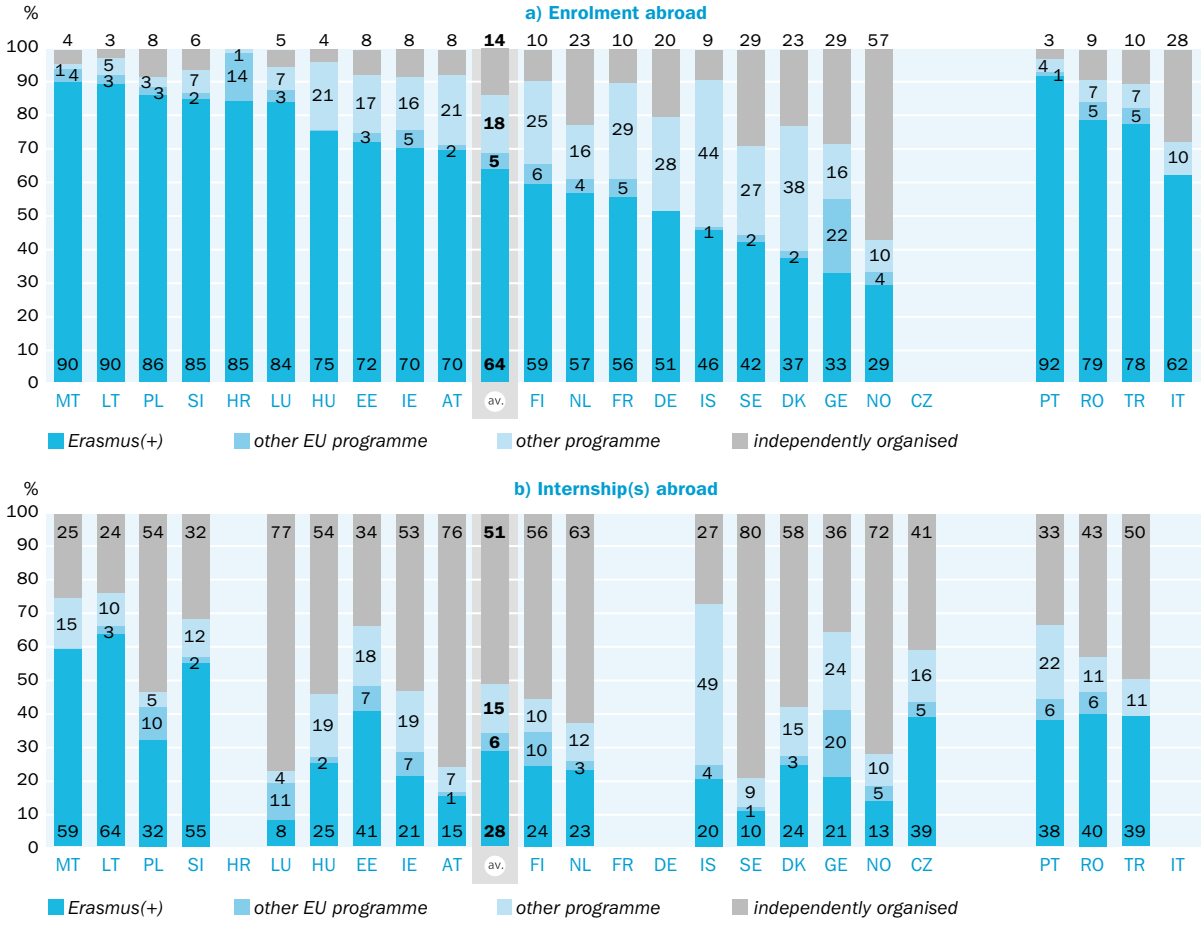
- The majority of students completing enrolment periods abroad in Malta (66 %), Slovenia (61 %), Lithuania (59 %), Poland (56 %), Estonia (55 %), Hungary (53 %), Croatia (52 %), and Turkey (51 %) primarily funded these stays abroad via EU study grants and loans.
- By contrast, enrolment periods abroad of students in Finland (55 %), Denmark (52 %), Norway (64 %), and Sweden (73 %) tend to be financed by regular grants and loans from their respective country.
- Major proportions of enrolment periods abroad of students in Austria (44 %), Ireland (38 %), France (53 %), Georgia (35 %), Switzerland (58 %), Portugal (51 %), and Italy (55 %) were primarily funded with the financial support of parents, other family members, and/or partner(s).
- Comparatively large percentages of students in Iceland (36 %), Ireland (26 %), the Netherlands (32 %), Switzerland (27 %), and Denmark (28 %) funded their enrolment periods abroad primarily through their own income or savings.

The last two findings point to potential problems related to the selectivity of ISM as funding of enrolment periods abroad either primarily through parents, other family members, and/or partners, or through own income or savings are both related to students' (socio-)economic backgrounds and resources.

Figure B10.6

Organisational framework of enrolment and internship abroad

Share of students who have been abroad for the respective activity (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, I.14, I.37.* ***No data:*** *CH; CZ (enrolment); DE, FR, IT (internship).* ***Too few cases:*** *HR (internship).*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.26 [Only students who did an internship abroad] Within which of the following organisational frameworks was your internship abroad organised? 5.4 [Only students who did a study period abroad] Within which of the following organisational frameworks was your temporary study period abroad organised?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *DK, IS, CZ.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

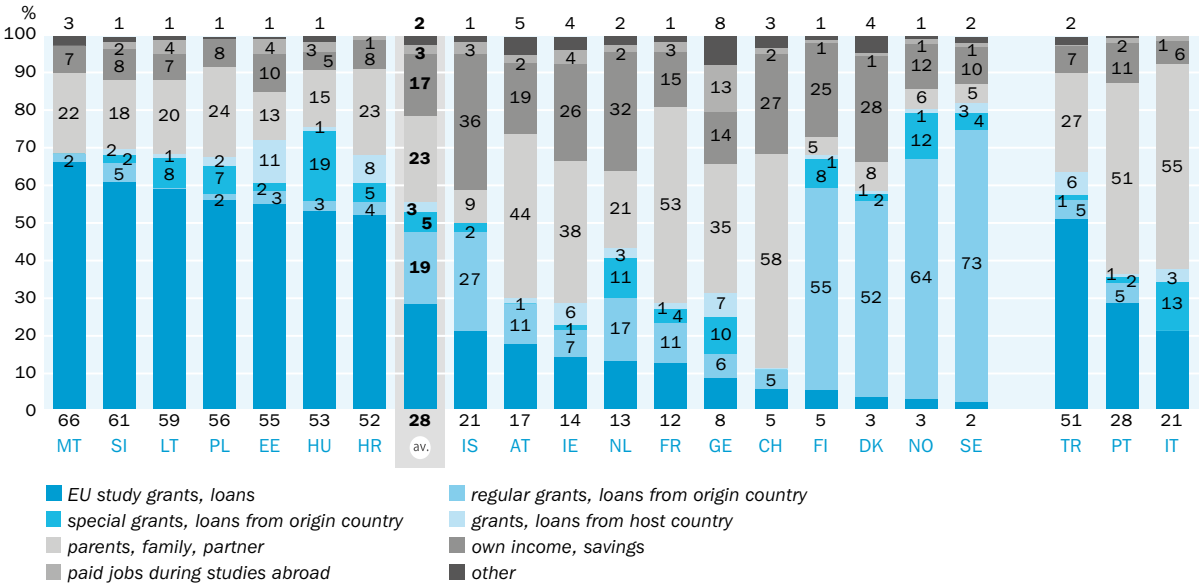
Internships abroad are mostly unpaid.

As the organisational structure of internships abroad has been shown to be quite distinct from enrolment periods abroad and huge variations have been identified between countries with regard to the organisation of internships abroad (Figure B10.6), it is necessary to look at the type (mandatory vs. voluntary) and remuneration (paid vs. unpaid) to understand common practices regarding internships abroad. On cross-country average, the largest shares of internships abroad are either voluntary and unpaid (34 %) or mandatory and unpaid (28 %), meaning that most internships are not remunerated (Figure B10.8). Smaller shares of students undertaking an internship abroad indicate either voluntary and paid (23 %) or mandatory and paid (16 %) internships.

Figure B10.7

Primary source of funding used for enrolment abroad

Share of students who have been enrolled abroad (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, I.13.* ***No data:*** *CZ, DE, LU, RO.* ***No data on regular grants from origin country****: IT (question not asked).*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *5.7 [Only students who did a study period abroad] Which of the following sources did you use to fund your temporary study period abroad and which was your primary source of funding?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *DK, IT, LU, SE.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

- Shares of mandatory and unpaid internships are largest in the Netherlands (41 %), Lithuania (33 %), Finland (43 %), Denmark (41 %), Norway (37 %), Sweden (38 %), and Luxembourg (77 %),
- Proportions of voluntary and unpaid internships are, in turn, highest among students in Georgia (42 %), Slovenia (46 %), Iceland (51 %), Malta (70 %), the Czech Republic (52 %), Romania (43 %), and Turkey (52 %).

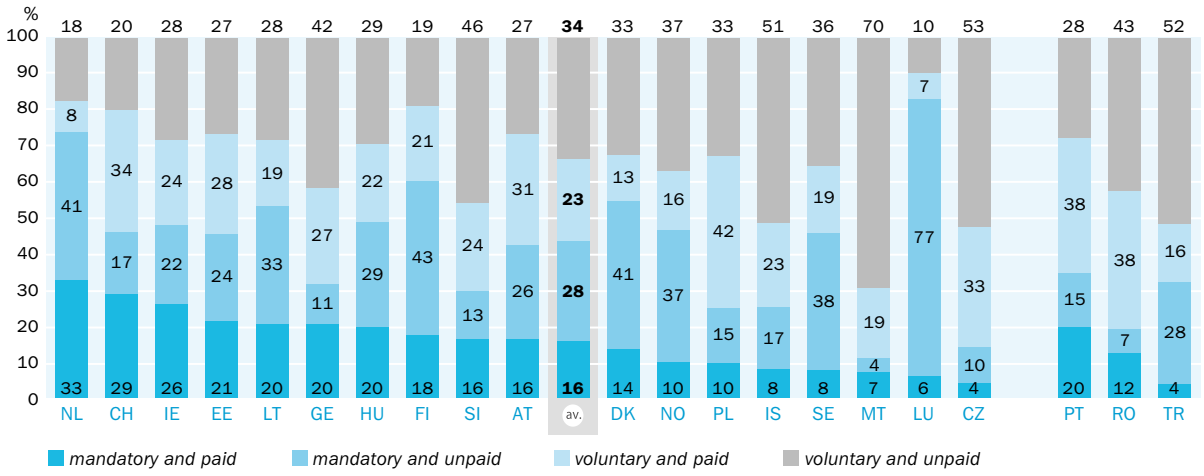
Unpaid internships abroad may be problematic insofar as they may give a selective group of students (namely those who can afford such an unpaid internship abroad) an advantage for their labour market entry. Particularly mandatory internships abroad, which are not backed by an organisational and financial framework, and are instead independently organised – as is quite often the case (see Figure B10.6) – may be problematic in this regard.

On cross-country average, students without a tertiary education background participate in mandatory internships abroad, either paid (21 % vs. 15 %) or unpaid (28 % vs. 25 %), more frequently than students with a tertiary education background, who are slightly more likely to participate in voluntary paid (22 % vs. 25 %) or unpaid (30 % vs. 34 %) internships (Table B10.6). Thus, trends of selectivity with regard to students' social background in tendency run more along the lines of internships' type (mandatory vs. voluntary) and less with regard to internships' remuneration (paid vs. unpaid):

Figure B10.8

Character and remuneration of internships abroad

Share of students who have been abroad for an internship (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, I.34.* ***No data:*** *DE, FR, IT.* ***Too few cases:*** *HR.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.23 [If internship done abroad] Was your most recent internship abroad...? 4.24 [If internship done abroad] Was your most recent internship abroad paid or unpaid?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *LT.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

- In most countries, larger shares of students without a tertiary education background indicate mandatory and paid internships than students with a tertiary education background, with notable exceptions in Finland (11 % vs. 20 %), and Norway (6 % vs. 11 %).
- While, in the majority of countries, students without a tertiary education background are more likely to have carried out mandatory unpaid internships abroad than students with a tertiary education background, the reverse observation holds true in other countries, most notably in Hungary (12 % vs. 36 %), Lithuania (26 % vs. 36 %), and the Czech Republic (7 % vs. 12 %).
- Contrary to the broader trend, students without a tertiary education background in Hungary (33 % vs. 19 %), Romania (46 % vs, 34 %), Norway (22 % vs. 15 %), or Poland (46 % vs. 40 %), for example, are a great deal more likely to go abroad for voluntary paid internships than students with a tertiary education background.
- Similarly, voluntary and unpaid internships abroad are more commonly conducted by students with a tertiary education background in many countries, apart from Finland (28 % vs. 16 %) and Sweden (43 % vs. 32 %), for example.

Destination countries of international mobility

Most student mobility takes place within the EHEA.

The majority of students from most EUROSTUDENT countries conduct their enrolment periods and internships abroad within the EHEA (Figure B10.9). On cross-country average, 76 percent of temporary enrolment periods abroad are undertaken within Europe, as are 71 percent of internships.

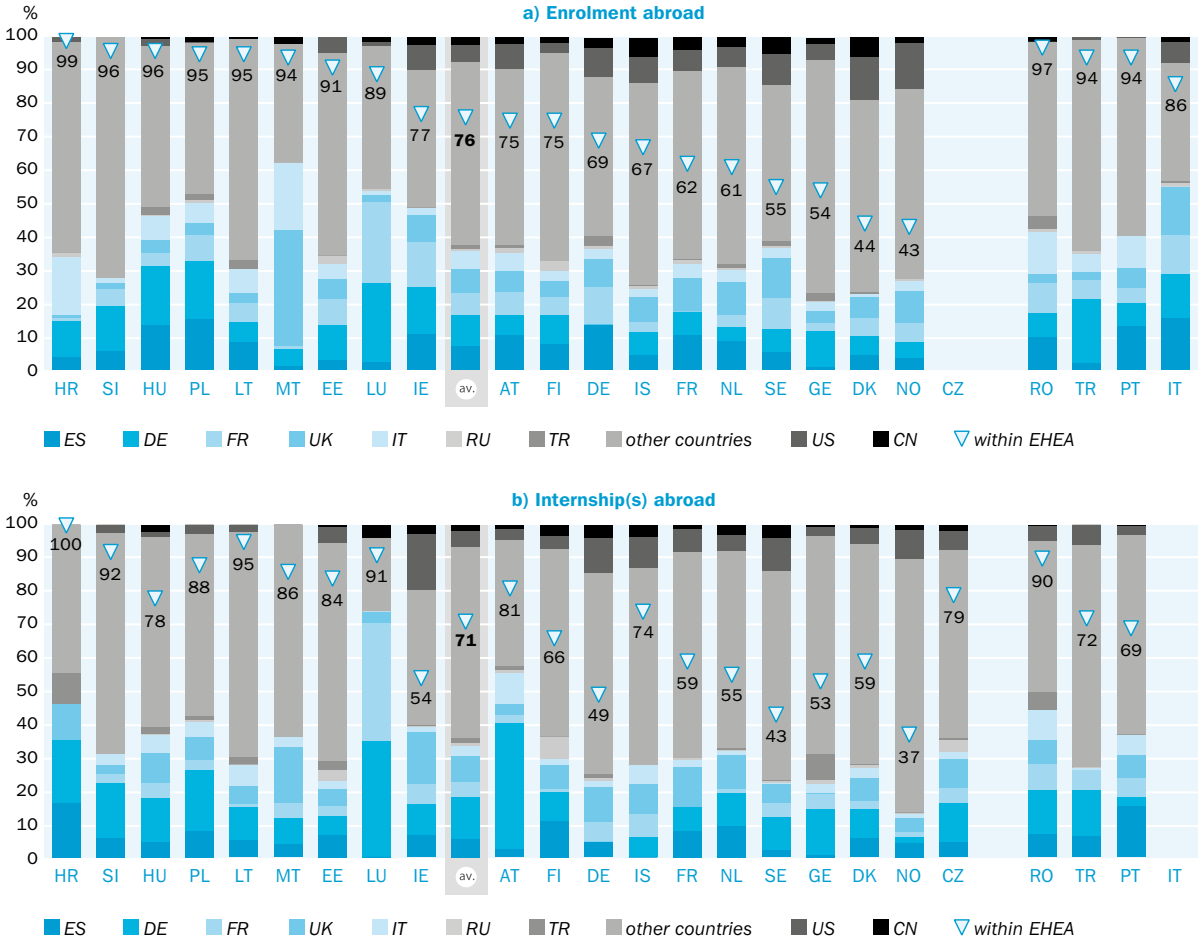
- Less than half of students in Denmark (44 %) and Norway (43 %) stay within the EHEA for their enrolments abroad. Instead, the United States is a popular destination for students from these two countries.

- Less than half of students from Germany (49 %), Sweden (43 %), and Norway (37 %) who went abroad for an internship stayed within the EHEA. Again, shares of internships conducted in the United States are particularly common in these countries.

Figure B10.9

Destination countries of enrolment and internship abroad

Share of students who have been abroad for the respective activity (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, I.15, I.16, I.39, I.40.* ***No data:*** *CH; CZ (enrolment); IT (internship).*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.25 [Only students who did an internship abroad] In which country did you do your internship abroad and how long was your internship? 5.3 [Only students who have been enrolled abroad] In which country did you temporarily study abroad, and for how long?*

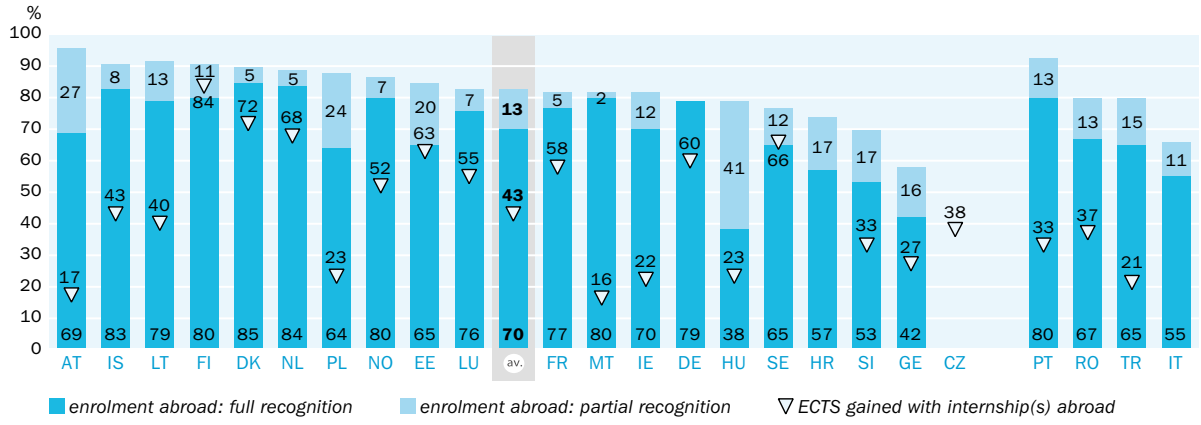
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *DK. IT.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Figure B10.10

(Partial) recognition of credits gained with study-related activity abroad

Share of students who have been abroad for the respective activity (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, I.10, I.38.* ***No data:*** *CH; CZ (enrolment); IT (internship).* ***Too few cases:*** *HR (internship).*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.28 [Only students who did an internship abroad] Did you gain any ECTS with your internship abroad? 5.6 [Only students who did a study period abroad] Were the credits (ECTS, competences, certificates) you gained recognised towards your study programme in #country?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *FR, DE.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Outcomes of international mobility

Four out of five students report at least partial recognition of credits gained abroad.

The most immediate and measurable outcome of ISM is the recognition of competences, knowledge, and skills earned during the stay abroad in the form of credit points, that is, ECTS. On cross-country average, more than two thirds of students who have been abroad for a temporary study period indicate that the credits gained were fully recognised for their studies at home (70 %), with an additional 13 % indicating partial recognition (Figure B10.10). In comparison, internships abroad are less likely to be recognised in the form of ECTS at the home institution (43 %). Some variations with regard to recognition practice appear across countries.

- Shares of fully recognised credits earned during enrolment periods abroad are exceptionally large among students in Iceland (83 %), Finland (80 %), Denmark (85 %), the Netherlands (84 %), Norway (80 %), Malta (80 %), and Portugal (80 %), where at least 80 % of students who have been temporarily enrolled abroad have had their credits recognised fully.
- Partial recognition of achievements gained during studies abroad is frequently cited by students in Austria (27 %), Poland (24 %), Estonia (20 %), and Hungary (41 %).
- Internships abroad are commonly accredited in the form of ECTS in Finland (84 %), Denmark (72 %), the Netherlands (68 %), and Sweden (66 %), with shares of at least two thirds.

Students with mobility experience feel their programme prepares them better for the international labour market.

While longer-term outcomes of ISM, in the form of labour market outcomes, for example, are not measurable with the survey at hand, EUROSTUDENT data allow for a comparison of students' perceived preparation for the national and international labour markets, differentiated by study-related international experience. On cross-country average, there is no distinct difference between students with and without international mobility experience in their assessment of how well their study

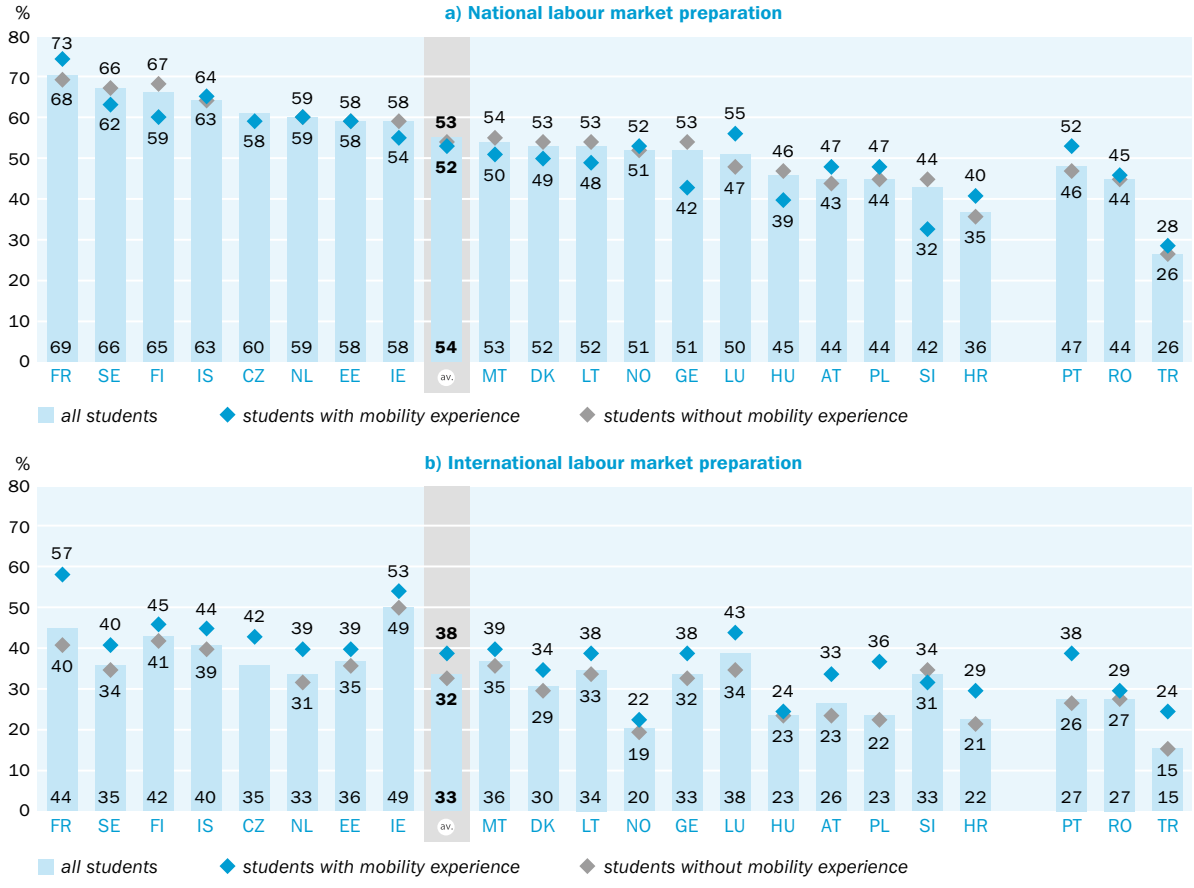
programme prepares them for the respective national labour market (52 % vs. 53 %; Figure B10.11). However, a clear pattern emerges across almost all EUROSTUDENT countries regarding international labour market preparation. Students who have been abroad during the course of their studies generally feel better prepared for the international labour market than students who have not been abroad, with a cross-country difference of six percentage points.

- While differences between students with and without mobility experience regarding national labour market preparation are negligible in most countries, major between-group differences are revealed in France, Luxembourg, Croatia, and Portugal, for example, where students with mobility experience feel distinctly better prepared for their national labour markets than those without mobility experience, and in Finland, Georgia, and Slovenia, where the opposite applies.

Figure B10.11

Students' perceived labour market preparation by international mobility experience

Share of students (in %)



Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, C.36, C.37.* ***No data:*** *CH, DE, IT.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *3.9 To what extent do you feel your current #(main) study programme is preparing you for the labour market? Values shown indicate students who feel (very) well prepared (response options 1 and 2 on a five-point scale).*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: *FR, NO, SI.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

- Students with mobility experience in the Netherlands, Luxembourg, Austria, Poland, Croatia, Portugal, and Turkey consider their international labour market preparation considerably better than their fellow students without international mobility experience. The trend regarding international labour market preparation holds true across most other countries (with the single exception of Slovenia), even though it is much less distinct in some cases (e.g. Norway, Hungary, or Romania).

Discussion and policy considerations

The analyses in this chapter illustrate several aspects of temporary ISM, covering students' intention to enrol abroad, perceived obstacles, the execution and organisation of different types of realised mobility, and the outcomes of international mobility in the form of recognition practice and perceived labour market preparation. Tying into current research findings that highlight the relationship between students' socio-economic background and their mobility behaviour, the analyses highlight the fact that students without a tertiary education background are less intent on studying abroad temporarily and perceive economic, social, and cultural aspects as obstacles towards going abroad to a larger degree than their fellow students with a tertiary education background. As a consequence, students without a tertiary education background less frequently indicate international mobility in general and temporary enrolment periods in particular.

Differences in students' willingness and ability to become internationally mobile still have to make allowance for further characteristics of student populations in addition to educational background; the intersectionality of several aspects relate to the realisation of stays abroad, such as demographics (sex, age, migration status, impairment status, marital status, parenthood), labour market integration, or characteristics of the types and modes of study (type of institution, field of study, formal status of enrolment). For example, in addition to the relationship between students' socio-economic background and international mobility, the links between field of study and stays abroad have been demonstrated in the analyses of this chapter. Students in the arts and humanities are more likely to undertake stays abroad than students of information and communication technologies. In addition, students enrolled in subjects in natural sciences, mathematics, and statistics, engineering, manufacturing, and construction as well as health and welfare are often less likely to have completed stays abroad than students in the other fields of study. To increase students' mobility rates (particularly in the more technically oriented courses of study), stronger ties could be established at faculty level with institutions abroad and formal mobility windows integrated into study curricula (as some students are deterred from enrolling abroad due to the difficulties of integrating this period into their studies).

To further reduce preconceptions about international mobility and consequentially increase the number of students undertaking stays abroad (especially among students from lower socio-economic backgrounds), the organisational and financial programmes and structures could be further promoted (Allinson & Gabriels, 2021; Souto-Otero et al., 2013). Students with stronger familial ties (e.g. through partnerships or parenthood) could be attracted to short stays abroad like summer schools or

research trips to shorten the period of separation from their families. Keeping the results of recognition practice in mind, internships could become more attractive if they were reliably and more frequently funded on the one hand and more consistently recognised on the other. This could be ensured through the institutionalised establishment of cooperation and partnerships between higher education institutions (HEIs), faculties, and companies abroad.

Despite the EHEA's emphasis on international mobility and its ambitious goals with regard to mobility rates of graduates and the extent of periods abroad in the form of duration and/or ECTS, students should ultimately not be forced to become mobile. Mobility experiences may increase social stratification and selectivity of higher education if the benefits, including those for labour market participation, are dependent on (certain types of) experiences abroad (Marginson, 2016; Netz & Grüttner, 2020). Ensuring that the experiences and benefits are available to all student groups in the same way by providing financial support and information, and developing innovative forms of mobility that allow greater flexibility, such as virtual and blended formats, is necessary to avoid inequalities in this regard. The next few years will show the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on ISM. While certainly affecting physical international mobility in the short- to medium term (i.e. due to travel restrictions and reluctance to travel), the experience gained during the pandemic may, in turn, open up wide ranges of virtual and blended mobility formats. This may be one way of decreasing socio-economic inequalities in ISM and increasing equitable access to mobility for certain disadvantaged student groups (such as students with impairments or students from ethnic minorities; Allinson & Gabriels, 2021). Although the ministers responsible for higher education recently acknowledged "current difficulties related to the COVID-19 pandemic" with regard to international mobility and committed to "enabling all learners to (...) experience some form of mobility, whether in physical, digitally enhanced (virtual) or blended formats" (Rome Communiqué, 2020), the success of and students' wide participation in virtual international mobility may depend on the establishment of proper recognition practices.

Tables

Table B10.1

Students' intention to study abroad for limited periods by educational background and financial difficulties

Share of students without experience of studying abroad temporarily (in %)

	Preparation of enrolment abroad					Intentions to enrol abroad					No intentions to enrol abroad				
	All students	Educational background		Financial difficulties		All students	Educational background		Financial difficulties		All students	Educational background		Financial difficulties	
		Students without a tertiary education background	Students with a tertiary education background	With financial difficulties	Without financial difficulties		Students without a tertiary education background	Students with a tertiary education background	With financial difficulties	Without financial difficulties		Students without a tertiary education background	Students with a tertiary education background	With financial difficulties	Without financial difficulties
AT	7	6	9	5	8	26	23	29	25	27	67	72	62	69	65
CZ	8	6	10	7	8	30	26	35	30	30	62	68	55	63	62
DE	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
DK	7	6	8	6	8	16	14	17	14	18	76	80	75	80	75
EE	6	4	7	6	5	45	38	47	46	43	49	57	46	48	52
FI	4	3	5	5	4	15	11	17	14	15	81	87	78	81	81
FR	6	3	7	5	7	35	30	37	35	35	60	67	55	60	58
GE	9	8	10	10	12	47	41	50	46	50	43	51	40	44	38
HR	4	3	5	2	5	26	21	34	24	26	70	76	62	75	69
HU	6	4	7	6	6	28	22	32	29	28	66	75	61	65	66
CH	5	4	7	3	6	21	17	24	18	23	73	79	69	79	71
IE	5	4	7	4	6	18	16	20	19	18	76	80	73	77	76
IS	7	3	10	6	8	26	21	29	27	23	67	76	60	67	68
LT	4	3	5	4	5	12	9	13	14	10	84	87	81	82	85
LU	19	21	20	15	24	20	19	20	15	24	61	60	59	70	52
MT	6	4	8	9	6	24	20	29	24	21	70	76	63	68	73
NL	6	6	7	6	6	27	23	31	25	29	66	71	62	69	65
NO	7	4	8	7	7	24	19	25	26	21	69	76	67	67	72
PL	4	2	6	4	5	15	12	20	15	16	80	85	74	80	80
SE	6	4	8	5	6	17	13	19	16	17	77	83	74	78	77
SI	5	4	6	4	6	25	19	31	25	25	69	77	62	71	68
av.	**7**	**5**	**8**	**6**	**7**	**25**	**21**	**28**	**24**	**25**	**68**	**74**	**64**	**70**	**68**
IT	9	8	10	n.d.	n.d.	49	49	49	n.d.	n.d.	42	43	41	n.d.	n.d.
PT	12	9	17	13	12	33	29	40	30	36	54	62	42	57	53
RO	4	3	6	4	4	24	20	30	25	24	72	77	64	72	72
TR	10	8	15	9	12	45	44	51	46	44	45	48	35	44	44

n.d.: no data.

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, I.20.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *5.2 [Only students who have not done a temporary study period abroad yet] Taking a closer look at temporary study periods abroad, how would you best describe your intentions?*

Note(s): *Aggregated shares of students without previous enrolment abroad who indicated 'I am currently preparing a temporary study period abroad' or 'I haven't made any arrangements, but I am intending to go abroad for a temporary study period'.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT conventions: *EE.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Table B10.2

Obstacles to temporary enrolment abroad

Students who do not plan to enrol abroad (in %)

	Problems with recognition	Problems with access regulations (visa etc.)	Limited access to mobility programme	Health issues	Insufficient foreign language skills	Lack of information by HEI	Separation from partner, child(ren)	Separation from social circle	Financial burden	Loss of paid job	Lack of motivation	Low benefits for studies	Difficult integration into structure of study programme
AT	33	n.d.	n.d.	7	14	13	41	35	59	47	31	35	41
CZ	40	14	13	10	35	24	55	43	58	42	41	37	46
DE	32	t.f.c.	31	t.f.c.	22	12	49	n.d.	70	51	31	60	38
DK	11	6	9	6	9	10	36	27	49	28	20	20	20
EE	18	8	7	7	21	10	54	35	64	49	34	36	26
FI	17	10	10	13	21	15	52	31	63	29	36	36	22
FR	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
GE	24	26	26	16	28	25	22	30	41	26	29	24	26
HR	47	10	18	5	15	37	35	36	66	34	23	38	40
HU	28	13	21	9	35	28	47	44	57	41	31	16	40
CH	9	3	6	n.d.	9	10	25	24	43	28	34	23	14
IE	19	14	9	8	38	32	28	31	71	43	19	30	27
IS	20	10	10	8	15	15	56	43	73	53	26	24	23
LT	19	12	18	6	29	21	35	32	67	45	34	24	23
LU	16	15	22	5	16	19	32	29	51	23	15	22	15
MT	24	15	15	6	15	23	38	36	61	48	23	29	31
NL	9	4	4	5	13	22	31	41	61	29	21	26	25
NO	16	4	13	8	11	13	51	31	60	55	34	23	23
PL	39	35	34	12	39	37	52	48	72	49	32	36	42
SE	11	4	8	6	9	9	44	29	41	21	36	17	18
SI	31	16	14	16	26	30	44	35	66	45	28	37	36
av.	**23**	**12**	**15**	**8**	**21**	**20**	**41**	**35**	**60**	**39**	**29**	**30**	**29**
IT	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
PT	22	26	20	8	27	21	29	35	74	36	24	26	26
RO	21	18	16	5	22	22	34	34	57	32	25	20	26
TR	38	49	52	14	59	45	26	34	84	42	41	29	40

n.d.: no data. t.f.c.: too few cases.

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, I.30.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *5.8 To what extent are or were the following aspects an obstacle to your enrolment abroad?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT conventions: *AT, DE, DK.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Table B10.3

Duration of enrolment and internship(s) abroad

Mean duration of students who have been abroad for the respective activity (in months)

	Duration of enrolment abroad			Duration of internship(s) abroad		
	Mean	SD	Median	Mean	SD	Median
AT	5.7	2.3	5.0	2.8	2.4	2.0
CZ	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	3.2	2.6	2.5
DE	6.7	3.4	6.0	3.8	2.2	3.0
DK	4.9	2.3	5.0	3.8	3.0	3.0
EE	6.3	2.9	5.0	2.6	1.9	2.0
FI	5.4	2.2	5.0	3.3	2.1	3.0
FR	7.4	6.0	6.0	3.0	1.8	3.0
GE	5.2	4.9	4.0	3.7	3.9	2.0
HR	4.9	1.3	5.0	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.
HU	5.1	2.1	5.0	2.8	2.5	2.0
CH	5.8	2.8	5.0	4.0	3.3	3.0
IE	6.1	3.0	5.0	4.1	3.0	3.0
IS	6.8	3.2	6.0	2.5	2.4	1.0
LT	5.3	1.9	5.0	2.7	1.8	2.0
LU	5.2	1.1	5.0	2.0	1.9	1.5
MT	4.3	1.8	4.0	2.5	2.5	2.0
NL	5.1	1.7	5.0	4.4	2.0	5.0
NO	5.5	2.9	5.0	2.9	2.4	2.8
PL	5.9	4.1	5.0	2.9	3.0	2.0
SE	5.5	2.5	5.0	3.4	2.6	3.0
SI	5.1	2.3	5.0	2.8	2.3	2.0
av.	**5.3**	**2.6**	**4.8**	**3.1**	**2.5**	**2.4**
IT	4.9	3.7	5.0	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
PT	5.7	2.4	5.0	4.4	3.2	3.0
RO	5.8	2.9	5.0	3.3	2.8	3.0
TR	5.7	2.3	5.0	2.4	1.4	2.0

n.d.: no data. t.f.c.: too few cases.

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, I.6, I.35.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.25 [Only students who did an internship abroad] In which country did you do your internship abroad and how long was your internship? 5.3 [Only students who have been enrolled abroad] In which country were you temporarily studying abroad, and for how long?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT conventions: *CH.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Table B10.4

Types of students' international mobility experience by educational background

Share of students (in %)

	Students without a tertiary education background					Students with a tertiary education background				
	Enrolment	Enrolment and internship/work placement	Internship/work placement	Any other type of study-related activity abroad	All types of study-related stays abroad	Enrolment	Enrolment and internship/work placement	Internship/work placement	Any other type of study-related activity abroad	All types of study-related stays abroad
AT	6	2	7	7	22	7	3	10	8	28
CZ	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
DE	7	1	4	4	16	11	1	6	4	22
DK	6	0	5	7	17	8	1	5	8	23
EE	3	1	5	5	14	6	2	6	7	21
FI	7	1	3	5	16	11	2	3	5	20
FR	5	1	4	10	6	8	2	4	10	24
GE	7	1	2	5	16	7	2	3	7	19
HR	3	0	1	6	10	4	0	1	11	17
HU	2	0	2	2	6	4	1	3	4	11
CH	6	1	3	11	21	8	2	5	13	27
IE	3	1	3	4	11	4	1	5	6	16
IS	6	0	3	8	18	9	0	3	8	20
LT	5	0	4	4	13	9	2	3	5	19
LU	26	1	5	6	38	22	5	9	8	44
MT	5	1	6	6	17	7	1	10	8	26
NL	6	2	6	12	26	8	1	6	12	27
NO	6	1	2	9	18	9	1	3	12	26
PL	1	0	1	2	4	3	1	3	3	10
SE	5	0	2	4	11	8	1	3	6	18
SI	5	0	4	3	12	5	2	3	4	15
av.	**6**	**1**	**3**	**6**	**15**	**8**	**1**	**4**	**7**	**21**
IT	5	1	1	7	15	10	1	1	6	18
PT	3	0	2	5	10	6	1	2	4	12
RO	2	1	2	4	8	3	1	2	3	9
TR	2	0	1	3	5	5	0	1	5	11

n.d.: no data.

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, I.4.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.20 Have you done any internships (of at least one week, mandatory or voluntary) since you first entered higher education in #country? 5.1 Have you ever taken part in any of the following temporary study-related activities abroad since you first entered higher education in #country?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT conventions: *CH, FR, IT, MT, PT, RO, SE.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Table B10.5

Students with international mobility experience by field of study

Share of students (in %)

	Field of study									
	Education (incl. teacher training)	Arts and humanities	Social sciences, journalism, and information	Business, administration, and law	Natural sciences, mathematics, and statistics	Information and communication technologies (ICTs)	Engineering, manufacturing, and construction	Agriculture, forestry, fisheries, and veterinary	Health and welfare	Services
AT	22	30	27	25	21	14	26	37	28	29
CZ	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
DE	20	27	19	20	17	10	18	28	25	15
DK	24	30	23	25	17	21	22	24	11	30
EE	14	24	24	19	10	15	18	17	17	21
FI	17	29	23	24	17	10	15	17	14	31
FR	20	23	20	26	17	15	31	t.f.c.	15	21
GE	13	14	21	21	18	24	7	5	24	14
HR	13	24	9	12	9	10	11	7	19	15
HU	6	16	14	7	8	5	7	12	11	10
CH	31	29	22	27	19	16	22	25	20	58
IE	12	20	17	13	10	10	10	18	15	14
IS	14	32	13	19	22	18	24	t.f.c.	15	0
LT	13	26	22	16	15	7	16	17	12	17
LU	t.f.c.	30	44	42	36	26	31	t.f.c.	28	t.f.c.
MT	12	19	16	17	t.f.c.	15	34	t.f.c.	29	22
NL	27	33	27	28	26	17	23	38	16	40
NO	23	35	31	22	27	21	26	29	19	17
PL	3	13	8	6	6	5	5	3	6	6
SE	12	21	16	19	18	9	14	10	13	21
SI	9	21	12	12	13	11	13	25	18	14
av.	**16**	**25**	**20**	**20**	**17**	**14**	**19**	**19**	**18**	**21**
IT	6	17	15	17	12	4	14	11	11	9
PT	18	8	12	10	10	7	9	7	8	10
RO	6	10	10	7	9	7	8	9	9	n.d.
TR	6	6	10	9	4	3	9	5	3	6

n.d.: no data. t.f.c.: too few cases.

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, I.1.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.20 Have you done any internships (of at least one week, mandatory or voluntary) since you first entered higher education in #country? 5.1 Have you ever taken part in any of the following temporary study-related activities abroad since you first entered higher education in #country?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT conventions: *CH, FR, IT, MT, PT, RO, SE.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Table B10.6

Type and remuneration of internships abroad by educational background

Share of students who have been abroad for an internship (in %)

	Mandatory and paid		Mandatory and unpaid		Voluntary and paid		Voluntary and unpaid	
	Students without a tertiary education background	Students with a tertiary education background	Students without a tertiary education background	Students with a tertiary education background	Students without a tertiary education background	Students with a tertiary education background	Students without a tertiary education background	Students with a tertiary education background
AT	20	14	26	26	31	31	23	30
CZ	3	4	7	12	33	33	56	50
DE	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
DK	17	13	46	40	4	15	33	32
EE	33	16	30	22	26	30	11	32
FI	11	20	50	41	11	24	28	16
FR	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
GE	24	20	11	12	19	29	46	39
HR	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.
HU	25	18	12	36	33	19	31	27
CH	33	27	22	15	26	39	18	19
IE	30	24	30	17	18	28	22	32
IS	t.f.c.	8	t.f.c.	11	t.f.c.	21	t.f.c.	59
LT	30	14	26	36	20	18	24	32
LU	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.
MT	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.	t.f.c.
NL	35	29	44	40	7	9	14	22
NO	6	11	42	36	22	15	31	38
PL	17	6	13	17	46	40	24	37
SE	8	8	39	38	10	21	43	32
SI	17	15	23	9	18	27	42	49
av.	**21**	**15**	**28**	**25**	**22**	**25**	**30**	**34**
IT	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
PT	t.f.c.	12	t.f.c.	13	t.f.c.	46	t.f.c.	29
RO	10	14	6	8	46	34	38	44
TR	4	3	32	26	14	19	50	52

n.d.: no data. t.f.c.: too few cases.

Data source: *EUROSTUDENT VII, I.34.*

Data collection: *Spring 2019 except CH, FR (spring 2020 – reference period before COVID-19 pandemic), DE (summer 2016), IT, PT, RO, TR (reference period during COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and/or 2021). See Appendix C3 for details.*

EUROSTUDENT question(s): *4.23 [If internship done abroad] Was your most recent internship abroad…? 4.24 [If internship done abroad] Was your most recent internship abroad paid or unpaid?*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT conventions: *LT.*

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: *DE, IE, IT, PL.*

Chapter B11
Policy considerations

Understanding students' situations

Collecting and analysing data on the situation of students is key for the development of adequate support strategies. The EUROSTUDENT data allow different perspectives.

Country groupings

On the one hand, a particular phenomenon of interest can be analysed empirically, based on the statistics provided, with a focus on the situation in one or more countries. Looking at the data in this way reveals large variations with regard to certain indicators. Austria, Finland, Iceland, Malta, Norway, and Sweden, for example, can be described as countries in which[1] students are relatively old (on average), and are more likely to have entered higher education with a delay of more than two years after leaving school and with prior work experience. In these countries, students often work alongside their studies and tend to report an above-average level of difficulty in reconciling their paid job with their studies, despite the fact that the average time spent on self-study in these countries tends to be high. Higher shares of students in these countries work to finance their living costs, and students are less likely to receive family contributions. They tend to report not being able to afford an unexpected expense of 60 % of their median income less often than students in other countries. With the notable exception of Malta, students in these countries are also among the least likely to live with their parents. By contrast, students in Croatia, the Czech Republic, France, Georgia, Ireland, Italy, Lithuania, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovenia, and Turkey are on the younger end of the age spectrum, with at least two thirds under the age of 25. Students in these countries are less likely to have interrupted their educational career before entering higher education and accordingly possess less work experience. They usually live with their parents and receive significant financial contributions from their families to fund their studies. With regard to the other aspects (difficulty in studies due to work, reasons for working, ability to cover unexpected expenses, and amount of personal study time), the picture in these countries is not as clear as in the previous group. Nevertheless, such analyses contribute to an overview of the situation of students in a particular country, as well as in comparison to other countries of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA).

Student groups in focus

On the other hand, it is possible to use the EUROSTUDENT focus groups, which differentiate students based on socio-demographic and study-related background characteristics, as well as their current study-related and living conditions, to trace certain groups of students throughout the data. At the national level, this perspective allows an in-depth

1 *These examples serve to paint an overall picture and most aspects mentioned apply to all countries to an above-average degree, however exceptions exist for individual countries and aspects.*

understanding of the situation of a particular student group – regardless of its size – and, in cross-country comparison, reveals many patterns that are consistent across countries, despite different contexts. For example, throughout this report, the data show that the parental education and financial background of students play a role in shaping students' study experience and living conditions. Firstly, students without tertiary educated parents are underrepresented in almost all countries. As in previous EUROSTUDENT reports, the data in this round reveal that, across countries, such 'first-generation' students had a less clear study intention before entering higher education (> *Chapter B2*). After an, on average, later entry into higher education, more often via alternative access routes (> *Chapter B3*), they tend to be more commonly found at non-universities (where these exist), as well as in short-cycle and Bachelor, rather than Master, programmes (> *Chapter B4*). Students without tertiary educated parents are more likely to have a paid job during the lecture period (> *Chapter B6*) and rely on public support or their own income to a greater extent (> *Chapter B7*). Relatedly, their parents are financially less well-off than those of students with a tertiary education background (> *Chapter B2*). Students' financial difficulties are clearly related to parental financial status (> *Chapter B7*, > *Chapter B8*). Moreover, participation in study periods abroad is lower among students without a tertiary education background (> *Chapter B10*). Analyses such as these contribute to an understanding of the situation of a particular group of students, which encompasses relevant aspects not only of their study situation, but also provides insights into those aspects of their personal situation that might play a role in shaping their current study situation and needs.

The complexity of student situations in higher education

Although these two examples of analysis perspectives have a clear focus on countries and student groups respectively it should be noted that neither fully describes the situation of all students in a country. Even in a relatively homogenous student population with clear trends in a certain direction, there will be students who 'break the mould', and thus have needs that deviate from the majority, for example, student parents in a young population with few others. A pertinent question in this regard is also why certain types of students are not found in higher education – have they been deterred by disadvantageous conditions that do not match their needs? In analyses following certain focus groups through the data, it should be kept in mind that a student can be described through several different focus groups, as they can be, for example, in the age group 22–24 years, studying at a non-university in a certain field, living with parents, and earning their own living by working more than 20 hours a week at the same time. To better understand the interplay of the different characteristics, micro data analyses are encouraged at the national level or with the newly created EUROSTUDENT Scientific Use File, as these can take several characteristics into account at the same time.

Interconnectedness of systems

Higher education between school and the labour market

Due to the underlying data source – survey responses by students currently enrolled in higher education – EUROSTUDENT cannot give insight into earlier stages of the educational system or students'/graduates' careers after leaving higher education. The

former – a country's secondary school system – determines who the potential students typically entering higher education are and how well prepared they are for their studies. In this way, the school system may play a crucial role in the admission process for higher education (OECD, 2018; Orr, Usher, Haj, Atherton, & Geanta, 2017; Salmi, 2019). In fact, the latest Bologna Process Implementation Report identifies the development of coherent strategic approaches to equity linking to previous stages of the education system as one of the most significant challenges in developing the social dimension (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2020a). Furthermore, the Principles and Guidelines to Strengthen the Social Dimension of Higher Education in the EHEA, endorsed by the Ministers Responsible for Higher Education as part of the Rome Communiqué (PaGs; Annex II to the Rome Communiqué, 2020), also call for "coherent policies from early childhood education, through schooling to higher education and throughout lifelong learning". Information on the paths of graduates after leaving higher education are also of interest as they may provide insight into how graduate outcomes, such as job position and income, compare among different groups of graduates, thus allowing an assessment of whether the inequalities found during studies continue to persist after graduation. The recent Eurograduate pilot study finds that coming from a disadvantaged background does, in fact, increase the chance of not having an adequate job and lower earnings after graduation (Meng, Wessling, Mühleck, & Unger, 2020). Such data can make stratification effects within the higher education system apparent if different outcomes on the graduate market are associated with different types of higher education provision (e.g. institutions, programmes) (Marginson, 2016).

Higher education policy as one of many policy areas

Even beyond the education sector, higher education sits within a "complex policy eco-system" (Hazelkorn & Locke, 2020, p. 132) and is, as such, at the centre of "myriad areas of intersecting interests and interdependencies between higher education and other public and policy domains, which in different ways, can enable or inhibit the realisation of ambitions and objectives" (Hazelkorn, 2019, p. 16). The PaGs also recognise and highlight this interconnectedness by stressing the importance of creating "synergies with all education levels and related policy areas (such as finance, employment, health and social welfare, housing, migration etc.) in order to develop policy measures that create an inclusive environment throughout the entire education sector that fosters equity, diversity, and inclusion, and is responsive to the needs of the wider community" (Annex II to the Rome Communiqué, 2020, p. 5).

Involvement of institutions and stakeholders

Higher education institutions (HEIs) play a key role in shaping students' study and, to some extent, living situation. They are therefore essential in implementing national-level strategies to improve the social dimension, particularly with regard to the 'non-monetary policy' (Salmi und Sursock 2020) intended to support students during their studies. The results of the recent INVITED study (Claeys-Kulik et al., 2019) show that inclusiveness is a strategic issue for many HEIs, while numerous institutional initiatives address concerns in the areas of equity, diversity, and inclusion. However, they are seldom data-based. Policy dialogue about the EUROSTUDENT findings on students' background, study and living conditions that reflects on the implications for institutional actions, or even the provision of individualised institutional reports based

on national EUROSTUDENT data sets, could help institutions create inclusive environments for all students. As Claeys-Kulik et al. (2019) note, highlighting the potential benefits of diversity, rather than framing it as a challenge to be overcome, could encourage institutions to embrace the topic. The Principles and Guidelines also highlight the importance of policy dialogue between relevant public authorities, HEIs, and other relevant stakeholders about the implementation of the Principles and Guidelines throughout the system (Annex II to the Rome Communiqué, 2020).

Impact of the COVID-19 pandemic

In some ways, the findings presented in the report are a window into the past, based on data that were (mostly) collected in 2019, when the COVID-19 pandemic had not yet left its mark on higher education across Europe. The disruption of studies and the shift to online learning and teaching that took place at an unprecedented level across Europe and, at the time of writing in spring 2021, are still ongoing in most countries, have led to significant changes in the situation of students in the EHEA. Many students moved back into the parental home, lost or paused their jobs (and earnings), and felt the negative psychological impact of the uncertainty and risks surrounding the pandemic outbreak (Belghith, Ferry, Patros, & Tenret, 2020; Doolan et al., 2020). International student mobility (ISM) was, and will probably remain, negatively affected as well (Gabriels & Benke-Aberg, 2020; International Association of Universities, 2020).

While the crisis has left hardly anyone unaffected, vulnerable and disadvantaged groups of students have been hit the hardest with regard to challenges in accessing, progressing with, and completing their studies (Bologna Follow-up Group, 2020; Farnell, Matijević, & Schmidt, 2021). As students (and families) face the loss of income and job opportunities, financial support – an important equity tool even in 'normal' times (Herbaut & Geven, 2019; Kottmann et al., 2019; Salmi, 2019) – gains even more importance in enabling vulnerable, disadvantaged, and underrepresented students to access and participate in higher education.

On a more positive note, the experience gained by students, teaching staff, and HEIs during the pandemic, as stressful and unplanned as the circumstances may have been, may have created an opportunity for change and accelerated development with regard to digitally enhanced learning (Darchia & Glonti, 2020; Gaebel, 2020). In this, it will be important to avoid creating new inequalities with regard to access to, and the availability of, online learning formats for disadvantaged students (Bologna Follow-up Group, 2020; Maloney & Kim, 2020).

Appendix

Part C

Appendix C1
Glossary

Note: Hashtags (#) are used in the EUROSTUDENT core questionnaire to indicate that the national questionnaire should be adapted to the national context if necessary. Therefore, the exact wording in these instances may differ across countries.

A

Access routes to higher education: Entering higher education using the #SMAR is considered the standard entry route. Students entering higher education without #SMAR, or who did not obtain the qualification in direct conjunction with leaving the school system for the first time (within six months), are defined as having used alternative access routes. See ▸ (Higher education) entry qualification, ▸ SMAR.

Age: Age groups are based on students' age at the time of survey.

Alternative access route: See ▸ Access routes to higher education, ▸ (Higher education) entry qualification.

B

Bachelor degree [ISCED 6]: ▸ Degree programmes.

C

Cash/bank transfers: Any money the students receive. It is – de facto – not tied to a purpose and usually used to cover their living and study-related costs.

Children, students with: Based on students indicating whether they have any children. The question text did not include any specification on parental relation, genetic relation, guardianship, etc.

Concentration of student income: See ▸ Gini coefficient.

Correspondence student: ▸ Part-time/full-time status.

Credit mobility: Short-term mobility with the aim of completing part of a study programme outside the country of observation. See ▸ Temporary study period abroad, ▸ Degree mobility, ▸ Study-related activities abroad.

Credits: A unit of formal recognition of students' academic achievements. Within the EHEA, credits are generally gained in the form of ECTS credit points, competences, certificates. See ▸ ECTS.

Current (main) study programme: The specific (main) study programme students are enrolled in at the indicated HEI leading to the indicated degree in #country.

D

Database: All EUROSTUDENT indicators are available for download in the database: *www.eurostudent.eu*.

De facto part-time/full-time students: Spend up to 20 hours/21 hours or more per week on study-related activities (= taught studies + personal study time), irrespective of the formal status. See ▸ Part-time status/Full-time status.

Degree mobility: Long-term mobility with the aim of completing an entire degree in the country of observation. See ▸ Credit mobility, ▸ Temporary study period abroad.

Degree programmes: Short-cycle degree [ISCED 5], Bachelor degree [ISCED 6], Short national degree [up to three years, ISCED 6], Master degree [ISCED 7], Long national degree [more than three years, ISCED 7], Other postgraduate degree [ISCED 7], PhD/doctoral degree [ISCED 8]. PhD students, doctoral or equivalent level (ISCED 8) are not part of the EUROSTUDENT target group. ISCED.

Delayed transition: A delay of more than 24 months after leaving school for the first time and entering higher education. See Transition duration, Direct transition.

Dependency on an income source: A student is 'dependent on an income source' if one of the three sources 'family/partner contributions' (including transfers in kind), 'self-earned income', or 'national public student support' provides more than 50 % of the student's total monthly income (including transfers in kind). Students with a mixed budget (i.e. no source providing more than 50 % of total income) are not assigned to a group. See Dependent on family/partner contributions/national public student support/self-earned income.

Dependent on family/partner contributions: See Dependency on an income source.

Dependent on national public student support: See Dependency on an income source.

Dependent on self-earned income: See Dependency on an income source.

Direct transition: Students who entered higher education for the first time with a delay of less than two years after leaving the regular school system. See Transition duration, Delayed transition.

Distance learning programme: Study programmes that do not provide any physical, face-to face interaction during lectures. Formally refers to the design of the programme. Not included in the EUROSTUDENT standard target group.

Domestic student: Domestic students hold an higher education entry qualification from the country of survey or last attended the regular school system for the first time there (with or without graduating). See Educational origin, International students.

E

ECTS: The European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System. See Credits.

Educational background: Students' educational background can be categorised into two types: with a tertiary education background and without a tertiary education background. See Students with/without a tertiary background.

Educational origin: The educational origin of the student is determined based on the origin of the higher education entrance qualification or – in the absence of such a qualification – the place of leaving the school system for the first time. See International students, Domestic students.

EUROSTUDENT target group: See Chapter A3.

F

Family/partner contributions: Economic support provided to students by their parents, other relatives, or partner. This support can be provided in various ways: a) cash/bank transfers (= transfers in cash), b) bills paid directly to the students' creditors by the family/partner, or c) goods and services that are provided free of charge (b + c = transfers in kind). See Transfers in cash, Transfers in kind.

Fees: Contributions paid to HEIs that include tuition fees, registration fees, and administrative fees.

Field of study: Students can be distinguished based on their field of study (according to ISCED-F 2013), e.g. information and communication technologies (ICTs).

Financial difficulties: Students were asked to assess the extent of their current financial difficulties on a five-stage scale ranging from 'very serious' to 'not at all'. The EUROSTUDENT focus group distinguishes between students with and without financial difficulties.

Financial status of students' parents: Students were asked to assess their parents' current financial situation compared with other families on a five-stage scale ranging from 'very well-off' to 'not at all well-off'. This item drawn from the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS), carried out by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA), was used to assess the financial status of students' parents[1].

G

Gini coefficient: A measure that highlights the concentration of income using a single value for the whole income distribution. The Gini coefficient can take on values between 0 and 1. If there was no concentration of income at all (i.e. each income recipient had the same amount of income), the value of the Gini coefficient would be 0. In case of maximum concentration (i.e. only one person receiving all income and all others have no income), the Gini coefficient would be equal to 1. This means the higher the concentration of income (i.e. the higher the differences between low and high incomes), the higher the value of the Gini coefficient.

Grant: Non-repayable monetary form of specific student support.

Guardians: Grandparents, uncles, aunts, or similar.

H

(Higher education) entry qualification: Proof of qualification that grants access to higher education, usually an upper secondary qualification at ISCED level 3. In most countries, a common entry qualification exists. This qualification is generally obtained in school or in a nationwide test usually taking place around the point in time of finishing upper secondary school. Many national names for this type of qualification are related to the terms "Matura/maturità" or "Baccalauréat". In EUROSTUDENT terms, this qualification represents the standard entry qualification. This qualification (or an equivalent) can also be obtained outside the regular school system in most countries, e.g. via bridging courses, second chance/adult education, etc. In some countries it is also possible to enter higher education entirely without this standard entrance requirement, but based on the students' abilities (e.g. in arts), or the students' vocational experience (recognition of prior learning). See ▶ Access routes into higher education, ▶ Alternative Access, ▶ #SMAR.

I

Impairments, students with: All students with a disability or impairment, long-standing health problems, or functional limitations that are at least somewhat limiting in their studies. Impairments include physical chronical diseases, long-

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standing health problems, functional limitations, mental health problems, sensory, vision or hearing impairments, learning disabilities, and mobility impairments.

Income, total: The sum of family/partner contributions (in cash and in kind), national public student support (grants, loans, and scholarships geared towards students), self-earned income, means from other national public and private sources (e.g. child benefit, income from capital), and support from non-country sources, i.e. public or private support items from abroad or international entities (e.g. the EU).

International students: International students are studying in the country of the survey and have left the school system for the first time outside the country of the survey. This means the status as international student is not related to place of birth, nationality, or citizenship. See
- Educational origin,
- Domestic students.

Internship: The main purpose is gaining practical experience on the labour market. Practical courses or lab exercises at the HEI are excluded.

ISCED: The International Standard Classification of Education is an instrument to categorise educational programmes by assigning them to levels of education (ISCED 2011), based on the highest attainable degree. The ISCED-F 2013 additionally offers a classification for fields of education and training, at and above the secondary educational level. See Box B2.1.

L

Lecture period: Usually 3–4 months, during the course of the semester, when lectures are held and contribute to the students' taught studies.

Lecture-free period/holidays: All periods without lectures, regardless of any possible legal distinction between lecture-free periods and holidays.

Living costs: Students' monthly living costs include expenses on accommodation (rent or mortgage and utilities), food, social and leisure activities, transportation, health, communication, childcare, debt payment (except a mortgage), and other regular costs (e.g. clothing, toiletries).

Long national degree [more than three years, ISCED 7]: Degree programmes.

Long-standing health problem: A health problem that has lasted or is likely to last for at least six months.

M

Macro perspective: Refers to the calculation of percentages for student income and expenditure based on country-level averages. See Micro perspective.

Master degree [ISCED 7]: Degree programmes.

Median: A parameter that divides an ordered statistical observation series into two equal parts.

Metadata: Data describing the studies and data (e.g. project title, project participants, questions, supporters, research design, methods of data collection, collection instruments).

Micro perspective: Refers to calculations of means, medians, and percentages for student income and expenditure based on individual students' responses. See Macro perspective.

Migration background: EUROSTUDENT categorises students according to their migration background based on their own and their parents' place of birth. In addition, to be able to distinguish international students, EUROSTUDENT uses the place of attainment of the higher education entry qualification, or, in absence of this, the place of last attending the regular school system (Box B1.1.). The following groups can be distinguished: domestically educated students without a migration background and domestically educated, second-generation migrants. See ◇ Second-generation migrants, domestically educated.

N

National public student support: Monetary support especially designed for students in higher education, granted by the state in which the respondent was surveyed. The support includes public grants/scholarships and public loans. See ◇ Public support, ◇ Other national public support.

Non-university: Type of HEIs other than universities, depending on national legislations, may include universities of applied sciences, polytechnics, professional HEIs, and similar institutions, which offer higher education programmes covered in the EUROSTUDENT standard target group. See ◇ Type of HEI, ◇ University.

O

Other national public support: General monetary support from the state that is also available for students in higher education under certain conditions. This includes, for instance, child benefit and housing allowance. See ◇ Public support, ◇ National public student support.

Other postgraduate degree [ISCED 7]: ◇ Degree programmes.

Other regular living costs: These include expenses on clothing, toiletries, tobacco, pets, insurance (except medical insurance), or alimony.

Other savings: These include inheritances, gifts of money, capital income, sales, or prize money.

Other study-related costs: These include expenses on field trips, books, photocopying, private tutoring, and additional courses.

P

Paid jobs before entering higher education: Labour market experience prior to entering higher education for the first time is divided into three categories: a) periodical prior work experience (that lasted less than one year), b) casual prior work experience (of at least one year, with less than 20 hours of work per week), and c) regular prior work experience (of at least one year, with more than 20 hours of work per week).

Paid job during the current lecture period: Gainful employment alongside studies during the lecture period. Two kinds of jobs fall under this category: a) jobs during the entire semester and b) jobs from time to time during the lecture period.

Parental family: Parents, siblings, relatives.

Parents/Guardian: These terms include all types of legal guardianship, such as own parents, step-parents, foster parents, and guardians.

Part-time status/Full-time status: Formal status of enrolment. See ◇ De facto part-time/full-time students.

Personal study time: Time students spend on self-preparation separate from taught studies. This includes: studying, homework, reading, and learning the material,

unpaid internships. See ○ Studies, taught, ○ Study-related activities.

PhD/Doctoral degree [ISCED 8]: ○ Degree programmes.

Programme, Long national degree: Higher education at level ISCED 7. This might be a traditional degree, e.g. a Diploma or a Lizentiat. The traditional long courses, awarding equivalents to Master degrees in certain subject areas, are still common in e.g. law, medicine, architecture and sometimes teacher training. See ○ Programme, Short national degree.

Programme, Short cycle: Short cycle higher education programmes (ISCED level 5) are usually practically based, occupationally specific and prepare for direct labour market entry. These programmes have a minimum duration of two years, which is also the typical length but can also last for three years and may provide a pathway to other higher education programmes. The EUROSTUDENT standard target group covers short cycle programmes if they are regarded as higher education in a country. In determining students' ○ educational background, no differentiation is made between short cycle tertiary and short cycle higher education. See ○ Programme, Long national degree.

Programme, Short national degree: In contrast to short cycle programmes (ISCED 5), some countries also offer short national degrees at level ISCED 6. This type of degree is traditional for the country, but does not comply with the Bologna agreement. Therefore, the programme is not a Bachelor programme, but equivalent to a Bachelor. More information can be found in the ISCED 2011 Operational Manual.

Public support: Financial contributions from the state. This includes student-specific support such as grants, loans, and scholarships but also more general support available for students, such as child benefit or housing allowance. Public support may be national, i.e. from the country in which the student is studying, or from non-country sources, which means it is paid by a foreign state or an international entity such as the EU. See ○ National public student support, ○ Other national public support, ○ Support from non-country sources.

R

Recognition of prior learning (RPL): The process of granting official status to experiences and competences gained outside the formal education system (e.g. work experience, non-formal courses, self-study, and volunteer work).

Regular school system: The (upper) secondary school system for teenagers. It can be a public or a private school, an academic school, or a vocational or professional school. It can be a 'classical' school, or a school with alternative forms of learning (e.g. Montessori). Regular school may be compulsory but does not have to be. Schools targeting only adults (mostly on evenings or weekends) are not regarded as regular schools, even if they are public schools and part of the national education system. Consequently, any kind of preparatory classes for obtaining the #SMAR 'later in life' are not regarded as regular schools.

S

Savings from previous jobs: Money earned by the student, e.g. during holidays and which is still available.

Scholarship: Non-repayable monetary form of specific student support.

Second-generation migrants, domestically educated: Students with at least one parent born abroad, who were born in the country of survey, and who attended/

completed the national school system. See ○ Migration background.

Self-earned income/own earnings: Income from gainful employment, also including savings from previous self-earned income.

Sex/Gender: EUROSTUDENT data are based on officially registered sex on entry to higher education.

Short cycle degree [ISCED 5]: ○ Degree programmes.

Short national degree [up to three years, ISCED 6]: ○ Degree programmes.

Standard access route: See ○ (Higher education) entry qualification, ○ Access route.

Standard deviation (SD): A measure used to quantify the amount of variation or dispersion of a set of data values.

Standard Minimum Access Requirement (#SMAR): Every country has a Standard or Minimum Access Requirement (#SMAR) for accessing higher education. It is 'standard' because there might be alternatives and it is 'minimum' because there might be additional requirements. The #SMAR is obtained in different ways in different countries. It may just be passing the last year in upper secondary school, it may be a specific exam at the end of secondary schooling (matriculation exam, e.g. *Matura*, *Abitur*, *Baccalauréat*) or a state exam, or by some other means. Some countries have different upper secondary school types (usually academic or professional tracks), which lead to different types of #SMAR. The different types of #SMAR may be the minimum requirement to enter any higher education (general #SMAR) or only give access to specific types of higher education or fields of study (specific #SMAR). In any case, one type of #SMAR is needed to access higher education (however, there might be additional requirements such as admission exams or specific grades).

Student accommodation: Accommodation that is provided especially for students in higher education, e.g. dormitory or halls of residence. It is often subsidised by the government, churches, HEIs, or other organisations. See ○ Types of student housing.

Students in paid work: Two groups are distinguished based on the extent of their regular paid work during term time, not taking into account working from time to time during the semester or paid jobs during the holidays. See ○ Paid job during the current lecture period.

Students with/without a tertiary education background: Students with a tertiary education background have parents of whom at least one has attained a tertiary education degree. In terms of ISCED 2011, this means that at least one of these students' parents has successfully completed a short cycle tertiary degree (level 5), a Bachelor's (level 6) or Master's degree (level 7), or a doctorate (level 8), or their national equivalent. In some countries, these national equivalents may not be considered part of higher education (Box B2.1). Students without a tertiary education background have parents whose highest educational degree is no higher than ISCED 2011 level 4 (post-secondary, non-tertiary education). See ○ Educational background.

Studies, taught: Students' contact hours. Including lectures, tutorials, seminars, lessons, etc. and is reported in clock hours (60 min./hour) regardless of course hours, which may differ from this format. These include lessons, seminars, labs, tests, live online courses of a study programme, etc.

Study-related activities: See ○ Studies, taught, ○ Personal study time.

Study-related activities abroad: All kinds of study-related activities abroad during a course of study. The category comprises ◦ temporary enrolment, internship/work placement, language course, research stay/field trip, summer/winter school, and other study-related activities abroad. See ◦ Temporary study period abroad, ◦ Credit mobility.

Study-related costs: Costs that are directly related to participating in higher education studies. Three categories are distinguished: ◦ a) fees, b) contributions to student unions/associations/councils, student services, or insurance (except medical insurance), and c) other regular costs.

Support from non-country sources: Private or public support items that a student receives either from abroad or from an international entity such as the EU. See ◦ Public support.

T

Temporary study period abroad: See ◦ Credit mobility, ◦ Study-related activities abroad.

Thematic Review: EUROSTUDENT publications focusing on this specific topic. They will be available on the EUROSTUDENT website: *www.eurostudent.eu*.

Transfers in cash: Cash money or bank transfers that students receive from their parents, other relatives, or their partner without specifying what to spend it on. See ◦ Family/partner contributions, ◦ Transfers in kind, ◦ Total income.

Transfers in kind: Living and study-related costs that are not paid by students themselves, but by other persons such as the students' parents, partners, or other relatives. The payments go directly to the students' creditors, i.e. the respective money is intangible for the students. Transfers in kind can also be provided by students' parents, partners, or other relatives as goods and services free of charge, e.g. free accommodation, food, clothes, phone, or car use. See ◦ Family/partner contributions, ◦ Transfers in cash, ◦ Total income.

Transition duration: Duration of the transition between leaving school for the first time and entering higher education. See ◦ Delayed transition, ◦ Direct transition.

Type of HEI: Types of higher education institutions are distinguished based on national legislation and understanding. Types of HEIs include universities and non-universities. See ◦ University, ◦ Non-university.

Types of savings: See ◦ Savings from previous jobs, ◦ Other savings.

Types of student housing: Five forms of student housing are distinguished that are mutually exclusive: Living a) with parents, b) alone, c) with partner/child(ren), d) with other person(s), e) in student accommodation (e.g. dormitory or halls of residence).

Type of study programme: Study programmes are classified according to their highest attainable degree in line with ISCED 2011. ISCED 2011 differentiates between short-cycle tertiary education programmes (ISCED 5), Bachelor's or equivalent (ISCED 6), and Master's or equivalent (ISCED 7) programmes. PhD students, doctoral or equivalent level (ISCED 8) are not part of the EUROSTUDENT target group. See ◦ ISCED.

U

University: If a distinction is made between types of HEIs within a country, institutions classified as universities are typically allowed to award doctoral degrees. See ◦ Type of HEI, ◦ Non-university.

W

Work experience, regular: Employment for more than one year without interruption and at least 20h per week.

Appendix C2
Methodological notes on figures and tables

Chapter B1: Characteristics of national student populations

Figure B1.2, Table B1.1
FI: Missing values imputed from register data. **IT, SE:** Register information used.

Figure B1.3, Table B1.2, Table B1.3
IS: The information was taken from the sample. **IT, NO, SE:** Register information used.

Figure B1.4, Table B1.4, Table B1.5
AT: Includes age of the youngest child of partner if in the same household (only 0.1 % of students live with their partners' children). **SE:** 'Year of birth' was used instead of 'years of age'.

Figure B1.5, Figure B1.6
AT: The national questionnaire asks for more specific information on several impairments. The national questionnaire measures the severity of limitations on a five-point scale for different impairments (1 meaning most severe; 5 meaning not limited at all). **CH:** No details about types of impairments requested. All students were asked to indicate the extent of any limitations, regardless of previously indicating impairment. **DE:** The extent of limitations as a result of any impairments was assessed on a five-point scale from 1 'severely limiting' to 5 'not limiting at all' and only by students who had previously indicated their impairments to be limiting. Figure shows values for students having indicated response options 1 through 4. **SE:** Response option 4, 'Yes, sensory impairment (e.g. vision, hearing)', was split into two, one for vision and one for hearing. These two options have been coded into one in the Swedish results to EUROSTUDENT. Another category was also added, for neuropsychiatric disability, which was coded into the category 'Yes, another long-standing health problem/ functional limitation/ impairment/ etc.'. **SI:** Rephrased question: 'Do you face the following long-standing health problems? (disability, sensory deficits and obstacles, functional constraints, specific learning difficulties)'.

Table B1.6
NO: Three separate questions used. **SE:** Register information used.

Figure B1.7
AT: The national questionnaire distinguishes four specific sources of support (counselling centres, university administration, other students, lecturers). **IE:** Response option 'No support wanted/needed' not offered.

Figure B1.8, B1.9, B1.10

DK: 'Denmark' provided as a separate response so respondents only have to use the search function if not born in Denmark. **NO:** Three separate questions used.

Chapter B2: Socio-economic background of students

Figure B2.4, Figure B2.5

DK, GE, HR, NO: Added response category 'Don't know'.

Figure B2.6, B2.7

DK: Added response category 'Don't know'.

Figure B2.8

AT, DK, NO: Added explanation of the word 'performance'.

Figure B2.9

DK: Added response category 'Don't know'. **EE:** Added supplementary item about academic leave.

Chapter B3: Transition into and within higher education

Figure B3.1, Figure B3.2, Table B3.1

AT: For reasons of consistency with the national survey, students with alternative access routes are categorised as > 2 years. This only includes students who attended school in Austria. **CH:** Information from national register of students (Swiss University Information System); duration of transition into higher education is approximated (especially for international students). **DE:** Delay calculated based on month and year of obtaining #Matura or foreign equivalent. **IT:** Transition time created in data processing using the dates of secondary education graduation and access to higher education programme. Student confirms or corrects the information from the Official National Register.

Figure B3.3

EE: Entry into higher education without #Matura is not possible in Estonia so response option 'No, I do not have a #Matura' was not offered. **MT:** Answer options include all possible titles for #SMAR qualifications in Malta and abroad.

Figure B3.4, Table B3.2

AT: All international students coded to have standard entry qualification as the information was not requested. **CH:** Information from national register of students (Swiss University Information System). **DE:** The coding of 'non-traditional' students was adopted from the German Social Survey (21. Sozialerhebung). Students who were admitted to higher education via the second or third educational pathway were coded as non-traditional students. **EE:** Entry into higher education without #Matura not possible in Estonia so response option 'No, I do not have a #Matura' was not offered. **MT:** Answer options include all possible titles for #SMAR qualifications in Malta and abroad.

Figure B3.5, Figure B3.6, Table B3.3

AT: The category 'Casual prior work experience' includes all who worked 'Less than one year or less than 20h'. No information on 'Periodical work experience'.

Figure B3.7, Figure B3.8, Table B3.4

DE: Time period when previous degree was attained and when enrolment in Master took place asked as drop-down in semesters. **DK:** Added answering option for students who started the Master directly from the Bachelor. **IT:** Transition time created in data processing combining Bachelor graduation and Master enrolment dates. Student confirms or corrects the information from the Official National Register. **SE:** Information from national register.

Chapter B4: Types and modes of study

Figure B4.1, Table B4.1

CH: Information from national register of students (Swiss University Information System). **CZ, DE, EE, HU, IE, MT:** Information added in data editing process. **DK:** Data approximated with other data (e.g. register) or item/questions (not based on EUROSTUDENT questionnaire). **NO:** Information from register of students.

Figure B4.2, Figure B4.3, Table B4.2, Table B4.3

CH: Information from national register of students (Swiss University Information System). **DK:** Data approximated with other data (e.g. register) or item/questions (not based on EUROSTUDENT questionnaire). **IT:** Student confirms or corrects the information from the official national register **NL:** Additional question. **SE:** The question is replaced with national questions, where the respondents confirmed (if only one programme) or chose (if more than one programme) the programme(s) for which they were registered. Where the information from the register did not represent the respondent's main study activity, the respondent was asked to indicate what they were studying. For respondents registered on free-standing courses (and not programmes), other questions were used in the same way.

Figure B4.4, Figure B4.5, Table B4.4

DK: Data approximated with other data (e.g. register) or item/questions (not based on EUROSTUDENT questionnaire). **IT:** Student confirms or corrects the information from the official national register. **MT:** Response options are stated more explicitly to list all titles of study programmes available in Malta. **CH:** Professional programmes are typically provided by institutions and enterprises outside the university context and are designed for direct entry into the labour market or in relation to existing employment. Therefore, these programmes are not included in the survey sample.

Figure B4.6, Figure B4.7, Table B4.5

CH: Information from the Swiss Higher Education Information System. **MT:** Information added in data editing process.

Figure B4.8, Table B4.6

AT: The national questionnaire asks for support in balancing studies and other general aspects of life but target variables 'spheres of life' are split in E:VII. **DK:** Added response category 'Don't know'. **MT:** The term 'higher education institution' in the core questionnaire is replaced by the exact name of the institution. **NO:** Survey refers only to support provided by the HEI as cooperating institutions generally do not provide this support.

Figure B4.9, Table B4.7

DK: Added response category 'Don't know'. **EE:** Added additional item.

Chapter B5: Students' time budget

Figure B5.1, Figure B5.2, Figure B5.3, Figure B5.4, Figure B5.6, Table B5.1, Table B5.2, Table B5.3

CH: Number of response options differs: additional activities were requested. **FR, IT:** Asked per week, not per day.

Figure B5.5

CH: Phrasing of question altered; two national questions: 'During the last 12 months did you have (a) paid job(s)?'/ 'Do you have a paid job during the lecture period?' Due to this change, it is not possible to know whether respondents had a paid job at the time of survey or previously.

Figure B5.7

DK: Added response category 'don't know'.

Figure B5.8

AT, DK, NO: Added explanation of the word 'performance'. **DK:** Added response category 'Don't know'.

Figure B5.10

DK: Added response category 'Don't know', **EE:** Added extra response option 'I am seriously considering taking academic leave'.

Chapter B6: Students' employment

Figure B6.1, Figure B6.2, Figure B6.3, Table B6.1

CH: See notes on Figure B5.1. **FR:** Information on paid internships comes from a different question. **DE, IT, RO:** No information on working during lecture-free period. **TR:** No information on working only during the lecture period.

Figure B6.4

AT: Different wording: 'My job is related in content to my studies: 1 = applies totally, 5 = applies not at all', **DK:** Added response category 'Don't know'. **FR:** Separately asked about paid jobs and paid internships, with a four-point scale in the case of paid internships.

Figure B6.5, Table B6.2

AT, CH, DE, FR, RO: Not all reasons requested. **DE, DK:** Added response category 'Don't know'. **EE:** Reason added 'I work because I have enough free time to do so', **IT:** Different wording: 'I work to have additional money at my disposal' instead of 'I work so I can afford things I otherwise would not buy'.

Figure B6.6

DE: See notes on Figure B3.4. **HU:** See notes on Figure B3.1.

Figure B6.7

FR, SI: The response options for the question on student income were reduced.

Figure B6.8

CH, FR: See notes on Figure B5.1, **SI**: See notes on Figure B6.7.

Figure B6.9, Figure B6.10

PT: Added response option 'Yes, one or more internship(s) in Portugal and outside of Portugal'. **RO:** Transformed into single response questions with four options – 'Yes, one or more in country', 'Yes, one or more outside country', 'Yes, one or more in country and outside', 'No'.

Figure B6.11

FR: Questions 4.21 and 4.22 only refer to this year's internship.

Chapter B7: Students' resources

Figure B7.1, Figure B7.2, Figure B7.4, Table B7.1

FR: Transfers in kind for contributions to student organisations and other regular study-related costs were not recorded. **RO:** Transfers in kind for all kinds of study-related expenses were not recorded. **SI:** The response options for the question on student income were reduced.

Figure B7.3

FR: Transfers in kind for contributions to student organisations and other regular study-related costs were not recorded. The data on students' self-earned income do not include savings from previous self-earned income. **RO:** See notes on Figure B7.1. **SI:** See notes on Figure B7.1.

Figure B7.5

FR: Transfers in kind for contributions to student organisations and other regular study-related costs were not recorded. The category 'National public student support' also includes 'Other public support'. Thus, the share of national public student support in total income may be misleading. **RO:** See notes on Figure B7.1. **SI:** See notes on Figure B7.1.

Figure B7.6

TR: Data for 'non-universities' refer only to private institutions, not to public ones.

Figure B7.7
FR: The category 'Non-repayable national public student support' also includes 'Other public support'. Thus, the percentage of non-repayable national public student support may be overestimated. **SI:** See notes on Figure B7.1.

Figure B7.8, Figure B7.9, Figure B7.10
DK: The response option 'Don't know' was added.

Table B7.2
FR: The data on students' self-earned income do not include savings from previous self-earned income. Transfers in kind for contributions to student organisations and other regular study-related costs were not recorded. The category 'National public student support' also includes 'Other public support'. Thus, the amount of national public student support may be too high. **RO:** Transfers in kind for all kinds of study-related expenses were not recorded. **SI:** The response options for the question on student income were reduced.

Table B7.4
DK: See notes on Figure B7.8.

Chapter B8: Students' expenses

Figure B8.1, Table B8.1
DE: The survey in Germany did not cover payments of students and others in the following categories: debt payment (except mortgage), social welfare contributions, and most other regular study-related costs. **FR:** Contributions to student unions and other regular study-related costs were not recorded. **RO:** Study-related expenses were not recorded.

Figure B8.2
DE: The survey in Germany did not cover payments of students and others in the following categories: debt payment (except mortgage), social welfare contributions, and most other regular study-related costs. This may influence the amount of shares that are calculated on the basis of total monthly expenses. **FR:** The category 'Food' includes all daily living expenses. The share of costs for food may thus be too high. Contributions to student unions and other regular study-related costs were not recorded. This may influence the amount of shares that are calculated on the basis of total monthly expenses. **RO:** Study-related expenses were not recorded. This may influence the amount of shares that are calculated on the basis of total monthly expenses.

Figure B8.5, Table B8.2
DE: See notes on Figure B8.2. **FR:** Contributions to student unions and other regular study-related costs were not recorded. This may influence the amount of shares that are calculated on the basis of total monthly expenses. **RO:** See notes on Figure B8.2.

Figure B8.6
DE: See notes on Figure B8.1. **FR:** See notes on Figure B8.1.

Figure B8.7

RO: Study-related expenses were not recorded. The absence of study-related transfers in kind has an effect on students' total income and, in the following, also on the proportion of students depending on an income source. **TR:** Data for 'non-universities' refer only to private institutions, not to public ones.

Figure B8.8

IE, IT: In the national survey, fees were recorded per academic year. **SI:** The response options for the question on student income were reduced.

Figure B8.9

CZ: In the national survey, two threshold values for an unexpected required expense were used.

Table B8.4

IE, IT: See notes on Figure B8.8. **TR:** See notes on Figure B8.7.

Chapter B9: Housing situation

Figure B9.2, Figure B9.9, Table B9.1, Table B9.3

FR: The response item 'Living with child(ren)' was not offered separately in the French questionnaire. Students living with child(ren) are included in the category 'Living with other person(s)'.

Figure B9.2, Figure B9.5, Figure B9.6, Figure B9.7, Table B9.1, Table B9.2

IT: The question of whether students live in student accommodation was asked only of those living with other person(s) or alone. Students living with their partner and/or child(ren) are thus not captured.

Figure B9.9, Figure B9.10, Table B9.3, Table B9.4

DK: The answer option 'Don't know' was added. **HU:** An extra response item was added.

Table B9.2

TR: Data for 'non-universities' refer only to private institutions, not to public ones.

Chapter B10: International student mobility

Figure B10.1, Table B10.1

EE: Added response option ('I haven't decided yet, but I'm interested').

Figure B10.2, Table B10.2

AT: The national survey distinguishes between 'Lack of information by HEI regarding study possibilities' and 'Lack of information by HEI regarding funding options'; the national survey source variable includes not only 'loss' but also 'interruption' of paid job. **DE:** The item 'Low benefits for studies' is coded from an item concerning the expected extension of the study period due to stays abroad. **DK:** Added response category 'Don't know'.

Figure B10.3, Figure B10.4, Figure B10.5, Table B10.4, Table B10.5

CH: Different types of other study-related experiences abroad requested separately. **FR:** Question on study abroad asked separately from those on the internship and those or other study-related experiences abroad. **IT:** Temporary study period and other study-related activities are asked in different questions. **MT:** The term 'higher education institution' in the core questionnaire is replaced by the exact name of the institution in the MT questionnaire. **SE:** For respondents who chose Swedish, the instruction on practical courses was omitted because it was not relevant in the Swedish context. **PT:** Slightly changed responses: 'Yes, one or more internship(s) only in #country' 'Yes, one or more internship(s) only not in #country. Added response option 'Yes, one or more internship(s) in Portugal and outside of Portugal'. **RO**: Transformed into single response questions with four options – 'Yes, one or more in country', 'Yes, one or more outside country', 'Yes, one or more in country and outside', 'No'.

Figure B10.6

DK: Added response category. **IS:** Added response categories. **CZ:** Changed response categories.

Figure B10.7

DK: Added response categories. **IT:** Sources and primary source asked in two separate questions. 'Regular study grants from home country' not included (no portability). **LU:** Changed question. **SE:** Changed response categories.

Figure B10.8, Table B10.6

LT: Added examples in brackets.

Figure B10.9

DK: Slight change in question text: the two questions were separated. **IT:** Country and duration in months asked as two separate questions. Top five destination countries were pre-listed as answer options, other countries registered as an open answer.

Figure B10.10

FR: Response option 'I never planned on getting any credits recognised' was not offered. **DE:** Response options differ, recognition only in yes/no manner, no differentiation between full and partial recognition.

Figure B10.11

FR: 'Unable to rate' was not offered. **NO:** Phrasing of the question altered. **SI:** Phrasing of the question altered.

Table B10.3

CH: The Swiss survey does not differentiate between internships in Switzerland and abroad.

Appendix C3
Metadata

Table C3.1

Information on survey execution and weighting

	Return rate (gross)	Sampling method	Field phase	Survey method	Weighting variables
AT	14 %	Full population survey	May/June 2019	Online	First seven groups weighted separately (higher education sector, first year students, sex, age, HEI, degree type, field of study) Propensity score method (university of applied sciences additionally weighted by full time/part time) Raking of students finishing the regular school system abroad ('Bildungsausländer'): nationality, sex, field of study, degree, age, first year students Finally propensity score between seven groups
CH	72 %	Stratified probability sample based on field of study and higher education institution (HEI)	25 March 2020 – 31 May 2020	Online	Field of study, HEI, sex, age, place of residence before the beginning of the study programme
CZ	8 %	Full population survey	8 May – 30 June 2019	Online	Raking based on sex, qualification studied for, age, type of HEI, field of study
DE (2016)	19.6 %	Stratified random sampling	May/June 2016	Online	Sex, age, type of HEI, federal state of the HEI, field of study
DE (2020)	19.8 %	One-stage cluster sampling (survey of 23 selected universities, based on type of HEI, size of HEI, distribution of field of study, regional location of HEI)	15 June – 10 August 2020	Online	Sex, type of HEI, age, field of study, nationality/educational origin
DK	26 %	Disproportionate sampling based on institutions Random sampling within institutions	22 May – 24 June 2019	Online and telephone	HEI, sex, nationality, age
EE	7.9 %	Full population survey	7 May – 3 July 2019	Online	Type of HEI, ISCED level, sex, age
FI	27 %	Proportionate stratified sample (strata defined by field of education, nationality and type of HEI) and implicit stratification by age, language, and HEI within strata	Spring semester 2019	Online	Sex, age, nationality, language, HEI, type of degree, field of education
FR	20.4 %	Stratified random sampling based on type of HEI/field of studies, sex, age and location of HEI	March – May 2020	Online	Type of HEI, field of studies, sex, citizenship, age, level of the studies, type of Baccalauréat (for universities)
GE	5 %	Stratified probability sample based on region, educational level, type of HEI, sex, age, citizenship, educational programmes	16 May – 30 June and 16 September – 7 October (no study period between these dates)	Online	Type of HEI, qualification studied for, sex, age, field of study
HR	n/a	Full population survey by public call without individual invitations	4 June – 30 Sep 2019	Online	Field of study, sex, stratum (combining size, type, and public-private attributes, age, level of study programme, student status)
HU	7 %	Stratified probability sample based on HEI/faculty, depending on the availability of the e-mail address in the central student registry	11 June – 7 July 2019	Online	Age, sex, qualification studied for, type of HEI, study location in the capital, field of study programme
IE	9.8 %	Full population survey	April/May 2019	Online	Sex, full-time/part-time status, ISCED level, age, and type of HEI
IS	14.1 % (net)	Full population survey	4 April – 18 June 2019	Online	HEI, sex, age, study programme
IT	31.75 %	Quota sample by sex, programme type (Bachelor degree, Master degree, long national degree), field of study, macro-region of study location	Spring 2020 (May – June)	CATI	Sex, age group, programme type (Bachelor degree, Master degree, long national degree), field of study, macro-region of study location
LT	4.1 %	Full population survey	May/June 2019	Online	Type of HEI, study intensity (full-time, part-time), sex, age, field of study
LU	13.6 %	Full population survey	May 2019	Online	Raking based on sex, age, qualification studied for, field of study, citizenship

Table C3.1 (continued)

Information on survey execution and weighting

	Return rate (gross)	Sampling method	Field phase	Survey method	Weighting variables
MT	7 %	Stratified sampling including all institutions who agreed to participate	April – June 2019	Online	Raking based on qualification studied for, age, sex, type of HEI, field of study programme
NL	8.7 %	Probability sample based on type of HEI (university vs. university of applied science), full-time/part-time, field of study, first year vs. rest, international students, age, and sex	7 July – 8 October 2019	Online	Raking based on HEI, Bachelor/Master, full-time/part-time, first year vs. rest, international students, age, sex, and field of study
NO	46.5 %	Simple random sampling	24 April 24 – 12 May 2019	Online	Sex, age, HEI type
PL	2.0 %	Full population survey	May/June 2019	Online	Sex, age, public/private HEI, region (voivodeship), size of study location, type of HEI, level of study programme, field of study, mode of study
PT	1.8 %	Full population survey	6 November – 18 December 2020	Online	Type of HEI, field of study, sex, age, qualification (two categories)
RO	6.3 %	Full population survey	24 November 2020 – 18 January 2021	Online	Dimension of city (number of students/city), field of study, qualification, age, sex
SE	17 %	Stratified simple random sampling	April – June 2019	Online	Sex, age, strata (full-time, part-time, international students)
SI	3.0 %	Full population survey	May 2019	Online	Sex, age, type of HEI, type of qualification, field of study, full-time vs. part-time status
TR	1.38 %	Stratified random sampling based on regions and university size	27 May – 6 June 2020	Online	Age, sex, public/private, regions, ISCED fields, degree

Table C3.2

Key data on national student surveys by socio-demographic characteristics of students and living conditions

Share of valid responses, weighted, in %

	Socio-demographic characteristics of students											Living conditions							
		Sex		Age groups					Impairments	Migration background		Dependency on income source			Financial difficulties	Housing	Paid job during the lecture period		
Country/Source	Students in sample (*n*)	Female students	Male students	Up to 21 years	22–24 years	25–29 years	30 years or over	Without a tertiary education background	Students with impairments	Students without a migration background, domestically educated	Second-generation migrants, domestically educated	Dependent on family support	Dependent on self-earned income	Dependent on national public student support	With financial difficulties	Living with parents	0 h	1–20 h	> 20 h
AT	42,325	55	45	22	30	28	20	47	12	67	10	37	38	7	22	20	37	39	24
CH	22,903	53	47	17	37	32	14	39	18	49	26	51	37	3	13	45	41	42	17
CZ	19,368	57	43	37	36	17	10	50	17	80	5	55	37	1	20	29	27	45	28
DE (2016)	53,161	48	52	27	30	30	12	27	23	81	13	52	25	12	18	21	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
DE (2020)	25,247	59	41	30	35	24	11	31	16	77	13	45	23	12	17	33	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
DK	9,615	57	43	13	43	31	13	25	18	74	9	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	23	6	37	57	6
EE	2,760	59	41	26	28	20	27	31	9	80	10	36	46	4	22	19	33	25	42
FI	7,006	54	46	13	28	28	32	33	22	88	3	12	37	37	24	5	44	31	25
FR	52,389	55	45	61	25	9	5	35	10	71	16	52	15	25	19	34	59	29	11
GE	7,676	51	49	49	36	13	2	21	9	91	1	62	16	16	35	62	68	12	20
HR	1,840	58	42	37	36	17	10	55	13	74	19	52	33	6	18	43	47	22	31
HU	7,535	54	46	26	36	20	18	40	9	85	4	41	37	9	25	30	42	24	34
IE	19,900	52	48	56	18	9	17	44	18	60	11	38	38	12	29	40	41	38	20
IS	2,294	64	36	17	25	24	34	42	31	87	4	18	63	10	31	31	28	42	29
IT	5,010	56	44	46	31	16	7	66	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	68	77	12	11
LT	3,358	56	44	45	27	14	14	45	11	90	6	45	40	3	25	28	47	17	36
LU	719	54	46	16	58	14	11	47	14	24	22	48	4	23	22	53	60	34	7
MT	1,226	58	42	33	26	17	23	62	12	77	7	31	50	10	30	63	37	30	33
NL	16,275	51	49	47	30	16	7	40	21	73	12	28	25	29	21	43	26	60	14
NO	10,374	60	40	20	28	22	30	22	23	78	9	6	34	47	29	9	29	46	25
PL	13,616	58	42	36	38	14	12	54	16	94	2	45	42	5	28	37	42	17	41
PT	6,180	56	44	54	22	11	13	59	10	72	15	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	17	53	70	12	18
RO	19,484	55	45	46	28	9	18	57	5	96	1	57	32	7	24	54	56	11	33
SE	5,129	60	40	22	32	23	23	34	21	n.d.	n.d.	10	17	64	17	14	52	40	8
SI	2,112	58	42	40	35	15	10	43	12	n.d.	n.d.	34	43	8	24	42	35	31	34
TR	14,812	48	52	49	29	14	8	71	6	94	2	46	18	25	54	31	76	9	14

n.d.: no data

Note: *Rounded values are shown.*

Table C3.3

Key data on national surveys by study conditions

Share of valid responses, weighted, in %

Country/Source	Study conditions: Field of study: Arts and humanities	Engineering, manufacturing, and construction	Education (incl. teacher training)	Social sciences, journalism, and information	Business, administration, and law	Natural sciences, mathematics, and statistics	Information and communication technologies	Agriculture, forestry, fisheries, and veterinary	Health and welfare	Services	Study intensity: Low intensity	Medium intensity	High intensity	Type of HEI: University	Non-university	Type of study programme: Bachelor	Master	Study experience: First-year students	Access route: Alternative access route	Standard access route	Educational origin: International students	Domestic students	Transition route: Delayed transition	Direct transition
AT	12	14	15	10	22	10	6	1	10	1	29	45	26	81	19	62	23	16	9	91	21	79	28	72
CH	10	13	12	11	23	10	4	1	14	1	20	47	34	57	43	71	28	22	14	86	17	83	12	88
CZ	10	15	11	10	21	5	7	4	12	6	25	50	25	90	10	63	26	12	3	97	13	87	8	92
DE (2016)	10	22	13	8	20	7	6	2	9	3	19	52	29	65	35	62	23	n.d.	5	95	n.d.	n.d.	17	83
DE (2020)	11	21	16	10	15	8	8	2	7	2	47	34	20	75	25	58	27	23	n.d.	n.d.	6	94	n.d.	n.d.
DK	11	12	6	10	18	6	5	1	27	3	13	54	33	57	43	68	24	15	7	93	11	89	22	78
EE	17	7	7	11	16	8	10	1	16	6	21	49	31	78	22	66	27	16	6	94	8	92	14	86
FI	11	19	6	6	19	5	10	3	19	4	31	47	22	48	52	74	26	14	8	92	7	93	32	68
FR	13	16	3	9	28	11	2	0.1	13	4	22	42	36	72	28	42	22	21	1	99	8	92	5	95
GE	9	10	4	15	29	4	3	3	17	3	38	46	16	86	14	74	10	22	2	98	6	94	3	97
HR	8	16	7	7	28	4	8	3	12	7	18	47	35	83	17	60	23	16	4	96	2	98	11	89
HU	8	15	12	9	23	3	8	4	12	6	30	46	24	82	18	63	14	15	4	96	10	90	16	84
IE	14	12	8	7	19	11	9	2	14	4	18	52	30	70	30	75	12	22	8	92	14	86	11	89
IS	14	10	8	20	19	8	6	1	14	n/a	18	44	38	100	n/a	69	23	17	20	80	4	96	28	72
IT	15	16	6	14	18	10	2	3	14	3	16	46	37	100	n/a	63	19	21	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	6	94
LT	9	18	4	9	27	4	6	3	17	2	19	50	31	68	32	76	15	15	2	98	3	97	11	89
LU	11	9	8	14	26	5	7	1	19	0.2	11	47	42	86	14	59	28	7	10	90	44	56	7	93
MT	11	8	12	7	29	3	7	0.4	19	3	26	37	37	68	32	55	23	19	25	75	10	90	24	76
NL	8	9	10	12	28	6	4	1	16	6	13	55	32	39	61	82	16	29	9	91	11	89	12	88
NO	7	11	21	8	20	5	5	1	22	0.4	29	44	27	66	34	50	17	15	14	86	6	94	23	77
PL	10	17	7	12	22	4	6	2	11	8	17	56	27	72	28	64	24	19	6	94	3	97	11	89
PT	11	22	3	11	24	6	3	2	14	3	7	45	48	65	35	60	19	21	8	92	8	92	10	90
RO	8	23	2	9	23	4	8	5	18	0	16	46	38	100	n/a	65	21	17	5	95	2	98	11	89
SE	9	21	12	12	14	6	4	1	20	1	20	52	28	100	n/a	26	10	15	8	92	9	91	34	66
SI	8	19	10	9	19	6	6	3	13	8	20	47	33	74	26	24	24	22	5	95	5	95	7	93
TR	15	20	8	8	20	4	2	2	15	5	26	47	26	86	14	66	5	25	25	75	2	98	15	85

n.d.: no data; n/a: not applicable

Note: *Rounded values are shown. Decimal points are only shown for values below 0.5.*

Appendix C4
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	Country name	Project sponsor	Implementation	Contact person	Research team	National report
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NO	Norway	Ministry of Education and Research	Statistics Norway (SSB)	Anna-Lena Keute (SSB)	Anna-Lena Keute, Kristine Sundberg, and Sophia Andresen	–
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RO	Romania	Ministry of Education	Executive Agency for Higher Education, Research, Development and Innovation Funding (UEFISCDI) and National Centre for Policy in Evaluation in Education (CNPEE)	Gabriela Jitaru (UEFISCDI)	Oana Iftode and Marius Lazar (CNPEE) Elena Trifan, Oana Dervis, Gabriela Jitaru, and Andreea Gheba (UEFISCDI)	http://eurostudent.uefiscdi.ro/ and http://www.ise.ro/Eurostudent
SE	Sweden	Ministry of Education and Research	Swedish Council of Higher Education	Erica Finnerman	Erica Finnerman, Jari Rusanen, and Sukaina Nasser	–
SI	Slovenia	Ministry of Education, Science and Sport	Educational Research Institute	Alenka Gril (Educational Research Institute)	Igor Bijuklič, Sabina Autor, and Jure Novak	https://www.pei.si/raziskovalna-dejavnost/projekti/evrostudent-vii/
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Social and Economic Conditions of Student Life in Europe

EUROSTUDENT VII Synopsis of Indicators 2018–2021

The EUROSTUDENT VII – Synopsis of Indicators is the central publication of the EUROSTUDENT project and the result of the collaboration of a European-wide network including researchers, data collectors, representatives of national ministries, and other stakeholders. It comprises data from student surveys conducted in 25 countries in the European Higher Education Area during the seventh round of the EUROSTUDENT project. Adopting a broad, comparative perspective, the EUROSTUDENT VII – Synopsis of Indicators provides information on students' socio-economic and study-related backgrounds, their study conditions and experiences, including international mobility, and their living conditions. It aims to inspire policy debates on the topic of the social dimension and lay the ground for further research.

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