EURO STUDENT REPORT Social and Economic Conditions of Student Life in Selected EU-Member States

National Profiles and Synopsis of Indicators Austria, France, Germany, Italy



Project of the Deutsches Studentenwerk (DSW) under the Auspices of the European Council for Student Affairs (ECSTA) with Support of the EU-Commission.

Project Coordination : HIS Hochschul- Informations-System, Hannover, Germany Klaus Schnitzer

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Compilation of National Survey Data of Bundesministerium für Wissenschaft und Forschung (BMWF) in Austria, Observatoire de la Vie Etudiante (OVE) in France, Deutsches Studentenwerk (DSW) in Germany, Fondazione RUI in Italy.

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Project Coordination: HIS Hochschul- Informations-System, Hannover, Germany Klaus Schnitzer

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Generation of Key Social Data on Students

of Selected Member States of the European Community

1. Project Implementation

1.1 Institutional Context

This joint project aimed at acquiring key social data on students of selected member states of the European Community was conducted by Deutsches Studentenwerk (DSW) under the auspices of the European Council for Student Affairs (ECSTA). The ECSTA supervised it by means of an advisory committee comprised of ECSTA members and chaired by Dott. Ing. A. Razzano, Director of Fondazione RUI, Rome, and D. Schäferbarthold, Deputy Secretary General of the Deutsches Studentenwerk (DSW), Bonn.

HIS Hochschul-Informations-System Hannover was charged with the procedural coordination of the surveys and the generation of the report.

1.2 Project Sponsors

The basis of the project was formed by nationally conducted surveys on students' social circumstances. A subset of this data was gathered in accordance with standard conventions and made available for the EURO-STUDENT-RE-PORT.

The participants were:

Austria –	Project sponsor: Ministry of Science and Research Implementation: Fessel+GfK Opinion Research Institute
France –	Project sponsor: Observatoire de la Vie d'Etudiants (OVE) Implementation: Ditto
Germany –	Project sponsor: Deutsches Studentenwerk (DSW) Implementation: HIS Hochschul-Informations-System
Italy –	Project sponsor: Fondazione RUI Implementation: Universita degli Studii di Camerino

1.3 Project Financing

The national surveys were financed by the individual member states. Depending on the scope of the individual surveys, costs ranging from 200,000 to 500,000 ECU were incurred for the project. The European Community contributed funds towards the coordination of the national surveys and creating a joint EURO-STUDENT-REPORT. These funds were administered by the Deutsches Studentenwerk.

1.4 Timetable

The national surveys were conducted in 1994. In 1995, at the same time as the findings were undergoing analysis, the member states generated tables of results as agreed upon for the National Reports.

The National Reports were submitted as follows:

- Austria: July, 1995
- Germany: October, 1995

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- Italy: November, 1995
- France: November, 1995 (partial); December, 1995 (partial)

2. Project Aim and Strategy of Implementation

2.1 Project Aim

The project was designed around a decentralized data-generation approach seeking to obtain comparable data on the following key aspects of student life:

- individual financing of studies
- social background and participation in higher education
- state support and the financing of studies
- international mobility
- student living and housing patterns

The data collected constitutes primary data not covered by any official statistics.

2.2 Strategy of Implementation

The project called for the coordination of decentralized work efforts. In order to ensure comparable results, conventions were adopted with regard to:

- the type of survey (random sampling)
- definitions of individual items and indicators
- the form of presentation (national reports and synopses).

The conventions applied only to a minimum set of data (minimal strategy). The dual-purpose usage of national data (by-product strategy) was aimed at preventing survey redundancy. Data are intended for cumulative updating and long-term storage in a common database (e.g. EUROSTAT and EURYDICE).

3. Goal Fulfillment

3.1 Achievement of Overall Project Aim

Strengths

The overall project goal of generating comparable key data and indicators by coordinated, decentralized efforts has proved effective. The surveys were able to be conducted such that they describe nearly identical time frames. Time lags occurred only during subsequent analysis, thus hindering efforts to merge all the data concurrently.

In the case of Germany, the entire set of data was provided. In the case of the other countries, data on certain issues was omitted (Austria: mobility; Italy: financing of studies; France: job activity only presented in part).

Due to certain response items of highly national character (e.g. involving social stratification, degrees), not all of the information could be collected in directly comparable form. However, it was possible to gather comparable data on those categories necessary for creating indicators (e.g. percentage of children with blue-collar parents). Even though the systematical approach to portraying the social circumstances of student life could not generate fully congruent results, the indicators provided do allow a reliable comparison of systems with regard to core issues such as:

- participation in higher education by "educationally remote" social strata

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- the degree of student mobility in Europe, and its trends
- the financing of studies as differentiated by state and private contributions
- state and private student housing

Drawbacks

A satisfactory way of assessing forms of student financing has yet to be found. There are two problems which need to be solved:

- 1. When student funding is differentiated in terms of state sources (direct transfers) and private sources, two avenues of funding are left out of the picture:
- indirect transfers (i.e. tax breaks, child allowances)
- "real transfers", i.e. material subsidies (free dormitory occupancy, free canteen meals, book donations, etc.)
- 2. For purposes of comparison, a distinction must be made between two types of households: students living with their parents, and students living on their own. These two types of households are present to varying degrees in the different countries. The dominant type of household in Germany students living on their own is not typically found in the Mediterranean countries of Europe. The financial circumstances of the majority of students in these countries i.e. those living with their parents can only be described with a great degree of "fuzziness". Monetary expression of the non-cash benefits received (free food and housing) can only be expressed monetarily in the form of estimates.

These procedural issues were addressed in the following manner for the present study:

- 1. The portrayal of each educational system is prefaced by an overall calculation of private and state spending for student financing. This includes the following amounts:
- direct contributions
- real transfers (material subsidies) by the state
- indirect family burden equalization by the state

This approach made it possible to globally specify the actual amount of state and private contributions. The percentage of state contributions (state contribution rate) was adopted as an additional indicator in the indicator synopses.

- 2. Maintenance provided by parents to students residing with them was taken into account by means of an alternate method of calculation:
- cash contributed, excluding non-cash benefits
- calculation of what housing would cost outside of the parental home, as an expression of monetary savings due to living at home

3.2 Appraisal of Survey Strategy

The decentralized approach to conducting such a survey has proven fundamentally effective. In any event, this approach is superior to a centralized effort to collect data from various member states. Differences in the way of collecting the data did, however, create problems. Austria, for example, opted for quota sampling, and conducted oral interviews. The other countries chose the path of true random sampling, accomplished by mail. In spite of the fact that quota sampling is advantageous in terms of swiftness and formal representativeness, it has drawbacks with regard to the representation of critical groups (e.g. older students, working students). Moreover, the low number of cases taken seldom lends itself to disaggregation by particular groups. In future efforts, all parties should strive to conduct their surveys by written random sampling.

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3.3 Effectiveness of Project Organization

Even with only four countries involved, noncentral organization engenders a great deal of coordination work. To facilitate the merging of data, the conventions for data collection and provision need to be even more tightly circumscribed and adhered to. It is only possible to achieve such binding conventions with the help of greater EU financing.

A considerable amount of procedural work is involved in merging, jointly interpreting and synoptically presenting the data, and this task cannot be accomplished "on the side". In the event that this pilot study is extended, provisions will have to be made for central, full-time management.

3.4 Appraisal of Survey Procedures

The polling instruments used have proven effective with regard to **survey content**. Only in the case of inquiry into the sensitive matter of "financial situation" in Italy was there concern of possible rejection on the part of those tested, as implied by pre-tests. However, the results of the Italian surveys show that it is indeed possible to inquire into the issue of student financing, there.

With regard to the **processing** of responses, different standards of quality prevail at present. Only in the case of the Austrian and German surveys were extensive plausibility tests carried out. Greater attention must be paid to the weighting of data in the event of deviation from the representative sample.

Two problems occurred relative to the comparability of results:

- 1. To enable comparison of educational participation rates, income-based frequency divisions were created from the given distributions. The use of rigidly defined, universal income brackets would have led to distortions due to national variation in income levels. Therefore, each country's income distribution was divided up into quartiles. The lower quartile was defined as the "poverty quartile", regardless of the respective ECU poverty line. Such functional divisions allow adequate comparison of countries' educational participation rates as a function of income.
- 2. The educational systems in the various countries differ widely. Different age profiles, for example, are found to give rise to different patterns of economic behavior among students. As a model for eliminating such system-related effects, some items (e.g. amount of student income, extent of student job activity) were based on subpopulations of homogeneous age make-up.

3.5 Integrity of Findings

3.5.1 Completeness

The main topics addressed by the survey (educational participation and social stratification, income, spending, job activity, housing, mobility, time budgets, personal data) are covered by the various national surveys to an extent of about 90%. The national reports and synopses contain certain "white patches" which differ from country to country. For example, foreign mobility was not assessed in Austria because too few cases were produced by the small quota sample. The reduced treatment given to the issues of income (Italy) and spending budgets (e.g. only rent spending in France) is not the result of any intrinsic obstructions. With further use of the current method of survey, area-wide coverage can be ensured.

3.5.2 Validity

The populations surveyed vary in size. The smallest (approx. 1,500 cases) was in Austria, due to the quota sampling method used. The largest were in France and Germany (over 20,000 evaluated cases). The size of the random samples is by all means sufficient for the purpose of overall cross-national comparison. The Austrian quota sample is limited in its potential for further differentiation.

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The differences in response behavior are more disturbing. The response rates were:

- 100% in Austria (inevitably, due to quota sample)
- 51% in Germany
- 35% in France
- 28% in Italy

The formal representativeness of the responses differs correspondingly. In all of the surveys, the upper age brackets are underrepresented. The social sciences are found to be underrepresented in all the surveys except Austria's.

The resulting system-related distortions of the findings are of varying magnitude. They can, however, be eliminated by appropriate weighting schemes. Further efforts are necessary in this regard.

3.5.3 Comparability

Although a relatively large amount of freedom was given for characteristic national categories, a high degree of comparability was still ensured by focusing on comparable subsets of data (e.g. "children of blue-collar parents") and by forming structural equivalencies (sub-categories of identical age).

Yet to be settled is the definition of the "normal student". The principle forms of student household vary from country to country. Attempts at specifying a "standard" student for comparative purposes are further hampered by the tiered educational system and pluralistic curricula in France. Further standards and definitions will have to be adopted in cooperation with UNESCO, the OECD and EURYDICE.

3.5.4 Relevance of Findings

How relevant the findings are depends on how well they may be exploited for the implementation of policies seeking to create equal educational opportunity in Europe.

Of major importance are the social and income-related discrepancies in **educational participation** within and among the member states. The magnitude of these discrepancies clearly indicates a great need for action. The picture presented by the survey's data and indicators is of greater integrity than ever before.

The models of **student financing** encountered superbly reflect structural differences among the countries. Even when comparing only the four countries, considerable qualitative differences emerge: At the one end of the spectrum we find subsistence-like financing (students living with parents), and at the other end nearly complete self-financing (over 60% of students in Germany and Austria having jobs). These differences elucidate the difficulties involved in developing guidelines for a system of student financial aid in Europe as a way overcoming educational barriers.

In deliberating these issues, **indirect transfers** (tax subsidies) need to be given even more consideration than before. However, such transfers cannot be brought to light within the scope of empirical polling of students. This would call for collateral analysis of state budgets. Since the effects of indirect transfers are highly income-dependent, this dependency will have to be given closer attention when developing measures for promoting educational mobility.

Alongside findings on social mobility, insight into **international mobility** is of major significance to the European objective of creating a common market. The current findings succeed in giving an overall picture of international student mobility in terms of groups, programmes and free movers. When it comes to efforts to promote educational mobility in Europe, **foreign language proficiency** is of major importance, as well as the effects of social standing on mobility. Here, too, the findings demonstrate the need for explicit action on a Europe-wide level.

The overview of **forms of student housing** provides more than a descriptive outline. For the purpose of comparative analysis, the forms of student housing can be drawn upon to arrive at characteristic types of households which are suitable for comparison. In the context of international mobility, this analysis reveals housing-related barriers which

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deserve closer attention. Extremely high percentages of students living with their parents and low availability of dormitory accommodations represent serious obstacles to study abroad.

3.5.5 Condensing of Information

By means of creating indicators, the size of the data pool was condensed by approximately 10 : 1. Only by means of condensation does the data become manageable and lend itself to comparison. The specific indicators make system-related differences apparent at a glance. Still, the indicators cannot satisfactorily explain the differences by themselves. However, the comprehensible way in which the indicators in the national reports have been derived enables one to retrace references in order to clarify systematic differences. The chosen reference system (consisting of a highly aggregated indicator comparison [synopsis] and system-specific national representations) has convincingly proved itself. Thus the chosen form of presentation may be regarded as a methodological refinement of the OECD's "Education at a Glance".

3.5.6 Weaknesses and Strengths of the Survey

Weaknesses arose from the following:

- Due to limited sanctioning ability (financing), it was not possible to ensure a sufficient degree of uniformity with regard to both survey strategies and the presentation of results.
- The different rates at which the surveys were conducted gave rise to considerable delays in merging the data, thus rendering the data considerably less up-to-date.
- The validity of the data leaves room for improvement. Particularly when it comes to the monitoring of the returns (plausibility testing, weighting), the standards of quality for empirical sociological research will have to be adhered to more closely.

The coverage of direct sources of funding in the national reports was highly inconsistent. With regard to this topic, the thrust of the survey has not yet been fully realized. Especially in the case of countries having mainly real transfers or extensive indirect transfers, further pilot studies are necessary in order to validate the polling instruments used. So far, the data on student financing is thoroughly informative only within a national context. International comparisons which neglect indirect and real transfers are of little informational value.

The study is characterized by the following strengths:

- The survey's root concept has proved transferable. Incremental broadening to include other states of the European Community is feasible. In view of the impact of the pilot project, other countries have already declared an interest in participating in a second stage: Portugal, the Netherlands, Great Britain and Switzerland.
- Findings can be used to create a problem-oriented database. The data on students' material circumstances are outside of the scope of official statistics, and as such can only be obtained in the way described here.
- The findings on socially dependent educational participation, the housing situation, job activity, international mobility and foreign language proficiency are solid, and are of great significance in their bearing on European measures to promote equal opportunity of education and living in Europe.

4. Presentation of Findings

Part A contains the four national reports, each systematically presented. Part C takes the individual indicators already specified in the national reports and juxtaposes them synoptically for each topic area.

The remarks on the following two topic areas are intended to exemplify the kinds of insights which may be gained.

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4.1 Educational Participation

Patterns of educational participation emerge upon comparison of the social make-up of the student population with that of the overall population of corresponding age. The data on the social make-up of the student population originates from social surveys, and the data on the general population of corresponding age comes from the national microcensus for a given year. The differences in frequency among the various corresponding age groups clearly illustrate the prevailing discrepancies in educational participation. The deviations for Germany, Austria, Italy and France are shown diagrammatically in the corresponding figures 6 of the National Report and at one sight in the Synopsis of Indicators.

The attributes of professional and educational status chosen for each of the national reports are ordered in accordance with the key items for the given countries. The sub-categories "blue-collar fathers" (for professional status) and "fathers with higher education degrees" (for educational status) constitute comparable structural elements. The two structural equivalents "blue-collar fathers" and "fathers with higher education degrees" are used as indicators. The indicator values which are consistently specified on the various annotated graph sheets are also carried over into the synoptical part. The "Synopsis" sheet graphically illustrates the differences in educational participation among the countries under study.

4.2 International Mobility

In the most comprehensive case (e.g. Germany), the conclusions on international mobility are drawn from the following annotated graph sheets:

- Students' written and oral foreign language proficiency (Fig. 27)
- Self-appraisal of foreign language ability (Fig 28)
- Percentage of students having been abroad, by purpose of stay (Fig. 29)
- Relationship between international mobility and parental income (Fig. 30)
- Frequency with which countries are selected for foreign study (Fig. 31)
- Relationship between frequency of international mobility and foreign language ability (Fig. 32)

For the synoptical presentation of indicators, all national sheets have been used so far.

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5. Recommendations

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Taking the weaknesses and strengths of the pilot study into account, one arrives at the following recommendations:

A subsequent trial phase should follow the pilot stage. The inclusion of another three to four countries is organizationally feasible.

 The topical content should be reduced for a second trial. The issue of student financing should be excluded from consideration for the time being. The surveys should concentrate on the issues of social mobility (educational participation) and international mobility.

3. The matter of student financing including indirect and real transfers (material subsidies) should be addressed more closely in a preliminary study. Special attention should then be paid to the particular structural traits of the southern European countries.

For the purpose of conducting the social surveys in the selected countries of the European Community, the funding provided by the European Community should be increased to a point where the conventions prescribed for collecting and processing a minimum set of data can be made binding for the national surveys.

The second round of European social surveys should be scheduled for 1997. The ECSTA is called upon to adopt the necessary resolutions.

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9%

24 % 17 %

0.24 %

3.0 %

Fig. A 6 Social Background and Educational Background

Indicators:

Source:

Stu	dents from working-class families:
Stu	dents from higher-education familles:
Stu	dents from families with primary school certification:

Ratio (students' father/all fathers) for children from working-class backgrounds: Ratio (students' father/all fathers) for children from higher-education backgrounds:



Survey of students' key social data conducted by the Fessel + Gfk Institute on behalf of the BMWF; 1993 Microcensus by the Austrian Central Bureau of Statistics

Explanations: Data reflects students in their first course of studies. The breakdown by profession of 40-to-60-year-old men is based on the working population; the breakdown by educational status (highest level attained) is based on the resident population.

Comments: This analysis hinges on the simplifying assumption that the father's job and educational status suffice for socio-economic characterization of the families students come from. This makes it possible to draw upon the entire "paternal generation" (i.e. 40-to-60-year-old men) for comparison, and to assess overand underrepresentation.

Such a comparison clearly demonstrates that a disproportionately large number of students come from socio-economically more privileged backgrounds. The percentage of students having working-class fathers comprises only a quarter of the working-class population in the given paternal generation. In comparison, the percentage of students having self-employed fathers (notary publics, lawyers, doctors, etc.) and fathers in managerial or civil-servant positions is three to four times greater than that for the corresponding paternal generation. Even supposing a certain inflation of the "managerial" category in the responses given, these groups remain clearly overrepresented. A similar picture emerges when comparing the level of education of students' fathers with that of the corresponding paternal generation. Fathers having passed school-leaving exams and academic fathers are nearly three times more prevalent among students' families, and the percentage of student's fathers from lower-education backgrounds is a third lower than that for all fathers.

Fig. A 7 Participation in Higher Education

Indicators:

1993 new-entry rate:



Alongside demographic trends, increased enrollment was a decisive factor in Austria's higher education Comments: boom beginning at the end of the Sixties. In 1970, the higher-education enrollment rate (expressed as the percentage of the average population in the given age bracket commencing studies) was still as low as 8%, and this figure doubled by the mid Eighties. This rate is now around 20%. Predictions call for a continued rise up to about a quarter of the overall population in the given age bracket by the year 2000, provided the prevailing policy of unrestricted and tuition-free entry remains unchanged.

> In the Eighties, the percentage of female entrants – which at the beginning of the Seventies was only half as great as that of male entrants - went on to surpass the rate of male entry, and it currently exceeds that rate by two percentage points. Therefore, as studies have shown, increased participation in higher education on the part of women - and especially those from lower-education backgrounds played a major role in the growth of higher education in the Seventies.

Fig. A 8 Income of Students' Parents

Indicators:

Income cut-off between upper and lower half of parental income distribution (median): Poverty rate (percentage of students' parents having income below income cut-off for lowest-income quartile of all private households: 2276 ECU

10,2 %



students' families. This is also reflected in the higher quartile figures: 25% of these students come from families whose income is up to 1635 ECU, half of them from families with an income up to 2254 ECU. The income cut-offs for the comparison group of households are lower, namely 1250 ECU and 1801 ECU, respectively.





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Fig. A 12 Higher Education Catchment Area

Indicators: Regionalization quota (catchment area below 100 km) in % if all students: 63,2 %






























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THE SURVEY

With the exception of certain data from ministerial statistics, the data upon which the following findings are based stems from a survey entitled "Living conditions of students" in France (OVE, university year 93–94)

Methodology

Date : The data was collected in the spring of 1994.

Scope : Public establishments of higher education as follows :

- universities (including their institutes and delocalized units);
- sections of higher technicians in the "lycées";
- classes preparing for the "grandes écoles".

Questionnaire : It included about one hundred and fifty questions (of which some had a filter or control function) on the following subjects : reconstitution of the exact course of study after having passed the baccalaureate (included); working conditions in school or university; time schedule; resources and standard of living; housing and transportation; food and health; disabilities; cultural activities; knowledge of foreign languages and study courses abroad; vacations; personal data (social and geographical origins, sex, age).

Sampling : The principle retained was to send the questionnaire to 1/20th of the population concerned, but the actual number of questionnaires sent out was slightly lower (about 78 000); five universities – out of eighty three – were unable to participate in the survey for practical reasons and, for technical reasons, it was not possible to forward the questionnaire to some university institutes and some scientific preparatory classes to the "grandes écoles".

The selection of university students was carried out by drawing one student out of twenty in each establishment (without prior quotas) on the basis of the central registration file for the running year; the drawing and the postal dispatching operation were handled by the universities themselves in accordance with the procedure laid down by the OVE. It was not possible to apply this procedure to the higher classes of the "lycées"; there the questionnaire was handed out during classes to STS and CPGE students after constitution of a weighted sample of about twenty classes concerned.

The number of answers usable for evaluation amounted to 27 710, i.e. a percentage between 35 and 36 % (larger than expected, in particular, considering the length of the questionnaire and the losses associated with unnotified changes of address or withdrawals from studies between admission and survey).

The sample of students having effectively answered did not show any major deviation from the structure of the actual student population (at least with respect to the most important variables like cycle, subject, family, sex, age, site ...) so that it was possible to make reasonable readjustments by reference to the data of the Ministry of National Education.

Implementation : The principle of the survey was defined by the Council of the Observatoire de la Vie Etudiante (President : Christophe Borgel) and approved by the Ministry of National Education which also financed the survey. The problematics and the questionnaire were drawn up by the Scientific Committee of the Observatoire de la Vie Etudiante. The first analyses for the Eurostudent report were undertaken by Bernard Bensoussan (research worker at the GRS-CNRS Lyon 2, member of the Scientific Committee of the Observatoire de la Vie Etudiante), Claude Grignon (Director of Research at the INRA, President of the Scientific Committee of the Observatoire de la Vie Etudiante) and Louis Gruel (Senior lecturer at Rennes 2, Chargé de mission at the Observatoire de la Vie Etudiante).

The system of Education

PRESENTATION :

The system of education under the authority of the Ministry of National Education consists of three levels (degrés) divided into cycles :

- the first level (degré) which corresponds to pre-school and elementary education offered in nursery and primary schools.

- the second level (degré) or secondary education is offered in "collèges" (first cycle) and "lycées" (second cycle general technical vocational studies);

- post-secondary or higher education offered in the universities but also in the "lycées" (STS, CPGE), the "grandes écoles", some specialized schools.





. IUT - University institutes of technology (preparation for university diplomas of technology).

STS - Sections for higher technicians (preparation for certificates of higher technicians).

CPGE – Preparatory classes for the "grandes écoles".

DEUG - Diploma of general university studies (humanities, sciences, law, etc.)

Number of students (in thousands) :

Universities (without IUT)	1 395
IUT	93
STS	233 (public : 150)
CPGE	72,5 (public : 59,5)
Ecoles	50

FINANCIAL AIDS TO STUDENTS (1)

PRESENTATION:

In 1993–1994, close to 400 000 students have enjoyed financial aid helping them to continue their studies in higher education. Between 1992–1993 and 1993–1994, their number has increased by 16.5 % while the number of students registered in higher education had grown by 6.4 %.

About 350 000 students are awarded scholarships on the basis of social criteria, i.a. an increase of 19.4 % compared with the preceding term beginning. These scholarships represent 88.3 % of all students assistance. In 1993–1994, their amounts cover a range of between 6 588 FF and 17 766 FF.

The university remains the main benefiary of the increase in aid (+ 18.1 %). All in all, the proportion of university students enjoying aid again increased this year : 19.5 % against 17.8 % last year.

The development of subsidies to teacher training university institutes, an incentive for the recruitment of teachers, still remains very substantial (+ 32.8 % within one year).

In the preparatoy classes and the sections of higher technicians, 27 % of the students enjoy financial aid. The aid granted to these channels of education rose by 12.4 % between 1992–1993 and 1993–1994.

DEFINITIONS

. Financial aid - each year, the principal aids granted to students in higher education are accounted for.

. Scholarships on the basis of social criteria – are awared on the basis of declared gross income before abatement of family allowances. They are restricted to students of the 1st and 2nd cycles. Are also included in this category the exceptional individual types of aid (AIE).

. Scholarships on the basis of university criteria – they include public service scholarships, scholarships for "licences", DEA and DESS (post-graduate) scholarships and "agrégation" (Ph.D.) scholarships.

. *Research grants* – are awarded on the basis of university criteria for a period of three concecutive years to students in the 2nd year of the 3rd cycle.

. *IUFM (teacher training) scholarships* – in 1992, they replaced the allowance for teachers. They are granted to the university for the IUFM preparatory year and the first IUFM year.

. *Proportion of students enjoying aid* – the number of students enjoying aid is calculated on the basis of the total number of students registered whether they are potentially entitled to aid or not.

(1) DEVELOPMENT OF THE NUMBER OF STUDENTS ENJOYING FINANCIAL AID GRANTED IN HIGHER EDUCATION (metropolitan France)

	1970-71	1980-81	1989-90	1990-91	1991–92	1992-93	1993-94
Total of all aid of which : University	117993	126986	248228	272996	303071	337792	393454
Students enjoying aid	93337	97693	. 179503	196600	212212	230519	272214
as % of total number CPGE and STS	14,1	13,6	. 16,2	16,6	17,3	17,8	19,5
Students enjoying aid	12162	20769	55408	63521	68108	73282	82323
as % of total number	20,5	19,3	23	23,6	23,7	24,1	27

(2) DISTRIBUTION BY TYPE OF AID AND NATURE OF ESTABLISHMENT ATTENDED (metropolitan France, 1993-1994)

	Scholarships social criteria	Scholarships university criteria	Total Scholarships	Loans on trust	Allowances IUFM	Grants research (a)	TOTAL
Total metropolitan France	347380	12693	360073	4514	18140	10727	393454

(a) Estimated share

Source : Repères et référence statistiques (1995 edition - D.E.P.)

Appendix : Main benefits in kind under the adminstration of the CNOUS.

Source : Centre National des Oeuvres Universitaires et Scolaires, CNOUS, year 1994

Development of the number of beds available (on the basis of social criteria) on university campuses or other types of housing under the administration of the Centre National des Oeuvres Universitaires et Scolaires, and development of the number of meals served in subsidized university restaurants.

	1991-1992	1993-1994	Forecast 1995
Reduced rent students housing	127.698	141.224	160.000
Reduced rate meal vouchers	64.500.000	66.000.000	62.400.000

	1st cycle and level 1stcycle 2nd cycle and level 2nd cycle 3rd cycle and level 3rd cycle Total							
	Total	% Female	Total	% Female	Total	% Female	Total	% Female
		I cinare		Tennare		Tennale		Politare
Law	109170	61.0	59032	60.8	23493	51.2	191695	59.7
Economics, Business Adm.	79311	52.3	53198	52.9	18523	41.6	151032	51.2
Liberal arts, humanities	265973	72.5	178995	73.1	44306	56.3	489274	71.3
Sciences,M ASS	141861	38.1	114204	35.7	48028	33.4	304093	36.4
Medicine	34349	60.7	26074	51.9	55039	42.9	115462	50.2
Pharmacy	11580	68.8	5025	66.4	12451	63	29056	65.9
Dentistry	1020	50.4	3956	44.9	3194	38.1	8170	42.9
STAPS (sports)	7191	39.1	5649	41.4	680	39.3	13520	40.1
IUT	92801	37.4		0		0	92801	37.4
Total	743256	55.8	446133	57.5	205714	45.5	1395103	55.3

STUDENTS BY SEX, CYCLE AND SUBJECT IN 1993–1994 (metropolitan France university only)

Source :

Repères et références statistiques sur les enseignements et la formation (1995 edition -D.E.P.)

Comments : The vertical selection is accompanied by a difference in orientation towards the main disciplines on the basis of sex : female students represent over 70 % of the students registered in liberal arts and humanities, but considerably less than 40 % in scientific subjects.



Fig. F 5 Family Status of Students

Indicators: Proportion of married students: 7% Proportion of students with child(ren): 7%



Explanations:

Comment: If the overwhelming majority of the youngest students are single without partner, the frequency of living as a couple increases regularly with age: it concerns one third of the students at the age of 25 and becomes the majority when approaching 30 years of age. It is also to be noted that the percentage of students living as unmarried couples tends to stabilize as of 24 years of age and even to decrease after 30 years of age: on the other hand, the proportion of married students become the dominant form of life as a couple when approaching the age of 30 years.



somment: With respect to the access to higher education, social inequalities are only being reduced slowly and in particular, the over-representation of children of higher managerial staff and the under-representation of children of workers are still very obvious. The students of whom at least one parent has attended higher education are overrepresented in the preparatory classes (46% against 26% on the average). By the same token, those coming from families where the highest diploma of the parents is lower than the baccalaureate (elementary, secondary or technical studies) represent 3/4 of the students of the STS (78%) and 60% of the students of the IUT against 54% on the whole. Furthermore, if the proportion of students of whom at least one of the parents has an elementary level of education is very much the same for students registered at the university, whatever the cycle, it represents about one quarter of the student numbers in short vocational study courses like the IUT and even more in the STS (respectively 22 and 27%). The proportion of students of whom at least one parent has attended higher education gradually increases when one passes from the STS to the CPGE via the IUT; it also increases regularly between the first and the third university cycles.

1 ECU = 6,53883 FF **Income of Students' Parents** Fig. F 8 Indicators: Income cut-off between upper and lower half of parental income distribution (median): 2446 ECU Poverty rate (percentage of students' parents having income below income cut off for lowest-income quartile of all private households: not reported 2. Net Income of Students' Parents **1.** Parental Income vs. Private Households 25% 22% 20% 19,5% 19% 20% 15% 12,5% (not reported) 10% 6% 5% 0% 764-1529 1529-2293 2294-3058 3058-8477 8477 764 엽 in ECU Source: O.V.E. survey, university year 93-94 **Explanations:** Distribution of monthly parental income (estimated by the students themselves) **Comments:** The majority of the students have only taken earned income into account; at the time of the survey, the average salary was 1422 ECU (monthly).





Fig. F 12 Higher Education Catchment Area

Indicators: Regionalization quota (catchment area up to 100 km): 69% of all students





students carrying out a renumerated activity (outside summer vacations) increases regularly with age and becomes the majority of cases from 24 years onwards. However, the difference between the youngest students and their elder not only lies in the frequency of renumerated activity but also in its regularity and its duration.







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1) About 30% of lower secondary pupils go on to complete a tenth lower-secondary year after completion of the ninth.

 The Mittelschule in Saxony, the Sekundarschule in Saxony-Anhalt, and the Regelschule in Thurinigia award the lower secondary and intermediate certificates.

Facilities of this kind are also integrated in intermediate, upper secondary and vocational schools.

4) There are 12 levels in the Länder Mecklenburg-Western Pomerania, Saxony, Saxony-Anhalt and Thuringia.

Fig. D 2 Size of Education Sector

Land	Students							
	Total		Portion therof attending:					
			Universities	Colleges of	Vocational colleges			
				art and music		Portion		
						attending		
						administrative		
-	Total	Female	Total	Total	Total	colleges Total		
		- Tomaio	Total	Total	Total	Total		
Baden-Württemberg	235.511	90.759	172.822	4.047	58.642	8.378		
Bavaria	263.420	106.755	196.295	2.399	64.726	7.442		
Hesse	163.568	62.631	114.046	1.304	48.218	5.790		
Lower Saxony	160.123	64.939	124.117	2.137	33.869	4.030		
North-Rhine Westphalia	518.349	200.065	403.354	5.762	109.233	9.950		
Rhineland-Palatinate	81.523	33.708	56.715	625	24.808	3.244		
Saarland	24.961	9.955	20.336	367	4.000	218		
Schleswig-Holstein	46.024	17.553	26.234	5.435	19.423	1.437		
Berlin-West	121.268	53.450	97.523	698	18.310	5.467		
Bremen	27.039	10.806	17.627	2.260	8.714	396		
Hamburg	70.079	27.810	51.329	1.354	16.490	1.067		
Berlin-East	28.753	14.470	22.221	396	5.178	1.497		
Brandenburg	15.054	7.759	10.606	115	4.052	630		
Mecklenburg-Western Pomerania	15.398	7.146	12.216	1.736	3.067	1.915		
Saxony	58.786	24.924	42.715	642	14.335	1.114		
Saxony-Anhalt	23.753	11.452	17.607	597	5.504	198		
Thuringia	21.575	9.580	16.514	-	4.464	-		
Total	1.639.673	663.003	1.229.455	25.827	384.391	44.395		

Source: BMBF, Grund- und Strukturdaten 1994/95

Fig. D 3 Brief Description of Student Aid System

3.1 Total Aid Budget:

Direct aid: 1.483 billion ECU

Indirect aid (direct and indirect transfers to the parents, transfer of tangibles to students): 3.208 billion ECU

3.2 Underlying Legislation

Principle of subsidization:

"Within the meaning of this law, one is legally entitled to an education commensurate with one's interests, qualifications and performance if one is not otherwise in possession of the necessary means for one's subsistence and education." (§1 of BAföG law).

3.3 Tuitions:

No tuitions for domestic or foreign students.

3.4 Indirect State Aid:

Transfer of tangibles to students:

This type of transfer is accomplished by means of canteens and the provision of dormitory accommodations.

Number of available dormitory slots (1992): 188,236, approx. 10%

In addition to this, under certain circumstances students receive free insurance:

- 1) Health insurance: Students insured within their parents through the age of 25, provided they have only low income.
- 2) Statutory accident insurance.

Transfers to the parents:

Child benefits/Supplementary child benefit payments:

Child benefits or (in place of child care tax credits) supplementary child benefit payments are awarded for students through the age of 27. Payments are generally made to the parents.

Tax reductions and other aid:

- 1) Child care tax credit: For students through the age of 27
- 2) Education tax credit: For students through the age of 27
- 3) Household tax credit: For students of single parents
- 4) Maintenance tax credit: For students who do not (or no longer) qualify for child benefits, i.e. generally students who are 28 and older.

3.5 Direct State Aid for Students:

Objectives:

- → Full utilization of potential talent
- \rightarrow Enabling socially needy persons to study whose parents cannot or can only partially bear the associated financial burden (principle of subsidization)
- → Suitability for studying (assumed until Intermediate Examination; afterwards proof of academic performance must be submitted)
- → Social stability during studies

Fig. D 3 cont.

Types of aid:

- 1) Student aid in accordance with BAföG
- 2) Grants which include public funds

Legislative stipulations for BAföG aid:

- Student aid in accordance with BAföG law issued 19th June 1992
- Proof of academic performance, generally as of fourth semester
- Income earned by the student, his/her spouse and parents is taken into consideration. Under certain circumstances, parental obligation to provide maintenance is waived, i.e. their income is excluded from consideration.
- Studies must be commenced prior to age 31.
- Aid for a further course of study (e.g. secondary or graduate studies) awarded within narrow limitations
- The student must be primarily engaged in studying; there is no direct ceiling for the number of hours of job activity.

Prerequisites for receiving BAföG aid:

- Social need
- Proof of academic performance as of fourth semester

Criteria for awarding BAföG aid:

Social criteria (incomes of student, spouse and parents)

Number of BAföG recipients for 1993:

- 408,710 per month on average
- 563,918 in total

Forms of BAföG support:

BAföG consists of half grant and half no-interest loan. In exceptional cases, it can constitute a 100% grant.

Max. aid amount:

- 452 ECU (870 DM) in the old Länder

- 413 ECU (795 DM) in the new Länder

In the case of students with their own health insurance, these amounts can increase by 31 ECU (60 DM) in the eastern region and 36 ECU (70 DM) in the western region. Students with heir own old-age social security scheme may receive an additional 5.2 ECU (10 DM).

Method of BAföG repayment:

Half of the amount awarded is to be repaid as a no-interest loan. Repayment commences after an initial 5-year grace period, and must be completed with 20 years by means of monthly payments of at least 104 ECU (200 DM).

Financial volume of BAföG Aid:

BAföG outlays	1.483 billion ECU
_ loan repayments	0.350 billion ECU

= basic funds

1.133 billion ECU

Fig. D 3 cont.

3.6 Total Budget of Student Aid System (1992)

Direct state aid:

BAföG outlays: 1.483 billion ECU

Indirect state aid:

Transfers of tangibles:

- Canteen meals: 0.433 billion ECU
- Dormitory accommodations: 0.169 billion ECU
- Statutory health insurance: not available
- Statutory accident insurance: not available

Monetary transfers to the parents:

- Child benefits/supplementary payments: 1.197 billion ECU (estimate)
- Educational tax credit: 0.496 billion ECU (estimate)
- Child-care tax credit: 0.912 billion ECU (estimate)
- Household tax credit: not available
- Maintenance tax credit: not available

Total indirect state aid: 3.208 billion ECU

3.7 Total per Capita Aid Amounts (Direct and Indirect) for Parents and Students

For a family with two children and low income (1st quartile):

524 ECU (≈ 1,008 DM)

Explanation: 1st quartile corresponds to gross income of 30,150 ECU. Direct aid: 319 ECU; Indirect aid: 200 ECU

For a family with two children and medium income (2nd quartile):

212 ECU (≈ 409 DM)

Explanation: 2nd quartile corresponds to gross income of 46,000 ECU. Direct aid: none; Indirect aid: 210 ECU

For a family with two children and high income (3rd quartile):

241 ECU (≈ 469 DM)

Explanation: 3rd quartile corresponds to gross income of 67,000 ECU. Direct aid: none; Indirect aid: 241 ECU

Fig. D 3 cont.

3.8 Higher Education Expenditures:

Educational Spending by Source and Purpose (1992) in billions of ECU						
Sources for funds spent	Private	state				
Funds spent for	Student self-financing	Family members (less state transfers)	(direct and indirect financing)			
student maintenances	5,197 (41%)	2,728 (22%)	4,691 (37%)			
Operation of higher edu- cation facility	-	-	10,772 (100%)			
Total	5,197 (22%)	2,728 (12%)	15,463 (66%)			
	7.925	(34%)	15,463 (66%)			

Bearing in mind that direct student aid is provided half as a loan, thus effectively reducing the cash value of the aid provided, the state's financial burden is lowered and the student's own share is increased. Assuming that the loan repayments approximately monetize the net amount by which the state's burden is lessened and the amount by which the student is additionally burdened (in the form of debt), the following adjusted picture of educational spending emerges:

Adjusted Portrayal of Educational Sending by Source and Puropose (1992) in billions of ECU						
Sources for funds spent	Private S	state				
Funds spent for	Student self-financing	Family members (less state transfers)	(direct and indirect financing)			
student maintenances	5,197 <u>+ 0,350</u> 5,547 (44%)	2,728 (22%)	4,691 <u>- 0.350</u> 4,341 (34%)			
Operation of higher edu- cation facility	-	-	10,772 (100%)			
Total	5,547 (24%)	2,728 (12%)	15,113 (64%)			
	8,275	(36%)	15, 11 3 (64%)			



Fig. D 5 Family Status of Students

Indicators: Proportion of married students: 6 % Proportion of students with child(ren): 6 %



partnership. Those 21 to 23 years of age are underrepresented in this group. Six percent of students are married, and about half of them have one or more children. Even among the group of students who are widowed, divorced or separated – which at one percent is very small – nearly one out of two students has offspring.



Fig. D 7 Participation in Higher Education

Indicators: 1993 new-entry rate: 32.1% Deviation of female new-entry rate from overall new entry rate: -7.6 %



n-house calculations in accordance with Federal Bureau of Statistics; census figures (non-published); Federal Bureau of Statistics data on students of higher education from various age brackets

Explanations:

Percentage of those entering German institutions of higher education among corresponding population aged 18 through 21

Comments: New-entry rates in former West Germany paralleled the general demographic trend in the Fifties and Sixties, continuing to rise until 1983. From 1984 to 1985, the number of first-time enrollments dropped, only to begin rising again in 1986 to a more or less extensive degree, although age brackets of declining birth rates are now involved. This steady increase in enrollment may be partially accounted for by a greater tendency to study on the part of those eligible to do so. Furthermore, there has been an increase in the percentage of new entrants opting to study after an initial delay, meaning that some of the new entrants originate from earlier, more populous age brackets of eligible individuals. In the new Länder, the new-entry rate for 1993 – both for men and women – was 21.4%, which was distinctly lower than that for western Germany. This gap – which has, however been steadily closing since its 1990 level (16%) – is due to the after-effects of the GDR's system of education.



Comments: When scrutinizing income figures for parents with student offspring, one must bear in mind that the figures represent estimates provided by the students, themselves. In 28% of the cases, the information given is not usable, with the majority of students not feeling in a position to estimate their parents' income. On average, students' parents have a monthly income of 2658 ECU (arithmetic mean) at their disposal, with the "weakest income" quartile of students' parents having 1894 ECU. The income comparison between students' parents and all private households only covers those families having children aged 18 through 21. This comparison reveals that students from higher income brackets are disproportionately represented. For instance, while 25% of private households having children aged 18 through 21 have monthly incomes up to 1528 ECU, the corresponding percentage among students' parents is far lower, at 13%.



Fig. D 10 Type of Residence by Size of Study Location

Indicators:

 Ratio of students living in own households/with parents in location <100.000 inhabitants:</td>
 28% / 20%

 Ratio of students living in own households/with parents in location > 500.000 inhabitants:
 43% / 28%



1 ECU = 1,94964 DM

Fig. D 11 Average Cost of Accommodations

Indicators: Average dormitory cost: 127 ECU Average cost of student accommodations: 216 ECU



Fig. D 12 Higher Education Catchment Area

Indicators: Regionalization quota (catchment area up to 100 km) in % if all students: 65 %



Fig. D 13 Sources of Student Financing

Indicators:

Parental financing guota (monetary contributions): Parental contributions per month(monetary contributions): Parental financing quota (cash and tangibles): Parental contributions per month (cash and tangibles):

73 % 273 ECU 85% 382 ECU 1 ECU = 1,94964 DM



Comments: Parents are the most widely specified financial source; about three guarters of all students receive parental contributions amounting to an average of 273 ECU a month. Second place is taken by student job activity, with about two thirds of all students earning an average of 280 ECU a month. The source specified least often - relative to all students - is BAföG student aid, but this source plays a comparatively critical role for those receiving state support. The 29% benefiting from this support receive an average of 286 ECU. This is the highest amount of all the sources of finance considered. However, if tangibles provided by parents are also included - these being of above-average relevance for those living with their parents - then one finds family support to be of prime significance: 85% of students receive some kind of support from their parents, whether monetary or tangible.


















Euro - Student - Report: Germany

Fig. D 23 Employment and Income

Indicators:

Job activity rate:

65 %

1 ECU = 1,94964 DM

Proportion of total income contributed by job activity: 27 % Proportion of those with only low income (up to 100 ECU) from own earnings: 18 %



Source:

14th Social Survey -- Deutsches Studentenwerk

Explanations: Data reflects students in their first course of studies. Base income: income from all sources except personal earnings. Earners quota is calculated from number of persons indicating having been gainfully employed in any way during current year of study.

Comments: 65% of the students surveyed are gainfully employed in some way while studying. Of these, every third student typically works more than 15 hours a week during the semester. Earnings from student jobs make up 27% of all the monetary income received by the student group as a whole. If one focuses on working students as a group, this figure rises to about two fifths. For many students, job income represents a major source of funds, but only in some cases does it serve as the primary source. The average monthly income from jobs for working students amounts to 280 ECU.





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Fig. D 26 Weekly Time Budget by Faculty

Indicators:

Average time budget for study-related activities in technical faculties:38 ifAverage time budget for study-related activities in humanities:34 if

38 hours/week 34 hours/week

















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Presentation and Explanatory Notes

The work presented in the following pages represents the Italian contribution to the international project *Euro Student Report*. Its objective is to compare, through a series of country reports, the life and study conditions of higher education students in Europe.

In Italy the *Euro Student* survey has been carried out by the Fondazione Rui and the University of Camerino, which concluded an operational agreement to this end. The promoters have created a team of researchers who are backed up by a group of experts' consultancy.1

The survey has been carried out by mailing a ques-tionnaire on a random sample of about 21,000 students enrolled in Laurea courses at State universities in the academic year 1993-94. Students enrolled in Diploma courses, students enrolled at free (non-state) universities and foreign students were not surveyed. The sample has been selected from the list of the Italian students by using such stratification variables as: the institution; the field of study; and the student status.

Upon completion of the field survey 5,639 questionnaires were retained as valid, with a 26.9% rate of reply and a final sample share of 0.41%.

The preliminary results of the survey were presented at the international Conference *Euro Student 1995. On the student side*, organised by the Fondazione Rui in Rome in May 1995. On that occasion the representatives from the countries involved in the *Euro Student Report* project participated in a round table discussion.

Explanatory Notes

The 1994 average Ecu/Lit. exchange rate is used: 1 Ecu = Lit. 1,910. Laurea courses are the Italian second level degree programmes; Diploma courses are the first level ones.

In paragraph *Family status* the *blue collars* category includes hired farmers and workers; the *white collars* category includes clerks, teachers (school and university), managers and middle-management; the *self-employees* category includes farm-owners, crafts-men and trademen; the *entrepreneurs and professionals* category includes businessmen and other self-employed professionals.

In paragraph *Social and educational backgrounds* the *single* category includes students living on their own and those living with their parents; the *married* category includes students living with their own families and those living with a steady partner/mate.

In paragraphs Housing options by age group and Housing options by university-town size, resident students are those enrolled in their hometown; non-resident students are those whose residence is outside the university town.

In paragraph *Weekly time budget by fields of study, economics and social sciences* include statistics and political sciences; *engineering* includes architecture; *natural sciences* include agriculture.

(1) The working group includes: Giovanni Finocchietti and Alfredo Razzano (Fondazione Rui); Giuseppe Ferraris, Mario Giannella, Luisa Laricini, Renato Mattioni and Maria A. Pannone (University of Camerino). The group of experts includes: Giorgio Alulli (Isfol), Elio Brusati (Doxa), Alessandro Cavalli (Iard; University of Pavia) and Federico Rossi (University of Cassino; Italian Rectors' Conference)



Fig. I 2 Size of the Higher Education System

Acade- mic year	Students enrolled			
	total	Diploma courses (first level)	Laurea courses (second level)	
1970-71	. 681,731	8,954	672,777	
1975-76	935,795	13,498	922,297	
1980-81	1,047,874	24,216	1,023,658	
1985-86	1,113,175	23,103	1,090,072	
1986-87	1,085,900	21,419	1,064,481	
1987-88	1,153,293	22,340	1,130,953	
1988-89	1,222,765	23,830	1,198,935	
1989-90	1,291,991	23,616	1,268,375	
1990-91	1,381,361	22,410	1,358,951	
1991-92	1,474,719	22,050	1,452,669	
1992-93	1,564,569	45,695	1,518,874	
1993-94	1,628,715	53,357	1,575,358	

Source:

Istat, Statistiche dell'istruzione. Istat, Statistiche dell'istruzione universitaria.

Explanations: The expression refers to students who are meeting all graduation requirements and can therefore expect to graduate on time.

Comments: The student population has grown steadly since the mid-50's. Its growth was further favoured by the liberalization of the admissions policy in the late 60's. For the first time in the second half of the 60's the total population exceeded one million students. In recent years, following a stagnation period in the early 80's, the student population has grown again. The enrolment rate (number of students *In corso** every 100 person 19 to 24 years of age) has in-creased from 14% to 20% in the last ten years. The grad-uate/country population ratio is currently 6%. In 1994 the student population totalled about 1,630,000.



Explanations:

Comments:

The students' average age is 24.1 years. The male students' average age is one year higher than the female students'. Female students outnumber the male population in the age group 19-24. The difference between the two groups becomes most pronounced in the age group 20-22. It levels off in subsequent age groups and, starting at the age of 25, the male student share exceed the female student counterpart. Overall, the sample distribution is consistent with official statistics which point to the predominance of female students among students enrolled in Laurea courses in the 90's. Recent surveys on young people (lard, 1993) show a progressive narrowing of the traditional gender-related differences - unfavourable to women - in admission and successful completion of university-level programmes. The *Euro Student* Survey shows that the share of working female students (especially those holding occa-sional and stable part-time jobs) is not significantly differ-ent than their male colleagues. Thus the negative influence of holding a working student status on one's academic performance seems less relevant than in the past.

Fig. I 5 Family Status of Students

Indicators: Proportion of married students: 7% Proportion of students with child(ren): not reported



Source: Fondazione Rui - University of Camerino: Euro Student Survey

Explanations:

Comment: The great majority of single students (89%) live in their parental home. About 4% of the students live on their own and are financially independent. Such a phenomenon is confirmed by recent surveys carried out in Italy (Istat, 1993-94; lard 1993; lard 1995). The latter show that young people leave the parental roof and start their own family at an increasingly older age. Over half of the students in the age group 25-29 live in their parental home, where as living on one's own or sharing an apartment is marginal. This phenomenon, referred as the long-family, has increased over time. It applies, most of all, to people with medium-advanced educational background. The influence of the long-family renders the difference between the overall student population and the students in the age group 21-23 less significant (the latter make up 44% of the sample). Single students represent 99% of the students in the age group 21-23 (97% of them still live under the parental roof and 2 % live on their own), whereas the percentage of married students drops to 1%. One may see, in this age group the number of students who are either married or live with a steady partner/mate closely approximates the number of students living on their own (1% and 2% respectively). The numerical difference between the two groups increases in the whole sample: there are in fact twice as many married students or students with a steady partner/mate as students living on their own (7% and 4% respectively).

14%

Fig. I 6 Social Background and Educational Background

Students from working-class families:







Fondazione Rui - University of Camerino: Euro Student Survey.

Explanations: Data refers to students with working fathers (unless otherwise specified).

A comparison between students' working fathers and Italian working males in the age Comment: group 40-59 reveals a marked under-representation of students coming from blue-collar families. Students coming from self-employed families (i.e. craftsmen or trademen) are also under-represented, though the difference is less evident. The under-representation of students from blue-collar families may be attributed to their average lower disposable income. The low numerical presence of students from self-employed families may be influenced by the work opportunities offered by the family business (which represent an alternative to earning a degree) and by a value system which does not directly associate one's social success with the pursuit of a university education. The over-representation of students from white-collar, entrepreneur and professional family backgrounds can be explained by the financially privileged conditions enjoyed by these families (with the exception of clerks) and by a culturally favourable environment. In fact, these students' parents usually have a medium-high education level. The number of students' working fathers with a medium-high education level is twice as high as the number of the Italian matching males (56% as compared to 28%). Fathers with a medium-low education are about one third less represented than their matching males (44% as compared to 73%). This comparison suggests a dynamic which favours students from privileged socio-economic and cultural backgrounds. It should be noted that 71% of the students have a working father, while the remaining 29% have a retired or unemployed father. When examining the total sample (students with both working and economically inactive fathers), the share of students from medium-low-educational-level families goes from 44% to 49%. This dynamic is explained by the fact that 29% of the economically inactive fathers are, by and large, retired persons. They are for the most part older than 59, and probably less educated than the country average. Only beginning in the 70's, in fact, has an increase in the average education level been registered in Italy.





Fondazione Rul - University of Camerino, Euro Student Survey.

istat, La distribuzione quantitativa del reddito in Italia nelle indagini sui bilanci di famiglia - Anno 1992.

Explanations:

Source:

Income refers to the net monthly revenues. Istat data was processed in order to become compatible with Euro Student data. 25% of the students come from families with an income up to 1029 ECU/month (1st quartile); 25% of the students come from families with a minimum income of 2321 ECU/month (3rd quartile). 50% of the students come from families whose incomes do not exceed 1559 ECU/month. When the Euro Student and the Italian family income distributions are compared - though not perfectly compatible-they show similar trends. The number of students from upper income families exceeds the matching number of Italian families in the same income brackets. When the income distribution of the students' families in which the father is either an employee or is retired is compared with the matching Italian family income families are associated with lower shares than the matching Italian families. Conversely, students from high-income families are associated with higher shares than the matching Italian families.

Fig. 19 Students' Type of Residence by Age



Fondazione Rui - University of Camerino: Euro Student Survey

Explanations:

Over two thirds of the students live with their own family even during the term. Students' Comment: stay at their parental home drops to less than 50% only for students older than 27 (this figure also includes students who are either married or live with a steady partner/mate). Students' tendency to live at home during the term, even when home is outside the university town (when they are fuori sede, i.e. non-resident students), creates the phenomenon of students' commuting and makes regular class attendance more difficult. 24% of the students share an apartment with their fellow students. This share exceedes 40% in the case of students over 27, whereas it is fairly stable for younger students. Sharing an apartment with other students is the most widespread (and popular) housing option among non-resident students who move to the university town where they are enrolled. In addition, it might be worthy to point out that 45% of the non-resident students from other regions opt for this formula. This housing option appears to be the most popular also among students from lowincome families. This appears to suggest a serious financial commitment by less affluent families in their sons/daughters' education. Lodging is an unusual formula. It applies to a marginal share of the students and it does not very in relation to the students' age. Students' housing in student halls progressively diminuishes as they grow older. Eligibility for this type of student accomodation is linked to the legal length of the study programmes (4-6 years). Thus peak presence is registered in the classes up to to the age of 24. These figures suggest a scarce supply of student accomodations in Italy. Further, the supply has not increased to a significant extent in recent years, since student welfare institutions sometimes provide students with direct financial contributions to rent a room or an apartmant (contributo alloggio). The share of housing places offered by student welfare regional institutions is estimated to be about 2.5% (Censis, 1990) A further 0,5% is provided by private and non-profit colleges. Thus Euro Student figures (3% of student hall residence) confirm available data.



Explanations

Comment:

About 50% of the Italian students are enrolled in large university-towns (over 500.000 inhabitants). The remainders are distributed in almost equivalent shares among small (less than 100.000 inhabitants) and medium-sized university-towns (between 100.000 and 500.000 inhabitants). The Euro Student survey shows that housing options most opted for by students enrolled in medium-sized university-towns are in line with the national average. In small university-towns the number of students living at home is below the average, whereas the number of non-resident students is above the average. These trends are reversed with regard to students in large university-towns. This dynamic might be explained by the greater availability of study programmes in large towns (where large-sized universities are located) which allows students to pursue an education with no need to relocate (resident students). Because small-sized universities are usually located in small towns, the array of study programmes to choose from is not very wide. It is more likely, therefore, that students have to relocate. Student halls availability appear to be larger in small towns. As a matter of fact, the percentage of students living in student halls is two times higher than in large towns (6% as compared to 2%). Several small-sized university towns have in fact invested on the quality of student services in order to attract more applicants, as they cannot compete with large universities in terms of variety of study programmes. The present survey did not collect data on the presence of foreign students in student halls. Other surveys (Berning, 1992; Fondazione Rui, 1995) estimate that about 5% of the places are reserved to foreign students in public student halls.

Fig. I 11 Average cost of Accomodations

Indicators:

Average dormitory cost: Average cost of student accomodations: not reported not reported 1 ECU= Lit. 1910

Comments: The average costs of the different housing options available to non-resident students do not derive from the *Euro Student* survey but from other sources (Fondazione Rui, 1994 and 1995; Fiaip, 1995). The average cost of an apartment in a university-town ranges from 500-700 Ecu/month in Northern and Central Italy to 325-375 Ecu/month in the South. No significant differences can be detected between the cost of a room rented from a household and from an agency. Here too is the cost lower in the South: from 175-300 Ecu/month to 75-250 Ecu/month. Rents for an accomodation at public student halls (student welfare regional institutions) vary very much in different university towns. Thus two brackets are considerd. Average prices are 26-95 Ecu/month for low-rent rooms and 60-132 Ecu/month for high-rent rooms. When accomodation is provided as scholarship or grant students pay no rent.

Fig. I 12 Higher Education Catchment Area

Indicators:

Regionalization quota (catchment area up to 100 km) in % if all students: 75%

Comments: One out of three students attends university in his/her home town. About half of the students are enrolled in a university located within their region. Many of them do not move to the university town during the term and continue to live under the parental roof (see "Housing options by age group"): the peak of the commuting phenomenon is thus registered in this group.

Three factors induce to select either a nearby or a distant university: the geographical distribution of the different study programmes; the status of working student; and the quest for a university which is either prestigious or *compatible* with one's own needs. 84% of the students are enrolled at universities in their home town or within their region. This datum is confirmed by recent surveys on the Italian student population (Al) et al., 1991). It can be estimated that the enrolment rates at institutions within 100 Km from one's own place of residence range between 70% and 80% of the total.







When assessing the situation as described by the available data it must be borne in mind Comment: (see "Public support to students") that, in addition to direct support from the student welfare system, those figures include other forms of public and private support, which often attach different degrees of importance to economic factors. Nonetheless, the data provides important insights into the functioning of the student welfare system in Italy. Students from low-income families receiving public support are 10%, the same percentage totalled by students from medium-income families. The support rate for students from high-income families is 4%. Thus it can be concluded that, in general, not only is direct support from the Italian student welfare system inadequate, but also inefficiently allocated to non-needy students. However this is the consequence - at least in part of the increasing weight being given of students' academic performance: the latter can count more than economic considerations in granting access to the student welfare services. With no doubt, the systems designed to assess students' families financial status have proven inadequate thus far; moreover, they penalise incomes earned by persons working as employees. Recent reforms of the university fees system and of the student welfare system have been based on more complex indicators than the more income-level assessment.




Fondazione Rul - University of Camerino; Euro Student Survey.

Explanations:

Source:

Comment: The average hours allocated to job-related activities result from strikingly different situations. Full-time students or those holding occasional jobs average 2 h/w. Students holding regular jobs (part-time or full-time) average 29 h/w. This analysis of the disaggregate data shows a substantial difference in time allocation to different activities by students working full-time and all other students. As a matter of fact, a limited work commitment (occasional or stable part-time) does not significantly affect students' time budget for study-related activities. Time for job-related activities is mainly made at the expenses of leisure time. Class attendance diminishes just al little when a students' work commitment increases, whereas time devoted to individual study activities tends to remain unchanged. A marked decrease in study time is registered among students working full-time. For students working 32 h/w, study time drops to 20 h/w, that is, 40% less than students who work an average 14 h/w. This reduced study commitment affects students' class attendance in particular. For working students time available for leisure activities is also conciderably reduced.

Fig. I 26 Weekly Time Budget by Faculty

Indicators:

 Average time budget for study-related activities in technical faculties:
 38 hours/week

 Average time budget for study-related activities in humanities:
 27 hours/week



Explanations:

Comment: Out of 32 h/w devoted to study-related activities individual study time markedly prevails over class attendance in the average students' time budget. The greatest time commitment to study-related activities is associated with students of Medicine (42 h/w), Engineering (38 h/w), and Natural Sciences (36 h/w). Incidentally, some differences can be detected in the amount of time allocated to class attendance and individual study activities: students of Medicine exhibit the best attendance record. The latter's academic work-load considerably reduces the possibility to work and study at the same time, and ultimately curbs their leisure time as well. As a final remark, Law students' study pattern derserves attention: they allocate very few hours of their overall study time to class attendance. At the same time, these are the students who devote the largest number of hours to individual study activities.

	Euro - Student - Report: Italy
Fig. I 27 F	Foreign Language Proficiency among Students
Indicators:	Proficiency in English: 89% Proficiency in the second forelgn language: 51% Proficiency in the third forelgn language: 16%
	English French Spanish German Russian Others 0 20 40 60 80 100 %
Source:	Fondazione Rui - University of Camerino, Euro Student Survey.
Explanations:	
Comments:	English is the most popular foreign language among Italian students. As a matter of fact, about 89% of the students claim at least a beginner's level. Slightly more than one half of the students know French (51%). The only other fairly popular foreign languages are Spanish and German (spoken by 16% and 13% of the students respectively). These are the most common foreign languages taught in Italian secondary-level schools. A very limited number of students know Russian (1%) or other foreign languages (2%). The most frequent <i>rare</i> languages include Portuguese, Greek and Arabic.



Fig. I 29 Student Mobility



Comment:

Over one fifth of the students (22%) have spent a period abroad for study purposes during their university career. Female students appear more inclined to international mobility than their male colleagues: 27% of the female students have spent a study period abroad as compared to 16% of the male students. The main objective in choosing to go abroad is to study a foreign language (by taking a summer course in over half of the cases). The majority of the students (58%) do not consider studying abroad at all, whereas 20% think it could be a viable option assuming that existing obstacles are removed. Difficulty in accessing information and locating the necessary contacts are the obstacles most frequently pointed out. Students who do not consider spending a study period abroad give different reasons. Economic considerations constitute the greatest obstacle (over half of the cases), followed by previous work committments and the family's aversion to the idea. The most frequent personal obstacle include indifference and provincialism, followed by inadequate foreign language skills (about one fourth of the cases). The influence of out-right opposition to the idea of mobility is marginal. 21% of the students have not considered the idea yet.

Fig. I 30 Study-Related Sojourn Abroad, by Parental Income



Explanations: Data refers to students with study abroad experience.

Comment: Data on students' family income levels confirms that the family's economic conditions represent the main obstacle to student international mobility (see "International student mobility"). Whereas the average mobility rate yielded by the survey is 22%, the rate drops to 15% (that is, about one third lower) for students from low-income families. For students with a high family income the international mobility rate is 39%, that is, nearly double the norm. In terms of the objectives sought in relation to the family income, a difference seems to lie in the rate of other study activities (language courses, stages). Students from high-income families display relatively better records.



Fig. I 32 Effect of Foreign Language Proficiency on Student Mobility

Indicators: Mobility rate among students with very good command in one foreign language: 38% Mobility rate among students with very bad command in one foreign language: 8%



Explanations: Data refers students who specified their proficiency level.

Comment: There is a clear relationship between international mobility and foreign language proficiency In fact, the average foreign language proficiency level of students with a study abroad experience is 1.5 (a 1 to 4 score was assigned to a decreasing proficiency level) as opposed to a 2.1 score assigned to students without any study abroad experience. 38% of the students with a good command of at least one foreign language have spent a study period abroad. This share is larger than total students with international experience (22%). The shares drop sharply for students with lower foreign language proficiency levels. The share drops to 17% for students claiming a fair proficiency level; for those claiming a poor command, the share is 8%. None of the students who claim no command of any foreign language have been abroad for study-related purposes. The clear relationship between foreign language proficiency and international mobility appears to sqare with the predominant students' objective to spend a study period abroad for language training purposes.

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Fig. 4 Student Age Profile by Gender



Indicator: Average age of male students (first course) in years







Fig. 5 Family Status of Students





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Fig. 7 Participation in Higher Education





Euro - Student - Report: Synopsis of Indicators Students' Type of Residence Fig. 9 Proportion of students living at home Indicator: Proportion of dormitory residents Indicator: in % in % 69 38 37 24 15 14 11 З 9.200 A) F D 1 Α F D I





Fig. 12 Higher Education Catchment Area





Fig. 13 Sources of Student Financing





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Fig. 19 Regional Differences in Income

Indicator: Regions with the greatest upward and downward deviation relative to national mean

in % - points





Fig. 21 State Aid for Students





Fig. 23 Employment and Income











Euro - Student - Report: Synopsis of Indicators Fig. 28 **Degree of Foreign Language Proficiency** Indicator: Percentage of students with (very) good wri-Indicator: Percentage of students who stated good abiliting ability in English ty in 2 foreign languages in % in % Not reported Not reported 45 36 26 14 9 8 A)

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Fig. 29 Student Mobility



Fig. 30 Study - Related Sojourn Abroad by Parental Income







