EUROSTUDENT SURVEY III

Report on the Social and Living Conditions of Higher Education Students in Ireland

2006/2007

Liam Delaney, Aude Bernard, Colm Harmon, Martin Ryan

HEA
Higher Education Authority
An tÚdarás um Ard-Oideachas

EUROSTUDENT SURVEY III

Report on the Social and Living Conditions of Higher Education Students in Ireland

2006/2007

Liam Delaney, Aude Bernard, Colm Harmon, Martin Ryan

HEA
Higher Education Authority
An tÚdarás um Ard-Oideachas

TABLE OF CONTENTS

FOREWORD

The Irish Eurostudent survey report examines the key characteristics that define Ireland's diverse student population. The report provides information on students' economic circumstances, their living conditions and the social and demographic characteristics of students in higher education.

The third wave of the Irish Eurostudent used an internet approach involving the usage of college emails aimed at all third level students. Previous surveys were based on the distribution of postal questionnaires to a preselected sample of students. The response rate achieved was 8% representing 13,342 students. Eurostudent II surveyed a sample of 9,000 students and achieved a response rate of 30.2% representing 2,720 students. Although the response rate for Eurostudent III was low, the total number of responses exceeded that of the previous two surveys.

From the survey, we see that the profile of the average Irish student is a full-time, undergraduate, Leaving Certificate entry route student. The survey also provides a snapshot of the diversity that is now a feature of higher education in Ireland. The report confirms that the composition of the student population is evolving, as entrants take advantage of the multiple entry opportunities that now exist. As a result, the participation of mature students, part-time students, students with disabilities and students from outside of Ireland has increased over the decade.

This report confirms a trend in Eurostudent Reports I and II, which suggested a correlation between participation in higher education and parents' educational level. Specifically, parents of students in higher education are likely to have been educated to at least upper secondary level. These findings have considerable policy implications, as we strive to increase and promote participation from lower socio-economic groups.

One of the most interesting aspects of the Eurostudent survey programme is the emphasis on student satisfaction and well-being. The survey allows us to 'take the pulse' of the student population; examining students' living conditions, their economic well-being and their quality of life. The survey finds that 65 per cent of students earn at least some income from employment, and they spend most of their money on accommodation, followed by food and alcohol. Students will be particularly vulnerable to the changing economic environment, and the results of the survey underline the need to closely monitor expenditure pressures and the work/study balance.

This report is the third in a series of Eurostudent surveys in Irish higher education. The information, trends and profiles that have emerged from these investigations constitute an invaluable resource for educators, policy makers, students and parents. The HEA would like to express its appreciation to the authors Liam Delaney, Aude Bernard, Colm Harmon and Martin Ryan of the Geary Institute in UCD and all those who worked on and contributed to this publication.

The Eurostudent III Steering Committee

Mary Clayton	University College Dublin
Brian Power	Department of Education and Science
David Irwin	Institute of Technology Tallaght
Bernadette Farrell	Union of Students in Ireland
Orla Christle	Higher Education Authority

The Higher Education Authority Statistics Department

Dr. Vivienne Patterson
Oliver Mooney
Dawn Carroll
Fergal Noone
Jennifer Maguire

Tom Boland
Chief Executive

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

CONTEXT

This report summarises the key themes and outcomes emerging from the latest round of Eurostudent - 2007- an Internet survey of Irish students conducted in 35 higher education institutes from December 2006 to April 2007. The third wave of the Irish Eurostudent survey was conducted by the research team at the UCD Geary Institute in winter 2006 and spring 2007. The target population was the student population in 35 Irish higher education institutes at both undergraduate and postgraduate level, with 31 taking part. In the context of the increasing number of international students pursuing qualifications in Ireland, the study has been extended for the first time to look specifically at non-Irish students in detail.

The overall aim of this survey is the measurement of the living conditions and demographic and social background characteristics of students. The report provides timely and relevant data for those involved in initiatives to improve student welfare and encourage retention, as well as those interested in examining the issues involved with an increasingly diverse student body. The report profiles students across a wide range of economic and social variables as well as examining welfare, time usage and study patterns.

A total of 13,342 students completed the questionnaire. A breakdown of response rates by full and part-time status shows that part-time students have not been captured to the same extent as full-time students. The under-representation of part-time students reflects a sample selection in the use of the institutional email contact format; it is likely that part-time students use their institutional email addresses to a lesser extent than full-time students.

The characteristics of the survey sample are described below:

- 76 per cent of the students were enrolled in a university and 24 per cent in other third-level institutions;
- Full-time students account for 93 per cent of the sample;
- 84 per cent of the sample are undergraduates. PhD students account for 6 per cent of the total sample and almost 40 per cent of the postgraduate student sample;
- Foreign students make up almost 10 per cent of the sample and 25 per cent of PhD students.

A number of overarching issues are listed below.

- The key feature of this report is the striking change in the nature and composition of the Irish student population over the last decade. The increasing number of students entering through non-Leaving Certificate routes - mature students, students with disabilities and students from outside Ireland - has meant a profound shift in the policy issues associated with student well-being and living standards.
- The consistently low scores on measures of financial well-being among students need further analysis given the critical importance of family and own financial situation in determining participation and success in higher education. The expense and quality of rental accommodation are visible factors in creating high levels of subjective distress for students. In particular, further work is necessary to ascertain whether policies could be put in place to assist students who are experiencing financial difficulty. This is the biggest subjective issue for students, as measured by student feedback, on Irish campuses.
- Family financing is the predominant mechanism for funding the living expenses of students in higher education institutions followed by part-time work on the part of the student. This study confirms that scholarships and loan systems are still uncommon financing mechanisms in Ireland. Thus, the family circumstances and job choices of students take on particular significance. The state also intervenes to provide student finance. As well as the payment of fees, the government provides grants including the means tested higher education grant which is one of the most common income support for students in Ireland.
- Consistent with the previous Eurostudent reports I and II, the majority of students who do paid work to finance their studies are doing so in jobs which have no relation to their area of study.
- There is a clear social pattern, or 'social gradient', in the determinants of a number of different measures of student welfare and student participation. Social gradients in health and psychological well-being are not as pronounced as gradients in life satisfaction. The former are nevertheless extremely important to note as they may be powerful explanatory factors in determining success in college including completion and overall engagement.
- The quality of life in college is lower for students from lower socio-economic and parental educational backgrounds particularly in life domains such as accommodation and finance. Similarly, students who are not living in their parental home report markedly lower levels of satisfaction with finances and accommodation. More seriously, there is also evidence that they have lower satisfaction with relationships and lower well-being and health. The condition of students living away from the family home and in rented accommodation is therefore something that warrants particular attention for policies directed towards improving student welfare.

KEY FINDINGS

STUDENT DIVERSITY AND FULL/PART-TIME STATUS

The majority of students in this survey are full-time higher education students. This, in part, reflects sample selection due to the use of the email contact format. The profile of the average Irish student is a full-time, Leaving Certificate entry route student whose parents have at least upper secondary education and are in professional or skilled employment. Part-time students are still more heavily represented in the disciplines and subject areas most associated with the lifelong learning agenda – IT, for example. Part-time students are also more present on Masters level programmes.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC BACKGROUND

The Eurostudent reports I and II pointed out a relationship between participation in higher education and parents' educational level, which is confirmed in this study. The majority of students come from professional and senior manager/official backgrounds. There is little difference between the full- and part-time student body in terms of socio-economic diversity.

ENTRY PATHS

The majority of students (87 per cent) enter higher education on the basis of their Leaving Certificate results. This level was last seen in the 2000 Eurostudent survey having fallen in the 2003/2004 survey. The proportion of students who gained entry on a non-Leaving Certificate basis is higher among part-time students. The most common non-Leaving Certificate entry route is the mature years option. Almost half the students who did not enter on the basis of the Leaving Certificate were mature students.

NATIONALITY

The internationalisation of Irish higher education is a relatively new phenomenon. Until the late 1990s, international students accounted for less than 5 per cent of the Irish student population. Within a few years, the number of international students almost doubled, increasing from 6,900 in 1998 to 12,700 in 2004 (OECD database). In 2004, international students accounted for 7 per cent of third-level students in Ireland (OECD, 2001). The 2007 Eurostudent survey confirms this trend: 7.7 per cent of the students surveyed were both non-nationals and had permanent residency outside of Ireland prior to coming to college. In this report, international students are defined as non-nationals who are also non-permanent residents of Ireland prior to beginning their studies here. This definition has been adopted in recent years by both the OECD and UNESCO to capture more effectively genuine student mobility. We also used this definition to make international comparisons simpler and more accurate.

Like Irish students, the majority of international students are full-time students from professional backgrounds. However, international students, on average, come from higher socio-economic classes. Sixty-two per cent of them declared their father's occupation to be senior official, manager or professional against 49 per cent of Irish students. Similarly, 57 per cent of international students considered the highest level of education achieved by their father to be third-level or higher compared to only 37 per cent of Irish students.

The main difference between foreign and domestic students is age. International students are, on average, slightly older (25 years) than their Irish counterparts (22 years). This age difference is due to the fact that international students tend to engage more in postgraduate studies than Irish students; 37 per cent of international students are registered as postgraduates (postgraduate diploma, taught masters degree, research masters degree and PhD) compared to less than 15 per cent for Irish students.

Our results also confirm the growing number of international students from Asia: among international students who have a mother tongue other than English 33 per cent come from Asia, principally China, India and Malaysia. The predominance of English speaking students is a persistent trend – 38 per cent of international students in Ireland speak English as their home language; most of them come from the US and the UK.

The predominance of European students (50 per cent) and OECD students (72 per cent) distinguishes Ireland from the other main countries receiving international students. Ireland is, with Switzerland, the country that receives the highest proportion of students from OECD countries. This is far higher than, for example, the US and the UK who respectively receive 40 and 60 per cent of their international students from OECD countries (OECD, 2001).

MOBILITY

In terms of outgoing Irish students, 14 per cent of the Irish students surveyed reported being abroad for study-related activities and a further 4 per cent indicated an arrangement for study abroad in the future. This result is slightly higher than the 10 per cent rate found in previous studies (Eurostudent I and II). Among students who participated in exchange programmes, a minority (32 per cent) went abroad as part of the Lifelong Learning Programme: Erasmus. Stays abroad are, on average, six months in duration.

The most visited country remains France which received 22 per cent of mobile Irish students, followed by Germany with 12 per cent. This is not surprising given that French and German are the two foreign languages most taught in Irish secondary schools. Twenty-one per cent of the mobile Irish student sample went to an English-speaking country, either the UK or the USA. These findings suggest that language proficiency is an important factor in the choice of destination for study abroad.

STUDENT LIFE & WELL-BEING

Among the most contentious issues concerning the economic situation in Ireland has been the rapid increase in the cost of accommodation. Students are particularly vulnerable to this increase as their opportunity to earn income while studying is limited. The proportion of students living in the parental home is 5 percentage points higher than in the previous 2003/2004 study but still the most common type of accommodation among the students in this sample is a privately rented house or flat. Fifty-three per cent of the sample live with their parents, relatives or in college residences. The remainder, almost half of the respondents, sourced their accommodation themselves. Students rely on their families to contribute around half of the accommodation costs that they face.

The average distance between students' accommodation and their college is 10.5 km with over 50 per cent of the students living within four kilometres of their college. The average distance varies across type of accommodation. As expected, students living in a college residence are located far closer to their college (2.5 km on average) than are those who live in their family homes (17km on average). Over 12 per cent of full-time students live 20 kilometres or more from their college.

The most common source of income for full-time students is family, with 66 per cent of full-time students receiving at least some direct family assistance followed closely by employment, with 65 per cent of full-time students receiving at least some income from employment. Thirty per cent of full-time students in this sample receive direct assistance from the state. In addition to the students who receive direct payments from their family, a considerable proportion of students (70 per cent) reported that their family provided indirect support in the form of a subsidy towards accommodation or other expenses. As in the previous Eurostudent 2003/2004 report, the proportion of students who receive indirect support is higher among younger students on full-time courses. The reliance on part-time employment as a financing source is one of the key features of the Irish education system and the balancing of work and study commitments is one of the major concerns of students in Irish higher education institutions.

Students' monthly expenditure totals on average €1086.84 per month. The largest expenditure component is accommodation, followed by food and alcohol, and to a lesser extent bills, clothing and transport.

Approximately 55 per cent of full-time students did not work in paid employment during term time compared to 24 per cent of part-time students. Overall, the jobs of full-time students showed less relation to their studies than the jobs of part-time students. Strain levels are higher among the working sample with just over 25 per cent expressing dissatisfaction with workload compared to approximately 15 per cent of non-working students.

INTRODUCTION

The primary function of the education system is to equip individuals with the knowledge and skills necessary to participate in the economy at both an economic and social level. An educated labour force will produce more efficiently, leading to faster economic growth. Access to a quality education system enhances economic opportunities, and an educated population will be more politically aware and personally fulfilled (Newman, 2005).

This core belief underpins the shaping of policy on higher education in Ireland. Measured from a number of perspectives the policy promoted by successive governments has reaped dividends – for example, the proportion of school-leavers in further and higher education continues to rise in Ireland and the number of paths to higher education has increased. The Strategy for Science Technology and Innovation (SSTI) highlights third and fourth level education as a key driver of economic and social progress in Ireland and considerable investment continues to be placed into these sectors, as exemplified by the ongoing Strategic Innovation Fund (SIF) initiative.

There is a need to collect data on the characteristics of students enrolled in higher level education in Ireland. A number of official sources exist including HEA databases, the Census, the Household Budget survey and other general use data. Furthermore, a number of surveys of students have been conducted in recent years including the previous rounds of the Eurostudent survey and the College Lifestyle Attitudes and Nutrition (CLAN) survey. However, there is a strong need to build on the existing data to understand more fully the issues affecting education policy.[1]

This report summarises the key themes and outcomes emerging from the latest round of Eurostudent – 2007 - an Internet survey of Irish students conducted in 31 higher education institutes from December 2006 to April 2007.

The overall aim of this report is to examine the effect of demographic and social background characteristics on various measures of welfare and college adjustment. The growing diversity of the student body has been one of the main features of the changing Irish educational environment. It is important to understand the consequences of this rapid change in order to develop higher education policies that are sensitive to the requirements of different students.

The report provides timely and relevant data for those involved in initiatives aimed at improving student welfare and encouraging student retention as well as those interested in examining the issues involved with an increasingly diverse student body. The report profiles students across a wide range of economic and social variables as well as examining welfare, time usage and study patterns.

1 The history of Irish Higher Education is reviewed in Daly (1981). Previous Eurostudent reports also provide valuable information on living conditions among Irish students. A number of papers have been written about educational inequalities in the Irish context (e.g. Clancy 2001; Whelan and Hannan 1999; Ryan et al 2007; Sweetman 2002). A number of recent papers have developed frameworks for analysing inequalities in education participation e.g. Cameron and Heckman (1998), Cameron and Heckman (2001), Carneiro and Heckman (2002) and Heckman, Stixrud and Urzua (2006).

SURVEY AND SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS

The third wave of the Irish Eurostudent survey was conducted by the research team at the UCD Geary Institute in winter 2006 and spring 2007. An internet survey approach was used, marking a departure from previous rounds. We have tried to match as closely as possible the structure of previous reports to ensure comparability but have also added substantial material and included this where relevant.

The target population was the student population in 35 institutions at both undergraduate and postgraduate level. In the context of increasing numbers of foreign students in Irish higher education institutes, the study has been extended for the first time to non-Irish students.

Students were contacted nationwide through their institutional email addresses and surveyed using a web-based questionnaire. Web-surveying is a flexible and cost-effective approach.[2] However, the participation of the target population is greatly constrained by the utilisation rate of institutional email addresses by students. Based on comments from our liaisons in the 35 institutions, we estimate the utilisation rate to be approximately 50 per cent. To maximise the participation rate, we sent out three emails to the students in the 35 institutions, and two reminder emails to the students who entered the survey but did not fully complete it. We also hired a promotions company to run an on campus campaign to create awareness about the survey.

Participants who did not complete the entire questionnaire have been dropped from the sample, leaving a total sample of 13,342 and a response rate of 18 per cent based on an estimated 50 per cent institutional email usage.

Of the sample surveyed:

- 76 per cent of students were enrolled in a university and 24 per cent in other third-level institutions;
- Full-time students account for 93 per cent of the student sample;
- 84 per cent of students are undergraduates. PhD students account for 6 per cent of the total student sample and almost 40 per cent of the postgraduate students;
- Students with nationality other than Irish make up approximately 11 per cent of the student body and 32 per cent of PhD students.

2 There are a number of advantages of the web survey format. For example, it dramatically decreases the lag between the sending of the questionnaire and the returns, and reminders can be sent out at no additional cost. Shakeshaft, Bowman and Sanson-Fisher (1999), note that the use of computers in surveys has several potential advantages over pen and paper questionnaires and face-to-face or telephone interviews. These advantages are: "improved speed and efficiency in data collection and processing; completion by unsupervised respondents after brief instruction, minimizing observer bias; greater interactive presentation of items, allowing questionnaires to be instantaneously and unobtrusively tailored, or branched, for each client; reduced incidence of missing data; easier and more standardized interpretation of results and a high level of user acceptability." Gunn (2002) and Simsek and Veiga (2000) discuss the cost-effectiveness of web-based surveys. Gunn (2002) also discusses other advantages of web-based surveys such as faster response rates, easier processing of data, dynamic error checking capability, option to randomise order of questions, ease of understanding in complex "skip" pattern questions, inclusion of pop-up instructions for selected questions and the use of drop-down boxes. These are possibilities that cannot be included in paper-based surveys. Another advantage of this method is a higher quality dataset, since it is possible to include codes in the web page which prevent inconsistency of answers and errors which occur through transcription of the answers from a paper to an electronic format. Chang and Krosnick (2003) conducted a laboratory experiment in which respondents were randomly assigned to answer questions either on a computer or over an intercom system with an interviewer. Their laboratory experiment indicated that the computer mode was subject to less incoherence, survey satisficing and social desirability response bias. These findings were in line with previous national surveys discussed by Chang and Krosnick.

REPRESENTATIVENESS OF THE DATA

A comparison of the Eurostudent dataset against HEA statistics indicates that our sample is by and large representative of the Irish student body.[3] The age distribution of the Eurostudent sample closely matches that of the HEA; 45 per cent of students are 20 years of age or younger, compared with 48 per cent for the HEA. Similarly, 7 per cent of the students surveyed declared being over 30 years old, which is very close to the 8 per cent reported by the HEA. In terms of level of qualification (see table 1.1 on page 15), the Eurostudent dataset is again similar to HEA statistics, with approximately 80 per cent of full-time students being undergraduates. The distribution of fields of study of the Eurostudent sample (see table 1.2 on page 15) also follows that of the HEA. The discrepancies observed between the two data sources in some fields of study, such as Health and Welfare is likely due to the existence of the category "other" in the Eurostudent survey. For example, Social Studies accounts for 8.9 per cent of students in the Fields of Health and Welfare according to HEA statistics. It is probable that in the Eurostudent survey these students chose the field of study "other", which would explain the seemingly diverging results between the two sources. Finally, non-Irish students account for approximately ten percent of students in both sample and population. Therefore, we are confident of the representativeness of the Eurostudent survey with respect to most observed characteristics. However, students with particular vulnerabilities and who are not engaging with their campuses may be less likely to be picked up using web-based surveys. Further and ongoing research is needed to examine the extent to which such students are not represented in both institutional and academic research contexts.

STRUCTURE OF THE REPORT

The report consists of eight chapters. Chapter 1 outlines the profile of students with respect to type of degree and course characteristics as well as profiling family background and circumstances, disability, gender and entry route to college. It thus provides a solid account of the diversity of the student body. Chapter 2 outlines the profile of non-national students studying in Irish higher education institutes. Chapter 3 provides information on student income in terms of amount and sources and examines student consumption and expenditure patterns. Chapter 4 examines student employment patterns. Chapter 5 examines language fluency and the frequency and experience of overseas study. Chapter 6 examines accommodation situation in terms of type, distance from college, expense and subjective satisfaction as well as examining time and cost involved in travelling to college. Chapter 7 examines student welfare, and, in particular, how a number of key outcomes are related to the core demographic variables under examination. It thus offers the most comprehensive account to date of the experience of diverse students in a rapidly changing educational environment in Ireland. Chapter 8 concludes with recommendations for policy and for future research.

3 We are referring to statistics provided by the HEA for the academic year 2006/07 for the seven universities. HEA 2006/07 Annual Statistics are available online at http://www.hea.ie

RESPONSE RATES

	Overall Response rate (Based on 50 % Email Usage)	Overall Response rate (Based on Total Population)
University College Cork	15.29	7.65
University College Dublin	28.08	14.04
National University of Ireland, Galway	26.58	13.29
Trinity College Dublin	19.08	8.04
National University of Ireland, Maynooth	41.02	20.51
Dublin City University	36.34	18.17
St. Patrick's Teacher Training College	10.92	5.46
University of Limerick	10.37	5.19
Mary Immaculate College	3.86	1.93
National College of Art & Design	7.49	3.75
Dublin Institute of Technology	8.07	4.04
Athlone Institute of Technology	3.74	1.87
Institute of Technology, Carlow	25.80	12.90
Cork Institute of Technology	1.29	0.65
Dundalk Institute of Technology	14.26	7.13
Galway-Mayo Institute of Technology	11.26	5.63
Letterkenny Institute of Technology	9.98	4.99
Limerick Institute of Technology	13.13	6.57
Institute of Technology, Sligo	10.81	5.41
Institute of Technology, Tallaght	1.11	0.55
Institute of Technology, Tralee	17.62	8.81
Waterford Institute of technology	1.13	0.57
Institute of Technology, Blanchardstown	5.65	2.83
Tipperary Institute	26.64	13.32
St. Angela College	12.90	6.45
National College of Ireland	3.97	1.98
Mater Dei Institute	16.63	8.32
Pontifical College	5.63	2.82
Colaiste Mhuire, Marino, Dublin	8.29	4.15
Frobel College, Blackrock	14.29	7.15
COI College, Rathmines	10.71	5.36
Total	**15.92**	**7.96**

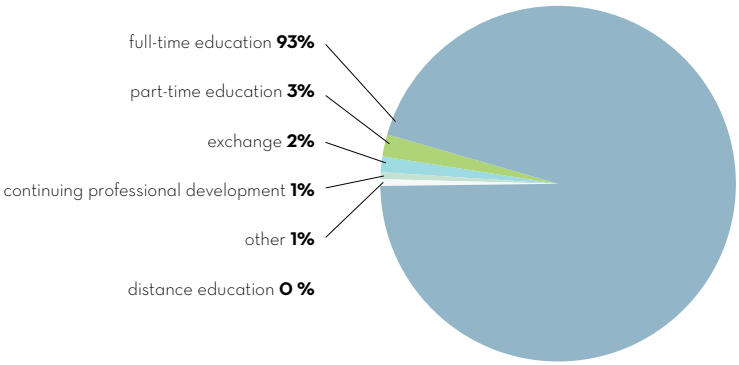
CHAPTER 1
SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF STUDENTS

A major aim of Irish higher education policy over recent years has been to widen the base of participation and to diversify the manner in which students participate in higher education. There has also been an extension in the range of supports for students from different social backgrounds and with different life circumstances.[4] This chapter provides information on the composition of students in higher education with regard to social background and disability status.

1.1 COURSE CHARACTERISTICS

The majority of students in this survey are full-time higher education students.[5] This reflects a degree of sample selection in the use of the email contact format. Nevertheless, the higher sample size means that we are still able to provide meaningful estimates of the breakdown of part-time students. Figure 1.1 displays the distribution of students in the sample with respect to educational status.

Figure 1.1: Distribution of students' educational status



4 See, for example, the National Office for Equity of Access to Higher Education Annual Report 2006

5 Part-time students constitute 7 per cent of our sample. The HEA estimated their proportion to be 11 per cent among undergraduates and 31 per cent among postgraduates for the academic year 2005/06. An interesting trend is the decrease in the enrolment of part-time students at undergraduate level (down from 13 per cent in 2004/05) and their rising presence among postgraduates, with an 8.5 per cent increase from 2003/04 to 2005/06. The under-representation of part-time students reflects a sample selection in the use of the institutional email contact format; it is likely that part-time students use their institutional email address to a lesser extent than full-time students.

In Figure 1.2 we expand this basic summary by main fields of study. Part-time students are most represented in fields such as Education (which may reflect the professional nature of this course of study) but there are also significant numbers of part-time students in areas such as Computing and Health which may reflect the appropriateness of these areas to the 'lifelong' learning agenda where up-skilling, such as in the IT arena, is common. Table 1.1 shows that part-time students are most represented on taught Masters programmes, whereas the majority of full-time students are enrolled on honours bachelor degree programmes. This Table closely resembles the previous Eurostudent report 2003/2004 in terms of distribution though with higher numbers of part-time PhD students and Masters students.

The distribution of gender across different subject field is displayed in Table 1.2. Of the total sample, 60 per cent are female and 40 per cent are male. This reflects an international trend towards a growing gender gap in higher education whereby females are more likely to enter higher education than males. As well as gender differences in the likelihood of entering higher education, there are also differences in the types of subjects that males and females choose once they enter. The largest gender gap occurs in the fields of Computing and Engineering with several times more males than females while the reverse is evident in the Humanities and Education with significantly more females in these fields.

Figure 1.2: Proportion of full and part-time students by main field of study

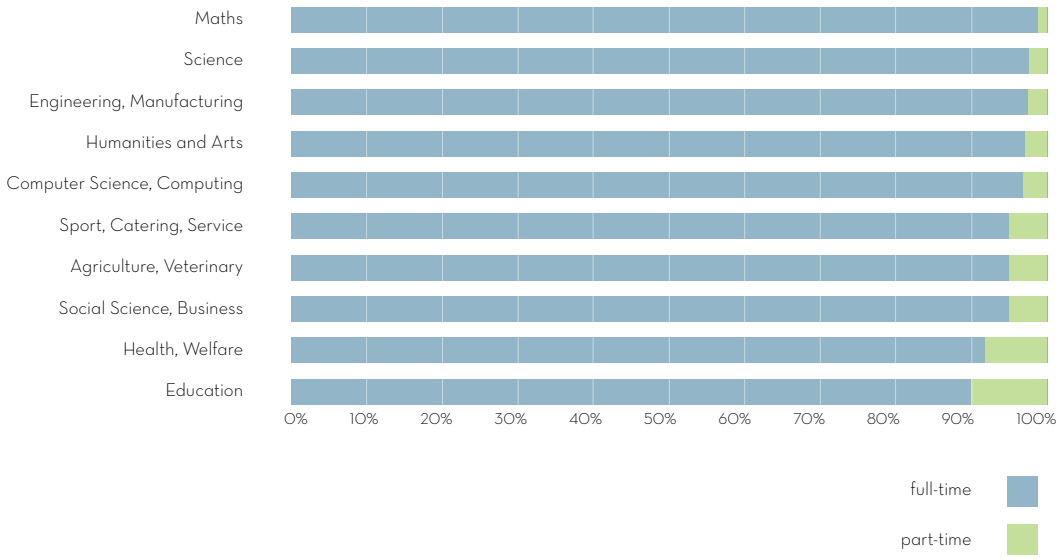


Table 1.1: Level of course (% within full- and part-time course)

	Full-time Eurostudent Sample %	Full-time Population %	Part-time Eurostudent Sample %	Part-time Population %	**Total Eurostudent Sample %**
Higher Certificate	3.13	2.19	2.74	29.22	**3.12**
Diploma	0.78		4..34		**1.24**
Ordinary Degree	13.08	78.09	11.42	18.64	**13.31**
Honours Bachelor Degree	67.64		28.08		**64.85**
Postgraduate Diploma	1.63	4.44	6.85	18.38	**2.02**
Taught Masters Degree	5.29	6.84	31.51	21.80	**6.24**
Research Masters Degree	1.20	2.56	5.71	3.82	**1.42**
PhD	6.34	5.39	5.94	3.75	**6.32**
Other	0.91	0.49	3.42	4.39	**1.48**

Note: The Student population includes the 7 universities, SPD, MIC, NCAD, RCSI and MDI. HEA statistics for 2006/07. Please note that the figure for higher certificates and diplomas is not disaggregated in the population figures we have available. Similarly, the figures for ordinary degree and bachelors degree are put together in the population figures we use to compute the table.

Table 1.2: Gender and main field of study

	Male %	Female %	**Total %**	Population %
Education	2.05	5.29	**3.85**	4.29
Humanities and Arts	15.62	26.83	**22.47**	22.74
Social Science, Law, Business	21.21	23.13	**22.49**	27.69
Science	14.95	15.93	**15.98**	12.64
Maths	2.38	1.48	**1.84**	1.28
Computing, Computer Science	10.84	2.69	**5.86**	3.37
Engineering, Manufacturing, Construction	19.20	4.15	**10.26**	7.98
Agriculture, Veterinary	1.68	1.63	**1.42**	1.65
Health, Welfare	4.45	9.47	**7.32**	18.11
Sport, Services	0.92	1.06	**1.00**	0.26
Other	6.48	8.34	**7.54**	N/A

Note: The Student population includes only the 7 universities (HEA 2006/07statistics)

The age of full- and part-time students and whether they have children is shown in Figure 1.3 and 1.4. As the figures illustrate, a far higher proportion of part-time students are older than 30 and have children in comparison to full-time students.

Figure 1.3: Age distribution of Irish third-level students

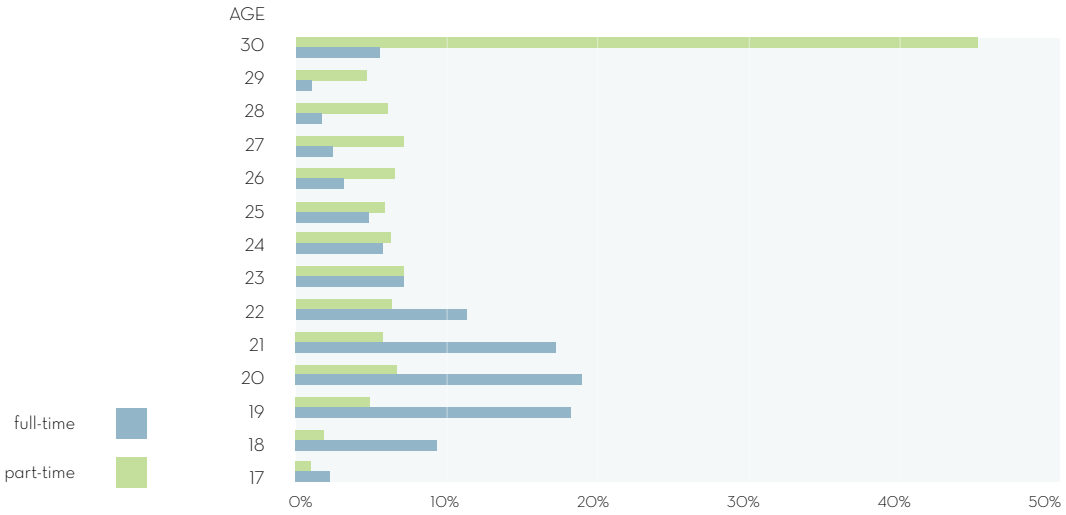
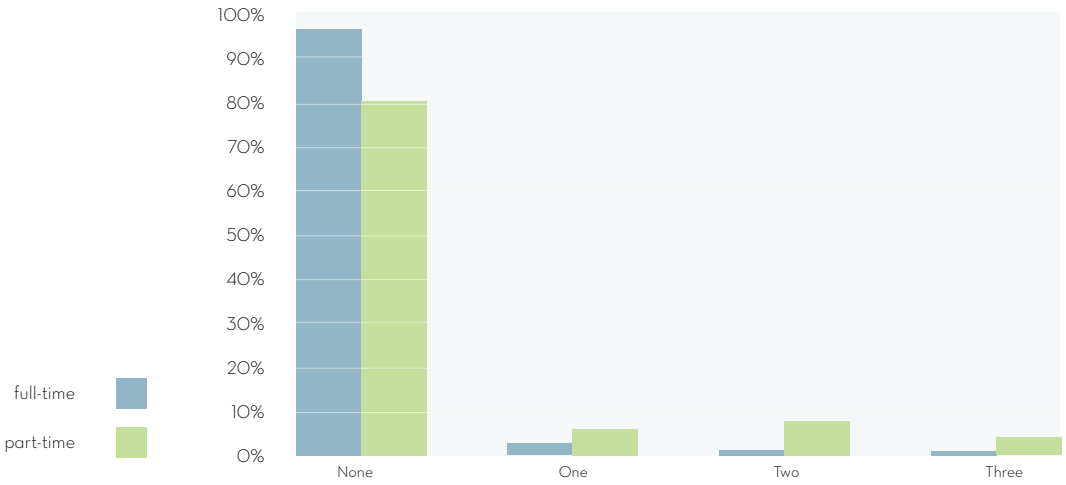


Figure 1.4: Number of children by full/part-time status



1.2 DISABILITY STATUS

As discussed in the previous Eurostudent report, very little is known about students with disabilities attending third-level[6]. The proportion of students with a disability is displayed in Figure 1.5. However, this should be treated with caution as it is likely that students with milder disabilities will be over-represented compared to students with more disabling conditions as a result of the use of web-based survey methodologies. Nevertheless, the results provide valuable information on a large proportion of the cohort with disabling conditions and provide a useful basis for comparing their characteristics with those of students who do not have any disabilities.

The question was phrased as follows:

"Do you have any of the following long-lasting conditions?"

- Sensory Impairment
  (e.g. blindness, deafness or serious vision or hearing impairment)
- Physical Limitation
  (a condition that substantially limits one or more basic physical activities such as walking, climbing stairs, reaching, lifting or carrying)
- Learning Difficulty
  (a specific learning difficulty e.g. dyslexia)
- Psychological Condition
  (a psychological or emotional condition including mental health difficulty)
- Other condition
  (including any chronic illness)

In response to this question, 1.21 per cent of the respondents stated that they had a sensory impairment (1.23 per cent of males and 1.20 per cent of females). The average age of students with a sensory disability was 22.55 years compared to an overall average age of 22.29. 1.53 per cent of the respondents reported that they had a physical limitation. Although sample selection may be an issue when using web-based methodologies, this is very similar to the figure of 1.3 per cent of the undergraduate population recorded in the previous Eurostudent study 2003/2004 (1.62 per cent of males and 1.47 per cent of females).

The average age of students with a physical limitation was 24.77 years which is considerably older than the average age of students without physical limitations. Approximately 3 per cent of respondents reported that they had a learning difficulty (2.58 per cent of males and 2.26 per cent of females; average age = 22.99). 4.75 per cent of respondents reported that they had a psychological condition (4.22 per cent of males, 5.10 per cent of females; average age = 23.27). 3.72 per cent of respondents reported having a condition outside of the categories listed in the questionnaire. When we combine these figures, taking into account that some students have more than one disability, we calculate the proportion of students with at least one disability to be approximately eleven per cent.[7]

6 See Shevlin, Kenny and McNeela (2004) for an account of students with disabilities in Ireland

7 25.32 per cent of students with a sensory impairment reported to be suffering from an additional long-lasting condition. The proportion of students with more than one disability is as high as 35.48 per cent for students with physical limitations, 17.28 per cent of students with learning difficulties and 18.18 per cent of student with a psychological condition.

Figure 1.5: Proportion of students with disabilities

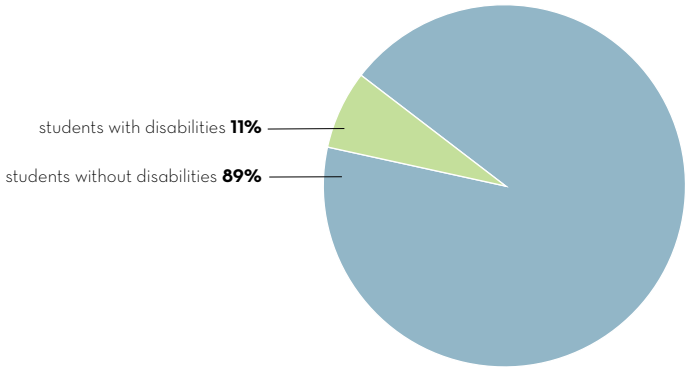
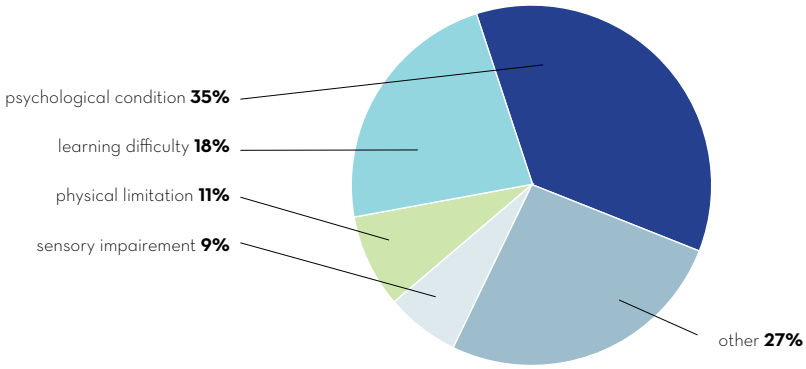


Figure 1.6: Types of disability



These figures are different from official records on disabilities in HEA institutions. The main reason for this is that our definition allows students to self-report on psychological disability (which accounts for over a third of the disabilities). It is likely that the survey estimate of psychological disability exceeds the formal estimate for two reasons. Firstly, the threshold used by students in self-defining psychological disability is likely to be lower than the threshold used in formal assessments. Secondly, many students who would meet the formal criteria for diagnosis have not been diagnosed because they have not attended an assessment. Furthermore, our survey allowed students to enter a category of "other" and this increases the number of students who can self-report disabilities that are not included in the standard taxonomy. When we restrict our analysis to physical limitations, sensory impairments and to learning difficulties, our results closely match those available from the HEA.

1.3 SOCIO-ECONOMIC BACKGROUND

We use parental education and occupation as well as family income as proxies for social background. The social class distribution of students is displayed in Figures 1.7 through 1.10. The Eurostudent reports of 2000 and 2003/2004 noted a relationship between participation in higher education and parents' education level.[8] The trend is confirmed in this study. Figure 1.7 represents the level of education reached by the parents of students compared with the national population aged from 40 to 59 years old. Approximately 40 per cent of parents earned a third level degree qualification, compared to 20 per cent of the national population.

A similar pattern emerges when we look at parental background in terms of employment classification. From Figures 1.7 to 1.10, which display the background of students, it can be seen that the student body is mainly composed of children from professional backgrounds. In particular, the proportion of students' parents with less than Leaving Certificate education is substantially lower than in the general population.

Figure 1.7: Parental education levels

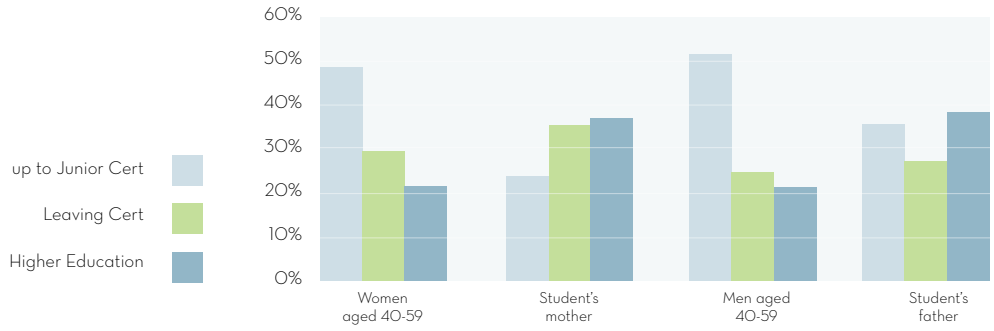
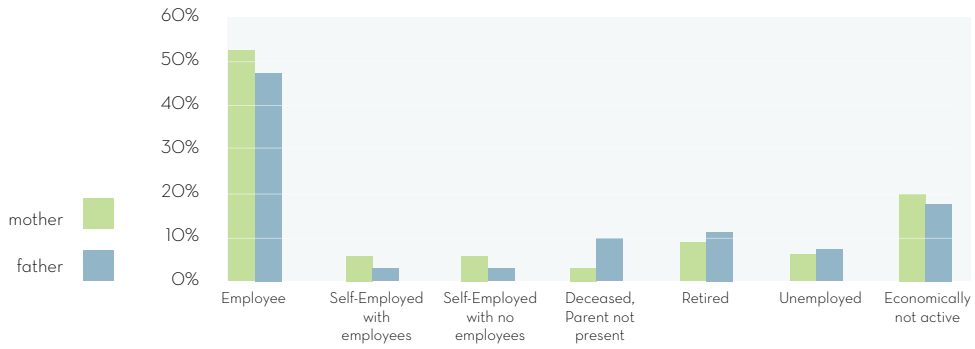


Figure 1.8: Parents' employment status



8 The role of socioeconomic background in the access to higher education has been extensively studied. For further reference to class inequalities in education attainment please refer to Sweetman (2002), Ryan, McCarthy and Newman (2007) for an Irish account.

Figure 1.9: Highest parental occupation

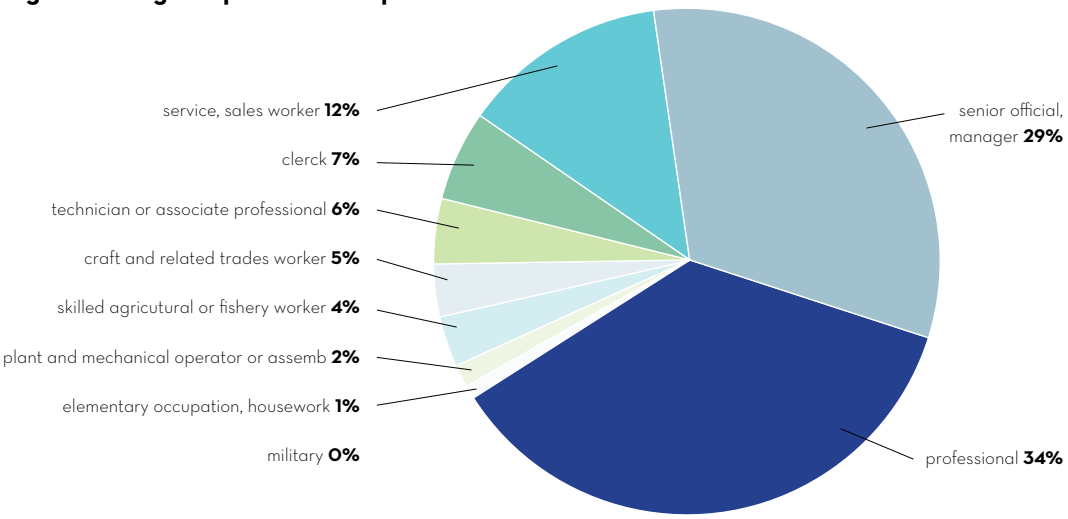
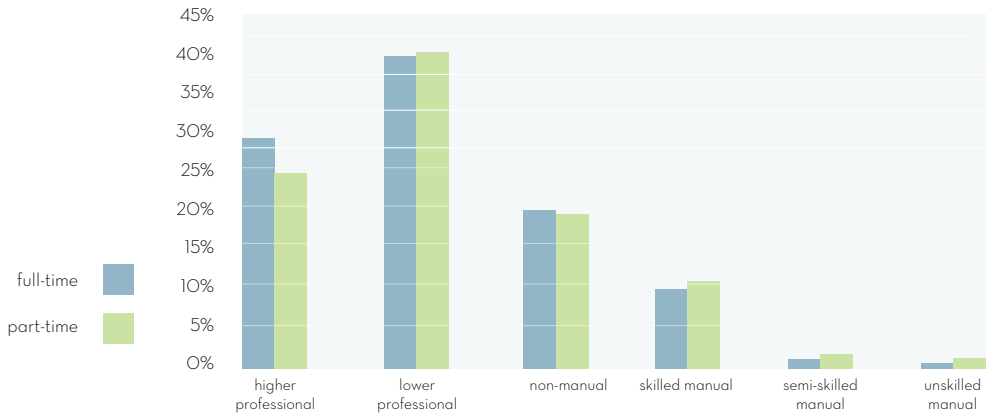


Figure 1.10: Parental occupation by full/part-time status



The family income distribution of students is examined in Table 1.3. This is very similar to the income distribution displayed by Darmody, Smith, O'Connell and Ryan (2005) though the number of students' families at the higher end of the distribution has increased, reflecting income increases more generally over the time period.

Table 1.3: Estimation of net monthly income of family household

€	%
Up to 600	4.69
600 to 1,000	6.83
1,000 to 1,500	8.70
1,500 to 2,000	10.72
2,000 to 2,500	12.92
2,500 to 3,00	13.28
3,000 to 4,000	15.95
Over 4,000	26.89

1.4 ENTRY ROUTE

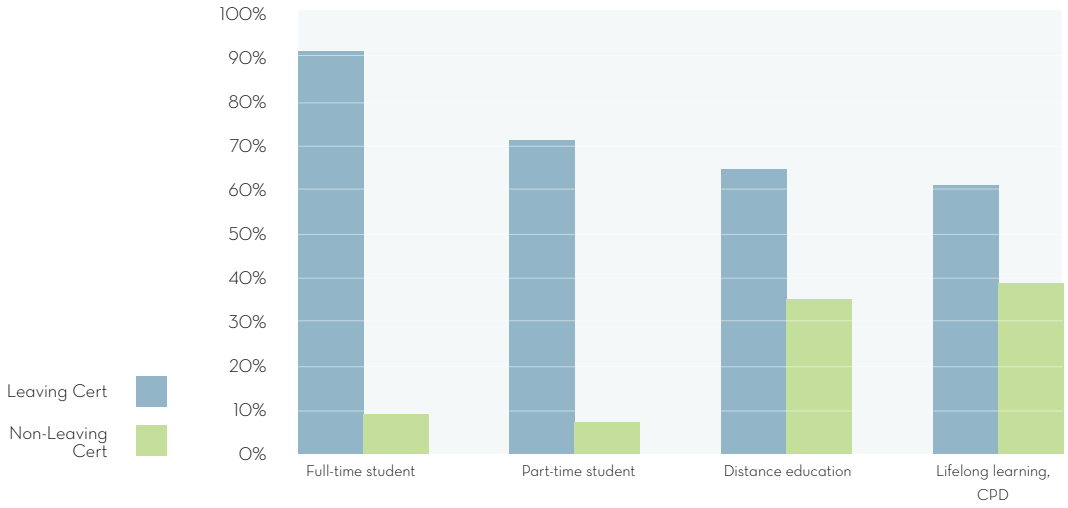
The majority of students (87 per cent) entered higher education on the basis of their Leaving Certificate results.[9] The proportion of students who gained entry on a non-Leaving Certificate basis is higher among part-time students. The breakdown by students' status displayed in Table 1.4 shows that 15 per cent of part-time students entered third-level education on the basis of mature years (being over 23 years old).

Table 1.4: Entry route among Irish students by full/part-time status

	Full-time	Part-time
FETAC/NCVA	1.66	1.82
Mature years	4.95	14.61
Access Programme	1.08	2.74
Leaving Certificate (or equivalent)	89.61	71.92
Other	2.70	8.90

The non-Leaving Certificate route most commonly used is the mature years option[10]. Almost half the students who did not enter on the basis of the Leaving Certificate chose this option. On average, students who followed a non-Leaving Certificate entry route are 29 years old, compared with 21 years old for those who entered higher education on the basis of the Leaving Certificate. Non-Leaving Certificate entry routes are more likely to be used by older students as well as students whose parents are not professionals. Additionally, it is important to note that Table 1.4 illustrates an under-representation of FETAC entry route students with FETAC numbers lower in comparison to official figures.

Figure 1.11: Proportion of students taking Leaving Certificate and Non-Leaving Certificate entry routes by status

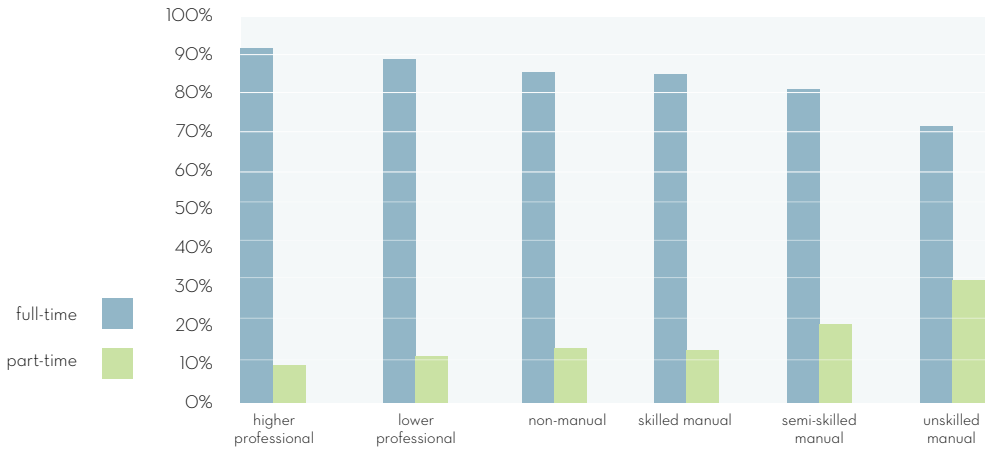


9 Compared with 92.5 per cent in 2000 (Eurostudent I) and 74 per cent in 2004 (Eurostudent II)

10 The percentage of mature students among new entrants increased from 2.5 per cent in 1992 to 4.5 per cent in 1998 (Clancy, 2001).

Twenty-seven per cent of the students had previously been registered on a third-level course. In line with the previous survey, 17 per cent of undergraduates have already been registered for another course. Twenty-one per cent of the students pursuing an ordinary degree and 16 per cent of those pursuing an honours bachelor degree had taken part previously in a higher education course. These results reflect the possibility of transferring onto a degree course after completing a diploma or certificate. Figure 1.12 represents the distribution of social class profile for Leaving Certificate and non-Leaving Certificate entry route students. The Figure illustrates that, of the students who go to college, the students from professional backgrounds are far more likely to enter through the Leaving Cert route (over 90 per cent) compared to those from non-skilled background (70 per cent entering through Leaving Certificate).

Figure 1.12: Entry route and social class



CHAPTER 2
CITIZENSHIP

A large change in the Irish higher education system in recent years has been the increased number of students from other countries enrolled in Irish higher education institutes. The internationalisation of Irish higher education is a relatively new phenomenon. Until the late 1990s, international students accounted for less than 5 per cent of the student population in Ireland. Within a few years, the number of international students almost doubled, increasing from 6,900 in 1998 to 12,700 in 2004 (OECD database). In 2004, international students accounted for 7 per cent of higher education students in Ireland, compared to 4.8 per cent 6 years earlier (OECD, 2001). The 2007 Eurostudent survey confirms this trend: 9.73 per cent of the students surveyed were overseas students. When we use a restrictive definition of international students (students who are both non-Irish nationals and non-permanent residents prior to beginning their studies in Ireland) the proportion falls to 7.77 per cent.

The migration of international students is part of a skilled migration strategy in many countries such as the US. Several studies have shown that student migration can be considered as a pre-migration process that leads to subsequent migration upon graduation (Jean, Johnson, & Regrets, 1998; Tremblay, 2005). For example, the retention rate of foreign graduates in the US is approximately 50 per cent (Finn, 2003). In order to examine the extent to which the internationalisation of Irish higher education will also lead to an increase in the number of skilled non-Irish people working in Ireland, it is essential to have robust information on the international student population. However, the literature on international students in Ireland is sparse. This deficiency is a result of the fact that this has only recently become a large scale policy issue and that very little data is currently available. The current survey allows us to analyse international students in depth thanks to a large dataset including information on: socio-economic characteristics, academic achievement and orientation, and satisfaction and well-being. Before looking more closely at the population under study, it is important to define the term “international student”.

2.1 DEFINITIONS

The definition of the term “international student” has implications for the measurement of student mobility. International students are frequently defined as students who are not citizens of the host country. However, this definition is problematic for the measurement of genuine student mobility - the number of students who moved across country borders for the purpose of studying - as up to 40 per cent of foreign students may already have been resident in the host country prior to being engaged in tertiary education (Kelo, Teichler, & Wächter, 2006). To avoid this measurement error, the OECD defines international students as students who are either non-permanent residents of the country or who have completed their secondary education in another country. This stricter definition is used in this document in order to capture more effectively the mobility of students.

The Eurostudent survey gives information on nationality but not on residence status. A possible way to bypass this missing information is to examine the location of students' family homes. Foreign students whose family home is in Ireland have a greater chance of becoming permanent residents. Therefore, we proxy permanent residency through family home's location and to exclude the analysis of non-Irish nationals who reported their family to be in Ireland.[11] Exchange programme students are also excluded since their stays are usually of a short duration and do not lead to the awarding of degrees from Irish Higher Education Institutes. Only full qualification students are taken into account in our analysis.

2.2 FIELDS OF STUDY AND LEVEL OF QUALIFICATION

The breakdown by gender shows that there is no significant difference between foreign-born and Irish students. In both populations, females outnumber males: they account for 58 per cent of international students and 60 per cent of Irish students. Like Irish students, the great majority of international students are full-time students (92 per cent). International students are, on average, slightly older (25 years) than their Irish counterparts (22 years). This age difference is partly due to the fact that international students are more likely than Irish students to be engaged in postgraduate studies.[12] The majority of international students (53 per cent) are registered as undergraduate students. Forty-seven per cent of international students are registered as postgraduates (postgraduate diploma, taught masters degree, research masters degree and PhD) compared to less than 15 per cent of Irish students. Similar trends have been observed in the UK where 48 per cent of international students are enrolled in a postgraduate programme compared to 9 per cent of British students. The enrolment rate differentials are slightly smaller in other OECD countries but remain high. In the US, for example, 45 per cent of international students are registered as postgraduates compared to 17 per cent of native students. In Australia, the corresponding figures show that 36 per cent of international students are registered at postgraduate level compared to 23 per cent of native students. The discrepancy between domestic and international students is particularly large at the PhD level. Table 2.1 displays the percentage of international students across qualifications and shows that international students account for 5.1 per cent of the student population at the undergraduate level compared with almost 25 per cent at the PhD level.

Table 2.1: Level of qualification expected and nationality

	Undergraduate	Postgraduate (PhD not included)	PhD
% of non Irish	5.1	14.1	24.9

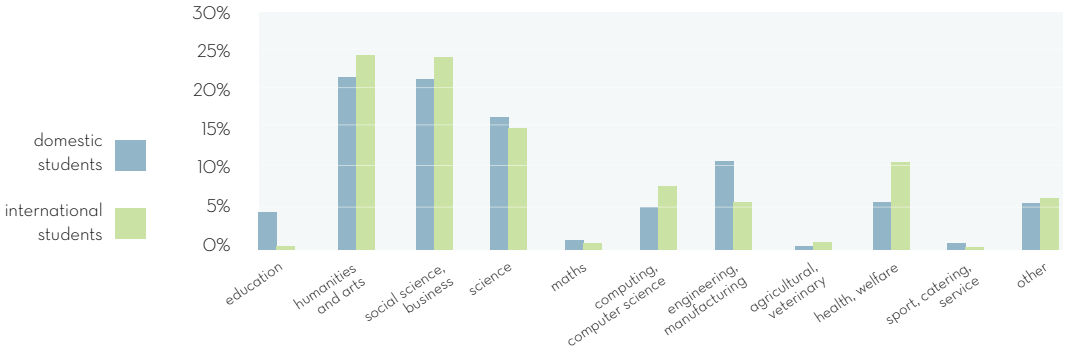
Figure 2.1 displays the distribution of students across fields of study by residency status.

11 Almost 22 per cent of foreign-born students declared having their family home in Ireland. This proportion is in line with the results of Gordon and Jallade (1996) who found that 73 per cent of foreign students in Ireland came to Ireland to complete their higher education.

12 Statistical models of the age difference between Irish and international students that utilise qualification level and field of study as variables explain over half the reported age difference. It is likely that much of the remaining difference is explained by later ages of school leaving in the main countries that feed in to the Irish higher education system.

In terms of field of study, there is no major difference between international and domestic students, except in the fields of Agriculture and Veterinary. Over 14 per cent of international students are enrolled in these fields against 7 per cent of Irish students. International students major slightly less in Engineering than Irish students but more in Computing.

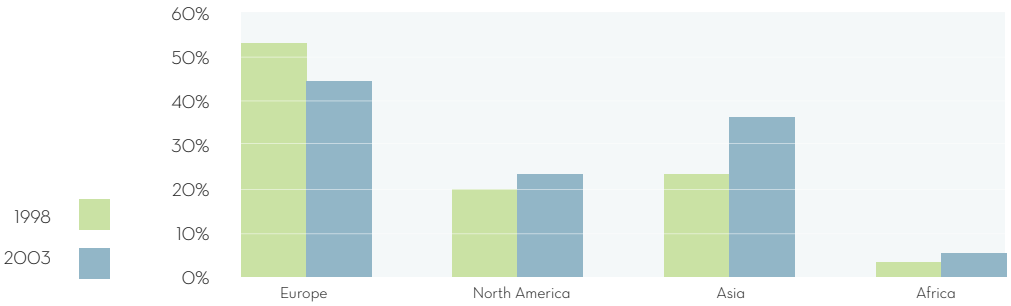
Figure 2.1: Fields of study: Domestic versus International Students



2.3 GEOGRAPHIC ORIGIN

Students were asked to declare whether or not they were Irish citizens but not to specify their nationality. However students were also asked what language they speak in their family home, other than English. We use this information to estimate roughly the countries of origin of international students. Approximately 50 per cent of them speak a European language. This result is in line with previous studies that have shown that the majority of international students come from the EU or non-EU countries in Continental Europe (e.g. OECD, 2004).

Figure 2.2: Region of origin of international students in Ireland 1998-2003



Source: OECD education database

Our results confirm the hypothesis that a growing number of international students from Asia are pursuing qualifications in Ireland; among international students who have a mother tongue other than English 33 per cent come from Asia, principally China, India and Malaysia.

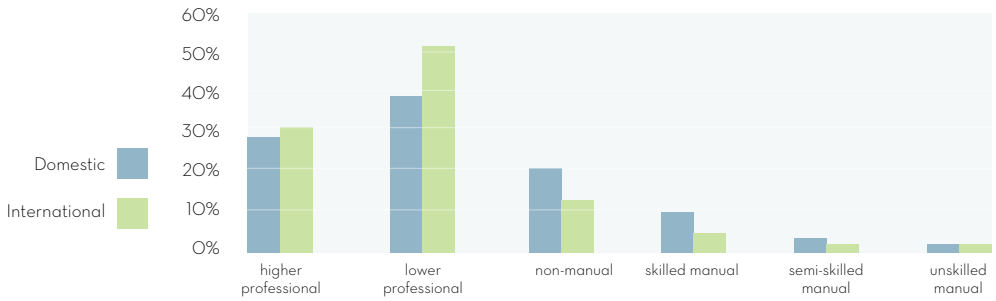
The large proportion of English speaking students is a persistent trend. Thirty eight per cent of international students in Ireland speak English as their home language; most of them come

from the US and the UK. The predominance of European students (50 per cent) and OECD students (72 per cent) distinguishes Ireland from the other main countries receiving international students. Ireland, along with Switzerland, receives the highest proportion of students from OECD countries. For example, the US and the UK respectively receive 40 and 60 per cent from OECD students (OECD, 2001). The 2004 OECD Review of National Policies for Education in Ireland criticised the lack of national diversity in Irish higher education institutes.

2.4 SOCIO-ECONOMIC BACKGROUND

International students tend to come from managerial and professional classes. Sixty-two per cent of them declared their father's occupation to be senior official, manager or professional against 49 per cent of Irish students. Similarly, 57 per cent of them reported the highest level of education achieved by their father to be third-level or higher compared to only 37 per cent of Irish students.

Figure 2.3: Socio-economic status and nationality



On average, the household net income is lower for international students. Forty-six per cent of them declared their family monthly income to be below €2,000, compared to 29 per cent of Irish students. This is likely due to the fact that other countries have different salary scales to Ireland, which has one of the widest income distributions in Europe (Nolan and Smeeding, 2004). This income gap translates directly in terms of financial well-being. Less than 30 per cent of international students declared themselves to be very satisfied with their financial situation which is 10 percentage points lower than for domestic students. A direct consequence is a greater dissatisfaction in terms of accommodation among international students; 65 per cent of them reported being very satisfied with their accommodation compared to 78 per cent of domestic students.

2.5 SOURCES OF FUNDING

International students are slightly less self-funded than their Irish counterparts regarding registration fees. Sixty-three per cent of them are self or family-funded against 74 per cent of Irish students. The breakdown of funding sources shows that international students rely to a greater extent on personal finance (28 per cent) than on their family, compared to Irish students. Only 17 per cent of domestic students declared that they supported themselves in relation to registration fees. The same proportion of international and Irish students are

funded by the state (23 per cent). The main difference between the two groups comes from the "other" sources of finance for registration fees which accounts for 17 per cent of international students compared to 2 per cent of Irish students. Participants were not asked to specify the types of funding aggregated under the denomination "other". However, it is probable that they cover various external funding sources such as grants and scholarships from the student's country of origin. The great majority of foreign-born students in Ireland are self or family-funded as is the case for most international students in other countries.

2.6 INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS' SATISFACTION

Figure 2.4: Satisfaction and nationality

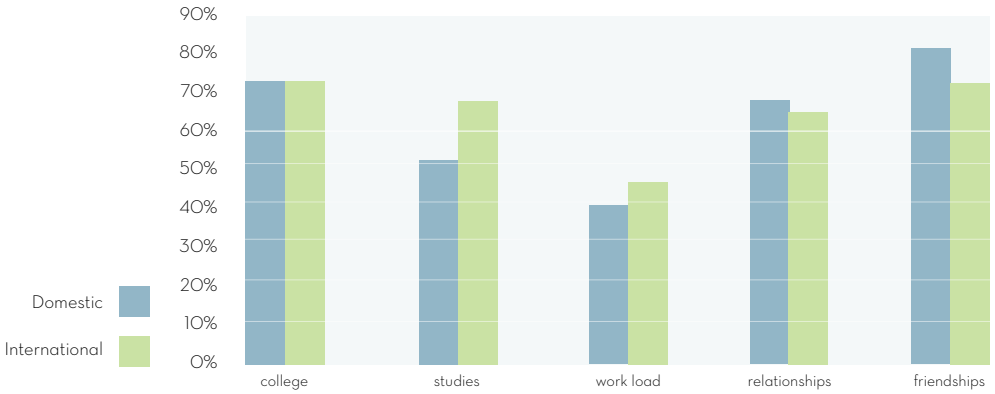


Figure 2.4 displays the percentage of students who are very satisfied or satisfied with different elements of their student life. Although there is no major gap between the two groups, international students are, in comparison with domestic students, more satisfied with study-related factors and less satisfied with relationships and friendships. International students' greater dissatisfaction with their social life is most likely due to the challenge of cultural adjustment when abroad. In a recent study on international students in the US, Yeh and Inose (2003) show that the acculturative stress that international students face is strongly related to English proficiency, social support satisfaction and social connectedness. The authors also demonstrate that students from Asia, Central/Latin America and Africa suffer from greater acculturative stress than their European counterparts because of wider cultural differences between sending and receiving countries. The issues associated with cultural and social adjustments should be considered further in the context of increasing numbers of students from outside of Europe being attracted to Irish higher education institutes.

2.7 INTERNATIONAL VERSUS DOMESTIC STUDENTS: COMPARISON

Table 2.2 presents the main characteristics of international students in comparison with domestic students. The table combines all the elements that have been discussed in this chapter.

Table 2.2: International versus domestic students: comparisons

	International students	Domestic students
SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS		
Gender (female)	58%	60%
Age	25 years	22 years
Father's Occupation (Professional background)	62%	49%
Father's Education (Third level and above)	57%	37 %
Household Income (Monthly income <2,000 €)	46%	29%
EDUCATION-RELATED CHARACTERISTICS		
Postgraduate	37%	15%
PhD	25%	5%
SATISFACTION (percentage very satisfied or satisfied)		
Financial Well-being	30%	39%
Accommodation	65%	78%
College	71%	73%
Studies	66%	51%
Workload	45%	40%
Friendship	65%	68%
Relationship	68%	82%

CHAPTER 3
STUDENT INCOME AND STUDENT EXPENDITURE

This chapter profiles student income and expenditure patterns. Students' financial situation is of interest particularly in light of the fact that by pursuing higher education, students are forgoing potential time spent in paid employment. The first part of the chapter examines student income. While differences in income among adults in full-time employment generally reflect different occupational status and working hours, students' income is particularly sensitive to transfers by their parents as well as salary from part-time employment. The state also intervenes to provide student income in various ways across different countries. As well as the payment of fees, the means tested higher education grant is the most common income support for students in Ireland.

Variation in access to different income sources may have implications for student well-being to the extent that it determines the amount that students can consume. The method by which they finance their living expenses may also have implications for their outcomes with respect to their course of study. Thus as well as examining student income, this chapter also examines the composition of income sources, and how income sources differ by student characteristics.

The second part of the chapter examines student expenditure. In particular, we examine the distribution of expenditure across several different items including transport, accommodation and college supplies as well as communications and entertainment/socialising. This information gives us a greater understanding of the financial requirements of student life.

3.1 SOURCES AND COMPOSITION OF INCOME

We firstly examine the distribution of income sources in terms of whether or not a student relies on a given source of income at all. Figure 3.1 displays sources of income by full- and part-time status. The most common source of income for full-time students is family, with 66 per cent of full-time students receiving at least some direct family assistance, followed closely by employment with 65 per cent of full-time students receiving at least some income from employment. The reliance on part-time employment as a financing source is an important characteristic of the Irish education system and the balancing of work and study commitments

is one of the major concerns of students in Irish institutions (See Appendix 1, for example).[13] Thirty per cent of full-time students in this sample receive direct assistance from the state.

Figure 3.1: Sources of income by full-time/part-time status

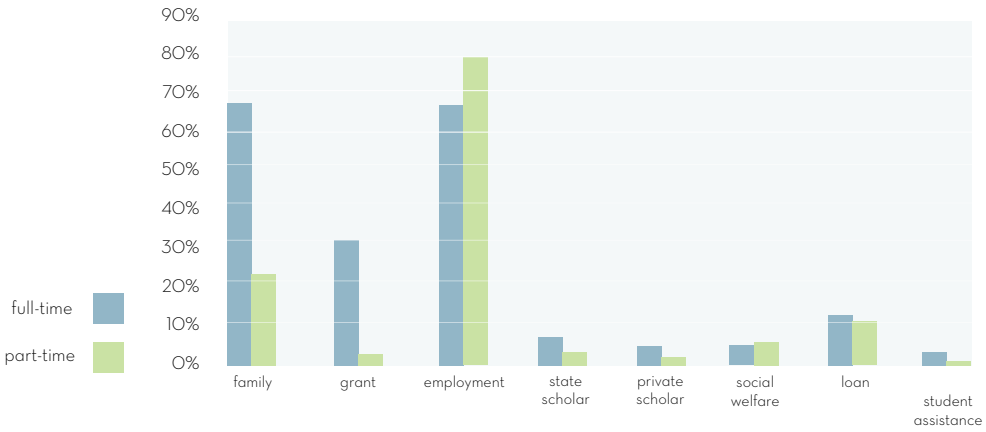
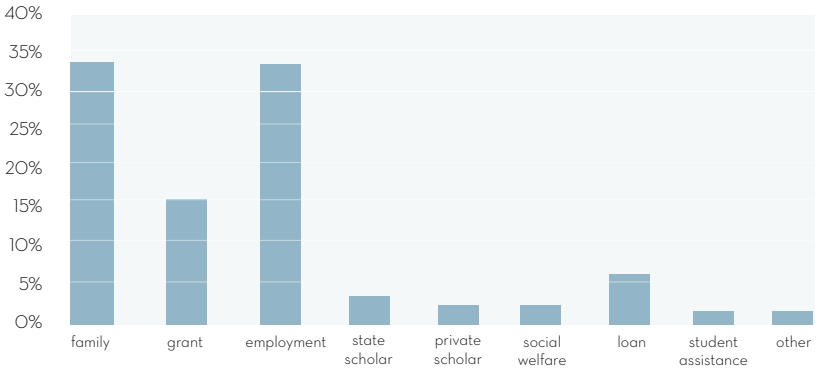


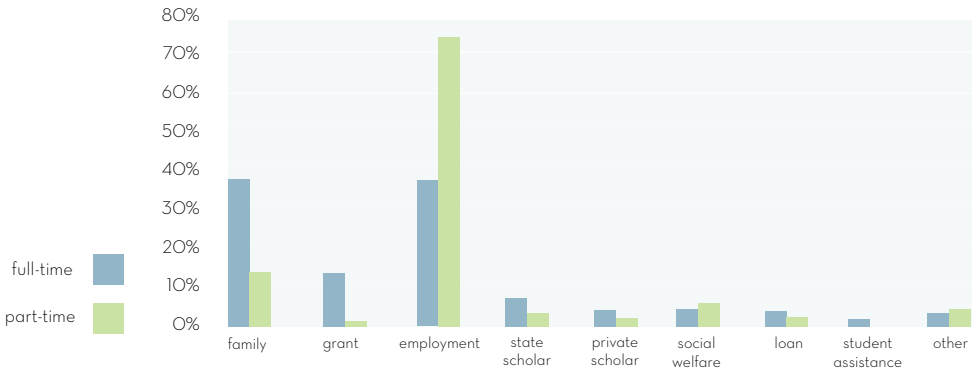
Figure 3.2 shows the composition of students' income. The biggest sources for full-time students are family and employment which each account for approximately 36 per cent of students' total income. The student means-tested grant is the third most important source of income, representing 13 per cent of students' income. Other income sources, from state and private scholarship to student assistance and social welfare, each account for 2 to 4 per cent of students' income. Loans contribute less than 4 per cent to students' income.

Figure 3.2: Composition of students' income



13 Analysing income data from students is difficult in a grid format as respondents may omit some categories and exaggerate others. In this analysis, we remove respondents with zero incomes and with incomes greater than 4,000 per month.

Figure 3.3: Composition of student income by full-time/part-time status



As can be seen from Figure 3.3, part-time students rely more on employment which accounts for 73 per cent of their total income. They are supported by their family to a lesser extent than full-time students (13 per cent). Part-time students have less access to grants and scholarships than full-time students with grants comprising less than 1 per cent of part-time students' total income, compared with 12 per cent for full-time students. Similarly, the contributions of state and private scholarships to the income of part-time students are respectively 2.5 and 3 times smaller than for full-time students.

Considering direct income, the average monthly amount received by third-level students is €893. As in the previous report, part-time students have substantially higher monthly incomes than full-time students (€2283 compared with €779). Table 3.1 shows that employment is the main source of income for both full-time and part-time students. This is consistent with the findings of the previous report 2003/2004.

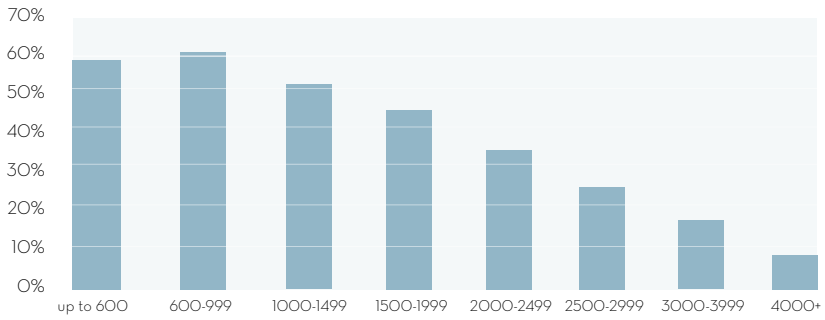
Table 3.1: Average monthly amount received from main sources

	Full-Time	Part-Time	**Total**
Family	328.65	31.32	**309.24**
State	49.30	30.72	**50.14**
Employment	400.59	2220.47	**533.87**

As can be seen in Figure 3.4, there is, as expected, a marked social gradient in who receives state assistance with approximately 50 per cent of students with parental incomes below €2,000 per month receiving a grant compared to 7 per cent of students with parental income greater than €4,000.[14]

14 For more details on financial aid and students' college decisions, please refer to Abraham and Clark (2001)

Figure 3.4: Proportion receiving State grants by family net monthly household income (full-time students)



3.2 INCOME BY GENDER AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC BACKGROUND

Table 3.2 shows total income by gender. As in the previous report 2003/2004, male students receive higher direct income than female students. Similar to the 2003/2004 study, there are no major income differences by gender when only full-time students are considered.

Table 3.2: Total income by gender

	Total Cash Income
ALL STUDENTS	
Male	**856.45**
Female	**812.63**
FULL-TIME	
Male	**820.74**
Female	**771.62**

Table 3.3 shows total income by social class for full-time students. As can be seen, there are marked income differences among students related to their level of parental income.

Table 3.3: Total income by social class (full-time students only)

	Mean, Cash
Higher professional	777.90
Lower professional	803.90
Non-manual	832.79
Skilled manual	749.30
Semi-skilled	882.28
Unskilled	450.54

3.3ITEMS OF EXPENDITURE

Table 3.4 displays students' average monthly expenditure on various items. A key feature of student expenditure patterns in Ireland is the extent to which they are mediated by whether the student lives at home with parents and relatives or whether they are renting either privately or in college residences. Students' monthly expenditure totals on average €1086.84 per month. The largest expenditure component is accommodation, followed by food and alcohol, and to a lesser extent bills, clothing and transport.

Students living with their parents have a similar level of monthly expenditure compared to the average (€1038.61). These students spend far less on accommodation. They spend more on food, alcohol, transport, bills and entertainment. This suggests that these students may have to travel further to college, but besides the fact that they live with their parents; they may have a more luxurious lifestyle.

Students living in their own household have a much higher level of monthly expenditure compared to the average (€1137.96). These students spend much more on accommodation. They spend a similar amount on food and alcohol and bills, compared to the average. They spend less on transport and entertainment.

Table 3.4: Average monthly expenditure on different items

	Average	Living with Parents/Rels	Living in own household	Living in Student Hall
Accommodation	248.04	69.95	333.66	369.42
Transport	78.06	96.63	71.05	58.63
Food	187.83	215.14	178.82	161.74
Clothing/Toiletries	78.45	99.98	67.37	66.22
Regular Bills	78.76	98.33	81.34	37.96
Medical Expenses	21.27	25.95	19.89	16.08
Mobile Phone	39.90	41.60	40.10	36.15
Alcohol	87.06	99.63	82.26	77.52
Tobacco	14.73	14.40	17.02	9.92
Entertainment	66.49	80.93	59.79	56.28
Loan Repayments	35.25	33.54	42.66	18.56
Study and Materials	77.17	89.29	67.43	78.85
Child Care	7.47	4.91	11.51	2.01
Other	6.53	6.21	8.13	3.17
Total	**1086.84**	**1038.61**	**1137.96**	**1052.95**

Students living on campus have the lowest level of monthly expenditure compared to the average (€1052.95). These students spend more on accommodation and less on transport, alcohol, food, entertainment and bills.

3.4 SPENDING BY STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS

On average, a full-time male student spends €1060.27 per month, and a full-time female student spends €1126.61 per month as is shown in Table 3.5. These levels are much lower than what a male (€1558.60) or female (€1661.59) student spends per month if he or she is enrolled in higher education on a part-time basis as illustrated in Table 3.6. Overall expenditure levels do not vary greatly by gender for either full-time or part-time students. However, female students spend more than males, whether they are enrolled in higher education on a full-time or part-time basis.

Female students (full-time and part-time) spend more than males on clothing, medical expenses, mobile phone expenses and study materials. Females only spend a noticeably greater amount on childcare services if they are enrolled in higher education on a full-time basis. Male students (full-time and part-time) spend more than females on entertainment.

The expenditure items with the biggest difference between full-time and part-time students are accommodation, transport, food, clothing bills, medical expenses, study materials, loan repayments and alcohol. Part-time students spend more on accommodation, transport, food, clothing bills, loan repayments and medical expenses. Part-time male students spend less on alcohol and more on study materials compared to full-time male students.

Table 3.5: Average direct monthly spending during term time (full-time students)

	Males	Females
Accommodation	233.98	247.63
Transport	74.39	81.15
Food	196.13	183.27
Clothing/Toiletries	61.86	90.35
Regular Bills	75.55	80.55
Medical Expenses	16.66	25.74
Mobile Phone	35.94	42.67
Alcohol	107.05	76.09
Tobacco	14.47	15.07
Entertainment	73.88	69.32
Loan Repayments	32.43	35.22
Study and Materials	73.44	91.75
Child Care	2.94	9.29
Other	4.74	8.59
Total	**1060.27**	**1126.61**

Table 3.6: Average direct monthly spending during term time (part-time students)

	Males	Females
Accommodation	368.46	410.12
Transport	116.15	100.20
Food	218.17	241.69
Clothing/Toiletries	86.59	119.77
Regular Bills	178.32	146.89
Medical Expenses	32.98	40.14
Mobile Phone	34.65	47.05
Alcohol	87.13	88.10
Tobacco	19.63	16.58
Entertainment	106.14	89.37
Loan Repayments	153.62	121.20
Study and Materials	47.45	102.48
Child Care	37.08	38.17
Other	8.74	11.69
Total	**1558.60**	**1661.59**

Table 3.7: Average direct monthly spending during term time: Students with children versus students without children

	With children	Without children
Accommodation	339.34	246.58
Transport	125.78	76.88
Food	311.55	185.77
Clothing/Toiletries	91.21	78.94
Regular Bills	208.21	75.77
Medical Expenses	42.75	21.78
Mobile Phone	45.73	39.55
Alcohol	43.47	89.54
Tobacco	30.96	14.37
Entertainment	54.69	72.2
Loan Repayments	103.15	34.81
Study and Materials	58.78	84.07
Child Care	185.64	0
Other	19.91	6.7
Total	**1722.67**	**1092.35**

It can be seen from Table 3.7 that the average monthly expenditure for students with children is €1722.67. The figure for students without children is much lower at €1092.35. Some of the difference is made up by expenditure on childcare €185.64 per month. Students with children also spend more money on accommodation, transport, food, medicine and bills. Students with children spend less on alcohol, but more on tobacco. They spend less on study materials but more on paying off loans. The combined figure for male and female spending is presented in Table 3.8 below.

Table 3.8: Total Expenditure by Male and Female Students

	Male	Female
Accommodation	257.26	276.21
Transport	76.81	81.68
Food	205.79	192.32
Clothing/Toiletries	64.62	93.10
Regular Bills	86.24	91.52
Medical Expenses	18.64	29.80
Mobile Phone	35.93	42.88
Alcohol	104.94	75.08
Tobacco	14.70	14.84
Entertainment	73.34	70.44
Loan Repayments	37.55	41.34
Study and Materials	30.98	39.41
Child Care	4.74	11.59
Other	7.06	11.16
Total	**1068.25**	**1105.23**

CHAPTER 4
STUDENT EMPLOYMENT

As discussed in Chapter 3, the self-financing of higher education through part-time employment is, after family income, the second most important method of student finance in Ireland. This is in contrast to other countries where loan and scholarship financing are relatively more common.[15] In this chapter, we profile further the consequences of this financing method in terms of time spent in paid employment and potential effects on study and life satisfaction. A large body of literature documents the negative effects on student outcomes of absence from taught lectures (e.g. Arulampalam, Naylor and Smith, 2007). Absence from lectures is seriously affected by student employment, which adds to the importance of investigating this topic.[16]

A number of studies have been conducted examining the extent and determinants of time spent by students in off-campus employment compared to time spent on study. Lassibille, Gomez, and Paul (2001) compare the time use of students in Spain, Brazil and France; students in all of these countries spend more time on study if they are taking courses in Science or Medicine, and from this finding the authors suggest that higher returns in particular fields of study encourage students to study harder. De Meulemeester and Rochat (2000) examine time use data from a sample of higher education students in Belgium and finds that students are more likely to spend time working due to financial constraints, and less likely to spend time working if their future earnings expectations are high. Kalenkoski and Pabilonia (2006) show that American students spend more time working if they receive less financial support from their parents, and if the costs of their education are higher. Financial constraints are a factor that could substantially affect the amount of time students spend on part-time work.

There are also some useful insights to be gained from international comparisons in the previous round of the Eurostudent survey (2005). Full-time students in Ireland were at the upper end of the spectrum in relation to how many hours per week that they spent, on average, in part-time employment (Eurostudent, 2005). In addition, full-time students in Ireland were close to spending the lowest amount of time on study-related activities.

15 For example in the United States during the academic year 2003/04, 63 per cent of undergraduates were receiving some financial help and 51 per cent were grant recipients. However, in contrast with Ireland, the financial structure of America is characterised by substantial tuition fees. Consequently, one third of undergraduates have a study loan. (statistics from the American Department of Education)

16 With the exceptions of Lassibille et al. (2000), De Meulemeester and Rochat (2000) and Kalenkoski and Pabilonia (2006).

4.1 PROPORTION OF STUDENTS WORKING DURING TERM-TIME

Figure 4.1: Working during term time by full/part-time status

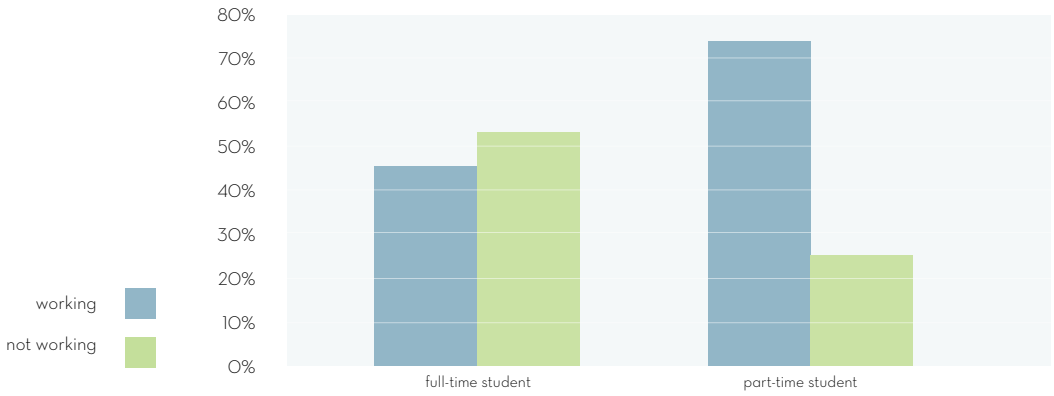


Figure 4.1 displays the proportion of full- and part-time students who were working versus the proportion who were not working during term time. Whereas employment during term time was relatively common among part-time students, it was much less common among full-time students. Among full-time students 44.69 per cent were in paid employment during term time, versus 55.31 per cent who were not. In comparison, the difference between the proportions of working versus non-working students was much greater among part-time students. 75.34 per cent of part-time students were working during term time while only 24.66 per cent were not working.

4.2CHARACTERISTICS OF STUDENTS IN PAID EMPLOYMENT

Figure 4.2: Full-time students in paid employment by gender

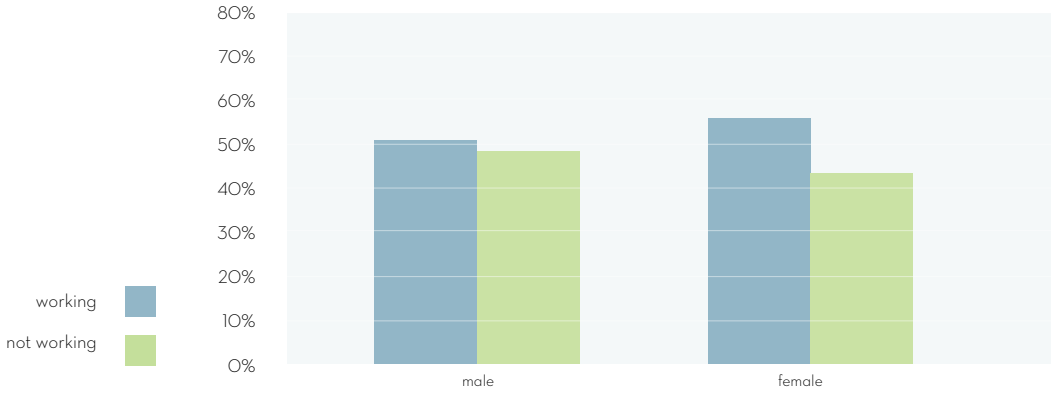


Figure 4.2 shows the proportion of male and female full-time students who were employed versus the proportion who were not in paid employment. Among male full-time students, 51.1 per cent were in paid employment, whereas 48.9 per cent were not. Employment was relatively more common among female full-time students; 56.84 per cent were employed, versus 43.16 per cent who were not in paid employment.

Figure 4.3: Full-time students in paid employment by parental education

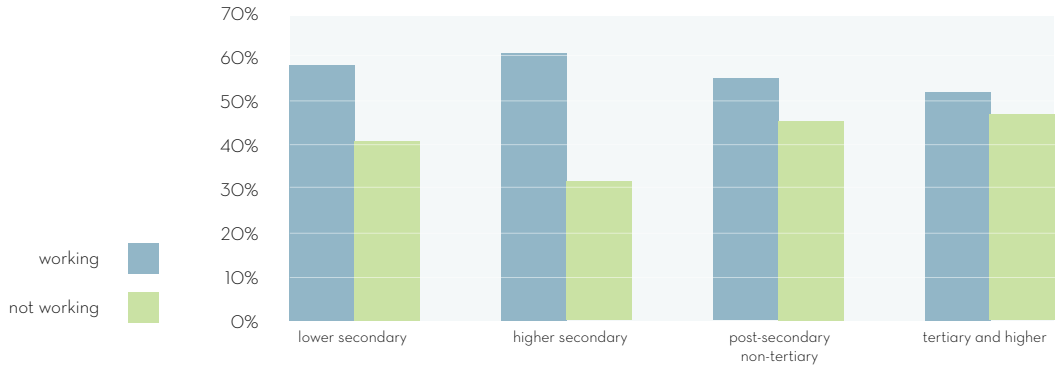


Figure 4.3 displays the relationship between parental level of education and the likelihood of full-time students being engaged in paid employment during term time. For full-time students whose parents' education finished at lower or higher secondary school level, the likelihood of being employed during term time was relatively high in comparison with students whose parents' education finished at post secondary school level. Full-time students whose parents finished their education at third-level were the least likely to be engaged in employment during term time in comparison with the other three groups.

For students whose parents finished their education at the lower secondary school level, 59.04 per cent were employed during term time, versus 40.96 per cent who did not hold a job. The level of employment among those whose parents' education ended at higher secondary school level was slightly higher than that of the latter group, with 60.5 per cent employed during term time versus 39.5 per cent who did not hold a job. Among full-time students whose parents finished their education at the post secondary school level, 54.04 per cent were employed, whereas 45.96 per cent were not employed. For students whose parents reached third-level education, the likelihood of being employed during term time was almost equal to the likelihood of not holding a job, with 51.26 per cent employed during term time, versus 48.74 per cent who were not employed.[17]

4.3 HOURS AND TYPE OF WORK

Figure 4.4 displays the number of hours per week that full- and part-time students, respectively, spend working. Whereas not engaging in paid employment during term time is the most common option among full-time students, the majority of part-time students were engaged in thirty hours or more of paid work a week. 54.29 per cent of full-time students did not work during term time, whilst only 23.74 per cent of part-time students were not employed during term time. Although working thirty hours or more per week is the most common option among part-time students, not working during term time was more common among this cohort than working fewer than thirty hours a week.

17 On average, 90-95 per cent of part-time students are in employment, with minimal variation across parental education background.

Figure 4.4: Hours of work per week by full/part-time status

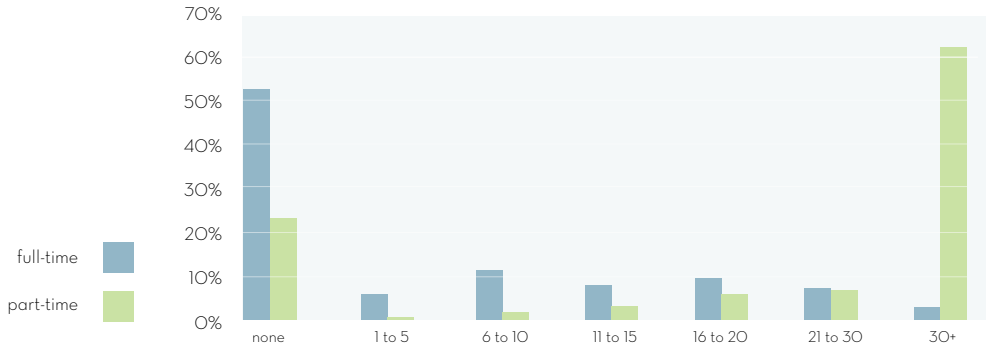
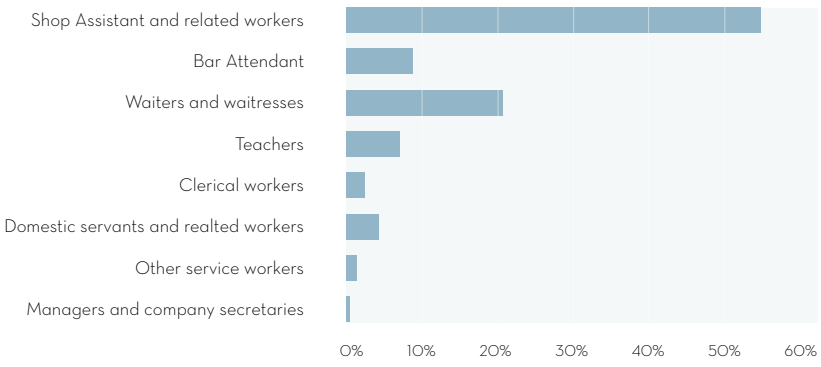


Figure 4.5: Most popular jobs held by third-level students



In line with Eurostudent 2005, Figure 4.5 shows that the most popular job held by third level students is shop assistant. Many students are also employed in other parts of the service industry.

4.4 RELATIONSHIP OF JOB TO STUDIES

Figure 4.6: Relationship of job to studies

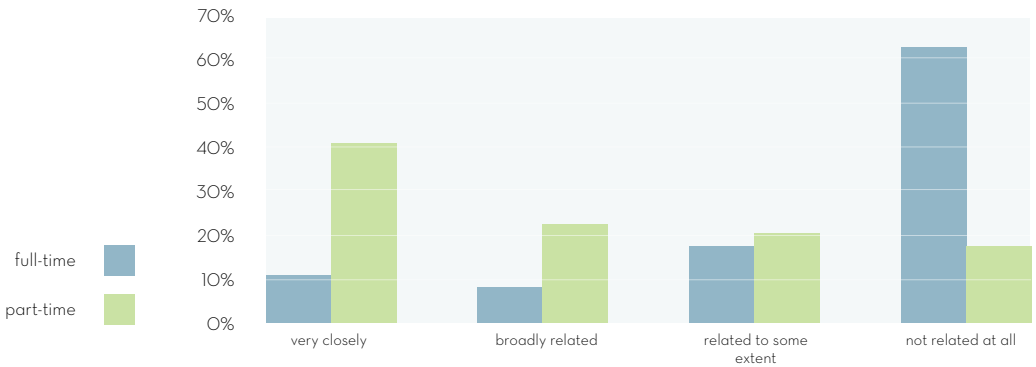
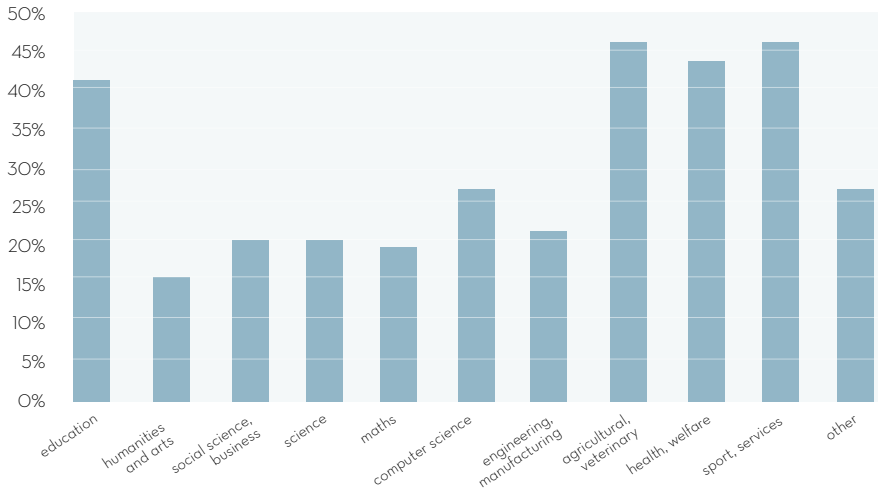


Figure 4.6 displays how closely the jobs of full- and part-time students were related to their studies. Overall, the jobs of full-time students showed less relation to their studies than the jobs of part-time students. 11.54 per cent of full-time students reported that their job was very closely related to their studies, in comparison to 39.21 per cent of part-time students. Only 8.08 per cent of full-time students reported that their job was broadly related to their studies, in comparison with 23.1 per cent of part-time students. Whereas 17.23 per cent of full-time students reported that their job was somewhat related to their studies, 20.06 per cent of part-time students made this claim. The majority of full-time students, 63.16 per cent, reported that their job was not at all related to their studies in comparison to only 17.63 per cent of part-time students.

The low proportion of students working in jobs that are related to their studies should be set in the context of recent evidence that securing work experience related to the field of study is potentially beneficial for students in terms of academic achievement and career choices. A number of recent studies conducted in the US have shown the impact of research internships on students' likelihood of pursuing a PhD. In 2006, SRI International published an evaluation of support provided by the National Science Foundation for undergraduate research opportunities in American universities. The study involved four Internet-based surveys of participants in undergraduate research programmes (undergraduate students, postgraduate students, postdoctoral researchers and faculty) and a nationally representative sample of individuals aged between 22 and 35 who had received a degree in Science, Technology, Engineering, Mathematics or in Social, Behavioural or Economic Science. It was found that undergraduate research experiences increased the likelihood and expectation of obtaining a PhD. About 8 in 10 postgraduate students who expected to obtain a PhD reported that their research experiences were fairly or extremely important in their decision to pursue postgraduate studies.

Figure 4.7: Relationship of job to the main field of study by Field

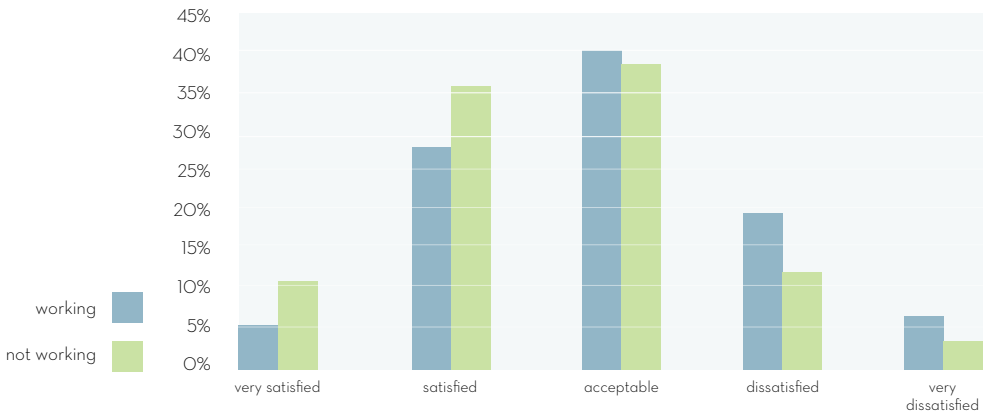


The relationship of students' jobs to their studies also varied as a function of their area of study. Students of the Health Sciences, Veterinary/Agriculture, Education and Sport/Services reported the strongest association between their job and their studies, whereas Humanities students reported the weakest association.

4.5 EMPLOYMENT AND LIFE SATISFACTION

Figure 4.8 below describes the level of satisfaction with workload for students who are working and not working. In this case, workload refers to overall strain and we use this as a measure of the extent to which working and non-working students feel burdened in a general sense. As can be seen, strain levels are higher among the working sample with just over 25 per cent expressing dissatisfaction with workload compared to approximately 15 per cent of non-working students.

Figure 4.8: Working during term time by satisfaction with workload (full-time students only)



CHAPTER 5
LANGUAGE FLUENCY AND OVERSEAS STUDY

Since the Erasmus scheme was established in 1987, a wide range of study-related programmes have been developed to foster student mobility. Today third-level students have access to various programmes including academic courses, language training and internships. Since the foundation of the Erasmus scheme, almost two million students have taken part in this programme. Despite a significant deepening of intra-European student mobility, Ireland has had consistently lower levels of participation than comparable countries (see Figure 5.1) and has had significantly more incoming than outgoing Erasmus students (King and Ruiz-Gelices, 2003).

This chapter will focus exclusively on students enrolled in Irish higher education institutes and so Irish students who are completing their whole higher education abroad are not considered.[18] We do not restrict our focus on student mobility to institutional exchange programmes but extend our analysis to include all types of study-related activities such as language training and internships. In order to accurately estimate the factors associated with students' mobility among students in Irish higher education, this chapter has been restricted to students with Irish nationality.

5.1 GENDER IMBALANCE AND FACULTY OF STUDY

Fourteen per cent of the students surveyed reported being abroad for study-related activities and a further 4 per cent indicated an arrangement for study abroad in the future. This result is slightly higher than the 10 per cent found in previous studies (Eurostudent surveys I & II).

18 In 1998, 13.6 per cent of Irish students were studying for a degree abroad (OECD, 2001), rendering Ireland one of the top OECD countries after Luxembourg, Iceland and Greece in this category. However, the proportion of Irish students enrolled in higher education abroad fell to 10 per cent in 2005.

Figure 5.1: Ireland in perspective: percentage of outgoing students

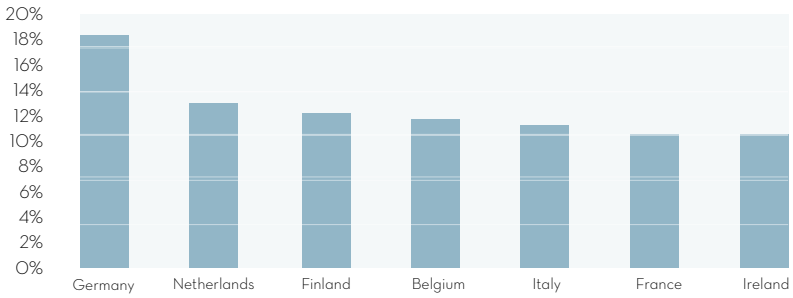


Table 5.1 shows that Irish female students are more likely than males to participate in foreign programmes.

Table 5.1: Student Mobility by Gender

	Whole population	Abroad
Female	60%	65%
Male	40%	35%

This gender imbalance cannot be explained by an imbalance in higher education participation alone. It is not a uniquely Irish phenomenon; similar observations have been made in other European countries and in the US (Goldstein & Kim, 2006; King & Ruiz-Gelices, 2003). The under-representation in study abroad programmes of students from the Engineering and Scientific faculties, which typically attract more male students, is often presented as an explanation. Hoffa (1998) suggests that these Scientific fields are less flexible and thus less conducive to participation in foreign courses. Table 5.2 below shows that students of the Humanities and Arts are over-represented among mobile students.

Table 5.2: Distribution of Mobile Students by Field of Study

Whole population (female)	Maths, computing engineering , science (female)	Humanities, art, social science, law, education (female)
14.0% (60%)	9.7% (43%)	17.2% (68%)

However, females still outnumber males when we consider only students who have been abroad, and decompose the sample by gender for each field of study. Table 5.3 shows that 10.6 per cent of females in the scientific fields of Mathematics, Computer Science and Engineering have been abroad, against 8 per cent of males in the same fields. Thus there remains a gender effect unexplained by the faculty hypothesis.

Table 5.3: Participants' gender distribution (science subjects)

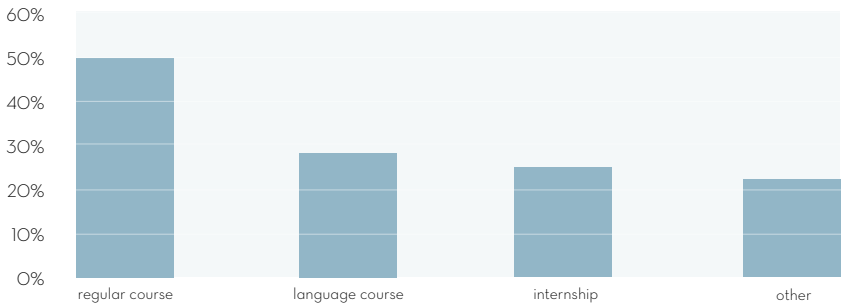
	Whole Population	Male	Female
Abroad	9.7%	8.0%	10.6%

Goldstein and Kim (2006) argue that females are over-represented because they have higher expectations of the benefits of studying abroad, greater foreign language interest and score lower on ethnocentrism than males.

5.2 FORMAT OF FOREIGN STUDY ACTIVITIES

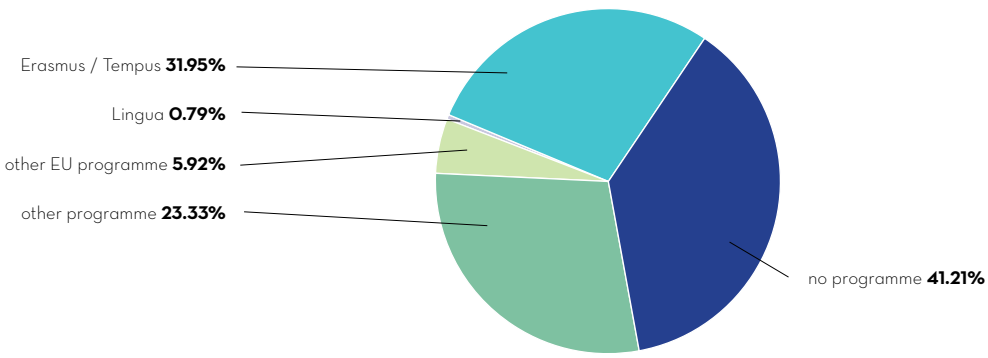
The distribution of types of activity is graphed in Figure 5.2 below. Almost half of the Irish participants were regular course students and one quarter were involved in linguistic and professional activities.

Figure 5.2: Format of foreign study activities



A minority of students (32 per cent) went abroad as part of the Lifelong Learning Programme: Erasmus, a statistic that is in line with wider European findings; one third of mobile students within Europe travel through a Socrates-Erasmus programme.

Figure 5.3: Type of study abroad programmes

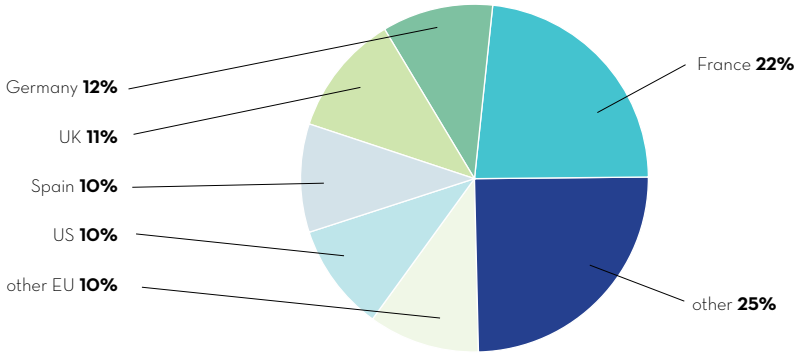


Students spend an average of six months abroad. The duration of the stay differs according to the type of programme. Students who go abroad to take regular courses tend to stay the longest, nine months on average, which corresponds to a whole academic year. Internships last for five months on average, and linguistic activities typically last three months.

5.3 LOCATION

The most visited country remains France which received 22 per cent of mobile Irish students, followed by Germany with 12 per cent. This is not surprising given that French and German are the two foreign languages most taught in Irish secondary schools. Twenty-one per cent of the mobile Irish student sample went to an English-speaking country, either the UK or the USA. These findings suggest that language proficiency is an important factor in the choice of destination for study abroad.

Figure 5.4: Destination countries



5.4 BARRIERS TO STUDENT MOBILITY

A cross-country analysis of student mobility in France, Germany, the UK and Sweden identified three main barriers to mobility: language proficiency, lack of adequate finance and recognition of results achieved abroad (ADMIT, 2001). A recent study by the Higher Education Funding Council for England (HEFCE) on UK outward students identified similar factors: financial problems, language barriers and institutional constraints (HEFCE, 2004). The majority of studies on student mobility agree on the limiting effect of both inadequate foreign language skills and the financial cost of studying abroad. Other factors such as academic and institutional barriers as well as personal and attitudinal factors are less influential (Findlay, King, Stam, & Ruiz-Gelices, 2006). The factors deterring student mobility in Ireland are analysed in the next section.

Irish students consider finance, language skills and separation from friends as the key potential obstacles to their plans to study abroad.[19] Over 40 per cent of the students who have been abroad consider 'difficulty in getting information' as an obstacle to future mobility. However, other institutional and academic barriers do not hinder students' plans to go abroad. Less than 20 per cent are concerned about delay in studies and formal recognition of results achieved abroad; a result that differs from international studies.

19 Students were asked "to what extent are your plans concerning a study-related stay abroad influenced by the following issues?"

Figure 5.5: Main obstacles to mobility
Issues that influenced plans to study abroad
(1) Students who have been abroad

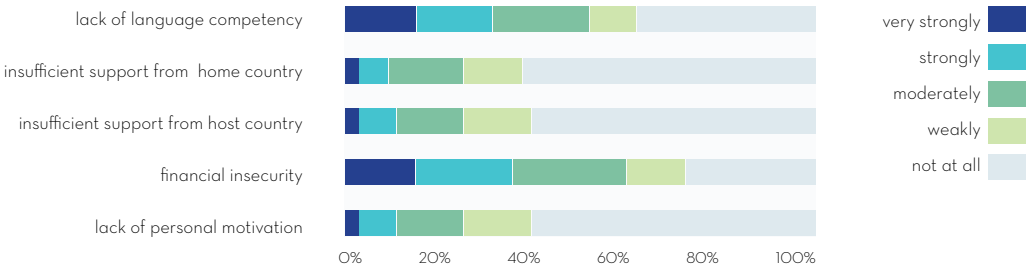
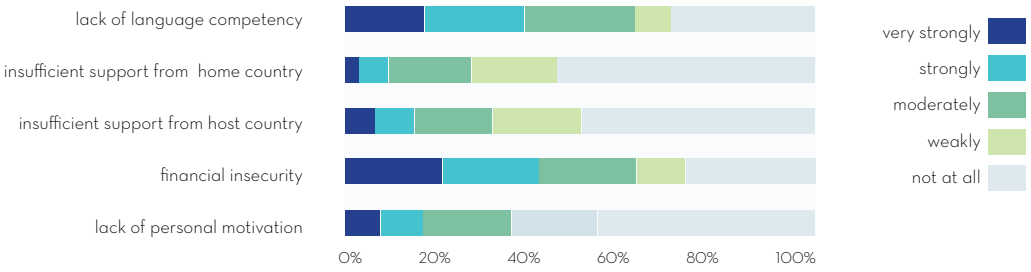


Figure 5.5b: Main obstacles to mobility
Issues that influenced plans to study abroad
(2) Students who have not been abroad



As well as the main obstacles, we also explored other potential barriers, including the perception that periods of study abroad could affect graduation time. A recent survey on outgoing Finnish students has shown that 61 per cent of students who have been abroad expect to graduate later due to their exchange period, in particular students who stayed abroad for a full academic year (Garam, 2000). In our study, 55 per cent of students state that this is not a concern. However, 22 per cent cite it as a strong factor influencing their decision to go on study abroad periods and thus further information will be needed to explain why these students perceive that studying abroad may harm their chances of completing their degree on time. In particular, further research should examine how the students perceive the ECTS system and whether harmonisation efforts across Europe are yielding sufficient certainty for students in terms of comparability and quality assurance.

5.5 MOBILITY AND LANGUAGE FLUENCY

Overall, Irish students have poorer knowledge of foreign languages than their European counterparts (Schnitzer and Zempel-Gino, 2002). The first foreign language taught in Ireland is French (Euro Stat Education Statistics). Only 52 per cent of students reported having very good to fair knowledge of French and 68 per cent reported having very good to poor knowledge. The percentage of multilingual students, i.e. students with (very) good knowledge of two or more foreign languages, drops to 16 per cent.

It is difficult to estimate the extent to which poor language proficiency hinders student mobility. However, when students are asked to identify the issues that can influence future plans to go abroad, 63 per cent agree strongly to moderately that insufficient skill in foreign languages can be a barrier. These results are in line with a study on British students that has shown that the main concern of students prior to an academic year abroad is the inability to cope with the language (King and Ruiz-Gelices, 2003). A report by the HEFCE (2004) has shown that 60 per cent of UK Erasmus students had a language component in their programme prior to their stay abroad. According to this report, the declining number of British students undertaking mobility periods over the last decade is partly due to the decrease in students studying languages as part of their school curriculum.

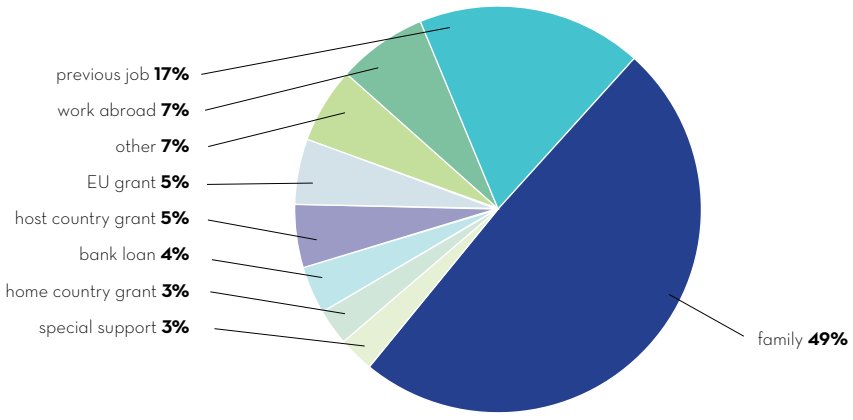
Despite generally weak foreign language skills, the percentage of Irish students studying in a country with a different language is not as low as in the UK. As stated earlier, 21 per cent of students go to an English-speaking country. In this regard, Ireland stands out from Anglo-Saxon countries, often described as *"linguistically conservative"* (HEFCE, 2004) in reference to students' reluctance to study in non-English speaking countries. This result holds no matter what type of stay is considered, academic stay, language courses or internship. It would be interesting to know which language was used in the workplace or in the host university. Many third-level institutions abroad offer classes through English. As a result, speaking the local language is no longer systematically required to attend classes abroad. However, the higher level of foreign language fluency among students who went abroad seems to indicate that they do learn and speak the local language in most cases.

5.6 FINANCING STUDY ABROAD

The extra cost associated with studying abroad is considered by students, whether mobile or not, as the top obstacle to them. Sixty per cent of the students surveyed reported that the extra cost associated with a stay abroad was an obstacle to plans for future study abroad. To better understand the extent to which financing difficulties undermine student mobility, we now examine how Irish students finance their stay abroad.

Eighty-four per cent of Irish students who study abroad receive at least half of their funding from personal resources (family support, earnings from employment or loans) and half are entirely self-funded. Less than 4 per cent finance their whole stay with public support and only half of this group receive an EU grant. The type of financing mechanism does not vary significantly according to the type of stay (academic course, language programme or internship).

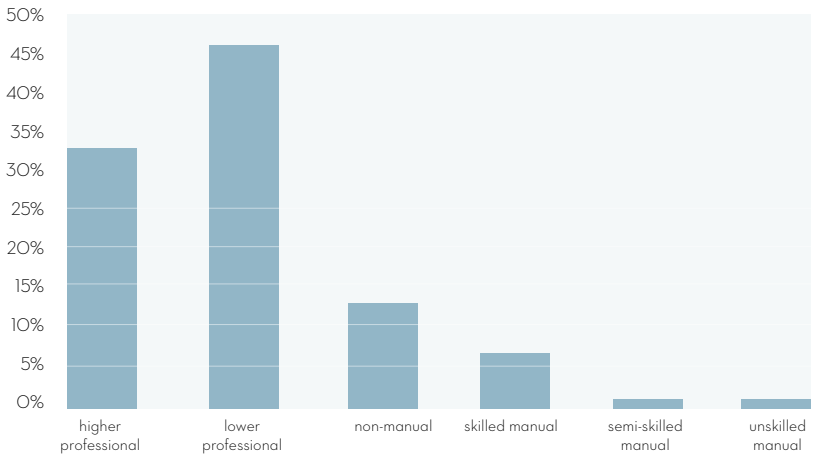
Figure 5.6: Sources of finance



The Eurostudent survey does not allow us to evaluate the additional cost of studying abroad. A study led by the European Commission (2000) estimated that the monthly cost of studying abroad is 50 per cent higher for students who were living with their parents at home in Ireland and 25 per cent higher for students living away from the parental home. However, we do not find a significant difference between students who live by themselves and those living with their parents regarding their views on the extra cost of studying abroad.

The majority of studies on student mobility reach the same conclusion: participation in study abroad varies greatly across socio-economic groups. According to King and Ruiz-Gelices (2003) and Murphy-Lejeune (2002), migrant students belong to an *"elite group of privileged students"*. Twenty-four per cent of mobile Irish students come from low-income families, compared to 29 per cent of the general student population. [20]

Figure 5.7: Social class backgrounds of mobile students

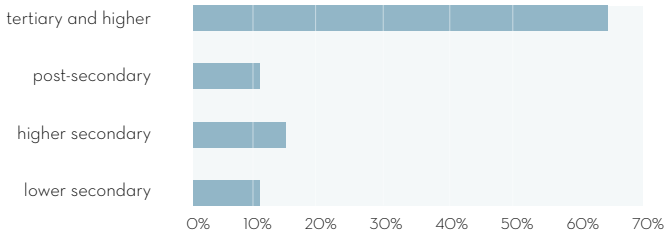


Mobility patterns also vary according to parental occupation. Students from higher professional backgrounds are twice as likely to go abroad during the course of their study as those from unskilled manual backgrounds.

The only study that does not find a negative effect of lower socio-economic background is an analysis by the European Commission on students participating in the Erasmus programme (European Commission 2000). The study concludes that family economic background and parents' occupational status do not influence participation on Erasmus programmes. However, the report does show that family educational background is very influential on students' participation in Erasmus programmes, confirming the importance of parental background in determining participation. The report suggests two possible explanations: that highly qualified parents are more concerned about the need for education in other languages and cultures, or that the knowledge of exchange programmes is more widespread among these families. Differences in parental education between mobile and non-mobile students are obvious in Ireland; students whose parents have higher levels of education are more likely to participate in study abroad schemes.

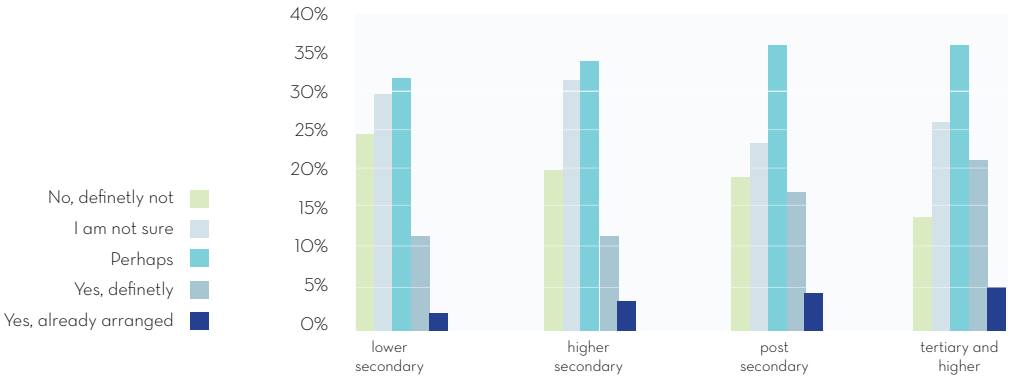
20 Low-income families are families with a net monthly income equal or inferior to 2,000 euros.

Figure 5.8: Highest parental education of study abroad students



We also observe that perceived barriers to mobility are strongly linked to parental education. Figure 5.9 demonstrates that students from a higher educational background report a high level of personal motivation to study abroad.

Figure 5.9: Future mobility plans by parental education



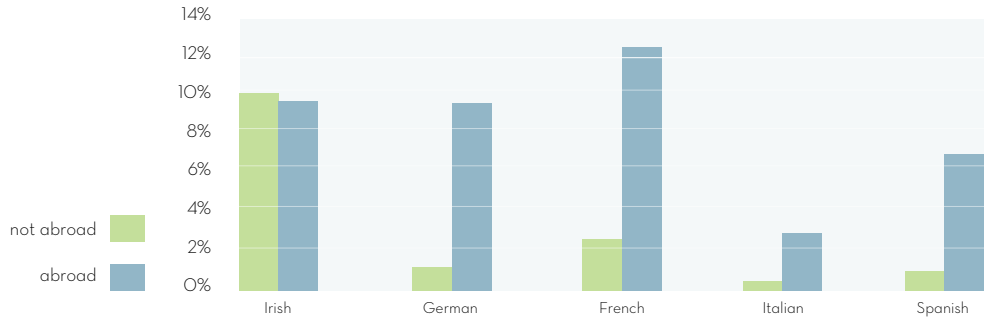
5.7 THE OUTCOMES OF STUDYING OVERSEAS

Students who went abroad during their higher education tend to be more fluent across all foreign languages.[21] Former Erasmus students are more likely to work abroad (Bracht, Engel, Janson, Over, Schomburg, and Teichler, 2006). In Ireland, 55 per cent of the students who went abroad during their higher education are planning to work abroad upon graduation against 40 per cent of those who did not go abroad for study-related activities. This pattern concurs with other studies that have demonstrated the impact of student mobility on career and migratory paths. Murdoch and Perret (2004) have analysed the mobility of French graduates and found that students who participated in study-related activities abroad have a higher likelihood of getting their first job abroad. King and Ruiz-Gelices (2003) have shown

21 The literature on mobile students has identified four main outcomes: personal development, employment and career outcomes (Bracht, Engel, Janson, Over, Schomburg, and Teichler, 2006; Murdoch and Perret, 2004) foreign language skills and future mobility (King and Ruiz Gelices, 2003; Teichler and Jahr, 2001). However, the literature on student mobility has remained relatively weak. Endogeneity and selection bias undermine most of the existing studies. In other words, students who choose to study abroad are likely to differ from other students in terms of personality traits, risk attitudes, foreign language proficiency and other individual characteristics that are likely to have an impact both on the decision to study abroad and on the outcomes. There are reasons to believe that, because of these distinctive features, mobile students would have displayed different outcomes to non-mobile students whether or not they had been abroad. Therefore, studies that look at mobility outcomes tend to overestimate the benefits of studying abroad.

that British students who studied abroad are almost twice as likely to have migrated abroad, concluding that *"studying abroad in another European country can be regarded as a kind of apprenticeship for a variety of international, European and cross-border professional (but also personal) activities"*

Figure 5.10: Language fluency and mobility



Murdoch and Perret (2004) and King and Ruiz-Gelices (2003) conclude that study abroad activities have a positive impact on career paths: graduates who studied abroad are more successful in getting a job related to their education, are less likely to have been unemployed, and have higher status positions and income. However, higher earning capacity might be caused by additional years of education since exchange students tend to engage more in postgraduate programmes than other students (King and Ruiz-Gelices, 2003).

Evidence on employment outcomes is contradictory. According to a HEFCE report (2004), the employment outcomes of students that participated on an Erasmus exchange are similar to other students apart from the fact that they are more likely to be working abroad. Murdoch and Perret (2004) have shown that students who study outside of the city where they grew up are more likely to work abroad after graduation. Similarly, the HEFCE report has demonstrated that students who engaged in study abroad programmes tend to have already migrated within their own country.

This hypothesis is not verified in the Eurostudent survey. Students who are planning study-related activities abroad and those who have already been abroad have left their home county to study in similar numbers to other students. Similarly we do not observe any correlation between living with parents or relatives and having future plans for going abroad or having been abroad.

CHAPTER 6
ACCOMMODATION AND TRANSPORT

Among the most contentious issues in the economic situation in Ireland has been the rapid increase in the cost of accommodation. Students are particularly vulnerable to this increase as their opportunity to earn income while studying is limited. Thus, accommodation and transport potentially affect students financially but also potentially affect the time they have available for study. This chapter provides information on the type of accommodation that students live in; its cost; and their level of satisfaction with it. It also considers transport, which is heavily bound up with accommodation. The latter part of the chapter explores the distance students live from their college; from their family homes; and the money they spend on transport.

6.1 ACCOMMODATION DURING TERM TIME

As can be seen from Figure 6.1, the most common type of accommodation among the students in this sample is a privately rented house or flat. Fifty-three per cent of the sample live with their parents, relatives or in college residence. The remainder, almost half of the respondents, sourced their accommodation themselves.

Figure 6.1: Type of accommodation

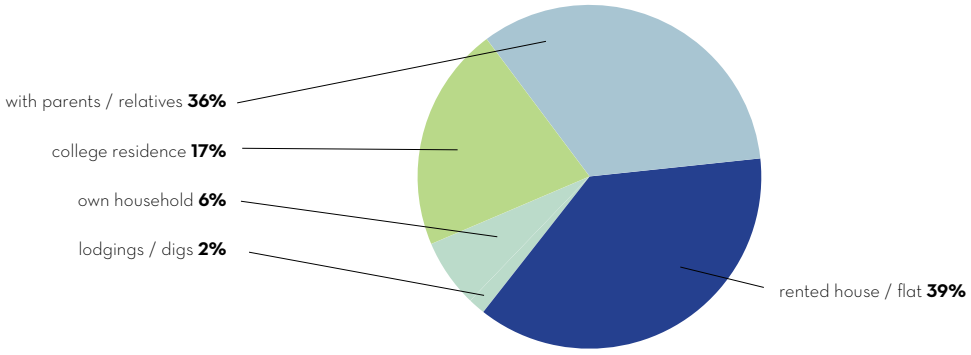
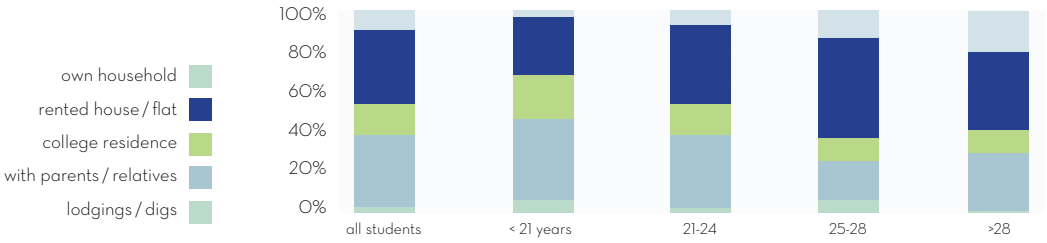


Figure 6.2: Type of accommodation by age



As we might expect, younger students are more likely to live in their family home or in college residences. Over 40 per cent of students under the age of twenty-one are housed by their parents and less than a quarter of this age group is accommodated in student residences. Approximately 30 per cent of students in this age group live in private rented accommodation.

6.2 COSTS OF ACCOMMODATION

Students rely on their families to contribute around half of the accommodation costs that they face. The contribution to monthly rent by family is proportionally larger for students living in student residences. The average accommodation costs for these students are substantially less than those for students who live in the privately rented sector.

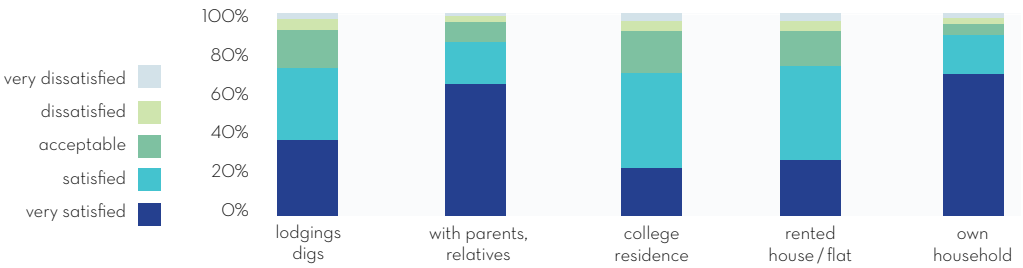
Table 6.1: Monthly accommodation costs

Type of residence	Payments by students	Family subsidy	Total
Own household	333.4	470.1	803.5
Rented house/flat	240.1	473.8	713.9
Lodgings/digs	195.3	166.7	362
Student hall	137.0	388.9	525.9

6.3 SATISFACTION WITH ACCOMMODATION

It is clear from Figure 6.3 that the vast majority of students are reasonably content with their accommodation. The highest level of satisfaction with accommodation comes from students who are living “at home” i.e. either with parents or in their own household. Students who are living away from home - be it in rented accommodation or in a college residence - exhibit virtually identical levels of satisfaction to one another but substantially lower levels of satisfaction than students living at home. The low levels of satisfaction with accommodation expressed by these students are mirrored in later analyses that demonstrate that they have lower levels of subjective well-being in other domains.

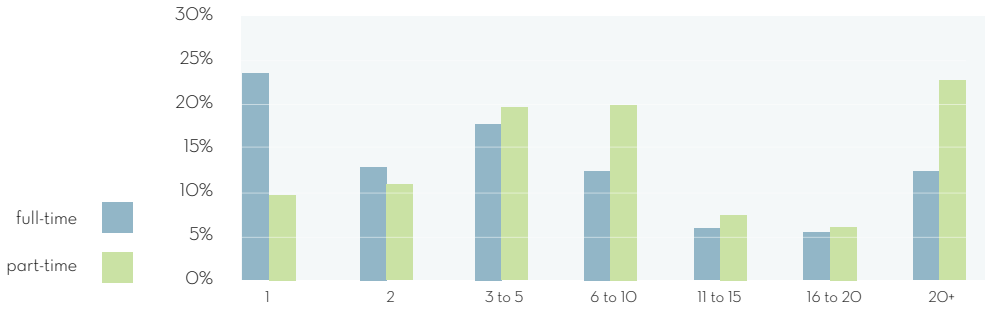
Figure 6.3: Satisfaction with accommodation



6.4 DISTANCE OF ACCOMMODATION FROM COLLEGE

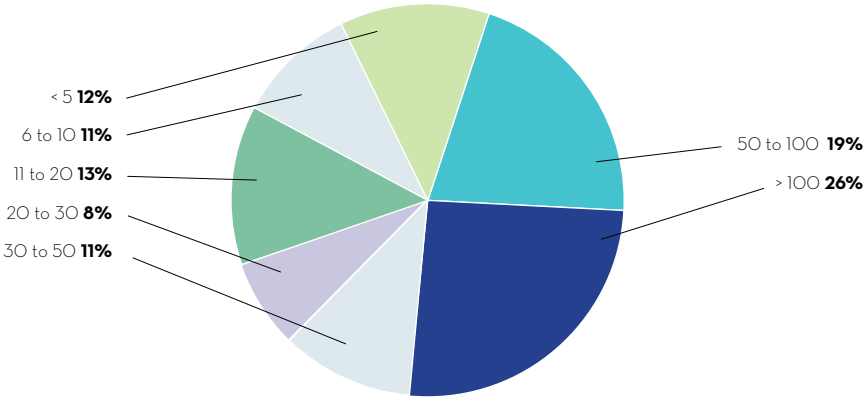
The average distance between students' accommodation and their college is 10.5 km with over 50 per cent of the students living within four kilometres of their college. The average distance varies across type of accommodation. As expected, students living in a college residence are located far closer to their college (2.5 km on average) than are those who live in their family homes (17km on average). There does not appear to be any link between students' level of satisfaction with their accommodation and the distance they commute to college. Over 12 per cent of full-time students live 20 kilometres or more from their college.

Figure 6.4: Distance of accommodation from college (km)



As outlined in chapter one, 91 per cent of students reported that their family home is in Ireland. Sixteen and a half per cent of Irish students study in their home county. Ninety-six and a half per cent of these come from Dublin. The average distance between college and family home for those studying outside their home county is 86 km. Figure 6.5 shows that approximately 11 per cent of students reported their parental home to be less than 10 km away from their college.

Figure 6.5: Distance from family home (km)



6.5 EXPENDITURE ON TRANSPORT

Figure 6.6 shows that 15 per cent of students pay less than €10 a month in transport costs. This suggests that these students get to college by foot, bicycle or receive a lift. In line with the previous report 2003/2004, we find that the remaining students spend a substantial amount on transportation. Fifty-four per cent spend over €50 a month. Nine per cent of all students reported paying over €200 per month on transport costs. Almost 8 per cent of full-time students reported spending more than €200 on transport each month.

Figure 6.6: Monthly spending on transport

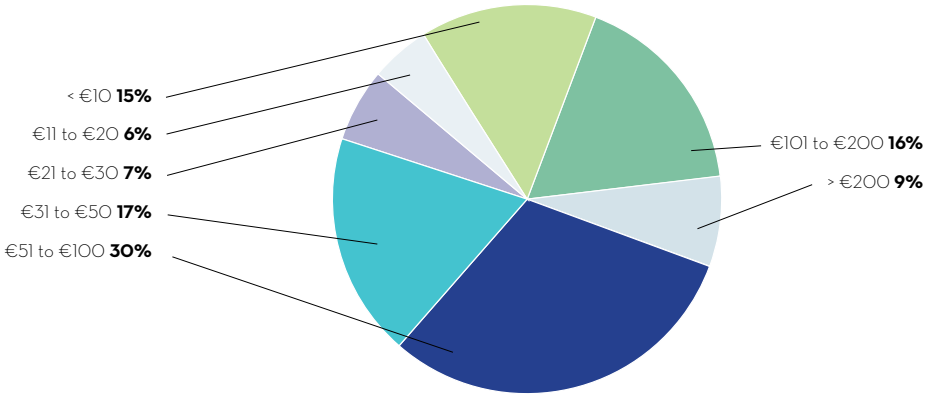
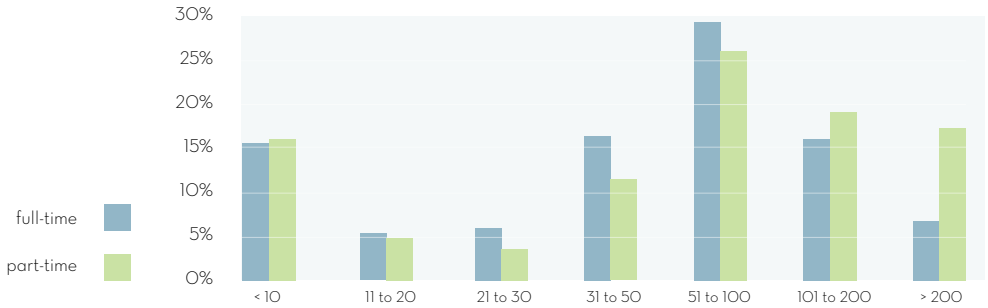


Figure 6.7: Monthly spending on transport by full/part-time status



CHAPTER 7
STUDENT WELFARE

Understanding student welfare is a critical contribution to forming good education policy. In the previous six chapters, we have provided a detailed profile of the Irish student body in terms of socio-economic characteristics, accommodation, income, expenditure, employment, language and travel and financial well-being. This chapter is a summary of a very lengthy analysis that was conducted as part of this project examining the effect of diverse economic and social backgrounds in determining outcomes and welfare among students in higher education institutions.

In particular, we examine the distribution and determinants of a number of key variables (well-being, health and life satisfaction) in several different domains. We will explain these variables as a function of a number of key demographic variables including: parental education, full-time/part-time status, nationality, age, presence of dependent children and gender. This provides the most comprehensive analysis and quantitative overview to date of student welfare in Ireland.[22]

7.1 HEALTH AND WELL-BEING

One key measure of the welfare of students is their level of psychological well-being. In this section, we examine well-being as measured by the WHO-5 (World Health Organisation), a well-validated measure of well-being.

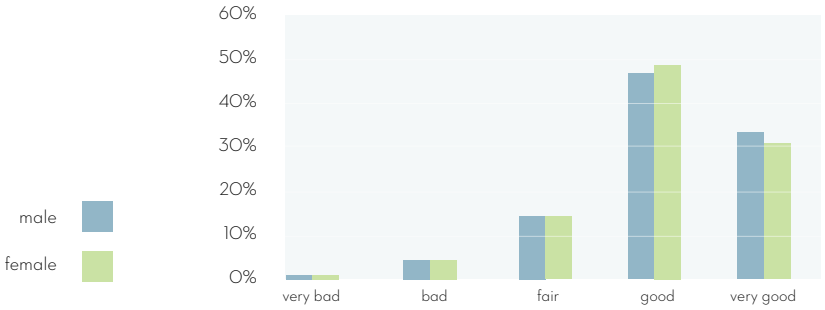
WHO-5 Well-being Index (1998 version, WHO). The WHO Well-being Index was designed to assess depression, anxiety and psychological distress on a self-rating scale. The five-item measure of this index used in the current study was first published in 1998 and has demonstrated similar levels of internal consistency to previous longer versions (Bonsignore, Barrow, Jassen & Heun, 2001). The five-item measure assesses subjective positive well-being, where participants are required to rate the presence or absence of each of the items in their lives, e.g. "I have felt cheerful and in good spirits", on a six-point scale (0 to 5), ranging from "all of the time" to "at no time". Low scores are taken to reflect possible depression and poorer quality of life. Bech, Olsen, Kjoller, and Rasmussen (2003) compared the WHO-5 and the mental health subscale of the larger Short-Form 36 in their ability to prevent ceiling effects when applied to the general population. The WHO-Five was found to be less prone to ceiling effects and to have a better capacity to identify mental health deterioration.

The analysis used multiple regression models of several different measures of well-being as well as self-rated health. The use of the multiple regression method allows us to control for the effect of other factors when assessing the effect of a variable on another variable. It also allows us to assess statistical significance of relationships between the dependent variable and independent variables.

22 Students were randomly allocated different modules to minimise respondent burden, something that is markedly more flexible in the internet survey format.

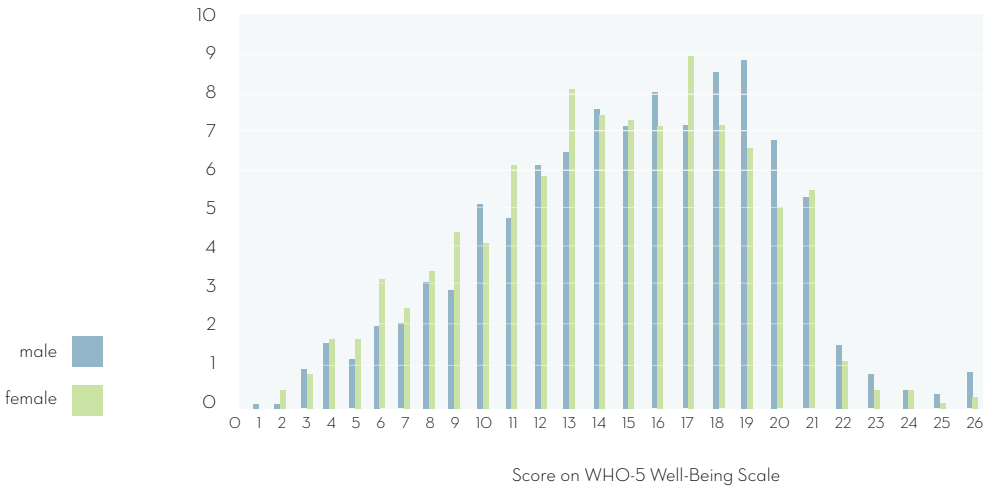
With respect to self-rated health, the analysis demonstrated a slight effect of age with older students reporting slightly poorer health even controlling for other factors. Not surprisingly, students with physical limitations and learning difficulties report substantially worse health as do students receiving means tested grants. We find very little association between self-rated health and measures of hours worked, study time, parental education, social class and family income. Thus, we do not find strong evidence for a social gradient in health among college students. This may be due to the fact that students are firstly, on average, younger than the age at which one would expect wide differentials to open up. Secondly, students are less heterogeneous with respect to health adversity and poor socio-economic conditions than the general population. However, we do find that students who are living at home with parents report better health and this is something that should be examined further.

Figure 7.1: Self-rated health among students



The distribution of the WHO-5 statistic among the students is displayed in Figure 7.2 below. With respect to the determinants of student mental well-being, we find similar results on each. Males score higher on both measures of well-being. We do find evidence of a social gradient with respect to mental well-being with students from families with higher income reporting higher levels of mental well-being. However, once again, we find little evidence that mental well-being is related to factors such as parental occupation, hours worked or other demographic features of the student.

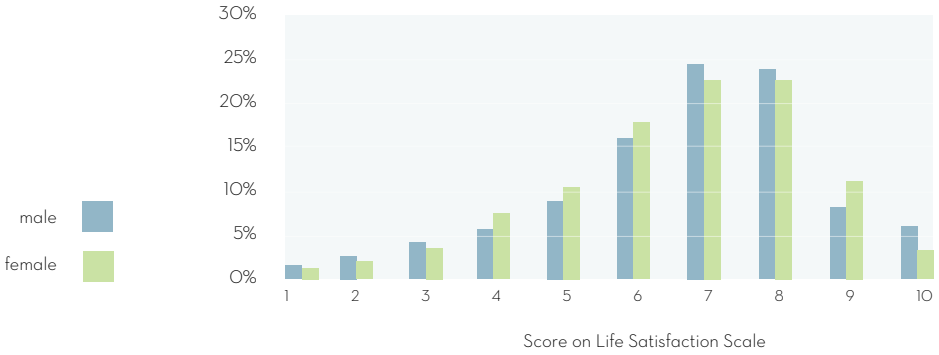
Figure 7.2 Distribution of WHO-5 Scores among students



7.2 LIFE SATISFACTION

In the previous section, we examined health and affective well-being, which can be thought to relate to students' emotional and physical condition. Another key element of welfare is the extent to which the students themselves feel satisfied with their condition, in other words how they cognitively assess their situation. Figure 7.3, below, displays satisfaction levels in response to a 1-10 scale among male and female students.

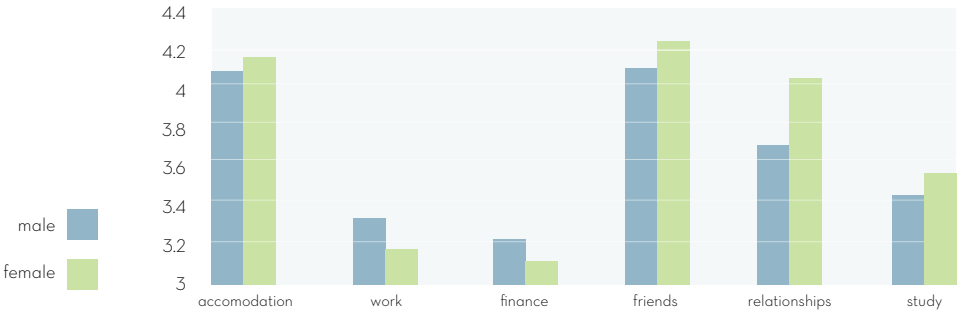
Figure 7.3. Distribution of life satisfaction among students



In the survey, we also examined life satisfaction in a number of different domains and how this was affected by the relevant set of variables. Domain specific life satisfaction was assessed by asking respondents to rate their level of satisfaction on a 1-6 scale. Specifically, they were asked "Using a scale of 1-6, could you indicate your level of satisfaction with each of the following areas, where 1 indicates that you are not satisfied at all while 6 indicates that you are fully satisfied". The seven domains were: relationships, finances, friendships, studies, accommodation, college, and work; six were based on a previous study (Schimmack, Radhakrishnan, Oishi, Dzokoto, & Ahadi, 2002), while the seventh (work) was used as it had high face validity for student life.

The analysis examined the determinants of satisfaction with three domains; college, study and work. The effect of age is noteworthy with older students displaying markedly greater degrees of satisfaction with their work and studies but lower levels of satisfaction with their college. University students display higher levels of satisfaction with their college and with their part-time workload than students in the Institutes of Technology. Unsurprisingly, students who are working high numbers of hours in paid employment display markedly lower levels of satisfaction with this area of life indicating that part-time work is something they are pursuing as a means of financing college rather than to further their career. In particular, there are substantial negative effects of working beyond 20 hours per week. Up to this point, the effects of working extra hours do not seem to be important. Students with children display markedly lower levels of satisfaction with their paid employment situation.

Figure 7.4: Satisfaction with six key life domains among students



The analysis examined the determinants of satisfaction with four further domains; accommodation, financial satisfaction, friendships and relationships. Older students display less satisfaction with finance, friendships and relationships indicating a higher personal trade-off for them than for younger students. Similarly, there is a strong positive effect of living at home with parents on measures of satisfaction with accommodation and finance, something that heavily bears out the previous analysis. Married students display far stronger levels of satisfaction with relationships and accommodation, indicating marriage as being a protective factor in promoting life satisfaction in some core life domains. While more satisfied with their finance, there is strong evidence that men experience higher levels of adjustment difficulties than women when it comes to college, with men scoring substantially lower on measures of satisfaction with accommodation, friendships and relationships.

7.3 SUMMARY OF STUDENT WELFARE MEASURES

The results of the analysis summarised in this chapter provide a comprehensive account of the main welfare measures used to assess student living conditions; well-being, life satisfaction and health. Social gradients in health and psychological well-being are not as marked in students as are gradients in life satisfaction. The former are important to note as such gradients may be powerful explanatory factors in determining college outcomes. Thus, while it is not the case that differential family background factors are leading to lower health levels among different groups of students, the data show that the life experience in college is lower for students from lower socio-economic and parental educational backgrounds particularly in life domains such as accommodation and finance. Similarly, students who are not living in their parental home report markedly lower levels of satisfaction with finances and accommodation. More seriously, there is also evidence that they have lower satisfaction with relationships and lower well-being and health. The condition of students living outside of the family home in rented accommodation is thus something that warrants particular attention for policies directed towards improving student welfare.

Table 7.1: Determinants of Health, Mental Well-Being and Life Satisfaction

	(1)	(2)	(3)
COEFFICIENT	Health	WHO-5	Life Satisfaction
Age in Years	-0.008*	-0.011	-0.031***
	(0.004)	(0.026)	(0.010)
Female	-0.020	-0.673***	-0.023
	(0.037)	(0.217)	(0.085)
Non-Irish	-0.001	0.169	0.254*
	(0.066)	(0.392)	(0.154)
Rented Accommodation	-0.252**	-2.118***	-0.660**
	(0.125)	(0.747)	(0.293)
Part-Time Student	-0.152	-0.455	-0.254
	(0.100)	(0.594)	(0.233)
Higher SES	0.010	0.128***	0.070***
	(0.007)	(0.042)	(0.016)
Constant	4.398***	15.226***	7.459***
	(0.158)	(0.941)	(0.370)
Observations	1971	1929	1925
R-squared	0.01	0.02	0.03

Standard errors in parentheses

*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

CHAPTER 8
CONCLUSION

This report has provided timely and comparative information on the living conditions of students in Irish higher education institutes. Table 8.1 provides a comparative overview of the two last reports and highlights the main differences between postal and web surveys, one of which is the issue of sample size. Partly due to the increased capacity made available through the web-surveying process, the 2006/07 Eurostudent survey reached 13,342 observations. One drawback of this technique is the bias towards part-time students who are under-represented in the data. Different techniques are currently under consideration so as to avoid this limitation in the future. An additional innovative aspect of this report is the inclusion of some categories of students traditionally ignored by research including students entering higher education through non-Leaving Certificate routes and international students.

As Table 8.1 indicates, the results of this report largely concur with those of Eurostudent II, in terms of course characteristics, socio-economic background, income, employment and accommodation. The comparison between the two reports also shows some trends such as the increasing number of PhD students.

Table 8.1: Eurostudent II versus Eurostudent III

	Eurostudent II	Eurostudent III
1. SURVEY CHARACTERISTICS		
1.1 Survey mode	Mail Survey	Web Survey
1.2 Sample size	3,900	13,342
2. COURSE CHARACETRISTICS		
2.1 Enrolement status		
Full-Time Students	78	93.5
Part-Time Students	22	3.3
Guest Student	N/A	2.0
Distance Education	N/A	0.2
Continuing Education	N/A	0.6
Other	N/A	0.9
2.2 Level of Course		
Higher Certificate	10.0	3.12
Diploma	14.1	1.24
Ordinary Degree	57.8*	13.31

	Eurostudent II	Eurostudent III
Honours Bachelor Degree	N/A	64.85
Postgraduate Diploma	4.2	2.02
Taught Masters Degree	9.2**	6.24
Research Masters Degree	N/A	1.42
PhD	3.5	6.32
Other	0.8	1.42
* both ordinary and bachelor degree ** both taught and research master degree		
2.3 Field of Study		
Education	6.4	3.85
Humanities and Arts	16.7	22.47
Social Science/Law/Business	31	22.49
Science	11.4	15.98
Maths	N/A	1.84
Computing/Computer Science	4.1	5.86
Engineering/Manufacturing/ Constructing	3.7	10.26
Agriculture/Veterinary	0.8	1.42
Health/Welfare	12.1	7.32
Sport/Services	2.4	1.00
Other	2.6	7.54
2.3 Institution		
University	51	76
Other third-level Institution	49	24
2.5 Entry Route		
Full-time Students		
Leaving Certificate	80.1	89.6
Mature Years	5.1	5.0
Access	1.0	1.1
FETAC/NCVA	2.4	1.7
Other	11.4	2.7
Part-time Students		
Leaving Certificate	52.2	73
Mature Years	23.5	14.7
Access	2.2	2.8
FETAC/NCVA	4.1	1.7
Other	18.0	2.9

	Eurostudent II	Eurostudent III
3. SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS		
3.1 Socio-Economic Background		
Third-Level Qualification		
Mother	25	37
Father	27	39
Social Class		
Higher Professional	32	29
Lower Professional	25	33
Non-Manual	20	26
Skilled Manual	13	4
Semi-Skilled Manual	6	5
Unskilled Manual	4	3
Net Monthly Household Income above 4,000 €	21.1	26.9
3.2 Demographics		
Age Full-time Students	22 years	22 years
Age Part-time Students	32 years	30 years
Gender (female)	55	60
Single	81	N/A
Children	12	5
Citizenship (non-Irish)	N/A	11.26
Disability (total)	3.3	10.5
Physical Limitation	1.3	1.5
Sensory Impairment	N/A	1.2
Learning Difficulties	N/A	2.4
Psychological Condition	N/A	4.8
Other Disabilities	2.0	3.8
4. INCOME AND EMPLOYMENT		
4.1 Average Income		
(We are considering only direct income. For 2006/07, if account is taken of subsidy given by family, it goes up to €1284 for full-time students.)	€ 830	€ 893
4.2 Employment		
Holding a job during term time		
Full-time	22	45
Part-time	73	76

	Eurostudent II	Eurostudent III
Average Weekly Number of Hours (full-timers)	14 hours	16 hours
Job fully Related to Study		
Full-time	9	12
Part-time	40	39
5. ACCOMMODATION AND TRANSPORT		
Rented House/flat	39	39
Living with parents/relatives	33	36
Own Household	17	6
On Campus	7	17
Lodgings/Digs	4	2
6. OVERSEAS STUDY		
Mobile Students (only Irish students)	10	13

Note: All the figures are expressed in percentage unless otherwise stated

This report has provided relevant information on the profile of students in Irish higher level education institutions. It represents the most complete account to date of the diversity of Irish students with respect to age, social background, nationality, disability status and economic circumstances. It thus adds considerably to the literature on higher education in Ireland and will assist in decision making in a rapidly changing educational environment.

A number of overarching issues for policy attention are listed below:

The key feature of this report is the striking change in the nature and composition of the Irish student population over the last decade which has accelerated in the period since the last Eurostudent report. The increasing number of students entering through non-Leaving Certificate routes - mature students, students with disabilities and students from outside Ireland - has meant a profound shift in the policy issues associated with student well-being and living standards. This change has been supported by core initiatives in higher education policy such as the establishment of the National Office for Equity of Access to Higher Education by the HEA and indeed the broad thrust of Government policy toward lifelong learning such as the 2007 commitments in "Tomorrow's Skills: Towards a National Skills Strategy". Similarly major initiatives are under way within individual institutions across the sector. Higher Education policy in Ireland needs to adapt continually to this new environment in terms of the services available to students.

The consistently low scores on measures of financial well-being among students need further analysis given the critical importance of family and financial situation in determining participation and success in higher education. The expense and quality of rental accommodation for students is clearly implicated in creating high levels of subjective distress for students. In particular, further work is necessary to ascertain whether policies could be put in place to assist students who are experiencing financial difficulty. Initiatives such as the HEA

www.studentfinance.ie web-based portal for information and advice to students about their financial well-being are important in bringing impartial but direct advice to the student body.

Consistent with the previous Eurostudent report, the majority of students who do paid work to finance their studies are doing so in areas that have no direct relation to their area of study. Several recent high level international reports (Russell, 2006; Bauer, 2001) and journal articles (Kardash, 2000; Landrum and Nelson, 2002; Nagda et al, 1998) have demonstrated substantial return to time spent on study–related internships. Examining the extent to which students could finance their education through taking work in areas cognate to their study interests should be a priority for upcoming education debates.

There is a clear social patterning in the determinants of a number of different measures of student welfare and student participation. Examining the effects of interventions to improve outcomes among these groups should be a key task for future policy and research. Recent initiatives concerning the extension and evaluation of access programmes will provide useful information in this regard.

Family financing is the predominant method for financing the living expenses of students in higher education institutions, followed by part-time work on the part of the student. These mechanisms are far more common than scholarships and loan systems. Thus, the family circumstances and job choices of students take on particular significance. The state also intervenes to provide student finance. As well as the payment of fees, the government provides grants including the means tested higher education grant which is one of the most common sources of income support for students in Ireland.

Encouraging students to study abroad for at least part of their degree is a key objective of many recent policy initiatives such as the well-known ERASMUS schemes. Within institutions, the Bologna Process - the wide ranging reform of higher education in Europe to establish a European Higher Education Area by 2010, in which staff and students can move with ease and have fair recognition of their qualifications – has driven major institutional efforts which should facilitate mobility into and out of Ireland (ECTS-based credit systems for courses, increasing use of modular systems etc). However the number of Irish students pursuing this option is quite low. A number of factors are contributing to this. Firstly, there is a clear socio-economic gradient in the extent to which students travel abroad to study. This is likely due to the expense of studying abroad and the low level of grant support in this area. Students may also not be convinced of the economic return to extended periods of study abroad. There is also quite limited foreign language fluency among Irish students that is acting as a perceived barrier to studying abroad. Initiatives to promote mobility among Irish-based students will need to focus on the capacity of students to engage in extended periods of study abroad in terms of language skills and economic resources as well as clarifying to students the potential benefits of extended periods of study abroad.

Higher education has become a substantial Irish export and, in particular, there are now a significant number of students from overseas studying in the Irish higher education system in traditional fields such as Medicine but also more broadly across the range of disciplines. International students in Ireland, in general, display high levels of satisfaction with their studies and general environment. However, homesickness, adjustment difficulties and relationship problems are issues that affect them to a greater degree than domestic students. Further research on the interaction of international students with their colleges and peer groups is needed to continue to improve their college experience.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Abraham, K.G., & Clark, M.A. (2003). Financial aid and students' college decisions: Evidence from the District of Columbia's Tuition Assistance Grant Program. NBER Working Paper 10112.

ADMIT (2001). *Higher Education Admissions and Student Mobility within the EU* London: London School of Economics, Centre for Educational Research.

Arulampalam, W., Naylor, R. A., & Smith, J. (2007). Am I missing something? The effects of absence from class on student performance, Warwick Economic Research Papers, 820, University of Warwick, Department of Economics.

Bauer, K.W. (2001). The effect of participation in undergraduate research on critical thinking and reflective judgement. AIR 2001 Annual Forum Paper.

Bech, P., Olsen, L.R., Kjoller, M., & Rasmussen, N.K., (2003). Measuring well-being rather than the absence of distress symptoms: A comparison of the SF-36 Mental Health subscale and the WHO-five well-being scale. *International Journal of Psychiatric Research,* 12, 2, 85-91.

Bonsignore, M., Barrow, K., Jessen, F. & Heun, R. (2001). Validity of the five-item WHO well-being index (WHO-5) in an elderly population. *European Archives of Psychiatry and Clinical Neuroscience,* 251, 27-31.

Bracht O., Engel, C., Janson, K., Over, A., Schomburg, H., and Teichler, U. (2006). *The professional value of Erasmus mobility.* Kassel, Germany: INCHER.

Cameron, S., & Heckman, J. (1998). Life cycle schooling and dynamic selection bias: models and evidence for five cohorts of American males. *Journal of Political Economy,* 106, 2, 262-333.

Cameron, S., & Heckman, J. (2001). The dynamics of educational attainment for black, Hispanic, and white males. *Journal of Political Economy* 109, 3, 455-499.

Carneiro, P., & Heckman, J. (2002). The evidence on credit constraints in post-secondary schooling. *Economic Journal,* 112, 482, 705-734.

Chang, L., & Krosnick, J.A., (2003). Comparing oral interviewing with self-administered computerised questionnaires: an experiment. Ohio State University Working Paper.

Clancy, P. (2001). *College entry in focus: A fourth national survey of access to higher education.* Dublin: HEA.

Daly, M. (1981). *A Social and Economic History of Ireland since 1800.* The Educational Company: Dublin.

Darmody, M., Smyth, E., O'Connell, P., Williams, J., & Ryan, B. (2005). Eurostudent Survey II: Irish Report on the social and living conditions of higher education students 2003-2004. Dublin: Higher Education Authority.

De Meulemeester, J.L. & Rochat, D. (2000). Working while studying: an econometric analysis. *Labour,* 14, 3, 503-522.

European Commission (2000). *Survey into the Socio-Economic Background of Erasmus Students.* Brussels: Directorate General for Education and Culture.

EuroStudent Survey 2000: Irish Report - Social and Living Conditions of Higher Education Students, (2001). Higher Education Authority, Dublin, Ireland.

EuroStudent: Social and Economic Conditions of Student Life in Europe 2000, Hochscul-Informations-System (HIS), Hannover 2002, Germany.

EuroStudent: Social and Economic Conditions of Student Life in Europe 2005, Hochscul-Informations-System (HIS), Hannover 2005, Germany.

Findlay, A., King, R., Stam, A., & Ruiz-Gelices, E. (2006). Ever reluctant Europeans: the changing geographies of UK students studying and working abroad. *European Urban and Regional Studies* 13, 4, 292-318.

Finn M. (2003). *Stay rate of foreign doctorate recipients from US universities.* National Science Foundation.

Garam I. (2000). *Survey of the Finnish Exchange Students.* OTUS foundation.

Goldstein S., & Kim R. (2006). Predictors of US college students' participation in study abroad programs: a longitudinal study. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations,* 508-521.

Gordon J., & Jallade J. P. (1996). Spontaneous student mobility in the European Union: a statistical study. *European Journal of Education,* 31, 2, 133-151.

Gunn, H., (2002). Web-based surveys: changing the survey process. *First Monday* (Peer-Reviewed Internet Journal), 7, 12., www.firstmonday.org.

Heckman, J., Stixrud, J. & Urzua, S. (2006). The effects of cognitive and noncognitive abilities on labor market outcomes and social behaviour. *Journal of Labor Economics* 24, 3, 411-482.

HEFCE report (2004). International Student Mobility. Sussex Center for Migration Research, Issue Paper No30.

Hoffa B. (1998). New facts and hard questions: Understanding what study abroad has become and might be. *Transitions Abroad,* 21, 1-5.

Jean M., Johnson J., & Regrets M. (1998). *International mobility of scientists and Engineers to the United States – Brain Drain or Brain Circulation?* National Science Foundation.

Kalenkoski, C.M., & Pabilonia, S.W., (2006). Parental transfers, student achievement, and the labor supply of college students. Working Papers 401, U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Kardash, C. (2000). Evaluation of an undergraduate research experience: perceptions of undergraduate interns and their faculty mentors. *Journal of Educational Psychology,* 92, 1, 191-201.

Kelo, M., Teichler, U. & Wächter, B. (eds.) (2006). *EURODATA: Student Mobility in European Higher Education,* Bonn: Lemmens.

King R., Ruiz-Gelices E. (2003). International student migration and the European year abroad: effects on European identity and subsequent migration behaviour. *International Journal of Population Geography,* 9, 229-252.

Landrum, R.E., Nelson, L.R. (2002). The undergraduate research assistantship: an analysis of the benefits. *Teaching of Psychology,* 29, 1, 15-19.

Lassibille, G., Gomez, L.N. and Paul, J.J. (2001). Time allocation during higher education: a study of Brazilian, French and Spanish students. *International Advances in Economic Research,* 1, 1, 57-67.

Murdoch J., Perret C. (2004). International mobility of French tertiary graduates entering the labour market: individual determinants and the impact on their early careers upon return to France. Paper presented at the 13th AIDELF conference, Budapest.

Murphy-Lejeune, E. (2002). *Student Mobility and Narrative in Europe: The New Strangers*. London: Routledge.

Nagda, B.A., Gregerman, R.S., Janides, J., Van Hippel, W., and Lerner, J.S. (1998). Undergraduate student-faculty research partnerships affect student retention. *The Review of Higher Education,* 22, 1, 55-72.

National Office for Equity of Access to Higher Education (2007). Annual Report 2006 and Outline Plans 2007. Dublin: Higher Education Authority.

Newman, C. (2005). Education: market failure and state interventions. In J. O'Hagan & C. Newman, *The Economy of Ireland: National and Sectoral Policy Issues,* Ninth Edition, 215-242. Dublin: Gill and Macmillan.

Nolan B., & Smeeding T. (2004). Ireland's income distribution in comparative perspective. Presented at the 28th general conference of the International Association of Research in Income and Wealth.

OECD (2001). Trends in International Migration, annual report. Paris, OECD

OECD (2004). Review of National Policies for Education: Ireland. Paris, OECD

Politi, P.L., Piccinelli, M. & Wilkinson, G. (1994). Reliability, validity and factor structure of the 12-item General Health Questionnaire. *Acta Psychiatrica Scandinavica,* 90, 6, 432-437.

Ryan, M., McCarthy, S. & Newman, C., (2007). Household Characteristics of Higher Education Participants. Geary Institute Working Paper, 2007-2.

Schimmack, U., Radhakrishnan, P., Oishi, S., Dzokoto, V. & Ahadi, S. (2002). Culture, personality and subjective well-being: Integrating process models of life satisfaction. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 82, Vol. 4, pp. 582-593.

Schnitzer K., Zempel-Gino M. (2002). Euro Student: Social and Economic Conditions of Student Life in Europe 2000. Hochschul Information System: Hanover

Shakeshaft, A.P., Bowman, J.A. and Sanson-Fisher, R.W., (1999). A comparison of two retrospective measures of weekly alcohol consumption. *Alcohol and Alcoholism,* 34, 4, 636-645.

Shevlin, M., Kenny, M., & Mcneela, E. (2004). Participation in higher education for students with disabilities: an Irish perspective. *Disability and Society,* 19, 1, 15-30.

Simsek, Z., & Veiga, J.F., (2000). The electronic survey technique: an integration and assessment. *Organisational Research Methods,* 3, 1, 93-115.

Sweetman, O. (2002). College Attendance, Tuition and Family Income. National University of Ireland Maynooth Working Paper.

Teichler, U., & Jahr, V. (2001). Mobility during the course of study and after graduation. *European Journal of Education,* 36(4), 443-458.

Tremblay K. (2005). Academic mobility and immigration. *Journal of Studies in International Education,* 9, 196-228

Whelan, C.T. & Hannan, D. (1999). Class inequalities in educational attainment among the adult population in the Republic of Ireland. *The Economic and Social Review,* 30, 3, 285-307.

Yeh C., & Inose M. (2003). International students' reported English fluency, social support satisfaction, and social connectedness as predictors of acculturative stress. *Counseling Psychology Quarterly,* 16, 1, 15-28.

APPENDIX 1
STUDENTS' OWN VIEWS

At the end of the survey, students were given the opportunity to express their opinion on their life as student. Over 7,000 of them wrote a comment. We reported in this section the remarks that illustrate student's views.

Financial strain

"Fees should not come back into operation. It is hard enough to survive without having to pay for tuition."

"The grant system is not fair for mature students who cannot rely on their parents."

"Without government grants, I would never have had the opportunity to continue my study."

"Grant is very little, hard going financially."

"I'm constantly broke!"

"Financial pressure to pay for rent, transport, books, and social activities is a worry"

"I like it, despite being poor!"

Accommodation

"Dublin is ridiculously expensive and suitable accommodation is very hard to find"

"The biggest stress in my life as a student is accommodation"

Transport

"Transport service is unreliable and I regularly miss classes due to buses"

"Transport costs are really bad for a student"

"Transport is terrible; it takes 2 hours to get busses to college from where I live."

Time constraint

"I would like to spend more time studying but work doesn't allow me."

"It is enjoyable but work occupies a lot of my time in order to fund me though college."

"Tough mixing work, social life, relationship and study"

Life experience

"Enjoying the whole experience of learning new things"

"It is an enjoyable and liberating time"

"College is fantastic, it is a brilliant experience. It has its stressful moments though"

"Thoroughly enjoyable, an enriching experience both academically and socially"

"This I my sixth year in full-time education, I'm still enjoying it immensely"

"Live as a student is brilliant, I love it!"

"I'm having the time of my life"

"Difficult, challenging, fun"

"I never wanna stop being a student!"

"It's an excellent way to make new friends and have a good time while studying."

"I hate it and can't wait to have a life again when it is all over!"

"Student life is not as easy as it's portrayed, at least not for some students."

International students and overseas study

"Student exchange helps us understand each other much better!!!"

"Study abroad is awesome as a component"

"Experience abroad highlighted my dissatisfaction with Irish university life."

"To study abroad allows to be more independent"

"Information about studying abroad is very hard to find"

"The Foreign Student/Non EU in Ireland literally has no rights."

"More opportunities and flexible policies for foreign students who wish to work in Ireland."

"I'm a foreign student and it's hard to feel welcome here"

"Irish people are socialising together not friendly for foreigners especially girls"

"Life as a student, especially a foreign student, is full of sadness and joy."

Course

"I love my course"

"My degree is dull and does not encourage any independent thinking "

"It is harder than I expected, college is a big jump from secondary school."

APPENDIX 2
EUROSTUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

EUROSTUDENT SURVEY

Main Intro

Welcome.

Thank you for volunteering to participate in this study being undertake by the Higher Education Authority in conjunction with the Geary Institute in University College Dublin. The survey will take approximately 20 minutes to complete. We hope you find the study interesting and we appreciate your help. Participation in the survey is voluntary you will not be identified in any reports on this study. We realise that your time is valuable. To thank you for your time and efforts in helping us with this study, your completion of this survey enters you into a competition for one of 8 prizes, each of 500 euro, restricted to registered students. The winners will be announced on in May, following completion of the study. If you are willing to help us with this study, please enter your email address below and proceed. This address will be used to assess the response rate and also to allocate the incentives. It will never be linked to your responses. Unfortunately, non-college email addresses are not acceptable.

1. At what college are you studying?

1. University College Cork
2. University College Dublin
3. National University of Ireland, Galway
4. National University of Ireland, Maynooth
5. The University of Dublin, Trinity College
6. The University of Limerick
7. Dublin City University
8. Royal College of Surgeons Ireland
9. National College of Art and Design

10. Mater Dei Institute of Education
11. Mary Immaculate College Limerick
12. St Angela's College of Education
13. St Patrick's College, Drumcondra
14. Athlone Institute of Technology
15. Institute of Technology, Blanchardstown
16. Institute of Technology, Carlow
17. Cork Institute of Technology
18. Dublin Institute of Technology
19. Dun Laoghaire Institute of Art, Design, and Technology
20. Dundalk Institute of Technology
21. Galway-Mayo Institute of Technology
22. Letterkenny Institute of Technology
23. Limerick Institute of Technology
24. Institute of Technology, Sligo
25. Institute of Technology, Tallaght
26. Institute of Technology, Tralee
27. Waterford Institute of Technology
28. St. Catherines College of Education for Home Economics
29. The Church of Ireland College of Education
30. Coláiste Mhuire, Marino
31. Froebel College of Education
32. Tipperary Institute
33. All Hallows College, Drumcondra
34. American College Dublin
35. Dublin Business School
36. Griffith College
37. Institute of Public Administration
38. Holy Ghost College, Development Studies Centre, Kimmage Manor
39. HSI College, Limerick
40. Irish Management Institute
41. Mid-West Business Institute
42. National College of Ireland
43. Portobello College
44. Shannon College of Hotel Management
45. Griffith College Cork (incorporating Skerry's College)

46. St. Nicholas Montessori College Ireland

47. Carlow College, St Patrick's

48. St. Patricks College, (Pontifical University), Maynooth

49. The Burren College of Art

50. The Milltown Institute of Theology & Philosophy

51. The Montessori College, Mount St. Mary's Campus, Milltown

52. Galway Business School, GCI House, Salthill

53. Irish School of Ecumenics (Trinity College Dublin), Milltown Park

54. Mayoralty College, Galway

55. National Maritime College of Ireland, Cork

2. Which description best fits your current status as a student?

Full-time student

Part-time student

Exchange student

Student of distance education

Student of continuing professional development or life-long learning

Other (please specify)

3. What qualification should you get at the end of your course?

Higher Certificate

Diploma

Ordinary Degree

Honours Bachelors Degree

Postgraduate Diploma

Taught Masters Degree

Research Masters Degree

PhD

Other (please specify)

4. What is your present main area of study?

Education

Humanities & Arts

Social Science/Business/Law

Science

Maths

Computing/Computer Science

Engineering, Manufacturing and Construction

Agriculture/Veterinary

Health/Welfare

Sport/Catering/Services

Other (please specify)

5.(a) How many years long is the course in total?

5.(b) What year of the course are you currently in?

6.(a) Did you first enter Third Level on the basis of your Leaving Certificate [or equivalent] only?

Yes

No

IF **6(a)** = 2 THEN route to **6(b)**

6.(b) On what basis did you enter Third Level?

FETAC/NCVA qualification

On the basis of mature years (23 plus)

Access/Foundation programme

Other (please specify)

7.(a) Have you previously been registered for any other Third Level courses?

Yes

No

IF **7(a)** =1 THEN route to **7(b)**

7.(b) How many years did you study on these courses?

8.(a) Where do you live during term time?

Lodgings/digs

With parents/relatives

College residence on/off campus

Rented house/flat

Own household

8.(b) How far is your accommodation from college in kilometers?

8.(c) Is your family home in Ireland?

1. Yes
2. No

[if 8(c) = 1] How far is your family home from college in kilometers?

[if 8(c) =1] In which county is it located?

1. Dublin
2. Wicklow
3. Wexford
4. Carlow
5. Kildare
6. Meath
7. Louth
8. Monaghan
9. Cavan
10. Longford
11. Westmeath
12. Offaly
13. Laois
14. Kilkenny
15. Waterford
16. Cork
17. Kerry
18. Limerick
19. Tipperary
20. Clare

21. Galway

22. Mayo

23. Roscommon

24. Sligo

25. Leitrim

26. Donegal

27. Fermanagh

28. Tyrone

29. Derry

30. Antrim

31. Down

32. Armagh

9. Please try to calculate the average [MONTHLY/WEEKLY/ANNUAL] income in Euros at your personal disposal from each of the following sources.
Please enter 0 where appropriate.

Your family

Local Authority/VEC/Other state grants

Earnings/savings from employment

State fellowships/scholarships

Private fellowships/scholarships

Social Welfare

Loan from bank/building society/credit union Integer

Other sources (please specify)

Please specify the other sources of income

10. Please try to calculate your average [MONTHLY/WEEKLY/ANNUAL] expenses by type of expense. Please note that you should calculate separately between expenses incurred yourself and expenses incurred by your family/parents. Please enter 0 where appropriate.

Accommodation

Regular Bills

Food

Clothing and toiletries

Transport

Medical expenses

Mobile phone

Alcohol

Tobacco

Entertainment

Loan repayments

Study books & materials

Examination fees

Student services charge/registration fee Integer

Contributions to student associations

Childcare costs

Other (please specify)

11.(a) Are you a full-time undergraduate student?

Yes

No (part-time or postgraduate)

IF 11(a) = 1 THEN route to 11(b)

11.(b) How was your registration fee (student services charge) paid/funded this year?

By yourself

Your family

State

Other

12. How much money in Euros do you owe to each of the following? Please enter 0 in cases where you do not owe any money.

Parents

Bank Loans

Car Loans

Credit Card

Bank Overdraft

Student Loan

Store Cards

Fines

13. Please rate your general satisfaction with the following. Please tick one box on each line on the following scale (very satisfied to very dissatisfied).

1. Very satisfied
2. Satisfied
3. Acceptable
4. Dissatisfied
5. Very Dissatisfied

Your accommodation

Your work-load (study & job combined)

Your financial/material well-being

Your friendships

Your relationships

Your studies

The college you are studying in

14. During term time, how many hours per day (Monday-Sunday) do you spend on the following activities? Please enter 0 where appropriate.

Monday

Tuesday

Wednesday

Thursday

Friday

Saturday

Sunday

Taught studies: lectures and tutorials etc

Personal study time

Paid Jobs (Employment)

Engagement in college activities such as societies

15. How many hours did you sleep last night?

IF time spent on paid jobs is > 0 in question 14, THEN route to question 16

16.(a) What is the name or title of your job?

16.(b) How many hours do you usually work per week?

16.(c) How closely is your job related to your studies?

Very closely

Broadly related

Related to some extent

Not at all related

16.(d) Do you feel that your part-time work affects your academic performance?

Yes

No

17. What is your present knowledge of languages besides your mother-tongue? Please tick one box on each line, using the following scale (fluent – no knowledge).

1. fluent
2. good
3. fair
4. poor
5. very poor
6. no knowledge

English

Irish

French

German

Spanish

Italian

Other (please specify)

18. What language do you mostly speak in your family home?

English

Irish

Other (please specify)

19. Have you been abroad for study reasons or been enrolled abroad as a student of higher education in the past? (study-course, language course, internship, etc.)

Yes

No

IF **question 19** = 1 THEN route to **question 20**

20.(a) What kind of study related activity did you follow when abroad?

Enrolment in a regular course

A specialized language course

Work placement/internship

Other (please specify, e.g. summer school)

20.(b) Please specify the country in which you stayed longest for a study-related activity abroad

UK

Netherlands

Germany

Italy

France

Belgium

Switzerland

Denmark

Spain

Portugal

Iceland

Norway

Sweden

USA

Other (Specify)

20.(c) Please specify how many months you stayed longest for a study-related activity abroad.

UK

Netherlands

Germany

Italy

France

Belgium

Switzerland

Denmark

Spain

Portugal

Iceland

Norway

Sweden

USA

Other (Specify)

20.(d) Was this study period part of one of the following programmes?

ERASMUS/TEMPUS

LINGUA

Other EU-Programme

Other programme

No programme

20.(e) Approximately, what was the total cost in Euros of this period abroad?

20.(f) How was this financed? Please ensure total equals 100%.

Family/parents' contribution

Own income from previous job

Working abroad while studying

EU Grant

Home state grant

Host country grant

Bank Loan

Special support for studies abroad

Other (please specify)

21. Do you plan any study-related activities abroad in the future? (study-course, language course, internship, others)

No, definitely not

I am not sure

Perhaps

Yes, definitely

Yes, already arranged

22. To what extent are your plans concerning a study-related stay abroad influenced by the following issues? Please tick one box on each line, using the following scale (very strongly – not at all).

1 Very strongly

2 Strongly

3 Moderately

4 Weakly

5 Not at all

Insufficient skills in foreign language

Difficulties in getting information

Problems with accommodation in the host country

Separation from partner

Separation from child(ren)

Separation from friends

Loss of social benefits (e.g. child allowance, price discounts for students)

Loss of opportunities to earn money

Expected additional financial burden

Lack of personal interest

Expected delay in progress in my studies

Presumed low benefit for my studies at home

Problems with recognition of results achieved in foreign countries

Limited access to mobility programmes in home country

Limited admittance to the preferred institution and/or study programme in foreign country

23. How old are you?

24. What is your gender?

Male

Female

25. Are you an Irish national?

Yes

No

26. Which of the following best describes your status?

Single

Married

Living as a couple

Divorced/Widowed/Separated

Going out with someone

27.(a) Do you have any children?

Yes

No

IF **27(a)** = 1 THEN route to **27 (b)-(d)**

27.(b) How many children do you have?

27.(c) What is the age of your youngest child?

27.(d) What is the age of your oldest child?

28.(a) Do you have any of the following long-lasting conditions?

28.(b) Blindness, deafness or a severe vision or hearing impairment

Yes

No

28.(c) A condition that substantially limits one or more basic physical activities such as walking, climbing stairs, reaching, lifting or carrying

Yes

No

28.(d) A specific learning difficulty (e.g. dyslexia)

Yes

No

28.(e) A psychological or emotional condition (includes a mental health difficulty)

Yes

No

28.(f) Other, including any chronic illness

Yes

No

28.(g) If you answered 'Yes' to any of the conditions specified above, do you require additional educational support(s)?

Yes

No

29. What work experience did you have before entering Third Level? Please tick all that apply.

Casual/holiday work

Regular full-time job

Apprenticeship

FAS or other state-sponsored course

None

30. What is the current employment status of your father?

Self-employed with employees (including farmer)

Self-employed with no employees (including farmer)

Employee

Unemployed

Economically not active (e.g. home duties)

Retired

Deceased/parent not present

31. What is the current employment status of your mother?

Self-employed with employees (including farmer)

Self-employed with no employees (including farmer)

Employee

Unemployed

Economically not active (e.g. home duties)

Retired

Deceased/parent not present

32.(a) What is/was the name or title of your father's job?

32.(b) If he is no longer at work, what did he do when he had a job? Please describe as fully as possible: if farmer indicate acreage; if in Civil Service, Army or Gardai, indicate rank or grade.

33.(a) What is/was the name or title of your mother's job?

33.(b) If she is no longer at work, what did she do when she had a job? Please describe as fully as possible: if farmer indicate acreage; if in Civil Service, Army or Gardai, indicate rank or grade.

34. What is the actual (or former if economically not active) occupation of your father? Please classify the job according to one of the following categories of occupation.

Senior official/manager

Professional

Technician or associate professional

Clerk

Service worker/sales worker

Skilled agricultural or fishery worker

Craft and related trades worker

Plant and mechanical operator or assembler

Elementary occupation/housework

Military

35. What is the actual (or former if economically not active) occupation of your mother? Please classify the job according to one of the following categories of occupation.

Senior official/manager

Professional

Technician or associate professional

Clerk

Service worker/sales worker

Skilled agricultural or fishery worker

Craft and related trades worker

Plant and mechanical operator or assembler

Elementary occupation/housework

Military

36. What is the highest level of education achieved by your father?

No formal qualification

Primary only

Group/Inter/Junior Certificate

Leaving Certificate

Apprenticeship with Leaving Certificate

Apprenticeship without Leaving Certificate

Leaving Certificate and professional qualification

Third-level diploma/certificate

Third-level degree or higher

37. What is the highest level of education achieved by your mother?

No formal qualification

Primary only

Group/Inter/Junior Certificate

Leaving Certificate

Apprenticeship with Leaving Certificate

Apprenticeship without Leaving Certificate

Leaving Certificate and professional qualification

Third-level diploma/certificate

Third-level degree or higher

38.(a) How many brothers do you have?

IF **38(a)** > 0 THEN route to **38(b)** and **38(c)**

38.(b) How many older brothers do you have?

38.(c) How many younger brothers do you have?

39.(a) How many sisters do you have?

IF **39(a)** > 0 THEN route to **39(b)** and **39(c)**

39.(b) How many older sisters do you have?

39.(c) How many younger sisters do you have?

IF **38(a)** > 0 OR **39(a)** > 0 THEN route to **question 40**

40. How many of your brothers and sisters fit into each category below?

Completed 3rd level education?

Are currently in 3rd level education?

Are still at school?

Are not yet at school?

Are working after completing 3rd level education?

Are working after receiving some (but not completing) 3rd level education?

Are working without having entered 3rd level education?

IF RANDOM NET FAMILY INCOME UNIT = 1 THEN route to:

41.(a) Please try to estimate the net (after tax) MONTHLY income of your family household

up to € 600

€ 600 - € 1,000

€ 1,000- € 1,500

€ 1,500- € 2,000

€ 2,000- € 2,500

€ 2,500- € 3,000

€ 3,000- € 4,000

€ 4,000 and over

IF RANDOM NET FAMILY INCOME UNIT = 2 THEN route to:

41.(b) Please try to estimate the net (after tax) ANNUAL income of your family household

up to € 7,200
€ 7,200 - € 12,000
€ 12,000 - € 18,000
€ 18,000 - € 24,000
€ 24,000 - € 30,000
€ 30,000 - € 36,000
€ 36,000 - € 48,000
€ 48,000 and over

IF RANDOM NET FAMILY INCOME UNIT = 3 THEN

41.(c) Please try to estimate the net (after tax) WEEKLY income of your family household

up to € 140
€ 140 - € 230
€ 230 - € 350
€ 350 - € 460
€ 460 - € 580
€ 580 - € 690
€ 690 - € 920
€ 920 and over

42. Finally, please make any further comment you would like about your life as a student.

At this point, students were randomly given one of six modules.

IF RANDOM MODULE NUMBER = 2 THEN route to module on “Personality”

43. INTRO TO NEXT 10 QUESTIONS

Here are a number of personality traits that may or may not apply to you. Please select an answer next to each statement to indicate the extent towhich you agree or disagree with that statement. You should rate the extent to which the pair of traits applies to you, even if one characteristic applies more strongly than the other. Plesase use the following scale (disagree strongly – agree strongly).

1. Disagree strongly
2. Disagree moderately
3. Disagree a little
4. Neither agree nor disagree
5. Agree a little
6. Agree moderately
7. Agree strongly

Extraverted, enthusiastic

Critical, quarrelsome

Dependable, self-disciplined

Anxious, easily upset

Open to new experiences, complex

Reserved, quiet

Sympathetic, warm

Disorganized, careless

Calm, emotionally stable

Conventional, uncreative

44. Please indicate on a scale of 0-10, how willing you are to take risks in general, where 0 indicates "unwilling to take risks" and 10 indicates "fully prepared to take risks".

0. Unwilling to take risks

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

8

9

10. Fully prepared to take risks

45. INTRO TO NEXT 12 QUESTIONS

For each of the statements below, please indicate whether or not the statement is characteristic of you. Please indicate if the statement is extremely uncharacteristic of you (not at all like you) or if the statement is extremely characteristic of you (very much like you). And, of course, use the options in the middle if you fall between the extremes.

1. Extremely uncharacteristic
2. Somewhat uncharacteristic
3. Uncertain
4. Somewhat characteristic
5. Extremely characteristic

I consider how things might be in the future, and try to influence those things with my day to day behaviour.

Often I engage in a particular behaviour in order to achieve outcomes that may not result for many years.

I only act to satisfy immediate concerns, figuring the future will take care of itself.

My behaviour is only influenced by the immediate (i.e., a matter of days or weeks) outcomes of my actions.

My convenience is a big factor in the decisions I make or the actions I take.

I am willing to sacrifice my immediate happiness or well-being in order to achieve future outcomes.

I think it is important to take warnings about negative outcomes seriously even if the negative outcome will not occur for many years.

I think it is more important to perform a behaviour with important distant consequences than a behaviour with less-important immediate consequences.

I generally ignore warnings about possible future problems because I think the problems will be resolved before they reach crisis level.

I think that sacrificing now is usually unnecessary since future outcomes can be dealt with at a later time.

I only act to satisfy immediate concerns, figuring that I will take care of future problems that may occur at a later date.

Since my day to day work has specific outcomes, it is more important to me than behaviour that has distant outcomes.

46. INTRO TO NEXT 13 QUESTIONS

These statements are about general life ambitions. To what extent are the following important to you? Please tick one box on each line using the following scale (not at all important – very important).

1. Not at all important
2
3
4
5. Very important

Having a fulfilling career

Having a good social life

Making a worthwhile contribution to society

Being financially secure

Attaining a prominent position in society

Maintaining a good relationship with my family

Having a religious/spiritual commitment

Being recognised for my achievements

Raising a family of my own

Getting to the top of my chosen career

Developing/maintaining a committed love relationship

Contributing to the well-being of other people

Being very wealthy

IF RANDOM MODULE NUMBER = 3 THEN route to module on "Well-Being and Health"

47. Taking all things together, how happy would you say you are? Please answer on a scale from 0-10 with 0 being extremely unhappy and 10 representing extremely happy.

0. Extremely unhappy
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10. Extremely happy

48. How is your physical and mental health in general?

1. Very Good
2. Good
3. Fair
4. Bad
5. Very Bad

49. INTRO TO NEXT 12 QUESTIONS

The following 12 statements may possibly describe the way you have been feeling over the last few weeks. For each statement we would like you to select the answer which best suits the way you have been feeling recently. Please tick one box on each line using the following scale (more so than usual – much less than usual).

1. More so than usual
2. Same as usual
3. Less than usual
4. Much less than usual

Have you recently been able to concentrate on whatever you're doing?

Have you recently lost much sleep over worry?

Have you recently felt that you were playing a useful part in things?

Have you recently felt capable of making decisions about things?

Have you recently felt constantly under strain?

Have you recently felt that you couldn't overcome your difficulties?

Have you recently been able to enjoy your normal day-to-day activities?

Have you recently been able to face up to your problems?

Have you recently been feeling unhappy or depressed?

Have you recently been losing confidence in yourself?

Have you recently been thinking of yourself as a worthless person?

Have you recently been feeling reasonably happy, all things considered?

50. Overall in the last 30 days, how much of a problem did you have with feeling sad, low, or depressed?

None

Mild

Moderate

Severe

Extreme

51. In the last 30 days, how much of a problem did you have with worry or anxiety?

None

Mild

Moderate

Severe

Extreme

52. All things considered, how satisfied are you with your life as a wholenowadays? Please answer using this scale where 0 means extremely dissatisfied and 10 means extremely satisfied.

0. Extremely dissatisfied

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

8

9

10. Extremely satisfied

53. How often have you felt like this over the last two weeks? Please tick one box on each line, using the following scale (all of the time – at no time).

1 All of the time

2 Most of the time

3 More than half of the time

4 Less than half of the time

5 Some of the time

6 At no time

I have felt cheerful and in good spirits

I have felt calm and relaxed

I have felt active and vigorous

I have woken up feeling fresh and rested

My daily life has been filled with things that interest me

54.(a) Do you smoke?

No

Yes, regularly

Yes, occasionally (usually less than 1 per day)

IF **54(a)** > 1 THEN route to **54(b)**

55.(b) How many years have you been a smoker?

56. Did you ever smoke in the past?

No, never

Current smoker

Occasionally (usually less than one cigarette per day)

Yes, regularly

57. In general, would you say your health is:

Excellent

Very good

Good

Fair

Poor

58. Compared to one year ago, how would you rate your health in general now?

Much better now than one year ago

Somewhat better now than one year ago

About the same

Somewhat worse now than one year ago

Much worse now than one year ago

59. INTRO TO NEXT 10 QUESTIONS

The following items are about activities you might do during a typical day. Does your health now limit you in these activities? If so, how much? Please answer using the following scale:

1 Yes, limited a lot

2 Yes, limited a little

3 No, not limited at all

Vigorous activities, such as running, lifting heavy objects, participating in strenuous sports

Moderate activities, such as moving a table, pushing a vacuum cleaner, or playing golf

Lifting or carrying groceries

Climbing several flights of stairs

Climbing one flight of stairs

Bending, kneeling or stooping

Walking more than a mile

Walking several blocks

Walking one block

Bathing or dressing yourself

60. INTRO TO NEXT 4 QUESTIONS

During the past 4 weeks, have you had any of the following problems with your work or other regular daily activities as a result of your physical health? Please answer Yes or No.

Cut down the amount of time you spent on work or other activities

Accomplished less than you would like

Were limited in the kind of work or other activities

Had difficulty performing the work or other activities (for example, it took extra effort)

61. INTRO TO NEXT 3 QUESTIONS

During the past 4 weeks, have you had any of the following problems with your work

or other regular daily activities as a result of any emotional problems (such as feeling depressed or anxious)? Please answer Yes or No.

Cut down on the amount of time you spent on work or other activities

Accomplished less than you would like

Didn't do work or other activities as carefully as usual

62. During the past 4 weeks, to what extent has your pyhsical health or emotional problems interferred with your normal social activities with family, friends, neighbors, or groups?

Not at all

Slightly

Moderately

Quite a bit

Extremely

63. How much bodily pain have you had in the last 4 weeks?

None

Very mild

Mild

Moderate

Severe

Very Severe

64. During the past 4 weeks, how much did pain interfere with your normal work (including both work outside the home and housework)?

Not at all

Slightly

Moderately

Quite a bit

Extremel

65. INTRO TO NEXT 9 QUESTIONS

These questions are about how you feel and how things have been with you during the past 4 weeks. For each question, please give the one answer that comes closest to the way you have been feeling. Please tick one box on each line, using the following scale (all of the time – none of the time).

1. All of the time

2. Most of the time

3. A good bit of the time

4. Some of the time

5. A little of the time

6. None of the time

Did you feel full of energy?

Have you been a very nervous person?

Have you felt so down in the dumps that nothing could cheer you up?

Have you felt calm and peaceful?

Did you have a lot of energy?

Have you felt downhearted and sad?

Did you feel worn out?

Have you been a happy person?

Did you feel tired?

66. During the past 4 weeks, how much of the time have your physical health or emotional problems interferred with your social activities (like visiting with friends, relatives, etc.)?

All of the time

Most of the time

Some of the time

A little of the time

None of the time

67. INTRO TO NEXT 4 QUESTIONS

How true or false is each of the following statements for you?

1. Definitely true
2. Mostly true
3. Don't know
4. Mostly false
5. Definitely false

I seem to get sick a little easier than other people

I am as healthy as anybody I know

I expect my health to get worse

My health is excellent

68. Look ahead to when you will be 40 years old. Think about the general state of your health at that time in your life. What do you think is the percent chance (or what are the chances out of 100) that your health will be good or very good when you are 40 years old?

69. Look ahead to when you will be 60 years old. Think about the general state of your health at that time in your life. What do you think is the percent chance (or what are the chances out of 100) that your health will be good or very good when you are 60 years old?

70. Look ahead to when you will be 80 years old. Think about the general state of your health at that time in your life. What do you think is the percent chance (or what are the chances out of 100) that your health will be good or very good when you are 80 years old?

71. How much of a problem do you have with feeling sad or depressed?

1. None
2. Mild
3. Moderate
4. Severe
5. Extreme

72.(a) On the following screens, you will be given hypothetical descriptions of three individuals and asked to rate how much of a problem they have with feeling sad, low or depressed.

73.(b) [Name] generally enjoys [his/her] studies. [He/She] gets depressed every 3 weeks for a day or two and loses interest in what [he/she] usually enjoys but is able to carry on with [his/her] day-to-day activities on the job. How much of a problem does [Name] have with feeling sad, low or depressed?

1. None
2. Mild
3. Moderate
4. Severe
5. Extreme

74.(c) [Name] has mood swings at college. When [he/she] gets depressed, everything [he/she] does at college is an effort for [him/her] and [he/she] no longer enjoys [his/her] usual activities at college. These mood swings are not predictable and occur two or three times during a month. How much of a problem does [Name] have with feeling sad, low or depressed?

1. None
2. Mild
3. Moderate
4. Severe
5. Extreme

75.(d) [Name] feels worried all the time. [He/She] gets depressed once a week at work for a couple of days in a row, thinking about what could go wrong and that [his/her] boss will disapprove of [his/her] condition. But [he/she] is able to come out of this mood if [he/she] concentrates on something else. How much of a problem does [Name] have with feeling sad, low or depressed?

1. None
2. Mild
3. Moderate
4. Severe
5. Extreme

IF RANDOM MODULE NUMBER = 4 THEN route to module on "Expectations"

76. How many points did you get in your Leaving Certificate?

77. What is your expected monthly starting salary in Euros (i.e. the net monthly starting salary) that you expect to earn in your first job after graduation?

78. What is the maximum net monthly income in Euros that you expect to earn during your working life?

79. Is the level of salary that you hope to earn in the future more important to you than being able to take time off work and/or engage in leisure activities?

Yes

No

80. What sector do you plan to work in?

Agriculture, Forestry and Fishing

Construction

Wholesale or Retail Trade

Hotels and Restaurants

Transport, Storage and Communication

Financial and other Business Services

Public Administration or Defence

Education

Health

Other (please specify)

81. Do you plan to work abroad after you graduate?

Yes

No

Don't Know

82. On a scale of 1 to 100, with 100 indicating most likely, how likely is it that you will have children during your lifetime?

83. On a scale of 1 to 100, with 100 indicating most likely, how likely is it that you will live abroad for more than 10 years?

84. On a scale of 1 to 100, with 100 indicating most likely, how likely is it that you live to be greater than 80 years old?

85. On a scale of 1 to 100, with 100 indicating most likely, how likely is it that you will remain with one partner for the duration of your lifetime?

86. On a scale of 1 to 100, with 100 indicating most likely, how likely is it that you will live in a better house than your parents?

87. On a scale of 1 to 100, with 100 indicating most likely, how likely is it that you will own your own home as opposed to renting?

88. On a scale of 1 to 100, with 100 indicating most likely, how likely is it that property prices will decrease markedly in Ireland in the next 10 years?

89. On a scale of 1 to 100, with 100 indicating most likely, how likely is it you will inherit money or property worth more than one hundred thousand euro during your lifetime?

90. On a scale of 1 to 100, with 100 indicating most likely, how likely is it that the global warming situation will improve during your lifetime?

91. On a scale of 1 to 100, with 100 indicating most likely, how likely is it that global political stability will improve during your lifetime?

92. On a scale of 1 to 100, with 100 indicating most likely, how likely is it that the global poverty will be eradicated during your lifetime?

93. On a scale of 1 to 100, with 100 indicating most likely, how likely is it that you will spend part of your life living in a nursing home?

IF 6 IN TEST OR RANDOM MODULE NUMBER = 6 THEN route to module on "Political Participation"

94. How likely is it that you will vote in the next general election? Please use this scale, which goes from 1 to 10, where 1 indicates that you will definitely not vote in the general election and 10 indicates that you will definitely vote in that election.

1. Will definitely will not vote

2

3

4

5

6

7

8

9

10. Will definitely vote

95. As far as you know, is your name on the electoral register, that is, the official list of people entitled to vote?

1. Yes

2. No

3. Don't Know

96. Where are you registered?

1. The address where you live

2. Some other address in the county where you live

3. Some other address in another county

97. How many years have you been living at your current address?

98. Do one or more of your parents regularly vote in elections?

1. Yes, one

2. Both

3. Neither

4. Don't know

99. Now thinking about general elections, how much do you think it matters which particular parties win more seats and which win fewer seats in a general election?

1. Matters a great deal

2. Matters somewhat

3. Matters very little

4. Does not matter at all

5. Don't know

100. Do you agree or disagree with the statement "Everyone has a duty to vote"?

1. Strongly disagree

2. Disagree

3. Neither agree/disagree

4. Agree

5. Strongly agree

6. Don't know

101. If you did not vote how guilty would you feel?

1. Very guilty

2. Fairly guilty

3. Not very guilty

4. Not guilty at all

5. Don't know

102. Did you ever receive any form of civic education in school?

1. Yes

2. No

3. Don't know

103. How often would you say you discuss political matters?

1. Frequently
2. Occasionally
3. Rarely
4. Never

104. How often, if at all, do you discuss politics and current affairs with your family and friends?

1. Every day
2. Several times a week
3. Once a week
4. Several times a month
5. Once a month
6. Less often
7. Never
8. Don't know

105. About how often do you watch politics and current affairs on television?

1. Every day
2. Several times a week
3. Once or twice a week
4. Less often
5. Never
6. DK/Refused

106. About how often do you read about politics and current affairs in newspapers?

1. Every day
2. Several times a week
3. Once or twice a week
4. Less often
5. Never
6. DK/Refused

107. About how often do you listen to politics and current affairs on the radio?

1. Every day
2. Several times a week
3. Once or twice a week
4. Less often
5. Never
6. DK/Refused

108. Are you aware of the special provision for postal voting by students?

1. Yes
2. No
3. Don't Know

109. There has been some discussion regarding the day on which elections should be held. Given your circumstances, which day would be more convenient for you?

1. Friday
2. Another weekday
3. Saturday
4. Sunday
5. Doesn't matter

110. How proud would you say you are to be Irish?

1. Very proud
2. Fairly proud
3. Not very proud
4. Not at all proud

111. Do you consider yourself to be close to any particular party?

1. Yes

2. No

3. Don't Know

112. Do you usually think of yourself as close to any political party?

1. Yes

2. No

3. Don't Know

Thank you for participating in this study. This is the end of the questionnaire. You have successfully submitted your responses. You may exit your browser to leave this website