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Social and Economic Conditions of Student Life in Europe

Conference version:
EUROSTUDENT Synopsis of Indicators 2018-2021

2021

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This report represents a preliminary version for the EUROSTUDENT final conference (May 18-19, 2021), based on data from 20 countries: Austria, Switzerland, Czech Republic, Germany [data collected 2016], Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Georgia, Croatia, Hungary, Ireland, Iceland, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Sweden, and Slovenia.

The data of the remaining countries (France, Italy, Germany [updated with additional data from 2020], Portugal, Romania, Turkey) will be incorporated into the final version of the report, which will be published in August 2021. Albanian data will be available in the > EUROSTUDENT database.

Please do not cite this version after September 2021 – please refer to the finalised and complete version, available on the website www.eurostudent.eu/

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Content

Foreword

The final version will include a foreword here.

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) have 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.

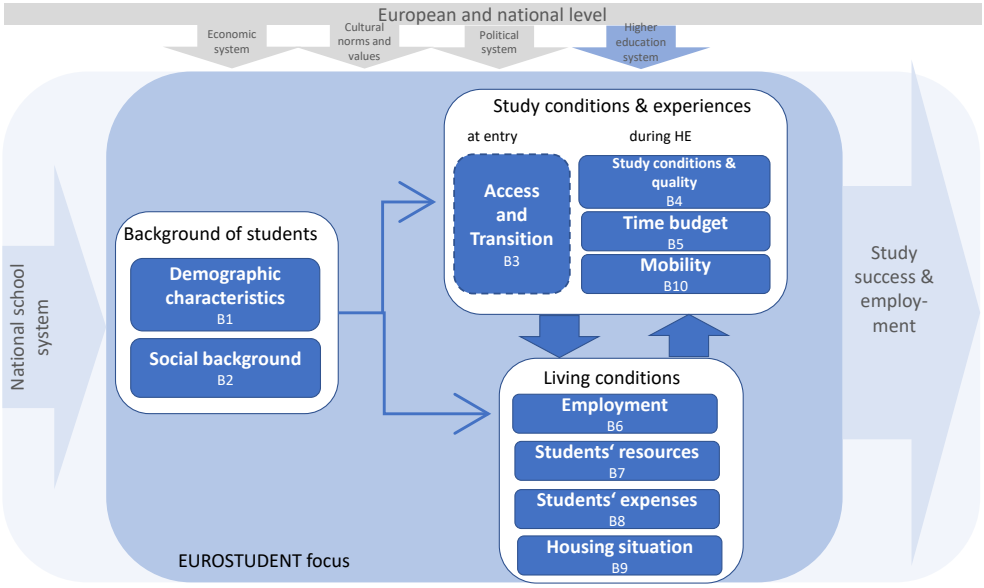
The social dimension of higher education (HE) has played an important role in the Bologna Process of the EHEA since it was chosen as a central theme in the Prague Communiqué (2001) at the beginning of this millennium. With the Rome Communiqué (2020), the ministers responsible for HE in the EHEA have reinforced the importance of the social dimension by adopting principles and guidelines which should guide member states on how to define and implement policy for improving the social dimension of the EHEA (Rome Communiqué Annex II, 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.' (Rome Communiqué Annex II, 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 on the current state of the social dimension in many EHEA countries are available and thus provides a data basis for monitoring and evaluation. The current situation of students is the result of many influencing factors from 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 background (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, EUROSTUDENT not only offers insights into students' activities abroad and their recognition by HEIs in the home country, but also into obstacles to mobility for students who have not been mobile themselves.

To achieve greater analytical depth, EUROSTUDENT differentiates the student population into a variety of focus groups based on their socio-demographic characteristics, living and study conditions, as well as 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 Box A2.2.

Figure A2.1 EUROSTUDENT VII topics



EUROSTUDENT is based on students' self-reported data. Due to the nature of these data, the EUROSTUDENT dataset contains a lot of information that is not available from other sources, e.g. 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.

Notes on the Synopsis

The Covid-19 pandemic has delayed the data collection and subsequent delivery in some countries. The ensuing delays have precluded the inclusion of data of all participating countries in this report.

This report therefore represents a preliminary version for the EUROSTUDENT final conference (May 18-19, 2021), based on data from 20 countries: Austria, Switzerland, Czech Republic, Germany, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Georgia, Croatia, Hungary, Ireland, Iceland, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Sweden, and Slovenia.

The data of the remaining countries (France, Italy, Germany [updated], Portugal, Romania, Turkey) will be incorporated into the final version of the report, which will be published in August 2021. Albanian data will be available in the > EUROSTUDENT database.

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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, references are made to the other elements of the reporting infrastructure, which is 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[1]. This report further includes a glossary (> Chapter C1), methodological notes on figures (> Chapter C2), metadata on the national surveys and key background data on the higher education systems covered in this report (> Chapter C3), references (> Chapter C4)[2] and a list of the national contributors to EUROSTUDENT VII (> Chapter C5).

Glossary

To relieve the flow text of definitions and certain concept descriptions, an overview of terms and key concepts is provided in > Chapter C1 (not yet included in conference version).

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 > Chapter C2. Cases which 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 so-called focus groups. These are groups of students considered to be particularly relevant (Box A2.2). 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.

- **Comparisons over time are possible only for selected indicators:** For selected indicators, the Synopsis of Indicators undertakes a comparison between EUROSTUDENT V,

1 In the conference version, tables in chapter 7 and 8 are incomplete.
2 In the conference version, references are provided chapter-by-chapter.

EUROSTUDENT VI, and EUROSTUDENT VII data. However, such comparisons are not possible for all countries as changes in a target group or in a 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 to be particularly relevant for analysing different aspects of the social dimension of higher education.

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 tertiary education background without tertiary education background	Students are grouped according to the highest educational attainment of at least one of their parents. In EUROSTUDENT, students with 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), or a doctorate (level 8) or their national equivalent. In some countries, these national equivalents may not be considered to be a part of higher education (Box B2.1). Students without tertiary education background have parents whose highest educational degree 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 to be 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 chronical diseases, longstanding health problems, functional limitations, mental health problems, sensory, vision or hearing impairments, learning disabilities, and mobility impairments.

Name of variable	Values	Further explanation
Migration background	Students without 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, in order 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 of last attending the regular school system (Figure B1.1). Students without 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 paid job up to 20h/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.
Study conditions		
Field of study	education (incl. teacher training) arts and humanities engineering, manufacturing and construction social sciences, journalism and information business, administration, and law natural sciences, mathematics and statistics information and communication technologies (ICTs) agriculture, forestry, fishery and veterinary health and welfare services	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.

Name of variable	Values	Further explanation
Type of higher education institution (HEI)	university non-university	Types of higher education institutions are distinguished based on national legislation and understanding. If a distinction between types of higher education institutions exists within 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 which 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 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 higher education (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 used 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 of leaving the school system for the first time. International students are studying in the country of the survey and have left the school system for the first time outside of the country of the survey. That means the status as 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 have 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 have a delay of no more than 24 months between leaving school and entering HE. Delayed transition students have 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: www.eurostudent.eu/database

Any corrections possibly made to the data after the 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, will be directly downloaded by clicking on the download symbol in the top left-hand corner of each figure in the electronic version of the final Synopsis. Unfortunately, this function is not available yet for this conference version of the report.

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 joint 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 the 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 the calculation of indicators. The implementation and analysis of the national student surveys in line with the central conventions lies within the area of 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 bringing the knowledge of experts from different countries together. This enriches not only the project, but also ensures that its design is suitable for international comparative analyses and that country-specific context information is taken into account.

EUROSTUDENT participant countries

EUROSTUDENT VII data cover a large part of the EHEA: The participants reach 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 of about 270,000 students (> Appendix C5).

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.

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).

Figure A2.2 The EUROSTUDENT VII network

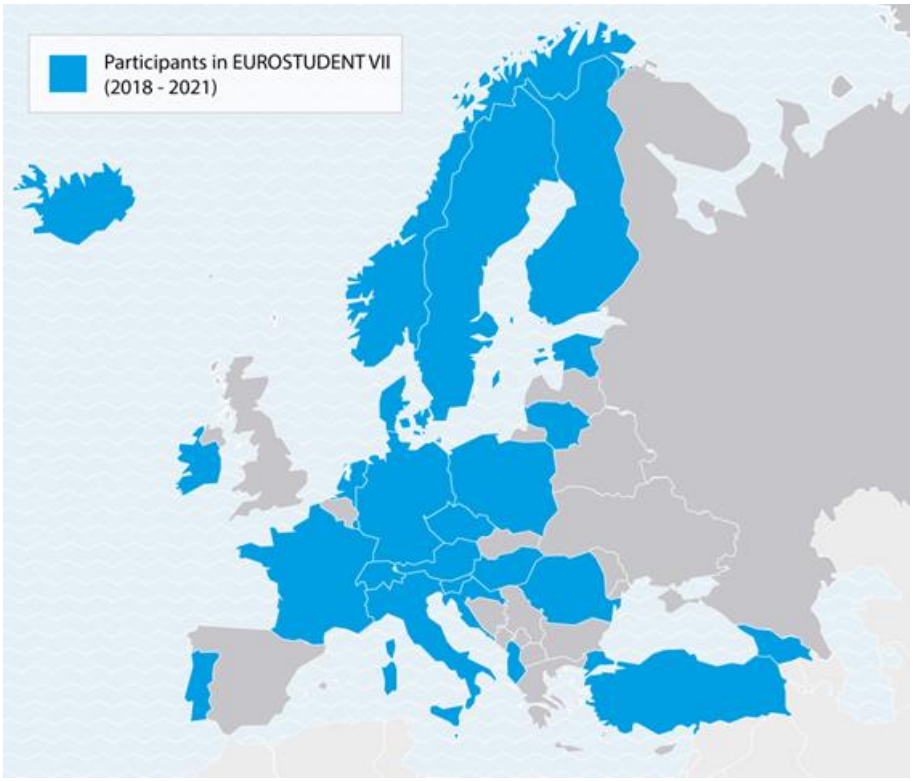

Table A2.2 EUROSTUDENT VII participant countries

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

*results included in finalised version of report (available at www.eurostudent.eu from September 2021)

**results included in database

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 Hanover, 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 middle- 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).

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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 involved network partners at ministries and research institutions in the 26 contributing countries (> Chapter 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 for gaining insight into the national and international contexts, and we sincerely thank 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. Great 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 the creation of 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, and Matthias Liedtke, all of whom supported the project in various ways and with great commitment.

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Chapter A3

General methodological notes

Data collection

EUROSTUDENT couples a central coordination approach with a strong network of national partners in each participant country (> Chapter 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 is checked in a series of feedback loops for accuracy and comparability and is 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 developed further and are the result of productive discussions during several project meetings, intensive seminars, and workshops which were 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 questions and instructions on adapting it, if necessary, to the national context. EUROSTUDENT employs so-called hashtags (#) to mark instances where the national teams needs to go beyond simple translation of the question by making adaptations to the particular national context. For example, '#common language(s)' would, in Germany, mean German, in Switzerland it would be German, French, Italian and Rhaeto-Romanic. This method is used to ensure that the resulting national questionnaires will be understandable and applicable to the students being surveyed in each country. The EUROSTUDENT VII questionnaire handbook is made available on the EUROSTUDENT website after the end of each project round.

Survey execution

The questionnaire handbook also provides 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 additionally provided the opportunity to present and discuss the plans for national implementation with other national teams and the EUROSTUDENT data team.

EUROSTUDENT target group

The EUROSTUDENT target group includes all students who are - at the time of observation (usually: semester) - enrolled in any national study programme regarded to be higher education in a country. Usually that 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 are 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 the students are enrolled in 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 HE system in the national context.

Excluded from the EUROSTUDENT target group are:

- students on (temporary) leave, i.e. 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), i.e. 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 which do not offer any physical face-to-face lecture period at all, 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 only for public administration.
- students in programmes classified as ISCED (2011) levels 5 or 6 which are not regarded to be higher education in the national context. This could encompass, for example, further vocational training programmes for Master crafts(wo)men, or upper-secondary schools or post-secondary programmes not regarded as higher education
- students enrolled in higher education but not entitled to finish a common programme. This might 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).

Notes on national samples and deviations from 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 know-how needed for employment in a particular occupation with high levels of expertise and/or managerial responsibility or for entry into a profession with high skills requirements. Professional programmes are typically provided by institutions or enterprises outside the university context and are dedicated for direct entrance into the labour market or are in relationship to an existing employment. Therefore these programmes are not included in the sample of the survey.

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

Czech Republic: No short-cycle programmes included in 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 are 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 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 are based on the German student survey conducted in 2016 (Sozialerhebung) and have been previously presented in the context of EUROSTUDENT VI. The final version of the Synopsis will additionally include updated indicators drawn from a survey conducted in the summer of 2020 for selected topics. The 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 included in sample as they do not exist or are not considered to be higher education.

Estonia: Short-cycle programmes, 'other' degrees (e.g., single subjects), short national degrees, and 'other' postgraduate degrees 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 refers to teaching universities and colleges. Teaching universities deliver only BA and MA level programmes (no doctoral programmes); colleges run only BA programmes. No distinction between full- and part-time students exists.

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 included in the sample. **This constitutes a deviation from the EUROSTUDENT target group.**

Iceland: No non-universities exist in Iceland.

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

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

The Netherlands: Long national degrees and 'other' postgraduate degrees not included in sample as they do not exist or are not considered to be higher education. 'Other' degrees (e.g., single subjects) not included in sample. No private institutions 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) not included in sample as they do not exist or are not considered to be higher education. 'Other' postgraduate degrees not included in sample. **This constitutes a deviation from the EUROSTUDENT target group.**

Sweden: No non-universities exist in Sweden.

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

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, GE, HR, HU, IE, IS, LT, LU, MT, NL, NO, PL, SE, SI	DK
Total number	20	1

*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. Chapter > C1 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 done 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 were 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 questionnaire or calculations are noted beneath each figure/table and explained in more detail in > Chapter C2.

Chapter B1

Characteristics of national student populations

Key findings

- **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 often found to be studying education or health and welfare than ICTs or engineering, manufacturing and construction.

- **Age of students:** Students' age varies widely across the EHEA. On average, 63 % of students are under the age of 25. Across countries, older students are more often found among those who entered higher education with a delay, or having 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, 12 % of students report having at least one child. Student parents are mainly found among relatively older students, particularly 30 years of age and older. Students with children are more often studying at non-universities and are more likely to be pursuing their studies with a low intensity, and having entered using alternative access routes.

- **Students with impairments**: Across EUROSTUDENT countries, 16 % 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 shares of students indicating feeling a lack of belonging in higher education are higher among students indicating an impairment than among their peers who do not.

- **Migration background**: On average, 13 % of students have a familial migration background and 10 % of students possess a foreign entry qualification, i.e., are international students. Compared to the population, students from the second generation of migrants, i.e., with at least one parent born abroad, are underrepresented on average, particularly those students with two foreign-born parents.

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 which 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 more 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 for a creation of an inclusive environment in higher education that fosters equity and diversity (BFUG Advisory Group on Social Dimension, 2020). Making education and training more inclusive and gender 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, e.g., 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, 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. Within this chapter, data on students' gender and age, students with children, students' migration background, and students with impairments is presented. The parental background of students and its implications is 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 education, and, to a lesser extent, in medicine and other health-related fields (Barone & Assirelli, 2020; OECD, 2017). These imbalances are carried on 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 allow for the 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' situation. 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 the 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 introduced by individual institutions as well as countries (Brooks, 2012a, 2012b), e.g. through the introduction of more flexible study paths. Corresponding to the varying average age of students and the associated relationship development, the share 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 earnings 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 students' impairment, higher education institutions may support a successful study in different ways. Systemic measures taken by higher education institutions 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 assistance, individual learning plans, learner support services, exam accommodations) (Collins et al., 2019). A recent systematic review has identified positive impacts 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 behavior 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 share of students self-reporting a disability, impairment, long-standing health problem, or functional limitation, as well as these students' assessments regarding their degree of social-academic integration 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). Particulary 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 a lower socio-economic background of students' parents (Oberdabernig & Schneebaum, 2017). Language skills as well as institutional hurdles based on legal status are additional factors of relevance with potentially negative effects for migrants' educational trajectories (Griga, 2013). Immigrants' educational aspirations, however, have been shown to be higher than their native counterparts in several studies (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 worse than those of the majority population; in fact, certain immigrant groups, e.g., Asians in the US, in fact routinely outperform it (van de Werfhorst & Heath, 2019).

EUROSTUDENT analyses focus on second-generation migrants – i.e., students with at least one parent born in another country (see Fig. 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 (see 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.

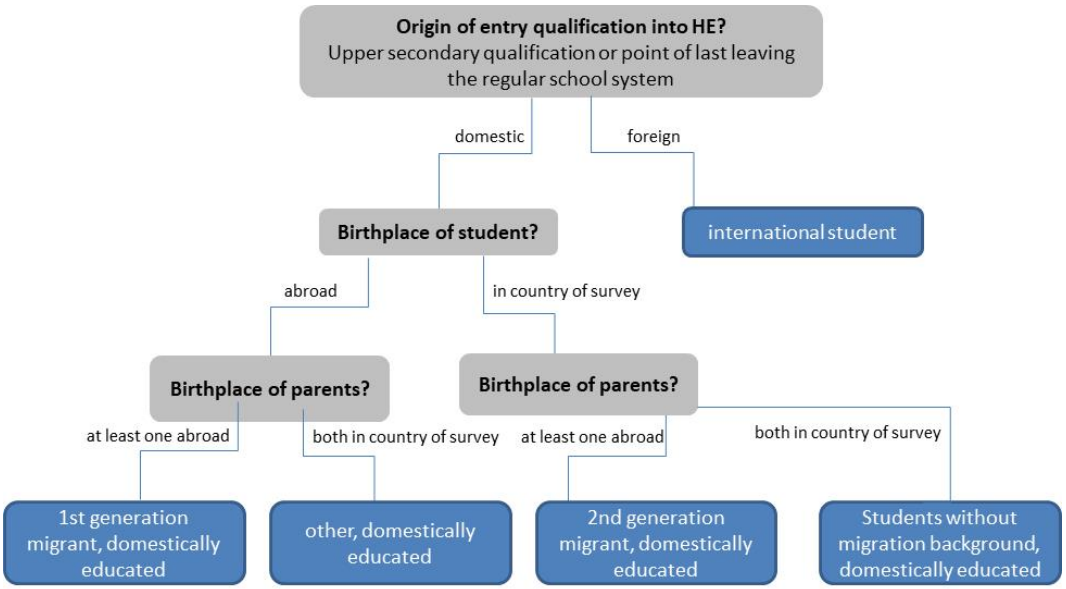
Methodological and conceptual notes

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, in order to be able to distinguish international students, EUROSTUDENT considers the place of attainment of the higher education entry qualification, or, in absence of this, the place of last attending the regular school system. Application of this scheme results in the following categories:

- Students without 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.

Figure B1.1 Concept of migration background in EUROSTUDENT



In addition, the EUROSTUDENT survey covers both students' as well as parents' citizenship in order to provide a slightly different perspective on students' background (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.

EUROSTUDENT does not collect information about students' reasons for migration, or any information about their official residency status. No distinction can be made between refugee

students and other students with 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 which is also used in official European statistics (Bogaert et al., 2018).

It should be noted that the measurement of 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.

Data and interpretation

Gender

In all EUROSTUDENT countries except Germany, women make up the majority of students in higher education (Table B1.1).

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

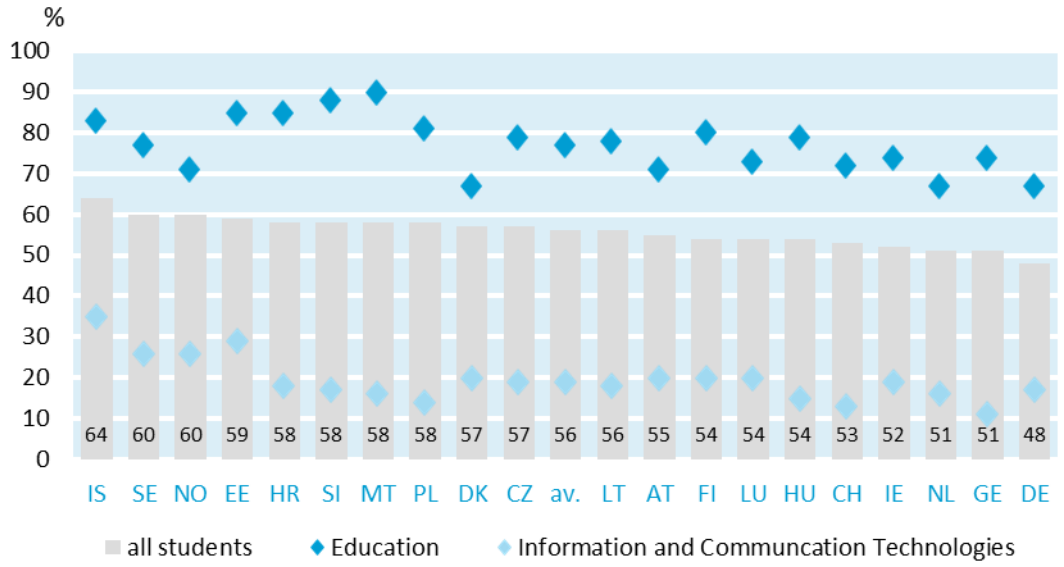
Similarly, no clear pattern can be observed regarding the gender balance in Bachelor's vs. Master's programmes. In twelve countries, the share of females between the two types of programmes does not differ by more than two percentage points in either direction.

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

Particularly striking is the large imbalance in gender in the different fields of study (Fig B1.2). Female students in all countries are much more often found to be studying in the field

[1] This represents a change from previous EUROSTUDENT rounds, where „students with impairments" referred to all students having indicated an impairment, regardless of the limitations experienced

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 (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: FI, SE.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

of education or health and welfare than in information and communication technologies or engineering, manufacturing and construction.

- Compared to the average share of females in the country, the overrepresentation of female students in education subjects is comparatively high in Malta and Slovenia, where the shares of female students in the field of education are more than 30 percentage points higher than the average share of female students.

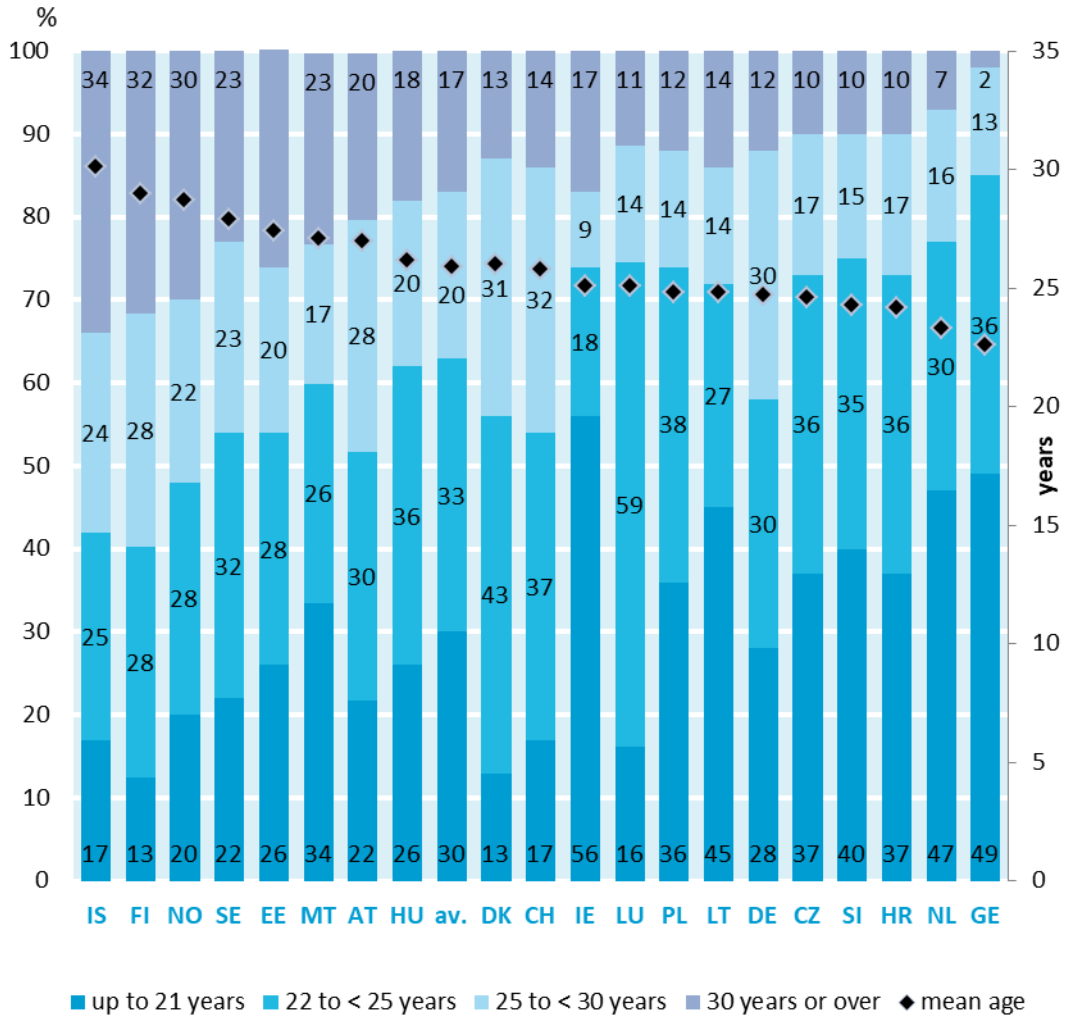
- The underrepresentation of female students in the field of ICTs is largest in Crotia, Slovenia, Malta, Poland, Swizerland, and Georgia. The shares of female students are between 40 and 44 percentage points lower among students of ICTs than on average in the country.

On average, female students tend to make up larger shares of students without tertiary education background - in the Czech Republic, Croatia, Iceland, Lithuania, Malta, and Poland, their share is at least 5 percentage points higher in this group (Table B1.1). The reversed pattern appears to emerge in Luxembourg, Denmark, and Georgia, but the difference between the groups is smaller than 3 percentage points.

In almost 70 % of countries, female students appear to have made use of direct transition routes into higher education to a greater extent than males (Table B1.1). In Austria, Georgia, Croatia, Ireland, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, and Norway, clearly higher shares of female students enter higher education directly after leaving school. In contrast, in Switzerland, Estonia, and Sweden, the shares of direct entrants are larger among men (Table B1.1). With regard to alternative vs. standard access routes, female students are (at least slightly) more often found having used standard access routes in all countries except Lithuania, Iceland, Switzerland, and Estonia. Especially in Austria, Slovenia, Croatia, and Georgia, the share of

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 (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: IS, NO, SE.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

females having entered through standard access routes is clearly higher than that of women having used non-traditional access routes (at least 13 percentage points higher).

With regard to migration background, no difference with regard to female students appears on average across countries (Table B1.1). However, looking into the pattern in more detail, it becomes clear that in many countries there are large differences in the shares of females between second generation migrant students who have been domestically educated and students without migration background.

In most countries, females are more likely to be living outside than parental home than with their parents (Table B1.1). The only exceptions to this pattern are Austria, Georgia, Luxembourg, and Malta.

Age

Students' age varies widely across the EHEA. On average, 63 % of students are under the age of 25 (Figure B1.3).

- In Iceland, Finland, and Norway, students ages 30 and up make up the largest part of the student population. Roughly a third of students in these countries has celebrated their 30th birthday. At most 20 % students are in the age group up to 21 years.
- In Malta, Ireland, Lithuania, the Czech Republic, Slovenia, Croatia, the Netherlands, and Georgia, in contrast, the youngest student group is the largest: roughly between a third and half 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 average age of students' varies between under 24 years in Georgia and the Netherlands and between 28 and 30 years in Iceland, Finland, and Norway (Figure B1.3). Older students can generally be found among those who entered higher education with a delay, or having entered using alternative access routes (Table B1.3). Relatedly, students without tertiary education background – who more often 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 often living away from the parental home, and more often on their own income, rather than on their family or public support (Table B1.3, see also Chapters 7 and 9). Among other issues, this finding is likely related to eligibility criteria preventing them receiving financial support from the state.

Students with children

Across EUROSTUDENT countries, the share of students who are parents varies widely (Fig B1.4). On average, 12 % 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 B1.4)

- 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, and the Netherlands.
- The largest shares of student parents among first year students – i.e., 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 the student parents report their youngest child to be below the age of six (Fig B1.4).

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

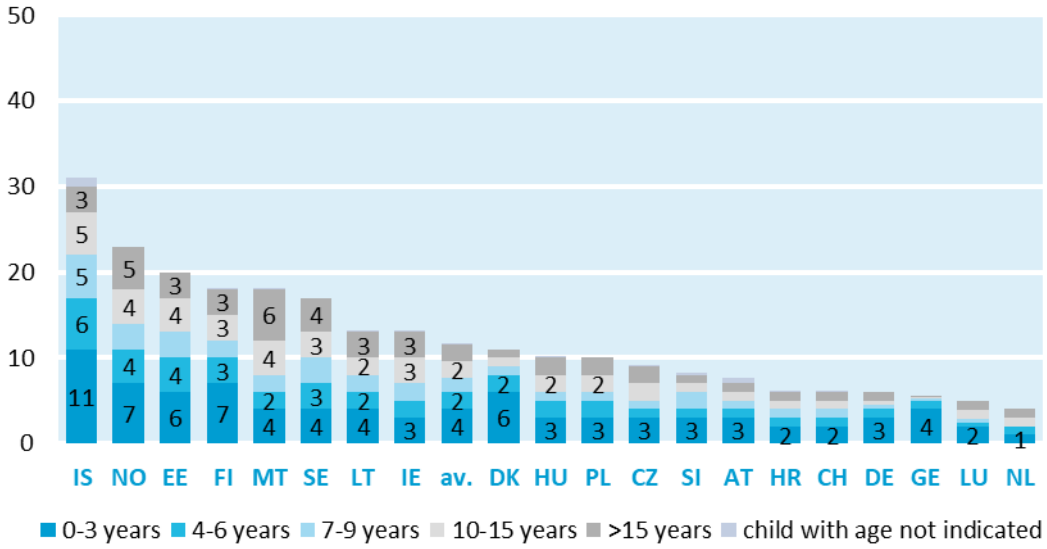
[2] In Germany, an equal share of students (30 %) is between the ages of 25-29.

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).

- In Denmark, Estonia, Georgia, Iceland, and Lithuania, 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.

Figure B1.4 Students with children by age of youngest child

Share of students in (in %)



Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, A.1.

EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 6.1 When were you born?

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: AT, SE:.

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

The share of students having entered using alternative access routes 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 are more often studying at non-universities and are more likely to be pursuing their studies with a low intensity. Being a parent is more common among female students than among males in a majority of countries.

Students with impairments

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 nine per cent in Georgia 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, this is the case in Iceland, Finland, Norway, Sweden, and the Netherlands.
- In Germany, Estonia, Georgia, and Hungary, and on the other hand, the share of students indicating a limiting impairment lies beneath ten percent.

Figure B1.5 Students at least somewhat limited in their studies due to a health impairment
Share of students (in %)

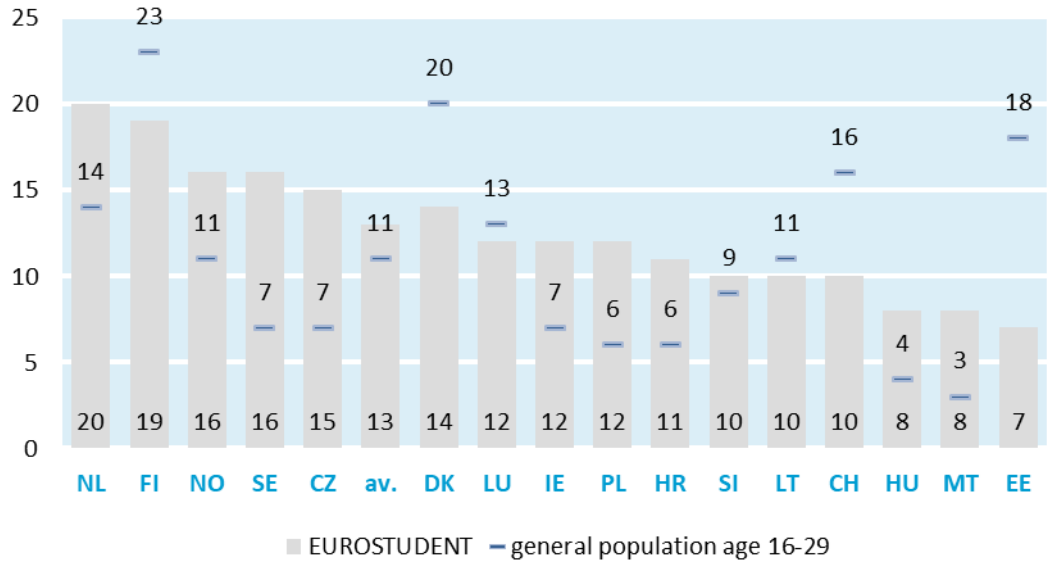
Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, A.4.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 6.10 Please indicate if you have a disability, impairment, long-standing health problem, functional limitation or learning disability. 6.12 Due to your impairment(s) to what extent are you limited in in your studies?
Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: AT, CH, DE, SE, SI.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

As noted in this chapter's methodological and conceptual notes, however, cross-country comparisons using shares of impairment are of limited comparability and, therefore, should not be over-interpreted. Regardless of the shares 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 or physical chronic diseases (> 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 most-often named impairments by students are physical chronic diseases.
- In Luxembourg, Malta, Estonia, the Netherlands, Ireland, Denmark, Sweden, and Iceland, the largest share of students reports having mental health problems compared to other types of impairments.
- In Croatia, the Czech Republic, and Hungary, students most often indicate 'other long-standing health problems/ functional limitations/ impairments', and in Slovenia, the shares for physical chronic diseases and mental health problems are equal.

The types of impairment students have are therefore not necessarily visible or known about by their higher education institution, teachers, and fellow students. This is reflected in students' assessment of the noticeability of their impairment: on average across EUROSTUDENT countries, 72 % of students report their impairment is not noticeable, and a further 22 %

Figure B1.6 Students with impairments in EUROSTUDENT and the general population
Share of respondents indicating to be severely or somewhat severely limited in their daily life by an impairment (in %)



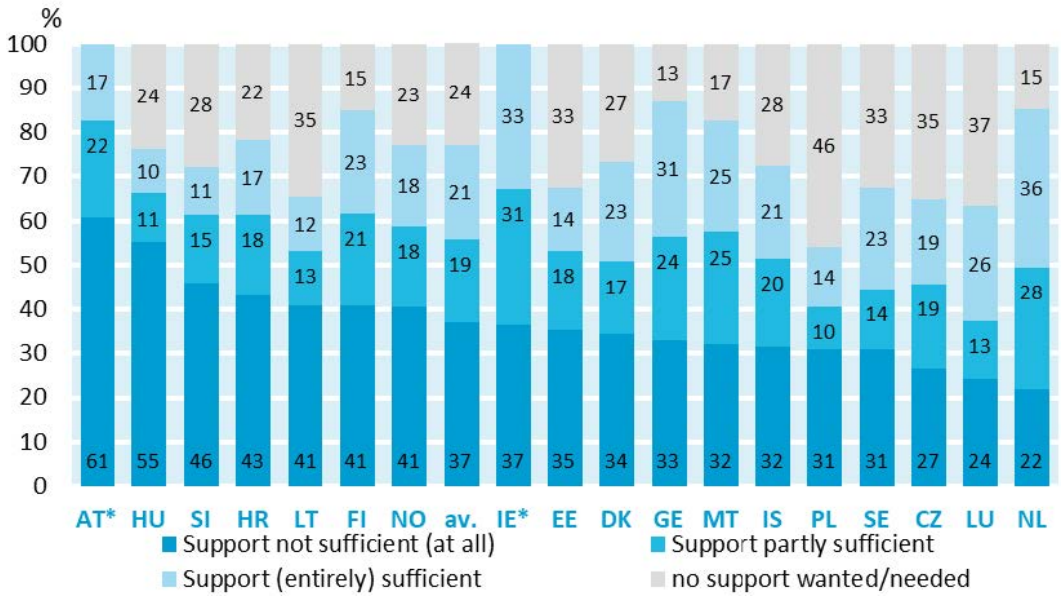
Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, A.8. Eurostat: EU-SILC 2019 [hlth_silc_07], age group16-29. No data: AT, DE. No EU-SILC data: GE, IS.
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 6.12 Due to your impairment(s) to what extent are you limited in activities people usually do?
Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: CH, SE, SI.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

believe it is only noticeable after some time (> database). Only seven per cent of students indicate 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 in their daily life somewhat more frequently at 13 % vs 11 % (Figure B1.6). There is no clear pattern across countries, however:

- Clearly higher shares 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 shares of students with limiting impairments are roughly 1.5 to two times higher than among the general population.
- In Denmark, Switzerland, and Estonia, the shares of students with an impairment limiting their daily activities are below 75 % of the respective shares in the general population.
- In Finland, Luxembourg, Slovenia, and Lithuania, comparable shares of students and general population respondents indicate being limited by an impairment in their daily life (80 % -115 %).

On average, across EUROSTUDENT countries, 37 % of students with impairments rate the public and institutional support they receive to be not (entirely) sufficient (Figure B1.7). 19 % of students find the support to be at least partly sufficient, and 21 % judge it to be (entirely) sufficient. Around a quarter of students with impairments (24 %) indicate not wanting or needing any support.

Figure B1.7 Impaired students' assessment of the public and institutional support
Share of students with impairments that are at least somewhat limiting (in %)



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

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 (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: AT, IE.

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

- Comparatively large shares of students dissatisfied with the support they receive can be found in Austria, Hungary, Slovenia, Croatia, Lithuania, Finland, and Norway, where this applies to more than 40 % of students.

- In Ireland, Georgia, and the Netherlands, more than 30 % of students are satisfied with the public and institutional support they receive.

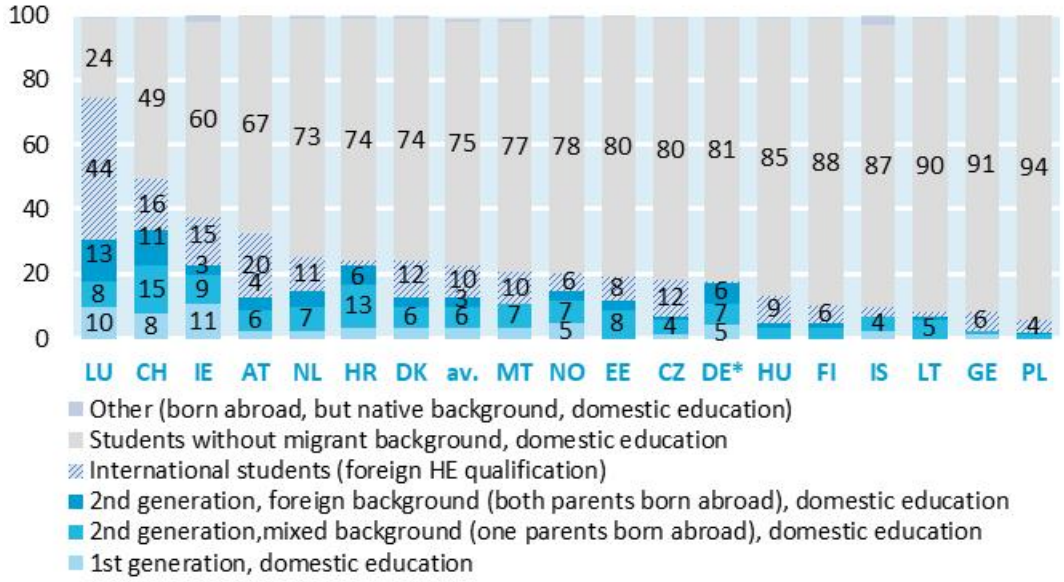
Finally, previous EUROSTUDENT analyses (Hauschildt, Gwosc, Schirmer, & Cras, 2020) have indicated that higher education in the EHEA is apparently not always a welcoming environment for students with impairments. This finding still holds: In all analysed countries, the shares of students indicating they 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 they do not belong in higher education – this share is 11 percentage points higher than among students without an impairment.

Migration background

On average, across EUROSTUDENT countries, 14 % of students have a familial migration background, and 10 % of students possess a foreign entry qualification, i.e., are international students (Figure B1.8). Among domestically educated students with parents born abroad, 2nd generation students with one or both parents born abroad outnumber 1st 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, the Netherlands, Denmark, and Croatia. In

Figure B1.8 Migration and education background of students
Share of students (in %)



Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, A.18. **No data:** 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 (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: DK, NO.

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

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.

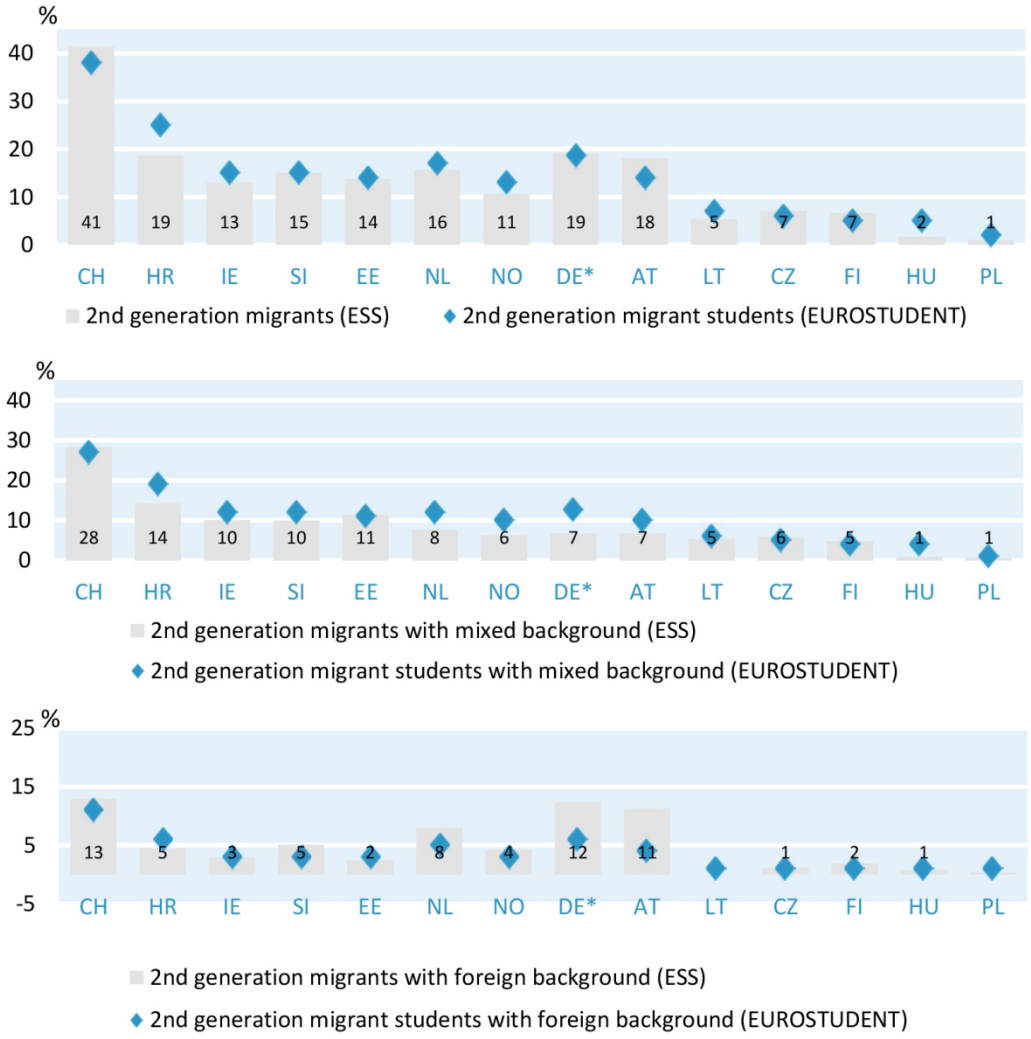
- Lithuania, Georgia, and Poland are relatively homogenous with regard to students' international background with at most ten percent of students having an international family or educational background.

Table B1.6 shows that the shares of students with (only) foreign citizenship are lower than those of students with any kind of migration background in all countries. This is due to the fact that students' migration background is a more encompassing concept than students' citizenship, as it also takes into account students' parents. Unsurprisingly, students holding only foreign citizenship are mainly found in the group of international students, among whom this applies to 74 % to 96 % of students in all countries but two. Among first-generation migrants with a national education background, on average 38 % of students do not possess 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.

Compared to the general population (FigureB1.9), on average, about as many students from the second generation of migrants, i.e., with at least one parent born abroad, are found among higher education students as would be expected.

Figure B1.9 Migration and education background of students

Share of students (in %)



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

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

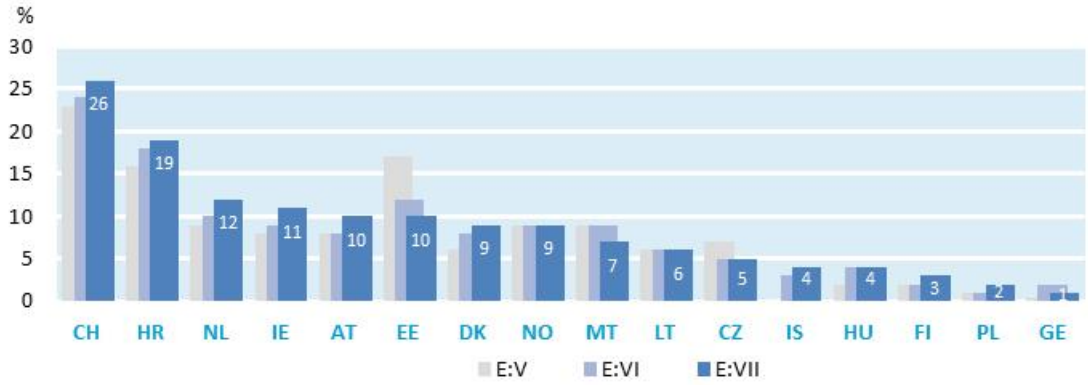
Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: DK, NO.

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

- The shares are relatively equal in Switzerland, Slovenia, Estonia, the Netherlands, and Germany.
- In Croatia, Ireland, Norway, Lithuania, and, particularly, Hungary and Poland more second-generation migrants are found among higher education students than among the population aged 15-26.
- In Austria and Finland, an underrepresentation can be observed: here, the share of second-generation students only reaches at most 80 % of the population level.

Figure B1.10 Students with migration background in EUROSTUDENT V, VI, and VII
Share of students in %



Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, A.18. No data: E:VII: DE, SE, SI. E:VI: LU.
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 (spring 2020).
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: DK, NO.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

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

Over time, the share 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 (eight percent in EUROSTUDENT V & VI, 9 % in E:VII), a slow increase in shares can be observed in all countries except Estonia, the Czech Republic, and Malta, where a slight decrease can be observed. No changes in the share of migrants is apparent in Norway and Lithuania, and Georgia shows an inconclusive pattern across the three rounds.

Discussion and policy considerations

As the Principles and Guidelines to Strengthen the Social Dimension of Higher Education in the EHEA (BFUG Advisory Group on Social Dimension, 2020) highlight, data on students' background characteristics is highly relevant in order to create awareness and, in turn, 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 in order to enable higher education institutions to create inclusive learning environments which adequately address and support students (BFUG Advisory Group on Social Dimension, 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, average student age may differ by up to six years. Relatedly, the shares of student who are parents vary greatly; however, on average across countries, more than half of all students over the age of 30 indicate having children. Similarly, while shares of

students indicating an impairment vary greatly across countries, a common finding is that in almost all EUROSTUDENT countries, the types of impairment most often reported are either mental health issues or physical chronic diseases. Also with regard to the share of students with migration bacgkround, there is a large variation: while there are countries with more than 90 % of students with a national family background and domestic education, Luxembourg, Ireland, Austria, and Switzerland stand out as countries with a particularly large share of students (> 30 %) who have some kind of international background (either being migrants or international students). With regard to gender, the persisting gender divide by subject, in which men more often pursue ICTs subjects, whereas women are more often enrolled in education found across all countries is particularly striking.

Understanding the needs of specific student groups in order to develop adequate policies and measures at the European, national, and institutional level to address them remains highly relevant. Examples for 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' background, for example, 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 individualized experiences. For example, it has been argued that students from lower socioeconomic 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 and take into account the fact that, as the student population as a whole, the intended target group is not homogenous, but made up of students with a variety of intersecting identities. An equitable and inclusive earning 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 Share of female students by type of HEIs, study programme, field of study, educational background, migration background, entry qualification, and housing situation
Share of students in %

	Female students	Type of HEI		Study pro-gramme		Field of study				Ed. back-ground		Tran-sition duratio n		Migration backgr.		Access route		Living situation	
		University	Non-University	Bachelor	Master	education	ICTs	Eng., manufact. & construction	Health & welfare	Non-tert. ed. backgr.	Tertiary ed. backgr.	Direct transition	Delayed transition	2nd gen migrant, domestic ed.	w/o migration backgr., domestic ed.	Alternative access	Standard access	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
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**	**54**	**55**	**57**	**77**	**19**	**27**	**73**	**58**	**55**	**56**	**54**	**56**	**56**	**51**	**56**	**53**	**57**

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 (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: FI, SE.

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

Table B1.2 Age profile of students and mean age by sex, type of HE, and study programme
Share of students in %, mean age in years

								Sex		Type of HEI		Study programme	
	up to 21 years	22 to <25 years	25 to <30 years	30 years or over	Mean	SD	Median	Female	Male	University	Non-university	Bachelor	Master
AT	22	30	28	20	27	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	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	24.4	24.9	24.7	24.7	23.8	26.8
DK	13	43	31	13	26	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	26.7	27.1	28.7	26.2	31.3
FI	13	28	28	32	29	8.2	26.3	29.3	28.5	28.3	29.5	28	31.8
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	27.6
IE	56	18	9	17	25.1	8.7	21.6	25.1	25	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	24.4	24.4	25.6	24	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	23.7	23	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.	**30**	**33**	**20**	**17**	**25.9**	**6.8**	**23.8**	**26.0**	**25.9**	**25.6**	**26.6**	**24.7**	**29.1**

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 (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

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

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

Table B1.3 Students' mean age by study intensity, education 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			Employment situation		Access route		Living situation	
	Low intensity	High intensity	Without tertiary ed. background	With tertiary ed. background	Direct	delayed	Dependent on family	Dependent on self-earned income	Dependent on public student support	No paid emplyoment during semester	Employed during semester >20h/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
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.	**28.0**	**24.8**	**27.2**	**25.1**	**24.7**	**32.6**	**24.5**	**28.6**	**24.1**	**24.4**	**30.6**	**31.0**	**25.4**	**23.2**	**27.4**

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 (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

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

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, 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	0.5	0.5	1.0	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
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.	**12**	**1.9**	**2.0**	**0.9**	**4**	**2**	**2**	**2**	**2**	**0.0**

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

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 (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: AT, SE.

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE; 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	Students' age				Sex		Type of HEI		Study pro-gramme		Study intensity		Access route		Study progress	
		< 22 years	22 to 24 years	25 to 29 years	30 years and older	female	male	university	non-university	Bachelor	Master	low intensity (< 20h/wk)	high intensity (>40h/week)	alternative access route	standard access route	first-year students	2nd year & 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
GE	5	3	4	15	23	5	5	5	6	5	13	6	4	4	5	2	6
HR	4	0	0.4	3	37	5	4	3	9	5	5	9	1	14	4	3	5
HU	11	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.	**12**	**0.3**	**1**	**9**	**52**	**14**	**9**	**10**	**15**	**10**	**17**	**18**	**8**	**29**	**10**	**7**	**13**

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

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 (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: AT, SE.

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

Table B1.6 Students with foreign citizenship, by migration background
Share of students in %

	All students	2nd generation migrants (at least one parent born abroad)	1st gen., national ed. background	Students without migrant background, national ed. background	International students (foreign HE qualifi-cation)	Other (born abroad, but native background, national ed. 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
GE	7	0	100	0.0	92	0
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**	**7**	**1**	**38**	**0.3**	**76**

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

Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, A.17.

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

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: NO, SE.

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

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Chapter B2

Socio-economic background of students

Key findings

- **Education of students' parents:** On average, slightly more than half of students' parents hold a tertiary degree at ISCED levels 6-8 (51 %). Large shares of students whose parents have not attended tertiary education can be found in Malta, Croatia, Poland, the Czech Republic, and Luxembourg – between half and roughly two-thirds of students' parents do not hold a tertiary degree in these countries.

- **Representation of students by education 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. Relatedly, in all countries, these students have more often entered higher education with a delay of at least 24 months after leaving school, and, in all but one country, through alternative access routes.

- **Study situation of students' without tertiary educated parents:** In the vast majority of countries, students without 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 share 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 all countries), these students indicate a lower sense of belongingness in higher education. Neither students' drop-out intentions nor study performance vary in the same way 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 commit 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), i.e., 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" (BFUG Advisory Group on Social Dimension, 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, 2020b; 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, i.e. with regard to types of higher education institutions, degrees, or study fields. Past EUROSTUDENT studies confirm these findings, i.e., that students without higher education background more often found 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, pp. 21–22; Triventi, 2014).

Beyond entry and attainment, students of low social origin are reported to experience less smooth trajectories through higher education (Haas & Hadjar, 2020, p. 1099), 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 are related, on the one hand, the potential direct financial support students may receive from their parents and may also, on the other hand, lend students' 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 higher education background from developing a feeling of belongingness 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 which extent equitable conditions exist and to which 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 tertiary education background in the EUROSTUDENT countries?
- In which 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 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, 2014).

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

Calculating representation indices

As an indicator for the representation of students from different education backgrounds, the actual shares of students from a particular group are set against the share 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 share of students with fathers with a certain education background, e.g. without higher education, against the share 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 shares 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, e.g., if the share of 40-59-year-olds that attended 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 take into account 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 – shares of young people from specific education 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 education 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 makes use of 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 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. Detailed information on the exact national qualifications behind each ISCED level can found in the ISCED mappings: http://uis.unesco.org/en/isced-mappings .

The aggregation applied in EUROSTUDENT into "without tertiary education background" and "with 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 to be higher education in

[2] This presents a change from previous rounds of EUROSTUDENT.

one country and as vocational training in the other remains[3]. Differences also exist relating to the implementation and status of short-cycle qualifications (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2020b)[4] and concerning the coding of parental degrees that are no longer awarded.

In order to enable comparisons with external data sources such as the Labour Force Survey, the ISCED classification has been applied despite these caveats. Some countries, however, may deviate from the focus group definition (Box B2.1).

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 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 higher education in all countries. May include vocationally oriented programmes typically not considered to be HE within a country.	tertiary education (ISCED 5-8)	with 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 within 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 to be 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 to be higher education either).

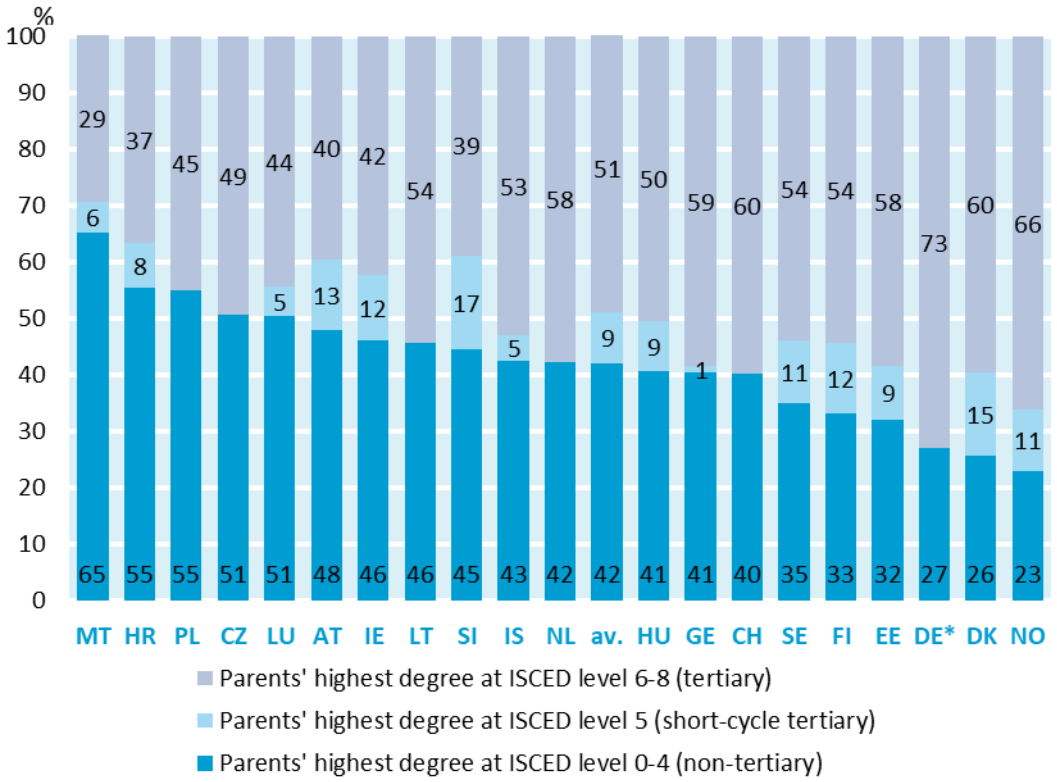
[4] For example, in Austria, a qualification attained at a college for higher vocational education ("Berufsbildende Höhere Schulen") is at ISCED level 5, but is not typically regarded as higher education in Austria.

[5] In previous rounds: without higher education background

[6] In previous rounds: with higher education background

Data and interpretation

Figure B2.1 Educational attainment of students' parents
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 (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

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

Educational background

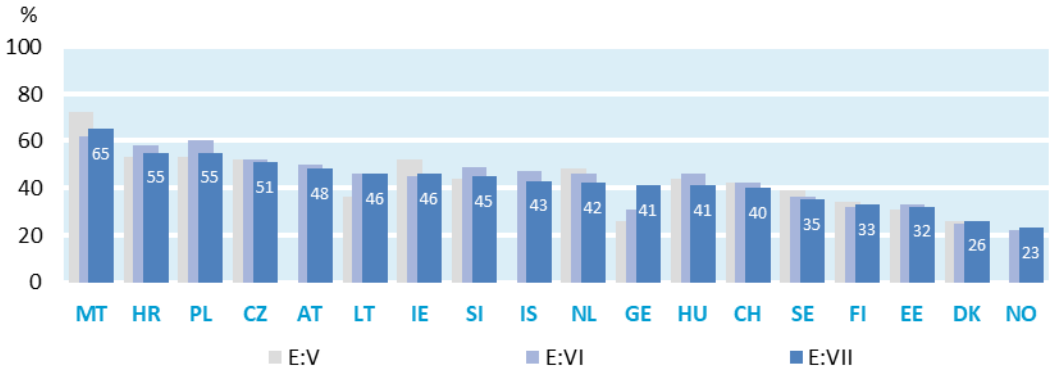
EUROSTUDENT data show a large variation in the educational background of students (Figure B2.1). On average, slightly more than half of students' parents hold a tertiary degree at ISCED levels 6-8 (51 %). Across EUROSTUDENT countries, the share of students with parents whose highest educational attainment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

- Large shares of students whose parents have not attended tertiary education can be found in Malta, Croatia, Poland, the Czech Republic, and Luxembourg – between half and roughly two-thirds of students' parents do not hold a tertiary degree in these countries.

- In Sweden, Finland, Estonia, Germany, Denmark, and Norway, this applies to only 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 becomes apparent (Fig B2.2).

Figure B2.2 Educational attainment of students' parents in EUROSTUDENT V, V, and VII
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 for E:VII: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).
Deviation from EUROSTUDENT target group: DE, IE, 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, and Norway, where the shares of students without tertiary education background change by at most two percentage points across rounds mostly without a clear direction.

- In Iceland, Malta, Ireland, the Netherlands, and Sweden, decreasing shares of students whose parents did not attend tertiary education becomes apparent, with the current EUROSTUDENT round registering shares at least four percentage points lower than in EUROSTUDENT V.

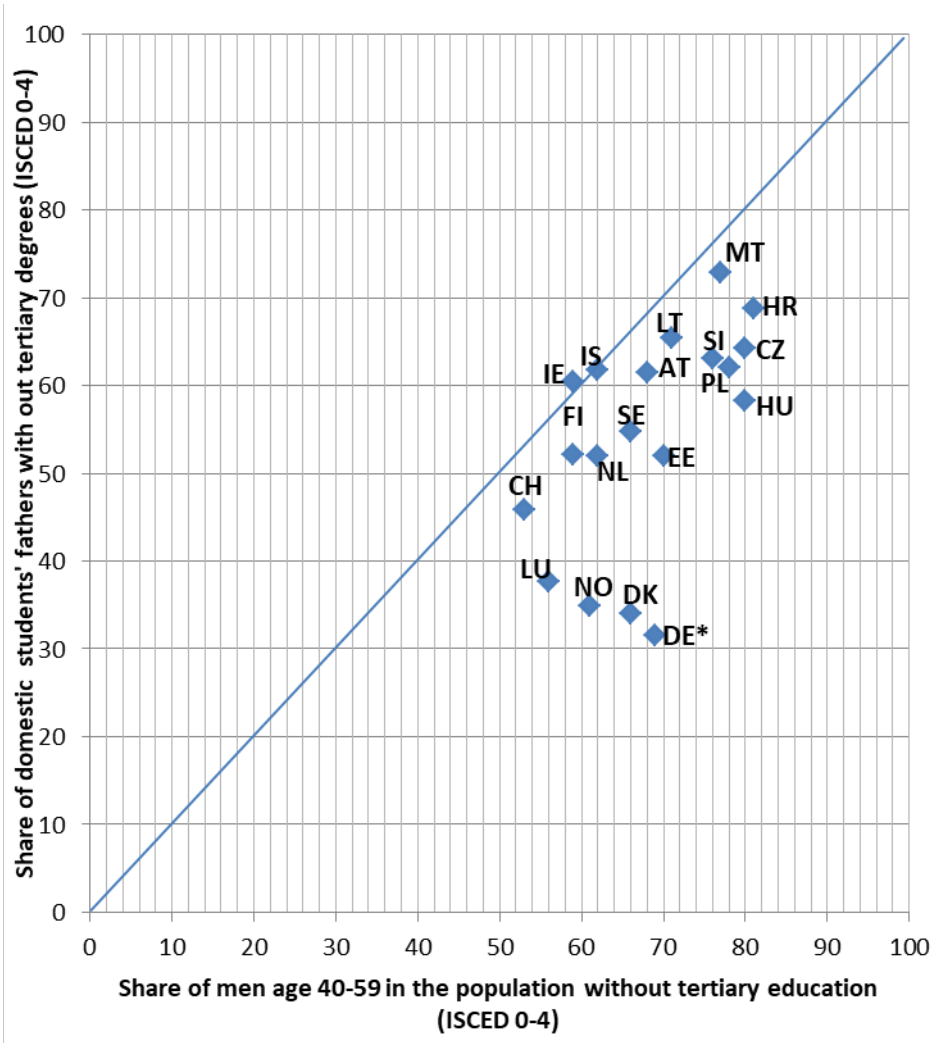
- Lithuania and Georgia show a strong rising trend over the three rounds, with shares of students without tertiary background increasing. In Croatia, Poland, Slovenia,and Hungary, no clear pattern can be determined over the three rounds.

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, Austria, and Lithuania, 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 the fathers' generation.

Figure B2.3 Representation of domestic students with parents not holding a tertiary degree (based on fathers' educational attainment)

Share of students in %



Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, D.2. Share of men age 40 – 59 in population: EU-LFS 2019 (DE: 2016) [lfsa_pgaed].

EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 7.1 What is the highest level 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 share of students' fathers who have not attained tertiary education (ISCED 5 – 8) with the corresponding share 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 attain-ment 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 can be influenced by several factors, e.g. the age distribution of students' parents, reproductive patterns.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

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

- In Estonia, Hungary, Luxembourg, Norway, Denmark, and Germany, less than three quarters of the expected share of students with fathers who did not attend tertiary education are currently enrolled in higher education.

- In Finland, Switzerland, Croatia, the Netherlands, Slovenia, Sweden, the Czech Republic, and Poland, between 80 and 90 % of the expected shares of domestically educated students from non-tertiary backgrounds students can be found.

- In Iceland and Ireland, the share 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.

Despite different levels of representation, common patterns emerge across countries with regard to students with 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 shares of students aged 30 and older than among students in the youngest age group up to 21 years (Table B2.2). Relatedly, in all countries, these students have more often 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 shares 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 migration background of domestic students, however – on average across countries, slightly higher shares of students without tertiary educated parents are found among domestically educated students with no migration background, but this pattern is clearly reversed in Germany, Denmark, Georgia, Croatia, Luxembourg, and the Netherlands, where the shares 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 migration background (Table B2.2). In the vast majority of countries, students without 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, likely due to the higher extent of employment they typically engage in to finance their studies (Table B2.3; > Chapter B6). Students without 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).

Parental financial status

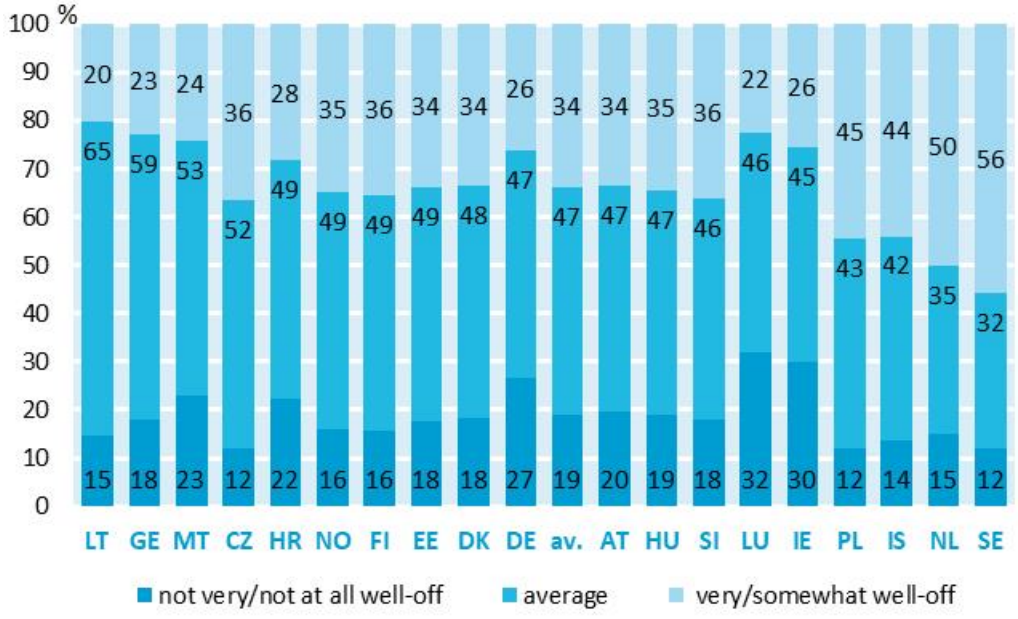
Students' self-assessment of their family's financial status places themselves firmly in the 'average' category in the large majority of countries. Across countries, almost half of all students (47 %) indicate their family's financial status to be average. Roughly a third (34 %) of students indicate their family to be not (at all) well-off, and around every fifth student (19 %) rates their family to be very or somewhat well-off (Figure B2.4).

- In Malta, Georgia, Lithuania, and the Czech Republic, students who rate their parents to be 'averagely' well-off make up the majority with respective shares of over 50 %

- Luxembourg, Ireland, and Germany register the highest shares 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 Iceland, Poland, Sweden, and the Czech Republic, fewer than 15 % of students rate their parents to be not well-off.

- In the Netherlands, Poland, Iceland, and Sweden, the highest shares of students with very or somewhat well-off families can be found: this applies to at least 40 % of students here.

Figure B2.4 Students' assessment of parents' financial status
Share of students in %



Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, D.4.

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 DE (summer 2016).

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

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

A clear relationship between parental education and family financial status is apparent (Figure B2.5). On average, the share 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 %). In contrast, the share of students indicating their family to be not well-off is only half as large (13 % vs. 27 %). A comparable pattern is found in every country with the exception of Luxembourg.

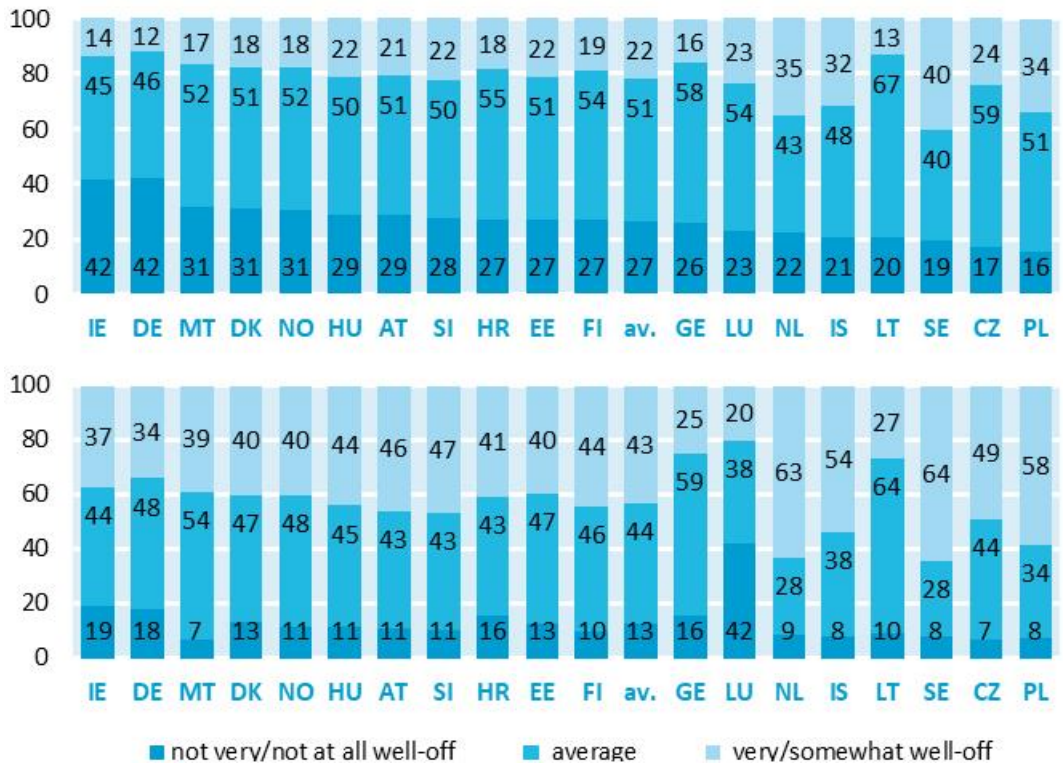
Subjective experience

Turning to the differences between students form different educational backgrounds regarding their more subjective experiences, a clear difference 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 share is considerably lower at 62 %, and clearly higher among students with high education background (81 %). Such a difference can be found to varying extent in all countries, with between 7 and 36 percentage points more students with highly educated parents having had a clear study intention than their counterpart with low education background. Students whose parents have a medium level of educational attainments tend to fall in the middle.

- Large differences in study intention between students from low and high education background are found in Croatia, the Czech Republic, Austria, Iceland, and Finland. In these countries, the share of students from high education background with a clear study

intention is at least 25 percentage points higher than among students with low education background.

Figure B2.5 Students' assessment of parents' financial status by educational background
Share of students in %



Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, D.4. No data: CH.
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 DE (summer 2016).
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: DK, GE, HR, NO.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

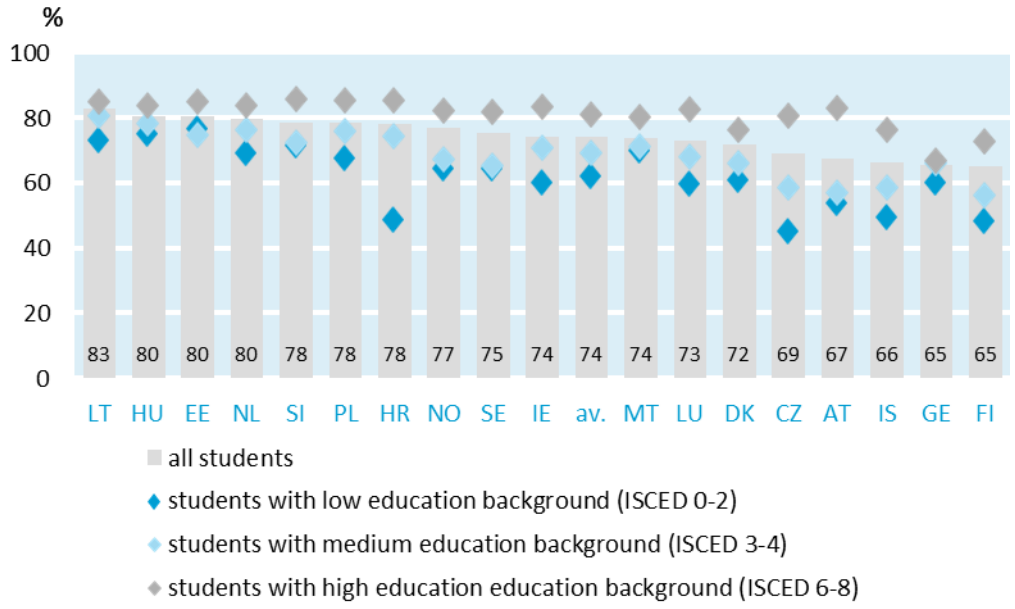
- In Hungary, Estonia, Malta, and Georgia, on the other hand, the differences between the two groups are relatively small and do not exceed 10 percentage points.

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

- 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 education background than among students from medium or high education background.

- In the Czech Republic and Switzerland, students' feeling of belonging also increases with parental education, but the differences between groups are smaller.

Figure B2.6 Clearness of study intention by educational background
Share of students with clear study intention in %



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

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.

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: DK.

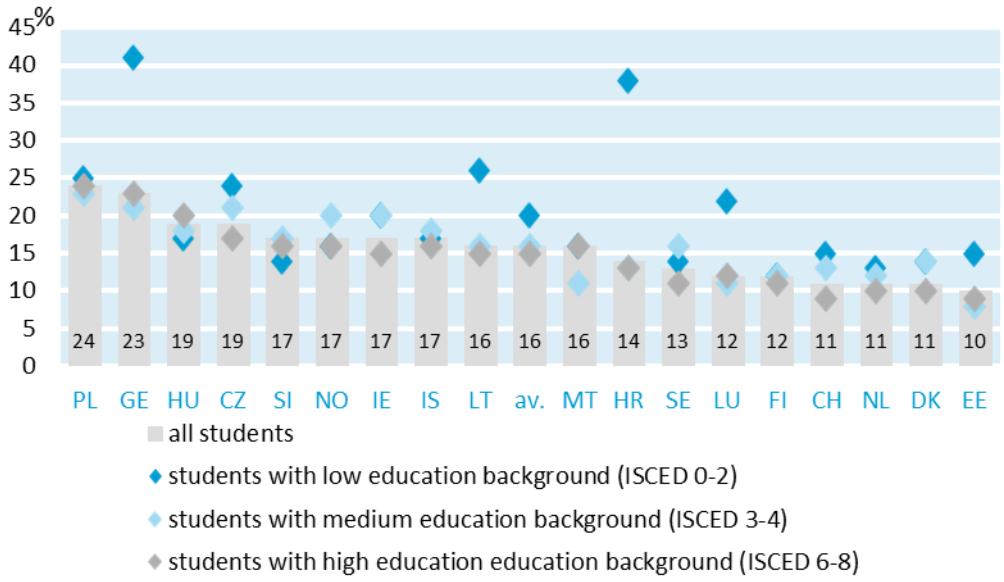
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

- In Ireland and Denmark, no difference between students with low and medium education background is found, but students with high education background less often report doubting their belonging in higher education.
- In Poland, Hungary, Iceland, Finland, and the Netherlands, only small, if any, differences between students from different educational backgrounds exist with regard to their feelings of belonging in higher education.
- In Slovenia, Norway, Malta, and Sweden, students from medium education backgrounds stand out: in Malta, they least often doubt their belongingness in higher education compared to students from low and high education backgrounds; in the remaining countries, they particularly often report feeling they do not belong.

With regard to students' performance, no differences between students with different parental education backgrounds are apparent on average across countries (Figure B2.8). In all three groups, 13 % of students rate their performance to be 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 Austria, Luxembourg, and Malta, students with low education background more often rate their performance to be worse than their peers' than students with medium and high education background. In the Netherlands and Georgia, the data suggest a similar pattern, but the differences between groups are not as large.

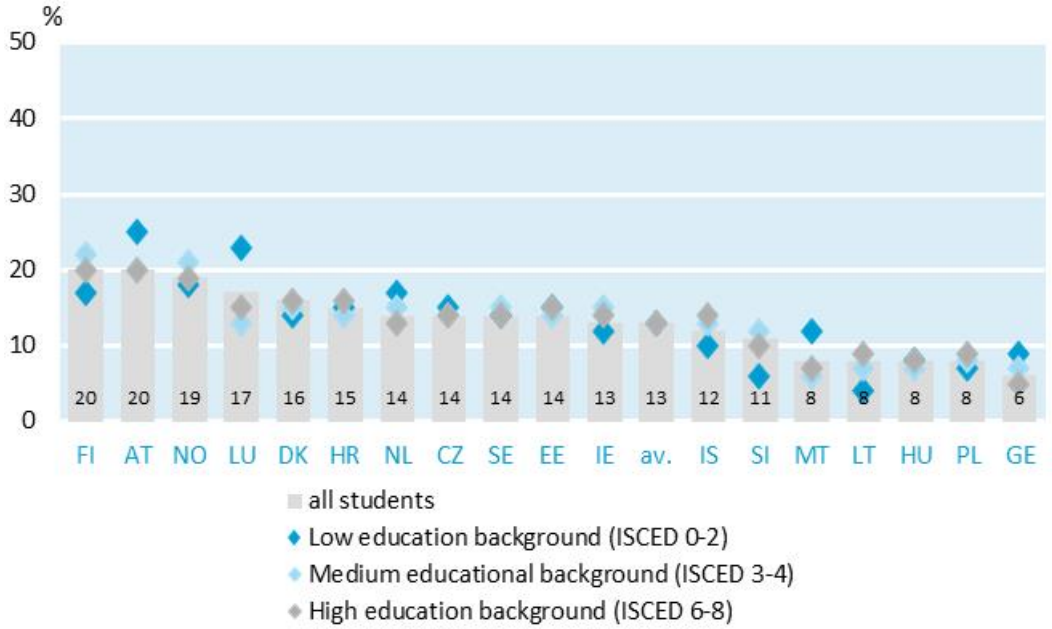
Figure B2.7 Students' sense of lack of belonging by educational background
(Strong) agreement with the statement "I often have the feeling that I don't really belong in higher education"
Share of students, in %



Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, C.23. No data: AT, DE.
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.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: DK.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

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

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.

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 to be somewhat or much worse.

Data collection: Spring 2019.

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

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

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

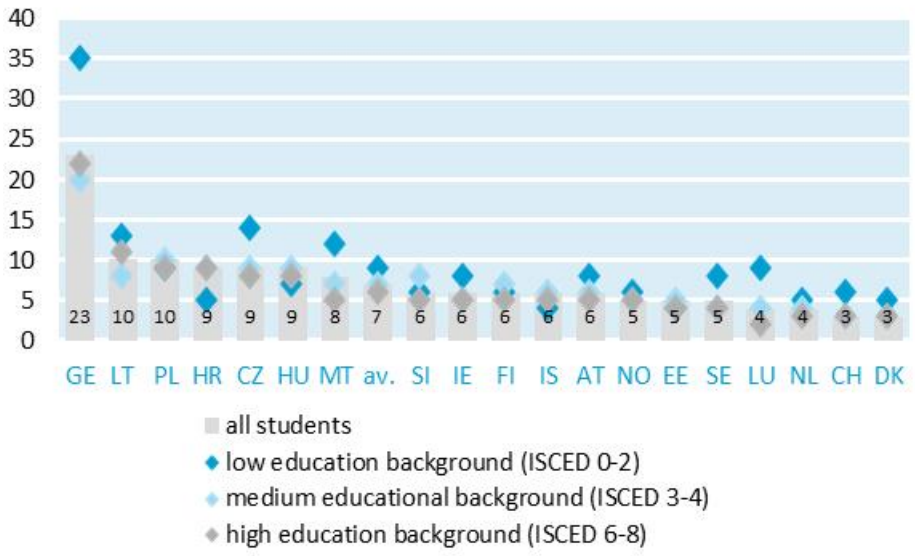
- In Georgia, the Czech Republic, Malta, Ireland, Sweden, and Luxembourg, students whose parents have attained a low level of education distinctly more often consider abandoning their studies: average agreement with this statement is at least 3 percentage points higher in the group with low education background than among their peers whose parents have attained a medium or high level of education.

- In Lithuania, Austria, the Netherlands, Switzerland, and Denmark, the data suggest a similar pattern, but the differences between groups are not as large.

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

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

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:** DE.
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 (reponse options 4+5 on a five-point scale).
Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2020).
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: DK, EE.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

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 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 that 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, still often differs from that of their peers with tertiary-educated parents. In some countries, this appears to result in less socio-economically advantaged students doubting whether higher education is the right choice for them.

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 more often make 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, and offer more practically oriented degrees which are particularly attractive to returning life-long learners and students with work experience. These institutions and programmes seem to provide particularly attractive opportunities for students without 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. One the one hand, the finding that certain degrees and institutions serve particularly large shares of disadvantaged students represent a success in widening access, but they also point 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 tertiary background tend to rely on public support 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 supporting access and completion 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 needs-based support of sufficient size. The fact that students whose parents have a low level of educational attainment less often report a clear study intention before beginning higher education, and once in higher education, indicate a lower sense of belongingness in higher education in many countries, may point towards and increased need for information before and during studies of this student group to encourage and assure them of the options available.

As with other categories of diversity (> Chapter B1), both national policies and instutional 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 (Rome Communiqué Annex II, 2020), which call on public authorities to 'engage in a policy dialogue with higher education institutions 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). Higher education institutions are in a prime position to amend the institutional barriers faced by disadvantaged students (Naylor & Mifsud, 2019), which highlights the need to utilise all levels of the higher education system to support 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 to enter 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 come into play already at earlier points in students' educational careers (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2020a; Orr et al., 2017). Coherent strategies covering the entire educational career 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 education background (ISCED 0-2)	Medium education background (ISCED 3-4)	Short cycle education background (ISCED 5)	High education 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
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**

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 (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

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

Table B2.2 Students without 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		Educational origin		Migration background		Access route		Transition duration	
		Female	Male	up to 21 years	30 years or over	Domestic students	International student	2nd gen. migrant backgr., domest. ed.	w/o migr. backgr., domestic ed. backgr.	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	72	72	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
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**	**44**	**40**	**37**	**55**	**43**	**32**	**45**	**48**	**53**	**41**	**39**	**58**

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 (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

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

Table B2.3 Students without 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			Offical status	
		University	Other HEI	Short-cycle	Bachelor	Master	Low intensity	High intensity	0h paid work/wk during semester	>20h paid work per week during semester	Dependent on family	Dep. on self-earned income	Dep. on public student support	full-time	part-time
AT	48	46	58	n/a	49	48	50	44	42	56	36	54	70	48	n/a
CH	40	34	49	t.f.c.	42	36	45	37	34	49	33	48	93	38	54
CZ	51	50	59	n/a	54	51	56	43	43	61	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	26	27	21	n.d.	n.d.	26	n.d.
EE	32	30	42	n.d.	34	29	32	33	28	36	26	36	37	32	46
FI	33	24	43	n.d.	35	28	36	33	32	40	28	36	32	29	61
GE	41	41	41	51	43	29	39	43	20	21	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	33	52	32	52	37	35	57
IE	46	41	59	54	45	43	52	41	40	56	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	42	51	40	52	48	42	62
LU	50	48	73	73	53	36	70	50	49	45	45	31	66	50	59
MT	65	66	63	77	64	63	67	63	54	70	56	73	70	60	76
NL	42	30	50	59	44	34	46	38	34	50	30	53	45	41	58
NO	23	22	25	n.d.	24	24	26	22	19	31	23	30	18	21	31
PL	55	50	70	n/a	56	59	55	48	48	64	43	64	76	48	69
SE	35	35	n/a	71	37	25	39	31	33	42	31	37	34	34	44
SI	44	40	58	70	48	41	56	41	41	52	34	49	58	42	
av.	**42**	**39**	**52**	**62**	**44**	**39**	**47**	**39**	**37**	**48**	**35**	**48**	**52**	**41**	**56**

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 (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

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

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Chapter B3

Transition into and within higher education

Key findings

- **Transition time into higher education:** A majority of students enters higher education within a period of two years after leaving the regular school system in all EUROSTUDENT countries. Generally, students without tertiary education background or students whose parents are financially not well-off more commonly enter higher education with a delay of more than two years after leaving school than students with tertiary educated or financially well-off parents.

- **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 per cent of students in Lithuania and Georgia 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. Students without tertiary education background as well as older students more commonly access higher education via alternative routes.

- **Work experience before entering higher education:** On cross-country average, 62 % of students indicate regular, casual, or periodical prior experience in the labour market. Generally, the share of students who have regularly worked prior to entering higher education is much larger among alternative access 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 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" (European Ministers in charge of Higher Education, 2001). This goal remains true until today and has last been emphasised in the Rome Communiqué with the expressive catchphrases of "socially inclusive higher education" as well as "flexible and open learning paths" (Ministerial Conference, 2020) in the midst of the profoundly challenging Covid-19 pandemic. In general, two main aspects have to be considered with respect to the question of accessibility: On the one hand, the different entry routes and regulations in national higher education systems; on the other hand the (potential) students, with their differing resources, aims, and expectations.

There are several instruments in ensuring 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 to acquire the requirements after leaving school may be established, or special entry routes for graduates from different school-tracking paths than the traditional tertiary tracking path may be installed (Altbach et al., 2009; Brunello & Checchi, 2007; Müller et al., 2015; Poelman et al., 2019). Examples for 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 which (potential) student groups are addressed 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 under-represented groups often enter higher education with a delay" (European Commission et al., 2020a, p. 101). Thus, when discussing (re-)accessibility of the EHEAs higher education systems, one has to take a closer look at these underrepresented groups in order to assess the success and efficacy of higher educations' broadened access possibilities (Orr, 2016; Orr et al., 2017; Salmi, 2018; Salmi & Sursock, 2020).

Taking the mentioned aspects 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) – into account, this chapter answers the following questions:

- How do student populations vary with regards 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 background, impairments, age, sex, and migration background 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, e.g. through longitudinal school leavers observation (for analyses of transition rates into higher education) or graduate studies (for analyses of transition rates between Bachelor graduates into Master courses of study). Thus, in interpreting the analyses of this chapter, it has to be kept in mind that only those who are already enrolled at higher education institutions are included in the study and selection processes before entering and during higher education cannot be observed.

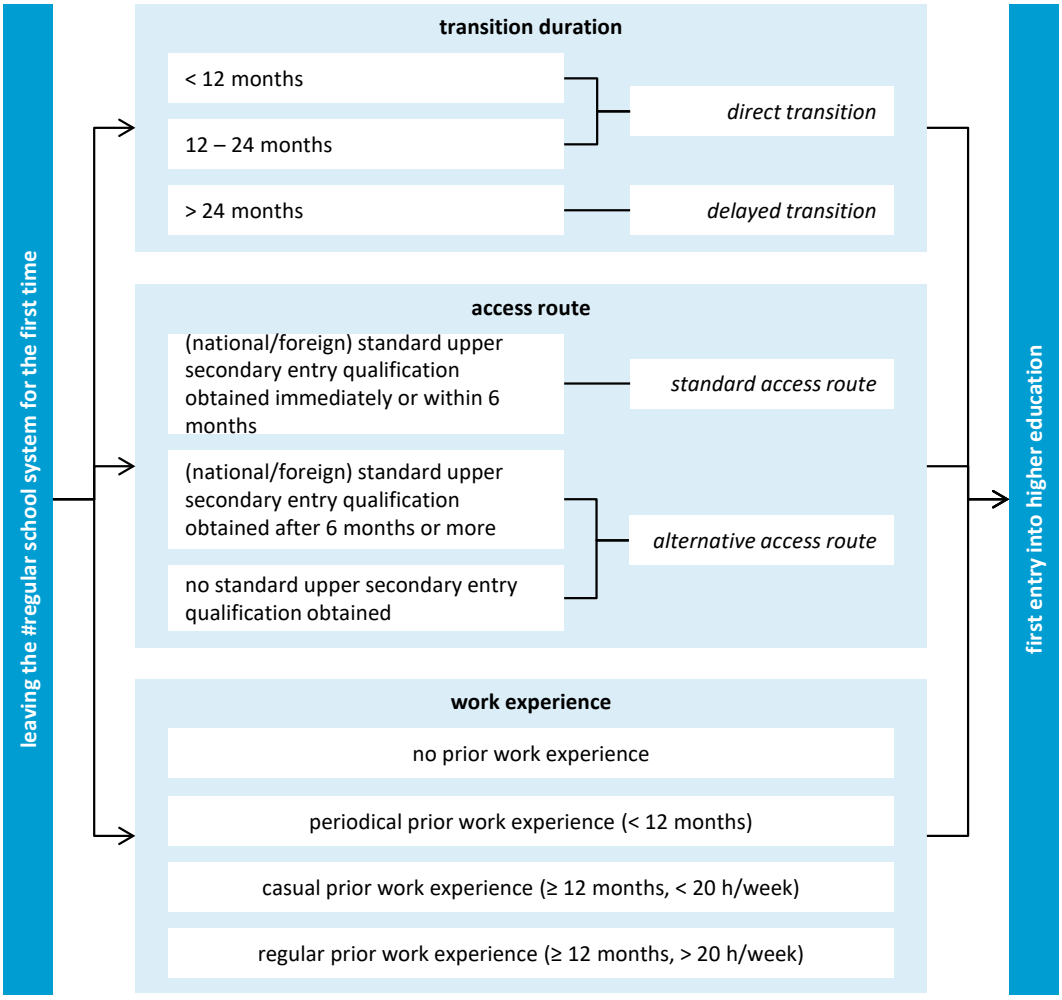
In order to measure the diversity of routes into higher education and within different types of study programmes, EUROSTUDENT makes use of three major concepts: Transition duration (relating to the length of time between leaving the > regular school system and entering higher education for the first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

"Regular school" in the EUROSTUDENT context refers to 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 can, but must not be, a compulsory school. 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. Following this, any kind of preparatory classes for obtaining the standard minimum access requirement "later in life" is 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 countries in different ways: It can just be the successful passing of the last year in upper secondary school, it can be a specific exam at the end of secondary schooling (matriculation exam, e.g. Matura, Abitur, Baccalaureat) or a state exam, or maybe on another nationally specific way. Some countries have different upper secondary school types (usually academic or professional tracks), and sometimes these different schools lead to different types of SMAR (European Commission et al., 2020b). The different types of SMAR may be the minimum requirement to enter any type of higher education (general SMAR) or only allow to access 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 might always be additional requirements like 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



In order to analyse variations in transition duration into Master studies, the time between acquiring one degree (mostly a Bachelor or another undergraduate degree) and entering a Master course of study is investigated. 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.

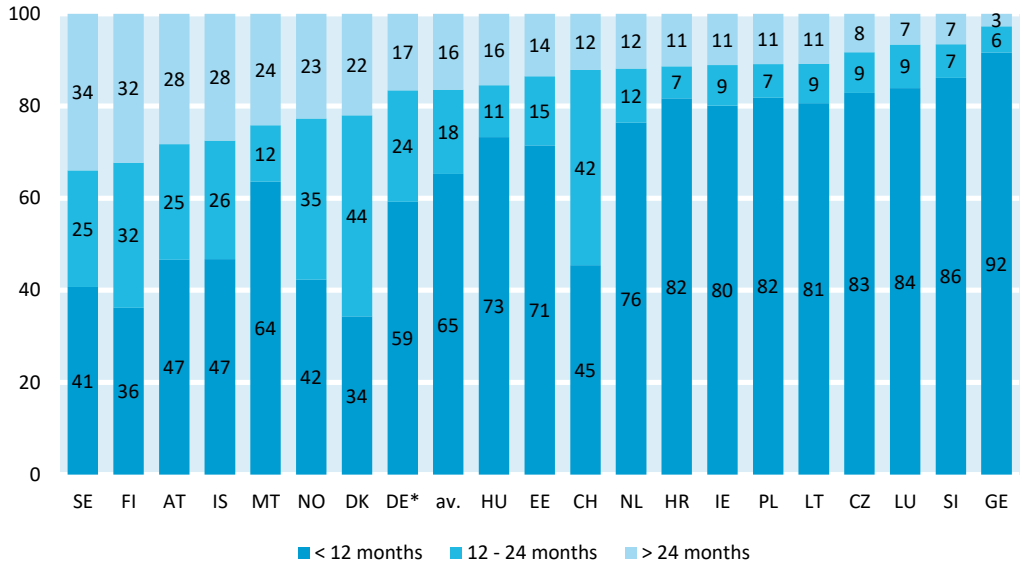
Data and interpretation

Transition time from leaving school to entering higher education

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

- Comparably few students in Denmark (34 %), Finland (36 %), Sweden (41 %), and Norway (42 %) take a direct route to higher education of less than 12 months after leaving the secondary school system.
- Exceptionally large shares of students in Denmark (44 %), Switzerland (42 %), Norway (35 %), and Finland (32 %) 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).
- 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 in-between leaving school and first enrolling at an HEI – less than ten per cent of students in the Czech Republic (8 %), Luxembourg (7 %), Slovenia (7 %), Italy (6 %), France (5 %), and Georgia (3 %) report such long transition periods.

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 (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).
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.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

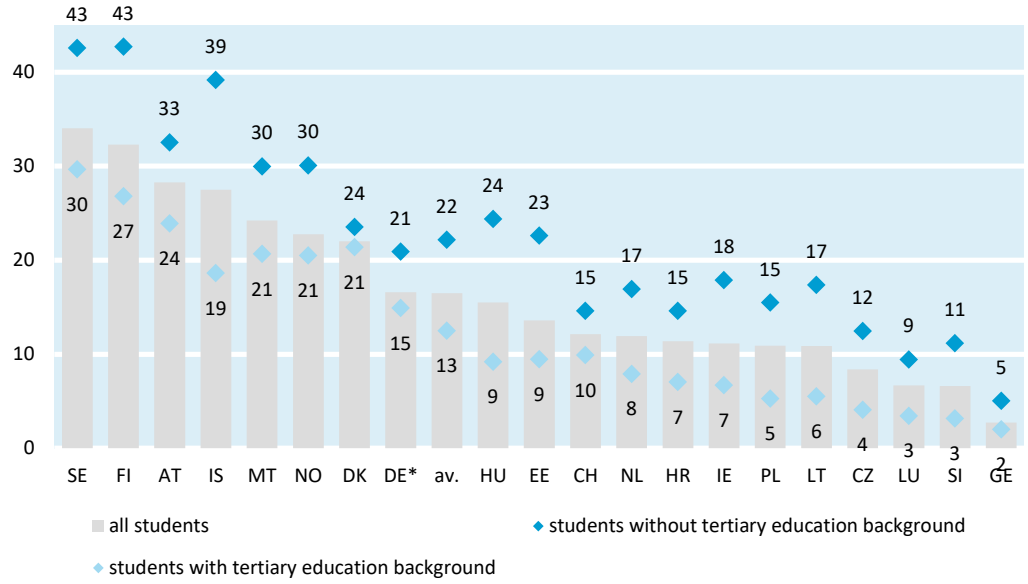
Delayed transition duration into higher education and students' educational background

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

education background (22 %) than among students with higher education background (13 %).

- The largest differences in shares of delayed transition between leaving the secondary school system and entering higher education with regards to the educational background can be observed in Iceland, Finland, Hungary, Estonia, and Sweden.
- In contrast, there are some countries where the differentiation by educational background shows comparably small and insignificant differences (e.g. Denmark, Switzerland, and Georgia).

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 (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).
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.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

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

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 order 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 necessary resources by themselves and to only later enter higher education.

- Differences with respect to students' parents' financial status are most apparent in the Czech Republic, Iceland, Ireland, and Malta.

- While the general trend is also observable in Austria, Denmark, Finland, and Sweden, it is less distinct in these countries which have large shares 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.

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 and Norway are more frequently delayed transition students than females, while female students in Sweden more frequently report a delayed transition than their male peers.

- Students without migration background in Ireland, Malta, Norway, Romania, and Slovenia enter higher education distinctly more often with a delay of more than two years than students with a migration background. By contrast, students without a migration background in Poland have much less frequently entered higher education after a delayed transition duration than their fellow students with a migration background.

- There is no striking difference in shares of delayed transition between students with or without impairments in most EUROSTUDENT countries, except for Hungary (with impairment: 14 % vs. without impairment: 12 %) and particularly Slovenia (with impairment: 12 % vs. without impairment: 6 %), where impaired students much more commonly indicate a delayed transition than their fellow students without impairments.

Higher education access qualifications

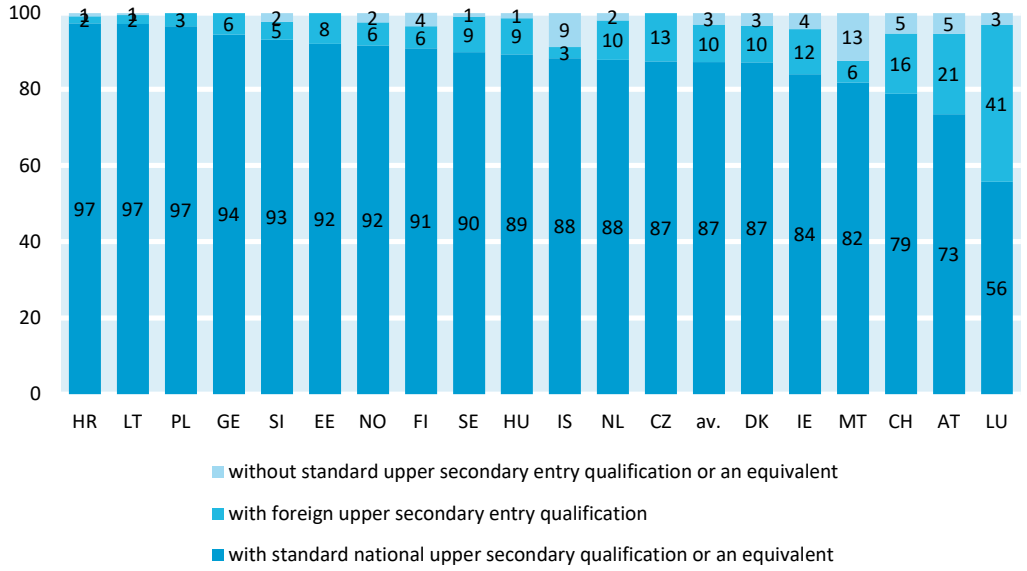
In all participating countries, the majority of students access higher education via standard national upper secondary qualifications or their respective equivalents (Figure B3.3). Correspondingly, only small shares of students use alternative qualifications for higher education entry – on cross-country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

- Almost all students in Croatia, Lithuania, and Poland access higher education with a standard entry qualification, with shares of 97 % in each of these countries.

- Comparably large shares of students in Malta (13 %) and Iceland (9 %) access higher education without standard minimum access requirement.

- Foreign entry qualifications are common in higher education populations of Europe's geographic centre, with higher education systems of Luxembourg (41 %), Austria (21 %), and Switzerland (16 %) attracting larger shares of students with foreign qualifications than other higher education systems.

Figure B3.3 Type of qualification used for access to higher education
Share of students (in %)



Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, B.10.
Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2020).
EUROSTUDENT question(s): 2.1 Do you have a Standard Minimum Access Requirement (#SMAR) or foreign equivalent?
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: EE, MT, NL.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

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

A further dimension in assessing accessibility regards the requirements needed 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) in order to illustrate variations in the flexibility of how to enter higher education (> Alternative access route). On cross country average, eight per cent of students entered higher education via alternative access routes (Figure B3.4).

- The shares of students indicating non-traditional access routes range from two per cent in Lithuania and Georgia up to 20 % in Iceland and 25 % in Malta.

While variation is considerable among national student populations with regards to shares of students entering higher education via alternative access routes, some consistent patterns emerge due to differentiation of alternative routes by educational background, impairment, and age. Students without tertiary education background more frequently report an alternative access route into higher education in all EUROSTUDENT countries. On cross-country average, eleven per cent of students without tertiary education background entered higher education via alternative access routes, compared to seven per cent of students with at least one parent who attained a higher education degree.

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

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 have more frequently accessed higher education via alternative routes. The largest shares of students with alternative access routes can be found among students aged 30 years or more in Malta (47 %), Iceland (40 %), Switzerland (30 %), Luxembourg (30 %), and Slovenia (30 %).

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

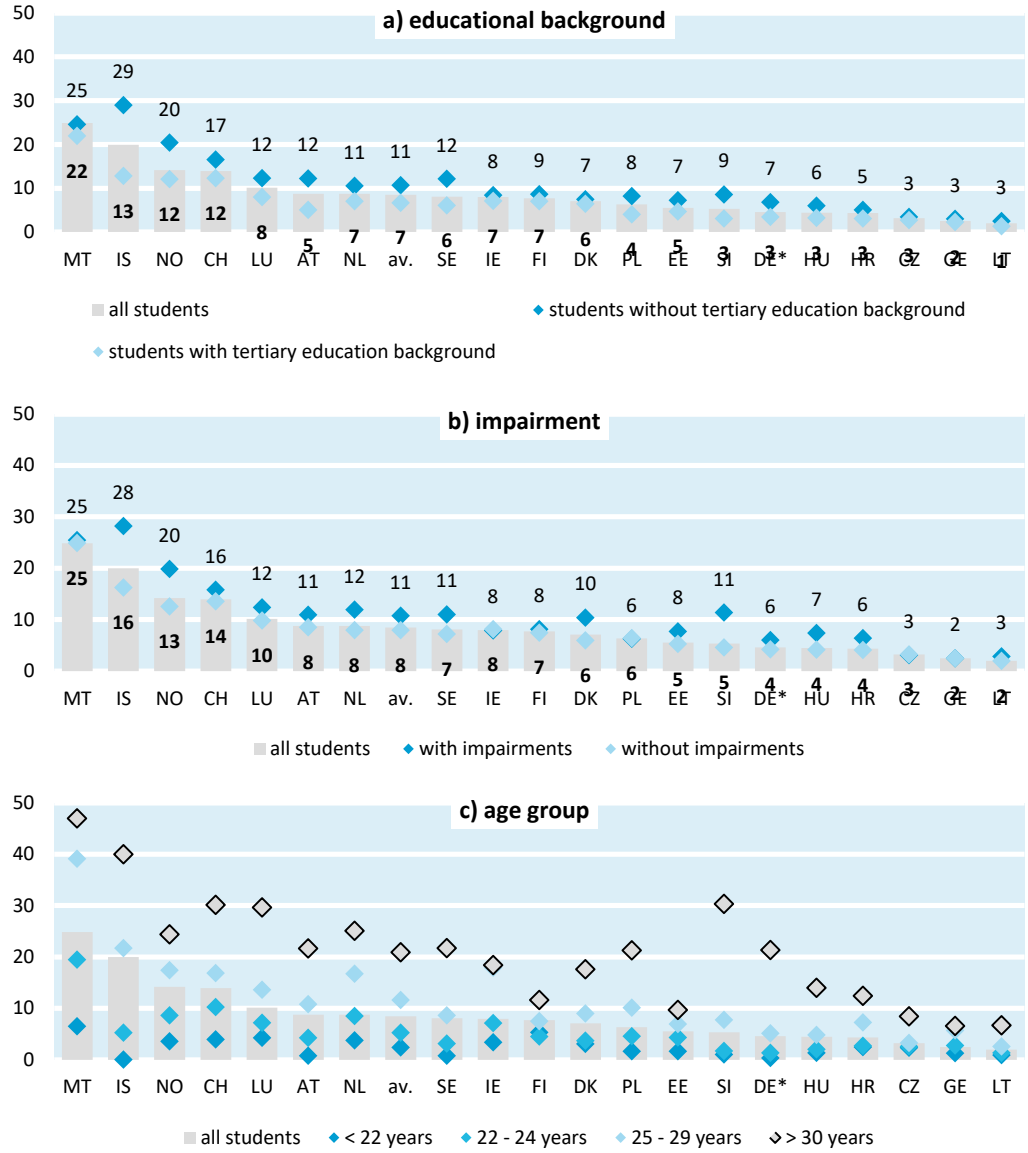
- Even though students who assess their parents' financial status as (very) well-off less frequently indicate an alternative access route than students whose parents are assessed as not (very/ at all) well-off in many countries (e.g. Austria, Czech Republic, Iceland, Netherlands, Poland, Slovenia, Sweden), there are some countries with no distinct differences with respect to the financial status of students' parents (e.g. Croatia, Denmark, Finland, or Georgia).

- Differences regarding shares of alternative access routes due to sex or migration background are minor in most countries.

Patterns of when and how to enter higher education

A comparison between shares of delayed transition students and 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 regards to both how and when in the life-course higher education may be entered (most distinct in Malta, Iceland, and Norway), a larger group of countries may be described as relatively rigid (e.g. Georgia, Slovenia, the Czech Republic, and Lithuania). The systems of a few countries may be characterised as either flexible for entering along the life-course but not particularly open to alternative access routes (e.g. Denmark) or, the other way round, flexible with regards to alternative access routes but not so much at later points in life (e.g. Luxembourg or Switzerland). 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
Shares of students (in %)



Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, B.17.
Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).
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 student without #SMAR] Where did you last attend the #regular school system?
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: AT, CH, DE, EE, MT, NL.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

Work experience prior to entering higher education

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 62 % on cross-country average (Figure B3.5):

- Total shares 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 their first enrolment at a higher education institution.

- Compared to the other countries, relatively few students in Croatia (42 %), Luxembourg (40 %), and especially Georgia (19 %) 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 ten per cent of students casually worked for at least one year with less than 20 hours per week. Regular work experience of at least one year and with more than 20 hours per week is, on cross-country average, indicated by 26 % of students. However, variation regarding 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 less than 20 hours per week for a period longer than a year.

- Comparably large shares of the student populations in Iceland (53 %), Denmark (42 %), Sweden (42 %), Finland (38 %), Norway (36 %), Malta (35 %), and Switzerland (34 %) have gained regular prior work experience.

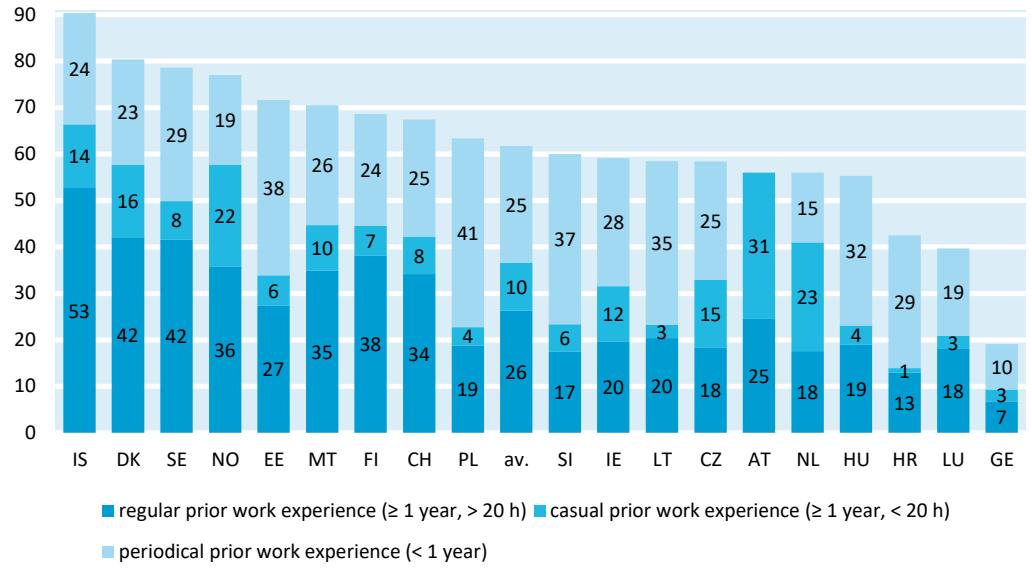
Commonly, students without tertiary education background more frequently acquire regular work experience before entering higher education than students with tertiary education background (Table B3.3) – this holds true across countries, with the between-group difference most distinct in Iceland and much less apparent in Denmark or Georgia. These differences with regards to the 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 students 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 regards to sex, migration background, and impairment status:

- Female students in Austria, Croatia, Finland, Iceland, Luxembourg, and Sweden indicate regular work experience prior to entering higher education with considerably larger shares than male students.

- While domestically educated students without migration background in Austria, Denmark, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Malta, Norway, 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 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 regards 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.
Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).
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, PL.

Commonly, students without tertiary education background more frequently acquire regular work experience before entering higher education than students with 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 or Georgia. These differences with regards to the 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 students 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 regards to sex, migration background, and impairment status:

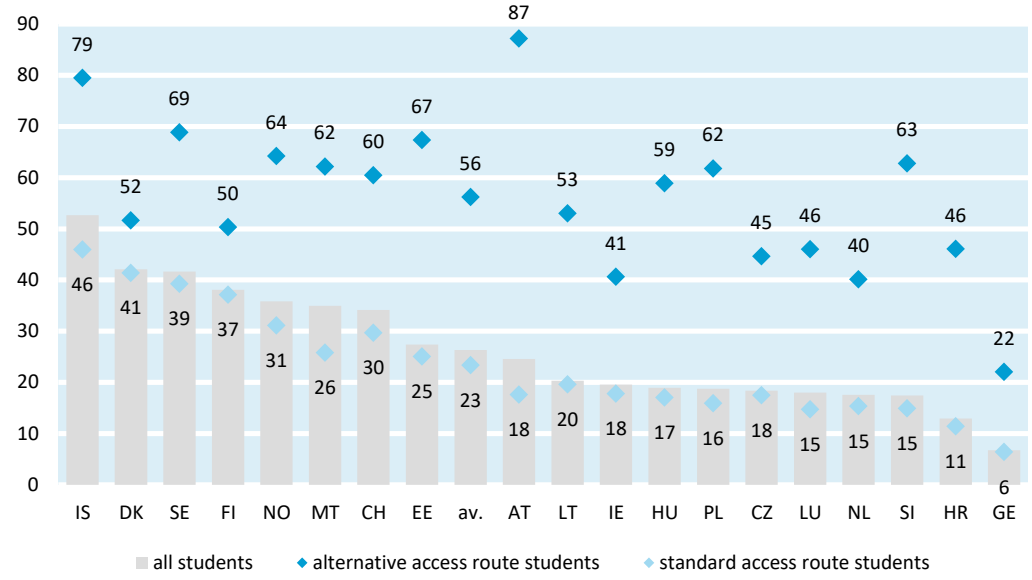
- Female students in Austria, Croatia, Finland, Iceland, Luxembourg, and Sweden indicate regular work experience prior to entering higher education with considerably larger shares than male students.

- While domestically educated students without migration background in Austria, Denmark, Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Malta, Norway, 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 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 regards to impairment status.

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.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

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, CH, DE, EE, MT, NL.

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

Alternative access routes and regular 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 alongside 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, 56 % 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 (alternative access: 63 % vs. standard access: 15 %), Poland (alternative access: 62 % vs. standard access: 16 %), Estonia (alternative access: 67 % vs. standard access: 25 %), and Hungary (alternative access: 59 % vs. standard access: 17 %). In these countries, students entering higher education via alternative access routes have much more frequently 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 (alternative access: 50 % vs. standard access: 37 %) also have more frequently gained regular work experience than standard access route students, the difference between groups is much less distinct than in the other countries.

[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).

Transition time from previous studies to a Master's programme

It is one of the leading principles of the Bologna Process to ease access to further higher education along the life-course. Therefore, it is essential to look at re-entry of higher education, e.g. 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 the 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 of higher education for additional studies after (longer) periods outside the educational system.

On cross-country average 61 % of Master students have entered their programme less than twelve months after graduating from their previous course of study, while 14 % indicate a transitional period between one and 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 graduation of their previous degree and their current programme.

- 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 in most countries. Shares of these direct transition duration between degrees are particularly large in Germany, Czech Republic, Slovenia, and Denmark, with more than 90 % of all Master students reporting such a short period between degree cycles.

- The shares 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 a time of more than two years between graduation from their previous course of study and before entering their Master's programme.

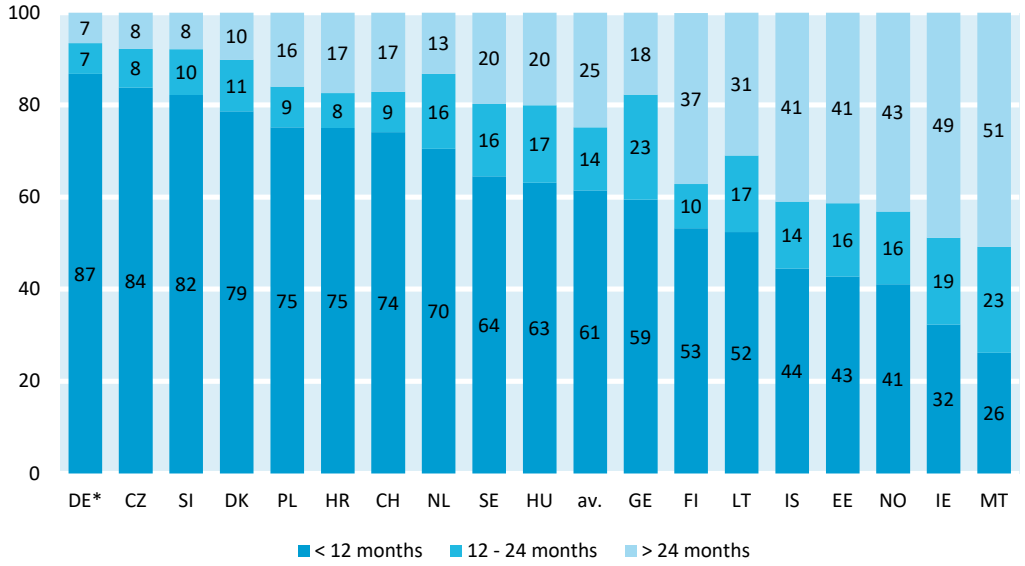
As discussed, a delayed transition duration into Master programmes is likely to go hand in hand with labour market experience in-between degree programmes. Consequently, it can be expected that Master students who have already gained labour market experiences and are very likely integrated into gainful employment continue to work alongside their further studies and thus pursue their second-cycle degree in the form of part-time studies (see > Chapter B6). The pattern apparent in Figure B2.8 strongly supports this relationship between delayed transition into Master studies and continuation of studies in formal part-time status (Figure B3.8):

- On cross-country average, every second part-time student in a Master programme indicates a delayed transition into Masters' studies. In 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.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

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, SE.

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

Several general trends as well as 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, and Norway), students without tertiary education background more frequently re-enter higher education to attain a Master's degree at least two years after graduating from their previous programme than Master students with a tertiary education background.

- While female students, e.g. in Lithuania or Norway, more frequently 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 male Master students more frequently taking such a delayed transition duration within higher education than female Master students.

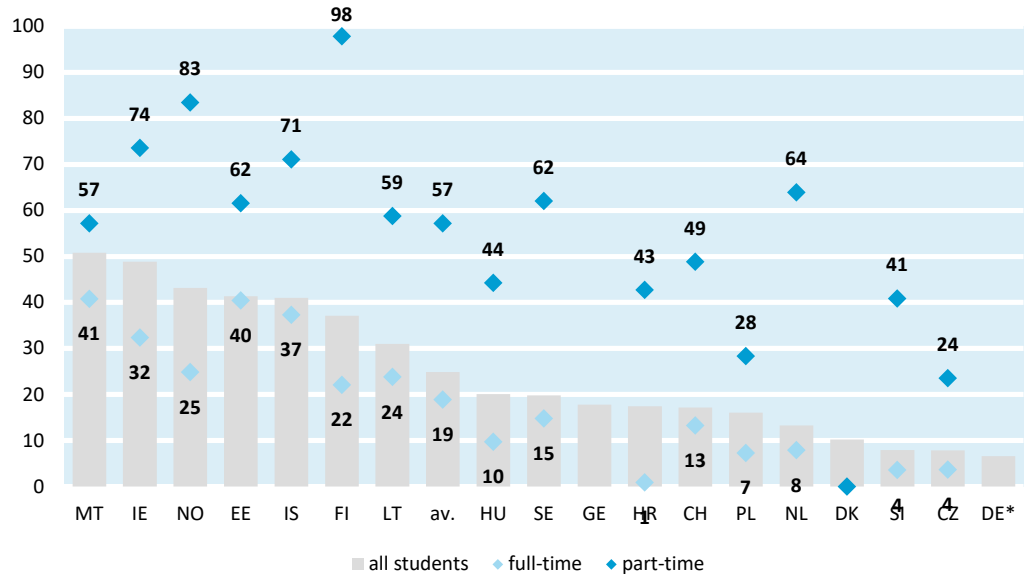
- On cross-country average, 27 % of domestically educated Master students without migration background indicate a delayed transition into their Master programme, while only 18 % of domestically educated second generation migrants have a gap of more than two years before entering Master studies. While there are a few exceptions from this trend (e.g. Estonia and Poland), it holds true in most countries (most distinctly in Finland, Ireland, and Slovenia).

- Differences of delayed transition into Master studies between students with and without impairments are minor in about half of the participating countries. Exceptions are Finland, Iceland, Ireland, Malta, Norway, Slovenia, and Sweden, where impaired Master

students less frequently indicate a delayed entry into Master studies, as well as Estonia and Hungary, where comparably large shares of impaired students spent more than two years outside higher education before entering their Master studies.

- Employed Master students who tend to primarily work and study alongside their paid job(s) much more frequently have entered their Master programme more than two years after finishing their previous degree. Thus, it can be noted that a delayed re-entrance of studies 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 regards to the formal status of enrolment (Figure B3.9).

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 students in a Master programme (in %)



Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, B.8. **No data:** DK, GE.
Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).
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: CZ, DE, DK, EE, HU, LU, MT, NL, NO, PL, SE.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

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 in the context of leaving the school system) in the majority of EUROSTUDENT countries. Comparably large shares of the respective student bodies in Norway, Iceland, Sweden, or Malta are made up of delayed transition and alternative access, as well as work-experienced students. Commonalities between patterns regarding of the mentioned 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 easier accessibility of higher education in these countries. The notable differences with regards to transition into higher education relate to students'

socio-economic background, as was the case in earlier rounds of the EUROSTUDENT project (Hauschildt et al., 2018, pp. 66–85): Students without tertiary education background or from families who are financially not well-off more frequently 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 background less often have clear study intentions at an early stage.

Large shares 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 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 shares 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 accessibility along the life-course. Large shares of delayed transition students, without standard national upper secondary qualification, respectively taking alternative access routes into higher education, or with regular work experience prior to first higher education enrolment as well as large shares of Master students with a delayed transition into their programme, indicate successes with regards to the openness of the respective higher education systems. On the other hand, when taking a look at the shares of the leading indicators of this chapter by specific disadvantaged populations, another story unfolds: The larger the differences between students from different social and economic backgrounds, genders, migration and health statuses with regards 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 (like low socio-economic or background, with impairment(s) or of older age) enter higher education with a delay, on alternative access routes that deviate from traditional pathways, or after more extended periods of regular work (re-)enter higher education at all. Nevertheless, it should be noted that obstacles regarding higher education entrance should (e.g. in the form of school tracking; Ozer & Perc, 2020), in the long run, be eliminated in the first place in order to allow for populations as a whole to equally benefit from higher education outcomes, like long and successful labour market participation for each individual. In the medium term, it remains to be seen whether economic effects of the Covid-19 pandemic affect underprivileged groups and an increase of, e.g. delayed transition of students' without tertiary education background or from financially not well-off families can be observed.

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 tertiary education background	students with 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 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	18	33	13	14
FI	32	43	27	28	26	34	40	42	33	32	27	34	2	20	39	49	35	32
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	9	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	26	53	55	36	34
SI	7	11	3	5	4	7	10	24	5	8	8	54	0	2	12	40	12	6
av.	**16**	**22**	**13**	**11**	**13**	**18**	**22**	**30**	**16**	**17**	**14**	**18**	**2**	**9**	**24**	**45**	**18**	**16**

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

Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, B.16.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

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.

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, 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 tertiary education background	students with 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 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
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	14	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	19	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	6	100	1	2	8	30	11	5
av.	**8**	**11**	**7**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**11**	**17**	**8**	**9**	**7**	**13**	**2**	**5**	**12**	**21**	**11**	**8**

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

Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, B.17.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

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 student without #SMAR] Where did you last attend the #regular school system?

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

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, 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 tertiary education background	students with 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 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
GE	7	7	6	11	7	6	6	13	5	9	9	6	4	7	15	10	14	6
HR	13	17	8	7	9	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	21	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	24	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	21	73	6	14	26	61	22	17
av.	**26**	**33**	**22**	**22**	**21**	**27**	**30**	**39**	**27**	**26**	**24**	**29**	**10**	**20**	**35**	**56**	**27**	**26**

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

Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, B.20.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

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, 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 students in a Master programme (in %)

		students without tertiary education background	students with 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 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
GE	18	18	18	13	26	14	18	39	21	13	0	18	17	18	5	34
HR	17	25	6	0	18	18	23	8	15	22	10	16	16	17	0	46
HU	20	26	17	12	13	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	48	42	39	27	39	35	42	17	60
LT	31	36	28	0	35	29	39	44	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	37	42	49	56	68	49	52	46	47	39	51	33	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	21	22	17	n.d.	n.d.	12	21	13	72
SI	8	10	7	0	7	7	11	17	9	6	8	60	3	8	3	18
av.	**25**	**29**	**22**	**17**	**25**	**27**	**30**	**35**	**26**	**23**	**18**	**27**	**22**	**25**	**13**	**46**

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

Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, B.8.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

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 student or worker only covers students with paid employment.

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT conventions: DE, DK.

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

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Chapter B4

Types and modes of study

Key findings

- **Type of higher education institution:** Variations of shares of enrolment at different types of institution are large across binary higher education systems, ranging from 90 % in Czech Republic enrolled at universities to majorities of students in Finland and the Netherlands enrolled at non-universities. Students without tertiary education background are found to be more frequently enrolled at non-universities than students with tertiary education background.

- **Field of study:** On cross-country average, large shares of students are enrolled in subjects of the fields Business, Administration and Law (22 %), Health and Welfare (16 %), and Engineering, Manufacturing and Construction (14 %). In most countries, students without tertiary education background more commonly pursue subjects in the field of Education compared to students with tertiary education background, who more frequently study Natural Sciences, Mathematics and Statistics.

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

- **Status of enrolment:** Students in formal part-time studies amount to 13 % 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 largest among students without tertiary education background as well as employed students with workloads of at least 20 h/week.

- **Students' satisfaction:** While, across countries, students' satisfaction with the support provided by their higher education institutions is moderate, their intention to abandon and drop out of studies can be considered low. Students enrolled in subjects of the fields Health and Welfare generally are less often considering dropping out, while the drop-out intention in the field of ICTs is above average across countries.

Main issues

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

Type of higher education institution

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 universities), and dual systems with considerable shares of students enrolled at higher education institutions that deviate from the traditional university model (Rawsthorne, 2020; Wagner-Schuster et al., 2019). In dual 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 higher education institutions, 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 regards to learning outcomes. This is why socio-economic background in the form of students' educational background and the financial status of students' parents as well as sex (due to females' common reluctance to choose technical subjects; Charles & Bradley, 2009) typically relates to students' distribution on different types of higher education institutions.

Field of study

The study subject is foremost of interest because 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 the 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 regards to students' choice of study subject have been identified, foremost with regards to sex (women have been found to show reluctance to study e.g. in the fields of science, technology, engineering and mathematics (Barnard et al., 2012; Charles & Bradley, 2009; Sobieraj & Krämer, 2019; > Chapter B1) and socio-economic background (Georg & Bargel, 2017) due to reasons of self-perception of the own skills, cultural reproduction (in the form of maintaining the parents' status) and outcome expectations of studies (like expected monetary returns and expected risks of unemployment; Núñez & Livanos, 2010). Therefore, the distribution of fields of studies is expected to relate to educational background and sex.

Degree structure

From the start of the Bologna Process, the two-cycle degree structure in the form of 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 in order to "promote European citizens employability and the international competitiveness of the European higher education system" (European Ministers of Education, 1999). Although the

process of standardisation within the EHEA has been identified as "extraordinary success story in developing convergent degree structures" (European Commission et al., 2020), processes of selectivity do emerge: While Bachelor studies are understood and conceived as 'relevant to the European labour market as an appropriate level of qualification' (European Ministers of Education, 1999), Master degrees are expected to yield increased labour market outcomes (e.g. with regards to job entry and salaries; Meng et al., 2020, pp. 48–54, 93–179); access to and participation in these 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 has developed within the EHEA as a stand-alone qualification (i.e. complementing the two-cycle degree structure) within the overarching framework of qualifications of the EHEA: These programmes are supposed 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 supposed 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 on degree programmes can thus be expected with regard to students' socio-economic background (also see > Chapter B3 for information on differences with regards to delayed transition into Master studies).

Status of enrolment

European policy makers have in recent years 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" in order to "foster social mobility and continuous professional development" of learners through the life-course (Paris Communiqué, 2018). Thus, the mode of studies is of central interest in order to determine 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 regards to diverse student characteristics like educational background, sex, and employment status. In order to apprehend student populations' needs for flexible modes of study, the status of enrolment is further on compared to students' study intensity.

Students' satisfaction

From the perspective of EHEA policy makers, students' study success in the form of completion and graduation of their programmes is of highest interest with regard to the expected labour market outcomes as return on the (public) investment in higher education. Within 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, opening up intelligence on expected study success. The types and modes of study (in the form of types of higher education institutions, fields of study, the degree structure, and the status of enrolment) can in return yield valuable information on the perceived quality, as in order to prevent drop-out it is of importance to identify particularly dissatisfied and "at-risk" groups of students.

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

- How are higher education systems structured with regards to students' distribution on types of institutions, fields of study, the degree structure, and status of enrolment?
- How do various characteristics of students relate to types of institutions, fields of study, the degree structure, and status of enrolment?
- How do types of institutions, 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 within the present chapter, several definitions as well as restrictions have to be kept in mind.

Types of higher education institution differentiate universities from 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 higher education institutions who are allowed to award doctoral degrees. However, characteristics of national legislation and the distinctions made there are also taken into consideration in order to take into account national higher education systems' make-ups (e.g., institutions which are by law classified as universities are also considered as universities). Other higher education institutions 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 alike with regards to national specifics, to be able to make a clear distinction between the two groups of institutions.

In order to neatly present findings regarding the multitude of study subjects in a 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 like Staatsexamen). A further, "other", category refers to any kind of national higher education programme which does not fall in any of the other categories (e.g. "single subjects" describes the situation of students who enrol in single subjects and not full study programmes and are therefore not included in the classification of ISCED). PhD/ third-cycle students of ISCED-level 8 are not part of the EUROSTUDENT target group and therefore not part of 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 has to be kept in mind that full-time study status is the only possible formal study status in some participating countries (e.g. Austria and Denmark). As the survey only includes students as long as the study programmes the students are enrolled in offer 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 on students' average satisfaction is calculated as individual mean value on five items covering the satisfaction with regards 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) work life. The indicator on the intention to drop out of studies is measured by students' (strong) agreement to the statement "I am seriously thinking of completely abandoning my higher education studies". Due to the cross-sectional design of this study it has to be kept in mind that the drop-out intention is not a hard indicator on realised drop-out of studies.

Data and interpretation

Type of higher education institution

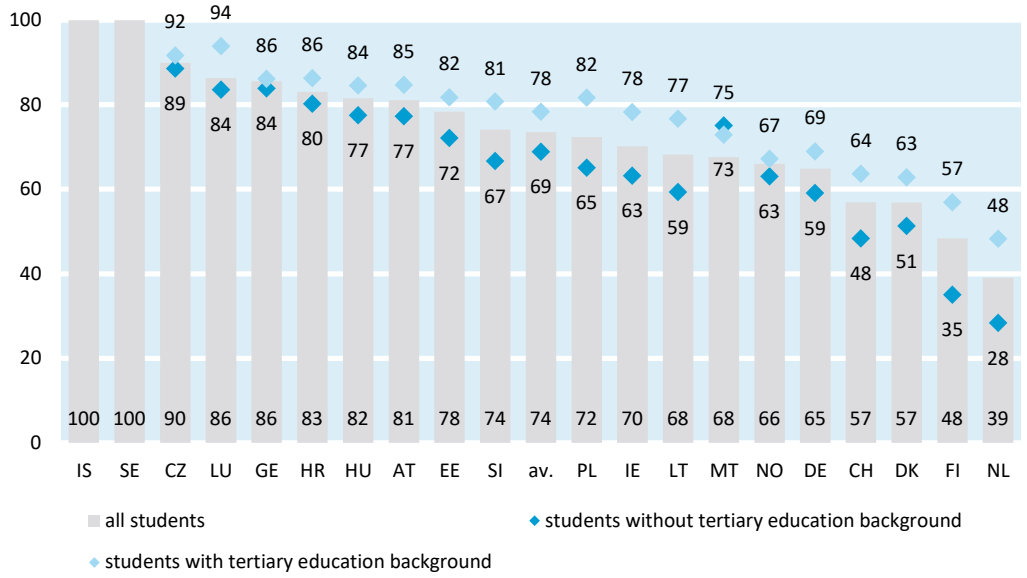
The majority of students in the EUROSTUDENT countries is enrolled at universities in most higher education systems, with a cross-country average of 74 % (Figure B4.1). However, variation between countries is large:

- The higher education system of Iceland does not include any kind of non-universities and only very few students in Sweden are enrolled at non-universities (Wagner-Schuster et al., 2019); thus all students (included in the respective surveys) are enrolled at universities.
- Within dual higher education systems, the shares of students enrolled at universities ranges from 90 % in Czech Republic to 39 % in the Netherlands.
- The majority of students in Finland (52 %) and the Netherlands (61 %) are enrolled at non-universities.

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

- Enrolling at a university vs. a non-university is a lot more common among students with tertiary education background in in some countries, e.g. Finland (57 % among students with tertiary education background and 35 % among students without tertiary education background), the Netherlands (48 % vs. 28 %), Poland (82 % vs. 65 %), and Lithuania (77 % vs. 59 %).
- Less distinct differences between students from different educational backgrounds can be found in Norway (67 % vs. 63 %), Czech Republic (92 % vs. 89 %), and Georgia (86 % vs. 84 %).
- The only exception from the general trend regarding educational background can be found in Malta, where students with tertiary education background in fact are more frequently enrolled at non-universities (75 % vs. 73 %).

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 (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).
EUROSTUDENT question(s): 1.3 At what type of higher education institution 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, PL.

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

- Across countries, the shares of students enrolled at non-universities increases from 24 % among students whose parents 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, or Poland, there are some countries where the opposite holds true (e.g. Estonia, Georgia, and Croatia).

- In most countries there are no differences in enrolment at different types of institutions according to students' sex. Male students in Slovenia, Croatia, Germany, and Ireland, however, are clearly more frequently enrolled at non-universities than female students in their countries. On the contrary, female students in Denmark and Lithuania are distinctly more often enrolled at non-universities than male students.

Field 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 (16 %) and Engineering, Manufacturing and Construction (14 %; Figure B4.2). Ten percent of students are enrolled in subjects of 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 on fields of study:

- An exceptionally large share of students in Norway (21 %) is enrolled in the field of Education while, in comparison, students in Georgia (4 %) and Lithuania (4 %) are seldom enrolled in subjects of this field.

- Comparatively large shares of students in Georgia (29 %), Malta (29 %), Croatia (28 %), and the Netherlands (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 of this field.

- The field of Engineering, Manufacturing and Construction makes up large shares of students in Germany (22 %), Sweden (21 %), Finland (19 %), and Slovenia (19 %) but is small in Estonia (7 %), Malta (8 %), Luxembourg (9 %), and the Netherlands (9 %).

- While large shares of students in Denmark (27 %) and Norway (22 %) are enrolled in the field of Health and Welfare, comparatively few students in Germany (9 %) and Austria (10 %) are studying subjects of this field.

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, females are distinctly more often enrolled in the fields of Education (13 % vs. 5 %) and Health and Welfare (21 % vs. 9 %) than male students. Male students, by contrast, are more often enrolled in subjects in the fields of Engineering, Manufacturing and Construction (23 % vs. 7 %) as well as ICTs (12 % vs. 2 %) compared to female students. These differences with regards to sex can be found in all of the participating countries. Further on, there are some differences in fields of study regarding educational background (Figure B4.3):

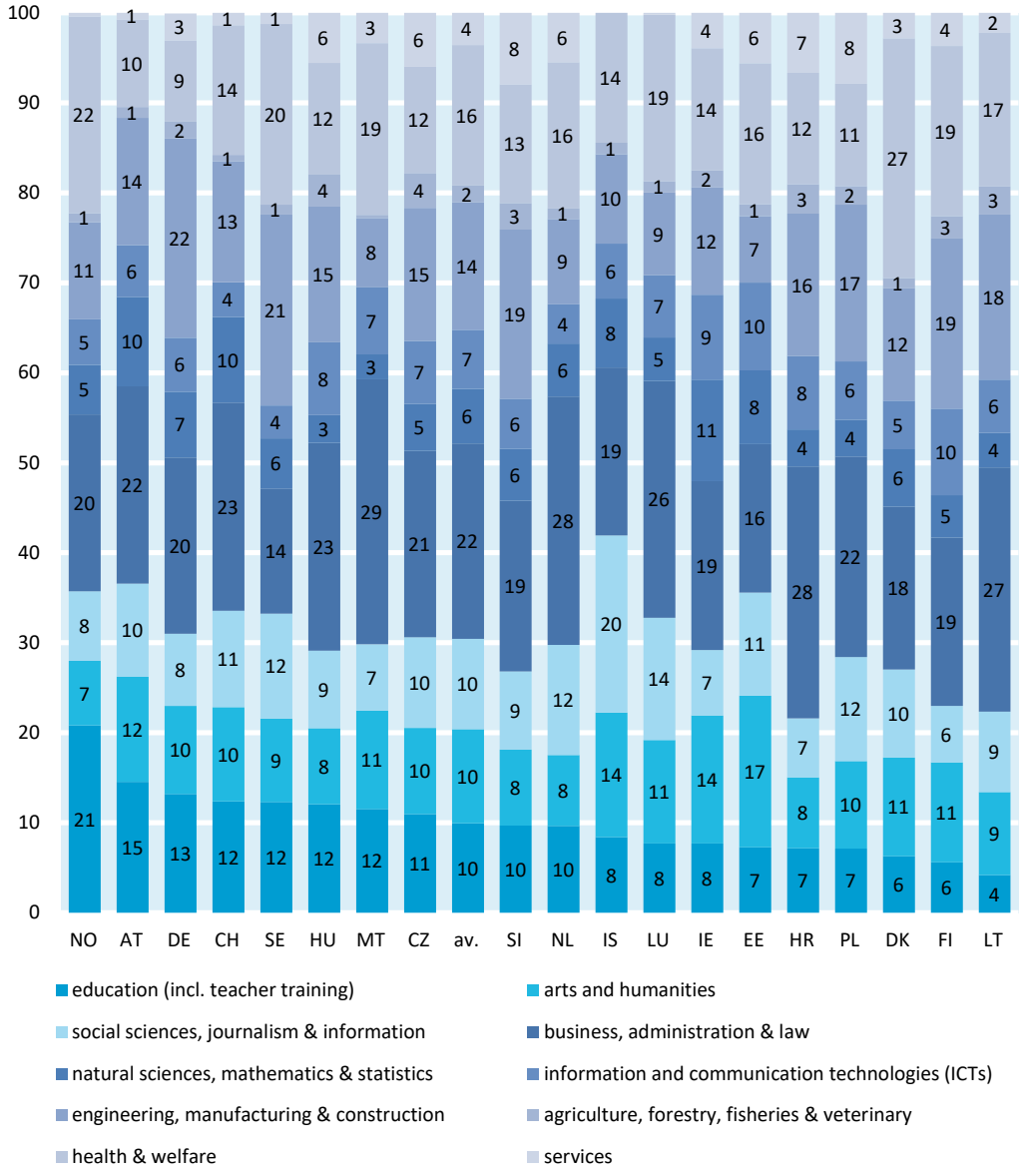
- In all countries except Slovenia, Denmark, and Finland students without tertiary education background are more often found to be studying subjects in the field of Education compared to students with tertiary education background. This finding is in line with analyses that point out risk-reduction of educational climbers with regards to expected outcomes of higher education and low rates of unemployment among teachers (Núñez & Livanos, 2010).

- Apart from students in Luxembourg, studies in the field of Natural Sciences, Mathematics and Statistics are more commonly pursued by students with tertiary education background than by students without tertiary education background.

- There are other differences in fields of study with regards to educational background that are distinct to certain groups of countries; e.g. Business, Administration and Law is a much more common field of studies among students without tertiary education background in Hungary, Lithuania, Poland, and Slovenia, while more students with tertiary education background choose to study subjects of this field compared to their fellow students without tertiary education background in Luxembourg (Table B4.3).

Figure B4.2 Students' enrolment in fields of study

Share of students (in %)



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

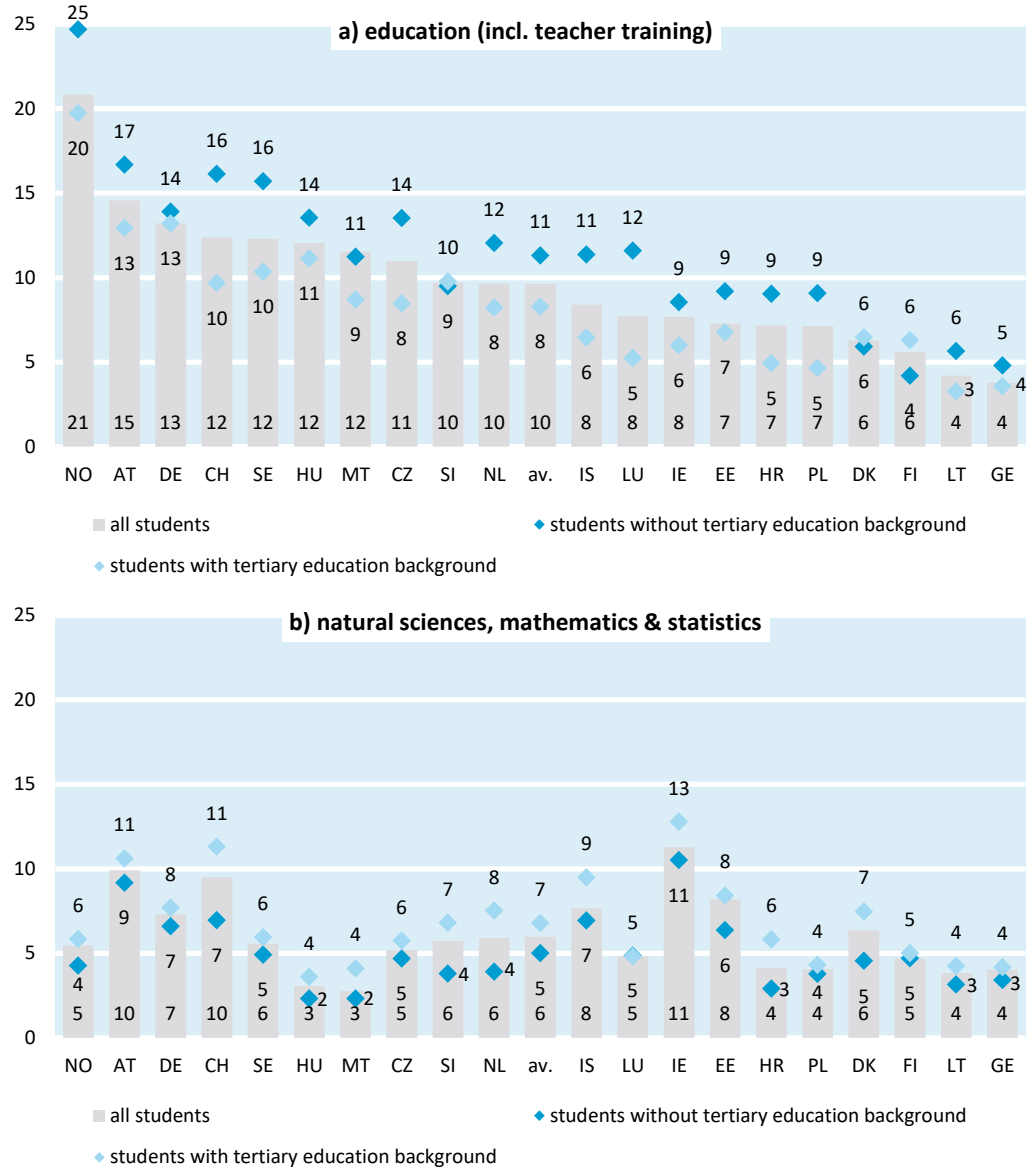
Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

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

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

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, 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 (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).
EUROSTUDENT question(s): 1.7 What is your current #(main) study programme?
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: CH, DK, NL, SE.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

Degree structure

In most participating countries the vast majority of students is studying undergraduate and graduate courses in the form of Bachelor and Master programmes within the framework of the Bologna process. On cross-country average, 62 % of students are enrolled in Bachelor programmes and 21 % in Master programmes, amounting to 83 % in total (Figure B4.4). Still, there is large variation between countries with regards to the degree structure:

- The 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.

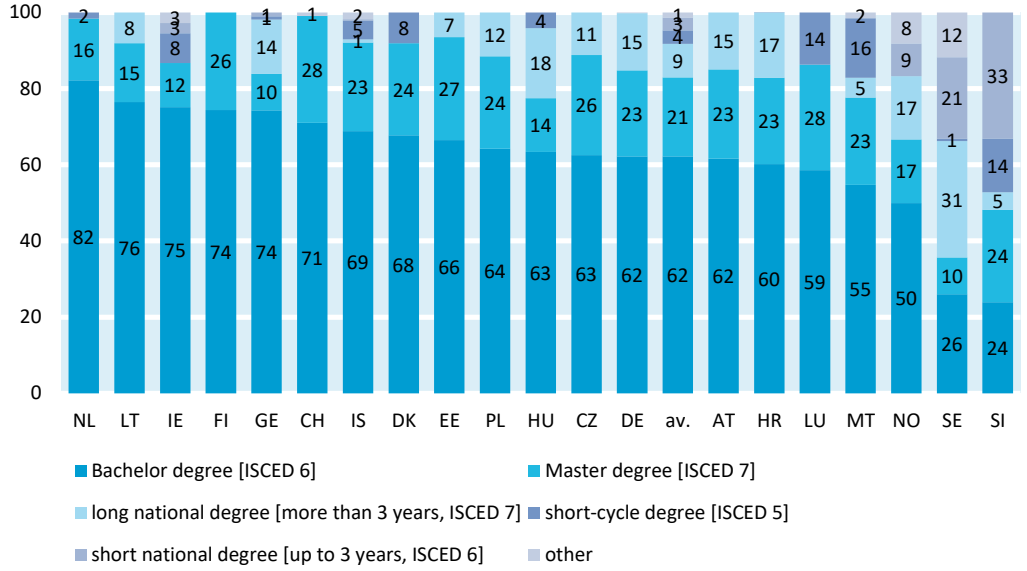
- More than a quarter of students in Switzerland (28 %), Luxembourg (28 %), Estonia (27 %), Finland (26 %), and Czech Republic (26 %) is enrolled in Master programmes. The shares of students in Master programmes are lowest in Georgia (10 %) and Sweden (10 %).

- The aggregated shares 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 less than half of all students in Slovenia (48 %) and Sweden (36 %).

- There are some countries with comparably large shares of students enrolled in national study programmes: Almost a third of students in Sweden (31 %) and about every sixth student in Hungary (18 %), Croatia (17 %), and Norway (17 %) is enrolled in a long national degree programme of ISCED level 7; students in Slovenia (33 %), Sweden (21 %), and Norway (9 %) are commonly enrolled in short national programmes (ISCED 6); in addition, shares of students in other, non-classified degree programmes are largest in Sweden (12 %) and Norway (8 %).

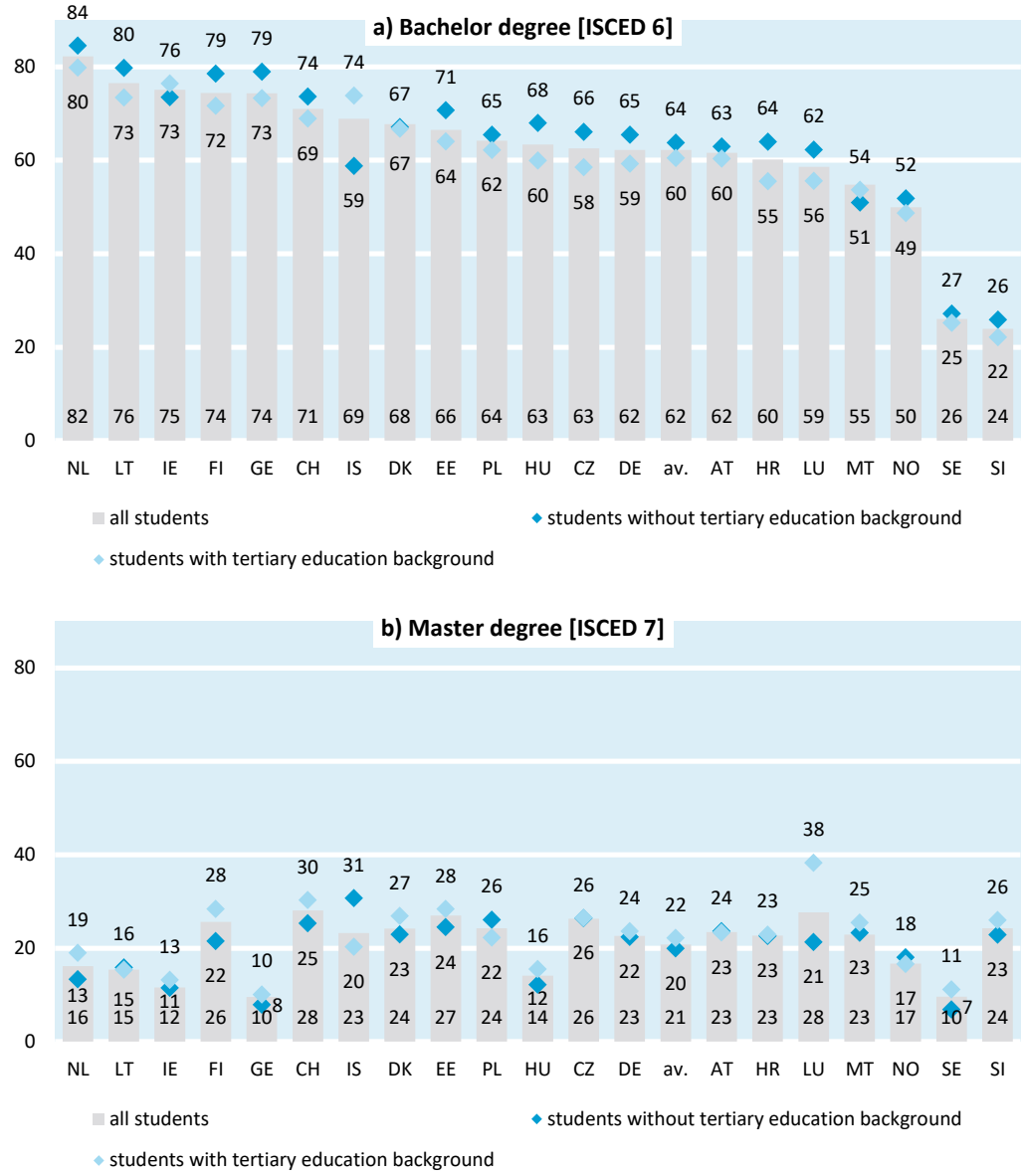
- Despite the cross-sectional design of this study, cautious considerations can be drawn regarding transition from Bachelor (or equivalent national undergraduate/ ISCED 6 programmes) into Master studies. The larger the difference between share of students enrolled in ISCED 6 programmes in relation to shares of students enrolled in Master studies, the more uncommon it is to progress studies from undergraduate to graduate courses (e.g. Georgia or Ireland). The other way round, the smaller the relation of shares of students in Bachelor and Master programmes, the more like is a progression of studies from undergraduate to graduate courses (e.g. Luxembourg, Czech Republic, Malta, Slovenia, Switzerland, Estonia, Poland, Denmark, Germany, or Finland).

Figure B4.4 Enrolment in different study programmes
Share of students (in %)



Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, C.4.
Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).
EUROSTUDENT question(s): I.5 With which degree does your current #(main) study programme conclude?
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: CZ, DE, DK, LU, MT, NO, PL, SI, CH.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

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 (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).
EUROSTUDENT question(s): 1.5 With which degree does your current #(main) study programme conclude?
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: CZ, DE, DK, LU, MT, NO, PL, SI, CH.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

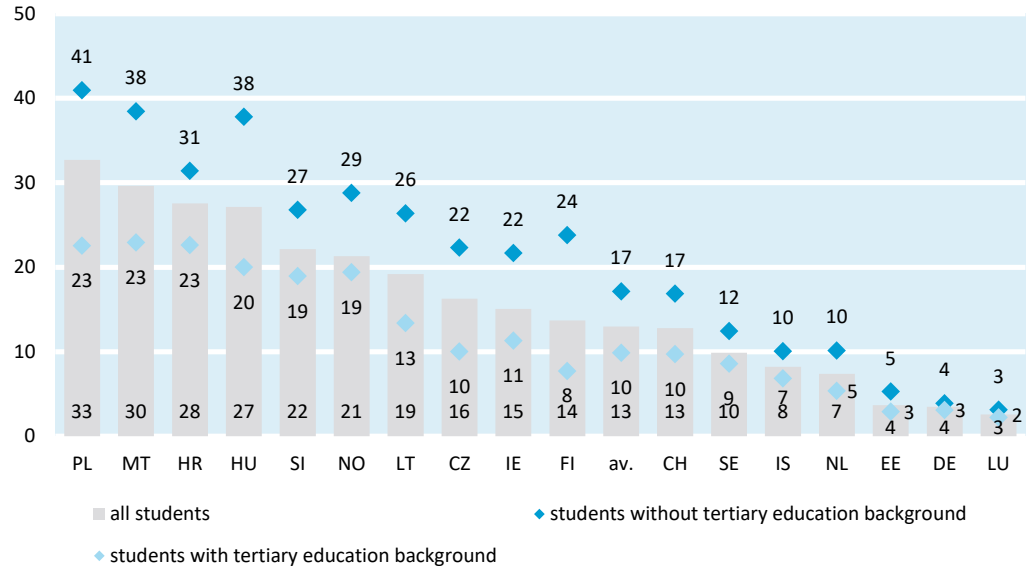
Taking a closer look at study programmes besides Bachelor and Master courses of study, further differences with respect to students' educational background are revealed (Table B4.4):

- Across countries (where such study programmes are offered), students with tertiary education background are more frequently enrolled in long national degree programmes than students without higher education background. This between-group difference is largest in Norway and less distinct in Austria and Estonia.

- In all countries, where short-cycle degrees are offered, students without tertiary education background are more frequently enrolled in such programmes than students with 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).

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, GE.
Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).
EUROSTUDENT question(s): 1.6 What is your current formal status as a student?
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: CZ, EE, HU, LU, MT, NL, NO, PL, SE.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

Status of enrolment

Part-time studies are particularly attractive for certain groups, e.g., students from low socio-economic background, working students, or students with increased 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 sixth student without tertiary education background is studying in part-time mode (17 %), while only a tenth of students with tertiary education background is pursuing studies formally in part-time (10 %).

- In all countries where students can formally register as part-time student (meaning all participating countries except Austria, Denmark, and Georgia), students without tertiary education background are more frequently studying in part-time mode than students with tertiary education background. Between-group differences are largest in Poland (41 % vs. 23 %), Hungary (38 % vs. 20 %), Malta (38 % vs. 23 %), and Finland (24 % vs. 8 %).

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

- This finding is prevalent in all participating countries that allow for formal part-time studies. Across countries, shares of formal part-time studies are largest among working

students with a workload of more than 20 hours per week in Malta (86 %), Norway (68 %), Poland (68 %), Hungary (65 %), Ireland (65 %), and Sweden (65 %).

With regard to sex, no clear pattern regarding formal part-time studies appears:

- While female students in Norway (25 % vs. 16 %), Malta (33 % vs. 25 %), Hungary (30 % vs. 24 %), and Finland (16 % vs. 11 %) considerably more frequently indicate part-time studies than their fellow male students, there are some countries where male students are more frequently pursuing their studies in part-time mode (e.g. Slovenia).

Comparing the formal status of enrolment to actual study intensity, measured in time spent on studying (taught studies and personal study time), some findings are of notice (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 than would be expected based on students' official part-time status can be found. Even in Denmark or Austria, where there are no formal part-time studies, large shares of students report de-facto studying with a low intensity which indicates that there are potentially unmet needs for part-time studies[1].

- Roughly corresponding shares of formal full-time studies and low intensity students can, e.g., be found in Hungary, Malta, Slovenia, Lithuania, and Ireland. It can be assumed that the need of 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 20h/week. This implies that in these countries, many students with official part-time status nevertheless spend considerable time on their studies.

Students' satisfaction

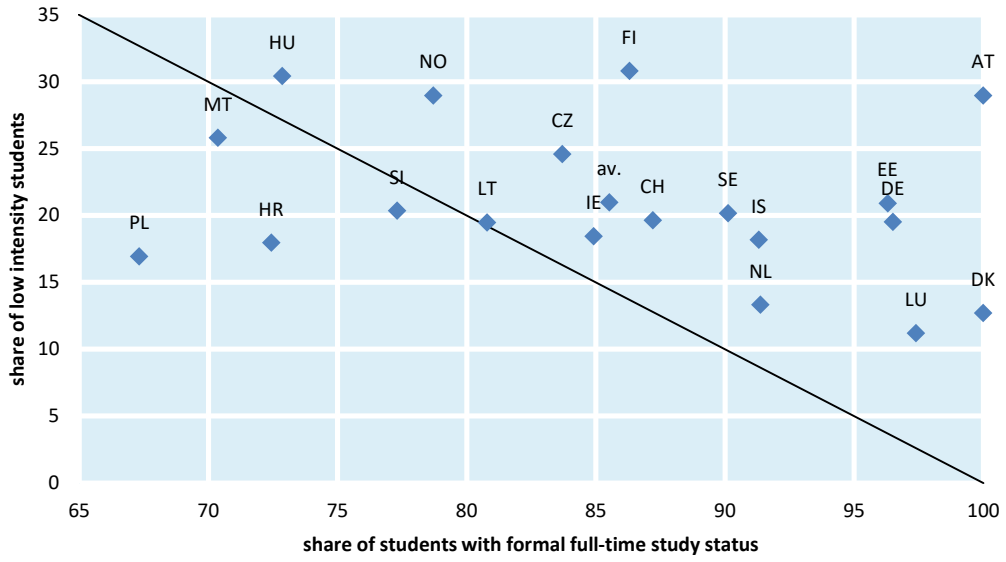
On cross-country average, satisfaction with aggregated indicators on certain aspects of support provided by students' higher education institution amounts to a mean of 53, almost in the middle of the scale ranging from 0 (not sufficient support at all) to 100 (entirely sufficient support; Figure B4.8). 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' higher education institutions is largest in Georgia, with an average of 60 on the aggregated score.

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

[1] 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 (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).
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: CZ, EE, HU, LU, MT, NL, NO, PL, SE.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

Taking the types and modes of study in the form of type of higher education institution, field of study, type of study programme, and formal status of enrolment into account, certain differences in students' satisfaction can be observed (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 distinct in Poland (45 vs. 58), Czech Republic (54 vs. 64), Georgia (58 vs. 68), and Croatia (39 vs. 49), and Slovenia (51 vs. 61).

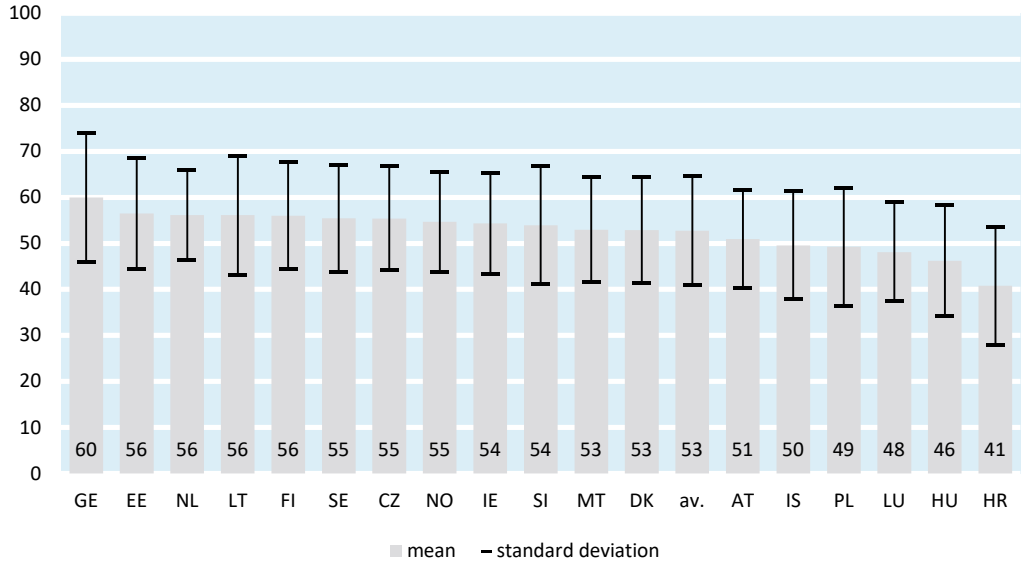
- While no clear pattern of satisfaction with the support provided by the HEI by fields of study emerges across countries, some findings are of interest. For example, on cross-country average, students in the fields of Health and Welfare as well as Natural Sciences, Mathematics and Law are less satisfied 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, or Malta).

- No consistent pattern with regards to satisfaction in different types of study programmes becomes apparent across countries. Students enrolled in long national degree programmes are, however, in many cases less satisfied with support provided by their higher education institution in many countries (e.g. in Czech Republic, Estonia, Croatia, Hungary, Lithuania, and Poland).

- With regards to the formal status of enrolment, no general difference between formal full- and part-time students emerges. On the one hand, part-time students e.g. in Luxembourg (48 vs. 42) are less satisfied than full-time students. On the other hand, part-time students in countries like Malta (48 vs. 63), Czech Republic (54 vs. 63), Norway (53 vs. 61), and

Lithuania (55 vs. 61) are distinctly more satisfied with support provided by their higher education institutions than full-time students.

Figure B4.8 Students' average satisfaction with support provided by their HEI
Mean satisfaction on a scale from 0 = not sufficient at all to 100 = entirely sufficient

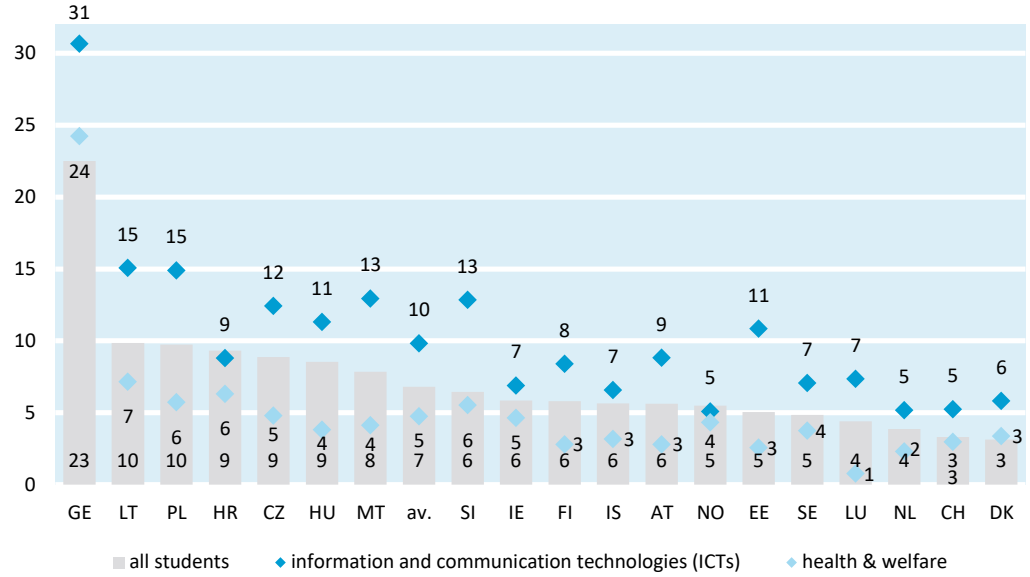


Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, C.33. **No data:** DE, CH.
Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).
EUROSTUDENT question(s): 3.7 How satisfied are you with the support provided to you by your #higher education institution or #cooperating organisations (#example organisation for student affairs) 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.

Across most countries, the average intention to drop out of studies can be considered as low – on cross-country average only seven per cent of students (strongly) think of completely abandoning their higher education studies (Figure B4.9). Variation in drop-out intention is large between fields of study. While, on cross-country average, only five per cent of students in the field of Health and Welfare consider dropping out, the average amounts to ten per cent among students in the field of ICTs.

- The share of students with the intention to drop out of studies is lowest in Denmark (3 %) and Switzerland (3 %) and comparably large in Georgia (23 %).
- Differences in drop-out intention between the fields of study of Health and Welfare and ICTs are present in all participating countries. The degree of differences between these fields, however, varies across countries. They are largest in Poland and Malta (with nine percentage points difference respectively) and almost negligible in e.g. Norway.

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.
Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).
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.

Taking a closer look at students' intention to drop out of studies differentiated by types and modes of study, some differences emerge, foremost with respect to the national specifics between types of study programmes and less with regards to the type of higher education institution and formal status of enrolment (Table B4.7).

With regards to the type of study programme, students enrolled in Master programmes and long national degree programmes as well as other types of study programmes less often consider dropping their studies, with cross-country averages of six per cent. Contrarily, the drop-out intention is larger among students enrolled in short national programmes, with 12 per cent on average of 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 notice:

- Students enrolled at non-universities are slightly more intent to drop out of studies in some countries, e.g. Georgia (26 % vs. 22 %) and Malta (11 % vs. 7 %).
- Part-time students in Sweden (9 % vs. 4 %) and Iceland (9 % vs. 5 %) more frequently consider dropping out 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 Finland, Switzerland, the Netherlands, Estonia, Denmark, Iceland, and Lithuania 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 Malta, Luxembourg, and Slovenia. Most countries' higher education landscape includes institutions beyond the classic university model, e.g., universities of applied sciences, or teaching colleges, whereas no such differentiation between different types of institutions is made in Iceland and Sweden. Comparing across countries, the popularity of different study fields also varies, with sometimes notable differences between countries: While the field of Health and Welfare is especially popular in Denmark and Norway, students in Germany, Sweden, Finland, and Slovenia are quite often studying subjects in the field of Engineering, Manufacturing and Construction, whereas large shares of students in Georgia, Malta, Croatia, and the Netherlands belong to the field of Business, Administration and Law. With regard to organisation of studies, large share 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 present in Austria, Denmark, and Georgia.

Despite differences in the formal framework of higher education, common patterns across countries emerge when analysing which students study at the different institutions, in the different types of degree programmes, and various fields of study. A striking finding is that students without tertiary education background, across (almost) all countries, are more commonly enrolled at non-universities, are frequently enrolled in subjects of the field of Education, are commonly enrolled in Bachelor or short-cycle programmes while their participation in Master programmes is low, and are more commonly studying in formal part-time mode compared to their fellow students with 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, and highlight 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 participation of students with socio-economic disadvantages 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 are facing particular challenges and are potentially at risk of abandoning their studies. Some clear cross-country findings in this regard are that in most participating countries with dual 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 Law are less satisfied than students in other fields of study. Drop-out intentions most clearly vary, across countries, along the lines of study fields, with students studying Information and Communication Technologies in all countries most often 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 studies who might particularly benefit from additional support.

Tables

Table 4.1 Type of higher education institution 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
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	67	64	67	65	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.	**74**	**73**	**78**	**78**	**74**	**75**	**74**	**29**	**30**	**24**	**25**	**29**	**28**	**29**

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 (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

EUROSTUDENT question(s): 1.3 At what type of higher education institution 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, PL.

Table 4.2 Fields of study by sex

Share of students (in %)

	education (incl. teacher training)		arts and humanities		social sciences, journalism & information		business, administration & law		natural sciences, mathematics & statistics		information & communication technologies (ICTs)		engineering, manufacturing & construction		agriculture, forestry, fisheries & veterinary		health & 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
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	10	11	9	5	29	30	2	3	2	15	5	12	0	0	21	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	4	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**	**22**	**22**	**6**	**7**	**2**	**12**	**7**	**23**	**2**	**2**	**21**	**9**	**3**	**4**

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

Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, C.3.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

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

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

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

Table 4.3 Fields of study by educational background

Share of students (in %)

	education (incl. teacher training)		arts and humanities		social sciences, journalism & information		business, administration & law		natural sciences, mathematics & statistics		information & communication technologies (ICTs)		engineering, manufacturing & construction		agriculture, forestry, fisheries & veterinary		health & welfare		services	
	students without tertiary education background	students with tertiary education background	students without tertiary education background	students with tertiary education background	students without tertiary education background	students with tertiary education background	students without tertiary education background	students with tertiary education background	students without tertiary education background	students with tertiary education background	students without tertiary education background	students with tertiary education background	students without tertiary education background	students with tertiary education background	students without tertiary education background	students with tertiary education background	students without tertiary education background	students with tertiary education background	students without tertiary education background	students with 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	8	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
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	9	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	24	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**	**7**	**13**	**14**	**2**	**2**	**15**	**16**	**4**	**3**

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

Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, C.3.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

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

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

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

Table 4.4 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 tertiary education background	students with tertiary education background	students without tertiary education background	students with tertiary education background	students without tertiary education background	students with tertiary education background	students without tertiary education background	students with tertiary education background	students without tertiary education background	students with tertiary education background	students without tertiary education background	students with 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	n/a	n/a
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
GE	79	73	8	10	10	15	2	1	1	1	n/a	n/a
HR	64	55	23	23	13	22	n/a	n/a	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	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	84	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	27	18	12	11
SI	26	22	23	26	2	7	21	7	28	38	n/a	n/a
av.	**64**	**60**	**20**	**22**	**9**	**15**	**10**	**4**	**12**	**11**	**4**	**3**

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

Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, C.4.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

EUROSTUDENT question(s): I.5 With which degree does your current #(main) study programme conclude?

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT conventions: CZ, DE, DK, LU, MT, NO, PL, SI, CH.

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

Table 4.5 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 tertiary education background	students with tertiary education background	students without paid employment during the semester	students working in paid job, ≤20 h/week	students working in paid job, >20 h/week	female	male	students without tertiary education background	students with tertiary education background	students without paid employment during the semester	students working in paid job, ≤20 h/week	students working in paid job, >20 h/week
AT	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	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	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	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
GE	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.
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.	**85**	**87**	**81**	**89**	**96**	**94**	**57**	**17**	**15**	**21**	**12**	**5**	**6**	**48**

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

Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, C.5.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

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 shares are very low in the few countries where other study statuses exist.

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT conventions: CZ, EE, HU, LU, MT, NL, NO, PL, SE.

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

Table 4.6 Students' average satisfaction with 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 & information	business, administration & law	natural sciences, mathematics & statistics	ICTs	engineering, manufacturing & construction	agriculture, forestry, fisheries & veterinary	health & 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
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	52	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
GE	58	68	65	61	59	63	56	69	50	62	56	64	61	62	55	50	65	n/a	0	0
HR	39	49	42	41	45	44	35	44	37	52	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	0	47	51	48	52	47	47	52	53	50	0	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	62	56	54	47	39	51	46	64	42	39	48	49	n/a	48	n/a	n/a	48	42
MT	51	57	53	54	56	54	50	52	42	60	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	67	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	0	55	56	53	56	56	57	57	57	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**	**53**	**52**	**53**	**55**	**50**	**55**	**52**	**55**	**50**	**55**	**53**	**54**	**47**	**55**	**55**	**55**	**51**	**55**

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 (spring 2020).

EUROSTUDENT question(s): 3.7 How satisfied are you with the support provided to you by your #higher education institution 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, PL.

Table 4.7 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 & information	business, administration & law	natural sciences, mathematics & statistics	ICTs	engineering, manufacturing & construction	agriculture, forestry, fisheries & veterinary	health & 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
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
GE	22	26	29	20	27	22	27	31	10	11	24	29	23	19	25	14	25	n/a	n.d.	n.d.
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	n/a	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**	**8**	**9**	**7**	**7**	**7**	**10**	**7**	**7**	**5**	**8**	**8**	**6**	**6**	**8**	**12**	**6**	**6**	**8**

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 (spring 2020).

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, PL.

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Chapter B5

Students' time budget

Key findings

- **Time budget:** Students have a full schedule: on average, they spend 48 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 and Sweden, the average is about 10 hours per week lower.

- **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 between study programmes. Study programmes in the field of natural sciences have a study load of on average 38 hours, 8 hours more than for example studies in the field of the social sciences. This leaves less time for combining studying with a paid job, which becomes visible in a lower share of working students in the field of natural sciences.

- **Satisfaction with time budget:** Four out of five students (81 %) are dissatisfied with at least one aspect of their weekly time budget. An average 40 % of students want to work more and/or study more. One in three students would like to study less, 13 % want to work less. Students in Georgia and the Netherlands are most often satisfied with their time budget, while students in Poland and Lithuania are least often happy with the number of hours they spend on working and/or studying.

- **Time budget and study performance:** Students who spend more time studying, more often assess their study performance as better in comparison to fellow students. This effect is most visible in Malta, Georgia, Austria, and Norway. Students who work a lot (more than 20 hours per week), experience (a lot) more often difficulties in their studies because of their job obligation than students who work less. Despite these conclusions the share of students who consider dropping out of their study programme, is just weakly related to an increased number of working hours.

Main issues

Time budget

Unlike secondary school, most study programmes in higher education give a certain amount of freedom to students: besides the taught study time, 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? Becker (1965) suggests in his rational choice theory 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 at several decision points in their studies make different choices because of differences in the 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 6), for example, will make different choices compared to students who do not absolutely 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

A lot 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 less 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. For the case of France, Body et al. (2014) found a lower threshold: working 8 hours or less 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 moment 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 threatened when students work (a lot) besides the time spent on their studies (Carney et al., 2005, Creed et al., 2015; Shankland et al., 2019). Already in 1977, Vickery calls this 'time poverty': quality of life and well-being is under pressure when people experience lack of time for completing necessary tasks.

This chapter looks into the time budget of students. Starting with unraveling the composition of the time budget, 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 are for example: 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 asked in hours per week. The focus group of working students exists of students who either do not work besides their studies, who work 1 to 20 hours per week during lecture period or who work more than 20 hours per week during lecture period. Besides the indication of 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? In order 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 48 hours per week, the average student in the EUROSTUDENT countries spends 16 hours per week on taught studies, 18 hours on personal study time and 14 hours on one or more paid job(s), see Figure B5.1. Full-time students spend more time on study-related activities, part-time students (who combine a regular job with studying) work (obviously) 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 9 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.

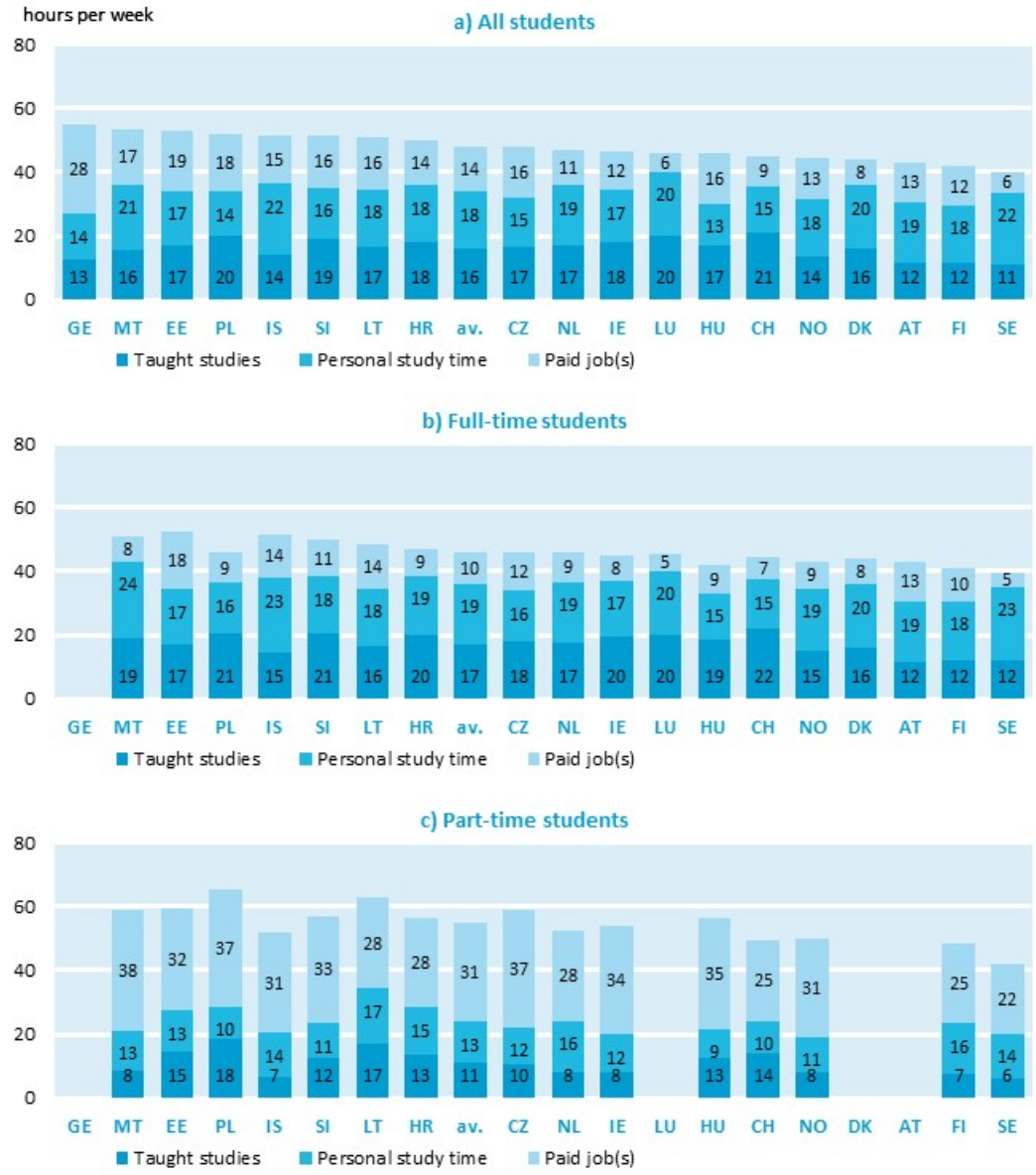
- The three countries with the highest total time budget of students are Georgia (55 hours per week), Malta (54 hours per week), and Estonia (53 hours per week). On average, the time budget of these students is over than 10 hours per week higher than that of students on the other end of the spectrum: Austria (43 hours per week), Finland (42 hours per week) and Sweden (40 hours per week).

- 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 (6 hours), whereas students from Georgia work more hours per week (28 hours), which is more than double the amount of 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.

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:** DE; no data on formal status in GE; no data on part-time students in AT, DK. **Too few cases:** LU: part-time students.

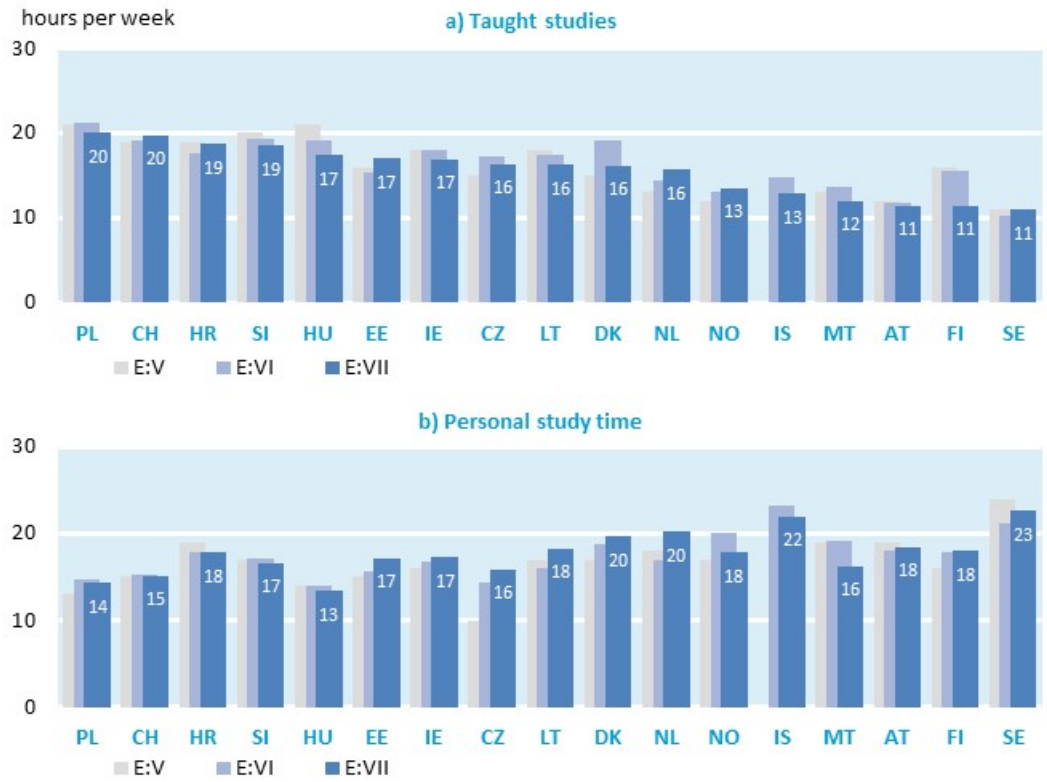
Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).

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?

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: CH.

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

Figure B5.2 Time spent on study-related activities in EUROSTUDENT V, V, and VII
In hours per week (mean), only students not living with parents



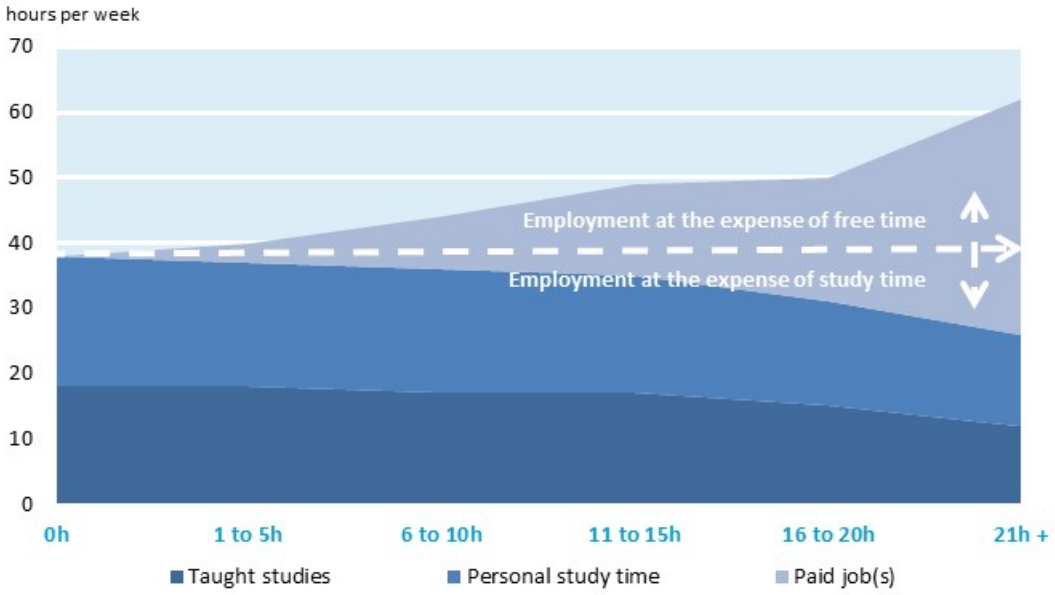
Data source: EUROSTUDENT V, I.1, EUROSTUDENT VII, H.4, H.7, EUROSTUDENT VII, H.28, H.34. **Data not comparable over time:** GE. No data for E:V: IS. No data for E:V and E:VI: LU. No data for E:VII: DE.
Data collection: E:V: 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014. 3; E:VI: 2016, 2017. E:VII: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).
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?
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: CH.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: E:V: DE, GE, IT; E:VI: DE, IE, IT; E:VII: DE, IE, PL.

- 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 to spare. 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.

Fig. B5.2 shows the changes over time in the number of hours students spend on study-related activities and paid jobs for students not living with their parents. In most of the countries there are only little changes over time, especially with regard to the study-related activities (changes of no more than 1 or 2 hours per week). The changes in the time spent on paid job(s) are in most countries more apparent. Looking at the changes the following observations can be made.

- 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).

Figure B5.3 Relationship between time spent on studying and working as (unweighted) cross-country average
In hours per week (mean)



Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, H.26, H.32, H.38.
Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).
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?
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: CH.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

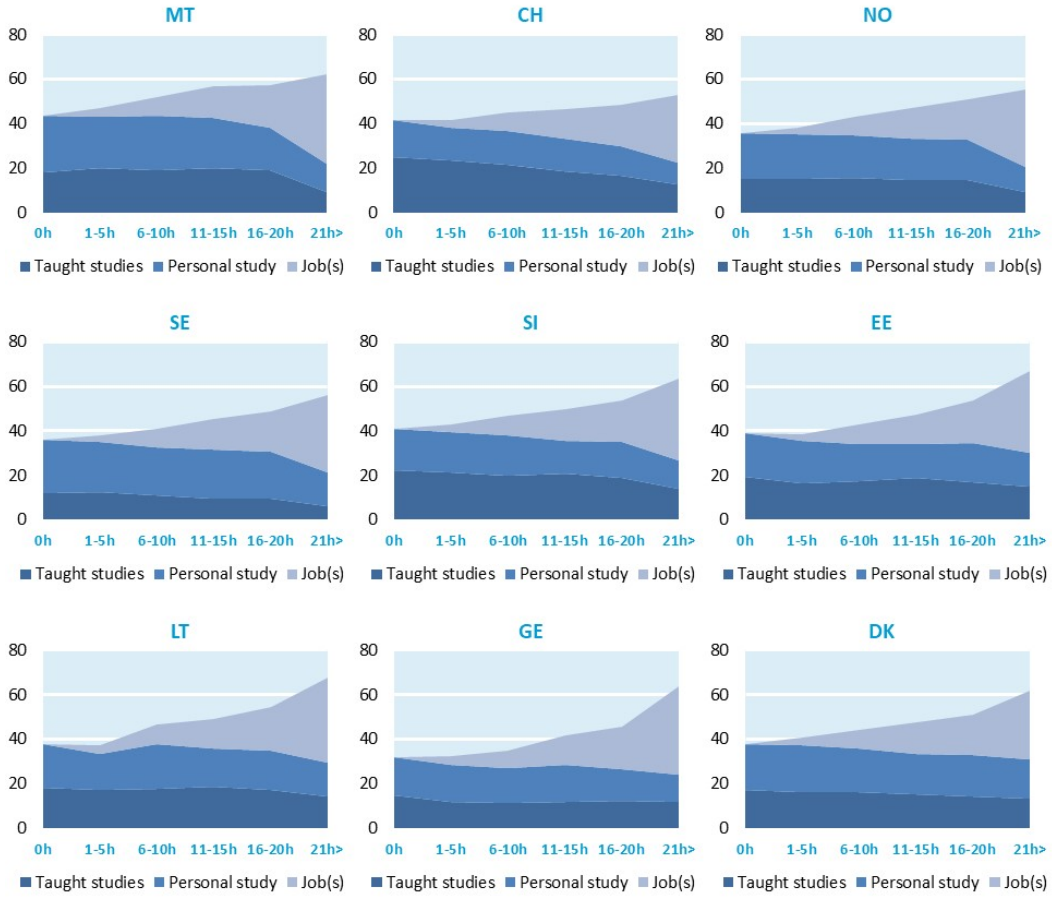
- Personal study time is more stable over time - with only small increases or decreases of one hour per year. Slightly larger changes can be found in Denmark (E:V: 17 hours, E:VII: 20 hours) and Finland (E:V: 16 hours, E:VII: 20 hours). In the Czech Republic the largest difference over time becomes visible, with an increase from 10 hours per week in EUROSTUDENT V to 16 hours per week in EUROSTUDENT VII.

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 in order to take up work, or does work come at the expense of their free time? Fig. B5.3 shows the trade-off between time spent on studying and working, on a cross-country average. It clearly shows that a job comes at the expense of the time students can spend on their studies. Although that effect is most pronounced for the time-consuming jobs: especially with a job of 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 smaller job or no job at all. But more than study time, students' free time suffers from a job. 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 62 hours.

In Fig. B5.4, the previous comparison is made visible for a selection of 9 countries: five countries in which work has the strongest relationship to time spent on study and four countries in which this is the least the case.

Figure B5.4 Relationship between time spent on studying and working in 9 selected countries
In hours per week (mean)



Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, H.26, H.32, H.38.
Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).
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?
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: CH.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

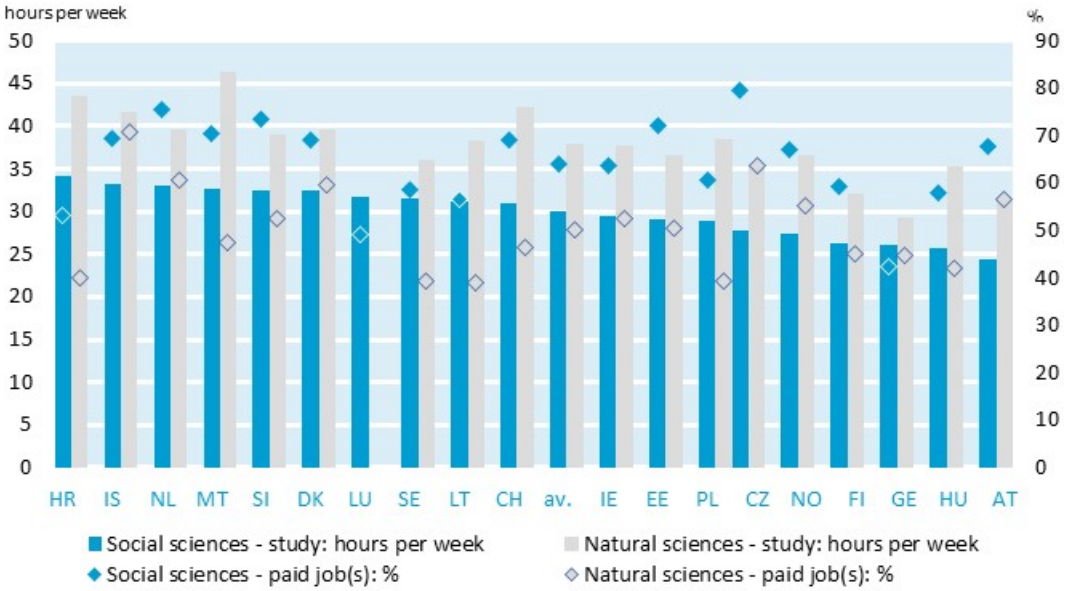
- In Malta and Switzerland, students with a job of 21 hours per week or more, spend half the amount of time on studies as students without a job do (around 20 hours less). In Norway, Sweden and, Slovenia students with a job of 21 hours or more spend an average of 15 hours less on their studies.

- 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 and students with a time-consuming job only spend 7 hours less.

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.

Figure B5.5 Students' time spent on study-related activities and the share 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. **No data:** DE. **Too few cases: LU (natural sciences).**
Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).
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?
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: CH.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

In Figure B5.5, 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. Students in studies with lower study intensity more often work alongside their studies. In the case of social sciences with an average study load of 30 hours, 65 % of the students have a job. In natural sciences, the study load is on average 8 hours higher (38 hours), with 50 % of the students working.

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

- In Iceland however, it can be observed that, although there is a difference in study load, there is no clear difference in the share of working students. A slightly different situation applies to Georgia: here the number of hours that students spend on their studies hardly differs between social sciences and natural sciences, and the share of students who work is lower in social sciences than in natural sciences.

In Table B5.1 the time spent on study-related activities is shown for all study programmes, for all countries. Study programmes that require 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 relatively fewer hours per week on their studies.

In Table B5.2 the time spent on taught studies is compared between study year, type of institution and educational background of parents. This table shows that the number of hours students spend on their studies decreases as the study progresses. Where students attend an average of 17 hours a week in their first year, this drops to an average of 15 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, and 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.

In Figure B5.6 personal study time is compared between Bachelor and Master students. On average students spend 18 per week on personal study time. Bachelor students tend to spend a little bit less (17 hours) whereas Master students spend on average 19 hours per week on personal study time.

- The difference in personal study time between students 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, the direction of this difference is the other way around: Maltese Bachelor students tend to spend more time on personal study than Master students.

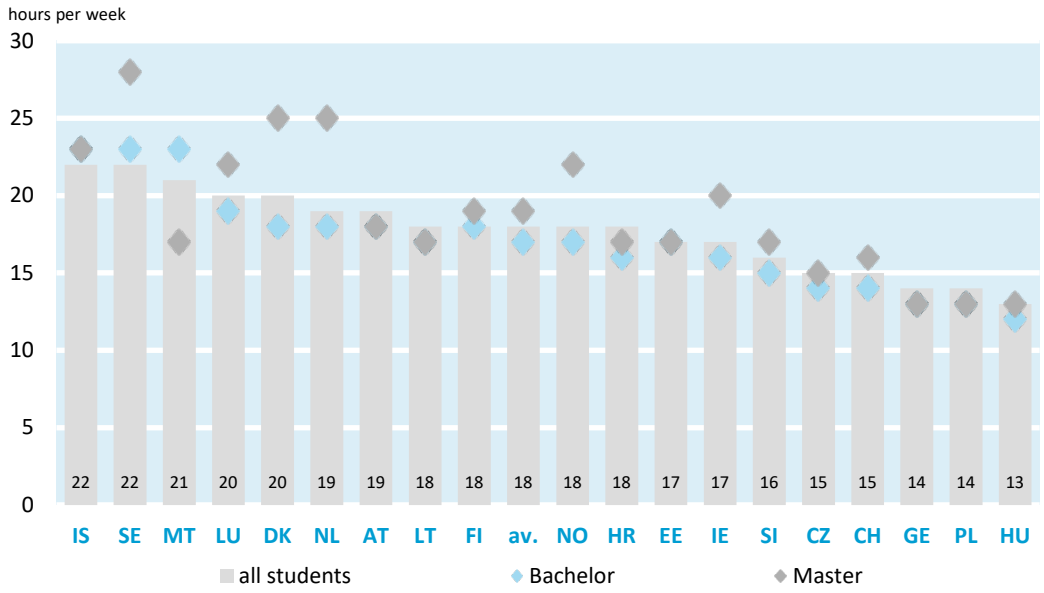
- In Iceland, Austria, Lithuania, Estonia, Georgia, and Poland there is hardlyany difference in personal study time between Bachelor and Master students.

In Table B5.3 the number of hours spent on personal study time is also compared between students of different study years, by type of institution and by educational background.

- 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, with every year of studying, one hour of personal study time is added. In some countries the differences are more visible. Comparing the personal study time of first- and fourth-year students, the difference is five hours and more, in the Czech Republic, Ireland and Malta. In Switzerland, Estonia, Georgia, and the Netherlands, the time spent on personal study is more or less stable over the different study years.

- Generally, students at universities spend more time on personal study (19 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). But considerable differences of around 5 hours can also be seen in Estonia, Georgia and Poland.

Figure B5.6 Time spent on personal study in an average week by qualification studied for
In hours per week (mean)



Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, H.32. **No data:** DE.
Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).
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?
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: CH.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

Satisfaction with time budget

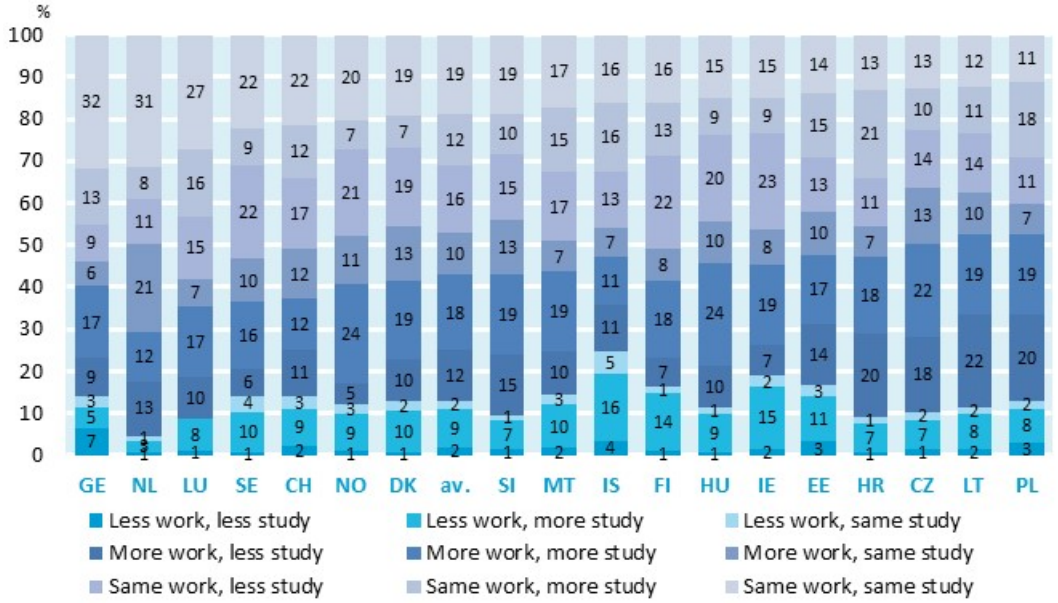
Four out of five students in the EUROSTUDENT countries are dissatisfied with their weekly time budget (Fig. B5.7). In total, about 40 % indicate that they want to spend more time on their studies, whether or not it be in combination with an increase or decreasen the time spent on work. Also 40 % of the students 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.

- Students in Georgia, the Netherlands and Luxembourg are compared to the students in other EUROSTUDENT countries most satisfied with their time budget: (almost) one in three students in these countries indicates 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 the students in the Czech Republic, Lithuania, Poland, Slovenia, and the Netherlands would like to work more hours per week. In Ireland (19 %) and Iceland (25 %), students most often would like to work less.

- When asked, around 45 % or more of the students in Croatia, Poland, Finland and Malta would like to spend more time on their studies. Students who want to study less are harder to find in the Netherlands (22 %) and Switzerland (33 %).

Figure B5.7 Students' satisfaction with their time budget
Share of students, in %



Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, H.6o. **No data:** DE.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).

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).

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: DK.

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

Time budget and study success

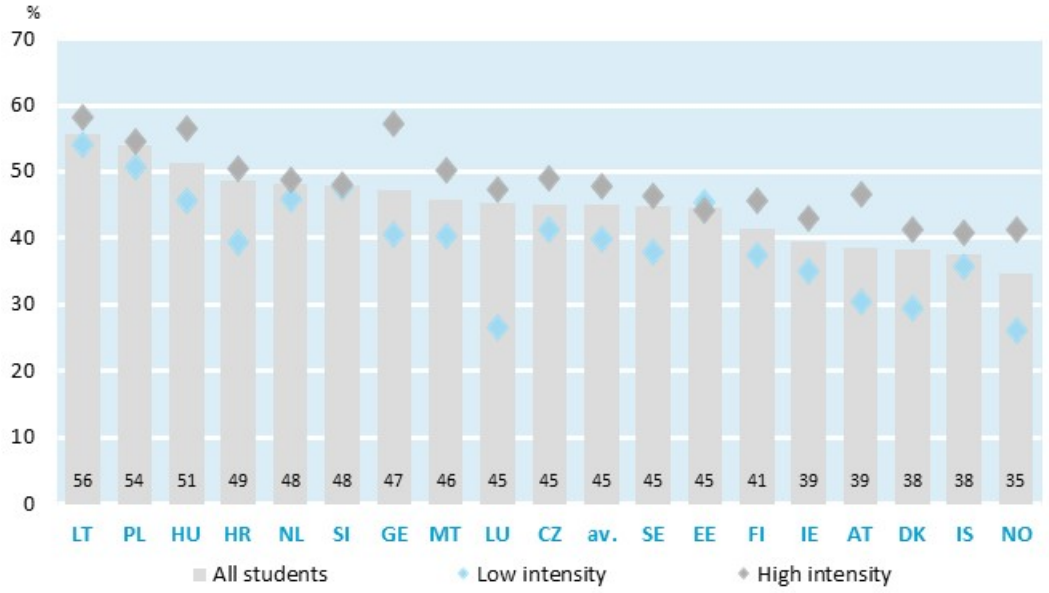
As already shown in > Chapter 4, on EUROSTUDENT average, 45 % of the students assess their study-performance as better in comparison to fellow students (Fig. B5.8). Of the students who spend more than 40 hours per week on study-related activities, 48 % believe that their study progress is better than that of fellow students, as opposed to 40 % of the students who spend 20 hours or less per week on their studies.

- The increase in self-perceived study performance for students who spend more time on their study, is most visible in Malta, Georgia, Austria, and Norway, where the proportion of students who attribute higher study performance to themselves 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 makes less of a difference: in Estonia, Slovenia, the Netherlands, Lithuania, and Poland, the difference is less than 5 percentage points.

Figure B5.8 Share of students who assess their study-performance as better in comparison to 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.**

Data collection: Spring 2019.

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?

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.

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

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

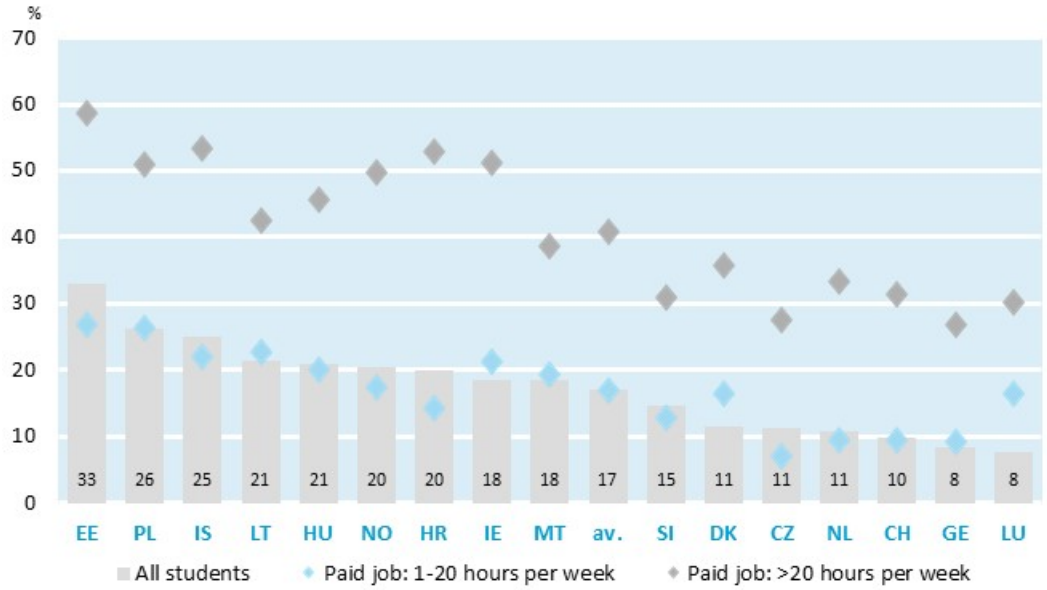
The EUROSTUDENT survey asks students to what extent they experience difficulties in their studies because of their work (Fig. B5.9). On average, 17 % of all students experience difficulties in their studies due to obligations of their paid job. Students who work more than 20 hours per week are particularly affected. Among these students, the share of students reporting difficulties more than doubles to 41 %.

- In Estonia, Poland, Iceland, Croatia, and Ireland, 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 6) disproportionately often report experiencing difficulties in their studies because of their job.

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.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).

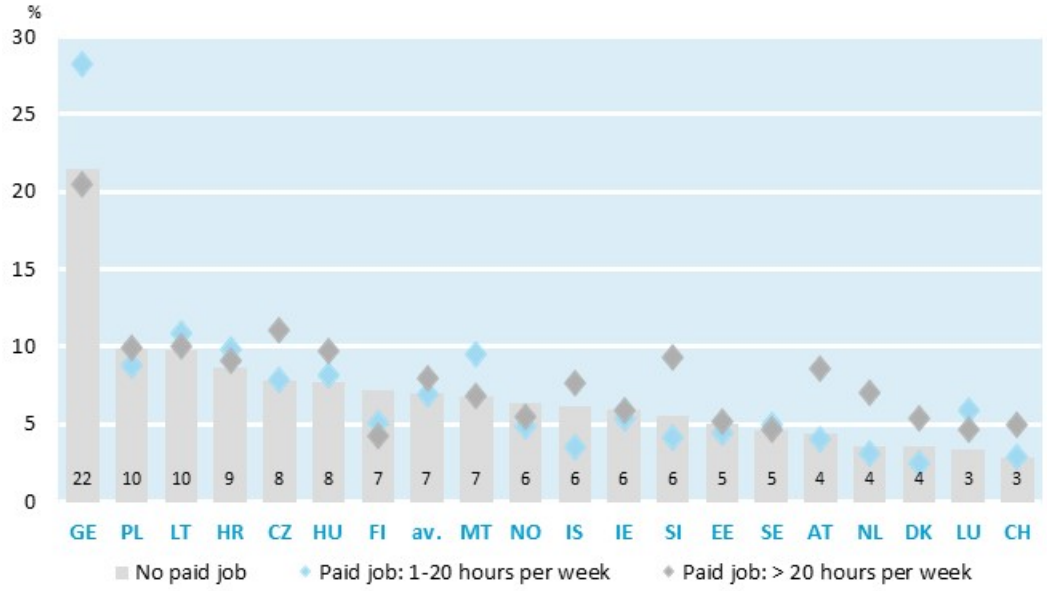
EUROSTUDENT question(s): 3.1. During the current #lecture period, are you experiencing any difficulties in your current #(main) study programme due to any of the following? ['Yes, due to financial difficulties']

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

Despite the larger proportion of students with a relatively time-consuming job who experience problems in their studies, no big differences can be found in the share of students who indicate that they are seriously considering dropping out of the study programme (Fig. B5.10). For the EUROSTUDENT average, 7 % of students without a job consider dropping out, whereas for students with a small job (< 20 hours) this is also 7 % and for students with a large job (21 hours and more) it applies to 8 %. In some countries however, students appear to struggle quite a bit.

- The percentage that indicates that they want to drop out of the study programme is relatively high in Georgia. The share of students who do, is highest among students with a smaller job of maximum 20 hours per week. This pattern can also be observed for students in Malta and Luxembourg.
- In Finland, students who do not have a job think more often than other Finnish students about quitting their studies.
- In the Czech Republic, Slovenia, Austria, and the Netherlands, the share of students with drop-out considerations is highest among the group of students 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.
Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).
EUROSTUDENT question(s): 3.6. Generally, to what extent do you agree with the following thoughts regarding your studies? [I am seriously thinking about changing my current #(main) study programme]
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: DK, EE.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

Discussion and policy considerations

The findings in this chapter make clear that students are busy: for most students, their weekly time spent on study and work corresponds to more than a full-time job of on average 48 hours per week. Time pressure is not equal for all students. Students who combine a study with a relatively large job have a weekly workload in hours that 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 a sense that it will for the short term provide them with money that is needed in everyday life (more on this in > Chapter 6), and for the long term might give them better labour market chances, a higher amount of time spent on work does come at the expense of both the time these students can devote to their studies as well as the free time they have. The latter is certainly not unimportant for the well-being of students (see for example 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: the self-perception of study performance is under pressure when students spend less time on their studies and furthermore, having a (time-consuming) job faces students with difficulties in their studies due to job obligations. Most students (81 %) would like to change at least one aspect of their current time budget. If they had the chance, 40 % would spend more time on their studies and a similar share would (also) prefer to spend more time working.

Another finding in this chapter concerns the differences between study settings: the time needed for studying is not the same in all study programmes and institutions. In the natural sciences more time is needed for both the taught studies and personal study time than in most other study programmes, while studying for example social sciences 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 to attend less classes 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, i.e., 'study-able' to all students or should there be more attention for students who have to combine work and study? It is clear that a more heterogeneous student population (> Chapter 1) places new demands on higher education. Greater flexibility and, where possible, also recognition of knowledge acquired in the work environment, is essential to make higher education more accessible and to align it with the demands placed on students today. Unger and Zaussinger (2018) point out that flexibility is needed in, among other things, the form and place of education. This is already being done in several European countries, for example by being able to follow part-time or dual studies and the recognition of work experience for access to and/or credits within the study programme itself. However, the way it is done differs per country, per institution and often even per study programme. The lessons learned during the COVID pandemic can also help to reorganise education in a way that time spent on taught studies is also becoming 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 keep control over their study and planning. And of course, there is also a limit for institutions to the degree of flexibility they can offer. With still a lot to be learned, Unger and Zaussinger (2018) plead the case for a more structured approach (within countries and at European level), in which knowledge is shared through peer learning on what works and what does not work and in which possible 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

		Field of study									
	All students	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
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**

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

Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, H.17.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).

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?

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

Table B5.2 Time spent on taught studies by study year and type of HEI
Hours per week

		Study year						Type of HEI	
	All students	First year	Second year	Third year	Fourth year	Fifth year	Sixth 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
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.d.
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.d.
SI	19	20	17	17	19	17	t.f.c.	20	16
av.	**16**	**17**	**17**	**16**	**15**	**14**	**14**	**16**	**18**

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

Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, H.26.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).

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?

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

Table B5.3 Time spent on personal study time by age and educational background

Hours per week

		Study year						Type of HEI	
	All students	First year	Second year	Third year	Fourth year	Fifth year	Sixth 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
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.d.
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.d.
SI	16	15	16	18	18	18	t.f.c.	18	11
av.	**18**	**16**	**17**	**18**	**19**	**20**	**21**	**19**	**15**

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

Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, H.32.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).

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?

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

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Chapter B6

Students' employment and internships

Key findings

- **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, and the Netherlands (85 % and over), while working is least common in Georgia (46 %).

- **Employment by educational background:** Students whose parents have not attended tertiary education more often work during lecture period, whereas students with a tertiary educational background more often work only during the lecture-free period. This difference is most pronounced in Malta, Hungary, and Poland.

- **Reasons to work:** Over half of the students work to cover living costs (69 %), to afford things they otherwise would not buy (64 %) and/or to gain experience on the labour market (56 %). Half of all working students combine studying with a paid job because they would not be able to afford to study otherwise. Of the students whose parents are financially not at all well-off, 73 % work to afford studying.

- **Student or worker:** One in every five students would describe themselves as primarily a worker. In Malta, Poland, Estonia, and Hungary, this applies to even one in every three students. In Denmark, Sweden, Luxembourg, Georgia, and the Netherlands, most students (90 % and more) identify primarily as students.

- **Income from paid job:** On average, working students' salaries make up half of their income. In Malta, Estonia, the Czech Republic, and Slovenia, both the importance of the paid job for students' income and the share of working students is above average.

- **Internships:** On average, 43 % of the students have done an internship during their studies in higher education, mostly within the country where they study. 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 'education' (95 %), 'agriculture, forestry, fisheries and veterinary' (90 %) and 'health and welfare' (89 %).

Main issues

Student life often involves more than just studying. Combining studying with a paid job is becoming increasingly widespread in Europe (Masevičiūtė, 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 on studies (> Chapter 5). 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 (better fitting) job after graduation with higher salaries and lower 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 part-time employment does extend the study duration slightly, but significantly reduces the time of finding 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 can both be a sign of struggling and outstanding students. Students who might be afraid of not being able to finish their studies can either decide to start working since that makes more sense with regard to their future, as well as students who are doing very well in their studies can decide to work alongside (Moulin, 2013).

The signal of working alongside studying is also twofold for an employer: on the one hand, it can be seen as an advantage that students were able to complete their studies in combination with a job successfully and, on the other hand, as a disadvantage that students were not (especially when the job is not related) fully committed to their studies (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

Employability of graduates is one of the focal points in the Bologna Process as for example mentioned in the Bologna Process Implementation Report 2018 '[...]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. Internships as part of a study programme are aimed at being the bridge from the world of education to the world of work and thereby improving the employability of students (Knouse et al., 1999). Students may have various benefits from doing an internship. 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 to start building a network early that gives 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) also proved to be useful especially for the development of 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 find it for the voluntary ones 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

followed an internship or another study-related work experience during the study period reduces the probability of having a (very) weak position one year after the graduation, although the probability of being unemployed appears not to be reduced in itself by an internship or study-related work experience.

Not only students benefit, but also both HEIs and firms profit from closer cooperation between education and 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 assess graduate employability better if students have undertaken extracurricular activities (Irwin et al., 2019).

In 2016 almost all countries in the EHEA had regulations or incentives to include practical training and work placements for at least some higher education institutions and/or programmes but monitoring the proportion of students who do 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 students who do not work during the semester, students working in paid jobs less than 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 higher education institution). The main purpose of an internship is gaining practical experience on the labour market.

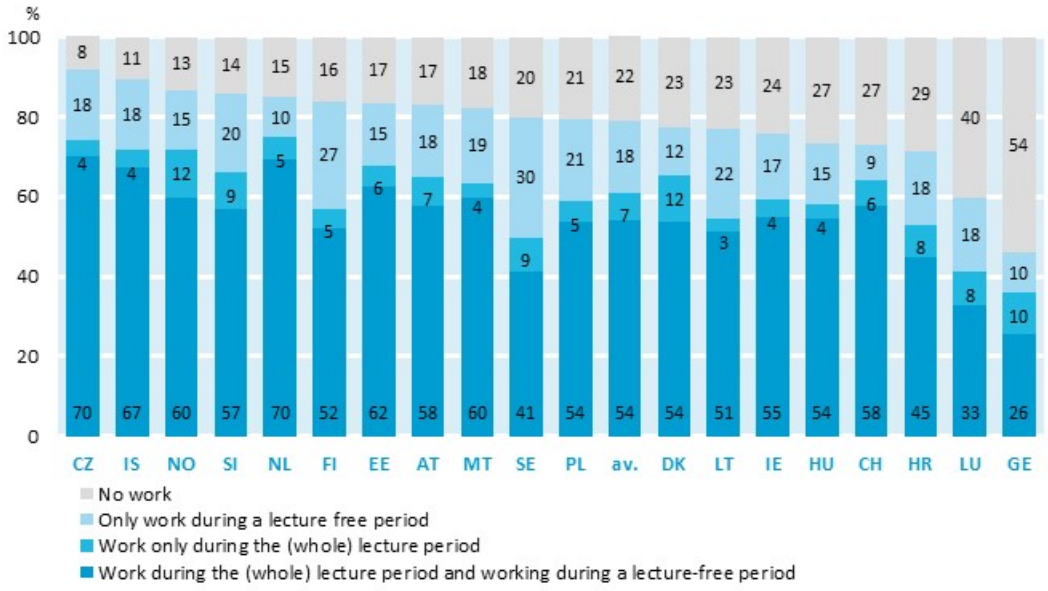
Data and interpretation

Students with paid jobs

On average, almost 80 % of the students in the EUROSTUDENT countries have a paid job; around 60 % directly combine work and study by working during the lecture period; 10 % work only during the lecture-free period (Figure B6.1).

- Across countries, the highest shares of working students can be found in the Czech Republic (92 %), Iceland (89 %), Norway (87 %), Slovenia (86 %), and the Netherlands (85 %).
- In Georgia (46 %) and Luxembourg (60 %) it is the least common for students to have a paid job.
- Working only outside of the lecture period is relatively common in Sweden (30 %) and Finland (27 %), while most of the working students in the Netherlands work at least during the lecture period, often in combination with working during the lecture-free period.

Figure B6.1 Students' employment during lecture period and lecture-free period
Share of students, in %



Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, H.3. **No data:** DE.
Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).
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?
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: CH.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

Table B6.1 compares students' employment rate during the lecture period between students from different age groups, between Bachelor and Master students, and between students either receiving or not receiving public support. The older students are, the bigger the chance they work alongside their studies. On EUROSTUDENT average, a little less than half of the students under 22 have a paid job during the lecture period. By the time the students reach 30 years or over, 77 % of the students combine studying with a paid job.

In line with the usually older age of Master students, they more often (on average 72 %) have a paid job than Bachelor students do (on average 58 %).

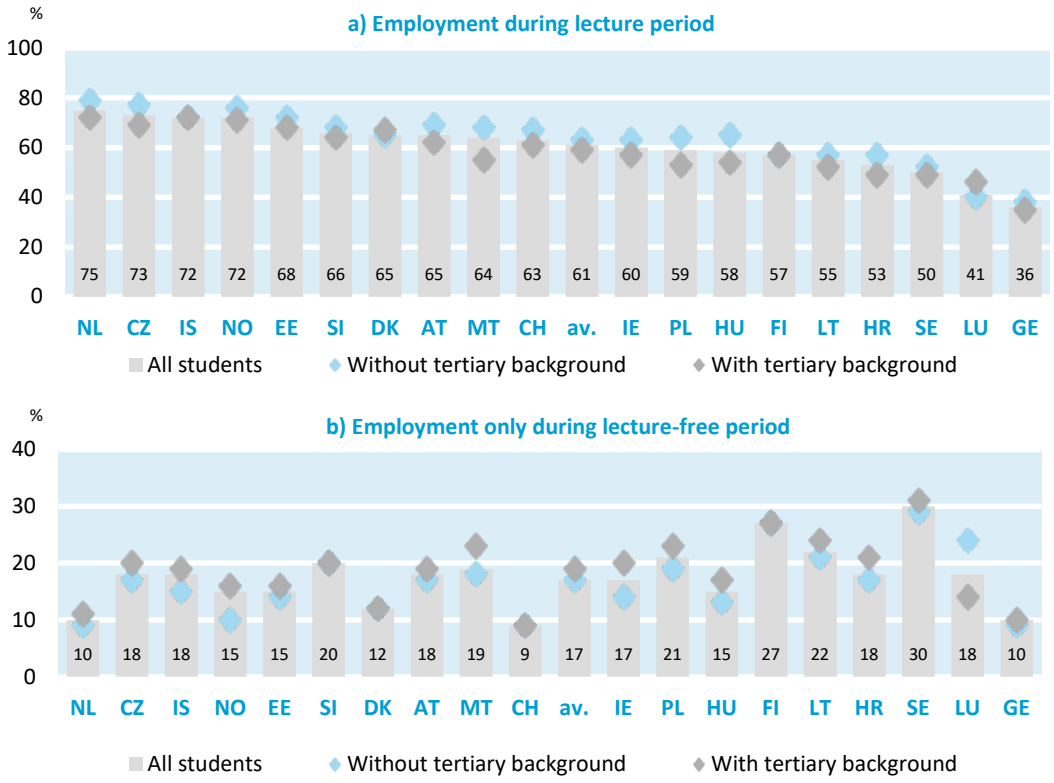
The necessity to work seems to be smaller for students who receive public student support: on EUROSTUDENT average 51 % of these students work during lecture period. In the group of students who do not receive public support 67 % of the students combine studying and working during lecture period.

Students with parents without tertiary education work more often during the lecture period (Figure B6.2). Looking at students who work only during the lecture-free period, it appears that the ratio is reversed: in this case, students relatively often have parents who do have tertiary education.

- In Iceland, Denmark, Finland, and Georgia, the differences between students based on their educational background are small or even non-existing at all.
- In Malta, Hungary, and Poland, the gap between students with and without tertiary educated parents is larger than in the other EUROSTUDENT countries.

Figure B6.2 Students' employment during lecture and lecture-free period by educational background

Share of students with (a) paid job(s), in %



Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, H.1, H.3. **No data:** DE.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).

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?

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: CH.

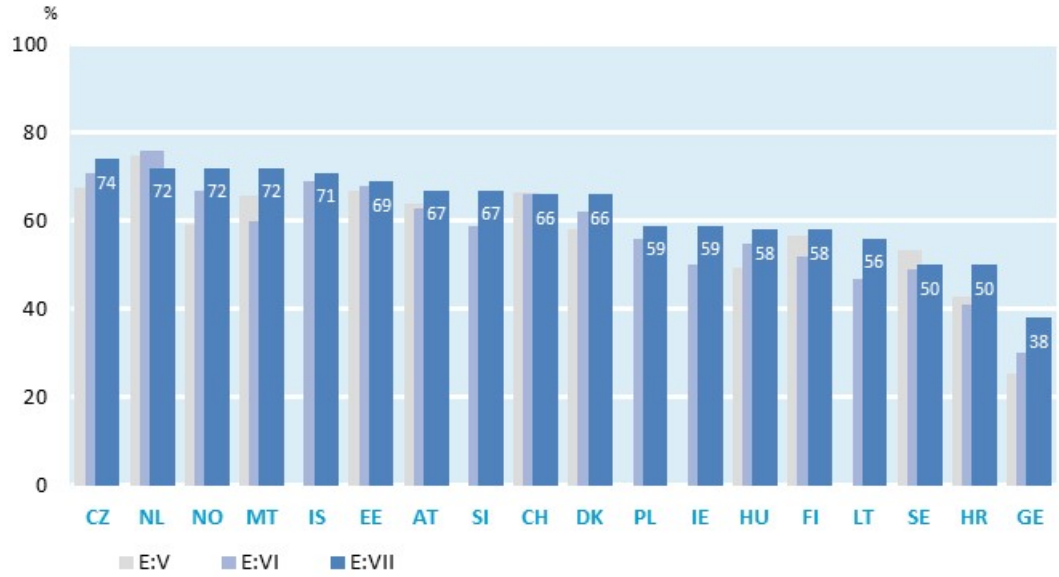
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

Figure B6.3 shows the changes in shares of students with a paid job during the lecture period, over three rounds of EUROSTUDENT.

- In most countries the share of working students has been steadily increasing.
- In Malta, Croatia, Lithuania, Ireland, and Slovenia, the share 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 (3 percentage points) in Sweden and the Netherlands.

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:** PL, LT, IE. No data for E:V: IS. No data for E:V and E:VI: LU. No data for E:VII: DE.
Data collection: E:V: 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014. 3; E:VI: 2016, 2017. E:VII: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).
EUROSTUDENT question(s): 4.5. Do you have (a) paid job(s) during the current #lecture period?
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: CH.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: E:V: DE, GE, IT; E:VI: DE, IE, IT; E:VII: DE, IE, PL.

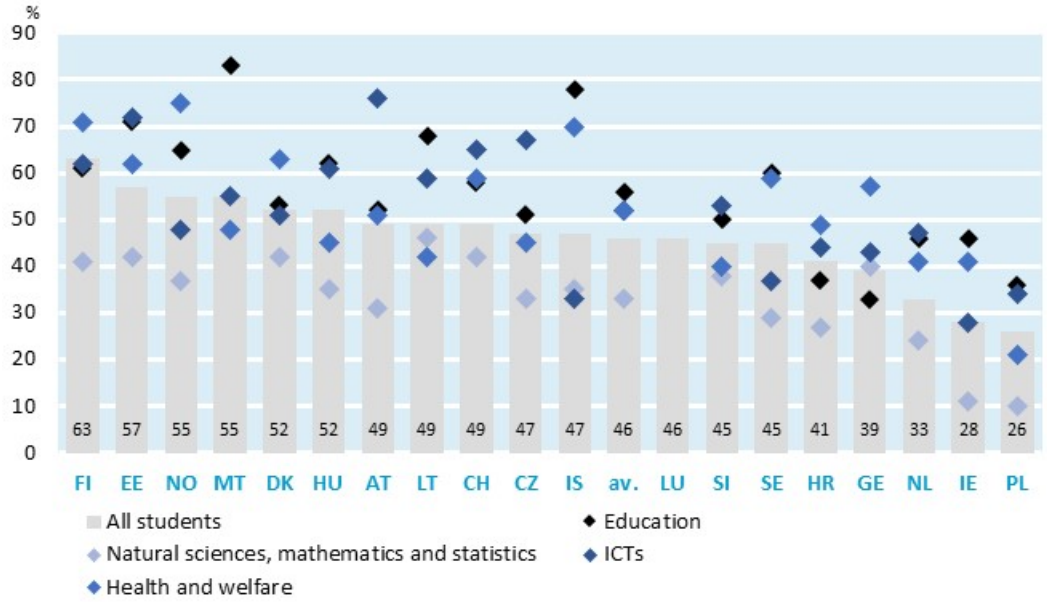
Study-related jobs

Looking closer at the students with a paid job, less than half of students have a job related to their studies (Figure B6.4). On EUROSTUDENT average, students studying 'education' (56 %), 'health and welfare' (52 %), and ICTs (51 %) most often have a job that is related to their studies, while the working students in 'natural sciences, mathematics and statistics' (33 %) the least often have a job that is related to their studies. At the country level, the following patterns emerge:

- In Finland, Estonia, Norway, Malta, Denmark, and Hungary, more than half of the working students have a study-related job.
- In the Netherlands, Ireland and Poland, less than a third of the 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 the 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:** DE. **Too few cases:** LU (field of study).

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).

EUROSTUDENT question(s): 4.8. How closely related is/are your paid job(s) to the content of your current study programme?

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: AT, DK.

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

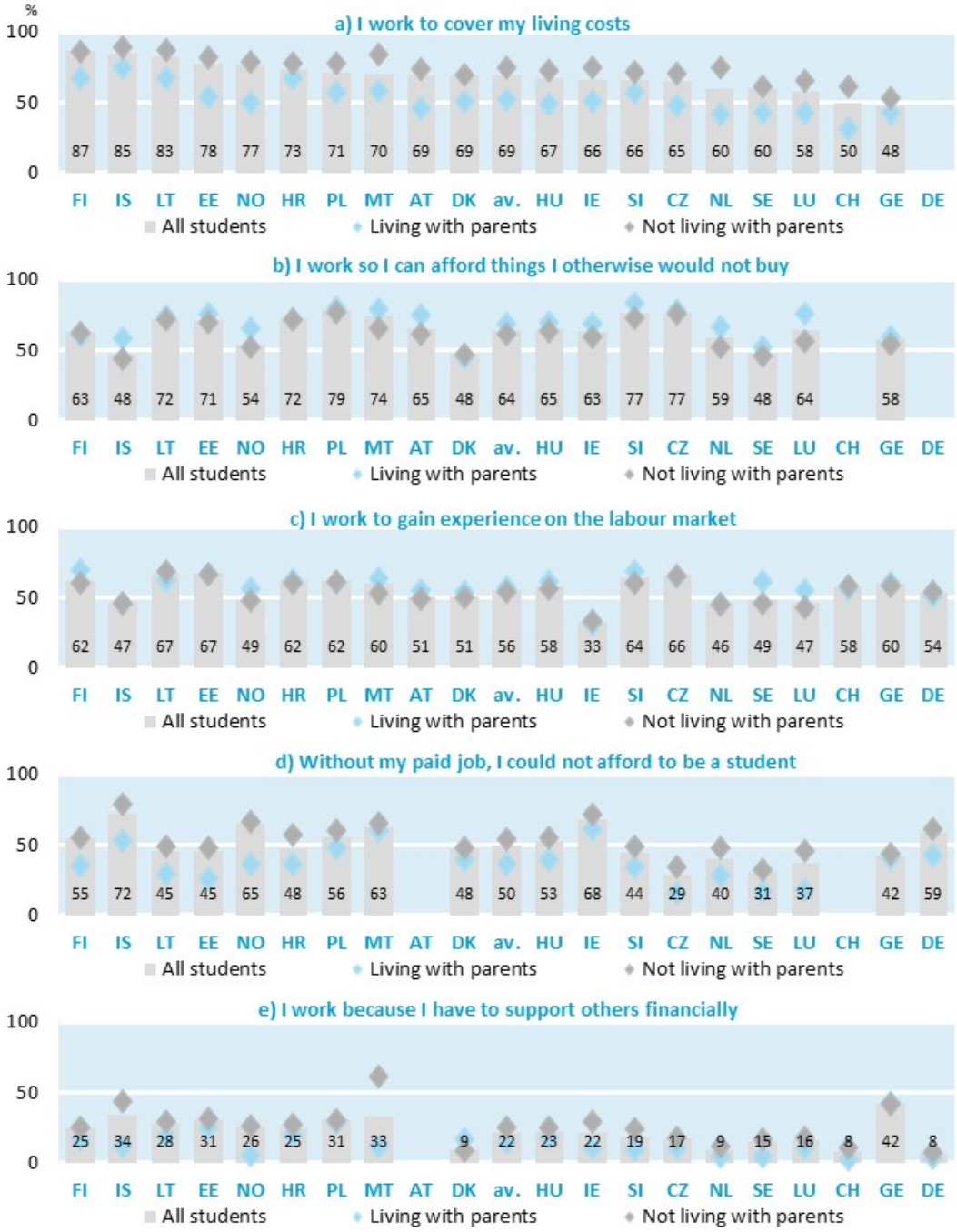
Reasons to work

Why do students work? In order of most frequently listed, students give the following reasons to work alongside their studies (Figure B6.5): to cover their living costs (69 %), to afford things they otherwise would not buy (64 %), to gain experience on the labour market (56 %), 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 do not live with their parents. Students who do live with their parents more often 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 the least common in Switzerland (50 %) and Georgia (46 %).
- Working to afford things students otherwise would not buy is most often mentioned by students in Poland, Slovenia, and the Czech Republic (close to 80 %), and least often by students in Sweden, Denmark and Iceland (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 the working students) in Lithuania, Estonia, and the Czech Republic, and not so often mentioned by working students in Ireland, Iceland, the Netherlands, and Luxembourg (all close to 45 %).

Figure B6.5 Reasons to work by basic form of housing

Share of students, in %



Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, H.5.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

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.

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

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

- Students who indicate that the money they gain from their jobs is necessary for being able to study at all are, compared to the other countries, relatively overrepresented in Iceland (72 %), Ireland (68 %), and Norway (65 %). In the Czech Republic (29 %) and Sweden (31 %) this is less often a reason to have a paid job.

- Working to support others is most common in Georgia (42 %) and Malta (33 %), and the least common in Denmark, the Netherlands, Switzerland, and Germany (all less than 10 %).

Table B6.2 further explores the students who would not be able to afford to study without a paid job, by comparing students by their parental educational background and their parents financial status. Working students with parents who also studied in tertiary education on average less often indicate that they work to be able to study than students with parents who did not (44 % vs. 56 %).

- The differences are particularly large (around 20 percentage points) in Croatia, Hungary and Poland.

The wealthier the 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 33 % indicate working to afford studying. In contrast, 72 % of the students whose parents are not at all well-off do work to afford their study.

- In this case the differences between these to groups are the largest (at least 50 percentage points) in Croatia, Czech Republic, the Netherlands, and Slovenia.

Self-perception: worker or student?

On average, one in every five students describes themselves as primarily a worker rather than a student (Figure B6.6).

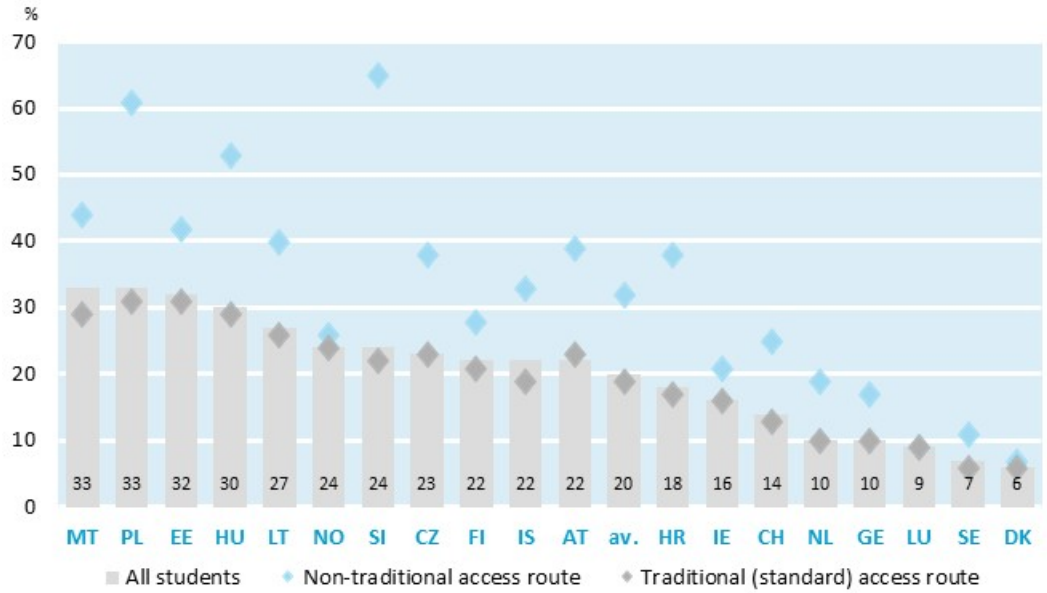
- The highest shares of students who identify as workers, can be found in Malta, Poland, Estonia, and Hungary, where around 1 in 3 students self-identifies primarily as a worker.

- Denmark, Sweden, Luxembourg, Georgia, and the Netherlands are on the other side of the spectrum. In these countries 90 % or more of students 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.

- Looking at the differences based on the access route into higher education, it is remarkable that in a few countries (Norway, Denmark) the difference is a lot smaller (or even not existing) than in other countries (Poland, Slovenia).

Figure B6.6 Self-identification as primarily a worker by access route
Share of students, in %



Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, H.4. **No data:** DE.
Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).
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).
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: DE, HU.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

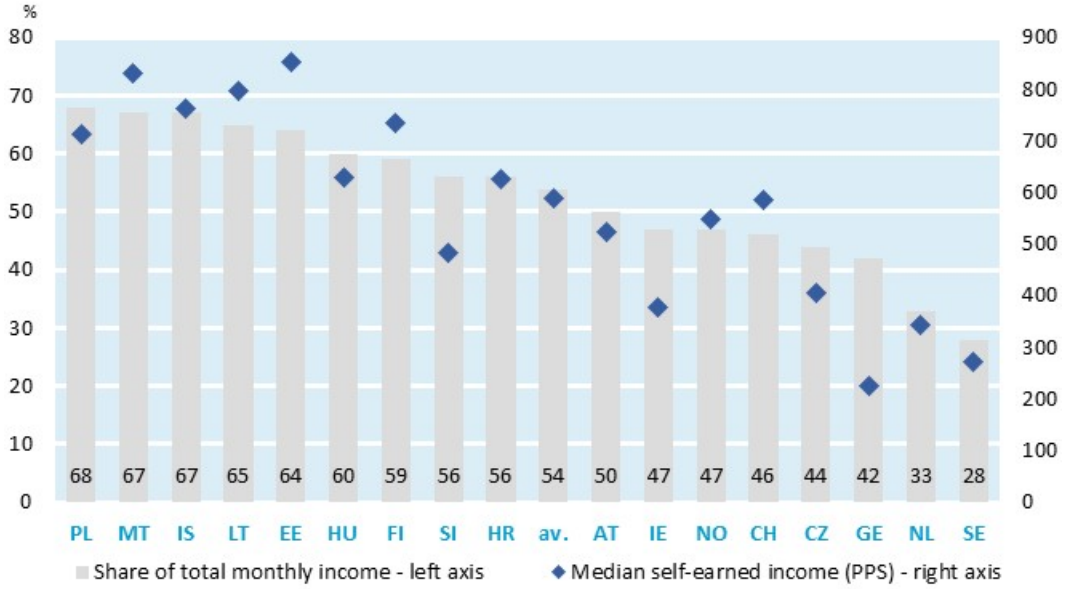
Income from paid job

How much do students earn with their paid jobs, and how important is this income for their total budget? Although students' income is discussed in detail in > Chapter 7, this section already takes a first look at the income that students generate with their jobs. On average, half of the income of working students exists of earnings coming from their paid job. Figure B6.7 shows that the median amount students earn (in PPS: Purchasing Power Standard, > Chapter 7) differs amongst countries, with an EUROSTUDENT median of 571 PPS.

- The importance of job earnings for the total income of students is relatively high in Poland, Malta, Iceland, Lithuania, and Estonia. In these countries the income from their job makes up for at least two-thirds of their total income.
- In the Netherlands and Sweden, job earnings are of less importance in a student's budget; in these countries this income makes up for one-thirds or less of students' total income.
- In Estonia and Malta, the median income of working students in PPS is the highest (over 800 PPS), compared to the other EUROSTUDENT-countries.
- In Ireland, the Netherlands, Sweden, and Georgia the median income is comparatively low (less than 400 PPS).

Figure B6.7 Students' income from current paid job

The median monthly self-earned income of students with paid jobs (in PPS) and as a share of total monthly income incl. transfers in kind (in %)



Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, G.126. **No data:** DE, DK, LU.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).

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?

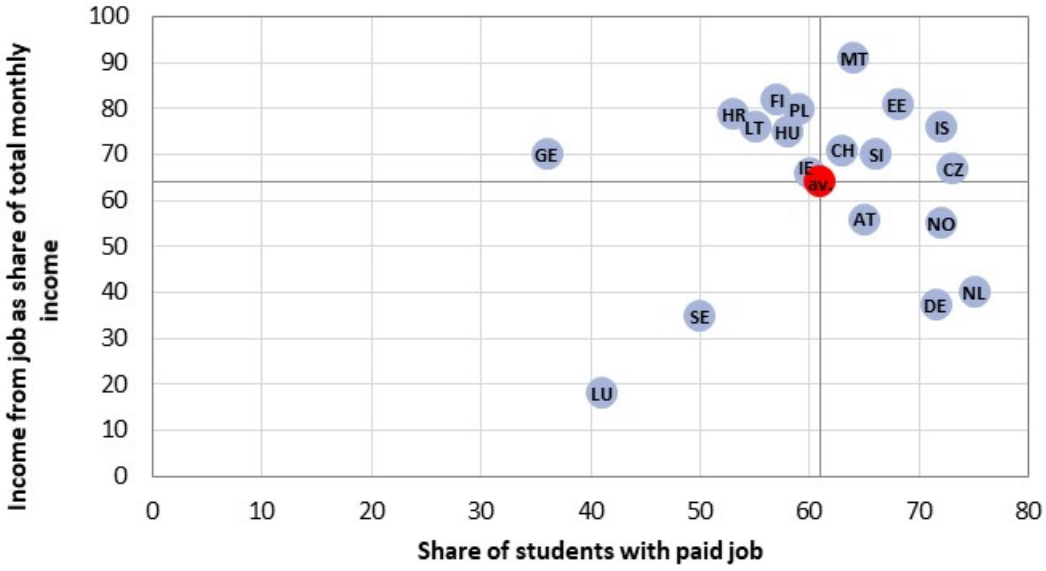
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: SI.

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

The importance of working alongside studying with regard to students' budgets is shown in Figure B6.8. This graph combines the share of students with a paid job and the income coming from that job as a share of students' total income. The higher the position in the right upper corner of this matrix, the more students work and are largely dependent on their income from that job.

- In the top right corner are five countries: Malta, Estonia, Iceland, Czech Republic, and Slovenia. In these countries the percentage of working students is high and the share of the money they earn with their job is an important part of their income.
- Austria, Norway and the Netherlands are in the bottom right corner. In these countries the percentage of working students is high, but the importance of the job to their total budget is considerably less. These are usually the countries where students work a relatively small number of hours per week (> Chapter 5).
- At the bottom left are Luxembourg and Sweden. Here, the number of students who work is low and the share of income formed by income from the job is low compared to other countries.
- In Finland, Poland, Hungary, Lithuania, Croatia, and Georgia, located in the top left corner, a relatively small number of students work, but the salary constitutes a significant 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.
Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).
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?
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: CH, SI.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

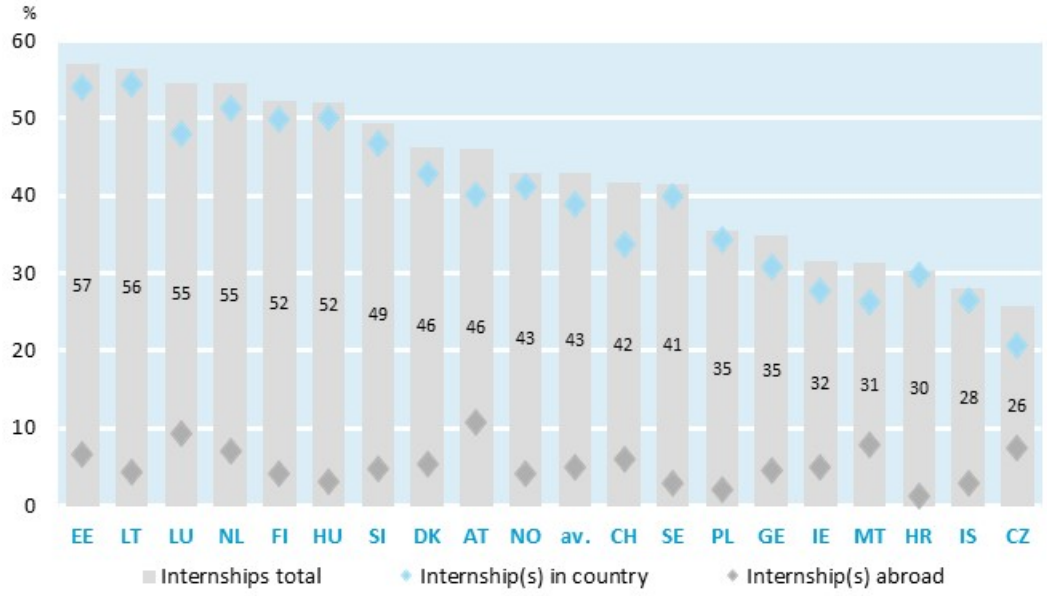
- Ireland scores exactly in the middle: their proportion of working students and the proportion of job income of total income correspond exactly to the EUROSTUDENT average.

Internships

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 done an internship at some point in their studies. The majority (39 %) do this in the country where they study, a small part (also) goes abroad for it (5 %). The differences between countries are considerable:

- In Estonia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Finland and Hungary more than half of current students have done an internship during their studies.
- In the Czech Republic, Iceland, Croatia, Malta and Ireland this is the least common: less than one-thirds of the students in these countries have completed an internship.
- Although for all countries the share of students who do an internship within the country is higher than the share of students who cross borders to do so. In some countries the proportion of students who do go abroad is higher compared to other countries. This is the case for Austria (11 %), Luxembourg (9 %) and Malta (8 %). More insights into internships abroad can be found in > Chapter 10 on international student mobility.

Figure B6.9 Internship(s) since first entering HE (in country or abroad)
Share of students, in %

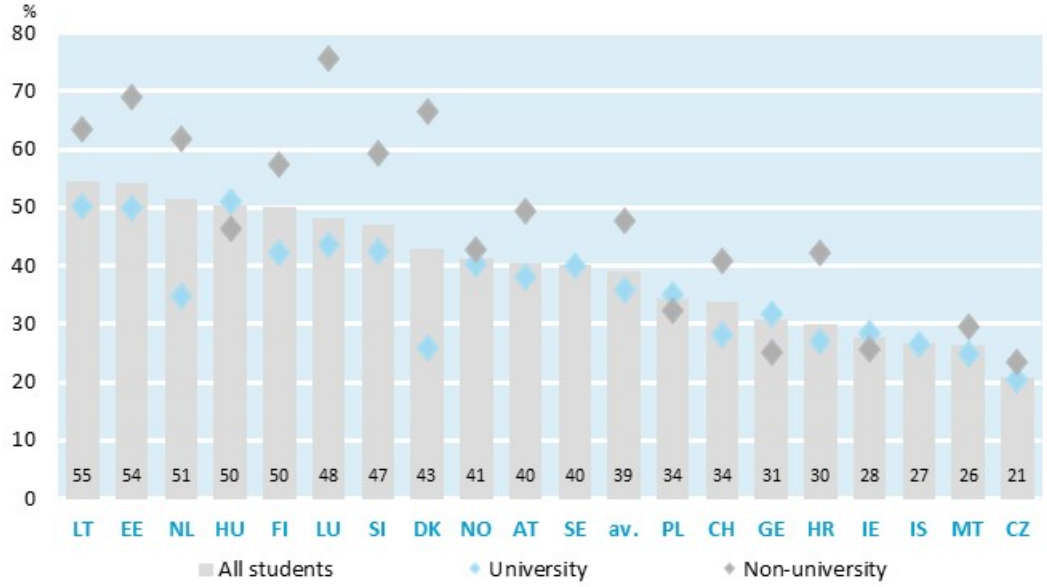


Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, H.7. **No data:** DE.
Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).
EUROSTUDENT question(s): 4.20. Have you done any internships (of at least one week, mandatory or voluntary) since you first entered higher education in #country?
Note(s): Multiple internships possible.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

Not only differences between countries can be observed, but differences within countries also exist (Figure B6.10). In general, internships are more common among students at non-universities (48 %) than at universities (36 %). This does make sense from the point of view that the non-universities more often are 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 present: in Denmark, the share of students who do an internship is 2.5 times bigger at the non-universities (67 %) than at universities (26 %). And although the difference is not as big as in Denmark, a similar observation applies to the Netherlands and Luxembourg (around 1.75 times bigger).

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. No non-universities exist in IS, SE.
Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).
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?
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

In Table B6.3 several other differences become apparent. On average, 30 % of the students have done an internship already during their first year of studies. This almost doubles to 54 % of the students who are in their fourth year of studying.

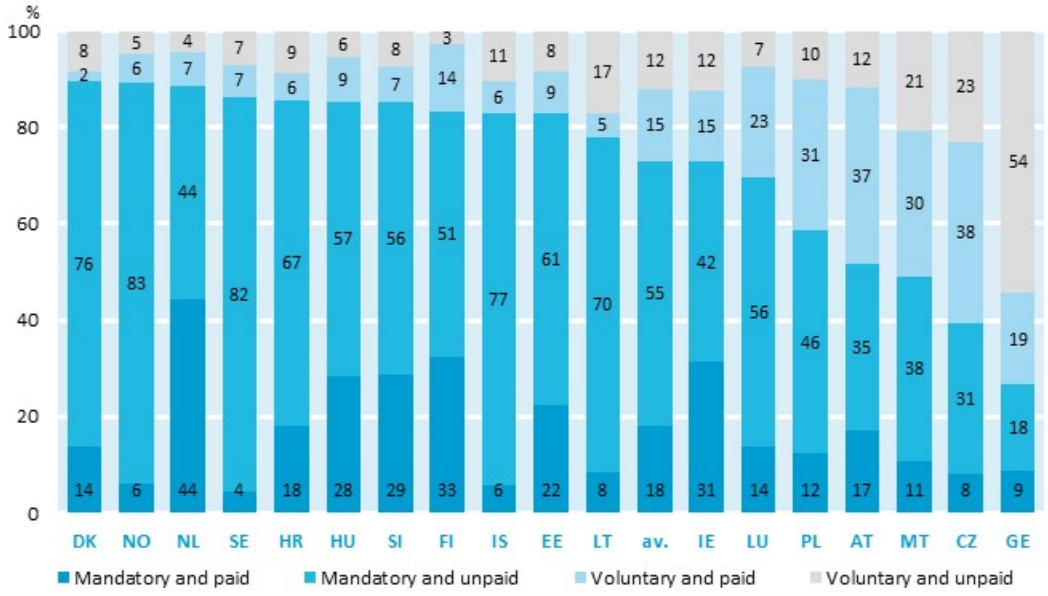
- The breakdown by study year also adds nuance to the averages. For example, the table shows that in the Netherlands and Hungary, on average, around half of the students have completed an internship during their studies, whereas this applies to about three-quarters of the students in these countries by the time they reach the end of their studies.

- Another difference can be observed for full-time versus part-time students (Table B6.3). Although there is no difference between full-time and part-time students at the level of the EUROSTUDENT average, it does differ between countries. For example, in Luxembourg and Malta, the proportion of full-time students who have undertaken an internship is considerably higher than the proportion of part-time students who do so. Exactly the opposite can be seen in Croatia and the Netherlands, where part-time students more often do an internship.

In addition to the differences in the shares of students who do an internship, there are also differences in the character and the remuneration of the internships (Figure B6.11). On average, 18 % of the internships are mandatory and paid, 55 % mandatory and unpaid, 15 % voluntary and paid and 12 % voluntary and unpaid.

- Although mandatory and unpaid internships make up the largest shares in most of the EUROSTUDENT countries, Georgia and the Czech Republic form an exception. In Georgia most of the internships (54 %) are voluntary and unpaid and in the Czech Republic voluntary but paid (38 %).

Figure B6.11 Character and remuneration of internship(s) in country
Share of (most recent) internships, in %



Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, H.10. **No data:** CH, DE.
Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).
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?
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

- In Denmark, Norway and the Netherlands the highest shares of mandatory internships can be found: around 90 % of all internships in these countries (EUROSTUDENT average: 73 %).
- In Austria, the Netherlands, Finland, Ireland and the Czech Republic around half of the internships are paid (EUROSTUDENT average: 33 %).
- Paid internships are the least common in Sweden, Iceland, Norway and Lithuania, where it applies to around 10 % of the internships.

In Table B6.4 the shares of mandatory internships are compared between the different fields of study.

- On average, mandatory internships are most common in the fields of 'education' (95 %), 'agriculture, forestry, fisheries and veterinary' (90 %) and 'health and welfare' (89 %).
- Mandatory internships are least common in the fields of 'natural sciences, mathematics and statistics' (58 %), 'business, administration and law' (61 %), 'social sciences, journalism and information' (62 %) and 'ICTs' (62 %).

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 a worker and less as a student. Students from a non-tertiary background work more often during term time than students 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.

Work is not always a choice; half of the students work because without their job they would not be able to afford studying. This is most often the case for students without a tertiary educational background. It also turns out that the income from the job largely determines students' budget: on average half of students' income consists of their job earnings. As discussed in > Chapter 5, this means that educational institutions must be aware of the pressure this puts on students and the necessity of more flexibility to better combine studying and working (see 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 of course also present: students learn competencies in their daily work practice that are valuable for their entry into the labour market. These competencies are an important form of the human capital Becker is referring to: 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 mentioned within the Bologna communiqués as a subject that deserves attention and support, as 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 do an internship during studies. It is important to look for ways to make work experiences and practical training part of all study programmes in a structured way. The first step, gaining insight into the current status and highlighting where things are going well and where things can be improved, has been taken in this seventh round of the EUROSTUDENT project: for the first time, systematically internationally comparable information about internships in higher education has been collected. 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 which extent this raises affordability issues for different student groups. The requirement to take a few weeks or months to full concentrate on a work experience or internship, while undoubtedly potentially beneficial for studies, can entail problems for students relying on a paid job to finance their studies if this cannot be continued. Ensuring recognition of work-based competences can be a chance to integrate the experiences of these students and to facilitate a smooth study progression.

Tables

Table B6.1 Students' employment during the lecture period, by age, qualification studied for and (non-)receivers of public support

Share of students, in %

		Age				Qualification studied for		(Non-)receivers of public support	
	All students	< 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
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.	**61**	**46**	**60**	**69**	**77**	**58**	**72**	**51**	**67**

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

Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, H.1.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).

EUROSTUDENT question(s): 4.5. Do you have (a) paid job(s) during the current #lecture period?

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

Table B6.2 Reason for work '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 be a student' applies (totally) (in %)

		Educational background		Financial status of parents				
	All students	Without tertiary background	With 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
DK	48	52	47	43	44	48	57	67
EE	45	52	42	23	34	47	70	59
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.	**49**	**56**	**44**	**33**	**39**	**52**	**64**	**73**

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

Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, H.5.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).

EUROSTUDENT question(s): 4.7. To what extent do the following statements apply to your situation?

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 %

		Study year						Full-time vs. part-time students	
	All 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	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
CZ	21	16	17	24	27	35	46	22	15
DK	43	26	39	0	50	56	64	43	n.d.
EE	54	37	59	72	72	64	80	54	54
FI	50	25	48	63	68	67	60	51	44
GE	31	24	25	34	50	52	53	n.d.	n.d.
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**	**30**	**38**	**44**	**54**	**57**	**60**	**40**	**39**

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

Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, H.7.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).

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?

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	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	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
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
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.	**72**	**84**	**66**	**62**	**61**	**58**	**62**	**65**	**73**	**86**	**77**

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

Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, H.8.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).

EUROSTUDENT question(s): 4.21. Was your most recent internship in #country mandatory or voluntary?

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

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Chapter B7

Students' resources

Key findings

- **Level of student income:** In Switzerland, Estonia, Iceland, and Norway, students' total monthly median income, including transfers in kind, is relatively high with values above 1,000 Purchasing Power Standard (PPS). In Luxembourg and Georgia, the median income is below 700 PPS. In the vast majority of countries, students not living with parents have higher incomes than their peers who live in the parental home (cross-country median: 916 PPS vs. 681 PPS).

- **Composition of student funding:** From a macro perspective, students receive, on cross-country average, 35 % of their total monthly income from family/partner. Students' self-earned income accounts for 44 %, national public student support provides another 13 % and other income sources make up 8 %.

- **Importance of family/partner contributions:** On average across EUROSTUDENT countries, 70 % of all students receive support in cash and in kind from their parents, the partner, or other relatives. This type of support, on average, accounts for 53 % of the recipients' total monthly income.

- **Importance of public support:** On cross-country average, 41 % of all 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 who disproportionately often receive state support are, e.g., young students (< 25 years), those with medium education background, students with 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 all students report serious or very serious financial difficulties. In Georgia, Iceland, and Malta, the share of students with (very) serious financial problems amounts to 30 % or more. Over the last decade, a trend has developed according to which the proportion of students with (very) serious financial problems has decreased in a large majority of countries.

Main issues

In order 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, there are three main categories that 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 have the feeling that they overburden their parents financially 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 rather exhausting for students. They not only have the personal responsibility to earn enough money, but 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 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 financing studies often does not place a financial burden on the students or their parents, but on the taxpayers as a whole.[1] According to previous analyses, public support is a not very abundant source of income for students compared to the other two sources of income: 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 rich source, it gives students a certain financial independence from their parents and in many cases makes it financially possible to attend university in the first place. However, the use of public loans as one instrument for financing studies can have a rather 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 the regular provision of proof of performance and the temporal limitation of eligibility (Schwarz & Rehburg, 2002). These are some of the reasons why students who receive public support often show high study intensity (Hauschildt et al., 2015).

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, there is a demand that 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 have emphasized a public responsibility for higher education and a reliance on strong public funding (Yerevan Communiqué, 2015). With the Rome Communiqué, the ministers

[1] This applies at least to financing studies through non-repayable public support (grants and scholarships), which has been 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, in this way they have only 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.

expressed for the first time a quite clear preference for a specific design of student financing systems: '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.' (Rome Communiqué Annex II, 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 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 taken up. Previous analyses have shown that income levels of students 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 does not tell much about the prosperity level of students. However, as insufficient income can be one reason for financial difficulties of students (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). This means the granting of public support is tied to a special need which the 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 in general 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). The design in place then determines to some extent the shares of public and private funding of students. Additional rather general factors for the composition of student funding are the access to financial sources (e.g. to family support or public support) and the productivity of those sources. A special emphasis of our analysis is placed 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 disadvantage of low-income students, who often come from socio-economically disadvantaged families (for Sweden Avdic & Gartell, 2015; for Italy Triventi, 2014; 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 has shown that about a quarter of students report significant financial difficulties, resulting from too low an income, a high level of (required) 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, 2014), 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 5), many students who suffer from financial difficulties may not be able to increase their income through employment. Additionally, a tight financial situation can put a strain on students' mental health. Our analysis focusses on the question which student groups are especially confronted 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, the partner, or other relatives. The transfers comprise disposable income such as cash and money transfers which students can freely use for monthly spending. In the figures and tables in this chapter the amounts for transfers in kind have also been added to family/partner contributions.

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, the partner, or other relatives. The respective payments go directly to the students' creditors, i.e. the money is intangible for the students. An example for 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 which 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 on the other hand repayable support (i.e. loans) which may be subject to interest or not. 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 e.g. to tax relief for students and their parents or cost takeover of the state to the benefit of students (e.g. payments of the state to HEIs which are meant to cover students' tuition fees).[3]

Other income

'Other income' is a residual category which covers various income items from either private or public sources that are 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 is e.g. pension payments or child benefit for students, i.e. 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, e.g. from foreign countries or international entities such as the EU.

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. In order 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, which both can distort the international comparison of monetary values. One PPS can be depicted as a tiny goods basket which costs exactly the same amount of money (= 1 PPS) in all EU-28 countries.[4] If, for example, income receivers in country A have 800 PPS and those in country B have 500 PPS, the data explain that income receivers 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. In order to calculate PPS, the monetary values which the EUROSTUDENT countries reported in national currency have been converted using the Euro as reference. The respective currency conversion factors that have been applied are Purchasing Power Parities (PPP) for 2019 as reported 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

What is the amount of income that is available to students per month in the EUROSTUDENT countries? In the following, the median of students' total monthly income per country is displayed (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, other relatives, and the partner was also taken into account.

Across all countries, the median income of students amounts to 872 PPS per month.

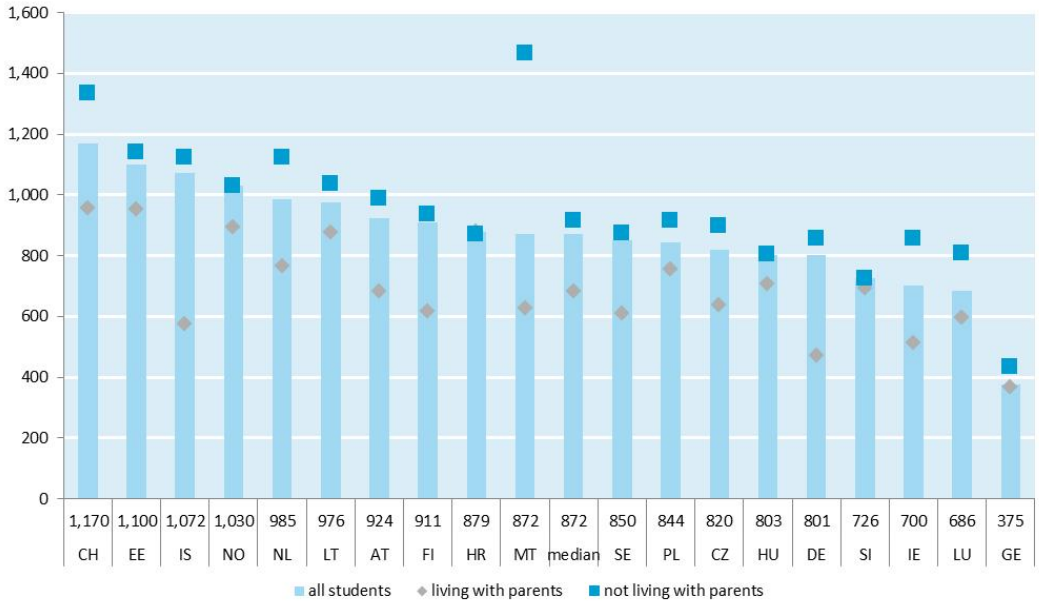
- Student income is above the international median in Switzerland, Estonia, Iceland, Norway, the Netherlands, Lithuania, Austria, Finland, Croatia, and Malta. In the remaining half of countries, the income values are below the international median (872 PPS).

[3] In Georgia, for instance, about 30 % of students do not have to pay fees (> Chapter 8). Instead, their fees are borne by the state which makes corresponding payments directly to the universities. In accordance with the EUROSTUDENT conventions, this financial contribution of the state 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 have been taken from 2019, the EU still included 28 Member States.

- The comparatively highest income values are reported for students in Switzerland, Estonia, Iceland, and Norway. In these countries, the median income of students is higher than 1,000 PPS per month.
- By contrast, student income in Luxembourg and Georgia does not reach 700 PPS in the same time span.

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, G.2 & G.3. **No data:** DK.
Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).
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 present the median income of all students. Transfers in kind are goods and services for students financed or provided by their parents, the partner or others.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: IE, SI.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

As expected, income differences exist 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 eliminate not only exchange rate effects but also price level differences between countries. The use of PPS also influences the order of countries in Figure B7.1. For example, Ireland and Luxembourg would not be found 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 want to cover which includes 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 can 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

criterion for differentiation. Across countries, the median income of students living with parents is 681 PPS per month, while that of their peers who live away from parents amounts to 916 PPS monthly. In 79 % of countries, students not living with parents receive the highest income. Exceptions are only Norway, Croatia Hungary, and Slovenia. In all countries except Croatia, students who live with their parents have the lowest income out of the three groups.

- The income difference between students living away from parents and their peers who live in the parental home are particularly large in Iceland and Malta, where the median income of students not living with parents is almost twice as high as that of their counterparts.

- In Norway, Lithuania, Hungary, Slovenia, and Georgia, the income difference between the two groups is rather small, with less than 20 % difference.

The income level of students changes with their age. With increasing age, the median income rises continuously in all countries (Table B7.1, > DRM). This is mainly due to the increasing share of self-earned income of older students. In most countries, female students have a slightly higher median income than their male counterparts. On cross-country median, students with low education background have a higher income than their peers with tertiary education background. This is mainly because the first group often generates more employment income. Master students have, on cross-country median, a clearly higher income compared to their fellows in Bachelor programmes, as Master students are noticeably older and – associated with this – more often gainfully employed. 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, students who are paying fees have a higher median income compared to those who do not pay fees which is not surprising as the first group has to cover higher costs.

Distribution and concentration of student income

Within a student population income can be distributed more or less evenly, i.e. the differences between various income groups can be more or less pronounced. A compact indicator which quantifies the degree of financial heterogeneity of a national student population is the Gini coefficient. It is a measure that describes the concentration of income using only a single value. The value range of the coefficient is between 0 and 1. If there were no concentration of income at all (i.e. each income receiver had 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 would 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. In Figure B7.2a, the Gini coefficient for the students' income distribution is displayed. Three groups of countries can be distinguished:

- In Luxembourg, Malta, Lithuania, and Iceland, the income concentration among students is quite high with a value of the Gini coefficient of at least 0.40.

- In the largest group which encompasses 58 % of all countries, a medium to higher medium degree of income concentration can be found. The value of the coefficient ranges from 0.39 in Georgia to 0.30 in Germany.

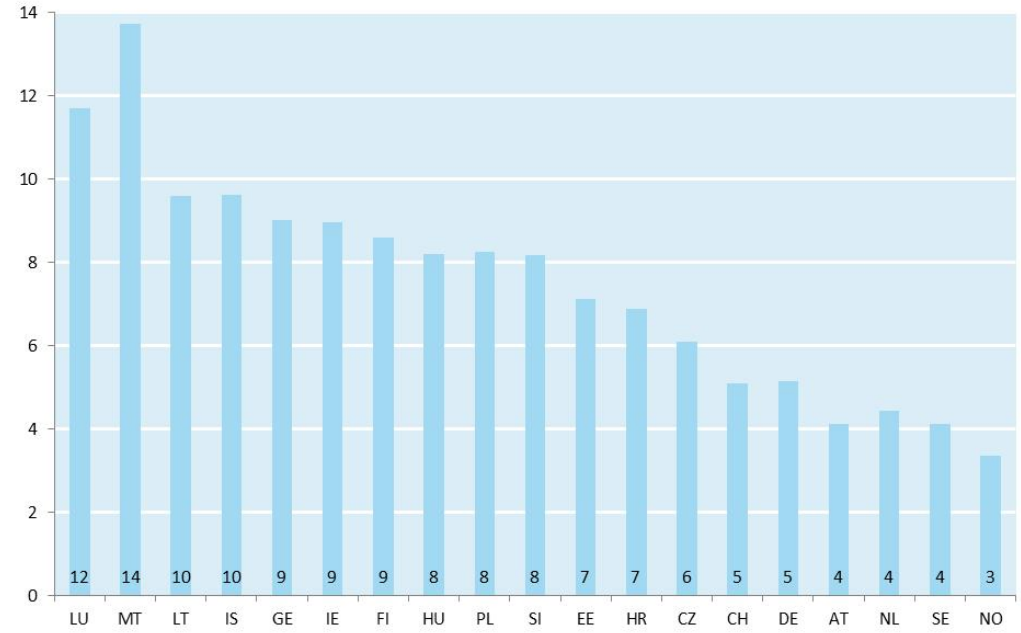
Figure B7.2 Distribution and concentration of student income

a) Gini coefficient based on total monthly income including transfers in kind

Value of Gini coefficient

b) S80/S20 income quintile share ratio based on total monthly income including transfers in kind

Value of ratio



Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, G.130. **No data:** DK.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

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, the partner or others.

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: IE, SI.

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

- 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 in Figure B7.2b, namely the S80/S20 income quintile share ratio. 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 % of the student population 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, and Iceland, where the value of the Gini coefficient is comparatively high, the total monthly income of the top quintile of students is at least 10 times higher compared to that of the bottom quintile. This means that the amount the top 20 % of income receivers earn in a month is equal to that which the lowest 20 % earn in at least ten month.

- 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 the most 'only' four times higher than that of the bottom quintile.

Although the Gini coefficient is a somewhat rough and rather 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 to some extent related to the students' income structure. Contributions from family/partner and students' self-earned income generally have a concentration-amplifying effect, whereas public support has a concentration-levelling influence.

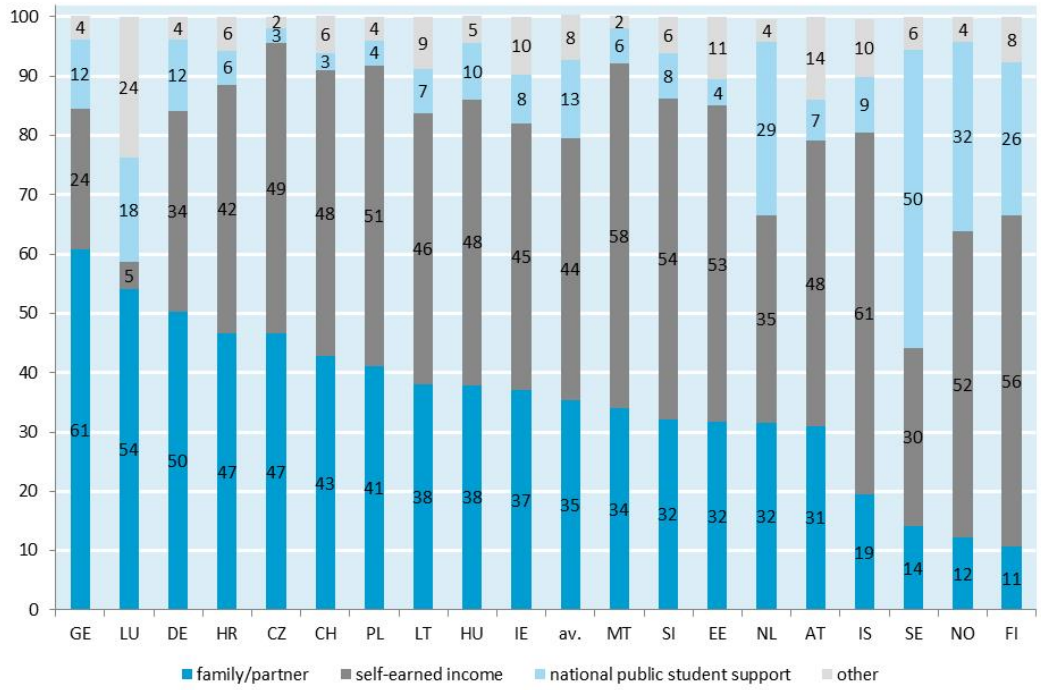
The structure of student income

From which sources do students draw their income? Across all countries, students receive, on average, more than a third of their total monthly income (including transfers in kind) from their families and partners (Figure B7.3). Students generate 44 % of their total income through gainful employment. The public sector provides 13 % of student income by giving out grants, scholarships, and loans. The remaining 8 % come from other private or public sources. As in the past, the lion's share of study funding (79 %) thus comes from private sources, i.e. from students and their families, while public sources account for more than a tenth.[5] When comparing at country level, the following patterns can be observed: In 21 % of countries, family/partner contributions are students' dominant source of income, i.e. the income source with the single highest percentage in total income.

- This is the case in Georgia, Luxembourg, Germany, and Croatia, where students receive almost or even more than half of their total income from family/partner.

[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 contributions of the state 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 provisions from family/partner for the students may contain means which the family or partner has received from the state beforehand (e.g. in Austria and Germany, the students' parents may receive child benefit for their children in higher education, and the parents in turn may pass on this support to their children). As a result, the share of public support could be underestimated.

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, & G.91. **No data:** DK.
Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).
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' includes in this case also income from sources from outside the respective country. Transfers in kind are goods and services for students financed or provided by their parents, the partner or others.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: IE, SI.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

In almost three quarters 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 provided by their own gainful employment. In the other countries in this group including the Czech Republic, Switzerland, Lithuania, Hungary, Ireland, the Netherlands, and Austria, this share varies between 35 % and 49 %.

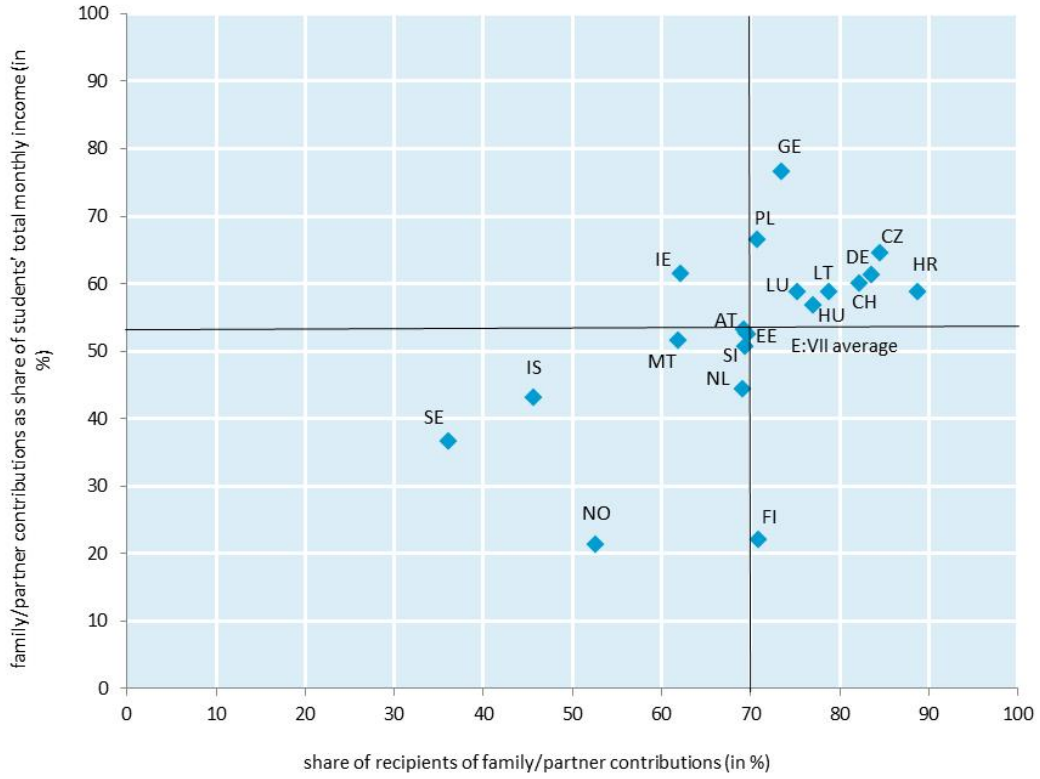
- National public student support is only in Sweden the dominant source of students' income accounting for half of their total income.

The importance of contributions from family/partner

In Figure B7.3, the importance of provisions from family/partner for students' funding has already been examined. To do so, data have been calculated across valid cases of recipients and non-recipients of family/partner contributions. The following analysis takes only the recipients of this source of funding into account (Figure B7.4). This allows a better insight into the spreading and meaning of the funding source. On cross-country average, 70 % of all

students receive support in cash and in kind from parents/partner/others. On average, this type of support accounts for 53 % of the recipients' total monthly income.

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 & G.120. **No data:** DK.
Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).
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, the partner or others.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: IE, SI.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

Based on the international average, four groups of countries can be distinguished:

- In the countries in 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 Slovenia, the Netherlands, Malta, Norway, Iceland, and Sweden. The share of recipients is lowest in Sweden with 36 % and highest in Slovenia and the Netherlands with 69 %. The income share ranges from 21 % in Norway to 52 % in Malta.

- In the upper right quadrant which includes Croatia, the Czech Republic, Germany, Switzerland, Lithuania, 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 77 % in Georgia.

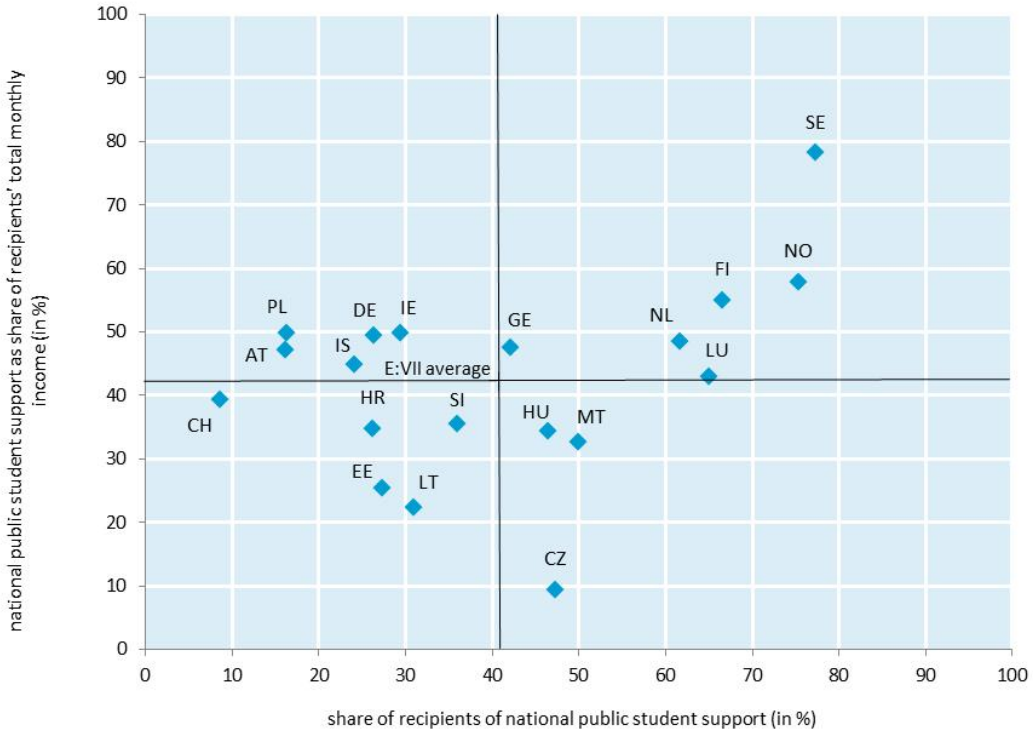
- In the other two quadrants (upper left and lower right) one variable is above and the other below the international average. In Finland and Estonia, the share of recipients is slightly above the cross-country average. In Ireland and Austria, it is the proportion of family/partner contributions in students' total income which 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, i.e. of excluding children from financially not well-off families more often from higher education, unless the state succeeds in closing the funding gap.

The importance of public support

The same analysis that was carried out in Figure B7.4 for family support is performed below for the recipients of public support. On average across countries, 41 % of all 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.

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 & G.114. **No data:** DK.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

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, the partner or others.

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: IE, SI.

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

- 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. Five countries – Slovenia, Lithuania, Estonia, Croatia, 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 in the upper right quadrant both variables are above the international average. This refers to Sweden, Norway, Finland, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, and Georgia. The proportion of receivers of public support is not 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.

- In the upper left quadrant there are five countries, in which the income share of state support is above the EUROSTUDENT average. The share fluctuates only slightly and is between 45 % in Iceland and 50 % in Ireland, Germany, and Poland. The proportion of receivers of public support is below the international average in these countries.

- Finally, there are three countries in the lower right quadrant which are characterized 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 the analysis in 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 is above the international average and at the same time the respective shares for family support are below the international average in these countries. The opposite is true for Croatia, 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, i.e., welfare vs. supply principle (see introductory section of this chapter).

It is also interesting to note that several countries, in which large parts of the student population receive high income shares through family/partner contributions have a rather low GDP per capita, whilst many countries with a great importance of national public student support have a high GDP per capita.[6]

Recipients of public support

This section explores the differences in the receipt of national public student support between various student groups. For the interpretation of 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 on the one hand and high-performing students on the other hand) that exist concurrently, but cannot be differentiated in the following analysis. In addition, there are overlaps between various student groups, e.g. a student receiving public support may strive for a Bachelor's degree at a university and be studying with high intensity. For this reason, the focus of comparison should be on contrastive pairs (e.g. university vs. non-university).

On average across countries, 41 % of all students benefit from national public student support in the form of grants, scholarships, or loans (Figure B7.6). Some groups of students benefit

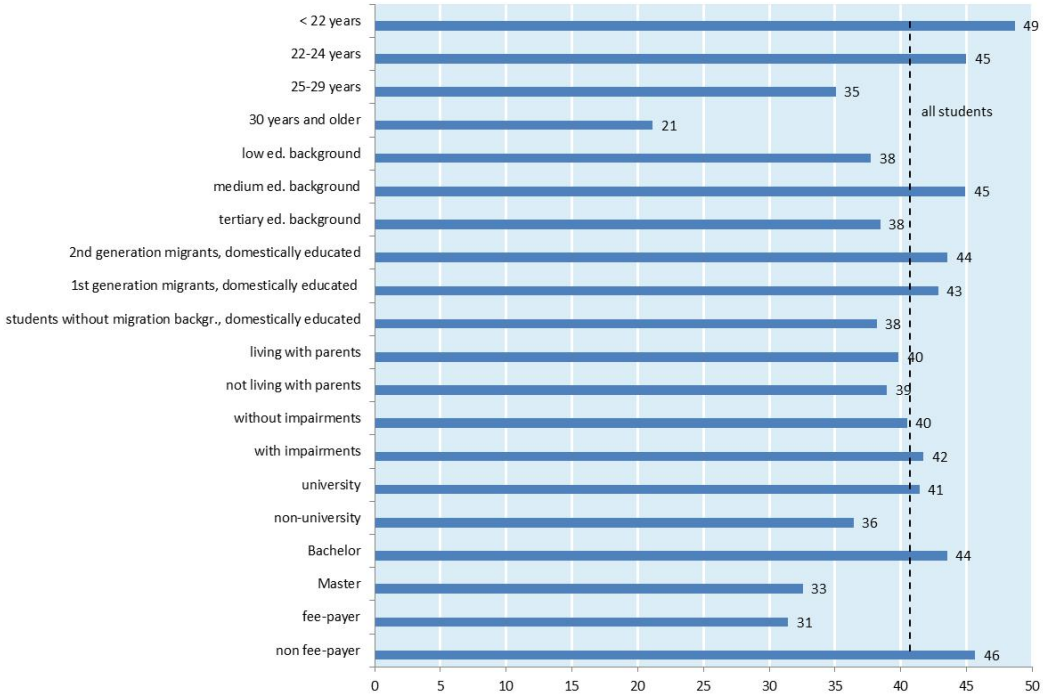
[6] When comparing the countries' GDP per capita in PPS with the average value of the EU-27 countries for the year 2019 (EU-27 = 100), the following results appear: Countries with a high importance of family/partner contributions: CZ = 92, GE = 34 (own estimate), HR = 65, HU = 73, LT = 82. Countries with a high importance of public support: NL = 128, FI = 111, NO = 147, SE = 119 (Eurostat, 2020; World Bank, 2020).

from state support more than others. This concerns especially younger students: In the age group of those who are younger than 22 years, 49 % of students receive public support; in the age group of 22 to 24-year-olds it is still 45 %. Comparatively older students, on the other hand, are less often among the recipients (25-29 years: 35 %; 30 years and older: 21 %).

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:** DK; low & medium ed. background: DE; 2nd generation migrants: SE; 1st generation migrants: DE, SE; students without migration background: SE. **Too few cases:** 1st generation migrants: EE, LT, SI.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

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 presents the cross-country average for all students receiving national public student support. In Iceland and Sweden, non-universities do not exist.

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: SI.

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

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 received for a certain duration, and limits regarding the additional income students can earn are in place – all factors which make it less likely for older students to receive financial student support. Other student groups that receive public support more often than average are e.g. those with medium education background (45%), second and first generation migrant students (44 % resp. 43 %), Bachelor students (44 %), and students who do not pay fees (46 %). The latter point can at least partially be explained by the fact that social policy uses targeted tuition waiver for certain groups of students as an instrument that complements other social policy measures of the state. By contrast, students who benefit from state support less often than average are those who are attending non-universities (36 %), Master students (33 %), and students who pay fees to higher education institutions (31 %).

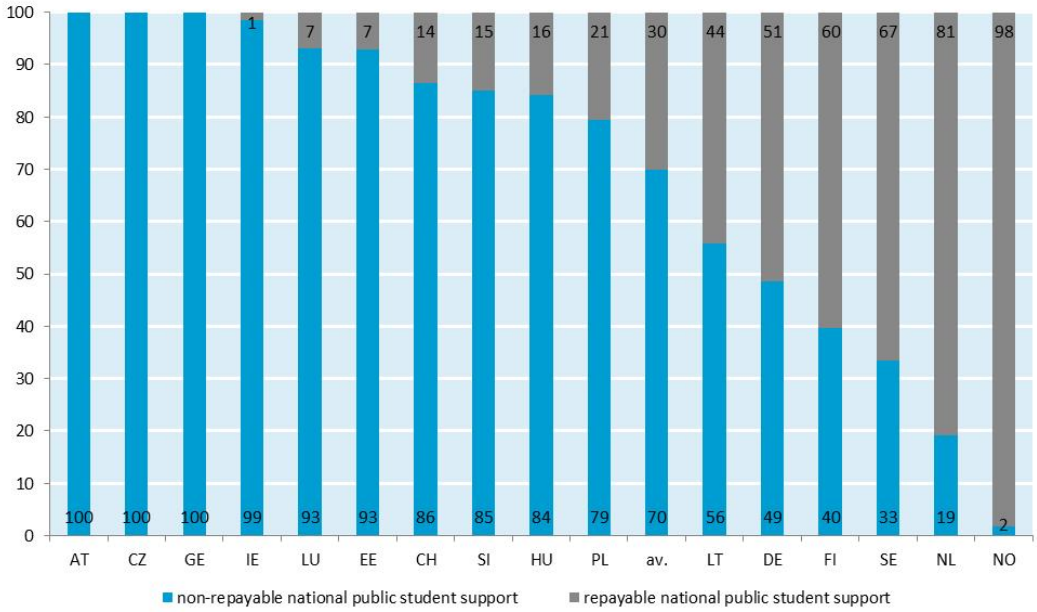
Structure of national public student support

National public student support can be composed of different types of support. A very simple distinction is that between repayable and non-repayable support. Figure B7.7 analyses public support from this perspective. The analysis is based on the total amount of national public student support that students receive in the respective countries per month. The recipients' support was then divided into repayable support (loans) and non-repayable support (grants and scholarships).

On average across EUROSTUDENT countries, 70 % of national public student support is provided as non-repayable support whilst 30 % is repayable support. However, across countries the make-up of state support varies greatly.

- Austria, the Czech Republic, and Georgia use a system of national public student support that relies completely on non-repayable funding for their students.

Figure B7.7 Composition of national public student support
Support categories as share of total national public student support per month (in %)



Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, G.110 & G.111. **No data:** DK. **Too few cases:** HR, IS, MT.
Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).
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: SI.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

All other countries, however, use both types of public support.

- In more than two thirds of countries, including Ireland, Luxembourg, Estonia, Switzerland, Slovenia, Hungary, Poland, and Lithuania, non-repayable support dominates. Its share ranges from 56 % in Lithuania to 99 % in Ireland.

- In 31 % of countries, the recipients of national public student support receive more than half of their support in the form of repayable funds. Students in Sweden, the Netherlands, and Norway receive particularly large shares of repayable support; they amount to more than two thirds of all national public student support.

When comparing these findings with the data in Figure B7.5 it appears that those countries rely mainly on repayable support in which state support both reaches a large proportion of students and provides a large share of the recipients' total income. This holds true for Finland, Sweden, the Netherlands, and Norway.

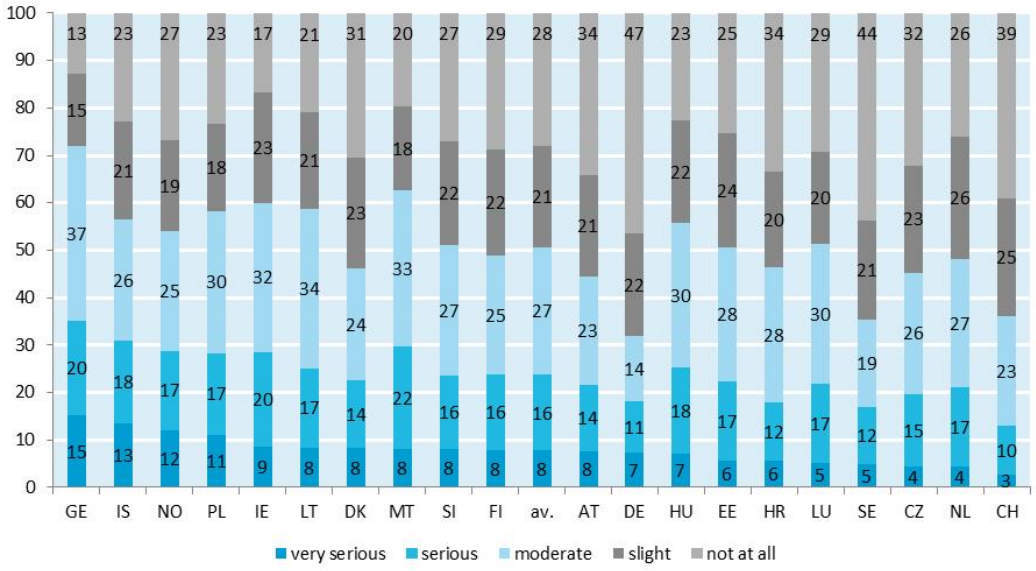
Students' financial difficulties

An imbalance between students' income and expenditure may result in financial difficulties. How do students rate their financial situation? For the subsequent analysis students have been 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 measured by the international average, it appears that 8 % of all students report very serious financial difficulties and another 16 % state that they have serious financial problems. 27 % of students are affected by moderate financial difficulties and 21 % experience only slight problems in this respect. Finally, 28 % of students do not report any financial difficulties at all (Figure B7.8).

- In Georgia, Iceland, and Malta, 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 in Germany, Croatia, Sweden, the Czech Republic, and Switzerland. In these countries, the respective share is no higher than 19 %.

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.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

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, PL.

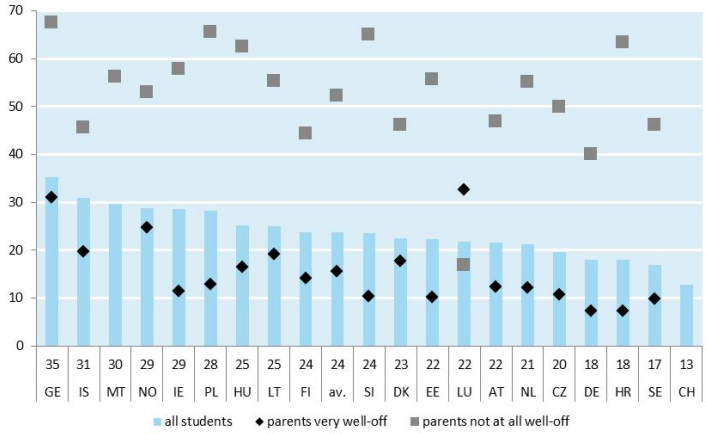
Financial difficulties by different characteristics of students

Which student groups are particularly affected by financial problems? In all but one country, students who rate their parents as being financially not at all well-off are disproportionately often concerned by serious or very serious financial difficulties (Figure B7.9a).

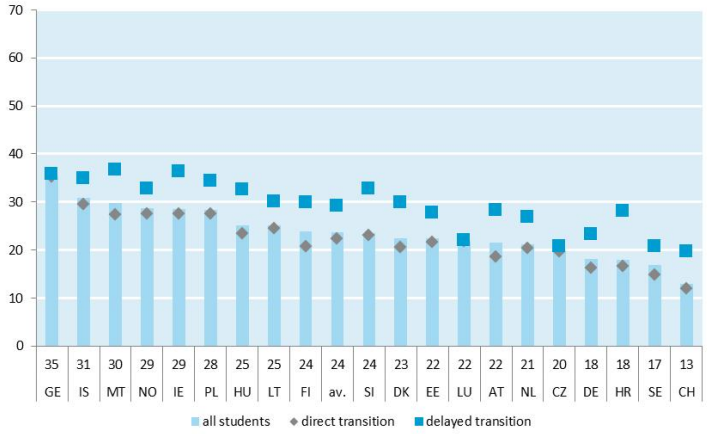
Figure B7.9 Students' assessment of their financial situation by parental wealth, transition into higher education, and payment of fees

Share of students (in %)

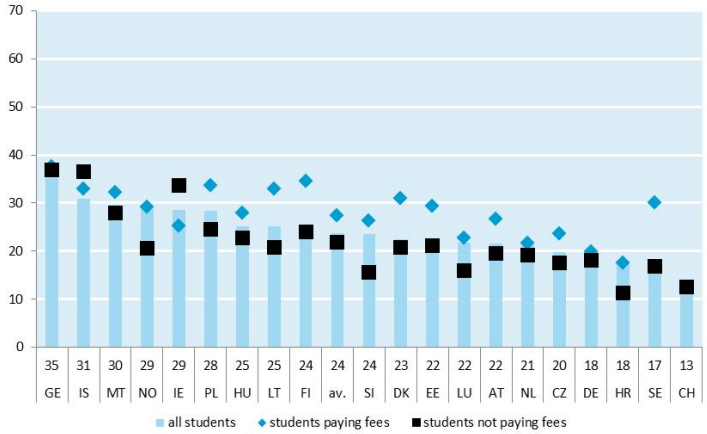
a) Students with (very) serious financial difficulties by parental wealth



b) Students with (very) serious financial difficulties by transition into higher education



c) Students with (very) serious financial difficulties by payment of fees



Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, F.148. **No data:** parents very well-off & not at all well-off: CH. **Too few cases:** parents very well-off: MT.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 4.18 To what extent are you currently experiencing financial difficulties?

Note(s): Values above the country abbreviations present the share of all students with (very) serious financial difficulties.

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: DK.

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

On cross-country average, it is more than every second of these students reporting (very) serious financial problems. The proportion is thus more than twice as high as for all students (24 %).

- In about a quarter of countries, including Georgia, Poland, Hungary, Slovenia, and Croatia, 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 those students with (very) serious money worries ranges from 17 % to 44 %.

By contrast, students who assess their parents as being financially very well-off are affected by severe financial hardship below average in all but one country. The international average for this group of students amounts to 16 %.

- In Georgia, Norway, and Luxembourg, relatively large shares of students with (very) serious financial difficulties can be found in the group of students who rate their parents as being financially very well-off. The proportion varies between 25 % in Norway and 33 % in Luxembourg.
- In Slovenia, Estonia, Germany, Croatia, and Sweden, at most one in ten students in this group have severe financial problems.

It appears that Georgia, Poland, Hungary, and Croatia, where the share of students from not well-off families with (very) serious financial problems is particularly high, are characterised by two features: On the one hand, these countries use student funding systems that are based on rather strong support from the family/partner.[7] On the other hand, these countries have a GDP per capita which 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 time 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 counterparts with direct transition amounts to 22 %. In almost all countries, is the share of students with severe financial problems higher among delayed transition students compared to those with direct transition. At the same time, their share is also above the respective country average.

- Relatively high shares of delayed transition students with (very) serious financial difficulties can be found in Georgia, Iceland, Malta, and Ireland. In these countries, the share of these students reaches at least 35 %.
- In Luxembourg, the Czech Republic, Sweden, and Switzerland, by contrast, the proportion of delayed transition students with severe financial hardship does not exceed the mark of 22 %.

In 70 % of countries the share of direct transition students with (very) serious financial difficulties lies below the average for all students.

[7] In these countries, the share of recipients of family/partner contributions among students ranges from 71 % to 89 % and the share of family/partner contributions in the recipients' total income varies between 57 % and 77 %.

[8] When comparing the countries' GDP per capita in PPS with the average value of the EU-27 countries for the year 2019, the following results appear: EU-27 = 100, GE = 34 (own estimate), HR = 65, HU = 73, PL = 73 (Eurostat, 2020; World Bank, 2020).

- Comparatively large differences between delayed and direct transition students can be found in Slovenia, Austria, and Croatia. There, the share of students with (very) serious financial distress is at least 10 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 counterparts with direct transition (> DRM) and in many cases the income difference is quite pronounced. However, delayed transition students are much older than direct transition students (> DRM), they live more often away from their parents and have children much more frequently. As a result, they objectively have a higher financial requirement 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 has 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 state comparable problems. In 85 % of countries, fee-paying students have financial difficulties more often than their counterparts.

- The difference between the two groups is particularly pronounced in Lithuania, Finland, Denmark, and Sweden. In these countries, the difference between fee-paying and not fee-paying students amounts to at least ten percentage points.

- In Georgia, Malta, the Netherlands, and Germany, is the difference between fee-paying and not fee-paying students rather small and does not reach five percentage points.

Comparison over time: Students' assessment of their financial situation

Do students' financial problems tend to increase or decrease over time? Figure B7.10 contains a comparison of the proportion of students with serious or very serious financial difficulties across the last three project rounds of EUROSTUDENT.

Over the last decade, a trend has developed according to which the proportion of students with severe financial problems is decreasing, especially when comparing to the levels of EUROSTUDENT V. In 79 % of countries, there is a decrease in the share of students with (very) serious financial difficulties between E:V and E:VII.[9]

- The decline between E:V and E:VII is most pronounced in Ireland, Slovenia, Norway, Lithuania, Croatia, and Denmark, with at least 13 percentage points.

- In the other countries, the decrease ranges from three percentage points in Hungary to nine percentage points in Sweden.

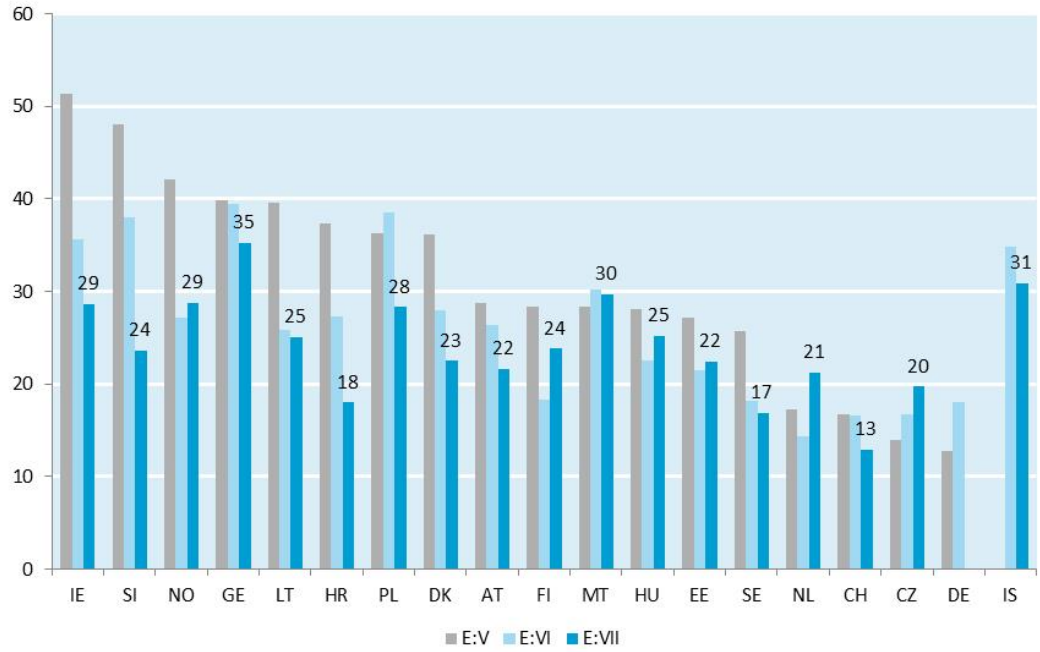
- There are four countries, Malta, the Netherlands, the Czech Republic, and Germany, in which the share of students with (very) serious financial difficulties has increased between the fifth round and the current seventh round of the project.[10] The increase ranges from one percentage point in Malta to six percentage points in the Czech Republic.

The decrease in the proportion of students with severe financial hardship in most countries is of course welcome. Still, the question arises for the causes of this development. This 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,

[9] In Iceland, the decrease took place between E:VI and E:VII.
[10] In Germany, the increase took place between E:V and E:VI.

or students' families take over a larger part of students' expenses, or students are more gainfully employed and thus finance their studies themselves in a more extensive way.

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, & EUROSTUDENT VII, F.148. **No data:** E:V: IS, LU; E:VI: LU; E:VII: DE.
Data collection: E:VII: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).
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, PL.

However, there could also be a completely different and – against the background of the social dimension of the EHEA – less pleasing explanation: The composition of students may have changed in the way that fewer persons from disadvantaged backgrounds participate in higher education, reducing the share of students with major financial problems. To answer this question, country-specific in-depth analyses are required.

Discussion and policy considerations

Students' income which provides the financial conditions for their participation in higher education varies across countries, as expected. 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 higher than in Georgia. Besides Switzerland, Estonia, Iceland, and Norway are further countries where students have a high median income in international comparison (more than 1,000 PPS per month). Their peers in Slovenia, Ireland, Luxembourg, and Georgia have to get by with lower income (less than 800 PPS monthly).

Private sources continue to provide the lion's share in student funding. 70 % of all 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, Germany, Switzerland,

Lithuania, Hungary, Luxembourg, Georgia, and Poland, both values, i.e. the recipient rate and the share of family support in the recipients' income, are even above the international average. This great reliance on parental support entails the danger that children from low-income families might be more often excluded from higher education if the state does not intervene with support (Callender, 2017). According to our findings, this risk might be more common in countries with a low GDP per capita. In fact, not least because of budget constraints students from disadvantaged backgrounds not only refrain more often from entering higher education, but may also choose more often less desired universities and study programmes (Forsyth & Furlong, 2003; Kouck et al., 2010). Financial difficulties, which are more common among students with a low socio-economic background, are also among the most important reasons for dropping out of HE in Europe (Quinn, 2013; Thomas & Quinn, 2007).

Although private student financing dominates, public support remains an important funding source too and is certainly indispensable for achieving the objectives of the social dimension of the EHEA. On international average, 41 % of all students receive national public student support and obtain this way 42 % of their total monthly income. In Sweden, Norway, Finland, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, and Georgia, both values are even above the international average. These support systems seem 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' (Rome Communiqué Annex II, 2020). By contrast, there are also countries using targeted public support which is geared only towards small student groups with a special neediness. With regard to the generosity of public student funding systems, there is indication, however, 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 that benefit across the EUROSTUDENT countries from public support to an above-average extent – with respect to the recipient rate – are e.g. young students (up to 24 years), those with 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 who are 30 years and older), students at non-universities, students in Master programmes, and students who pay fees. Most of these groups have strong overlaps and have the students' advanced age in common, reflecting both an increased financial need of older students (due to different living situations) and eligibility criteria for many state grants and loans, which often include an age threshold. There is evidence from some countries that older students seem to have a greater probability of dropping out of HE, not least for financial reasons (for Croatia Kosor, 2009; for the UK Smith & Naylor, 2001; and for Canada Quinn, 2013). With a view 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 composition of national public student support. While Austria, the Czech Republic, and Georgia rely completely on non-repayable funding for their students, all other countries use a mix of repayable and non-repayable support. In 31 % of countries, the recipients of national public student support receive more than half of their support in the form of repayable funds. Students in Sweden, the Netherlands, and Norway receive particularly large shares of repayable support; they amount 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 educational/socio-economic background are less willing to take them out than their fellow students with a higher educational/socio-economic background (Middendorff et al., 2017; Brown et al., 2011; Gayardon et al., 2019; Palameta &

Voyer, 2010). As a result, these students could be more gainfully employed alongside their studies. Depending on the amount of time spent on employment, this may have detrimental effects on their studies (> Chapter 5). 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 such educational loans despite their debt aversion due to a perceived lack of both financial as well as educational alternatives (for England Clark et al., 2019). The awarding of public grants could certainly avoid such problems. Both students and the state could benefit from this. Denning et al., for instance, have found for the USA that eligibility for additional grant aid significantly increased first-time students' degree completion and later earnings (Denning et al., 2019). The estimated impacts 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 has 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 with (very) serious financial difficulties has generally decreased in a large majority of countries over the last decade, in all EUROSTUDENT countries, on average, almost a quarter of students are confronted with (very) serious current financial difficulties. Comparatively large shares of students with severe financial hardship can be found in Georgia, Iceland, and Malta. Among the students who have (very) serious financial difficulties to an above-average extent are those who rate their parents as being financially not at all well-off, students who transitioned into HE with a time delay of more than two years, and students who are paying fees to HEIs. The first group, i.e. students who assess their parents as being financially not at all well-off, suffers from the fact that their parents cannot support them sufficiently in financial respect. This problem seems particularly serious in countries in which student funding relies greatly on contributions from family/partner and which also have a comparatively low GDP per capita. The causes for financial problems of delayed transition students are not overt. However, it is very likely that their incomes will not be sufficient to cover the high financial needs – such as financing their own family – which are related to the students' higher age. For the third student group, it is seemingly the study-related expenses in the form of fees that cause financial problems or at least contribute to them. These examples show that the financing problems of students can be quite different for various groups. A common solvent, however, would be the provision of additional financial support by the public or even by the private sector (including private companies and foundations). It is a simple means, even if it is not necessarily easy to provide.

Tables

Table B7.1 Students' total monthly income including transfers in kind by students' socio-demographic, study-related, and finance-related characteristics

Income (median, in PPS)

	Age groups				Educational background		Dependency on income source			Financial difficulties	
	< 22 years	22-24 years	25-29 years	30 years and older	Low education 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
AT	716	847	1,017	1,396	1,047	873	785	1,161	947	838	977
CH	906	1,039	1,264	1,972	1,247	1,124	1,018	1,482	1,039	1,170	1,172
CZ	671	806	1,042	1,494	1,013	832	718	1,099	82	772	851
DE	686	776	903	1,072	n.d.	826	825	799	733	752	827
EE	767	990	1,256	1,633	1,120	1,074	884	1,462	462	886	1,268
FI	725	822	877	1,309	1,269	904	496	1,636	695	787	1,067
GE	358	413	449	488	242	384	435	662	169	375	375
HR	730	834	1,149	1,610	1,032	880	804	1,218	375	853	876
HU	582	718	1,004	1,305	989	753	668	1,155	402	743	874
IE	592	678	904	1,357	754	744	754	764	396	653	761
IS	638	763	1,097	1,602	1,346	897	1,310	1,054	893	987	1,259
LT	796	1,020	1,354	1,516	940	971	780	1,229	733	940	1,035
LU	784	647	682	972	564	774	894	t.f.c.	410	587	717
MT	505	656	1,405	1,720	1,180	889	888	1,423	165	1,017	1,003
NL	881	1,036	1,127	1,408	957	1,008	1,005	950	1,019	993	981
NO	790	893	1,030	1,922	1,716	975	1,453	1,785	790	906	1,160
PL	714	840	1,050	1,275	855	870	756	1,134	420	798	921
SE	783	817	868	1,169	1,040	850	1,040	1,115	844	850	868
SI	556	726	906	1,330	810	726	655	968	291	701	726
median	**716**	**817**	**1,030**	**1,396**	**1,022**	**873**	**804**	**1,145**	**462**	**838**	**921**

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

Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, G.1 (PPP).

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

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, the partner, or others.

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: IE, PL, SI.

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

Further tables will be provided in the final version of the EUROSTUDENT report

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Chapter B8

Students' expenses

Key findings

- **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: 62 % living costs paid by students, 23 % living costs paid by others (e.g. parents, the partner), 9 % study-related costs paid by students, and 6 % study-related costs paid by others.

- **Selected living costs:** Students who do not live with parents allocate, on average across EUROSTUDENT countries, 35 % of their total monthly expenses (including transfers in kind) to accommodation, 22 % to food, and 7 % to transportation.

- **Accommodation costs by form of housing:** On aggregate across countries, students who are living with partner/children spend 406 PPS per month on accommodation (including utilities). Their peers who share their accommodation with other persons dedicate 322 PPS to this purpose and the respective amount for student accommodation is 270 PPS.

- **Study-related costs:** Students devote, on aggregate across countries, 14 % of their total monthly expenses (including transfers in kind) to their studies. 10 % of their total expenses go to fees, 0.2 % to student organisations, and 4 % to other study-related purposes.

- **Fee-paying students:** On average across EUROSTUDENT countries, 56 % of all students pay fees to HEIs. In Switzerland, Norway, Luxembourg, Iceland, and the Netherlands, 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 higher than fees.

Main issues

Students' expenses can be regarded as that part of their income which is spent on goods and services (in contrast to the income part which 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 the partner, DZHW, 2018; Hauschildt, Gwosć, Netz, & Mishra, 2015). Therefore, in order to capture the full range of student costs, those expenses of students' families which they shoulder for the benefit 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 policy makers to be able to identify the full extent of the costs of participating in higher education to determine the appropriate level of public support.

Surprisingly, though, the declarations of the ministers responsible for higher education in the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) did not contain explicit statements or recommendations on student expenditure in general or specific expenditure items for a long time (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,...).' (Rome Communiqué Annex II, 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 into which category the corresponding expenses can be classified (Woll, 2014). In simple terms, an investment can be considered an expenditure that students incur in the present expecting that it will 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 the participation in higher education 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 the fact into account that many students receive financial support from their families to help them cope with their expenses (DZHW, 2018; Hauschildt et al., 2015). The composition of students' living and study-related expenses will be examined more in-depth to see which expenditure items have a special importance to the students' budget.

[1] The terms expenses, expenditure, and costs are used synonymously in this chapter.
[2] This is not inconsistent with the fact that there are consumer goods that provide benefits over more than one period of time (e.g. computers and cars).

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 who are 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 used for differentiation as well.

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). The fee policy of a country 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). The respective fee policy of a country 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. In this way, groups are identified that are either particularly frequently or rarely charged with fees. In order 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 as well. This provides information on the extent to which the state mitigates the payment burden of 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 for the understanding of 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 for clothing, toiletries, tobacco, pets, insurance (except medical insurance), or alimony. Since the students' regular monthly costs are in focus here, extraordinary costs, e.g., 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 insurances (except medical insurance), and c) other study-related costs for, e.g., 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 geared towards the 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 through their private environment, for example, from their parents, other relatives or their partner. The support that students obtain may take on two basic forms: On the one hand, students may simply receive money, e.g. 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 the students' debts directly to the students' 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 picture their economic situation as well as possible. Therefore, in the following, expenditures will 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 the students' expenses.

Despite great efforts to record as many of the costs of students as possible, the opportunity costs of students 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

[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 e.g. 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 the 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 which takes on the form of transfers in kind and which is a money-worth advantage for the students is taken into account to describe the students' economic situation as comprehensive as possible.

Power Standard (PPS). An explanation of the concept of PPS and its interpretation can be found in the previous chapter (> Chapter B7).

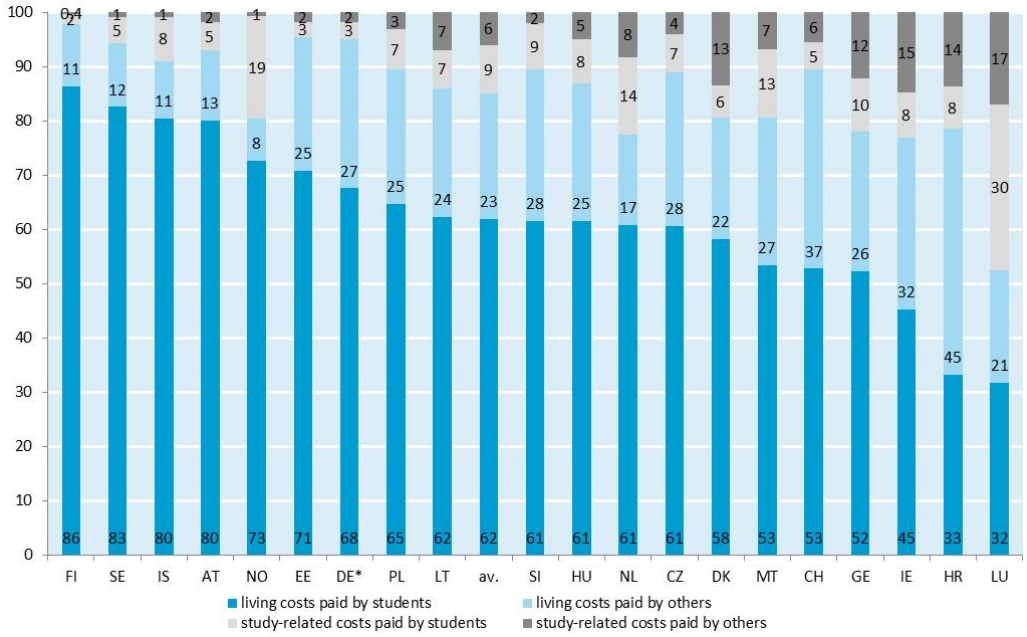
Data and interpretation

The structure of student expenses

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 85 % of total monthly expenses, while study-related costs make up 15 %. The aggregated share of living costs, i.e. the sum of shares of living costs paid by students and others, is particularly high in Finland, 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 varies from 2 % in Finland to 9 % in Iceland.

- By contrast, the share of all study-related costs is relatively high in the Netherlands, Georgia, Ireland, Croatia, and Luxembourg, ranging between 22 % and 47 % of students' total monthly expenses. Accordingly, the aggregated share of living costs is rather low in these countries.[4]

Figure B8.1 Composition of students' expenses by payer
Regular living and study-related costs as share of students' total monthly expenses (in %)



Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, F.24, F.34, F.105 & F.109.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

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, IE.

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

[4] In these countries, the share of fee-paying students is rather high ranging between 66 % in Ireland and 92 % in Luxembourg (> Figure B8.7).

When looking at the general cost-sharing between students and their private environment, it appears that – measured by the cross-country average – students pay for 71 % of their total monthly expenses directly, while students' parents/partner/others pay the remaining costs (29 %).

- In Finland, Sweden, Iceland, Austria, and Norway, the students' share of total expenses is especially high. It ranges from 85 % in Austria to 92 % in Norway.
- In Ireland and Croatia, students have to bear the lowest shares in family cost-sharing in an international comparison. In Ireland, students themselves pay 53 % of their total monthly expenses and in Croatia it is 41 %.

An analysis of the cost-sharing within the category 'living costs' shows that in all countries except Croatia, students themselves bear larger shares of their living expenses than their families.

- The differences between the two groups are very pronounced in Finland, 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 %.
- The differences are rather small in Switzerland, Ireland and Luxembourg. In Switzerland, the proportion of living costs in total monthly expenses paid by students amounts to 53 %, while the share paid by students' parents/partner/others is 37 %. In Luxembourg the respective shares amount to 32 % and 21 %.

The picture for the sharing of study-related costs appears to be more mixed. In 70 % 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 highest in Norway and Luxembourg. In these countries, the students' share of study-related costs in total expenses ranges between 19 % in Norway and 30 % in Luxembourg. The share paid by parents/partner/others varies between 1 % in Norway and 17 % in Luxembourg.
- The smallest differences in the payments of the two groups can be found in Estonia and Germany, where the share paid by students is only one percent higher than that of their parents.

In a quarter of countries, the relation described above is reversed, i.e. the students' payments for study-related purposes are lower compared to those of their families. This holds true for Denmark, Switzerland, Georgia, Ireland, and Croatia.

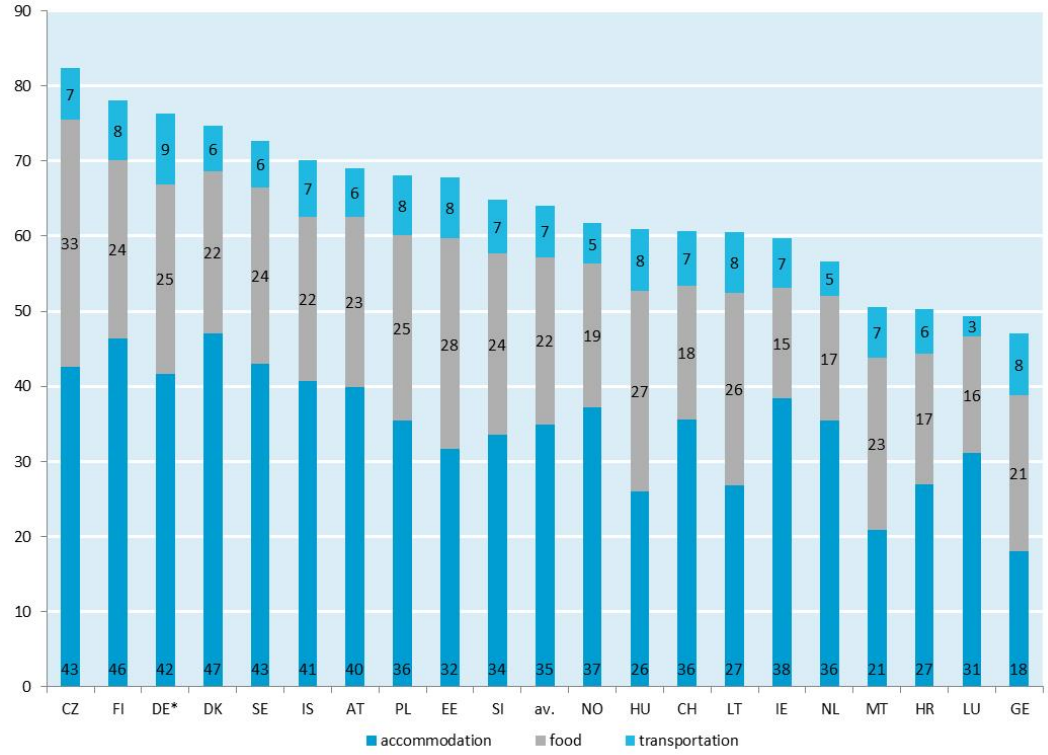
Selected items of students' living costs

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 compared to their peers who are living with parents. On cross-country average, the expenses for accommodation, food, and transportation absorb 64 % of students' total monthly expenses (including transfers in kind).

- The sum of these expenses is comparatively high in the Czech Republic, Finland, Germany, and Denmark, with at least 75 % of total expenses. By contrast, it is rather low in Croatia, Luxembourg, and Georgia at no more than 50 %.

Figure B8.2 Costs for accommodation, food, and transportation – students not living with parents

Expenses paid by students and others (monthly expenses as share of total expenses in %)



Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, F.3, F.68, F.142, & F.143.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

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, IE.

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

When measured against the international average, it appears that accommodation costs have the greatest importance for students. They amount to more than a third of students' total monthly expenses. Food requires more than a fifth and transportation a bit 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 more than 45 % 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 for this expenditure category the range of shares is the widest (29 percentage points).

Spending on food is the second most important expenditure category in the vast majority of countries.

- In the Czech Republic, Germany, Poland, Estonia, Hungary, and Lithuania, food expenditure amounts to at least one quarter of students' total expenses, which only slightly exceeds the cross-country average of 22 %. In almost a third of countries, the share of food expenses is below 20 %.

In all countries, transportation requires clearly the lowest share out 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, and Georgia, the expenditure share is slightly above the international average with 8 resp. 9 %. The share of transportation costs is rather low in Norway, the Netherlands, and Luxembourg, 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 the university which causes higher indirect transportation costs in terms of the commuting time (= time opportunity costs, > Chapter 9). Direct transportation costs, i.e. 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 relatively more expensive means of transport, like public transport or cars. By contrast, students residing in student accommodation usually have the shortest commuting time (> Chapter 9). This often allows them to reach the university by walking or cycling (low indirect and direct transportation costs). However, these students have to pay a higher rent than their fellow students who live with their parents.

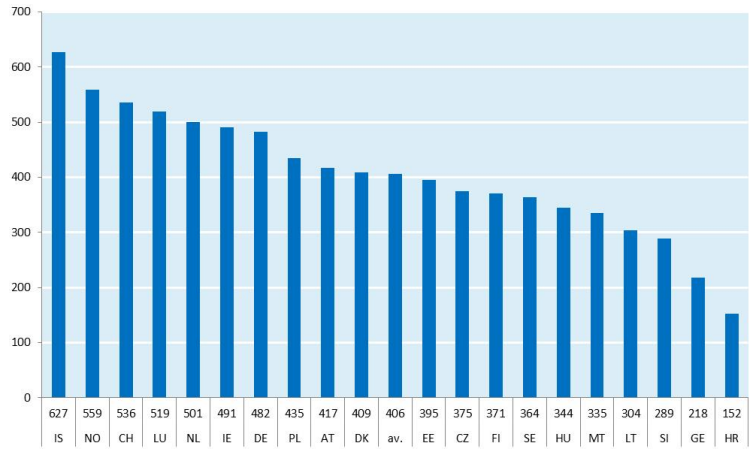
Accommodation costs of students not living with parents

As the previous analysis has shown, accommodation costs require a large chunk of the students' budget especially when they live away from their parents. What is actually the magnitude of student expenditure on accommodation and how does it differ by the form of housing? Figure B8.3 displays the level of accommodation costs (including ancillary costs) which students who are not living with parents spend per month in different forms of housing. On cross-country average, students who live with their partner and/or children spend 406 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, 322 PPS monthly to accommodation (chart b) and the respective amount for student accommodation is 270 PPS per month (chart c).

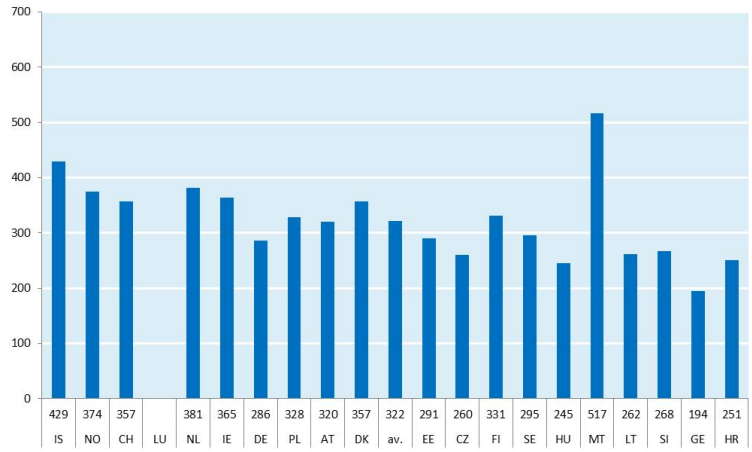
On this measure, students living with partner/children have the highest level of expenses. There are several reasons for this. Students who have their own family need more living space compared to their fellow students who live alone or who just need a room in a shared flat; this need for larger living 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 dual-earner 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: 385 PPS per month]). This holds true for three quarters of countries; exceptions are Georgia, Ireland, Iceland, Luxembourg, 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 who are residing in student accommodation are rather young (> Chapter B9) and considerably more often dependent on public support (> Chapter B9). Both results in rather low total income making it more likely (or sometimes indispensable) that these students will choose the cheapest form of housing.

Figure B8.3 Accommodation costs by form of housing – students not living with parents
Monthly amounts paid by students and others (mean, in PPS)

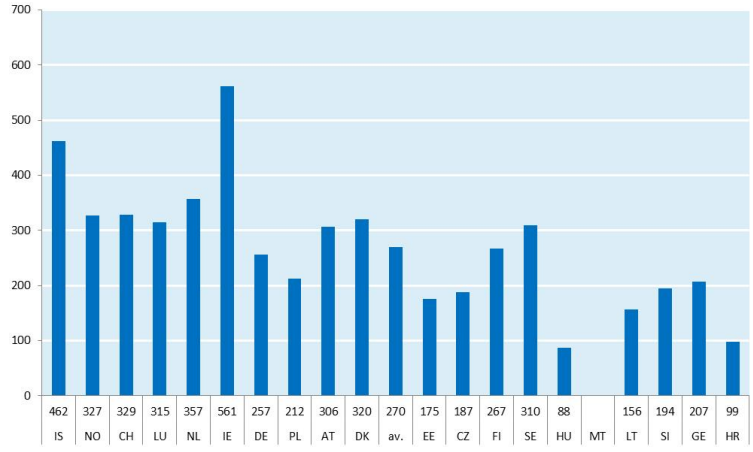
a) Accommodation costs of students living with partner/child(ren)



b) Accommodation costs of students living with other person(s)



c) Accommodation costs of students living in student accommodation



Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, F.66 (PPP). **Too few cases:** with other person(s): LU; student accommodation: MT.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

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, PL.

- 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 and Ireland. All countries have a GDP per capita above the international average.

- By contrast, Lithuania and Croatia belong to a group of countries where the opposite holds true, i.e., there, the level of housing expenditure is rather low for all three types of accommodation displayed. For two out of three types of housing, the Czech Republic, Hungary, and Georgia can also be included into this group. In these countries, the GDP per capita is below average.[5]

Accommodation costs of students not living with parents by size of study location

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 who are 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 who are 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.

- In Croatia and Georgia, students in smaller cities who are living away from parents spend less than 200 PPS per month on accommodation.

Students who reside in the capital city devote, on average across countries, 369 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, Poland, Lithuania, and Georgia. In these countries, students' housing expenses are at least 30 % higher in the capital city.

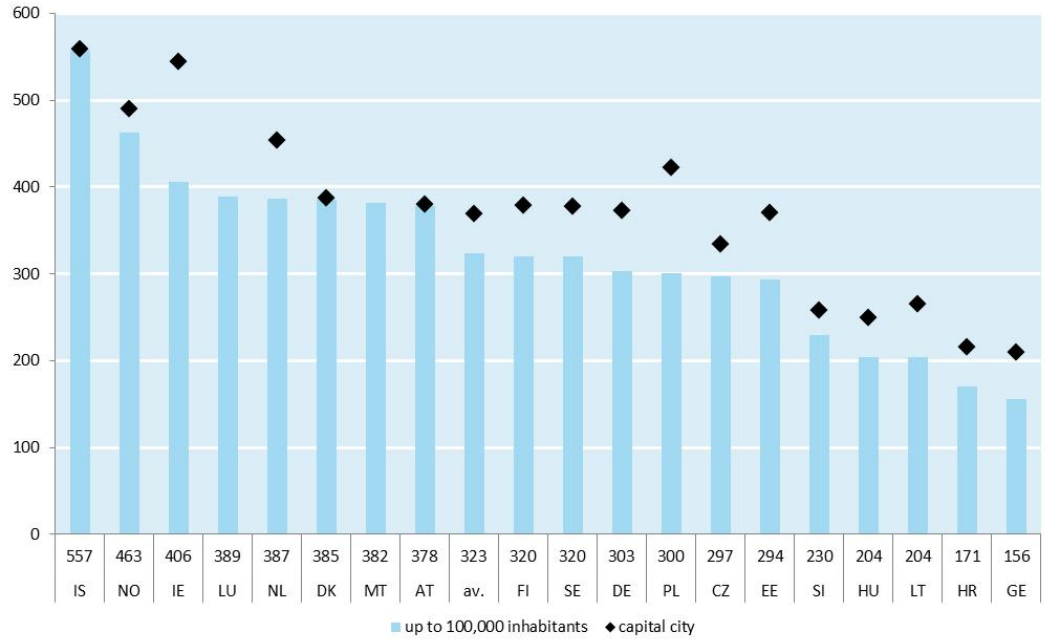
- The smallest differences are found in Iceland, Denmark, and Austria. Here, the relative differences in accommodation costs between students in smaller cities and the capital city do not exceed one per cent.

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 14 per cent. 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 (> DRM).[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, Ireland = 193, Netherlands = 128, Norway = 147, Switzerland = 158. The respective results for the second group are: Croatia = 65, Czech Republic = 93, 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:** CH; capital city: LU, MT.
Data collection: Spring 2019, DE (summer 2016).
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 present 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, 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 suppliers 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 suppliers' pricing policy). This is, however, not reflected in the above data as the use of PPS eliminates price level differences.

Comparison over time: Accommodation costs of students not living with parents from E:V to E:VII

How has the burden of accommodation costs developed over time? Figure B8.5 shows the relative accommodation costs of students who are not living with parents over the last three rounds of EUROSTUDENT. Displayed are the monthly accommodation costs as share of students' total expenses including transfers in kind. There is a trend that the share of accommodation costs of students not living with parents has increased between E:V and E:VII.

- In 53 % of countries, including Finland, Denmark, Austria, Norway, Germany,[8] Switzerland, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Slovenia, and Iceland, the share has risen by at least three percentage points. The cost increase is particularly marked in Denmark,

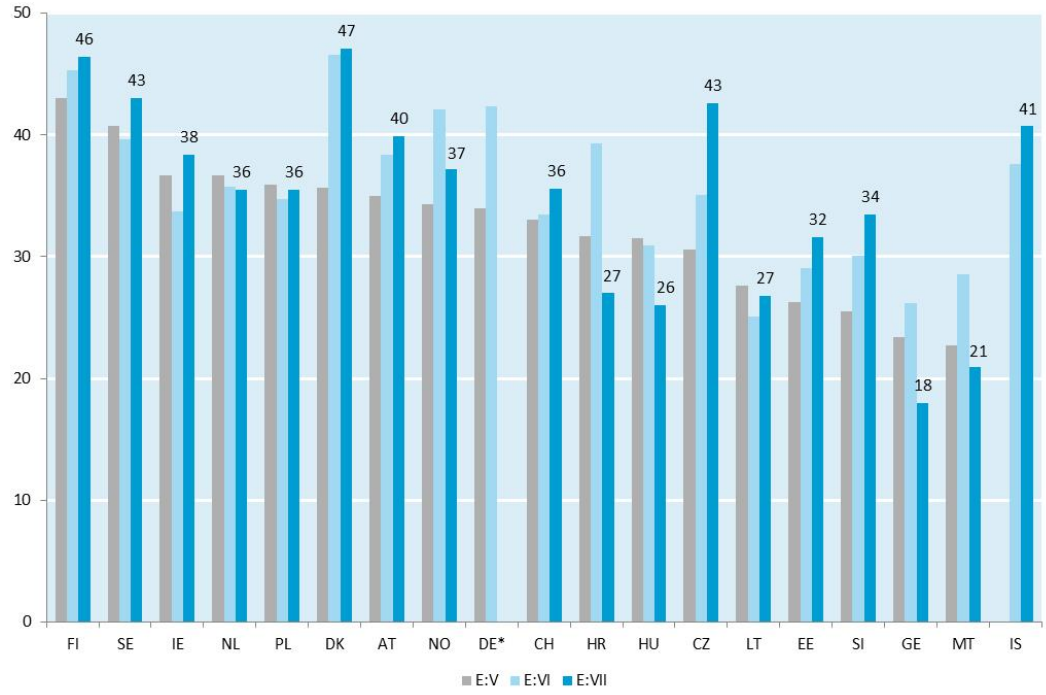
[7] This can be seen, for example, when comparing the household income by the degree of urbanisation. Across the EU-27 countries, the following values have been identified for the mean equivalised net household income in 2019: cities: 20,953 PPS, towns and suburbs: 20,385 PPS, and rural areas: 17,430 PPS (Eurostat, 2021).
[8] In Germany, the increase took place between E:V and E:VI.

Germany, the Czech Republic, and Slovenia, where it ranges between 8 and 12 percentage points.

- In Croatia, Hungary, and Georgia, a rather clear decrease in the share of accommodation costs between E:V and E:VII can be found. In these countries, the decline amounts to at least five percentage points.
- Finally, in about a third of countries, there are either no changes or only small 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 who are not living with parents. One factor that can explain this is that an increasing number of home-seekers meet a largely given or clearly slower increasing supply of housing.

Figure B8.5 Time comparison of accommodation costs – students not living with parents
Monthly accommodation costs as share of total expenses including transfers in kind (in %, micro perspective)



Data source: EUROSTUDENT V: F.2, EUROSTUDENT VI: F.10 & F. 76, EUROSTUDENT VII: F.142. **No data:** E:V: IS, LU; E:VI: LU.
Data collection: E:VII: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.7/3.4/4.17 What are your average expenses for the following items during the current semester (E:VI & 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, IE.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

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 price level for accommodation. This would reduce

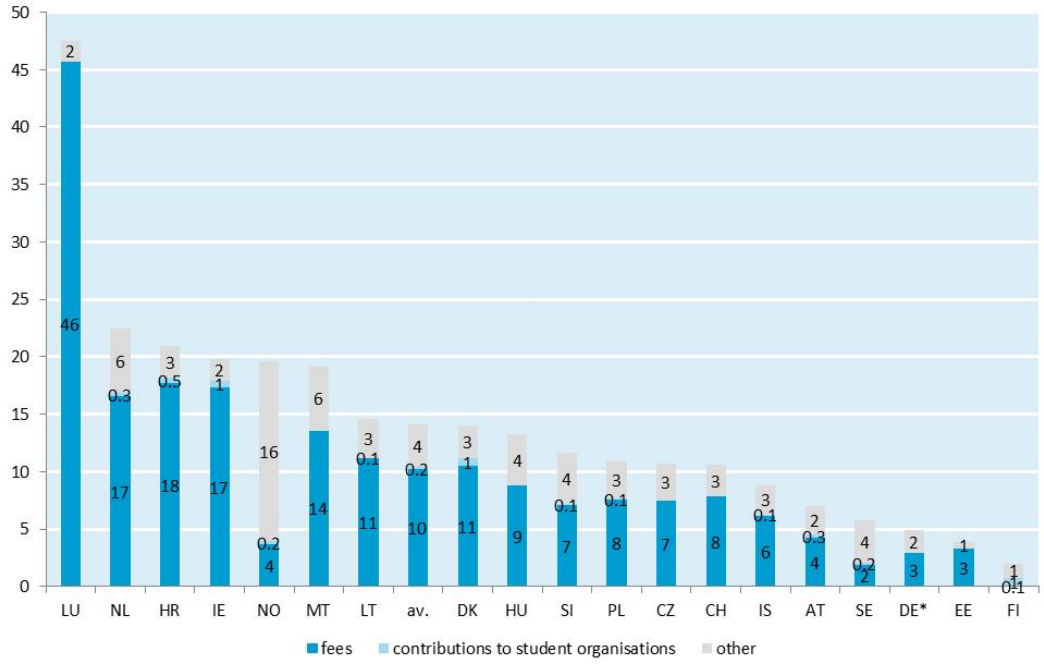
the purchasing power of the student budget, which is why a larger share of it would have to be spent on accommodation.

The structure of study-related expenses

In all countries, students devote more than half of their total expenses to living costs. Nevertheless, study-related expenses play also an important role and can account for a considerable proportion. The structure of study-related expenses that are paid by students and their families per month are analysed in 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 insurances (except medical insurance), and 3) other study-related costs (e.g. for 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, with more than 20 % of students' total monthly expenses including transfers in kind. This is clearly above the international average (14 %).
- In Austria, Sweden, Germany, Estonia, and Finland, the proportion of study-related expenses is rather low and is at most only half as high as the international average.

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 & F.99. **No data:** GE.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

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, IE.

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

[9] Some study-related expenses, especially fees, are usually 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.

In 84 % of countries, fees are the expenditure category with the single highest share out of all study-related expenses. The only exceptions are Norway, 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 is relatively large in Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Croatia, and Ireland. In these countries, the proportion of fees amounts to 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 4 % of their total monthly expenses to this category.

- In three countries, the Netherlands, Norway, and Malta, is the share of other study-related costs above the international average. In about two thirds of countries, however, the proportion is below the EUROSTUDENT cross-country average.

Contributions to student organisations appear to be the category with the least importance to students' budgets. 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 at all.

Fee-paying students

In many countries, the obligation to pay fees to public and private HEIs is not all-encompassing, i.e. not all students are covered. Figure B8.7 provides an overview of the part of the student population in the countries that is paying fees and which groups in comparison pay fees above or below average. On average across countries, it is 56 % of all students who pay fees to HEIs. There are, however, large differences between countries.

- In a quarter of countries, nearly all students pay fees. This is the case in Switzerland, Norway,[11] Luxembourg, Iceland, and the Netherlands, where more than 90 % of students pay fees.

- In almost a third of countries, between more than half and almost 90 % of all students pay fees. This includes Croatia, Slovenia, Georgia, Ireland, Malta, and Hungary.

- Finally, in 45 % of countries, paying fees applies only to a minority of students. In Poland, the Czech Republic, Lithuania, Austria, and Germany, the minority is quite large ranging between 48 % and 32 %. In the Nordic countries Sweden and Finland, the share of fee-paying students is only marginal with no more than 1 %.

A comparison of the payment of fees by the type of HEI shows that students at non-universities more often pay fees than their fellow students at universities (Figure B8.7a).

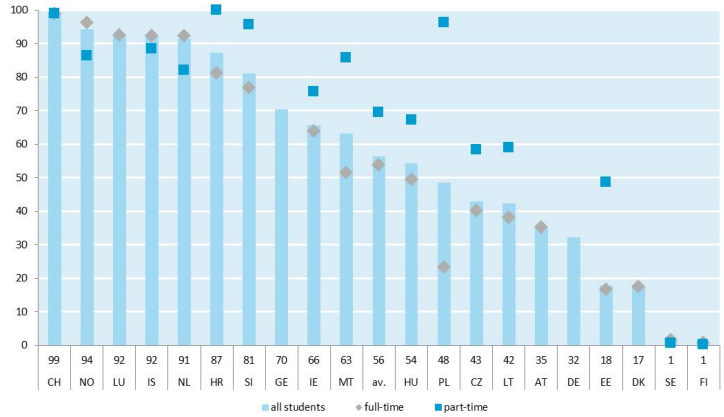
[11] Students at public HEIs in Norway do not pay fees. However, institutions may charge tuition fees for certain specialised courses within continuing and further education aimed at people in employment. Furthermore, government-dependent private HEIs charge tuition fees (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2020). Included in the Norwegian data are semester fees, each student at public HEIs has to pay, granting membership to local student organisations and other services.

Figure B8.7 Students paying fees to HEIs by type of HEI, formal status of enrolment, and dependency on income source

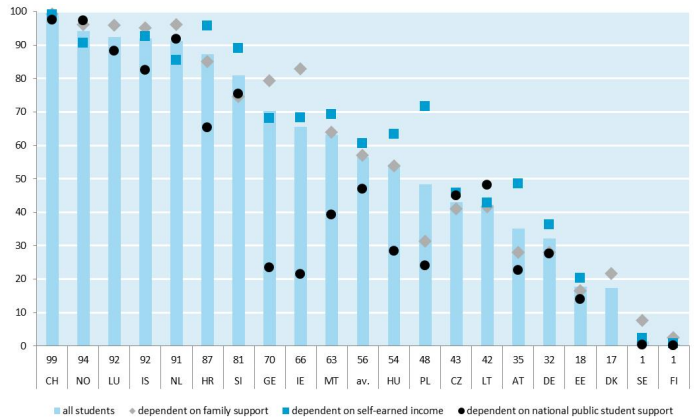
Share of students (in %)

a) Students by type of HEI

b) Students by formal status of enrolment



c) Students by dependency on income source



Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, F.153. **No data:** For chart b): full-time: GE; part-time: DK, GE; for chart c): dependent on self-earned income and on national public student support: DK. **Too few cases:** For chart b) and c): part-time and dependent on self-earned income: LU.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

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 present the share of fee-payers among all students. There exist no non-universities in Iceland and Sweden. There are no part-time students in Austria.

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: DE, IE.

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

On aggregate across countries, 66 % of students at non-universities pay fees, while the respective share among students at universities amounts to 54 %. This pattern is reflected in two thirds of EUROSTUDENT countries with available data. There are different reasons why non-universities more often charge fees 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 being provided more often by non-universities in many countries (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2018). The payment of fees varies also by study subject. If the offer 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 more often pay fees than full-time students (Figure B8.7b). On aggregate across countries, 70 % of part-time students are fee-payers, while this only applies to 54 % of full-time students. In 60 % 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 often 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, e.g. 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 differs also when distinguishing by students' dependency on an income source (Figure B8.7c). Across all countries, students depending on self-earned income are in a group comparison most often charged with fees (61 %). Their fellows who depend on family support are affected a little less frequently (57 %) and students depending on national public student support pay fees the least often out of all three groups (47 %). 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 can 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, for instance, Georgia, Hungary, and Lithuania, that high performing students receive state support also through the allocation of 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.

The cost recoverability of public support

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

[12] Across EUROSTUDENT countries, the mean income (including transfers in kind) of part-time students amounts to 1,630 PPS per month, while that of full-time students is 1,005 PPS in the same time span (> DRM).

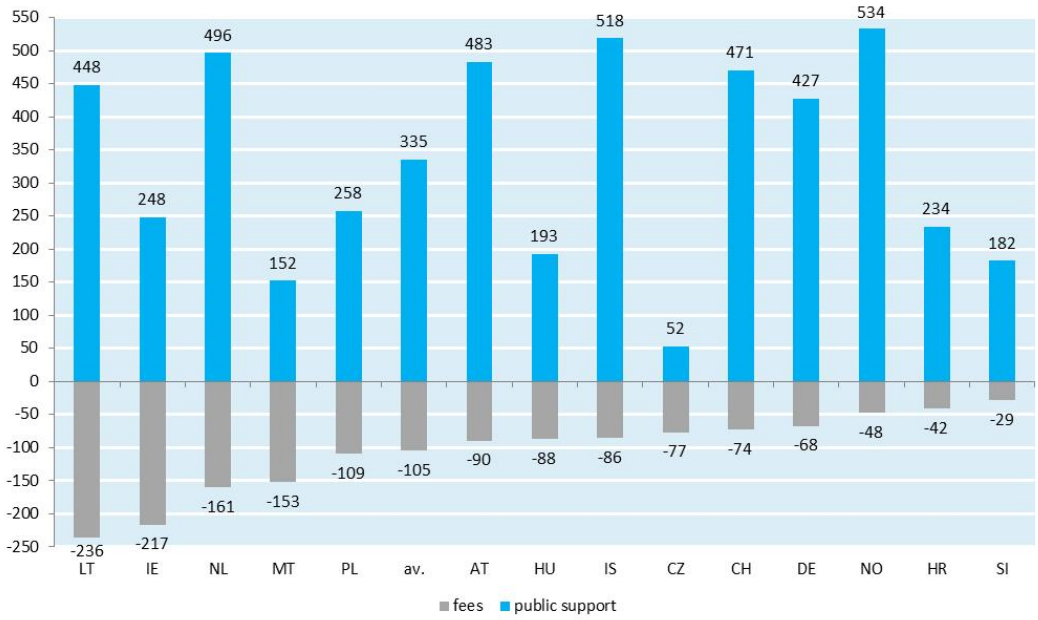
the most important sub-category of study-related costs? The following analysis contrasts national public student support with fees to HEIs. For students who pay fees and – at the same time – receive national public student support, the average monthly amounts of both items are displayed (Figure B8.8).[13] The blue bars show the magnitude of public support, while the grey bars are used to picture the amount of fees. Students who are part of this group – i.e. 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 higher than fees.

In almost 90 % of countries, the average amount of public support is higher than the average amount of fees.

- 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 higher than 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.

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) & F.155(PPP). **No data:** DK; public support: EE, GE, LU. **Too few cases:** FI, SE.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

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, SI.

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

[13] In most countries, students have to pay fees either per semester or per year. For this analysis fees were re-calculated as per month expenses.

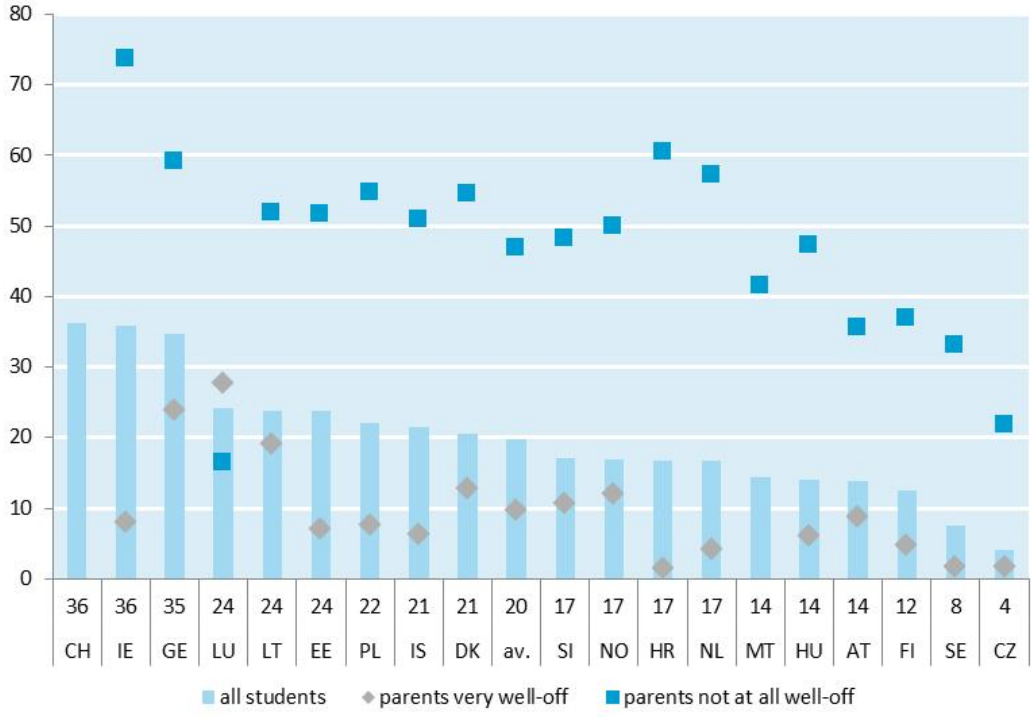
In two countries, Malta and the Czech Republic, the relationship between public support and fees is reversed, i.e. the average amount of fees exceeds (if only marginally) the average amount of public support.

- The proportion of fees covered by public support in these countries ranges from 68 % in the Czech Republic to 99 % in Malta. This means that parts of study-related costs and living costs of the recipients of public support remain uncovered.

Students' ability to pay for an unexpected required expense

The above analysis examined the extent to which students can cover fees through public support. In the following, it is examined whether students would be able to generally cover an unexpected required major expense. The underlying question in the EUROSTUDENT survey was: 'Would you be able to pay for an unexpected required 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]

Figure B8.9 Students' ability to pay for an unexpected required expense by parental wealth
Share of students who cannot afford to pay through own or someone else's resources (in %)



Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, F.152. **No data:** DE; parental wealth: CH. **Too few cases:** parents very well-off: MT.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).

EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 4.19 Would you be able to pay for an unexpected required expense of xx currency units?

Note(s): Values above the country abbreviations present 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, PL.

[14] In case data from E:VI were not available, reference should be made to 60 % of the median income of the national population age-matched to the student body.

The figure displays only the share of students who responded that they cannot afford the unexpected expense through their own resources and that nobody else would be able to pay this for the students.

On cross-country average, a fifth of all students state that they 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 all students are concerned. 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 as being 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 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 clearly higher than in the comparison group.

- In Ireland, Estonia, Poland, Iceland, Croatia, and the Netherlands, 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 non-tertiary education 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 85 % of students' total expenses. On this measure, students' 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 to reduce 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; Rome Communiqué Annex II, 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 the partner. Across all EUROSTUDENT countries, students' families cover almost a third of students' total monthly expenses; in some countries like Ireland and Croatia it is even more than 45 %. In the recent past, the importance of family support for student funding has increased in Europe (Antonucci, 2016). While the covering of large parts of students' expenses by their parents used to be 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 for 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 who are not living with parents. Across all countries and all forms of housing outside the parental home, students devote, on average, more than a third of their total monthly expenses (including transfers in kind) to accommodation; in the Czech Republic, Finland, Germany, Denmark, Sweden, and Iceland, it is even more than 40 %. In the last decade, the share of accommodation costs (including utilities) for students who are not living with parents has increased in the majority of countries. In Denmark, Germany, the Czech Republic, and Slovenia, the cost increase was most pronounced with 8 to 12 percentage points. With the exception of Slovenia, the share of accommodation costs is currently larger than 40 % in these countries. The trend of increasing accommodation costs is probably due to rising housing costs on the one hand and presumably slower increasing student income on the other hand. 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 9).

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 out of all study-related expenses. On cross-country average, students allocate a tenth of their total monthly expenses to fees. In Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Croatia, and Ireland, fees amount to at least 17 % of students' total monthly expenses. The proportion of students who actually pay fees varies greatly between the EUROSTUDENT countries. In Switzerland, Norway, Luxembourg, Iceland, and the Netherlands, more than 90 % of students pay fees. By contrast, in Sweden and Finland, no more than 1 % of students do so. On average across all countries, it is 56 % of all students who pay fees to HEIs. Within the student populations, fee-payers are unevenly distributed. Student groups that pay fees over proportionately often include e.g. students at non-universities, part-time students, students who depend on self-earned income, and international students (> DRM).

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 even lead to a higher risk of dropping out of HE (Heineck et al., 2005) or discourage potential students from enrolling in HE 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 conflict with each other and with further social or economic objectives and some of these conflicts cannot be resolved. In this case, priorities must be set by policy-makers. 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.' (Rome Communiqué Annex II, 2020) In the current Corona 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 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,...).' (Rome Communiqué Annex II, 2020). Our analysis on the cost recoverability of public support focussed on the situation of students who pay fees, on the one hand, and receive public support on the other hand. In almost 90 % 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 two countries, the average monthly amount of fees exceeds (marginally) the average amount of public support per month. Thus students need additional sources of funding to cover their remaining expenses. In this case, the objective of the EHEA that public support should mainly contribute to cover students' direct and indirect costs seems to be missed. This could be a more widespread problem beyond those students who pay fees to HEIs. 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 USA 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 USA and can also be found in the EHEA (for England Hordósy & Clark, 2019; for Germany Steiner & Wrohlich, 2008). So in order to keep student expenses and income in reasonable proportion, at least for those students who receive public support, state support should be regularly adjusted to the regional costs of living.

Tables

Tables will be provided in the final version of the EUROSTUDENT report

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Chapter B9

Housing situation

Key findings

- **Types of housing:** In more than three fifths of countries, living with parents continues to be the single most common form of housing out of five different forms of housing. In almost two fifths of countries, living with partner/children is the most widespread type of living. Sharing accommodation with other persons is a form of housing that 13 percent of students use on average across countries. Living alone is still the least used form of housing; on cross-country average, 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 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 (28 %), and students who are younger than 22 years (25 %). By contrast, it is rarely chosen by students who are 30 years and older (6 %) and students depending on self-earned income (10 %).

- **Commuting between home and the higher education institution (HEI):** Students who live with their parents have 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 for one way.

- **Students' satisfaction with the costs of accommodation:** On average across countries, 29 % 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 parents are quite dissatisfied with their daily commuting times, but hardly discontent with the general condition of their homes. Students who are 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 accomplishes 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, the partner, children, or fellow students. Some forms of housing, e.g. 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 apparently is 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 policy-makers. Until recently, this topic was not explicitly mentioned in the ministerial declarations of the 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 (Rome Communiqué Annex II, 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 higher education institutions 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 can be lower than in 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 it 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 higher education institution

An important feature of housing forms is their geographical proximity to universities. The physical distance to a university determines the possibility to participate 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 expense 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 monetary costs for transportation compared to students living in other forms of housing that are in closer vicinity to the university. Furthermore, the commuting time of students who live in the parental home, can negatively affect their study time, as the total commuting time for 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 a university at all, it is sometimes unavoidable for students to move out of the parents' home (Bonaccorsi, 2017). Living in a 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 housing situation

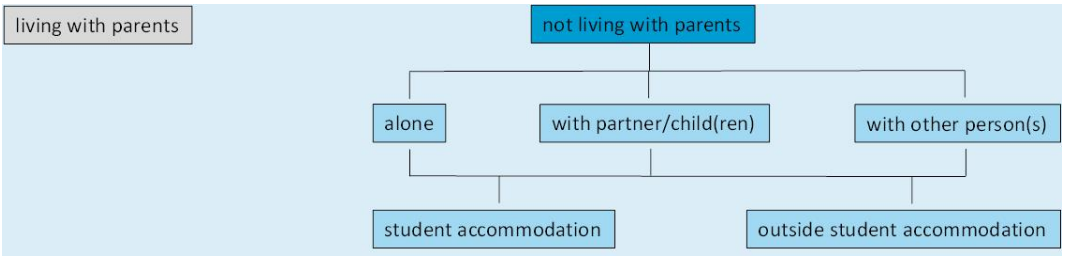
Since housing is a multi-functional and important part of life, satisfaction with the form of housing contributes to a person's general well-being (Coates, Anand, & Norris, 2015). Furthermore, with respect to students there is empirical evidence that the type of housing has an influence on their retention 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 there are certain groups of students who are particularly dissatisfied. There is a variety of characteristics that can influence students' satisfaction with their accommodation. This involves e.g. 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, i.e. 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 the 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 are 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

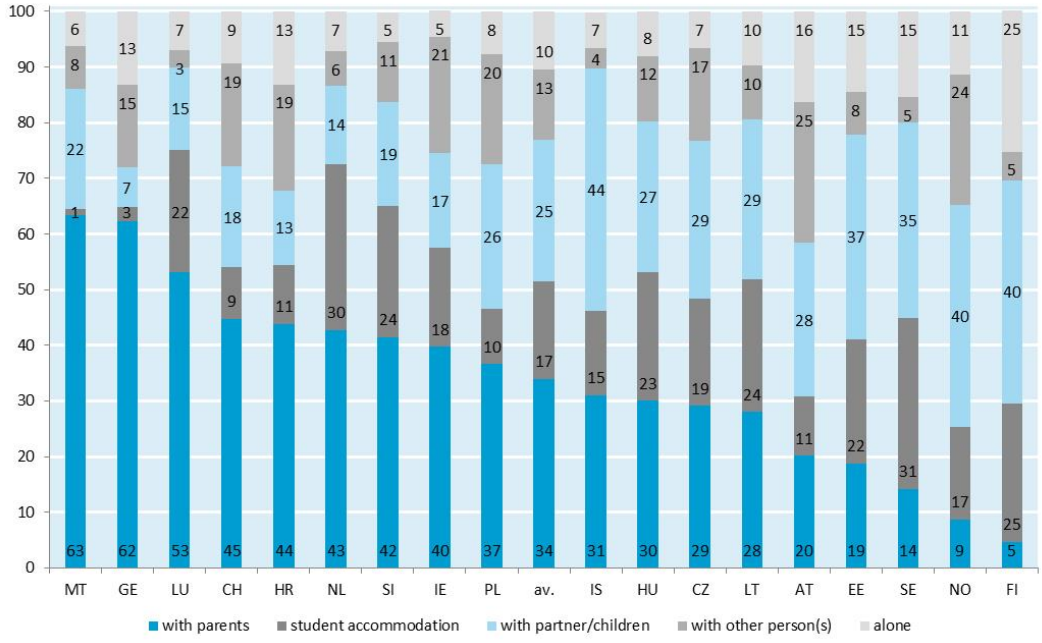


Data and interpretation

The housing situation of students: an overview

Students in the EUROSTUDENT countries live predominantly outside the parental home. In over 80 % 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:** DK.
Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).
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 standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

- In Malta, Georgia, and Luxembourg, the majority of all students are living with parents. This applies to more than half of all students in Luxembourg, and to more than three fifths in the other two countries.

In some countries, although only a minority of students live with their parents, they still represent the highest proportion out of five types of housing compared.

- This applies to eight countries, namely Switzerland, Croatia, the Netherlands, Slovenia, Ireland, Poland, Hungary, and the Czech Republic. 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, the founding of and living together with a family is connected.

Across countries, 17 % of students reside in student accommodation.

- In country comparison, this form of housing is most popular in the Netherlands and Sweden, where at least 30 % of all students live this way. But also in Luxembourg, Slovenia, Hungary, Lithuania, Estonia, and Finland, it is a widespread form of housing, hosting 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, e.g. friends, fellow students, etc., outside student accommodation is a form of housing which is not particularly widespread, at least when measured by the international average that amounts to 13 %. Living alone (outside of student accommodation) appears to be the least common type of housing for students. Across all countries, only a tenth of students have decided to live on their own. In more than half of countries, the respective share of students is even below 10 %.

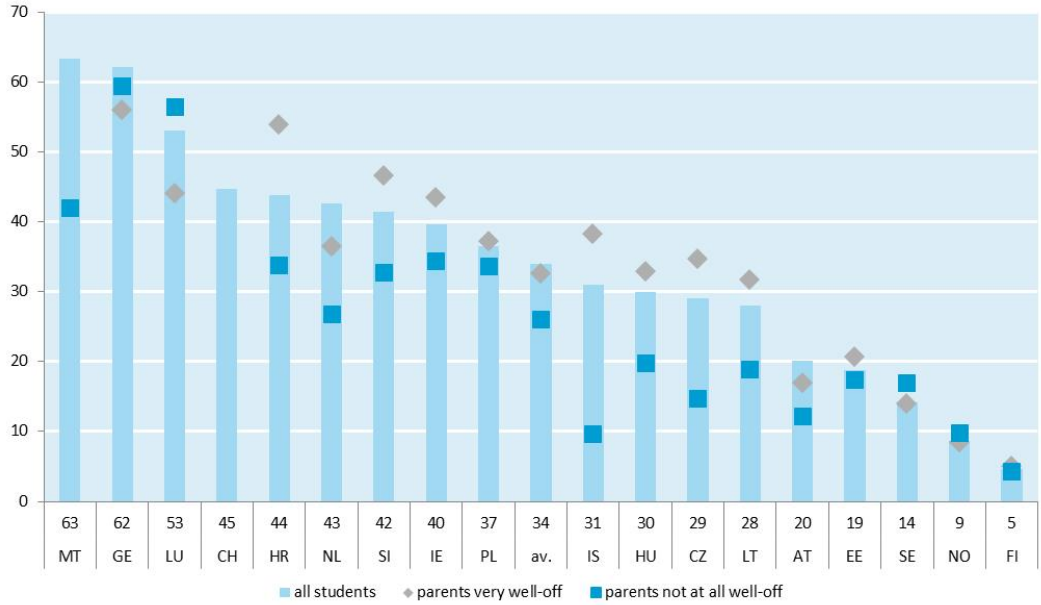
Students' housing situation changes with their age (Table B9.1). Across countries, the following patterns can be observed: The share of students living with their parents decreases as the age of students increases. The same pattern holds true for students who live in student accommodation. Also for students who live in shared flats outside student accommodation a decreasing trend can be observed. By contrast, the proportion of students who live with partner/children increases with rising age of students and so does the share of students who live alone. Thus, despite different housing traditions in individual countries and regions of Europe, there are also common cross-country patterns that unfold during the life course of students.

Students living with parents

Besides age, other factors play a role in determining students' housing, such as the financial situation of the students' parents. For example, parents who are financially not well-off have fewer opportunities to economically support 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, our data show that students who subjectively rate their parents as being financially

not at all well-off tend to live with their parents less often than their counterparts who assess their parents as being financially very well-off (Figure B9.3).

Figure B9.3 Students living with parents by parents' financial status
Share of students (in %)



Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, E.2. **No data:** DK, parents very well-off & parents not at all well-off: CH.
Too few cases: Parents very well-off: MT.
Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 4.1 Who do you live with during the current lecture period (Monday to Friday)?
Note(s): Interpretation aid: In Luxembourg, 53 % of all students live with their parents. Within the group of students whose parents are considered being financially not at all well-off 56 % live in the parental home and within the group of those whose parents are regarded being financially very well-off it is 44 %. Values above the country abbreviations present the share of all students living with parents.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

On cross-country average, a third of students who assess their parents as being financially very well-off live with their parents; this roughly corresponds to the international average of all students living with parents (34 %). By contrast, in the group of students whose parents are regarded being financially not at all well-off only 26 %, on cross-country average, live in the parental home.

In three quarters 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 half 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 two fifths of countries – Croatia, the Netherlands, Slovenia, Iceland, Hungary, the Czech Republic, and Lithuania –, the share of students living with parents is at least ten percentage points higher in the group of students with well-off parents.

- The pattern is reversed in a quarter of countries. In Georgia, Luxembourg, Sweden, and Norway, the share of students living in their parents' home is higher among those whose

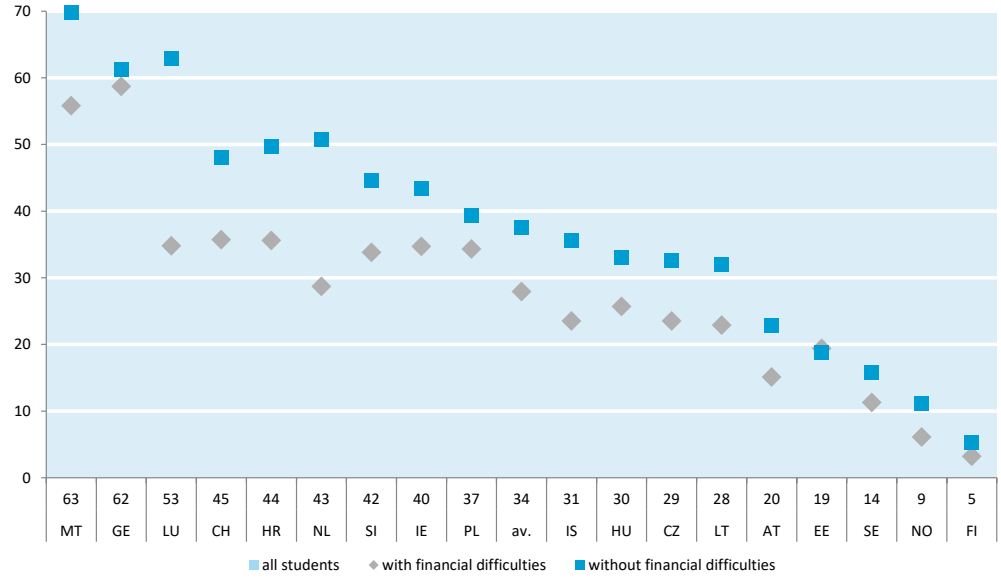
parents are presumably not at all well-off. The relative difference between the two groups ranges from one percentage point in Norway to 12 percentage points in Luxembourg.

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 more than 80 % 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 their parents. 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 who live away from their parents. The first group usually pays no rent or only relatively small amounts and often receives 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 in Figure B9.4.

Figure B9.4 Students living with parents by students' financial difficulties
Share of students (in %)



Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, E.2. **No data:** DK.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).

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 present the share of all students living with parents.

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

[1] When looking at the age of students at entering higher education it shows that students whose parents are not at all well-off are, on average across countries, 22.9 years old, whilst their peers from very well-off families are only 20.3 years old (> DRM).

[2] Students whose parents are not at all well-off and who live away from the parental home spend in an average week during the lecture period 17.6 hours (cross-country average) on paid jobs. Their counterparts whose parents are very well-off and who live in the parental home spend in the same time span only 10.4 hours on gainful employment (> DRM).

Among students who do not have financial difficulties, on cross-country average, clearly more than a third (38 %) of them lives with parents. This exceeds the share of all students living with parents (cross-country average) by 4 percentage points. When looking at students who report having currently financial difficulties, the share of residents in the parental home amounts only to 28 % across countries. In more than 80 % 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 and the Netherlands.

In clearly 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 also largest in Luxembourg and the Netherlands with at least 14 percentage points. In Malta, Switzerland, Croatia, Slovenia, and Iceland, the difference is also rather large with eight percentage points.

- 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

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 almost 90 % of countries, students who are 30 years and older have the lowest shares of students living this way. On cross-country average, the share of students residing in student accommodation decreases continuously from a quarter in the youngest age group (< 22 years) to 6 % in the highest age group (30 years and older).

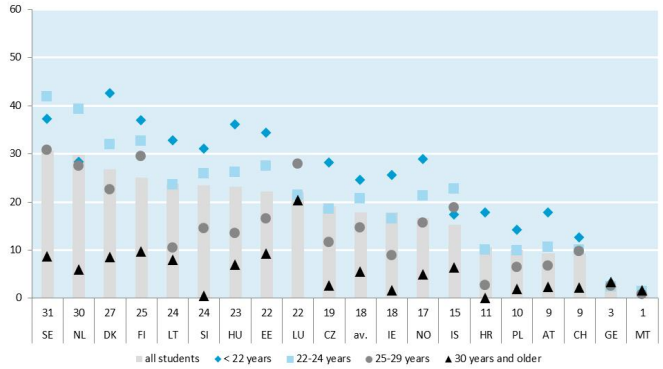
Student accommodation is used more often by students with higher educational backgrounds (Figure B9.5b). In more than two thirds of countries, it is students with tertiary education background who most often live in student accommodation. At the same time, students from low education backgrounds tend 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 low education background to 17 % in the group with medium education background to 20 % 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 the lower, the higher their educational background. Accordingly, the low proportion of dormitory residents in the group with low education background can be explained, at least in part, by the relatively high average age of this group.

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 %).

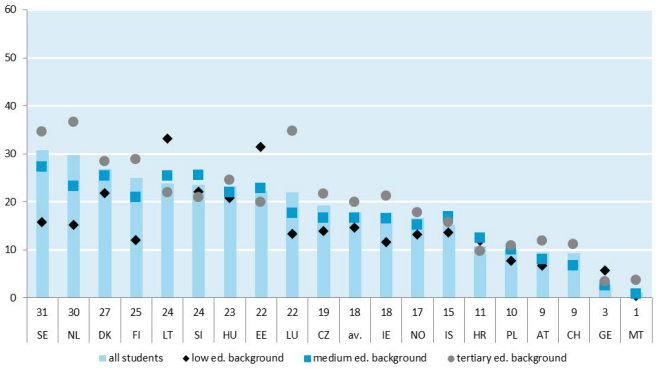
Figure B9.5 Students living in student accommodation by age, educational background, and educational origin

Share of students (in %)

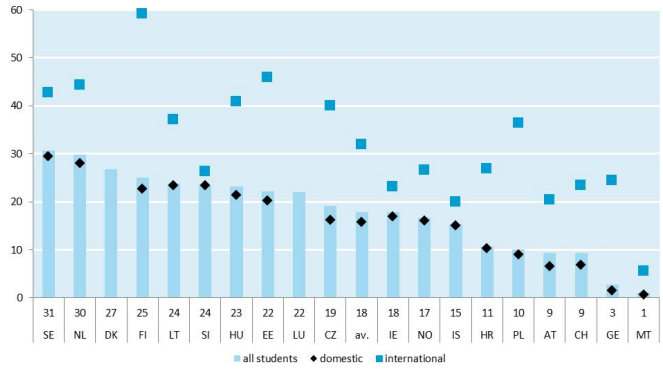
a) Students living in student accommodation by age group



b) Students living in student accommodation by educational background



c) Students living in student accommodation by educational origin



Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, E.1. **No data:** Domestic & international: DK, LU.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).

EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 4.2 Do you live in a student accommodation?

Note(s): Values above the country abbreviations present the share of all students living in student accommodation.

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

- The proportion of international students living in student accommodation is particularly high in Sweden, the Netherlands, Finland, Hungary, Estonia, and the Czech Republic, with at least 40 %.
- Comparatively low shares can be found in Iceland, Austria, and Malta, 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 females (20 % vs. 16 %) (Table B9.2). The same is true for students at universities compared to their peers at non-universities (20 % vs. 12 %). Students enrolled in Master programmes, on average, reside as often in student accommodation as Bachelor students do (18 %), although less aggregated data show that in more than two thirds of countries the relation is reversed, i.e. Bachelor students more often use student accommodation. The proportion of residents in student accommodation is extraordinarily high among students depending on public support (28 %) 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 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 quite 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 who study with medium intensity, it is 19 % that opted for living in student accommodation and among those with high study intensity it is 22 % of students who have chosen this type of housing. This basic pattern holds true for almost three quarters of countries.

In all countries except Malta, students with high study intensity live in student accommodation to an above-average extent.

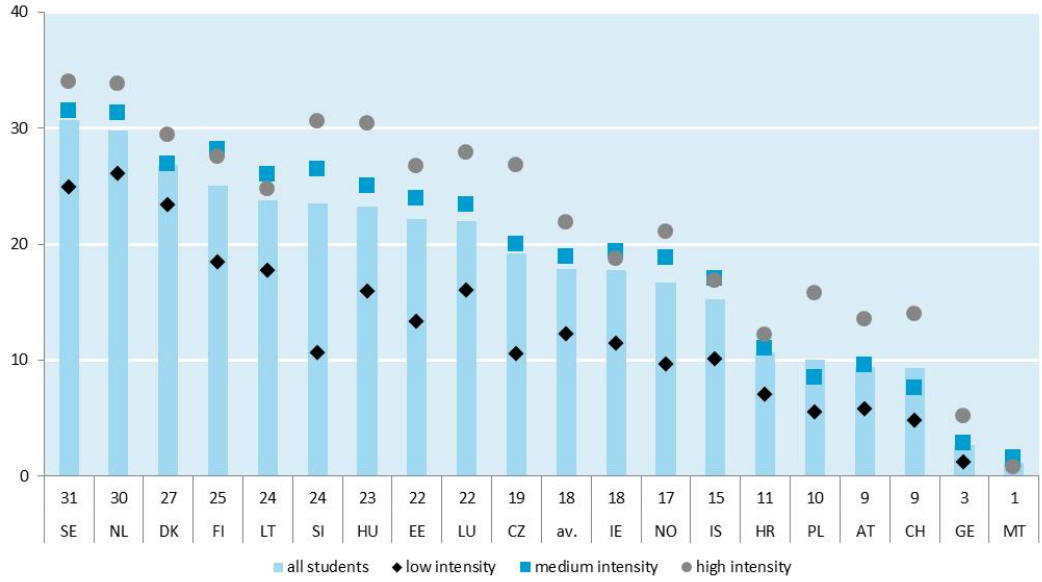
- The largest difference between the share of all students living in student accommodation and high-intensity students can be found in Slovenia, Hungary, and the Czech Republic, with at least seven percentage points.
- The difference between the two groups is very small, with a maximum of two percentage points, in Lithuania, Ireland, Iceland, Croatia, and Georgia.

In 63 % of countries, students with 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 in all countries but Malta below the country average and these students have the lowest proportion out of all groups.

- The share of dormitory residents within this group is clearly below the country-average in Slovenia, Estonia, and the Czech Republic. In these countries, the difference is at least nine percentage points.

Figure B9.6 Students living in student accommodation by study intensity
Share of students (in %)



Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, E.1.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).

EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 4.2 Do you live in a student accommodation?

Note(s): Values above the country abbreviations present the share of all students living in student accommodation.

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

The different living behaviour of the three groups can be associated, on the one hand, with their age. In a group comparison, high-intensity students are youngest, whilst their peers with low-intensity are oldest (> Chapter B1). The first group is, therefore, more likely to use student accommodation more frequently. On the other hand, high-intensity students are more often depending on national public student support compared to the other two groups (recipient rate: high-intensity: 19 %, medium-intensity: 17 %, low-intensity: 12 %). Students who depend on public support, however, receive a clearly lower total income compared to those who depend on other income sources (> Chapter B7), so that student accommodation likely provides a welcome, affordable option (> Chapter B8).

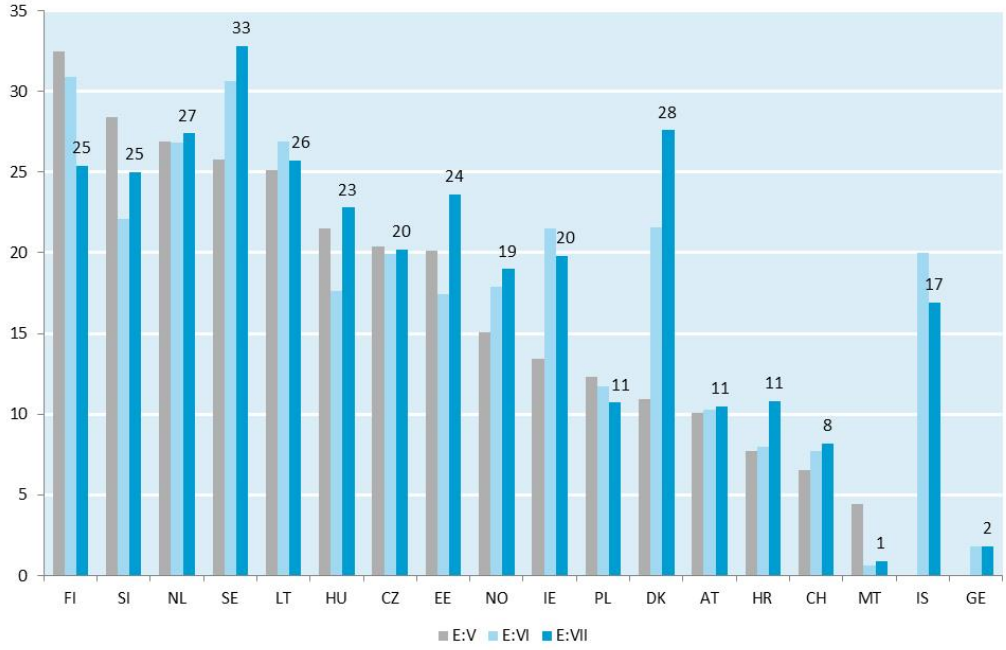
Comparison over time: Bachelor students living in student accommodation

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 a third of countries, there is a trend of increasing shares of dormitory residents. In Sweden, Estonia, Norway, Ireland, Denmark, and Croatia, the share of BA students living in student accommodation has increased by at least three percentage points between E:V and E:VII. In Ireland and Denmark, the increase amounts to at least six percentage points.

- In 44 % of countries, the share of BA students living in student accommodation has changed only slightly between E:V and E:VII, i.e. less than three percentage points, or not at all. This holds true for the Netherlands, Lithuania, Hungary, the Czech Republic, Poland, Austria, and Switzerland. In Georgia, the share remained unchanged 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, & E:VII, E.1. **No data:** E:V: GE, IS; E:VII: LU.
Data collection: E:VII: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).
EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 3.2/3.1/4.2 Do you live in a student accommodation?
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

- Finally, in 22 % of countries, the proportion of dormitory residents among BA students has decreased over time. In Finland, Slovenia, and Malta it has decreased by at least three percentage points from E:V to E:VII. In Iceland, the decline took place between E:VI and E:VII.

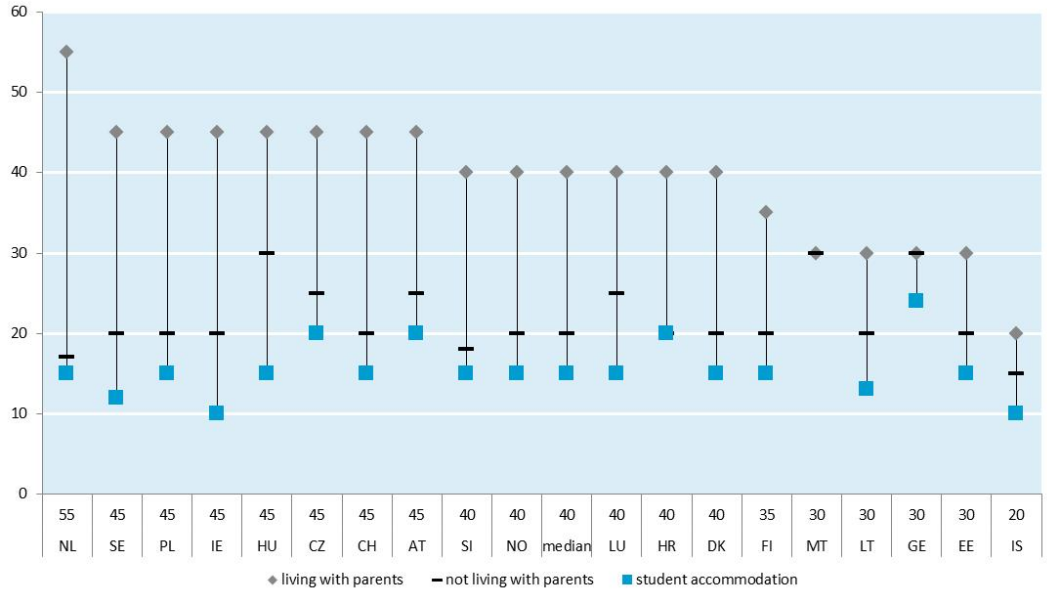
Commuting between home and the higher education institution

The realised form of housing has not only 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 higher education institution. 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 one – 'student accommodation' (Figure B9.8). Displayed is the median time in minutes for students' regular commuting for one way on a typical day in the current lecture period.

Students usually spend most time on 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 (only for one way) amounts to 40 minutes across all countries. Students who do not live with their parents have a clearly shorter commuting time of 20 minutes for one way. Their peers who are residing in student accommodation have the shortest commuting time at 15 minutes. This general pattern indicated by the international median values is reflected in almost 90 % of countries with available data on all three forms of housing.

Figure B9.8 Basic type of housing and regular time for commuting from home to higher education institution (one way)

Median one-way commuting time (in minutes)



Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, E.8. **Too few cases:** Student accommodation: MT.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).

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 present the median commuting time of students living with parents.

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

Students living with parents have the longest commuting times in the vast majority of countries.

- In the Netherlands, Sweden, Poland, Ireland, Hungary, the Czech Republic, Switzerland, and Austria, the median travel time for these students is quite long with at least 45 minutes for one way. In about a quarter of countries – encompassing Malta, Lithuania, Georgia, Estonia, and Iceland –, the commuting time of students living in the parental home is relatively short with no more than half an hour.

- For students living away from parents, the longest commuting times can be found in Hungary, Malta, and Georgia, with half an hour for one way. By contrast, the commuting time for students in this form of housing is comparatively short in the Netherlands, Slovenia, and Iceland, with no more than 18 minutes.

- If the difference in commuting time between students living with parents and those not living with parents is considered, the largest differences are found in the Netherlands, Sweden, Poland, Ireland, and Switzerland, with at least 25 minutes. This difference is rather small in Malta, Lithuania, Georgia, Estonia, 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 and Iceland where these students spend no more than 10 minutes for commuting from their dormitory to their HEI (one-way). The longest commuting

times with at least 20 minutes are reported by students in the Czech Republic, Austria, Croatia, and Georgia.

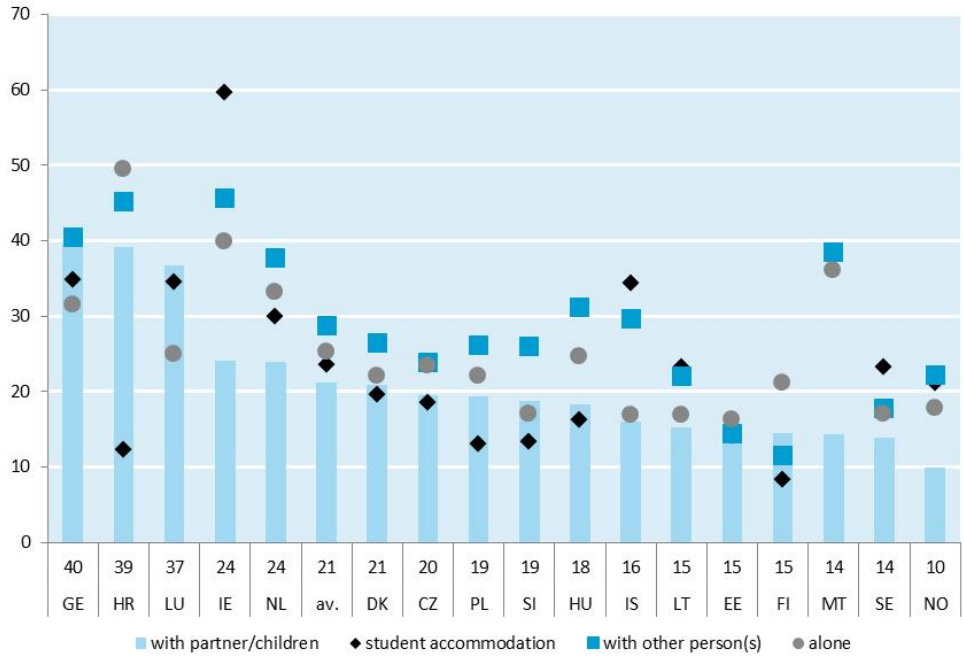
The short commuting times of students living in student accommodation are also reflected in their satisfaction with this aspect of housing (Figure B9.10c and Table B9.4).

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 in Figure B9.9. 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: 29 % of all 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 %.

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:** AT, CH, DE. **Too few cases:** student accommodation: MT, with other person(s): LU.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).

EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 4.3 How satisfied are you with your accommodation concerning the following aspects?

Note(s): Values above the country abbreviations present the share of students not satisfied (at all) among students living with partner/children.

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: DK, HU.

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

- When looking only at countries with available data on all four types of housing presented in Figure B9.9, it appears that in 53 % of countries, students living with other persons register the highest levels of students who are not satisfied (at all). This holds true for Georgia, the Netherlands, Denmark, the Czech Republic, Poland, Slovenia, Hungary, and Norway.

- Only in three countries – Croatia, Estonia, and Finland – can the largest share of students who are dissatisfied with accommodation costs be 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. In fact, in two fifths of countries with available data on all four types of housing, students sharing their living space with partner/children 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 can be found in Table B9.3.

The findings presented here are also consistent with the basic results on relative accommodation costs (> DRM). On cross-country average, students living with other persons devote the highest share of total monthly expenses to accommodation (38 %). For students who are living alone the respective share amounts to 36 % and students who are living in student accommodation pay marginally less (35 %). Students who live with partner/children dedicate the lowest share of total monthly expenses to accommodation (31 %).

Students' satisfaction with the location, condition and commuting time of accommodation

Figure B9.10 contains data 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 higher education institution.[3] It is differentiated between three forms of housing, namely living with parents, not living with parents and, as part of the latter, living in a 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. Out of the three groups, it is students who are living with their parents who are most often not satisfied or not satisfied at all (Figure B9.10a). Based on the cross-country average, 16 % of all students who live with their parents are not satisfied (at all) with the location of their home. In three quarters out of all countries with available data on all three student groups, these students are the ones who are in a group comparison most often dissatisfied with this aspect. 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 a tenth (9 %). In 38 % 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.

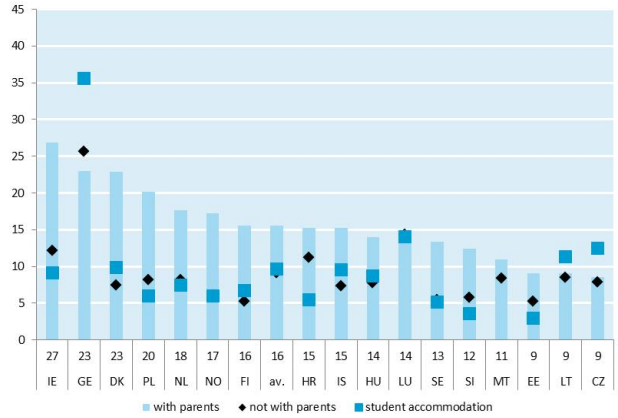
The picture appears different when looking at the dissatisfaction with the general condition of housing (Figure B9.10b). On cross-country average, students residing in student accommodation show the highest level of dissatisfaction (19 %), whilst their fellow students who live in the parental home report the lowest level of discontent (6 %).

[3] The criteria 'location' and 'overall condition' were not further specified in the underlying questionnaire.

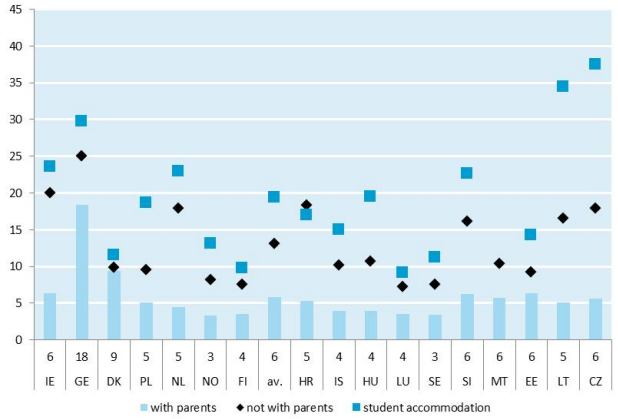
Figure B9.10 Students' satisfaction with different aspects of accommodation by various forms of housing

Share of students who are not satisfied (at all) (in %)

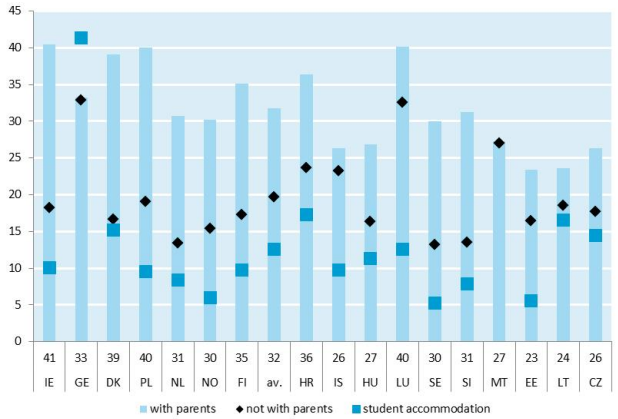
a) Students' satisfaction with location



b) Students' satisfaction with condition



c) Students' satisfaction with commuting time



Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, E.5, E.6 & E.7. **No data:** AT, CH, DE. **Too few cases:** Student accommodation: MT.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).

EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 4.3 How satisfied are you with your accommodation concerning the following aspects?

Note(s): Values above the country abbreviations present 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, PL.

The residents of student accommodation report the largest shares of those who are not satisfied (at all) in more than 90 % of all countries with available data on all three groups. In all countries, students who live with their parents are the 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 a tenth in more than 90 % of countries. In more than three fifths of countries, the share of students who are not satisfied (at all) does not exceed 5 %.

Students generally express the highest level of dissatisfaction with their commuting time (Figure B9.10c). On aggregate across countries, students who are 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 in a group comparison those who are most often not satisfied (at all) with their commuting time. Students who reside in student accommodation are the least often dissatisfied with this aspect (cross-country average: 13 %). In almost all countries with available data, students who are living in student accommodation report the lowest levels of dissatisfaction with their commuting time. The findings for the satisfaction with the commuting times are consistent with the results for students' commuting times in Figure B9.8. On cross-country median, students living with parents have the longest time for a one-way commute from their home to their 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,[4] while their peers in the Nordic countries rarely live in their parents' home. This is a well-known regional pattern that is not only found in young population groups in general (Buchmann & Kriesi, 2011) but also in the student populations. Despite such region-specific patterns, there are also patterns that 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 that is 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 out of all types of housing compared in this report (> DRM). Paying no or only little rent is certainly economically supportive for students, especially for those who come from a disadvantaged situation. 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 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; Rome Communiqué Annex II, 2020), benefit clearly 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 Corona pandemic.

[4] Although not yet included in the data, Italy and Portugal also belong to the EUROSTUDENT countries where the majority of students live with their parents.

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 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. What both groups have in common is that they tend to have a comparatively low total income per month (> Chapter B7). Accordingly, this type of housing seems to attract especially students who have 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, as the share of students living in student accommodation generally rises, the higher the students' educational background is. 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 for socio-academic integration (Schudde, 2011)[5] and convenient location. In some cases it may also be due to negative experiences, including ethnic discrimination, international students have had 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 has found in an international quantitative study (Ammigan, 2019; Ammigan and Jones, 2018).

Over the last decade, an increase in the share of BA students residing in student accommodation is noticeable in a third of countries. This suggests that either already existing dormitory capacity has been better used 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 realised 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 for the same ride 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 and have their own accommodation for reasons of cost. The commuting time is, of course, related to the spatial distance to the nearest HEI and there is empirical evidence that this is a relevant criterion for potential students when deciding whether to attend a university at all (for Germany Spiess & Wrohlich, 2010 and for Canada Frenette, 2006). Potential students who live at 'out-of-reach-distance' and cannot afford living away from parents would thus be lost to higher education. The same applies to potential students who live within reach of universities though, but do not have adequate access to (public) transport (Kenyon, 2011). Remedial political action could be taken through paying (more) housing subsidies to

[5] 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).

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 is (very) satisfied with these aspects (> DRM). 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]: 23 %) followed by costs (19 %), location (11 %) and condition (11 %). Satisfaction differs also with the type of housing. With respect to commuting times, it is students who are living with parents who 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 that users are confronted with. Insofar as a need for action is identified for social policy – and the Rome Communiqué is quite clear with regard to housing costs (Rome Communiqué Annex II, 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

	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
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**	**24**	**8**	**14**	**8**	**39**	**20**	**16**	**16**	**10**	**27**	**14**	**33**	**13**	**13**	**11**	**5**	**65**	**4**	**15**

n.d.: no data.

Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, E.2.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).

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 standard target group: DE, IE, 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 an income source			Extent of financial difficulties		
	Female	Male	University	Non-university	Bachelor	Master	Dependent on family/partner contributions	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
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	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**	**28**	**19**	**18**	**17**

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 (spring 2020).

EUROSTUDENT Question(s): 4.2 Do you live in a student accommodation?

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

Table B9.3 Satisfaction with costs of accommodation of students living with parents, with partner/children, with other person(s), alone

Share of students (in %)

	With parents			With partner/children			With other person(s)			Alone		
	(Very) satisfied	Neither satisfied, nor dissatisfied	Not satisfied (at all)	(Very) satisfied	Neither satisfied, nor dissatisfied	Not satisfied (at all)	(Very) satisfied	Neither satisfied, nor dissatisfied	Not satisfied (at all)	(Very) satisfied	Neither satisfied, nor dissatisfied	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
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.	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
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.	**76**	**15**	**9**	**58**	**21**	**21**	**51**	**21**	**29**	**52**	**22**	**25**

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

Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, E.4.

Data collection: Spring 2019.

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, PL.

Table B9.4 Satisfaction with student accommodation concerning costs, location, condition, and time to commute (between accommodation and HEI)

Share of students (in %)

	(Very) satisfied	Neither satisfied, nor dissatisfied	Not satisfied (at all)	(Very) satisfied	Neither satisfied, nor dissatisfied	Not satisfied (at all)	(Very) satisfied	Neither satisfied, nor dissatisfied	Not satisfied (at all)	(Very) satisfied	Neither satisfied, nor dissatisfied	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
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	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
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.	**60**	**17**	**24**	**79**	**11**	**10**	**59**	**22**	**19**	**77**	**11**	**13**

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

Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, E.4, E.5, E.6, & E.7.

Data collection: Spring 2019.

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, PL.

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Chapter B10

International student mobility

Key findings

- **Intention to temporarily study abroad:** On cross-country average about every third student who has not been temporarily enrolled abroad intends to realise such a study abroad period. Generally, the intention for an enrolment period abroad is larger among students with tertiary education background than among their fellow students without tertiary education background.

- **Obstacles:** Across countries, students who do not plan to enrol abroad most frequently perceive the expected financial burden to be an obstacle towards temporary enrolment abroad, followed by 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 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 tertiary education background less commonly realise stays abroad compared to students with tertiary education background and students studying subjects of ICTs less frequently go abroad than students e.g. in the field of Arts and Humanities.

- **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 are more frequently 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, however, less commonly recognised towards studies.

- **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 is one of the main objectives of the EHEA (Vögtle, 2019b), 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 to increase 'cooperation and competition between higher education institutions' (European Ministers Responsible for Higher Education, 2009). In 2009 and 2012 the mobility targets of the EHEA have been 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' (European Ministers Responsible for Higher Education, 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 international student mobility, in particular the Erasmus(+) programme, with considerable increases in the programme's budget over the years (European Commission, 2019).

Extant research has identified a number of factors which 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 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, e.g. in the form of language skills or previous intercultural experience in the form of participation in pupils' exchange programmes (Finger, 2011; Hauschildt et al., 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, 2019a, 2021). Even though the Erasmus(+) programme places a '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) towards participation in the programme (Souto-Otero et al., 2013). Thus, keeping the EHEA's aims of equitability within higher education in mind (European Commission et al., 2020, pp. 124–133), social aspects of access to international student mobility are of particular interest.

International student mobility in itself is diverse by nature, with several different types of stays abroad; e.g. temporary enrolment abroad, internships abroad, summer schools, research or field trips, or language courses – just to name a few types of temporary international student mobility. In the context of this chapter the focus lies upon temporary mobility (or, taking up 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 regards to their organisational framework (including the financial aspects) as well as with regards to students' socio-economic background (tying in on the extant research dealing with social selectivity of international mobility).

Regarding the outcomes of international student mobility, the most immediate interest relates to recognition practice and the integration of credits earned abroad into the studies at home (European Commission, 2019), as the transferability and comparability of learning achievements is one of the core pillars of the EHEA altogether (Vögtle, 2019b). The long-term labour market outcomes of international student mobility have been subject to several recent studies, identifying beneficial effects of international student mobility e.g. on wages, the risk of unemployment, or 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 completely entered the labour markets (> 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 if international mobility experience relates to students expected labour market outcomes of studies.

Taking up on the presented aspects, the chapter at hand gives an impression of temporary international student mobility with regards 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:

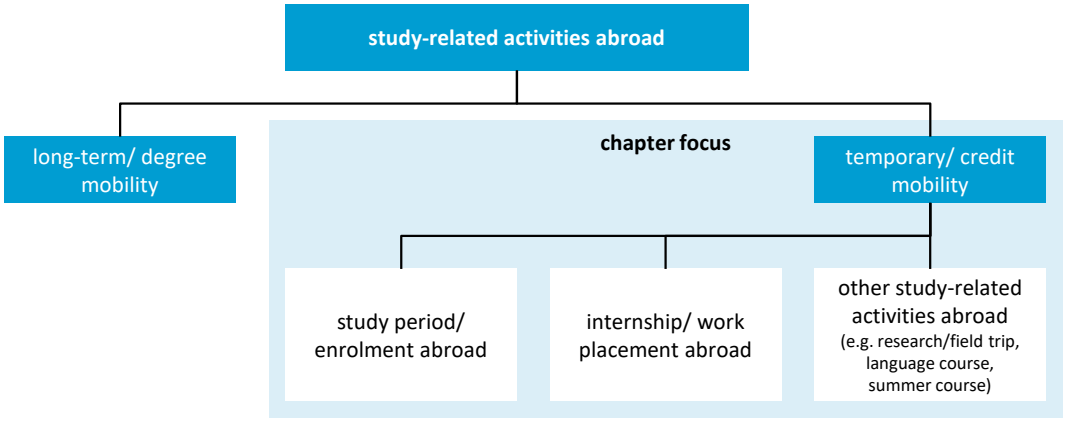
- To what extent do students intend to go abroad during their studies and what are the perceived obstacles to stays abroad? Does students' socio-economic background relate to their motivation to go abroad?
- What are the most common types of stays abroad?
- How do students commonly organise and fund periods of enrolment and internships abroad?
- What are the immediate (ECTS-related) and long-term (expected labour market preparation by studies) outcomes of international student mobility?

Methodological and conceptual notes

The analyses in this chapter cover temporary types of mobility that are also called credit mobility. Credit mobility covers study periods abroad ('enrolment abroad'), internships or work placements abroad, and other short-term study-related activities abroad, e.g. research/field trip, language course, summer course of less or at least three months duration (Box 10.1). Included in the analyses are only students of the EUROSTUDENT target group (> Chapter A3). Thus, only students who are studying to achieve 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 students graduating 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 in Figure B10.4 can therefore only serve as rough estimation of international mobility realisation along the student life-cycle.

Box B10.1 Types of international student mobility



Data and interpretation

Intention to study abroad

On cross-country average, about a third of students who have not realised a temporary study abroad period indicate either intending or already preparing a study abroad period (31 %; Figure B10.1). However, there are large variations across countries with regards to students' intention for study abroad periods:

- The intention to study abroad is largest in Georgia (57 %) and Estonia (51 %), with more than half of the students who, until now, have not been temporarily enrolled abroad, indicating their willingness to become mobile.
- Comparatively low rates of students planning to temporarily study abroad can be found in Poland (20 %), Finland (19 %), and Lithuania (16 %), where only every fifth to sixth student without study abroad experience is intending to realise such a temporary enrolment.

A consistent relationship regarding students' intention for study abroad periods is revealed through a differentiation by students' educational background. Generally, across all participating countries, students without tertiary education background less frequently indicate intending or preparing a temporary study abroad period than students with tertiary education background. On cross-country average, this between-group difference amounts to about ten percentage points.

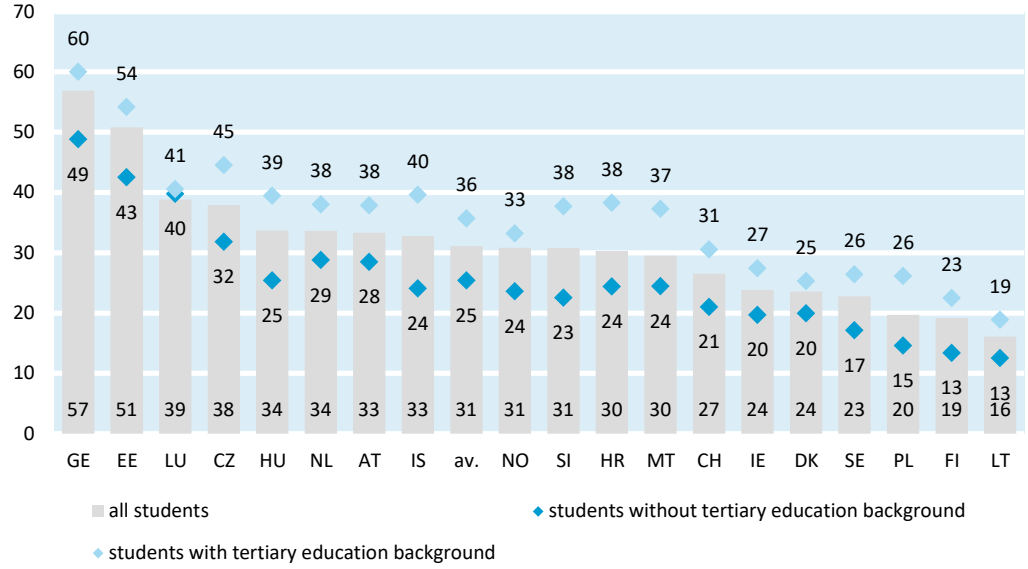
- The difference of study abroad intention between students from different educational backgrounds is particularly large in Iceland (40 % vs. 24 %), Slovenia (38 % vs. 23 %), while it is less distinct in countries like Luxembourg (41 % vs. 40 %) or Denmark (25 % vs. 20 %).

While educational background clearly relates to students' study abroad intention across countries, an additional differentiation by financial difficulties does not result in a correspondingly clear pattern (Table B10.1).

- While in some countries, like Luxembourg, Switzerland, Georgia, Croatia, and Denmark, students with financial difficulties less frequently indicate preparation or intention of 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 temporarily go abroad for studies is not solely tied to students' economic background and resources, but also linked to their social and cultural background. Thus, a more detailed look at students without study abroad intention and the perceived obstacles to international mobility is necessary.

Figure B10.1 Students' intention for study abroad periods by educational background
Share of students without temporary study abroad experience (in %)



Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, I.20. **No data:** DE.
Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020).
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, PL.

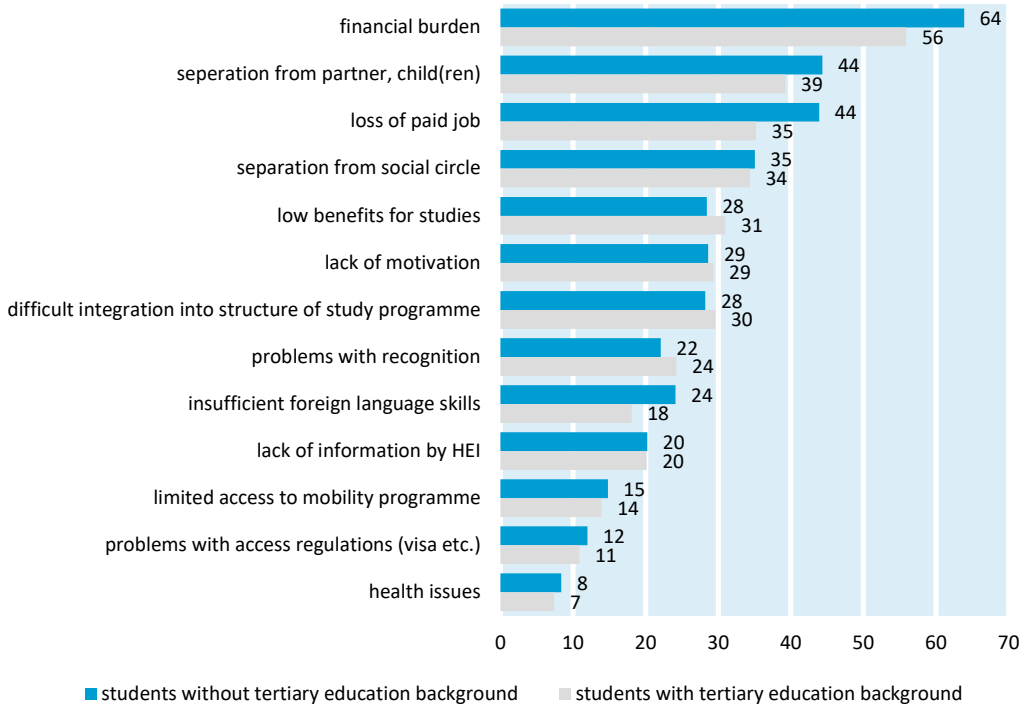
Obstacles to studies abroad

The most frequently mentioned obstacle to temporary enrolment abroad, across countries, is by far the expected financial burden (Table B10.2): On a cross-country average, 60 per cent of students who do not plan to enrol abroad mention this obstacle. This is (in descending order) followed by 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. Some national specifics are of notice with regards to the obstacles to temporary enrolment abroad:

- Students without intention to temporarily enrol abroad in 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 obstacle by majorities of students in Iceland (56 %), Czech Republic (55 %), Estonia (54 %), Finland (52 %), and Poland (52 %). This finding mirrors the demographic make-up of student populations with regards 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 %) fears the loss of their paid jobs (which partly correlates with employment structure in student populations; > Chapter B6).
- Students in the Czech Republic (45 %), Poland (42 %), Austria (41 %), Croatia (40 %), and Hungary (40 %) commonly mention difficulties to integrate temporary enrolment abroad into the structure of their study programme.
- Students without intention to study abroad in Poland (39 %), Ireland (38 %), Czech Republic (35 %), and Hungary (35 %) most frequently indicate insufficient foreign language skills.
- Problems with recognition of results achieved abroad are common obstacles for non-mobile students in Croatia (47 %), Czech Republic (40 %), and Poland (39 %).

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.
Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).
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, CH, DE, DK, SI.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

As, consistently across countries, students without tertiary education background are less intent on temporarily enrolling abroad than their fellow students with tertiary education background, a differentiation of perceived obstacles to temporary enrolment abroad by students' educational background is of interest (Figure B10.2). Not only do students without 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 mainly relate to students' economic background – than students with tertiary education background. They also more frequently mention insufficient foreign language

skills (24 % vs. 18 %) and the separation from partner and/or child(ren; 44 % vs. 39 %). Thus, students from lower educational backgrounds are on the one hand deterred from going abroad by their economic ties and disadvantages. On the other hand, they are also deterred from enrolling abroad by their (self-perceived) lack of cultural resources and their familial responsibilities. In contrast, students with tertiary education background are slightly more deterred from temporarily studying abroad by benefit-oriented aspects, e.g. low benefits for their studies (28 % vs. 31 %), problems with recognition of results achieved abroad (22 % vs. 24 %), or difficulties to integrate a stay abroad into the structure of their study programme (28 % vs. 30 %).

Types of realised international mobility

On cross-country average, seven per cent of students have realised temporary enrolment abroad and four per cent of students have been abroad for study-related internships or work placements, with one per cent of students having been abroad for both temporary enrolment as well as an internship/ work placement (Figure B10.3). An additional seven per cent of students has been abroad for other types of study-related activities (e.g. research/ field trip, language course, summer school), on cross-country average. Accordingly, the total cross-country share of students who have realised a stay abroad during their studies amounts to 19 %. There is large variation between participating countries, with regards to the share of students who realised stays abroad as well as the most common types of international mobility:

- The total share of students with international mobility experience is largest in Luxembourg with 39 %, followed by the Netherlands (26 %), Switzerland (25 %), Austria (25 %), and Norway (24 %), where about a fourth of students have been abroad during their studies respectively. Comparatively low shares of students who have realised a stay abroad can be found in Hungary (9 %) and Poland (7 %).

- Temporary enrolment abroad is the most common type of international mobility among students in Luxembourg (26 %), Germany (11 %), and Finland (11 %).

- Internships and work placements are more frequently mentioned than the other types of stays abroad by students in Austria (11 %) and Malta (8 %).

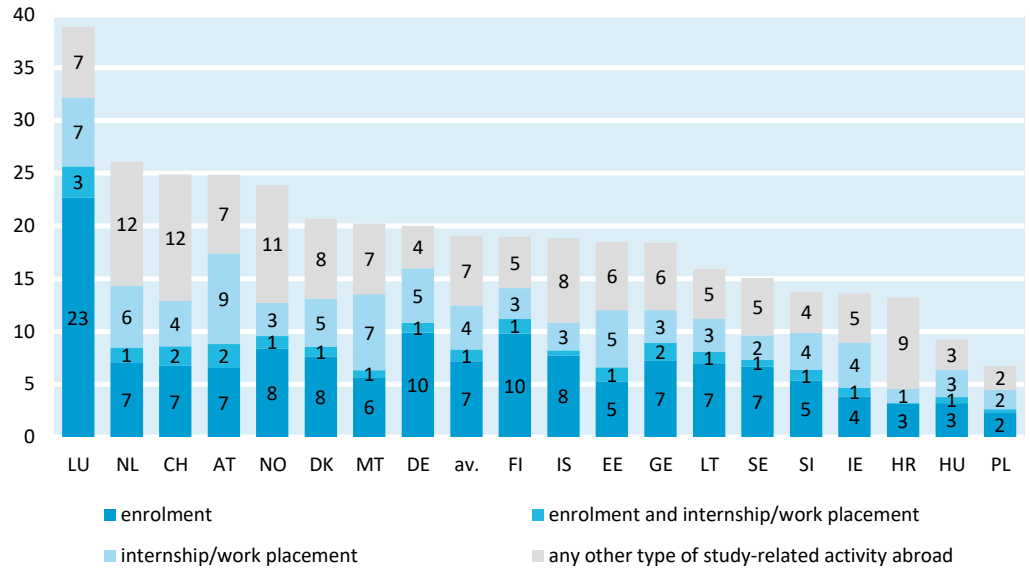
- Types of stays abroad other than enrolments or internships are most commonly mentioned by students in the Netherlands (12 %), Switzerland (12 %), and Norway (11 %).

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). Variation between countries with regards to the mean duration of temporary enrolment abroad is relatively low, while larger variation is observable with regards to the duration of internships:

- On the one hand, the mean duration of enrolment periods abroad ranges from 4.2 months among mobile students in Malta (median: 4.0 months) to 6.8 months among students in Iceland (median: 6.0 months).

- Internships' mean duration, on the other hand, ranges from 2.0 months among students in Luxembourg (median: 1.5 months) up to 4.4 months among students in the Netherlands (median: 5.0 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 (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).
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: MT, SE.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

Relationship between educational background and international mobility

Both, the intention to enrol abroad as well as the perceived obstacles to enrolment abroad have been shown to relate to students' educational background. This is in turn reflected in the realisation of international student mobility (Table B10.4):

- Across all countries, the shares of students who realised any type of international mobility are lower among students without tertiary education background than among students with tertiary education background. However, the degree of between-group differences vary, from distinctly lower shares among students without tertiary background e.g. in Norway (18 % vs. 25 %), Lithuania (13 % vs. 19 %), Germany (16 % vs. 22 %), Estonia (14 % vs. 20 %), Croatia (10 % vs. 17 %), and Sweden (11 % vs. 17 %), to almost negligible differences in Luxembourg (38 % vs. 39 %), the Netherlands (26 % vs. 27 %), Georgia (16 % vs. 18 %), and Iceland (18 % vs. 20 %).

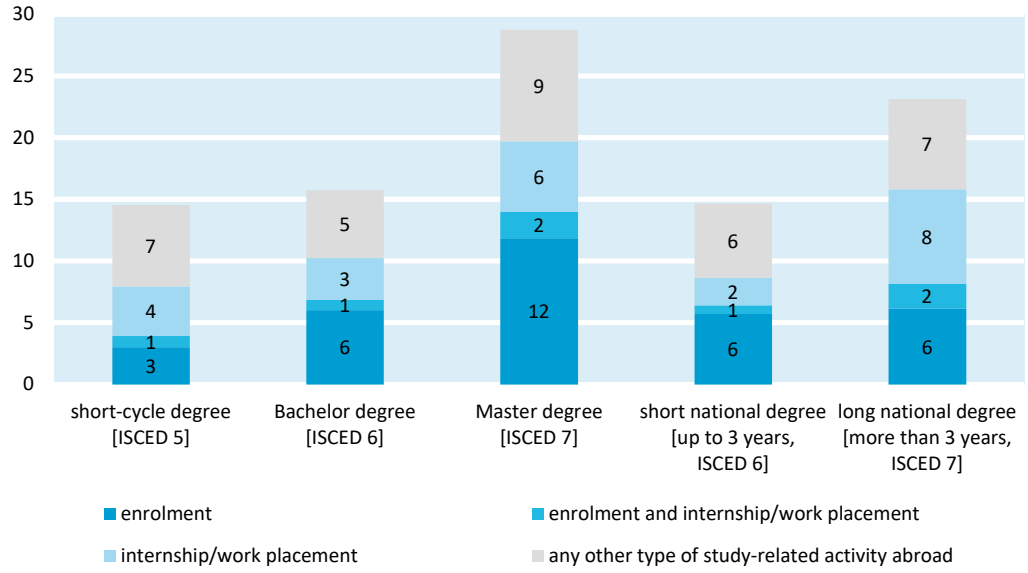
- On cross-country average, students with tertiary education background somewhat more frequently have been temporarily studying abroad than their fellow students without tertiary education background (6 % vs. 8 %). This finding holds true in most participating countries, except Luxembourg (26 % vs. 22 %) and Georgia (7 % vs. 7 %).

- Similarly, students without tertiary education background have less frequently been abroad for internships or work placements than students with tertiary education background in most countries (cross-country average: 3 % vs. 5 %).

Types of international mobility experience by type of study programme

Even though the EUROSTUDENT survey has a cross-sectional design, which does not allow for monitoring of the EHEAs goals with regards 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 realised mobility over the course of studies. The total shares of students who realised a study-related stay abroad since first entering higher education is considerably lower among students in short-cycle degree programmes of ISCED level 5 (15 %) as well as Bachelor (16 %) or short national (15 %) degree programmes of ISCED level 6 compared to students enrolled in long national (23 %) and, in particular, Master (29 %) degree programmes of ISCED level 7 on cross-country average (Figure B10.4). Taking a closer look at the specific types of realised mobility, it becomes obvious that students in short-cycle degree programmes (3 %) or Bachelor and short national degree programmes (6 % respectively) have rarely realised temporary enrolments abroad, while a cross-country average of twelve per cent of the students in Master degree programmes indicate an enrolment abroad. Shares of students who participated in 'other' types of mobility (research/field trip, language course, summer course), however, vary to a much lesser degree between the different types of study programmes. 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 regarding 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 realised at any time during the course of studies.

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 & long national).

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

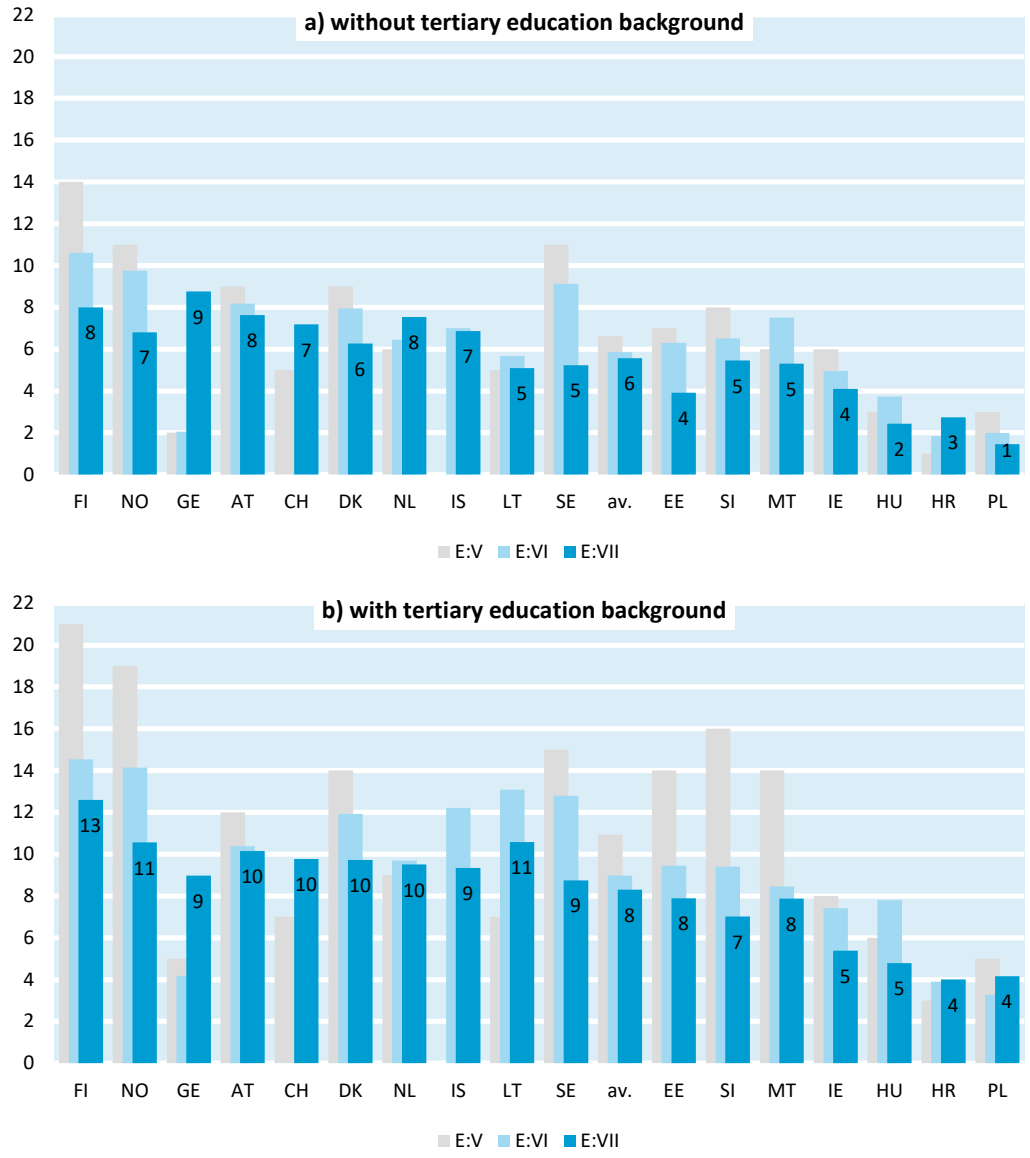
EUROSTUDENT question(s): 4.20 Have you done any internships (of at least one week, mandatory or voluntary) since you first entered higher education in #country? 5.1 Have you ever taken part in any of the following temporary study-related activities abroad since you first entered higher education in #country?

Note(s): Cross-country averages for students enrolled in respective degree programmes, where applicable (> Chapter B4).

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: MT, SE.

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, 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 (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).
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: MT, SE.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

Relationship between field of study and international mobility

Different fields of studies, with their varying academic cultures and habits on the one hand and varying make-up from diverse student subgroups on the other hand (> Chapter B4), are associated with differing affinity with regards to international mobility (Vögtle, 2019a, 2021). This is illustrated through a differentiation of shares 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 of the field of Arts and Humanities on cross-country average has study-related international mobility experience, the share amounts to only 14 % among students in

the field of Information and Communication Technologies on the lower end of the spectrum. While shares of students with international mobility experience are largest in the field of Arts and Humanities in most participating countries, there are some national specifics of notice:

- 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 (39 %) have more frequently been abroad than their respective fellow students in other fields of study.
- In defiance of the trend across countries, students in the field of Information and Communication Technologies in Georgia more frequently realise stays abroad compared to students in other fields of studies. Similarly, students in the field of Engineering, Manufacturing and Construction in Malta more frequently indicate stays abroad compared to students in any other field of study, while in most other countries the share of students with mobility experience is below average among students of Engineering, Manufacturing and Construction.

Temporary enrolment 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 participating countries (Figure B10.5): Shares of students who have been temporarily enrolled abroad are lower among students without tertiary education background than among students with tertiary education background in all countries at each measurement period. Additionally, the time comparison of students' enrolment abroad shows that shares of students who have realised a stay abroad are more or less consistent over time in many countries. This is reflected in the cross-country average for each measurement period that changes only marginally for both groups of students, with and without tertiary education background.

- However, there are some countries (most notably Finland, Norway, Sweden, and Slovenia) where students distinctly and consecutively less frequently indicate enrolment periods abroad over time.

Organisation, funding, and characteristics of international mobility

In order to promote international student mobility, 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 participating countries organised the mobility period via the Erasmus(+) programme, with a cross-country average of 65 % (Figure B10.6). Distinctly smaller shares of enrolment periods abroad are organised via other EU-programmes (5 %), other programmes not funded by the EU (17 %), or are altogether independently organised (14 %), on cross-country average.

- Less than half of the 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 shares of enrolments abroad of students 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 much less frequently organised through the Erasmus(+) programme, though: On cross-country average, the share of internships abroad that were organised via Eramus(+) amounts to 30 %. Internships are instead much more frequently than enrolment periods independently organised, with a cross-country average of 49 %. Shares of internships organised through other EU programmes (6 %) or non-EU programmes (16 %) are relatively low compared to the respective cross-country shares of enrolment periods abroad.

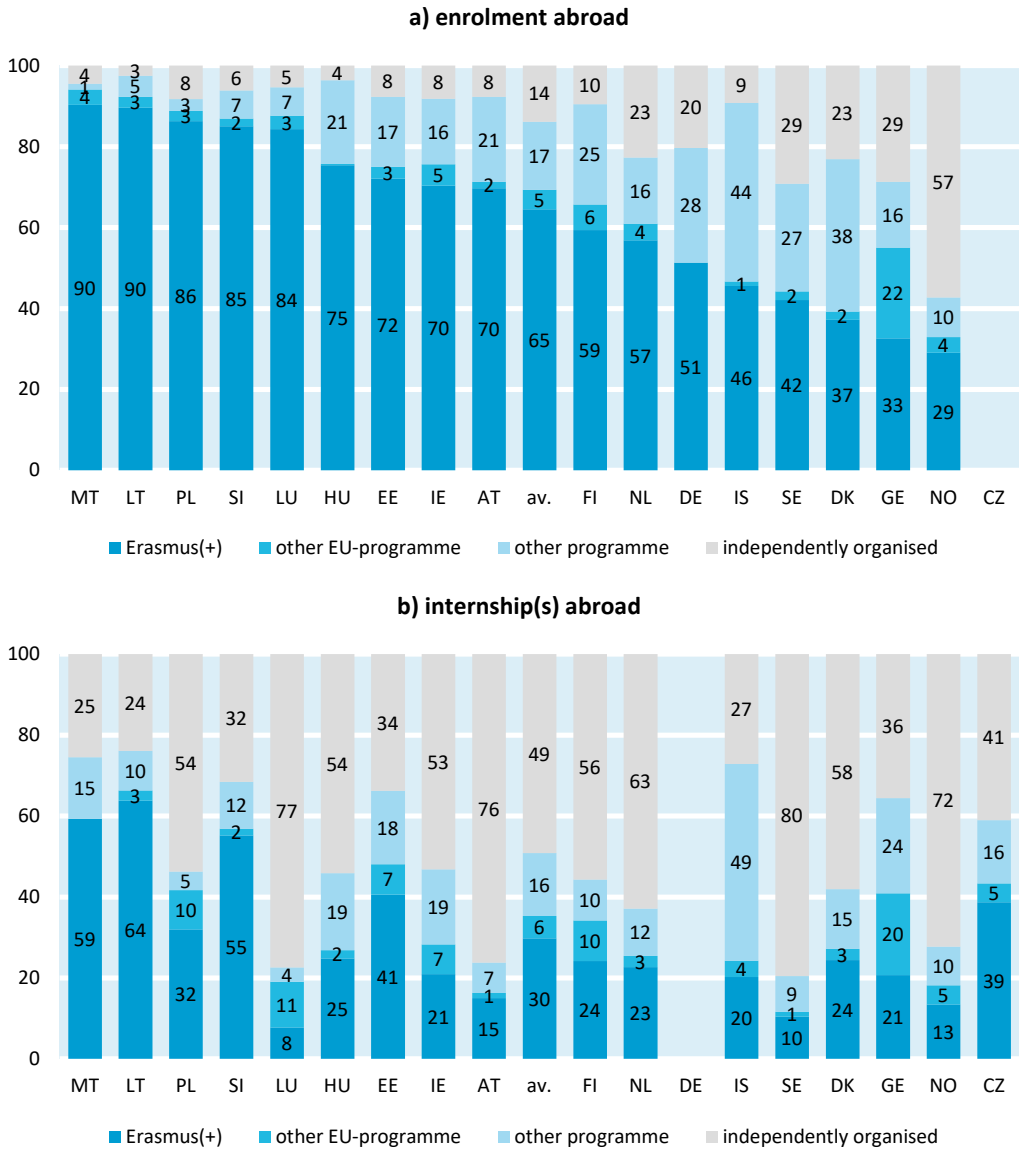
- Students in Lithuania (64 %), Malta (59 %), Slovenia (55 %), and Estonia (41 %) more frequently organised their internships abroad via Erasmus(+) than students who were abroad for internships in the other participating countries.
- Independent organisation of internships abroad is most common among students in Sweden (80 %), Luxembourg (77 %), Austria (76 %), and Norway (72 %).
- Students in Iceland (49 %), and Georgia (24 %) commonly organised their internships abroad through non-EU programmes.

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 29 % of enrolments abroad on EU study grants and loans, 21 % on funding by parents, other family members and/or partners, 20 % 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 who realised enrolment periods abroad in Malta (66 %), Slovenia (61 %), Lithuania (59 %), Poland (56 %), Estonia (55 %), Hungary (53 %), and Croatia (52 %) primarily funded these stays abroad via EU study grants and loans.
- Enrolment periods abroad of students in Sweden (73 %), Norway (64 %), Finland (55 %), and Denmark (52 %), in contrast, are most commonly financed by regular grants and loans from their respective country.
- Major proportions of enrolment periods abroad of students in Switzerland (58 %), Austria (44 %), Ireland (38 %), and Georgia (35 %) have primarily been funded by financial aid of parents, other family members and/or partner(s).
- Comparatively large shares of students in Iceland (36 %), the Netherlands (32 %), Denmark (28 %), Switzerland (27 %), and Ireland (26 %) funded their enrolment periods abroad primarily through own income or savings.

The last two findings point to potential problems related to selectivity of international student mobility, 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 background and resources.

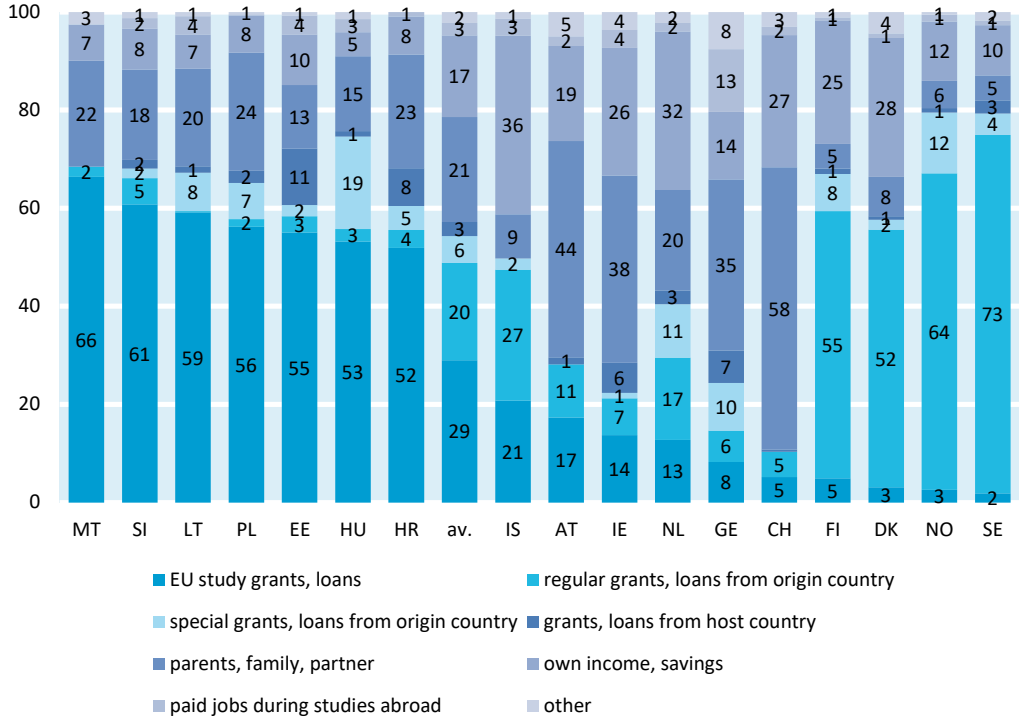
Figure B10.6 Organisational framework of enrolment and internship abroad
Share of students who have been abroad for the respective activity (in %)



Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, I.14, I.37. **No data:** CH, CZ (enrolment), DE (internship). **Too few cases:** HR.
Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).
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, PL.

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.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

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 one of them was your primary source of funding?

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: DK, LU, SE.

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

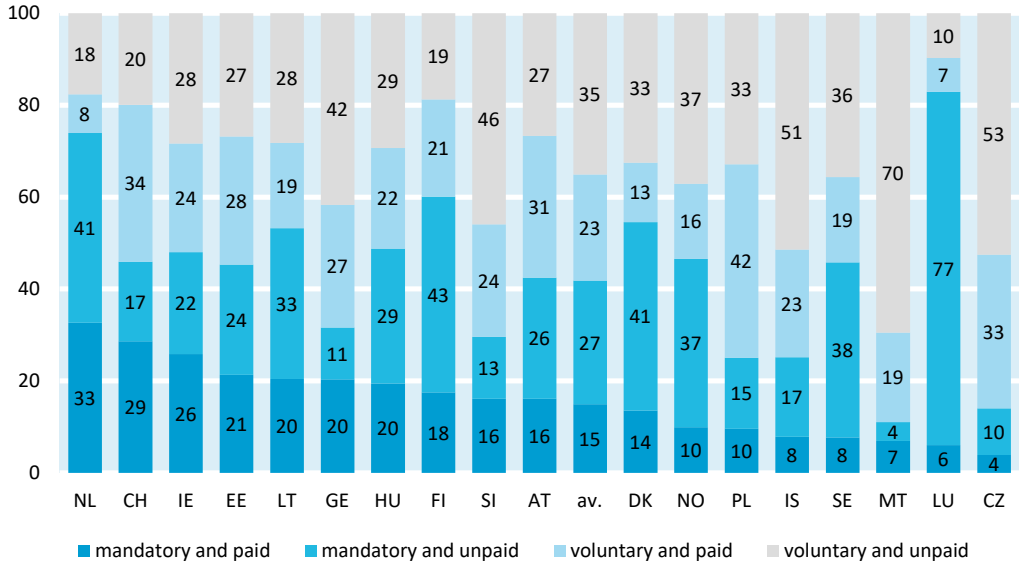
As the organisational structure of internships abroad has been shown to be quite distinct from enrolment periods abroad and huge variations between countries with regards to the organisation of internships abroad have been identified (Figure B10.6), a look at their character (mandatory vs. voluntary) and remuneration (paid vs. unpaid) is necessary in order to understand common practices regarding internships abroad. On cross-country average, the largest shares of internships abroad are either voluntary and unpaid (35 %) or mandatory and unpaid (27 %), so the majority of realised internships are not remunerated (Figure B10.8). Smaller shares of students who were abroad for an internship indicate either voluntary and paid (23 %) or mandatory and paid (15 %) internships.

- Shares of mandatory and unpaid internships are largest in Luxembourg (77 %), Finland (43 %), the Netherlands (41 %), Denmark (41 %), Sweden (38 %), Norway (37 %), and Lithuania (33 %).

- Shares of voluntary and unpaid internships are in turn largest among students in Malta (70 %), Czech Republic (52 %), Iceland (51 %), Slovenia (46 %), and Georgia (42 %).

Unpaid internships abroad may be problematic in so far as they may give a selective group of students (namely those who can afford such an unpaid internship abroad) benefits 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.

Figure B10.8 Character and remuneration of internships abroad
Share of students who have been abroad for an internship (in %)

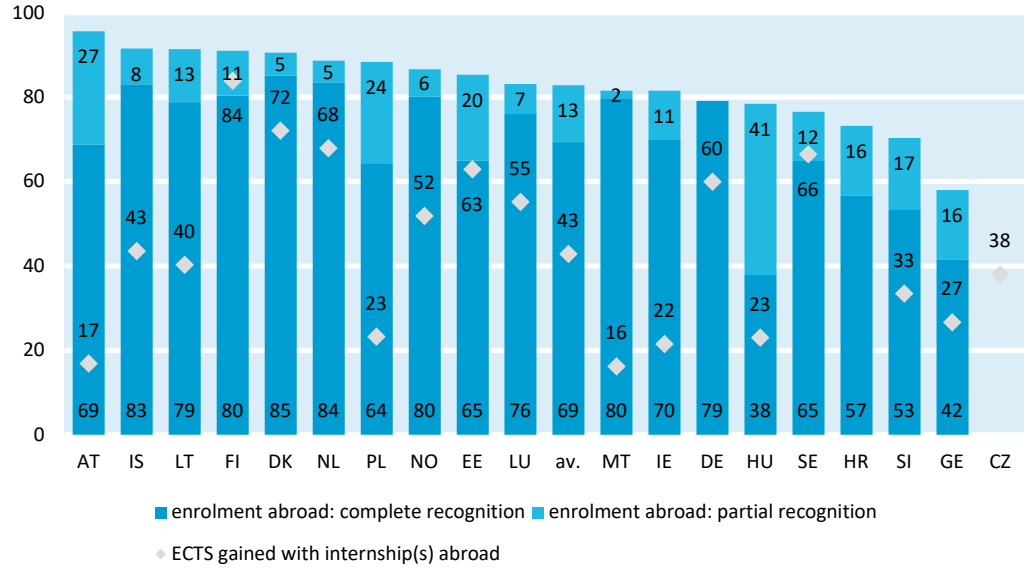


Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, I.34. **No data:** DE. **Too few cases:** HR.
Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).
EUROSTUDENT question(s): 4.23 [If internship done abroad] Was your most recent internship abroad...? 4.24 [If internship done abroad] Was your most recent internship abroad paid or unpaid?
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT survey conventions: LT.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

On cross-country average, students without educational background more frequently participate in mandatory internships abroad, either paid (16 % vs. 13 %) or unpaid (27 % vs. 25 %), than students with tertiary education background, who slightly more often participate in voluntary paid (21 % vs. 22 %) or unpaid (32 % vs. 34 %) internships (Table B10.6). Thus, trends of selectivity with regards of students' social background in tendency run more along the lines of internships' character (mandatory vs. voluntary) and less with regards to internships' remuneration (paid vs. unpaid):

- In most countries, larger shares of students without tertiary education background indicate mandatory and paid internships compared to students with tertiary education background, with notable exceptions in Finland (11 % vs. 20 %), and Norway (6 % vs. 11 %).
- While students without tertiary education background in the majority of countries have more frequently carried out mandatory unpaid internships abroad than students with tertiary education background, the reversed observation holds true in some other countries, most notably in Hungary (12 % vs. 36 %), Lithuania (26 % vs. 36 %), and Czech Republic (7 % vs. 12 %).
- Contrary to the broader trend, students without tertiary education background e.g. in Hungary (33 % vs. 19 %), Norway (22 % vs. 15 %), or Poland (46 % vs. 40 %) exceptionally more frequently go abroad for voluntary paid internships than students with tertiary education background.
- Similarly, voluntary and unpaid internships abroad are more commonly conducted by students with tertiary education background in many countries, apart from e.g. Finland (28 % vs. 16 %) and Sweden (43 % vs. 32 %).

Figure B10.9 (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). **Too few cases:** HR (internship).
Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).
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: SE.
Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, PL.

Outcomes of international mobility

The most immediate and measurable outcome of international student mobility is the recognition of competences, knowledge, and skills earned during the stay abroad in the form of credit points i.e. 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 completely recognised for their studies at home (69 %), with an additional 13 % indicating partial recognition (Figure B10.9). In comparison, internships abroad are less frequently recognised in the form of ECTS at the home institution. Some variations with regards to recognition practice appear across countries:

- Shares of completely recognised credits earned during enrolment periods abroad are exceptionally large among students in Denmark (85 %), the Netherlands (84 %), Iceland (83 %), Norway (80 %), Malta (80 %), and Finland (80 %), where at least 80 % of students who have been temporarily enrolled abroad have had their credits recognised completely.

- Only partial recognition of achievements gained during studies abroad are frequently mentioned by students in Hungary (41 %), Austria (27 %), Poland (24 %), and Estonia (20 %).

- Internships abroad are commonly recognised in the form of ECTS in Finland (84 %), Denmark (72 %), the Netherlands (68 %), and Sweden (66 %), with shares of at least two thirds.

While longer-term outcomes of international student mobility, e.g. in the form of labour market outcomes, are not measurable with the survey at hand, EUROSTUDENT data allows for a comparison of students' perceived preparation for the national and international labour

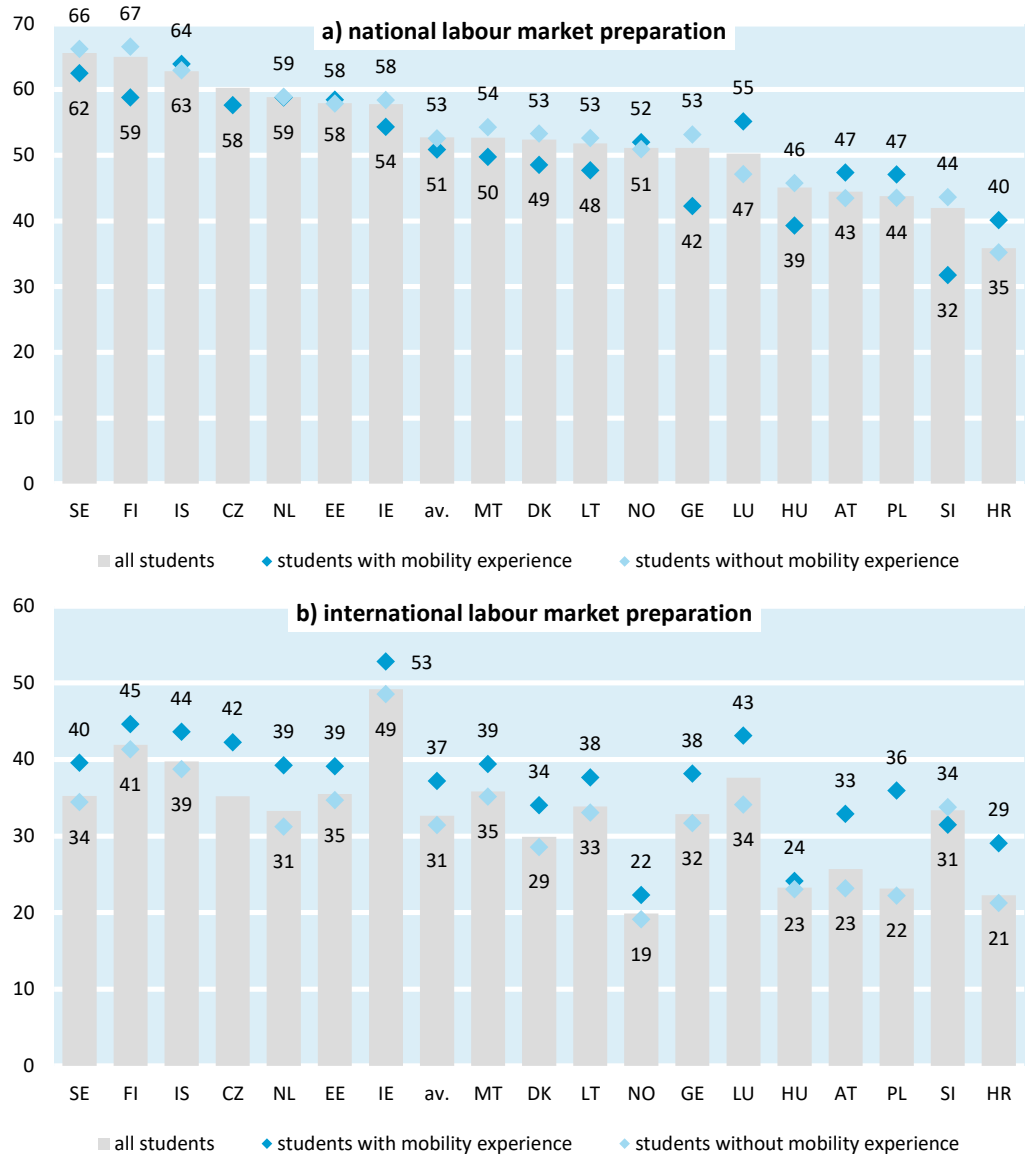
markets, differentiated by study-related international experience. On cross-country average, there is no distinct difference between students with and without international mobility experience in their assessment of how well their study programme prepares them for the respective national labour market (53 % vs. 51 %). However, a clear pattern across almost all participating countries is revealed regarding international labour market preparation (Figure B10.10): Students who have been abroad during the course of their studies generally feel more 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 low in most countries, major between-group differences appear in e.g. in Luxembourg and Croatia, where students with mobility experience feel distinctly better prepared for their national labour markets than students without mobility experience, and in Slovenia, Georgia, and Finland, where the opposing trend holds true.

- Students with mobility experience in Poland, Austria, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, and Croatia 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. Hungary or Norway).

Figure B10.10 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.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

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: NO, SI.

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

Discussion and policy considerations

The analyses in the chapter at hand illustrate several aspects of temporary international student mobility, 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 the perceived labour market preparation. Tying in on extant research findings that highlight the relationship between students' socio-economic background and their mobility behaviour, the analyses highlight that student without tertiary education background are less intent to temporarily study abroad and perceive economic, social, and cultural aspects to a larger degree as obstacles towards going abroad than their fellow students with tertiary education background. As a consequence, students without tertiary education background less frequently indicate realised international mobility in general and temporary enrolment periods in particular.

Differences in students' willingness and ability to become internationally mobility still have to consider further characteristics of student populations in addition to the educational background; the intersectionality of several aspects relate to the realisation of stays abroad, e.g. 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 ties between field of study and stays abroad have been demonstrated in the analyses of this chapter: Students e.g. in the field of Arts and Humanities more commonly realise stays abroad than students of Information and Communication Technologies. In addition, students enrolled in subjects of the fields of Natural Sciences, Mathematics and Statistics, Engineering, Manufacturing and Construction as well as Health and Welfare frequently have less often realised stays abroad than students in the other fields of study. In order to increase students' mobility rates (particularly in the more technically oriented courses of study), stronger ties on faculty level with institutions abroad could be established and formal mobility windows integrated into study curricula (as some students are deterred from enrolling abroad due to difficulties of integration of such a stay into their studies).

In order to further reduce preconceptions about international mobility and consequentially increase shares of students who realise 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, in order to shorten the period of separation from their families. Keeping the results regarding recognition practice in mind, internships could become more attractive if they were reliably and more frequently funded on the one hand and more assuredly recognised on the other hand. This could be ensured through institutionalised establishment of cooperation and partnerships between higher education institutions and faculties, and companies abroad.

Despite the EHEA's emphasis on international mobility and the ambitious goals with regards to mobility rates of graduates and the extant of periods abroad in the form of duration and/or ECTS, students should, in the end, not be forced to become mobile. Mobility experiences may increase social stratification and selectivity of higher education if the benefits, also 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, through the provision of financial and information support, as well as the development of innovative forms of mobility which allow more flexibility, such as virtual and blended formats, is necessary in order to avoid inequalities in this regard. The

next few years will show the impact of the Covid-19 pandemic on international student mobility: While certainly affecting physical international mobility in the short- to medium term (i.e. due to travel restrictions and reluctance to travel), the experiences made during the pandemic may in turn open up wide ranges of virtual and blended mobility formats, which may be a way to decrease socio-economic inequalities in international student mobility and increase equitable access to mobility for certain disadvantaged student groups (such as impaired students or students from ethnic minorities; Allinson & Gabriels, 2021). Even though the Ministers responsible for higher education recently acknowledged 'current difficulties related to the COVID-19 pandemic' with regards to international mobility and committed to 'enabling all learners to (...) experience some form of mobility, whether in physical, digitally enhanced (virtual) or blended formats' (Ministerial Conference, 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 for study abroad periods by educational background and financial difficulties

Share of students without temporary study abroad experience (in %)

		educational background		financial difficulties			educational background		financial difficulties			educational background		financial difficulties	
	all students	students without tertiary education background	students with tertiary education background	with financial difficulties	without financial difficulties	all students	students without tertiary education background	students with tertiary education background	with financial difficulties	without financial difficulties	all students	students without tertiary education background	students with tertiary education background	with financial difficulties	without financial difficulties
AT	7	5	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
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
GE	9	8	10	10	12	47	41	50	46	50	43	51	40	44	38
HR	4	3	5	2	5	26	21	33	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**	**24**	**20**	**28**	**24**	**24**	**69**	**75**	**64**	**70**	**68**

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

Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, I.20.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

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, 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	seperation from partner, child(ren)	seperation 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	45
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
GE	24	26	26	16	28	25	22	29	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**

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

Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, I.30.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

EUROSTUDENT question(s): 5.8 To what extent are or were the following aspects an obstacle to you for enrolment abroad?

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT conventions: AT, CH, DE, DK, SI.

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, 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					
	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
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	4.2	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.	**5.2**	**2.4**	**4.8**	**3.1**	**2.5**	**2.4**

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

Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, I.6, I.35.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

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 abroad? 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, PL.

Table B10.4 Types of students' international mobility experience by educational background
Share of students (in %)

	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
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**	**5**	**7**	**20**

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

Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, I.4.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

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: MT, SE.

Deviations from EUROSTUDENT standard target group: DE, IE, 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 & information	business, administration & law	natural sciences, mathematics & statistics	information and communication technologies (ICTs)	engineering, manufacturing & construction	agriculture, forestry, fisheries & veterinary	health & 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
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	n.d.
LT	13	26	22	16	15	7	16	17	12	17
LU	t.f.c.	30	44	42	t.f.c.	26	31	t.f.c.	28	t.f.c.
MT	12	19	16	17	22	15	34	t.f.c.	29	22
NL	27	33	27	28	26	17	23	37	16	39
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.	**20**	**25**	**20**	**20**	**17**	**14**	**18**	**20**	**18**	**22**

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

Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, I.1.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

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: MT, SE.

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

Table B10.6 Character 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 tertiary education background	students with tertiary education background	students without tertiary education background	students with tertiary education background	students without tertiary education background	students with tertiary education background	students without tertiary education background	students with 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
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	29	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.	**16**	**13**	**27**	**25**	**21**	**22**	**32**	**34**

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

Data source: EUROSTUDENT VII, I.34.

Data collection: Spring 2019 except CH (spring 2020), DE (summer 2016).

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, PL.

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Chapter B11

Policy considerations

Understanding students' situation

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 with the provided statistics with a focus on the situation in one or several countries. Looking at the data in this way reveals large variation on 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), have more often entered HE with a delay of more than two years after leaving school and with prior work experience. In these countries, students often work alongside 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 fund their living costs, and they less often receive family contributions. They tend to less often than students in other countries report not being able to afford an unexpected expense of 60 % of their median income. Students in these countries are also among the least likely to live with their parents (with the notable exception of Malta). In contrast, students in Croatia, the Czech Republic, Georgia, Ireland, Lithuania, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Poland, and Slovenia are on the younger end of the age spectrum, with at least two thirds of students under the age of 25. Students in these countries have less often interrupted their educational career before entering higher education, and accordingly, possess less work experience. They tend to live with their parents, and also usually 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 fund 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 country, as well as in comparison to other countries of the 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 follow certain groups of students 'throughout the data'. Such a perspective, at the national level, allows an in-depth understanding of the situation of a particular student group - regardless of its size - and, in cross-country perspective, reveals many patterns that are consistent across countries, despite different contexts. For example, throughout the report at hand, 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 HE, more often using alternative access routes (> Chapter B3), they can be more commonly found at non-universities (where these exist), as well as in short-cycle and

1 These examples serves to draw an overall picture, and most mentioned aspects apply to all countries to an above-average degree in all mentioned countries, but exceptions for single countries and aspects exist.

Bachelor, rather than Master, programmes (> Chapter B4). Students without tertiary educated parents more often work 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 tertiary education background (> Chapter B2). Financial difficulties of students are clearly related to parental financial status (> Chapter B7, > Chapter B8). The participation in study abroad activities among students without tertiary education background is also lower (> Chapter B10). Analyses such as these contribute to an understanding of the situation of a particular group of students which encompasses relevant aspects of not only their study situation, but provides insights into those aspects of their personal situation which 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, sight should not be lost of the fact 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 which 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. In order to better understand the interplay of the different characteristics, micro data analyses at the national level, or with the newly created EUROSTUDENT Scientific Use File, are encouraged, 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 source of data – survey responses by students currently enrolled in higher education – EUROSTUDENT cannot give insight into earlier stages of the educational system, or students' (or rather graduates') careers after leaving higher education. The former – a country's secondary school system – determines who the potential students typically reaching the entry to higher education are, and how well prepared for their studies they are. In this way, the school system may play a crucial role in the admission process to 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 to the social dimension (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice 2020), and 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; BFUG Advisory Group on Social Dimension, 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 these may give insights into how graduate outcomes, e.g., 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 a matching 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' (BFUG Advisory Group on Social Dimension, 2020, p. 5).

Involvement of institutions and stakeholders

Higher education institutions play a key role in shaping students' study, and, to some extent, living situation. They therefore are essential in implementing national-level strategies to improve the social dimension, particularly with regard to 'non-monetary policy' (Salmi und Sursock 2020) intended to support students during the pursuit of their studies towards graduation. The results of the recent INVITED study (Claeys-Kulik et al. 2019) show that inclusiveness is a strategic matter for many institutions, and many institutional initiatives exist that 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 which reflects on the implications for institutional actions, or even the provision of individualised institutional reports based on national EUROSTUDENT data sets, could support institutions in creating 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 including relevant public authorities, higher education institutions, and other relevant stakeholders about the implementation of the Principles and Guidelines throughout the entire system (BFUG Advisory Group on Social Dimension 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 which were (mostly) collected in 2019, when the Covid-19 pandemic had not yet made its impact on higher education across Europe. The disruption of studies and move to online learning and teaching which took place at an unprecedented level across Europe and, at the time of writing in the spring of 2021, is still ongoing in most countries, has 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 threats surrounding the pandemic outbreak (Barada, Doolan, Burić, Krolo, & Tonković, 2020; Belghith, Ferry, Patros, & Tenret, 2020). International student mobility 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 groups of students have faced the biggest challenges in access, progression and completion of their studies' (Bologna Follow-up Group 2020). 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 to ensure that vulnerable, disadvantaged and underrepresented students are able to access and participate in higher education.

On a more positive note, the experiences made by students, teaching staff, and institutions 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 the creation of new inequalities with regard to access and availability of online learning formats for disadvantaged students (Bologna Follow-up Group, 2020; Maloney & Kim, 2020).

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C1

Glossary

The final version of the Synopsis will include a glossary.

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. **SE:** Use of register information.

Figure B1.3, Table B1.2, Table B1.3

IS: Information taken from the sample. **NO, SE:** Use of register information.

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 are living with children of their partners). **SE:** 'Year of birth' was used instead of 'years of age'.

Figure B1.5, Figure B1.6

AT: The national questionnaire asks more specific for several impairments. The national questionnaire measures severity of limitations on 5 point scales for different impairments (1 meaning most severe; 5 meaning not limited at all). **CH:** No details about types of impairments asked. **DE:** The extent of limitations through any impairments were assessed on a 5 points scale from 1 'severely limiting' to 5 'not limiting at all' 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 in 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:** Use of register information.

Figure B1.7

AT: The national questionnaire distinguishes 4 specific sources of support (counselling centres, university administration, other students, lecturers). **IE:** response option 'no supported 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 Engine if not born in Denmark. **NO:** Three separate questions are 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 to explain the word performance.

Figure B2.9

DK: Added response category 'Don't know'. **EE:** Added additional 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 categorized as >2 years. Only includes students who attended school in Austria. **CH:** Information from national register of students (Swiss University Information System); duration of transition into HE is approximated (especially for international students). **DE:** Delay calculated based on month and year of obtaining #Matura or foreign equivalent.

Figure B3.3

EE: Entry into HE without #Matura not possible in Estonia, so response option 'no, I do not have a #Matura' was not offered. **MT:** Answering 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 asked. **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 HE without #Matura not possible in Estonia, so response option 'no, I do not have a #Matura' was not offered. **MT:** Answering 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' contains all who worked 'less than one year or less than 20h'. No information for '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. **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). **NL:** Additional question. **SE:** The question is replaced with national questions, where the respondents confirmed (if one programme) or chose (if more than one programme) programme/programmes at which they were registered. If the information from register did not represent the respondents 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

CZ: Short-cycle degree programmes and individual subjects excluded as answering options as they are not offered in the Czech Republic. **DK:** Data approximated with other data (e.g. register) or item/questions (not based on EUROSTUDENT questionnaire). **MT:** Response options are stated more explicitly to list all titles of study programmes available in Malta. **NO:** Adaption of categories to the national context. ISCED 5 is not considered as higher education in Norway. **SI:** Reduced response option, 'other postgraduate degree (ISCED 7)' does not exist in Slovenia. **CH:** Professional programmes are typically provided by institutions or enterprises outside the university context and are dedicated for direct entrance into the labour market or are in relationship to an existing employment. Therefore, these programmes are not included in the sample of the survey.

Figure B4.6, Figure B4.7, Table B4.5

CZ: No formal part-time studies, only 'combined' mode; no possibility to study correspondently. **EE:** Response option 'Other' not asked, since no other modes exist in Estonia. **HU:** Information added in data editing process. **MT:** Information added in data editing process. **NL:** Additional categories according to national context. **NO:** Response option 'Other' not asked, since other modes are not relevant in Norway. **PL:** No formal modes other than full-time. **SE:** Response option 'Other' not asked, since no other modes exist in Sweden.

Figure B4.8, Table B4.6

AT: The national questionnaire asks for support for balancing studies and other spheres of life (in general), but in E:VII target variables 'spheres of life' are split. **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 it is not common that cooperating institutions provide such 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 asked.

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 alteration, it is not possible to know if respondents had a paid job at time of survey or previously.

Figure B5.7

DK: Added response category 'Don't know'.

Figure B5.8

AT, DK, NO: Added explanation to explain the word performance. **CH:** See notes Figure B5.1, **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 and internships

Figure B6.1, Figure B6.2, Figure B6.3, Table B6.1

CH: See notes Figure B5.1.

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'.

Figure B6.5, Table B6.2

AT, CH, DE: Not all reasons asked. **DK:** Added response category 'Don't know'. **EE:** Reason added 'I work because I have enough free time to do so'.

Figure B6.6

DE: See notes Figure B3.4. **HU:** See notes Figure B3.1.

Figure B6.7

SI: The response options for the question on student income were reduced.

Figure B6.8

CH: See notes Figure B5.1, **SI:** See notes Figure B6.7.

Chapter B7: Students' resources

Figure B7.1, Figure B7.2, Figure B7.3, Figure B7.4, Figure B7.5

IE: In the national questionnaire, fees were asked per academic year. **SI:** The response options for the question on student income were reduced.

Figure B7.6, Figure B7.7

SI: The response options for the question on student income were reduced.

Figure B7.8, Figure B7.9, Figure B7.10

DK: The response option 'Don't know' was added.

Chapter B8: Students' expenses

Figure B8.1, Figure B8.2, Figure B8.5, Figure B8.6, Figure B8.7

DE: The survey in Germany did not cover payments of students and others for the following categories: debt payment (except mortgage), social welfare contributions, and most of other regular study-related costs. **IE:** In the national survey, fees have been recorded per academic year.

Figure B8.8

IE: In the national survey, fees have been recorded per academic year.

Figure B8.9

CZ: In the national survey, two threshold values for an unexpected required expense have been used.

Chapter B9: Housing situation

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.

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. **DK:** Added response category 'Don't know'.

Figure B10.3, Figure B10.4, Figure B10.5, Table B10.4, Table B10.5

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 left out because it was not relevant in the Swedish context.

Table B10.3

CH: The Swiss survey does not differentiate internships done in Switzerland or in a foreign country.

Figure B10.6

DK: Added response category. IS: Added response categories. CZ: Changed response categories.

Figure B10.7

DK: Added response categories. **LU:** Changed question. **SE:** Changed response categories.

Figure B10.8, Table B10.6

LT: Added examples in brackets.

Figure B10.9

DE: Response options differ, recognition only in yes/no manner, no differentiation between full and partial recognition.

Figure B10.10

NO: Phrasing of the question altered. **SI:** Phrasing of the question altered.

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 7 groups separately weighted (higher education sector, first year students, sex, age, educational institution, degree type, field of study) propensity score method (university of applied sciences additionally weighted by full time/part time) raking of students who finished the regular school system abroad (”Bildungsausländer”): nationality, sex, field of study, degree, age, first year students finally propensity score between 7 groups
CH	72 %	Stratified probability sample based on field of study and higher education institution	March 25 2020 - May 31, 2020	online	Field of study, higher education institution, sex, age, place of residence before the beginning of the study programme
CZ	8 %	Full population survey	May 8 - June 30, 2019	online	Raking, based on gender, qualification studied for, age, type of HEI, field of study
DE	19.6 %	Stratified random sampling	May – June 2016	online	Sex, age, type of HEI, federal state of the HEI, field of study
DK	26 %	Disproportionate sampling based on institutions. Random sampling within institutions.	May 22 - June 24, 2019	online and telephone	Institution, Sex, Nationality, Age
EE	7.9 %	Full population survey	May 7 - July 3, 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 higher education institution within strata.	Spring semester 2019	online	Gender, age, nationality, language, HEI, type of degree, field of education
GE	5 %	Stratified probability sample based on region, educational level, type of HEI, sex, age, citizenship, educational programs	May 16 - June 30 and September 16 - October 7 (no study period between this dates)	online	Type of higher education institution, qualification studied for, sex, age, field of study
HR	n/a	Full population survey by public call without individual invitations	June 4 - Sep 30, 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 higher education institution/faculty, depending on the availability of e-mail address in the central student registry	June 11 - July 7, 2019	online	Age, sex, qualification studied for, type of higher education institution, study location in the capital, field of study programme
IE	9.8 %	Full population survey	April/May, 2019	online	Gender, full-time/part-time status, ISCED level, age, and type of HEI
IS	14.1 % (net)	Full population survey	April 4 - June 18, 2019	online	HEI, gender, age, study programme
LT	4.1 %	Full population survey	May/June,	online	Type of HEI, study intensity (full-time, part-time),

	Return rate (gross)	Sampling method	Field phase	Survey method	Weighting variables
			2019		gender, age, field of study
LU	13.6 %	Full population survey	May 2019	online	Raking, based on sex, age, qualification studied for, field pf study, citizenship
MT	7 %	Stratified sampling including all the institutions who accepted to participate	April - June, 2019	online	Raking, based on qualification studied for, age, sex, type of higher education institution, field of study programme
NL	8.7 %	Probability sample based on type of institution (university vs. university of applied science), full-time/part-time, field of study, first year vs. rest, international students, age, and gender	July 7 2019 - October 8, 2019	online	Raking, based on type of institution, Bachelor/Master, full-time/part-time, first- year vs. rest, international students, age, gender, and field of study
NO	46.5 %	Simple random sampling	April 24 - May 12, 2019	online	Sex, age, institution type
PL	2.0 %	Full population survey	May/June, 2019	online	Sex, age, public/private HEI, region (voivodeship), size of study location, type of higher education institution, level of study programme, field of study, mode of study
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 higher education institution, type of qualification, field of study, full-time vs. part-time status

Table C3.2a Key data on national student populations (socio-demographic background and living conditions)

Share of valid responses, weighted (in %)

		Sex		Age				Migration background		Dependency on income source					Paid job during the lecture period		
	Students in sample (n)	Female	Male	Up to 21 year	30 years and over	no tertiary education background	Students with impairments	Without migration background, domestically educated	2nd generation migrants, domestically educated	Dependent on family support	Dependent on self-earned income	Dependent on public student support	With financial difficulties	Living with parents	0h	1-20h	> 20h
AT	42,178	55	45	22	20	47	12	67	10	37	38	7	22	20	37	39	24
CH	22,848	53	47	17	14	39	18	49	26	51	37	3	13	45	28	60	12
CZ	19,368	57	43	37	10	50	17	80	5	55	37	1	20	29	27	45	28
DE*	53,161	48	52	27	12	27	9	81	13	52	25	12	18	21	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
DK	9,615	57	43	13	13	25	18	74	9	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	23	6	37	57	6
EE	2,760	59	41	26	27	31	9	80	10	36	46	4	22	19	33	25	42
FI	7,006	54	46	13	32	33	22	88	3	12	37	37	24	5	44	31	25
GE	7,541	51	49	49	2	21	9	91	1	62	16	16	35	62	68	12	20
HR	1,840	58	42	37	10	55	13	74	19	52	33	6	18	43	47	22	31
HU	7,535	54	46	26	18	40	9	85	4	41	37	9	25	30	42	24	34
IE	19,900	52	48	56	17	44	18	60	11	38	38	12	29	40	41	38	20
IS	2,294	64	36	17	34	42	31	87	4	18	63	10	31	31	28	42	29
LT	3,356	56	44	45	14	45	11	90	6	45	40	3	25	28	47	17	36
LU	719	54	46	16	11	47	14	24	22	48	4	23	22	53	60	34	7
MT	1,226	58	42	33	23	62	12	77	7	31	50	10	30	63	37	30	33
NL	16,275	51	49	47	7	40	21	73	12	28	25	29	21	43	26	60	14
NO	10,374	60	40	20	30	22	23	78	9	6	34	47	29	9	29	46	25
PL	13,616	58	42	36	12	54	16	94	2	45	42	5	28	37	42	17	41
SE	5,129	60	40	22	23	34	21	n.d.	n.d.	10	17	64	17	14	52	40	8
SI	2,112	58	42	40	10	43	12	n.d.	n.d.	34	43	8	24	42	35	31	34
av.	**12,443**	**56**	**44**	**30**	**17**	**40**	**16**	**75**	**10**	**37**	**35**	**16**	**24**	**32**	**40**	**35**	**25**

Note: Rounded values are shown. Decimal points are only shown for values below 0.5.

*Data in conference version of report drawn only from survey in 2016 (same data as in EUROSTUDENT VI)

Table C3.2b Key data on national student populations (Study background and conditions)

Share of valid responses, weighted (in %)

Note: Rounded values are shown. Decimal points are only shown for values below 0.5.

	Field of study										Study intensity		Type of HE		Study programme					
	arts and humanities	engineering, manufacturing, and construction	education (incl. teacher training)	social sciences, journalism & information	business, administration, and law	natural sciences, mathematics, and statistics	ICTs	agriculture, forestry, fisheries, and veterinary	health and welfare	services	low intensity	high intensity	university	non-university	Bachelor	Master	First-year students	Alternative access route	International students	Delayed transition into HE
AT	12	14	15	10	22	10	6	1	10	1	29	26	81	19	62	23	16	9	21	28
CH	10	13	12	11	23	10	4	1	14	1	14	33	57	43	71	28	22	14	17	12
CZ	10	15	11	10	21	5	7	4	12	6	25	25	90	10	63	26	12	3	13	8
DE*	10	22	13	8	20	7	6	2	9	3	19	29	65	35	62	23	n.d.	5	n.d.	17
DK	11	12	6	10	18	6	5	1	27	3	13	33	57	43	68	24	15	7	11	22
EE	17	7	7	11	16	8	10	1	16	6	21	31	78	22	66	27	16	6	8	14
FI	11	19	6	6	19	5	10	3	19	4	31	22	48	52	74	26	14	8	7	32
GE	9	10	4	15	29	4	3	3	17	3	38	16	86	14	74	10	22	2	6	3
HR	8	16	7	7	28	4	8	3	12	7	18	35	83	17	60	23	16	4	2	11
HU	8	15	12	9	23	3	8	4	12	6	30	24	82	18	63	14	15	4	10	16
IE	14	12	8	7	19	11	9	2	14	4	18	30	70	30	75	12	22	8	14	11
IS	14	10	8	20	19	8	6	1	14	n/a	18	38	100	n/a	69	23	17	20	4	28
LT	9	18	4	9	27	4	6	3	17	2	19	31	68	32	76	15	15	2	3	11
LU	11	9	8	14	26	5	7	1	19	0.2	11	42	86	14	59	28	7	10	44	7
MT	11	8	12	7	29	3	7	0.4	19	3	26	37	68	32	55	23	19	25	10	24
NL	8	9	10	12	28	6	4	1	16	6	13	32	39	61	82	16	29	9	11	12
NO	7	11	21	8	20	5	5	1	22	0.4	29	27	66	34	50	17	15	14	6	23
PL	10	17	7	12	22	4	6	2	11	8	17	27	72	28	64	24	19	6	3	11
SE	9	21	12	12	14	6	4	1	20	1	20	28	100	n/a	26	10	15	8	9	34
SI	8	19	10	9	19	6	6	3	13	8	20	33	74	26	24	24	22	5	5	7
av.	**10**	**14**	**10**	**10**	**22**	**6**	**6**	**2**	**16**	**4**	**21**	**30**	**74**	**29**	**62**	**21**	**17**	**8**	**11**	**17**

*Data in conference version of report drawn only from survey in 2016 (same data as in EUROSTUDENT VI)

C4

References

Please refer to individual chapters for references.

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CH	The State Secretariat for Education, Research and Innovation (SERI)	Swiss Federal Statistical Office (FSO)	Yassin Boughaba	Yassin Boughaba, Philipp Fischer, and Véronique Meffre	www.students-stat.admin.ch
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