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# Student Life in Germany The Socio-Economic Picture

Summary of the 15<sup>th</sup> Social Survey  
of the Deutsches Studentenwerk (DSW)



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Summary of the 15th Social Survey  
of the Deutsches Studentenwerk (DSW)  
produced by HIS Hochschul-Informations-System

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## **Preface**

In publishing this report, the Deutsches Studentenwerk (DSW) and the German Federal Ministry for Education and Research (BMBF) jointly present the results of the 15<sup>th</sup> Social Survey produced on the basis of data collected and evaluated in the 1997 summer semester by the HIS Hochschul-Informationen-System GmbH. The DSW, the national association of student affairs organisations in Germany, began to carry out these surveys in 1951, thereby initiating a nationally and internationally unique collection of long-term data. Social Surveys are now held regularly once every three years and have developed into the most comprehensive and extensive presentation of the social and economic living conditions of students.

The support provided to the DSW by the Federal Minister of Education and Research since the early 1970s does not aim to produce politically-convenient results. Rather, the purpose is to provide an empirical basis for the higher educational and social policy actions of federal and state authorities as well as of all others involved in these processes. As such, the data at hand are absolutely essential for the urgently-needed national debate on education.

In this respect, particular significance attaches to the results of the chapter covering the social make-up of the student body. These findings reveal that the objective of achieving equal opportunity of access to higher education study, regardless of parental income and educational tradition, continues to be unfulfilled. The data on study funding, in general, and on BAföG, in particular, provide interesting information on this issue. They clearly reveal that fundamental reform of the educational assistance system is urgently called for, because, although it is not the only condition, this is nevertheless essential for the creation of equal opportunity of access to higher education.

The Social Survey also provides an opportunity for reviewing existing structures and services in the higher education sector in terms of how significant they are to students and of how students accept and assess these. Over and above this, the Social Survey regularly also considers topical questions affecting the field of higher education study. In this respect, the 15<sup>th</sup> Social Survey again examines the situation faced by foreign students. The results which were presented in a special report in late 1998 may be able to make an important contribution to the debate on improving the studying and living conditions of foreign students.

The examination of student experience gained with study-related stays abroad also considers the stronger international orientation which Germany's higher education institutions now pursue.

The currently relevant standards of the guidance and counselling provided to students in conjunction with their transition from studies to career are also examined in the DSW's 15<sup>th</sup> Social Survey. This reveals that students disapprove of the substantial deficits found in the higher education sector in this respect.

The success of all Social Surveys always depends on the willingness of students to answer the extensive questionnaire. The assistance of the staff at the higher education institutions and at the Studentenwerke (student affairs organisations) is similarly indispensable, and sincere thanks go to them for this support. Special thanks also extend to the staff entrusted at the HIS Hochschul-Informationen-System GmbH in Hanover with collecting and evaluating the data. Indeed, this marks the sixth time that the HIS has been responsible for the carrying out the Social Survey.

Bonn, November 1998

**Edelgard Bulmahn**

Federal Minister for Education and Research

**Prof. Dr. Hans-Dieter Rinkens**

President Deutsches Studentenwerk

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## 1. About this Survey

In commissioning the 15<sup>th</sup> Social Survey, the Deutsches Studentenwerk (DSW) continues the series of surveys which examine the economic and social aspects of studying in Germany, a series which now extends back to 1951.

As all previous surveys carried out since the early 1970s, the present 15<sup>th</sup> Social Survey was again funded by the Federal Minister for Education, Science, Research and Technology (BMBF). The full report (690 pages) was published by the BMBF in autumn 1998.

Responsibility for the actual survey, for the data analysis and for the presentation of results again rested with the HIS-Hochschul-Informationssystem, as has been the case since the 10<sup>th</sup> Social Survey was carried out in 1982.

### Objectives

Much as has been the case for all social surveys, the 15<sup>th</sup> Social Survey again focuses on examining the changes to the socio-economic situation faced by students, whereby particular interest is directed towards the interaction between social framework conditions and the studies themselves.

At the time of the 15<sup>th</sup> Social Survey in 1997, three processes of change in society were particularly affecting the social situation faced by students.

- (1) The process of structural approximation between east and west. As was the case in the 13<sup>th</sup> and 14<sup>th</sup> Social Surveys, the 15<sup>th</sup> Social Survey again directed particular attention to the process of social and economic approximation affecting studies in the two parts of Germany.
- (2) The ongoing discussion on forms of educational funding. Endeavours to find new educational assistance models have clearly shown that more is at stake than just a process of routine financial adjustment. The discussions not only cover the opportunities of achieving a socially-just mode of distribution, but also the question of how an understanding between generations can be achieved.
- (3) The higher education policy debate is accompanied by the new challenges which society faces: intensified global economic competition and greater competition in the field of knowledge production, coupled with the absolute need for national cost-cutting measures and for an approach to the employment problem. Whereas socio-political considerations in the higher education sector previously focused on

securing freedom of choice of education, the counter-question is now being increasingly asked. This covers the extent to which social educational investments can be used to attain the specific goals which qualify people as they face up to and master the challenges (cost-benefit calculation).

The 15<sup>th</sup> Social Survey endeavours to provide the relevant information required when addressing these questions. Not all details can be documented in the full Social Survey. Hence, additional data profile services and user-specific assessments strive to provide a specifically-targeted information spread.

### Procedure

The 15<sup>th</sup> Social Survey covers students from all higher education institutions, with the exception of distance studies institutions (Hochschulen für das Fernstudium), public administration Fachhochschule institutions (Verwaltungsfachhochschulen) and the universities of the Federal Armed Forces, thereby accounting for 285 institutions in total. As in earlier surveys, almost all higher education institutions (267 in total) supported the survey by carrying out random sampling and mailing the questionnaires in May 1997. 99% of all students in Germany were studying at the targeted higher education institutions.

In comparison with the 14<sup>th</sup> Social Survey carried out in 1994, the response rate was considerably more reserved. 20,533 usable questionnaires were examined in the survey, corresponding to a net random sample of 37%.

With reference to the structural features of Gender, Type of Higher Education Institution and Subject Group, only minor differences could be detected between random sample and statistical population. Weighting of individual cases ensured that the random sample was fully representative.

Comprehensive plausibility tests were applied to examine the logical coherence of answers received. The random sample scope allows reliable conclusions to be drawn for relatively small sub-groups as well.

## 2. Development of Student Numbers

The change in the social situation faced by students is above all to be viewed against the background of the overall development of student numbers.

The pronounced rise in student numbers in Germany from 833,000 German and foreign students in 1975 peaked in 1995 at 1,807,300 students (meaning that it had doubled: 106% growth with the *new Länder*, 101% with only the

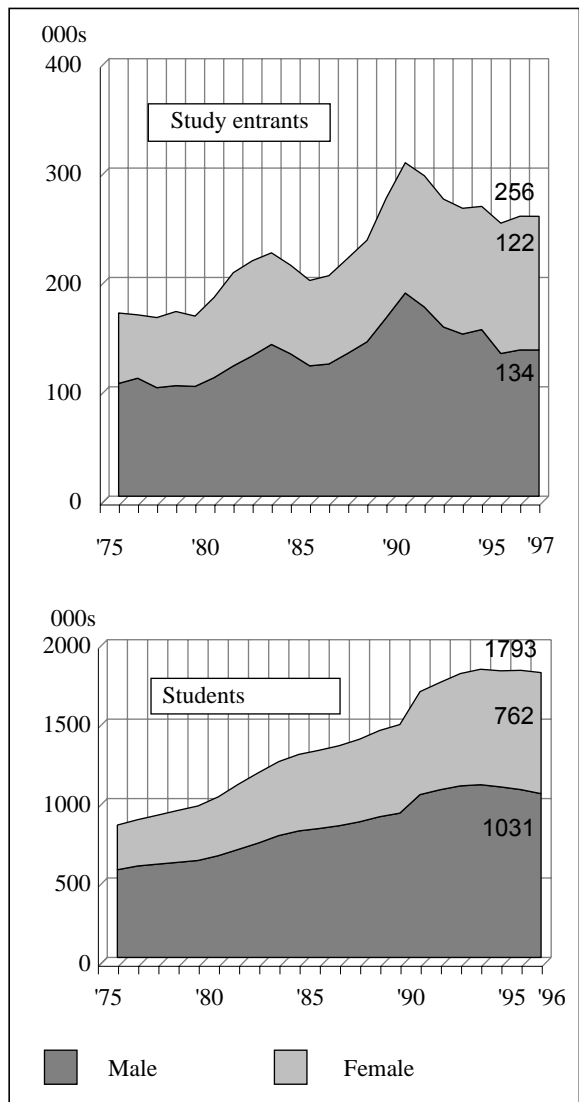
*old Länder* considered). A slight decrease in student numbers has been observed since 1995: in the 1996/97 winter semester, the total number of students was only 1,793,945 (Fig. 1).

The strong rise in the number of female students continues. While they only accounted for 34% in 1995, the proportion exceeded 42% in 1996/97.

These trends can be more clearly seen when the numbers of study entrants are considered.

This indicates that the drop in the overall number of students will also soon come to a time-delayed end. In fact, numbers are more likely to increase over the coming ten years.

**Fig. 1 German and foreign students and study entrants from 1975 to 1997\***  
in thousands based on gender and type of higher education institution



DSW/HIS 15<sup>th</sup> Social Survey

\* Data for students given up to 1996  
Source: Federal Office of Statistics, Special Series 11

The proportion of female students continues its upward trend unabated. In 1996, the proportion of female students in their first semester actually reached 47%.

In contrast to the development of numbers in other educational areas (pupil numbers in primary and vocational schools), the changes observed in terms of study entrant and student numbers are hardly affected by changes in the population development (birth frequency). The low extent of demographic influence is clearly shown when the study entrant figures of the base year of 1980 are projected solely on the basis of demographic increase and decrease. If demographic changes had been the only influencing factor, study entrant figures would still be below the 1980 level (Fig. 2). The rise in actual study entrant figures is to be explained by other factors, which can be summarised under the heading of 'social component'.

The extent of the effect of this 'social component' was underestimated in the forecasts produced by educational researchers and politicians. The conception that the 'educational pile' could be reduced by the low birth-rates of the past 10 years failed to find confirmation, since the level of educational participation increased over the same period (cf. Ch. 3). From an overall social viewpoint, this development must be welcomed rather than condemned. The fact that a larger proportion of the population is engaging in highly-qualified training and can therefore contribute to the international competitiveness of Germany must be seen as a positive pay-off between input and output.

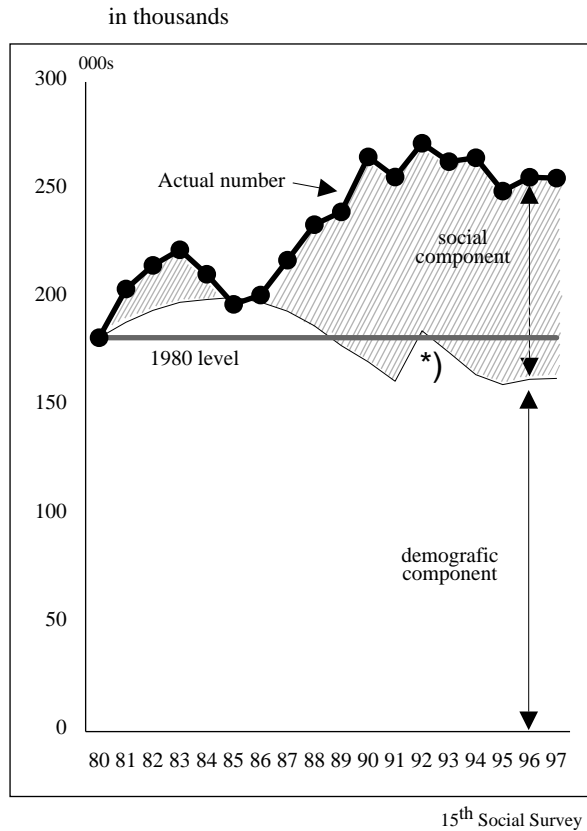
Where the questions addressed by the Social Survey are concerned, the influence exerted by the social component on the development of student numbers clearly shows how important an exact analysis of social processes is for an understanding of the higher education system. Chapter 3 provides a detailed analysis of 'educational participation' in its capacity as the main element of the social component.

### Age Profile

Changes to student and study entrant numbers are linked to a change in the age profile. As the age pyramid reveals (Fig. 3), the period 1994 through 1997 saw the proportion of students aged 27 and over continue to increase. In the old Länder, this marks the continuation of a long-established trend, while for the new Länder this shift towards older age groups has been observed for the first time. This shift is most pronounced for men. In the old Länder in 1997, 31% were older than 27 years of age, compared with 23% in 1994, while the 1997 figure in the new Länder was 14%, compared with 7% in 1994.

The increase in the percentage of older students

**Fig. 2 Demographic and social components in the development of study entrant figures from 1980-1997**



\*) As of 1992, data includes the new Länder  
 Source: Federal Office of Statistics, Special Series 11, 1996/97 Preliminary Report

caused by longer study also leads to an increase in the overall number of students. In the *old Länder* the process which sees an increasing percentage of older students has continued. If only those students engaged in their first degree course are considered, then the average age rose by 0.3 years (1994: 25.0 years; 1997: 25.3 years).

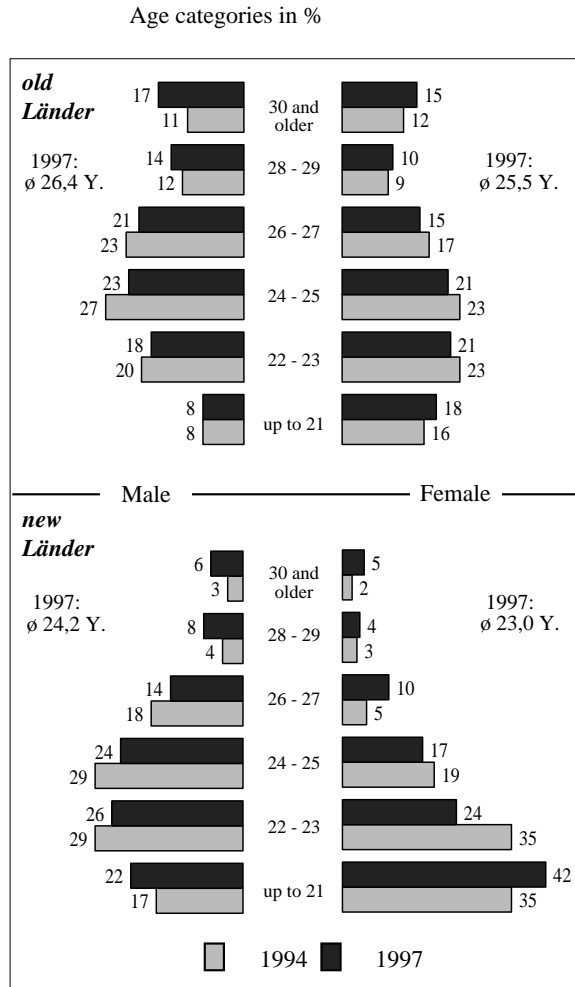
Despite similar trends, the average age of students in the *new Länder* in 1997 was still substantially lower than in the *old Länder* (26 years on average in the *old Länder*, 23.6 years in the *new Länder*).

As a result of the military and civilian service which men are required to complete, female students will generally be younger than male fellow students. This applies to both parts of Germany (Fig. 3).

**The Trend Towards a Steady Relationship**

8% of the students in the *old Länder* and 5% in the *new Länder* are married (Fig. 4). In contrast to 1994, the changes are negligible (*old Länder* 9%, *new Länder* 5%). It should be noted, however, that 1991 saw the proportion of

**Fig. 3 Student age profile in 1994 and 1997**



DSW/HIS 15<sup>th</sup> Social Survey

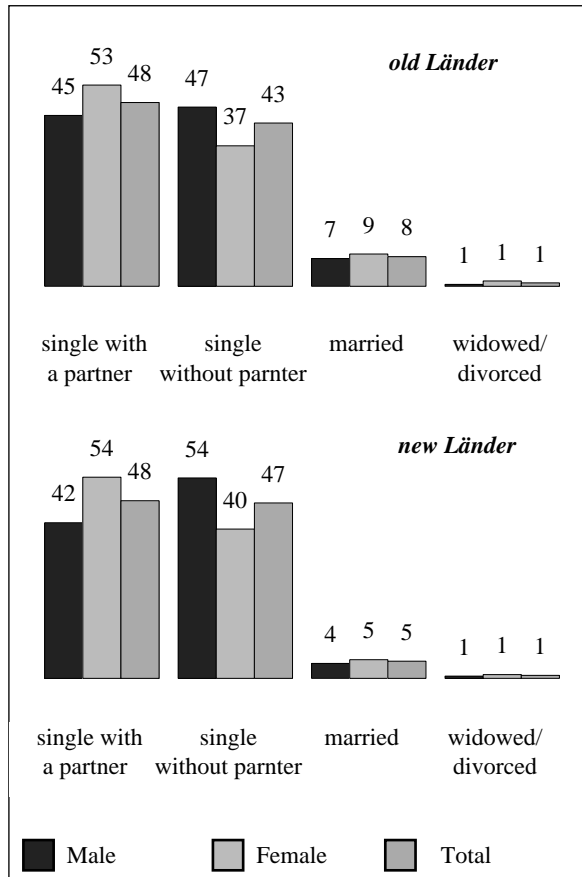
married students in the *new Länder* at 16%.

The trend towards a steady relationship has continued to strengthen further. Almost half the single students in the *old* and in the *new Länder* (in both cases 48%) answered that they had a steady partner. Single female students are slightly more likely to have a permanent relationship than are their male fellow students. In view of the lower average age of female students, the difference of 8 or respectively 12 percentage points is surprisingly large.

**Students with Children**

7% of students already have their own children. In the *old Länder*, this is 7%, while in the *new Länder* it is 6%. Students with children will more frequently be female than male. 7.4% of the female students have children, while the figure for male students is 6.5%. In absolute figures, this means around 58,000 student mothers and 69,000 student fathers.

**Fig. 4 Student family status in 1997 by gender**  
in %



DSW/HIS 15<sup>th</sup> Social Survey

### 3. Participation in Higher Education

The development of student numbers over the past decade has been substantially shaped by the social component (cf. Fig. 2). Participation in higher education serves as a main determinant. Official German and international (StBA, OECD, EUROSTAT) regularly identify educational participation as a measure of educational mobilisation.

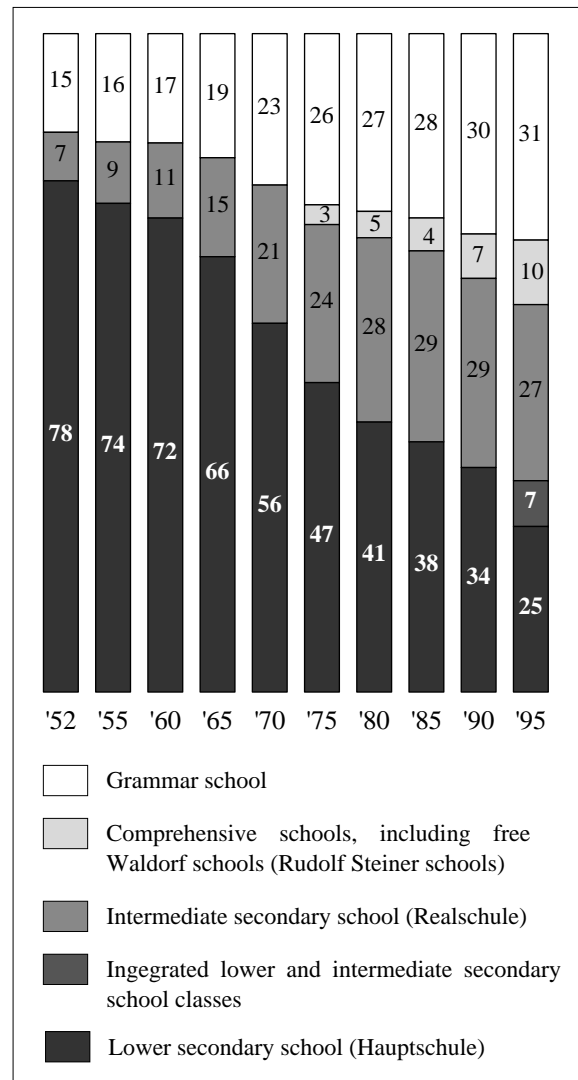
The Social Survey has further set itself the special task of examining the ongoing question as to whether social group specific selection processes are involved in the changes to be seen in higher education participation.

Therefore, the Social Survey regularly examines the proportions to which various social population groups and the two genders participate in higher education.

#### Calculating Rates

In order to reveal discrimination of individual social groups, the statistical population must not only be viewed as those who have succeeded in gaining access to a particular school form, but

**Fig. 5 8<sup>th</sup> grade pupils by school type in Germany\* from 1952 to 1995**  
in %



DSW/HIS 15<sup>th</sup> Social Survey

\*As of 1991, data includes the new Länder

Source: Federal Office of Statistics, Special Series A, Population and Culture, Series 10, Education, I. General Education Schools, various Year Groups

must rather take all children of a social group in the population as a starting point (100%) (of 100 working class children in the population, x manage to study, while of 100 civil servant children y manage to study).

#### Educational Thresholds

A number of thresholds need to be taken on the way through a child's schooling before the higher education stage can be reached. These thresholds aim to ensure that the educational decision is made on the basis of ability and aptitude. The four most clearly-defined of these educational thresholds will be briefly described below:

### **Threshold 1:** Transition Primary School - Secondary School

Children will face the first educational barrier after their 4<sup>th</sup> grade: in most Länder this is the time at which the decision is made as to which secondary school type a child will move on to: grammar school (Gymnasium), intermediate secondary school (Realschule) or lower secondary school (Hauptschule). In some Länder in Germany, the 4<sup>th</sup> grade is initially followed by an Orientation Stage, meaning that the decision on type of a secondary school is only made after completion of the 6<sup>th</sup> grade. The effect of Threshold 1 can be depicted on the basis of the school attendance of 8<sup>th</sup> grade pupils (Fig. 5).

In the early 1950s the great majority of pupils in the 8<sup>th</sup> grade (78%) were attending the Hauptschule. The proportion of Hauptschule pupils among all pupils in the 8<sup>th</sup> grade has since been dropping continuously and in 1995 accounted for only 25%. On the other hand, the number of Realschule pupils and of Gymnasium pupils has risen accordingly. In 1952 only 15% of all pupils in their 8<sup>th</sup> grade attended a Gymnasium. It is evident that substantial improvement has been achieved in the level of education. This rise in the level of secondary sector educational participation represents the basic requirement for greater participation in the higher education sector.

### **Threshold 2:** Transition Secondary Stage I - Secondary Stage II

The next barrier is found in the transition from the 10<sup>th</sup> to the 11<sup>th</sup> grade. In order to qualify for the transition to the senior grammar school stage (gymnasiale Oberstufe), pupils must achieve the appropriate grade point average. This threshold also provides opportunities for the further educational advancement of those who initially transferred to a Hauptschule or Realschule. Given an appropriate grade point average and completion of the 10<sup>th</sup> grade, pupils can advance from the Realschule or Hauptschule to the senior grammar school stage.

Of all 17 or 18 year old children who have already passed this threshold (some of whom are still in the 10<sup>th</sup> grade), 49% move to a vocational school (meaning that they commence in-company vocational training or take up employment), 3% attend no more school, 2% are already at a higher education institution, and 46% are in the senior grammar school stage.

### **Threshold 3:** Qualification for Higher Education

Qualification for the senior grammar school stage does not automatically qualify a pupil for entry into higher education. Only by gaining the

higher education entrance qualification (the Reifeprüfung), which may document maturity specifically for Fachhochschule study (universities of applied sciences) or generally for all higher education institutions (Abitur) can a pupil gain access to higher education. A meanwhile not insignificant proportion of pupils from higher technical schools (Fachoberschule) and similar school types which provide vocational qualification now reach this threshold (in 1996 this accounted for around 21% of all those qualifying for higher education). A small proportion (6%) reaches this threshold via the classical paths of the so-called second-chance education option, namely via appropriate evening school or college.

In 1996, 36 of 100 children from the reference year passed Threshold 3 and gained a higher education entrance qualification; nine of them achieved this as a Fachhochschule study qualification, while 27 gained the general or alternatively subject-restricted higher education entrance qualification. The proportion of higher education entrance qualification holders has tripled over the past 25 years.

### **Threshold 4:** Commencement of Higher Education Study

Not all those who are entitled to take up higher education study actually go on to study. On the other hand, a small proportion of students achieve access to higher education without the school-leaving certificate required for higher education access (less than 1%). These are entrance options which in some cases are only available in individual Länder (for example, tests for gifted pupils (Begabtenprüfung) or special access paths for holders of particular vocational qualifications).

The degree of higher education participation continues to differ between the old and new Länder.

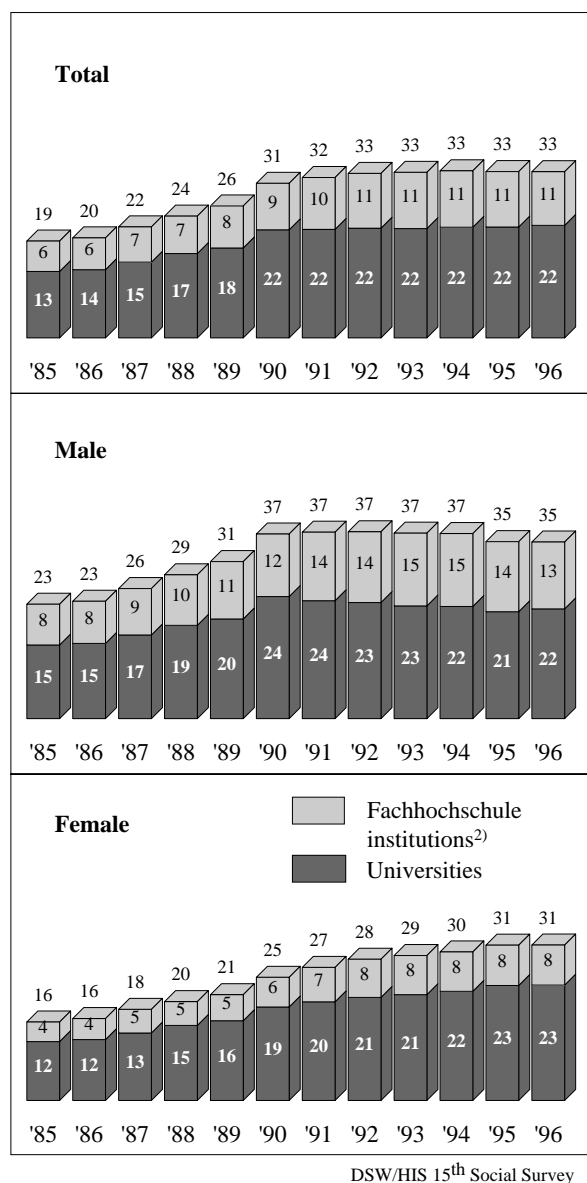
In the *old Länder*, 1996 saw 33% of all 18 to 21 year old Germans commence studies at a higher education institution in Germany (First Time Enrolment Quota). From the mid 1980s to the mid 1990s, the first time enrolment quota has risen substantially (from an overall figure of 19% in 1985 to 33% in 1996). However, the figure has been stagnant since the early 1990s, fluctuating approximately around the same level (Fig. 6 above).

In the *new Länder*, the 1996 first time enrolment quota was 25%. Compared with 1993, this means that it has risen slightly. In 1993 the first time enrolment quota was 21%. Despite the slight increase, educational participation in terms of higher education attendance is still substantially lower in the new Länder than in the old Länder.

## Gender-Specific Educational Participation

More men than women continue to take up higher education study. In 1996 this was 35% of the 18 to 21 year old men, but only 31% of the women of the same age (Fig. 6). However, a clear trend can be identified towards more

**Fig. 6 Proportion of German first-time student among Germans of the same age<sup>1)</sup> by gender and type of higher education institution (First Time Enrolment Quota) from 1985 to 1996**  
old Länder; in %



1) average year group sizes of the 18 to under 22 year old population

2) including public administration Fachhochschule institutions

Sources: HIS calculations based on Federal Office of Statistics: Population Figures (unpublished); Federal Office of Statistics: Students in Higher Education, various year groups, Microcensus (special analysis), HIS Survey among first-time students.

women entering higher education. Over the past 10 years, their rate of educational participation has almost doubled. Indeed, in 1986 the rate was only 16%. In the period up to 1990, the rate rose clearly for men as well, but has been falling since then (by 2 percentage points over the past 5 years). Indeed, at universities - for the first time since 1995 - more women have been commencing studies than men (23% of the 18 to 21 year old women, but only 22% of the men of the same age). However, this development does not apply to the Fachhochschule sector (male 13%; female 8%). It is foreseeable that - at least at the level of higher education access in general - gender-specific educational discrimination will very soon be overcome.

## Social Group Specific Educational Participation

The Social Survey above all examined social group specific participation in higher education at two interfaces; access to the senior grammar (= upper secondary) school stage (Threshold 2) and the actual commencement of higher education study (Threshold 4).

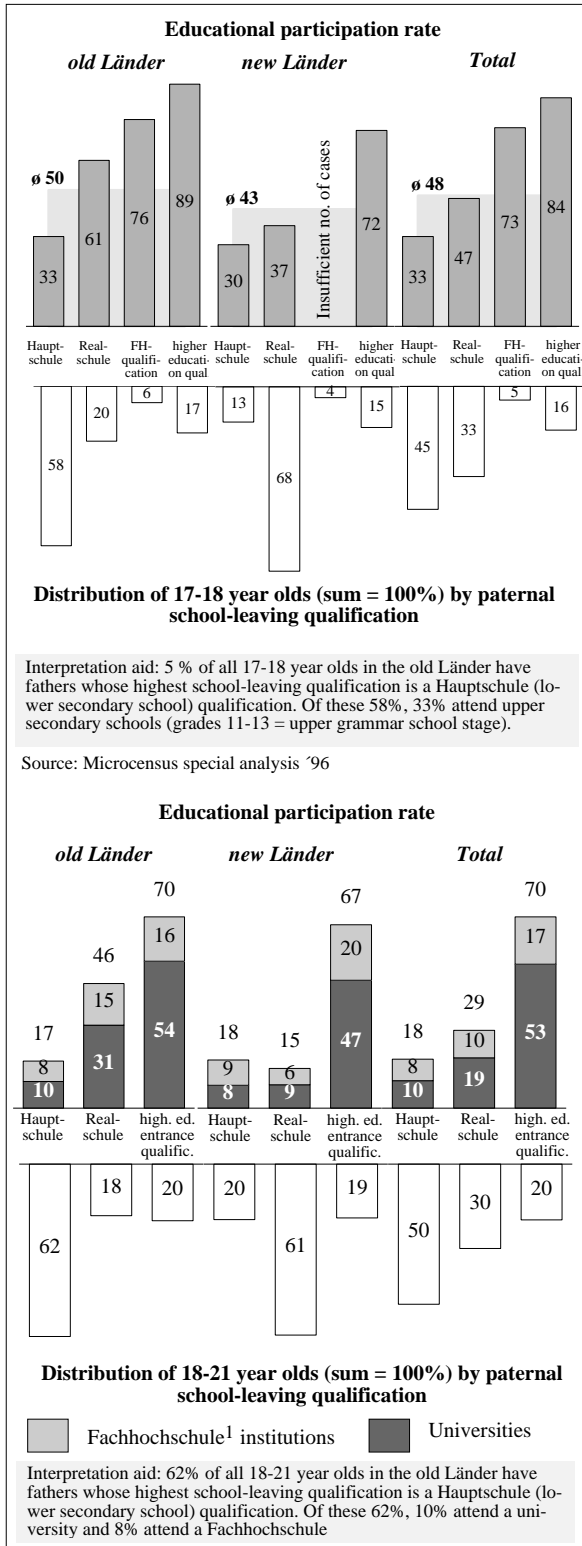
## Parental Education and Educational Participation

Almost half the 17 to 18 year olds (45%) have fathers who hold a Hauptschule school-leaving qualification. Of these young people, 33% enter the senior grammar school stage and only 18% enter higher education (10% university, 8% Fachhochschule, cf. Fig. 7). Only around one fifth (16%) of the parents hold a higher education entrance qualification. However, 84% of the children from this relatively small group cross the threshold to the senior grammar school stage and 70% begin studies at a higher education institution (53% university, 17% Fachhochschule). The selection processes therefore increasingly intensify on the way to higher education study.

## Family Income and Educational Participation

Up to a net family income of less than DM 6,000, educational participation remains relatively stable (39% of children from families with a net income of less than DM 2,200 gain access to the senior grammar school stage, while 45% of the children from families with a net income of between DM 5,000 and less than DM 6,000 do so). A clear increase in the social participation rate is only to be found beyond the DM 6,000 border. 54% of pupils whose parents have a net family income of DM 6,000 to below DM 7,000 enter the upper grammar school stage), while 68% of pupils from top income bracket families (net family income of DM 7,000 and more) enter this stage. A very similar

**Fig. 7 1996 educational participation by paternal school qualification**  
**Threshold 2: 17-18 year olds in the upper grammar school stage**  
**Threshold 4: 18-21 year olds in higher education**  
 in %



connection can be identified for participation in higher education. Of the one quarter of 18 to 21 year olds whose parents have the lowest net income, 26% will enter higher education, while the higher education participation rate is 45% for the quarter of the better-off families from the highest income brackets.

**Occupational Status and Educational Participation**

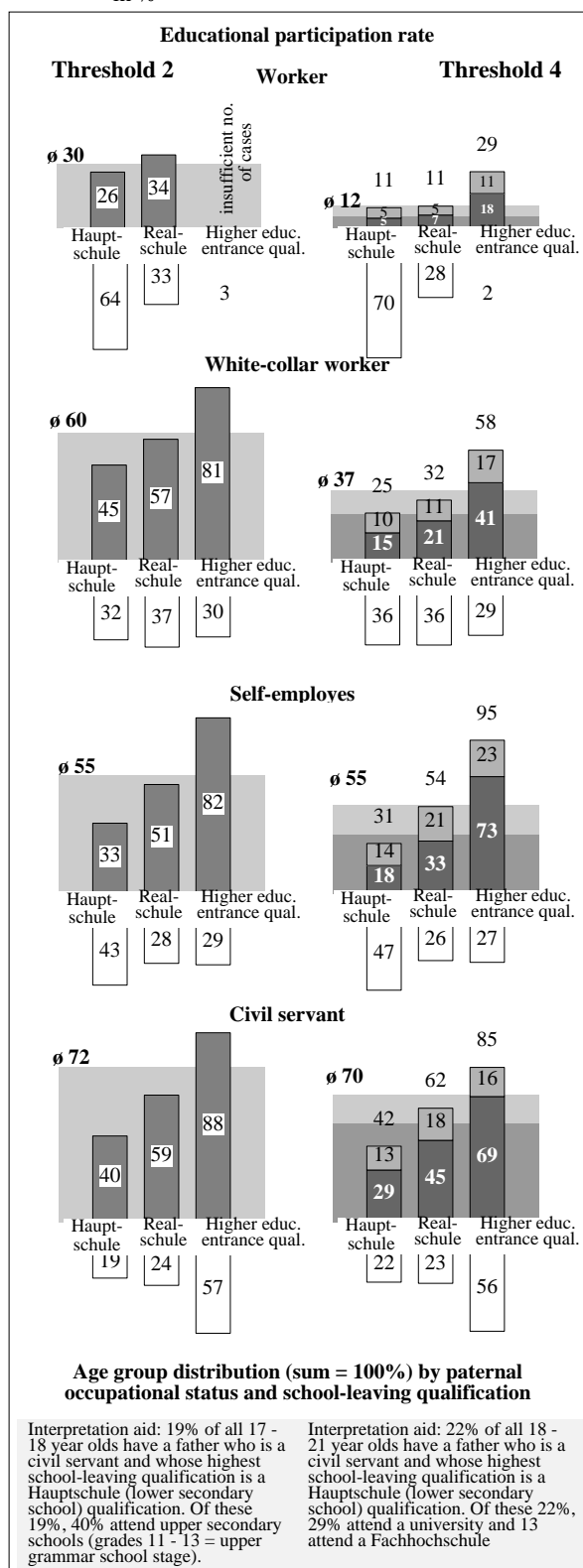
The relevance of social insurance law categories (worker, white collar worker, civil servant, self-employed) has fallen continuously over past decades. An internal differentiation of the individual social groups (e.g. civil servant children) on the basis of the father's schooling confirms the strong heterogeneous nature of the groups. 72% of all civil servant children succeed in entering the senior grammar school stage. Only 40% of the civil servant children whose father only holds a Hauptschule school-leaving qualification will take this threshold, while 59% of the children whose father holds a Realschule school-leaving qualification will enter the senior grammar stage; and indeed 88% of the children whose father holds a higher education entrance qualification will enter the senior grammar school stage (Fig. 8). Figures are quite similar for the group of white collar workers and for the self-employed. Only the group of working class children is comparatively homogenous (deviations of only 4 percentage points for the lower groups). Corresponding results are to be found for the participation rates observed for the commencement of higher education study. This observation clearly shows that the occupational status of the father can only be taken as a relevant description of a homogeneous class situation for the group of children from working class backgrounds.

Since no statistics are available for past time periods regarding a differentiation of the occupational status of parents, the time series observation (Fig. 9) must fall back on the rough social insurance law categories. Following the across-the-board rise in educational participation rates for the higher education sector in the period up to 1990, the level of educational participation rates have since been essentially stagnant. In the case of civil servant children, a slightly-downward trend was observed up to 1996, while in the case of children of self-employed parents, the trend was slightly upward. For working class children, the rate only rose relevantly from 1989 onwards, but has been dropping slightly since 1995.

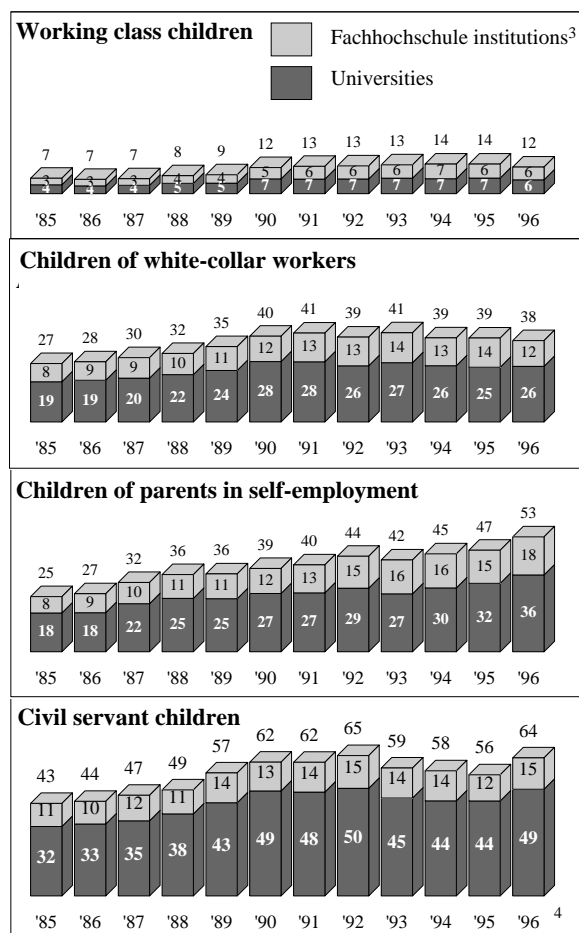
**Social Background and Educational Participation**

This report marks the first time that the combination indicators of social background specially developed by the Social Survey have

**Fig. 8 1996 educational participation by paternal occupational status and school-leaving qualification**  
**Threshold 2: 17-18 year olds in the upper grammar school stage**  
**Threshold 4: 18-21 year olds in higher education**  
 in %



**Fig. 9 Threshold 4: Educational participation for 18 - 21 year olds in higher education by paternal occupational status over the time period from 1985 - 1996<sup>2</sup>**  
 old Länder, in %



DSW/HIS 15<sup>th</sup> Social Survey

<sup>1</sup> average year group sizes of the 18 - 21 year old population

<sup>2</sup> Time series from the 14<sup>th</sup> Social Survey were corrected (including the final study entrant numbers)

<sup>3</sup> including public administration Fachhochschule institutions

<sup>4</sup> Up to 1995, the calculation of the reference year group was based solely on currently-employed family reference persons (FB), among whom the working class is underrepresented. Since 1996, access is also available to data on earlier employed FB persons. Consideration of employed FB persons only would have resulted in the following rates: civil servant children: 46/24/60 (uni/FH/total), children of white collar workers: 25/12/37, children of parents in self-employment: 34/17/50, working class children: 7/6/13.

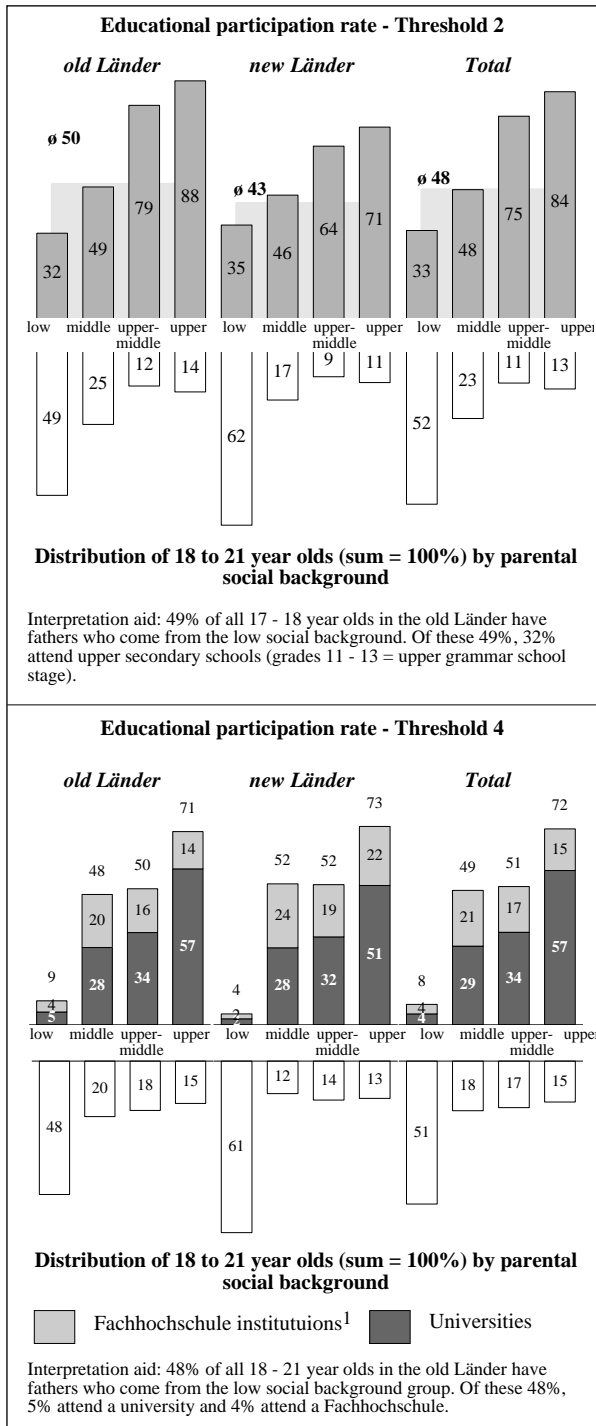
Sources: Federal Office of Statistics, HIS calculations

been reproduced with data from the microcensus, meaning that it is now also possible to calculate educational participation rates for social background groups (lower, middle, upper-middle, upper, cf. Fig. 15). The differences in the educational participation rates in the transition to the senior grammar stage are substantial (Fig. 10). The majority of 17 to 18 year olds come from the lower social background group (52%). Of 100 pupils from this group, 33 succeed in entering the senior grammar school stage. In the already



**Fig. 10 1996 educational participation by social background**  
**Threshold 2: 17-18 year olds in the upper grammar school stage**  
**Threshold 4: 18-21 year olds in higher education**

social background groups of the social surveys in %



<sup>1</sup> including public administration Fachhochschule institutions DSW/HIS 15<sup>th</sup> Social Survey

substantially smaller middle level social background group, the rate is 48%, while in the

upper-middle level group the rate is 75%, and in the upper level group actually reaches 84%.

Access to higher education represents an even greater hurdle for 18 to 21 year olds from the lower social background group. Whereas 33 of 100 children from the lower social background group succeed in reaching the upper secondary school, only 8 of them manage to pass the threshold to higher education. In the upper social background group, the probability of passing the two thresholds is many times greater. Of 100 children, 84 will succeed in entering the senior grammar school stage and 72 will enter higher education study (Fig. 11). The fact that 33% of the children from the lower background group after all prove to be suitable for attending upper secondary school evidences the substantial potential which is to be found in the lower social background group, but also shows that this potential remains largely untapped on account of the socially-specific effect of the threshold to higher education access. It may be assumed for this part of the lower social background group, at least, that the socio-political instruments of mobilisation and support are insufficiently developed.

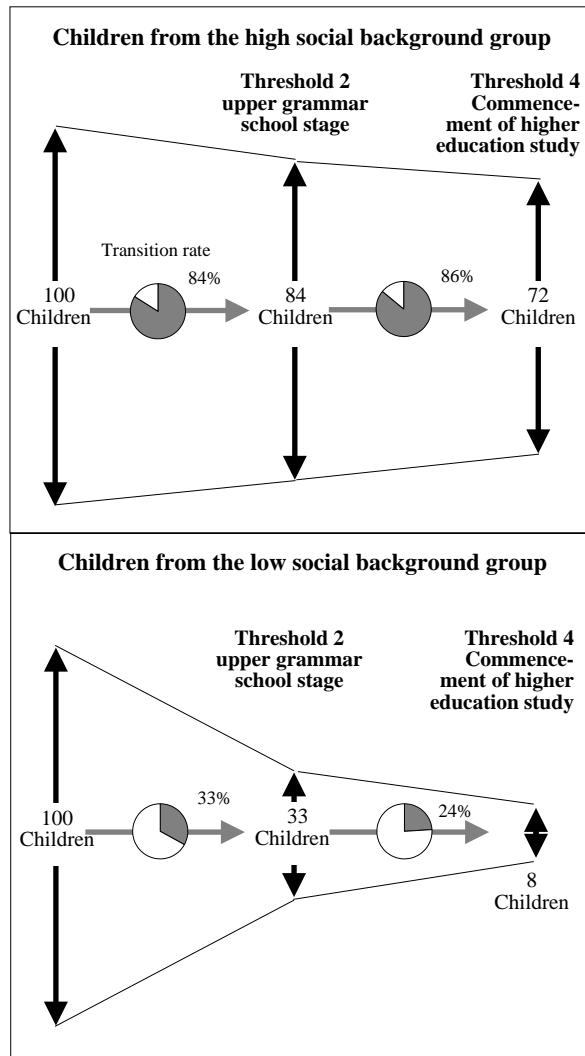
**The Development of Educational Participation in the New Länder and in specific Old Länder**

Overall, educational participation in the *new Länder* is still slightly lower than in the *old Länder*. This applies to the transition to the senior grammar school stage (old Länder 50%, new Länder 43%) as well as to participation in higher education (old Länder 33%, new Länder 25%). However, the general educational participation in the new Länder experienced a pronounced rise from 17% in 1992 to 25% in 1996. Examination of the social background groups in the new Länder in terms of transition to the senior grammar school stage reveals a minimally higher educational participation rate for the lower social background group and, vice versa, much lower educational participation rates for the higher social background groups. The results in terms of access to higher education are all the more surprising. In the new Länder, only 4% of the children from the lower social background group succeed in entering higher education study, a much lower share than in the old Länder (9%). Apparently, the degree of social selection in the new Länder during the transition to the senior grammar school stage is lower, while in terms of access to higher education it is substantially more effective than in the old Länder.

The lowest social participation rates for children with a working class background are to be found in the southern Länder (aggregated value for the Rhineland-Palatinate, Saarland, Baden-

**Fig. 11 The education funnel: Schematic presentation of social selection**

Educational participation of children from the high and low social background groups in %.



DSW/HIS 15<sup>th</sup> Social Survey

Württemberg and Bavaria). Only 20% of the 17 to 18 year old working class children succeed in advancing to the senior grammar school stage. In the northern Länder (aggregated value for Schleswig-Holstein, Bremen, Hamburg and Lower Saxony) the educational participation rate is already well above this value, namely at 33%. The highest rate, however, is to be found in the Länder Hesse and North Rhine-Westphalia. Indeed, in these Länder 38% of the working-class children succeed in advancing to the upper secondary school stage. Calculation of the educational participation rates on the basis of social background groups confirms the regional differences: in the south only 23% of children from the lower social background group enter the senior grammar school stage, while the rate in Hesse and North Rhine-Westphalia is 43%.

**European Comparison**

Social selection in the process of access to further and higher education is not a German peculiarity, but can rather be found throughout Europe (Fig. 12). Of all 19 to 24 year old Europeans whose parents have a school-leaving qualification below the upper secondary level, only 17% will succeed in entering the tertiary education sector. However, when parents hold a qualification from the higher education sector, almost half of this age group will go on to benefit from tertiary education. Strong social selectivity in the field of educational participation is to be found in all countries of the European Union.

**Fig. 12 19 to 24 year old tertiary sector students in 1995 by parental educational level**

in % of the respective population

		Parental educational qualification		
		Primary or lower secondary	Upper secondary	Higher education
	Europe	17	26	48
	Finland	8	12	37
	Luxembourg	9	24	45
	Greece	10	28	53
	Denmark	12	13	30
	Ireland	12	30	54
	Sweden	15	25	55
	Netherlands	16	26	43
	Italy	17	46	61
	Portugal	20	51	73
	France	22	35	68
	Spain	22	49	63
	Belgium	26	44	61
	Germany	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
	Britain	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
	Austria	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.

DSW/HIS 15<sup>th</sup> Social Survey

Source: Eurostat

n.a. = data not available

**To digress: Demography and Educational Participation**

The previous sections of this report focused on the social-specific educational participation rates. However, passing reference has also already been made to the sizes of order of the respective year groups in the population and has been depicted in the charts. Both values are of significance for calculating absolute numbers. Their interaction in the field of higher education access is to be illustrated by taking educational participation on the basis of parental occupational status as an example.

The number of children from a specific social group who take up higher education study not only depends on the level of educational participation, but also on the size of the respective social-specific group  $i$ :

$$\text{year group size } i * \text{educational participation rate } i = \text{study entrants } i$$

In 1996, for example, the low educational participation rate (12%) means that only 27,000 of 221,000 working class children of studying age commenced their studies (Fig. 13). The more or less equally large group of white collar worker children (210,000) of studying age provides 79,000 study entrants, because the higher educational participation rate is three times higher.

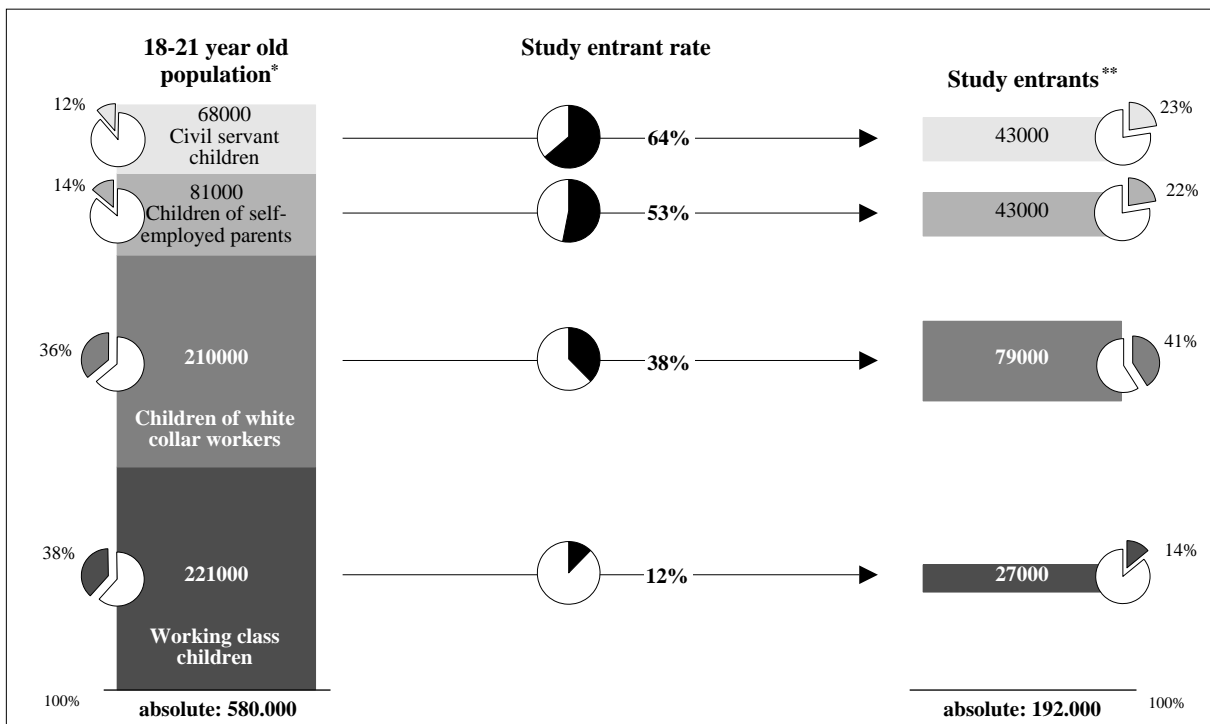
The relatively small groups of children from civil servant and self-employed backgrounds (68,000 civil servant children, 81,000 children of parents in self-employment) each produce around 43,000 study entrants on account of the high educational participation rates (64% and 53%, respectively). Thus, substantially more children from this group start studying than from the group of working class children, which is three times as large.

For 1996, this provides the following percentage breakdown of the total of 192,000 study entrants

**Fig. 13 Demography and educational participation in 1996**

$$\left[ \begin{array}{c} \text{social group} \\ \text{specific year} \\ \text{group size} \end{array} \right] * \left[ \begin{array}{c} \text{social group} \\ \text{specific study} \\ \text{entrant rate} \end{array} \right] = \left[ \begin{array}{c} \text{social make-up of} \\ \text{study entrants} \\ \text{(absolute and propor-} \\ \text{tional)} \end{array} \right]$$

Germans only, *old Länder*, in absolute and in %



DSW/HIS 15<sup>th</sup> Social Survey

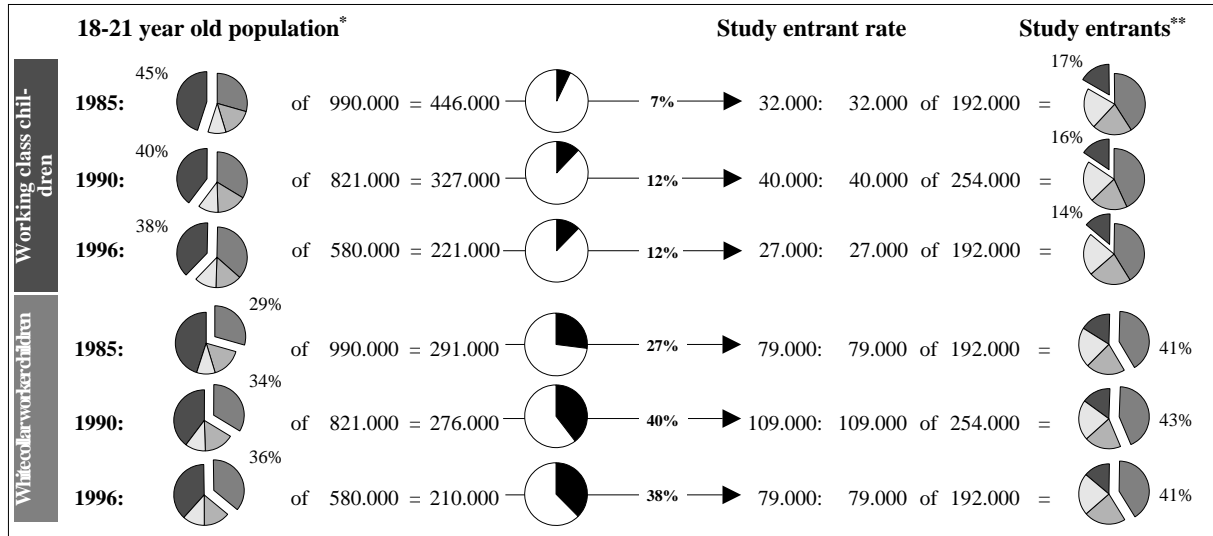
\* Synthetic reference year group (average year group sizes of 18 - 21 year olds in the German population). German study entrants in the 1995 academic year (summer semester '95 and winter semester '95/'96) at universities, Fachhochschule institutions and public administration Fachhochschule institutions.

Sources: Federal Office of Statistics, HIS calculations based on: Federal Office of Statistics: Population Figures (unpublished); Federal Office of Statistics: Students in Higher Education, various year groups; Microcensus (special analyses); HIS survey among study entrants

**Fig. 14 Demography and educational participation over the course of time for working class and white collar worker children**

$$\left[ \begin{array}{c} \text{social group} \\ \text{specific year} \\ \text{group size} \end{array} \right] * \left[ \begin{array}{c} \text{social group} \\ \text{specific study} \\ \text{entrant rate} \end{array} \right] = \left[ \begin{array}{c} \text{social make-up of} \\ \text{study entrants} \\ \text{(absolute and propor-} \\ \text{tional)} \end{array} \right]$$

Germans only, *alte Länder*, in absolut and in %



\* Synthetic reference year group (average year group sizes of 18 - 21 year olds in the German population).

DSW/HIS 15<sup>th</sup> Social Survey

\*\* German study entrants in the 1995 academic year (summer semester '95 and winter semester '95/'96) at universities, Fachhochschule institutions and public administration Fachhochschule institutions.

Sources: Federal Office of Statistics, HIS calculations based on: Federal Office of Statistics: Population Figures (unpublished); Federal Office of Statistics: Students in Higher Education, various year groups; Microcensus (special analyses); HIS survey among study entrants

(Germans only):

Civil servant children	23%
Children of parents in self-employment	22%
White collar worker children	41%
Working class children	14%

These proportional values are rates based on social make-up. They must not be confused with the educational participation or study entrant rate.

The educational participation rate for working class children (12%) is based on the total of all working class children in the reference year (221,000), while the social make-up rate (14%) mirrors the proportion of working class children among all study entrants (27,000 of 192,000). Indeed, it is only a matter of coincidence that the two rates are relatively close to each other.

Fig. 14 shows as an example how the year group sizes and educational participation rates develop over time. For example, the educational participation rate (study entrant rate) for working class children in 1985 was 7% and then rose to 12% in 1996. Since the number of working class children in the population slumped from 446,000 to 221,000 over the same period, the doubling of the educational participation rate is more than

compensated for by this demographically-caused reduction. Instead of 32,000 study entrants in 1995, the year 1996 only saw 27,000 take up their studies.

In the case of white collar worker children, the educational participation rate between 1985 and 1996 rose from 27% to 38%. This effect was simultaneously accompanied by a reduction in the overall number of white collar worker children (age group size 1985: 291,000 - and 1996: 210,000). However, this reduction was weaker than in the year group for working class children. The simultaneous increase in the educational participation rate sufficed to maintain the 1985 number of study entrants in 1996 (79,000).

Based on all study entrants (1996=192,000), working class children account for a share of 14%; compared with 1985 (17%), a slight drop has been observed. While the white collar worker children maintain their relative share of 41%.

#### 4. Social Make-Up of the Student Body

Regardless of the interaction between demography and educational participation (cf. Ch. 3), the following will provide a precise characterisation of the student body on the basis

**Fig. 15 Education by social background groups**

occupational status	Educational background	
	with a higher	without a higher
	education qual.	education qual.
self-employed (larger company)		
senior civil servant		
senior white collar worker		
self-employed (medium-sized company)		
higher civil servant		
qualified white collar worker/master craftsman		
self-employed (small company)		
lower and intermediate civil servant		
general white collar worker		
Skilled labourer/craftsman/-woman		
worker/operative		

social background group:	upper	middle
	upper-middle	lower

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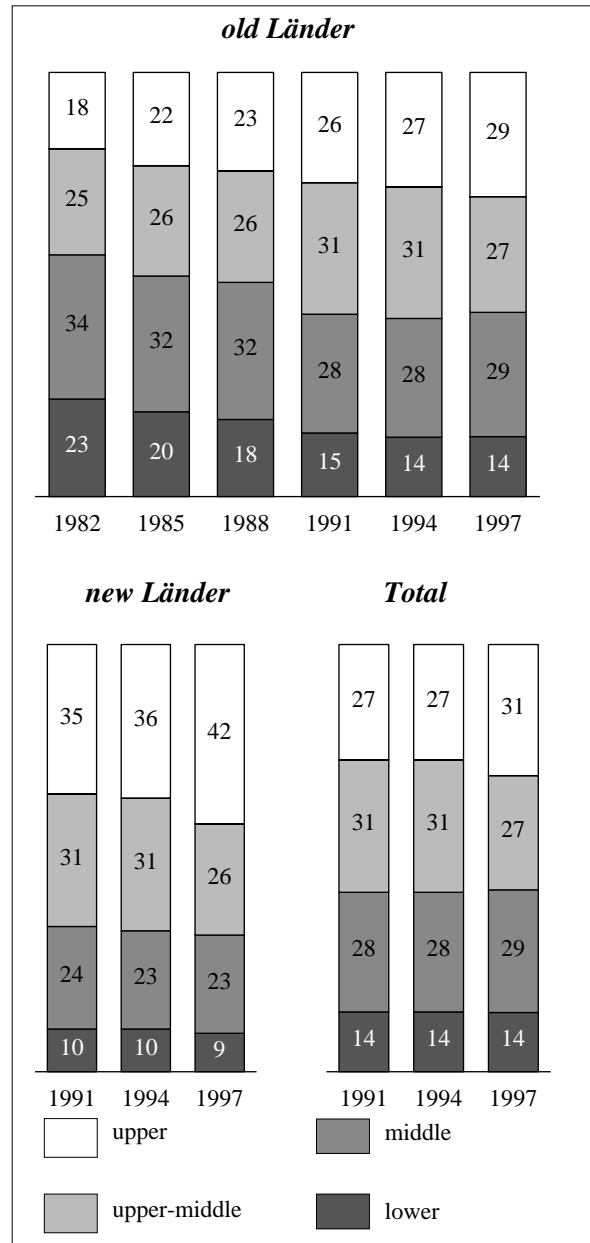
of its social make-up, with the assistance of the differentiated results produced by the Social Survey.

The hierarchical model of social background groups developed for the Social Survey will be used to characterise the social make-up of the student body. This model is more precise than the social group specific differentiation used for the educational participation rates, since not only occupational status, but also educational background is considered. By combining occupational position and parental educational qualification, four background groups can be identified: low, middle, upper-middle, upper (Fig. 15).

In the *old Länder* in 1997, only 14% of all students came from the lower social background group (Fig. 16). The drop of this share in comparison with 1982, when it was 23%, is solely caused by the fact that the year group sizes of working class children in society have fallen. More than half of the members of the student body come from the upper (29%) and upper-middle (27%) social background groups.

The unequal presence of students from the individual social background groups can be even

**Fig. 16 Social make-up of the student body from 1982 to 1997**  
in %



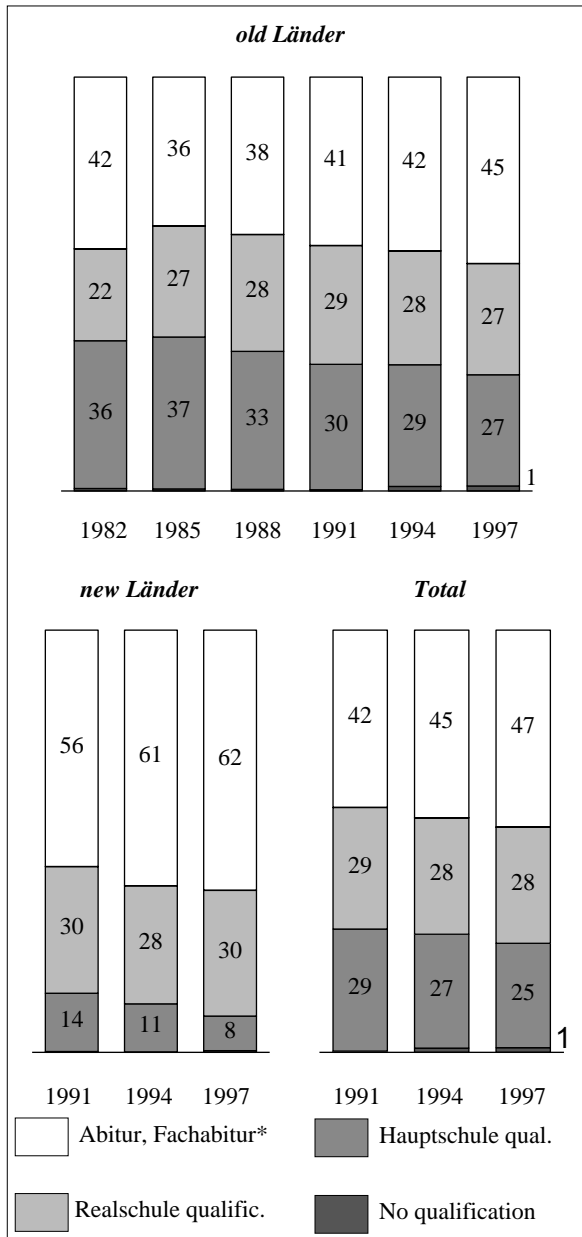
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more clearly identified in the *new Länder*. Only 9% of the students come from the lower social background group, compared with 42% from the upper background group (Fig. 16). Compared with 1991, this dominance of upper and upper-middle strata in the student body in the new Länder has strengthened further.

**Educational Background**

The large proportion of parents of students (47%) hold an Abitur school-leaving certificate (general higher education entrance qualification). In the *new Länder*, this process of

**Fig. 17 Highest parental school-leaving qualification from 1982 to 1997 in %**



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\* General (Abitur) or subject-restricted (Fachabitur) higher education entrance qualification

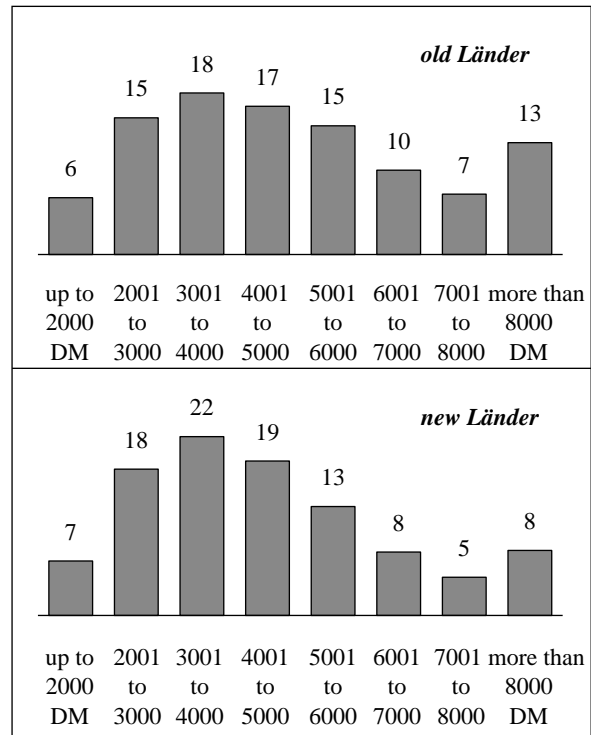
self-recruitment within educational strata can be even more clearly identified. Almost two thirds of the parents of students hold the higher education entrance qualification. In the *old Länder*, the share is 45% (Fig. 17).

**Parental Income**

The distribution of net parental income shows that a large proportion of parents of students earn higher incomes.

In the *old Länder* 30% of the parents have a net family income of DM 6,000 and more. In the

**Fig. 18 Students by parental net income\***  
Proportion per income category in %



DSW/HIS 15<sup>th</sup> Social Survey

\* details unavailable for old Länder: 21%, new Länder 16%

lower income brackets, by contrast, the proportion with incomes up to DM 2,000 is 6% (while from DM 0 to DM 4,000 it is 39%).

In contrast to the *old Länder*, the majority of parental incomes in the *new Länder* are slightly lower. Only 21% have a net income in excess of DM 6,000. By contrast, a larger proportion is taken by the lower income brackets (up to DM 2,000 the figure is 7%; up to DM 4,000 it is 47%). In contrast to 1994, however, the income distribution among parents in the new Länder has moved substantially towards the income distribution structure found in the *old Länder* (Fig. 18).

**5. Study Funding and Student Income**

The survey presents the income situation of single students not living in the parental home and engaged in their first degree course (the 'Standard Student' reference group). These students are viewed as the standard case in maintenance, support and assistance policy considerations. The 'Standard Student' reference group currently encompasses 62% of all students.

The economic (i.e. financial) situation of the other students who are either still living in the parental home, are already married or have

already successfully completed their first degree course differs substantially from the 'standard' case as a result of different living and household situations.

**Monthly Income Level**

Even in 1997, substantial differences were recorded between students in the old and new Länder in terms of the monthly income available for covering the cost of living. This difference cannot be depicted in an all-German chart (Fig. 19). The following will therefore differentiate throughout - as was already the case in the scope of the Social Surveys of 1991 and 1994 - between the financial situation of students in the old and new Länder.

The distribution of income is broadly spread. The 10% of students with the lowest income in the old Länder have less than DM 810 available, while in the new Länder it is DM 690. At the other end of the distribution scale, the 10% of students with the highest income in the old Länder have more than DM 1,995 at their disposal, compared with more than DM 1,618 in

the new Länder.

Quartering the overall distribution scale provides the following incomes in four equal sections:

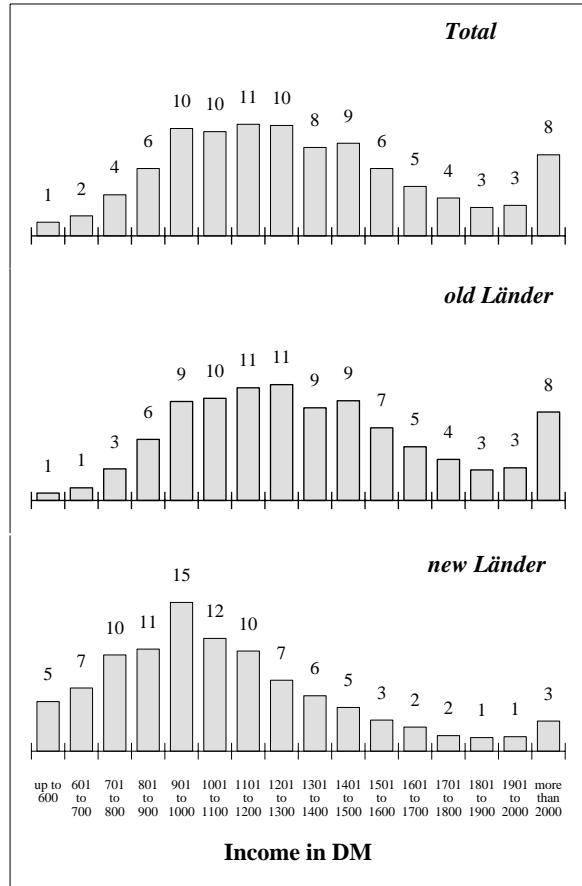
<u>Students</u>	<u>Old Länder</u>	<u>New Länder</u>
	- monthly income in DM -	
Quarter 1	up to 1,070	up to 850
Quarter 2	more than 1,070 up to 1,300	more than 850 up to 1,030
Quarter 3	more than 1,300 up to 1,600	more than 1,030 up to 1,300
Quarter 4	more than 1,600	more than 1,300

The quarter of students with the lowest income in the old Länder have less than DM 1,070 and in the new Länder less than DM 850 at their disposal. The cut-off level between the two lower quarters and the two higher quarters is the central value (or median). This describes the income amount under which the one half of students is found and above which the other half is located. In the old Länder this value is DM 1,300, while in the new Länder it is DM 1,030. Consequently, while half the students in the old Länder have more than DM 1,300 at their disposal, only around one quarter of the students in the new Länder have monthly incomes of this magnitude.

The average monthly income (arithmetic mean) for students in the old Länder is DM 1,392, while in the new Länder the amount is somewhat lower at DM 1,115.

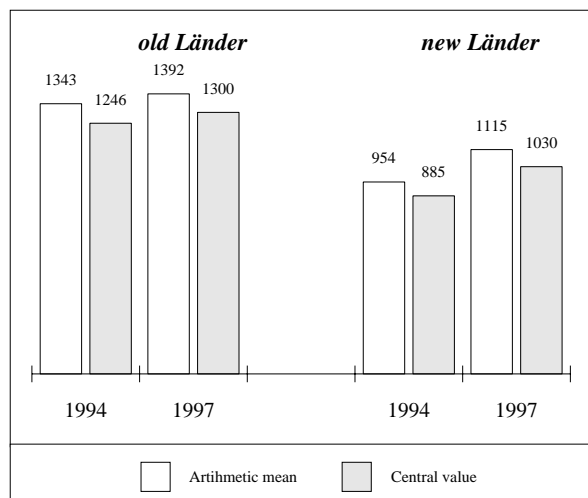
The arithmetic mean of monthly income is higher than the central value (Fig. 20), because, on the basis of the distribution structure

**Fig. 19 Students by monthly income level**  
'Standard student' reference group in %



**Fig. 20 Development of monthly income - middle values**

Standard Student reference group, in DM



calculation (cf. Fig. 19), the majority of students (old Länder being 57%, new Länder, 59%) have a monthly income which is below the average sum, while a small proportion of students have income levels which are above this average amount, and in some cases even 'extremely' exceed this. In contrast to the arithmetic mean, the central value remains completely unaffected by extreme values. In view of the income distribution structure ascertained by the survey, with individual extreme values in the upper income areas, the central value would seem more appropriate for normative requirement considerations.

In comparison with the average sums calculated in 1994 (Fig. 20: arithmetic mean), the current generation of students have nominally higher incomes at their disposal: in the *old Länder* the increase amounts to 3.6%, while in the new Länder the increase is 16.9%. If the real development of the cost of living is calculated by taking the development of the price index for the cost of living of all private households into consideration, then the nominally higher income levels only result in a real increase for students in the new Länder, namely of 9.8%. The purchasing power of students in the old Länder, on the other hand, is now 1.3% lower than in 1994.

When assessing the development of income levels in the *new Länder*, it should be noted that the proportion of students who have 'migrated' there from the old Länder has increased substantially. If the criterion applied to local students and migrant students is based on the Länder in which their higher education entrance qualifications were gained, then, according to the data of the Social Survey, the proportion of students who originate from the old Länder has risen from 11% (1994) to 23% (1997) (students who gained their higher education entrance qualifications in Berlin and who are studying at a higher education institution in East Berlin are treated as locals for the purpose of this assessment). The fact that migrant students from the old Länder have significantly higher monthly income levels at their disposal than the students who originate from the new Länder (not including students in East Berlin) is of importance to the income development (in 1997 the income was DM 230 higher on average). The substantial increase in the real income levels of students in the new Länder is consequently partly to be explained by the increased migration of students from the old Länder.

The monthly income levels of students receiving Bafög payments (Federal Educational Assistance Act) in the old Länder is just under 10% less than the income of students not receiving Bafög (DM 1,284 vs. DM 1,422). In

the new Länder the same situation has been identified, with the income of Bafög recipients being just under 8% lower (DM 1,056 vs. DM 1,146).

### Funding Sources - Utilisation and Level

Only a minority of students (18%) cover their cost of living with income from just one source of funding. In most cases, students make use of two sources of funding (47%). However, a combination of three sources is also quite common (27%). The other students (8%) have four and more sources of income at their disposal. There is no remarkable difference to be observed between students in the old and new Länder in this respect.

The various sources of funding are individually listed in Fig. 21. The chart additionally shows how many students draw income from the individual sources and the average level that is drawn.

### Parental Contribution

Parental support continues to be the most important source of funding used by students to cover their living expenses. Both in the old as well as in the new Länder, the large majority of

**Fig. 21 Funding sources - contributions and amounts**

'Standard Student' reference group, students in %, arithmetic mean in DM

Source of funding	<i>old Länder</i>		<i>new Länder</i>	
	Students	Amount	Students	Amount
	%	DM	%	DM
Total parental contribution	86	791	90	657
- as a cash payment	77	612	94	526
- as a non-cash payment	51	400	50	298
personal earnings/savings from employment taken up during the studies	69	635	56	417
Bafög	21	642	34	549
Recourse to savings from before studies commenced	20	234	16	186
Relatives, friends	16	147	20	114
Orphan pension, orphan benefit	5	436	6	384
Partner	3	303	3	212
Scholarship/grant from an organisation promoting gifted students, from a company, and so on	2	541	1	509
Bank loan or other loan from a third party (not Bafög)	2	409	1	267
Other sources	4	551	4	412



students (86% respectively 90%) receive financial support from their parents. On average, this support is DM 791, respectively DM 657.

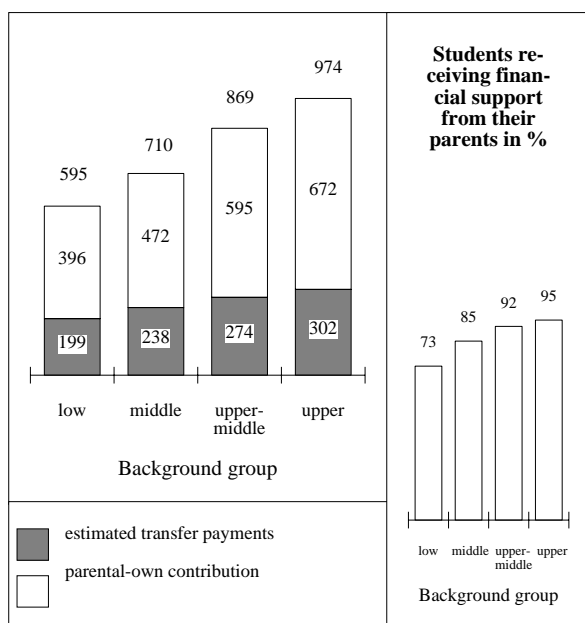
The maintenance payments made by parents are composed of cash placed directly at the disposal of the students as well as of so-called non-cash payments. The non-cash payments largely (1997: 66%) consist of rent payments which parents pay straight to the student's property owner. However, other non-cash payments also need to be considered (payment of car tax, goods in kind, etc.).

Compared with 1994, the proportion of students being supported by their parents in 1997 has risen - in the old Länder by just under 3 percentage points and in the new Länder by 4 percentage points. And the average sum which parents make available has also increased - in the old Länder marginally (by DM 11 or respectively 1.4%) and in the new Länder clearly (by DM 147 or respectively 28.8%).

The extent of parental support is particularly influenced by the social background and the student's age. As social background rises, so too does the proportion of students receiving parental support as well as the level of maintenance (Fig. 22). As students grow older, the proportion of students receiving parental support drops, as does the maintenance support sum (Fig. 23).

**Fig. 22 Level of parental support payments by social background - excluding BAföG recipients**

'Standard Student' reference group, arithmetic mean in DM related to the proportion of applicable students



Although 86% of the students throughout Germany are supported with an average of DM 722 per month by their parents, it should be noted that 35% of this sum is estimated to be made up of state-awarded relief provided to maintenance-obliged parents (child benefit/child allowance, education allowance), with the other 65% coming from parents' own resources.

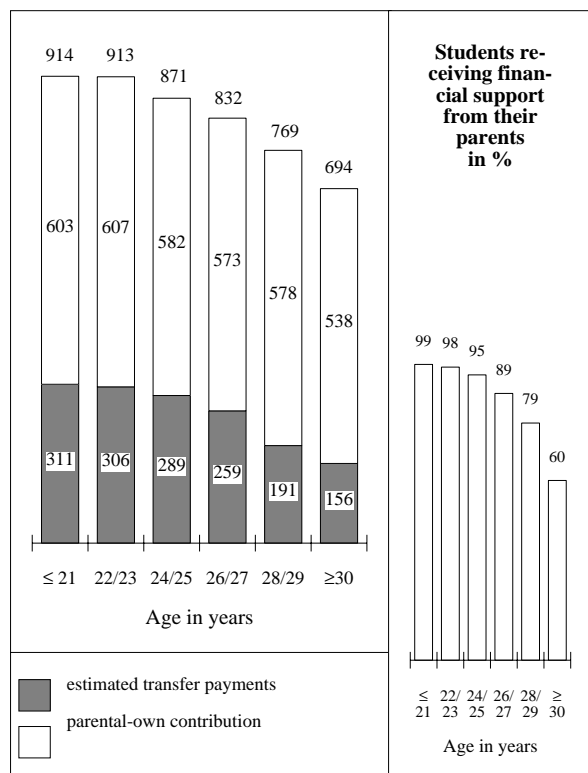
A comparison of the sums paid by parents in individual cases and of the estimated state transfer payments made to the benefit of parents leads to the conclusion that 90% of the students are being supported with sums which are higher than the estimated transfer payments. Yet, this does mean that 10% are actually being supported with sums which are lower than the transfer payments which parents receive from the state.

Indeed, a cautious estimate as regards the total payment made by families using the BAföG funding rate as a measure of sufficient provision shows that at least 175,000 students living away from the parental home are not being appropriately supported by their parents.

**Student Earned Income - Self-Funding Element**

**Fig. 23 Level of parental support payments by student age - excluding BAföG recipients**

'Standard Student' reference group, arithmetic mean in DM related to the proportion of applicable students



Student earned income from employment taken up parallel to the studies in the *old Länder* has, since 1988 (12<sup>th</sup> Social Survey), been the funding source which has - with an upward trend - played the greatest role next to the parental maintenance. In the period from 1994 - 1997 the proportion of students who use money earned in employment taken up parallel to the studies to cover their cost of living has increased by just under 2 percentage points to today's level of 69%. The average sum of money earned by working students has also risen. Whereas in 1994 this amounted to DM 557 per month, it is presently DM 78 respectively 14% higher at DM 635.

In the *new Länder*, too, the importance of personal earnings as an element of covering living expenses is growing quickly. While in 1994, 49% of all students used their personal earnings to cover their living expenses, with the average additional earnings for working students amounting to DM 331, the proportion of working students has meanwhile risen to 57% and the average earning level has increased by a good quarter to DM 417 (cf. Ch. 13 for details on student employment).

The extent of the self-funding element is particularly dependent on the age of the students. As they grow older, the proportion of students working for personal earnings rises as does the average level of these earnings. From 42% with DM 338 in the age group up to 21 years old to 83% with DM 1,105 in the age group of 30 and over.

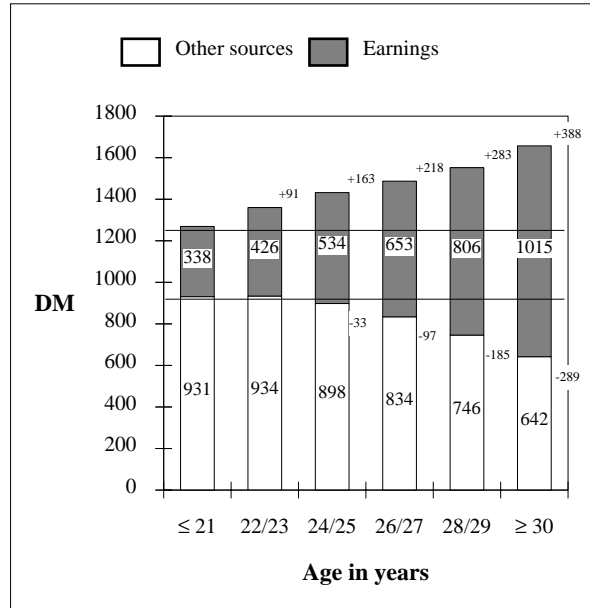
This age-related increase in additional earnings compensates for the downward movement in parental support and simultaneously increases the level of total monthly income. Consequently, it can be observed that the falling basic income is being overcompensated. This can largely be explained as the result of growing wish to have a better standard of living as students become older (Fig. 24).

#### State Assistance

The third essential source of funding with which living expenses are covered during a student's studies is assistance provided under BAföG (the Federal Educational Assistance Act). In the *old Länder* such assistance is received by 21% of the Standard Students (for information on the BAföG funding rate for all students cf. Ch. 7). The average assistance received by these students is DM 642. Compared with the results of 1994, the proportion of Standard Students receiving assistance has dropped markedly (1994: 30%), while the average value of assistance is greater (1994: DM 604). It should be remembered that in the meantime the standard funding rate for students living outside

**Fig. 24 Age specific increase in monthly income by means of employment**

'Standard Student' reference group, arithmetic mean in DM related to the proportion of applicable students



DSW/HIS 15<sup>th</sup> Social Survey

of the parental home has been raised from DM 795 to DM 830.

In the *new Länder* a greater proportion of students continue to receive BAföG assistance than in the *old Länder*. However, the drop in the proportion of Standard Students receiving assistance is much more pronounced, namely from 58% (1994) to 34% (1997), than in the *old Länder*. This is partly to be explained by the improved income situation of parents of students in the *new Länder* (cf. Ch. 5). The average assistance sum in the *new Länder* is DM 549, while in 1994 it was still DM 455. Here, too, a rise in the standard funding rate for students living outside the parental home has been implemented, namely from DM 650 to DM 680.

In the one or the other case, the remaining funding sources will be of substantial importance to the students who are supported by them. Overall, the significance of each of the payment levels from these sources must not be underestimated. However, in comparison with the 3 main sources - parental payments, personal earnings and BAföG payments - their significance remains relatively small.

#### Composition of the Monthly Income Budget

Fig. 25 shows the extent to which the individual sources of funding contribute to the overall monthly income as a statistical average. In producing this chart, the sums provided by the individual sources of funding were calculated for

all students (reference group 'Standard Student') - regardless of whether the individual student actually drew resources from the respective source.

In the *old Länder* then, parents are responsible for covering 49% of the total budget of students. Compared with 1994, the budget share covered by parents has shown a slight upward trend. In the period from 1994 - 1997, the share of personal student earnings has seen a pronounced rise. While 1994 saw a self-funding share of 28% of the total monthly income, this has meanwhile risen to 31%. On the other hand, the proportion of monthly income covered by BAföG resources over the comparable period has dropped, namely from 13% to 10%.

The composition of the income budget has changed much more noticeably in the *new*

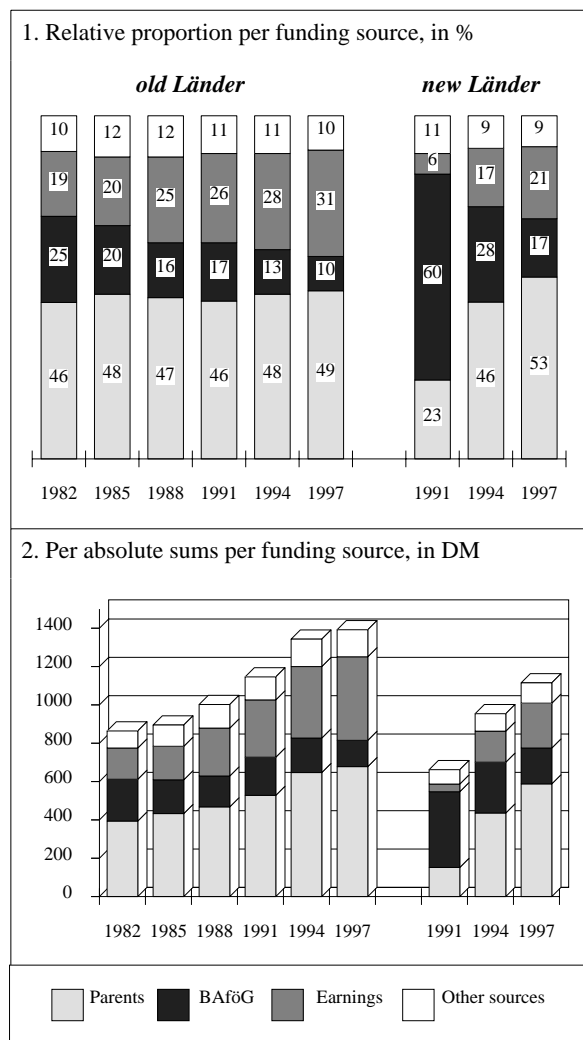
*Länder* over the period from 1994 - 1997. The proportion of the monthly income covered by parents has risen from 46% to 53%. The proportion of personal student earnings has also risen, namely from 17% to 21%. As the sum of the growth rates of the parental share and the student self-funding share has risen, so the proportion of BAföG resources has dropped, from 28% to 17%.

It is remarkable that the parents of students in the new *Länder* meanwhile cover a greater share of the income budget than do the parents of students in the old *Länder*. This can partly be explained by the above-mentioned strong migration of students from the old *Länder* to the new *Länder*. These migrant students generally receive parental support which is around 50% higher than that received by local students. On the other hand, it is apparent that the income situation of parents of students in the new *Länder* has clearly improved in comparison with 1994, while in the old *Länder*, the income situation of parents tends to remain constant (cf. Ch. 7).

Based on the assumption of absolute sum per funding source, out of which, statistically, the average income budget is composed, the development of the financial potential of the individual funding sources can be calculated for the period from 1994 - 1997. In so doing, a differentiation must be made between the nominal and the real development. The real development is calculated by taking the cost of living price index for all private households into account. The result reveals the extent to which the purchasing power provided by the amount available in 1997 has changed in relation to 1994.

The results of this calculation are compiled in

**Fig. 25 Funding structure - Make-up of monthly income by funding sources**  
'Standard Student' reference group



**Fig. 26 Amounts provided by funding sources**

'Standard Student' reference group

Funding source	Sum in DM*)		Change in %	
	1994	1997	Nominal	Real
<i>- old Länder -</i>				
Parents	647	678	4,8	-0,2
Personal earnings	373	436	16,9	11,4
BAföG	180	137	-23,9	-27,5
Other sources	143	141	-1,4	-6,1
<i>- new Länder -</i>				
Parents	436	588	34,9	26,7
Personal earnings	162	234	44,4	35,7
BAföG	265	187	-29,4	-33,7
Other sources	91	106	16,5	9,4

\*) Sum statistically distributed to each Standard Student

Fig. 26. In 1997, students in the *old Länder* nominally received 4.8% more financial support from their parents than in 1994. In real terms, however, the level of parental funding is, for all practical purposes, on the same level as in 1994. By contrast, the recourse level to 'personal earnings' as a funding source has increased substantially. Nominally, students earn additional income which is 16.9% greater than in 1994. In real terms, this means that personal earnings from employment taken up during the studies has increased by 11.4%. The payments of the other funding sources were already nominally falling in the period from 1994 - 1997. In particular, the drop in resources provided by BAföG is remarkable. Nominally, 23.9% less funding is provided by BAföG than in 1994, which, in real terms, means a reduction in BAföG payments of 27.5%.

In the *new Länder* the drop in BAföG payments is even more pronounced - nominally they have fallen by 29.4%, in real terms by 33.7%. By contrast, an obviously greater commitment can be observed on the part of parents, with the nominal increase in their financial contribution amounting to 34.9%, which in real terms means a parental payment increase of 26.7%. And students themselves have also substantially increased their self-funding contribution. Earnings from employment taken up during the studies by students in the new Länder have increased nominally by 44.4%, in real terms by 35.7%.

**6. Living Expenses - Student Spending**

The cost of living for students (reference group 'Standard Student') continued to differ substantially between the old and new Länder in 1997 - analogously to the monthly income levels. In the old Länder, half the students spend less than DM 1,220 on living expenses, while the other half spend more. In the new Länder, this so-called central value of spending distribution is DM 960.

On average (arithmetic mean) students in the old Länder spend DM 1,283 per month on living expenses. The average sum in the new Länder is DM 1,009, meaning that it is one fifth less than in the old Länder. In 1994, students in the new Länder were only spending one third less than students from the old Länder. Hence, the differences in the cost of living between the old and the new Länder have reduced in the period from 1994 - 1997.

Compared with 1994, the monthly spending of students in the *old Länder* has risen nominally by 4.2%, while in real terms - that is under consideration of the development of the cost of living price index for all private households - they are 0.7% less. In practical terms, this result means that the cost of living for students in the

*old Länder* has hardly changed over the comparative period.

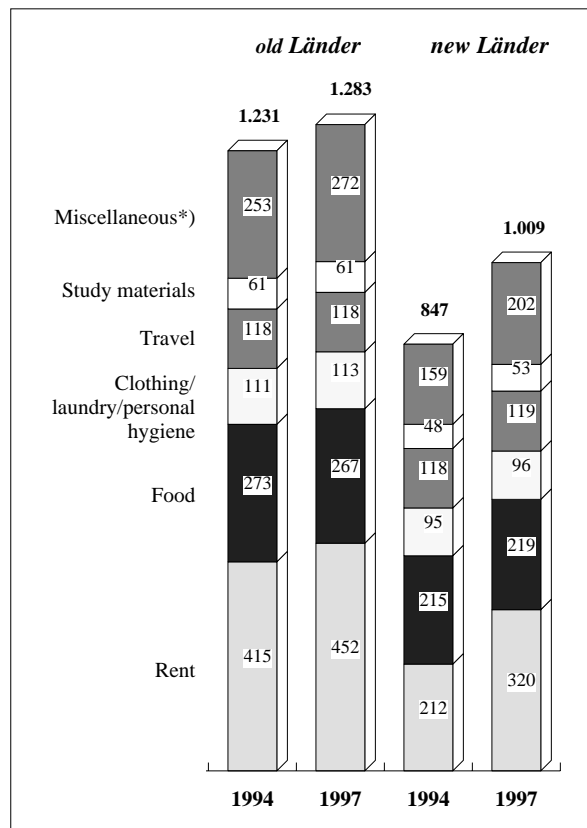
In 1997, students in the *new Länder* were faced with living expenses which were nominally 19.1% higher than in 1994. Taking the price index for the cost of living into consideration, this means that the monthly spending in 1997 was 11.9% higher in real terms than in 1994.

Fig. 27 shows how much money students spend on average on individual cost of living items. As this chart shows, accommodation costs (rent incl. ancillary costs) represent the highest spending item, both in the old as well as in the new Länder.

In the *old Länder*, an average 35% of the budget is spent on accommodation (1994: 34%). Rent levels are currently 9% higher than in 1994 (DM 452 vs. DM 415), meaning that nominally they have increased to a greater extent than the total spending budget (4.2%) over the comparative period. Taking the development of the price index for rent levels (including power costs) for all private households into account, the rent costs

**Fig. 27 Monthly spending by students**

'Standard Student' reference group, arithmetic mean in DM



DSW/HIS 15<sup>th</sup> Social Survey

\*) Miscellaneous covers spending on personal health insurance, telephone and postage, hobbies, sport, etc.

for students are only 1% higher than in 1994 in real terms. In practical terms, this means that the student rent increase corresponds with the general rent increase over the comparative period.

The average spending level for food is DM 267, slightly lower than in 1994 (DM 273). The share of food spending in the overall budget is just under 21% (1994: a good 22%).

Minimally more is spent on clothing/laundry/personal hygiene in 1997 than in 1994 (DM 113 vs. DM 111). The average spending on travel has remained constant at the same level as in 1994 (DM 118). Travel covers spending on a motor vehicle and/or public transport. The level of spending on study materials (DM 61) has also remained stable. By contrast, spending on items summarised under the heading of miscellaneous has increased markedly. 8% more is spent here than in 1994 (DM 272 vs. DM 253).

In the *new Länder* spending on accommodation in the period from 1994 - 1997 nominally increased by more than half (50.9%). Consequently, the pronounced increase seen in the overall spending budget is largely caused by the above-average increase in rent costs. The proportion of rent costs in the total budget is now 32% (1994: 25%). In real terms, too, that is under consideration of the development of the price index for rents (including power costs) for all private households, student rents in the new Länder are one third higher (33.9%) than in 1994.

The substantial increase in real rent costs is mainly to be explained by the fact that the proportion of students in the new Länder living in a comparatively reasonably-priced halls of residence is markedly lower than in 1994. Among other factors, the much higher migration of students from the old Länder has contributed to this change in the choice of accommodation (for details on the accommodation situation of students cf. Ch. 18).

Minimal increases over 1994 as regards average spending were to be found for food (DM 219 vs. DM 215), clothing/laundry/personal hygiene (DM 96 vs. DM 95) and travel (DM 119 vs. DM 118) - however these changes are of no statistical significance. In contrast to these costs, expenditure on study materials (DM 53 vs. DM 48) and costs summarised under miscellaneous (DM 202 vs. DM 159) were significantly higher than in 1994.

The cost of living level is substantially influenced by the place of study. For example, in the *old Länder*, students in university/college towns with up to 100,000 inhabitants have average monthly costs of DM 1,186 (of which DM 403 is spent on rent), while students in

major cities with a population in excess of 700,000 spend DM 1,425 per month (of which DM 524 is spent on rent).

It may be assumed with all due care and consideration that the quarter of all students with the lowest monthly income are faced with a precarious cost of living level (cf. Fig. 28). The monthly spending of these students in the old Länder averages out at DM 896, while in the new Länder it is DM 668.

## 7. Bafög Assistance

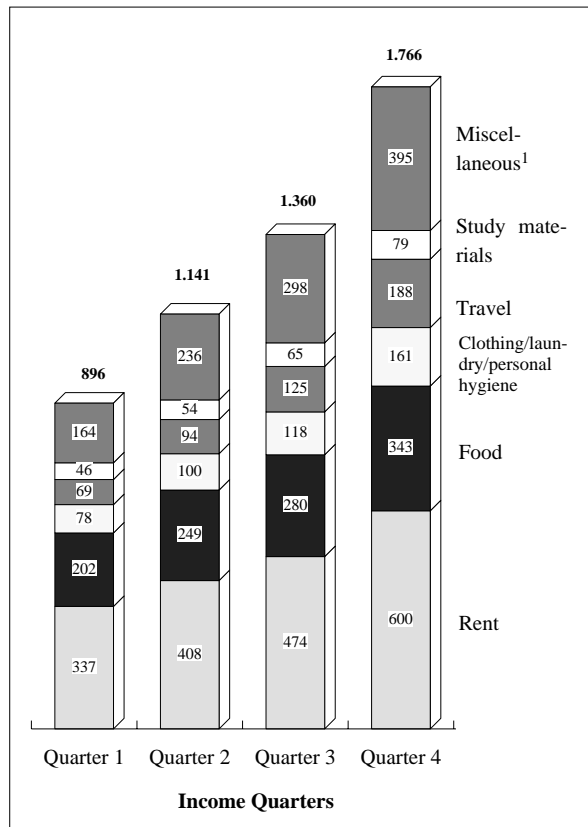
### Assisted Students Rate

Based on the number of all enrolled German students in Germany in the 1997 summer semester, 18.7% were receiving Bafög assistance (standard method of calculation). In the old Länder, the Bafög rate based on this method of calculation is 17.0%, while in the new Länder it is 30.7%.

If the Bafög rate is calculated on the basis of the normative method (which means that

**Fig. 28 Monthly student spending by income level - income quaters**

'Standard Student' reference group, arithmetic mean in DM



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<sup>\*)</sup> Miscellaneous covers spending on personal health insurance, telephone and postage, hobbies, sport, etc.

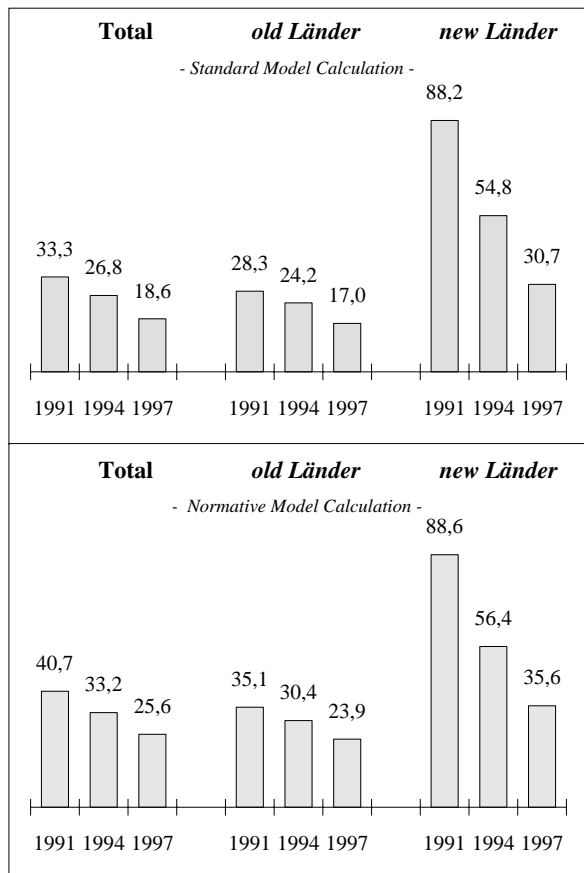
students who essentially are no longer entitled to assistance are excluded from the calculation), then a nation-wide rate of 25.7% is the result. In the old Länder, the normative BAföG rate is 24%, while in the new Länder it is 35.6%.

The exclusion of students essentially no longer entitled to assistance has a greater effect on the BAföG rate in the old Länder than in the new Länder.

The difference between the BAföG rates in the old and new Länder is a consequence of the continuing differences in income situation found in the two mentioned areas. Because BAföG is designed to balance out the income disadvantages of maintenance-obliged parents in the form of subsidiary assistance, the system produced a higher rate of assisted students in the new Länder than in the old Länder. Compared with the BAföG rates found in 1994 (Fig. 29), it is apparent that the situation in the old and the new Länder is undergoing a process of approximation.

While in the old Länder, the proportion of assisted students, calculated using the standard

**Fig. 29 Proportion of BAföG assisted students**  
in %



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method, was just under 30% lower in 1997 than in 1994, the corresponding drop in the new Länder is 44%. Based on the normative method, the BAföG rate has dropped in the old Länder by a good 21% over the same period, while in the new Länder it has dropped by just under 37%.

Of students currently receiving BAföG assistance, 22% receive **parent-independent assistance** (1994: 21%). The parents of these students have already met their maintenance obligation and are, under the provisions of BAföG, no longer obliged to contribute to the maintenance of their student child. The proportion of parent-independent assisted students in the old Länder is 23% of all BAföG recipients, while in the new Länder it is 21%. Related to all students, just under 4% of the students in the old Länder receive parent-independent assistance, while in the new Länder it is a good 6%.

The development of parental income is important for the estimation of **parent-dependent assistance**. Essentially, the make-up of the student body broken down according to parental net income did not change in the *old Länder* between 1994 and 1997, except that the proportion of students who gave no details on this has dropped, meaning that the lower and the two upper income categories are slightly more strongly represented (Fig. 30). If attention is directed towards the proportion of students assisted per income category - obviously only those assisted students are considered here who receive assistance which is dependent on the parental income level - it becomes apparent that the relative reduction in the BAföG rate is substantial in each income category. This result is surprising to the extent that, at least in the

**Fig. 30 Students by parental income and BAföG rate per income category**

'First degree course' reference group, *old Länder*

Monthly parental net income	1994		1997		relative change to the rate (%)
	Stud. %	Rate <sup>1</sup> %	Stud. %	Rate <sup>1</sup> %	
up to 3000 DM	14	48,4	16	33,8	-30,2
DM 3000-4000	14	32,0	14	25,0	-21,9
DM 4000-5000	13	18,7	13	13,8	-26,2
DM 5000-6000	10	11,7	12	8,9	-23,9
over 6000 DM	20	3,5	23	2,3	-34,3
No details	29	17,3	22	11,0	-36,4
Total	100	20,6	100	14,8	-28,2

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<sup>1</sup> Proportion of parent-dependent assisted students

**Fig. 31 Students by parental income and BAföG rate per income category**

'First degree course' reference group, *new Länder*

Monthly parental net income	1994		1997		relative change to the rate <sup>1</sup> (%)
	Stud. %	Rate <sup>1</sup> %	Stud. %	Rate <sup>1</sup> %	
up to 3000 DM	25	76,4	20	51,3	-32,9
DM 3000-4000	22	52,5	19	37,3	-29,0
DM 4000-5000	14	38,6	16	20,5	-46,9
DM 5000-6000	9	23,1	11	11,4	-50,6
over DM 6000	10	8,4	18	4,9	-41,7
No details	20	40,2	16	20,9	-48,0
Total	100	47,1	100	26,1	-44,6

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<sup>1</sup> Proportion of parent-dependent assisted students

lower income categories, the increase in the basic tax-free allowance would have led to an expectation of a higher or at least stable BAföG rate. In the period from 1994 - 1997 the basic allowance of parental income was raised by around 6% (from DM 1,900 to DM 2,020). The only explanation for the reduction in the BAföG rate is consequently the assumption that BAföG must have lost substantial degrees of acceptance in the period from 1994 to 1997.

The situation in the *new Länder* differs to the extent that the make-up of students there broken down according to the level of parental income has changed markedly. The proportion of students from parental homes with a monthly net income of up to DM 4,000 fell in the period from 1994 to 1997, while the proportion of parental homes with higher income levels rose (Fig. 31).

But the new Länder also show that the relative reduction in the BAföG rate is substantial in each income category - although less strongly pronounced in the lower income categories than in the higher ones -, meaning that a substantial loss of BAföG acceptance among entitled students can be assumed to have occurred there as well.

As already shown in Ch. 3, the reduction in the level of state assistance for students has been compensated for by a further increase in student employment during the studies.

#### Assistance Levels

The sums paid out to all assisted students in 1997 averaged out at DM 594, meaning just under 8% higher on average than in 1994 (DM 552). However, the 1997 average applies to

18.7% of students, while the 1994 average applied to 26.8% of students. Taking both the sums as well as the proportion of assisted students into account, the monetary payments made by BAföG on the basis of the empirical results of the 3-year period under consideration has dropped by just under a quarter. Hence, in 1997 the state spent nominally 25% less on educational assistance than in 1994.

In the *old Länder*, BAföG recipients drew average assistance of DM 610 (1994: DM 574). Students still living in the parental home (16% of the assisted students) and who are therefore considered to have a lower funding requirement (normally DM 670) received average assistance of DM 437. The larger proportion of assisted students, namely those who were no longer living in the parental home (84%) and whose funding rate is normally placed at DM 830 received DM 643 assistance on average.

In the *new Länder* assisted students received an average of DM 529 (1994: DM 446). The 15% of assisted students still living in the parental home (standard case funding rate: DM 625) received average assistance of DM 383. The other assisted students no longer living in the parental home (standard case funding rate: DM 680) received DM 554 assistance on average.

A nation-wide differentiation between students receiving parent-dependent assistance and those drawing parent-independent assistance reveal that the former receive DM 529 on average, while the latter draw DM 825 on average.

## 8. Access to Higher Education

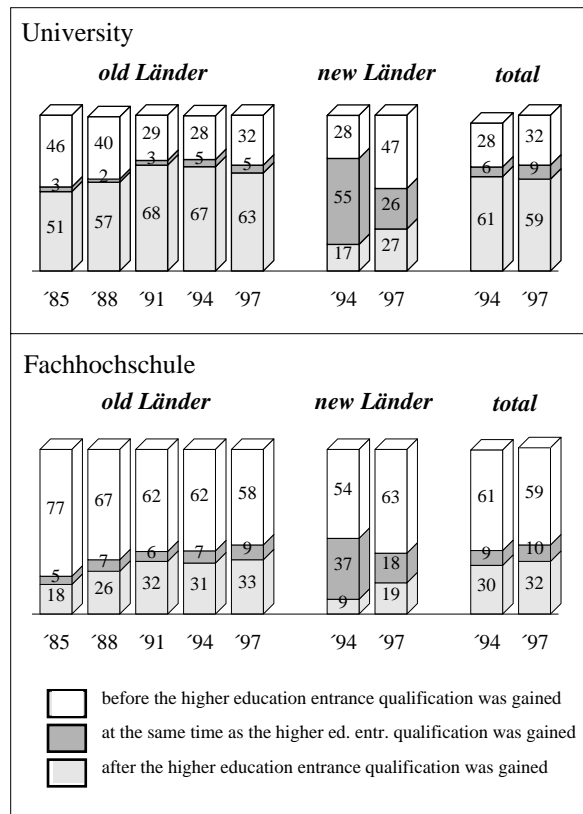
### *Rates of Study and Vocational Training Participation*

The studying rate (people holding a higher education entrance qualification and with the firm intention to study) dropped from 76% in 1976 to 66% in 1996. The studying rate among males holding the higher education entrance qualification (71%) is higher than that for females holding the higher education entrance qualification (62%). People holding the higher education entrance qualification from parental homes with a less-advanced educational background decide less frequently (57%) in favour of studying than do higher education entrance qualification holders from academic families (74%). The gap has actually grown since 1992.

The vocational training rate of the 1996 group of higher education entrance qualification holders is 33%. The vocational training alternative is used more strongly by people from parental homes with a less-advanced educational background than by people with a more-

**Fig. 32 When students gain a vocational/professional qualification**

in % of students holding vocational/professional pre-qualifications



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advanced educational background.

### **Gaining the Higher Education Entrance Qualification**

Of those students who took up studying, 84% gained their higher education entrance qualification via grammar school.

The second and third chance educational paths (special qualification paths and tests for gifted pupils) represent a preferred opportunity for gaining higher qualifications for persons from parental homes with a less-advanced educational background who are interested in studying.

33% of the students had already completed their vocational training before taking up their studies. 44% of the students with vocational training qualifications had gained these before gaining the higher education entrance qualification, while 47% gained it after the higher education entrance qualification (Fig. 32). In the universities, the majority of students holding vocational qualifications had only gained these after they had qualified for higher education study, while at the Fachhochschule institutions (universities of applied sciences), the majority

held vocational qualifications before qualifying for higher education study.

When the vocational qualification is gained after the Abitur (general higher education entrance qualification), indicators for a close relationship with the holder's social background can no longer be identified. If the vocational training is completed before the higher education entrance qualification, then students from parental homes with a less-advanced educational background are overproportionally represented (social background low: 63%, high: 27%).

The average time between acquisition of the higher education entrance qualification and the commencement of studies in 16.3 months. Especially long transition times are to be found for students who completed their vocational training after gaining their higher education entrance qualification. Only one third of the female students to whom this is applicable had commenced their studies within three years of gaining the higher education qualification, whereas in the case of male students, only one quarter had done so (Fig. 33).

### **9. Choice of Study Discipline, Passage of Studies and Time Budget for Studies**

Most parameters referring to the passage of studies, such as study length, study drop-out rate and change of institution, hardly change over time, while stronger trend changes are to be found in the choice of study discipline.

#### **Choice of Study Discipline**

While the engineering disciplines were still the most frequently chosen fields in 1994 (22%), the fields of law and economics have meanwhile taken over this leading position (22%). Only 18% of the study entrants now choose engineering disciplines (Fig. 34).

The migration away from engineering and science based fields above all affects male students. The number of female students reading engineering and science disciplines has even risen - although only at a continuing low level.

Both in engineering as well as in the social sciences, students from parental homes with a less-advanced educational background are overrepresented. In contrast to the engineering disciplines, the influence of social background on the choice of social sciences disciplines is continuing to increase.

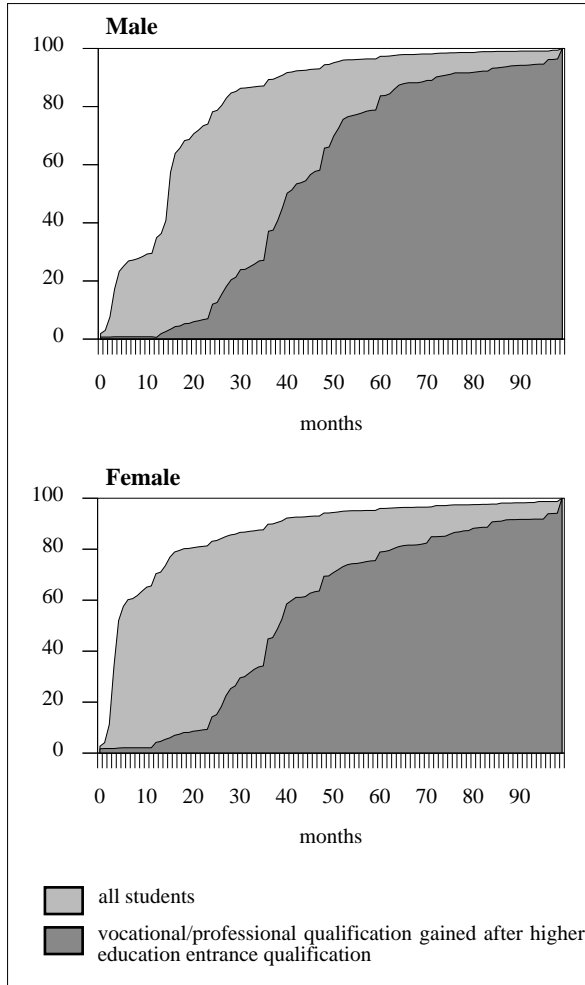
#### **Passage of Studies**

All in all, one in five students change their study discipline and/or target degree. Compared with 1994, the change rate has risen by 2 percentage points to 21%. This is mainly to be explained by the fact that students in the new Länder are also approximating to the students in the old Länder



**Fig. 33 Time between gaining the higher education entrance qualification and the commencement of studies**

cumulated proportional values in month in %



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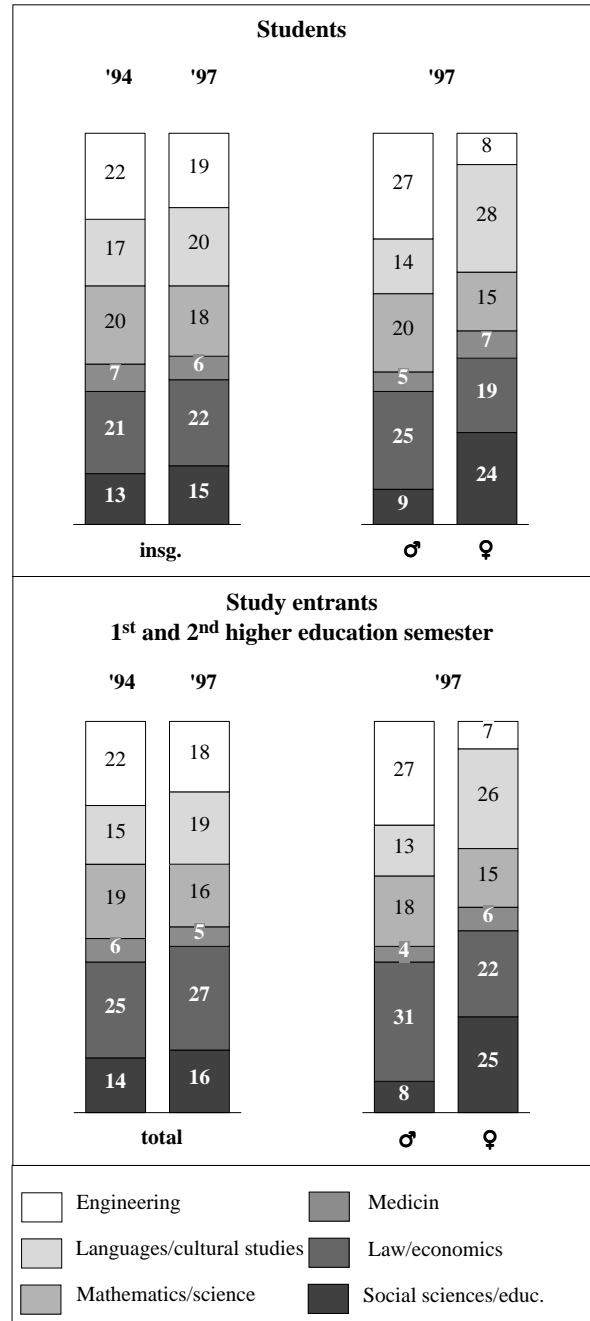
in this respect (1994: 14%, 1997: 17%).

One in ten students drop out of their studies. Since 1994 the rate of study dropouts has been on the increase again. The rate is now approaching 11%, while in earlier years it fluctuated around a value of 9%. A quarter of the cases temporarily left the higher education institution in order to gain experience outside of the higher education environment. However, financial problems and general doubts as to the meaningfulness of study are mentioned almost just as frequently as reasons. Study dropouts have risen from 19% in 1994 to a current level of 24%. The Fachhochschule institutions are the net beneficiaries over universities as a result of students changing their higher education institution (Uni ? FH 14%; FH ? Uni 4%).

11% of the students are engaged in their second degree course. In the old Länder this is more

**Fig. 34 Subject structure for all students and for study entrants per subject groups**

Students or study entrants in their first degree course in %



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common (12%) than in the new Länder (6%). The large majority of students is engaged in a full second degree course (44%), with 39% working towards a doctorate and only 9% completing a postgraduate, supplementary, complementary or refresher course. Advanced study is used to a not insignificant extent as a means of reorienting a discipline in response to

bottlenecks on the job market.

**Time Budget for Studies**

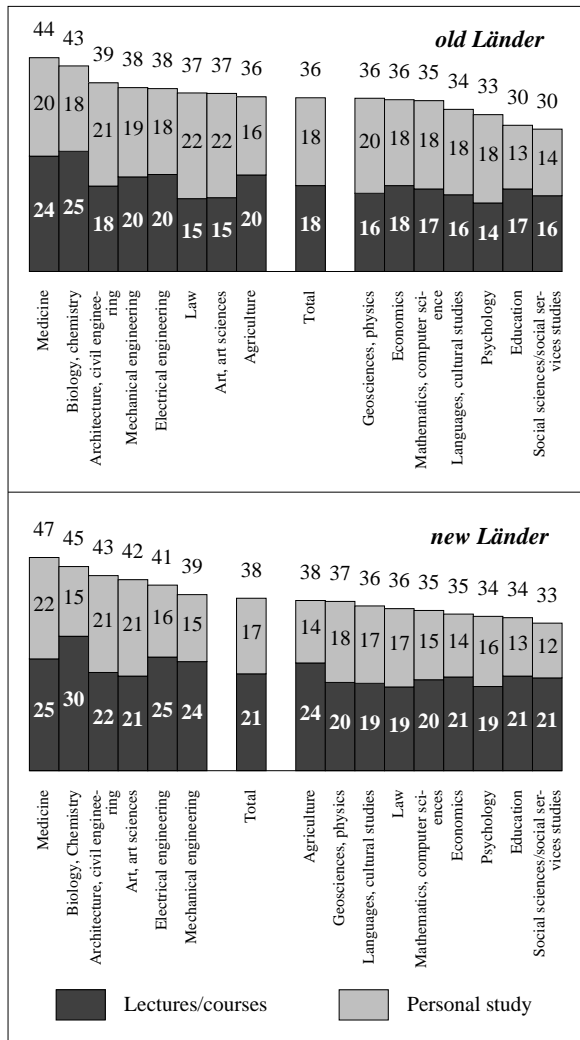
The weekly working hours for all study-related activities for all students is 36 hours (1994: 37 hours per week). The time spent on formalised study and on personal study is shared more or less equally.

The weekly study time in the old Länder spans a breadth from 44 hours (science disciplines) to 30 hours (social sciences). A corresponding breadth is to be found in the new Länder, but at a slightly higher level (Fig. 35).

The differing time spent on studying in the semester is not balanced out by differences in the length of studies. In terms of capacity-based, guided learning volume, students of medicine in

**Fig. 35 Time spent on lectures/courses and personal study in selected study areas**

Students in their first degree course, in hours per week



the old Länder will read a total of 306 semester credit hours in the course of their studies, while social sciences students will in real terms only manage 152 semester credit hours. The recommended breadth is between 180 and 220 semester credit hours.

**10. Study Conditions**

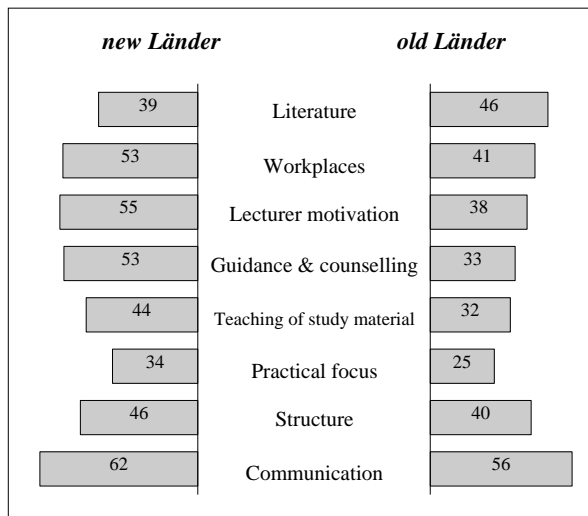
Most students are satisfied with the level of inter-student communication. Around 60% award good grades for this aspect (Fig. 36). However, this aspect is only regarded as particularly important by around one third of all students. A different situation is found, however, where academic counselling and advice given by the teaching staff is concerned. This aspect is considered to be very important by a much greater proportion of students, although only a much smaller proportion can award a 'good' grade to it. The greatest imbalance between the significance and quality of the guidance and counselling is to be found in the assessment given by students of medicine.

A pronounced imbalance between significance and quality is also to be found in the assessment of the way in which the study material is conveyed or taught. Almost two thirds of the students consider this aspect to be very important, but only one third can award 'good' grades. This situation is to be found in all subject groups. It is most pronounced among law students and medical students, and least pronounced among languages and cultural studies students.

Overall, the quality of teaching at Fachhochschule institutions is assessed much

**Fig. 36 Assessment of the study situation**

'good' assessments in % of the respective students



better than that at universities. Fachhochschule students also consider themselves to be counselled and guided to a much better extent by the academic staff than do university students.

The higher education institutions in the new Länder receive better assessments throughout than those in the old Länder. The more students a higher education institution has, the worse the study conditions are considered to be. This relationship is to be found in western Germany as well as in eastern Germany.

Fig. 37 (Page 28) shows the assessment profiles for subject groups.

**11. Internationalisation**

**Experience Abroad**

One third of all students will have been abroad for purposes which extend beyond mere tourism before commencing their studies. A large proportion of students (21%) will have been abroad within the scope of a pupil exchange programme. Such experience before the commencement of studies has a positive influence on international student mobility.

11% of all students in the more-advanced semesters (as of the 6<sup>th</sup> higher education semester at Fachhochschule institutions or respectively as of the 8<sup>th</sup> higher education semester at universities) enrol for a study period at a foreign higher education institution. Overall, more than one quarter of the students in the more-advanced semesters (27%) will have been abroad as a result of their studies. 12% will have completed a practical internship abroad, while 6% each will have taken a language course or will have completed another study-related stay abroad (Fig. 38).

Almost two thirds of all study-related stays abroad (Fig. 39, Page 29) take students to Europe (63%), and another 16% to North America. An prominent role in terms of country

preferences is taken by the European countries of Britain (19%) and France (14%).

7% of the stays abroad (universities 6%, Fachhochschule institutions 10%) involve study-curriculum-integrated measures. The integration of stays abroad into the study curriculum is resulting in markedly fewer students fearing the newness of a stay abroad.

Additional financial burdens are the strongest hindrance to study-related stays abroad.

Only 10% of the stays abroad by students from less well-off parental homes receive assistance in the form of EU scholarships, while 17% of the stays abroad by the children of more well-off families are supported.

Students in their more-advanced semesters have a great interest in stays abroad after completion of their studies: 32% 'definitely' want to go abroad, while 44% 'possibly' want to complete a study-related stay abroad after graduating.

**Internationalisation of Studies - Acceptance Survey**

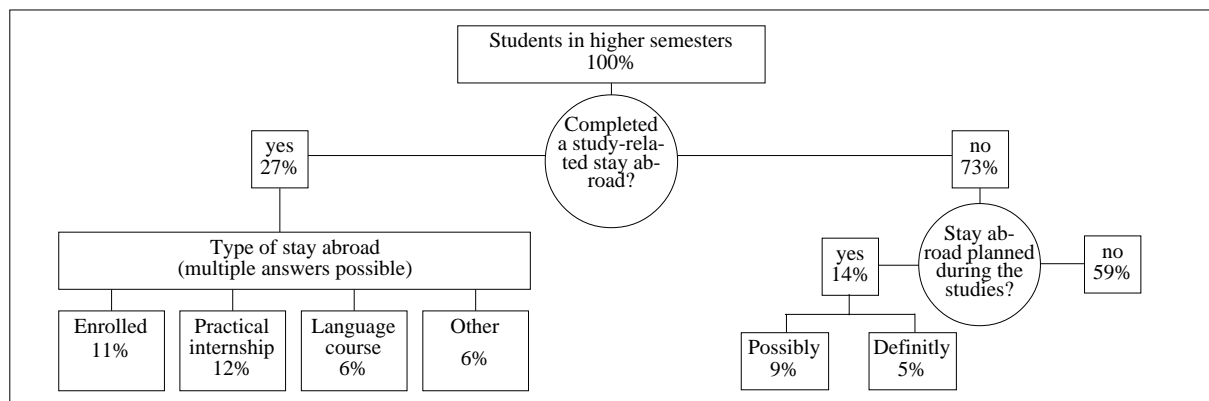
Almost half the students would 'definitely' and a further quarter 'fairly certainly' (Fig. 40) have participated in an obligatory year abroad as an integral part of their degree course with guaranteed recognition of the academic achievements. Great acceptance (74%) was found for an organised study stay abroad of 3 months' duration (group programme). Teaching courses held by foreign guest lecturers are accepted by almost half of all students (Fig. 41).

**Knowledge of Foreign Languages**

More than half the students (55%) have good or excellent proficiency in English. The proficiency levels for French are significantly lower. Not even 10% of those questioned answered that they had good or excellent proficiency in French. Third place was taken by Spanish. Only a small

**Fig. 38 Previous and planned study-related stays abroad**

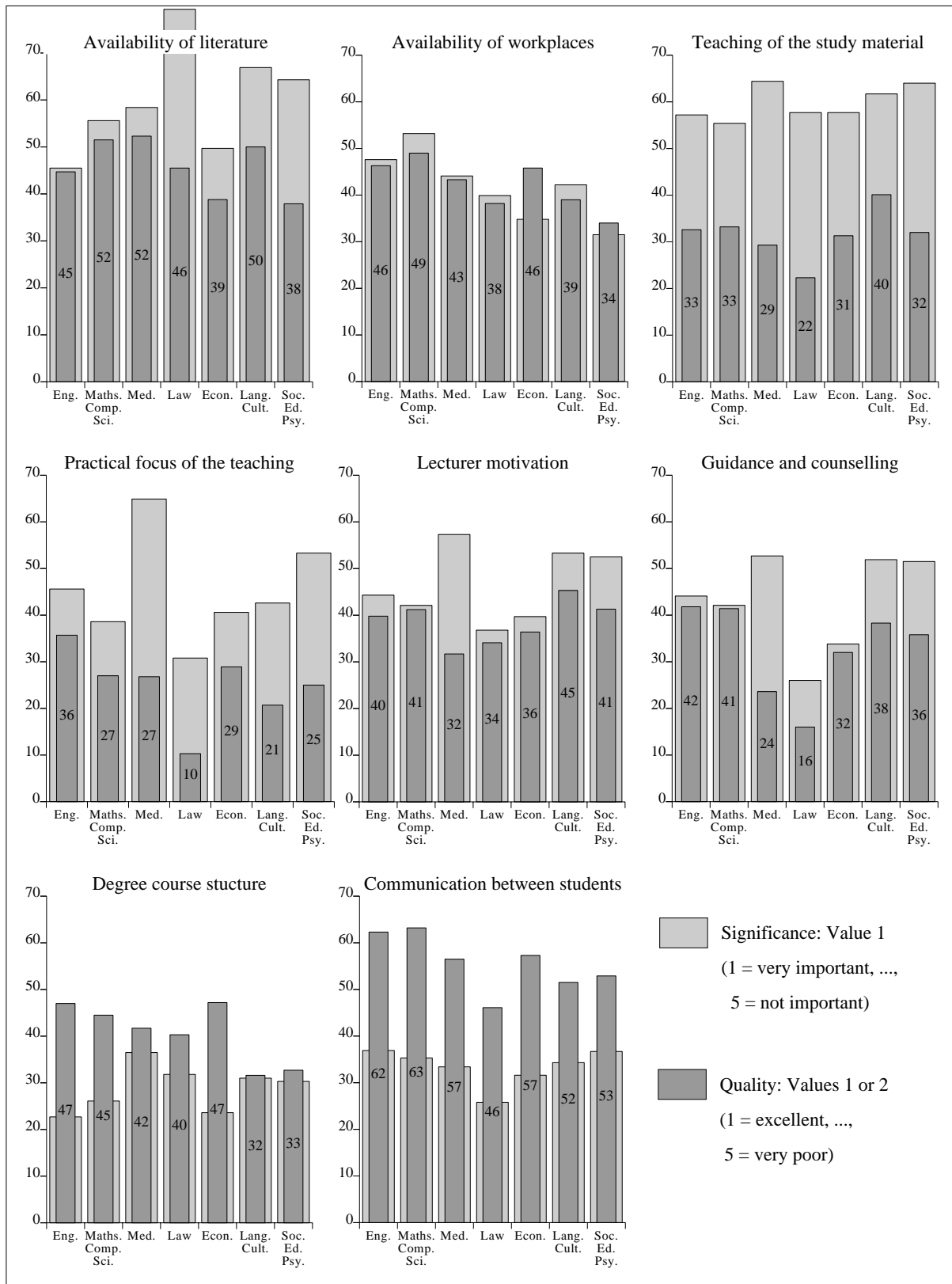
Students in higher semesters<sup>1</sup>, in %



<sup>1</sup> Students as of the 6<sup>th</sup> semester at Fachhochschule institutions, and as of the 8<sup>th</sup> semester at universities

**Fig. 37 Significance and quality of various aspects of the study situation in the students' assessment**

Proportion of students who consider an aspect to be ,very important' or the quality to be ,good' in % of the respective students



**Fig. 39 Target countries for study-related stays abroad (global region)**  
in % of all study-related stays abroad



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proportion of students (3%) has good or excellent proficiency in Spanish. Proficiency in all other languages is even less pronounced (Fig. 42).

The percentage of multilingual students is at a disillusioning low. For 48% of students, the first foreign language represents the only foreign language in which they at least have good proficiency. Only 11% of the students claim to have good or excellent proficiency in two or more languages.

#### ***Factors Determining Internationalisation***

Differences in the culture of individual disciplines represent an important influencing factor for student mobility (Fig. 43). For example, a well above average degree of international mobility will be found in the languages and cultural studies fields, as well as in medicine (rate of study-related stays abroad: 41%, respectively 40%), while in the field of social services studies, psychology and

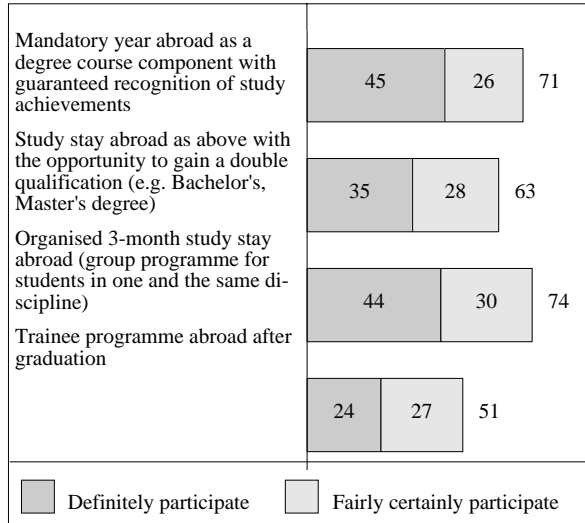
education, a well below average degree of international mobility will be found (18%, respectively 17%). Women go abroad more frequently than men. Students from the lower social background group only decide half as often in favour of a stay abroad for study purposes as those from one of the higher social background groups (19% vs. 36%). The personality structure of students also exerts a strong influence. Only 10% of the introverted students, but almost 30% of the extraverted students had completed a stay abroad in the past.

#### **12. Career Counselling**

Only 4% of the students expect the career placement services outside of the higher education institution to provide competent advice. Almost 90% of all responding students expect special assistance and advice for the transition into a career from within the higher education sector. Only minimal differences are to be made out between students of various subject groups as regards the positive replies.

**Fig. 40 Acceptance of international study opportunities with an international mobility element**

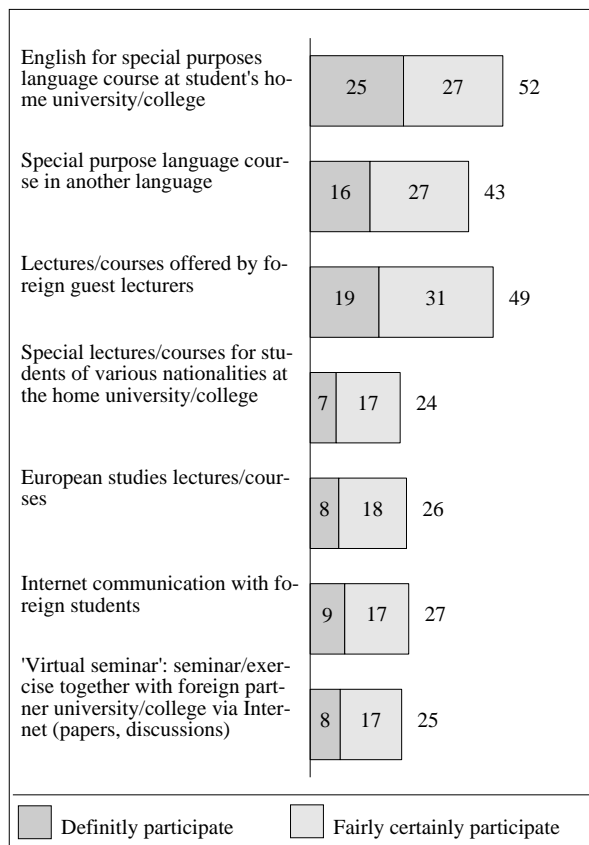
in % of students who would 'definitely' or 'fairly certainly' participate



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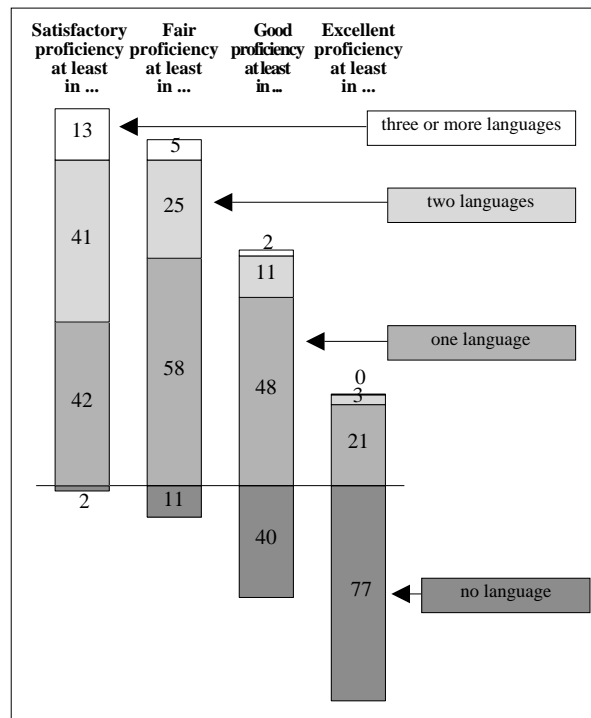
**Fig. 41 Acceptance of international study opportunities without an international mobility element**

in % of students who would 'definitely' or 'fairly certainly' participate



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**Fig. 42 Multilingualism of German students**  
in %



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Of the counselling services specified in the questionnaire, first place goes to individual counselling (Fig. 44). Almost equal importance is attached to contacts with companies as a way of both sides getting to know each other. Active behavioural training for the purpose of better self-presentation in application and job interview situations comes in the middle of the table. The least popular services are anonymous forms of contact arrangements (dissertation contact exchanges, workplace visits, Internet job exchange). As long as students have some prospect of successfully completing their studies, they will generally avoid the idea of retraining measures.

**13. Student Employment**

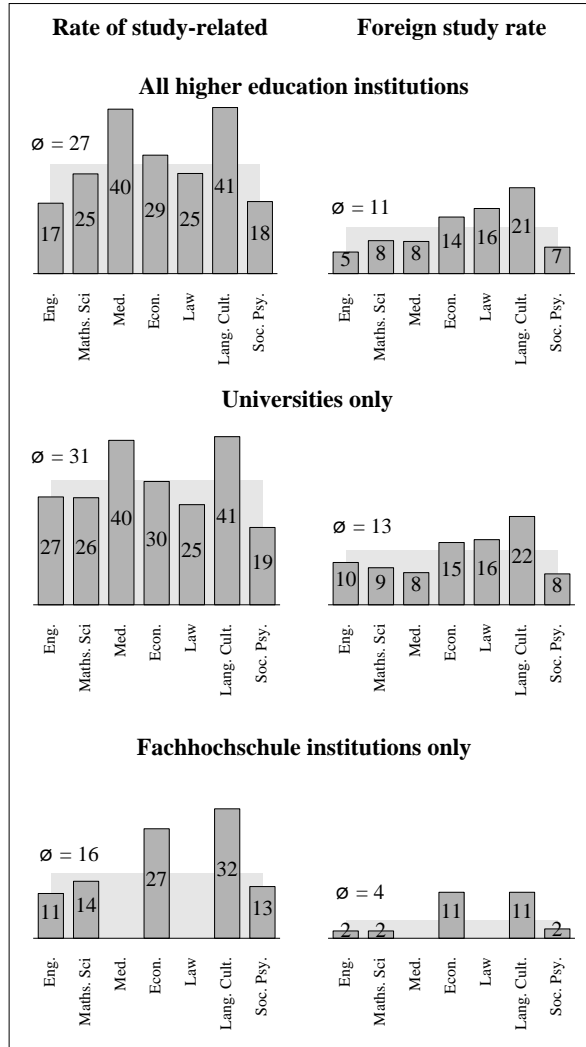
Two thirds (65%) of all German students are employed in some shape or form in a job which they pursue parallel to their studies. In comparison with 1994, the rate has again risen by 6 percentage points.

**Structural Characteristics**

Even in the late 1960s, student employment was largely a phenomenon of the semester breaks. In those days, just under half of all students would work during the vacations, while not even a quarter would work during the semester. In 1997 the proportion of working students during the

**Fig. 43 Foreign study rates and rates of study-related stays abroad by subject group**

Students in higher semesters<sup>1</sup>, in % of respective students



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<sup>1</sup> Students as of the 6<sup>th</sup> semester at Fachhochschule institutions, and as of the 8<sup>th</sup> semester at universities

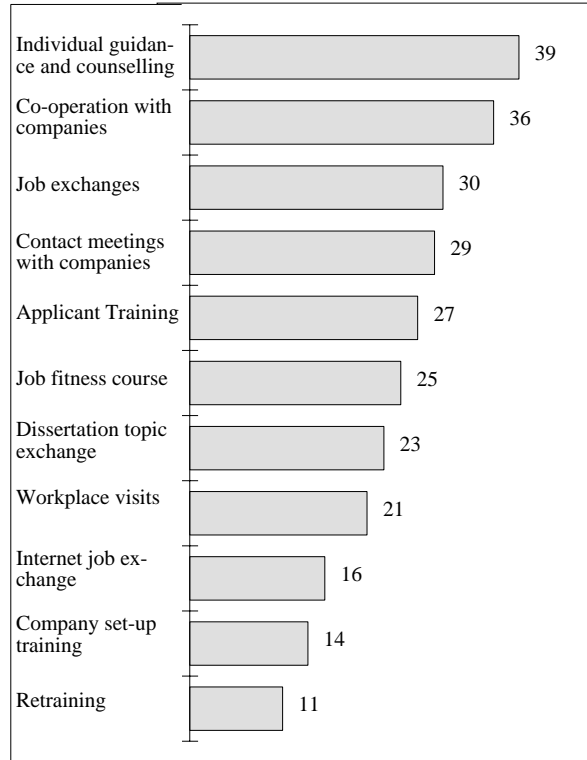
semester does not fall below that of the vacation period (65%). Almost one quarter (24%) of university students are permanently employed (1967: only 5%), while among Fachhochschule students the figure is much lower at 19%.

The largest proportion of working students (44%) are in casual or temporary employment. 23% work as student assistants; 21% are engaged in other employment; 14% work in a profession or trade for which they have been formally trained (Fig. 45).

Only 41% of the all working students in their first degree course have found employment, which is at least largely (22%) or fully (19%)

**Fig. 44 Preferred career guidance and counselling services provided by the university/college**

in %, replies of 'very important' considered



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related to their studies.

**Motives**

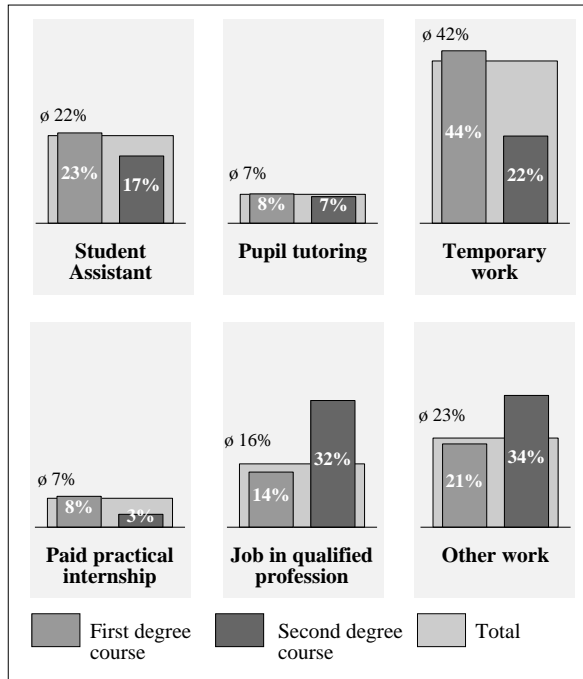
Just under half the working students (49%) have taken casual work, 'because it is absolutely essential as a means of covering their living expenses' (1991: 38%). By contrast, the proportion of students who have taken a job in order to satisfy their higher living standards is falling (Fig. 46).

In view of the deteriorating situation in terms of job market prospects for higher education graduates, the career-related motivation has gained in significance. The outstanding motive in this respect is given as that of the acquisition of career experience ('applies to' 46%).

By means of a process of multiple regression, it can be proven that economic factors clearly have the greatest influence on student employment. Student core income levels (sum of parental payments and BAföG payments) have the greatest significance. Influence is also exerted by the living standard level. Career motives have no significant influence on the level of student employment (Fig. 47).

**Fig. 45 Type of employment taken by students in their first and second degree course**

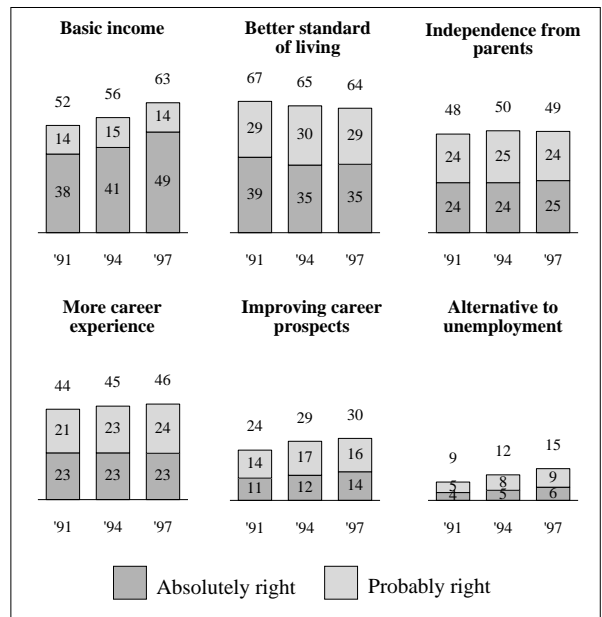
in %, multiple answers possible



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**Fig. 46 Motives for taking up employment (time series)**

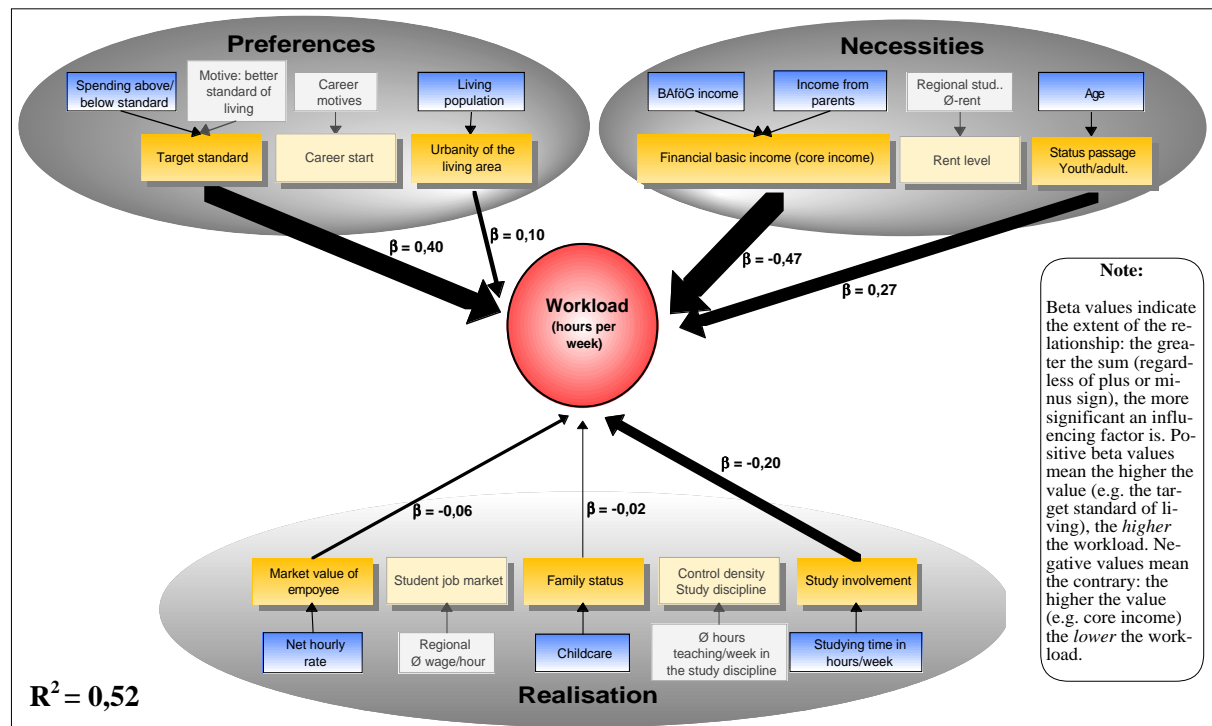
in % of all employed students in a first degree course



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**Fig. 47 Regression model: Student employment between preferences, necessities and realisation**

all students, except those living at home with their parents



R<sup>2</sup> = 0,52 (declared Variance) means: This model explains 52 % of the differences in the student workload; 48 % are explained by other influences

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### 14. Organisation of Leisure Time Activities

On average, students spend 24 hours per week on specific leisure time activities. Female students spend less time than male students (females: 23 hours, males: 26 hours).

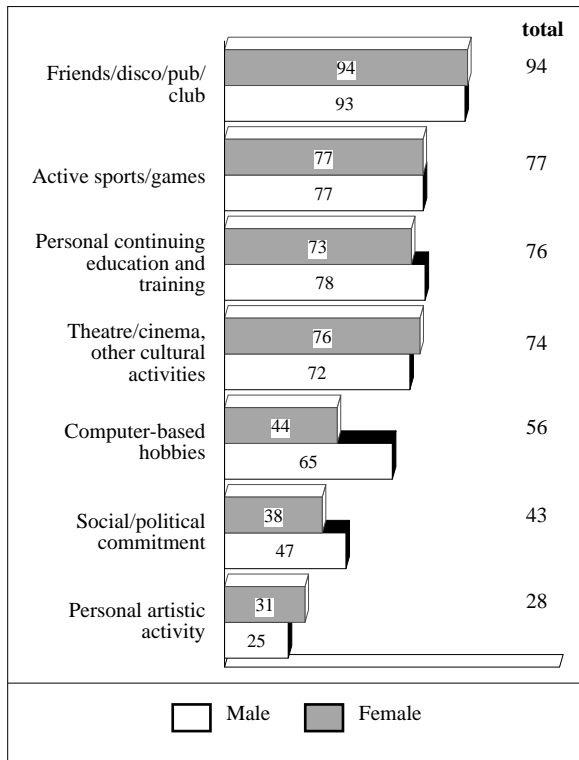
Social intercourse and sport are the most widespread leisure time activities for students (Fig. 48).

Many of the leisure time activities are pursued within the higher education environment. Apart from social gatherings with fellow students, these leisure time activities include individual continuing education and training plus social and political commitments. Of the 24 hours of active leisure time available, 5 are spent in the higher education environment. Students in the new Länder more frequently organise their leisure time within the higher education environment than do their fellow students in the old Länder.

The leisure activities pursued by students differ according to study disciplines, as well as according to type of accommodation, age and family situation. In small higher education towns, the higher educational environment is more significant as a leisure venue than is the case in the larger towns.

**Fig. 48 Student leisure time activities by gender**

Students in %



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### 15. Students with Children

The proportion of students with children has remained unchanged at 7% over the past 15 years. The proportion of female students with children lies at one percentage point higher than that of male students with children (in absolute terms: 59,000 student mothers and around 71,000 student fathers).

Of the student mothers, 27% are single parents (16,000 in total), while of the student fathers, only 11% (7,800 in total) are single parents. Measured against the total number of students, single parents account for around 1.1% of the student body. Parenthood among students increases as studies and age advance, and is overproportionally represented in second degree courses.

The children of the majority of student parents are of crèche age, i.e. up to and including the time when they turn three (55%). Children up to kindergarten age require a great deal of care, attention and supervision from their parents. As a rule, this applies in particular to student mothers and less so to fathers. Single mothers spend more than 40 hours per week caring for their children.

Students with children generally need around DM 500 more for themselves than do students without children, as a result of the additional indirect costs. The self-funding proportion from personal earnings accounts for 32% of total earnings (without children: 27%). Student fathers are especially burdened by the extra paid work which they must take in order to cover these additional costs (Fig. 49).

Additional costs above all arise as a result of the high rent costs caused by having a flat of one's own. In the old Länder, almost 90% of all students with children live in their own rented flat.

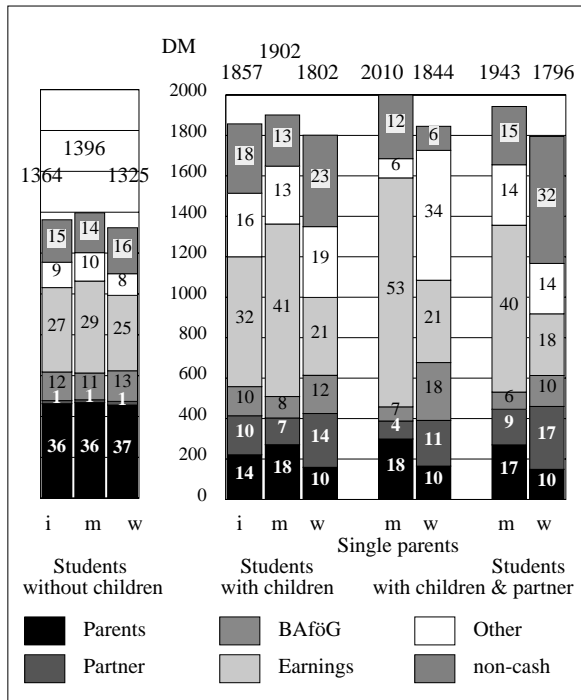
Student fathers and mothers are more than double overrepresented in the social sciences oriented disciplines. Students with children drop out of their studies more often and less frequently have an opportunity to spend a study-related period abroad. The proportion of long-term students is almost half as high again as that for students without children. Due to the multiple burdens involved, students with children identify with their studies to a substantially lesser degree than do students without children. For example and among other factors, the time budget allocated to studies is around 20% lower.

### 16. Health Impairments and Higher Education Study

The proportion of students with a disability is 2%, while 11% have chronic illnesses. 1% of

**Fig. 49 Income of students with children**

Students in their first degree course, arithmetic mean in DM (above the column), proportion in % (in the column)



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students have a reading or spelling weakness. The most widespread health impairments faced by students are allergies and respiratory illnesses (46%) and body frame or motor function impairments (20%) (Fig. 50).

Most students with health impairments do not regard their studies to have been hindered as a consequence of this circumstance (53%). The disability or chronic illness of one in ten health impaired students significantly hinders their studies.

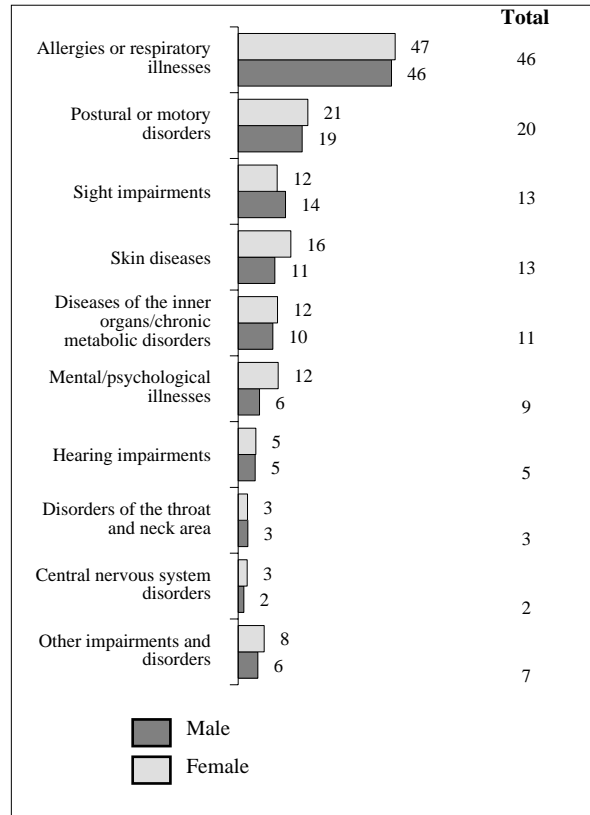
Studies by students with a disability or chronic illness pass less easily. This is documented by the higher frequency of changes of discipline, degree or higher education institution. In the case of students whose studies have been strongly impaired by the health difficulties, not only is a higher frequency of change of higher education institution apparent (25%), but so too is, in particular, the above average study drop out rate (34%).

**17. Between Studies and Jobs, Full-Time vs. Part-Time Study**

The growing employment burden faced by students necessarily results in a restriction of the time budget which can be allocated to studies. Thus, the weekly time budget for studies by students not additionally involved in paid employment is 41 hours, while students who are

**Fig. 50 Type of health impairment by gender**

only students with a disability or chronic illness, in %, multiple answers possible



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additionally working, will allocate 6 hours less per week to their studies.

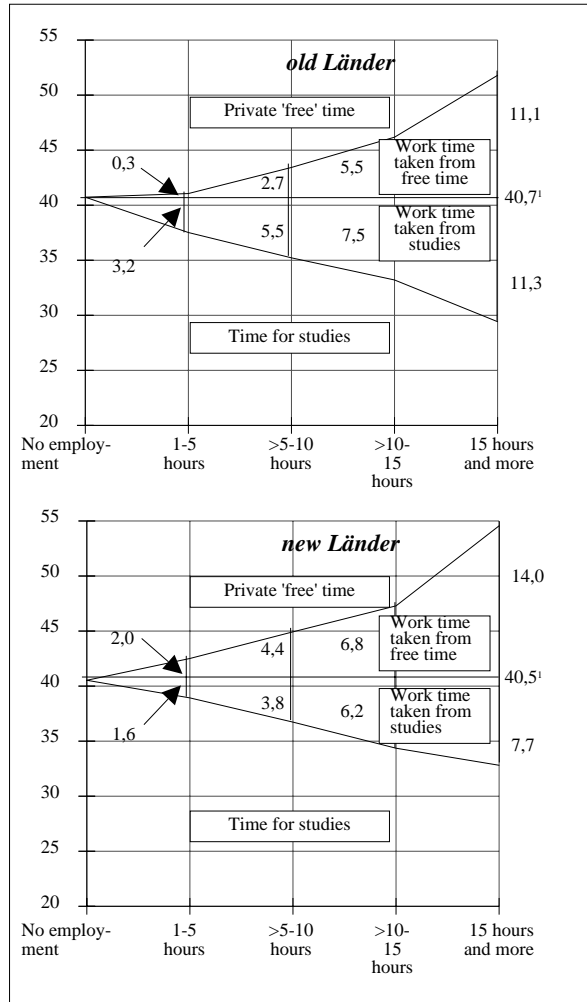
If the working students are categorised according to extent of their employment, then 90% of the time allocated by students to a low degree of paid employment (1 - 5 hours per week) will be compensated for by these students taking the appropriate time from their studies. In the case students working very high hours in paid employment (> 15 hours), half the time will be taken from the study time allocation and the other half from the leisure time allocation. In the *new Länder* time allocations to paid employment are taken to a greater extent from the time budget normally allocated to studies (Fig. 51).

To differentiate between full-time and part-time studies, four time types were created on the basis of the time allocated to paid employment (Fig. 52).

The proportion of students engaged in classical full-time study with a low employment burden amounts to 68%. The classical type of student in full-time study with a low employment burden has been falling continuously since 1988 (79%). The group of full-time students with a high

**Fig. 51 Influence of the weekly workload on the time spent of studies and private activities**

Students in their first degree course in hours per week



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<sup>1</sup> Study burden of non-working students as a measure of the normal studying burden

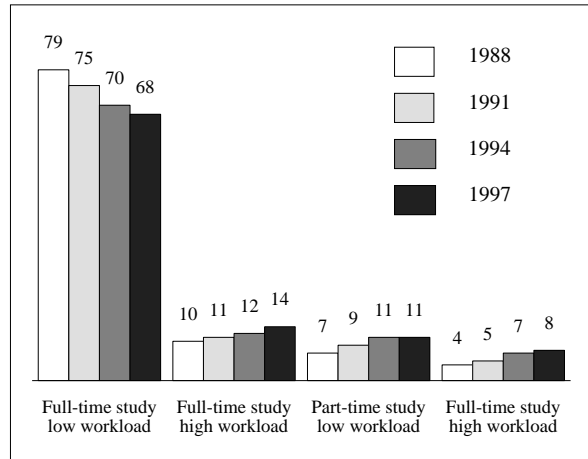
employment burden accounts for 14%, while 8% of the students belong to the group of part-time students with a high employment burden. The group of part-time students with a high employment burden is smaller than the group of part-time students with a low employment burden (11%). The distribution table described here is to be found in the old and the new Länder. In the final analysis, this means that employment is not a reason for part-time study.

**18. Accommodation**

Most students live alone or with a partner in rented accommodation (40%). One in five students live in shared accommodation. Almost a quarter of all students live at home with their parents. Throughout Germany, around 15% of

**Fig. 52 Development of the distribution of study and employment types**

old Länder, students in their first degree course, in %



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all students are accommodated in halls of residence. Only very few students are subtenants (3%).

**Noticeable Accommodation Changes only in the New Länder**

However, these statistics only provide a general description of the accommodation situation, since accommodation conditions differ from region to region. This is above all caused by the continuing differences in the living conditions between the old and the new Länder.

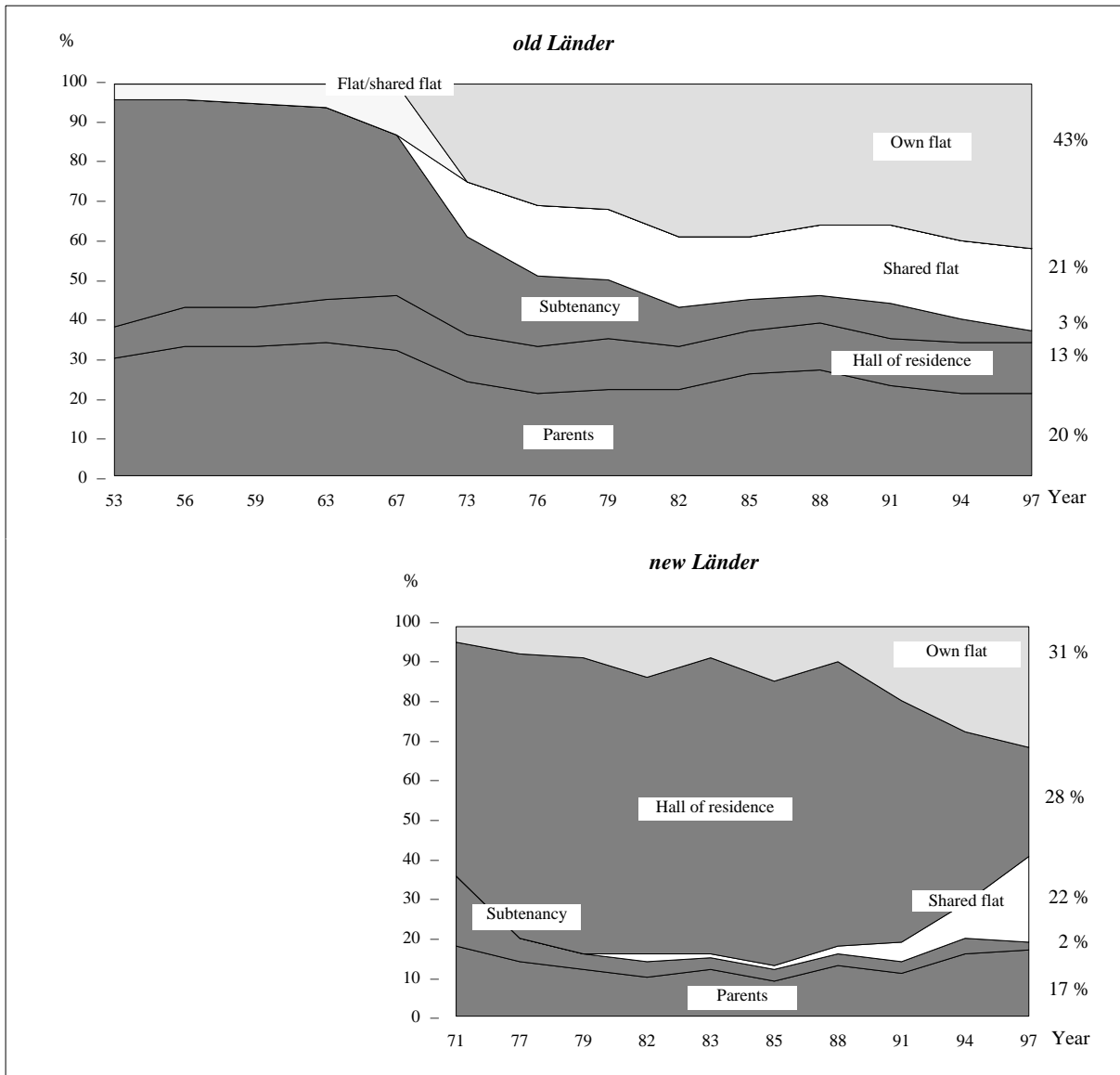
The development of accommodation type can be shown by taking the long-term example of university students (Fig. 53).

In the *old Länder* the long-term trend has consolidated itself, with students increasingly renting their own accommodation (1988: 36%, 1997: 43%) and few remaining at home with their parents (1988: 27%, 1997: 20%). The short-term changes in comparison with 1994 are only marginal, though. The proportion of students living in halls of residence has increased minimally (from 12% to 13%).

In the *new Länder* the hall of residence was previously the most widespread form of student accommodation. This has changed meanwhile, so that rented accommodation has become the dominating accommodation form (31%). In comparison with 1994, the proportion of shared flat residents has grown the most strongly (13 percentage points). This means that the proportion of such students has more than doubled and is now 22%.

In the *new Länder* the increase in the proportion of shared flat residents and students with their own rented accommodation is so high because

**Fig. 53 Development of student accommodation types**  
Students at universities in %



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the migrant students from the old Länder (West-East-Migrants) largely rent their own accommodation (university students 41%) or move into a shared flat or house (31%), while they rarely move into a student hall of residence (16%). The proportion of students living in the parental home in the new Länder has remained more or less stable since 1991.

The concept of 'student digs' - that is of living as a subtenant - has long lost its significance throughout Germany as a result of a lack of demand and supply.

**Accommodation Types according to Higher Education Institution Type**

Fachhochschule students in the *old Länder* differ in two respects in their accommodation modes

from university students. They live in the parental home more frequently than university students and in shared accommodation less frequently than these students. A reason for the differences is to be seen in the stronger degree of regionalisation of higher education institution locations. This means that FH students are more likely to commence their studies in their home region (Fig. 54).

Just as in the old Länder, the living conditions of students of Fachhochschule institutions and universities in the *new Länder* differ in various aspects. Eastern German FH students also live at home with their parents more frequently. Between 1994 and 1997, this proportion rose by 5 percentage points. In the same period, the shared accommodation option established itself

**Fig. 54 Student accommodation types**  
in %

Accommodation types	old Länder		new Länder		Total	
	1994	1997	1994	1997	1994	1997
Parental home						
Uni	22	20	16	17	22	20
FH	31	30	21	25	30	28
All	24	22	17	19	24	22
Subtenancy						
Uni	5	3	4	2	5	3
FH	6	4	4	2	6	4
All	6	3	4	2	5	3
Hall of residence						
Uni	12	13	44	28	15	15
FH	10	12	45	34	12	15
All	12	13	44	30	14	15
Shared flat						
Uni	20	21	9	22	19	21
FH	16	16	6	13	16	16
All	19	20	8	20	18	20
Own flat						
Uni	41	43	27	31	39	41
FH	38	39	25	25	37	37
All	40	42	27	29	39	40

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at a higher level (plus 7 percentage points). This increase is the result of a move away from halls of residence. The proportion of eastern German FH students living in halls of residence dropped by eleven percentage points. Regardless of this, the hall of residence remains the most widespread form of accommodation (34%) for FH students in the new Länder.

The proportion of West-East-Migrants among FH students must also be taken into account. 43% of these migrants move into rented accommodation of their own.

### Student Halls of Residence

The all-German average for the provision of student hall of residence places is 15%. However, here, too, substantial regional differences are to be seen. 30% of the students at higher education institutions in the new Länder are accommodated in halls of residence, while in the old Länder, the figure is 13%. This means that the proportion of student hall of residence places in the old Länder has remained more or less stable over the past ten years.

### Conditions Improve in the Halls of Residence in the New Länder

In the *new Länder* the halls of residence have undergone a remarkable process of renovation. Most halls of residence have been refurbished or partly refurbished in order to raise the

**Fig. 55 Student hall of residence occupancy**  
in %

	old Länder	new Länder	Total
Single room	31	23	29
Single room within a living unit	31	15	28
Single apartment	25	4	20
Apartment for two persons (sharing bath and kitchen)	10	10	10
Flat in a hall of residence	2	2	2
Two-bed room	+	42	10
Multi-bed room	0	4	1
Total	100	100	100

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+ less than 0,5%

accommodation standard. Above all, the former occupation density for rooms or living units has been reduced, so that rooms with three or more occupants have become an exception (4%, Fig. 55).

In the *old Länder* students in halls of residence generally occupy single rooms (31%) or single rooms within a shared living unit structure (31%). If the apartments and flats within the halls of residence are added (37%) to this, then practically all students are accommodated in single units.

In the halls of residence in the *new Länder*, the proportion of those accommodated in their own living area is now 54%. Compared with 1994, this represents a substantial improvement, the figure for students with their own living areas having been a mere 26% in 1994.

Despite the general, remarkable improvement, the accommodation standard in some eastern German halls of residence falls behind western standards. This can be seen in the state of the buildings and in deficits in terms of fixtures, fittings and equipment in eastern German student halls of residence which have not yet been renovated or which have only partly been redeveloped. Although the rent levels are relatively low in such halls of residence, student acceptance of these accommodation options is falling increasingly. 24% of the eastern German hall of residence occupants give a more or less negative assessment of the structural condition of their accommodation.

### Rent Levels in the Old Länder: Slight Increases

In the *old Länder* students on average spend more than a third of their monthly living expenses on rent. This includes ancillary costs, above all for heating or respectively electricity

**Fig. 56 Flat and room rents by type of accommodation**  
in DM

Accommodation types	Rent per student			
	old Länder		new Länder	
	1994	1997	1994	1997
Flat alone	516	569	349	482
Flat with partner	564	579	330	442
Shared flat	396	434	246	334
Subtenancy	343	370	280	322
Hall of residence	279	307	148	218

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(gross rent).

In terms of proportion of monthly expenditure, rented accommodation is most expensive for sole occupants (Fig. 56). 39% of the monthly costs are spent by these students on accommodation. On average, a student living alone spends DM 569 per month on accommodation, with an average living area of around 41 sq. m.

When students share accommodation with a partner, they pay DM 579 per occupant. 37% of the living expenses are spent on rent.

Rent costs for accommodation of one's own differ somewhat from region to region. In the major built-up city areas, such as Frankfurt/Main, Hamburg or Munich, students living alone spend well above DM 600 per month on average for their own accommodation. Students in the small and medium-sized towns are faced with much more reasonable rent levels, where they need pay less than DM 500 on average. Exceptions to the model are made by the traditional higher education towns, such as Freiburg, Heidelberg or Tübingen. As a result of their extensive, Germany-wide catchment area and their overproportionally-large student community as a share of the overall town population, an appropriately typical demand for student accommodation is to be found in these towns. This applies in particular to small flats. Frequent tenant changes mean that rent agreements can be more quickly adapted to the rent level progression.

Western German students find reasonably-priced accommodation in student halls of residence, with an average rent level of DM 307. Depending on the size, fixtures, fittings and equipment, students pay an average of between DM 275 (single room) and DM 403 (flat within the hall of residence). Compared with other students, the rent expenditure for hall of residence occupants is most favourable in relation to the overall monthly expenditure. On average, 31% of the monthly financial expenditure is spent on accommodation by such

students.

Assessed solely on the proportion of expenditure, subtenancy (34%) is also a reasonably-priced form of accommodation, along with the student hall of residence. However, the cost effectiveness of subtenancy must generally be seen with a critical eye. On average a sublet room costs DM 370.

For students sharing accommodation, the monthly expenditure on accommodation amounts to 36%, slightly higher than on subtenancy. For an average-sized shared flat of 74 sq. m., a sharing student occupant will pay DM 434 rent per month on average.

In summarising, the following may be said about the development of student accommodation costs in the old Länder: With the exception of subtenants, the rent expenditure share of all other forms of accommodation has risen by between one and two percentage points.

If this is compared with the development of average rent costs per accommodation type in the period from 1994 to 1997, these rents, with the exception of accommodation shared with a partner, have increased by almost 10% on average. This price increase corresponds approximately to the increase in general rent levels in the old Länder.

#### **Rent Levels in the New Länder: Greater Increases**

Rent level increases in the new Länder are higher than in the *old Länder*. This is caused by the continuing approximation of accommodation costs to those in the old Länder, without the rent costs in east and west having been completely aligned yet. Students in the new Länder now spend an average of around 32% of their monthly expenditure on accommodation. This means that the rent cost share has seen a pronounced increase.

Depending on the form of accommodation, the average proportion of monthly expenditure spent on rent ranges from 22% (multi-bed room in a hall of residence) to 38% (single occupied flat).

The flat of one's own is also the most expensive type of accommodation in the new Länder. On average, single-living students pay DM 482. The average size of such a flat is 44 sq. m.

Rents for those students sharing a flat with their partner are slightly more reasonable. For a 66 sq. m. flat, they will pay DM 442 per occupant, accounting for a share of the monthly costs of 35%.

Students in the new Länder currently pay DM 219 on average for a hall of residence place. The average rent proportion of the total monthly costs for hall of residence occupants is 27%. The

student hall of residence therefore remains easily the most reasonable type of accommodation for eastern German students, regardless of the fact that the expenditure share on rent has risen by 6 percentage points in the period from 1994 to 1997, meaning that it has risen by around the same amount as other types of accommodation which are influenced by the general housing market.

As far as subtenancy is concerned, the same applies to the new Länder as has already been said for subtenancy in the old Länder. Subtenancy is relatively expensive, when the cost effectiveness level is taken into account. On average, the subtenancy rent is DM 322. In relation to the overall costs of eastern German subtenants, that is 32%.

Only three years ago, the flat-sharing form in the new Länder was more reasonably-priced than subtenancy. This has changed. A student in a shared flat spends an average of DM 344 on accommodation. That corresponds to 34% of the overall monthly costs.

In the new Länder, the regional differences in rent level are not so pronounced as in the old Länder. For a flat of one's own (single), an average of DM 499 is paid in Leipzig, DM 471 in Berlin, and DM 455 in Dresden. As regards rent level differences between major cities and middle-sized towns, a similar trend can be observed as that found in the old Länder.

In summarising, it can be said that the rent increases in the new Länder have been much more pronounced than in the old Länder. From 1994 to 1997, the following increase rates have been registered for average rent levels:

	old Länder	new Länder
Single occupied flat	+10%	+38%
Flat shared with a partner	+ 3%	+34%
Shared flat (several occupants)	+10%	+36%
Subtenancy	+ 8%	+15%
Hall of residence	+10%	+47%

The percentage increases in the new Länder far exceed the average percentage increase for rents, which is 13%.

### Accommodation Preferences

All in all, the preferred accommodation for students in the *old Länder* has hardly changed in comparison with 1994. The most preferred type of student accommodation is a flat of one's own which is either shared with a partner or occupied alone (Fig. 57). The most unpopular forms of accommodation for students would seem to be living in the parental home and subtenancy. Furthermore, it can be seen in the old Länder that the wish to live in a hall of residence is

**Fig. 57 Student accommodation preferences**  
in %

	<i>old Länder</i>	<i>new Länder</i>	Total
Parents/relatives	5	4	5
Subtenancy	1	1	1
Hall of residence	15	28	16
Shared flat	23	26	23
Flat	56	42	55
	100	100	100

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being voiced by marginally more students (15%) than are actually accommodated in the halls of residence (13%).

In the *new Länder*, the wish to live in a flat of one's own or in a shared flat has grown further. To a certain extent, this is caused by West-East-Migrants. The student hall of residence has maintained its position - after the flat of one's own - as the most frequently preferred form of accommodation, although the proportion of students who prefer a two-bed room in a hall of residence has fallen drastically since the early 1990s. 1991: 34%, 1994: 21%, 1997: 7%.

### 19. Travel and Transport

In the *old Länder*, public transport is being used ever more frequently (1991: 16%, 1994: 24%, 1997: 30%). 1997 marked the first time that public transport became the most frequently used form of travel (Fig. 58). This is mainly the result of people changing from travelling with their own motor vehicle (individual travel) to public transport (-7 percentage points in comparison with 1991). However, the proportion of bicycle riders has also fallen over the same period (-5%).

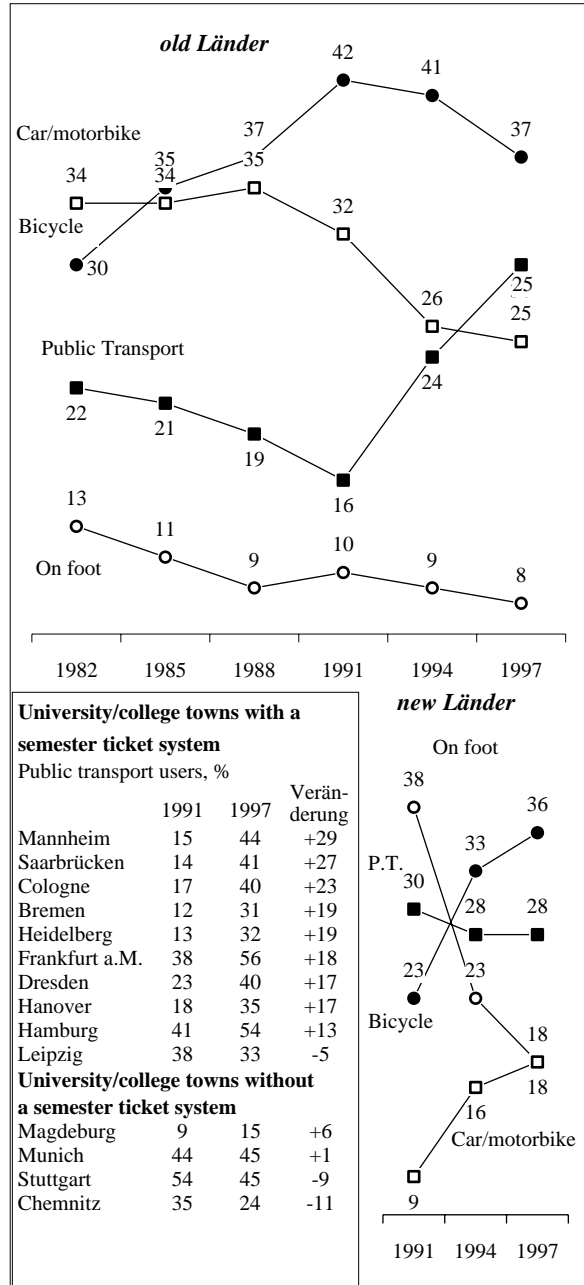
And in the *new Länder*, too, the choice of means of travel has changed considerably since 1991. Now, only one in five students will walk to their higher education institution. By contrast, the proportion of bicycle riders (+13%) and individually-motorised students (+9%) has seen a pronounced increase. The use of public transport has not continued to fall (1991: 30%, 1994: 28%, 1997: 28%).

In winter, the proportion of bicycle riders falls everywhere (old Länder from 37% to 19%, new Länder from 36% to 14%) and largely shifts to public transport.

### 20. Student Meals

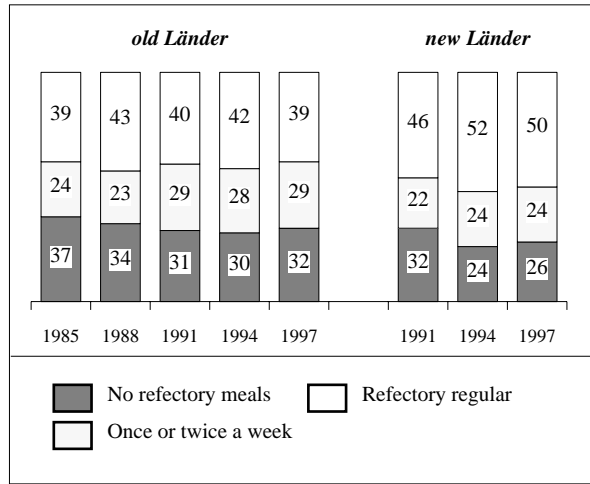
In the old Länder, 36% of all midday meals in the week are taken in the refectories, while in the new Länder the proportion is even higher (41%). The self-catering share at home (27%) or in the parental home (14%) covers the other midday meals. Restaurants only hold a small market share (3%).

**Fig. 58** Development of types of transport used by students in the *old Länder* (1982-1997) and in the *new Länder* (1991-1997) in %, summer only



**Fig. 59** Refectory user frequency from 1985 to 1997

Frequency of midday meals taken in the refectory in the week, students in %



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frequent refectory guests (old Länder 59%, new Länder 60%), while those living in the parental home are the least frequent guests (old Länder 32%, new Länder 40%). Female students are less frequently refectory regulars than are their male counterparts.

The assessments of refectory catering are better than a decade ago. Among the individual aspects, students assess the balanced cost effectiveness of refectories as a generally positive aspect. They are most critical of the atmosphere and the design of refectories (Fig. 60).

**21. Foreigners holding a German School-Leaving Certificate (Bildungs-inländer)**

Around 34% of all the foreign students at German higher education institutions are

**Fig. 60** Assessment of the refectory services from 1985 to 1997

Arithmetic mean on a scale from 1 (= excellent) to 5 (= very poor)

Aspects of the refectory assessment	old Länder					new Länder		
	1985	1988	1991	1994	1997	1991	1994	1997
Taste	3,3	3,2	3	2,9	2,8	2,6	2,6	2,6
Nutritional quality/health value	3,4	3,3	3,2	3,1	2,9	2,9	2,7	2,7
Choice and combination options	3	2,9	2,8	2,8	2,6	3	2,6	2,5
Cost effectiveness	2,4	2,4	2,3	2,4	2,3	2,1	2	2
Atmosphere/hall design	3,7	3,6	3,3	3,3	3,2	3,4	3,1	3,1
Total in absolute terms	17 430	19 528	21 808	21 831	17 045	4 717	3 243	2 256

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In the *old Länder* the proportion of refectory regulars (3 to 5 meals per week) accounts for 39% of all students (Fig. 59). In comparison with 1994, the proportion of refectory regulars has dropped by 3 percentage points. Students in the *new Länder* are more likely to be refectory regulars (50%); a 2 percentage point drop over 1994.

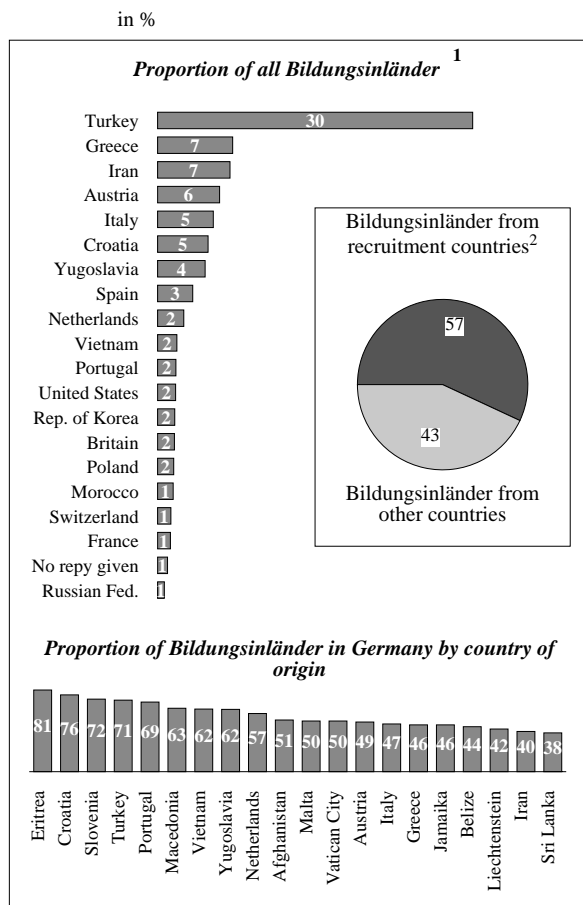
Hall of residence occupants are the most



Bildungsinländer (meaning foreigners who hold a German school-leaving certificate equivalent to a German higher education entrance qualification which has been awarded by a school in Germany or by a recognised German school abroad). The majority of the 51,000 such students in Germany (57%, Fig. 61) originate from recruitment countries (countries from which guest and/or migrant workers were recruited). The proportion of Bildungsinländer originating from other countries (43%), on the one hand, come from (German-speaking) neighbouring countries or, on the other, from areas of political conflict (asylum holders).

The proportion of women students among the Bildungsinländer is 2% lower than their share among German students in general. Bildungsinländer from recruitment countries originate to an overproportional degree from parental homes with a less-advanced schooling

**Fig. 61 Bildungsinländer (foreigners holding a German higher education entrance qualification) by country of origin and proportion of Bildungsinländer by citizenship**



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<sup>1</sup> Source: Federal Office of Statistics, 1998  
<sup>2</sup> Turkey, former Yugoslavia, Greece, Italy, Spain, Portugal

level, while the schooling level of the parents of Bildungsinländer from other states is substantially higher than that of the parents of German students in general.

Bildungsinländer from recruitment countries tend to strive more towards completing a practice or applications-focused degree course. An overproportional number of these chose engineering or economics disciplines.

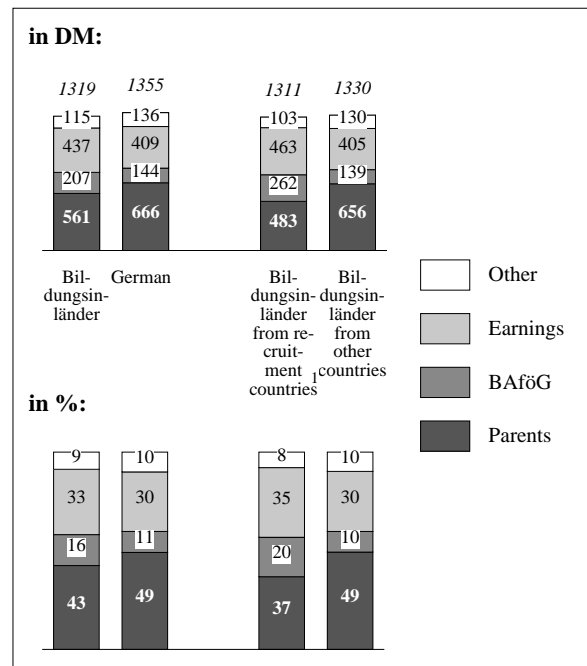
There are hardly no differences to German students in terms of the passage that their studies take. However, Bildungsinländer generally find inter-student communication to be worse than German students in general do.

As regards the financial situation, differences are to be found between the Bildungsinländer who come from the recruitment countries and those who come from other countries. The former more frequently receive BAföG assistance (38%). The monthly income level for these students is slightly higher than DM 1,300. The difference to German students in general is minimal, as is the difference between Bildungsinländer from recruitment countries and those from other countries (Fig. 62).

The accommodation situation of these students is characterised by a very high proportion of them living in the parental home. This applies in particular to students from recruitment countries (42%).

**Fig. 62 Income structure of Bildungsinländer**

„Standard Student“ reference group



DSW/HIS 15<sup>th</sup> Social Survey

<sup>1</sup> Turkey, former Yugoslavia, Greece, Italy, Spain, Portugal

