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Economic and Social Conditions of Student Life in the Federal Republic of Germany 2003

**17th Social Survey of the Deutsches Studentenwerk
conducted by HIS Hochschul-Informations-System
– Selected Results –**

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This report was prepared by Hochschul-Informationen-System GmbH, Hanover, on behalf of the Deutsches Studentenwerk (DSW), and with the support of the Federal Ministry of Education and Research. HIS is responsible for the content.

An Internet version of this report and the main report of the 17th Social Survey may also be found at the following websites:

<http://www.sozialerhebung.de>

<http://www.bmbf.de>

<http://www.studentenwerke.de>

<http://www.his.de>

Foreword

With this publication, the Federal Ministry of Education and Research and the Deutsches Studentenwerk (DSW) present the results of the 17th Social Survey conducted during the 2003 summer semester.

The social survey has been carried out for about 50 years in three-year intervals, and reflects the social and economic conditions of students in Germany. The results of this social survey are based on the data of questionnaires completed by nearly 21,400 students, which was collected and analysed by HIS Hochschul-Informations-System GmbH.

During the 2003/2004 winter semester for the first time more than two million students (Germans and foreigners) were enrolled at German institutions of higher education. About 47 per cent of these were women. It should be emphasised as particularly positive that the number of first-year students rose by approximately 26,000 to 276,000 from 2000 to the academic year 2003, whereby the proportion of female first-year students amounts to 50 per cent.

The decisions of Bologna to standardise the European degree programmes are yielding results: about 5 per cent of the students have chosen a bachelor's or master's degree course. Furthermore, the study-related visits to a foreign country by German students have increased to more than 30 per cent.

The 17th Social Survey shows how positive the effect of the Federal Government's BAföG reform is. During the 2003 summer semester 33 per cent of students entitled to a claim (regular study time) received BAföG support. This is a significant increase in the support quota in comparison to 1997. At €352 the average support is 15 per cent higher than in the year 2000. 69 per cent of those supported state that they would not be able to study without BAföG. About half say that they regard BAföG support to be adequate and that it gives them a secure planning perspective. This shows that the reform of the BAföG is a key contributor to the modernisation of the higher education system.

However, the data also shows that the resources of education are still unevenly distributed throughout German society. Therefore, the realisation of equal opportunities continues to be a key issue of modern education politics.

All in all, the results of the social survey emphasise the particular relevance of the social conditions for entrance to institutions of higher education and for successful studying. They provide important information on future interventional strategies and for the development of the quality of the services and counselling for students.

The data of the DSW's social surveys is also used for the "Euro Student Report" international inquiry, to which ten states of the European Union increasingly contributed in 2003. These international inquiries are of great importance for the further organisation of the social dimensions of the European higher education area. The complete results on studies for foreigners and studying abroad will be published as a special evaluation towards the end of 2004.

We express our thanks to the students for participating in the survey, the employees of the institutions of higher education and the Studentenwerke for their support, and the employees of HIS Hochschul-Informationen-System GmbH for successfully conducting this survey.

Berlin, June 2004



Edelgard Bulmahn
Federal Minister of
Education and Research



Prof. Dr. Hans-Dieter Rinkens
President of the
Deutsches Studentenwerk

Contents

1. Conception of the Survey	1
2. Entrance to Higher Education and Course of Studies.....	1
2.1 Development of Students and First-Year Students	1
2.2 Demographic Characteristics	2
2.3 Entrance to Institutions of Higher Education and Previous Education...	3
2.4 Subject Structure and Anticipated Degree	5
2.5 Course of Studies	6
3. Participation in Education	9
3.1 Expansion of Education and Equal Opportunities	9
3.2 Development of the Participation in Education during its Course – Education Thresholds	9
3.3 Calculating the Quotas of Participation in Education	9
3.4 Participation in Schools of General Education	10
3.5 Participation in Education at the Institutions of Higher Education	13
4. Social Composition of Students.....	17
4.1 School and Professional Qualifications of the Parents	17
4.2 Occupational Status of the Parents.....	18
4.3 Employment Status of the Parents	19
4.4 Social Origin	19
5. Study Financing – Income of the Students	23
5.1 Amount of Monthly Income	23
5.2 Origin of Income – Sources of Finance	24
5.3 Composition of Income – Financing Structure	25
5.4 Differences in the Amount of Income and the Financing Structure.....	26
5.5 Parents' Contribution	29
5.6 Self-Financing – Personal Earnings.....	30
5.7 Assessment of the Financial Situation by the Students	31
6. Living Costs – Selected Items of Expenditure	32
6.1 Rent and Additional Costs	32
6.2 Costs for Study Books and Equipment	33
6.3 Travel Expenses	33
7. BAföG Support	34
7.1 Scope of Support – Quota of Support Claimers	34

7.2	Support Amounts	35
7.3	Subjective View of the Support	36
8.	Time Budget	36
8.1	Time Expenditure on Studies	36
8.2	Time Expenditure for Employment	39
8.3	Time Budget Resulting from Studying and Employment	40
9.	Student Employment	44
9.1	Employment Rate	44
9.2	Factors that Influence Student Employment	45
9.3	Motives of Student Employment	48
9.4	Types of Jobs	50
9.5	Financial Return of the Jobs	50
10.	Students with Children	51
10.1	Key Characteristics	51
10.2	Course of Studies of Students with Children	53
10.3	Singnificance of Studies	55
10.4	Economic Situation	56
11.	Accommodation Situation	57
11.1	Used Types of Accommodation	57
11.2	Influencing Factors when Choosing the Type of Accommodation	57
11.3	Satisfaction with the Actual Accomodation Situation and Preferences	60
12.	Diet and Refectory Services	62
13.	Demand for Counselling and Information	63
13.1	Areas in which Students Required Information and Counselling	63
13.2	Use and Evaluation of Counselling Services	66
14.	Foreigners with German Education	69

1

Conception of the Survey

This 17th Social Survey was prepared by HIS Hochschul-Informations-System on behalf of the Deutsches Studentenwerk (DSW), and was sponsored and published by the Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF).

The goal of the survey is to record systematically the economic and social situation of students in the Federal Republic of Germany and to present this in such a processed manner that the reader is put in a position that he/she is able to make a personal judgement on the social situation of students.

The overall basis of the 17th Social Survey includes all institutions of higher education except the universities of administration sciences, the distance studies institutions and the universities of the Federal Armed Forces. 251 institutions of higher education supported the survey in May/June 2003 by carrying out a sample survey and sending out the questionnaires. 98% of students of the above-mentioned overall basis of the social survey were enrolled at the participating institutions of higher education.

The usable questionnaires of 21,060 German and 364 foreign students (except foreigners with German education) are the basis of the report. The realised sample survey is representative at national level.

2

Entrance to Higher Education and Course of Studies

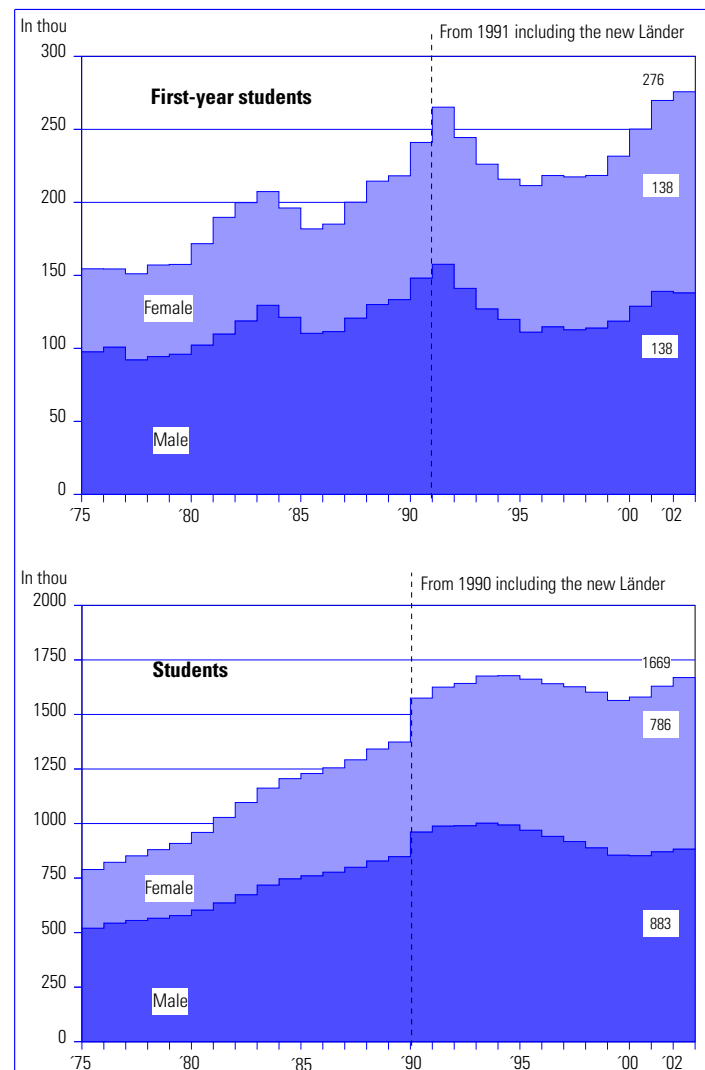
2.1 Development of Students and First-Year Students

According to the Federal Statistics Office for the first time more than 2 million students (Germans and foreigners) were enrolled at German institutions of higher education in the 2003/2004 winter semester.

The number of German students rose by around 10,000 students since the 1999/2000 winter semester to a total of 1.669 million in the 2003/2004 winter semester.

Fig. 2.1 German first-year students and students from 1975 to 2003, by gender

Without universities of administration sciences, in thou



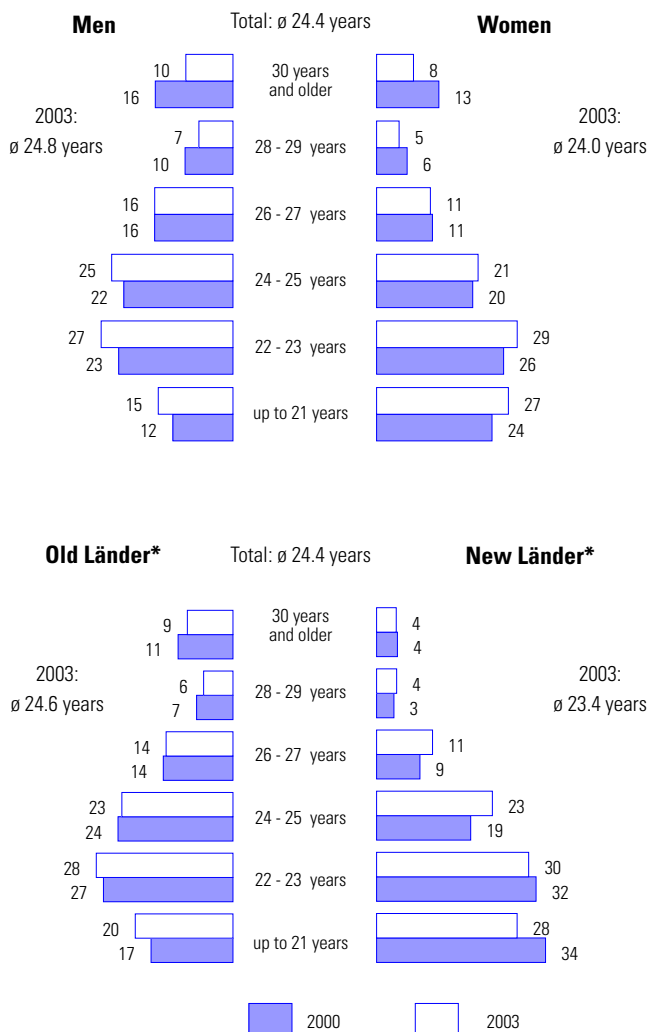
Source: StBA, Fachserie 11, own calculations

DSW/HIS 17th Social Survey

The continuously increasing number of first-year students since 1998 is the most important cause for the increase in the number of total students. Compared to 2000 the number of German first-year students rose by approx. 26,000 to about 276,000 in the 2003 academic year.

The share of women with regard to the total number of students as well as in relation to first-year students rose again. Amongst students, the share of women now amounts to 47% and amongst first-year students to nearly 50%.

Fig. 2.2 Age Structure of the students from 2000 to 2003
Students in their first degree course, in %, average age in years



* excluding Berlin

2.2 Demographic Characteristics

Age

According to the results of the 17th Social Survey the average age of German students in their first degree course is 24.4 years. The slightly lower average age in comparison with the year 2000 can be attributed mainly to the increased number of first-year students.

In 2003 male students were also on average one year older than female students. In comparison to this, the age difference between students in the new and old Länder has decreased. Whilst students in the new Länder are on average 23.4 years old, the average age of students in the old Länder is 24.6 years.

Marital Status

Approximately 5% of German students are married. About half of the students are not married but are in a long-term partnership (52%). About two fifths of students do not have a permanent relationship (43%).

The marital status of those questioned particularly depends on the age and gender of the students. The older those questioned are, the more seldomly they live without a permanent partner. Compared with their fellow male students, female students are more likely to be in a permanent relationship.

It is also noticeable that, compared with the female partners of male students, the employment rate amongst male partners of female students is higher.

2.3 Entrance to Institutions of Higher Education and Previous Education

Type of Study Entitlement

The by far vast majority of the students have made their way to an institution of higher education by means of a general higher education entrance qualification. Nearly one tenth of students have acquired entrance qualifications to a university of applied sciences before commencing their studies. Only a small minority of 3% have gained access by means of a subject-restricted entrance qualification, and 1% by means of other entrance qualifications to higher education.

There are no considerable changes compared to 2000.

Fig. 2.3 Marital status and employment status of the partner
Students in their first degree course, in %

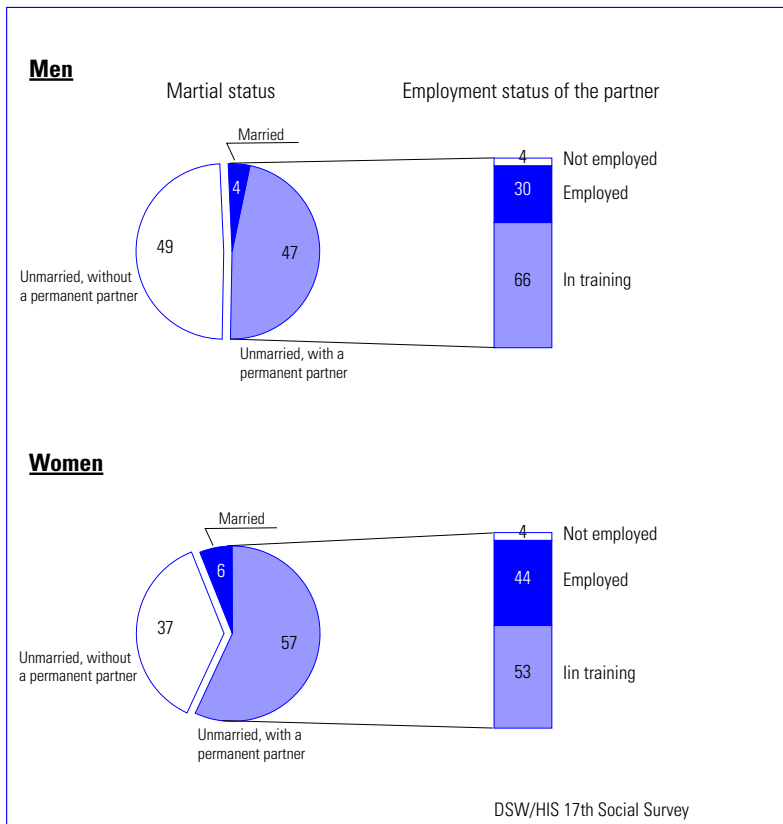


Fig. 2.4 Type of higher education entrance qualification
Students in %

Higher education entrance qualification	Total	Universities of applied sciences	Universities
General higher education entrance qualification	87	60	97
Entrance qualification to a university of applied sciences	9	31	2
Subject-restricted entrance qual.	3	8	1
Other entrance qualification	1	1	1

DSW/HIS 17th Social Survey

Vocational Training

The number of students seeking double qualifications (vocational training and a higher education degree) is decreasing since the mid-1990s. Whilst in 1994 34% of students still began their studies after having completed vocational training, this figure had dropped to 26% by 2003.

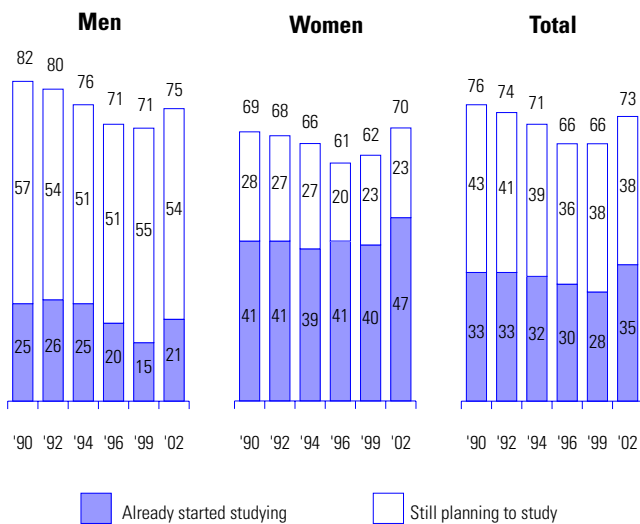
As before, the proportion of students seeking double qualifications is three times as high at universities of applied sciences (51%) as at universities (17%).

Delay of Commencing Studies

On average, students commence their studies at an institution of higher education 16 months after acquiring their higher education entrance qualification, whereby the median of 12 months is considerably lower. The men's time gap between acquiring higher education entrance qualification and commencing studies is larger due to military or alternative community service in particular. On average, they begin to study approx. 18 months after acquiring their entrance qualifications (median: 15 months), whilst women start studying after 14 months. Half of the women, however, begin studying within a maximum period of 4 months (median) after acquiring their higher education entrance qualification.

Fig. 2.5 Gross study quota six months after leaving school

Persons entitled to studying of the respective year, in %



Source: HIS Survey of Persons Entitled to Studying

DSW/HIS 17th Social Survey

Study Tendency and Renunciation

According to data of the HIS survey of persons entitled to studying, 35% of school leavers already start to study within six months after having left school.¹ Further 38% express the firm intention to commence studying. This corresponds to a gross study rate of 73%.

For the first time since 1990, an increase in the gross study rate can be observed amongst both men and women. Compared with 1999 the proportion of men has increased by 4 percentage points to 75%, and that of women by 8 percentage points to 70%.

The proportion of people who were prepared to study varies considerably amongst the Länder: it ranges from 63% in Brandenburg to 82% in Bremen.

¹ Heine, Christoph; Spangenberg, Heike, Sommer, Dieter: Studienberechtigte 2002 ein halbes Jahr nach Schulabgang. HIS Kurzinformation. Bd. A 1/ 2004. Hannover 2004

2.4 Subject Structure and Anticipated Degree

Changes to the Structure of Subjects

Despite an increasing number of first-year students, the share of students of engineering sciences has continued to drop further since 2000. Amongst students in their first degree course, this amounts to 16%. Compared with that, the share of students doing mathematics and natural science disciplines has again increased. After 18% in 1997 and 2000 it added up again to 20% in 2003. The proportion of students of other subject groups has not changed since 2000. As in 2000, the proportion of students in law studies and economic sciences is the highest recorded. 23% of students in their first degree course are enrolled in this group of subjects.

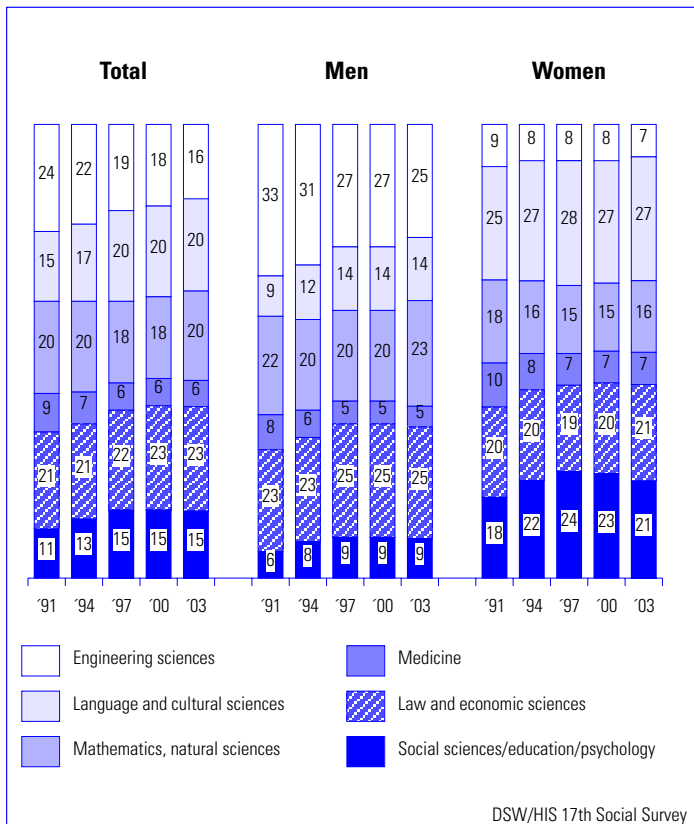
As before, there are considerable differences between the subjects of study chosen by men and women. At a share of 70% women are especially overrepresented in the subject groups “social sciences, social services, education and psychology”. Considerably more women than men also study language and cultural sciences (64%) and medical disciplines (59%). In contrary there is an overproportional share of men in economic sciences (59%) and in mathematics and natural sciences subjects (62%). The greatest difference can be noted in engineering sciences. Of all students who chose a subject of engineering sciences only 21% are women, but 79% are men.

Since 2000 the shares of women in medical subjects (+ 4 percentage points) and in law studies and economic sciences (+3 percentage points) have increased.

Anticipated Degrees

34% of students in their first degree course are seeking a university diploma, and 27% a diploma from a university of applied sciences. About 12% of

Fig. 2.6 Subject structure of the students
Students in their first degree course, in %



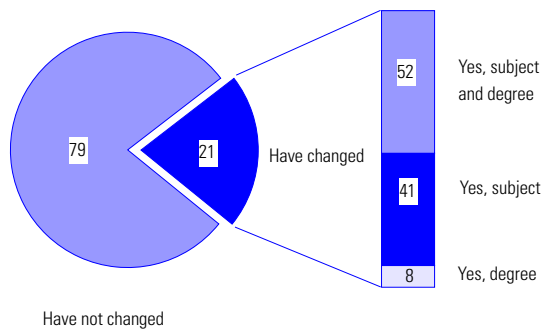
DSW/HIS 17th Social Survey

students plan to complete their studies with a state examination (not including teaching degrees). Further 12% want to qualify as a teacher. 11% are seeking a “magister” title. About 5% of students have chosen a master’s or bachelor’s degree.

The Bologna resolution on the unification of European higher education degrees is showing first effects at both universities and universities of applied sciences. 5% of students at universities of applied sciences are seeking to do a master’s or bachelor’s degree respectively. At the universities, the corresponding share is almost equal at 4%.

Fig. 2.7 Change of degree course

Students in their first degree course, in %



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Fig. 2.8 Reasons for interrupting studies, per subject group

Students in their first degree course, in %

	Total	Engineering sciences	Language and cultural sciences	Mathematics, natural sciences	Medicine	Law/ economic sciences	Soc./educ./psych.
Quotas of interrupting	15	13	20	13	13	12	20
Reasons for interrupting (multiple reasons given)							
Doubts about the point of degree	29	30	31	31	19	23	33
Gain other experience	25	25	29	23	20	24	25
Employment	25	25	22	26	14	27	29
Financial difficulties	21	25	18	24	21	20	22
Health problems	19	16	19	21	14	21	18
Family problems	14	17	11	15	15	15	15
Pregnancy	11	10	10	6	11	10	21
Military or alternative community service	4	6	3	7	3	3	2
Other reasons	22	20	23	24	34	17	20

DSW/HIS 17th Social Survey

2.5 Course of Studies

Change of Studies

As in 2000, about one fifth of students in their first degree course had already changed their degree course once, i.e. they had either changed their studied subject and/or the type of final degree. At 23% the rate of changers at universities is 6 percentage points higher than at universities of applied sciences.

More than two fifths of students who change their degree courses choose to change within their subject group (44%). However, this share varies greatly between 7% for subjects in medical disciplines and up to 55% for language and culture scientists.

More than two thirds of degree course changes are carried out within the first three semesters (68%).

Study Interruption

Since 2000, the rate of students in their first degree course who interrupted their studies remains at a level of 15%. Study interruptions often depend on a change of studies. Compared with students who have not changed their degree course, the rate of persons who have interrupted their studies is three times higher amongst students who have changed their degree course.

There are also differences between the students of both types of institutions of higher education. 16% of university students have already interrupted their studies; however, only 13% of students of universities of applied sciences have done the same.

The following arguments are mostly given as a reason for interrupting studies: "Doubts about the point of the studies", "to gain other experience", "employment", and "financial difficulties".

Change of Institution of Higher Education

About 15% of students in their first degree course have already changed their institution of higher education once, which often seems to be a concomitant with a change of degree course. Whilst only 6% of students who had not changed their degree course had changed their institution, this share amongst the persons who had changed their subject and degree amounts to 58%, amongst those who had changed their subject it makes up 38%, and amongst those who had only changed their degree it adds up to 48%.

With regard to the proportion of persons changing their institution there are differences between the students of the individual subject groups. Students of "engineering sciences" (8%), "mathematics and natural sciences" (12%) and "law studies and economic sciences" (14%) rarely change. On the contrary, students of "medical sciences" (18%), "language and cultural sciences" (19%) and "social sciences, social services, education and psychology" (20%) decide to change their institution of higher education at an overproportional rate.

Postgraduate Studies

About every tenth German student is attending postgraduate studies. Due to the varied possibilities to acquire a postgraduate degree, the share of postgraduate students at universities is higher than at universities of applied sciences (12% vs. 3%).

About 42% of postgraduate students have chosen a second degree course, whereas many students for whom the second degree serves as an interim solution before entering the working life should be found in this group in particular. 20% of postgraduate students are attending complementary studies, whilst 38% of these students are seeking to do a doctorate.

Fig. 2.9 Change of institution of higher education by type of change of degree course

Students in their first degree course, per group in %

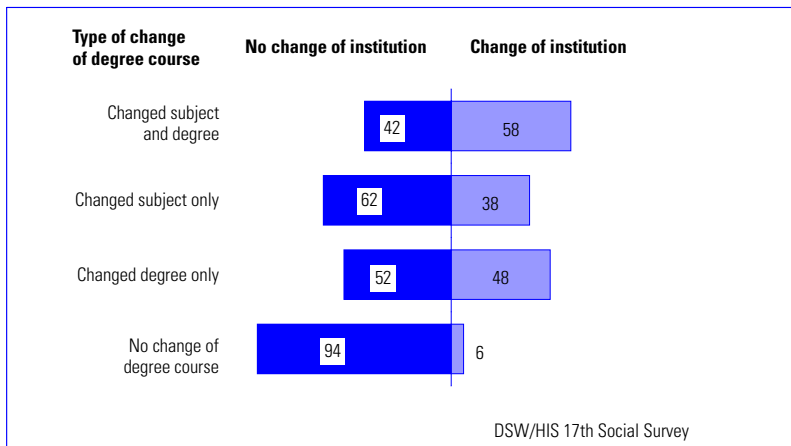


Fig. 2.10 Shares of the postgraduate students by type of institution of higher education

In %

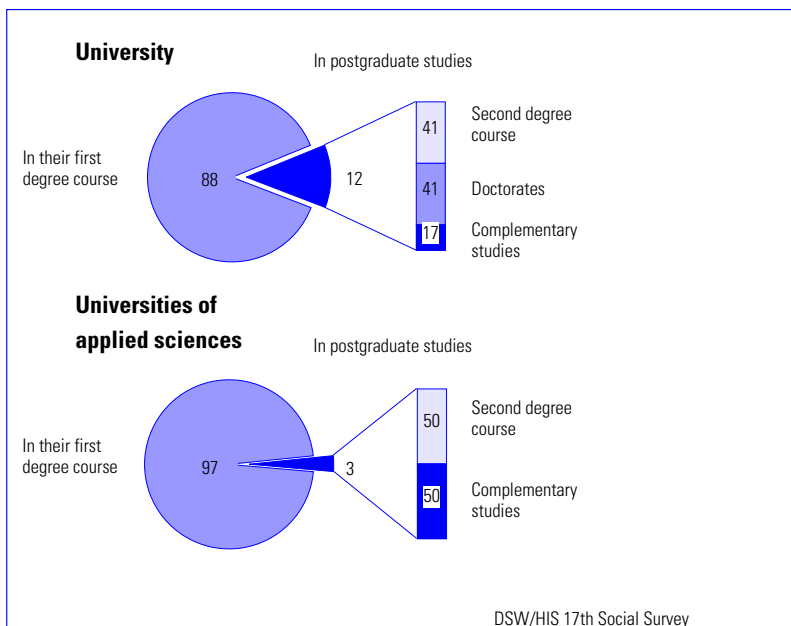
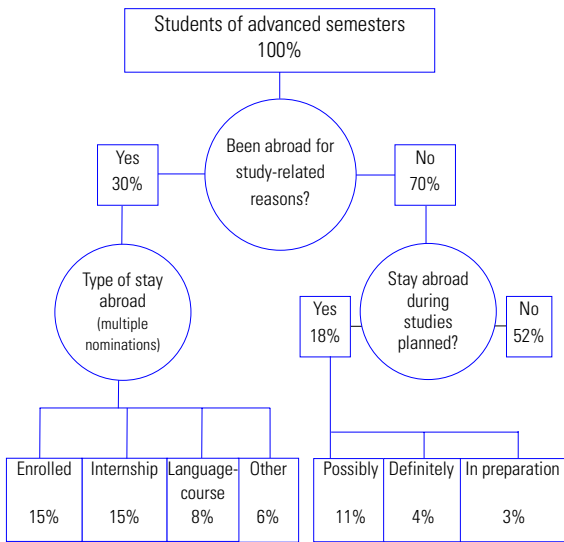


Fig. 2.11 Study-related stays abroad and planning of such stays

Students of advanced semesters (Uni: 8 and more, UoAS¹: 6 and more), in %



¹ universities of applied sciences

DSW/HIS 17th Social Survey

Study-Related Stay Abroad

A renewed increase in German students visiting foreign countries could be observed in the summer semester of 2003. Thereby, the slow and steady increase which characterised the 1990s can still be observed at a weakening tendency. Whilst around 24% of students went on study-related visits abroad nine years ago (1994), slightly more than 30% of students in higher semesters (from the 8th semester at universities; from the 6th semester at universities of applied sciences) went on a study-related visit abroad in 2003. In view of the weakening tendencies, it remains to be seen whether in future the number of visits abroad will stagnate or whether, for example, the Bologna Process will give it a new impetus.

Internships in a foreign country and periods of studying abroad are both equally favoured by students. 15% of students in higher semesters had each taken advantage of one of both opportunities. About 8% of students went abroad to attend a language course, and 6% of students were abroad for different study-related reasons. It is remarkable that the proportion of students attending study visits abroad also increases correspondingly to the level of the social background of the students (group of "low" origin: 20%, group of "highest" origin: 38%).

3

Participation in Education

3.1 Expansion of Education and Equal Opportunities

The difference in participation in education by various social classes has become a widely discussed issue in the past years. At the end of the 1990s the German education system's ability to perform once again became the focus of public discussions. Education finally returned to public discourse after the publication of PISA. One of the most important findings of PISA is that the influence of the parent's social status on their children's successful education is higher in Germany than in any other participating country.

Within the frame of the reporting on the series of examinations on hand, the social-group-specific quotas of participation in higher education have been revealed since 1988 (12th Social Survey), starting with the year 1982. Although these findings clearly point out an unequal allocation of opportunities to entering higher education, they were almost ignored in public and only moved to the core of the adoption of the social survey with the presentation of the 16th Social Survey in early summer 2001.

Without being able to go into more detail on possible causes of the educational crisis and recommended methods to overcome the crisis, the time series of the participation in higher education and its classification of social groups will be continued with up-to-date information. In comparison to the 16th Social Survey, this description includes data on the participation in higher school education (upper school).

3.2 Development of the Participation in Education during its Course – Education Thresholds

Four main thresholds can be identified analogously to the structure of the education system in Germany, which must be passed on the path to higher education.

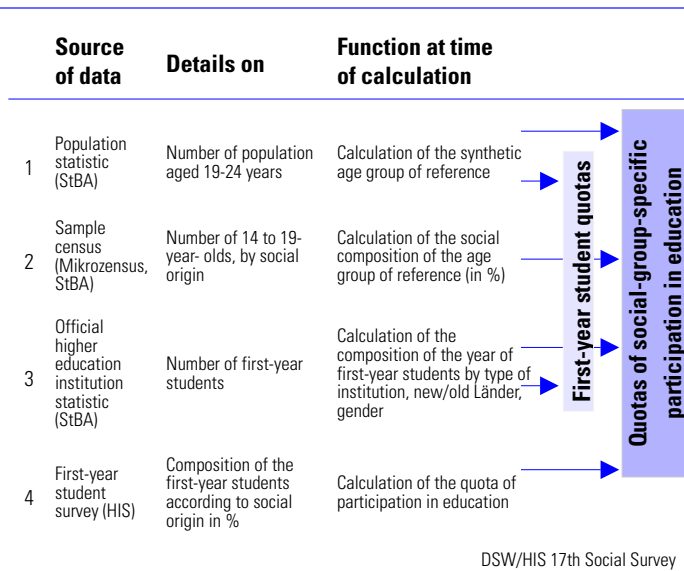
- Threshold 1: Transition from primary school to lower secondary school/secondary school/grammar school
- Threshold 2: Transition from secondary level I to secondary level II
- Threshold 3: Acquiring of higher education entrance qualification
- Threshold 4: Commencing studies

A fifth threshold not presented here is to pass the final examinations at the institution of higher education.

3.3 Calculating the Quotas of Participation in Education

A realistic image of the participation of individual social groups of a certain level of education requires that all persons of the same age within a social group are used as a scale basis in the population for those who are at the examined level of education. This is the only way that a conclusion on respective chances of education for their children can be made irrespective of the concrete size of the different groups. These prerequisites allow for statements such as "of 100 children from the 'low' group of origin within the population x manage to enter a degree, whilst amongst 100 children from the 'highest' group of social background this amounts to y". This way the chances of education for different social groups can be compared with each other and time series on the development of the educational opportunities are possible – independent of how the scope of these groups has changed over the course of time.

Fig. 3.1 Sources of data for the calculation of the participation quotas at institutions of higher education



Therefore, the quotas of participation in education state something entirely different than the percentage values on the social structure of students as presented in Chapter 4: “Social Composition of Students”. In the end, the social structure presented there is the result of the social-group-specific participation in education analysed in this chapter.

The method of calculation for the presented quotas of participation in higher education is quite complex and requires the use of different sources of data (cf. fig. 3.1).

For the applied method of calculation, minor changes during the course of time must not be overinterpreted. Safe ratings are only possible if longer-lasting and uniform tendencies are observed (details of the method can be found in Annex B of the main report of the 17th Social Survey).

3.4 Participation in Schools of General Education

Threshold 1: Type of School after Primary School

At the beginning of the 1950s, elementary school (“Volksschule”) was still the normal school, which was attended by three quarters of all pupils. Merely one sixth went to grammar school. Half a century later, visiting lower secondary school (“Hauptschule”) has dropped to one quarter of all eighth graders; the share of secondary school (“Realschule”) has trebled and, expressed as a percentage, twice as many pupils attend grammar school (“Gymnasium”).

Attending the 8th grade to a large degree determines whether the transition to upper school at the “Gymnasium” can be achieved or not. 50% of young persons aged 17-18 attended upper school (grades 11-13) in 2002.

Threshold 2: Attendance of Upper School

School Education of the Father

Of 100 children whose fathers² at most had acquired leaving qualifications at lower secondary school (or a comparable certificate), 37 attended upper school in 2002. In comparison to this, 84 of 100 children whose fathers have a higher entrance qualification had attended upper school – more than double. In the old Länder the chances of children visiting upper school are particularly high if their fathers already have a higher education qualification (86%). However, in the new Länder the probability of children accessing upper school if their fathers at most have lower secondary school qualifications is particularly low (29%).

Occupational Status of the Father

More than three quarters of civil servants' children attended upper school in 2002. Children of white-collar workers show similar rates to children of the self-employed (60%). At a rate of one third, the chances of blue-collar workers' children visiting upper school are considerably lower. An overview shows how the effects of the origin accumulate, which takes into account the occupational status of the father and the mother in connection with attendance of upper school. According to this, children whose parents are both blue-collar workers have by far the lowest chances of overcoming the threshold to grades 11-13 (20%). On the other end of the scale are children whose parents both are civil servants. Their chances of a transition to

² As before, the official statistics work according to the concept of a family reference person who is generally the father. Despite the inaccuracy of this way of looking at the situation, especially in the face of the increased participation in education of the women/mothers, this data is suitable of showing substantial trends of the specification of social groups in educational politics. The social homogeneity at the students' parents' homes is shown in Chapter 4.

Fig. 3.2 Threshold 2: Participation in education of 17- to 18-year olds at upper school (grades 11-13), by school qualification of the father in 2002
In %

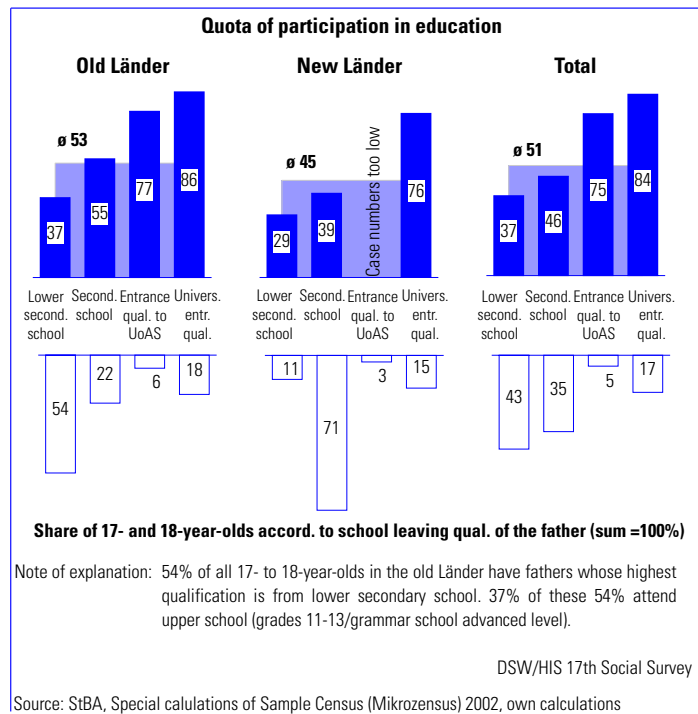
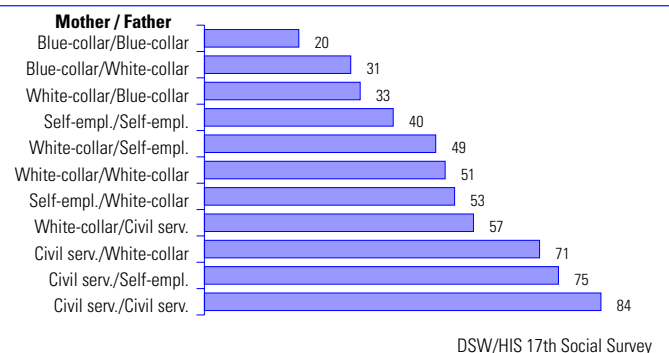


Fig. 3.3 17- to 18-year-old pupils of upper school who grew up with married couples as of April 2002, by occupational status of the parents¹

In % of all unmarried children of the same age group for married couples of the respective occupational status

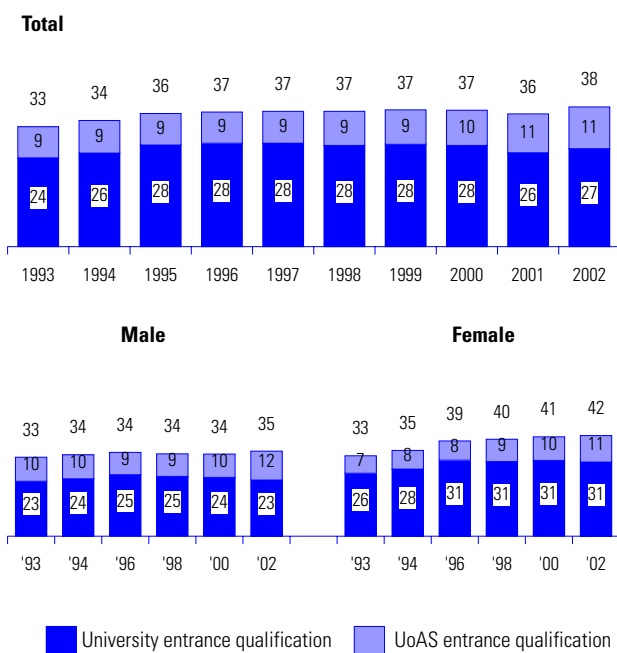


¹ Results of the Sample Census (Mikrozensus) – Population (concept of types of living). Upper school: grades 11 to 13. Occupational status of the spouses: without combination of missing details of one or both spouses.

Source: Statistisches Bundesamt (2003): Leben und Arbeiten in Deutschland. Ergebnisse des Mikrozensus 2002, Wiesbaden, S. 36

Fig. 3.4 Share of the German population with a higher education entrance qualification¹ (quota of study-entitled persons) 1993 – 2002, by type of entrance qualification and gender

In %



DSW/HIS 17th Social Survey

¹ The calculation of the quota refers to the mean of the 17- to 19-year olds or the 18- to 20-year-olds (for school years 12 or 13, respectively) on 31 December of the previous year.

Source: StBA; Hochschulstat. Kennzahlen (ICE, HIS)

upper school are four times higher than those previously mentioned (84%).

Since the 1990s at the latest, these correlations have remained mostly unchanged for both background characteristics – school qualifications and professional status of the father, concerning both scope and tendency. The build-up of social background characteristics to the construct of “social background group” can be reproduced only every four years from the data of the sample census (currently, the most up-to-date is for 2000). According to this, 36 of 100 children of the “low” group of origin attended upper school in 2000; as did 85 of 100 children of the “highest” group of origin.

Threshold 3: Study Entitlement

The expansion of education can clearly be taken from the development of the share of persons of the same-aged population entitled to studying. In 1970 this share was merely 11%. It continuously increased over the following decades. In 2002 the quota of persons entitled to studying reached its highest level of 38%.³

When comparing the gender, the women’s participation in education has continuously increased since the first half of the 1990s. In 1993 one third of each sex had a higher education qualification. Nine years later this share had increased by 9 percentage points to 42% for women; the men only gained two percentage points and reached 35%. The expansion of the participation in education was therefore mainly borne by women over the last decade.

Considerable differences between the gender can be found in the new Länder: here, the share of men entitled to studying has for years remained below the study entitlement quota of women. All the new Länder are equally affected by the comparably low quotas of men entitled to study.

³ Figures of the year 2003 were not yet available at the time this report was prepared.

3.5 Participation in Education at the Institutions of Higher Education

Commencing studying is a further obstacle that is not taken up by all those who are principally entitled. 37% of all 19- to 24-year-old Germans took up a degree course in 2003. Therefore, more students than ever before were enrolled in Germany (cf. Ch. 2).

In the old Länder, the rate of first-year students is by tradition considerably higher than in the new Länder. In 2003, the record high level of 39% has remained. In the new Länder, however, the share of first-year students in 2003 was considerably lower (28%) but, compared with the previous year, had even increased by four percentage points.

When comparing the gender, almost no differences in the participation in higher education can be seen. Men and women have almost equal rates of first-year students. In the new Länder, the share of first year female students for the past years has even been higher than that of the male group of the same age.

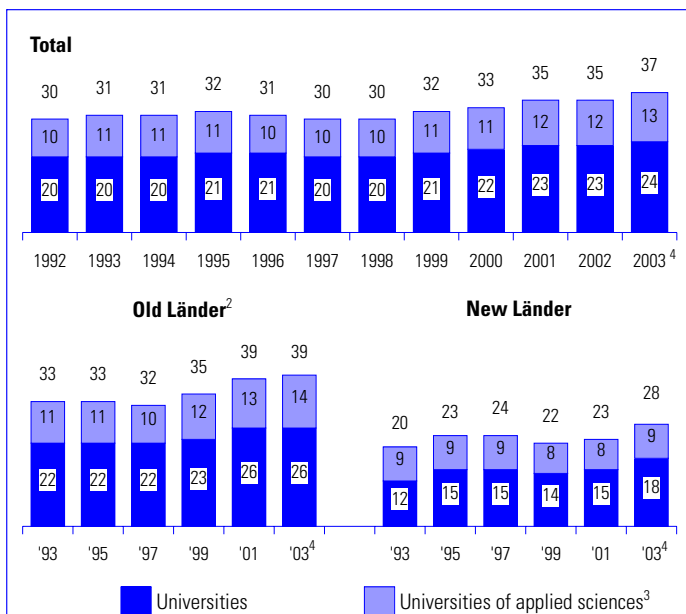
Participation in Education Specific to Social Groups

General School Leaving Qualification

In 2003, 84% of children whose fathers have a higher education entrance qualification have taken up higher education studies; 61% at a university and 23% at a university of applied sciences. Only one third of these (27%) are children whose fathers have a secondary school leaving qualification. The chances of studying in higher education for children whose fathers at the most have a lower secondary school qualification are even lower: at 21%, their participation in education is only one quarter of that of children whose fathers have a higher education entrance qualification.

Fig. 3.5 Share of first-year students of the German population with higher education entrance qualification¹ (quota of first-year students) 1992 – 2003, by type of institution and region

In %



DSW/HIS17th Social Survey

¹ The calculation of the quota refers to the mean of 18-21-year-olds, since 1997 to the mean of 19- to 24-year-olds on 31 December of the previous year.

² Including Berlin

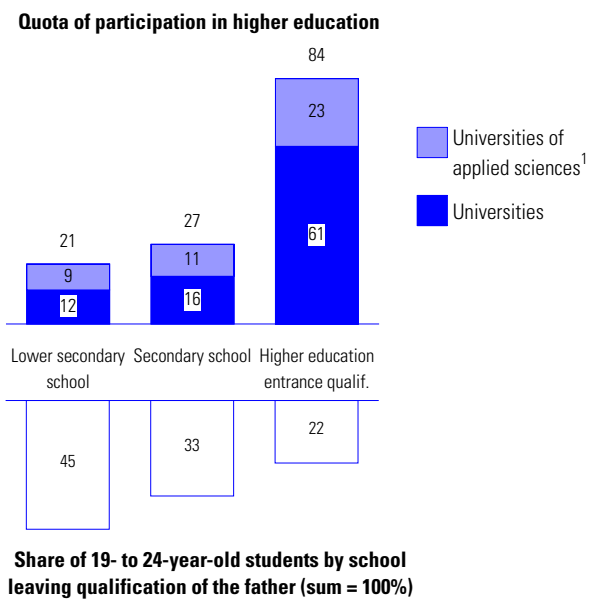
³ Including universities of administration sciences

⁴ Preliminary results of 2003, own calculations for type of institution and Länder

Source: StBA; Hochschulstat. Kennzahlen (ICE, HIS)

Fig. 3.6 Participation in education of 19- to 24-year olds at institutions of higher education in 2003, by school qualification of the father

In %



Note of explanation: 45% of all 19- to 24-year-olds have fathers whose highest school qualification is of lower secondary school level. 12% of these 45% attend a university and 9% a university of applied sciences.

DSW/HIS 17th Social Survey

¹ Including universities of administration sciences

However, compared with the findings of 2000 there have been some changes. In the past three years the rate of first-year students has risen by five percentage points in total. However, the extent to which children from different educational environments benefit from this increase is very different. The participation in education of children whose fathers have a higher education entrance qualification has risen by seven percentage points and has thus increased substantially again, whilst this quota for children whose fathers have secondary school qualifications has dropped by six percentage points. The participation of children whose fathers by most have lower secondary school qualifications only rose by five percentage points for the first time after it had been declining over the previous years.

Social Origin

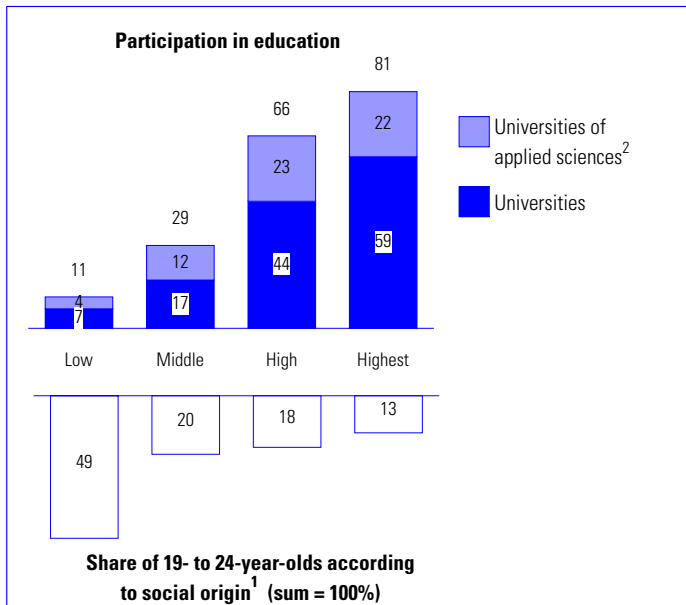
The construct of “social origin groups” is traditionally created within the frame of the social survey in order to illustrate the meaning of the family of origin for the social and economic situation of the students. This construct is particularly suitable for this purpose as it combines several characteristics of origin (school and professional qualifications of the parents, professional status, see above; cf. Ch. 4).

As expected, the connection between the social background and the participation in higher education is fairly close. In line with the social background, the chances of taking up a higher education degree course increases overproportionally: in 2000, about every tenth child out of 100 whose fathers were assigned to the “low” group took up a higher education degree course. The participation of children from the “middle” group of origin was nearly three times as high (29%). The differences are even higher if children of the “low” group of origin are compared with those of “higher” classes. The latter’s chances of a higher education degree are six times as high (66%). However, children of the “highest” group of origin have the highest participation rates in education. Four fifths (81%) gain admission to an institution of higher education.

Compared with the 1996 quotas of participating in education, it does not go unnoticed that – apart from the “middle” group of origin – children of all groups have gained: the “higher” group of origin has increased its participation in higher education by 15 percentage points and therefore boasts the highest increase. The “highest” group of origin has the second highest increase rate by nine percentage points. But also children of “low” social origin were able to increase their participation in academic education by three percentage points. The development of the “middle” group of origin, however, was considerably downward.

Fig. 3.7 Participation in education of 19- to 24-year olds at institutions of higher education in 2000, by social origin¹

In %



Note of explanation: 13% of all 19- to 24-year-olds have fathers who can be allocated to the “highest” group of social origin. 59% of these 13% attend universities, and 22% universities of applied sciences.

DSW/HIS 17th Social Survey

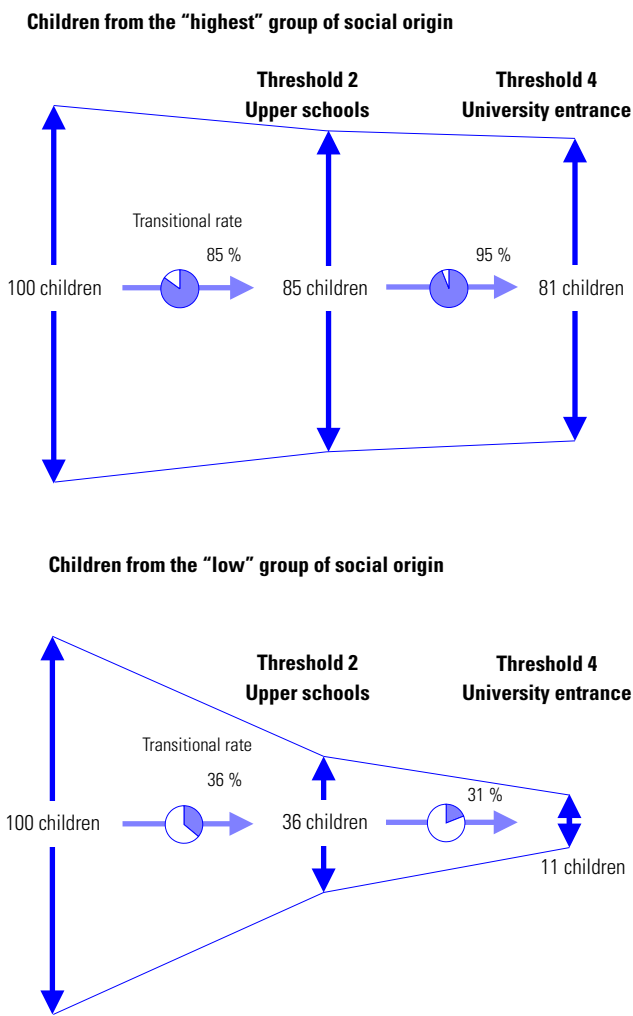
¹ By status of the father

² Including universities of administration sciences

Social background group	Participation in education in %	
	2000	1996
- low	11	8
- middle	29	49
- high	66	51
- highest	81	72

Fig. 3.8 Schematic illustration of the social selection in 2000

Participation in education of children from the “highest” and “low” group of social origin – comparison of extreme groups, in %



DSW/HIS 17th Social Survey

Source: StBA, Special calculation of the Sample Census (Mikrozensus) 1996 und 2000; HIS First-year student survey of 2000, own calculations

To summarise, it is possible to say that the social selection, as can be observed during the course of educational biography, can be illustrated by means of a funnel-shaped schematic illustration.

The comparison of the extreme groups of 100 children each of the “highest” and “low” background groups shows how narrow the chances of getting to (institutions of) further education are for children of the lowest background group as early as after the first threshold. The probability that children of the “highest” background group may reach upper school is 2.3 times higher. For nearly all of these children, having achieved this is of equal meaning as a higher education entrance qualification, which 95% of them achieve. This transitional rate is three times as high as that of children from the “low” background group, where merely every third child from lower secondary level II also reaches an institution of higher education.

The result of this multiple selection during the course of education (threshold 3 – acquiring of higher education entrance qualification is not represented here) is that in 2000 the chances of taking up higher education studies for children of the “highest” group of social origin were more than seven times (7.4 times) higher than for children whose fathers belong to the “low” group of social origin (81% vs. 11%).

4

Social Composition of Students

The social composition of students develops as a result of social-specific participation in education and demographic developments, which particularly include the overall increasing level of education in connection to the expansion of education.

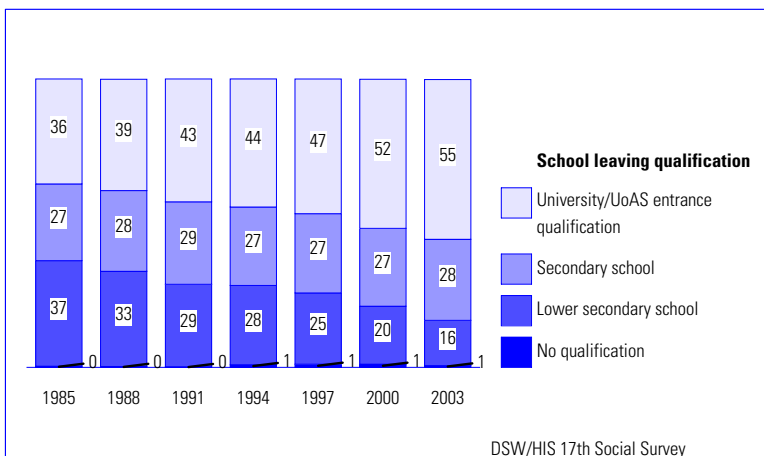
4.1 School and Professional Qualifications of the Parents

The educational background of students can be seen in the school qualifications and professional qualifications of the parents. Therefore, the qualifications of both parents are compared and the highest is used as a criterion to categorise the educational background.

General School Leaving Qualification

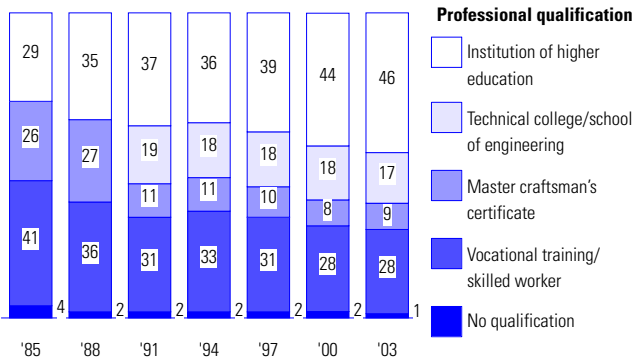
Compared with the findings of the 16th Social Survey the share of students with parents who have good and very good school qualifications have increased again – a trend that can be observed since the mid-1980s. This is mainly seen in the share of the families of origin where at least one parent has a higher education entrance qualification (55%, compared to 52% in 2000), and to a small extent in those for whom secondary school qualifications are the highest school qualifications (2003: 28%, 2000: 27%). The proportion of parents who at most only attended lower secondary school has since decreased by four percentage points and was at 16% in the 2003 summer semester.

Fig. 4.1 Highest school leaving qualification of the parents*
Students in %



* Including the new Länder from 1991

Fig. 4.2 Highest professional qualification of the parents*
Students in %



DSW/HIS 17th Social Survey

* 1985 and 1988 master craftsman's examination including technical college/school of engineering, including new Länder from 1991

Professional Qualifications

The parents of students also have comparatively high professional qualifications. In 46% of families at least one parent has completed a university study course, in every fifth even both. More than one third have parents of whom at least one has a worker's certificate of proficiency or a master craftsman's certificate.

For years the development of professional qualifications in the families of origin has shown a tendency to increased shares of high-value certificates, as has the development of school qualifications, even though this is generally less pronounced than general school education.

4.2 Occupational Status of the Parents

The occupational status of the parents is a further indicator of the social background of students. This was recorded for the current or previous occupation from the four legal categories of social insurance: blue-collar workers, white-collar workers, civil servants and self-employed persons.

Differences between Mothers and Fathers

Nationwide, the majority of parents of students are (were) white-collar workers: mothers (61%) considerably more often than fathers (41%). Within the group of white-collar workers a further difference between the parents is obvious, which is partially shown in strongly deviating shares amongst qualification-dependant positions. Whilst mothers mainly occupy middle positions and a relatively large share performs executing chores, senior positions are dominant amongst the fathers and considerably more of them occupy managerial positions.

The second most frequent professional status is the civil servant status, which fathers hold slightly more often than mothers. They are also self-employed, freelancers or blue-collar workers at a higher rate than their female partners.

Compared with the results of the last survey, the composition of the students following the professional status of the fathers widely remains unchanged.

4.3 Employment Status of the Parents

The students' mothers' participation in the working life has considerably increased over the past decade. Compared with the survey three years ago, their integration into the working life has again increased: whilst the proportion of full-time employed mothers has increased by 4 percentage points to 35% in total, the percentage of those not employed or working as a housewife has at least dropped by 7%. In comparison to this, the shares of the individual categories of employment status of the students' fathers has remained unchanged since the mid-1990s.

Old and New Länder in Comparison

Regional disparities – as they have been observed since the beginning of the 1990s – continue to exist in a relatively unchanged manner. Amongst the mothers they can be seen from two parameters in particular: the share of full-time employed mothers in the new Länder is twice as high as in the old states (60% vs. 29%), where nearly four times as many mothers are not employed or work as a housewife (23% vs. 6%).

4.4 Social Origin

The "groups of social origin" construct is prepared traditionally for the social surveys using three details of the parental home: occupational status, the highest vocational qualification and the highest general education qualification of the parents. A construct

Fig. 4.3 Employment status of the parents

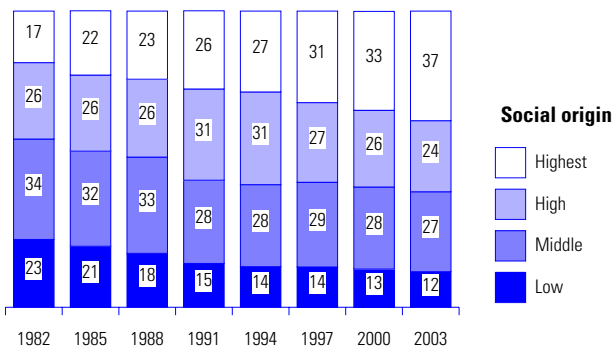
Students in %

	1991	1994	1997	2000	2003		
					Total	New Länder*	Old Länder*
Mother							
Employed full-time	24	25	27	31	35	60	29
Employed part-time	22	24	25	26	27	15	30
Pensioner	7	8	10	10	11	8	11
Unemployed/short-time worker	2	3	4	3	4	10	3
Not employed/housewife	42	37	31	27	20	6	23
Deceased	3	3	3	3	3	2	3
Father							
Employed full-time	72	69	66	67	66	70	66
Employed part-time	1	1	1	1	2	2	2
Pensioner	17	19	22	20	19	11	21
Unemployed/short-time worker	3	3	4	3	4	9	3
Not employed/houseman	0	0	1	1	1	1	1
Deceased	8	8	7	8	8	7	8

* Excluding Berlin

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Fig. 4.4 Development of the social composition of the students*, by groups of origin
In %



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* Including the new Länder from 1991

such as the “groups of social origin” targets the analysis of vertical inequalities amongst the students.

Changes over the Course of Time

Since the beginning of the 1980s the development of the social composition of the students has followed the same trend: the share of students of the “highest” group of origin continuously increases, whilst the percentage of students of the two lower groups has decreased in particular. The development of the social structure of the students is influenced by the changes in the social composition of the parent generation as well as by social-group-specific education opportunities and their usage.

In 2003, 37% of all students came from the “highest” group of origin. Compared with 2000, this group thus records a growth of 4 percentage points whilst the other three groups of origin at the institutions of higher education are represented at one to two percentage points less. Every fourth student has a “higher class” family background, more than a quarter come from the “middle” social classes, and only every sixth student can be attributed to the “low” group.

Examined over a period of two decades, students of the “highest” group of origin could be encountered at institutions of higher education twice as often in 2003 as in 1982. As a contrast, the share of students of the “low” (non-higher educational) environment dropped to nearly half. The proportions of students of both middle groups of origin decreased between these extremes correspondingly.

Social Origin and Type of Institution of Higher Education

Analogous to the individual findings of the parents’ educational and occupational background, typical differences are found between the students of different types of higher education institutions for the

social composition according to groups of origin. The lowest barrier for persons interested in studying who do not come from higher education backgrounds is apparent at universities of applied sciences, where students of both lower groups of origin are represented at a considerably higher rate than at universities or at art academies and music colleges.

Choice of Subject and Social Background

With their shorter, practically-orientated degree course offers, universities of applied sciences are on the one hand places of learning that are chosen by advancers from non-higher education classes at an overproportionally high rate. On the other hand, universities of applied sciences offer subjects that are chosen by these potential students in particular. These subjects mainly include engineering sciences (electrical engineering/electronics in particular) and social services/social education.

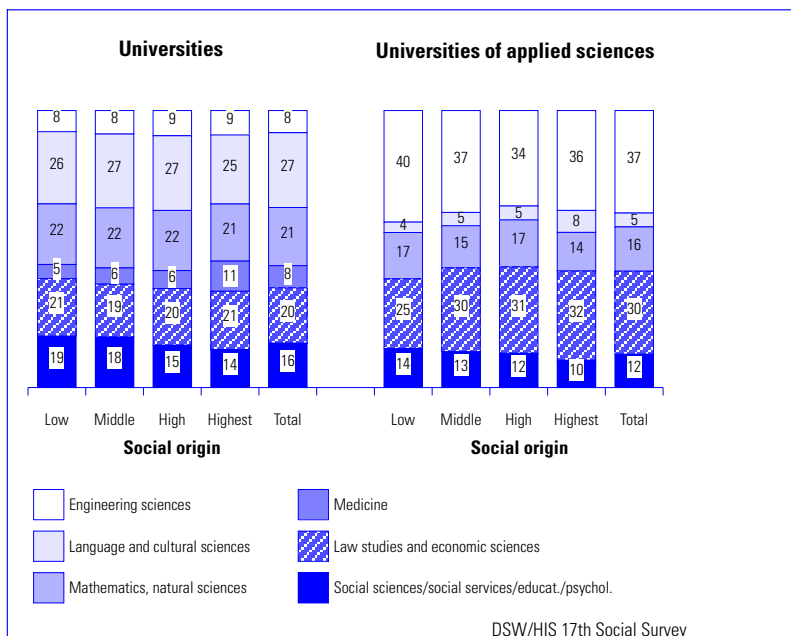
As a contrast, students who have a background closer to higher education enrol in law and economic sciences at universities of applied sciences at an overproportionally high rate, particularly business administration, and often study (interior) architecture or subjects of fine arts.

The social-group-specific choice of subjects at universities particularly includes subjects such as law studies and medicine for which overproportionally many students from higher und upper classes of society have traditionally been interested in for decades – also in the sense of “socially inherited” traditions of education. In contrast to this, interested students from non-educational backgrounds tend to enrol in language, culture or educational subjects – many of these teaching degrees.

Study Length and Social Origin

As proven by many findings of the social survey, the social background of the students is important to key parameters of the degree course. This also includes the duration of attendance at institutions of higher education up to now in the shape of the number of higher education semesters attended so far.

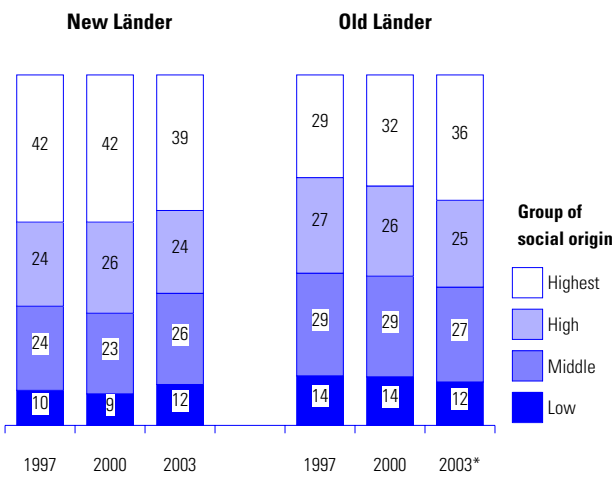
Fig. 4.5 Structure of the subjects, by type of institution of higher education and social origin of the students
Students in their first degree course, in %



DSW/HIS 17th Social Survey

A reflection of the social composition of students according to the numbers of semesters clearly shows the significant differences for students at universities. Whilst students of the “highest” group of origin considerably less often belong to those who are in their first degree course for at least 13 semesters, students of both the lower environments are above the average share of students enrolled in their first degree course. In contrast to this, at universities of applied

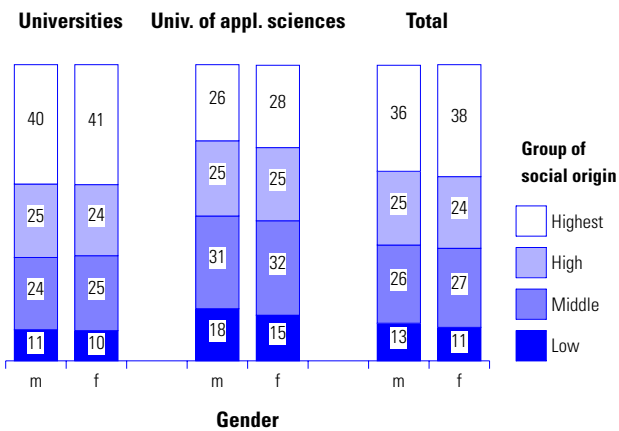
Fig. 4.6 Students in the old and new Länder, by social origin
In %



* Including Berlin

DSW/HIS17th Social Survey

Fig. 4.7 Male and female students by institution of higher education and social origin
In %



DSW/HIS 17th Social Survey

sciences the membership of students to the social groups is considerably less specific during the different study phases.

The reasons for the average longer stay at universities for students of families with a non-higher educational background are varied and can be found in characteristics that are closely connected, such as higher education entrance, self-financing, employment whilst studying, phasing out of BAföG support, age when commencing studying, type of accommodation, marital status and family obligations (cf. respective chapters on these issues).

Regional Peculiarities

The social composition of students in the old and new Länder is quite similar. A greater distinction can merely be found in the share of students from the “highest” group of origin, which is three percentage points lower in the old Länder than in the new Länder (36% vs. 39%).

Differences between Male and Female Students

There are only minor differences between female and male students regarding their membership of the social groups examined here. Female students more often belong to the “highest” group of origin than male students (38% vs. 36%), of whom the proportion which originates from a non-higher educational background is two percentage points higher.

Whilst the social composition of the gender is nearly identical at universities, slightly greater differences can be found at universities of applied sciences. These mainly affect the shares within the two extreme groups: “low” and “highest”.

5

Study Financing – Income of the Students

The income situation of non-married students who do not live at their parents' home during their first degree course ("normal student" group of reference) is described here. These students are regarded as regular cases in socio- and support-political considerations. The "normal student" group of reference currently includes 65% of all students.

5.1 Amount of Monthly Income

On average, students have a monthly income of €767. Nominally, the average monthly income is 9.1% higher compared to 2000 (€703). Actually, which means under consideration of the inflation rate (consumer price index for Germany, 2000 basis), the students have a 4.5% higher purchasing power than in 2000. It must therefore be taken into account that the students have had to accept losses in purchasing power in previous years (1997: -1.2%, 2000: -1.5%). The development from 2000 through to 2003 is thus also to be understood as a realisation of a way of closing the gap.

The statistical spread of the amount of income is substantial: about one quarter of students have less than €600 at their disposal, and about one quarter have more than €900. The median of the monthly income – the amount that one half of students fall below of and the other half exceeds – is €720.

Fig. 5.1 Amount of monthly income – mean values
"Normal student" group of reference, in €

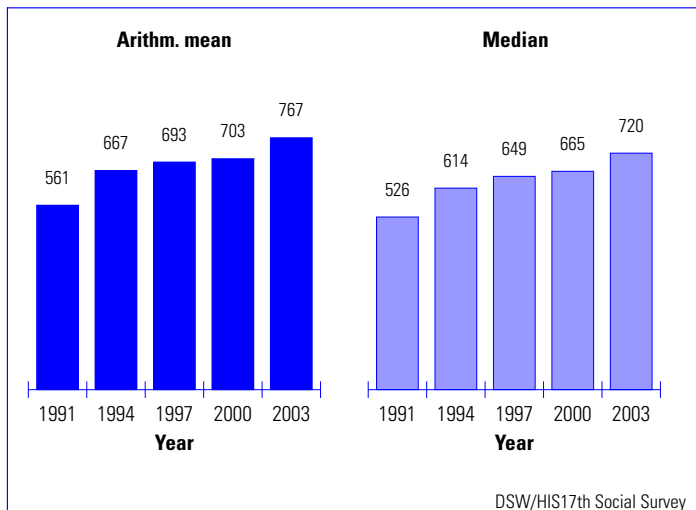


Fig. 5.2 Income distribution – students by amount of monthly income
"Normal student" reference group, in %

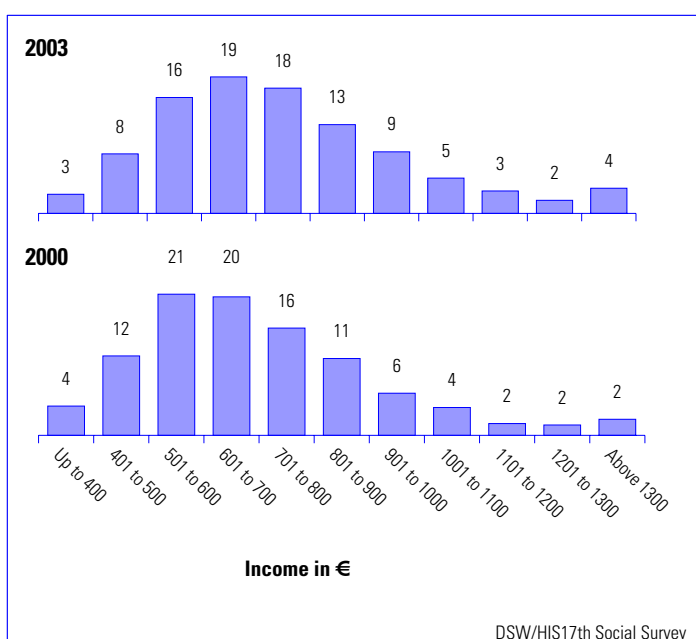


Fig 5.3 Sources of income – claims and paid contributions

"Normal student" group of reference

Source of income	2003		2000	
	Stud.	Arithm. mean	Stud.	Arithm. mean
	%	€	%	€
Contribution by parents	89	435	86	406
- cash payment	83	368	80	323
- non-cash payment	51	162	45	205
Own income from working whilst studying	63	325	66	327
BAföG	27	367	24	323
Falling back upon means saved before studying	16	127	18	122
Relatives, friends	17	82	16	82
Orphan's pension	4	214	4	224
Partner	3	188	2	154
Scholarship	2	318	2	257
Bank loan/loan from third party (not Bafög)	1	253	1	200
Educational loan	1	295	-	-
Other sources	3	425	3	273

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5.2 Origin of Income – Sources of Finance

The by far larger share of students (89%) receives financial support from their parents – about 12% live from maintenance of their parents only. 63% of students finance their living costs by means of income from working whilst studying – this is the only source of income for 4%. Bafög support is claimed by about 27% of students of the "normal student" group (cf. Ch. 7 for Bafög quota amongst all students); however, only about 1% of the "normal student" reference group live exclusively on Bafög support (about 10,000 students).

Furthermore, additional sources of finance are used – of which the importance should not be underestimated for individual cases – but which altogether only play a subordinate role. Generally, students make use of more than two sources of income to finance their living costs. Therefore, financing of studies is mainly a form of mixed financing.

5.3 Composition of Income – Financing Structure

In comparison with 2000, the composition of the students' monthly income has changed: the proportion that the parents contribute to the monthly income has increased from 49.5% to 50.6%, as has the corresponding share of the BAföG (from 10.9% to 13.2%). In contrast, the share of financing students by means of personal income has declined (from 30.5% to 26.9%) – about the same scope as the share of contributions by the parents and by BAföG has increased.

It is remarkable that the share of self-financing has dropped; it had constantly increased from 1982 (18.9%) through to 2000 (30.5%). At 26.9% in 2003, the level of self-financing still remains relatively high.

The development of the BAföG share is to be seen in relation to the monthly income of the students: whilst this share was 25% in 1982, it dropped to only 16% by 1988. The downward trend was interrupted by an increase to nearly 20% in 1991 (mainly due to the inclusion of the students from the new Länder), and then dropped well below the level of 1988 at 14% in 1994. The lowest level of the BAföG share (10.6%) was reached in 1997. A marginal increase to 10.9% was measured as early as 2000. The development from 2000 through to 2003, however, can be characterised as a considerable increase to 13.2%.

Fig. 5.4 Composition of monthly income, by source of the funds

"Normal students" group of reference, proport. per source of funds, in %

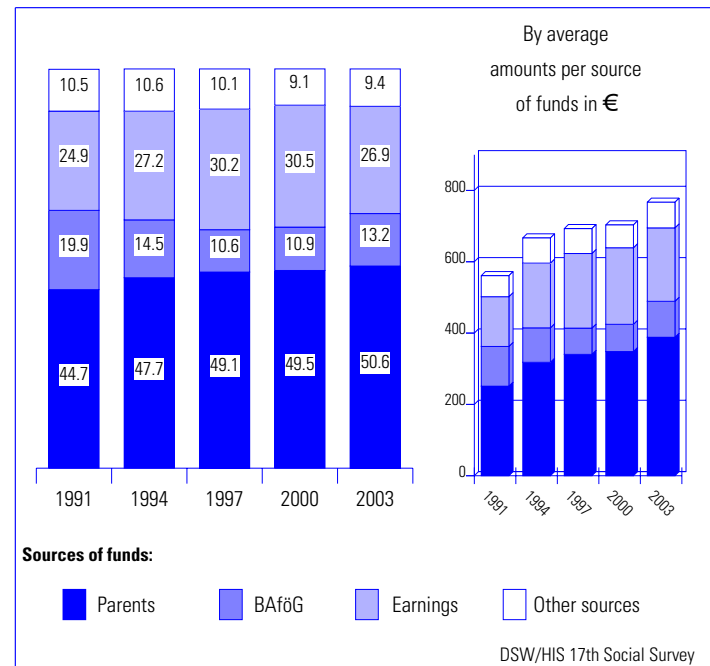


Fig. 5.5 Amount of monthly income, by age
 "Normal student" group of reference, arithm. mean in €

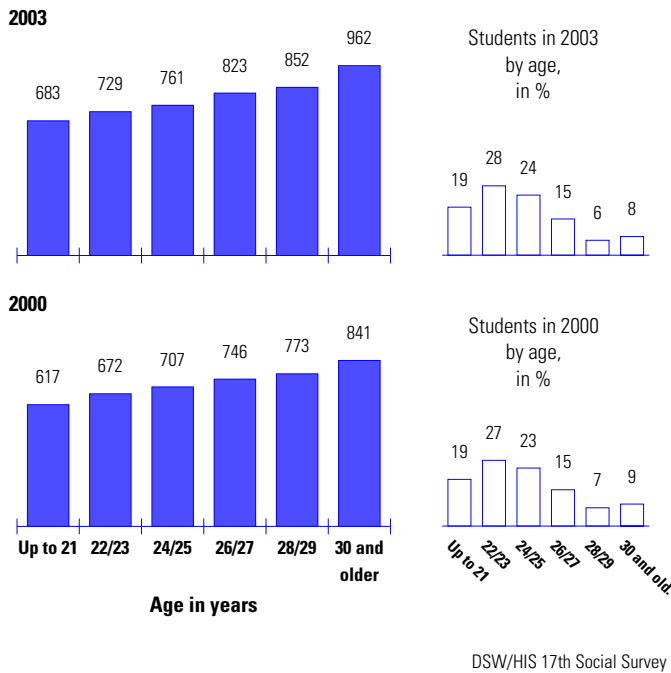
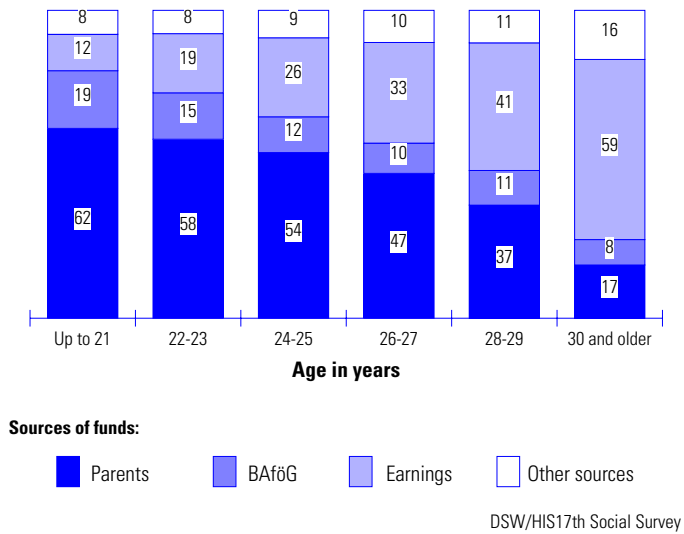


Fig. 5.6 Composition of the monthly income, by age of the students
 "Normal student" group of reference, proportion per source of funds, in %



5.4 Differences in the Amount of Income and the Financing Structure

Age and Income

The amount of monthly income of students is influenced by different factors. The most obvious is the increase of the average amount of monthly income in connection with the increasing age of the students.

Not only the amount of monthly income changes in relation to the age of the students, the composition of sources is also age-dependant. Therefore, the share that the parents contribute to the monthly income decreases considerably as the students grow older (from 62% for the youngest to 17% for the oldest), whilst the share of self-financing increases considerably (from 12% for the youngest to 59% for the oldest students).

Income and Region

In addition, a considerable difference in the amount of monthly income among students of the old and new Länder can also be noted: whilst the monthly income of the students in the old Länder amounts to €786 on average, the students in the new Länder have an average income of €666. Compared with the monthly income available in 2000, the gap between the incomes has decreased. The alignment process has thus been continued.

This is the result of the difference in the increase in monthly income. Nominally, the incomes of the students in the old Länder were 8.1% higher in 2003 than in 2000; in the new Länder they were 14.2% higher.

Taking the development of the costs of living (consumer price index for Germany) from 2000 through to 2003, the result is the following actual change to the income situation: the purchasing power of the students in the old Länder has increased by 4.5%, that of the students in the new Länder by 10.4%. In reality, this means that, on average, students in the old Länder can spend €34 and students in the new Länder can spend €63 more than in 2000. Although the students in the new Länder have considerably increased their monthly income in comparison to the students in the old Länder, they have €120 on average less at their disposal. In this case it must also be taken into account that the students in the new Länder, for example, have lower expenses for rent (cf. Ch. 6).

A considerable difference with regard to the origin of the income can be noted. Students in the old Länder fund a considerably higher proportion of their monthly income themselves in comparison to students in the new Länder (28% vs. 17%). Students in the new Länder, however, finance a considerably higher proportion by means of BAföG funds (22% vs. 12%).

Fig. 5.7 Development of the monthly income in the old and new Länder – mean values

“Normal student” group of reference, in €

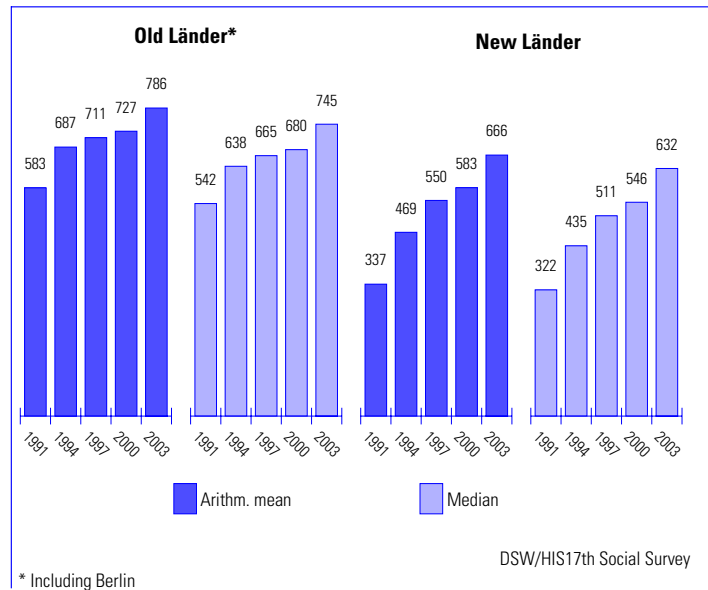


Fig. 5.8 Composition of the monthly income, by old and new Länder

“Normal student” group of reference, proportion per source of funds, in %

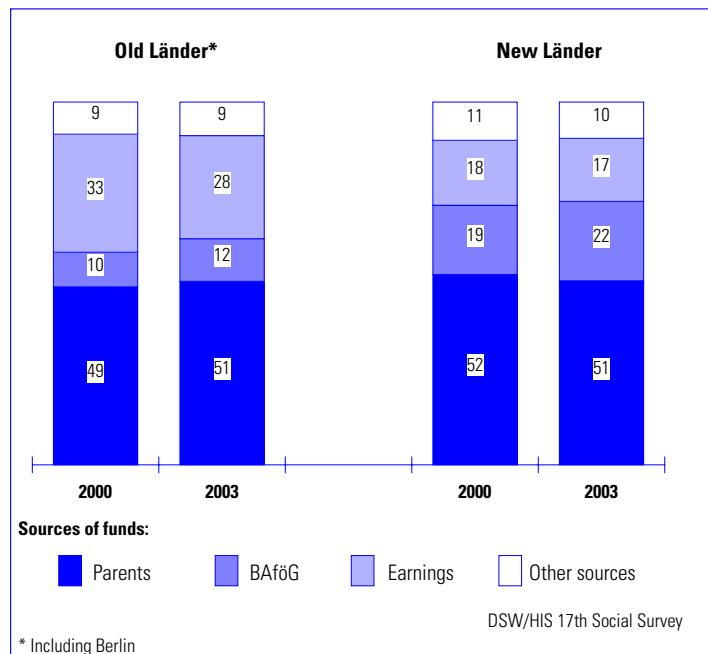
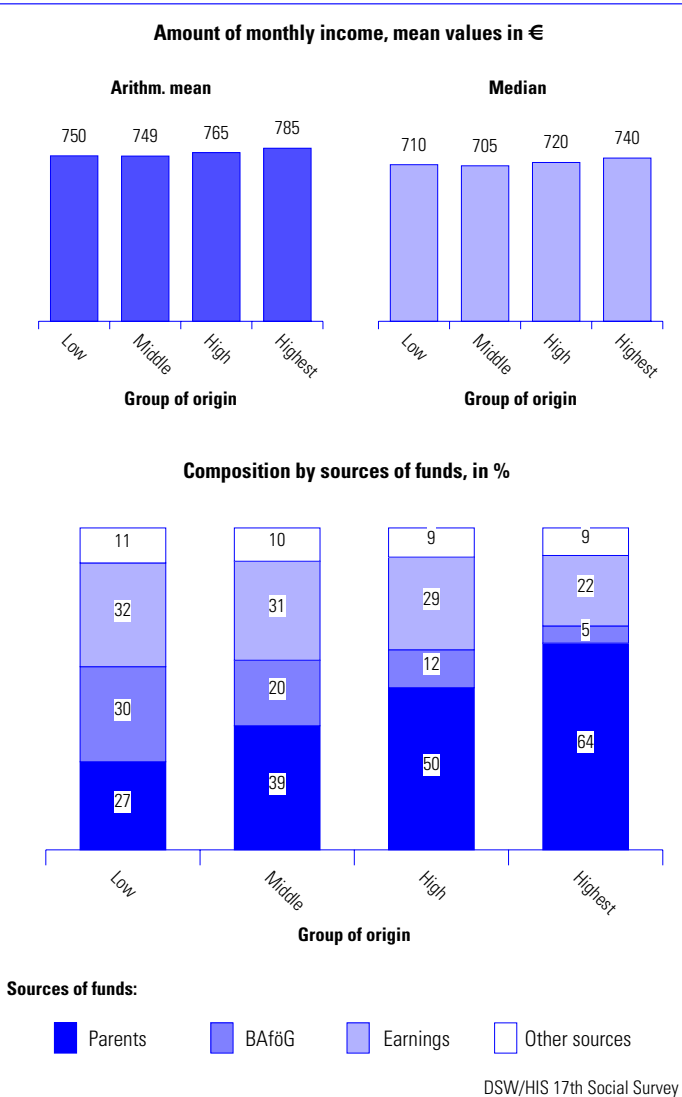


Fig. 5.9 Amount and composition of the monthly income, by social origin of the students

“Normal students” group of reference



Income and Social Origin

The differences between the average monthly incomes of students from the individual social groups of origin are not so great. However, there are considerable differences to be seen with regard to the source of the funds. The share that parents contribute to the monthly income increases from 27% to 64% parallel to the social origin of the students, whilst the proportion of BAföG drops from 30% to 5%. The share of self-financing through personal income also decreases in relation to the social background of the students. Although a considerable drop in the proportion of self-financing can only be noted for the “highest” group of social origin.

Students who receive parent-dependent BAföG support have an average monthly income of €118 at their disposal, of which on average €345 are BAföG funds. Consequently, their monthly income has decreased by 6%, or €49 less than the average monthly income that is available to all students.

5.5 Parents' Contribution

89% of students receive an average monthly support of €435 from their parents (2000: 86% with €406).

Referring to students receiving financial support from their parents, merely 22% receive maintenance funds to the amount that the legislator considers as appropriate for students who do not live at their parents' home (€600). It should be observed, however, that this requires that students can still claim support from their parents and that these are able to pay. Consequently, more than half of the third of students who receive relatively low financial support from their parents (up to €300) are BAföG claimers.

Fig. 5.10 Students*, by amount of financial support by the parents

"Normal student" group of reference, in %

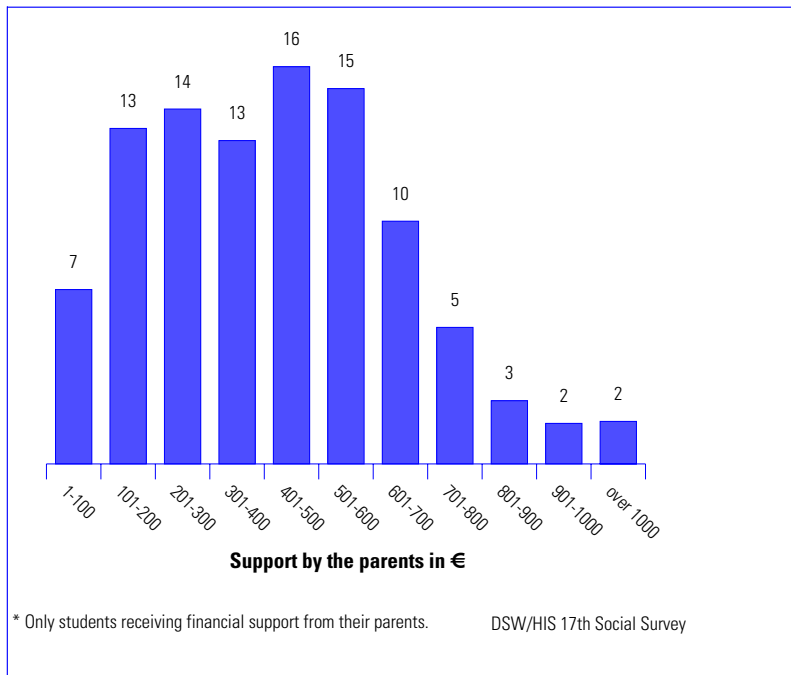
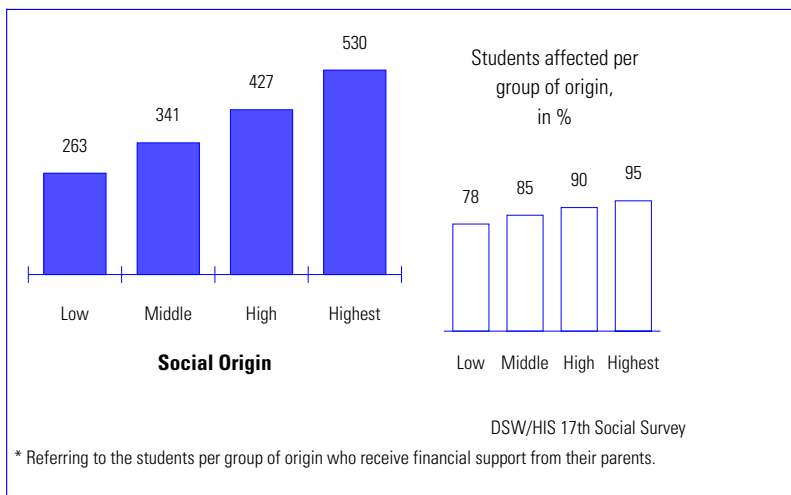


Fig. 5.11 Parents' monthly contribution*, by social origin of the students

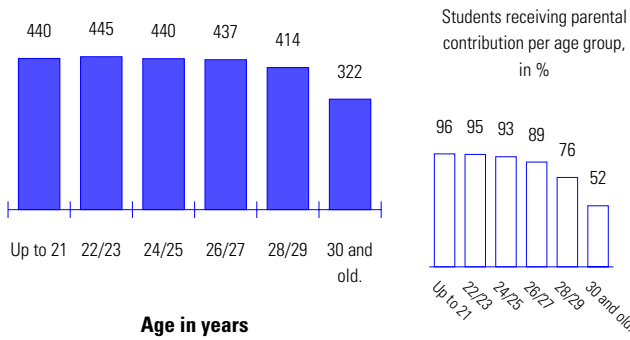
"Normal student" group of reference, arithm. mean in €



The scope of parental support is particularly influenced by the social origin of the students. The proportion of students supported by their parents as well as the amount of support increase in relation to the social origin.

Fig. 5.12 Parents' monthly contribution*, by age of the students

"Normal student" reference group, arithm. mean in €



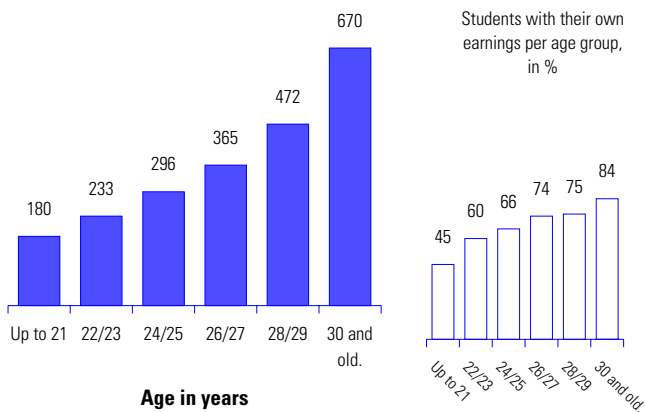
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* Referring to the students per age group who receive financial support from their parents

The parental support is also influenced by the age of the students. As the age of the students increases, the share of parental support decreases. Whilst the amount of support only gradually decreases with younger students (up to 25 years), this decline is considerable with older students.

Fig. 5.13 Amount of own earnings, by age of the students

"Normal student" reference group, arithm. mean in € referring to the proportion of those affected



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5.6 Self-Financing – Personal Earnings

The share of students who contribute to their maintenance with their own earnings has slightly decreased from 2000 through to 2003 – from 66% to 63%. The average additional earnings, however, have more or less remained constant (2003: €325, 2000: €327).

The scope of self-financing particularly depends on the age of the students. The proportion of students who have their own earnings increases with age and the average amount of income also rises: from 45% with €180 of those aged 21 or less to 84% with €670 for the group of 30-year-olds and older.

The amount of financial support provided by the family and/or possibly by BAföG (together referred to as basic financing) considerably influences whether additional income is earned and which amount. Due to the basic financing, students who earn additional money receive a considerably lower income than those who have no additional earnings. With increasing age, the basic amount increases from €65 for the youngest to €219 for the oldest students. The students of every age group who are in employment, however, do not only have additional earnings to the extent that would be sufficient to compensate the low basic financing, but rather earn considerably more. The consequence is an overcompensation of the decreasing basic maintenance by the family and by BAföG, which to a large extent can be attributed to the increasing demands of the standard of living as the age increases.

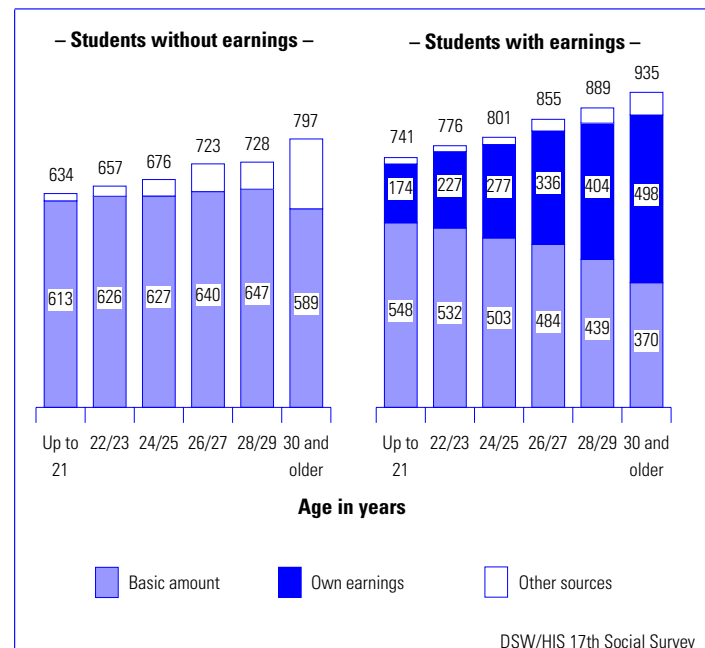
Students who are supported by BAföG (independently of their parents or not) considerably less often have personal earnings to finance their living than students who are not supported (57% or 53% respectively vs. 67%).

5.7 Assessment of the Financial Situation by the Students

Nearly two thirds of students assume that the financing of their living is secured during their studies. Depending on the social origin of the students, this opinion is shared considerably less by students of the lowest group (46%), but clearly more often by students of the highest group (74%).

Fig. 5.14 Basic financing and own earnings, by age of the students

“Normal student” reference group – with basic financing, arithm. mean values in €



Living Costs – Selected Items of Expenditure

Analogous to the income, the results presented here also refer to the situation of unmarried students in their first degree course who do not live at their parents' house (type of household or "normal student" reference group, respectively).

6.1 Rent and Additional Costs

The students' average monthly expenditure for rent and additional costs amounts to €250. In comparison with the year 2000, the rent expenditure has increased nominally by about 10% and real, taking into account the development of the consumer price index for accommodation rent, water, electricity, gas and other fuels, this has increased by 5.2%.

The expenditure for rent is the highest burden to the students' budget. On average, students spend 32.6% of their means available each month on rent and additional costs. Those students whose monthly income is in the lower income quartile (up to €500) even spend 38.2% of their income on average on rent and additional costs.

As before, students who have found accommodation in a student residence pay the lowest rent (€181). However, students who live in a flat by themselves have the highest rent costs at an average of €300.

On average, students in the new Länder spend €60 less than their counterparts in the old Länder. The proportion of monthly income that is spent on rent amounts to 30% in the new Länder and to 33% in the old Länder; although it should be observed that students in the new Länder have a disposable income that is on average 15% or €120 respectively lower than that of students in the old Länder.

Fig. 6.1 Development of the monthly expenditure for rent including additional costs –mean values
"Normal student" reference group, mean values in €

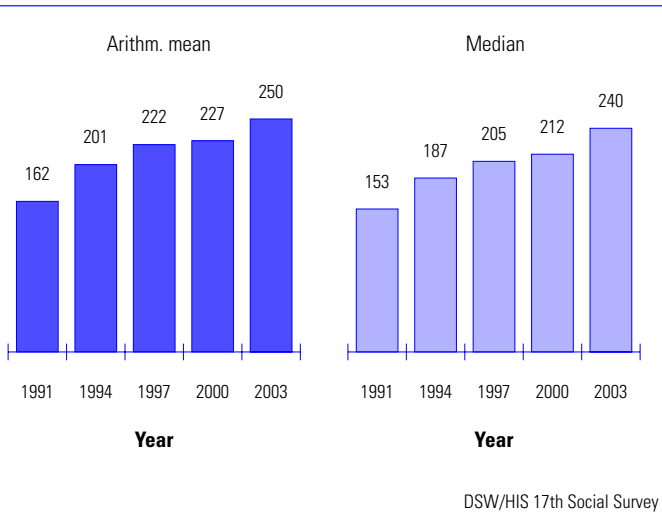


Fig. 6.2 Monthly expenditure for rent incl. additional costs, by type of accommodation
"Normal student" reference group

Type of accommodation	Expenditure in €-arithm. mean		Nominal changes from 2000 to 2003, in %
	2003	2000	
- Hall of residence	181	155	16.8
- Subtenancy agreement	212	198	7.1
- Shared accommodation	232	213	8.9
- Accom. shared with partner	267	255	4.7
- Own accommodation	300	283	6.0

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The lower rent costs for students in the new Länder can therefore be explained by the fact that the costs for all types of accommodation are lower than in the old Länder. This is supplemented by the fact that a higher proportion of students in the new Länder live in cheap student residences, as before (cf. Ch. 11).

The rent expenditure of students is also influenced by the regional conditions of the housing market. Generally, it can be emphasised that students' expenditure on rent and additional costs increases as the population of the cities with institutions of higher education grow.

6.2 Costs for Study Books and Equipment

On average, €37 are spent on books and equipment each month (€33 in 2000). The amount of this expenditure depends on the subject studied.

6.3 Travel Expenses

Around 87% of students have expenses for cars and/or public transport (incl. the semester ticket). On average, these students spend €36 per month.

Nearly 24% of students have expenses for a car and for public transport. Up to 21% of students merely only have expenses for a car, and 42% only have expenses for public transport.

Drivers amongst students (44%) spend €119 on average for their car each month. Users of public transport (66%) spend an average amount of €32 per month on travel.

From 1991 to 2003 the share of students ("normal student" group of reference) who spend money on a car dropped from 53% to 44%. The proportion who spend money on public transport was at 54% in 1991, and then climbed to 65% in 1994 and has remained relatively constant since then.

Fig. 7.1 Proportion of BAföG claimers of all students (standard method) and of the group of entitled students (normative method)

In %

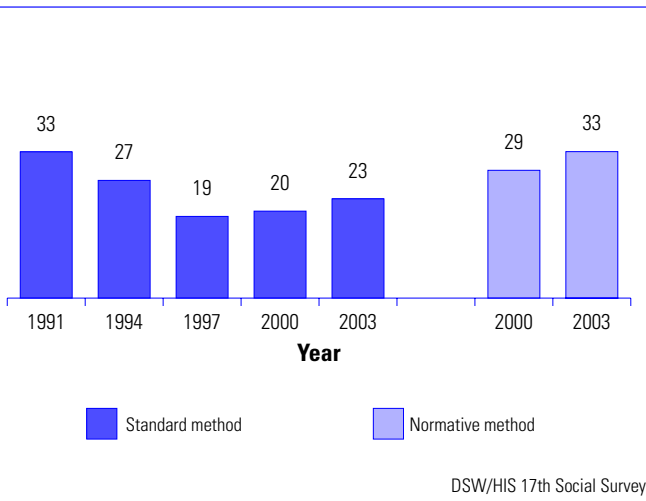


Fig. 7.2 Share of BAföG claimers of all students in the old and new Länder

In %



BAföG Support

Between 2000 and 2003 the legislator amended the legal situation. Amongst other things the goal was to increase the number of students who are entitled to claim support.

7.1 Scope of Support – Quota of Support Claimers

With the aid of the 17th Social Survey it has been determined that around 23% of German students received support in the 2003 summer semester. Consequently, compared with the respective quota of supported persons in 2000 of 20%, a considerable increase can be constituted. The development over the recent years was preceded by a substantial downward trend of the BAföG quota. Whilst 33% of all students were still supported in 1991, the share of BAföG claimers dropped to 19% by 1997.

As the share of all students who forfeited their entitlement due to various reasons is not inconsiderable (e.g. due to exceeding the maximum period of support, changing subjects or due to missing certificates of achievement), a further quota is calculated in addition to the BAföG quota according to the so-called standard method (BAföG claimers in relation to all students). In this case, the BAföG claimers are compared to the share of students who are in any case entitled to support (the so-called normative method). According to this, 33% of all German students entitled to a claim were supported in 2003. In 2000 the respective quota was 29%. A clear increase of the share of BAföG claimers from 2000 to 2003 can also be seen by this method.

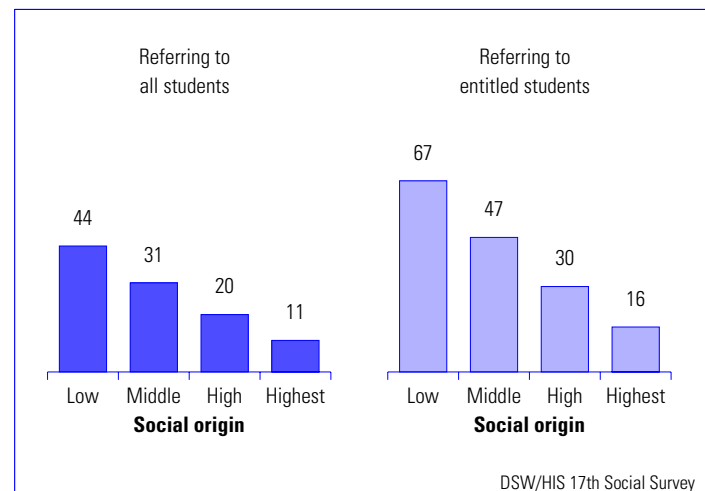
The proportion of BAföG claimers in the new Länder still remains considerably higher than in the old Länder (36% vs. 20%). Whilst an increase of the BAföG quota could be observed only in the new Länder from 1997

through to 2000 (from 32% to 34%), from 2000 through to 2003 the quota increased in the new Länder (to 36%) as well as in the old Länder (from 17% to 20%).

In accordance with the principle of the BAföG, i.e. to enable study-entitled persons from low-income families to study, the BAföG quota of the lower group of social origin is by far the highest. The share of BAföG claimers amongst the students of the “low” group of origin is 44% if all students of this group of origin are taken as a basis or 67% if only those students are taken into account who are still to be regarded as entitled persons.

Fig. 7.3 BAföG quota by social origin of the students

In %



7.2 Support Amounts

An average amount of support of €352 per month is allocated to all supported students. The average sum of support is therefore 15% higher than in 2000. An average support amount higher than that of 2000 could be expected because the legislator substantially increased the BAföG demand rates in 2001.

Supported students who no longer live at their parents' home receive an average amount of support of €369 (2000: €325), whilst those supported who are still living with their parents receive €271 on average (2000: €218).

Currently, 86% of BAföG claimers receive support depending on their parents' means and 14% receive support independent of their parents. The average amount of support depending on the parents' means is €331 (2000: €285), for support independent of the parents means it is €490 (2000: €426).

Fig. 7.4 Amount of support funds by selected characteristics – mean values

“BAföG claimers” group of reference, mean values in €

Characteristic	Support funds			
	Arithm. mean		Median	
	2003	2000	2003	2000
1. Accommodation				
- with parents	271	218	300	213
- not with parents	369	325	400	332
2. Gender				
- male	348	303	370	307
- female	356	309	377	320
3. Social origin				
- low	383	338	400	348
- middle	361	307	377	307
- high	342	294	366	307
- highest	307	265	300	256
4. Type of institution				
- University or comp. instit.	347	306	370	312
- Univ. of appl. sciences	362	307	377	307
5. Region				
- old Länder	355	315	376	322
- new Länder	343	285	360	282
Total	352	306	375	311

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7.3 Subjective View of the Support

The far larger part of BAföG claimers (69%) assumes that they can not study without BAföG (2000: 72%). About half consider the BAföG support to be adequate (2000: 39%), and for nearly half (49%) it provides a secure planning perspective (2000: 42%). The share of supported students who expressed such opinions increases in relation to the amount of the support.

Time Budget

The analysis of the students' time budget comprises all times that students spend during a "typical" semester week for attending lessons, studying by themselves and possible employment whilst studying. Those questioned were asked to state their average time expenditure for these three activities precisely by weekdays and full hours.

All those who gave plausible times for at least one activity were included in the analysis. Thus, if not stated otherwise, the mean values also include the details of those who at the time did not spend time on a certain activity, for example, because they were not employed or no longer attended lessons during their final phase of studying.

8.1 Time Expenditure on Studies

By definition, the study-related time expenditure includes times for visiting lessons (lectures, seminars, supervised laboratory work, compulsory internships, etc.) as well as times that can generally be described as studying on one's own (e.g. preparing and evaluating lessons, preparing home/final assignments, loaning/reading specialist literature, visiting consultation hours, consultations).

Type of Studies

Compared with postgraduate degree courses, students in their first degree course have the highest time expenditure for studying. On average, they spend 34 hours per week on lessons and studying by themselves.

Compared with the time budget that was determined in 2000, the time for studying during the first degree course has decreased by more than two hours per week to a greater extent at the expense of self-studying compared to supervised studying. No indications for possible causes for this drop can be seen in the available data.

Type of Institution of Higher Education

On average, in the summer semester 2003 students at universities invested just as much time in their studies as students at universities of applied sciences. The study expenditure at universities of applied sciences has decreased slightly more over the last three years than at universities (universities of applied sciences: - 3 hours/week, universities: -2 hours/week).

Course of Studies

Studies are started comparatively time-consuming. During the first semesters, students spend 36 hours per week studying on average. During the following years of study this total expenditure drops successively. Particularly students in their 13th semester and higher invest significantly less hours per week in their studies than students during the regular study time do.

During the course of the studies, the relations between supervised study forms and self-determined activities change as expected. During the basic course, the expenditure for visiting lessons is considerably higher than for self-study. During the main course, non-supervised study forms gain more importance as to regards time. During the final study phase, the study-related time budget is clearly determined by self-study.

Fig. 8.1 Study expenditure, by type of study course

Arithm. mean values in hours per week

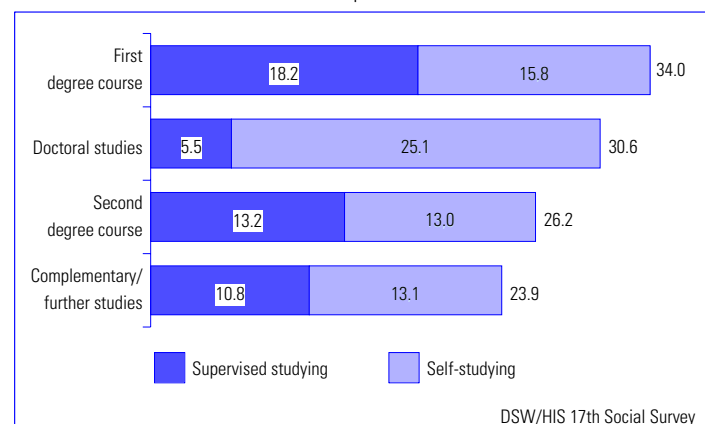
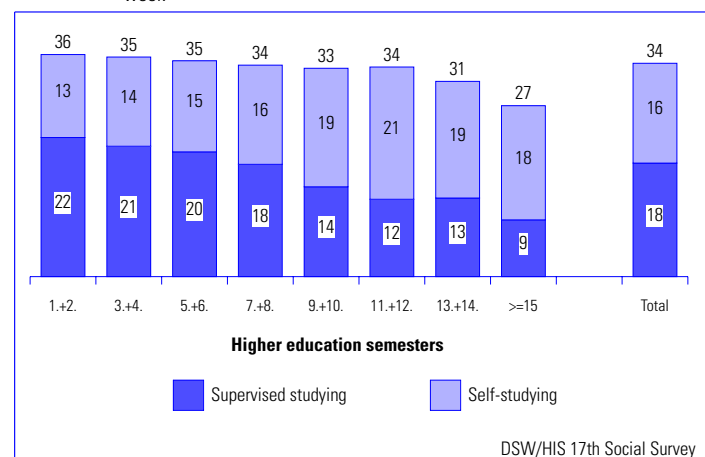


Fig. 8.2 Study-related time expenditure during the course of studies

Students in their first degree course, arithm. mean values in hours per week



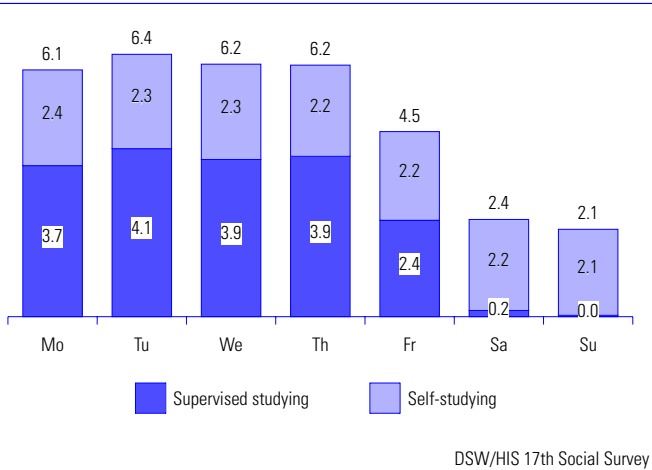
Subject

The expenditure for studying can vary considerably depending on the subject studied. The current findings again confirm that learning-intensive and highly structured subjects require higher investment of time than less structured ones. The former includes subjects such as medicine, biology and chemistry. The overproportionally high weekly curriculum of students of these subjects is firstly due to the high time requirement of visited lessons.

The study-related time investment by students for subjects such as social sciences, social services, education, language and cultural sciences is below the average expenditure.

Fig. 8.3 Time expenditure for studying during the course of the week

Students in their first degree course, arithm. mean values in hours per day



Time for Studies during the Course of the Week

During the semester week, the time for studies follows a characteristic course. On average, it amounts to more than six hours daily from Mondays to Thursdays. On Fridays it is considerably less than on other working days and is restricted to about two hours at weekends. This rhythm is firstly determined by the time investment for attending lessons, for, with more than two hours on all weekdays, the scope of self-study remains relatively constant. Even when exclusively looking at those who stated to visit lessons on individual days, the findings still confirm that the core time of a typical study week is from Monday to Thursday. On these days approximately 80% of all students attend lessons at the institution of higher education.

8.2 Time Expenditure for Employment

Type of Studies

Depending on the type of studies, the expenditure for employment is quite different as expected. On average, students in their first degree course work for one day during the semester week (7.5 hours). Students who are doing their doctorate and those who are in their second degree work twice as much (15.5 or 16.3 hours, respectively). Supplementary and further study courses are often in tandem with work. The time invested by these students in paid activities is correspondingly high (nearly 20 hours per week).

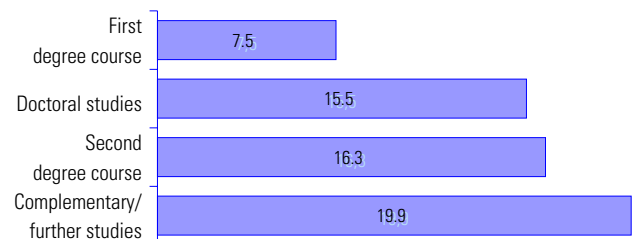
The number of hours that students in their first degree course work is quite varied. One sixth work up to four hours per week, a further quarter work between five and eight hours, and every fifth invests between nine and twelve hours in sideline jobs. Almost every sixth student comes close to part-time employment.

Type of Institution of Higher Education

The university students' time expenditure for employment does not significantly differ from that of students of universities of applied sciences. Judged by the scope of hours, students at universities of applied sciences work slightly more during the entire course of their studies. The different route of education of students of both universities could be a reason for this: students enrolled at universities of applied sciences often worked before commencing studies or have attended vocational training or a pre-study internship (cf. Ch. 1).

Fig. 8.4 Time expenditure for employment, by type of study course

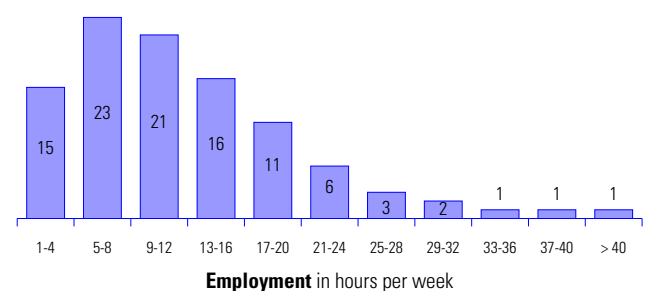
Arithm. mean values in hours per week



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Fig. 8.5 Students, by time expenditure for employment

Employed students in their first degree course, in %



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Course of Studies

During the course of the studies, the students continuously increase their time invested in paid activities that accompany their studies. Whilst they work only for about five hours per week on average during the first two semesters, this expenditure has nearly doubled by the end of the regular study period. Amongst other things, the reasons for this development can be found in the situation of students (e.g. type of accommodation, marital status, BAföG support (cf. Ch. 2, 5 and 10). They are also reflected in their motives to be employed while studying (cf. Ch. 9).

Fig. 8.6 Total expenditure for studying and employment, by type of study course

Mean values in hours per week

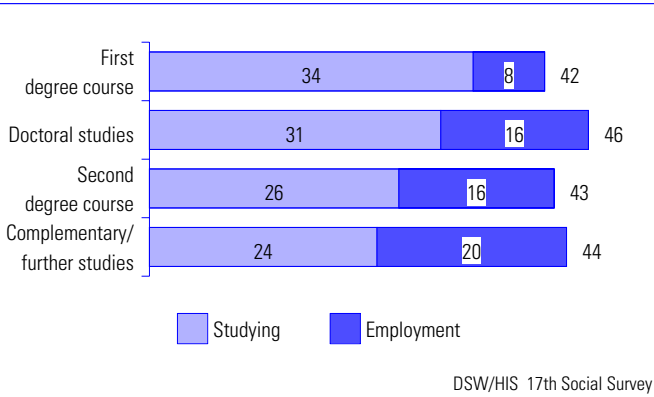
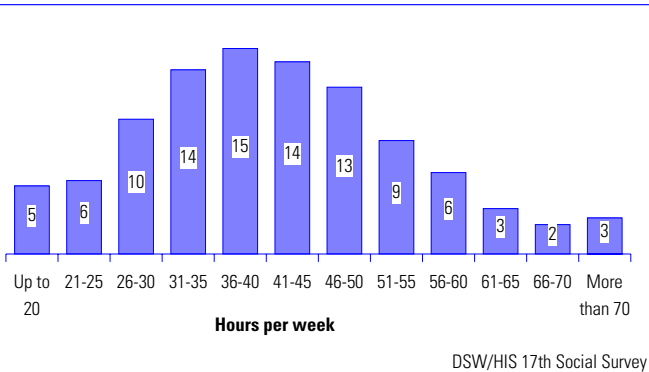


Fig. 8.7 Students, by total time burden due to studying and employment

Students in their first degree course, in %



8.3 Time Budget Resulting from Studying and Employment

In total, the students manage an average overall time burden of more than 40 hours per week for studying and working. With 42 weekly hours, students in their first degree course have the comparably lowest overall expenditure, whilst students doing their doctorate have the highest time burden at approx. 46 hours.

As already demonstrated for the individual activities, the total burden of studying and working is widely spread: every tenth student in his/her first degree course merely spends up to 25 hours on both activities. The working week of most students comprises between 31 and 45 hours (43%). More than every third (36%), however, exceeds this with 45 working hours per week. Nearly one quarter of all (23%) even manages a total workload of 50 hours per week.

Time Budget and Regional Characteristics

The difference between students in the new Länder and the old Länder continues to be that the first respectively have to work more for their studies (+2 hours/week) and invest less time in employment (-2 hours/week). These differences have remained constant since the last questioning three years ago.

When comparing the 16 Länder as well as selected sites of institutions of higher education, it can be seen that the overall budget is less spread than the distribution of time investment for studying or employment, so that the result is a tendency towards a relatively uniform weekly workload.

Time Budget and Social Origin

Looking at the time expenditure in a social-group-specific manner, it becomes clear that the group of origin gains importance for the time budget as the duration of the studies increases. More or less from the ninth semester in higher education the hours invested in studying and working differ considerably. The work expenditure of students from classes without a higher education background, for example, leaps upwards at this point in time whilst they reduce the scope of their studies considerably. Students who have well-educated parents, however, more or less keep their time expenditure for jobs constant and tend to invest more time than before in completing their studies.

After a certain number of semesters, the reasons for such different developments are the loss of sources of finance such as BAföG or parental support (cf. Ch. 5), which must be compensated for at the cost of study hours. Students of the “low” group of origin are unequally more often affected by this than students of the other groups of origin.

Relation between Study Time and Working Hours

Time invested in jobs is not only at the cost of studying, but to the same extent affects the remaining (spare) time.

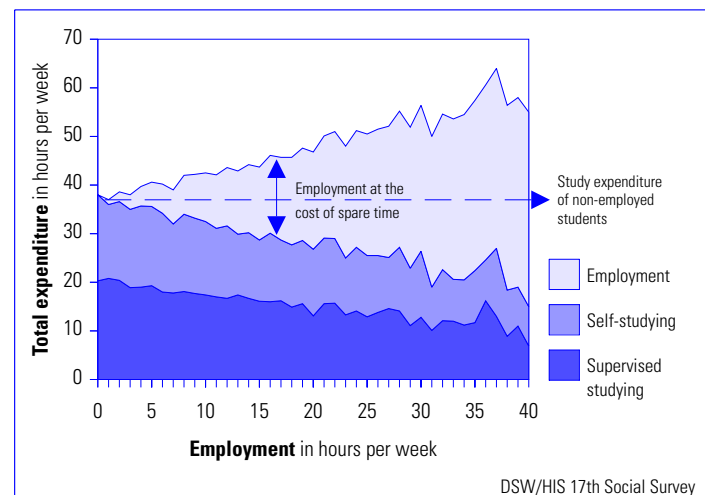
With every hour of working, the study expenditure is reduced by nearly half an hour on average. Compared with the findings of the 16th Social Survey, the reduction of time for studying through student jobs has decreased again after an increase could be noted over the previous years.

The time expenditure for visiting lessons or for individual study activities, however, is reduced by about 15 minutes for every additional hour of

employment. Fig. 8.8 illustrates the expansion in time of student employment in both directions: studying and spare time. The benchmark is in this case the average non-employed students' expenditure for studying.

Fig. 8.8 Employment and study expenditure

Students in their first degree course, mean values in hours per week



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For all subject groups, the growing influence of the increasing scope of employment during the course of studying can be shown in relation to the expenditure for study. This trend is particularly noticeable amongst students of social sciences. Students of medicine are a counter-example. Although they have the highest expenditure for studying within their subject groups, their cutbacks of studying time due to employment remains at a constant low level until the end of their studies. Apart from differences in the degree course structure and in the subject culture, the disparities within the demographic or social composition of the students of the individual subject groups can also be taken into consideration as reasons for these differences (cf. Ch. 2 and 4).

Full-Time Studies versus Part-Time Studies

Most students in their first degree course are studying full-time. However, a not insignificant percentage, which has increased over the past years, is de facto attending part-time studies without appropriate formal or organisational preconditions at the institution of higher education, as it is common in other countries (e.g. by means of appropriate study regulations). The series of examinations on hand has attempted to meet the requirements of this reality since 1991. Taking the expenditure for studying and working into account, a distinction is made between four types of study-employment composition:

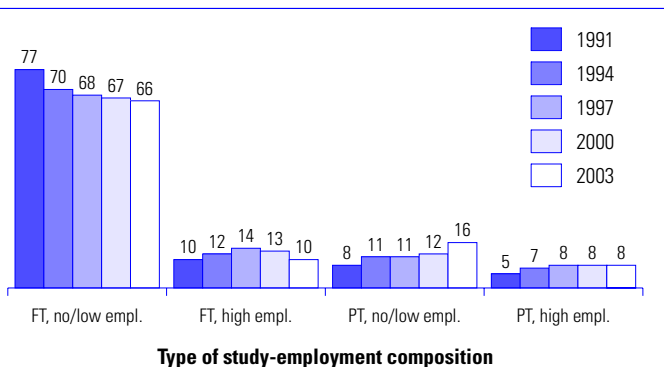
- I Full-time students (FT) without employment/with low employment load: study expenditure ≥ 25 hours per week and work expenditure ≤ 15 hours per week
- II Full-time students (FT) with high employment load: study expenditure ≥ 25 hours per week and work expenditure > 15 hours per week
- III Part-time students (PT) without employment/with low employment load: study expenditure < 25 hours per week and work expenditure ≤ 15 hours per week
- IV Part-time students (PT) with high employment load: study expenditure < 25 hours per week and work expenditure > 15 hours per week

According to this distinction, three quarters of students enrolled in their first degree course were full-time students in the 2003 summer semester. However, in reverse this also means that one quarter were de facto part-time students, i.e. their study expenditure was less than 25 hours per week.

In the old Länder, part-time studying is de facto more common than in the new Länder (26% vs. 19%). Such

Fig. 8.9 Development of the shares, by study-employment composition

Students in their first degree course, in %



part-time studying is less frequently found at universities of applied sciences than at universities (22% vs. 25%).

Course of Studies

More than four fifths of students in their basic studies are full-time students. Between the fifth and eighth semester (during the stage II studies) in higher education this share already drops to three quarters. After the end of the regular studying time more than 40% of enrolled students belong to the above-defined group of part-time students.

A course of studying with a share of part-time students that remains constant at 15-18% obviously exists from the beginning of the first degree course – not, it appears, because they have to extensively provide for their support by means of sideline employment.

Subject Groups

As expected, the share of full-time students in degree courses that are closely regulated is larger than in all other subjects. Medicine and social sciences are extreme examples of this. After all, 91% of medical students are attending full-time studies; however, this only applies to merely 64% of students of social sciences, social services, psychology and education.

Fig. 8.10 Type of study-employment composition, by subject groups

Students in their first degree course, in %

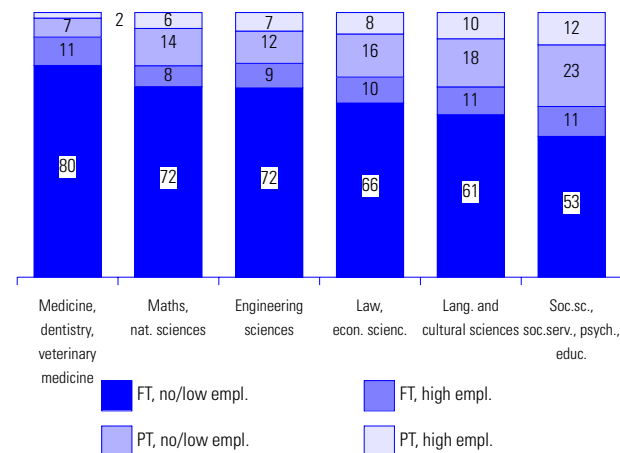
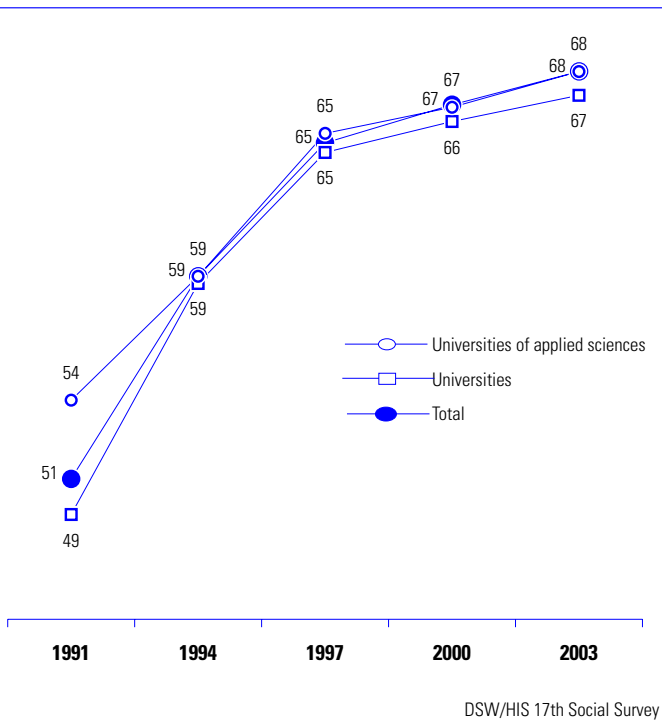


Fig. 9.1 Development of the employment quota during lecture times, by type of institution of higher education

In %



Student Employment

9.1 Employment Rate

In the 2003 summer semester, 68% of all students (first and second degree course) were performing activities that earned them money alongside their studies. In comparison to questioning three years ago, this share has increased by one percentage point. This confirms once again that the trend towards an increased employment rate amongst students has levelled since the end of the 1990s; nevertheless, the quotas remain at a high level.

Since the mid-1990s the share of employed university students is nearly as high as at universities of applied sciences (2003: 67% vs. 68%). In their first studies, employment is far less common than in postgraduate studies (66% vs. 82%).

Compared with the survey three years ago, the share of those who “continuously” work has considerably increased (+11 percentage points). The students’ self-assessment of the scope of employment (“occasionally”, “frequently” or “continuously”), however, is not related to a certain scope of studying. Judged by the hours worked and applied to all students, employment has slightly decreased. The weekly workload in total has dropped from 11 to 10 hours as it has done within the three groups, with which those questioned were able to outline their time expenditure for employment activities.

9.2 Factors that Influence Student Employment

Regional Aspects

In the 2003 summer semester 68% of students doing their first degree course in the old Länder had sideline jobs compared with 54% in the new Länder. The process of aligning the quota of employed persons in the new Länder to the old Länder seems to have at least stopped since 1997.

In both regions, the time invested in employment has decreased by one hour per week on average since 2000.

The employment rate varies considerably between the different Länder. The federal states of Hamburg and Bremen (75% each) are examples of overproportionally high quotas of employed students. The East German states of Thuringia (50%), Mecklenburg-Western Pomerania (52%) and Saxony (55%) are below the average.

Age

The number of students who are employed in addition to studying increases continuously in relation to their age. Nearly half of the youngest students earn money additionally, about two thirds of 23- to 24-year-olds work and even three quarters of 27-year-olds are employed.

The share of students who, according to their own judgement, are “continuously” employed also increases in proportion to their age and reaches a quota of 54% amongst the 30-year-olds.

Female students are nearly just as often employed as their male counterparts (66% vs. 65%). The share of female students who estimate their employment to be “continuous” is slightly higher than with male students (37% vs. 34%).

Fig. 9.2 Development of the employment quota, by region

Students in their first degree course, in %

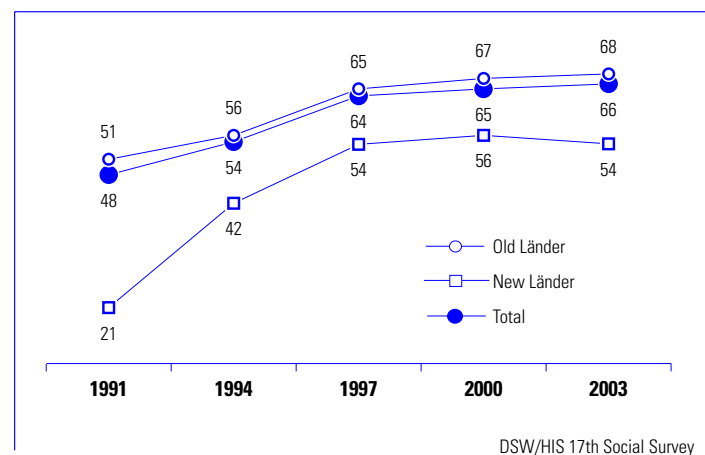


Fig. 9.3 Employment quota and share of continuously employed students, by age

Students in their first degree course, in %

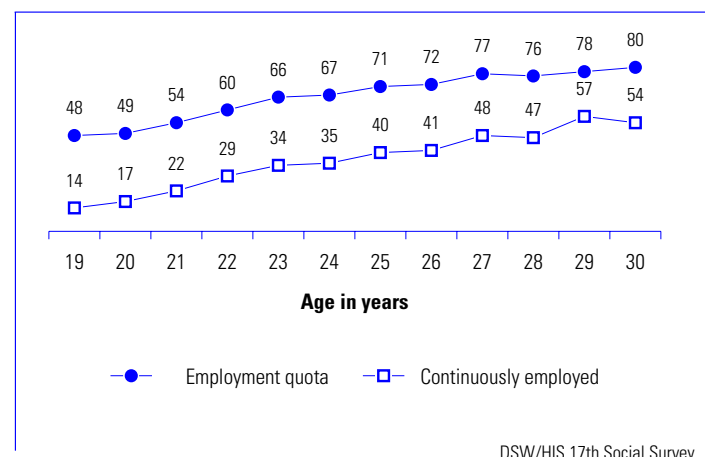
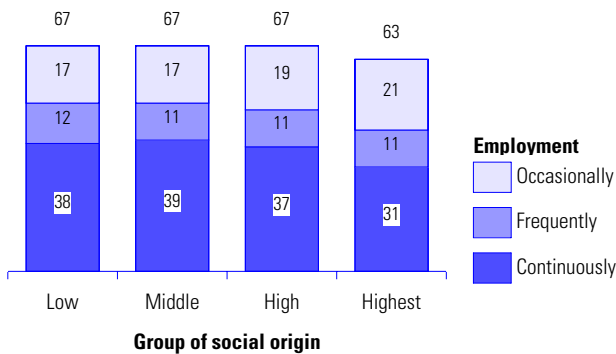


Fig. 9.4 Employment quota and regularity of employment, by social origin

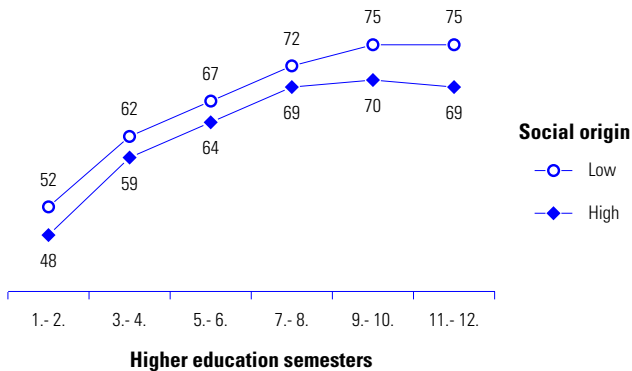
Students in their first degree course, in %



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Fig. 9.5 Employment quota of students of different social origins, by higher education semesters

Comparison of extreme groups, students in their first degree course, in %



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Social Origin

As with other characteristics (e.g. income, time budget, cf. Ch. 5 and 8), a substantial difference in connection with the social origin is also noticed between the “highest” group of origin on the one hand and the other three groups of origin on the other merely for the employment rate: 63% of students of the “highest” group of origin work compared to 67% of students of the other groups of origin who are employed. There are also differences regarding the regularity of the employment: those belonging to the “highest” group of origin tend to less frequently be “continuously” employed than students of the other three groups of origin.

These differences amongst the quota of employed exist since the beginning of the studies. The gap between the quotas remains more or less constant until the end of the regular study time or, during the maximum period of BAföG support. It increased after this.

Entrance to Higher Education and Course of Studies

The educational biography up to the beginning of the studies, the previous course of studies and the current study phase considerably influence the extent of student employment. This can be clearly seen in the quota of employed students as well as in the expenditure for employment.

Students who have a general higher education entrance qualification work comparatively less, for example, than those who have a subject-restricted higher education entrance qualification. Students who had already undergone vocational training before commencing their studies also work more often during their studies in comparison to those without a professional qualification. Discontinued studies are often related to comparatively high employment rates or high time expenditure for work. With the duration of studying, the share of students who earn money whilst studying increases just as continuously as the required weekly hours.

Type of Institution of Higher Education and Subject Groups

Whilst the employment rates referring to all students of both types of institutions of higher education hardly differ (cf. Ch. 9.1), the following must be noted when referring to the students in their first degree course: the employment rate of students at universities of applied sciences is 3 percentage points higher than that of university students (68% vs. 65%).

Referring to the employment rate, the subject groups of medicine, biology/chemistry or law are far below the average – considering the tendency, these are mostly subjects that are heavily regulated and have a high workload. An overproportionally high employment quota can be found amongst students who are enrolled in subjects such as education, social sciences/social services, art and art studies or language and cultural studies.

Fig. 9.6 Employment quota, by subject groups and type of institution of higher education

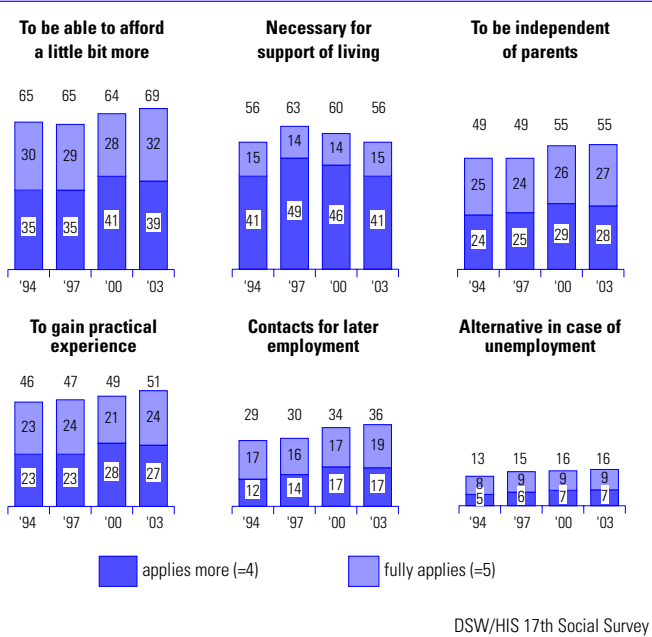
Students in their first degree course, in %

Groups of subjects	University	UoAS	Total
Medicine, dentistry, veterinary medicine	50	-	50
Biology, chemistry	52	56	53
Law	58	61	58
Electrical engineering	60	60	60
Mechanical engineering	59	64	62
Agriculture	66	58	62
Mathematics, computer sciences	64	63	63
Earth sciences, physics	64	70	64
Architecture, structural engineering	66	69	68
Economics	66	71	68
Psychology	70	55	70
Language and cultural sciences	72	57	72
Arts, art studies	73	72	73
Social sciences, social services	72	77	74
Education	75	75	75
Total	65	68	66

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Fig. 9.7 Employment motives from 1994 – 2003

Evaluation scale from 1 = not applicable to 5 = fully applicable, students in their first degree course, in %



9.3 Motives of Student Employment

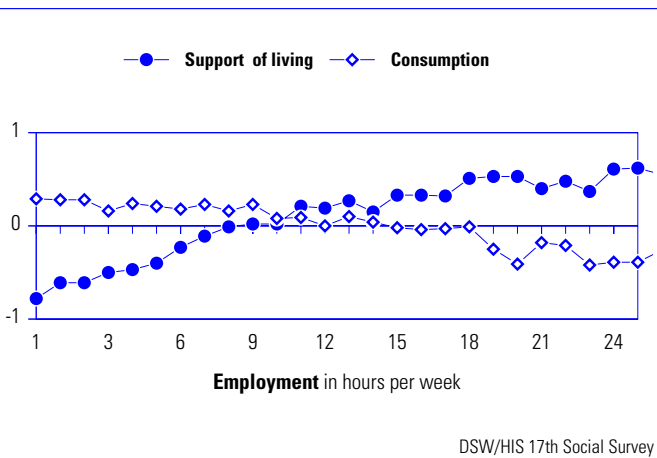
Individual Motives

More than 70% of students work whilst studying because they want to be able to afford more. According to their personal judgement, this source of income is regarded as absolutely essential for supporting their living by more than half of students (56% pos. 4+5). Students work nearly just as often because they want to be financially independent of their parents.

The most common goal for jobs geared towards future employment is to gain practical experience that might be of use in later working life (51% pos. 4+5). Every third student tries to establish contacts at work for his/her future employment. Only relatively few regard their employment as preparation for an alternative, possibly degree-independent employment.

Fig. 9.8 Correlation between the level of employment motives and expenditure

Students in their first degree course, mean value of the factor values



Main Dimensions of the Motive of Employment

The examined reasons for student employment are condensed by means of a factor analysis. According to this, there are three considerable dimensions that are the basis for working whilst studying. These factors are described as “practice”, “livelihood” and “consumption”.

Motives for Employment and Time Expenditure/Amount of Income

The reasons for which students mainly work are important for the extent of time working and the income earned. If the main motive of the students is “consumption”, they usually invest a maximum of ten

Economic and Social Conditions of Student Life in Germany 2003

hours per week in a job.⁴ “So I can afford a little bit more” obviously refers to additional income to meet desires that exceed the in principle secured basic requirement of living. This motive is decisive for monthly earnings of approx. €250.

The tendency of those who work whilst studying because their living has to be supported by their earnings amounts to at least ten working hours per week at earnings of €300 or more.

The “practice” motive is in no demonstrable relation to the scope of hours worked or the individual income level.

Motivation of Employment and Age

The age of the students is also an important factor for their motives to work alongside their studies. The “consumption” motive is predominant up to an age of about 25 years. Practical experience or support of living are no typical motivational grounds for their employment activities. At the end of their twenties, however, the “livelihood” motive increasingly moves to the foreground. Additional “consumption” is then hardly a reason for working whilst studying.

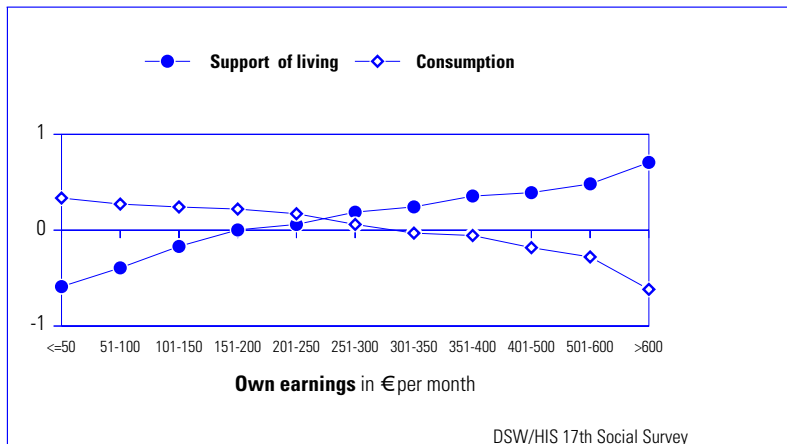
Gender and Marital Status

In general, students have different motives for earning money whilst studying. Reasons of consumption seem to outweigh amongst women, whilst the additional income for living and the practical orientation seems to be more pronounced amongst the men. However, these

⁴ The findings illustrated in fig. 9.8 to 9.10 which present the factor values have to be interpreted in such a way that the positive numbers (factor values) represent an approval or that the motive dimension is applicable. The approval increases as the displayed value increases. Negative factor values represent non-approval or rejection of the listed motive dimension.

Fig. 9.9 Correlation between the motives of employment and the amount of personal earnings

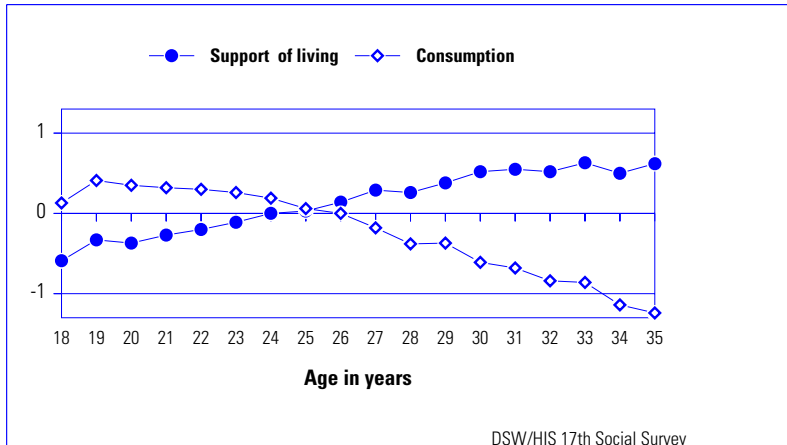
Students in their first degree course, mean values of the factor values



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Fig. 9.10 Correlation between the motives of employment and the age of students

Students in their first degree course, mean values of the factor values



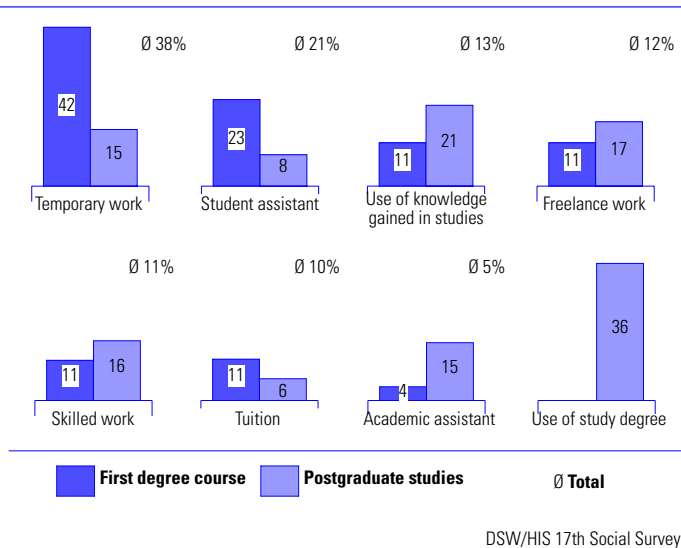
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differences are less dependent on the gender, but depend far more on the age difference: women in their first degree course are on average younger than men (cf. Ch. 2), and the “consumption” motive plays a more important role amongst the younger age groups – as shown above. In addition, young women can obviously rely on a far higher potential of financial support from their parents or partners than men (cf. Ch. 5).

Married students and students with children deny the motive of (additional) “consumption”. They earn money whilst studying because they have to contribute more to their own living than students without a partner or children.

Fig. 9.11 Type of employment, by type of studies

Employed students, in %



Social Origin and Motivation to Work

As already explained, the share of employed students, their time expenditure for work and the amount of their income are closely related to their group of social origin (cf. Ch. 5, Ch. 8 and Section 9.2.4). The “lower” the social origin is or the poorer the educational background is respectively, the more importance is

placed on the “livelihood” motive. In contrast, the “consumption” motive is even greater as the social origin of the students “increases”. The situation of the more practically-orientated reasons for student employment is similar. These reasons are more common as the level of the social origin increases.

9.4 Types of Jobs

Students have quite varied jobs. These range from simple activities that require no previous experience to highly skilled work which requires knowledge gained by studying. Traditionally, the most common jobs, however, involve temporary activities: waiters, taxi drivers, sales jobs and office assistants. Well more than one third (38%) of the named jobs could be characterised as temporary. Students in their first degree course in particular accept such jobs. Student assistants are the second most important activities. At least every tenth student in his/her first degree course can make use of knowledge gained by studying to earn money.

Of course, the share of postgraduate students whose work is closely related to their studies (degrees) is considerably higher than during the first studies.

9.5 Financial Return of the Jobs

On average, students earn about €10 net per hour. Hourly wages, however, vary considerably, e.g. €1 for helping in agricultural operations of the parents through to €99 for freelance work. Students doing freelance work or who are self-employed earn the most. The more an activity is linked to a certain qualification, e.g. an acquired vocational qualification or degree, the higher the remuneration tends to be. Internships are the lowest paid jobs – a finding that has been proven for years.

10

Students with Children

About 6% of German students have own children. The larger proportion of these students (58%) has one child, the smaller share has two and more (42%). In the following, this group is referred to in general as “with children”.

The share of students with children has remained relatively constant for several years. When distinguishing between men and women, it can also be noted that after several years the share of mothers is slightly higher amongst students than that of fathers (2003: 7% vs. 6%).

Students with children are confronted with a number of additional problems that can directly affect the course of their studies, as they have to reconcile the demands of studying, children and often employment.

10.1 Key Characteristics

Age

As expected, the proportion of students with children increases as they become older. Whilst the share amongst those up to 24 years of age is still below 2%, it increases to nearly 10% amongst 29-year olds. The share of students with children amongst those in their mid-30s is more than 30%.

On average, students with children are about 10 years older than those without. The average age of those with children is about 34, whilst the age of students without is about 25. As men are generally slightly older when their first child is born, the average age of the fathers is slightly higher than that of mothers. The large heterogeneity of the age of the group of students with children must also not be overlooked, as this – in comparison to students without children – is

Fig. 10.1 Proportions of students with children, by age groups

In %

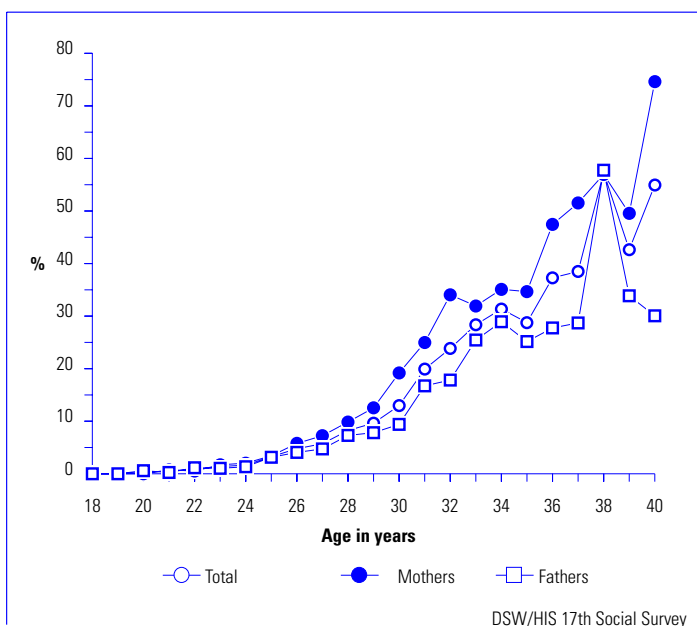
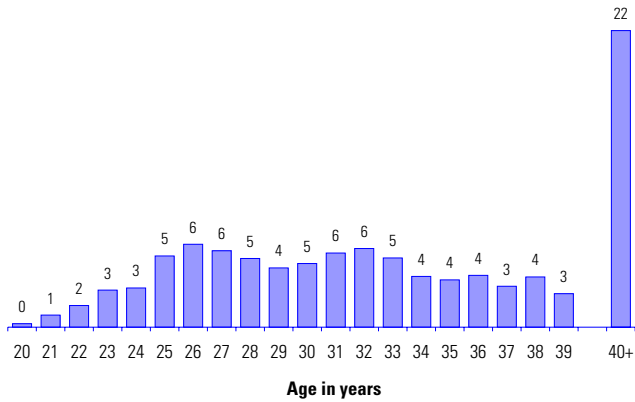


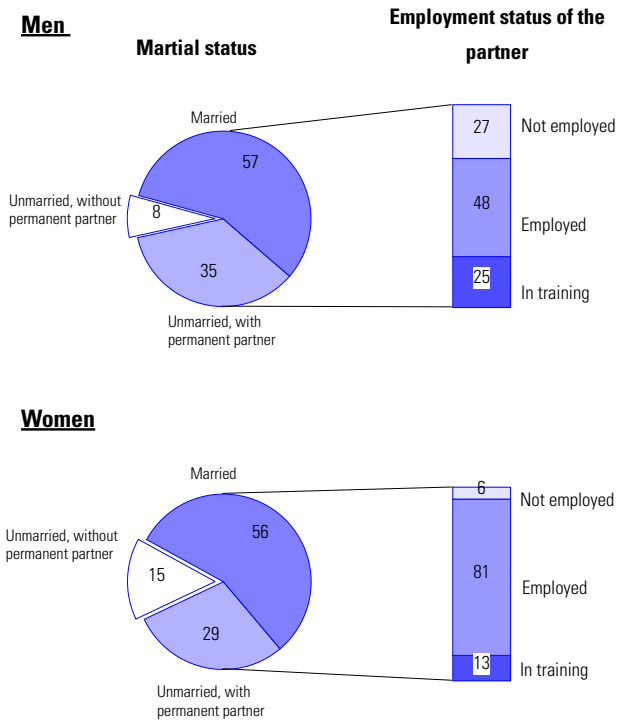
Fig. 10.2 Age composition of students with children
In %



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expressed by a standard deviation of the age distribution which is more than double (10 years vs. 4 years). The higher average age is caused by a delay in starting studying and a longer period of remaining enrolled at institutions of higher education.

Fig. 10.3 Marital status and activity of the partner
Students with children, in %



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Marital Status

Compared to students without children, student parents are only rarely not in a permanent relationship (mothers: 15%, fathers: 8%). The majority are married: 57% of fathers and 56% of mothers are married. However, it should not be overlooked that this rate has declined over a long-term. 35% of male students with children are not married, but they have a permanent partner. The corresponding value of female students with children is 29%.

In comparison to students without children, the very high rate of working partners is remarkable. For female students with children this amounts to 81%, and to 48% for male students with children.

Age of the Children

As the age of the children allows to draw conclusions about the need for childcare, it is worth taking a look at the distribution of students with children according to the age of the youngest or only child.

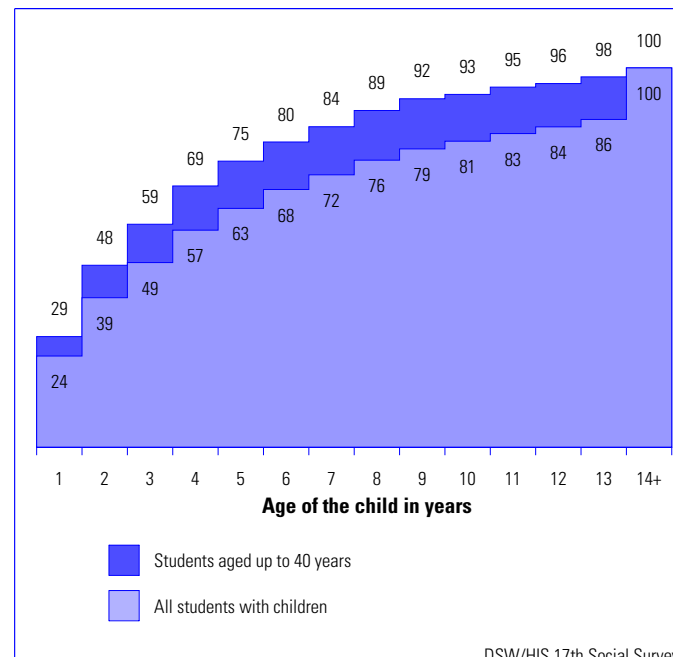
If only students “with children” who themselves are not older than 40 are taken into consideration, it is shown that 59% of the children are up to 3 years of age, 80% of children are up to 6 years, and 96% of children are up to 12 years old.

Childcare

Most children up to the age of 12 (43%) are cared for by third parties (e.g. child-minders, nursery schools, school). The share of children who are cared for by their partner is slightly lower (39%). Relatives or friends of the students often help, too. About 15% of the students with children take advantage of this possibility. Only around 2% also look after their child by themselves even although they have to take care of their studies.

Fig. 10.4 Accumulated distribution of frequency, by age of the youngest or only child

Students with children, in %



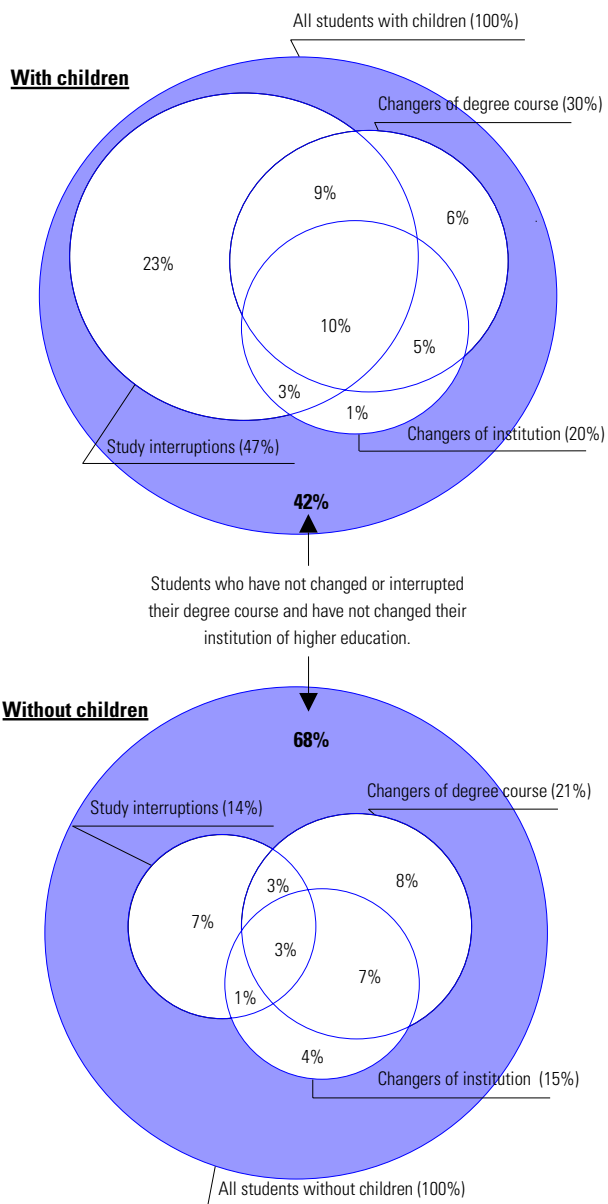
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10.2 Course of Studies of Students with Children

Students with children are represented at an overproportional rate amongst postgraduate degree courses. Whilst 92% of students without children are in their first degree course, this only applies to 72% of students with children.

Fig. 10.5 Change of degree course, study interruption and change of institution for students with and without children

Students in their first degree course, in %



Deviation from the sum of the individual values due to rounding errors.

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There are also considerable differences between the subject groups chosen by the students. Students with children are thus particularly often enrolled in the social sciences, social services, psychology and education subject groups (without children: 14%, with children: 29%). In comparison to students without children, fathers are also represented overproportionally in language and cultural sciences (without children: 15%, with children: 21%).

The course of studies of students with children is often more problematic and more often interrupted than that of students without children. Whilst slightly more than two thirds of students without children have so far neither interrupted their studies nor have changed their degree courses and/or their institution of higher education, the corresponding share of students with children is 42% – amongst the women, the share is slightly higher than one third, and about half amongst the fathers.

Obviously, the greatest differences are between the quotas of students who interrupted their studies: 14% of childless students, but 47% of students with children have already interrupted their studies. The fact that about half the childless students as well as students with children who have interrupted their studies have also changed their degree course and/or their institution of higher education shows that this is often not only an interruption due to pregnancy or bringing up children.

30% of students with children have changed their degree course, and 20% have changed their institution of higher education. The quotas here are also higher than amongst students without children (21% or 15%, respectively). However, changes of degree course and institution of higher education, unlike study interruptions, cannot be put down to the fact that students have children. In fact, students with children can more often be found in subjects where a change of degree course or institution is particularly likely.

Reasons for Study Interruptions

The special circumstances of students with children are reflected by the reasons for study interruptions, whereby there are also considerable differences between male and female students. 88% of mothers named pregnancy or child upbringing as reasons for interrupting their studies. These are also the reasons given most often by fathers (50%), but generally far less often than by mothers. In contrast to students without children, fathers particularly often state employment (39% vs. 29%) and financial problems (33% vs. 24%) as reasons for interrupting studies.

Fig. 10.6 Reasons for interrupting studies, by gender

Students in their first degree course, in %

	Total		Women		Men	
	Without children	With children	Without children	With children	Without children	With children
Quotas of interrupting persons	14	47	13	56	14	34
Reasons for interruption*						
Doubts on point of studies	31	17	33	14	30	24
To gain other experience	28	9	30	5	26	16
Employment	26	22	22	14	29	39
Financial difficulties	21	18	18	11	24	33
Health problems	20	11	23	11	18	11
Family problems	14	17	14	13	13	24
Pregnancy/child upbringing	0	76	0	88	0	50
Military or alternative community service	4	3	0	0	7	10
Other reasons	24	8	25	6	23	13

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* Multiple nominations possible

10.3 Significance of Studies

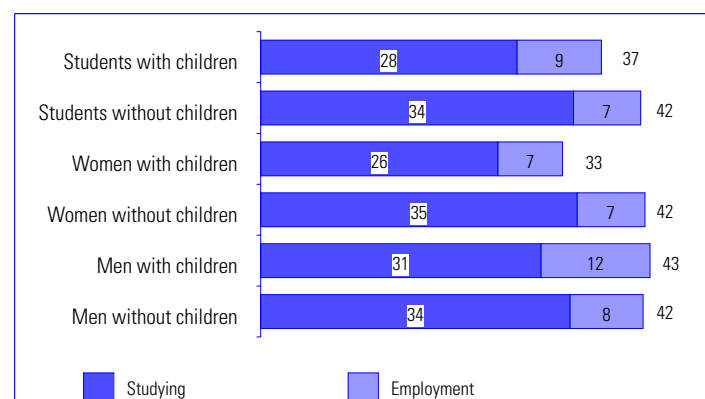
Time Budget

The additional burden of students with children is also reflected in their time budgets. At 28 hours per week, they invest 6 hours less in their studies than childless students. This time, however, is not only for the benefit of the children, but is required for longer weekly working hours – by fathers in particular.

Last but not least, the striking differences between the time budgets of fathers and mothers are an expression of the traditional distribution of roles between men and women, where the fathers have to look after the income and the mothers have to take care of the children. Fathers can spend 5 hours more on their studies than mothers, but also require 5 hours more for working than mothers.

Fig. 10.7 Time budgets in comparison for students with and without children

Students in their first degree course, in hours per week



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Types of Study-Employment Composition

47% of the studying mothers are de facto part-time students. At 37%, the corresponding share of fathers is considerably lower, but also far higher than amongst childless students (24%).

Fathers can be allocated to the categories of part-time students with a high employment burden far more often than mothers (22% vs. 11%) or full-time students with high employment (13% vs. 7%).

In comparison to 2000, however, the share of part-time students with a high employment burden dropped by 2 percentage points, and the share of full-time students dropped by 9 percentage points.

Significance of Studies: Subjective Judgement

As expected, students with children often consider their studies to be of a lower significance than childless students do. The studies are the centre of attention for 20% of mothers and 33% of fathers; but for 49% of students without children. More than half of the mothers (54%) and slightly less than half of the fathers (46%) consider their studies to be as equally important as other activities and interests outside of the institution of higher education. Studies are only of minor importance to approx. a quarter of mothers and a fifth of fathers.

10.4 Economic Situation

In order to roughly take into account the heterogeneity of the group of students with children, the economic situation of married and unmarried students with children who do not live at their parents' home is examined separately.

Unmarried students with children have a higher monthly income than unmarried students without children. This applies to male students (€905 vs. €778) as for female students for whom the difference is particularly high (€1018 vs. €746). Amongst other things, the reason why female students with children have the highest income within the group of unmarried students is that they receive benefits for their children more often than fathers.

Married students with children also have higher monthly incomes, whereas the difference amongst the men is not significant.

The differences of the income structure are more obvious than the differences of the amount of income: unmarried students with children receive a far lower share of their income from their parents. Mothers far

Fig. 10.8 Composition of monthly income

Students in their first degree course who do not live with their parents, in %

Source of funds	With children	Without children	With children	Without children
	<i>Unmarried women</i>		<i>Unmarried men</i>	
Parents	13	41	20	40
Non-cash support by parents or partner	10	12	10	10
Partner	8	1	3	0
BAföG	13	14	13	12
Earnings	23	25	40	29
Other sources*	32	7	13	9
	<i>Married women</i>		<i>Married men</i>	
Parents	3	12	8	12
Non-cash support by parents or partner	36	33	16	21
Partner	27	16	9	11
BAföG	6	7	6	8
Earnings	20	27	38	41
Other sources*	9	5	23	7

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* Includes amongst other things support and social services for students and/or their children.

more often earn the largest part of their income from the so-called other sources (32%), which often includes benefits for their children. In contrast, for students with children their own earnings are the most important source of income (40%).

11

Accommodation Situation

11.1 Used Types of Accommodation

Most students live in their own dwelling (usually a rented flat). About 23% live in a flat by themselves and 20% share the flat with a partner. About 22% each of students live with their parents or in shared accommodation. 12% of students live in a hall of residence. Merely 2% of students still live as subtenants.

Since 2000 the share of students who live in a rented flat alone or with a partner has increased by 3 percentage points in total. On the other hand, the share of students who live in a hall of residence has dropped by just about 3 percentage points. The most important reasons for this development are an increased number of students and a slightly decreased availability of space in residences, as well as an increased number of foreign students who live in residences. Whilst 38% of all foreign students without German education lived in a hall of residence in 1997, the figure has now increased to nearly 44%.

11.2 Influencing Factors when Choosing the Type of Accommodation

Age

As the age of students increases, they tend to prefer self-determined types of accommodation. They are more capable of paying the higher costs of these types of accommodation than younger students due to their

Fig. 11.1 Students, by type of accommodation
In %

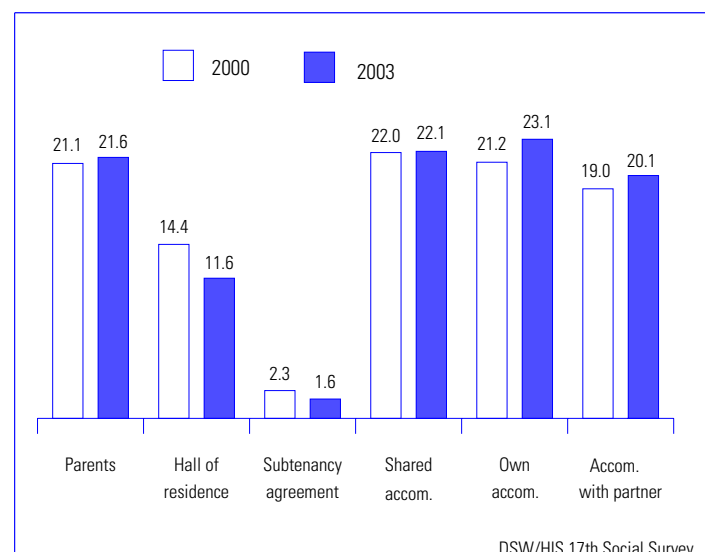
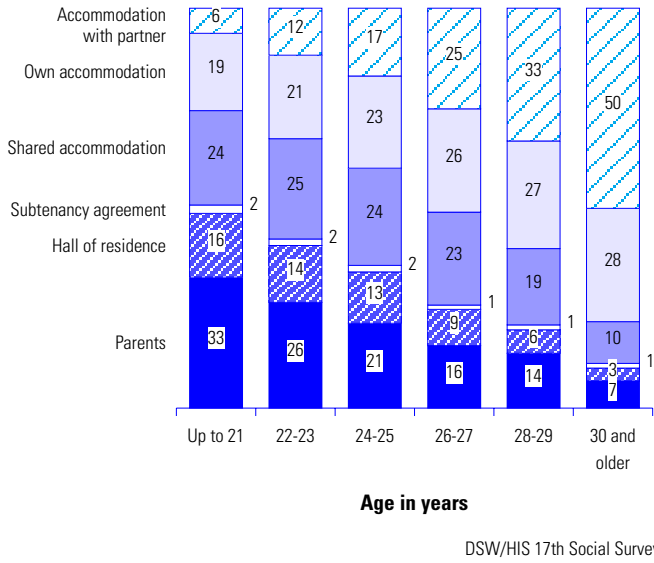


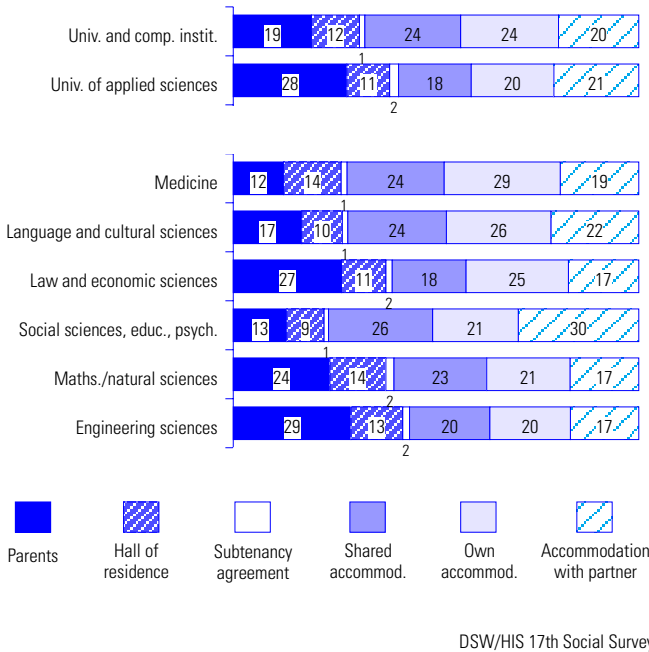
Fig. 11.2 Students, by type of accommodation per age group
In %



higher additional income. Therefore, the shares of students who live in their own dwelling increase in relation to their age. The shares of those who live in their parents' house, however, are the opposite: they drop as the age rises.

In comparison to 2000, changes amongst the two youngest age groups are particularly apparent. There are fewer places available in residences because more new students are coming to the institutions of higher education than are leaving due to the increase of first-year students' figures. The shares of students who live in residences therefore have dropped overproportionally in the group of up to 21-year-olds (by 8 percentage points), and in the group of ages 22-23 (by 5 percentage points). The share of this age group who live in their own flat has risen in particular (by 3 or 7 percentage points, respectively).

Fig. 11.3 Students, by type of accommodation per type of institution of higher education and subject group
In %



Regional Aspects

Excluding Berlin, students in the new Länder live in their own flat far less often than students in the old Länder (35% vs. 44%), or with their parents (18% vs. 23%). Instead, they more often live in halls of residence (17% vs. 11%) or in shared accommodation (29% vs. 21%).

Type of Institution of Higher Education and Subject Groups

Students of universities of applied sciences more often live with their parents than students of universities (28% vs. 19%). One of the major reasons assumed for this development is the more regional presence of universities of applied sciences, which allows students to study within close proximity of their parents' home.

The most obvious differences when distinguishing between subject groups are the different shares of those living at their parents' home, which are smallest amongst students of medicine and largest amongst engineering sciences.

Gender and Marital Status

Women less often live with their parents than men (18% vs. 25%). Instead, they more often share a flat with a partner (23% vs. 17%) and slightly more often live in shared accommodation (23% vs. 21%).

Since 2000 the share of students who live in a hall of residence has dropped from 14% to 11% for women and from 15% to 12% for men. Whilst men live in their own home more often compared to 2000 (2000: 21%, 2003: 24%), the share of women who live in their own accommodation has increased, as well as the proportion of those who live with their partners (each: 2000: 21%, 2003: 23%).

Social Origin and Amount of Monthly Income

Correlations can also be noticed between the social origin and the used type of accommodation, which cannot be explained only by the specific age structure of the group of origin. The higher the social origin of the students, the less often they live with their parents (lowest group of origin: 25%, highest group of origin: 18%), and the more often they live in shared accommodation (17% vs. 26%). The share of students who live in a hall of residence, however, is about of the same size for all groups.

Furthermore, the dependency of the type of accommodation on the amount of income can be proven by means of the "normal students" reference group (unmarried, not living with their parents, in their first degree course). Of the quarter of students with the lowest income, only 33% live alone or with a partner in their own flat. The corresponding share of the quarter of students with the highest income is 69%. The correlation between the amount of income and the used type of accommodation is represented by all age groups, whereas it must be noticed that the strength of the correlation declines as the age increases.

Fig. 11.4 Students, by type of accommodation and amount of monthly income – income quartiles

"Normal student" reference group, in %

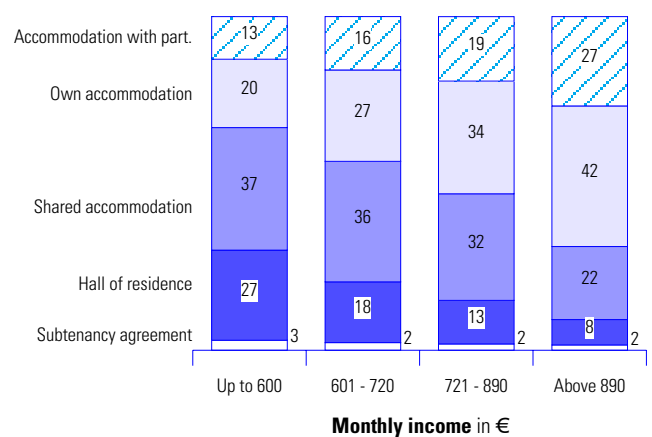


Fig. 11.5 Satisfaction with the current accommodation situation
Students per type of accommodation, in %

Type of accommodation	Very satisfied	Satisfied	Undecided	Dissatisf.	Very dissatisfied
Parents	18	32	28	14	7
Hall of residence	16	37	26	15	7
Subtenancy agreement	16	33	28	17	5
Shared accommodation	26	37	19	11	7
Own accommodation	29	36	16	11	8
Accommodation with partner	38	30	14	8	10
Total	26	34	20	12	8

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Fig. 11.6 Agreement of actual and preferred type of accommodation
Students per type of accommodation, in %

Actual type of accommodation	Preferred type of accommodation						Total
	Parents	Hall of residence	Subten. agreem.	Shared accomm.	Own accomm.	Accomm. with partner	
Parents	26	9	1	16	29	20	100
Hall of residence	3	46	0	21	19	12	100
Subtenancy agreement	5	12	20	19	26	18	100
Shared accommodation	1	3	0	69	16	10	100
Own accommodation	2	3	0	8	70	16	100
Accommodation with partner	0	1	0	1	2	95	100
Total	7	9	1	24	29	29	100

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11.3 Satisfaction with the Current Accommodation Situation and Preferences

Six of ten students are (very) satisfied with their living situation. However, only two of ten students describe themselves as unsatisfied or even very unsatisfied.

Regarding the used type of accommodation, students who live together with their partner seem to be the most satisfied. The respective shares amongst students who live alone or in shared accommodation are not substantially lower. Students who live as subtenants, with their parents or in a residence, however, are rarely (very) satisfied.

If it were to be judged only by the preferences of the students, 29% would live alone or with a partner in a flat, 24% would choose shared accommodation, 9% would choose a hall of residence, and only 7% would live with their parents.

The agreement of the used type of accommodation with the living preference can be used as an indicator of the satisfaction with living. The greatest agreement can be found amongst students who live in a flat together with their partner. The used type of accommodation is also the preferred type for 95% of them. 69% of students who live in shared accommodation and 70% who live in a flat prefer their used type of accommodation. For nearly half of students who live in residences (46%), the desired living preference and living choice are in agreement with each other. The degree of agreement is even lower amongst those who live with their parents (26%) and who are subtenants (20%).

Advantages and disadvantages of the individual types of living become apparent in the evaluation of the different individual aspects. Thus, 73% or 74% respectively of students who live in their own flat find their living space to be large enough, whilst this only applies to 44% of students who live in residences. On the other hand, short routes between the institution of higher education and the residences prove to be their major advantage. Considerably fewer students in all other types of accommodation confirm a convenient location, whereas those who live with their parents accept long travel.

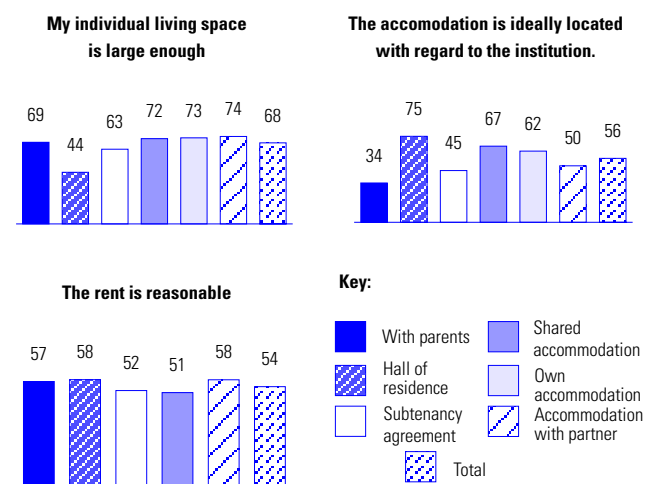
When judging the amount of rent, there are only comparatively few differences between the individual types of living. Students who share a flat with a partner or who live in a residence or as subtenants generally give a more positive opinion than students who live in shared accommodation or live in a flat by themselves.

The relative importance of the individual aspects for the students' satisfaction of living can be reconstructed with the help of a regression analysis. According to this, the size of the individual area of living has the greatest influence on total satisfaction. The amount of rent is of slightly less importance, and the distance of the accommodation from the institution of higher education is of least importance.

This ranking helps to understand the comparatively low overall satisfaction of the students who live in a residence, although they consider aspects that are of outstanding importance to the overall satisfaction to be negative, whilst those regarded as more positive only play a subordinate role.

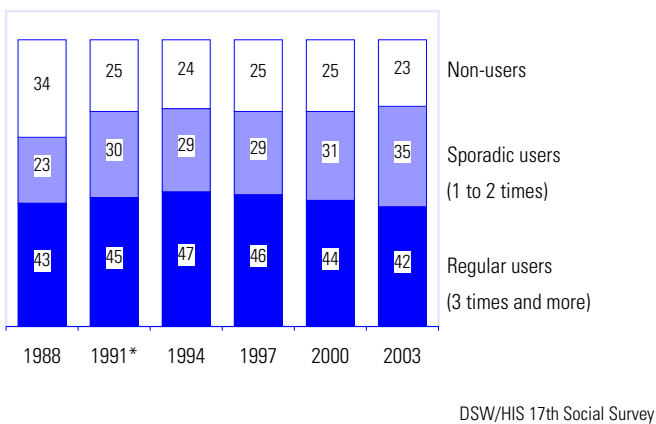
Fig. 11.7 Agreement with individual aspects of the living situation

Proportion of agreeing students (scale values 4+5) per type of accommodation, in %



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Fig. 12.1 Students, by frequency of refectory visits per week
In %



* Including the new Länder from 1991

Diet and Refectory Services

The total share of students who visit the refectory or cafeteria for lunch is 77% (2000: 75%). Distinguished according to the frequency of visiting the refectory, the share of sporadic users of the refectory (one to two meals per week at the refectory/cafeteria) has increased to 35% (2000: 31%), whilst the share of the regular guests to the refectory (three and more meals per week at the refectory/cafeteria) has dropped to 42% (2000: 44%).

Male students are considerably more often regular guests at the refectory than female students (50% vs. 32%). However, a considerably higher share of female students are sporadic users of the refectory than male students (41% vs. 30%).

When judging the refectory services, the shares of students who evaluate the following aspects as good or very good has slightly increased in comparison to 2000: selection and combination possibilities (from 50% to 52%), taste (from 36% to 39%), nutritional quality/healthiness (31% to 33%), and atmosphere/room design (from 31% to 33%). Merely the value for money is judged to be good or very good by a considerably lower share of the students than in 2000 (54% vs. 63%).

13

Demand for Counselling and Information

The respective requirements of the students during the last 12 months were determined by means of a predefined catalogue of nine major fields for which a demand for information or counselling could develop during the studies.

13.1 Areas in which Students Required Information and Counselling

Students most often require counselling and information on financial or health insurance issues. One quarter each of those interviewed required information on health insurance or on financing their studies or financing a study-related stay abroad. Nearly one fifth were bothered by problems related to employment whilst studying.

It is known from the social surveys of the past years that the share of handicapped students is about 2% and that about one tenth have a chronic illness. However, this area is less often mentioned as relevant for counselling.

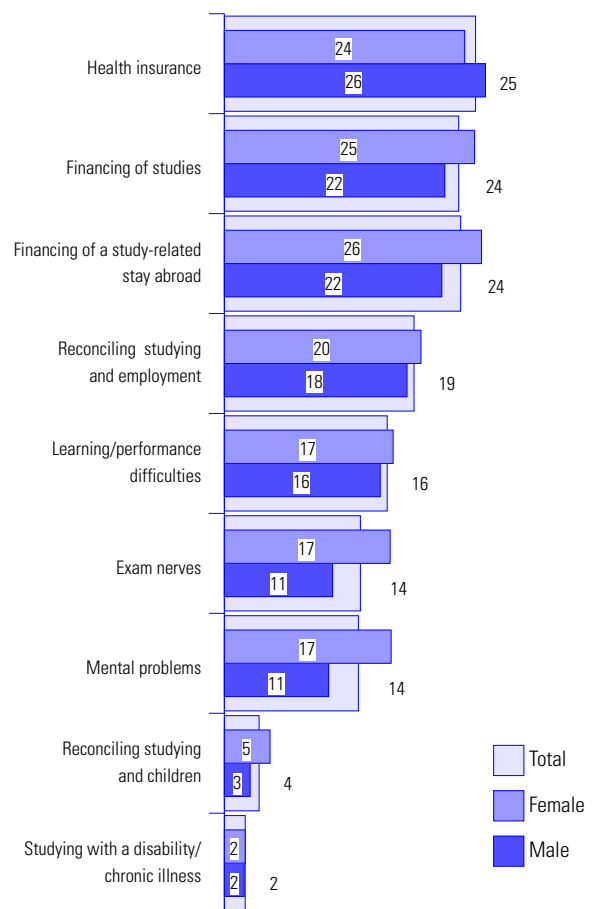
Gender

Judged by the order of rank of the areas of counselling, men and women have very similar demands whilst studying. Merely health insurance issues are more common amongst men because they are on average slightly older than their fellow female students and are more likely to reach the age limit for family insurance or insurance at student rates.

Due to the women's greater interest in study-related stays abroad, which, in the end, correlates with the gender-specific choice of subject (cf. Ch. 2), female students more often required counselling and information on this.

Fig. 13.1 Counselling and information demand, by gender

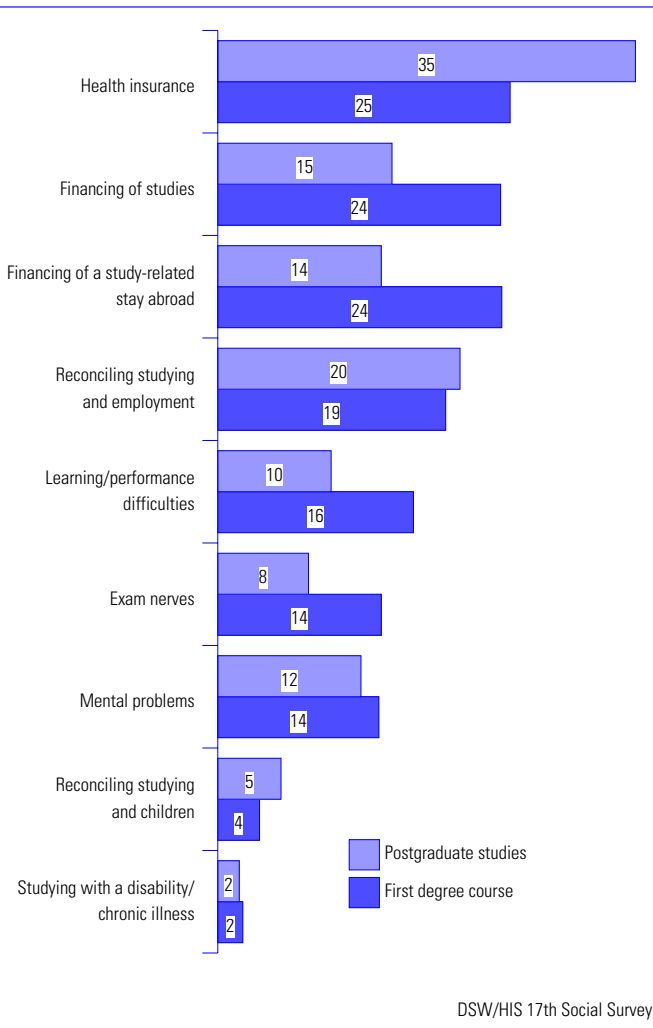
Students in their first degree course, in %



Type of Studies

Compared to postgraduate degree courses, issues of financing the studies or study-related stays abroad are to the fore for first degree courses, as are issues of learning/difficulties with learning and exam nerves.

Fig 13.2 Counselling and information demand, by type of studies
In %, multiple nominations



Study Phase

During the course of the first degree, the demand for information and counselling changes in a typical way. At the beginning there are issues of study financing to the fore. Between the 3rd and 6th semester there is the highest interest in how to finance a stay abroad. Towards the end of the degree course or from the 9th semester, respectively, the demand for information on health insurance increases. Students with 13 semesters or more have a higher demand for advice on learning and performance difficulties, on reconciling studying and employment, mental problems and exam nerves than students who are within the regular schedule.

Students of different subject groups generally enquire about the same problems at a comparably high level. However, in so far as there are still differences between them regarding the extent and structure of the demand for counselling and information, this is usually in connection with the characteristics such as study length, the share of study-related stays abroad and the different social composition.

It is obvious but not surprising that the great interest in enquiries on stays abroad can be found amongst students of language and cultural sciences (cf. Ch. 2). Only students of medicine are similarly interested in doing part of their studying abroad.

Social Origin

The demand for counselling and information is closely related to the social origin of the students: students of the "low" group of origin state that they enquired twice as often about financing their studies than those of the "highest" group of origin (33% vs. 17%). The more unfavourable the financial conditions of origin are, the more enquiries are also made in most of the other fields. The issue of studying abroad is an exception, as this seems to become more relevant the better the economic situation of the family of origin is.

Fig. 13.3 Counselling and information demand during the course of studying, by number of semesters

Students in their first degree course, in %

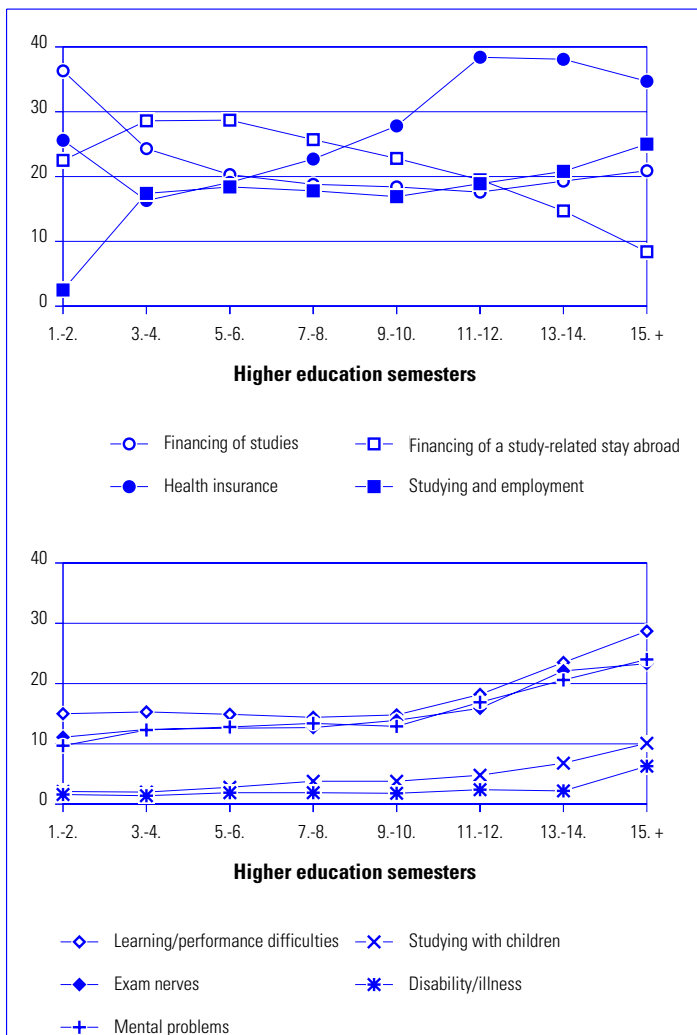
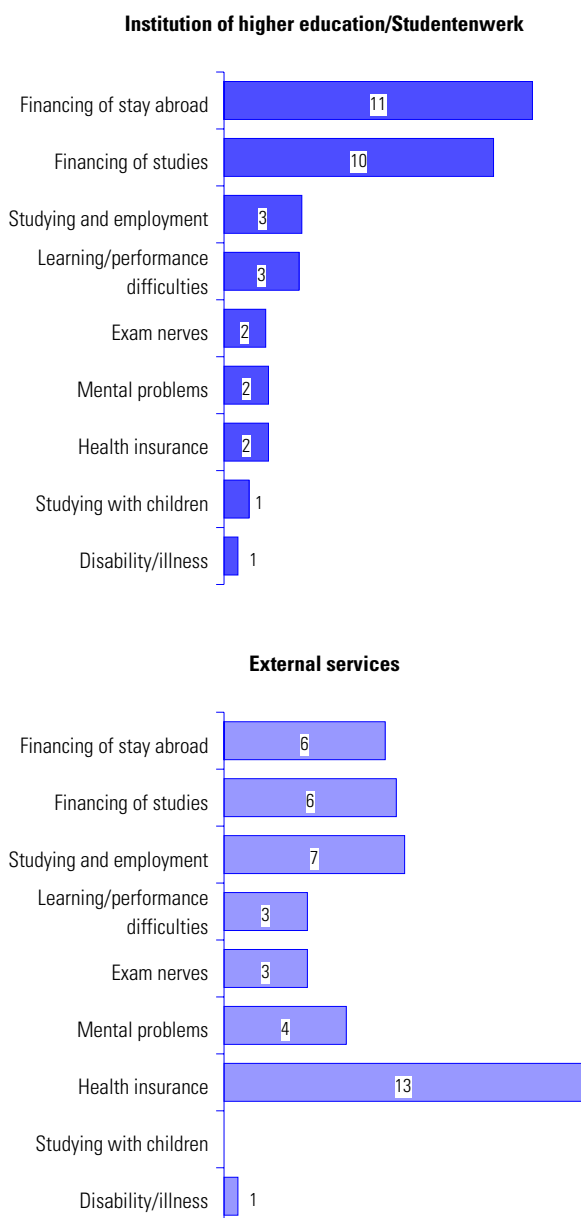


Fig. 13.4 Quota of usage of counselling and information services, by place of offer

User proportion of all students in %, multiple nominations



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The demand for counselling on mental problems is also exceeded, as obviously students of all groups of origin are equally affected.

Types of Study-Employment Composition

The weekly time budget of students forms the basis of the distinction between full-time and part-time students with a high or low employment burden (cf. Ch. 8). According to the type of study-employment composition, the students' demands for counselling differ in a characteristic way. Independent of whether they are studying full-time or part-time, students with a high employment burden (from 15 hours per week) considerably more often require information on health insurance and on combining their employment with their studies. Furthermore, they enquire more often than others about information on learning and performance difficulties, exam nerves and mental problems.

13.2 Use and Evaluation of Counselling Services

The interest in a field of counselling or the desire for further information on a certain problem do not always require an enquiry at a professional institution or using a counselling facility.

Usage of Counselling Services

Fields that often required counselling are issues of financing studies, financing a stay abroad, health insurance and studying if disabled/with a chronic illness. About two thirds of students who required information on these issues have used professional services.

Services offered by the institutions of higher education or the Studentenwerk were mainly used for enquiries about financing a study-related stay abroad or studies in general (50% or 45%, respectively, of all questioned

who had appropriate demand). Although both fields are very closely related to the degree course, nearly one quarter of students used services not offered by the institutions of higher education/the Studentenwerke.

The search for advice on the reconciliation of studying with bringing up children, on studying if disabled/with a chronic illness and on learning and performance difficulties concentrated in about equal parts on facilities at the institution of higher education or the Studentenwerk, and on external facilities, even though these fields of counselling are very closely related to studying.

Judged by the students' demand, the fields of counselling such as compatibility of studying and working, exam nerves, mental problems and health insurance, the facilities at the institutions of higher education and the Studentenwerke generally are of lower importance. Help and answers on the two latter issues in particular are often sought outside of the institution.

Reasons for Not Using these Services

The most common reason why the counselling and information services are not used despite their availability is because the students were given answers to their queries within a different environment. Although it was not more clearly specified in the questionnaire, this can, for example, include information and advice from friends, acquaintances, relatives or from different types of media.

The fact that no suitable service was found allows the conclusion that there are deficits in the range of services offered. This reason is given particularly often for fields of counselling that are especially subjects of student interest and are closely related to the studies.

Fig. 13.5 Reasons why no counselling or information services were used

In % of cases with appropriate counselling demand

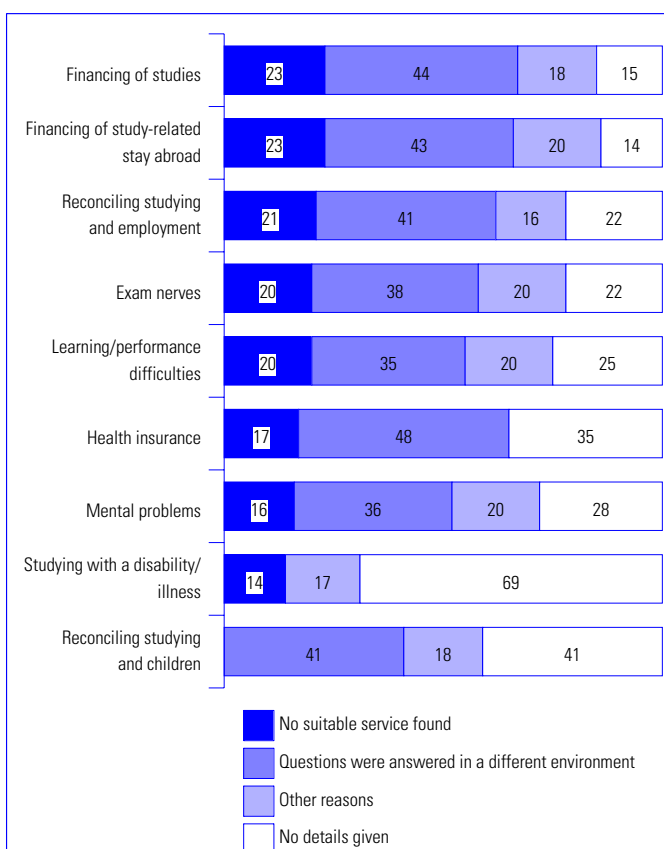
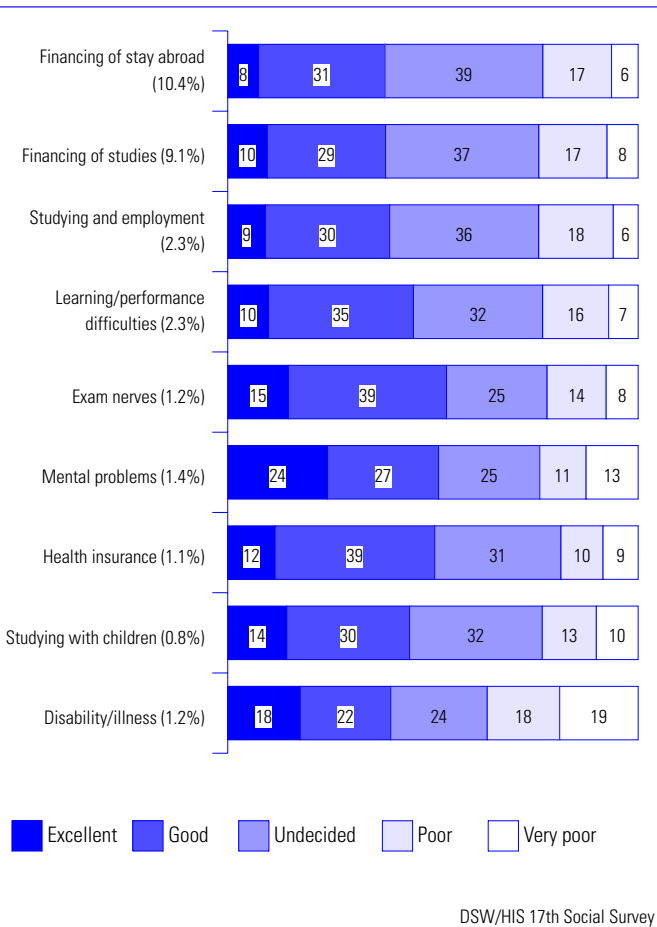


Fig. 13.6 Evaluation of counselling services offered by the institution of higher education/Studentenwerk

Students who used a counselling service offered by the institution/ Studentenwerk and evaluated such, in %
 The figures in brackets refer to the proportion of all students questioned who gave a statement



The students point out that they have not found a suitable service for enquiries about financing studies, financing study-related stays abroad, problems with the compatibility of studying and employment, on exam nerves or on learning and performance difficulties.

Evaluation of Services Offered by the Institutions/Studentenwerke

The students were asked to evaluate the quality of the counselling they had received from the institution/the Studentenwerke.

The tendency shows that the quality of counselling is generally satisfactory. Counselling on exam nerves, mental problems and learning and performance difficulties is rated best. The counselling services criticised most are on studying with a handicap or a chronic illness. The share of unsatisfied students (pos. 1 + 2) is almost at least one fifth of those advised.

14

Foreigners with German Education

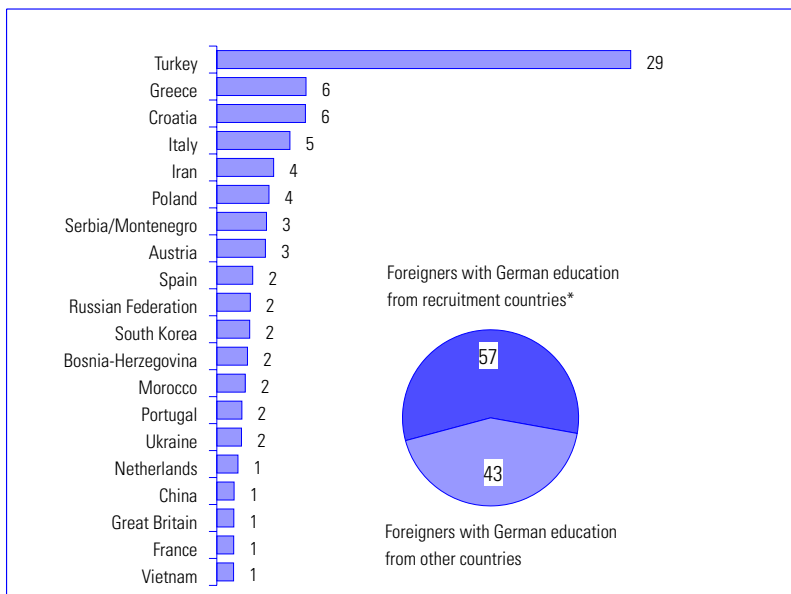
According to official statistics, there were nearly 230,000 foreign students enrolled during the 2002/2003 winter semester. 28.1% of these were students without German citizenship who had acquired their higher education entrance qualifications in Germany.

Since the 1999/2000 winter semester their share of all students has dropped from 3.5% to 3.3%.

More than half of these foreigners with German education originate from so-called "recruitment countries" (countries from which labour was recruited to Germany mainly during the 1960s and 1970s). At 29%, students with Turkish nationality are the largest group amongst foreign students with German education. 6% each come from Greece and Croatia and 5% from Italy. The shares of students from the remaining countries of origin each amount to less than 5%.

Fig. 14.1 Countries of origin of foreigners with German education

In %



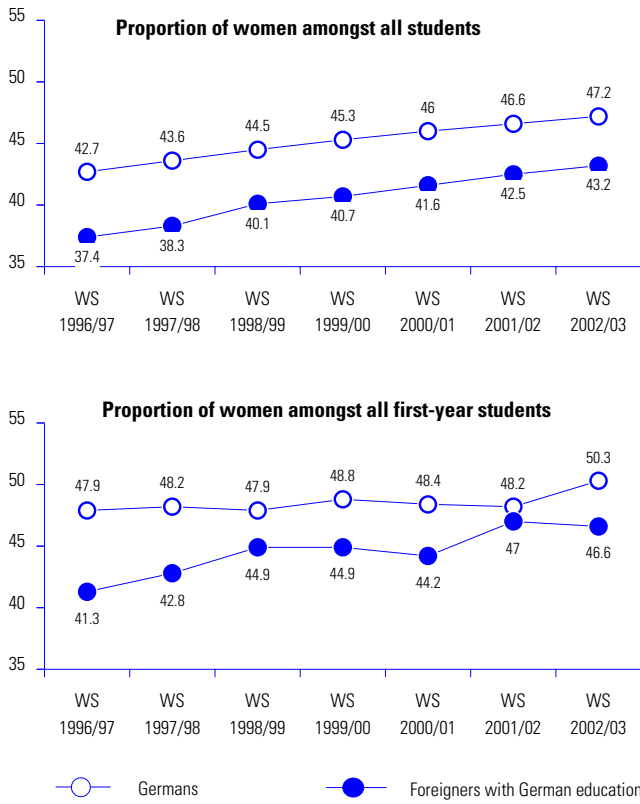
DSW/HIS 17th Social Survey

Source: Statistisches Bundesamt, 2004

* Turkey, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Croatia, Macedonia, Serbia/Montenegro, Slovenia, Greece, Italy, Spain, Portugal

Fig. 14.2 Development of the proportion of women amongst students and first-year students

In %



DSW/HIS 17th Social Survey

Source: Statistisches Bundesamt, 2004

As with German students, the share of women also increased amongst the foreigners with German education. At 46.6% of first-year students and 43.2% of all students, the shares of women, however, are considerably lower than the corresponding shares amongst German students.

Compared to the German students, there are unique differences in the social background to be noticed, whereas a further distinction of foreigners with German education according to their country of origin is required.

Students from recruitment countries belong to the lowest group of social origin far more often than German students (72% vs. 12%). Only very few are from the highest group of social origin, to which nearly two fifths of German students belong (5% vs. 37%).

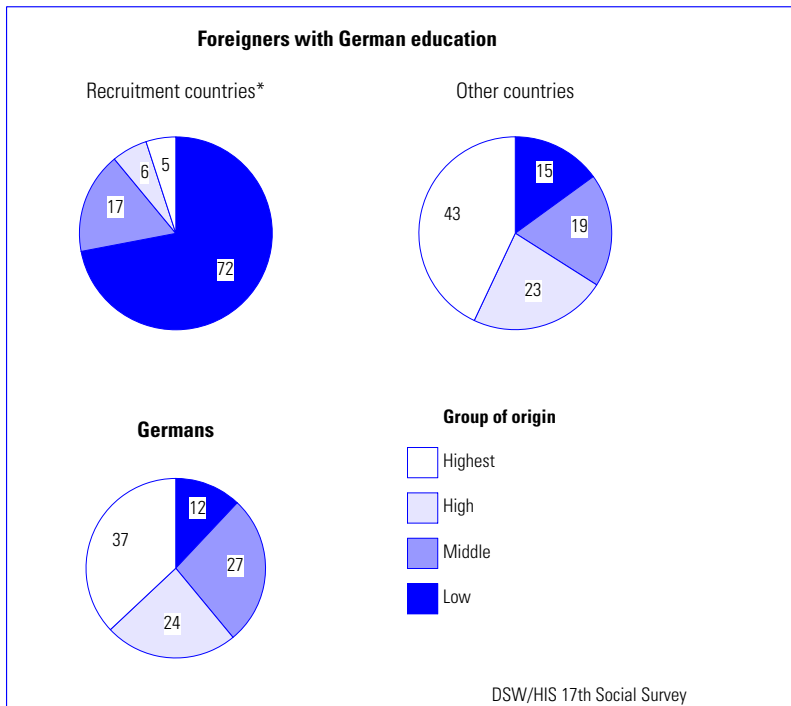
Last but not least, these drastic differences in social origin are so important because they can far better explain the peculiarities of foreigners with German education when gaining access to higher education or during the course of the studies than the migration background can.

Foreigners with German education more often take the typical route of educational climbers than German students, i.e. they less often have the general higher education entrance qualification compared with the Germans (77% vs. 87%), and more often have the subject-restricted higher education entrance qualification required for access to universities of applied sciences (14% vs. 9%). They are more likely to study at universities of applied sciences (31% vs. 26%) and therefore often also seek a diploma at such a university (31% vs. 25%).

With regard to the chosen degree courses, those of students from recruitment countries nearly always differ from Germans. They are clearly overrepresented in law, economics and engineering sciences and are underrepresented in language and cultural sciences as well as in mathematics and natural sciences.

Fig. 14.3 Comparison of the social origin of Germans and foreigners with German education

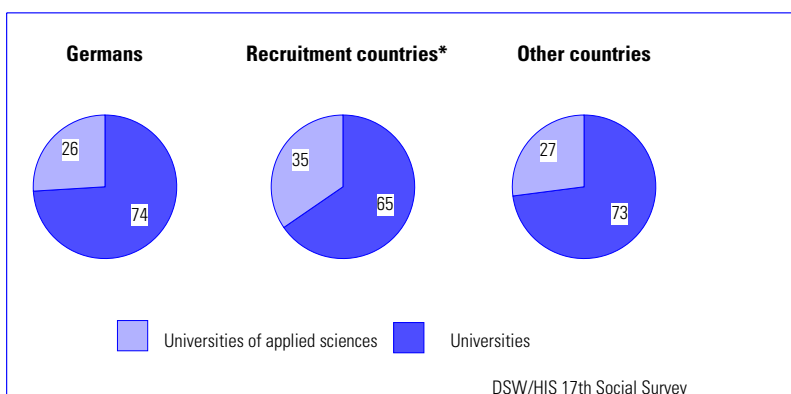
In %



* Turkey, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Croatia, Macedonia, Serbia/Montenegro, Slovenia, Greece, Italy, Spain, Portugal

Fig. 14.4 Foreigners with German education and Germans, by type of institution of higher education

In %



* Turkey, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Croatia, Macedonia, Serbia/Montenegro, Slovenia, Greece, Italy, Spain, Portugal

Fig. 14.5 Course of studies of foreigners with German education in comparison with German students

In %

	Germans	Foreigners with German education		
		Total	Recruitment countries	Other countries
Proportion of degree course changers	21	21	19	24
Proportion of changers of institution	16	17	15	21
Proportion of persons interrupting their studies	20	16	23	15
Interruptions, by reason for the interruption*			**	**
Financial difficulties	20	41	-	-
Doubts about the point of the degree	27	37	-	-
Health problems	18	29	-	-
Employment	28	27	-	-
Family problems	13	25	-	-
Other reasons	22	21	-	-
Pregnancy/child upbringing	11	13	-	-
To gain other experience	24	13	-	-
Military or alternative community service	4	0	-	-

* Multiple nominations possible
** Distinction not possible as a result of too low case figures

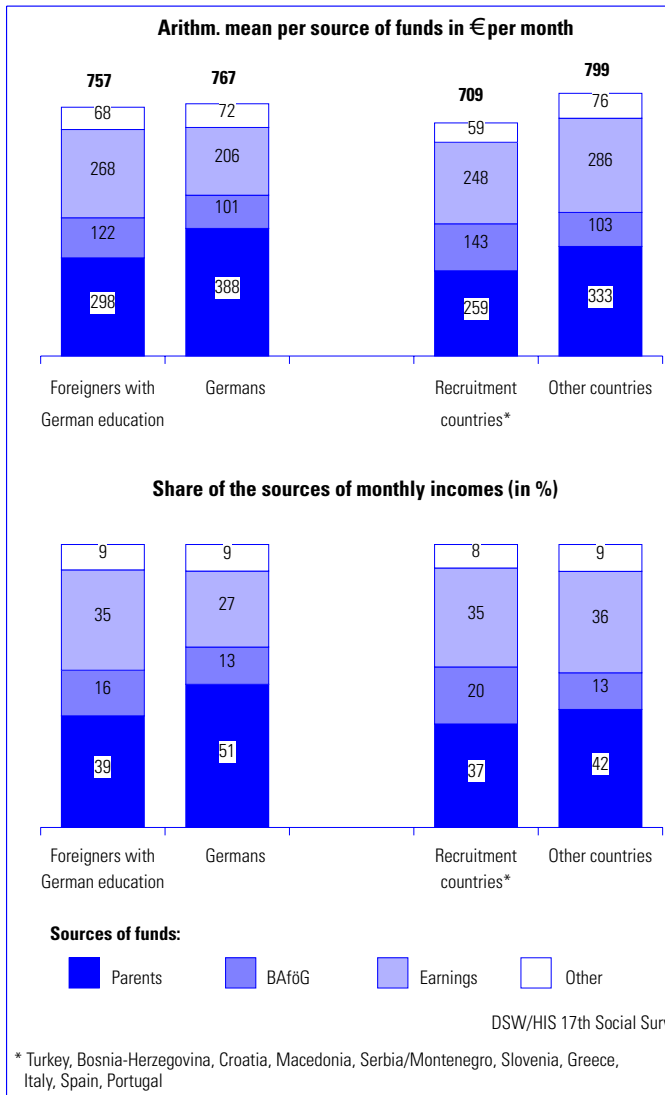
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The differences in the course of studies can also be attributed to the social origin. The share of foreign students with a German higher education entrance qualification who have interrupted their studies is higher than that of German students, whereby it is noticeable that financial reasons for interruptions are given by foreigners with German education twice as often (41%).

Against the background of a lower monthly income, the more common financial problems of foreign students from recruitment countries are no surprise. Unmarried foreigners with a German higher education entrance qualification who do not live at their parents' home and who are in their first degree course ("normal student" reference group) have an average available monthly income of €709, nearly €60 less than the corresponding German students.

Fig. 14.6 Income structure of foreigners with German education

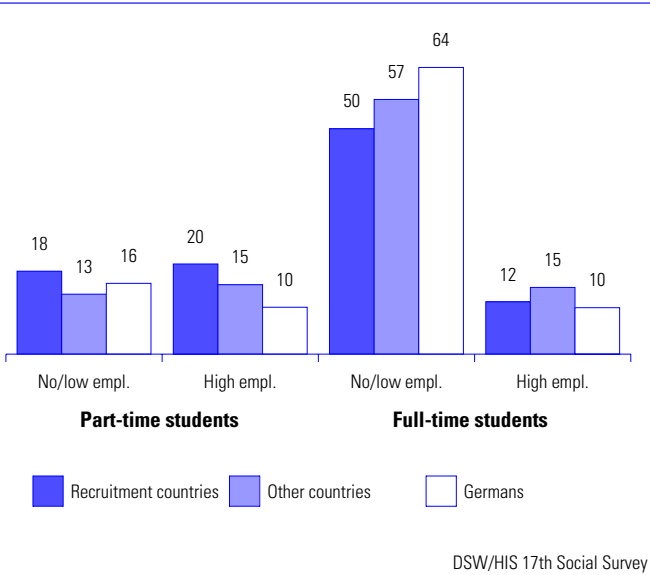
"Normal student" reference group



It is striking that these students from recruitment countries have to earn a higher proportion of their income by themselves – which is low anyway – whilst their parents contribute a considerably lower share to the monthly income in comparison to German students.

Fig 14.7 Type of study-employment composition, by countries of origin

In %



Judged by their weekly time budget, foreigners with German education are part-time students at an overproportional rate. It is also particularly striking that, compared to Germans, the share of part-time students with a high employment burden is twice as high. Amongst full-time students, the share of foreigners with German education who are confronted with a high employment burden is slightly higher as that of German students.

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