Commuting versus resident students: Differences in Irish student engagement, social and living conditions based on place of residence

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Abstract

This is the first study into resident students and commuter students in Ireland and was carried out to facilitate a more informed and targeted approach to supporting specific student groups. The research is based on secondary data analysis of three national Eurostudent surveys undertaken in 2006, 2009 and 2013. Four different student groups were studied to examine differences in their living and social conditions and their levels of student engagement. The groups were: resident students; those living with their parents; renters; and home-owners. Much of the previous research into student residential arrangements has taken place in the US, and this study finds that the US research may not be applicable to the Irish situation.

The research indicates that, contrary to research from the US and the UK, students who live with their parents in Ireland are not from lower socio-economic groups. Indeed, they rank highest on many socio-economic indicators. As annual household income increases, the likelihood of a student living with their parents increases. It was also found that student halls in Ireland primarily serve students from higher socio-economic groups, and do not appear to serve the needs of mature students, who are more likely to own their own home or rent.

International research indicates that living in student halls has a positive impact on student engagement, which is not supported by this research. Students living on-campus spend a lower amount of time in educationally purposeful activities than average. Those in rented accommodation or home-owners spend the most time on these activities. However, resident students do spend the most amount of time on college activities (extra-curricular), which is positive for student engagement. Resident students are more likely to drink, consume more alcohol than students in other living arrangements, and are more likely to exceed safe limits for alcohol consumption on a regular basis.

Several recommendations are made to improve the student engagement of the different groups.

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Glossary

ACER   – Australian Council for Educational Research

Adjacent grant   - In Ireland the Higher Education Grant is paid at two rates – adjacent and non-adjacent - based on the distance of the student's home from the college they are attending. The adjacent rate is payable if the student's normal residence is 45km or less from the college they are attending. The non-adjacent rate is payable in all other cases.

ACUHO-I   – Association of College and University Housing Officers – International

DARE   - Disability Access Route to Education. A programme intended to support access to third-level by students with disabilities

DIT   – Dublin Institute of Technology

DoES   – Department of Education and Skills

ES (e.g. ES3)   – Eurostudent Survey 3

HEA   – Higher Education Authority

HEAR   - Higher Education Access Route. A programme aimed at facilitating access to higher education by students from disadvantaged socio-economic groups

HEFCE   – Higher Education Funding Council for England

HEI   – Higher Education Institute

IoT   – Institute of Technology

ISSDA   - Irish Social Sciences Data Archive

ISSE   - Irish Survey of Student Engagement

Mature student – a student who is over 23 years of age on January 1st of the year that they enter higher education.

NFQ   – National Framework of Qualifications

PBSA   – Purpose Built Student Accommodation

POR   – Place of residence

SAF   - Student Assistance Fund, an Irish government supported fund to assist students in financial hardship

UCD   – University College Dublin

Definition of categories

Living with parents - students living with their parents or a relative

Resident student - student living in on-campus accommodation, or campus style accommodation, or purpose-built student accommodation, student halls or students residences within 8km of the campus.

Renters - students living in accommodation (flat / house / apartment / bedsit) rented from a private landlord. This also includes the "digs" category where the house is shared with the landlord.

Home-owners - students who live in a house that is owned by them or their partner; this also includes council properties.

Chapter 1 - Introduction

This thesis is a study of the significance of accommodation and living arrangements for the engagement of students in Irish higher education. The research is based on secondary data analysis of three national Eurostudent surveys undertaken in 2006, 2009 and 2013. These three surveys had a total of 29,023 responses from full-time undergraduate students available for analysis. Four different student groups were studied to examine differences in their living and social conditions and their levels of student engagement. The students were differentiated by their living arrangements:

- those living in student halls (for brevity, hereafter this category will be referred to as resident students)
- those living with their parents
- those living in private rented accommodation (hereafter referred to as renters)
- those students who owned their own home (hereafter referred to as home-owners)

The importance of the study is its contribution to a fuller and better understanding of the differing living and social conditions of these categories of students, which can facilitate a more targeted approach to student support for these groups. Much of the previous research into student residential arrangements has taken place in the US, and this study indicates that the US research may not be applicable to the Irish situation.

The issue of accommodation and living arrangements for third-level students in Ireland has received relatively little attention and has not been the subject of any major published papers. In contrast, in the United States, and to a lesser extent the United Kingdom, extensive research has been carried out on this area. This lacuna of information and data in Ireland is unfortunate, as research internationally (Pascarella and Terenzini, 2005; Thomas, 2012) has shown that students living in on-campus accommodation have higher retention rates than commuter students, and also exhibit higher scores on developmental scales (Chickering and Reisser, 1993). Furthermore, it has been demonstrated that programmes targeted at these groups (Jacoby and Garland, 2004; Pike, 1999; Tinto and Goodsell, 1993) can improve outcomes or retention. Before targeted programmes can be developed to support these groups, it is vital that institutional leaders and researchers should know the characteristics of the

students enrolled at their college or university (Braxton and Hirschy, 2005). This study: *Commuting versus resident students: Differences in Irish student engagement, social and living conditions based on place of residence,* will assist in filling the gap in our knowledge about the characteristics of both resident and commuter students in Ireland.

In this introduction chapter, I will initially set out the aims and objectives of the study, and focus on the scope of the study. I will then briefly describe the approach and methodology taken in the project, including the theoretical framework. Following this, I will describe the general setting and context for the study - how this work is relevant to the world of Higher Education in Ireland and focusing to some extent on the unusual economic situation during the period in which the data were collected. In the context section, I will also include a statement as to why this study is relevant to me personally. Finally I will set out the sequence of the thesis, briefly describing the different sections of the publication.

Aims and objectives

The primary research question for this thesis is to consider whether the students living in purpose-built student accommodation exhibit higher levels of student engagement than students in other living arrangements. A supplementary research question is to consider whether the provision of student accommodation supports the objective of increasing equity of access to under-represented groups in Irish higher education.

The strategic plan for the Irish higher education system (HEA, 2012) identified increasing student retention and improving equity of access to education as priority actions. In order to improve student retention the plan set out to improve the student experience, and implemented a national student survey (the Irish Survey of Student Engagement) to monitor progress in this area.

This thesis considers the relationship between these two strategic objectives and living arrangements for students in Ireland.

The consideration of whether the current model of student accommodation in Ireland supports the achievement of national strategic objectives is particularly valuable at this point in time. A recent study by the Higher Education Authority (HEA, 2015b) projected the construction of 12,000 new student accommodation bed spaces over the coming decade, which will still leave an unmet demand of 25,000 bed spaces. For Irish HEIs this would represent an investment of €700 million over the next ten years. It

is important that this expenditure supports the aims of increasing student engagement, and widening participation in Irish Higher Education.

The development of a detailed description of the living and social conditions of Irish students in different residential arrangements is of value in that it has not been carried out previously, so it is a contribution to new knowledge. Furthermore, as a practitioner in student services, I have always been anxious that my research would also be of practical value to colleagues working in the fields of student retention, student support and student engagement. In studying the social and living conditions of Irish students, based on their living arrangements, I intend to achieve a number of objectives.

Firstly, by classifying the student body in a number of clearly distinct categories: resident students; students living with parents; renters; and home-owners, I hope to identify the distinct needs of the different groups. By this means, student affairs professionals may be able to target specific supports at different groups in a more effective and targeted manner. It is also intended that these findings may shape policy and practice in supporting these groups, for example in the design and management of student residences.

In particular, this thesis will identify whether students in different living arrangements exhibit differing levels of student engagement, and whether on-campus student accommodation supports students from under-represented groups in Irish higher education.

Secondly, by grouping the students into distinct categories, the study will allow a detailed comparison of commuter students and resident students for the first time in Ireland. More importantly, it will enable a comparison of these groups with the equivalent student classifications in the United States and the United Kingdom, which have been the subject of extensive research. On this basis it may be determined whether the findings of US and UK research are replicated in Ireland, and whether the recommendations arising from the international research are applicable in Ireland.

Finally, it is hoped that tracking the changes in the social and living conditions of the students over a period when student supports were cut and fees were increased, will assist policy-makers in determining the impact of these changes to student support, and more specifically their impact on different student groups. This in turn should assist policy-makers in framing future changes to student supports. Given that the format and wording of many questions in the surveys were not consistent over the period of the three surveys, achieving this final objective is more problematic than the previous objectives.

Scope of the research

Given the volume of the international research which compares many distinct aspects of different student groups, and given the prescribed word count for this thesis it is necessary to limit the scope of the paper. For example, much of the research into student accommodation in the UK, looks at the impact of student living arrangements on local communities, often referred to as "studentification". It is not proposed to cover "studentification" or "student geographies" in this thesis.

Much of the international research into resident and commuter students has focused on full-time, undergraduate students. Similarly Tinto's interactionalist theory (Tinto, 1994), which served as a starting point for engagement theory, was developed for full-time, undergraduate students. For this reason, the analysis in this study focused purely on full-time, undergraduate students, and part-time students and post-graduate students are beyond the scope of this study.

The Eurostudent surveys give very rich data on several student types that are of interest to student affairs professionals – international students; students with disabilities; students with children; first generation students; students with mental health issues; mature students; and students from lower socio-economic groups. The temptation when analysing the data was to follow any interesting trends with these student groups, to see where they led. However, the limited word count would not facilitate a useful or detailed consideration of these groups. Also, in many cases, useful research and government reports have already been published on the above groups. On that basis it was decided to focus purely on the four categories of studentss based on their differing living arrangements.

Finally, I have had to be careful throughout this thesis in distinguishing correlation and causality. For example, it can be concluded that students who live on campus are significantly more engaged with college activities than other categories of students, which is positive for student engagement. However, it cannot be concluded that they are more engaged because they live on campus, as there are multiple variables at play influencing their level of engagement. This applies to the majority of the findings, where it cannot be proven that the differences are a direct result of the choice of living arrangements.

Approach and methodology

This piece of research aims to examine the differences in social and living conditions, and student engagement, among Irish students, based on their choice of student accommodation. As such the research will take a postpositive world view, using a "scientific method" and quantitative analysis.

Theoretical lens

The data will be considered through a theoretical lens based on theories of student success, and college impact theories, which have been used extensively in other countries to study differences between students in differing living arrangements.

Specifically, the study will use Astin's Input-Environment-Output (I-E-O) model (Astin, 1993b) as a conceptual model. The data for inputs and outputs will be analysed through a theoretical lens of Student Engagement Theory. The rationale for this approach will be detailed in the Theoretical Frameworks chapter.

Methodology

The study utilised secondary data analysis of existing national student surveys to compare and contrast the differences in social and living conditions between different categories of full-time undergraduate students, based on place of residence. Following a critical assessment of existing national datasets using Vartarian's nine questions (Vartarian, 2011), it was decided to carry out the analysis on the Eurostudent surveys. The data were split to remove the responses from part-time and postgraduate students, leaving over 29,000 survey responses for analysis. The datasets were then cleaned where necessary and analysed using the SPSS statistical package.

General setting

Higher education in Ireland

The context for this research is firmly set in higher education in Ireland, and is related to the study of student engagement, student retention, and student success.

Higher education in Ireland is currently provided by 7 universities, 7 colleges of education, and 14 institutes of technology. In addition, a number of other third level institutions provide specialist education in such fields as art and design, medicine, business studies, rural development, theology, music and law (Dept of Education and Skills, 2014). This binary system is currently undergoing a change process as set out in the *National Strategy for Higher Education to 2030* (2011). This process will see the

merger of many of the colleges of education with the Universities; the merger of several institutes of technology with each other; and the creation of a new category of higher education institution known as a Technological University. One of the objectives of the strategy was the introduction of a national student survey, and the Irish Survey of Student Engagement (ISSE) has since been developed and rolled out.

In recent decades the higher education system in Ireland has grown rapidly. In 1980, 20% of 18 year olds entered higher education, and this proportion had reached 65% by 2011. The growth in student numbers has coincided with the development of a more diverse student population, with higher percentages of under-represented groups. There has been significant growth in the number of mature students, students from lower socio-economic groups, and students with disabilities (HEA, 2014). The *National Plan for Equity of Access to Higher Education* sets out targets for increasing the representation of these groups (HEA, 2008a).

Student residences in Ireland

As mentioned above, there is a dearth of research concerning the living arrangements of Irish higher education students. The development of the Eurostudent Survey at the beginning of the last decade offers an opportunity to address that gap in our knowledge. The five Eurostudent surveys (Ryan and O'Kelly, 2001; Darmody, Smyth, O'Connell, Williams and Ryan, 2005; Delaney, Bernard, Harmon and Ryan, 2008; Harmon and Foubert, 2011; Harmon and Foubert, 2014) carried out in Ireland since 2000 collected data on place of residence and living arrangements for students. However, apart from considering satisfaction with living arrangements, the Eurostudent reports carried out little analysis on the data based on students' place of residence.   The reports did, however, identify a significant expansion in the number of students living in on-campus accommodation over the period 2000 – 2007, growing from 4% to 17%

In the first half of the last decade, over 15,000 units of campus accommodation were constructed in Ireland, funded through Section 50 tax breaks for property developers (Cotter and Murphy, 2009). In 2011 the government carried out an economic assessment of the effectiveness of the property reliefs (Dept of Finance, 2011). However, no assessment was done of the educational / social benefit to students of the development of student residences. The tax breaks finished in 2007. This event, combined with a serious economic crash in Ireland, meant that the development of further student residences essentially stalled over the period 2008-2013.

A combination of increasing student numbers, improving economic conditions, and positive demographics would seem to indicate that the development of student residences will recommence in Ireland in the next couple of years. This study, by describing the social and living conditions of students in different living arrangements will give an insight into the educational and social benefits of living in on-campus accommodation. It should also provide a basis for future research which will enable student accommodation to be developed as a professional tool to support student success in college.

Economic context

The three Eurostudent surveys that are analysed in this thesis took place during a period of economic crisis. In 2006/7 at the time of the fieldwork for the Eurostudent 3 report, Ireland was at the peak of the "Celtic Tiger" boom. O'Connor notes that, "By mid-2008 Ireland started to experience a dramatic reversal of fortune after the Celtic Tiger period of 1996 to 2007". In 2009 alone, when the fieldwork for Eurostudent 4 was being carried out, the economy shrank by 11.3% of GNP (O'Connor, 2010). Unemployment, which had been between 4-5% for the previous three years, began to rise rapidly in 2007. It doubled by 2008 and reached 14% by 2010 (CSO, 2014).
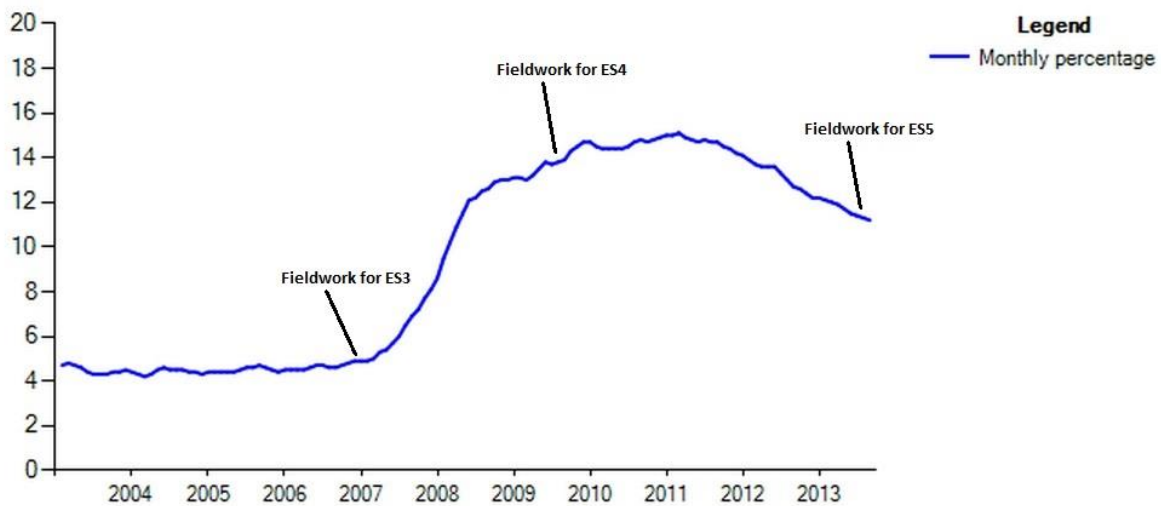
Figure 1 - Seasonally adjusted unemployment rate in Ireland – 2004 – 2013 (Central Statistics Office, 2014)

It was in this economic context that the Eurostudent surveys took place. The three surveys that have been analysed for this thesis were published in 2008, 2011, and 2014 – however the field work for these took place as shown in Figure 1 above.

Emigration, which had not been a factor in Irish society for some years, recommenced in this period, with an average net emigration of 50,000 per annum over 2010 and 2011. It would be expected that the recession and the increase in unemployment and emigration would have an impact on students' social and living conditions and also their hopes and expectations.

In the same period, rates for rented accommodation which had been at a very high level, dropped significantly in the period 2007-2009, before beginning to rise again (Fig 2). Rental rates recovered at a faster pace in the large cities in Ireland, where they were traditionally more expensive.
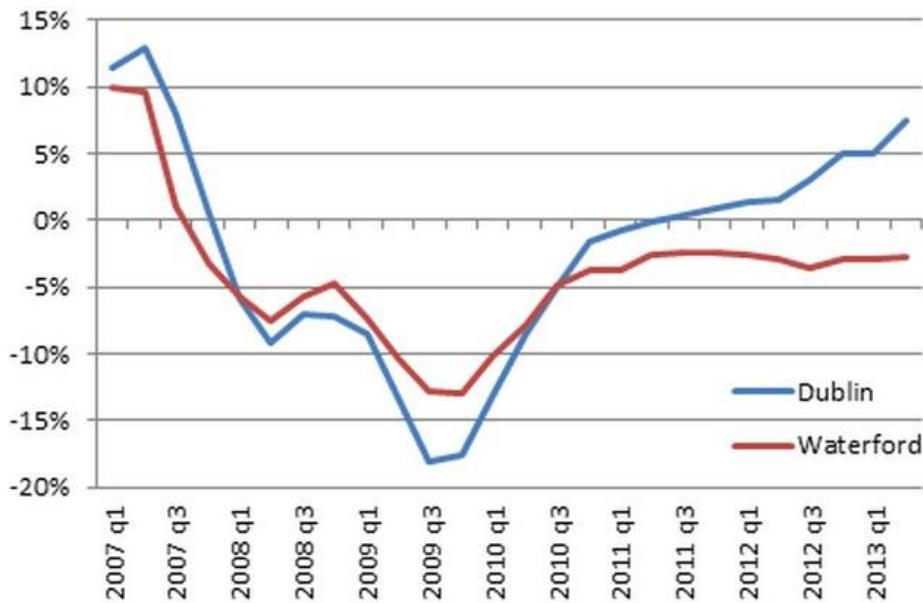
Figure 2 - The year-on-year change in rents in Dublin and in Waterford city (Lyons, 2013)

In 2012/13 there were 143,000 full-time undergraduate students, an increase of 14% since 2007/8. Part of the reason for the increase in numbers was the increase in mature student numbers. In 2005/6, mature students made up 9% of new entrants to Higher Education (HEA, 2008b), compared to 11% in 2007/8 and 13% in 20012/13 (HEA, 2014). In the same period, the number of academic staff employed reduced by 10% and non-academic staff numbers reduced by 17% (HEA, 2014).

Also in the period 2006 – 2013 there were significant changes in the student supports available to students. In the 2010/11 academic year, mature students were no longer entitled to receive both the Back To Education Allowance and the Higher Education Grant (Department of Finance, 2010), which resulted in a decrease in the average income of mature students. Also the radius outside of which a student must live in order to qualify for the higher rate of a student grant was increased in the December 2010 budget, effective for academic year 2011/12, which reduced the average amount received by students in receipt of a grant. Prior to the 2011/12 academic year, mature students were automatically entitled to the higher "non-adjacent rate", however this automatic entitlement was removed in the 2010 budget. Finally the student contribution charge, which was around €800 in 2006/7 increased on a phased basis to €2500 in 2013. This fee has to be paid by all students who are not in receipt of a higher education grant (approximately 40% of full-time undergraduates are in receipt of a higher education grant). On the basis of the above review of changes to the student support system, it would appear that mature students were affected more than other students by the changes.

Personal statement

As a post-graduate in the 1990s I completed a Masters in Student Services in a mid-sized University in the Mid-West of the United States. As part of my Graduate Assistantship I worked in the Residential Life Unit of Student Affairs, a unit which had responsibility for housing 4,000 students on the campus. In this period, it became clear to me that the US system of organising and operating residence halls or on-campus accommodation differs in many significant ways to the Irish system.

Residence Halls in the US have been designed, not just to facilitate interaction between students, but to ensure that students have no choice but to mingle and meet other students. The professional body for Residential Life states that their mission is "Providing an environment, including programs and services, that promotes learning in its broadest sense, with an emphasis on academic support, success and enhancement" (Association of College and University Housing Officers - International, 2007). Irish student accommodation, on the other hand, has typically been built with single rooms containing a bed, study area and tv/internet connection (Cotter and Murphy, 2009). On that basis, it is relatively easy for residents in Irish student accommodation to live a solitary life, and there is no commitment by accommodation providers to support the academic mission.

The fact that the organisation and operation of residence halls differs significantly between Ireland and the US, raises the question over whether the research in the US is generalisable to Irish higher education. In Ireland, the assumption has been that students who live on-campus accommodation will benefit in the same way as their counterparts in the US. This study demonstrates that the characteristics and levels of student engagement of Irish resident students and Irish commuter students are significantly different to their US counterparts.

In the Dublin Institute of Technology we are currently planning student accommodation with a capacity for 2,000 students on the new campus at Grangegorman in city centre Dublin. This is a major step for an Institute which has previously been a 100% commuter campus. As such, I am particularly interested in examining if students in differing living arrangements have different levels of social and academic engagement, health and well-being.

Structure of the thesis

This thesis Introduction chapter sets out the context for the research, and its relevance to the study of higher education. It also set outs the aims and objectives of the thesis, and the scope of the research.

In Chapter 2, the Literature Review, the literature that is available concerning living arrangements for students, and the connection between these living arrangements and student success, student retention, and student engagement will be critically examined. As much of this literature is derived from studies in the United States and the United Kingdom, I will also focus on analysing the available literature which has described living and social conditions of students in Ireland, with a focus on the key areas that can be studied using the Eurostudent data: demographics; socio-economic indicators; environment; student income and expenditure; student engagement; satisfaction; health and well-being; and expectations.

In the following chapter (Chapter 3 – Theoretical Frameworks) I will critically assess conceptual models and theoretical frameworks to be used to consider the research question. The rationale for the choice of these models will be discussed, and the limitations of the frameworks considered. This analysis identified the use of Astin's Input-Environment-Output model as an appropriate conceptual model. The data for inputs and outputs will be analysed through a theoretical lens of Student Engagement Theory.

As student engagement is the primary theoretical lens, this conceptualisation and operationalisation of this theory will be examined in more detail

Chapter 4 is the Methods and Methodology Chapter. In that chapter, I will explain the rationale for using secondary data analysis as a research method over other research methods or combined with other research methods. The reasons for using the data from the Eurostudent survey will also be justified. The method of data analysis and the level of confidence that may be placed in the data will then be described. At that point, the main research questions will be described. The variables available for analysis from the Eurostudent data will be examined, and variables that address the main research question will be identified. Finally, the manner in which the data was cleaned and recoded for use in the research will be described, and the limitations of this research will be discussed.

The Results and Commentary in chapters 5, 6 and 7 make up the majority of the thesis. In these sections I have analysed the differences between four major student groups based on their place of residence: students living with their parents; resident students; students living in private rented accommodation; and students living in a house/apartment that is owned by them or their partner. These differences between these groups will be considered using a wide range of variables that are available for analysis via the Eurostudent data: demographics; socio-economic indicators; environment; student income and expenditure; student engagement; satisfaction; health and well-being; and expectations. The living arrangements of the different groupings are described in chapter 5. Input factors such as demographics, socio-economic indicators, and income and expenditure are analysed in chapter 6. Then output characteristics such as student engagement, satisfaction, health and well-being and expectations are assessed in chapter 7. Additional analysis was carried out to identify the inter-relationship of variables. Analysis of expenditure; expectations; and health and well-being were also carried out, but as they are not directly relevant the results and commentary are included in the appendices.

In the final chapter, I will consider the results of the data analysis and evaluate what conclusions may be drawn as a result of this analysis. Recommendations for the support of students in different living arrangements, and suggested areas of further study will be made.

Chapter 2 - Literature Review

Introduction

In the past fifteen years, the number of students living in on-campus accommodation or residence halls in Ireland has grown significantly (Kenna, 2011). As discussed in the Introduction, following the introduction of tax incentives, the percentage of students living in residence halls grew rapidly from 4% in 1999/2000 to 17% in 2006/7 (Delaney et al, 2008), with a slight decrease in subsequent Eurostudent surveys to 14-15%. (Harmon and Foubert, 2011; Harmon and Foubert, 2014). This created a significant new category of students in Ireland, resident students, who have not previously been the subject of study in any great detail.

Other countries already have significant numbers of students living in residence halls, and as a result, substantial research has been carried out on resident students, their living conditions and the benefits or otherwise of living in residence halls. In the United Kingdom (Silver, 2004; Tight, 2011) and the United States (Chickering, 1974; Astin, 1993a; Pascarella and Terenzini, 2005; Bozick, 2007) several authors have analysed the sector and the students and compared and contrasted them with students in different living arrangements. This review will focus primarily on research in the United Kingdom and the United States, as these two jurisdictions have similar pastoral care models to Ireland, i.e. student support services are delivered via the college or university attended by the student, rather than through national or regional student support agencies, as happens in other European countries such as Italy, Germany, France, Norway, etc. (Ludeman, 2009).

In this chapter I will critically review the literature that has looked at the difference between resident students and commuter students. I will initially look at the historical development of on-campus student housing, focusing primarily on the two countries where most research has been done – the UK and the US – but also looking at the historical development of on-campus accommodation in Ireland. I will then consider literature that has looked at student characteristics, activities, and demographics that are considered to contribute to student success. I will then examine research that has considered the differences between resident and commuter student populations, focusing on studies where the effect of place of residence on student success has been considered.

Definitions

In order to facilitate comparison with international research, it is necessary to clearly define the groups that are the subject of this study. In most US studies residential students are defined as students living in institutionally owned or operated facilities on campus, and commuter students are conversely defined as students living off-campus in non-institutionally owned or operated housing (Jacoby & Girrell, 1981; Jacoby, 1989). These definitions are problematic in adopting to Ireland.

Firstly, student residences in Ireland are not necessarily institutionally owned or operated. They are also sometimes off-campus, although under the guidelines for tax breaks for development of student accommodation they are generally within 8km of a college campus. On that basis, the definition used for resident students in this thesis is "***a student living in on-campus accommodation, or campus style accommodation, or purpose built student accommodation, student halls or students residences within 8km of the campus.***"

Secondly, students who live off-campus are a heterogeneous group. Typically they have a wider age range than resident students and may have multiple life roles (Wilmes & Quade, 1986). Stewart and Rue (1983) identify three characteristics as being most significant characteristics when distinguishing subgroups of the commuter population: dependent/independent, traditional/non-traditional, and part/full-time. This thesis focuses on full-time students, so the last categorisation is not relevant. The US definition of a non-traditional student is a student who is 25 or older. This is analogous to the Irish definition of a mature student, that is a student who is aged 23 or over on January 1st of the year that they enter college. However, the characteristic of dependent / independent is interesting. This addresses with whom the student lives. A dependent student lives at home with parents or other parental surrogates. An independent student lives away from his/her parents. It could be argued that student residences are not fully independent living choices. Indeed, Christie, Munro and Rettig (2002) describe student residences as "supported accommodation" which are targeted at first years, and ease the transition to higher education. They note that many students moved to private accommodation in second year, "Private accommodation afforded more opportunities for independence because students had some control over who to live with and where to live" (p. 218). MacKie (1998) categorises "living with parents" as an external constraint that can hinder students' full integration with college life.

The rationale for the choice of the categories is described in more detail in the methodology chapter, but in this study, commuter students are broken into three categories:

Living with parents - students living with their parents or a relative

Renters - students living in accommodation (flat / house / apartment / bedsit) rented from a private landlord. This also includes the "digs" category where the house is shared with the landlord.

Home-owners - students who live in a house that is owned by them or their partner, also includes council houses.

Historical development of on-campus student housing

In considering the different types of student accommodation, and the impact of the living arrangements on students, it's important to consider how student housing has developed. Residence halls have been developed for different reasons in different countries, and these reasons may have an effect on how the accommodation is run and managed, which may in turn have an impact on the students or the type of students who choose the accommodation.

Ireland

Before the 1990s, only Trinity College Dublin and some teacher-training / seminary colleges had students living on-campus (Fitzgerald, Forbes, Manamike and Stewart, 2005). Policy debates on the need for student accommodation had mainly focussed on the supply and demand issue of providing housing for students. For example in a Seanad debate in 1968, the following statement was made by Senator O'Quigley:

> We are building a new university at Belfield and I suppose it will cost 12 or 15 million pounds . . . I think the university authorities and the planning authorities here should make it their concern to see that adequate accommodation for university students in the new setting in Belfield will be provided and will be adequately run. The matter, as I say, received very little attention in the Report of the Commission on Higher Education but it will be a very real problem for the increasing number of students who are expected in the city in the next five or ten years.

The major focus of Oireachtas questions on student accommodation subsequently were on "lessening the difficulty facing these students and other young people who have to leave their homes in other parts of the country" (Dáil Éireann, 1977). No reference is made to the benefits of living on-campus from a

student retention or student engagement point of view. In 1999 at a national colloquium on increasing retention rates in Higher Education one of the recommendations was that campus accommodation should be developed and offered at an affordable rate (National Council for Guidance in Education, 1999). However, the rationale here appears to be that student financial problems were having an impact on student persistence. Financial difficulties caused by high rents, and long commutes due to unaffordable rents, were causing student drop-out, and developing affordable housing for students would have a positive effect on student retention.   Discussions between the Department of Education and Science, the universities, the Higher Education Authority, and the Department of Finance resulted in the introduction of Section 23 and Section 50 tax breaks for the development of purpose-built student accommodation. By the end of 2004 over 15,000 units of student accommodation had either been completed or were under construction using these tax breaks. (Cotter and Murphy, 2009). Section 23 and 50 laid down stipulations for the quality and design of qualifying student accommodation:

> Study bedrooms were to be grouped into house units, with a minimum of three bed spaces per unit, and a maximum of eight bed spaces . . . Kitchen units including sinks, cookers and fridges were provided for and bedrooms had to include desk space and storage as well as internet services. (Cotter and Murphy, 2009, p. 14)

The accommodation also had either to be on, or within 8km of, a campus. The purpose of the tax incentives "was the provision of additional rented accommodation to relieve current supply pressures in the private rented sector." (Department of Education and Science, 2000).   A review of the effectiveness of the tax breaks took place in 2006, and a survey that year found that,

> 44 per cent of third-level institutions that had availed of Section 23 believed that there was now an excess supply of accommodation available in the market. A further third believed there was an adequate supply. (Cotter and Murphy, 2009, p. 14)

The tax breaks were discontinued in 2008; however, the overall effect of the property incentives was a significant increase in purpose-built student accommodation, much of it constructed and operated by the private sector.

In 2006, the Irish Universities Quality Board published "Good Practice in the Organisation of Student Support Services" (2006). This commented on the benefit of the provision of student accommodation in attracting international students, it also noted that: "Integration is easier for students in on-campus accommodation, which for this reason alone should be developed further" (p. 12).

The alternative to living on-campus was either living at home with parents, or to go into private rented accommodation. There is very little documentation on these two living arrangements, apart from information guides for tenants printed by colleges or students' unions. "Digs" were also a popular option for students. In this situation a student lives with a family, and meals are provided. Digs / lodgings waned in popularity towards the end of the last century. In the first Eurostudent survey in 2000, 9% of students reported living in digs / lodgings. This living arrangement declined significantly over the following three surveys to a level of about 1-2%, and was not recorded as a category in the Eurostudent 5 survey in 2013.

In 2014 and 2015, the lack of appropriate student accommodation and increasing rental prices became a political issue (Pollak, 2015). Student leaders and universities encouraged students to consider digs as an option, and the government commissioned a report by the Higher Education Authority into supply and demand of student accommodation (HEA, 2015). This report found that 12,000 additional bedspaces would have to be provided by 2024 to meet expected demand, and suggested that this demand would be primarily met via purpose-built student accommodation.

United Kingdom

The development of student accommodation in the UK is of special interest, given that several of the Irish Universities were set up under British rule, and that, as our closest neighbour, developments in the UK market tend to be followed in Ireland soon after. It is noticeable that, unlike in Ireland, there was a strong emphasis on the educational benefits of residential life.

Malcolm Tight (2011) reviewed the history of student accommodation in the UK in the post-war period, and noted how attitudes to the role of student housing had changed significantly over that period. He notes that living in student halls in the early post-war period was very much linked to the Oxbridge ideal, which:

had religious or quasi-religious overtones, embodying the notion that learning, and in particular a suitable breadth of learning, was best achieved in a residential community, where students and academics from a range of disciplines would meet and interact socially as well as intellectually (p. 110)

In the 1950s many Universities built residence halls, partly in recognition of the "civilizing and educative effect of halls of residence" (University Grants Committee, 1957, p. 7), but also because of a shortage of good quality accommodation.

The 1963 Robbins report on Education in the UK also noted that "… the educational and social advantages of living away from home should have great weight" and recommended an increase in the availability of student halls to keep up with the expected growth in student numbers. But Robbins noted that those who might benefit most from living in halls (those from disadvantaged socio-economic groups) were less likely to do so. However, Myers (2011) notes that studies that took place in the 1960s to identify the benefits of halls of residence such as integration, or a liberalising effect, found no evidence to support such claims.

By 1971 Brothers and Hatch found that demand for accommodation was starting to outstrip supply, and also that students were beginning to act as consumers:

> students in collegiate institutions clearly prefer to live in college. Elsewhere halls of residence are very popular with freshmen, but as students progress through the university flats become the most popular type of accommodation. Nowhere is there much liking for home or lodgings. (Brothers & Hatch, 1971, p. 323)

By 1979 a preference had developed among students for shared houses and flats. Economic difficulties meant that there was little funding available to build or refurbish student accommodation using state funds. As the 1980s progressed, low interest rates and the availability of buy-to-let mortgages meant that the private sector could fill that gap.

Blakey (1994) noted that the nature of on-campus accommodation had changed as well, and had moved from catered accommodation with residence wardens, to "clustered, shared flats (sharing with between

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five and eight other students) with a communal kitchen and bathroom." He also noted that management now tended to focus on cleaning and maintenance and "has little or no responsibility for pastoral care". Myers (2008) also notes the decline of the residential warden, which was typically a member of academic staff, and has now been replaced by student services staff or senior students. Silver (2004) also notes this progression from halls of residence being a key part of the educational process to just being "somewhere to live", and that the accommodation became an important part of the marketing of colleges.

As well as the changing nature of student halls of residence in the UK, there has been a change in the living arrangements of the student body. Compared to Ireland, the number of students living at home is quite low, however, it is increasing. From the mid-1980s to 1990 the number of students who lived at home was stable at around 8%, but it grew significantly to reach 20% by 2006 (Higher Education Funding Council for England, 2009).

United States

In the United States, colleges initially attempted to emulate the residence halls of the UK Universities with academic staff acting as mentors. However, Novak (2008) notes that in the colonial period this approach was not successful. Dormitories provided unsatisfactory living conditions, and academic staff were also responsible for disciplinary processes within the halls which led to adversarial relationships between students and the academic staff (Schuh, 1996).

During the nineteenth century, Frederiksen (1993) notes, many US colleges were influenced by the German higher education model. This held that students were adults and should be responsible for sourcing their own accommodation. As a result, the building of residence halls did not occur on many new US campuses. This situation was reversed in the mid-twentieth century when there was significant expansion of student housing, but with little thought given to the educational potential of the living arrangements, according to Schroeder and Mable (1994).

In the latter half of the twentieth century, "housemothers" who were *in loco parentis* in the student dormitories, began to be replaced by professional student affairs staff that brought a renewed focus on the educational benefits of residential living (Paine, 2007). Research was developed which focused on the positive benefits of living on campus (Chickering, 1974; Astin, 1977; Blimling, 1989)

Residence hall staffing was adapted to the role of educating the whole student (Fenske, 1989), and new developments which aimed to integrate accommodation with the academic mission, such as Freshman Interest Groups and Living Learning Communities (Tinto and Goodsell, 1993; Pike, 1999) were put in place. The role of the Resident Assistant was also developed, usually senior year undergraduate students who live on a residence floor with other students and provide direct services to the students (Novak, 2008).

In response to the extensive research that was being carried out on resident students, several significant papers pointed to the importance of supporting commuter students (Chickering, 1974; Jacoby, 1989). Braxton and Hirschy (2005) emphasised that it was vital that institutional leaders and researchers should know the characteristics of the commuter students enrolled at their college or university, so they could be better supported.

Previous research on the impact of living arrangements on students

In reviewing the available literature that considers living arrangements for students, there are several themes that become clear. One theme of work considers the impact that place of residence has on student development and other aspects of student success. In order to consider the impact of place of residence on student success, it is necessary to analyse the different characteristics of students in differing living arrangements.   A second theme examines the process of moving away from home as a sociological process of forming adult identity. In the following section I will consider these two themes in more detail. As the research available is mainly from the US, with some from the UK, I will again focus on those two countries.

A third theme examines how student accommodation can impact on the local community. The effect is primarily a negative one, and the term "studentification" (Kenna, 2011) has been coined to describe the process by which private accommodation rented by students can disrupt the settled community. However, this theme is not relevant to the subject of the thesis and will not be discussed further in this paper.

US studies on the impact of living arrangements

The majority of these studies have taken place in the United States. In their book "How College Affects Students", Pascarella and Terenzini (2005) synthesized the results of nearly 2,500 studies which had been carried out on students in the US between 1991 and 2002. In the book they consider whether there is any empirical evidence to demonstrate that place of residence has an impact on: learning; cognitive skills / intellectual growth; psychosocial development; attitude / value changes; and educational attainment / persistence. As this book is the standard text on research on student success, and has been cited in published research over 2000 times, I will refer to it extensively during this section of the literature review.

It is useful to note Pascarella and Terenzini's summary of the effects that living on campus have on students:

> The post-1990 research on the effects of residence on student persistence, degree completion, and educational attainment supports our earlier conclusion [from the decade preceding 1991] that students living on campus are more likely to persist to degree completion than are similar students living elsewhere. . . . Place of residence has a clear bearing on the extent to which students participate in extra-curricular activities, engage in more frequent interactions with peers and faculty members, and report positive perceptions of the campus social climate, satisfaction with their college experience, and greater personal growth and development. (p. 603)

I will now examine specific effects to consider whether place of residence has a significant role in determining student success.

Positive Learning Effects

Pascarella and Terenzini considered the "small body" of research which attempted to assess the net learning effects of living on campus versus living off campus. Despite the expectation that resident students would be able to contribute more effort and involvement to both academic and social integration into college, after controlling for pre-college characteristics, they concluded there was little consistent evidence to suggest that living on-campus assisted with the development of verbal, quantitative and subject matter competence.

Cognitive Skills and Intellectual Growth

Similarly, once pre-college characteristics were screened out, there was little consistent evidence that living on-campus had any effect on students' cognitive or intellectual growth, such as critical thinking skills. (p. 197)

In both the above areas, Pascarella and Terenzini suggest that living on campus probably does exert a positive influence on learning effects and cognitive growth as a result of enhanced student academic and social integration. However, they note that no empirical evidence has been produced to support this hypothesis.

Attitude / Value Changes

The research supported the hypothesis that living on-campus had a positive effect on students' openness to diversity and more inclusive racial-ethnic attitudes, even after controlling for pre-college characteristics. This was more significant in living arrangements which actively encouraged students' engagement with each other in structured learning environments (Living-Learning Communities). It is notable however, that colleges outside the US do not have the same emphasis on character development or spiritual growth among students (McInnis, 2004), and there is a lack of comparable data from other countries.

Educational Attainment / Persistence

This area demonstrates the strongest positive correlation between student success and living on campus. Reviews of research covering two decades in the United States has consistently shown that students who live on campus, are more likely to persist and graduate than students who commute. This is true even after controlling for pre-college characteristics such as age, employment status, socio-economic disadvantage, academic performance and educational aspirations.

Psychosocial Development

Pascarella and Terenzini are quite critical of the studies on psychosocial development post-1991, noting that "only a handful have clear, theoretical underpinnings, and these have limited generalisability because they are based on students at single institutions". However, prior to 1991, several major studies identified significant differences in self-reported gains in personal and social development between resident and commuter students (Pace, 1984). Chickering (1974) found that resident students rated themselves higher than commuters in a variety of skills: academic, writing, artistic, public speaking and leadership. Improvements in self-confidence and popularity were highest among students living on

campus, and lowest among students living at home. These results were confirmed by Astin (1984) even after controlling for pre-college characteristics.

Commuter Students

The corollary to the above findings, that living on campus has a positive effect on student persistence, degree completion, and educational attainment, is that commuter students perform less well in these areas. Engle and Tinto (2008) note that students from lower socio-economic groups are more likely to live off-campus, and more likely to work off-campus. Newbold, Mehta and Forbus (2010) found that commuter students are more likely to be from blue collar backgrounds. Kuh, Gonyea and Palmer (2001) examined the widely held view that commuter students – students living with their family or in their own home – are less committed to their academic pursuits than students who live on campus, due to competing distractions of work or family commitments. In their study comparing engagement of commuter students versus students living on-campus, they find that the commuter students are less involved in educationally enriching activities than their resident counterparts. Bozick (2007) points out that students who live at home are also more likely to be from lower-income groups and are more likely to take on part-time work to fund their studies. He notes that "Students who work more than 20 hours a week and who live at home are more likely to leave school during the first year than are those who work 20 hours a week or less and who reside on campus" (p. 261).

From the above we can conclude that US studies have shown that living on-campus has many positive effects on student success and student development compared with living at home. This is important as over 85% of US students are commuter students (Gianoutsos, 2011). However, the US model of on-campus accommodation is quite different to the model being used in the UK and Ireland. There has been significant research in the US into the value of programmes which integrate the academic mission into the living arrangements in student residences, e.g. Freshman Interest Groups; Living Learning Communities. It is worth considering the UK studies into student living arrangements to see if the UK research suggests that living on campus supports student success.

UK studies on the impact of living arrangements

In comparison to the US, not as much research has been carried out on the living arrangements of UK students, and much of the research has focused on the impact of "studentification" on local communities, which is not relevant to this thesis.

More students live in student halls in the UK than in Ireland. The UK National Union of Students (NUS) Student Experience Survey (2008) showed that the students living in Halls of Residence were primarily first year students.   Nearly one-third (32%) of first years lived in University owned halls of residence which were self-catered, compared with 7% of final year students and 7% of other years. Over half (51%) of final year students lived in private rented accommodation compared to only 19% of first years.

In comparison with Ireland, where 35% of students live with their parents (Harmon and Foubert, 2014), only 19% of students responding to the NUS survey lived in their family home. As noted previously, this UK figure is a significant increase from 8% in the mid-1980s.

A 2009 HEFCE report into students who lived at home reported that first year students living with their parents had a high rate of non-continuation at 10%, significantly higher than resident students who had a non-continuation rate of only 4% (HEFCE 2009, p.35). The report also noted that students whose parents are from higher socio-economic groups are less likely to live at home in their first year of study.

 Much of the research in the UK considers the contribution of student accommodation to the social integration of students which, it is argued, contributes to student retention. In their study, Wilcox, Winn and Fyvie-Gauld (2005) note, "Our data support the claim that making compatible friends is essential to retention, and that students' living arrangements are central to this process" (p. 707). Holdsworth (2006) notes an increase in the number of students staying in their parental home for the duration of their studies and also notes that living away from home is the most influential variable on whether a student is making friends easily and has a good social life, again contributing to social integration. Quinn et al (2005) found that local students were less engaged socially than peers living on a university campus.

In the report, *What Works: Building student engagement and belonging in Higher Education at a time of change* (Thomas, 2012) the author noted that accommodation was important for achieving social integration (p. 50), and also noted that students who lived at home and commuted found it more difficult to make friends in college (p. 51). Students who live on campus can become socially integrated via their student accommodation, and also find it easier to get involved in extra-curricular activities, whereas those who live at home find it harder to get involved with club and society activity. Finally, the

study showed that twice as many students made friends through their accommodation (74%) than through Clubs and Societies (36%). It should be noted however that the academic programme was the route through which most students made friends (87%) (p. 51).

Part of the explanation for the development of compatible friends, may be found in an earlier work by Thomas (2002) on widening participation. This noted that living at home, although financially beneficial, could lead to a sense of being marginalised from university life. Living with other students was said to have helped individuals appreciate that they were not alone in their struggles with money and workload.

Yorke and Longden (2008) looked at the first-year experience, and noted significant differences between students in different living arrangements:

> Students who lived at home, in a flat or in other private accommodation, much more frequently than those in an institution-run accommodation, cited financial problems as influential in their departure. They had a greater tendency to point to a lack of personal support from family and/or partner; the demands of employment while studying, and difficulties related to travel. They also cited more often the quality and suitability for them of the teaching, and the amount of contact with academic staff. In addition, those based at home expressed concern about programme organisation; the heaviness of the workload; and stress related to the programme. On the other hand (and not surprisingly), they had a lower incidence of suffering from problems with accommodation or homesickness.

> Those in a flat or other private accommodation more often cited their lack of academic progress. Students in university-run accommodation more frequently disliked the city or town in which their institution was located. (p. 20)

However, it's possible that these differences are not as a direct result of the living arrangements, but as a result of other characteristics of the students living in different types of accommodation. The 2009 HEFCE Report noted that students whose parents are from higher socio-economic groups are less likely to live at home in their first year of study. Holdsworth (2006) noted that living at home is more common among students whose father does not have a professional or managerial job and who attend pre-1992 HEIs. Yorke and Longden (2004) noted that students living at home were three times more likely than resident students to have part-time work for more than 12 hours per week (38% vs 12%). Christie et al (2002) noted low levels of satisfaction with their accommodation among resident students, who viewed

private rented accommodation as a route to more independence, and as a way to "solve problems of a lack of privacy, lack of space, intrusive noise and the feeling of 'never being able to get away from it'" (p. 218). Finally, a study into the abuse of alcohol in universities in the UK (Partington et al, 2011) found that being a first-year student and living in on-campus accommodation were combined risk factors for excessive drinking.

Relevant research into student characteristics in Ireland

As the aim of this thesis is to describe the different living and social conditions of students in differing living arrangements in Ireland, I shall now consider the research that is currently available in Ireland that refers to place of residence, or refers to relevant characteristics that are the subject of this study, e.g. socio-economic indicators; satisfaction; retention; health and well-being; student engagement.

As it is only in recent years that significant numbers of Irish students have started living in on-campus accommodation, it is unsurprising that there is relatively little research comparing resident students with commuter students. In the past decade however some studies have taken place that have allowed comparisons to be made between resident and commuter students in Ireland.

The data from the Eurostudent survey will form the basis of this research. Some data have been published on place of residence, although the Eurostudent analysis generally includes part-time and post-grad students. In the results from the 2008 Eurostudent 3 survey in Ireland, students living in on-campus accommodation were the least satisfied with their living arrangements compared with students living in rented accommodation or living with their parents. This is despite living much closer to campus than other students (within 2.5km compared with an average 17km for students living in the family home). In contrast 88% of Irish students who lived at home described themselves as satisfied or very satisfied with their living arrangements. Out of 23 countries only Portuguese students living with their parents were more satisfied than their Irish counterparts. Furthermore, the finding of lower levels of satisfaction among students living on-campus was also found in earlier Irish Eurostudent surveys, and replicated in subsequent Eurostudent reports.

Given that several theories of student success relate student satisfaction to student retention, this could imply that students living on-campus would be more likely to drop out of college than other students. It's possible that the students may not be happy with their living arrangements but are firmly engaged

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and satisfied with other aspects of college life. However, the authors note that, for students living away from 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" (p. 55). This is an interesting finding that warrants more investigation, and indeed prompted this study.

Some retention studies in Ireland have considered living arrangements. Retention studies from University College Dublin (UCD) in 2004 and 2008 give a conflicting view of the effect on student retention of living on campus. The 2004 study by Matthews and Mulkeen, which analysed the student cohorts who entered UCD between 1999 and 2001, found that students living with their parents had lower drop-out rates than other groups, which would be contrary to the US experience. However, a subsequent study (Blaney, 2008), which had a longer time-frame and covered the student cohorts who entered between 1999 and 2007 found that students living on campus had the lowest drop-out rates. A study into retention rates in the institute of technology sector analysed place of residence (Healy, Carpenter and Lynch, 1999), however the numbers of students living in on-campus accommodation were not sufficient to generate statistically significant data.

Some researchers have considered the impact of place of residence on student engagement, but again these are single campus studies and are not national. In a research paper on the study habits of engineering students in the Dublin Institute of Technology, Morris (2012) found that students living with their parents spent less time studying and were less likely to spread the work for assignments over the time available and less likely to use the college library. In an unpublished survey on student engagement, also in the Dublin Institute of Technology, O'Connor and Russell (2008) found that students living with their parents ranked spending time with friends from home as more important than students living in rented accommodation did. Conversely, they ranked spending time with friends from college as less important than did renters. Students living with their parents also placed a higher importance on socialising outside college than renters did. The O'Connor and Russell study did not have resident students as a category, as the institute did not operate on-campus accommodation at the time. In a 2011 study on first year students in University College Dublin, Gibney, Moore, Murphy and O'Sullivan also found that students living with their parents spent more time socialising and in sporting activities off-campus compared to those living away from home and this was considered to be negatively related to levels of academic and social engagement with the university.

Conclusion

In summary, we can see that purpose-built student accommodation in Ireland developed much later than similar accommodation in the United Kingdom or the United States. As a result there is a lack of research in Ireland into resident students.

Research in the US has shown that students who live on campus are more successful on a variety of scales than their counterparts who commute or live with their families. Research in the UK shows that students who live in student accommodation are integrated better within the student population. However there is currently little research in Ireland to demonstrate whether there are significant differences between students who live in campus accommodation and students who live at home with their parents. National surveys have captured data such as living arrangements, travel arrangements, income and expenditure, time allocation, satisfaction with various aspects of their lives, socio-economic status and other demographic data. It should be possible, by carrying out secondary data analysis of this existing data, to create a picture of resident students in Ireland and compare them with commuter students who live at home with their parents, live in rented accommodation, or who own their own home.

Chapter 3 - Theoretical Frameworks

Introduction

This chapter sets out the theoretical framework which will be used to consider the research question. First the underpinning theoretical perspective or philosophical stance will be outlined. Following that, the conceptual models and theoretical frameworks which have been considered for use in the analysis of the data will be critically assessed. This section will also outline the rationale for the choice of certain theoretical models over others. The conceptual model will then be developed to show how the data from the methods and methodology will fit into this framework. Finally the limitations of these models will be discussed.

Theoretical perspective

In developing a research question, it is important to set out the theoretical framework upon which the knowledge claim is founded (Cresswell, 2008). This thesis aims to examine the differences in social and living conditions, and student engagement, among Irish students, based on their choice of student accommodation. As such the research will take a postpositive world view (Phillips & Burbules, 2000), using a "scientific method" and quantitative analysis to support or reject the hypotheses set out.

The data will be considered through a theoretical lens based on theories of student success, and college impact theories, which have been used extensively in other countries to study differences between resident students and commuter students.

Conceptual framework

This study analyses the differences between students living in four different environments and considered whether these living arrangements had any impact on outputs such as student engagement and satisfaction. On that basis it was felt that Astin's Input-Environment-Output (I-E-O) model was the appropriate conceptual framework to use (1993b). Astin's I-E-O model is one of the "most durable and influential college impact models" according to Pascarella and Terenzini (2005, p. 53). It is a model for studying the effects of the college environment on students. According to this conceptual framework, college impact is a function of three elements (Fig. 3): inputs (demographics, previous academic performance, socio-economic group, parental background – the characteristics that a student has on

entering college); environment (the living environments, academic practices, policies and culture of their college); and outputs (student characteristics after exposure to the environment).   By examining the differences in student change, based on differences in inputs or environment, studies using this conceptual approach seek to identify and explain the impact of the environmental factors.
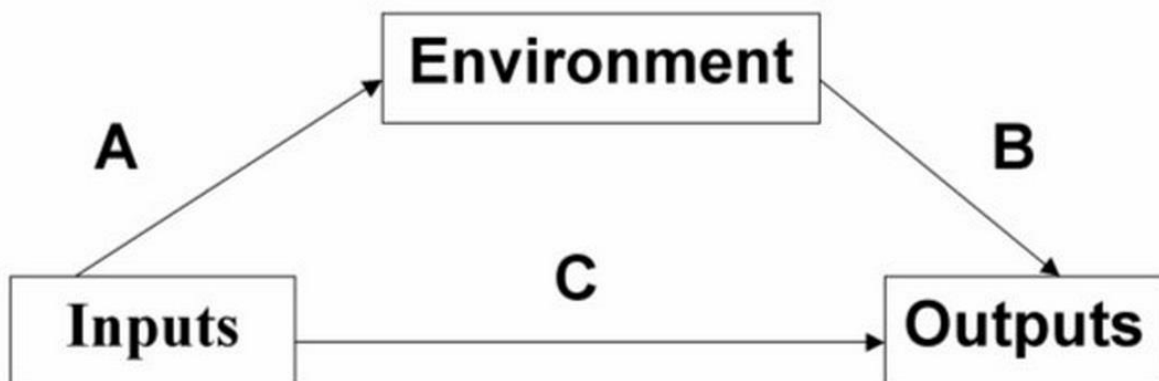
Figure 3 - From Assessment for Excellence (Astin, 1993b, p. 18)

Theoretical frameworks for student success

Using Astin's Input - Environment – Output as a conceptual model, theoretical frameworks were then used as a lens to consider the various inputs and outputs. As part of this process, theoretical frameworks which had previously been used to study student populations, particularly student success and student retention, were critically assessed to consider their appropriateness.

Pascarella and Terenzini (2005) suggest that there are two broad families of theories used to study students in college: student development theory and college impact theory.   Student development theories focus on the nature and processes of psychological development in students – *intra*individual change.   College impact theories focus on the environmental and sociological origins of student change – *inter*individual change.

Student development theories: During the 1960s and 1970s, psychosocial and cognitive structural models were developed which primarily focussed on change which occurred in students during their college career. Pascarella and Terenzini (2005) note that this "change" did not imply progression or regression. Later theories focussed more on "student development" (Chickering, 1993) and did imply some directionality in the development of the student. To express student development in biological

terms, it was considered to have an adaptive, evolutionary function, so that by adapting effectively to the new environment the person enhances their chances of survival. Student development theories, which facilitate the study of students' cognitive, intellectual, and psychological development, can be used to analyse student success. Among student development theories, Chickering's stage theory (Chickering, 1969) has been used most widely in the study of student success.

College impact theories: College impact theories focus on sociological and environmental sources of student change. As such they attribute a much more significant role to the context within which the student operates. The components of the institutional environment, such as culture, policies, activities, services, as well as the values and attitudes of the college population, are all potential agents for change. As such, by identifying factors in the environment which may be altered or managed, these college impact models may prove a more useful tool for college staff who wish to increase positive outcomes among the student population. The college impact models identified by Pascarella and Terenzini include: Astin's theory of student involvement (Astin, 1984); Tinto's theory of student individual departure (Tinto, 1994); Pascarella's general model for assessing change (Pascarella, 1985); and Weidman's model of undergraduate socialisation (Weidman, 1989).

In an alternative to this binary approach described above, Kuh (2006), Braxton and Hirschy (2005), and Yorke and Longden (2004) analyse student success theoretical frameworks by considering the perspective from which these theories have been developed. Yorke and Longden suggest that these have mainly been influenced by psychological and sociological theoretical frameworks and reflect "the theorists' background and predilections" (p. 75). Kuh on the other hand, breaks down this categorisation further and identifies five theoretical perspectives: sociological, organisational, psychological, cultural, and economic. So, for example, Yorke and Longden classify Bourdieu's theory of social reproduction under the sociological perspective, whereas Kuh considers it a cultural theoretical perspective. Braxton and Hirschy also group Bourdieu under the sociological perspective in their review of theories of student success. Another theoretical model, which has been used to study student populations, and in particular their living arrangements, is student geographies (Hubbard, 2008).

There are numerous theories on student success identified in the above studies, however the major theoretical frameworks for studying student populations, place of residence, and college impact are shown below (Evans, Forney, Guido, Patton and Renn, 2009; Pascarella and Terenzini, 2005).

- Student geographies (Geographical)

- Chickering's Stage Theory (Psychosocial)

- Bourdieu's theory of social reproduction (Sociological)

- Tinto's theory of individual departure also known as Tinto's interactionalist theory (Sociological)

- Astin's theory of student involvement (Psychological)

- Student engagement theory (Psychosocial)

Each of these theories was then critically assessed below to see if they could usefully be used as a lens through which to analyse the research question.

Critical evaluation of theoretical frameworks

Student geographies

Student geographies is a theoretical framework that has been used to study student place of residence in the UK over the past decade. It is primarily focused on the impact of student accommodation on local communities, and the movement, mobility and identity of student populations (Holton and Riley, 2013). It is often linked with the issue of "studentification" in cities (Smith, 2005; Hubbard, 2008), and as it is not directly connected with student success or college impact it will not be used in this paper.

Chickering's stage theory

The major theoretical framework which identified significant differences in psychosocial development between resident students and commuter students, was Chickering's stage theory (Chickering, 1969; Chickering and Reisser, 1993). In this theory, Chickering posits that there are seven stages of student development, which he calls vectors. Each of these vectors identifies the process of differentiation and integration that takes place as students encounter complex new situations, ideas and personalities, and tries to reconcile these new concepts with their existing ideals and beliefs. Movement along the vectors brings the students to new levels of awareness, complexity and stability.

The seven vectors are:

- Achieving competence in intellectual, physical and manual skills

- Managing emotions appropriately

- Moving through autonomy toward interdependence

- Developing mature interpersonal relationships

- Establishing identity

- Developing purpose
- Developing integrity

(from Chickering and Reisser, 1993)

Chickering's vectors have been extensively researched in the US, and to a certain extent were operationalised by the development of standardised questionnaires, such as the student adaptation to college questionnaire (Baker and Siryk, 1999). By identifying students who are not adapting well to college life, they can serve to identify trends leading to student attrition, or could also serve to identify at-risk students. However, the main focus of the model is on the student, not the living environment or the institute. These have been used in a very limited fashion in Ireland, primarily by counselling services and social care workers (Simmons, 2008). Other theoretical models have been more extensively used in Ireland, and will deliver better comparative data than Chickering's model.

Bourdieu's theory of social reproduction

Until recently, Bourdieu's concept of cultural capital had rarely been applied to study student success in the United States, even though Berger (2000) notes that it would seem ideally placed as a lens through which to consider the mismatch between institutional culture and non-traditional students. Berger notes that this may be because widening participation studies in the United States have focused on race rather than social class. However, he points out that the theory of social reproduction is "gaining increasing popularity with American social scientists as a conceptual framework for explaining levels of inequity in educational and status attainment" (p. 95). Berger notes Bourdieu's finding that European higher education institutions are arranged hierarchically in a manner which matches social classes, and he has used Bourdieu's concepts of cultural and economic capital as a lens to develop four propositions which could be used to analyse the effect of social reproduction on student success:

Proposition 1: Institutions with the highest level of cultural capital will have the highest retention rates.

Proposition 2: Students with the highest levels of cultural capital are more likely to persist, across all types of institutions, than are students with less access to cultural capital.

Proposition 3: Students with higher levels of cultural capital are more likely to persist at institutions with correspondingly high levels of organisational cultural capital.

Proposition 4: Students with access to lower levels of cultural capital are more likely to persist at institutions with correspondingly low levels of organisational cultural capital.

(from Berger, 2000)

Yorke and Longden (2004) suggest that some empirical research supports Berger's propositions, but note that the lack of a comparator in the last two propositions is unhelpful.

Bourdieu's theoretical framework and the concept of habitus have been used more effectively in the UK, Europe and Ireland (Longden, 2002; Yorke and Thomas, 2003; Lynch, 2000; Holdsworth, 2006) than the US. In a study on student retention in a UK university, Thomas (2002) employs the concept of institutional habitus. She notes that while changing an institutional habitus is a very slow process, the transition to an institutional culture that values diversity and is committed to widening participation will create an institutional habitus that is more congruent with the habitus of non-traditional students. Bourdieu's theory facilitates consideration of the institutional culture and is helpful in examining institutional issues which may inhibit student persistence, and is useful for the study of non-traditional students, students who may not fit with the social norms of the HEI. As such, Bourdieu adds a useful tool to the array which can be used to study student success. In the case of this thesis, significant amounts of data are collected and analysed on social class, socio-economic indicators and under-represented groups, which lends itself to a Bourdieusian approach. However, there is insufficient data on the institutional habitus of the HEIs being attended or indeed the fit between the habitus of the student and the HEI. In order to apply the Bourdieu's theoretical framework effectively a mixed methods approach may be necessary, which is beyond the scope of this piece of work.

Astin's theory of student involvement

One of the first theories to address student persistence was Astin's theory of student involvement (1984), which was primarily a psychological theoretical framework based on the Freudian concept of investment of psychological energy. To some extent, Astin built on the work of Pace (1980) with his focus on the value of "time on task", and extended this by saying that the value came not just from the quantity of time expended, but the quality of effort. The theory put forward five postulates, but he noted that the theory could be stated quite simply as, "students learn by becoming involved". The five principles that he outlined were:

1) involvement requires an investment of physical and psychological energy, and involvement may be general or specific;

2) involvement occurs along a continuum both with individual students and among students;

3) involvement has both quantitative and qualitative features where time on academics can be measured quantitatively while the value of the time spent is subjective;

4) the amount of student learning and development associated with any program is directly proportional to the quality and quantity of student involvement;

 5) the effectiveness of any educational policy or practice is directly related to the ability to increase student involvement

 (from Astin, 1984).

A criticism of Astin's theory is that its focus was on the student (Tinto, 2007), and it did not take into consideration the institutional characteristics or culture which may have also contributed to student success or failure. This weakness is addressed in both Tinto's Interactionalist theory and Student Engagement Theory.

Tinto's interactionalist theory

One theoretical framework above all others has been used extensively to consider educational attainment or student persistence. This is Tinto's interactionalist theory, also known as Tinto's theory of college student departure. It has been noted that this theory has been adopted widely (Yorke and Longden, 2004) and has attained "paradigmatic status" (Braxton and Hirschy, 2005). The theory is primarily based on a sociological framework, but it also uses psychological constructs "such as intentions, goals and commitments and, of course, the decision whether to depart from, or stay in, higher education" (Braxton and Hirschy, 2005, p. 76). Tinto himself, however, has argued that previous theoretical frameworks had an inherent weakness in that they focused entirely on the psychological aspects of student attrition:

"Students who did not stay were thought to be less able, less motivated, and less willing to defer the benefits that college graduation was believed to bestow. Students failed, not institutions." (2007, p. 3).

The interactionalist theory was based on the concept of academic and social integration and patterns of interaction between the student, peers, staff and the institution, particularly in the first year of college. (Fig. 4).

Pre-entry Attributes | Goals/Commitments | Institutional Experiences | Integration | Goals/Commitments | Outcome

Academic System

Formal
- Academic Performance
Informal
- Faculty/Staff Interactions

Formal
- Extracurricular Activities
Informal
- Peer Group Interactions

Family Background
Skills and Abilities
Prior Schooling

Intentions
Goal and Institutional Commitments
External Commitments

Academic Integration
Social Integration

Intentions
Goal and Institutional Commitment
External Commitments

Departure Decision

Social System

External Community

Time(T)

Fig. 1. A longitudinal model of institutional departure.
Source: V. Tinto (1994). Leaving College....

Figure 4 - Tinto's Interactionalist Theory

The theory has been critiqued and adapted extensively, particularly with a view to applying it to the situation of non-traditional students. Braxton and Hirschy (2005) carried out empirical tests of the propositions in the theory, and found that the theory was partially supported by results in residential colleges. Significantly, the empirical tests showed that only two of the thirteen propositions in it were supported by the results of studies in commuter colleges. As a result, one would have to query whether Tinto's theory could be used to compare student success between resident student and commuter student populations. Resulting from these empirical tests, the theory has been revised with two separate models of student departure, one for residential colleges and one for commuter colleges (Braxton et al, 2004). Similarly, the theory had to be revised to take into account cultural differences between different ethnic groups (Tinto, 2007), as the presumption that students had to break away from their past community did not work for groups for whom the link with their community was essential to their persistence in college. This point also calls into question whether the theory is generalisable to other nationalities.

Tinto's interactionalist theory has been used with some success in Ireland as a model to study and improve retention rates in Irish higher education institutions (Flanagan and Morgan, 2004; Blaney and Mulkeen, 2008; Moore, 2004; Conway, 2004)

Student engagement theory

Astin's student involvement theory has been developed since to accommodate the criticisms that it focused primarily on the student, and not on the institute, and has been recast as student engagement theory (Kuh, 2001). In her review of student engagement literature for the Higher Education Academy, Trowler notes that the research into the theory, "has established robust correlations between student involvement in a subset of 'educationally purposive activities', and positive outcomes of student success and development, including satisfaction, persistence, academic achievement and social engagement." (2010, p. 2).

While there is a focus on the contribution and effort put in by the student to educationally purposeful activities, the theory also puts an onus on the institute to use effective educational practices, and high impact educational activities. Thus the theory can be used to analyse the actions of both the student and the HEI. As such, student engagement can be defined as: "the time and effort students devote to activities that are empirically linked to desired outcomes of college *and* what institutions do to induce students to participate in these activities" (Kuh, 2009b, p. 683) (emphasis in original).

Conceptualisation of student engagement

It should be noted that there are a number of ways in which the term "student engagement" may be interpreted. In a study of student engagement literature, Trowler (2010) identified three differing meanings that may be attributed to "student engagement": individual student learning; structure and process; and identity. These three foci are related and often increased engagement in one area can lead to increased engagement in the other strands.

Trowler notes that the vast majority of the literature is concerned with individual student learning. This is generally represented as active student involvement with the learning process, and "student centred-ness" whereby students contribute "to the design, delivery and assessment of their learning" (p. 10). Structure and process refers to the involvement of the student in feedback or representative functions at a departmental, faculty or national level. In the literature this process is widely referred to as the "student voice", and is more common in the literature in Europe rather than the US. Klemenčič (2011)

has observed that "Student participation in HE governance within the European Higher Education Area – be it in formal terms or according to actual influence – is arguably the most developed in the world." (p. 21).

Literature around identity tends to focus on how to engage specific categories of students, such as non-traditional students or under-represented groups, and how to generate a sense of belonging for individual students.

It was noted that these foci tend to be inter-linked. As cited above, Kuh defines student engagement as requiring action from both the student and the institution. Activities which act on student feedback and involve students in the governance of the Institute will have a positive impact on constructs such as staff-student relationships and supportive learning environment. The same can be said for activities which generate a sense of belonging for individual students or for specific groups of students.

This study will focus on student engagement defined as individual student learning, as this is the area of interest for the Irish Survey of Student Engagement (2015), which notes: "In the context of the ISSE, we explore student engagement with learning and with their learning environments. We do not directly address other elements of engagement such as student representation on committees at institution or faculty level." (p. 6)

Constructs within the National Survey of Student Engagement

George Kuh (2001, 2009a, 2009b) has been the primary exponent of the theory of student engagement in the United States, and Hamish Coates (2005, 2010) has written extensively on student engagement in the Australian higher education system. Various survey instruments have been developed to operationalise the theory – most notably the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE) (Ewell, 2005) in the US, and the AUSSE in Australia (Australian Council for Educational Research, 2007). In 2013, the Higher Education Authority in Ireland ran a pilot Irish Survey of Student Engagement (ISSE), and the full survey was launched in February 2014. The report on the pilot study noted:

> The Irish Survey of Student Engagement (ISSE) is based on extensive research conducted in Australia, New Zealand and the US. The National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE) has been in operation in the US, and beyond, since 2000. The Australasian Survey of Student Engagement (AUSSE) is based on the NSSE but has incorporated additional elements. It has been in operation since 2007 and is increasingly used in Australia and New Zealand. Both of these surveys are designed to measure student engagement. The ISSE is based closely on the AUSSE.

(HEA, 2013, p. 4).

There are several constructs that are measured within the Australian Survey of Student Engagement. Six indices are used to measure student engagement, and seven used to measure outcomes. These indices are shown in the table below (Table 1), which also identifies indices that are excluded from the Irish national surveys. (Coates, 2010). It should be noted that the index for Work-Integrated Learning is not in the US survey, but is included in both the AUSSE and the ISSE.

Scale	Description	AUSSE	ISSE
Academic Challenge	Extent to which expectations and assessments challenge students to learn	✓	✓
Active Learning	Students' efforts to actively index knowledge	✓	✓
Student Staff Interactions	The level and nature of students' contact and interaction with teaching staff	✓	✓
Enriching Educational Experiences	Students' participation in broadening educational activities	✓	✓
Supportive Learning Environment	Students' feelings of support within the University community	✓	✓
Work-Integrated Learning	Integration of employment-focused work experiences into study	✓	✓
Higher-Order Thinking	Participation in higher-order forms of thinking	✓	✓
General Learning Outcomes	Development of general competencies	✓	✓
General Development Outcomes	Development of general forms of individual and social development	✓	✓
Career Readiness	Preparation for participation in the professional workforce	✓	✓
Average Overall Grade	Average overall grade so far in course	✓	X
Departure Intention	Non-graduating students' intentions on not returning to study in the following year	✓	X
Overall Satisfaction	Students' overall satisfaction with their educational experience	✓	✓

Table 1 - Description of scales used in AUSSE and ISSE

It should also be noted that Average Overall Grade and Departure Intention are not reported in the Irish survey (HEA, 2013, p. 13).

Criticisms of student engagement theory

Although Trowler notes that the majority of the literature on student engagement is uncritical and assumes that engagement is positive, there have been some criticisms of engagement theory. In the book *Academically Adrift: Limited Learning on College Campuses* (2011), Arum and Roksa are critical of NSSE's reliance on self-reports, noting that "self-reported assessments are also well known to be susceptible to inflated perceptions of one's own performance" (p. 26). They also note that it has not been demonstrated that all forms of student engagement lead to improved learning. Arum and Roksa also suggest that while some of the constructs around active learning, such as asking questions in class, may lead to a more interesting and participative class, that does not necessarily lead to growth in measured improvement in learning. Brint (2009) views student engagement theory and NSSE as "another powerful force in the institutionalization of the new progressivism" (p. 7). Brint describes the new progressivism as "promoting active learning, civic engagement and sensitivity to the interests of diverse learners" (p. 3). Both documents identify low levels of student effort and limited learning as significant issues which are not addressed by, in fact may be a symptom of, the emphasis on student engagement.   Porter (2011) also focuses on the weakness of self-reported assessment, and suggests that time-diaries may be more effective.

McCormick and McClenney (2011) responded quite forcefully to Porter's critique, stating that "much of his argument is based on proposition and conjecture rather than evidence, sometimes overlooking contrary evidence" (p. 313). They also emphasise that the primary use of the NSSE surveys is to make relative comparisons between groups of students. As a result, they note, "What matters is not the precise number of papers written but the fact that certain groups of students write more than others" (p. 314). McCormick and McClenney also note the importance of the survey of student engagement as a process of improvement, and also the crucial value of asking students about their experiences.

Rationale for choice of theoretical framework

Having assessed the six theoretical frameworks above, it was decided to use student engagement theory as the primary theoretical lens through which to consider the research question. There are a number of reasons for this:

- Student engagement theory addresses the deficit in Astin's Involvement theory, whereby there was a lack of focus on the impact of the college and living environments on student success. This is particularly important for a study that is considering the living arrangements of students.

- Tinto's interactionalist theory does address the interaction with the college and living environment. However, the Eurostudent data which is analysed in this study, does not have data on retention, or student departure from the institute, so Tinto's framework would be of limited value.

- The Irish National Strategy for Higher Education to 2030 (DoES, 2010) has identified engagement as the third pillar of Irish Higher Education. The development of the Irish survey of student engagement (ISSE) will bring a focus onto the area of student engagement, so a contribution to knowledge in this area will be of relevance and value to policy makers and practitioners.

On the basis of the above, it was decided to use student engagement theory as the primary theoretical lens for consideration of the research question. As the works of Tinto and Astin serve as a starting point for much of engagement theory (Troxel, 2010), they will serve as useful secondary lenses.

Conceptual model for study

Using Astin's I-E-O as the conceptual model, with student engagement theory (Kuh, 2009a) as the theoretical lens, the research question can now be graphically represented as shown below in Figure 5. The secondary data analysis will give a clear picture of the differing characteristics (demographics, socio-economic group; income and expenditure; satisfaction; engagement; expectations; and health and well-being) of Irish students who live in different living arrangements: living at home with parents; living in student residences; living in rented accommodation; or living in own home. This analysis has a value as it has never been described before.

The use of Astin's I-E-O model will bring additional value as it enables us to consider more effectively whether the environment (i.e. the living arrangement) has any identifiable impact on the output (satisfaction, engagement, expectations, and health and well-being), while taking into consideration the inputs (demographics, socio-economic group and income and expenditure).
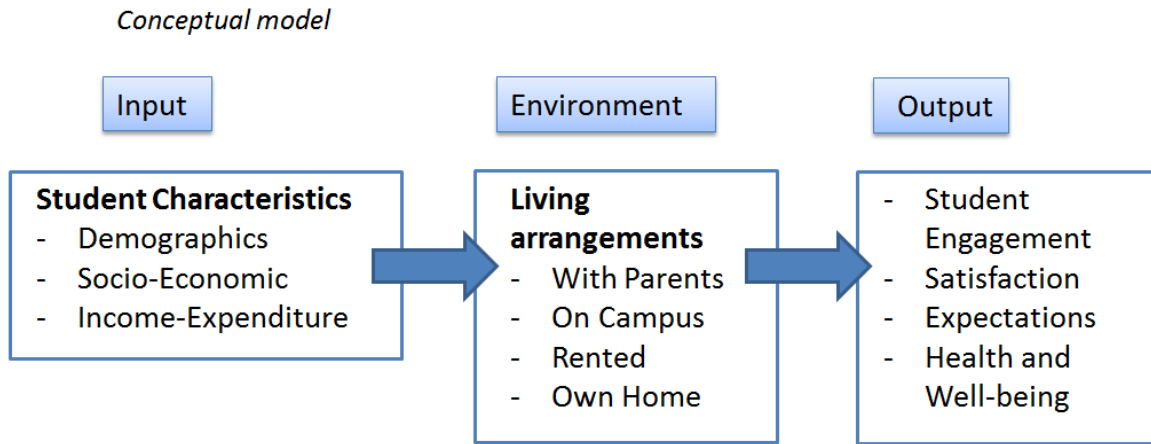
Conceptual model

Based on *Astin's Input-Environment – Output Model (1993)*

Figure 5 - Conceptual model for thesis

Limitations of the conceptual model

This conceptual model will prove a useful framework through which to consider the results of the data analysis. It should however be noted that correlation does not equal causality. Living arrangements are just one facet of environmental factors that exert a force on student change. While this model will assist in controlling for the input factors, care must be taken to avoid drawing conclusions which may be attributable to other, or to a range of, factors.

It could be argued that income and expenditure could be classified as an environmental factor, rather than an input. Classifying it as an input is justified on the basis that income and expenditure is more determined by input characteristics such as socio-economic group.

Conclusion

In this chapter we have critically assessed various theoretical frameworks for use in analysing the data. This analysis identified the use of Astin's Input-Environment-Output model as an appropriate conceptual model. The data for inputs and outputs will be analysed through a theoretical lens of student engagement theory.

Chapter 4 - Methods and Methodology

Introduction

This chapter is divided into several different sections. The first section will look at the type of research considered, and why that research approach was chosen. In particular this section will address why secondary data analysis was chosen over other research approaches, and why secondary data analysis was not combined with other methods. The second section will describe the data that were used for the research, and the rationale for choosing the results of the Eurostudent survey as material for this research. The third section will describe the variables available for analysis from the Eurostudent data, and how the dataset was cleaned and recoded for use in the research. The fourth section will describe the main research questions. Then, the specific variables that are aligned with the research questions will be identified. This section will also address the data sampling and confidence levels which may be placed in the data. The final section will discuss the limitations of this research.

Type of research

As described earlier, it became clear following a review of the literature in Ireland that little research has been carried out on the residential arrangements of students in Ireland. An initial scoping exercise considered various options for studying the area – qualitative methods, mixed methods, a primary survey, or secondary data analysis. It was decided to examine the social and economic living conditions of students by doing secondary analysis of the raw data from currently existing national surveys. The rationale for this decision is described below.

Rationale for choosing secondary data analysis

In the initial scoping of possible research methods for this study, a number of different approaches were considered.

One possibility was just to carry out qualitative research, with interviews of students around the impact of living arrangements on their academic and social engagement. A weakness identified with this approach was that there would still be a major lacuna in the knowledge base around the different student categories. In choosing the mix of students to interview, one would be making assumptions based on international research. For example, the presumption would be that students from low-income families would be living with their parents, a presumption that as will later be seen, would be incorrect.

Another initial proposal was to carry out mixed methods research. This would involve a primary survey of students in several HEIs in Ireland, followed by a series of interviews with students to cast some light on the findings. This approach was dismissed for two major reasons. Firstly, initial soundings with colleagues in other HEIs found a distinct lack of support for a survey on student living arrangements, as two national surveys were being carried out, and there were reports of "survey fatigue". The major concern was that a poor response to the survey would have significantly weakened the research. As the person responsible for promoting national surveys to the student body in my Institution, I was aware that these concerns were genuine. There is often frustration at the number of surveys being circulated, which in many cases are seeking information that has been gathered previously. Secondly, the workload and resources required to carry out both a national primary survey and also qualitative analysis of interviews were very significant. The scope of the research would be very wide, and it would have been difficult to do justice to both the qualitative and quantitative data with the limited word-count prescribed for the thesis.

On the basis that several national surveys had been carried out and the data was available, the approach of secondary data analysis was then considered.

Glass had a very succinct definition of secondary data analysis, which was "answering new research questions with old data" (1976, p. 3). Vartarian describes secondary data as "any data that are examined to answer a research question other than the question(s) for which the data were initially collected." (2011, p.3) Whereas primary analysis involves both data collection and analysis, secondary data analysis involves the analysis of datasets that have been collected by others. Smith (2008), however, notes that there is some disagreement on whether secondary data analysis must always relate to data collected by others, or whether it may be a re-analysis of previously collected data, using new analysis techniques or with a view to answering new research questions.

There are advantages to the use of secondary data analysis which have been well documented. Glaser (1963) noted the utility of secondary data analysis to "the research needs of those with macro-interest and micro-resources" (p. 11).   Smith (2008) notes that the approach allows the researcher access to sample sizes that would generally be out of reach for a lone researcher, and so democratises research by making studies on large datasets a possibility previously only available to the state and to the wealthy. Generally the surveys have been developed using technical expertise to obtain good datasets, leading to high quality data, facilitating analysis from a number of perspectives. This provides "opportunities for the discovery of serendipitous relationships not considered in the primary research" (Smith, 2008, p.

21). Secondary data analysis also has the advantage of being an unobtrusive research method, as one is not required to contact individuals repeatedly to obtain the required information. As the datasets are often collected over a period of time, secondary data analysis may give the opportunity to carry out longitudinal studies.

There are some drawbacks to the use of secondary datasets. Vartarian (2011) notes that the data quality of secondary datasets was a concern in the 1980s and 1990s; however, he notes this has improved significantly in more recent times. He identifies the primary pitfall of secondary data analysis to be the "lack of control over the framing and wording of survey items" (p. 15). As a result the specific question required may not be covered by the survey instrument. In short, he notes, "In many ways, users of secondary data trade control over the conditions and quality of the data collection for accessibility, convenience, and reduced costs in time, money and inconvenience to participants" (p. 17).

Vartarian identifies nine questions which can be used to identify if the use of secondary datasets is appropriate for the research.

1. Is the population from which the sample is drawn appropriate for the planned research?
2. Is the dependent variable contained in the data?
3. Are the necessary independent variables of interest available?
4. If replicating a study, how do these data differ from those used previously, and will this make a difference in running and interpreting analyses?
5. Does the available data have adequate identifiers for the target groups for analysis?
6. Is it important to be able to generalise the results to a general population, to specific populations, or to a far lower-level population? If you need to generalise to a more broadly defined population, then use of secondary datasets will likely be the way to go.
7. Does the dataset of interest require special authorization to obtain?
8. Do you, or someone you can hire, have the programming skills to use the data?
9. How quickly do you need the results?

The above questions were useful in identifying that secondary data analysis was the appropriate methodology in this instance, and the questions were also helpful in eliminating secondary datasets which were not appropriate for the research.

In the case of this study into the characteristics of students in different living arrangements in Ireland, the decision to use existing data had the following rationale. Developing and issuing a survey to cover

the Irish student population would have been time-consuming and expensive. A primary survey was highly unlikely to reach the same sample size as national student surveys which had the full support of the HEIs, students' unions and the Higher Education Authority. Useful data on the living arrangements, and numerous other variables, of full-time undergraduate students had been collected in pre-existing national surveys but had not been analysed or discussed in any detail. As identified in the questions above, this dataset contained the required dependent and independent variables, and was accessible via the Irish Social Sciences Data Archive.

Consideration of secondary datasets available for analysis

Unlike France and Germany, where national student surveys have been carried out since 1951, in the case of Germany (Harmon, 2014), and the late 1980s, in the case of France (McInnis, 2004), relatively few national student surveys have taken place in Ireland. In this section the existing national student surveys will be critically examined using Vartarian's check-list to identify whether they could be usefully used as secondary datasets for this study.

CLAN survey

In 2003 a national survey was carried out on the health and lifestyle of college students. The College Lifestyle and Attitudinal National (CLAN) Survey had a focus on their use of alcohol and drugs, and their knowledge and use of support services (Hope, Dring and Dring, 2005). This survey did not capture the dependent variable, as no data on students' place of residence were recorded.

Irish universities study

The Irish Universities Association funded the Irish universities study, which was a web-based survey examining the 3rd and 4th level student population in the seven Irish universities. It was intended that the survey would take place in three modules over three years, allowing students to be tracked through their college careers. The survey covered student satisfaction with teaching and with support services. However, only the results of the first module appear to have been published (Delaney, Gubbins, Harmon and Redmond, 2009). While this survey did ask about satisfaction with accommodation, it did not capture data on students' place of residence, and it did not capture responses from students in the institute of technology sector. As the survey did not capture the living arrangements of students and

the survey sample did not cover the entire full-time undergraduate population, it was not used as a secondary dataset.

<u>Eurostudent Survey</u>

The Eurostudent survey is carried out in Ireland and in 24 other European countries. This survey generates data on student economic and social conditions which were useful for policy development, and for facilitating student mobility between countries (Delaney et al, 2008). Five Eurostudent surveys have been carried out in Ireland, with surveys being carried out on the entire student population in the institutes of technology, universities and colleges of education. The reports on these surveys have been published by the Higher Education Authority in 2000, 2004, 2008, 2011, and 2014. Generally the field work for the reports took place at least a year prior to the publication of the results. Some benchmark data is available from the other countries in the Eurostudent consortium. The survey instrument collected data on students' place of residence, but the reports have only published a limited amount of detail based on these variables: student satisfaction with accommodation; distance from college; and a limited amount of data on income and expenditure. In most cases the research published did not separate out the results for full-time undergraduate students. Data for the first two surveys from 2000 and 2004 were not accessible, but the data from the surveys in 2008, 2011 and 2014 were accessible via the Irish Social Sciences Data Archive. The Eurostudent surveys fulfilled all the requirements for use as a secondary dataset.

<u>MyWorld survey</u>

This report (Dooley and Fitzgerald, 2012) surveyed 14,000 young people between the ages of 18 to 25 years old – students and non-students – and mainly covered areas of physical and mental health. The report did not survey students in all third-level colleges. "To geographically represent third-level institutions in each of the four HSE areas, a minimum of one university and one institute of technology (IT) were randomly selected from the Higher Education Authority's list of educational institutions, for the third-level sampling frame (n=8)." (Dooley and Fitzgerald, 2012, p. 131) Several colleges subsequently requested to be included in the survey, and as a result 12 colleges were eventually sampled. 8195 students responded. The survey did capture data on students' place of residence, which were not analysed in any detail in the report. As the survey only covered students aged 25 and under, it would have excluded many mature students. As the survey did not cover the entire higher education

population, the survey sample was not appropriate for the research, and the MyWorld survey was not used as a secondary dataset.

<u>Irish survey of student engagement</u>

One of the actions of the National Strategy for Higher Education to 2030 (Hunt, 2011) was that *"A national student survey system should be put in place and the results published."* (p 17). A pilot survey was carried out (Higher Education Authority, 2013b), and the fieldwork for the full national survey was carried out in early 2014. The survey is based on the survey instrument used by the US National Survey of Student Engagement and the Australian Survey of Student Engagement. The survey did not capture data on students' place of residence, however, it is hoped that future surveys will capture this information. This survey was not chosen as a secondary dataset.

<u>Eurostudent data</u>

Based on the above analysis of available Irish national student surveys, it was decided to analyse the datasets from the Eurostudent surveys 2008, 2011, and 2014, as the datasets were accessible, contained data about student place of residence, were comparable, and surveyed the entire student body, particularly the full-time undergraduate population which is of interest for this research.

At the time of starting the thesis, the dataset from Eurostudent 3 had already been lodged with the Irish Social Sciences Data Archive (ISSDA), and the dataset for Eurostudent 4 was lodged in 2013. I received the datasets from these surveys in August 2013. The fieldwork for Eurostudent 5 took place in April/May 2013, and the dataset from that survey was lodged with the ISSDA in July 2014 and a copy was received in the same month. The datasets were analysed using SPSS.

Variables available for analysis

The dependent variable for this research is the place of residence for students, i.e. where they live during term-time. Different categorisations of place of residence had been used in the different Eurostudent surveys, and it was necessary to recode some responses. These different categorisations are shown in Table 2.

Eurostudent 3	Eurostudent 4	Eurostudent 5
Question: Where do you live during term time?	*Question: Where do you live during term time (Monday until Friday)?*	*Question: What accommodation do you live in during the study term/semester (Monday until Friday)? Please tick the accommodation that best applies [Single choice]*
With parents/relatives	Parents' house	My parents' property accommodation
	Relative's house	A relative's property accommodation
College residence on/off campus	College residence on/off campus	A student accommodation, i.e. dormitory or halls of residence
Rented house/flat	Rented house/flat	A private landlord's property accommodation
Lodgings/digs	Lodgings/digs	
Own household	Own household (either alone or with partner/family)	A property I fully/jointly own
		A council accommodation
		My partner/spouse's property accommodation
	Other (please specify)	A property not mentioned above

Table 2 - Categorisation of place of residence in Eurostudent Surveys (wording used in surveys)

Most of the major categories remained consistent from year to year. However, the addition of categories, such as "A council accommodation" in ES5, and the removal of other categories, such as "Lodgings/Digs", also in ES5, did create some difficulties. To achieve comparability between the different surveys it was necessary to group different categories together. The decision on which categories to group was based on the analysis of additional questions. For example, in ES4 and ES5 separate questions were asked about age, socio-economic group, and with whom the students were living. The response to these questions allowed a determination of whether, for example, the demographics of students living in council accommodation were more comparable to students living in private rented accommodation, or more like those of students who owned their own home. Similarly, in ES4 and ES5 there was a category of "Other". In the case of ES4 there was an open text box, however, the free text responses were not included in the raw data received. In ES5 this question was asked as "A property not mentioned above". The categories which had to be regrouped and recoded were less than 5% of the respondents. The respondents who listed their place of residence as "Other" could not be recoded and were excluded from the analysis. There were approximately 200 responses in this category, which represents less than 1% of respondents. The newly grouped categories are shown in Table 3.

Eurostudent 3	Eurostudent 4	Eurostudent 5
Question: Where do you live during term time?	*Question: Where do you live during term time (Monday until Friday)?*	*Question: What accommodation do you live in during the study term/semester (Monday until Friday)? Please tick the accommodation that best applies [Single choice]*
With parents/relatives	Parents' house or Relative's house	My parents' property accommodation or A relative's property accommodation
College residence on/off campus	College residence on/off campus	A student accommodation, i.e. dormitory or halls of residence
Rented house/flat or Lodgings/digs	Rented house/flat or Lodgings/digs	A private landlord's property accommodation
Own household	Own household (either alone or with partner/family)	A property I fully/jointly own or My partner/spouse's property or A council accommodation

Table 3 - Regrouped categorisation of place of residence in Eurostudent Surveys

Recoding

Eurostudent 3 - "Lodgings/Digs" is recoded into the same variable as "Rented house/flat"

Eurostudent 4 - "Lodgings/Digs" is recoded into the same variable as "Rented house/flat"

"Relative's house" is recoded into the same variable as "Parent's house" to become known as "Living with Parents/Relatives"

In Eurostudent 4, students who marked "Other (please specify)" had a wide variety of living arrangements. This group could not easily be recoded, so it was decided to exclude the 92 responses in this category from the analysis.

Eurostudent 5 – "A council accommodation" is recoded into a "A property I fully/jointly own" to become known as "Own household"

"My partner/spouse's property accommodation" is recoded into a "A property I fully/jointly own" to become known as "Own household"

"A relative's property accommodation" is recoded into the same variable as "My parents' property accommodation" to become known as "Living with Parents/Relatives"

In Eurostudent 5, the 103 students who marked "A property not mentioned above" had a wide variety of living arrangements. This group could not easily be recoded, so it was decided to exclude the 103 responses in this category from the analysis.

Independent variables

In Table 4 below the independent variables as measured in the Eurostudent surveys are listed. They have been split into seven sections aligned with the research questions: demographics; socio-economic indicators; income and expenditure; student engagement; satisfaction; expectations; health and well-being.

The research questions were developed by considering the independent variables that were available for analysis through the lense of the theoretical model identified in the previous chapter, Astin's I-E-O model.
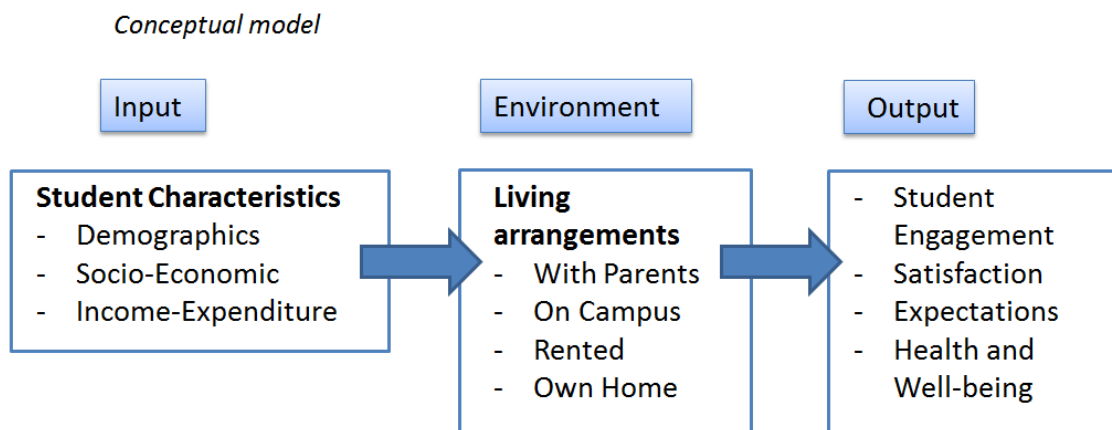
Conceptual model

Based on Astin's Input-Environment – Output Model (1993)

Figure 6 - Conceptual model for thesis

Category	Variable	Type of variable	ES3	ES4	ES5	Comment
Demographics	**Age**	Continuous variable	✓	✓	✓	
	Gender	Dichotomous [Male/Female]	✓	✓	✓	
	NFQ level	Categorical variable: Level 8, Level 7, Level 6	✓	✓	✓	
	Entry route to college	Categorical variable: Leaving Cert, International equivalent of Leaving Cert, As a mature student (23 plus), FETAC Level 5 or 6 Award, Higher Education Access/Foundation programme, Other (please specify)	✓	✓	✓	ES3 does not have option of "International equivalent of Leaving Cert"
	Year of study	Categorical variable: 1st yr, 2nd yr, 3rd yr, 4th yr, 5th yr, 6th yr+	X	✓	✓	Data for year of study are not available in ES3
	College	Categorical variable: up to 55 HEIs listed	✓	✓	✓	55 options in ES3; 31 options in ES4 and ES5
	Type of institution	Categorical variable: University, IoT, Other	✓	✓	✓	
	Programme of study	Categorical variable: Education, Engineering/Manufacturing & Construction, Humanities & Arts, Agriculture/Veterinary, Social Science, Health/Welfare, Business, Sport, Law, Catering, Science, Services, Maths/Computing/Computer Science, Other (please specify)	✓	✓	✓	ES3 uses slightly different categories.
	International Student	Dichotomous [Yes/No]	✓	✓	✓	International defined as "family home is located outside Ireland"
	Distance of family home from college	Continuous variable (km)	✓	✓	✓	If family home is in Ireland or Northern Ireland
	Leaving	Continuous variable	✓	X	X	Only asked in

	certificate Points					one module of ES3, answered by 1 in 6 of survey sample.
	Disability	Categorical variable: Chronic illness, Psychological condition, Specific learning difficulty (e.g. dyslexia), Blindness / deafness / severe vision or hearing impairment, Physical disability, Other health problems, None	✓	✓	✓	In some cases categories had insufficient samples sizes for analysis.
	Living with children	Dichotomous variable	X	X	✓	

Table 4 - Independent variables analysed in the Demographics domain

Category	Variable	Type of variable	ES3	ES4	ES5	Comment
Socio-economic indicators	Father's educational attainment	Categorical variable: 11 options aligned with NFQ levels	✓	✓	✓	ES3 used slightly different categorisation
	Mother's educational attainment	Categorical variable: 11 options aligned with NFQ levels	✓	✓	✓	ES3 used slightly different categorisation
	Father's employment status	Categorical variable: Working full-time for pay, Working part-time for pay, Not working, but looking for a job, Student, Home duties, Retired, Other, Do not know, Deceased	✓	✓	✓	ES3 used slightly different categorisation
	Mother's employment status	Categorical variable: Working full-time for pay, Working part-time for pay, Not working, but looking for a job, Student, Home duties, Retired, Other, Do not know, Deceased	✓	✓	✓	ES3 used slightly different categorisation
	Father's profession	Categorical variable: Legislators, senior officials and managers, Professionals, Technicians and associate professionals, Clerks, Service workers/sales workers, Skilled agricultural and fishery workers, Craft and related trades workers, Plant and machine operators and assemblers, Elementary occupations/domestic and related helpers, Armed forces/military, Do not know	✓	✓	✓	
	Mother's profession	Categorical variable: Legislators, senior officials and managers, Professionals, Technicians and associate professionals, Clerks, Service workers/sales workers, Skilled agricultural and fishery workers, Craft and related trades workers, Plant and machine operators and	✓	✓	✓	

			ES3	ES4	ES5	
		assemblers, Elementary occupations/domestic and related helpers, Armed forces/military, Do not know				
	Social standing	Categorical variable: Scale of 1 to 10. High social standing (1) to low social standing (10)	X	✓	✓	Question not asked in ES3
	Household income	Continuous variable	✓	✓	✓	Only asked in one module of ES3, answered by 1 in 6 of survey sample.

Table 5 - Independent variables analysed in the Socio-Economic Indicator domain

Category	Variable	Type of variable	ES3	ES4	ES5	Comment
Income and expenditure	**Average monthly income from specified sources**	Continuous variables	✓	✓	✓	ES3, ES4 and ES5 use slightly different categories for income sources.
	Average monthly expenditure (paid by self) on specific items	Continuous variable	✓	✓	✓	ES3, ES4 and ES5 use slightly different categories for expenditure.
	Average monthly expenditure (paid by others) on specific items	Continuous variable	✓	✓	✓	ES3, ES4 and ES5 use slightly different categories for expenditure.
	Have sufficient funding to cover costs	Categorical variable: Scale of 1 to 5. Strongly agree (1) to Strongly disagree (5)	X	✓	✓	

Table 6 - Independent variables analysed in the Income and Expenditure domain

Category	Variable	Type of variable	ES3	ES4	ES5	Comment
Engagement with college	**Taught studies**	Continuous variable [Hours per week]	✓	✓	✓	
	Personal study	Continuous variable [Hours per week]	✓	✓	✓	
	College activities	Continuous variable [Hours per week]	✓	✓	X	Not asked in ES5
	Commuting	Continuous variable [Hours per week]	X	✓	✓	Extrapolated from answer time to travel to college
	Part-time work	Continuous variable [Hours per week]	✓	✓	✓	ES3 and ES4 use time diary. ES5 asks for hours per week.
	How important are your studies compared to other activities for you?	Categorical variable: More important, equally important, less important	X	✓	✓	
	Paid work	Categorical: Regular, Occasional, None	✓	✓	✓	
	Does paid work impact on academic studies	Dichotomous [Yes/No]	✓	✓	✓	
	Work related to academic programme	Dichotomous variable [Yes/No]	✓	✓	✓	
	Paid work – summer term	Dichotomous [Yes/No]	X	✓	✓	

Table 7 - Independent variables analysed in the Engagement domain

Category	Variable	Type of variable	ES3	ES4	ES5	Comment
Satisfaction	Accommodation	Categorical variable: Scale of 1 to 5. Very satisfied (1) to Very dissatisfied (5)	✓	✓	✓	
	College	Categorical variable: Scale of 1 to 5. Very satisfied (1) to Very dissatisfied (5)	✓	✓	✓	
	Studies	Categorical variable: Scale of 1 to 5. Very satisfied (1) to Very dissatisfied (5)	✓	✓	✓	
	Friendships	Categorical variable: Scale of 1 to 5. Very satisfied (1) to Very dissatisfied (5)	✓	✓	✓	
	Relationships	Categorical variable: Scale of 1 to 5. Very satisfied (1) to Very dissatisfied (5)	✓	X	X	
	Financial well-being	Categorical variable: Scale of 1 to 5. Very satisfied (1) to Very dissatisfied (5)	✓	✓	✓	
	Workload	Categorical variable: Scale of 1 to 5. Very satisfied (1) to Very dissatisfied (5)	✓	✓	✓	
	Whole life	Categorical variable: Scale of 0 to 10. Extremely dissatisfied (0) to Extremely satisfied (10)	✓	X	X	

Table 8 - Independent variables analysed in the Satisfaction domain

Category	Variable	Type of variable	ES3	ES4	ES5	Comment
Health and well-being	**Smoking**	Categorical variable: Regularly, Occasionally, No	✓	✓	✓	
	Alcohol consumption – units of alcohol per week	Continuous variable	X	✓	✓	ES3 asked for monthly expenditure on alcohol
	Frequency of exercise	Categorical variable: Do not exercise to this extent, Once a week, Twice a week, Three times, Four times, Five or more times	X	✓	✓	
	Rate your health	Categorical variable: Scale of 1 to 5. Very good (1) to Very poor (5)	X	✓	✓	Note in ES3 question was asked of 1 in 6 participants. 5 point scale - excellent to poor. Physical and mental health were measured on a different scale
	WHO-5 score	Categorical variable: Scale of 1 to 26. A rating below 13 indicates poor wellbeing	X	✓	✓	

Table 9 - Independent variables analysed in the Health and Well-being domain

Category	Variable	Type of variable	ES3	ES4	ES5	Comment
Expectations	**Intend to work abroad**	Categorical variable: Scale of 1 to 5. Definitely Yes to Definitely No	✓	✓	✓	ES3 had three-point scale.
	Intend to complete further study	Categorical variable with a variety of options	X	✓	✓	
	Prospect of employment	Categorical variable: Scale of 1 to 5. Very good (1) to Very poor (5)	X	X	✓	
	Expected net monthly starting Salary in first job	Continuous variable	✓	X	X	In ES3, question was asked of 1 in 6 participants.
	Expected maximum net monthly income over lifetime.	Continuous variable	✓	X	X	In ES3, question was asked of 1 in 6 participants.

Table 10 - Independent variables analysed in the Expectations domain

Main research questions

The identification of the above variables will allow the study of the following research questions:

1. Do students living in purpose-built student accommodation in Ireland exhibit higher levels of student engagement than students in other living arrangements?

2. Has the provision of student accommodation in Ireland supported the objectives of increasing equity of access to under-represented groups in Irish Higher Education?

Selection of variables for analysis in thesis

As discussed above, the theoretical framework identifies certain categories of variables as Inputs (demographic, socio-economic, and income and expenditure) and outputs (student engagement; satisfaction; expectations; and health and well-being). While the analysis of all these variables may assist in identifying differences between students in different living arrangements, in cases where the examination did not contribute to answering either of the two research questions, it was moved to the

appendices. As a result, the commentary on the analysis of expenditure, expectations, and of health and well-being are attached in the appendices. The relationship of the remaining variables to the research questions is expanded on below.

Utilising Astin's I-E-O model facilitates controlling for pre-college characteristics which may influence student engagement. Demographic and socio-economic variables may influence the level of social or academic engagement by students, and can be directly linked to progression rates. Mooney et al (2010) identified differences in progression based on gender, age, leaving cert points, NFQ level, socio-economic group, and these variables can be analysed in the Eurostudent data. Variables concerning student income were also analysed as they contributed to an understanding of socio-economic positioning. The expenditure variables did not contribute any value to this analysis, so the analysis of these variables is not included in the main body of the text, but included in the appendices. The analysis of socio-economic indicators and variables such as age and presence of a disability also shed light on the supplementary research question: Has the provision of student accommodation supported the objectives of increasing equity of access to under-represented groups in Irish Higher Education?

The four categories of outputs which may be identified from the Eurostudent variables can be categorised as student engagement; satisfaction; expectations; and health and well-being. Student engagement is the primary focus of this thesis. The variables from the Eurostudent survey which are used to identify student engagement are shown above. These variables primarily focus on time spent on educationally purposeful activities, such as taught time, personal study time and other college activities, and are captured by way of a time diary. They can be aligned with specific questions in the Irish Survey of Student Engagement (HEA, 2013b) shown below, and relate to the constructs of ISSE as shown in Table 11 below.

ISSE Construct	Aligned Eurostudent variable
Academic Challenge	Hours spent on personal study
Academic Challenge	Hours spent on taught studies
Enriching educational experiences	Study abroad
Enriching educational experiences	Hours spent in extra-curricular activities
Supportive learning environment	Hours spent in extra-curricular activities
Supportive learning environment	Satisfaction with friendships
Supportive learning environment	Satisfaction with college administration attitude to students
Supportive learning environment	Satisfaction with teaching staff's attitude to students
Overall satisfaction	Satisfaction with studies
Overall satisfaction	Satisfaction with college you attended

Table 11: Aligning Eurostudent variables with ISSE constructs

As can be seen in the table above, the variables associated with expectations and health and well-being do not align directly with the ISSE constructs. As the analysis of these variables is not relevant to the main research questions of this thesis, it is not included in the body of the thesis. However, the analysis may be of value to student affairs professionals in Ireland where issues such as the introduction of smoke-free campuses (Carbery, 2013, O'Regan, 2014); health promoting campuses (HSE, 2011); alcohol abuse; physical activity and obesity among the college population are very topical and relevant.   For this reason, the analysis has been included in the appendices.

Data Analysis

Data Sampling

In all three Eurostudent surveys used in this thesis, the data was collected by way of an on-line survey which was emailed to the institutional e-mail addresses of all full-time students. In order to improve response rates from part-time students, postal questionnaires were also used for ES4 and ES5. The survey was carried out between November and January for ES3 and ES4. In ES5 the survey took place in April/May as another national student survey was being carried out earlier in the year. The response rates for ES3 and ES4 were 8% and 7.5% respectively. The response rate to ES5 was lower at 5%, a

decrease which the authors attributed to the survey being sent out at a busier time of year, and a certain amount of survey fatigue.

Representativeness of data

Each of three featured Eurostudent surveys suffered from a lower response rate from part-time students, which does not affect this thesis as the focus is on full-time undergraduate students. Both ES4 and ES5 noted a higher response rate from female students than was representative of the student population. As the full-time undergraduate population is approximately 140,000 (HEA, 2014), all three surveys achieved a sufficient sample size to achieve a confidence interval of +/- 2%, with a confidence level of 99%. Following the cleaning of the data, the datasets were analysed using SPSS v.22 (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences).

Removing clearly inaccurate responses

Whereas the Eurostudent 4 and Eurostudent 5 data had been cleaned, and clearly untrue or inaccurate responses had been removed, some work had to be done on the Eurostudent 3 data to remove responses which were clearly unreasonable. These mainly occurred in the income and expenditure section, and the distance to college section. So, for example, for the question on distance from family home to college, any responses over 500km were removed, as the island of Ireland is 480km in length. For distance of term-time accommodation, the cut-off point was 150km. In the expenditure section, responses that were clearly inaccurate or frivolous (for example, where a student had entered "1234567" into several different data entry fields for monthly expenditure) were removed. Responses that were also highly unlikely (e.g. any income in excess of €4000 per month) were removed.

Removing part-time and postgraduate students

As the theoretical framework that is being used is primarily focused on full-time undergraduate students, the analysis was carried out on full-time undergraduate students only (i.e. responses from part-time and postgraduate students were removed). The table below shows the impact that this has on the number of respondents available for analysis.

	Total Respondents	Part-time, CPD or Distance Students	Total full-time students	Full-time postgrad diploma, taught masters, PhD, or other postgrad	Total full-time undergraduate respondents
Eurostudent 3	13342	666	12676	1987	10689
Eurostudent 4	13530	1150	12380	2010	10370
Eurostudent 5	10110	874	9236	1272	7964
				Total	**29023**

Table 12 - Number of full-time undergraduates available for data analysis

In all the surveys, the postgraduate students were more likely to be studying in a university, so removing the postgraduate responses had more of an impact on the response numbers from the universities than from the IoT sector.

A comparative analysis of the living and social conditions of part-time and postgraduate students would be an interesting area for future study, but is outside the scope of this research.

Limitations of research

As the approach taken for this thesis is secondary data analysis, I had no input into the framing or wording of survey questions for Eurostudent 3 or Eurostudent 4. I was a member of the steering committee for the Eurostudent 5 project in Ireland, which gave a valuable insight into the operation of the survey. However, this was an oversight role, with limited input into the questions on the survey.

In some cases, as set out above, the format or wording of questions changed over the series of surveys. In one or two cases, valuable questions were left out completely in other years. In those areas, this hindered the possibility of identifying longitudinal trends over the period of the three surveys.

In Eurostudent 4 and 5, "although the profile of respondents was close to the known population profile, survey responses were weighted to reflect the known population parameters of gender and full/part-time status by institution" (Harmon, 2011, p. 7). The manner in which this weighting was applied was unclear, and it was unclear whether Eurostudent 3 had been weighted in a similar manner. The weighting to compensate for under-representation of part-time students does not affect the analysis in this research as only full-time students are considered. In order to maintain a consistency of treatment

across the three surveys, it was decided to use the raw, unweighted data. Comparisons with the final Eurostudent 4 report would indicate that using the unweighted data did not change the results significantly for full-time undergraduate students.

Chapter 5 – Results and Commentary I - Environment

Introduction

As outlined in the previous chapters, this thesis examines the differences in Irish student engagement, social and living conditions based on place of residence. The research is based on secondary data analysis of three national student surveys - Eurostudent III (2007), Eurostudent IV (2010) and Eurostudent V (2014). (These will be referred to as ES3, ES4 and ES5 respectively throughout the document). Generally the field work for the surveys was carried out in the year prior to publication (i.e. 2006, 2009, and 2013). This period coincided with a very significant economic crash in Ireland, which has been covered in the introduction chapter.

The following three chapters will present the results of the data analysis. As the data in the Eurostudent surveys is very rich and wide-ranging, each section will include a brief commentary on the results. This allows the inter-relationship between the results to be explored in more detail while the presentation of the results is available to the reader. The results and commentary will be broken down into three chapters, using the structure for the I-E-O model described in the theoretical frameworks chapter. The Environment section of the results will be presented in this chapter as it provides a useful context and framework for the subsequent analysis of Input and Output characteristics, which will be presented and discussed in the following two chapters. As noted previously, the results and commentary for expenditure, expectations, and health and well-being may be found in the appendices.
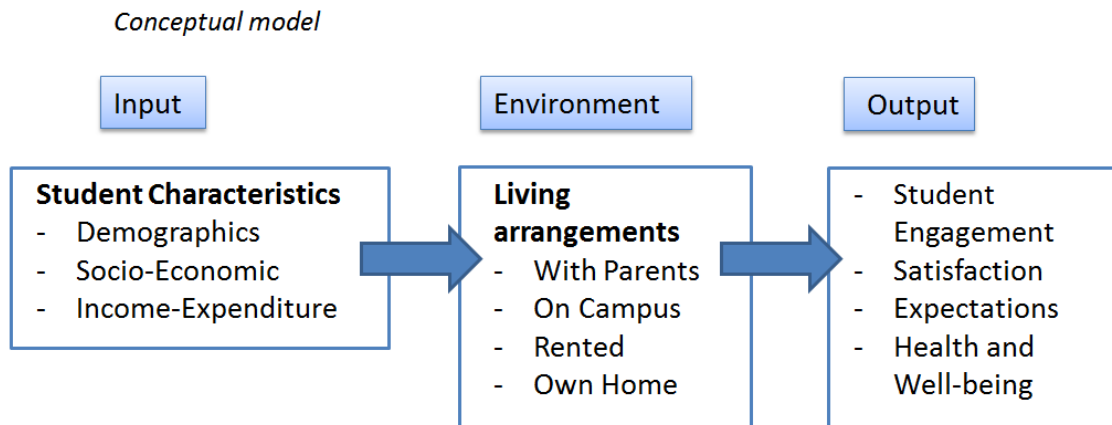
Figure 7 - Conceptual model for thesis

In these three chapters, the data on full-time undergraduate students from the three Eurostudent surveys are analysed, and the most significant characteristics of the four student groupings are described. Each of the independent variables are examined in more detail to look at significant patterns or trends. In the introduction to each section, a short summary is provided of the findings for that section.

This first results and commentary chapter initially presents the key findings of the data analysis. Then the data on Irish students and place of residence from the Eurostudent surveys that have already been published are presented. Finally, this chapter will consider the results of the analysis of full-time undergraduates living arrangements and their commuting patterns.

Summary of key findings

In this section, the key findings from the data analysis will be summarised. Using Astin's Input – Environment – Output model as a framework, the key characteristics of each of the student categories will be highlighted.

Living with parents

Input

Demographics: Students who are living with their parents tend to be younger, with only resident students having a lower mean age. Students are more likely to live with their parents in first year, and the percentage living with parents decreases as students progress through college.

Socio-economic group: Contrary to findings from international research (mainly in the UK and the US), students who live with their parents are not from the lower socio-economic groups. This group of students, along with resident students, consistently ranks the highest in various socio-economic indicators. The fathers of students in this group have the highest level of educational attainment. The parents of students in this category are more likely to be in paid employment than the average student. Students living with their parents are most likely to have a father in a "white collar" profession – legislator, manager or professional. When asked to rank their social standing, students living with their parents rank themselves higher than average, only slightly behind resident students. As reported household income increases, students are significantly more likely to live with their parents. Students whose families are in the lowest income bracket are twice as likely to live in rented accommodation

than live with their parents; and students whose families are in the highest income bracket are twice as likely to live with their parents as live in rented accommodation.

Income and expenditure: Students living with their parents are the least likely to be in receipt of the means-tested higher education grant, and those that receive a grant receive the lowest amount of income from the grant compared to students in different living arrangements. However, they have the highest rate of part-time employment. Over 50% of expenses are paid for by the families of these students.

Output

Student engagement: Students living with their parents spend less time on educationally purposeful activities, i.e. demonstrate less engagement with their studies, than the average student. Fourth year students living with their parents, in particular, spent significantly less time on personal study than the other groups. As mentioned above, students who live with their parents spend more time in part-time employment than other groups. Despite this they are less likely to report that it has a negative impact on their academic performance. This category of student spends more time on college engagement (extra-curricular activities) than those students in private rented accommodation, even though renters generally live closer to college.

Satisfaction: Those students living with their parents were significantly more satisfied with their living arrangements than those in student residences or those in rented accommodation. They were also more satisfied with their financial and material well-being than the average student. This group did, however, register the lowest satisfaction levels with their studies and the college in which they are studying, which is negative for student engagement

Expectations: While students living with their parents had the lowest expectations for starting salary after graduation, they had the highest expectation of what their highest net monthly salary would reach over their career.

Health and well-being: Although this group had the highest expenditure on alcohol, their consumption levels were lower than resident students.

Resident students

Input

Demographics: Resident students are the youngest of the four groupings. Less than 2% of resident students report that they entered college as a mature student. In an analysis of performance in the Irish Leaving Certificate, this category of student had the highest reported Leaving Certificate points. Over 20% of first-year students report that they are resident students, and this proportion nearly halves for subsequent years. Female students are more likely to live in student halls. Less than 1% of students who reported that they had children lived in student residences.

Socio-economic group: As would be expected from research in the US and the UK, resident students rank among the highest in various socio-economic indicators. The mothers of resident students have the highest level of educational attainment. The parents of students in this category are more likely than average to be in paid employment. Resident students are most likely to have a mother in a white collar profession, and more likely than average for their fathers to be in a white collar profession. When asked to rank their social standing, students living in college residences rank themselves higher than students in all other living arrangements.

Income and expenditure: A higher percentage of resident students receive direct financial support from their families than the other groups. Resident students are also most likely to be in receipt of a scholarship. Resident students are less likely than renters or home-owners to be in receipt of a higher education grant. They are the least likely to be in receipt of social welfare, and they are also less likely than average to have part-time employment. Over 50% of expenses are paid for by the families of these students.

Output

Student engagement: Contrary to what one would expect from the international literature on resident students, resident students spend less time engaged in educationally purposeful activities than the average student. A further analysis of input variables found that age and year in college had a significant influence on the amount of time spent on personal study. However, first year resident students still spent significantly lower amounts of time on personal study than first year renters or first year home-owners. First year resident students, and resident students aged 19 or under appear to have lower levels of academic engagement than comparable students in rented accommodation, and are no more engaged than students living with their parents. Resident students who are in fourth year, do

appear to be more academically engaged than fourth year students living with their parents. Resident students who are aged 20 or over spend more time on personal study than equivalent age students who live with their parents or are in rented accommodation. On-campus students spend the most amount of time on college engagement activities, i.e. extra-curricular activities. They are also more likely to have studied abroad, or to plan to study abroad, which is also positive for student engagement.

Satisfaction: Resident students were consistently the category of student that reported the lowest level of satisfaction with their living arrangements. They were however, more satisfied with their financial and material well-being than the average student, and also registered the highest level of satisfaction with their friendships over the three surveys. They were also more satisfied than the average student with their studies and the college they were studying in.

Expectations: Resident students were more likely to plan to work abroad than other groups, and were also more likely to do so as a choice rather than a necessity. They were also most optimistic about their employment prospects after graduation. Resident students had the second highest expectation for both starting salary following graduation, and also for their highest net monthly starting salary over their career.

Health and well-being: Resident students were much more likely to drink alcohol than other groups, and those who drank alcohol, consumed more alcohol than students in other living arrangements. This analysis applied regardless of year in college, i.e. first year resident students drank more alcohol than first year students in other living arrangements. Students living in residence halls were also more likely to exceed safe limits for alcohol consumption on a regular basis, with female resident students in particular being above average in this regard in comparison to the average for the full-time undergraduate student population.

Renters

Input

Demographics: Renters tend to be older than both those living with parents or resident students. Nearly a quarter of renters entered college as a mature student. Living in rented accommodation is less popular for first-year students, with around one in four first-years choosing this option. However, the popularity increases in subsequent years, and renting is the most popular option for students in third and fourth years. International students are more likely to live in private rented accommodation than other options.

Socio-economic group: Renters tend to rank below average in many socio-economic indicators. Renters are less likely than the average to have a father in paid employment, and more likely to have a father who is retired or deceased. As reported household income decreases, students are significantly more likely to live in rented accommodation. Students whose families are in the lowest income bracket are twice as likely to live in rented accommodation than live with their parents; while students in the highest income bracket are twice as likely to live with their parents than live in rented accommodation.

Income and expenditure: Renters are more likely than average to report income from part-time employment. They are also more likely than average to receive funding from the Student Assistance Fund. Students in private rented accommodation are much more likely to report that they are in financial difficulty than the average student.

Output

Student engagement: Renters spend more time on educationally purposeful activities than either resident students or students living with their parents. The length of their commute has a more negative impact on their engagement with college activities than it has on students who live with their parents.

Satisfaction: Those students who lived in rented accommodation had lower satisfaction ratings than average with their living arrangements, their studies and their financial and material well-being.

Expectations: Renters were the most pessimistic about their chances of successfully seeking employment after graduation.

Health and well-being: Students who lived in rented accommodation had a higher percentage of smokers than the average student population.

Home-owners

Input

Demographics: Home-owners are the oldest category of student by a significant amount. Amongst this group, 85% of students report they entered college as mature students.

Socio-economic group: Compared to the other student groups, home-owners score the lowest on the majority of the socio-economic indicators – often significantly lower. The parents of home-owners have the lowest level of educational attainment. Less than 30% of this category report having a father working for pay, and students in this group are significantly more likely to have a father who is retired or deceased.

Income and expenditure: Home-owners are the least likely to have income from part-time employment. However, those that do have employment earn the most income per month from their employment. The students in this group were four times more likely to be in receipt of social welfare than the average student. They are also more likely than average to receive funding from the Student Assistance Fund. Home-owners are much more likely to report that they are in financial difficulty than the average student.

Output

Student engagement: Home-owners spend the most amount of time on educationally purposeful activities compared to the students in different living arrangement. They also spend less than half the amount of time on college engagement activities than other types of students.

Satisfaction: Home-owners were the least satisfied with their financial and material well-being, and their satisfaction deteriorated significantly over the course of the three surveys. However, they were the category that registered the highest satisfaction with both their studies and the college they were studying in, which is positive for student engagement.

Expectations: Home-owners had the highest expectation of the level of their starting salary after graduation, but conversely they had the lowest expectation for the level of their highest net monthly salary over their career.

Health and well-being: Home-owners were the group that were most likely to smoke, although, as with all students, the percentage who smoked dropped significantly over the period of the surveys. This

group were the least likely to drink alcohol, and those who did, consumed less alcohol than drinkers in other groups.

Published data on place of residence

The Eurostudent surveys asked respondents to identify their place of residence during term-time, but very little analysis was carried out based on place of residence. When this analysis was carried out, it was based on the entire student population, including part-time and post-graduate students. As outlined in the theoretical frameworks chapter, the theories on student success and retention have been developed with full-time undergraduate students in mind. On that basis, the data analysis in this study focuses solely on full-time undergraduate respondents.

The original published results from the Eurostudent surveys for place of residence for the total student population are collated below in Table 13. There were slight changes in the living arrangement categories from survey to survey. For example, lodgings/digs did not appear as a category in ES5. As described in the methods and methodology chapter, for the purposes of this analysis, the different categories were consolidated into four consistent categories:

Living with parents – a student who is living with their parents or a relative.

Resident student – a student who is living in on-campus accommodation or student residences within 8km of the campus. Student residences are referred to variously as student halls, purpose-built student accommodation (PBSA), and on-campus accommodation throughout this thesis.

Renters – a student who is living in accommodation (flat / house / apartment / bedsit) rented from a private landlord. This also includes the "digs" category where the house is shared with the landlord.

Home-owners – a student who is living in a house that is owned by them or their partner; this also includes accommodation provided by the council.

Published results from Eurostudent documents					
	ES1	ES2	ES3	ES4	ES5
With Parents / Relatives	34%	33%	36%	35%	33%
Student Residence	4%	7%	17%	11%	11%
Rented house/flat	50%	43%	41%	38%	36%
Own household	11%	17%	6%	15%	18%

Table 13 - Living arrangement for total student population from all Eurostudent surveys.

The Eurostudent reports generally carried an analysis of satisfaction with accommodation based on place of residence; however, apart from that there was little analysis done using place of residence as the dependent variable.

Environment

For this thesis, the primary component of the environment for students is considered to be place of residence. The analysis of living arrangements and commuting patterns for full-time undergraduate students is shown below.

Summary: In Ireland, living with parents is the most common form of living arrangement for full-time undergraduate students. Living in private rented accommodation is the next most popular option.

Students who live with their parents and those who own their own home have the furthest commute to college. Those living with their parents spend the most time commuting - on average 1.5 hours per day. Home-owners are more likely to drive to college than other categories of students.

Living arrangements

If the changes in living arrangements for *full-time undergraduate students* over the period 2006-2013 are considered (see Table 14), several differences can be noted from the analysis of the total student population shown in Table 13. In comparison with the analysis of full-time undergraduate students, the total student population has a higher percentage owning their own home, and living in rented accommodation, and proportionately fewer living with parents, or living in student halls. This is primarily because part-time students and postgraduate students are more likely to live in their own homes or in rented accommodation.

Whereas living in private rented accommodation is the most popular option across the total student population, living with parents is the most popular choice for full-time undergraduate students. Eurostudent 3 was the first of the Eurostudent surveys in which "living with parents" surpassed rented accommodation as the most popular choice for full-time undergraduate students, and this trend has become established over the period of the three surveys. One of the primary reasons for the reduction in the number of renters has been the decrease in digs or lodgings, where a student shares a house with a landlord or a family. Nine percent of all students chose this living arrangement in ES1, but the

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popularity of this arrangement decreased to less than 2% in ES4 and was not given as an option in ES5. It would appear that living in on-campus accommodation has increased at the expense of digs.

The percentage of full-time undergraduate students living in student halls has grown significantly since 2000, but is rarely chosen as an option by part-time students. However, as can be seen in Table 13, the steep increase in the number of students living in student halls observed between ES1 and ES3 has plateaued in ES4 and ES5.

Living arrangements full-time undergraduate students			
	Eurostudent 3	Eurostudent 4	Eurostudent 5
With Parents / Relatives	38.8%	42.2%	40.0%
Student Residence	18.5%	15.5%	16.3%
Rented house/flat	38.5%	36.1%	35.6%
Own household	4.3%	6.2%	8.0%

Table 14 - Living arrangements for full-time undergraduate students
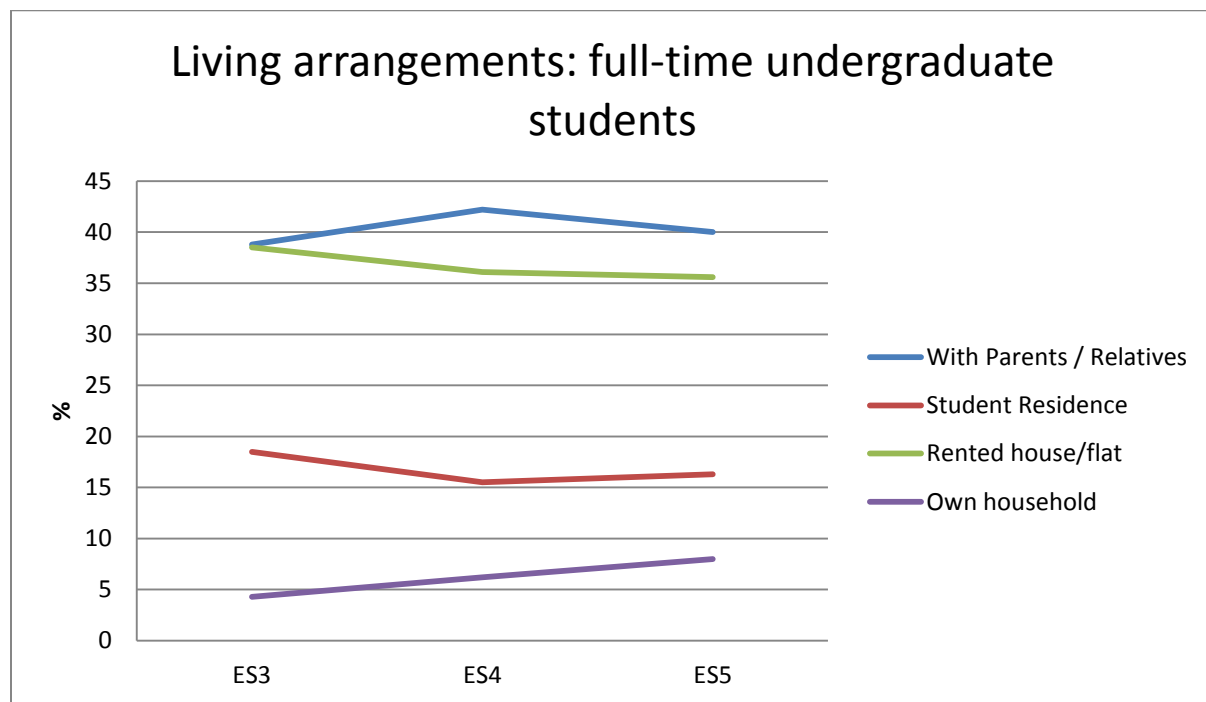
Figure 8 - Living arrangements for full-time undergraduate students

It should be noted that between 2006 (ES3) and 2009 (ES4), the percentage living in Student Residences declined by three percentage points from 18.5% to 15.5%. According to HEA statistics (HEA, 2008b; HEA, 2011), in that period, the number of full-time undergraduates increased by 12%. In actual terms,

the numbers staying in student residences decreased from c. 22,000 to c. 21,000. This would corroborate anecdotal reports that in the period 2009-2011 some colleges were reporting difficulty filling their on-campus accommodation. The numbers staying in in-campus accommodation stabilised in 2013 at 16.3%.

Over the period, the percentage of students living in their own home or a partner's home has doubled. This is reflective of an increase in mature student numbers during the period, but may not be completely explained by this increase. In 2006/7 (HEA, 2008b), 11% of new entrants in the IoT sector and 10% of entrants in the university sector were mature students. Over the period, the percentage of mature student new entrants peaked at 15% across the sector in 2010/11, before dropping back to 13% in 2012/13 (HEA, 2014, p. 29).

Distance from college to family home

The Eurostudent survey asks students whose *family* home is in Ireland or Northern Ireland, how far their home is from their college in kilometres. The pattern of responses in all three surveys is quite consistent and is shown below. There are two groups: students living with parents and home-owners, who have limited flexibility in the location of their house in relation to their college. It is noticeable that, even though there was an increase in the percentage of students in these two groups over the period of the survey, between ES3 and ES4 there was no increase in the distance from their home to college. In fact, the average distance from college to family home for both those in student residences and rented accommodation decreased. It is possible that students were choosing to go to a college closer to home. The pattern for home-owners is similar for ES5, although the commuting distance for those living with parents increases by around 20%. This may indicate that students were choosing to live with their parents and commute further distances than previously.

Family home distance from college during term-time			
	ES3	ES4	ES5
	km	km	km
With Parents / Relatives	21.9	21.6	25.5
Student Residence	135.2	119.1	121.1
Rented house/flat	115.4	103.1	98.2
Own household	46.7	31.0	29.8

Table 15 - Place of residence versus family home distance from college

Distance of family home from college
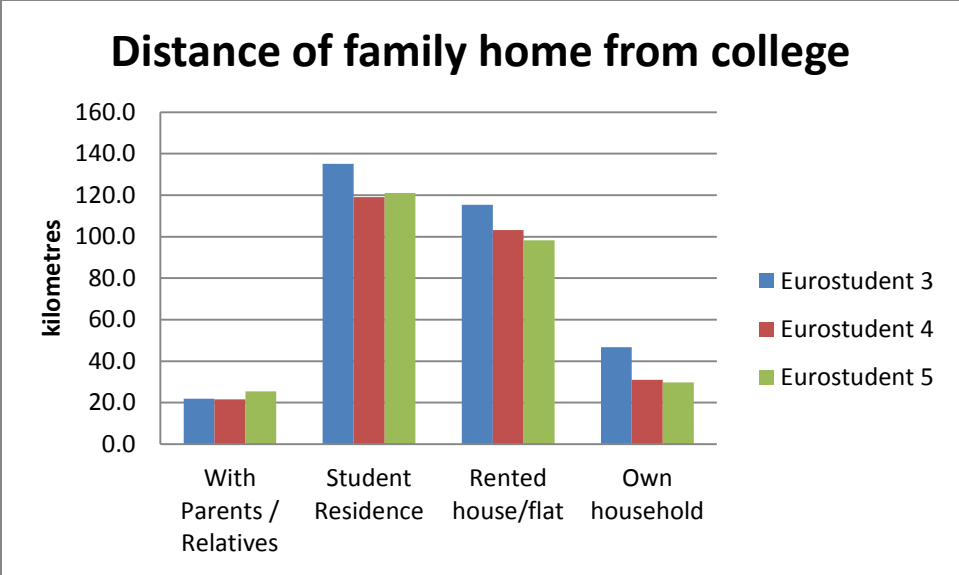
Figure 9 - Place of residence versus distance of family home from college

Distance to college from term-time accommodation

As expected, resident students and renters live much closer to college than the other groups – although the distance for those in PBSA increases significantly in ES5.

Accommodation distance from college during term-time			
	ES3	ES4	ES5
	km	km	km
With Parents / Relatives	17.58	18.84	22.13
Student Residence	2.18	1.86	5.71
Rented house/flat	4.19	5.67	7.45
Own household	21.5	25.02	25.42

Table 16 - Place of residence versus accommodation distance from college during term-time

When we look at the distance of term-time accommodation from college, it would appear that there has been a 40% increase in average distance travelled to college between 2006 and 2013. All categories are living further away from colleges. In particular the distance of student halls from college has increased significantly, and the reason for this is not clear. Students living at home with their parents are travelling 25% further to get to college than they were in 2006, and those in rented accommodation are 44% further away.

Commuting time

This question was not asked in ES3. However in ES4 and in ES5 students were asked how long in minutes it took them to get to college (one way), the results below were obtained:

Commuting time			
	ES3	ES4	ES5
With Parents / Relatives	n/a	43.77	46.14
Student Residence	n/a	11.87	15.44
Rented house/flat	n/a	19.46	21.22
Own household	n/a	39.14	39.95

Table 17 - Place of residence versus commuting time to college

It is surprising that those living with their parents take longer to commute to college than those living in their own home, as the latter have been shown to live further away from college. However, as outlined in the next section, home-owners are more likely to drive than use public transport.

Mode of travel

In data collected by Eurostudent 5 we can explore this more by looking at different modes of travel.

ES5 - Mode of travel						
	Foot	Bike	Car	Motorbike	Public Transport	Other
With Parents / Relatives	13.9%	7.1%	32.0%	0.4%	46.1%	0.5%
Student Residence	55.8%	6.4%	14.5%	0.1%	22.4%	0.7%
Rented house/flat	49.6%	11.8%	18.7%	0.2%	19.3%	0.4%
Own household	10.2%	7.6%	57.6%	0.8%	22.6%	1.3%

Table 18 - ES5 – Place of residence versus mode of travel to college

From this, it is clear that walking is most popular for resident students and renters, the two groups who live closest to college. Renters are more likely to cycle to college than other groups. Public Transport is the most popular option for students who live with their parents, and the car is the most popular option for home-owners.

Chapter 6 – Results and Commentary II - Inputs

Introduction

This chapter analyses and comments on the pre-college characteristics of the different groups – demographics; socio-economic indicators; and income and expenditure. It is important to analyse these Input characteristics as they can have an influence on student retention and progression in higher education. A study by the Higher Education Authority (Mooney, Patterson, O'Connor and Chantler, 2010) on progression in higher education in Ireland found that the following characteristics were positive for progression: higher points in Leaving Certificate; attending a university or teacher-training college; being female; being a mature student in a level 6 or level 7 programme in an institute of technology; being from a socio-economic group with a high rate of entry to higher education; studying in an education or healthcare programme; and being in receipt of a higher education grant, particularly in the institute of technology sector. Characteristics that were negative for progression included: lower points in the Leaving Certificate; attending an institute of technology; studying in an engineering, construction or computer science programme; being male, although this may be more reflective of lower Leaving Certificate points and entering programmes with high drop-out rates; and being a mature student in a level 8 programme. The study also found that first year students were more likely not to progress than students in subsequent years, and students who repeated first year were far more likely not to progress to the next year of their programmes than students who were repeating other years of study.

Demographics

Summary: Female students are over-represented in student residences, and male students slightly over-represented in living with their parents. Over the period of the surveys there was a trend with proportionately more male students than average living in their own home.

Those living in their own homes are significantly older than students in other living arrangements. Those in student residences are the youngest, closely followed by those living with their parents.

First-year students are more likely to live with parents or in student residences, and it would appear that they tend to move into private rented accommodation in subsequent years. The proportion living in their own home remains relatively stable from first year to fourth year.

Home-owners are more likely to be studying on a two or three year programme than other students. Correspondingly, they are more likely to be doing a Level 7 degree than the total student population.

Less than 2% of those in student residences entered college as a mature student. In contrast, nearly a quarter of those in private rented accommodation entered as mature students (ES5), and 85% of those in their own home are mature students.

International students are much more likely to live in private rented accommodation.

Students in the IoT sector are more likely to live with their parents, or to live in their own home than the average. Those in the university sector are more likely to live in student residences than the average.

Students in the greater Dublin area are more likely to live with parents.

Students with disabilities: Students who reported that they were mobility impaired were more likely to live in their own home. Students who reported mental health issues or chronic illness were more likely to live in rented accommodation or their own home, and were correspondingly under-represented in the groups who lived in student halls or with their parents. Students with a disability living in student residences were more likely to say that their disability was an obstacle to their academic studies, and more likely to report that insufficient account was taken of their disability.

Gender

Among the respondents to the surveys, females made up 60.1% of the sample (ES3), 59.2% (ES4), and 63.9% (ES5). Analysis of place of residence data shows that there are some differences between where male and female students choose to live. The ES3 data shows that a higher proportion of female students than male chose to live in college residences (19.2% vs 18.1% of male students), and this pattern is repeated in ES4 (16.7% vs 13.8% male). The difference becomes more significant in ES5 with 18.4% of females choosing to live in student halls compared to 12.7% of males. Females make up 61.5% of the population in college residences in ES3, 63.8% in ES4, and 71.9% in ES5. This imbalance in the population could be due to the fact that Universities have more students living in college residences and the female population in Universities is higher than in IoTs (65% versus 47%).

Similarly, all three surveys show that males are slightly over-represented in the "Living with their parents" category, with that group being 41.1% male in ES3, compared to 39.9% of respondents; 42.3%

of the group in ES4 being male, compared to 40.8% of the respondents; and 37.7% in ES5 compared to 36.1% of respondents to the surveys.

There is an interesting phenomenon evident in the data on home-owners. In ES3, males were slightly under-represented in that category (36.6% compared to an average of 39.9% in the total respondents). That proportion had increased to 41.1% in ES5, compared to an average proportion of males of 36.1%.

Gender						
	Eurostudent 3		Eurostudent 4		Eurostudent 5	
Living Arrangement	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
With Parents / Relatives	41.1%	58.9%	42.3%	57.7%	37.7%	62.3%
Student Residence	38.5%	61.5%	36.2%	63.8%	28.1%	71.9%
Rented house/flat	39.8%	60.2%	41.4%	58.6%	36.7%	63.3%
Own household	36.6%	63.4%	37.8%	62.2%	41.2%	58.8%
Average	*39.9%*	*60.1%*	*40.8%*	*59.2%*	*36.1%*	*63.9%*

Table 19 - Gender versus place of residence.

ES3 - % Gender split
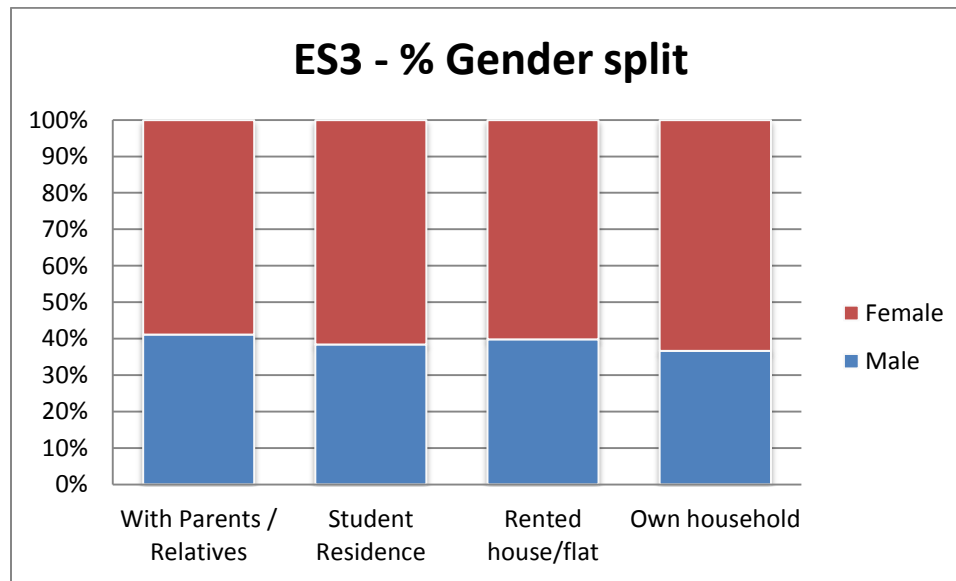
Figure 10 – ES3 - Gender versus place of residence.

ES4 - % Gender split
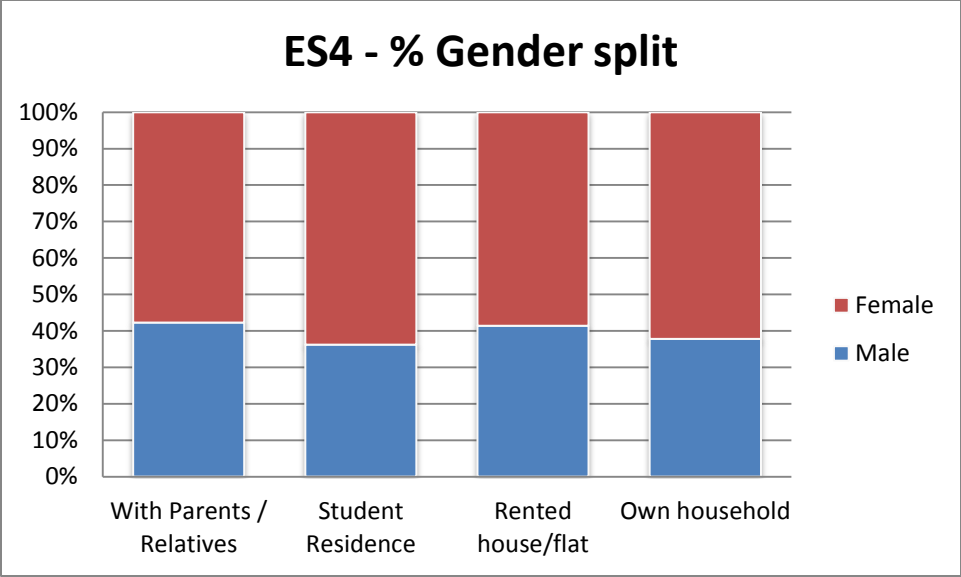
Figure 11 - ES4 - Gender versus place of residence.

ES5 - % Gender split
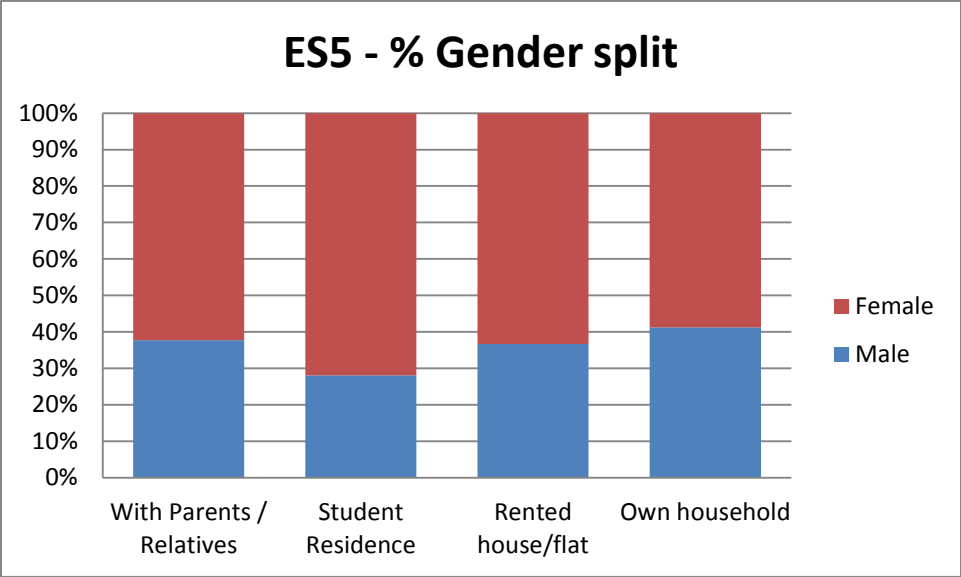
Figure 12 - ES5 - Gender versus place of residence.

It is possible that the increase in the number of males during this period is linked to the recession in Ireland. This disproportionately affected the construction industry, and significant number of unemployed males returned to learning.

Age

The analysis of this variable shows a clear pattern whereby resident students have the lowest average age in all three surveys; those living with their parents are the next youngest; renters are on average 2-3 years older; and home-owners are significantly older. This analysis is supported by later findings that that a significant amount (c. 25%) of renters classify themselves as mature students, and around 85% of home-owners report that they are mature students. The pattern is the same for ES5 as for the other two surveys; however the gap in ages between the four student types has widened, and all groups have a higher average age, possibly reflecting the increase in mature students.

Age versus place of residence			
	ES3	ES4	ES5
Parents/Relatives	20.4	21.0	21.7
College residence	20.1	20.0	20.5
Rented house	21.6	23.0	24.2
Own house	30.4	28.0	39.7

Table 20 - Age versus place of residence
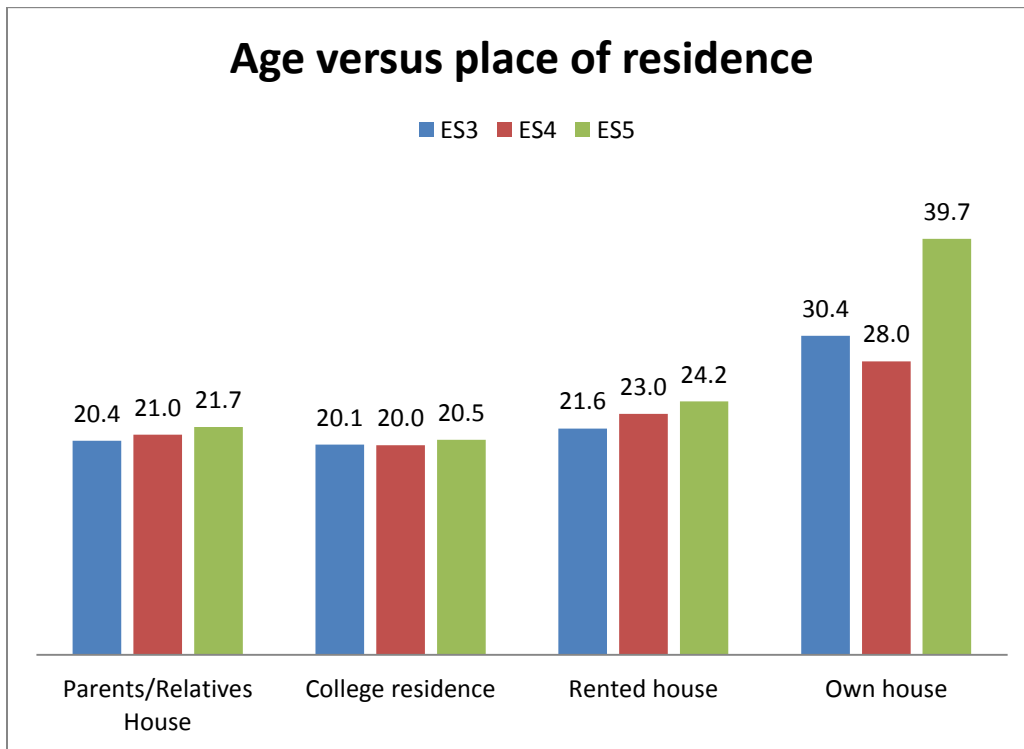
Figure 13 - Age versus place of residence.

To some extent the lower age profile of students living with parents, and of resident students can be explained by 1st and 2nd years tending to favour living with parents and in student halls, as shown in the graph for year of studies versus place of residence below (Figure 14). As students progress through college and grow older, they tend to move towards the increased independence of private rented accommodation.

Year of programme

In ES4, it would appear that significantly more first years answered the survey than other years. This may be partially attributable to courses which are one or two years in length. 36% of students reported that they were in year 1 of their course, compared to 14% who said they were in fourth year. Numbers in year 5 / 6 of a programme were insignificant.

The overall trend seen in ES4 is that living with parents is the most popular option in first year, and this declines slowly over the four years. Living in rented accommodation is the next most popular option, and this increases significantly over the four years, becoming the most popular option for third and fourth years. Around 21% of first years live in student residences, and this decreases to 12-13% in subsequent years.

Year in course	1st	2nd	3rd	4th
With Parents / Relatives	46.10%	43.30%	38.60%	37.40%
Student Residence	20.90%	12.60%	12.70%	12.30%
Rented house/flat	26.70%	37.80%	42.90%	44.60%
Own household	6.40%	6.40%	5.80%	5.70%
% in each year	36.20%	25.60%	23.20%	14.00%

Table 21 – ES4 - Year of study versus place of residence

ES4 - Year of programme versus place of residence
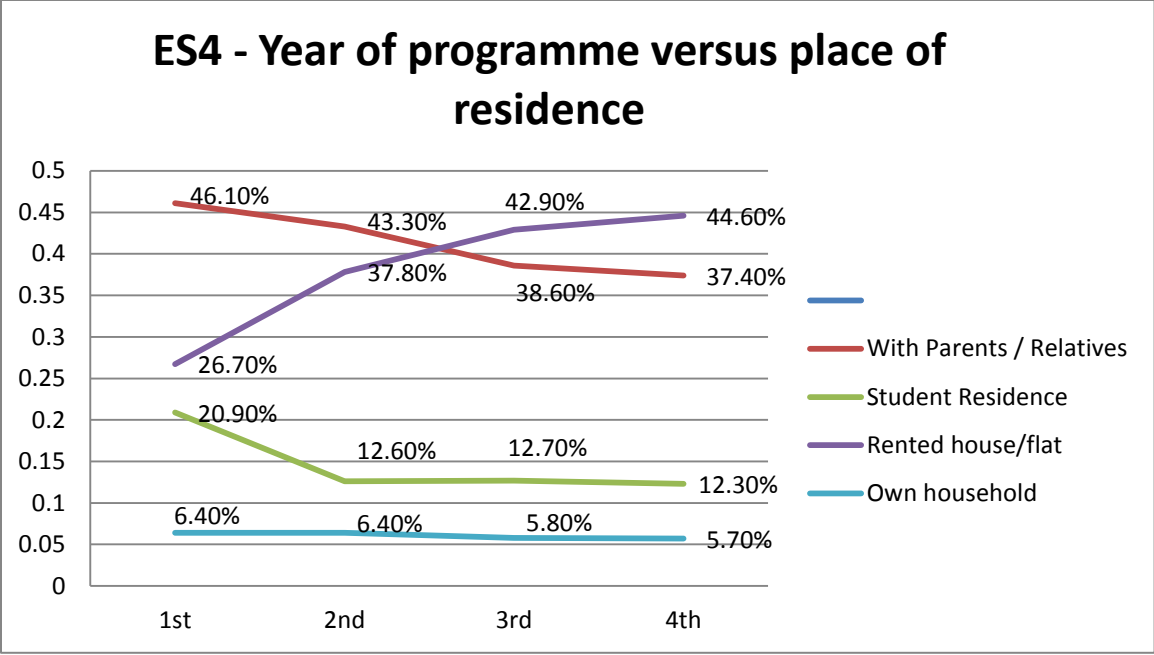
Figure 14 - ES4 – Year of programme versus place of residence

The distribution of years among the respondents in ES5 is similar to ES4. 32.1% of respondents were 1st year students. This percentage decreases over 2nd and 3rd year, and only 13.5% of respondents are in fourth year.

This pattern of accommodation transfer is mirrored in ES5, and is even more pronounced. The proportion of students living in student halls drops from 26% in first year to 10% in the last two years. Once again, living with parents, the most popular option in first year by 20 percentage points, is surpassed by living in rented accommodation in third and fourth year. It noticeable that in ES5 rented accommodation is the third most popular option for first years, unlike ES4 where it was the second most popular. This may be a reflection of the trend since the Eurostudent reports began, whereby private rented accommodation is becoming a less popular option for students.

Eurostudent 5				
Year in course	1st	2nd	3rd	4th
With Parents / Relatives	43.2%	40.7%	36.6%	37.9%
Student Residence	26.5%	13.7%	10.0%	10.6%
Rented house/flat	23.1%	38.7%	44.0%	43.7%
Own household	7.1%	6.9%	9.4%	7.9%
% in each year	32.1%	29.6%	24.1%	13.5%

Table 22 - ES5 - Year of study vs place of residence

83
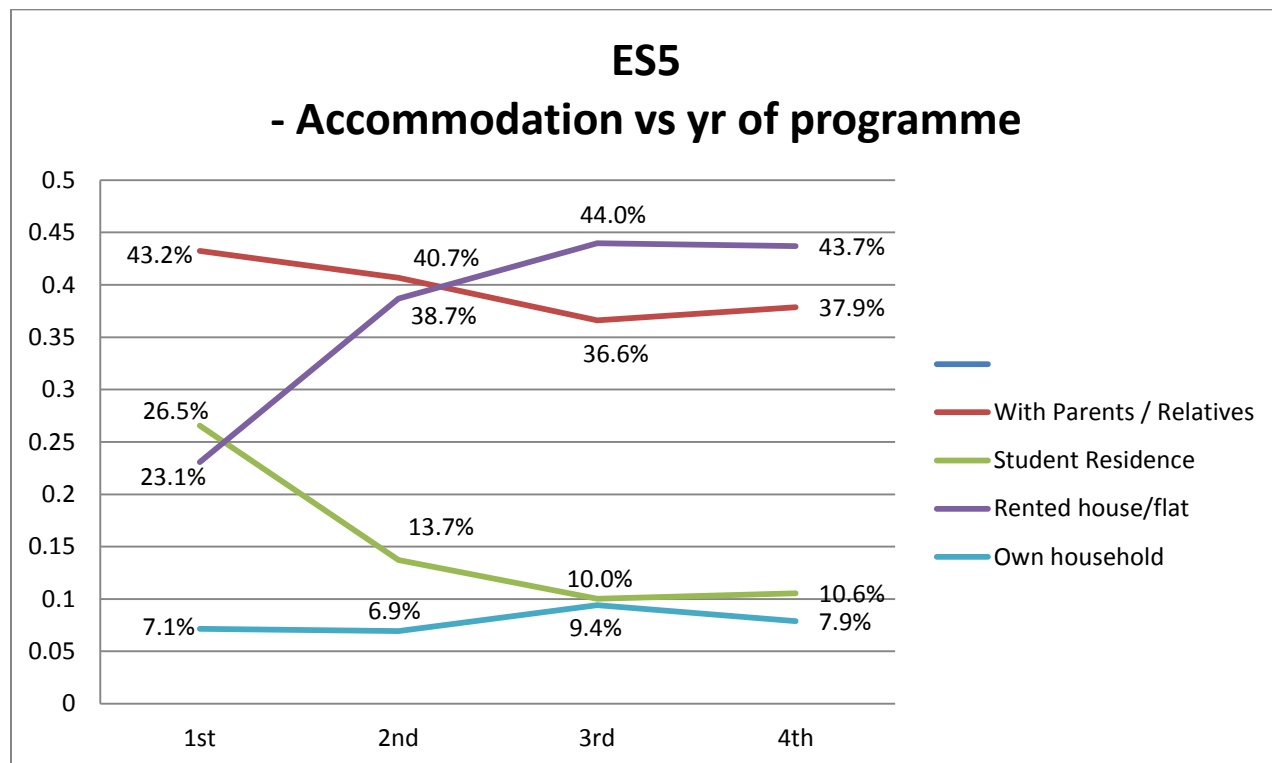
Figure 15 - ES5 - Year of study vs place of residence

Judging by these patterns it would appear likely that students are more likely to live with parents or in student halls in first year, before moving out to rented accommodation in subsequent years.

It should be noted that the data for this section of ES3 are missing. Respondents in ES3 were asked to identify what year of their programme they are in, however the responses were not contained in the dataset received from the ISSDA.

Length of programme / National Framework for Qualifications Level

A comparison of National Framework for Qualifications (NFQ) levels shows that the proportions of respondents on two-year, three-year or four-year programmes in each of ES3, ES4, and ES5 are very similar. Approximately 3.5% are on either one or two-year programmes, which would appear to be very low – the HEA figures for 2012/13 (HEA, 2014) give a figure of 6% for diplomas or certificates, which would generally be one or two year programmes. The vast majority of respondents (90%) are on a three or four year programme.

Students in their own homes are more likely to be in a two or three-year programme than other students. Those living in on-campus accommodation are more likely to be on a four year programme

When we run an analysis for ES3 it can be seen that of those staying in student halls, 79% are doing an honours degree (level 8), 16.6% are doing an ordinary degree (level 7), while only 4.8% are doing level 6 or a diploma.

Unlike ES4 below, there are no significant differences between students based on place of residence. The percentage of ordinary degree and honours degree students who stay in student residences is high at 19.2% and 18.5% respectively. Unexpectedly, the programme type with the highest percentage staying in on-campus accommodation is a diploma - 133 students listed that they were studying a diploma and 31.6% of these were living on-campus. Higher cert (level 6) students are more likely to live with their parents, and less likely to live in student residences. They are also more likely to be home-owners.

In ES4, an analysis of the different living arrangements based on level of study (National Framework of Qualifications), shows that this varies depending on the qualification being pursued. Of the students living in student halls, 89.1% are pursuing a level 8 programme, and 10% are pursuing a level 6 or level 7 qualification. This low number is explained in part by the lower numbers of students doing level 6 / level 7, but possibly also by the fact that fewer institutes of technology have built on-campus accommodation, so the option may not be available to students in those programmes (10.4% of level 6 and 11.5% of level 7 students stay in student halls compared with 16.2% of level 8 students). Students living in their own home are more likely to be doing a level 7 degree; 17.6% of this category is doing a level 7 degree compared with 10.6% of the overall respondents to the survey.

In ES5, the major difference between the groups is that home-owners are more likely to be doing a level 7 programme (26.3% of this group are studying at level 7 compared with 18.6% of the total respondents). They are correspondingly less likely to be studying at level 8 (67.8% vs 77.8%). The other groups were not significantly different from the average.

Programme of study

The analysis of these variables indicated that there was no clear relationship between place of residence and programme of study, as there was no clearly identifiable pattern.

Basis of entry to third level

The phrasing of the question regarding basis of entry to third-level changed over the course of the three surveys, and ES4 and ES5 are more directly comparable. In Ireland, mature students are defined as students who were over 23 on January 1st of the year of entry to college.

In ES3 nearly 50% of home-owners (48.7%), had not entered college on the basis of their Leaving Cert results. The vast majority of students living at home with their parents, or resident students, had entered college via the Leaving Certificate (93-94%). Around 12% of renters had used other entry routes.

ES4 structured the questions differently, and the responses were quite different for those living in their own home. In ES4, 73.8% had entered as a mature student, and only 12.5% of those living in their own home had entered college on the basis of their Leaving Cert points. This is significantly different from ES3 where 48.7% had not entered on the basis of the Leaving Certificate points. To some extent this difference between ES3 and ES4 can be explained by the fact that mature students can enter college on the basis of their Leaving Cert points, so the two responses are not contradictory. Survey results from both years however, indicate that the vast majority of those living in their own home are mature students. Similarly, the figure for those in the rented sector who entered college via routes other than the Leaving Cert is also higher in ES4 (30% vs 12% in ES3).

In ES5 respondents were given several options to indicate how they had entered college. The vast majority had entered via the CAO system (89.1%), which dwarfs the other entry options. The next most popular entry route was direct entry, applying "Directly to the College Admission or Access Office, e.g. TAP", and 8% of respondents indicated that they had accessed via that route. Of the respondents, 2.4% had accessed via the Higher Education Access Route (HEAR, which is aimed at facilitating access to higher education by students from disadvantaged socio-economic groups – 1.7%) and the Disability Access Route to Education (DARE, to support access by students with disabilities - 0.7%).

Home-owners are significantly over-represented in the direct entry route, which is typically used by mature students; 23.5% vs 8% for the total student population. Resident students and those living with their parents are conversely under-represented with just 3.8% and 5.5% respectively entering via this route.

Those entering via HEAR and DARE would appear to be slightly over-represented in student halls, although the sample size is quite low.

Student halls have the highest proportion of students who entered via the CAO at 92.9%, and the equivalent proportion for home-owners is just 74.2%.

ES5 has a separate question, asking if students entered college as a mature student. The question seeks a Yes/No response, in contrast to ES4 which gave six options as a basis for entry to third-level. As a result the figures in ES5 are higher. However it can be seen that the pattern is similar. Over 85% of students living in their own home are mature students, in comparison with student halls where less than 2% of students entered as mature students. It is also noticeable that a significant number of mature students are living in rented accommodation.

Entered college as a mature student		
	ES4	ES5
With Parents / Relatives	4.8%	8.4%
Student Residence	1.3%	1.6%
Rented house/flat	16.1%	24.7%
Own household	73.8%	85.6%
Average for total population	12.5%	19.2%

Table 23 - **Percentage who entered Higher Education as a mature student**

Students with children

In ES5, 8.8% of respondents reported that they had children (n=674). Of those, less than 1% lived in student halls: 59% of students with children lived in their own homes, and 33% lived in rented accommodation. Even more significantly, of students who reported that they lived with their children (n=434), not one respondent reported that they lived in student residences.

This highlights the fact that student residences have been developed with traditional aged students in mind. The design brief for student accommodation that was set out in the property tax relief documentation was unsuitable for students with children. The pricing of student accommodation would also appear to exclude students from lower socio-economic groups, as shown in the analysis of the socio-economic indicators later in this chapter.

Leaving Cert Points

In ES3 one module asked students what score they had achieved in their Leaving Certificate. Among the students who answered this module (N=1882), students living in on-campus accommodation had achieved the highest points, followed by students living with their parents. There was no significant difference between those living with their parents or renters. Home-owners reported the lowest points.

In some colleges, academic scholarship packages can include campus accommodation, and this may influence this question.

Average points achieved in Leaving Cert	
	ES3
With Parents / Relatives	428
Student Residence	456
Rented house/flat	426
Own household	401

Table 24 - ES3 - Leaving cert points versus place of residence

An analysis later in this chapter finds that students in the IoT sector are more likely to stay with parents, or live in their own home. They are much less likely to live in student residences. This affects the analysis above, as over 80% of the students in this sample of resident students are attending a university, which would increase the average leaving certificate points for this category. However, an analysis of the average points level of university students in different living arrangements found that university students living in residence halls also had the highest average leaving cert points in comparison with university students in other living arrangements.

Family home location (International)

The Eurostudent surveys have been considering nationality since the Eurostudent 3 survey, and have defined it by family home location. *"*Therefore students whose family home is located in Ireland are classified as domestic students and students whose family home is located outside Ireland are termed international, regardless of their nationality." (Harmon and Foubert, 2010, p. 28)

If those students whose family home is located outside the country are classified as international students, then in ES3, 6.7% of the full-time undergraduate student population are classified as international, in ES4 this figure is 7.0%. In ES3, 36.5% of international students lived in on-campus accommodation. This figure is much lower in the ES4 survey at 20.4%, and the reasons for the drop over the three year period are unclear. There was more vacant capacity in the rental market off-campus between 2006 and 2009, and this may have given international students more of an opportunity to move to cheaper accommodation off campus. So in ES3, 13.2% of the students living in PBSA are international students, and that reduces to 9.2% in ES4. In ES3, 57.0% of international students live in rented accommodation, and again this figure increases in the ES4 results to 70.7%.

In ES5 only 3.2% of respondent say that they come from outside Ireland (EU or non-EU), which is a significant reduction on previous years. The ES5 report does state that international students are more likely to be studying on part-time or postgraduate programmes than domestic students.

Going by these figures, only 3.9% of students living in student halls are international students, which is a significant reduction from the previous surveys.

It is unexpected that up to 7.7% of international students replied that they were living with a parent or relative. However, the overall pattern is similar over the three surveys. International students are more likely to live in student halls and significantly more likely to live in private rented accommodation than domestic students.

	ES3	ES4	ES5
With Parents / Relatives	3.7%	4.6%	7.7%
Student Residence	36.5%	20.4%	20.2%
Rented house/flat	57.0%	70.7%	65.7%
Own household	2.8%	4.3%	6.5%

Table 25 - International status - place of residence

ES5 also asked students if they were an Irish citizen by birth (77.6%), a naturalised Irish citizen (13.5%), a foreign national resident for 5 years or more in Ireland (5.1%), a foreign national resident for less than 5 years in Ireland (2.3%), or other (1.6%).

It is interesting to look at the different living arrangements of the first four categories of these students.

	Irish citizen through birth	Naturalised Irish citizen	Foreign national resident for 5 years or more in Ireland	Foreign national resident for less than 5 years in Ireland
With Parents / Relatives	41.9%	41.7%	25.5%	8.5%
Student Residence	16.2%	19.0%	8.8%	20.5%
Rented house/flat	33.7%	32.1%	56.3%	68.2%
Own household	8.2%	7.1%	9.5%	2.8%

Table 26 - Citizenship status - place of residence

The living arrangements of naturalised Irish citizens are not significantly different from Irish citizens. Similarly, the students who are categorised as a foreign national resident in Ireland for less than 5 years, have a similar profile to international students in Table 26.

However, the students who are foreign nationals resident for 5 years or more in Ireland, is quite different to Irish citizens – this group is more likely to live in private rented accommodation, and significantly less likely to live in student halls or to live with their parents. They constitute 5% of the respondents. This is a vulnerable group that would warrant more study.

Home county

As might be expected, students who live at home with their parents are more likely to have a family home in Dublin or close to the capital city, which tends to be the focus of major public transport routes. The counties with the highest proportion of students living with their parents are:

	ES3	ES4	ES5
Dublin	82.50%	78.40%	73.00%
Wicklow	52.90%	55.30%	57.60%
Kildare	52.80%	61.10%	57.10%
Meath	42.50%	57.00%	51.50%

Table 27 - Counties with highest % living with parents

Among the respondents to ES3, over a quarter had their family home in Dublin county, and nearly 40% of respondents lived in Dublin or one of the contiguous counties (Wicklow, Meath, Kildare). The figures were slightly lower in ES4 and ES5, with 34% living in the Greater Dublin area.

Conversely, students from other counties were more likely to be resident students or renters.

Location and type of college

The Eurostudent surveys reveal the living arrangements of students in the different Irish HEIs. The percentage of students living at home with their parents varies from 71% to 14%.

In ten HEIs in Ireland, over 50% of the students lived with their parents. Eight of these ten HEIs were in Dublin, and all Dublin colleges had percentages staying with parents that were significantly above the national average.

In contrast, the five colleges with the lowest proportion of students living at home with parents are colleges outside the capital city. In colleges with a low proportion of students living with their parents, students seem to live in private rented accommodation instead, with these colleges having over 50% of students living in rented accommodation. This is well above the national average of 36-38%.

One university records over 35% of students living in on-campus accommodation. This is the closest example to a residential campus that exists in Ireland.

In general it is clear that universities have a higher proportion of students living in college residences compared to the institute of technology sector. To confirm this, in ES4 the dataset was split to analyse the different living arrangements between the IoT sector, and universities / colleges of education. It should be noted that colleges of education were included with universities, as they primarily deliver level 8 programmes at undergraduate level, and also the HEA Landscape of Higher Education document (HEA, 2013a) has set out that most colleges of education will merge with universities over the next few years. National College of Ireland and Royal College of Surgeons in Ireland were also included in the University group, as they were not IoTs. The results are shown in Table 28 below.

	IoT	University / College
With Parents / Relatives	46.7%	39.8%
Student Residence	7.7%	19.8%
Rented house/flat	36.5%	35.9%
Own household	9.0%	4.6%

Table 28 - Place of residence based on attending a university or an IoT

It can be seen that students in the IoT sector are more likely to stay with parents, or live in their own home. They are much less likely to live in student residences.

Possible reasons for the lack of on-campus accommodation in the IoT sector are: as IoTs were generally created to serve a regional population, more students may live within a convenient commuting distance. Universities may have higher proportions of international students, who would require accommodation. Students attending universities may be from a higher socio-economic group, and may be able to afford to rent and rent on-campus, which is more expensive than living at home. Universities have greater financial autonomy than the IoT sector, and this may have facilitated the funding of on-campus student accommodation in universities.

It is also clear from the above analysis that students living in city regions are more likely to live at home, presumably because the public transport links are more frequent and convenient, so the commuting time is lower as a result.

Disability versus place of residence

In ES3 and ES4 around 9% of students reported that they had some form of disability, and in ES5 this went up to 19% (see below). These figures are significantly higher than the percentage that would disclose their disability during the registration process in third-level. In 2012/13, 6.4% of new entrants to higher education reported that they had a disability (HEA, 2014). As noted in ES4:

> One-in-ten students reported to have a disability; this is in line with population figures, where the most recent census indicated 9% of the population have a disability . . . The finding is also in line with the 2006/7 Eurostudent report . . . However, as outlined in that report, caution should be taken with such figures as the data represents student self reports of disability and as a result it is likely that students with milder disabilities will be over-represented compared to students with more serious conditions. (Harmon and Foubert, 2010, p. 19)

In ES5 the question on disability was phrased differently to previous Eurostudent surveys. The Eurostudent 5 report notes that:

> The proportion of students from this survey indicating that they had a **disability, long-standing health problem or functional limitation** is approximately 19% for full-time undergraduates, 19% for part-time undergraduates and 17% for postgraduates. This was a required question from the Central Coordination Team (DZHW) and was not directly comparable with EUROSTUDENT IV (or other sources of statistics on students with disabilities, e.g. CSO and HEA). The question used in EUROSTUDENT V was broader and generally inflated the proportion, i.e. included students with a disability, long-standing health problem or functional limitation. (Harmon and Foubert, 2014, p. 45) (emphasis in original)

Despite the high number self-reporting with a disability, the sample size for students reporting that they have a specific disability is quite small, so the margin of error is larger than for the full survey samples.

Mobility impaired / physical limitation

If the responses to this question are examined, it is first noticeable that ES3 generated a larger positive response, possibly because the question referred to physical limitation rather than physical or mobility impairment.

Mobility impairment							
	With Parents / Relatives	Student Residence	Rented house /flat	Own household	n=		
ES3	39.5%	19.4%	33.9%	7.3%	124	1.40%	(Called physical limitation)
ES4	31.9%	8.3%	31.9%	27.8%	72	0.70%	
ES5	30.6%	11.3%	32.3%	25.8%	62	0.80%	

Table 29 - Place of residence for students reporting a physical limitation

In all three surveys, a higher proportion of home-owners reported having a physical disability than average, i.e. a disproportionate amount of them indicated that they were physically or mobility impaired. In ES4 and ES5 over 25% of the students who reported that they had a physical impairment lived in their own home.

Although on-campus accommodation is more likely to be accessible to mobility-impaired students than private rented accommodation, it does not appear that mobility-impaired students are more likely to live on-campus.

Vision or hearing impaired

Sensory impairment (vision or hearing)							
	With Parents/ Relatives	Student Residence	Rented house /flat	Own household	n=		
ES3	40.2%	21.5%	33.6%	4.7%	107	1.20%	
ES4	29.5%	13.1%	47.5%	9.8%	61	0.60%	(called severe vision or hearing impairment)
ES5	43.2%	14.6%	34.7%	7.5%	213	2.70%	

Table 30 - Place of residence for students reporting a sensory impairment

Students with sensory impairments continue to be under-represented in third level education. In ES3, 1.2% of respondents identified themselves as having a sensory impairment. In ES4 this dropped to 0.6%; however, students were asked if they had a severe vision or hearing impairment, and this may have excluded students with milder impairments. In ES5 the percentage increased to 2.7%.

There seems to be no identifiable pattern to the choice of accommodation made by students with sensory impairment. In ES3 a higher proportion than average of the students with sensory impairments live in college accommodation. In ES4, both rented accommodation and own home are have a higher percentage than average, and in ES5 living with parents has a higher proportion than average.

Specific learning difficulty

Learning disability (ADHD, Dyslexia)						
	With Parents / Relatives	Student Residence	Rented house /flat	Own household	n=	
ES3	37.9%	16.9%	39.3%	5.9%	219	2.50%
ES4	43.9%	13.2%	34.5%	8.4%	296	2.90%
ES5	41.1%	19.3%	31.6%	8.0%	348	4.40%

Table 31 - Place of residence for students reporting a specific learning difficulty

The percentage of students reporting that they had a specific learning difficulty has increased over the period of the survey from 2.5% to 4.4%, which would be representative of the increasing numbers registered with disability services in HEIs also.

In ES3 and ES4, students with SLDs were over-represented among home-owners. In ES5, they were over-represented in on-campus accommodation.

Psychological condition or mental health problem

The proportion of students reporting that they have mental health problem increased from 4.9% in ES3 to 5.7% in ES5. The percentage dropped in ES4 to 2.6%, however in ES4 students were asked if they had a psychological condition, which may have discouraged students who had milder mental health issues.

Mental Health problems							
	With Parents / Relatives	Student Residence	Rented house /flat	Own household	n=		
ES3	40.0%	16.9%	36.7%	6.4%	420	4.90%	
ES4	33.7%	11.2%	45.7%	9.4%	267	2.60%	(called a psychological condition)
ES5	35.5%	13.6%	42.4%	8.5%	448	5.70%	

Table 32 - Place of residence for students reporting a mental health problem

In this case, higher proportions of students living in rented accommodation and living in their own home reported that they had mental health problems. Students in on-campus accommodation and living with parents were reporting at a correspondingly lower rate. This is somewhat surprising, as mental health issues typically peak around 19 years of age (Cannon, Coughlan, Clarke, Harley, and Kelleher, 2013) so one would expect the accommodation with the younger age group to have a higher representation.

Chronic Illness						
	With Parents / Relatives	**Student Residence**	**Rented house /flat**	**Own household**	**n=**	
ES3	39.0%	15.5%	37.2%	8.2%	328	3.80% (called - other including chronic)
ES4	35.1%	11.5%	37.4%	16.0%	131	1.30%
ES5	36.8%	16.1%	34.7%	12.4%	193	2.50%

Table 33 - Place of residence for students reporting a chronic illness

This is one of only two categories (mobility impairment being the other one) where the numbers reporting a disability decreased over the period of the surveys. However, in ES3, chronic illness was included in the "Other" category. In subsequent surveys, there was a separate question for other long-term conditions.

In this category, students living in their own home are over-represented in all three surveys. The development of chronic illness may be a function of age, which would lead to it being over-represented among home-owners who are a significantly older group than students in different living arrangements. Students in PBSA and living with their parents are correspondingly under-represented in this category.

Other long-term conditions

This category was included with chronic illness in ES3.

Other long-standing health problems						
	With Parents / Relatives	**Student Residence**	**Rented house /flat**	**Own household**	**n=**	
ES4	35.7%	11.3%	37.6%	15.4%	364	3.50%
ES5	37.9%	11.8%	36.4%	13.8%	448	5.70%

Table 34 - Place of residence for students reporting other long-term conditions

Again home-owners are over-represented in this category, and those in PBSA are correspondingly under-represented.

Overall for students with disabilities, different choices seem to be made depending on the disability, which may be a function of age or of social standing. In ES5 we can analyse the students who identified

themselves as having at least one of the above disabilities (it was possible to report multiple disabilities). 18.7% of respondents reported that they had a disability. When the students are considered based on living arrangements, 23.2% of those living in their own home reported that they had a disability, which is above average. The group living in PBSA was under-represented, and 16.9% of this group reported they had a disability.

Disability an obstacle to studies

In ES3 students were asked if sufficient account was taken of their disability in relation to their studies. Those students with disabilities who lived in PBSA were more likely to say that insufficient account was taken of their disability (46.8% vs 42.8% average). Those students living in their own home were less likely to say that insufficient account had been taken (39.6% vs 42.8% average).

In ES5, students were asked to what extent their disability was an obstacle to their studies. Again, it was students in PBSA who were most likely to feel that their disability was a significant obstacle to their studies (41.8% vs 36.7% average). Again, those living in their own home were less likely to say it was a big obstacle (29.7% vs 36.7% average). When students were asked to rate the support that they received from public or institutional sources , there was no significant difference between students in different living arrangements.

Socio-economic group

As shown in the literature review chapter, international studies in the UK and the US have identified that students who live at home with their parents are more likely to come from lower socio-economic groups, and more likely to be first-generation college students. The results of this study indicates that the situation is different in Ireland.

Summary: A clear pattern emerges in this section whereby students living with parents and resident students rank the highest in various socio-economic indicators. Those in rented accommodation tend to rank below average for the student population, and home-owners score the lowest on these indicators – sometimes significantly lower.

Students living with their parents and resident students have the highest level of father's educational attainment. Those living in their own home are significantly below average. Mothers of resident students have the highest level educational attainment, and those of home-owners are significantly lower than average.

Resident students and students living with their parents are more likely to have a father working for pay. Renters are less likely to have a father working for pay, and in ES4 and ES5, less than 30% of home-owners had a father working for pay. Both renters and home-owners were more likely to have a father retired or deceased. Those living in student residences are most likely to have a mother in employment, followed by those living with their parents.

Students living with their parents are most likely to have a father in a "white collar" profession – legislator, manager, professional - followed by resident students. When mother's profession is analysed, resident students are most likely to have a mother in a "white collar" profession.

When asked to rank their social standing, resident students rank themselves the highest, marginally higher than those living with their parents.

Those on the lowest annual household income are significantly more likely to live in private rented accommodation. As household income increases, students are significantly more likely to live with their parents.

Father's educational attainment

In ES3, an analysis of the number of full-time students whose fathers have either "leaving certificate and a professional qualification", "third-level diploma/cert" or a "third level degree or higher" shows that the fathers of students living with their parents have the highest level of education, with 47.7% falling into these three categories. Resident students were also higher than average, with 46.7% of their fathers having a third-level qualification, compared to 43.5% of the total student population. The respective rates for other groups were below the reported average: students living in private rented accommodation (38.4%), and students living in their own home (37.2%).

ES4 notes that within the total student population "44% of student's fathers have earned a third-level degree in comparison to 25% of the population of men aged 40-59." (p. 21)

When the population is broken down further, just looking at full-time undergraduate students, the data show that 42.2% of student's fathers had achieved at least a level 6 qualification on the NFQ. When the differences between the populations are considered, it can be seen that for students in college accommodation this rate is significantly higher at 47.2%. The indicator is also above average for those living with their parents at 44.5%. The other two groups are below average, with 40.5% for the rented sector, and those living in their own homes, significantly lower at 24.1%.

These results from ES4 were slightly different from ES3, where students living in the family home with their parents had the highest levels of father's education, but in ES4 students living in PBSA have the highest levels. In ES4, home-owners had significantly lower levels of father's educational attainment than the other groups – with a differential of 18% from the average. The difference was not as significant for ES3.

In ES5, on average 39.0% of full-time undergraduates had fathers who had achieved at least a level 6 qualification on the NFQ. ES5 had the same pattern as ES3, in that students living with their parents had the highest percentage in this measure – 43.9% of fathers were educated to Level 6 or over. Once again, those in their own home were significantly lower at 18.5%.

Fathers education attainment - level 6 or over			
	ES3	ES4	ES5
With Parents / Relatives	47.70%	44.50%	43.9%
Student Residence	46.70%	47.20%	39.0%
Rented house/flat	38.40%	40.50%	36.5%
Own household	37.20%	24.10%	18.5%

Table 35 - Father's educational attainment based on place of residence
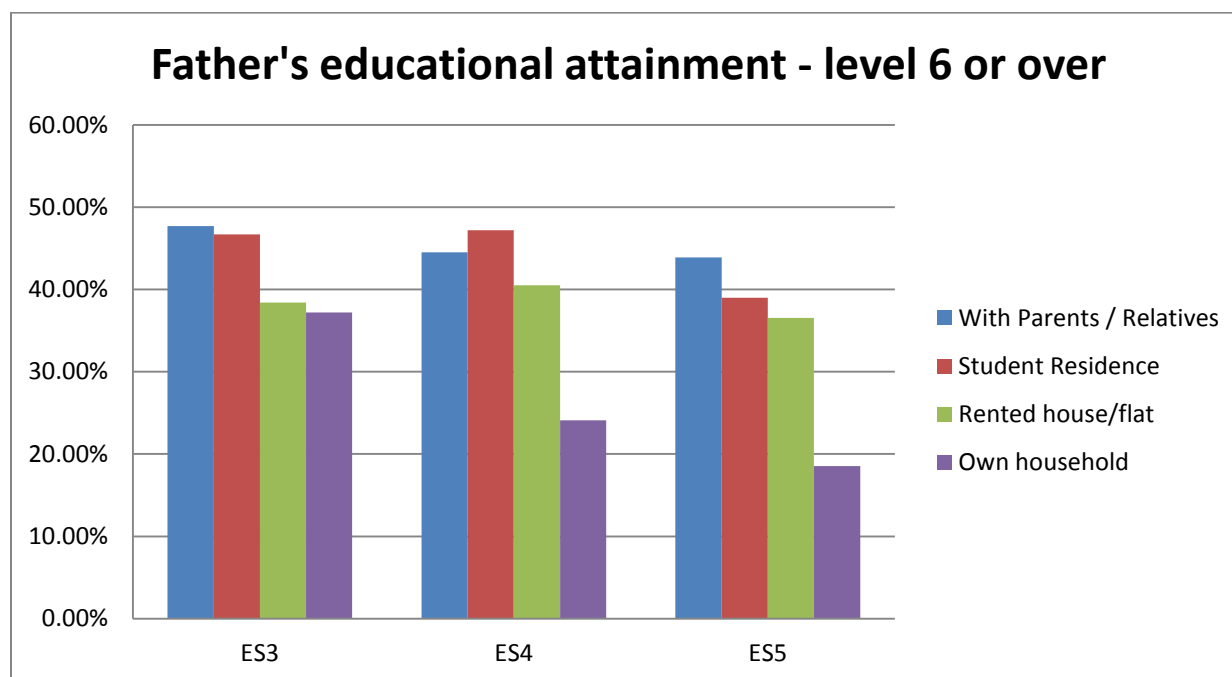
Figure 16 - Father's educational attainment based on place of residence

As can be seen from Figure 16, students living with their parents and living in student residences have the highest level of father's educational attainment. Those living in their own home are significantly below average.

Mother's educational attainment

In ES3, 47.6% of the total student population have mothers who have gained a third-level qualification, or have a Leaving Certificate and a professional qualification. When this is analysed based on place of residence, the figures are as follows:

Living with parents/relatives: 48.7%
On campus: 52.3%
Private rented accommodation: 45.1%
Own home: 38.4%

This is similar to the figures for ES3 father's educational attainment, where students living in their own home had the lowest levels.

In ES4, as with ES3, resident students have the highest level of maternal educational attainment: 47.8% of the population living in student residences having a mother who is educated at Level 6 or above, compared with an average of 41.1% for the total full-time, undergraduate student population. The comparative figures for students living with parents and renters are 40.7% and 42.2% respectively. It is interesting to see that in the ES4 figures, those in the private rented sector score slightly higher in this socio-economic indicator than those living at home with parents. Once again, the figures for home-owners are significantly different, with only 20.7% of this having a mother who attained an education at level 6 or above. The pattern is similar for ES5. The figures are shown in the table below:

Mothers educational attainment - level 6 or over			
	ES3	ES4	ES5
With Parents / Relatives	48.70%	40.70%	44.3%
Student Residence	52.30%	47.80%	46.9%
Rented house/flat	45.10%	42.20%	44.7%
Own household	38.40%	20.70%	19.4%

Table 36 - Mother's educational attainment based on place of residence

In all three surveys, the mothers of resident students have the highest level educational attainment, and those of home-owners are significantly lower. It is notable, in this case, that there is no significant difference between the educational attainment of mothers of renters or students living with their parents.
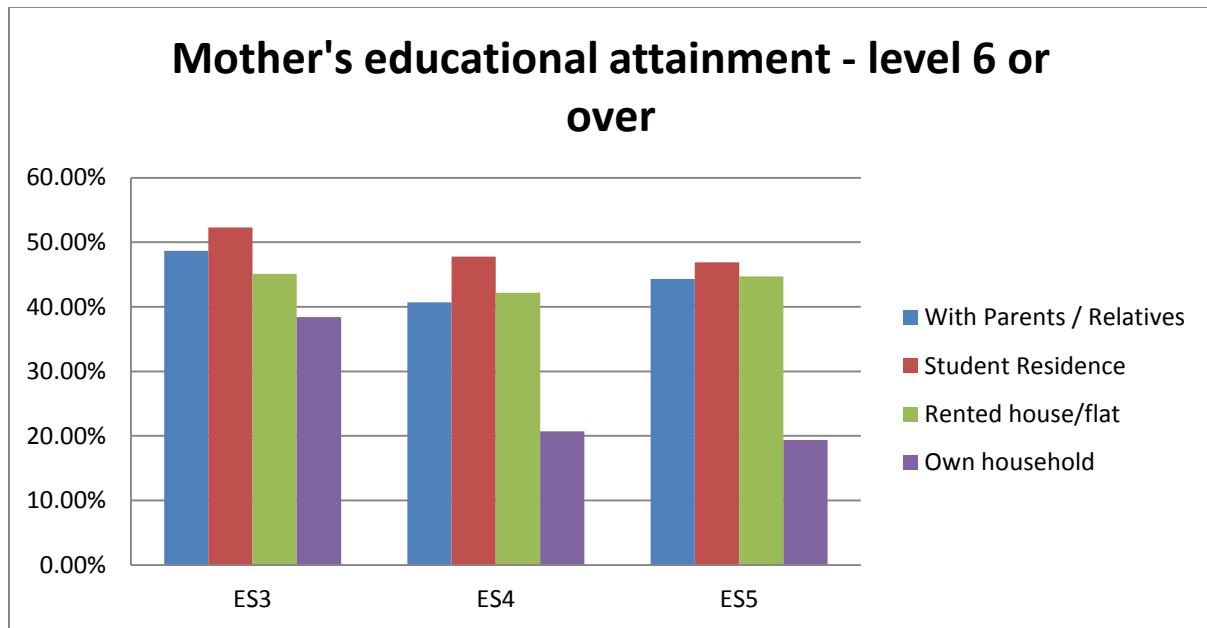
Figure 17 - Mother's educational attainment based on place of residence

Parents' educational attainment

The ES5 data were analysed further to identify first-generation college students, i.e. where neither the father nor mother had been educated at higher certificate level (NFQ Level 6) or over. This identified that 35.2% of the full-time undergraduate students were first-generation college students.

An analysis of the place of residence showed no significant differences in place of residence between first-generation college students and the total student population.

When the ES5 data were analysed to identify students where both parents had been educated to NFQ Level 6 or over, it was found that 45.7% of this group lived with their parents compared to 40.0% for the full-time undergraduate population. Only 2.1% of this group were home-owners, compared to 8.0% of the full-time undergraduate population.

Father's employment status

When an analysis is carried out of the socio-economic indicator of father's employment status it begins to become clear that resident students and those living with their parents tend to have a higher socio-economic status than home-owners or renters.

In ES3, there are three categories that would fall under the umbrella of "Working full time for pay". These are "Self employed with employees (inc farmer)" (16.6%); "Self employed with no employees (inc farmer)" (13.2%); and "Employee" (48.8%). In ES3, across the full-time undergraduate population, 78.6% have fathers that fall into the category of working for pay (although it is not clear whether they are working full-time).

If the employment levels of the different categories are compared, it can be seen that resident students or students who are living with parents are more likely to have fathers who are working for pay.

Living with parents   82.1%

Student Residences   83.9%

Rented accommodation   76.0%

Own Home   46.5%

In ES3, it should be noted that the "self-employed with no employees" category are more likely to stay in rented accommodation also – 45.3% versus and average of 37.7%. Students whose fathers are employees are more likely to live with their parents (46.5% versus 39.4%), and less likely to live in private rented accommodation – 32.8% versus 37.7%. In ES5, the fathers of students living with their parents were also less likely to be self-employed.

Given the wide range of socio-economic groups that employees may fall into, there may not be many valid conclusions that can be drawn from the data for employees. However, if one looks at the category of students whose fathers are unemployed, which constitute 3.4% of the total student population, it can be seen that they are less likely to be living at home with their parents (34.0% vs 39.4%) and more likely to be living in private rented accommodation (46.2% vs 37.7%).

It should be noted that students whose parents were retired or deceased were much more likely to live in their own home, but this is probably a function of age as they are more likely to be mature students. The fathers of 49.8% of home-owners were retired or deceased, compared to 16.6% of the total full-time undergraduate population.

In ES4, the categories were listed slightly differently. In ES4, for the entire full-time undergraduate population, 65.1% of their fathers were "Working full-time for pay". For resident students, this figure rose to 72.9%. It was 71.1% for students living with their parents, but only 61.7% for students living in

private rented accommodation. Note this difference may be a function of age, as the same figure for home-owners is 24.5%. In the case of the students with their own home, as they are an older group, 67.5% of them record that their fathers are retired or are deceased. Similarly the fathers of 20.3% of renters have retired or are deceased, compared with 11.8% and 11.1% for students living with parents and resident students respectively. It is still an indicator of financial well-being however.

ES5 has a similar pattern. Those living with parents and those in student halls have the highest percentage of fathers in employment. ES5 does not break the employment into categories of self-employed, etc. The figures are shown in Table 37. ES4 figures include fathers in part-time work, which averages around 5% for the total population.

Fathers in Employment			
	ES3	ES4	ES5
With Parents / Relatives	82.10%	75.90%	70.4%
Student Residence	83.90%	78.50%	71.6%
Rented house/flat	76.00%	66.70%	58.3%
Own household	46.50%	26.60%	22.2%

Table 37 - Father's employment status based on place of residence
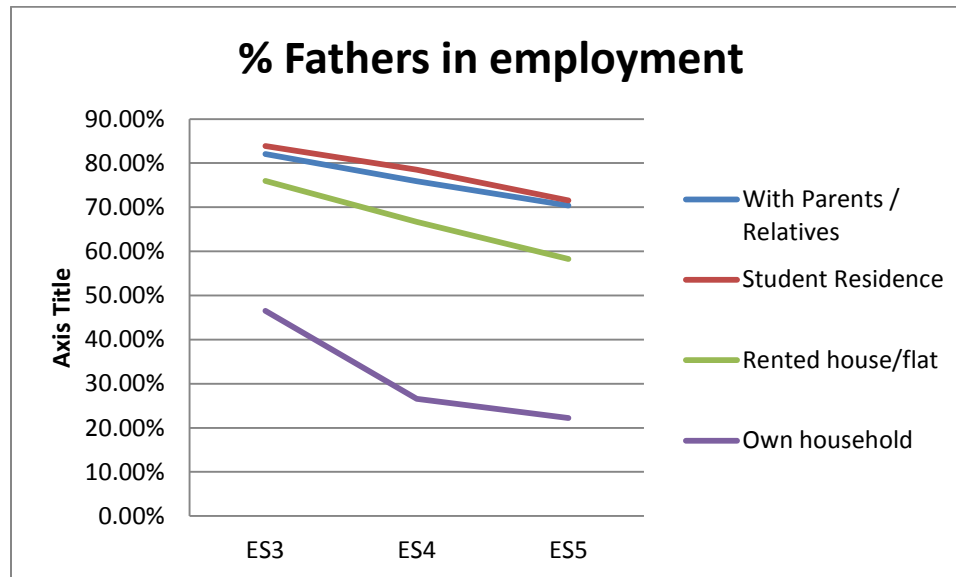
Figure 18 - Father's employment status based on place of residence

As a cross-check of the percentages of students whose fathers are not working but looking for a job, it can be seen that the students in on-campus accommodation have the lowest proportion (of those who are available for work) at 4.5%. It should also be noted that the proportion looking for a job, at 5.7% is an increase from the 3.4% of 2006. It is also noticeable that over the period of the Eurostudent surveys the families of renters and home-owners have been much more affected by unemployment.

Mother's employment status

In ES3, the trends for mother's employment status mirror those for the father's employment status. If one looks at those who are either self-employed or an employee, the following figures arise:

Living with parents   68.2%

Student Residences   71.4%

Rented accommodation   66.0%

Own Home   39.5%

Resident students have the highest rate of mothers in paid employment. Students whose mothers are self-employed, either with employees (25.9%) or without employees (21.5%) are more likely to be in college accommodation than the total student population (18.7%). That choice seems to be made as an alternative to living at home with parents, where the self-employed are under-represented (31.0% and 35.7%) compared to the total student population (39.4%). Students whose mothers are employees tend to mirror the total student population with a slight preference for living with parents or on-campus over the private rented sector. Conversely students whose mothers are unemployed are more likely to be in private rented accommodation than the other two major living options.

In ES4 the differences in figures for mother's employment status are not significant when the "Not working but looking for a job" criterion is considered. However, significantly more mothers of students in college accommodation are working full-time for pay - 45.0% as against 38.0% (living with parents) and 38.2% (private rented). The difference in the private rented sector is explained to some extent by the increased number of students' mothers who are retired or deceased. For those living with their parents proportionately more of their mothers are working part-time for pay or on home duties. For home-owners, the figure for those whose mother is working full-time for pay is significantly lower at 14.5%, but as with father's employment status, this is primarily because a large proportion have mothers who are deceased or retired (54.8% compared with 10.0% for the total student population).

The pattern is very similar for ES5 as for the other two surveys as shown below.

Mother in employment			
	ES3	ES4	ES5
With Parents / Relatives	68.20%	63.20%	62.25%
Student Residence	71.40%	68.40%	65.25%
Rented house/flat	66.00%	59.80%	55.73%
Own household	39.50%	25.20%	22.03%

Table 38 - Mother's employment status based on place of residence
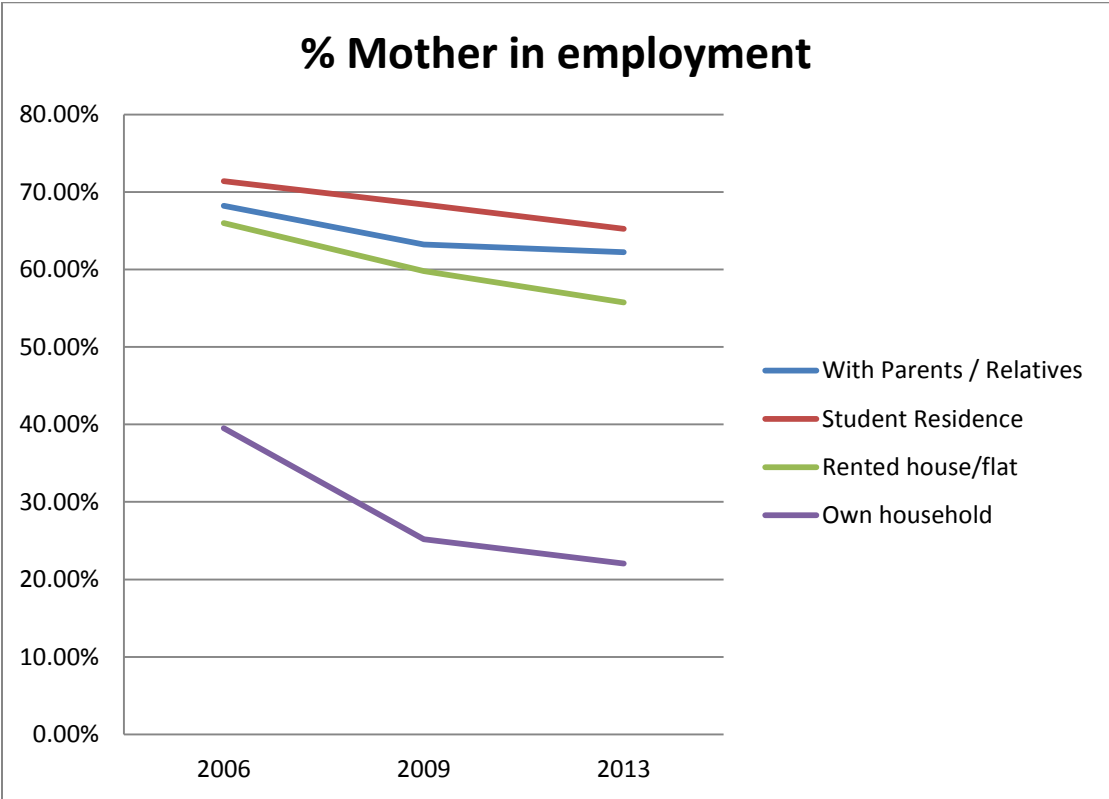
Figure 19 - Mother's employment status based on place of residence

Father's profession

In ES3, 24.4% of students report that their father is in the category senior officials and managers, 24.4% report that they are in the professional category, 1.4% report that their father works in the elementary trades, and 5.4% in the machine operator category. If one examines the difference in living arrangements, it is found that children of senior officials and managers are more likely to live at home with their parents – 48.2% versus 39.3% of the total student population; and less likely to live in private

rented accommodation – 29.1% versus 37.8%. For professionals, their children are similarly more likely to live at home with parents (43.2% versus 39.3%) and less likely to live in private rented accommodation (34.3% versus 37.8%), but the difference is less pronounced than for senior officials and managers.

It is clear from the analysis of ES3 that children of blue collar workers are less likely to live with parents / relatives. This is an interesting finding, as it would appear to be contrary to the research in the US and the UK where students from lower socio-economic groups are more likely to be commuting from home. The four categories – craft worker; plant operator or assembly; elementary / housework; military – have around 31.5-34% living at home with their parents, compared to 39.3% for the total student population. The first three categories are more likely to live in private rented accommodation – 45% versus an average of 37.8%. The children of fathers who work in the military were more likely to live in on-campus accommodation. Very low numbers in the skilled agricultural and fishery worker live at home with their parents (14.7% vs 39.3% average). This category has a higher proportion living in on-campus accommodation (24.6% vs 18.8% average), and a very high proportion living in private rented accommodation (58.1% vs 37.8%). It may be a factor that agricultural and fishery employment is typically in rural locations which may make the option of commuting from home impossible.

In ES4, 17.5% of the parents of full-time undergraduate students are in the category of legislators, senior officials and managers, and 24.3% are reported as being professionals – white collar occupations. By contrast just 2.0% report that their fathers are in the elementary occupations / domestic and related helpers, and just 6.3% plant and machine operators and assemblers. When differences across the living arrangements are analysed, students whose fathers are in elementary occupations / domestic related helpers are more likely to stay in private rented accommodation (43.9% as against an average of 37.9% for the total population), with a connected reduction in numbers staying at home with parents or in college accommodation.

46.7% of those living at home with their parents have a father in white collar occupations - legislators, senior officials and managers or professionals, compared with 41.8% of the total student population. This is contrary to research in the US and the UK which would indicate that commuter students were from lower socio-economic groups. The ratios in student residences are similar to those in the total student population. However, renters are less likely to have a father in a white collar occupation (37.9%), and only 27.3% of home-owners have a father in a white collar occupation.

The proportion of children of legislators, senior officials and managers living at home with their parents is higher than the total student population (51.3% vs 42.2%) with a corresponding decrease in the number who are renters (29.6% as against 36.1%) and home-owners (3.0% vs 5.7%). Children of craft and related trades workers; plant and machine operators and assemblers; elementary occupations/domestic and related helpers, and skilled agricultural or fishery workers are less likely to live at home with their parents. The children of skilled agricultural or fishery workers, as noted in the ES3 analysis, are an unusual group: only 18.8% of these students live at home with their parents, with 25.0% living in college accommodation, and 51.5% living in private rented accommodation. The pattern for this category is repeated in ES5, where only 19.3% of these students live with their parents. In ES5, 26.4% of this category live in student halls, with 50.0% living in private rented accommodation. As noted above, it could be the case that children of skilled agricultural or fishery workers are more likely to come from rural areas, where there may not be a suitable college in commuting distance, which could explain why they are less likely to live at home with their parents.

In ES5 a very similar pattern is found. Those students living with parents have a higher percentage of fathers employed in white collar occupation. (For the purpose of comparing these surveys, this is taken to mean students whose fathers are legislators; senior officials and managers; or professionals). Those living in student residences have the second highest proportion, with renters and home-owners filling the bottom two places.

It is noticeable, over the period of the three Eurostudent surveys, that the percentage of students reporting that their father worked in a white collar occupation declined significantly. In Eurostudent 3 an average of 48.8% of full-time undergraduate students reported that their father had a white collar profession, and this reduced to 34.8% by Eurostudent 5.

White collar			
	ES3	ES4	ES5
With Parents / Relatives	56.60%	46.70%	40.2%
Student Residence	48.30%	42.60%	34.9%
Rented house/flat	40.90%	37.90%	30.7%
Own household	47.60%	27.30%	20.8%
Average	48.80%	41.80%	34.8%

Table 39 - Father's white collar profession based on place of residence

% Father in white collar profession
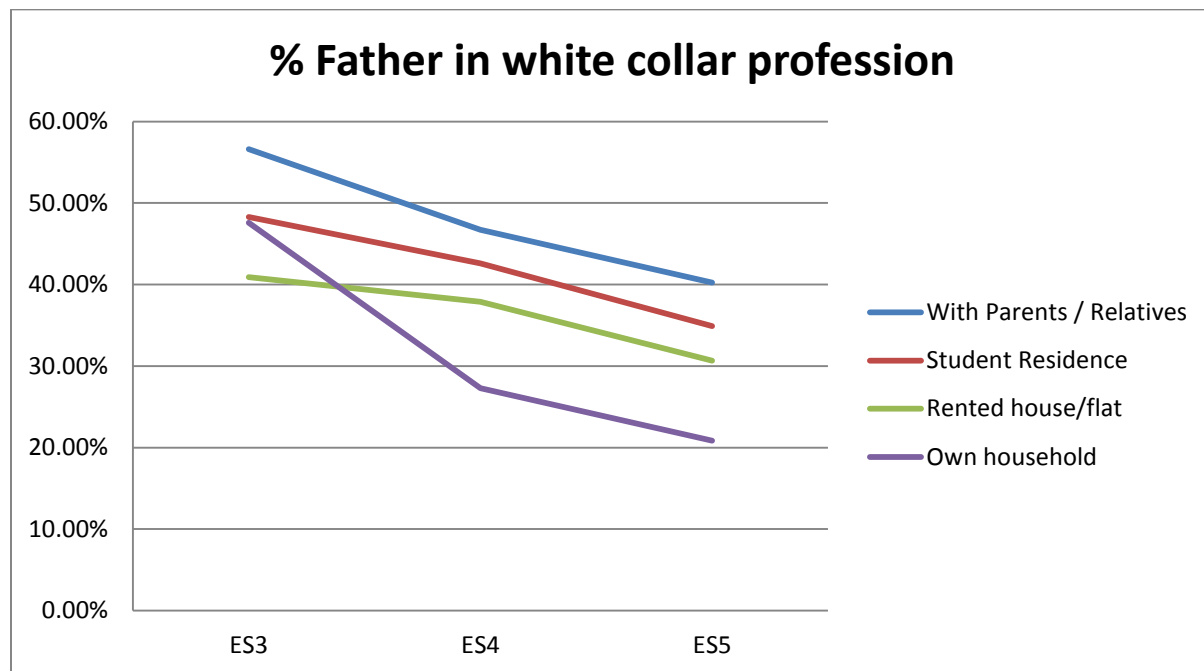
Figure 20 - Father in white collar profession based on place of residence

Mother's profession

For ES3, the differences in living arrangement choices for mother's occupation are not as significant as they were for father's occupation. Again, those whose mothers were senior officials and managers were slightly more likely to live at home with their parents (42.2% vs 39.3%) and less likely to be in private rented accommodation (33.2% vs 37.7%). The children of senior officials and managers and professionals were slightly more likely to live in on-campus accommodation (20.4% and 20.8% respectively) than the total student population (18.8%). Children of mothers who worked in blue collar occupations were more likely to be renters, and less likely to live at home with their parents or in on-campus accommodation. As with the analysis of father's occupation, the children of skilled agricultural or fishery workers are quite different from other categories – with 22.4% and 57.8% living on-campus and renting respectively, and only 16.4% living with parents/relatives.

In ES4, those whose mothers were legislators, senior officials and managers were more likely to live at home with their parents (48.1% vs 41.4%) and less likely to be renters (31.4% vs 36.6%).

Students whose mothers were craft and related trades workers, plant and machine operators and assemblers, or skilled agricultural or fishery workers were more likely to be renters (38-46% vs 36.6%), and less likely to stay at home with their parents (27-31% vs 41.4%).

For home-owners, it is less likely that their mother was in a white collar occupation, and more likely that she was in a blue collar trade. The profile of those in private rented sector would appear to mirror the total student population. Students whose mothers are professionals are slightly over-represented in student residences.

The number of students reporting that their mother was in a white collar occupation decreased significantly between ES4 and ES5, from 39% to 25%.

White collar mothers			
	ES3	ES4	ES5
With Parents / Relatives	40.60%	39.70%	25.7%
Student Residence	43.90%	42.50%	28.5%
Rented house/flat	37.70%	38.80%	25.1%
Own household	33.80%	23.80%	11.6%
Average	39.90%	39.00%	25.0%

Table 40 - Mother's white collar profession based on place of residence

% Mother in white collar profession
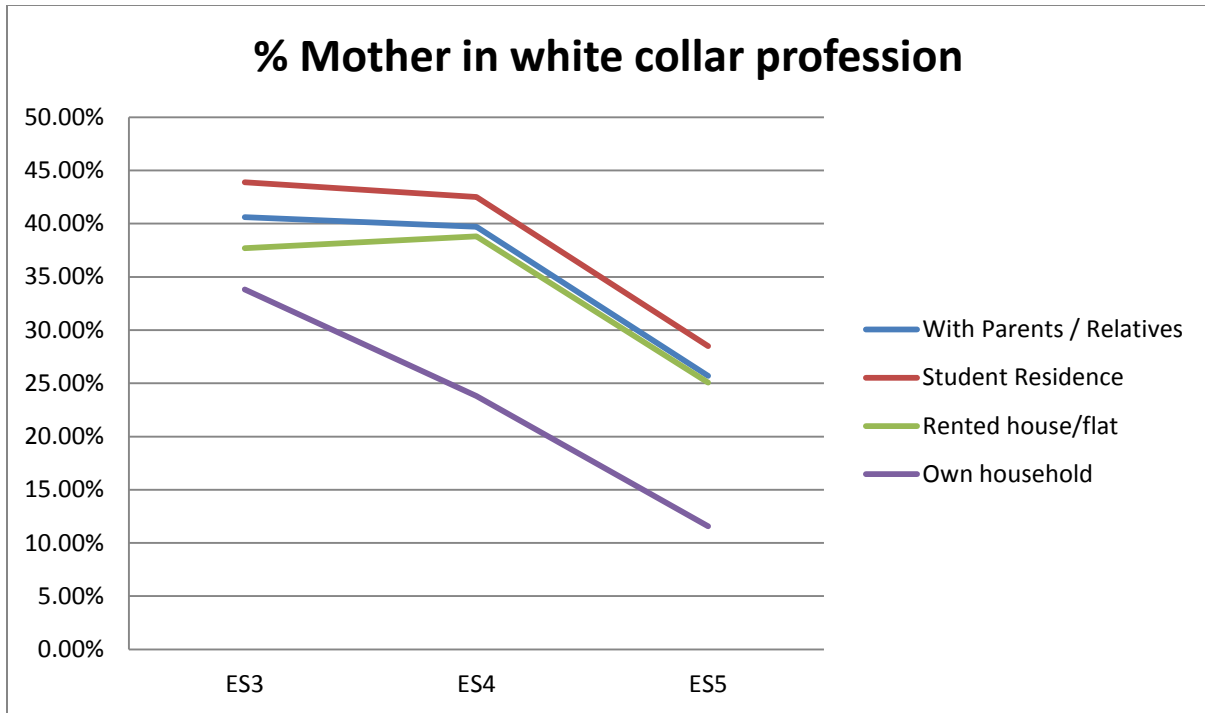
Figure 21 – Mother in white collar profession based on place of residence

Social standing

This assessment was introduced in ES4 and ES5, where students were asked . . .

> to rate their parents' standing on a ten-point scale from low to high social standing. . . The responses were based on the subjective perception of the student who compared their parents' social status to the alleged country social stratification . . . More than four-fifths (81%) of students have placed their parents in the upper half of this scale. (Harmon and Foubert, 2010, p. 23)

In ES4, 81.2% of the full-time undergraduate student population rank themselves as being in the upper half of the social standing scale (with 1 being the highest social standing, and 10 being the lowest standing). When the analysis is restricted to full-time undergraduate students, and analysed as a mean figure on a scale of 1 to 10, it can be seen that resident students are the group that perceive themselves to have the highest social standing. Those living with their parents are next, with home-owners having the lowest perception of their social standing.

In ES5, this question is repeated, and again the scale is 1 to 10, where 1 is high social standing, and 10 is low social standing. The Eurostudent report noted that 58% of students placed themselves in the upper half of the social standing scale – which is significantly lower than ES4 (81%).

Social standing as a mean figure		
	ES4	ES5
With Parents / Relatives	4.16	5.16
Student Residence	4.00	5.12
Rented house/flat	4.33	5.44
Own household	4.76	5.84
Average	4.23	5.30

Table 41 - Social standing based on place of residence

The figures are consistently lower than in 2009, which reflects the results in many other questions on socio-economic indicators throughout the survey. Once again there is a pattern where students living on campus come from the highest social groups, closely followed by those living with their parents. Renters are below average, and home-owners rank themselves the lowest.

The results from the two surveys are shown below – a higher ranking reflects a perception of lower social standing.
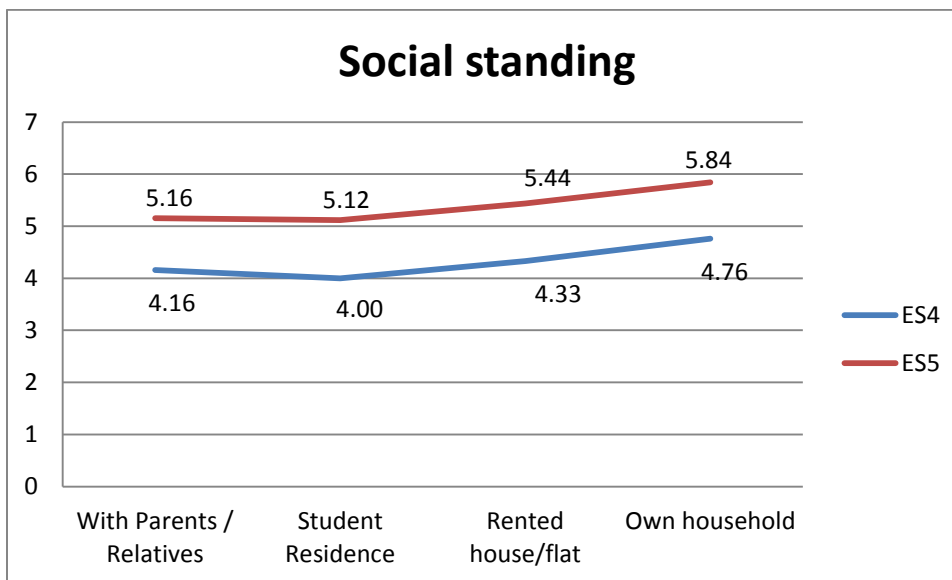
Figure 22 - Social standing based on place of residence (1 is highest social standing)

This analysis can also be viewed in percentage terms. In ES4, if place of residence is analysed to see if there is any significant differences between the groups, it can be seen that 84.6% of students living in on campus accommodation considered themselves to be in the upper half of that scale. The comparable figures for other living arrangements were: living at home with parents (83.2%); private rented accommodation (79.2%); own household (70.5%). So from this, it can be seen that there is a clear difference between the self-perceived social standings of the groups living in different living arrangements. Students living in their own household would tend to be older, and this may influence their answer. It is possible that mature students might answer the question by reflecting on their current family situation, particularly if they have children, which more than likely would result in a lower ranking of social standing. However, the question clearly looks for family background, so this confusion is unlikely to have happened.

The percentage of each group who would view themselves as being in the top half of the social standing is shown below:

Upper half social standing		
	ES4	ES5
With Parents / Relatives	83.20%	63.6%
Student Residence	84.60%	63.5%
Rented house/flat	79.20%	54.9%
Own household	70.50%	40.7%
Average	81.20%	58.7%

Table 42 - Social standing based on place of residence (% in top half of social standing)

% in upper half of social standing
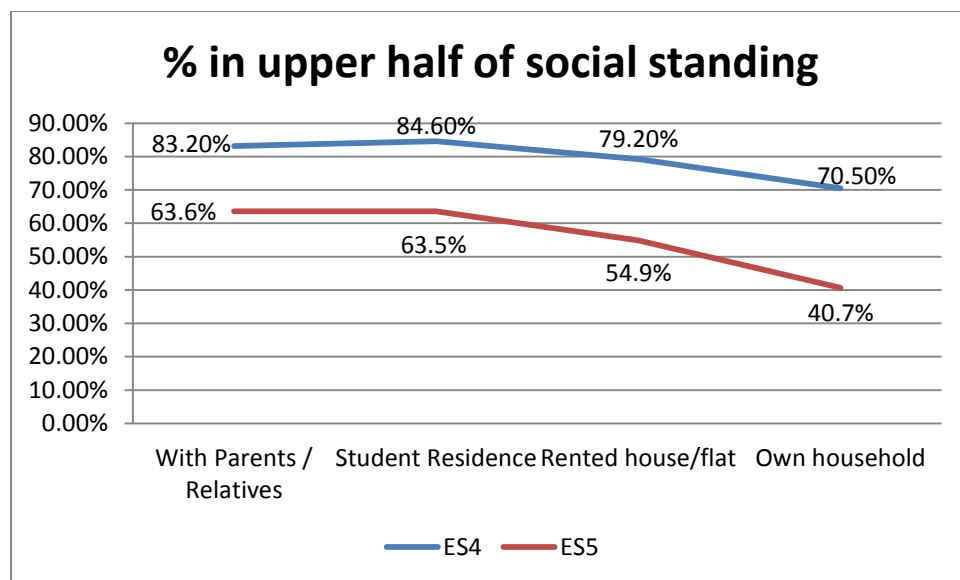
Figure 23 - Social standing based on place of residence (% perceiving themselves to be in upper half)

The differences in self-reported social standing are very significantly different from 2009 to 2013. However, the pattern remains the same with students living with parents and resident students ranking themselves higher than the other two groups.

Annual household income

In the ES3 survey around 25% of respondents were asked to quantify the Net Annual income of their household. The top bracket is a net annual income of €48,000 and over, and 40% of respondents recorded their income in this bracket. It would have been useful if this bracket could have been broken down further, as it was in ES4 and ES5.

	up to €7.2k	€7.2k - €12k	€ 12k - €18k	€18k - €24k	€24k - €30k	€30k - €36k	€36k - €48k	€48k and over	
Parents / Relatives	1.7%	2.2%	4.5%	5.3%	6.8%	12.2%	19.3%	48.0%	100.0%
Student Residence	2.9%	4.3%	5.4%	9.3%	8.2%	9.9%	20.0%	40.0%	100.0%
Rented house/flat	3.5%	5.8%	7.5%	11.3%	11.0%	13.8%	17.1%	30.0%	100.0%
Own household	5.9%	5.0%	5.0%	5.0%	12.6%	11.8%	13.4%	41.2%	100.0%
Average	2.8%	4.1%	5.8%	8.3%	8.9%	12.4%	18.3%	39.3%	100.0%

Table 43 - Living arrangements based on annual family income

Again, this question generates surprising data, as can be seen in the table above. The category of student with the highest annual income is students who live at home with their parents: 48% of these students reported an income above €48,000 per annum. The next highest were home-owners and resident students with 41.2% and 40% respectively reporting their household to be in that bracket. Renters had the lowest percentage in this income bracket (30%). Similarly, only 8.4% of students living with their parents reported an annual income of less than €18k, compared to 16.8% in rented accommodation, and 15.9% of home-owners.

In the table below, the data have been analysed in a different manner, to see how the living arrangements of the different groups change as income levels increase.

	up to €7.2k	€7.2k - €12k	€ 12k - €18k	€18k - €24k	€24k - €30k	€30k - €36k	€36k - €48k	€48k
With Parents / Relatives	23.1%	21.1%	30.1%	24.6%	29.7%	38.3%	40.9%	47.4%
Student Residence	19.2%	19.3%	17.2%	20.7%	16.9%	14.8%	20.2%	18.8%
Rented house/flat	48.7%	54.4%	49.1%	52.2%	47.4%	42.9%	35.8%	29.3%
Own household	9.0%	5.3%	3.7%	2.6%	6.0%	4.1%	3.1%	4.5%

Table 44 – ES3 - Living arrangements based on annual family income

It is noticeable that in ES3 as household income increases there are slight changes in the proportions that live in student residences or in their own home. However, the changes in the other two groups are quite significant. The chart below plots the percentage of students living with their parents and renting against net annual family income. This shows that as family income increases, students are less likely to live in rented accommodation, and more likely to live with their parents.

Living arrangements based on family income

— With Parents / Relatives   — Rented house/flat

48.7% 54.4% 49.1% 52.2% 47.4% 42.9% 40.9% 47.4%

23.1% 21.1% 30.1% 24.6% 29.7% 38.3% 35.8% 29.3%

| 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 |
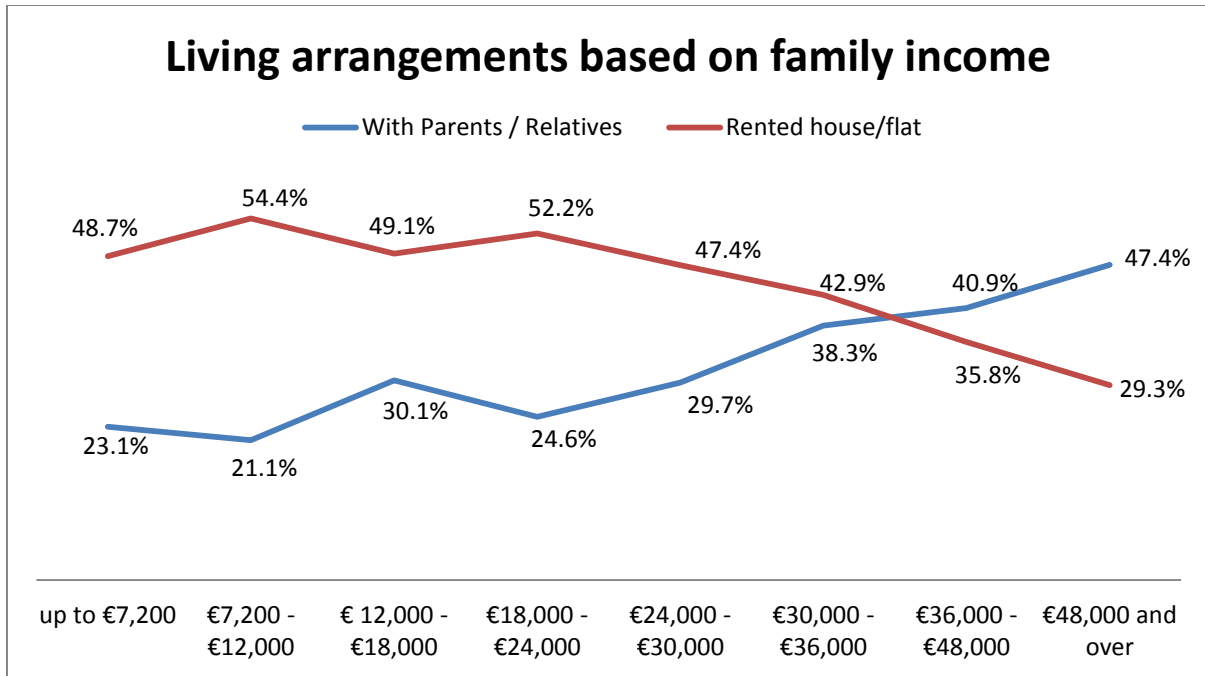
Figure 24 - ES3 – Place of residence versus annual income

In ES4, a similar pattern is displayed. The table below shows the different living arrangements for students based on the net family income. In the results from this survey it is clear that, as family income increases, students are more likely to live with their parents, or live in student residences. Conversely, as family income increases they are less likely to live in rented accommodation or in their own home. This seems counter-intuitive, as it is cheaper to live at home with parents than to pay rent.

	Less than €20k	€20k - €35k	€35k to €70k	€70k to €90k	Greater than €90k
With Parents / Relatives	24.6%	40.4%	47.3%	48.1%	51.5%
Student Residence	10.7%	13.6%	16.2%	19.7%	18.6%
Rented house/flat	53.3%	37.0%	31.4%	28.9%	26.3%
Own household	11.5%	9.0%	5.1%	3.4%	3.6%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table 45 – ES4 - Living arrangements based on annual family income

When these figures are plotted the pattern becomes clearer.

Living arrangements based on family income - ES4
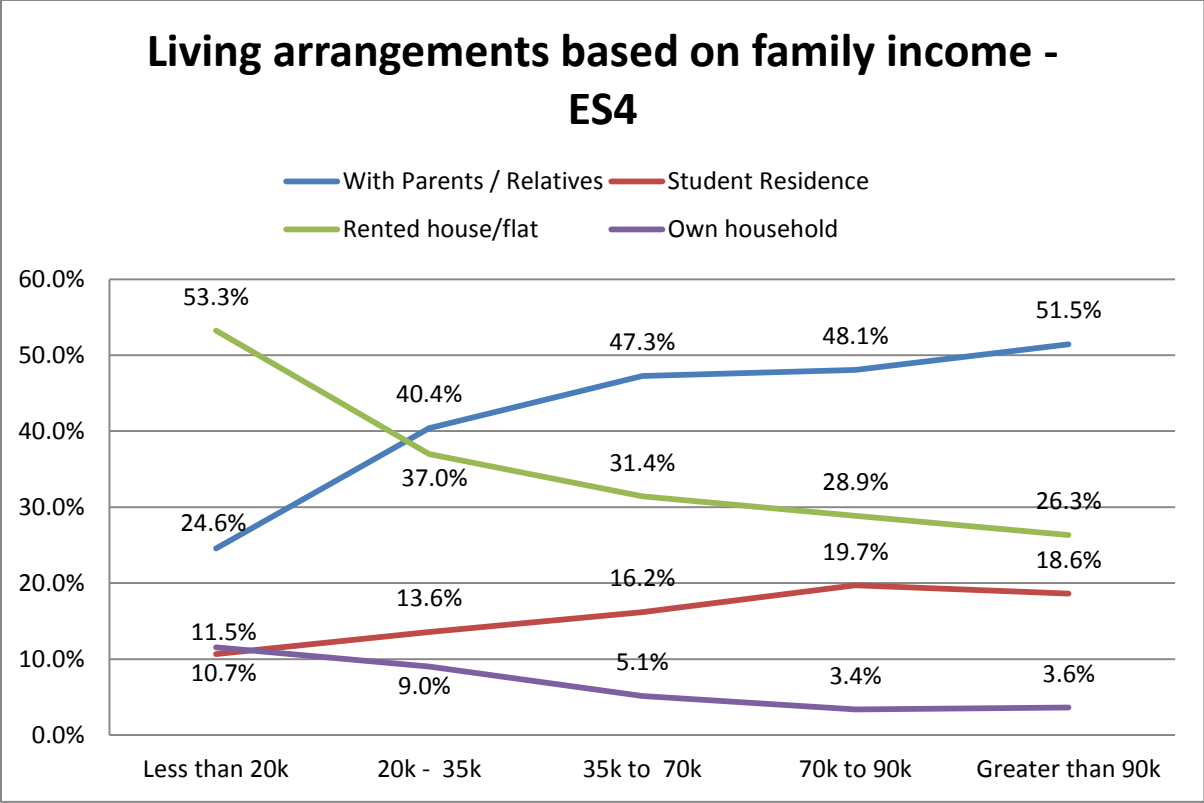
Figure 25 - ES4 – Place of residence versus annual income

For example, in the group that report their family income as below €20,000, only 10.7% are in college accommodation, and 24.6% are living with parents. However 53.3% of this income group are renting, which is over represented compared with an average of 36.2% for the total student population.

The percentage living at home with parents increases until it reaches 51.5% for households with an annual income of over €90,000. Conversely, the percentage of renters decreases as annual household income increases. Living in college accommodation is highest in the income category €70,001 to €90,000 when it reaches 19.7%.

This is a significantly different finding to research in the US and the UK, which found that commuter students were from lower socio-economic groups. This would appear to imply that in Ireland, this may apply to commuter students who live in private rented accommodation or who own their own home. However, commuter students who live with their parents, tend to be from higher socio economic groups.

When the process is repeated for ES5, the same pattern is found, with students with low annual family income favouring private rented accommodation, and this option becoming less popular as family

income increases. Living with parents becomes the favoured option for families with income levels from €35,000 - €50,000. Nearly half of students whose families have income of €90,000 or over are living at home with parents.

The changes for resident students are not as significant; however living in PBSA is the least favourite option for students with a family income of less than €20k. Students with low family incomes are more likely to live in their own home, and 16.1% of students with income below €20k live in their own home.
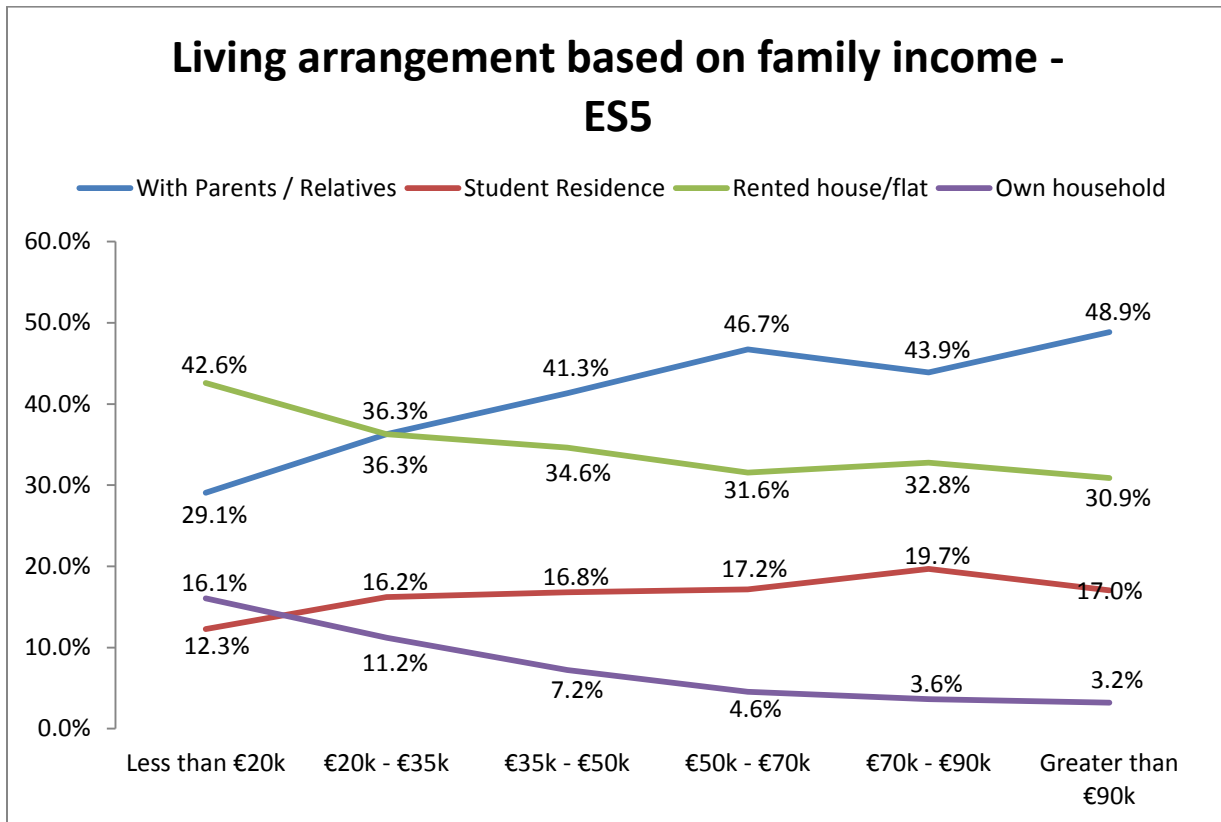
Figure 26 - ES5 – Place of residence versus annual income

Earlier in this chapter it was noted that Dublin had a very high percentage of students living with their parents (73% in Dublin compared to 40% nationally in ES5). As a result, if family incomes were significantly higher in Dublin than outside Dublin, it might have an impact on the above analysis. Further analysis, detailed below, showed that family income for Dublin students was generally higher than average. However, it also showed that living arrangements for students in Dublin demonstrated the

same pattern based on family income as above, i.e. as family income increased, students were less likely to live in rented accommodation, and more likely to live with their parents.

Further analysis of family income based on home county

In ES5, a review of the mean family income for students from different counties in Ireland showed that the mean family income reported for students from Dublin was in the €50,000-€70,000 income bracket, and Dublin had the highest percentage of students reporting that their family was in that bracket or above. On average across the country 38% of students reported a family income above €50,000, however 49% of students from Dublin reported that their family income was above €50,000. Students from seven other counties also reported a mean family income in the €50,000-€70,000 income bracket. Students from the other 18 counties in the Republic of Ireland reported a mean family income in the lower €35,000-€50,000 income bracket.

When asked to rank their social standing in ES5, students from Dublin also ranked themselves on a slightly higher social standing than students from all other counties. 5.19 compared to a 5.30 average ranking.

On that basis, it is likely that the high proportion of Dublin students who live with their parents has the impact of increasing the mean family income and perceived social standing of the category of students who live at home with their parents.

However, when the data for Dublin students were considered to consider the effect of increased family income, the same pattern is repeated. Living in rented accommodation becomes less popular as family income increases, and conversely living with parents becomes more popular. For example, in ES5 in the income bracket less than €20,000, a quarter of Dublin students lived in rented accommodation and 50.6% lived with their parents. As family income increases the percentage of students living with their parents increases until it peaks at 81.9% in the income bracket €70,001-€90,000. In the same income bracket the numbers of students in rented accommodation reaches its nadir at 10.7%.

Income and expenditure

All three Eurostudent surveys ask detailed questions on student income and expenditure. This allows the identification of many factors: what sources of income students have; what percentage of students receive funding from these sources; how much support they receive from their family or partner; and how much they spend on different categories of expenses. These can also be analysed for the different groupings based on different living arrangements. As the results and commentary for the expenditure analysis was not relevant to the main research questions, it has been moved to Appendix I.

It should be noted that the analysis process used in ES3 was significantly different than ES4 and ES5. The data for ES3 needed significant cleaning and in some cases were unusable. As different categories were used in the three surveys, it can prove difficult to get a direct comparison. However, it is possible to identify patterns between the three surveys.

The Eurostudent survey reports do a very useful analysis of income which includes some aspects of place of residence. It is, however, important to note that the analysis in the Eurostudent report includes part-time students and post-grad students, and these groups have higher incomes than the full-time undergraduate students who are the subject of this thesis.

Summary: Renters and home-owners have the highest incomes. Over the three surveys, income decreased for students living in PBSA or with their parents, and increased for the other two groups.

Resident students are most likely to receive direct financial support from their families. They are also the most likely to be in receipt of a scholarship, and those who live with their parents are the least likely to receive a scholarship.

In all three surveys the students living at home with their parents were the least likely to be in receipt of a higher education grant. Those living in student accommodation are the next least likely to be in receipt of a grant. Students living with their parents receive the lowest amount of income from the grant – possibly because they're more likely to receive the adjacent rate of the student grant which is lower than the standard grant.

There is a consistent pattern for the percentage of students with income from paid employment across all three surveys. Those living with parents have the highest rate, followed by those in rented accommodation, followed by resident students. Home-owners have a significantly lower rate of

employment than the other student groups. Despite this, home-owners have the highest income from paid employment.

Numbers in receipt of social welfare increased significantly over the course of the three surveys. Those living in their own home were four times more likely to be in receipt of social welfare than the average student. Those in rented accommodation were also more likely to receive social welfare than average. Students in on-campus accommodation were least likely to receive social welfare.

Home-owners or students living in rented accommodation were also more likely to receive support from the Student Assistance Fund.

Renters and home-owners pay a higher proportion of their expenses themselves. Over 50% of the expenses for students in college accommodation or living with their parents are paid by their families.

Renters and home-owners are significantly more likely to report that they are in financial difficulty than the other two groups.

Income source

This section analyses the major sources of income for full-time undergraduate students, and considers differences between students based on place of residence.

The categories under which income is recorded change throughout the three surveys, and this makes comparison difficult. For example, in ES5: grants/scholarships become two separate categories; paid job is split into current and past; the category for savings is removed; and other income is split into other public and other private.

The four categories of income that we can compare with some degree of consistency across the three surveys are: family; grant/scholarship; paid employment and public/social welfare. The percentage of students who receive funds from each of these sources is shown below:

	Family	Grant / scholarship	Paid employment	Social welfare
ES3	69.6%	29.6%	65.6%	5.5%
ES4	38.3%	20.2%	43.3%	8.1%
ES5	53.2%	35.5%	33.0%	12.5%

Table 46 - Source of income for full-time undergraduate students
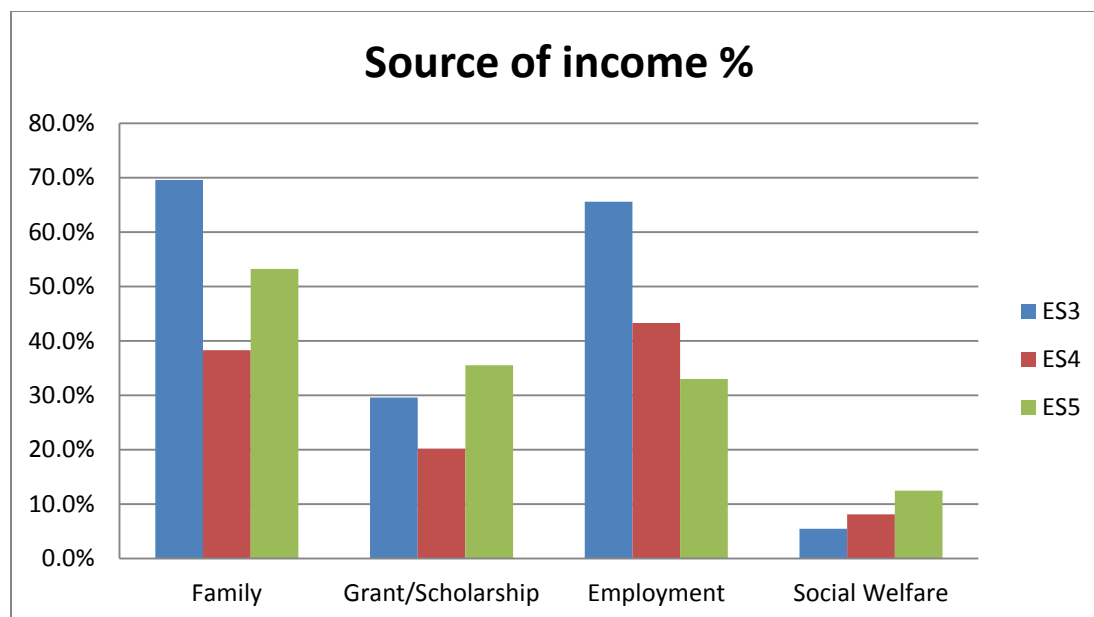
Figure 27 - Source of income for full-time undergraduate students

The key trends that can be seen are that over the seven years of the surveys, the percentage of students in paid employment decreased sharply. In 2009 it was the most common source of income, and had moved into third position by 2013. Conversely the number of students in receipt of other public support – social welfare, children's allowance, etc, has increased from 5.5% to 12.5%. Numbers in receipt of grants have also increased, but a more accurate figure is available from the HEA. The differences between students in different living arrangements under each category of income will now be analysed.

Total monthly income

The four categories shown above make up nearly 80% of student income. If the category "Other" is added, the average monthly income over the period of the three surveys can be compared.

	Family		Grant / scholarship		Paid employment		Social welfare		Other		Total	
ES3	€	344	€	47	€	132	€	15	€	37	€	**575**
ES4	€	152	€	132	€	228	€	72	€	103	€	**686**
ES5	€	130	€	127	€	150	€	77	€	47	€	**531**

Table 47 - Total income for full-time undergraduate students

In Table 48 below, these figures have been broken down further to split the income distribution across the four categories. In ES3 the income figures for three groups (living with parents, resident students and renters) are quite close. The figures for income are quite similar to ES4, and the same pattern is in

place. The income for students living with their parents is the lowest in all three surveys, and the income for home-owners is the highest in all three. In ES3, those in student residences had slightly higher income than those in rented accommodation. However it is noticeable that the trend for income for those living with parents and for those in student residences has been downward, while the trend for income for those living in rented accommodation or in their own home has been upward. As a result, those in rented accommodation had more income than those in student residences in ES4 and ES5.

The breakdown of this income is discussed in more detail in the total annual income section towards the end of this section.

The students living in rented accommodation and in their own home showed a significant increase in income in 2009, with a subsequent decrease in 2013. This increase may have been due to the significant influx of mature students in 2008/9, who would have been entitled to Back to Education Allowance and the grant also. These mature students may also have been eligible for the "Special Rate of Maintenance Grant". This was a significantly higher grant that was paid to students below a certain income threshold who were also in receipt of social welfare payments. The entitlement to receive both the Back to Education Allowance and the grant was removed in 2010.

Total reported monthly income			
	ES3	ES4	ES5
With Parents / Relatives	€ 556	€ 512	€ 401
Student Residence	€ 580	€ 569	€ 473
Rented house/flat	€ 566	€ 844	€ 629
Own household	€ 820	€ 1,288	€ 881
Average	€ 575	€ 686	€ 531

Table 48 - Place of residence versus total reported monthly income
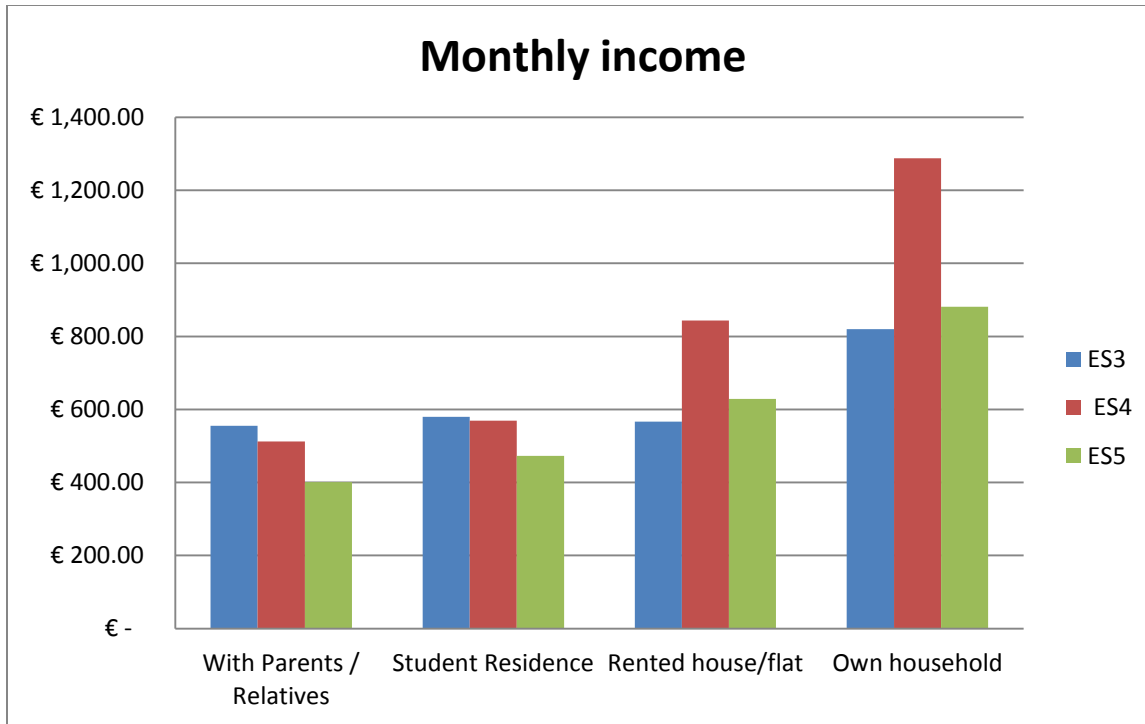
Figure 28 - Place of residence versus total reported monthly income

From the chart above, the trend of income decreasing for resident students and for those living with their parents, and increasing for the other two groups can be observed. It's also clear that renters and home-owners have the highest incomes, but as will be seen in appendix I, these two categories of students also have higher expenditure.

Income from family

The chart below shows the percentage of students in receipt of direct financial support from their families. A clear pattern emerges whereby the students that most commonly receive financial support from family are those living in student residences. Those living with their parents and renters are next, with no significant difference in rates of support. Home-owners are least likely to receive financial support from their family.

% in receipt of income from family
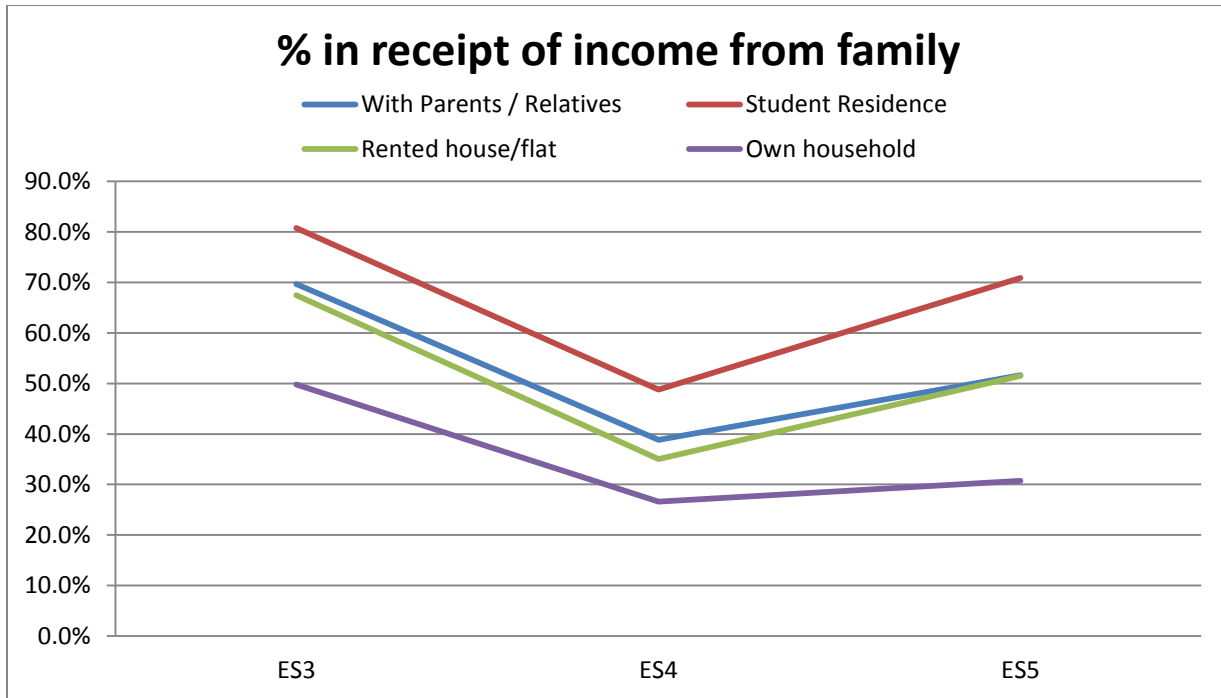
Figure 29 - Place of residence versus % in receipt of money from family

An analysis of the level of funding that students received from their families is shown below. The first table (Table 49) shows the average amount received across the entire group (including those who did not receive any funds from this source). Table 50shows the income from family for those students in receipt on funds from this source.

Average monthly income from family (all students)			
	ES3	ES4	ES5
With Parents / Relatives	€ 363	€ 89	€ 85
Student Residence	€ 388	€ 211	€ 165
Rented house/flat	€ 305	€ 181	€ 155
Own household	€ 344	€ 286	€ 171
Average	€ 344	€ 152	€ 130

Table 49 - Place of residence versus monthly income from family

ES4 and ES5 are consistent in that those living with their parents receive the least amount of direct financial support from their families. Home-owners receive the highest level of financial support and it's possible that the family support in this case is from a partner.

If the total amounts received are analysed – only looking at those respondents who said that they received money from this source, the following figures are obtained.

Average monthly income from family (only those in receipt from this source)			
	ES3	ES4	ES5
With Parents / Relatives	€ 521	€ 168	€ 165
Student Residence	€ 481	€ 276	€ 233
Rented house/flat	€ 452	€ 343	€ 302
Own household	€ 691	€ 788	€ 564
Average	€ 492	€ 274	€ 245

Table 50 - Average monthly income from family (only those in receipt from this source)

Again, the ES3 figures are significantly different. However the pattern for ES4 and ES5 is consistent. Of those who do receive direct financial support from their families, home-owners receive the most – over double the average. Those in rented accommodation are next, followed by those in student accommodation. Those living with their parents receive the lowest amount of direct financial support.

Grant

The analysis below shows that, in all three surveys, students living with their parents were the least likely to be in receipt of a grant. Resident students are the next least likely to be in receipt of a grant. The difference between the groups lessens over the course of the three surveys; however for two of the three surveys home-owners have the highest percentage in receipt of grants.
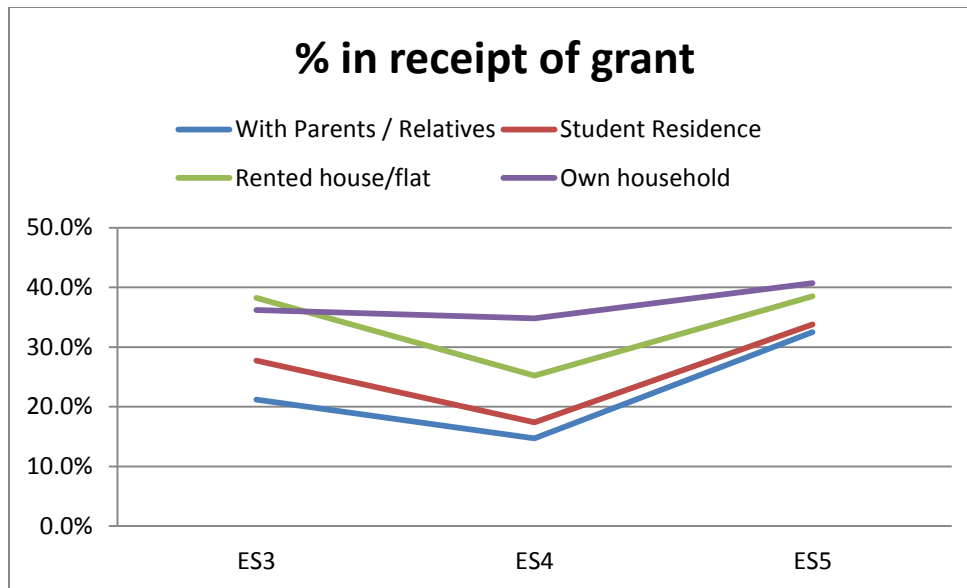
% in receipt of grant

Figure 30 - Place of residence versus % in receipt of grant

The general pattern of these figures is confirmed by the question about the source of the registration fee in ES3. In that case, 18.5% of students living with their parents said it was paid by the state, compared with 24.4% of resident students. The other two groups are higher, between 28% and 30%.

According to the figures in the Eurostudent report, 30% of full-time undergraduate students were in receipt of a Higher Education Grant in 2006. This dropped to 20% in 2009, before rising to 35.5% in 2013. When the actual amounts received are analysed there is very little consistency – the only constant is that the students living with their parents receive the lowest amount of money. This may be explained by the fact that they are more likely to receive the adjacent rate for Higher Education Grants, as their family home is closer to the college than the other groups.

Employment

An analysis of the percentage of students with income from paid employment shows that the numbers with income from this source declined dramatically over the seven year period of the surveys. As noted previously, the three surveys coincided with a major economic recession, and a significant jump in national unemployment, so this decrease is not unexpected.

In ES3, nearly two-thirds of students (65.6%) reported income from paid employment. In ES4 this had declined to 43.3%, and by ES5 only one-third of students (33.0%) were reporting income from

employment. These figures show a more significant decline than the figures reported by students in their time diaries in the student engagement section of this chapter. It should be noted that the income figures include income from summer work, which is excluded in the student engagement questions. However, the student engagement results are consistent with these figures as they also show a decline in the percentage of students with part-time work.
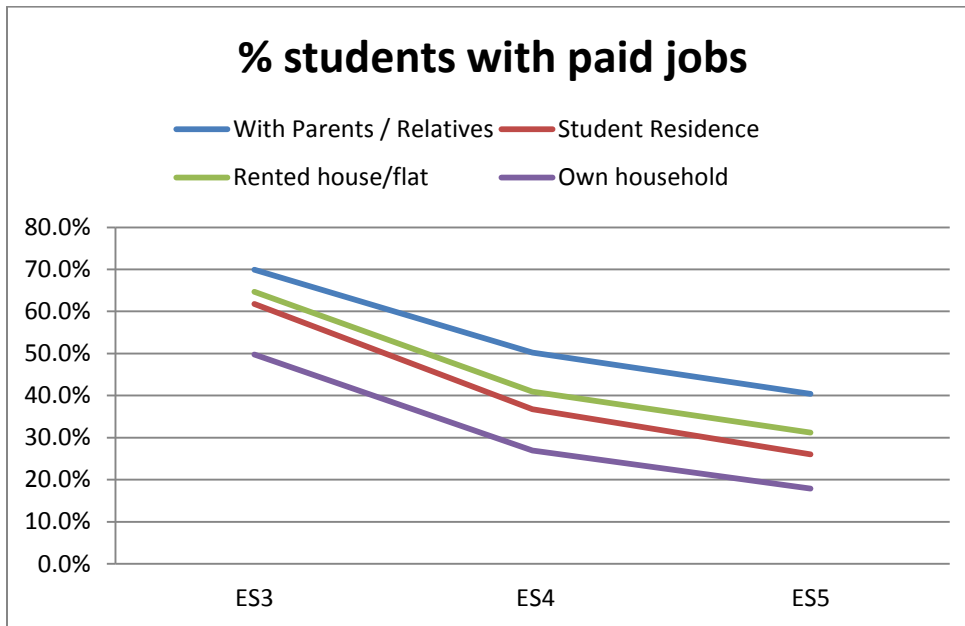
Figure 31 - Place of residence versus % with income from employment (summer or term-time)

The analysis shows a consistent pattern across the three surveys. Students living with their parents are most likely to have income from employment, with renters the next most likely. Home-owners are the least likely to have income from paid employment. This pattern is replicated in the analysis of the time diaries for part-time work in the student engagement section of this chapter.

Amounts received from paid employment

In all three surveys, home-owners generate considerably more income from paid employment than the other groups. In ES3 it is more than double the average; in ES4 it is just under double the average for all students who are in paid employment; and in ES5 it is 50% more than average. An analysis of hours worked versus income demonstrated that home-owners receive a much higher rate of pay per hour

than the other students. In both ES3 and ES4, students living in on-campus accommodation not only had the lowest percentage in paid employment, but those in employment had the lowest average income of all groups. The time diaries in the student engagement section of this chapter confirm that resident students worked a lower number of hours than students in other living arrangements.

Income from state and private scholarships

These two categories show relatively low numbers of students in receipt of scholarships – averaging around 2.5% of the student population. However, in both cases, resident students have the highest proportion in receipt of scholarships. Possibly this is because campus accommodation is often included as part of a scholarship package. In both cases also, students living with their parents have the lowest proportion in receipt of a scholarship. (This category could not be analysed in ES4, as it was included in the grant category.)

Income from social welfare and other public sources

Analysis of this category was complicated by changes in classification. In ES3 it is classified as social welfare, and in ES4 and ES5 it is classified as support from other public sources. This widening of the categories may partially explain the significant increase in numbers reporting income in this category. However, when the three surveys are analysed, a consistent pattern can be seen. Resident students are least likely to receive support from public sources, followed by those living with parents. A much higher proportion of home-owners receive social welfare / public support than the other groups. What is clear is that the numbers in receipt of public support apart from the grant increased significantly over the time period that the surveys were carried out. The percentage among those with their own homes increased from 23.7% to 51.4%. There was also a significant increase for those in rented accommodation, with the proportion increasing from 6.1% to 16.3%.

% in receipt of social welfare
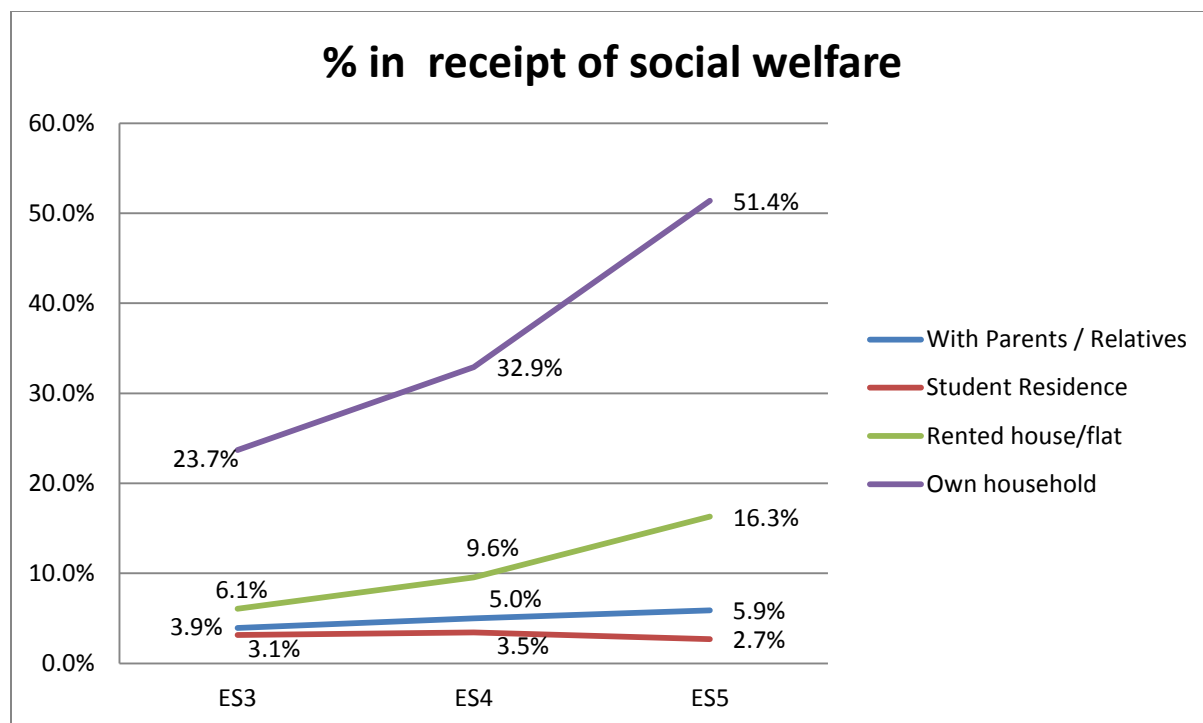
Figure 32 - Place of residence versus % in receipt of social welfare

Loans

The number of students reporting that they had income from loans decreased over the period of the survey from 9.3% down to 3.0%. Renters were the most likely to have income from this source, and those living with parents were least likely to have loans.

Student Assistance Fund

The Student Assistance Fund (SAF) is state funded and is available in all colleges, administered by the college, to support students in financial difficulty. The SAF was not listed as an income category in ES4. In ES3, fewer than 4% of students received support from the Student Assistance Fund. In ES5 the numbers reporting that they received support from the Student Assistance Fund had increased significantly to 9.6%. However the average amount received decreased significantly between ES3 and ES5, from c. €600 to €229.The analysis is shown below.

% in receipt of Student Assistance Fund			
	ES3	ES4	ES5
With Parents / Relatives	2.0%	n/a	5.9%
Student Residence	3.1%	n/a	6.2%
Rented house/flat	5.9%	n/a	13.0%
Own household	7.2%	n/a	19.9%
Average	3.9%	n/a	9.6%

Table 51 - Place of residence versus % in receipt of Student Assistance Fund

What is significant is that the pattern remains the same for ES3 and ES5. Those living with their parents were least likely to receive SAF, followed by resident students. Home-owners were most likely to receive funding from SAF, with the numbers increasing significantly between 2006 and 2013 from 7.2% to 19.9%.

Other income

In ES3 a higher number of home-owners reported having income from other sources than the other three groups - 12.7% compared to 5.4% for the total student population. On average, students who had other income reported receiving an average of €1489 per year. Home-owners reported receiving a higher amount, totalling €3037 for the year.

In ES4 there were a smaller number of categories under which students could report income – six compared with 9 income categories in ES3. Possibly as a result, higher numbers of students in ES4 reported having other income than did in ES3, on average 8.1% compared with 5.4% in ES3. The most significant difference is that 32.9% of students in their own home report having other income, which is much higher than the average. The amount received was also higher than reported in ES3, with an average of €5472, with those in their own home receiving €7914 per year. Social welfare payments may constitute a significant amount of this income.

In ES5, other public income is taken to mean social welfare / child benefit and has been addressed above. There is also a category of "Other income from private sources". On average, 4.2% of students receive income from these sources, with home-owners most likely to receive income from these sources (6.9%). These students receive a significant amount of money from these sources - €639 monthly in comparison with an average of €252 for all students who receive money in these categories.

Total annual income

If all the above data on sources of income is analysed, it is possible to get an overview of the annual income of students in the four different residence types. As with other sections of the analysis, more can be learned from the patterns and relative positions of the different groups, than can be from the actual income amounts.

Living Arrangement	With Parents / Relatives	Student Residence	Rented house/flat	Own household	Average
ES3	€ 5,000	€ 5,218	€ 5,096	€ 7,381	€ 5,179
ES4	€ 4,606	€ 5,119	€ 7,594	€ 11,588	€ 6,172
ES5	€ 3,607	€ 4,257	€ 5,663	€ 7,932	€ 4,779

Table 52 - Place of residence versus annual income from all sources

The figures in the above table were used to calculate total income at the start of this chapter, and the patterns have been discussed earlier.

As noted previously, the dataset from ES3 posed some problems during analysis. In the ES3 report they note: *"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."* (Delaney et al, 2008, p. 32).

During the data analysis for this thesis responses with incomes greater than €4000 per month, or responses to individual questions that were clearly incorrect, have been removed. In the analysis for the Eurostudent 3 report individuals with zero income were removed. In order to gain some comparability with ES4 and ES5, these responses have not been removed in the analysis for this thesis.

In examining total income in ES3, it can be seen that the average full-time undergraduate student has an income of €5179 which would seem to be much lower than their expenses. The following table shows the differences between the different groups.

Living Arrangement	With Parents / Relatives	Student Residence	Rented house/flat	Own household	Total
Family	€3265	€3495	€2743	€3094	€3099
Grant	€179	€343	€505	€538	€350
Employment	€1279	€843	€1146	€2282	€1190
State Scholarship	€11	€67	€29	€4	€28
Private Scholarship	€20	€65	€69	€4	€46
Social Welfare	€72	€34	€189	€668	€136
Loans	€115	€273	€294	€381	€225
Student Assistance Fund	€8	€44	€30	€23	€24
Other income	€50	€55	€91	€386	€81
Total	€5000	€5218	€5096	€7381	€5179

Table 53 - ES3 - Place of residence versus annual income from all sources

Clearly, home-owners have the highest income, primarily because they have higher income from employment, social welfare and other income, but as shall be seen in the expenditure section (Appendix I), they also have higher financial commitments.

Those living with parents have the highest average income from employment of any group, with the exception of home-owners, and their financial support from family is second highest. It should be noted that students living with parents have significantly lower financial commitments than other groups. It should also be noted that they have the lowest average income from grants both because they have the lowest percentage in receipt of grants (21% versus an average of 29.6%), and also because they receive a lower average rate of grant. Those in receipt of the grant receive an average of €844 versus over €1100 for the three other groups – presumably because they don't live far away from the college to receive the non-adjacent rate. Resident students get the highest level of direct financial support from their family and have the lowest income from employment. In ES3 there is not a significant difference between average income levels for those who live with their parents, resident students or renters.

Those in rented accommodation receive the lowest amount of direct financial support from their family but it is still significant at €2743.

The figures in the analysis of income from ES4 are quite different from ES3, as can be seen in Table 54.

	With Parents / Relatives	Student Residence	Rented house/flat	Own household	Average
Family	€805	€1898	€1631	€2582	**€1364**
Grant / Scholarship	€602	€1048	€1790	€2288	**€1188**
Public loan	€109	€242	€404	€173	**€235**
Paid job	€2188	€1261	€2159	€2304	**€2053**
Savings	€646	€495	€823	€677	**€688**
Other	€256	€174	€786	€3565	**€644**
Total	**€4606**	**€5119**	**€7594**	**€11588**	**€6172**

Table 54 - ES4 - Place of residence versus total annual income from different sources

Once again it can be seen that those in their own homes have significantly higher income, nearly double the average income. However, unlike ES3, in ES4 there are differences between the other three groups. Renters have higher incomes than average. On average, for students in ES4, income from paid employment is the most significant source of income, making up 33% of their income, with income from family next most significant. This is not the case in ES3, where income from family is much more significant, making up over 50% of student income. It is unclear why the income from family decreased so significantly in ES4.

The total income for ES5 is shown below:

Living Arrangement	With Parents / Relatives	Student Residence	Rented house/flat	Own household	Average
Family	€765	€1484	€1398	€1543	€1169
Grant	€748	€1205	€1267	€1226	€1046
Scholarship	€57	€157	€119	€85	€98
Other public sources	€279	€112	€936	€3025	€694
Private loan	€34	€202	€201	€91	€126
Other private sources	€49	€57	€104	€395	€96
Current Paid job	€1276	€598	€1073	€856	€1060
Past paid Job (holiday)	€293	€339	€289	€189	€292
Student Assistance Fund	€106	€104	€275	€522	€198
Total	**€3607**	**€4257**	**€5663**	**€7932**	**€4779**

Table 55 - ES5 - Place of residence versus total annual income from different sources

Unsurprisingly, this shows a lower income than previous years, given the steep drop in the percentage working. But the pattern is the same as ES3 and ES4.

Contribution to costs by family

As well as direct financial support from families, as discussed previously, students can receive other financial support through their families contributing to costs, or directly paying bills.

In ES3, on average, full-time undergraduate students report that they cover about 53% of their expenditure themselves, with the remainder being paid by their family. This ratio is lower for students who live with their parents, and also for those living in student residences, who both contribute around 45%. Home-owners and renters make more of a contribution, each paying around 63%, but it is interesting that those students living in their own homes still receive significant financial support from their families – presumably from their partners.

In comparing the above results with those of ES4, some differences are found. In ES4, the average covered by students is very similar to ES3 (52% vs 53%). However, in ES4, students living in student residences contribute the lowest percentage to their overall costs, by a significant amount (32.9% compared with 45.4% in ES3). Overall costs in ES4 are significantly higher than ES3, and are probably more representative of the true costs. While students in their own home still contribute 65% to cover costs themselves, the percentages for those in private rented sector are lower (57.3%) than for ES3.

In ES5, the pattern remains the same, and if anything becomes more pronounced. Home-owners still contribute the largest proportion at 73.5%. As in ES4, resident students contribute the lowest percentage themselves, 32.2%, with their families covering 67.8% of the costs. Those living with their parents are the next lowest at 41.5%, with renters covering 54.5% of their own costs. There would appear to be a trend of resident students, renters and those students living with their parents covering a lower percentage of costs, as the cost of going to college increases, whereas home-owners are paying a higher percentage of their costs.

% paid by student			
	ES3	ES4	ES5
With Parents / Relatives	45.1%	50.7%	41.5%
Student Residence	45.4%	32.9%	32.2%
Rented house/flat	63.7%	57.3%	54.5%
Own household	63.3%	65.0%	73.5%

Table 56 - Place of residence versus percentage of costs paid by student
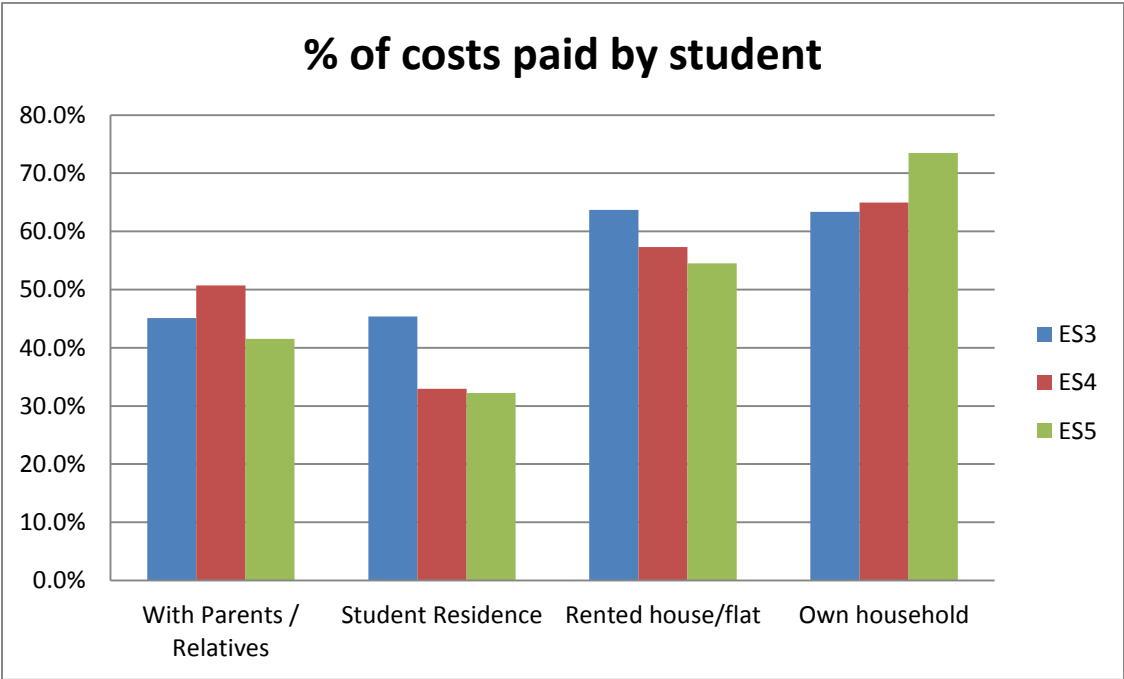
Figure 33 - Place of residence versus percentage of costs paid by student

As can be seen above, home-owners tend to pay a higher proportion of costs themselves.   This also applies when expenditure is broken down into individual categories. Students living in their own homes pay a higher proportion of costs, compared to the other groups, in nine of the twelve categories. The exceptions are: social and leisure; debt repayments; and learning materials.

Chapter 7 – Results and Commentary III - Outputs

Introduction

This chapter analyses and discusses the post-entry characteristics of students in four different residence types. Specifically this chapter considers: student engagement; satisfaction; expectations; and health and well-being. As these characteristics can have an impact on student success in college, the analysis of the different domains for the four categories of students can enable academic and professional staff in institutions to address areas of concern for the different groups. As expectations and health and well-being are not directly relevant to the main research questions, the results and commentary on these domains have been moved to appendix III and IV respectively.

Student engagement

Time diaries

In Eurostudent, time diaries are used to track amounts of time spent on taught studies, personal study, college engagement, and part-time work. It is also possible to calculate the time spent commuting during the week.

From the work of Pace (1980) and Kuh (2009a), it is clear that "time on task" spent on "educationally purposeful activities" is crucial from a student engagement point of view. So it is instructive to see the amount of time the different student groups spend on taught studies, personal study time, and college-related activities. The amount of time spent commuting and in paid work are other variables that are considered in this section, as they could distract from these core activities and have a negative impact on studies. The analysis of the time diaries, whilst quite time consuming, generated some useful data. The detailed, daily breakdown of the time diaries for time spent on taught studies are contained in appendix II.

Summary: Students living in on-campus accommodation or with their parents spend the least amount of time in educationally purposeful activities. Those in rented accommodation or living in their own home spend the most time on these activities. This is significant, as the international literature indicates that students in student residences have a higher level of engagement than students in other living arrangements. Further analysis was carried out to consider the influence of input variables, e.g. socio-economic group, age, gender, part-time work. This analysis found that age and year in college had the

most significant influence on levels of academic engagement, but that first year resident students were still less engaged than first year renters or home-owners. Students living with their parents spend more time doing part-time work than students in other living arrangements. However, students in rented accommodation and home-owners are more likely to believe that their part-time work has a negative impact on their academic performance.

Resident students spend the most amount of time on college activities (extra-curricular). However, students living with their parents spend more time on college activities than those in rented accommodation, despite living further away from college.

Taught studies

The analysis of the time diaries for time spent on taught studies is contained in the appendix. The summary for the three surveys is shown in the table below.

	Parents	College	Rented	Own house
ES3	18.92	18.32	18.92	18.67
ES4	20.01	19.23	20.15	20.89
ES5	19.35	19.74	19.85	20.62

Table 57 - Place of residence versus hours per week spent in taught studies

When we plot the three surveys, we see that, in the last two surveys, home-owners report spending the most amount of time in taught studies. After home-owners, renters spend the most amount of time in taught studies. In ES3 and ES4, students living with parents spent more time in taught studies than resident students, but in ES5, resident students spent slightly more time in taught activities.

Weekly hours - taught studies
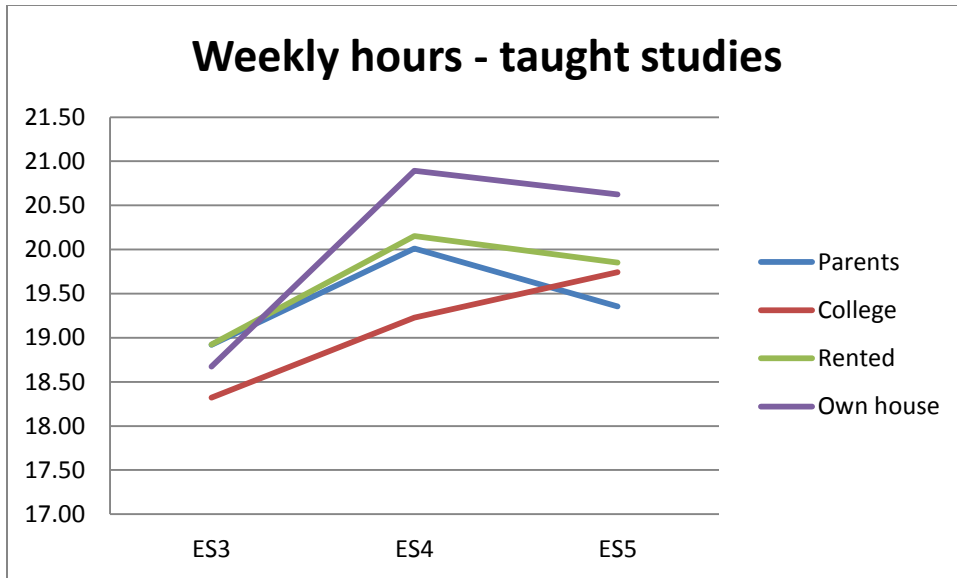
Figure 34 - Place of residence versus time spent in taught studies

These results are unexpected given that commuter students may find it more difficult to get to college, or may choose not to travel to college on a day when they had few lectures, whereas resident students are living within a convenient distance. Further analysis was carried out to consider whether the amount of time spent in taught studies was more a function of other variables, such as year in college, age, gender or socio-economic group.

Taught studies vs residence type vs year in college

The analysis of time spent in taught studies versus year in college, showed that the time spent in taught studies decreased slightly after second year. In year 1 and 2, students spent an average of 20 hours per week in class, but this decreased to 19 hours in fourth year. The analysis of amount of time spent in taught studies versus residence type versus year in college, showed that first year students and third year students living on campus spent less time in taught studies than students in the same years in other living arrangements. Resident students in all years spent less time in taught studies than the average student.

Taught studies v year in college
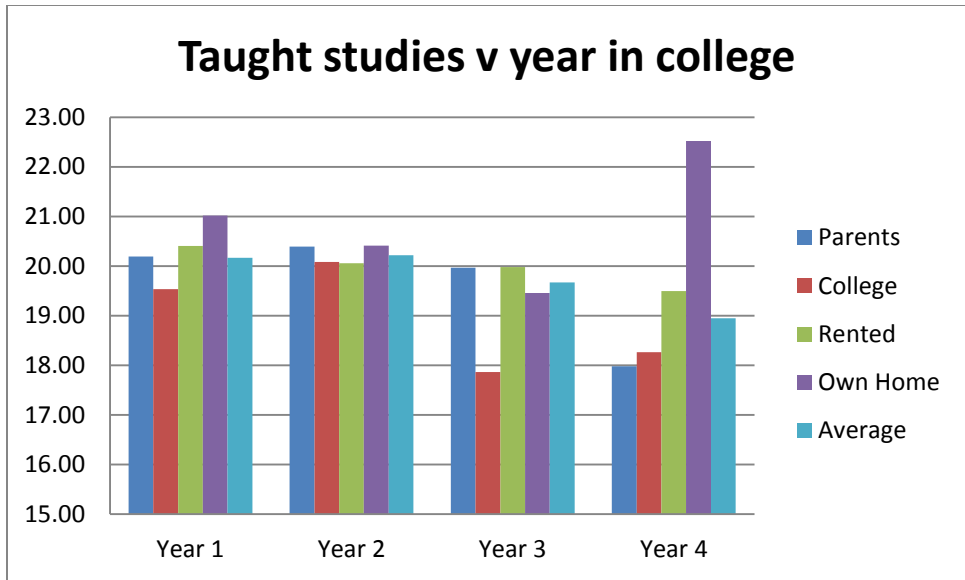
Figure 35 - ES4 - Taught studies vs residence type vs year in college

Taught studies vs residence type vs gender

An analysis of time spent in taught studies versus gender found that, on average, female students spent one hour more per week in taught studies than male students. It is not clear why this should be the case, as male students are more likely to be in high contact hours subjects such as the Science, Technology, Engineering and Maths subjects.

Taught studies vs gender vs POR
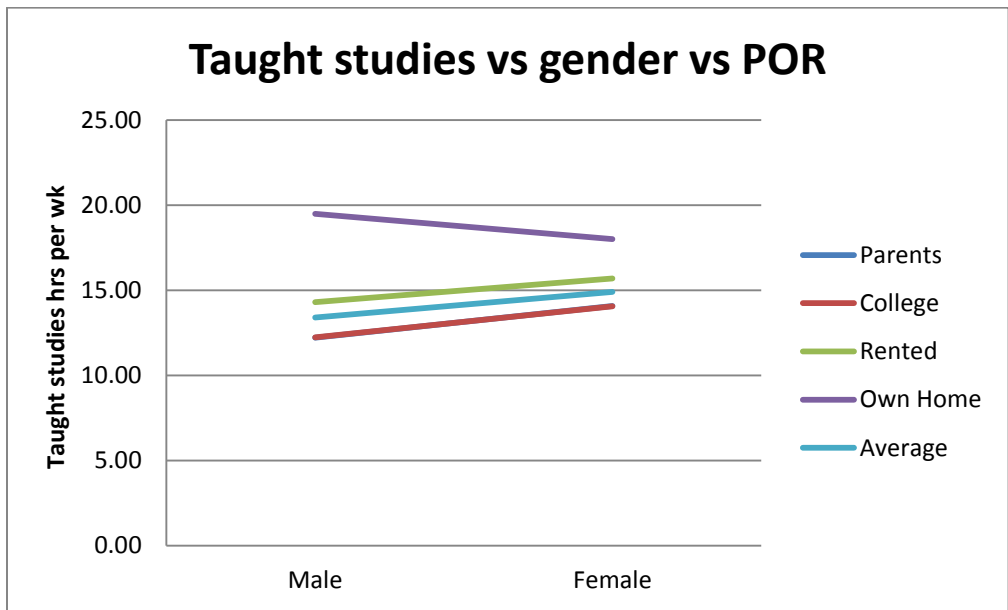
Figure 36 - ES4 - Taught studies vs residence type vs gender

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When the this analysis was cross-tabulated with place of residence, it was found that both male and female resident students spent less time in taught studies than their counterparts in other living arrangements. It was notable that for home-owners, male students spent more time in taught studies than their female counterparts.

Taught studies vs residence type vs socio-economic indicators

The data was then analysed to consider the impact of socio-economic group on time spent in taught studies across the different living arrangements. The data was analysed for father's level of educational attainment, to compare those students whose fathers had attended further education after the leaving certificate.
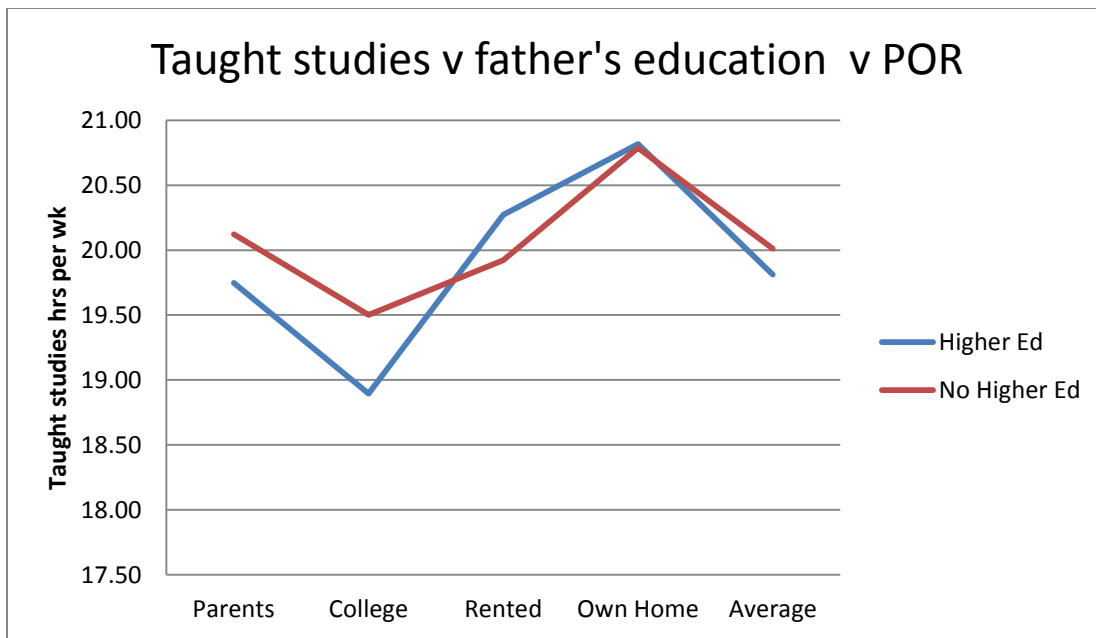
Figure 37 - ES4 - Taught studies vs residence type vs father's educational attainment

As can be seen above, on average there is no significant difference in time spent in taught studies between those whose father's attended higher education and those who didn't. There is no clear pattern to be discerned. However, once again, resident students spend the least amount of time in taught studies regardless of their father's level of education. This exercise was repeated for social standing.
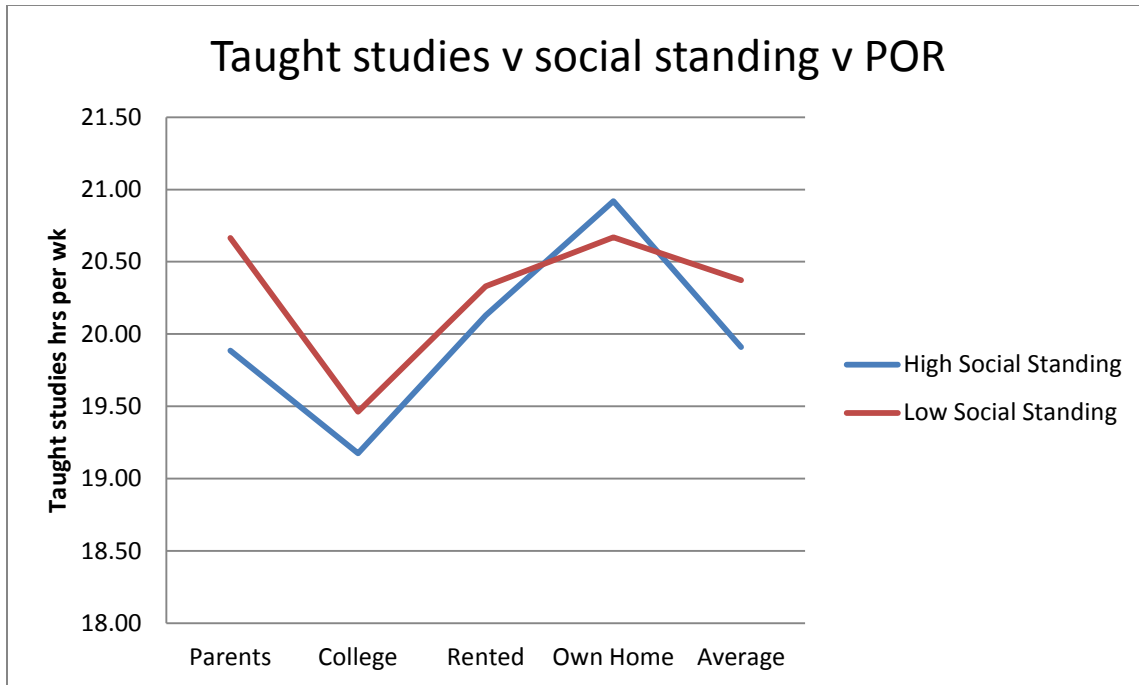
Figure 38 - ES4 - Taught studies vs residence type vs social standing

Resident students spend the least amount of time in taught studies compared to students in other living arrangements, regardless of social standing.

Taught studies vs residence type vs programme type

It was considered that students living in residence halls may be more likely to be in programmes with lower contact hours than other categories of students, for example, they may be more likely to be studying arts subjects than engineering subjects. However, the analysis of programme type in chapter 6 was unable to discern any distinct pattern or relationship between place of residence and programme of study.

Taught studies vs residence type vs institute type

One possible explanation for resident students spending less time in taught studies is that students in the University sector are more likely to live in residence halls compared to students in the Institute of Technology sector. In the analysis in chapter 6, it was found that nearly 20% of university students live in on-campus accommodation compared with 7.7% of IoT students. As IoT students would typically have longer contact hours than university students an analysis was carried out to cross-tabulate for type of Institution.

An analysis of university students found that the pattern, not only remained, but became more distinct. Resident students and students living with their parents spent on average 1.5 fewer hours per week in taught studies than renters or home-owners.

Personal study

The analysis of the time diaries for time spent on personal study is contained in the appendix. The summary for the three surveys is shown in Table 58.

	Parents	College	Rented	Own house
ES3	11.62	12.67	13.09	14.65
ES4	13.32	13.45	15.29	18.64
ES5	14.56	14.13	16.79	18.78

Table 58 - Place of residence versus hours per week spent in personal study

The chart below demonstrates a clear pattern over the three surveys, whereby home-owners spend significantly more time on personal study than the other groups. Students in their own home spend on average 30% more time in personal study than resident students or those living with their parents. Students in rented accommodation also spend more time on personal study than students living with their parents or resident students. The results show that there is no significant difference in the amount of time spent on personal study between resident students and those living with their parents. Contrary to international research, those students living in on-campus accommodation are less engaged with their academic studies than commuter students.
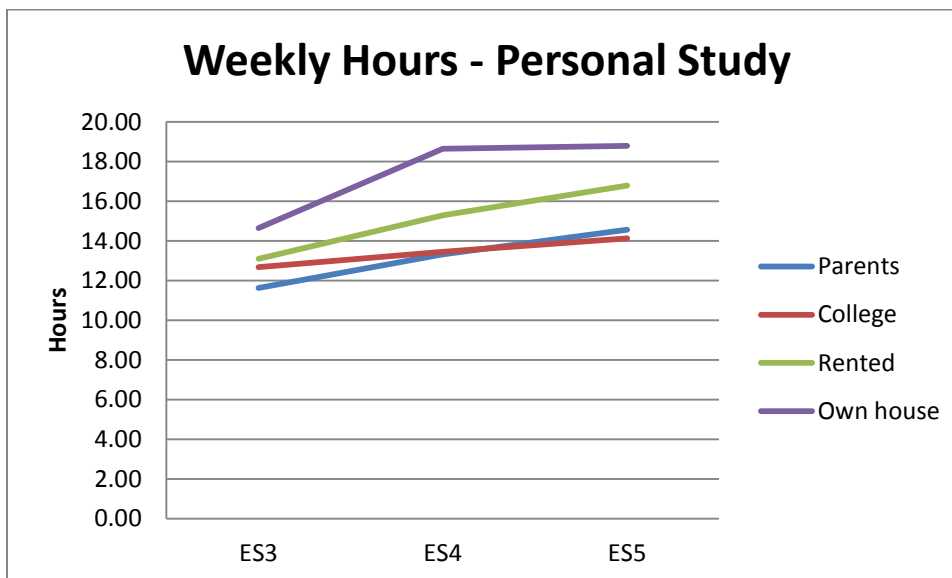
Figure 39 - Place of residence versus hours per week spent in personal study

This data can be analysed further to consider whether the input characteristics such as age, gender, year in college, type of institution, or socio-economic group have any influence on hours spent in personal study.

Personal studies vs residence type vs gender

When a cross-tabulation based on gender is considered, it can be seen that in general female students spend more time on personal study than male students (with the exception of male home-owners). In this analysis on ES4 data, both male and female resident students spend less time studying than their counterparts in rented accommodation and those living in their own home. Also, both male and female resident students spend approximately the same amount of time on personal study as their counterparts living with their parents.
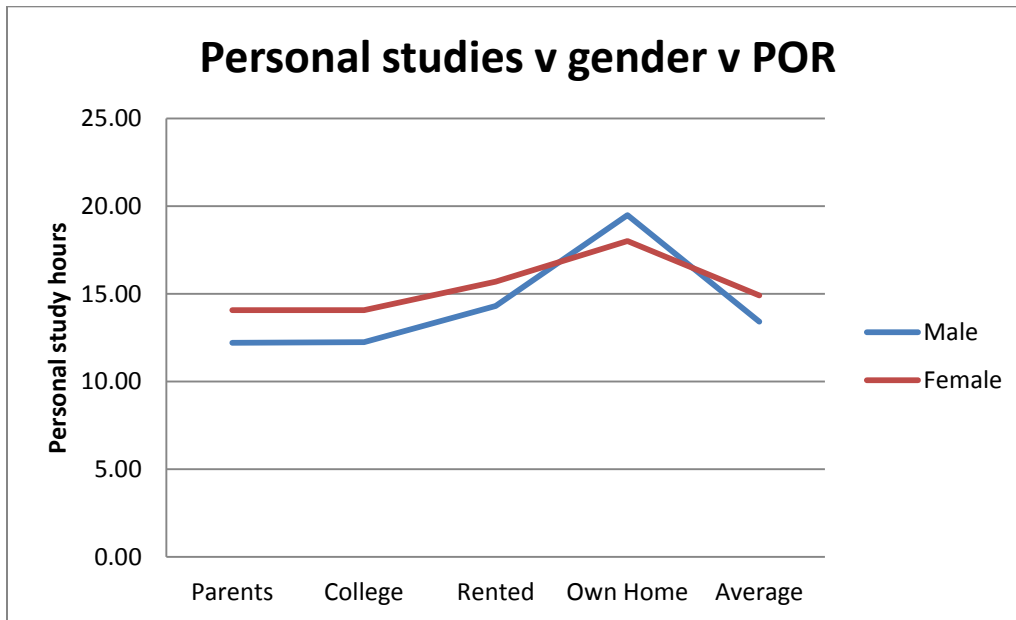
Figure 40 - ES4 - Personal studies vs residence type vs gender

As proportionately more female students live in on-campus accommodation, one would expect this high proportion of female students to bring the average time spent on personal study up for the category of resident students.

Personal studies vs residence type vs year in college

When the impact of year in college is considered, it becomes clear that year of study is one of the more influential factors on the amount of personal study carried out. The amount of personal study for all categories increases steadily over the four years, with the exception of home-owners, who have a high

level of personal study throughout the four years. The average study time per week goes from 12 hours per week in first year to 20 hours per week in fourth year.
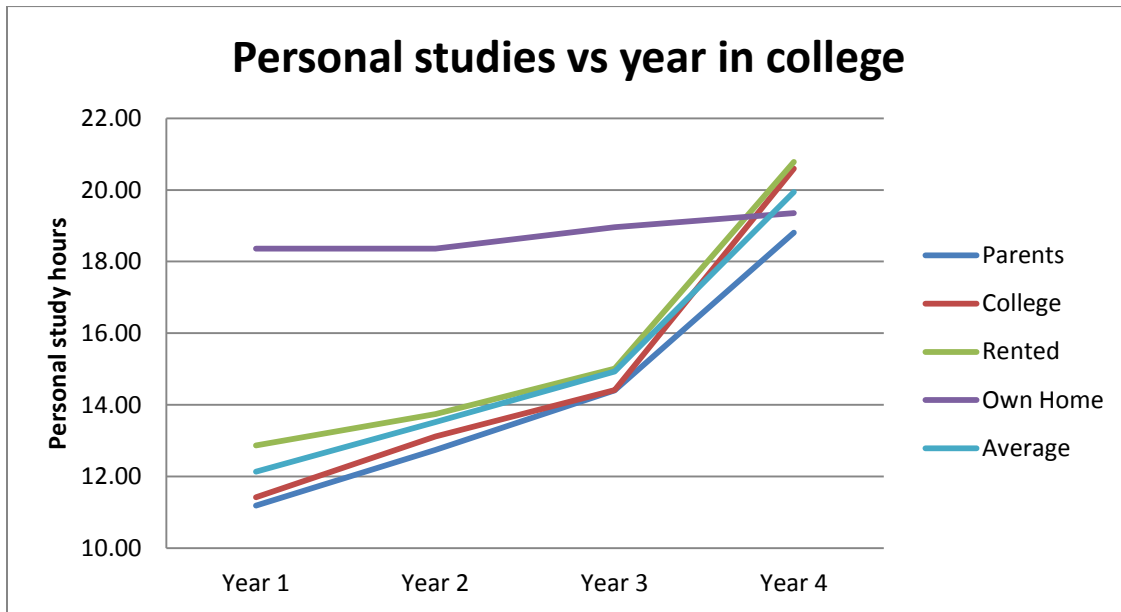
Figure 41 - ES4 - Personal studies vs residence type vs year in college

This graph, when we compare the different living arrangements, confirms that students who rent and those who live in their own home spend more time studying than other categories in the same year. The difference in study time between those living in their own home and other categories is very significant. In first year, home-owners spend 50% more time on personal study than the average. Home-owners allocation of study time remains stable over the four year period, whereas other categories increase the amount of personal study as final year approaches. In fourth year, resident students and renters spend more time on personal study than home-owners. It could be that, given other life commitments, home-owners don't have the flexibility to significantly increase their allocation of study time in final year. Another possible reason is that, given the high level of scholarship in previous years, they do not need to ramp up their work to "catch up".

Students living on campus and those living at home with their parents spend roughly the same amount of time on personal study, with the exception of fourth year when students living on campus spend nearly two hours per week more studying than those students living with parents. This could reflect a phenomenon whereby students sometimes opt to live on campus for their final year so they can fully

commit to their studies, and reduce the amount of time commuting. On this basis, from an academic engagement perspective, there is no significant advantage to students living on campus instead of living with their parents apart from final year.

Personal studies vs residence type vs age

As home-owners and renters tend to have a higher proportion of mature students, the influence of age on amount of study time was then considered.

Personal studies vs age
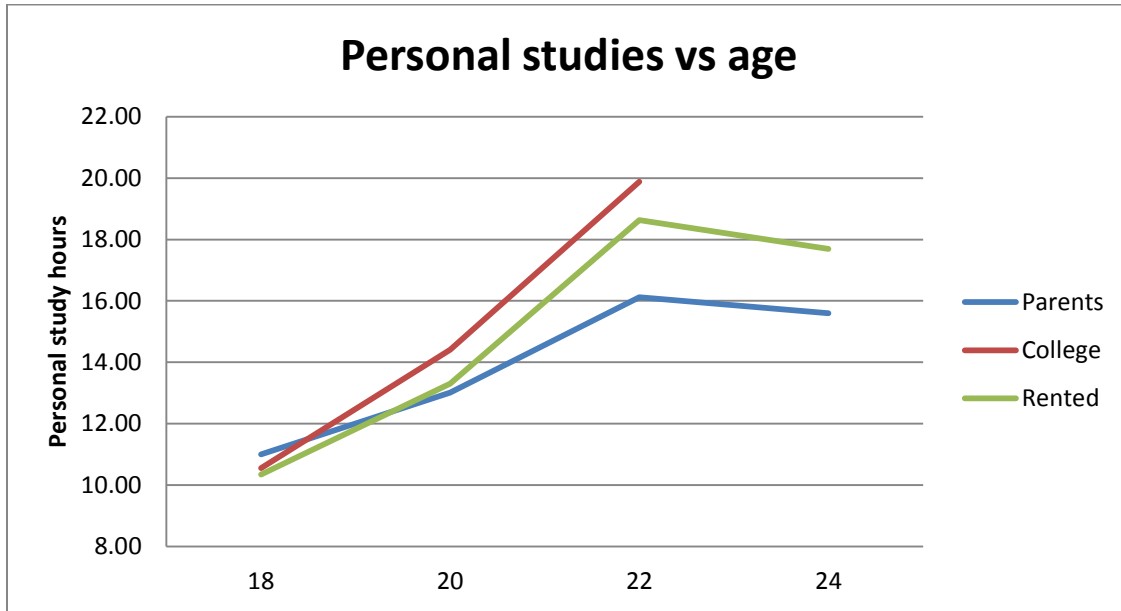
Figure 42 - ES4 - Personal studies vs residence type vs age

There were not sufficient numbers of students under 24 who were home-owners to carry out this analysis on that category, and similarly there were insufficient numbers of students over the age of 22 living on-campus to provide a statistically valid sample. However, the analysis shows that as students get older, they spend more time on personal study. This is to be expected, as shown in the analysis based on year in college, as students progress through college there is more of a focus on self-directed learning.

As time spent on personal study has a strong relationship with age and year in college, it also explains why students living with their parents and resident students spend less time on personal study than the other two categories. Resident students and those living with their parents tend to be younger than the other two categories and are also more likely to be first year students, and younger students and first year students spend less time on personal study.

At the age of 18 there is very little difference between the three categories of students. However, at the age of 20 those students living on campus spend on average an hour more studying than those living at home or renting. At the age of 22, resident students spend on average 3.5 hours more per week studying than those students living with parents. Similarly, renters spend 2.5 hours per week more studying than those living with parents. On that basis, it would appear that older students who live on campus are more academically engaged than those of the same age who live with their parents. It is unfortunate that the age profile within campus residences is skewed towards young students in first year, as it would appear that students in later years of college benefit more from living on campus. It also seems clear that students living with their parents who are in final year, or are in their early twenties, study less than their counterparts who are in rented accommodation or living on-campus. It is noticeable that in both the analysis on year in college and on age, students who lived with other students increased their commitment to personal study more than those who lived with parents or home-owners. It could be that students living with other students benefit from the sense of academic community. There may also be a competitive element whereby they are more aware of the level of study being carried out by their peers and the commitment required to perform well.

Personal studies vs residence type vs socio-economic indicators

An analysis of time spent on personal study versus social standing, shows that students who consider themselves to be in the lower half of social standing spend on average an hour and a half more on personal study than those who rank themselves in the higher half of the social standing. The analysis shows that, regardless of social standing, students living with parents and resident students spend less time on personal study than the other two categories.
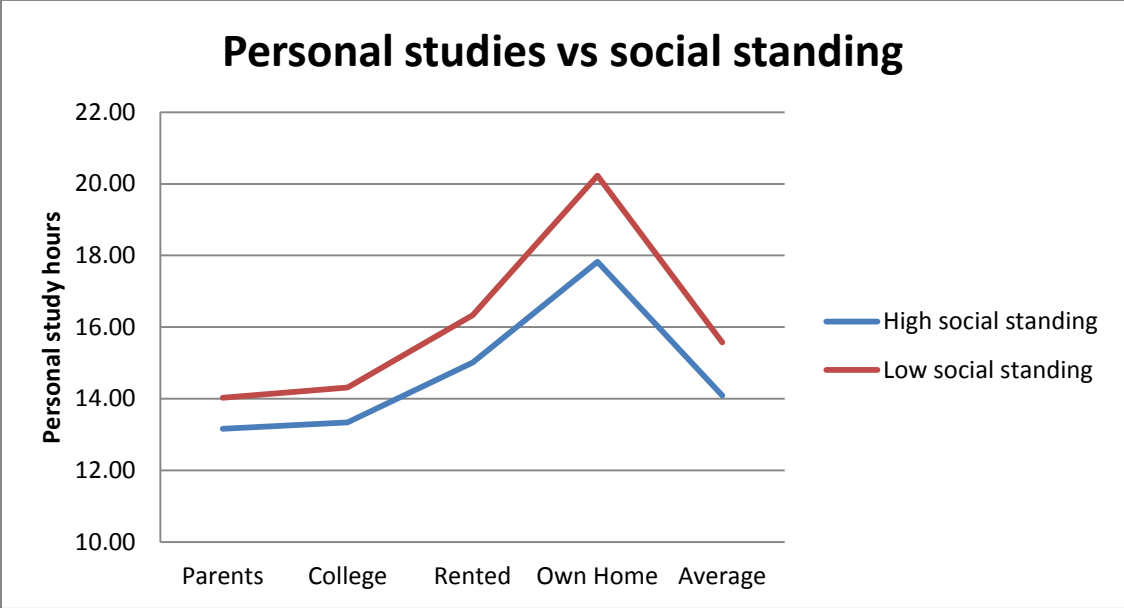
Personal studies vs social standing

When the impact of father's educational attainment is considered, the pattern is slightly different. However, again it can be seen that, regardless of father's educational attainment, students living with parents and resident students spend less time on personal study than the other two categories.

Personal studies v father's education
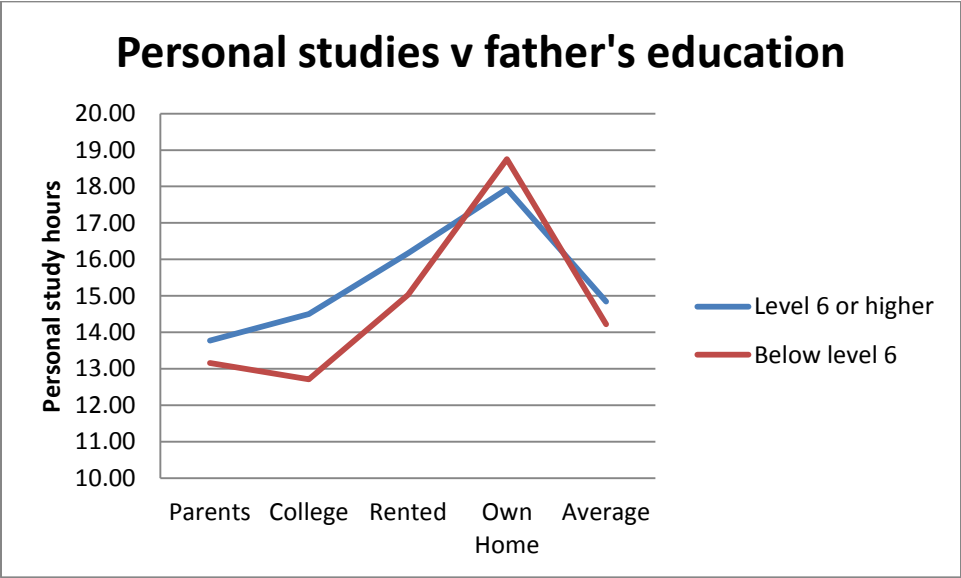
Figure 44 - ES4 - Personal studies vs residence type vs father's educational attainment

Personal studies vs residence type vs institution type

As 80% of resident students attend Universities, further analysis was carried out to consider whether the high percentage of university students was skewing the result. The pattern among university students remained the same, however, renters and home-owners spent considerably more time on personal study than those students living with parents and resident students. Those living with parents spent on average 1 hour less per week in personal study, and resident students spent 1.5 hours per week less in personal study.

Personal studies vs residence type vs part-time work

As students renters and those living with parents were more likely to have part-time work, the impact of part-time work on personal study was analysed. Those who only worked occasionally were filtered out, and a comparison was carried out on the ES4 data between those with no part-time work during term-time and those with regular part-time work during term-time.

Personal studies vs part-time work
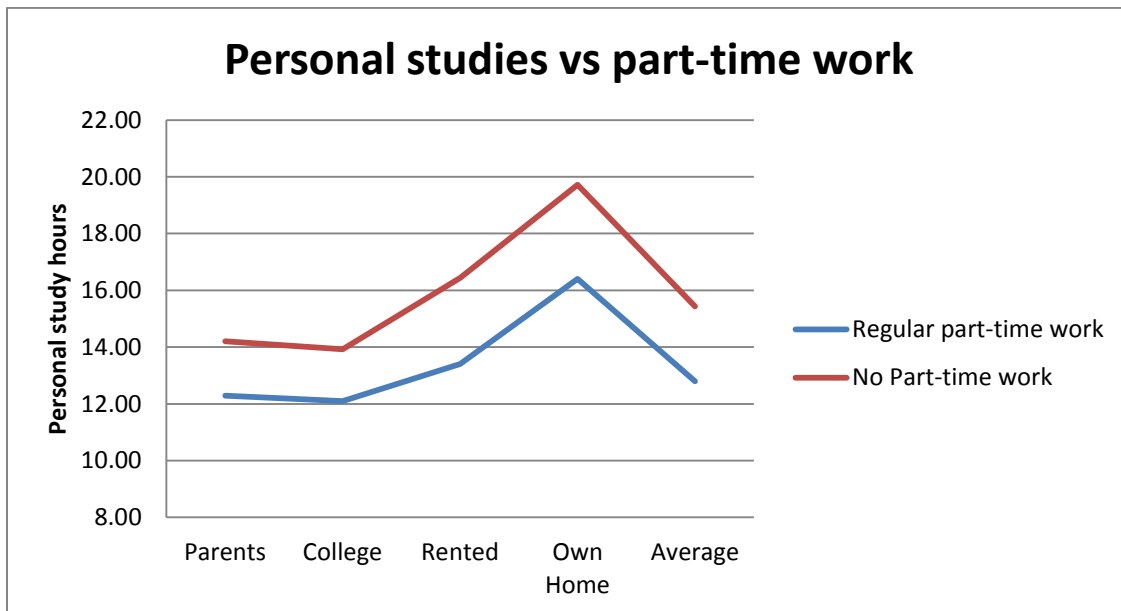
Figure 45 - ES4 - Personal studies vs residence type vs part-time work

The analysis showed that, on average, students with regular part-time work spent 2.5 hours less per week studying than those with no part-time work (12.8 hours versus 15.5 hours). The difference is slightly larger for renters and home-owners. The pattern for the different living arrangements is still very

similar. Resident students and those living with parents carry out the lowest levels of personal study, regardless of whether they have part-time work or not.

Time spent on educationally purposeful activities

If the time spent on educationally purposeful activities is compared (i.e. time spent in taught or personal study time) the following figures are obtained:

Time spent in taught or personal study				
	Parents	Student Halls	Rented	Own house
ES3	30.54	30.99	32.01	33.32
ES4	33.33	32.67	35.44	39.54
ES5	33.91	33.87	36.64	39.41

Table 59 - Place of residence versus time spent on educationally purposeful activities

This demonstrates the pattern of students living with parents and resident students spending the least amount of time in educationally purposeful activities. This is significant, as the literature would indicate that resident students would have a higher level of engagement than commuter students.
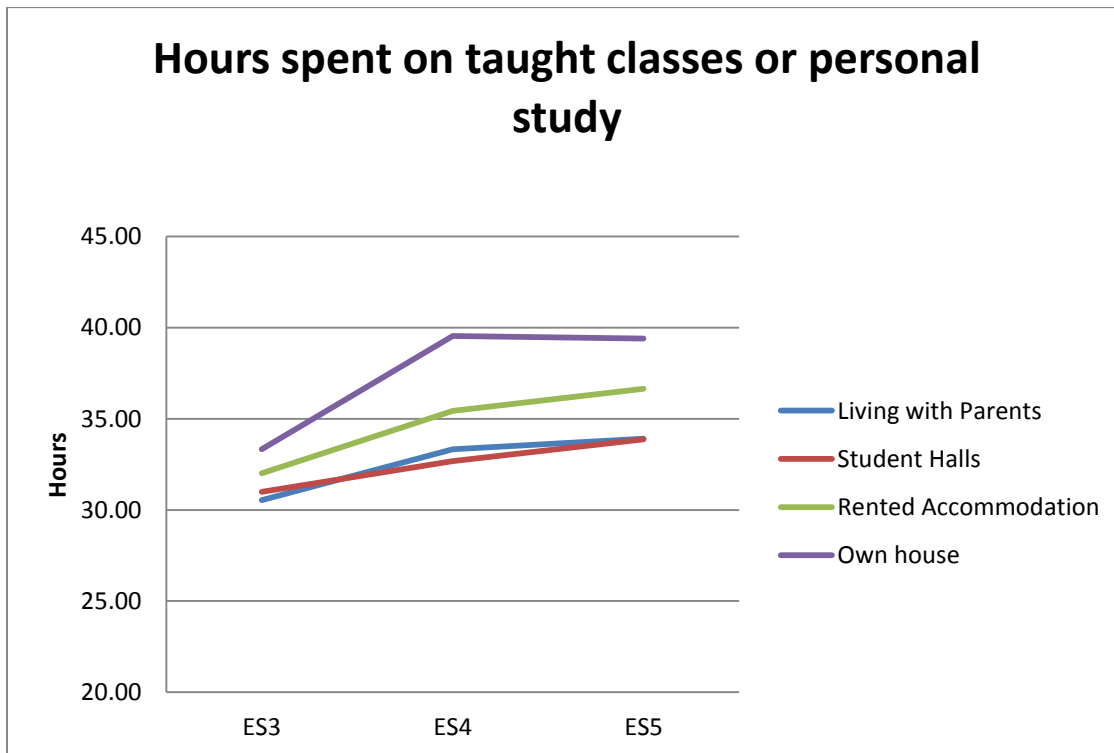
Figure 46 - Place of residence versus time spent on educationally purposeful activities

College engagement

ES3 and ES4 asked questions about time spent on college activities excluding taught studies and personal study, and so it is a measure of the student's engagement with extra-curricular activities. The engagement with college activities can contribute to non-formal learning, or the hidden curriculum, and can also assist with social integration which contributes to retention. Involvement with extra-curricular activities contributes to the ISSE construct for enriching educational activities, and so contributes directly to student engagement. The question on time spent on college engagement was not asked in ES5.

The detailed analysis of the time diaries is shown in the appendix. The summary of the analysis is shown in the table below.

	Parents	**College**	**Rented**	**Own house**	**Average**
ES3	2.30	3.22	2.42	1.30	2.48
ES4	3.60	4.58	3.27	1.26	3.49

Table 60 - Place of residence versus time spent (hours per week) on college engagement activities

What is clear from the analysis is that resident students spend more time on college activities than students in other living arrangements. On average they spend 25-30% more time on college engagement activities than an average student. Perhaps surprisingly, students living with their parents spend as much time engaged in extra-curricular activities as those in rented accommodation. Home-owners spend around half the time on extra-curricular activities than the average student.

The analysis also shows that both resident students and students living with their parents spend more time at the weekend on college engagement activities than the other two categories.

College commuting time and engagement

The finding, in ES3 and ES4, that there was no significant difference in the amount of time spent on college activities between students living with their parents and renters was unexpected. In ES4 it was possible to do an analysis of length of commute versus college engagement, i.e. college extra-curricular activities. As the engagement with college activities may be a function of distance from college, it was decided to do an analysis on this. When an analysis of length of commute (time) versus time spent on

college extra-curricular activities is carried out, it becomes clear that certain groups have a lower level of engagement with college activities regardless of time of commute. For example, when we consider the group whose daily commute is less than 20 minutes, home-owners still spend a fraction of the time on these activities than the other groups (14% of the average).

The average time spent on college engagement drops steadily as the time spent commuting increases. However, the drop is relatively small for students who are living with their parents, and more significant for those in rented accommodation. Obviously, for those living in on-campus accommodation, there is an insignificant number with a commute in excess of 40 minutes. The chart below shows a comparison of students living with parents and renters.
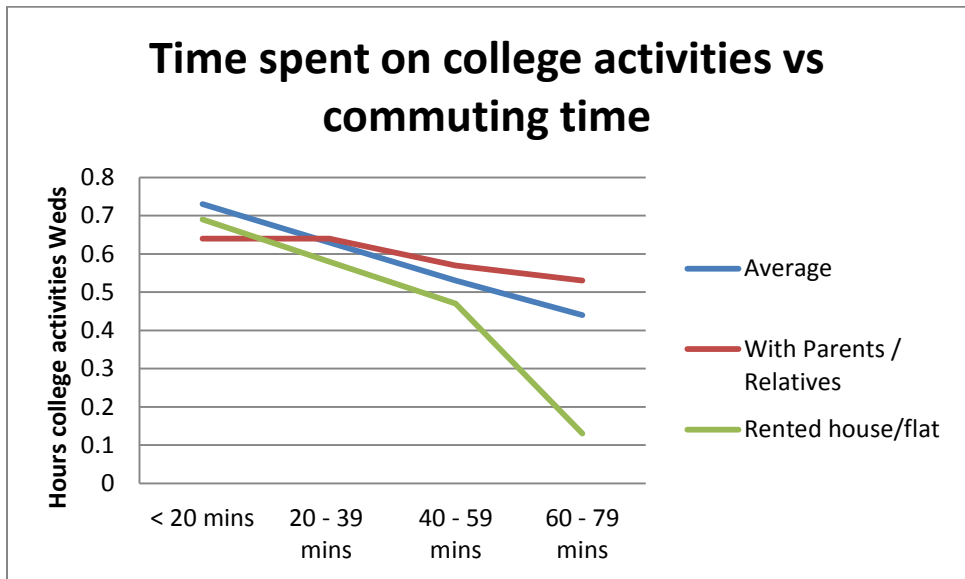
Figure 47 - ES4 – Time spent commuting vs engagement with college activities (Wednesday)

While the finding that resident students spend significantly more time involved in extra-curricular activities was expected, the finding that those living with their parents spend as much time on extra-curricular activities as renters was not expected. Further analysis was carried out to see if factors such as gender, age, type of institution, year in college, or socio-economic group were influencing the results.

College engagement vs residence type vs gender

When time spent on college engagement was cross-tabulated with place of residence and gender, it was found that female students spent nearly an hour less per week engaged in extra-curricular activities than male students. The pattern across both genders was similar, with resident students of both genders spending the most amount of time on extra-curricular activities, followed by those living with parents and renters.
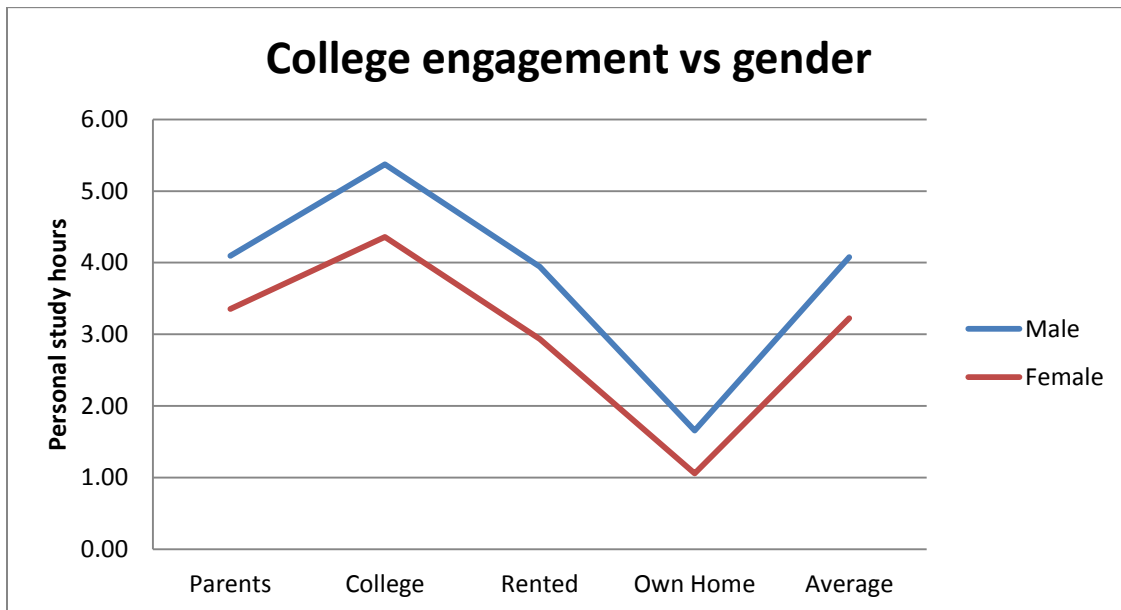
Figure 48 - ES4 – College engagement vs residence type vs gender

College engagement vs residence type vs year in college

Given the significant influence of year in college on time spent on personal study, it might be expected that time spent on extra-curricular activities would be similarly affected. However, a cross-tabulation of time spent on college activities with year in college and living arrangements, show that there is only a slight decrease in time spent on extra-curricular activities over the four year period.

Study and extra-curricular activity per week
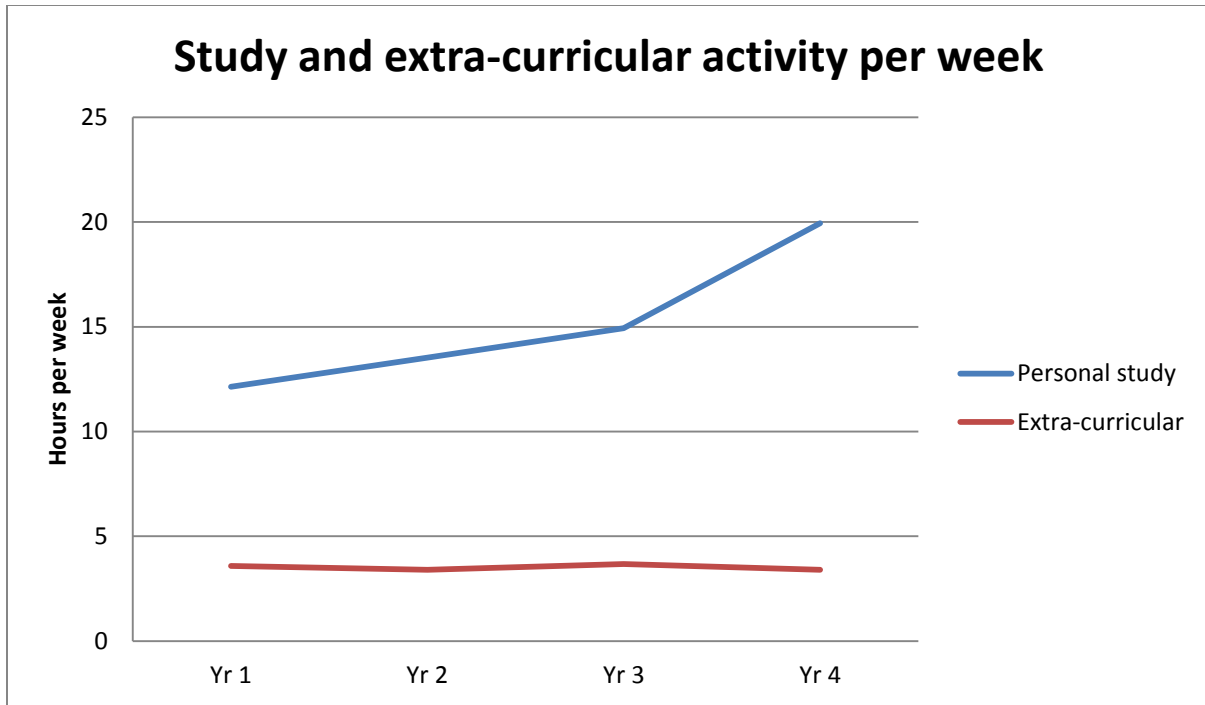
When the pattern for students in different living arrangements is considered, it can be seen that the general pattern remains steady (Figure 50). Resident students spend around 50% more time involved in extra-curricular activities than average, and home-owners spend only 30-40% of time involved in college activities compared to the average. Renters and students living with their parents are close to average.

Interestingly, in first year, students living with their parents spend 30 minutes more per week on college activities than students in rented accommodation. This difference more or less disappears during second and third year, and in fourth year renters spend 30 minutes more per week on extra-curricular activities than students living with their parents. It is also interesting to note that the amount of time resident students, and to a lesser extent renters, spend on extra-curricular activities increases over the four year period. In contrast, students living with their parents become less involved as they move through college. A possible explanation of this is that students who are more involved in college life may move out of their family home so they can be closer to college or live on-campus. Also, it may be that the more involved resident students choose to stay on campus rather then moving to the private rented sector. The fact that first year students living with their parents spend more time involved than first year renters is quite surprising, but may be a function of age, which will be considered later.
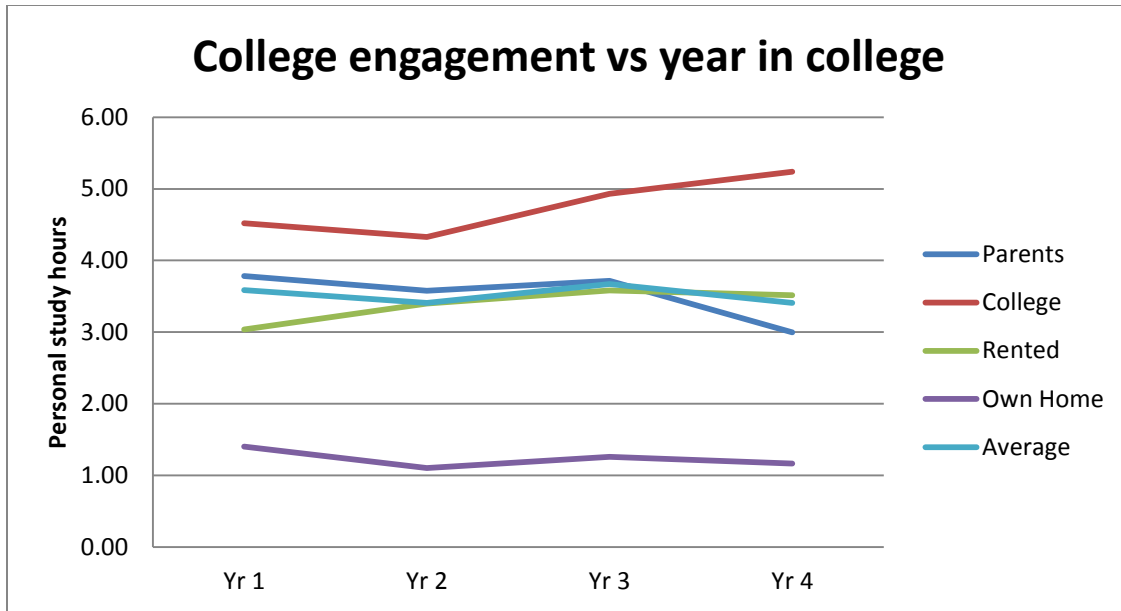
Figure 50 - ES4 – College engagement vs residence type vs year in college

Another question that arises from the above graph is whether the percentage of students who are involved decreases over the years, or whether there are possibly fewer students involved, but those students are very actively involved? An analysis of the data shows that the average percentage of students who are involved in extra-curricular activities is relatively constant over the four year period, and is also relatively constant within the different categories of living arrangements. Resident students have the highest percentage of involved students, renters and those living with parents are around average, and home-owners have the highest percentage of students with no involvement with extra-curricular activities. The one change over time is that the percentage of students living with their parents who are involved drops by 5% in fourth year, and conversely, the percentage of involved resident students increases by 5% in fourth year (to its highest level over the four year period). This supports the suggestion that students who are more involved may move out of the family home in final year to increase the amount of time they can allocate to personal study and college activities.

College engagement vs residence type vs age

When the impact of age on engagement with extracurricular college activities is analysed the graph below is generated. No meaningful statistics could be generated for home-owners under the age of 24, or for resident students over the age of 22, as the sample sizes were too small. Overall, time allocated to college engagement tends to decrease with the progression of age, with the exception of resident students, where older students spend more time on college activities than younger students.

College engagement vs age
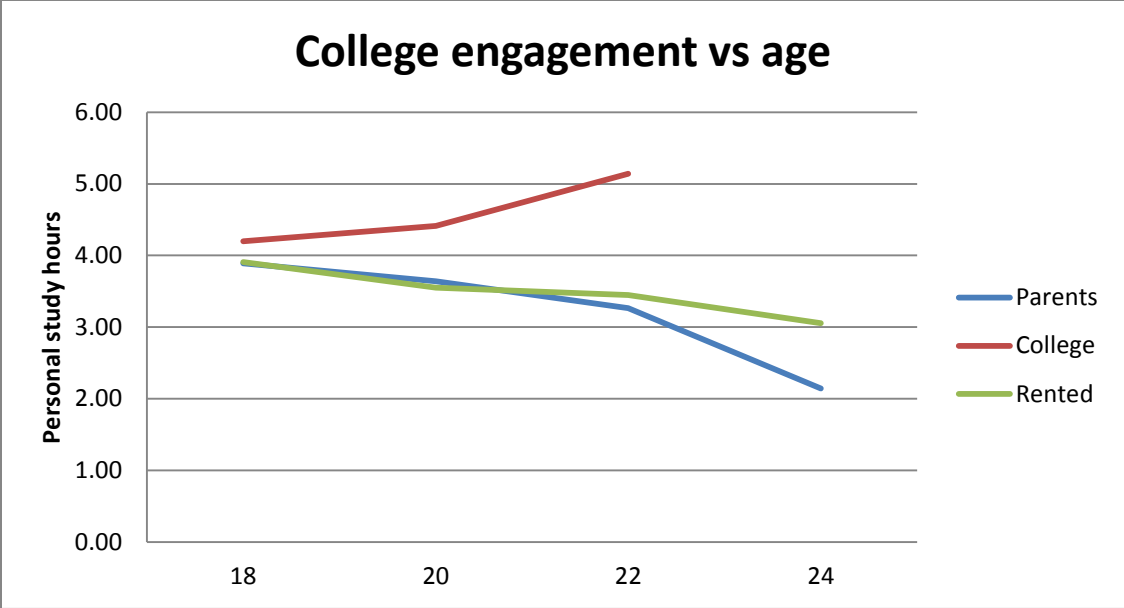
Figure 51 - ES4 – College engagement vs residence type vs age

It is noticeable that among 18 year old students, resident students spend around 10% more time involved in college activities than renters or students living with parents. This difference increases with age, and a 22 year old resident student will spend nearly 50% more time involved in extra-curricular activities than the other two categories. As described earlier, resident students have a younger average age than the other categories, and renters tend to be older. Hence, the average age of the category of students has an impact on their involvement with college activities.

Once again, it can be noted that the involvement levels of students living with their parents drops significantly as age progresses.

College engagement vs residence type vs part-time work

Part-time work was found to have a relatively small impact on time allocated to extra-curricular activities. Those who had part-time work spent on average 10% less time per week involved in extra-curricular activities.

Student engagement with all college activities – academic and extra-curricular

Even with the inclusion of the figures for extra-curricular activities, students in on-campus accommodation still lag behind renters and home-owners in the amount of time spent on all college related activities. The table below shows the amount of time spent by the four groups on taught studies, personal study and college engagement.

	Parents	College	Rented	Own home
ES3	32.84	34.22	34.43	34.61
ES4	36.93	37.26	38.71	40.79
Average	34.88	35.74	36.57	37.70

Table 61 - Place of residence versus time spent (hours per week) on college related activities

Study Abroad

In ES4 and ES5 students were asked if they had, or if they intended to, study abroad as part of their regular course of study. Experience of study abroad is aligned with the ISSE construct of enriching educational experiences. In both ES4 and ES5 resident students were most likely to respond that they had or planned to study abroad. In both surveys home-owners were least likely to respond positively to the question. It is likely that mature students would be more affected by the obstacles to study abroad identified in ES4: additional financial burden; loss of opportunity to earn money; and separation from partner, children, friends.
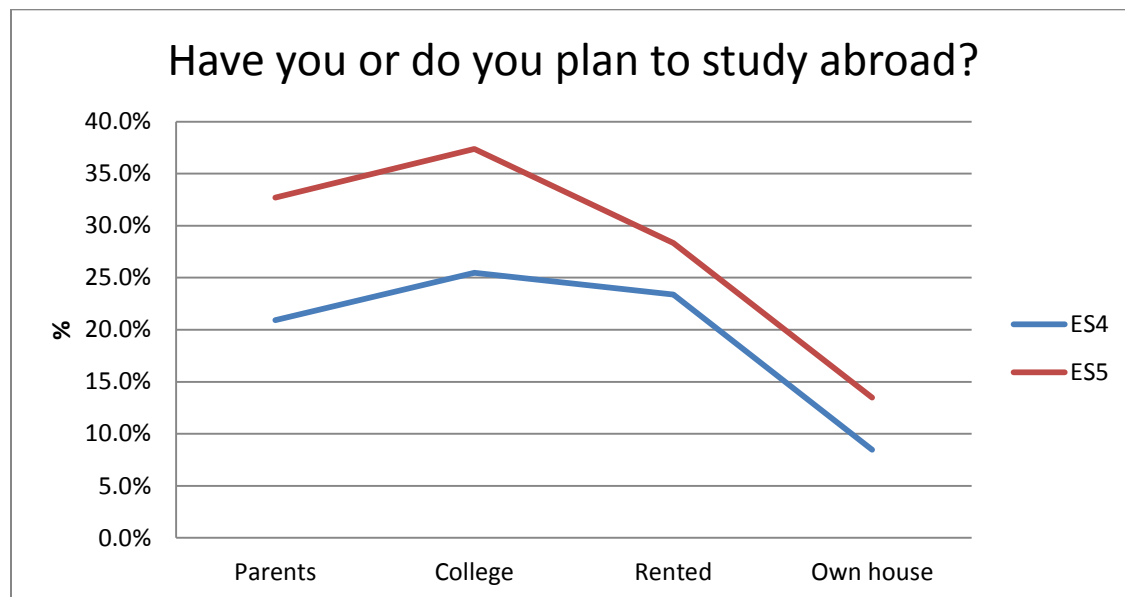
Figure 52 - ES4 – College engagement vs residence type vs study abroad

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As resident students are more likely to be from more advantaged socio-economic groups, a further analysis was carried out to consider whether this was skewing the results for this measure. This found that resident students who considered themselves of low social standing, were still more likely to have studied abroad or to plan studying abroad.

Studies more important than other activities

In ES4 students were asked if their studies were more important than other activities, which may be a reflection of how engaged they are with their academic activities. The response indicated that home-owners were more likely to feel that their studies were more important than other activities compared to other groups. Those in rented accommodation were next most likely to respond positively, with those in college accommodation least likely.

Studies more important than other activities					
	Parents	Residence	Rented	Own Home	Average
ES4	52.4%	50.4%	59.7%	70.7%	55.9%
ES5	40.30%	36.30%	45.10%	53.70%	42.40%

Table 62 - Rate studies more important than other activities vs POR

In ES5 the question was phrased differently – instead of a Yes or No, students were asked to grade this on a scale of 1 to 5. The table above shows the numbers who rated it the highest *5– More Important*. It can be seen that the pattern is the same and students in rented accommodation and those in their own home viewed their studies as being more important than other activities. Again, resident students were the least likely to rate their studies as more important than other activities.

Part-time work

The analysis of the time diaries gives the following figures for the mean hours spent by full-time undergraduate students doing part-time work. It should be noted that these figures are for part-time work during term-time only.

Part-time work (average all students)				
	Living with Parents	Student Halls	Rented Accommodation	Own House
ES3	9.09	5.33	7.68	7.14
ES4	7.72	4.31	6.12	4.21
ES5	6.55	4.13	5.55	3.86

Table 63 - Place of residence versus means hours worked (all full-time undergraduate students)
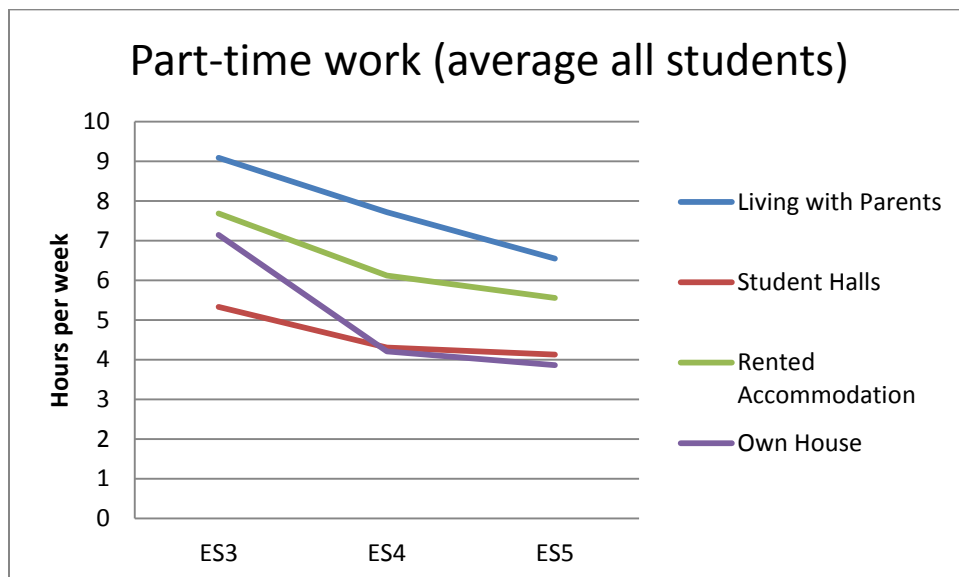
Figure 53 - Place of residence versus mean hours worked (all full-time undergraduate students)

The chart above shows the average hours per week worked by all students (including those who did not have part-time work). The analysis shows a clear pattern whereby students living with their parents on average spend the most amount of time on part-time work, followed by renters. In ES3, resident students worked the lowest number of hours in part-time work, however in ES4 and ES5 they are overtaken by home-owners who work the lowest number of hours. In the period of the three surveys, the hours worked by all groups dropped, however home-owners were the most affected and their hours dropped by over 40%.

An analysis was carried out on the percentage of students who report having part-time work (i.e. those students who reported working at least one hour per week) and the results are shown in the table below. It is noticeable that the figures are somewhat different to those who reported having income from part-time work in the income and expenditure chapter – however, these are the figures for students who worked during term-time, and the income figures include students who may not have worked during term-time but worked during the summer.

What is clear however, is that a higher percentage of students living at home with their parents have part-time work, and home-owners have the lowest rate.

% with part-time work during term-time			
	Living with Parents	Student Halls	Rented Accommodation	Own Home
ES3	52.60%	36.60%	42.70%	37.10%
ES4	55.09%	39.72%	45.64%	33.44%
ES5	49.60%	35.80%	41.20%	28.80%

Table 64 - Place of residence versus % with part-time work
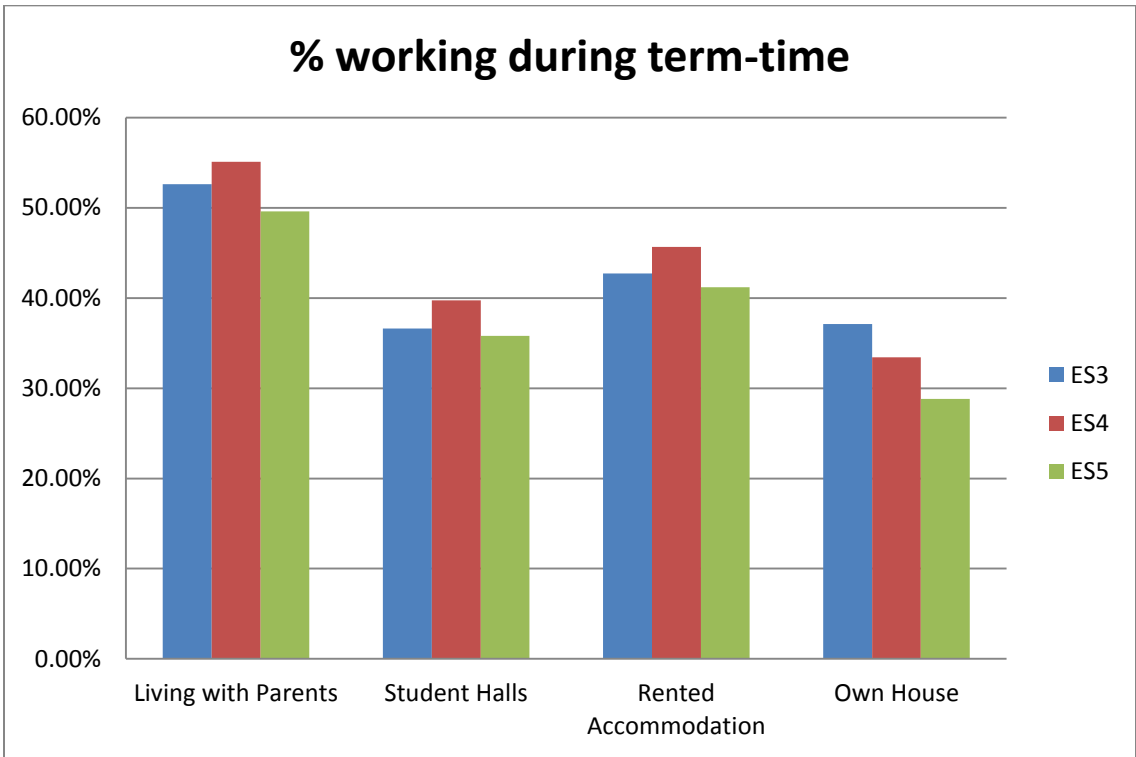
Figure 54 - Place of residence versus % working

The above chart illustrates several findings. A higher percentage of students living with parents have part-time work during term-time, followed by those in rented accommodation. The percentage of home-owners with part-time work has decreased over the period of the survey, and they now have the lowest percentage with part-time work. A lower percentage of resident students work part-time than the average for full-time students.

Figure 54 above shows the significant reduction in part-time work among students in different living arrangements over the seven-year period of the surveys. Those in their own home were more

significantly affected, as the average hours worked decreased by 46%. Other groups decreased by 25-30%. One of the key reasons for the steep decrease in the number of hours worked by home-owners is that the percentage of this group with part-time work decreased from 37% to 29%, whereas the numbers working in the other groups did not drop significantly.

An analysis of the hours worked by those who had part-time work (i.e. excluding those who do not have part-time work), shows that all groups worked an average of 12 – 15 hours per week. While fewer home-owners had part-time work, those who did worked for longer hours than students in other living arrangements, averaging 14.5 hours per week. Students in on-campus accommodation, who worked, worked for the fewest hours per week, just over 12 hours.

An analysis of when the students carry out their part-time work shows that those in on-campus accommodation do the lowest proportion of work during the week (Monday-Thursday), with only 8.8% of their paid work taking place during that period in ES4 (13.4% in ES3), whereas home-owners carry out 30.8% of their paid work between Monday and Thursday in ES4 (29.4% in ES3). The other two groups work between 18% and 25% of their hours between Monday and Thursday.

It was not possible to identify the split in ES5. In ES5, the survey did not collect a time diary for part-time work, but simply asked how many hours per week the students spent working part-time. The percentages of students who reported having part-time work in ES5 are shown below.

	Living with parents	Student Halls	Rented accommodation	Own home
Work whole semester	29.3%	15.5%	23.0%	14.3%
Work from time to time	20.3%	20.2%	18.3%	14.5%
No, I don't work during semester	50.4%	64.2%	58.8%	71.2%

Table 65 - ES5 - Place of residence versus % working

It's noticeable that students living in their own home had the highest percentage of non-workers. As has been the pattern in the previous two surveys, those in on-campus accommodation are less likely to work than the other two groups, and those living at home with their parents are most likely to have part-time work.

Impact of part-time work on academic performance

ES3 also asked students *who had part-time work*, if the part-time work was affecting their academic performance. The students in on-campus accommodation were more satisfied than students in other

residence types that part-time work did not affect their studies. On average 46% of those who had part-time jobs said that it had an impact on their academic performance, the comparable figure for resident students is 38.8%. The question was repeated in Eurostudent 4 and the results are shown below.

The phrasing of this question changed in Eurostudent 5, and students were asked to rate on a scale of 1 to 5 whether their paid employment affected their academic performance negatively or positively. That said, the pattern remained generally the same. Of those who were working, fewer resident students felt that the work was affecting their academic performance than other groups. The table below includes the respondents in ES5 who used the ranking system to indicate that work was affecting their academic performance negatively.

Work affects academic performance					
	Parents	College	Rented	Own house	Total	
ES3	45.80%	38.80%	48.90%	49.70%	46.00%	
ES4	52.3%	39.5%	57.7%	60.7%	52.9%	
ES5	42.50%	38.80%	51.70%	45.40%	45.30%	(negatively)

Table 66 - Place of residence versus work affects academic performance
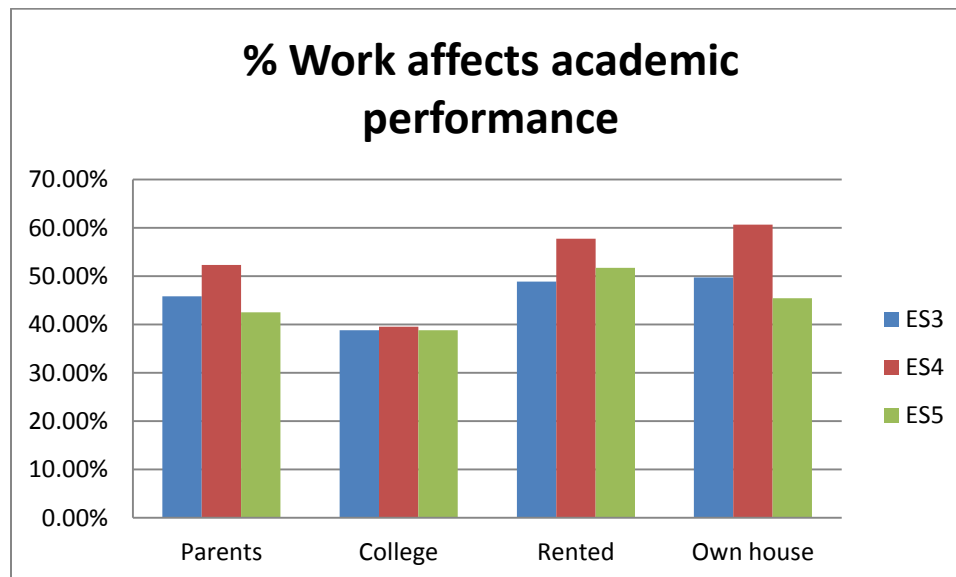
Figure 55 - Place of residence versus work affects academic performance

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The chart above illustrates that students in rented accommodation and in their own home are more likely to believe that part-time work is having a negative impact on their academic performance. The results for those students living with parents are average or below average on all surveys.

In some cases part-time work may have a beneficial aspect, if the work is closely related to the academic programme of the student. In all three surveys, significantly more home-owners reported that their part-time work was very closely related to their academic programme – double the average.

Work very closely related to academic programme					
	Parents	College	Rented	Own house	Average
ES3	7.7%	5.9%	9.8%	14.8%	8.4%
ES4	9.3%	9.6%	11.2%	22.8%	10.6%
ES5	9.6%	9.7%	7.9%	22.0%	10.1%

Table 67 - Place of residence versus work related to academic programme
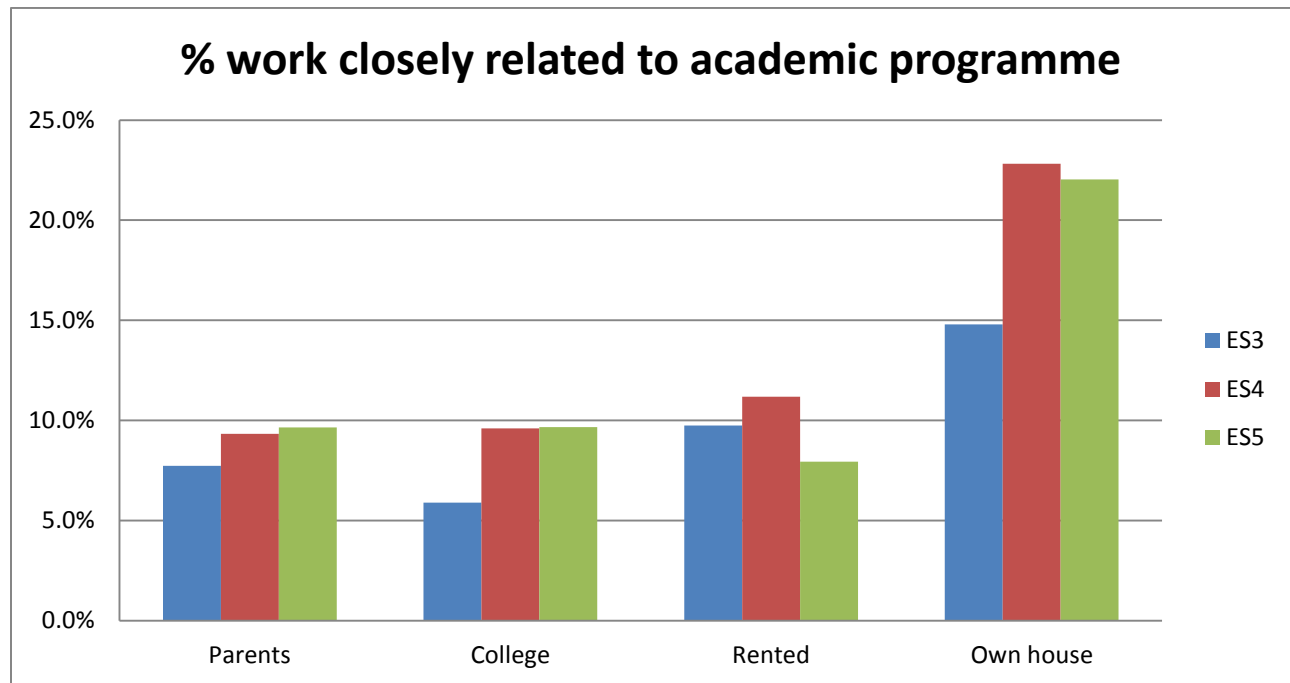
Figure 56 - Place of Residence versus work related to academic programme

Overall workload

By collating the analyses of the time diaries, we can identify the time commitments of the students in different living arrangements: taught time, personal study, college engagement and paid work. In general, most groups will spend 40-45 hours per week on these activities. In all surveys, resident students had the lowest overall workload. This is reflected in the section of this chapter considering the groups' satisfaction with various domains of their lives. Resident students were significantly more satisfied with their workload than the average for the full-time undergraduate student population.

Obviously, if one took commuting time into consideration, it would increase the time commitments for the students living with their parents, renters and home-owners. This analysis is shown in the appendix.

Satisfaction

In the Eurostudent surveys, one of the few variables that is analysed on the basis of place of residence is satisfaction with accommodation. This showed that for the total student population, including part-time and post-graduate students,

> . . . 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. (Delaney et al, 2008, p. 55)

It was the fact that students living with their parents were happier with their living arrangements than those living in college residences that seemed to warrant further investigation. The higher satisfaction ratings apply even when the postgraduate and part-time students are filtered out.

More importantly, the questions relating to satisfaction with their studies; the college they are attending; friendships; relationships with teaching staff; and relationships with college administration are strongly aligned with the ISSE constructs for supportive learning environment and satisfaction.

Summary: Resident students and home-owners are most satisfied with their studies and the college they are studying in. Similarly they are most satisfied with the attitude of teaching staff and college administration towards students. All these measure are positive for student engagement.

As mentioned already, those living with their parents or home-owners are more likely to be satisfied with their living arrangements.

Resident students or those students who live with their parents are more likely to be satisfied with their financial and material well-being. The satisfaction ratings of home-owners with their financial well-being deteriorated significantly over the course of the three surveys.

Those in student residences registered the highest satisfaction with friendships over the three surveys, but the difference with the other groups is not very significant. Those in their own home had the lowest satisfaction with friendships. However they do register the highest satisfaction with relationships. The

question relating to friendships is more difficult to relate to the ISSE construct for supportive learning environment as it cannot be demonstrated that the friendships have been developed within the college.

Satisfaction with accommodation

The analysis of satisfaction with living arrangements is shown below. The first table shows the percentage of each group who report they are satisfied or very satisfied with their living arrangements. It is noticeable that all ratings are very high. It is also noticeable that there is a consistent pattern, where resident students and renters are the least happy with their living arrangements. Home-owners and students living with their parents are the most satisfied with their accommodation, and the top two groups are significantly more satisfied with their living arrangements than resident students and renters who are grouped on the bottom.

	ES3	ES4	ES5
With Parents/relatives	87.6%	84.8%	86.8%
Student Residences	66.5%	72.0%	73.7%
Rented House/Flat	67.7%	74.6%	68.9%
Own Home	89.5%	91.3%	83.5%

Table 68 - Place of residence versus satisfaction with accommodation
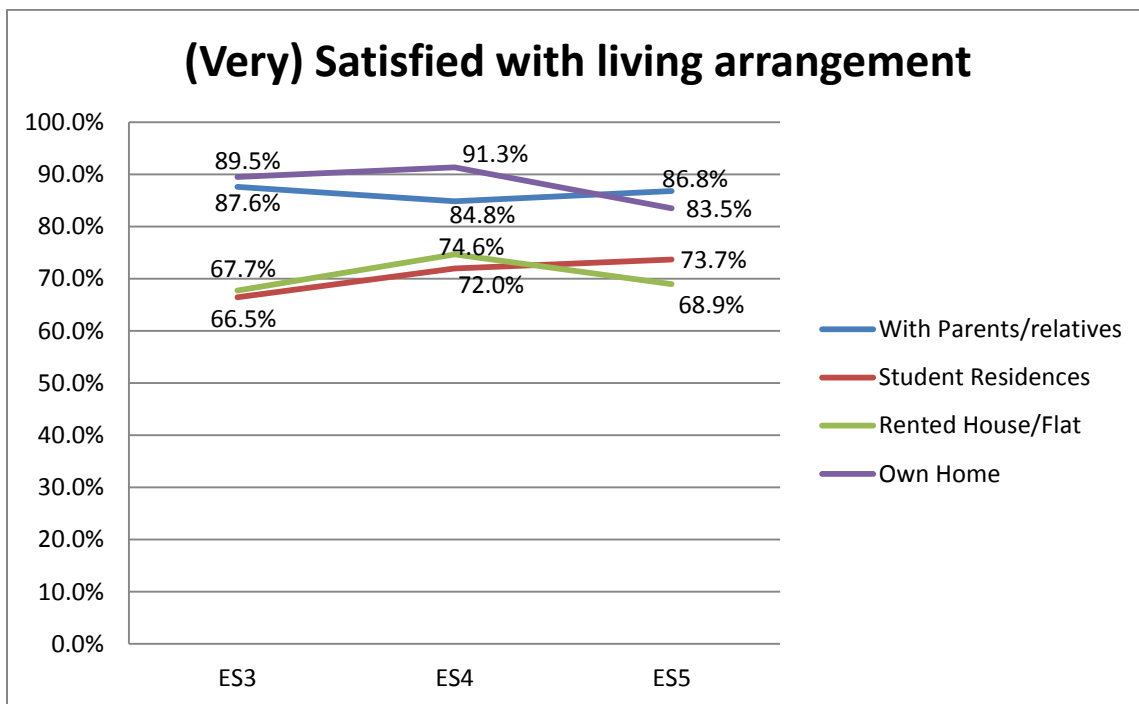
Figure 57 - Place of residence versus satisfaction with accommodation (satisfied or very satisfied)

The pattern is similar if only the students who are very satisfied with their living arrangements are considered. It is noticeable that the gap in satisfaction between the top two groups and the bottom two groups is more pronounced. It is also noticeable that there seems to be a trend, particularly with home-owners, to lower satisfaction ratings. Throughout the analysis, it would appear that many aspects of home-owners' lives (finances in particular) have deteriorated over the course of the three surveys.

Very satisfied with living arrangements

- With Parents/relatives
- Student Residences
- Rented House/Flat
- Own Home

71.0%
66.1%
62.8%
59.1%
53.8%
48.2%
28.6%
28.8%
27.6%
26.6%
20.8%
19.8%

ES3   ES4   ES5
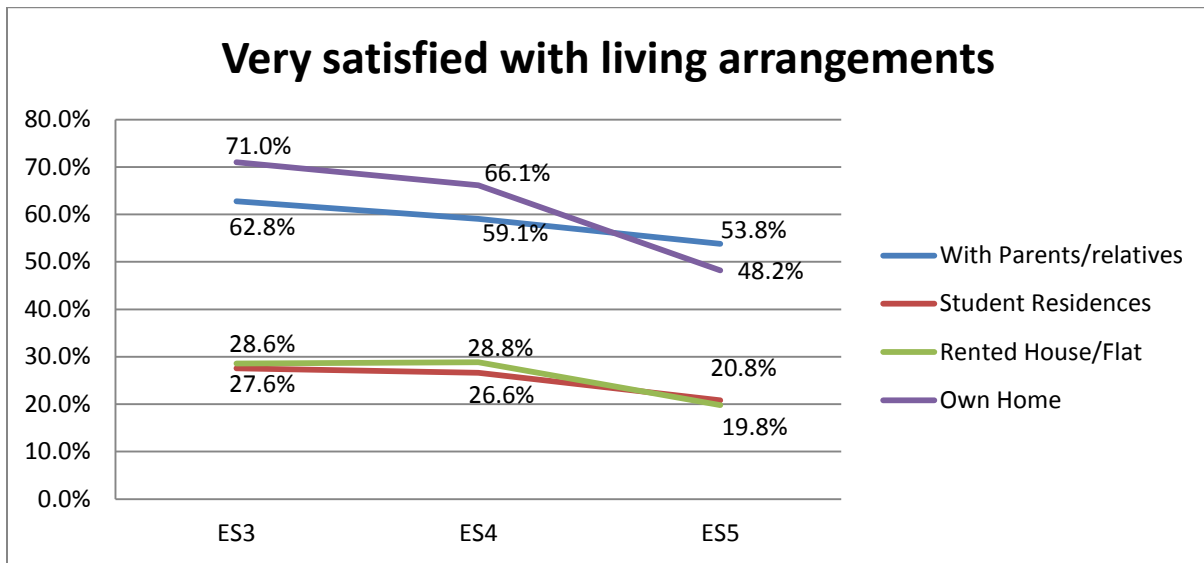
Figure 58 - Place of residence versus satisfaction with accommodation (very satisfied)

When an analysis is carried out cross-tabulating this measure with year in college, the satisfaction with accommodation is unusual in that it increases as students progress through college, presumably as students move to arrangements which more suit their needs.

Satisfaction with workload

This question was asked in ES3 and ES4. Specifically the question was: "Based on your total workload based on the time you spend on study related activities and in paid work, please rate your satisfaction with your workload". Note this question specifically leaves out time allocated to college related activities and commuting time.

Unfortunately, this question was not asked in ES5, and was replaced with a question that asked if respondents wanted more or less time for these activities. "Looking at your workload based on the time you spend on study-related activities (=taught studies + personal study time) and on paid jobs, please rate your satisfaction with your workload", and then asked whether they wanted more time for these

activities or less. It is very difficult to relate the responses to satisfaction with workload, so the responses were excluded from this analysis.

	ES3	ES4
With Parents/relatives	39.3%	45.8%
Student Residences	42.2%	54.0%
Rented House/Flat	35.6%	46.8%
Own Home	43.3%	49.2%

Table 69 - Place of residence versus satisfaction with workload
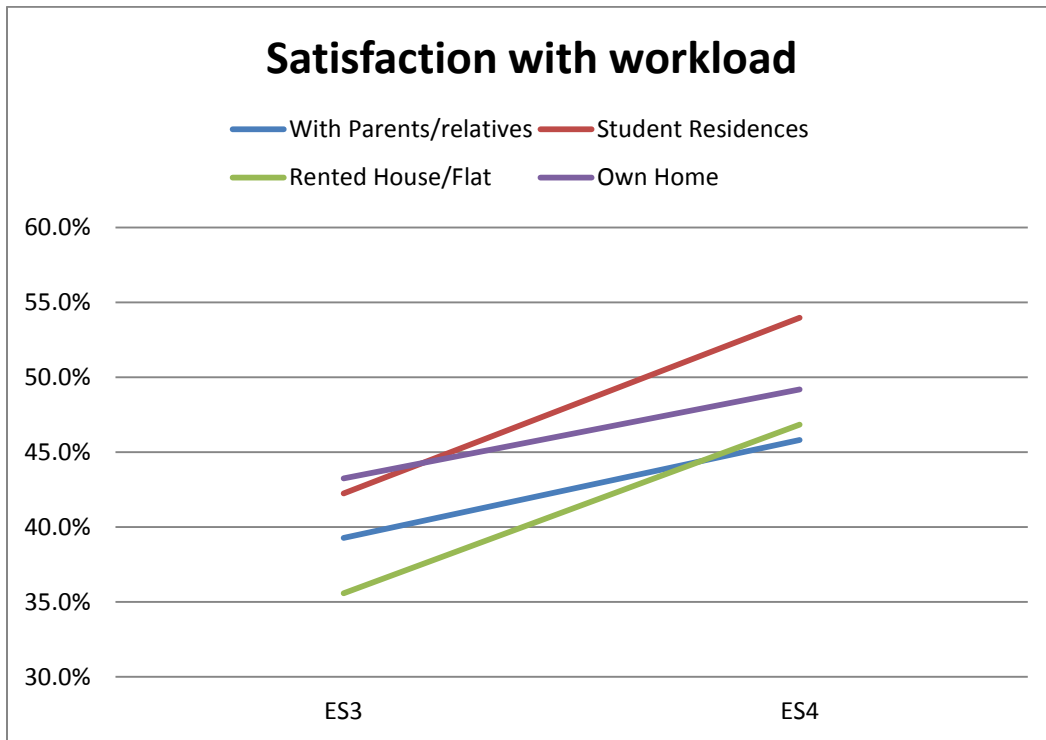
Figure 59 - Place of residence versus satisfaction with workload

In ES3 and ES4, the groups that were most satisfied with workload were home-owners and resident students. Renters and those living with parents were least satisfied. That said, with only two datasets to work from, there is little evidence of a consistent pattern. However, it is worth noting that the groups that are most satisfied with their workload (resident students and home-owners) spend the least amount of time on part-time work.

Satisfaction with financial / material well-being

An analysis of satisfaction levels with students' financial and material well-being is shown below. The pattern is relatively consistent, and finds that resident students were most happy with their financial well-being. Students living with their parents also had satisfaction levels above average. In ES3, renters were least happy at 33.8% below home-owners of whom 39.0% said they were satisfied or very satisfied.

(Very) Satisfied with financial / material well-being			
	ES3	ES4	ES5
With Parents/relatives	44.1%	47.8%	42.9%
Student Residences	46.6%	56.9%	43.2%
Rented House/Flat	33.8%	39.6%	31.3%
Own Home	39.0%	34.1%	19.4%

Table 70 - Place of Residence versus satisfaction with material well-being

When the same question was considered in ES4, three years later, the average satisfaction level had increased by around 5% points from 40.4% to 45.4%. Home-owners were the only category of student where the satisfaction level had dropped. As this group is older and more dependent on financial support from the government (see Income section), they may have been more affected by cutbacks and job losses. By 2013 the satisfaction levels for students in all residence types had deteriorated, unsurprisingly given the economic conditions. The satisfaction levels of resident students dropped by 19 percentage points, but they still remained the group with the highest satisfaction ratings, level with students who lived with their parents. The satisfaction ratings of home-owners deteriorated further, dropping to 19.4%. This group would also have been affected by the crash in property prices over the period of the survey. Between 2007 and 2013, residential property prices fell by 63.5% in Ireland (CSO, 2015). This would have left some home-owners in negative equity and affected their satisfaction with their financial well-being.

(Very) satisfied with financial well-being

These satisfaction rankings would appear to correlate with the figures on annual household income and socio-economic indicators, whereby resident students and students living with their parents tend to come from higher income backgrounds.

In ES4, students were asked "To what extent do you agree with the statement, I have sufficient funding in order to cover my monthly costs". The percentages that disagreed or disagreed strongly with that statement are shown below.

	ES4
With Parents / Relatives	38.5%
Student Residence	26.5%
Rented house/flat	41.7%
Own household	56.7%

Table 71 - ES4 - Disagree (strongly) that they have sufficient funds for monthly costs

In ES5 the question was phrased differently, and students were asked to rank the level of financial difficulty they were experiencing. The percentages who indicated difficulty or serious difficulty are shown in Table 72.

	ES5
With Parents / Relatives	45.7%
Student Residence	46.6%
Rented house/flat	56.0%
Own household	70.7%

Table 72 - Experiencing (serious) financial difficulty

It is noticeable that in both surveys home-owners expressed the most concern about their financial well-being, followed by renters, which correlates with the response to the above satisfaction question.

Satisfaction with friendships

The analysis of this variable shows that students in all residence types are very satisfied with their friendships. Differences are quite small, but there is a pattern whereby resident students and those living with their parents are most satisfied, and renters and home-owners less satisfied (but still with very high satisfaction ratings). An issue that is not resolved by this question is whether the friendships are with college peers, or are the friendships that pre-existed college. However, it is worth noting the results of the O'Connor and Russell (2008) unpublished study in an Irish HEI, which showed that students living with their parents placed more importance on socialising outside college and their friendships outside college than students in rented accommodation.

In ES3, the figures indicate that students living with their parents (82.9%), those living in on-campus accommodation (82.5%) and those living in private rented accommodation (81.7%) are most satisfied (very satisfied) with their friendships. Those in their own household have the lowest rating in this area at 76.1%.

In the analysis of the data for ES4, the results show that the top two groups are the same as for ES3 but have changed order. Students who live on-campus are most satisfied with their friendships (83.3%), followed by students live at home with their parents (81.4%). Every other category is slightly below the average for the full-time student population (private rented is 80.3%, own household is 80.8%), however, the difference between the groups is not significant. In ES5 the pattern is the same as ES4.

% Satisfied / Very Satisfied – Friendships			
	ES3	ES4	ES5
With Parents/relatives	82.9%	81.4%	81.0%
Student Residences	82.5%	83.3%	83.8%
Rented House/Flat	81.7%	80.3%	79.8%
Own Home	76.1%	80.8%	76.8%

Table 73 - Place of residence versus satisfaction with friendships

Satisfaction with relationships

ES3 measured satisfaction with relationships. It is unclear what the difference is between relationships and friendships, but presumably it would include family / boyfriend / girlfriend / work also.

The results are significantly different to the answers on friendships. For the total student population 67.9% are satisfied or very satisfied with their relationships. Those living in own household rate their relationships significantly higher than others at 74.7%; next are those in private rented accommodation at 68.4%; then those who live at home with their parents 68.0%; and students living in on-campus accommodation have the lowest levels of satisfaction with relationships at 65.2%.
The question was asked only in ES3.

Satisfaction with studies

When the responses are analysed for this question, it becomes clear that the pattern is consistent across the three surveys. Home-owners are happiest with their studies; resident students are next followed by those in rented accommodation. Students living with their parents are consistently the least happy with their studies.

% Satisfied / very satisfied with their studies			
	ES3	ES4	ES5
With Parents/relatives	48.5%	63.8%	66.3%
Student Residences	52.7%	67.2%	71.9%
Rented House/Flat	49.6%	64.4%	68.7%
Own Home	58.9%	75.4%	75.9%

Table 74 - Place of residence versus satisfaction with studies

What is surprising about this analysis is the significant increase between satisfaction ratings in ES3 and ES4. On average there is an increase in the number of students who are satisfied or very satisfied with their studies of 15 percentage points. That said, the relative distance between the groups remains remarkably consistent, e.g. those living in their parent's house, and those in rented accommodation are within 2% of each other in each survey.

(Very) satisfied with studies

- With Parents/relatives
- Student Residences
- Rented House/Flat
- Own Home
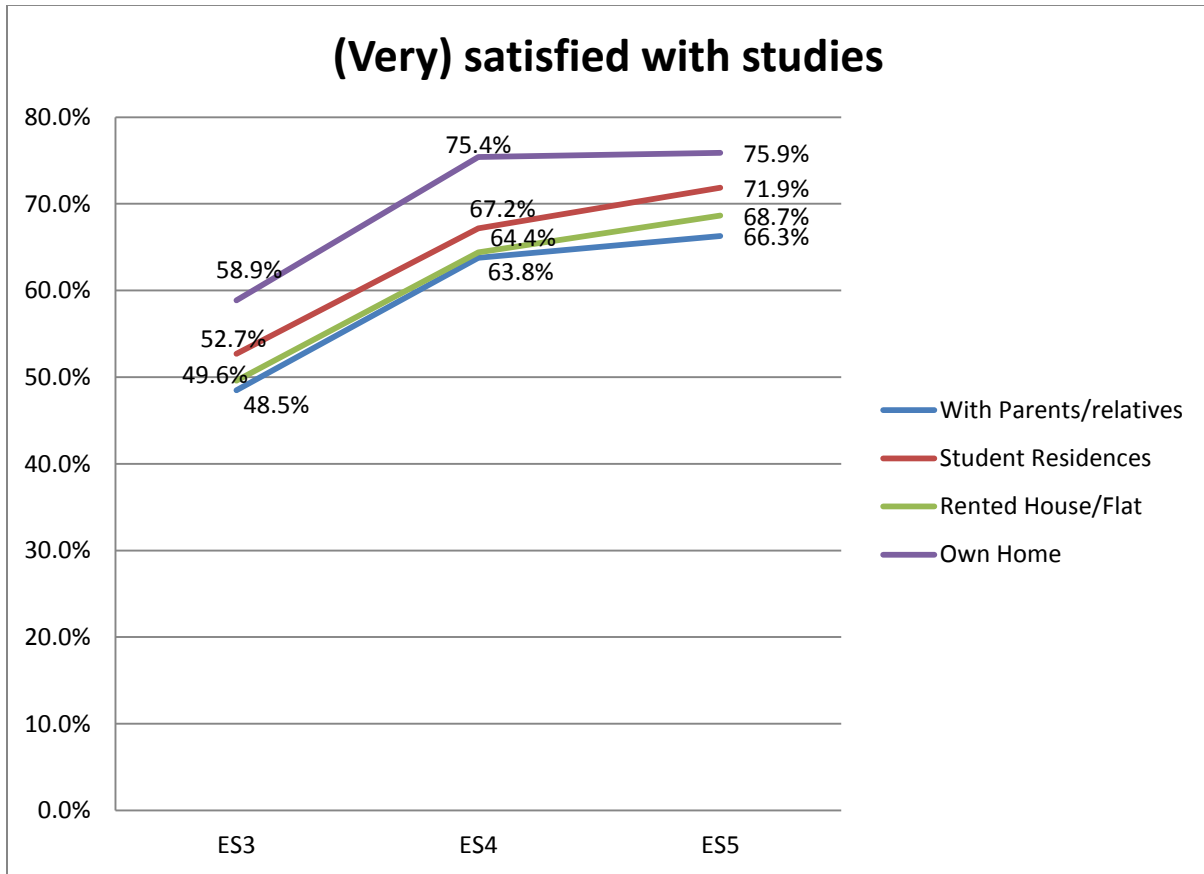
Figure 61 - Place of residence versus satisfaction with studies

For ES3, when the total full-time student population is analysed, 50.1% are satisfied or very satisfied with their studies. When the differences across the different student groups based on place of residence are considered, it is found that home-owners are most satisfied at 58.9% and 52.7% of those living on campus are satisfied/very satisfied, again above average. Those in private rented accommodation are around average at 49.6%. Those living at home with their parents are slightly below average at 48.5%.

In ES4, the pattern is similar to ES3: students living at home with their parents are the least satisfied with their studies by a very small margin, 63.8% are satisfied or very satisfied as against 65.4% for the total population. As in ES3, students living in their own household are most satisfied with their studies (75.4%) and students living on campus (67.2%) are slightly more satisfied than average. The percentage for renters is very similar to those living in their parent's house (as it was in ES3) at 64.4%.

Satisfaction with the college you are studying in

Unlike the previous question, the response to this question shows that resident students are the most satisfied with the college that they are studying in. Home-owners are next, although they pull into first place in ES5, albeit by an insignificant margin.

As with the question on satisfaction with studies, students living with their parents and renters are the least happy with the college they are studying in. Once again, the results are very close between these two groups, separated by 1-3% in each survey.

% Satisfied / very satisfied - college			
	ES3	ES4	ES5
With Parents/relatives	71.9%	78.9%	78.4%
Student Residences	77.9%	86.3%	85.4%
Rented House/Flat	72.9%	79.8%	81.2%
Own Home	74.4%	83.5%	86.2%

Table 75 - Place of residence versus satisfaction with college you are studying in

(Very) Satisfied - college they're studying in

Legend:
- With Parents/relatives
- Student Residences
- Rented House/Flat
- Own Home

Y-axis: Axis Title (50.0% to 90.0%)
X-axis: ES3, ES4, ES5
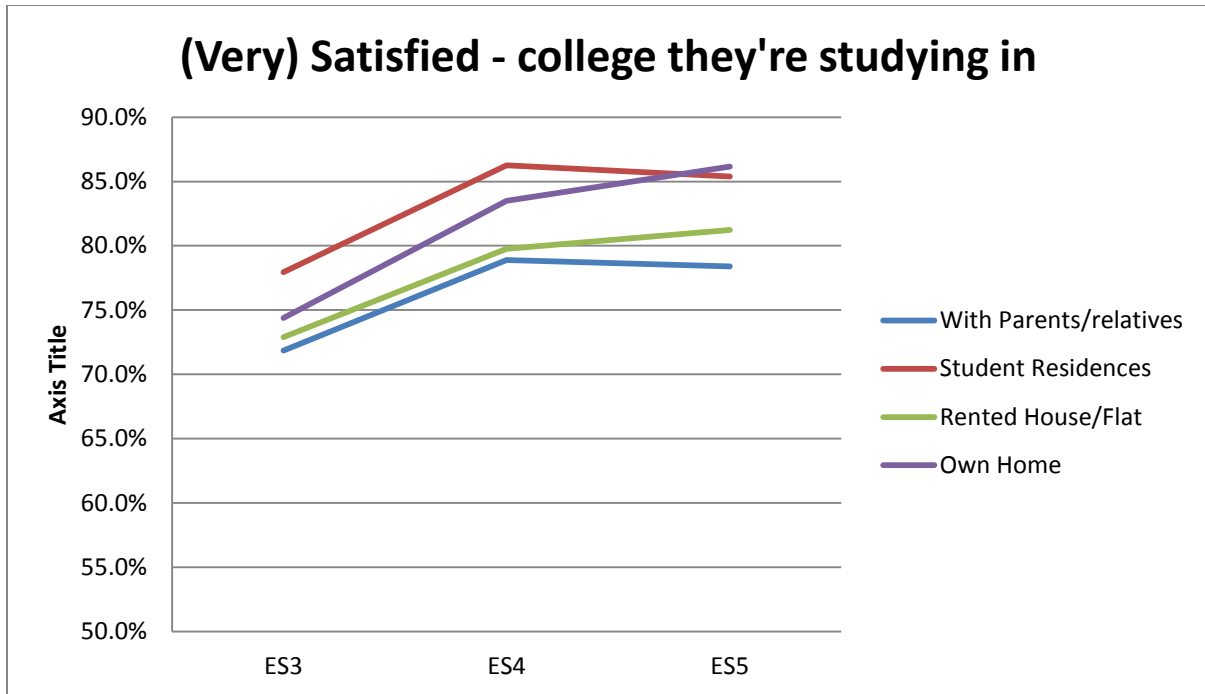
Figure 62 - Place of residence versus satisfaction with college they're studying in

In ES3, when we look at how satisfied students are with their college, we find that the average across full-time students is 73.5%. Students living in on-campus accommodation have the highest satisfaction ratings at 77.9%, followed by those in their own household at 74.4%. Next are those living in private rented accommodation at 72.9% slightly ahead of those living with their parents at 71.9%.

It should be noted that in ES3 and ES4 there is not a wide variation between the most and least satisfied – 5-7%. It should also be noted that the average satisfaction rating in the ES4 survey is around 7% higher than the ES3 survey – something that happened in several of the questions on satisfaction – and again the relative distance between the groups remains remarkably consistent with ES3.

In ES4, full-time students who live on campus are the most satisfied with the college that they are studying in, with 86.3% being satisfied or very satisfied. Home-owners are next at 83.5%. Students living at home with their parents, while they still have high satisfaction ratings are the least satisfied at 78.9%. Slightly ahead are those in the private rented sector who come in at 79.8%. It may be worth considering if the higher ratings for resident students could be connected to the fact that students in on-

campus accommodation are less likely to be attending IoTs, where satisfaction ratings for college appear to be lower than universities.

In ES5, the students living in on-campus accommodation are passed out by those in their own home, who are now ranked as most satisfied with the college they're studying in. As can see from Figure 62 above, students living with their parents are the least satisfied with the college they're studying in (but it's only a matter of a few percentage points), and they're only slightly below those in rented accommodation.

Satisfaction with staff-student relations

In ES5 new questions were introduced which investigated students' satisfaction with various aspects of the college, e.g. quality of teaching; study facilities; organisation of timetables. The survey asked students to rate their level of satisfaction with the college administration's attitude towards students, and teaching staff's attitude towards students. These survey results are of interest as they align with the ISSE construct of supportive learning environment. The patterns are quite similar for the two questions, with the difference that students are happier with the attitude of teaching staff.

The results show that resident students and home-owners are more satisfied with the attitude of both administrative and teaching staff than the other two student groups. This mirrors several of the other questions relating to satisfaction with aspects of the college.
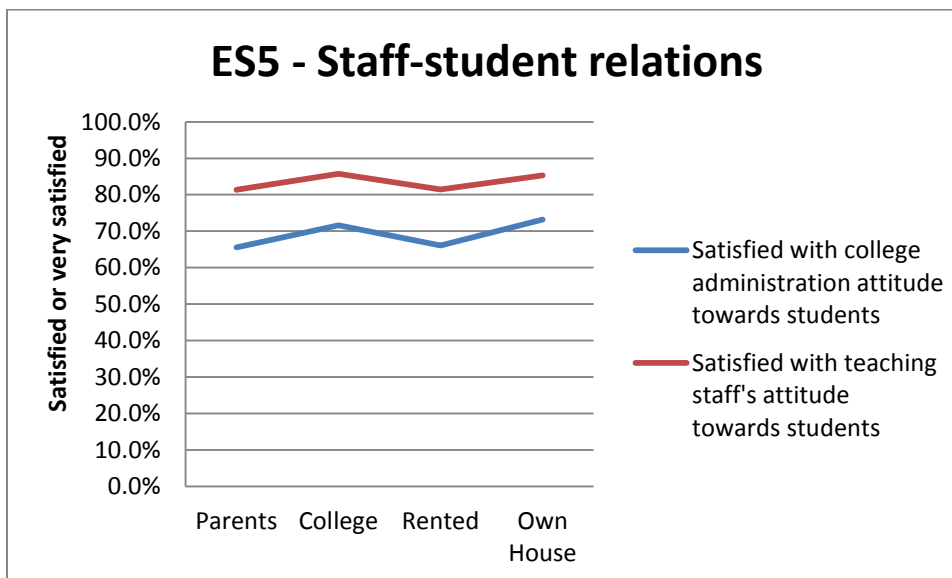
Figure 63 - ES5 – Satisfaction with staff relations versus place of residence

Satisfaction vs living arrangement vs year in college

Further analysis of the data identified a strong relationship between satisfaction and year in college. On many of the measures of satisfaction which are aligned with student engagement constructs, satisfaction decreases as students progress through college. One exception to this relates to satisfaction with studies, where satisfaction increases in fourth year.
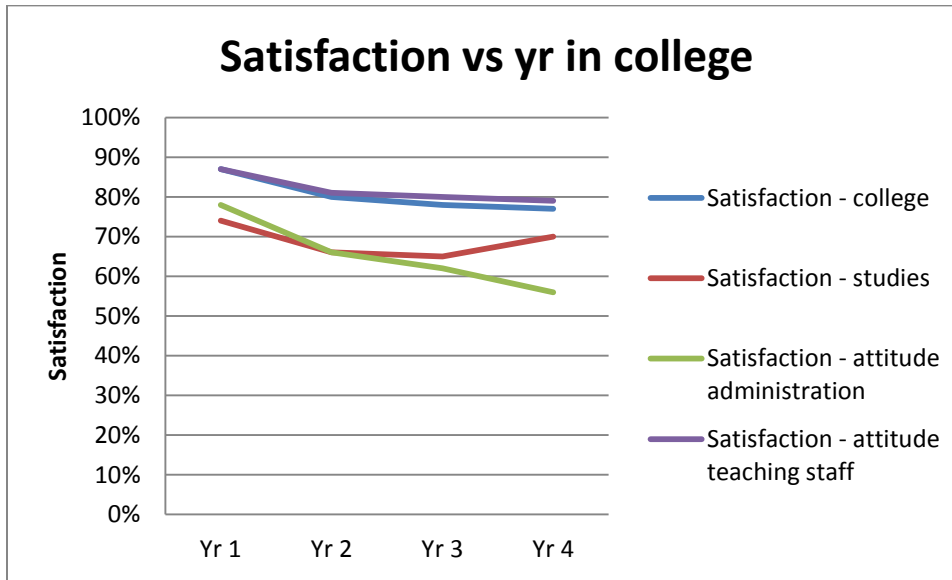
Figure 64 - ES5 – Satisfaction vs year in college

As a significant proportion of resident students are first year students, there is a possibility that this may have skewed the results showing resident students with high levels of satisfaction with the college. Further analysis took place to investigate this.

For example, the analysis of satisfaction with the college they are studying in, showed that home-owners and resident students had the highest level of satisfaction for the first three years in college. For some reason, the satisfaction levels for home-owners takes a sharp drop in fourth year, whereas satisfaction ratings among renters and resident students rise. As a result home-owners go from the most satisfied in third year to the least satisfied in fourth year.
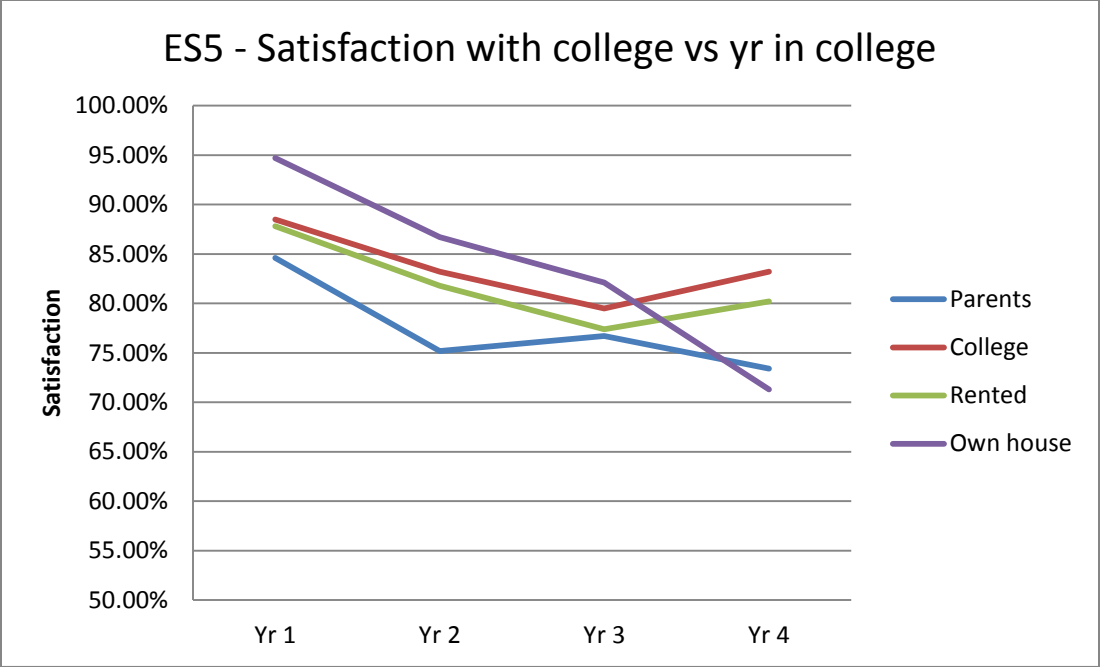
Figure 65 - ES5 – Satisfaction with college vs living arrangement vs year in college

It was very difficult to ascertain any pattern between living arrangements, satisfaction and year in college. The main finding is that students living with their parents were the least satisfied on a number of measures – their studies; the college they studied in; and relationships with teaching staff and college administration – and this generally applied regardless of their year in college. Satisfaction with the college they are studying in is an exception, as home-owners are the least satisfied in final year.

Chapter 8 - Discussion and Conclusion

This chapter will first consider whether the research questions for the thesis have been answered, and what conclusions can be drawn. Then, possible reasons for the high numbers of Irish students living with their parents will be considered. Finally, arising from the findings, policy recommendations will be made for each of the student groups, and areas for further research will be identified.

Research question

This thesis examines four categories of Irish full-time undergraduate students: students living with their parents; students living in residence halls; students living in private rented accommodation; and students living in a home that they or their partner own.

The research questions at the heart of the thesis, as described in Chapter 4, are shown below, and the following sections will review and discuss the findings for each research question.

1. Do students living in purpose-built student accommodation in Ireland exhibit higher levels of student engagement than students in other living arrangements.
   The analysis in this thesis has shown that living in college residences in Ireland is positive for enriching educational experiences, supportive learning environment, and overall satisfaction. Living in residence halls is negative for the ISSE construct of academic challenge, i.e. the amount of time spent in taught studies or personal study.

2. Does the provision of student accommodation in Ireland support the objective of increasing equity of access to under-represented groups in Irish higher education.
   This thesis finds that under-represented groups are not well-served by student accommodation in Ireland. In particular students from lower socio-economic groups and mature students are more likely to stay in rented accommodation or in a house owned by them or their partner.

Student engagement

In chapter 4, several key questions from the Eurostudent survey were identified that were strongly aligned with student engagement based on the constructs from the Irish Survey of Student Engagement.

ISSE Construct	Aligned Eurostudent variable
Academic Challenge	Hours spent on personal study
Academic Challenge	Hours spent on taught studies
Enriching educational experiences	Study abroad
Enriching educational experiences	Hours spent in extra-curricular activities
Supportive learning environment	Hours spent in extra-curricular activities
Supportive learning environment	Satisfaction with friendships
Supportive learning environment	Satisfaction with college administration attitude to students
Supportive learning environment	Satisfaction with teaching staff's attitude to students
Overall satisfaction	Satisfaction with studies
Overall satisfaction	Satisfaction with college you attended

Table 76 - Alignment of Eurostudent variables with contructs from ISSE

By reviewing the ISSE constructs the relative level of engagement of resident students can be determined.

Academic challenge: One of the key findings is that resident students spend less time involved in academically purposeful activities than the average student. Further analysis indicated that this finding is significantly influenced by age and year in college. Resident students, with high numbers of young first year students don't spend as much "time on task" as renters or home-owners who are typically older. However, when different categories of first year students were compared it is clear that there was no significant benefit to a student to live on campus – renters and home-owners spent more time on personal study. Similarly when 18 year old students were compared, students living with their parents were spending as much time on personal study as resident students.

As students progress through college there does however seem to be an advantage gained from staying on campus. In particular, fourth year resident students have the highest level of personal study time among students in different living arrangements. As such, it is unfortunate that relatively few students in Ireland stay on campus in their senior years.

It's worth noting that the opposite appears to happen with Irish students living with parents. Their levels of personal study are similar to those of resident students in first year, but as the years progress, they don't increase the commitment to study at the same rate as renters or resident students.

Enriching student experiences: This is an area where resident students clearly benefit from living on-campus, with high levels of social engagement and social integration. The engagement with extra-curricular activities such as clubs and societies, students' union, student newspapers, and sports also give these students the opportunity to get involved at a leadership level on the campus.

Resident students are also more likely to plan to study abroad, which is ranked as a high impact educational activity under the student engagement constructs. To some extent this is related to the advantaged socio-economic status of resident students, as financial uncertainty and family commitments have been identified as obstacles that may prevent students who are under-represented in higher education from taking advantage of study abroad opportunities. However, resident students were still more likely to engage with study abroad opportunities regardless of social standing.

Supportive learning environment: The Eurostudent variables that are aligned with this construct measure satisfaction with friendships, and their satisfaction with the attitude of teaching staff and the college administration towards students. All categories of students score quite highly on the Eurostudent rating of satisfaction with friendships, and as the Eurostudent question does not distinguish between friends outside the college or fellow students, it is hard to draw any conclusions from this question. However, resident students register a higher satisfaction rating than the average (alongside home-owners) in their satisfaction with staff relations – both with teaching staff and college administration.

Overall satisfaction: Once again, resident students have a higher than average satisfaction with their studies and the college they are studying in. In comparison, students living with their parents scored poorly in these areas.

In summary, living in residences does appear to be positive for several aspects of student engagement. However, the weak performance on academic challenge is disappointing, particularly as it has been demonstrated in other countries that living on campus can be positive for academic engagement. The low level of academic engagement, combined with levels of alcohol consumption that are the highest of the four groups of students, regardless of year in college, call into question the culture that has

developed in Irish student accommodation. Some proposals on how these weaknesses may be addressed are given later in this chapter.

Another objective of the thesis was to investigate whether there were significant differences between these groups of students in the following domains: demographics; socio-economic indicators; student income and expenditure; environment; student engagement; satisfaction; expectations; and health and well-being.

The thesis finds that there are differences between the groups in all these domains. The category of commuter students includes students living with their parents, renters, and home-owners, and this thesis confirms that commuter students are a heterogeneous population. The thesis also confirms that commuter students are as engaged in educationally purposeful activities as resident students. Indeed, renters and home-owners spend more time on these activities than resident students do.

The thesis also finds that there were changes in the groups over the seven-year period of the surveys. In particular the satisfaction level of home-owners with their financial well-being decreased dramatically. It is likely that this change in financial well-being is connected with the economic recession experienced in Ireland from 2008, and also connected to the changes in financial supports for students during that period.

Residence halls and equity of access to higher education in Ireland

It is possible in this thesis to identify the living arrangements of under-represented groups which are identified in the Irish National Strategy for the Equity of Access to Higher Education (HEA, 2008a). The thesis demonstrates that residence halls in Ireland do not actively support the needs of under-represented groups in higher education: students from disadvantaged socio-economic groups; mature students; and students with disabilities.

Disadvantaged socio-economic groups:

The current financial model for student accommodation in Ireland means that the cost of on-campus accommodation is at the higher end of the market, which discourages students from low-income families from living in student residences, choosing instead to rent in the private sector. The final report on the Eurostudent V survey (Hauschildt, Gwosc, Netz and Mishra, 2015) noted that in 26 out of 28 countries students depending on public support formed the largest percentage of the population in student halls. The other groups were those depending on family support or their own earnings. Ireland

was only one of only two countries out of 28 where this was not the case (it should be noted that this analysis included part-time and postgraduate students). In an analysis of Eurostudent 4 in over 20 countries (Orr et al, 2011), Ireland was the third most expensive country for accommodation, and one of only six out of 23 countries where student halls were more expensive than renting privately. The analysis notes that in many European countries student housing is subsidised by the public sector as a way of reducing the cost of accommodation as a barrier to participation in higher education. This approach has not been taken directly in Ireland or in the UK. It could be argued that the provision in the 1990s of tax breaks to developers to develop student accommodation in Ireland was a subsidy to the construction of student accommodation. However, the preferred approach in Ireland has been to provide additional grants to students which they can use to pay rent to private accommodation providers. The approach of providing subsidised student accommodation may act as a brake on increases in rent; the same does not appear to be the case for the provision of financial support to students. It could, however, be argued that the provision of student housing has addressed a supply-side shortage of accommodation, and that the increased supply of bed spaces may reduce the overall level of rent in the market.

The allocation model of student accommodation may also discriminate unintentionally against students from disadvantaged socio-economic groups. Some Irish universities give priority to students who have achieved high points in their Leaving Certificate (DCU, 2014) and this would favour students from higher socio-economic groups, and students who entered via the Leaving Certificate rather than alternative entry routes.

It would appear that unless institutions adopt a financial model which facilitates the provision of low-cost accommodation for students from disadvantaged socio-economic groups, resident students will continue to represent the most advantaged socio-economic groups.

Mature students:

The analysis of living arrangements clearly demonstrates that student halls are not attractive to mature students or students with children. In ES5, of 434 students with children, not one lived in student halls. Part of the reason for this is the physical design of the residence halls, which are generally designed in six to eight single bedrooms clustered around a shared kitchen and living area. This design is suitable for young adults, but not for older students in long-term relationships, with or without children. Residence halls in Finland use a mix of designs, some of which are appropriate for students with families and

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children, and some of which can be used by students who choose to live on their own (Orr et al, 2011). Another reason for very low mature student numbers may also be the cost of living on campus, which tends to be at the higher end of the market, as discussed above.

Students with disabilities:

The data analysis didn't demonstrate that students with disabilities were more likely to live in residence halls. In fact, the results showed that students with specific learning difficulties, chronic illness, mental health issues, mobility impairment or other long-term conditions were more likely than average to live in their own home. Students with mental health issues were also more likely to live in rented accommodation. These findings, however, may be a function of age, as many of these conditions can develop as people grow older. The samples sizes for students with disabilities were not sufficient to do further analysis cross-tabulating place of residence with age.

In summary, the thesis found that on-campus accommodation in Ireland is not representative of the increasingly diverse student population. In order for student accommodation to be more inclusive of under-represented groups, the financial model underpinning the development of student accommodation will have to change significantly.

Recommendations for policy makers on an institutional or national level

Arising from the findings in the thesis, the sections below identify policy or management changes which may assist in improving student engagement for the different categories of students, or ensure that on-campus accommodation plays a more effective role in supporting under-represented groups.

Resident students and social engagement

This thesis finds that one of the positive aspects of living in residence halls is the high level of engagement with extra-curricular activities. Resident students spend 25-30% more time on college engagement activities than an average student, which is positive for student engagement.

However, the high levels of risky drinking behaviour among resident students (refer appendix IV) call into question the nature of the social engagement, and is a matter of concern. The analysis showed that resident students consumed more alcohol, and exceeded safe limits for alcohol consumption, more than other categories of students. Also, this pattern applies regardless of year in college. The MyWorld

survey of mental health in Irish students (Dooley and Fitzgerald, 2012) showed a strong link between alcohol abuse and poor mental health. In order to address this, the following recommendations are made:

- Previous studies in Ireland (Hope et al, 2005) have highlighted the unhealthy drinking culture among young Irish students, and residence halls may represent a setting in which this culture could be addressed effectively. It is recommended that residence hall managers work closely with health promotion officers and sports and recreation officers within the college to create conditions and programmes within the residence hall which are positive for social interaction, but do not involve alcohol.
- Anecdotally, international students report being uncomfortable at the level of alcohol consumption in Irish residence halls. In 2013 one Irish university introduced the option of alcohol-free student accommodation, and this option should be introduced into other HEIs in the near future.
- Room allocation policies should encourage a mix of students from different years, and where possible encourage mature students to live in residence halls, in order to establish a more academic culture in the residence hall.

Resident students and academic engagement

This thesis has found that resident students in Ireland have lower levels of engagement with educationally purposeful activities than other categories of students. The study identified that age and year in college has a significant influence on levels of academic engagement. Even so, from an academic engagement perspective, there is currently little or no benefit to be gained by living in residence halls for a first year student entering college direct from secondary school. This is a disappointing finding but it should be possible to address this through policy and management changes in residence halls.

The study found that, resident students who are 20 or over, and resident students in their final year, have higher levels of academic engagement than comparable students who are renting or living with their parents. On that basis the following recommendations are made:

- The underpinning ethos and mission statement for residence halls should be to actively support the academic development of students.

- The manner in which residence halls are managed should endeavour to establish a culture of academic engagement – Living Learning Communities. This may be done by: operating study skills programmes within the residence hall; grouping students based on their common academic interests; providing and managing group study areas; and incorporating points for academic performance into competitions between residence halls. There is significant scope in Ireland for the introduction of programmes such as Freshman Interest Groups and Living Learning Communities (Tinto and Goodsell, 1993; Pike, 1999) which have been demonstrated to improve student engagement.

- Residence Assistants / supervisors should receive training on academic supports that are available to students in their residence halls and across campus.

- The room allocation policy should encourage final year students to live in residence halls, as their commitment to personal study would provide role models for first year students. This would need careful management, as mixing senior students with first years can sometimes lead to conflict around noise levels. The room allocation policy could also prioritise rooms for returning students based on academic results, or prioritise first year students on academic scholarships.

Addressing satisfaction levels and academic engagement among students living with their parents

In the United Kingdom, the HEFCE 2009 report into student accommodation identified that first year students living with their parents had a high rate of non-continuation at 10%, compared to a 4% non-continuation rate for resident students. The report also identified that students living with their parents were more likely to be from disadvantaged socio-economic groups. This thesis found that in Ireland students living with their parents exhibited low levels of engagement with educationally purposeful activities – taught studies and personal study – which would be of concern. However, one of the major findings of this thesis is that in Ireland students who live with their parents are from higher socio-economic groups on a number of scales, for example parents' educational attainment. According to the 2010 HEA report on progression in Irish Higher Education (Mooney et al, 2010) parents' educational attainment is positive for retention and progression. However, there are several demographic indicators for students living with parents that are negative for progression. For example, in comparison with resident students, students living with their parents are more likely to be male, more likely to be

studying in an institute of technology, more likely to be studying at Level 6 or Level 7 on the National Framework of Qualifications. According to the 2010 HEA report on retention, all these are negative indicators for progression. One possible area for future research is to consider the impact of place of residence on retention, after screening for pre-college characteristics. This thesis has demonstrated that Irish students change their place of residence over the course of their college careers, with resident students and students in the parental home tending to move into private rented accommodation in second year and later years. From that point of view, it may be advisable in future research to focus on impact of place of residence on retention in the first year of college.

Students living with their parents exhibited low levels of satisfaction with the college they were studying in, with their studies, and with relationships with teaching staff and college administration.   Possible reasons for this include:

- Staying at home may have prevented them from applying to other colleges or courses.
- As this group of students spend a significant amount of time working part-time and commuting, they may not be as socially integrated in college life as resident students.
- Students living with parents are more likely to be studying in an institute of technology, and generally students in the IoT sector expressed lower levels of satisfaction with their college than those in university.

Whereas students living with their parents report high levels of satisfaction with their friendships, it is unclear whether these friendships are with friends from college, or friends from their home area. It could be that students living with their parents are not as socially integrated in college as resident students. Certainly first year students living with their parents spend around 25% - 30% less time on college activities than resident students.

There are also concerns in other areas for students living with their parents. In some ways, students living with their parents appear to be more independent or have more autonomy than resident students, despite the fact that they are living in the parental home. They are the category of student most likely to have income from part-time employment, and they contribute a higher percentage to their living costs than do resident students (although they are significantly behind renters or home-owners in this regard). However it may be the case that living with parents limits the development of students in other ways. For example, in Ireland, students living with their parents were least likely to consider working abroad. Studies in the US have demonstrated that living away from home can assist in the development of self-confidence and an appreciation of diversity. This thesis has also shown that,

while in first year levels of personal study and academic engagement for students living with their parents are average, as they progress through college they fall behind renters and resident students in these areas. I would suggest that this slippage is due to the lack of academic community within the family home.

Recommendations to address this are as follows:

- Colleges should offer structured opportunities for commuter students to interact with their class mates, whether these are coordinated study groups; activities coordinated by peer mentors; or student societies organised around academic programmes. Some of these opportunities may take the form of social media / distance learning technologies which allow students to interact with each other.
- Extra-curricular activities should be held at times which are convenient for commuter students – such as at lunchtime or shortly after classes finish.
- Academic programmes should include high-impact educational activities, such as study abroad, service learning, work placement or internships.
- HEIs should work closely with public transport authorities to ensure good transport links with the institute, particularly late night transport which would facilitate commuter student involvement in extra-curricular activities.

Using student accommodation to support equity of access

This thesis has demonstrated that under-represented groups in Irish higher education, particularly mature students and students from disadvantaged socio-economic groups, were even more under-represented in residence halls.

- One of the key recommendations for addressing this inequity would be to change the financial model for student accommodation in Ireland. Student accommodation should be viewed as a student support, as it is in the majority of European countries, instead of a commercial operation, which is the model which has been adopted in the UK and Ireland.
- On a national level, giving Institutes of Technology the authority to borrow to fund student accommodation projects would redress the situation whereby 20% of university students have the opportunity to live in student accommodation compared to only 8% of IoT students. As IoTs

typically have a higher representation of disadvantaged socio-economic groups, this would increase the representation of these groups in residence halls.

- HEIs should develop scholarship programmes targeted at supporting accommodation costs for students from under-represented groups to live on campus.

- In designing student accommodation, HEIs should ensure that a proportion of the apartments would be suitable for mature students, students with children, or students with physical disabilities.

- In cases where HEIs are hiring resident assistants to help with the management of the residence halls, priority should be given to suitable applicants from under-represented groups.

Support for renters and home-owners

One of the unexpected findings of this thesis is that, as family income declines, students are increasingly likely to live in rented accommodation and correspondingly unlikely to live at home with their parents. This would appear to be counter-intuitive, as the cost of rented accommodation in Ireland is significant.

One possible explanation for this phenomenon is that students from lower income families may be uncomfortable living at home while not contributing to the family income in any significant way. For low income families there may be an "opportunity cost" of having an occupant in the house who is using scarce resources and not bringing in a wage packet or social welfare.

The thesis confirmed that the concept of the "disengaged commuter" was a fiction in the case of renters, and also home-owners, as both these groups spent more time on educationally purposeful activities than did resident students. Renters did spend less time on college extra-curricular activities, but this may be more a function of age.

Unsurprisingly, home-owners are primarily composed of mature students. Despite the multiple life-roles that mature students have, home-owners demonstrated high levels of engagement with their academic activity. The thesis found that the financial situation of students in this category deteriorated dramatically over the period of the surveys. As home-owners they would have been affected by a drop in property values of over 60% during this period, which may have placed some of the students in negative equity, and would be reflected in their feelings of financial well-being. It's also probable that many mature students who started college from 2008 onward had been affected by the recession, and were starting in college because they had lost their job. Construction jobs in particular were badly hit in the recession, and it's noticeable that in 2007 this category had a lower percentage of males than the

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total undergraduate population, but by ES5 home-owners were 41% male compared to 36% of the total undergrad population. Recommendations for supporting this group are as follows:

- Home-owners have very low levels of engagement with extra-curricular activities and may lack an effective peer support network in college as a result. Extra-curricular activities specifically targeted at mature students and home-owners should be developed – mature students societies; groups for student parents; physical activity / fitness programmes for older age groups; mature student peer mentors; social media groups for mature students.
- Home-owners are very academically engaged and are likely to actively engage with workshops and study groups that would support their learning. HEIs should develop such programmes, such as academic writing workshops; maths workshops; mature student study groups. These activities would also support the development of peer networks for home-owners, and should be organised at times which would suit students who may have commitments as carers for children or dependent relatives.
- HEIs should provide budgeting support and financial aid packages for home-owners, as this group are particularly concerned about their financial situation.

Living arrangements for students in Ireland

It is unclear why, in comparison with the United Kingdom, such a high percentage of Irish students choose to live at home with their parents. Ireland is not alone in Europe in having a high percentage of students living with their parents. The *Eurostudent IV Synopsis of Indicators* (Orr, Gwosc and Netz, 2011) names Portugal, Poland, Malta, Italy, Spain, Croatia and Turkey as countries where over 40% of students live with their parents – over 70% in the case of Malta and Italy. These countries are contrasted with several northern European countries – Denmark, Finland and Norway – where under 10% of students live with their parents. Several reasons for these high levels of students living with their parents are suggested. Firstly, in the southern European countries the average age of full-time students is low compared to northern European countries: an average of 23 years versus 26 years. However, the authors also list Portugal and Ireland as countries with a higher proportion of older students, and both countries have high levels of students living with their parents. Orr et al also suggest that financial constraints may prevent students moving away from their parental home, but this is not demonstrated in Ireland, where the likelihood of students living with their parents increases as the family income

increases. Bienefeld and Almqvist (2004) suggest that the decision to live with parents is influenced by legislation, which in turn is influenced by the cultural value placed on the family. They note that in Scandinavian countries students can apply for financial assistance and support independent of their parental income, and students have a high degree of legal independence from their parents. In other countries they are "legally the children of their parents up to an advanced age" (p. 432) to the point where, in Germany, students can take their parents to court to receive financial support while in college.

It is likely that there are several variables which influence the high number of Irish students that live with their parents while at college. Higher education in Ireland is relatively accessible geographically. The *Mind the Gap* report into educational inequality in Europe (Ballas et al, 2012) showed that 99% of the population in Ireland was within 60 minutes of a higher education institution. The thesis also identified that living with parents is much more common in the greater Dublin area, where a significant part of the Irish population reside. Moving away to college is not considered a major rite of passage in Ireland, as it would appear to be in some other countries. Also, the Irish higher education grant system does not incentivise students to move away from home, as would be the case, for example, in Finland (Bienefeld and Almqvist, 2004). Irish students who qualify for a grant will be better off if they attend a college close to their home, as the additional non-adjacent grant for living more than 45km away from the HEI is not sufficient to cover the average rental cost for an academic year.

It is possible that there is a cultural element to the phenomenon. It is noticeable that in six of the seven countries where over 40% of students live with their parents the majority religion is Catholicism, as it is in Ireland. However, the question would need further study to identify reasons why such students live with their parents.

Additional comment on Resident students

At the beginning of this century the number of students living in residence halls was less than 5%, but resident students now comprise over 15% of the full-time student population and are established as a significant student grouping that warrants further study.

Given the demographic and socio-economic profile of resident students, they should have higher retention rates than other groupings – renters and home-owners in particular. The Higher Education Authority report into progression in higher education in Ireland (Mooney et al, 2010) identified that high

Leaving Certificate points; high level of parents' educational attainment; studying in a university; studying at NFQ Level 8; and being female were all positive indicators for progression. These indicators would all be favourable for resident students. The question to be asked, which cannot be resolved by this thesis, is whether living on-campus brings any additional value, whether resident students are progressing at a level higher than they should given their demographic and socio-economic profile, and whether there are any gains in desirable graduate attributes such as communication, team-working, creativity, appreciation of diversity, entrepreneurialism, problem-solving. This is an area that would warrant further study in an Irish context.

The thesis demonstrated that resident students had the highest level of involvement in college activities, which is positive for student engagement, and Tinto's model (1994) would indicate that social integration into the college is important for retention. However, the thesis also found that Irish resident students spent less time engaged in educationally purposeful activities – taught time and personal study time. This is surprising, given that resident students spent less time on part-time work, and significantly less time commuting.

Resident students reported very low satisfaction with their living arrangements, and the percentage of students living in residence halls was halved after first year. Although this may be linked to room allocation policies that favour first year and international students, a study in the United States linked satisfaction with the decision to remain in residence halls or move to off-campus rented accommodation (Li, Sheely and Whalen, 2005). The major issues identified in the US study, such as dining plans, parking allocation and leadership opportunities, may not apply in an Irish situation. Other issues such as restrictive visitation policies, noise, and lack of choice of room-mates were not found to be significant in the US study. This is an area that could be usefully considered in an Irish situation.

It is clear from the results of this thesis that resident students are very dependent on parental support from a financial point of view. A higher percentage of resident students report being in receipt of financial support from their parents than students in other living arrangements, and all three surveys found that families of resident students contribute the highest amount to their costs compared to the other student groups. This would support the view of Christie et al (2002) that residence halls are "supported accommodation" targeted at first years and ease the transition to higher education. Prior to the development of the residence hall segment in Ireland, this role of supported accommodation was fulfilled by "digs" whereby students would live with a host family during the week and their meals were provided by the landlady. In the first Eurostudent survey (2000) 9% of students reported living in digs.

By the end of the decade this level had been reduced to less than 2%, and the category was not recorded in ES5, presumably because of low numbers in this category in ES4. From this point of view, the progression of students from residence halls to rented accommodation is a progression to a more independent lifestyle.

Conclusion

This thesis has identified four clearly distinct student types based on their living arrangements. These categories have different characteristics and these identified needs could be used by student affairs professionals to target specific groups, e.g. financial support and advice for home-owners; Living Learning Communities in residence halls; alcohol management programmes in residence halls. Residence Halls in Ireland are in their infancy, and do not currently appear to be managed in a manner that encourages student engagement in academic activities or which actively supports the National Strategy for the Equity of Access to Higher Education (HEA, 2008a). While the first issue could be addressed by management, reducing the rental cost of student residences, and making residence halls more attractive to mature students are issues which may require policy changes at a national level.

The question of whether student living arrangements in Ireland have an impact on student retention, after screening for pre-college characteristics, is an issue that I hope to consider in future research.

Appendix I

Expenditure

In the Eurostudent surveys the expenditure figures were collected as expenditure per month or per semester. In order to get the cost to the student over the period of a college year, the figures were multiplied to get a cost for two semesters or nine months.

The analysis of expenditure proved to be problematic. As different categories were used in the three surveys, it can prove difficult to get a direct comparison. The ES3 data required significant cleaning to remove responses that were clearly incorrect, facetious, or unreasonable. In some cases the data were unusable. The accommodation section in ES3 in particular proved challenging. With those caveats in mind, however, it is useful to look at the results, as it is possible to identify patterns within and between the three surveys.

The table below shows the summary of total expenditure for the four groupings.

	Annual expenditure (€)				
	With Parents / Relatives	**Student Residence**	**Rented house/flat**	**Own household**	**Average**
ES3	5071	5424	5584	11281	6407
ES4	5620	8079	8902	13097	7649
ES5	7591	9445	9535	12762	8995

Table 77 - Place of residence versus total expenditure

Annual expenditure
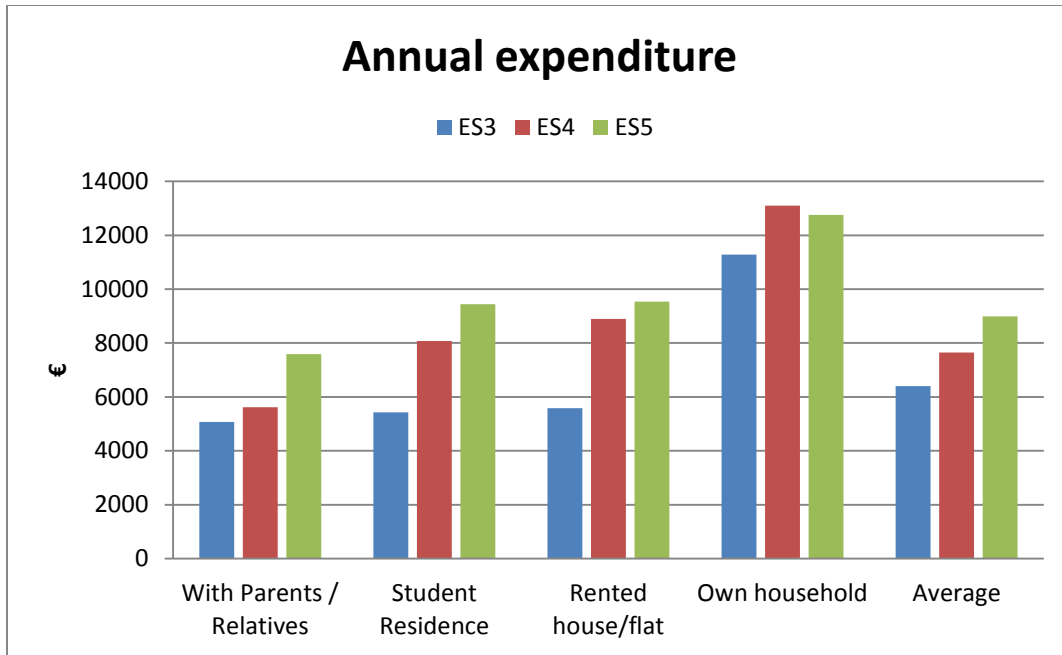
Figure 66 - Place of residence versus total expenditure

This shows, on average, how expenditure increased over the course of the three surveys. Resident students and renters appear to have been most affected by the increasing costs. However, as was explained previously, renters contribute over 50% of the costs themselves, whereas resident students paid around a third of the costs themselves in ES4 and ES5.

In the section below there is a detailed breakdown of expenditure for each of the Eurostudent surveys. Following that, where possible, the different categories of expenditure have been analysed to consider the impact on students in different living arrangements.

The table below shows the expenditure from ES3 for the different categories over a nine-month period.

	With Parents / Relatives	Student Halls	Rented	Own household	Average
Accommodation	436	2451	2297	4850	2517
Bills	523	183	274	891	381
Food	1025	668	668	1339	836
Clothing	542	344	330	545	425
Transport	492	268	293	683	383
Medical	164	62	58	114	103
Mobile	202	166	171	199	184
Alcohol	412	327	352	299	369
Tobacco	72	52	79	106	73
Entertainment	350	220	231	342	280
Loan repayments	199	77	179	836	196
Books	148	132	123	202	137
Examination costs	49	41	55	95	52
Student Fees	384	385	391	328	385
Student Associations	7	8	6	4	7
Childcare	34	8	34	337	42
Other	32	30	41	109	38
Total	5071	5424	5584	11281	6407

Table 78 - ES3 Place of residence versus annual expenditure

The ES3 analysis is unusual, as the expenditure by students in campus accommodation, and in rented accommodation is only 10% above that of students living with their parents. The expenditure is also significantly below the analysis published in the ES3 report. This is to be expected to some degree, as the analysis for this thesis excludes postgraduate and part-time students who have higher incomes and higher expenditure.

The ES4 overall expenditure figures can be found below:

	With Parents / Relatives	Student Residence	Rented house/flat	Own household	Average
Accommodation	640	3172	3264	4244	2203
Living expenses - clothing, food, etc	1227	1360	1585	2759	1471
Social and leisure	786	662	702	621	726
Transportation	694	445	498	1032	606
Health costs	149	107	74	284	124
Communication	236	174	239	467	242
Childcare	12	3	63	564	63
Debt repayment	197	85	244	1034	248
Other (Tobacco, etc)	259	115	240	661	255
Tuition Fees	645	1171	1251	605	943
Registration / exam fees	451	466	384	295	420
Contribution Student Associations	30	29	51	97	42
Learning materials	260	267	279	380	275
Other	35	22	27	54	31
Total Annual Costs	5620	8079	8902	13097	7649

Table 79 – ES4 Place of residence versus annual expenditure

In ES4 the actual expenditure figures appear to be closer to what one would expect, given the additional costs incurred by those in rented accommodation. Those living with their parents/relatives have the lowest expenditure. Home-owners have the highest expenditure by a significant amount, nearly double the average.

Finally, the expenditure figures from ES5 are shown in Table 80.

	With Parents / Relatives	Student Residence	Rented house/flat	Own household	Average
Accommodation	914	3,605	3,470	3,685	2,498
Food	1,094	1,056	1,335	2,825	1,305
Social and leisure	582	512	517	394	533
Transportation	941	585	600	1,422	794
Health Costs	124	72	69	249	105
Communication	239	177	246	462	248
Childcare	19	0	63	296	53
Debt repayment	150	92	158	628	179
Other (tobacco, etc)	466	331	424	826	455
Tuition fees	2,756	2,702	2,370	1,575	2,522
Contrib Student Assocs	48	65	46	39	49
Learning materials	223	209	209	329	224
Other (training costs)	33	38	27	32	32
Total Annual Costs	7,591	9,445	9,535	12,762	8,995

Table 80 - ES5 Place of residence versus annual expenditure

In ES5 the expenditure on college costs increases for all students, except those in their own home, which decreases slightly. The expenditure by those living with their parents increases significantly from €5620 per year to €7591 per year. One of the primary reasons for this is that the cost of tuition fees / exams for those living with their parents, which increases for all students, increases from €645 per year (which is around 33% below average) to €2756 per year, which is the highest paid by any grouping. Although the student charge did increase significantly over this period (from €800 to €2500 between 2006 and 2013), it does not explain this dramatic increase in costs.

The figures in overall expenditure figures in ES4 and ES5 are relatively consistent with each other. Students living with parents have the lowest expenditure, as expected. Resident students and those in rented accommodation are in the middle, with expenditure levels that are quite similar.

Home-owners have the highest level of expenditure, more than 50% above the average. It should be noted that those living in their own home had the highest expenditure in nearly every category. In ES3, of the seventeen categories, those living in their own home have the highest expenditure in ten of the categories. Of the 14 expenditure categories in ES4, home-owners had the highest expenditure in 11 out of the 14 categories. The exceptions were social and leisure; tuition fees; and registration fees. In ES5, home-owners had the highest expenditure in nine out of twelve categories. The exceptions being social and leisure, tuition fees (which included exams) and contributions to student association.

The different categories of expenditure are examined in more detail in appendix xxx

Accommodation

> 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. (Delaney et al, 2008, p. 9)

As discussed in the introduction, rents in 2006/7 when the fieldwork for ES3 was being carried out, were at a very high level. This issue of accommodation costs was noted in ES3. By the time the fieldwork for ES4 was carried out, rents had dropped significantly. This should have been apparent in the analysis of accommodation costs for ES4. However, as can be seen in Table 81, the analysis for the two categories in rented accommodation does not reflect this, and rents increased over the period of the surveys. This may be a result of increased contributions by parents, or it may be that the figures for accommodation costs are not reliable. Possibly the ES3 figures are under-stated.

Accommodation costs (€)					
	Parents / Relatives	Student Halls	Rented	Own home	Average
ES3	436	2,451	2,297	4,850	2,517
ES4	640	3,172	3,264	4,244	2,203
ES5	914	3,605	3,470	3,685	2,498

Table 81 - Place of residence versus annual accommodation expenditure

In the analysis below of accommodation costs, we can consider the percentage of each group who reported that they contributed towards accommodation costs. In ES3, only 6.8% of students living at home with their parents contributed anything to the expenditure on accommodation. A low percentage of resident students and home-owners also contributed compared to the 53.4% of renters who contributed. This pattern was relatively consistent throughout the three surveys, although the number of students living with parents who contributed to costs did increase throughout the three surveys to over 20%.

If we look at the percentage of costs contributed to accommodation and utility bills over the three surveys, we see that those living with their parents consistently contribute the least to the accommodation / utility bills. There also appears to be a trend whereby the percentage being paid by all groups has increased over the period of the survey from 29% to 43%. It can be seen that the contribution by home-owners increased dramatically over the period of the three surveys from 21% to 66%.

% accommodation cost contributed by students			
	ES3	**ES4**	**ES5**
With Parents / Relatives	9.8%	15.1%	20.2%
Student Residence	13.4%	19.2%	23.7%
Rented house/flat	26.5%	48.5%	52.6%
Own household	20.7%	53.4%	65.7%

Table 82 - Place of residence versus % accommodation expenditure paid by students

% accommodation costs contributed by students
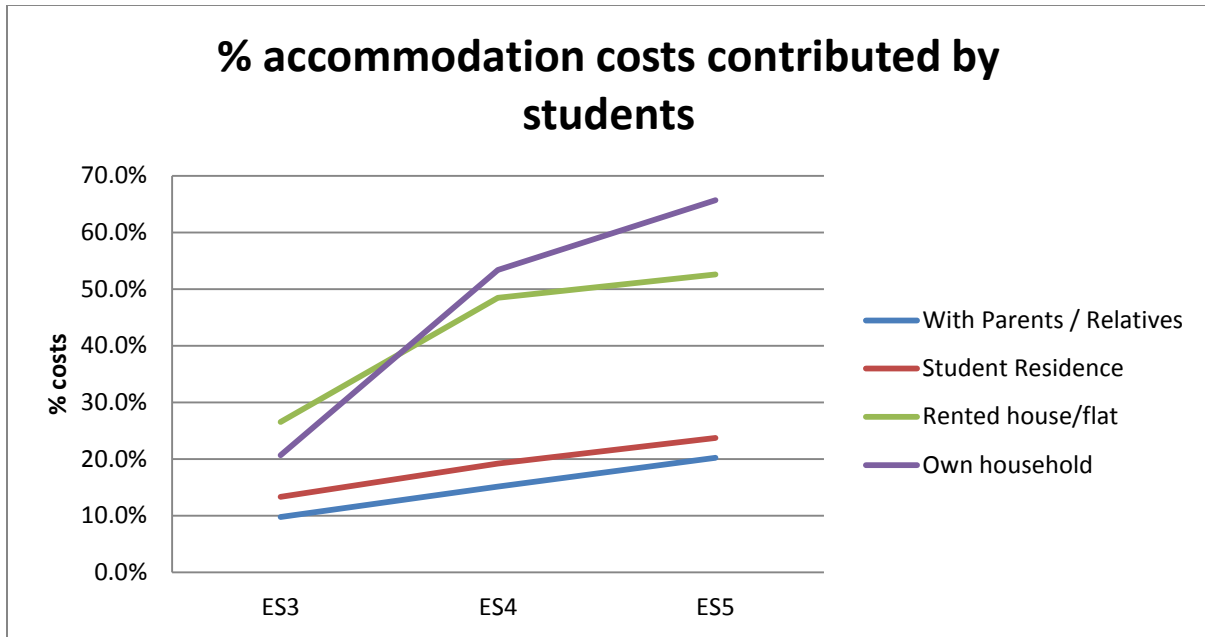
Figure 67 - Place of Residence versus accommodation expenditure

Bills and utilities

Bills are not included as a category in ES4 and ES5, as they are encompassed within accommodation expenses.

In ES3, the expenditure on bills is significantly higher for home-owners, €891 compared with €381 on average. When the amounts that are paid by the students themselves are considered, the amounts for those living with their parents, and resident students, are significantly below the average (€84 and €70 respectively compared with a €137 average). For those living in student halls, the cost of utilities is often included in the rental cost, which may explain this difference.

Food bills and living expenses

In ES3, home-owners spend double the average on food, possibly because there are dependents for whom they are providing food. Students living with parents contribute the least amount of money towards food, even though when their family contribution is taken into account, they have the second highest expenditure on food.

In ES4, food bills are included in living expenses which also includes clothing.

Once again, home-owners have the highest overall expenditure on living expenses, and those living with their parents have the lowest. Resident students or those living with parents contribute around 50% of the total cost of living expenses. Those in rented accommodation or in their own home tend to contribute more than two-thirds of the cost themselves.

In ES5, food is split out into a category of its own. As in ES3, home-owners spend double the average on food. Surprisingly, those in student residences spend the lowest amount on food – slightly lower than those students who live at home with parents. As also was observed in ES4, those students in PBSA and living with their parents contribute around 50% towards the cost of food – significantly less than the other two categories, who contribute around 75%, and who also spend more on food.

In ES3, clothing was a separate category. Although home-owners spent marginally more on clothing, it was noticeable that students living with their parents spend around 60% more on clothes than either resident students or in rented accommodation.

Tuition fees / student fees

It is noticeable over the course of the surveys that there is a significant increase in the expenditure on college fees (tuition, examination fees, etc). While between 2006 and 2013 there was an increase in the registration charge from €800 to €2500, the increase in reported expenditure is much more significant than that, from €369 to €2522.

College fees			
	ES3	ES4	ES5
With Parents / Relatives	373	1096	2756
Student Residence	345	1637	2702
Rented house/flat	381	1635	2370
Own household	339	900	1575

Table 83 - Place of residence versus expenditure on college fees

The fees shown are also significantly higher than one would expect in ES5, given that around 30% of students report that their student charge is paid via their Higher Education grant.

In every survey, resident students made the smallest contribution to their college fees – ranging from 11.5% in ES4 to 22% in ES3, the balance being paid by their parents. Those students living with their parents made the next lowest contribution. Home-owners contributed an average of 60%.

Transport

The pattern for expenditure on transport is quite consistent. Resident students and renters spend the lowest amount on transport, students living with parents and home-owners spend the most. This is as expected given that resident students and renters live closest to the college. Home-owners spend the most on transport by a significant amount – almost double the average. As will be seen in the Environment section, resident students and renters are most likely to walk or cycle, and home-owners are most likely to drive, so this also explains the difference in expenditure.

Transport Costs			
	ES3	ES4	ES5
With Parents / Relatives	423	694	941
Student Residence	217	445	585
Rented house/flat	250	498	600
Own household	547	1032	1,422
Average	324	606	794

Table 84 - Place of residence versus transport expenditure

The ES5 figures are on average a third higher, demonstrating a significant increase in transport costs over the period. The pattern of expenditure remains consistent, with students living in their own household spending double the average. They also contribute the highest percentage of costs for the expenditure on transport.
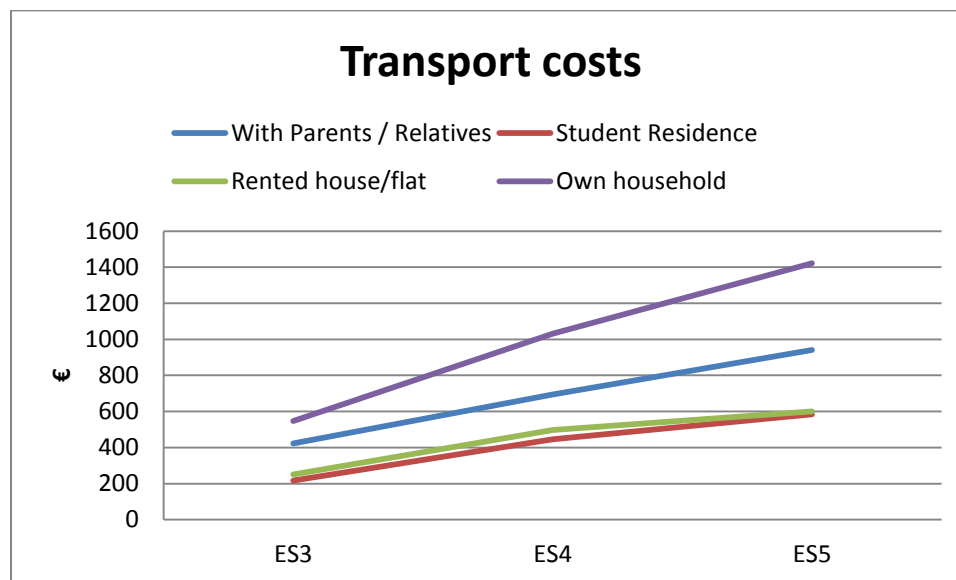
Figure 68 - Place of residence versus transport expenditure

Medical costs

There is a consistent pattern in medical costs. Unsurprisingly, given their age profile, and the fact that they are more likely to have dependents, home-owners tend to spend most on medical costs, with more than double the average expenditure. In this group, nearly half the costs are covered by the student, whereas in the other groups, the family pay the majority of health costs. Those who live with their parents still have a surprisingly high spend on health costs, although they only contribute around 13% of the actual costs. Renters consistently have the lowest expenditure, by a small margin over resident students.

Health costs			
	ES3	**ES4**	**ES5**
With Parents / Relatives	141	149	124
Student Residence	51	107	72
Rented house/flat	50	74	69
Own household	92	284	249

Table 85 - Place of residence versus health expenditure

Mobile phone

There are no significant differences between the groupings in mobile phone costs. Average spend is around €20 per month.

Alcohol expenditure

This category is explored in more detail in the health and well-being section. The group with the highest expenditure on alcohol are students living at home with their parents, despite the fact that they drink fewer units of alcohol than those in college residences. Home-owners tend to have the lowest average expenditure.

Weekly spend on alcohol	
	ES5
Parents' house	€ 18.62
College residence	€ 16.75
Rented house/flat	€ 16.96
Own household	€ 15.22
Total	€ 17.45

Table 86 - ES5 - Place of residence versus spend on alcohol

Entertainment / social life

In ES3, the entertainment cost is recorded separately to expenditure on alcohol. However, if we collate those two costs we can get a comparable figure for the three surveys.

Social life			
	ES3	**ES4**	**ES5**
With Parents / Relatives	655	786	582
Student Residence	443	662	512
Rented house/flat	499	702	517
Own household	513	621	394

Table 87 - Place of residence versus spend on social life

In all three surveys, students living with their parents spend the most on social and leisure activities, spending between 20% more than average in ES3, and the difference decreases to 10% in ES4 and ES5. The other three student groups spend below the average amount. The expenditure on social life increases in ES4, but then ES5 also shows a significant decline across all groups. The pattern remains very similar to ES4, with home-owners spending least on social and leisure, and those living with parents spending the most. There is a significant decrease in expenditure on this category for home-owners between ES4 and ES5. Whereas in ES3 they are the category of student that spends the second highest amount on entertainment and alcohol, by ES5 they are the lowest spending group – spending 25% below the average.

In all surveys, this was one of the categories where the students contributed the largest percentage of the costs themselves – over 80% in all surveys.

The above results are not as expected. In ES4, students living in on campus accommodation were consuming about 10% more alcohol than students living at home with their parents. However, in both ES3 and ES5, students living with their parents spend more on alcohol than those in on-campus accommodation. The difference in expenditure in ES4 and ES5 is not as significant, but those living with their parents are still spending more on social life than resident students (19% and 13% respectively). A possible explanation is that students in on-campus accommodation (and in private rented accommodation) socialise in their accommodation and so would purchase alcohol in off-licenses and supermarkets rather than in more expensive pubs and nightclubs.

Tobacco

The results in ES3 confirm findings in the health and well-being section, that home-owners have the highest expenditure on tobacco, and those in student residences the lowest. Younger students seem to be less likely to smoke regularly.

Loan / debt repayments

In all surveys loan repayments (excludes mortgages) are a significant cost for home-owners. The pattern is consistent across all three surveys with repayments for home-owners nearly four times the average. Students living in PBSA are also consistently the group paying the lowest amount in debt repayment. As a result, those living in their own homes were paying nearly ten times the amount in loan repayments as those in PBSA.

Debt repayments			
	ES3	ES4	ES5
With Parents / Relatives	171	197	150
Student Residence	62	85	92
Rented house/flat	153	244	158
Own household	669	1,034	628

Table 88 - Place of residence versus annual cost of loan repayments
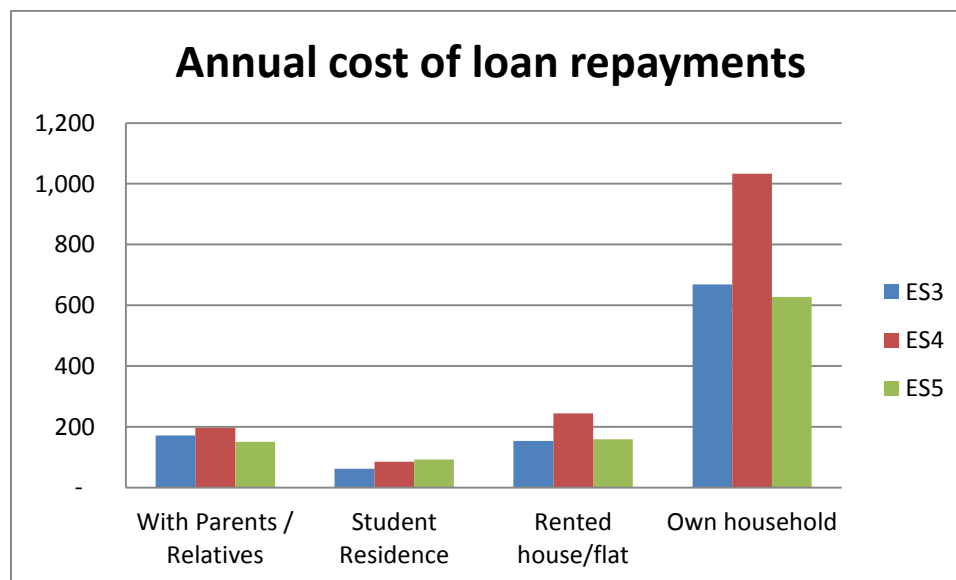
Figure 69 - Place of residence versus annual cost of loan repayments

In all three surveys, renters paid the highest percentage of the debt repayments themselves, with their families covering between 13% (ES4) and 23% (ES5).

Childcare

This is one of the categories with the most significant difference between students in different living arrangements. Those who had childcare costs were paying between €1800 and €3600 per year, but there were small numbers of full time students with childcare costs. Less than 1% of resident students reported having childcare costs, and in the other two major groups less than 3% had childcare costs. However, between 16% and 19% of students living in their own home reported having childcare costs. As a result, in ES3, the average annual cost of childcare for home-owners is €270, and for resident students it is €7. In all cases students pay at least two-thirds of the childcare costs themselves.

Other categories

There was no significant pattern or trends in the other categories (books, examination costs, student fees, student associations, other costs).

Appendix II

Time diaries

Taught time

The daily time diary (ES3) for time spent on taught study, depending on place of residence is shown below

		Taught Time				
		Parents	**College**	**Rented**	**Own house**	**Total**
Monday		4.04	3.93	4.07	3.92	4.03
Tuesday		4.18	4.08	4.19	4.09	4.16
Wednesday		3.88	3.75	3.99	4.04	3.91
Thursday		4.19	4.01	4.09	4.06	4.11
Friday		2.63	2.55	2.58	2.56	2.59
		18.92	**18.32**	**18.92**	**18.67**	**18.80**

Table 89 - ES3 - Place of residence versus time spent daily in taught studies

Time spent in taught studies on Saturday and Sunday is insignificant for full-time undergraduate students.

These figures are higher than for the time diaries analysed for all full-time students including postgraduate students. The implication is that postgraduate students spend less time in taught studies than undergraduate students, which seems logical. There are very minor differences between the amounts of time spent in taught studies between the different groups. Those living in on-campus accommodation spend the least amount of time in taught studies. The ES4 figures are as follows:

		Taught Time				
		Parents	**College**	**Rented**	**Own house**	**Total**
Monday		4.34	4.16	4.37	4.52	4.34
Tuesday		4.39	4.21	4.44	4.63	4.39
Wednesday		4.28	4.04	4.28	4.39	4.25
Thursday		4.20	4.09	4.26	4.47	4.22
Friday		2.80	2.73	2.80	2.88	2.79
Total		**20.01**	**19.23**	**20.15**	**20.89**	**19.99**

Table 90 - ES4 - Place of residence versus time spent daily in taught studies

These figures are slightly different to the ES3 results, but do confirm that those in college accommodation spend the least amount of time in taught studies. However, as amount of time spent in taught studies may be a function of the college course, time spent on personal studies may be a better indicator of student engagement / motivation. It's useful to note that in ES4, students in their own home spent the most amount of time in taught studies, whereas in ES3 they were slightly below average. ES5 seems to corroborate the findings of ES4

			Taught Time			
		Parents	College	Rented	Own house	Total
Monday		4.20	4.32	4.33	4.51	4.29
Tuesday		4.29	4.38	4.30	4.56	4.33
Wednesday		4.04	4.15	4.23	4.38	4.15
Thursday		4.06	4.17	4.17	4.38	4.14
Friday		2.76	2.72	2.81	2.80	2.78
Total		19.35	19.74	19.85	20.62	19.70

Table 91 - ES5 - Place of residence versus time spent daily in taught studies

In the above table it can be seen that those in their own home spend the most amount of time in the classroom. The pattern for the other groups is less clear, with those in parental home lowest (contrary to ES3 where they were joint highest), and the other two groups around average, unlike ES4 where those in college accommodation were lowest.

Personal study

Time diary (ES3) for time spent on personal study, depending on place of residence is shown below

			Personal study – ES3			
		Parents	College	Rented	Own house	Total
Monday		1.66	1.85	1.94	2.18	1.83
Tuesday		1.71	1.89	2.05	2.19	1.89
Wednesday		1.82	2.05	2.11	2.23	1.99
Thursday		1.69	1.89	2.01	2.10	1.87
Friday		1.61	1.57	1.78	2.05	1.68
Saturday		1.56	1.84	1.68	2.07	1.68
Sunday		1.57	1.57	1.51	1.84	1.56
Total		11.62	12.67	13.09	14.65	12.50

Table 92 - ES3 - Place of residence versus time spent in personal study daily

In ES3, we can see that those living in their own homes spend 3 hours per week more on personal study than those who live with their parents, who spend the lowest amount of time on personal study. In ES3 students living in rented accommodation complete 1.4 hours per week more study than those living with their families.

In ES4, the figures are as shown below:

		Personal study – ES4			
		Parents	College	Rented	Own house	Total
Monday		1.95	2.03	2.29	2.68	2.13
Tuesday		1.99	2.07	2.35	2.69	2.18
Wednesday		1.99	2.16	2.40	2.75	2.21
Thursday		1.98	2.08	2.31	2.63	2.15
Friday		1.82	1.51	1.95	2.68	1.87
Saturday		1.72	1.89	2.08	2.73	1.94
Sunday		1.86	1.71	1.91	2.48	1.89
Total		13.32	13.45	15.29	18.64	14.38

Table 93 - ES4 - Place of residence versus time spent in personal study daily

The pattern is similar to ES3, with those living with parents completing the least amount of personal study. However, the difference between those living on campus, and those living with parents is insignificant in ES4. Those living in their own home complete 5.3 hours more study per week than those living on campus, or living with parents – 40% more.

		Personal study – ES5			
		Parents	College	Rented	Own house	Total
Monday		2.11	2.15	2.46	2.74	2.29
Tuesday		2.05	2.13	2.47	2.73	2.27
Wednesday		2.12	2.19	2.55	2.76	2.34
Thursday		2.07	2.08	2.49	2.75	2.28
Friday		1.93	1.59	2.14	2.55	2.00
Saturday		2.15	2.13	2.52	2.80	2.33
Sunday		2.11	1.85	2.17	2.45	2.12
Total		14.56	14.13	16.79	18.78	15.62

Table 94 - ES5 - Place of residence versus time spent in personal study daily

In the ES5 survey, while the overall time spent in personal study is slightly higher than in previous years, the pattern is the same. (Note the increased reporting of hours may be influenced by the timing of the

survey, which took place close to end of year exams). Those in their own home spend the most amount of time on personal study, and those in campus accommodation and living with their parents, the least. As previously, those in rented accommodation are next. Those students living in their own home report spending over four hours per week more on personal study than those students living with their parents or living in on-campus accommodation. Similarly, those in rented accommodation spend over two hours more per week studying than the lowest two groups.

College engagement

Time diary (ES3) for time spent on college engagement, depending on place of residence is shown below

| | | Parents | College Engagement | | | |
			College	Rented	Own house	Total
Monday		0.39	0.61	0.44	0.19	0.44
Tuesday		0.39	0.63	0.45	0.23	0.45
Wednesday		0.46	0.67	0.51	0.28	0.51
Thursday		0.42	0.57	0.49	0.28	0.47
Friday		0.24	0.29	0.20	0.17	0.23
Saturday		0.23	0.24	0.18	0.08	0.20
Sunday		0.18	0.21	0.15	0.08	0.17
Total		**2.30**	**3.22**	**2.42**	**1.30**	**2.48**

Table 95 - ES3 - Place of residence versus time spent on college engagement daily

This shows that students living on campus spend the most time on college engagement activities. There is no significant difference between time spent by those in their parents house or those in rented accommodation. This is unexpected as there anecdotally, students living with their parents find it harder to engage in college activities such as clubs and societies. Those living in their own house, spend less than half the time on college engagement activities as those in college accommodation.

| | Parents | College | College Engagement | | Total |
			Rented	Own house	
Monday - Thursday	1.66	2.49	1.89	0.98	1.87
Friday - Saturday	0.64	0.74	0.53	0.32	0.60

Table 96 - ES3 - Place of residence versus hours spent on college activities (week vs weekend split)

Significantly, if you examine the split in time use between weekends (Friday – Sunday) and the week (Monday-Friday), you find that students who live on campus still spend more time engaged in college activities at the weekend than students in other living arrangements.

In ES4 the hours spent on college engagement are shown below:

		Parents	College Engagement	Rented	Own house	Total
			College			
Monday		0.52	0.79	0.52	0.19	0.54
Tuesday		0.54	0.80	0.55	0.20	0.57
Wednesday		0.59	0.92	0.62	0.21	0.63
Thursday		0.62	0.88	0.59	0.19	0.62
Friday		0.43	0.39	0.32	0.15	0.37
Saturday		0.52	0.45	0.38	0.20	0.44
Sunday		0.37	0.36	0.29	0.11	0.32
Total		3.60	4.58	3.27	1.26	3.49

Table 97 - ES4 - Place of residence versus time spent on college engagement daily

This analysis has nearly the same pattern as ES3, with one difference. Those in their own home have the lowest levels of college engagement, at 1.26 hours. This is less than a third of the time that students in PBSA spend in college activities. Interestingly, the ES4 analysis shows that students living with their parents spend slightly above the average time on college engagement – and more than those in rented accommodation.

	Parents	College	College Engagement		Total
			Rented	Own house	
Monday - Thursday	2.28	3.38	2.28	0.80	2.36
Friday - Saturday	1.32	1.20	0.99	0.46	1.13

Table 98 - ES4 - Place of residence versus hours spent on college activities (week vs weekend split)

The question on college engagement was not asked in ES5.

Part-time work

The analysis of the time diary (ES3) for time spent on paid work, depending on place of residence is shown below. The figures below are from all full-time undergraduate students, including those who did not have part-time work.

		Paid Work				
		Parents	**College**	**Rented**	**Own house**	**Total**
Monday		0.49	0.17	0.35	0.55	0.38
Tuesday		0.42	0.15	0.29	0.39	0.32
Wednesday		0.53	0.19	0.35	0.59	0.40
Thursday		0.68	0.20	0.43	0.57	0.49
Friday		1.46	0.74	1.30	1.11	1.25
Saturday		3.33	2.52	3.20	2.38	3.09
Sunday		2.19	1.35	1.75	1.56	1.84
Total		**9.09**	**5.33**	**7.68**	**7.14**	**7.77**

Table 99 - ES3 - Place of residence versus time spent in paid work

In the ES3 figures above, we can see that full-time students work on average 7.8 hours per week. In 2006, students living at home with their parents worked 70% more hours than those living on campus. A major reason is because a higher percentage of students living at home have part-time work than those living on-campus. Students living in their own home worked 7.1 hours per week on average, which is lower than both living with parents and in private rented sector. A key finding here is that students living at home with parents are more likely to work part-time, and those in on-campus accommodation work the least number of hours per week.

In ES3 when we look at whether students work during the week or at the weekend, we see the following pattern:

Paid Work									
	Parents		**College**		**Rented**		**Own house**		**Total**
Monday - Thursday	2.10	23.2%	0.71	13.4%	1.42	18.5%	2.10	29.4%	1.58
Friday - Sunday	6.98	76.8%	4.61	86.6%	6.26	81.5%	5.04	70.6%	6.18
Total	9.09		5.33		7.68		7.14		7.77

Table 100 - ES3 - Place of residence versus split of work between weekend and week-days

The table below (ES3) shows the proportion of students who work in each category of student, and also the average hours worked by those students who have part-time employment. From this we can see that those living on campus have the lowest proportion with part-time work (just slightly lower than those in their own home), and those who work also have the lowest number of hours compared with

the other groups. Students living with parents have the highest proportion with part-time work (52.6% vs 45.2% average).

Part-time work					
	Parents	**College**	**Rented**	**Own house**	**Total**
Mean hours worked	14.39	12.51	14.69	16.13	14.28
% working part-time	52.6%	36.6%	42.7%	37.1%	45.2%

Table 101 - ES3 - Place of residence versus % working and mean hours worked

The figures for part-time work for ES4 are as follows:

		Paid Work			
		Parents	**College**	**Rented**	**Own house**	**Total**
Monday		0.35	0.10	0.24	0.29	0.27
Tuesday		0.30	0.07	0.22	0.30	0.24
Wednesday		0.41	0.10	0.29	0.33	0.31
Thursday		0.56	0.10	0.35	0.38	0.40
Friday		1.29	0.58	0.98	0.74	1.03
Saturday		2.91	2.19	2.56	1.39	2.58
Sunday		1.90	1.16	1.47	0.79	1.56
Total		**7.72**	**4.31**	**6.12**	**4.21**	**6.39**

Table 102 - ES4 - Place of residence versus time spent in part-time work

Again, the removal of postgrad students has changed these figures significantly – particularly the students living in their own home, who have moved into the lowest group, passing out those in college accommodation. From the analysis, we can see that students living at home with parents on average work more hours with 7.72 hours per week. This presumably will have a positive impact on their disposable income. Those who live on campus have the least amount of work, at 4.31 hours per week. It is possible that, coming from a higher socio economic group, they may not need to work as much as those in other living arrangements. For students in rented accommodation it's 6.12 hours per week.

It would appear to be a 17.7% reduction in hours worked (on average) since ES3, and some groups may be affected more than others. For example, paid hours for home-owners reduced by 41% since ES3.

When we look at whether students work during the week or at the weekend, we see the following pattern:

	Parents		College		Paid Work Rented		Own house		Total	
M-T	1.62	21.0%	0.38	8.8%	1.10	18.0%	1.30	30.8%	1.22	19.1%
F-S	6.10	79.0%	3.93	91.2%	5.02	82.0%	2.91	69.2%	5.17	80.9%
Total	7.72		4.31		6.12		4.21		6.39	

Table 103 - ES5 - Place of Residence versus % working and means hours worked

Those who live in their own home are more likely than the students in other living arrangements to work during the week, with those in PBSA much less likely to work during the week.

Overall workload

When we look at the overall workload based on the ES3 time diaries, we see that those living in on-campus accommodation have the lowest overall workload, including part-time work. Those living in private rented accommodation have the highest workload, although there is not a huge difference between the overall workloads for the different groups – 2.5 hours per week between the lightest and heaviest workload.

ES3 did not look at commuting time, however, based on distances travelled, and looking at the results from ES4 and ES5, it is likely that students living on campus save 4 or 5 hours per week compared to those in their own homes. This increases the difference in workload significantly, in favour of students in on-campus accommodation.

		Parents	College	Rented	Own house	Total
Taught Time		18.92	18.32	18.92	18.67	18.80
Personal study		11.62	12.67	13.09	14.65	12.50
College Engagement		2.30	3.22	2.42	1.30	2.48
Paid Work		9.09	5.33	7.68	7.14	7.77
		41.93	*39.54*	*42.11*	*41.75*	*41.54*
Educationally purposeful		*32.84*	*34.22*	*34.43*	*34.61*	*33.78*

Table 104 – ES3 - Place of Residence versus hours spent on educationally purposeful activities

One would expect based on international research that those living in on-campus accommodation would have the highest engagement levels (i.e. the highest amount of time spent on educationally purposeful activities). However, the analysis of ES3 time diaries does not support that. Both students living in private rented accommodation and students living in their own home spend more time on educationally purposeful activities. This gap increases if you only consider time spent on taught studies and personal study. Students living at home with their parents spend the lowest amount of time on educationally purposeful activities.

If we look at ES4, the pattern is repeated.

		Parents	College	Rented	Own house	Total
Taught Time		20.01	19.23	20.15	20.89	19.99
Personal study		13.32	13.45	15.29	18.64	14.38
College Engagement		3.60	4.58	3.27	1.26	3.49
Paid Work		7.72	4.31	6.12	4.21	6.39
		44.65	*41.57*	*44.83*	*45.01*	*44.25*
Educationally purposeful		*36.93*	*37.26*	*38.71*	*40.79*	*37.86*

Table 105 – ES4 - Place of residence versus hours spent on educationally purposeful activities

Once again, the students living at home with their parents spend the lowest amount of time on educationally purposeful activities, but only slightly lower than those in on-campus accommodation. In fact, if you look at the amount of time spent on taught time and personal study, those in college residences spend the least amount of time on these activities. Those in rented accommodation and their own home spend the most amount of time on educationally purposeful activities, despite the fact that they spend less time on college engagement than the other two groups.

This pattern is repeated in ES5, where you can see that students living in on-campus accommodation spent the same amount of time on educationally purposeful activities as those commuter students living with their parents.

		Parents	College	Rented	Own house	Total
Taught Time		19.35	19.74	19.85	20.62	19.70
Personal study		14.56	14.13	16.79	18.78	15.62
College Engagement		**0.00**	**0.00**	**0.00**	**0.00**	**0.00**
Paid Work		6.55	4.13	5.55	3.86	6.39
		40.46	*38.00*	*42.20*	*43.27*	*41.71*
Educationally purposeful		*33.91*	*33.87*	*36.64*	*39.41*	*35.32*

Table 106 - ES5 - Place of residence versus hours spent on educationally purposeful activities

Appendix III

Expectations

There are a number of questions in the three surveys which ask about student expectations, or their view on what life holds in store for them.

Summary: Those living in student halls were more likely to plan to work abroad than students in other residence types, and also more likely to do so as a choice rather than a necessity. Home-owners were significantly less likely to plan to work abroad, and if they planned to work abroad were more likely to do so as a necessity.

When asked about employment prospects, those in student halls were most optimistic about joining the workforce either in Ireland or abroad. Those in rented accommodation tended to be more pessimistic about the prospect of gaining work in Ireland.

Home-owners had the highest expectations for starting salary, followed by those in rented accommodation, i.e. they expected to earn more in their first job after graduation than the other groups. Students in residence halls were next, and those living with their parents had the lowest expectation for starting salary. However, when students were asked about their expectations on what their highest net monthly salary would reach over their careers, the pattern was reversed. Students living with their parents had the highest expectations, followed by those in student halls, followed by those in rented accommodation. Those living in their own home had the lowest expectation.

Working abroad

All three surveys ask if students intend to work abroad after graduating. Obviously the prevailing economic conditions have an impact on the responses, but there are discernible patterns in the responses. In ES5 and ES4, respondents had an option of saying definitely yes; probably yes; probably no; definitely no; or don't know. In ES3 the options were: yes / no / don't know. This may explain the higher number of don't knows in ES3. The analysis of this data is shown below.

Plan to work abroad - ES3					
	Parents	Student Halls	Rented Accommodation	Own Home	Average
Yes	39.3%	54.0%	47.1%	23.3%	44.5%
No	12.4%	8.0%	11.2%	30.0%	11.8%
Don't know	48.2%	38.0%	41.7%	46.7%	43.7%

Table 107 - ES3 - Place of residence versus plan to work abroad

Plan to work abroad - ES4					
	Parents	Student Halls	Rented	Own Home	Average
(Probably) Yes	64.2%	67.9%	67.4%	28.3%	63.8%
(Probably) No	15.0%	13.2%	13.5%	47.4%	16.2%
Don't know	20.7%	18.8%	19.0%	24.3%	20.0%

Table 108 - ES4 - Place of residence versus plan to work abroad

Plan to work abroad - ES5					
	Parents	Student Halls	Rented	Own Home	Average
(Probably) Yes	67.1%	70.9%	68.6%	27.3%	65.1%
(Probably) No	14.2%	12.7%	14.3%	46.0%	16.5%
Don't Know	18.7%	16.4%	17.0%	26.8%	18.4%

Table 109 - ES5 - Place of Residence versus plan to work abroad

If the responses to the three surveys are compared, it can be seen that in all three surveys home-owners were significantly more likely to respond negatively – more than double the average in all cases. In all three surveys, those living in student halls were the most likely to plan to work abroad. Although the gap narrowed over the course of the three surveys, students living with their parents were less likely to consider working abroad than those in private rented accommodation. It should also be noted that, in all three surveys, those living with parents, and home-owners were more likely to respond "don't know" to this question. Over the course of the three surveys, there was a significant increase in the numbers planning on working abroad for all groups, with the exception of home-owners.
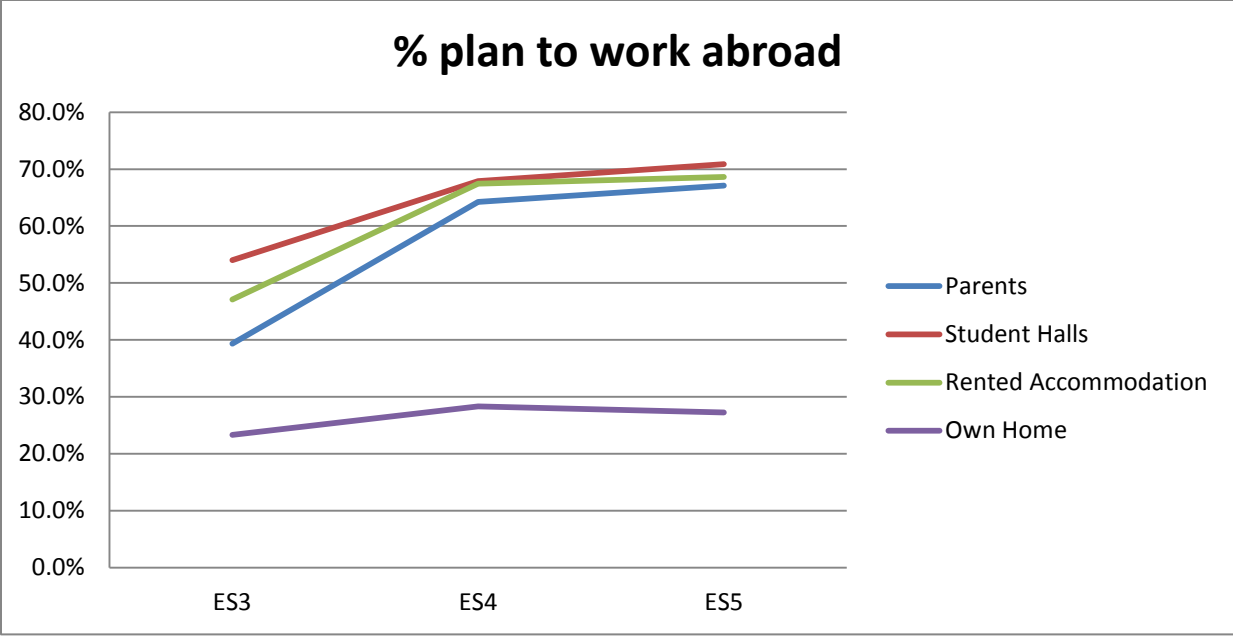
Figure 70 - Place of residence versus plan to work abroad

In ES4, an additional question was asked of those who planned to work abroad after graduating which asked was their decision to work abroad by necessity or choice.

If you plan to work abroad is it because of necessity or choice					
	Parents	**Student Halls**	**Rented Accommodation**	**Own Home**	**Average**
Necessity	20.1%	15.9%	20.9%	41.5%	20.2%
Choice	79.9%	84.1%	79.1%	58.5%	79.8%

Table 110 - ES4 Place of residence versus work abroad as necessity or choice

It is noticeable that home-owners who plan to work abroad are significantly more likely to do so out of necessity. The students living in student halls are most likely to travel abroad by choice.

Further study

In ES4 and ES5, students were asked if they planned to continue their studies after completing their current qualification. Between 5 and 7% of students responded that they would not be completing further study in both surveys, however there is no discernible pattern among the students who said they would not be completing further study.

In ES5, students in rented accommodation were more likely to indicate that they would do further study, but not directly after completing their current qualification. 27.3% indicated that they would

complete further study but not within the year. Although, overall, home-owners are less likely to indicate that they would take any further study (in both ES4 and ES5), they are least likely to defer further study. 15.1% said they would defer by at least a year, whereas 42.6% of those living in their own home said they would commence further study within the year of completing college – the highest percentage of any group, by a small margin.

Of those who plan to do further study, the decision whether this is to complete an undergraduate degree, or to do a postgraduate degree, is clearly influenced by the current qualification being studied. Those living in their own home are more likely to seek to complete an undergraduate qualification, whereas those living in student residences are most likely to seek to do a postgraduate degree.

ES5 asked those respondents who are not intending to take further study within the year after qualifying, what they intended to do. Once again, as with the question about working abroad, those living in their own home are more likely to respond "Don't know" than other groups, albeit by a small margin (17.6% vs 13.9% average). Given that mature students are usually more focused than traditional aged students, this lack of clarity over the future is quite surprising.

Another surprising point is that students in residence halls are less likely to say that they will start their own business. Less than 1% of resident students say they will start their own business after college, whereas 5.5% of home-owners hope to start their own business. This apparent lack of entrepreneurial activity in on-campus accommodation in Ireland is supported in an article in *The Irish Times* in 2012. Professor Burton Lee notes that student residences can be "a hive of entrepreneurial development" and have generated many student-led campus companies in the US. However, he notes that student residences in Ireland do not seem to be major hubs for activities and are empty at weekends. (O'Connell, 2012).

Around 75% of respondents said that they would look for paid employment or continue their current employment. And around 10% of students said they would do "Other", and the survey results don't contain a record of what that "Other" is.

Employment prospects

In ES5, students were asked what their chances of successfully joining the labour force were. Those in rented accommodation were most pessimistic about their prospects nationally, while those in student halls were most optimistic.

When asked about their prospects of employment internationally, again those in student halls were most optimistic. Home-owners had the lowest score in this category, followed by those in rented accommodation.

Salary expectations

In ES3, a sample of approximately 1600 respondents was asked about salary expectations.

They were asked their expectation of their net monthly starting salary after graduation. In the data analysis for this thesis, unrealistic answers over €10k per month were removed. They were also asked the highest level that their net monthly salary would reach over their career. The question was phrased as "maximum net monthly income in Euros that you expect to earn during your working life". In this case, unrealistic answers over €40k per month were removed.

	Monthly starting salary	Max nett monthly income
Parents	€1945	€6979
Student Halls	€1997	€6757
Rented Accommodation	€2050	€6404
Own Home	€2251	€5805
Average	€2005	€6673

Table 111 - ES3 - Place of residence versus salary expectations
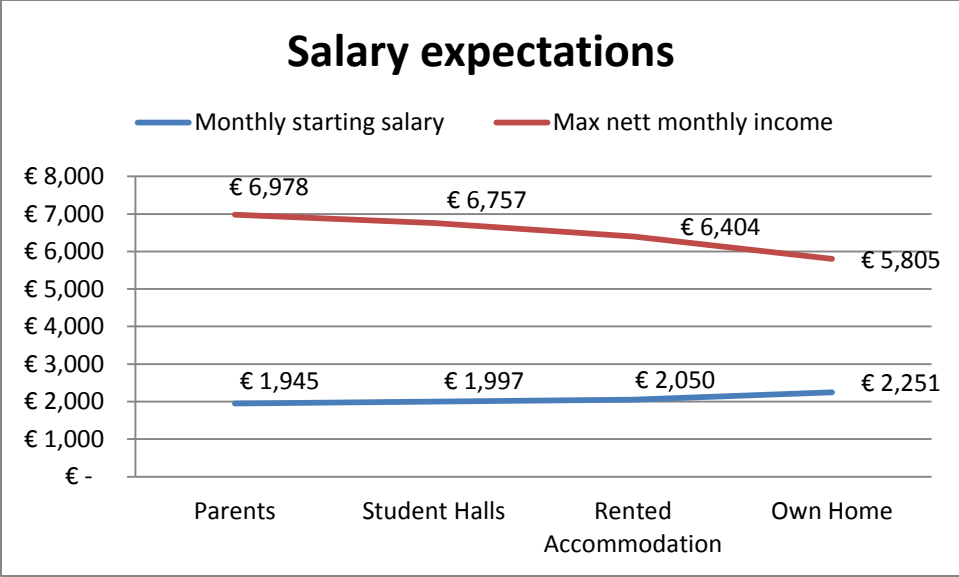
Figure 71 - ES3 - Place of residence versus salary expectations

Students living in their own homes had the highest expectations for starting salary, followed by those in rented accommodation. Students in residence halls were next, and those living with their parents had the lowest expectation for starting salary. However, it is noticeable that when students were asked about their expectations on what their highest net monthly salary would reach over their careers, the pattern was reversed. Students living with their parents had the highest expectations, followed by those in student halls, followed by those in rented accommodation. Those living in their own home had the lowest expectation.

Other expectations

When students were asked whether salary levels or leisure time was more important in choosing a future job ("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?"), resident students were more likely to say that salary level was important. In contrast, leisure time was more important for home-owners.

	Salary more important than leisure time				
	Parents	**Student Halls**	**Rented Accommodation**	**Own Home**	**Average**
Yes	24.8%	29.9%	23.9%	13.6%	25.0%
No	75.2%	70.1%	76.1%	86.4%	75.0%

Table 112 - ES5 - Place of residence versus salary more important than leisure time

Students who lived with their parents and resident students also responded that they believed they were more likely to inherit money or a property worth over €100k over the course of their lifetime.

When students were asked "how likely is it that you will live abroad for more than 10 years?" it transpired that students living with their parents had the lowest expectations that they would emigrate.

Abroad for more than 10 years	
Parents	36.94%
Student Halls	43.33%
Rented	41.87%
Own Home	41.38%

Table 113 – Likely to live abroad for more than 10 years

Those in student halls had the highest expectation, and in ES5 this group also responded more positively to the concept of working abroad after graduation.

Appendix IV

Health and well-being

This section considers areas of student life which have an impact on their health and well-being, specifically:

- Alcohol consumption
- Smoking
- Exercise
- Stress
- Common illnesses

The Eurostudent 3 report noted: "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" (Delaney et al, 2008, p. 59). It also reported that:

> 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. (Delaney et al, 2007, p. 57)

The original analysis also included part-time and post-graduate students, as well as full-time undergraduate students. The analysis in this section of the thesis indicates that the findings of better health for students living with their parents in Eurostudent 3 report are not reproduced in subsequent Eurostudent surveys for full-time undergraduate students.

Summary: ES4 and ES5 found that students in on-campus accommodation were more likely to drink alcohol, and those who drank consumed more alcohol than students in other living arrangements. Home-owners were least likely to drink alcohol, and home-owners who drank consumed less alcohol than other groups. Students living in on-campus accommodation were also more likely to exceed safe limits for alcohol consumption on a regular basis, with female students in particular being above average in this regard compared to the average for the student population.

Home-owners are much more likely to smoke than the other students, and those in rented accommodation are also more likely to be smokers than the average for full-time undergraduate students. The percentage of students who smoke has dropped in all groups over the period of the surveys – most significantly among home-owners.

Those living with their parents are more likely to exercise four or more times per week, with home-owners most likely to take no exercise. Students in on-campus accommodation are the least likely to take no exercise.

There was no discernible pattern in the WHO-5 score, which is an indicator of mental health or positive well-being, for the different groups.

Alcohol use

In ES3, the question on alcohol consumption was asked in a module with a smaller than usual sample size (n = 1674). As this is a relatively small sample size – particularly when the smaller groups such as resident students and home-owners are considered – it was decided not to use the results.

In ES4, respondents who confirmed that they drank alcohol, were asked about their alcohol consumption.

ES4 had a higher number of non-drinkers (16.6%) than would be expected. Students living in their own home had the highest proportion of non-drinkers at 23.9%. Those in on-campus accommodation had the lowest proportion of students who did not drink alcohol (13.4%), versus 16.9% of those living at home with their parents and 16.4% of those living in private rented accommodation.

ES5 asked the question in a different manner to ES4, i.e. ES5 asked "How often do you drink alcohol?" with "Never" as an option, which may explain the different results, however the pattern was similar to ES4. An average of 10.8% of full-time undergraduate students replied that they never drank alcohol, which is lower than the average for the total student population, in which 12% said they never drank alcohol. The pattern is similar to the ES4 results. In ES4 and ES5 those in student residences have the highest percentage of students who drink alcohol, and those living in their own home, the lowest. The results are shown in Table 114.

Do not drink alcohol		
	ES4	ES5
With Parents / Relatives	16.90%	11.10%
Student Residence	13.40%	9.50%
Rented house/flat	16.40%	9.70%
Own household	23.90%	17.00%
Average	16.60%	10.80%

Table 114 - Place of residence versus do not drink alcohol
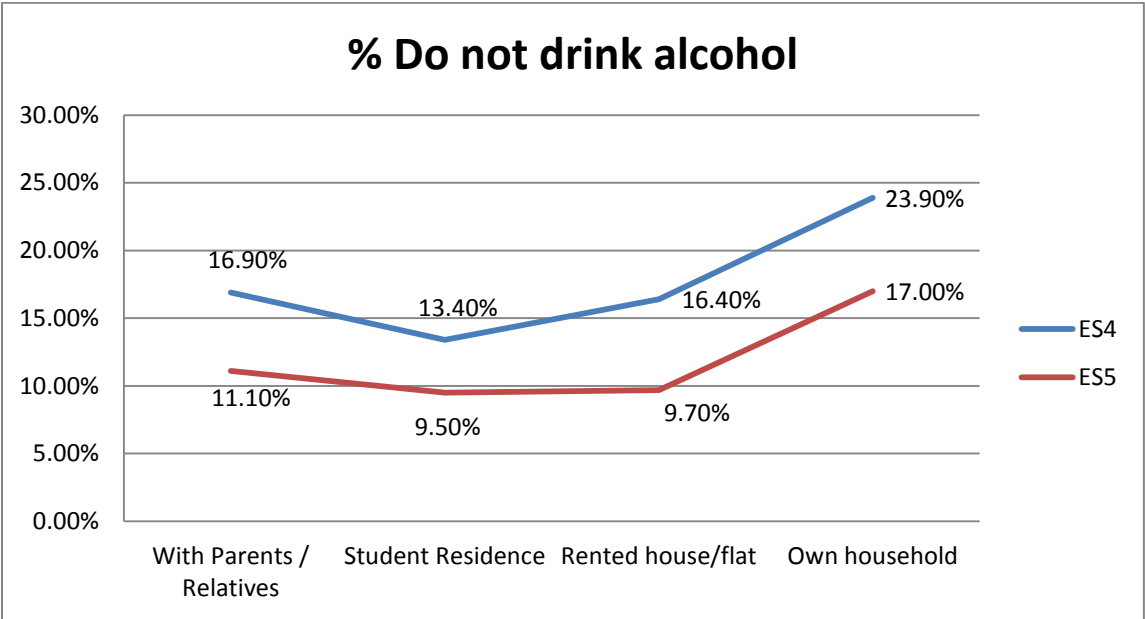
Figure 72 - Place of residence versus do not drink alcohol

As these results may be a function of year in college, a cross-tabulation was carried out to compare alcohol consumption based on year in college. This also found that students in college residences were least likely not to drink alcohol, regardless of what year in college they were in. The graph comparing first year students is shown below. In ES4, resident students are clearly the least likely not to drink alcohol, in ES5 the difference between resident students and renters is negligible.
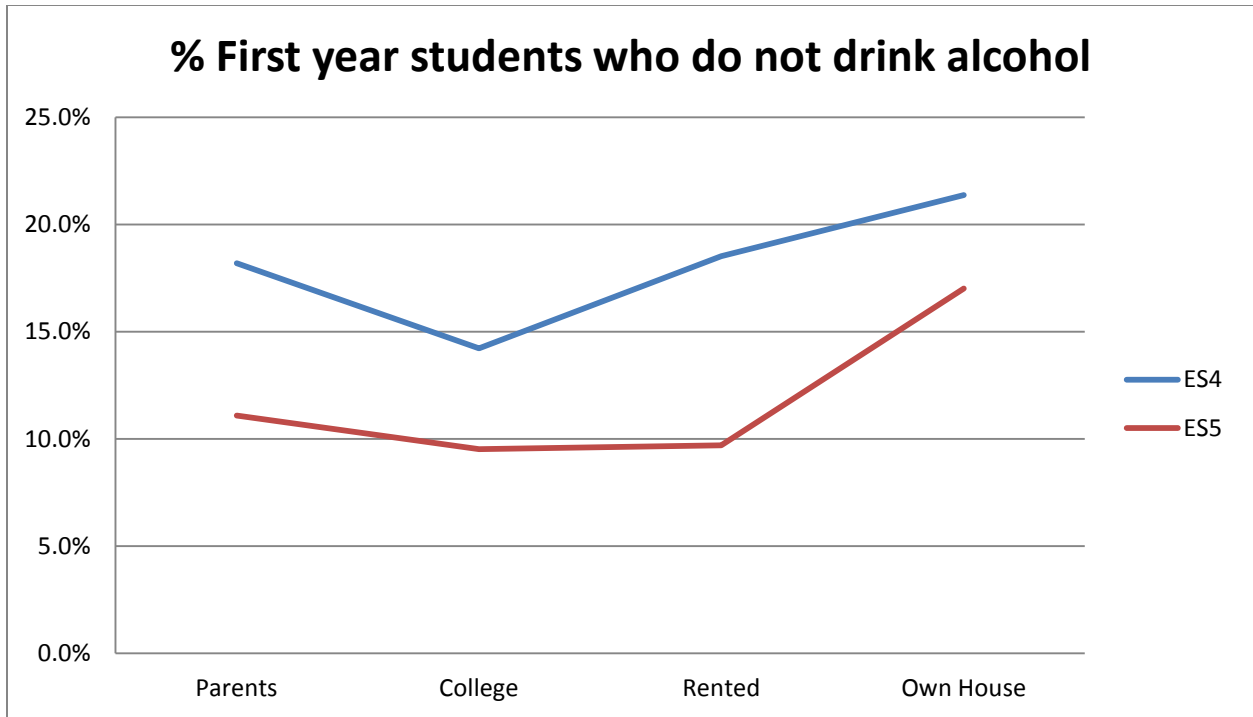
% First year students who do not drink alcohol

Units of alcohol per week

In ES4 the question asked was the average number of units consumed in a week. The analysis shows that students living in on-campus residences, who drink alcohol, have the highest consumption rates (Table 115). This is surprising on a number of levels. First, the age profile of the students is lower, and one would expect that more of these students would be under 18, and would have difficulty accessing alcohol. Also, there are a higher proportion of females living in on-campus accommodation (59% in ES4; 64% in ES5) and on average females consume less alcohol (Hope et al, 2005). Those living in their parents' houses or in rented accommodation are close to the average consumption rate for the total full-time population. Home-owners consumed alcohol at the lowest rate at 7.4 units per week. When interpreting these results, it should be remembered that a higher proportion of these students do not drink alcohol at all, so would not have answered this question.

In ES5 a very similar question is asked. Those who do drink alcohol were asked how much they consumed per week. Again the pattern is that those in on-campus residences have the highest consumption of alcohol. Those living with their parents, and living in rented accommodation are around the national average, and those living in their own homes have the lowest weekly consumption.#

Average no. units per week		
	ES4	ES5
Parents' house	9.71	7.2
College residence	11.03	8.1
Rented house/flat	10.14	7.36
Own household	7.40	6.83
Average	9.95	7.39

Table 115 - Place of residence versus units of alcohol per week (among drinkers)
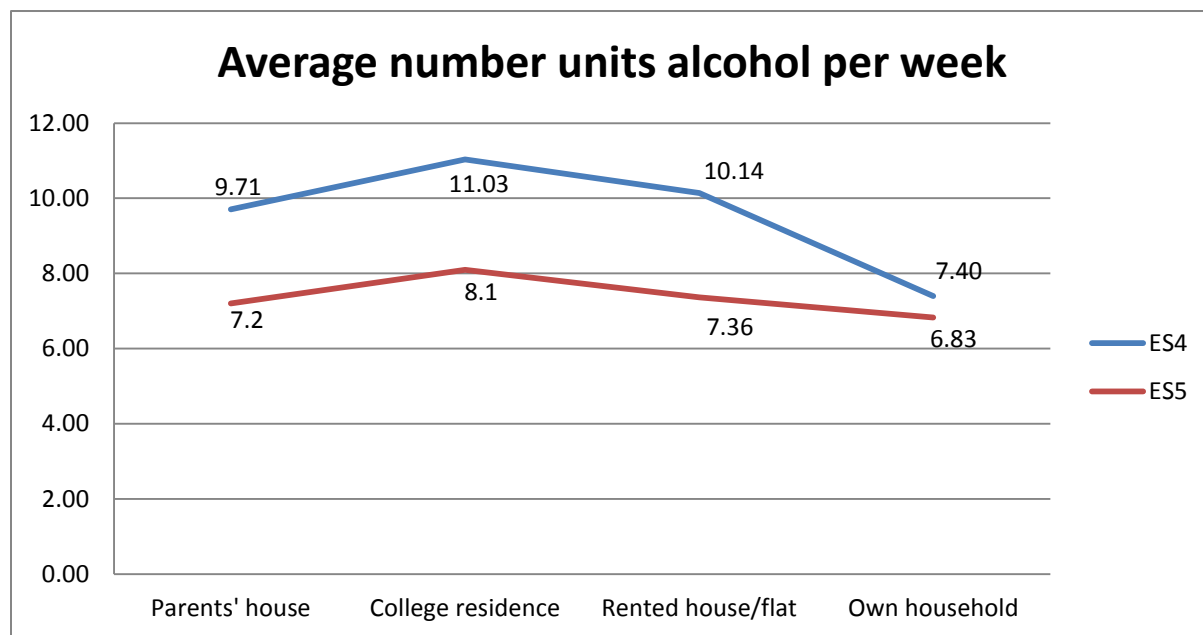
Figure 74 - Place of Residence versus units of alcohol per week (among drinkers)

These responses are interesting because the number of female students staying in student residences is comparatively high. This should bring the average consumption down, as all the Eurostudent surveys show that on average female students consume less alcohol than males.

In ES5, there is a question "How many units do you consume in a typical session", as distinct from in a typical week. While the pattern is the same as above, the difference between the groups is relatively small.

Further analysis was carried out to consider whether the preponderance of first year students in college residences was skewing the results. The analysis found that, among those who drank alcohol, first year

students who lived in college residences consumed more alcohol than first year students in other living arrangements.

How many units of alcohol per week - 1st years
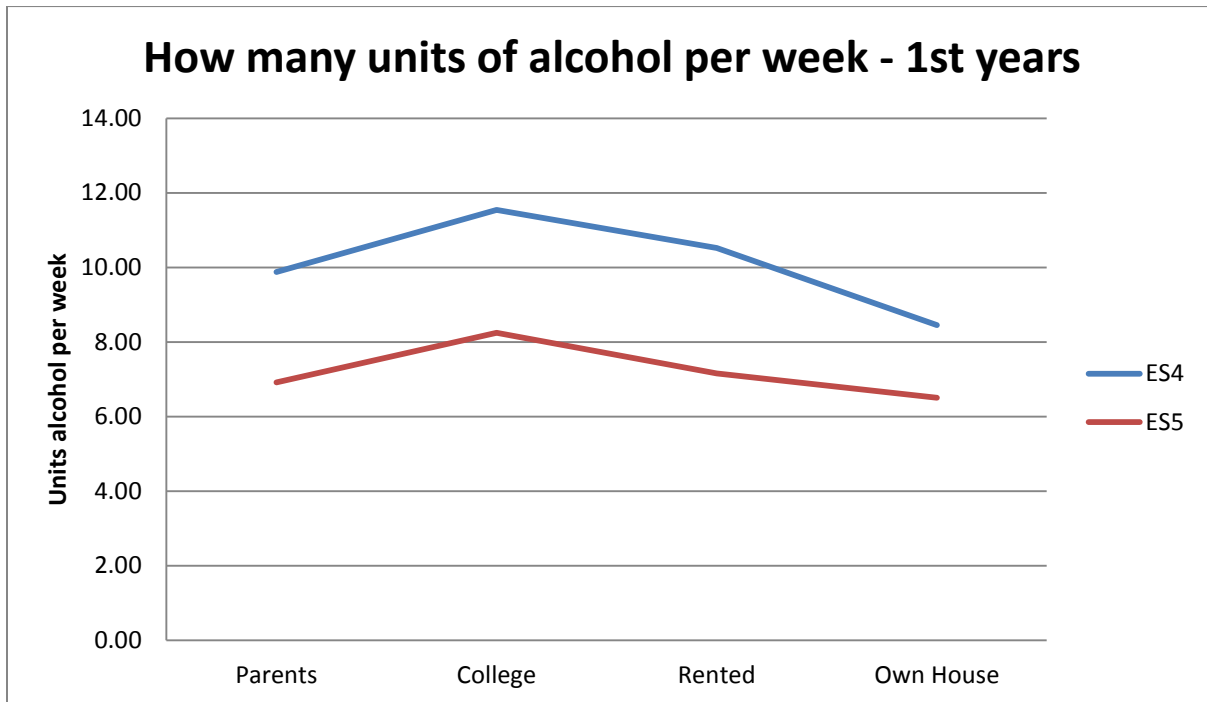
Figure 75 - Place of residence versus units of alcohol consumed by first years

Exceeding safe limits for alcohol consumption

The safe limit for alcohol consumption is 21 units per week for males and 14 units per week for females (Hope et al, 2005). A further analysis of the ES4 figures shows that 15.6% of male students and 13.0% of female students in the full-time undergraduate sample exceed the safe limit for their gender. When these figures are analysed on the basis of living arrangements, it is found that for both genders, students in on-campus accommodation are more likely to exceed the safe limit for alcohol consumption. Home-owners were less likely to exceed safe limits.

% who exceed safe limits for alcohol consumption		
	Male	**Female**
Parents' house	14.4%	12.1%
College residence	21.1%	17.6%
Rented house/flat	15.8%	13.2%
Own household	9.7%	5.6%
Average	15.6%	13.0%

Table 116 - ES4 Place of Residence versus % who exceed safe limits for alcohol consumption

ES4 - % who exceed safe limits alcohol

■ Male ■ Female

- Parents' house: Male 14.4%, Female 12.1%
- College residence: Male 21.1%, Female 17.6%
- Rented house/flat: Male 15.8%, Female 13.2%
- Own household: Male 9.7%, Female 5.6%
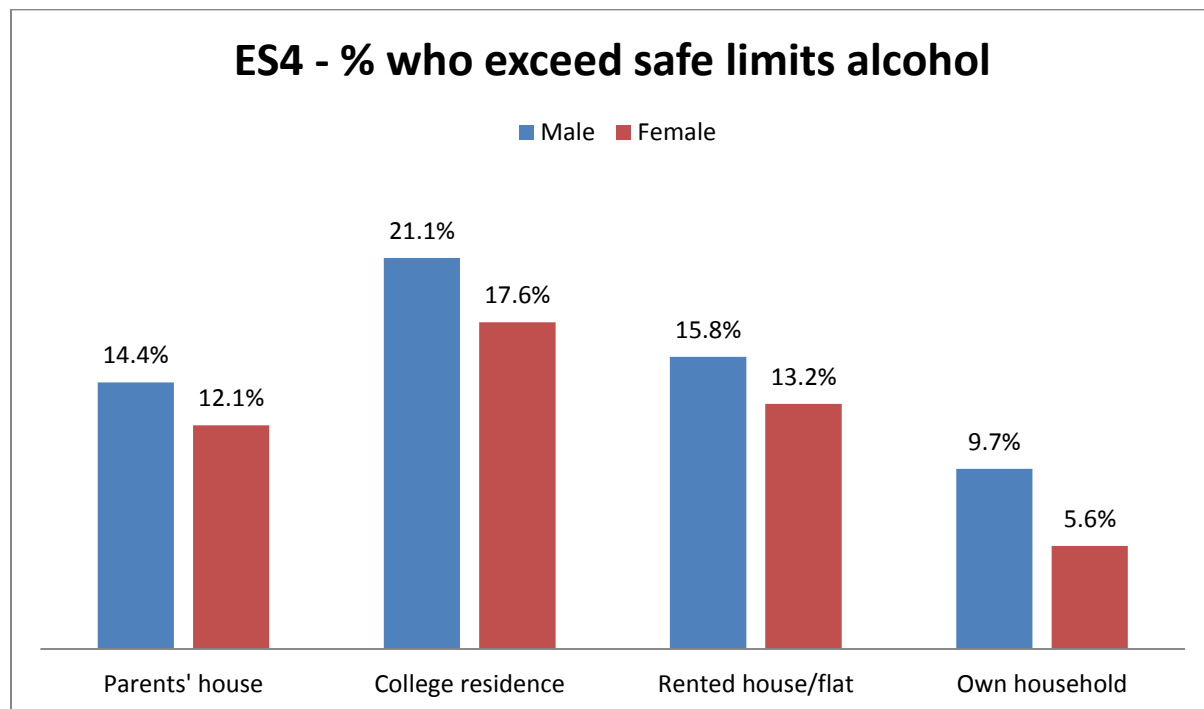
Figure 76 - ES4 Place of residence versus % who exceed safe limits for alcohol consumption

In ES5, the figures are consistent for female students, with those living in student residences much more likely than other students to exceed safe limits for drinking – 12.77% versus 8.19% average. The figures are different for males though, with male students living in their own home, and living with parents more likely to drink in excess of safe limits. If the average for the populations in different living arrangements is considered, it's clear that on average, students living in student halls are more likely to drink at unsafe levels than students in other living arrangements.

% who exceed safe limits			
	Male	**Female**	**Average**
Parents' house	7.27%	6.70%	6.92%
College residence	6.83%	12.77%	11.08%
Rented house/flat	5.26%	7.62%	6.77%
Own household	8.00%	6.36%	7.09%
Average	6.54%	8.19%	7.60%

Table 117 - ES5 - Place of residence versus % who exceed safe limits for alcohol consumption

ES5 - % who exceed safe limits alcohol

■ Male ■ Female

	Parents' house	College residence	Rented house/flat	Own household
Male	7.27%	6.83%	5.26%	8.00%
Female	6.70%	12.77%	7.62%	6.36%
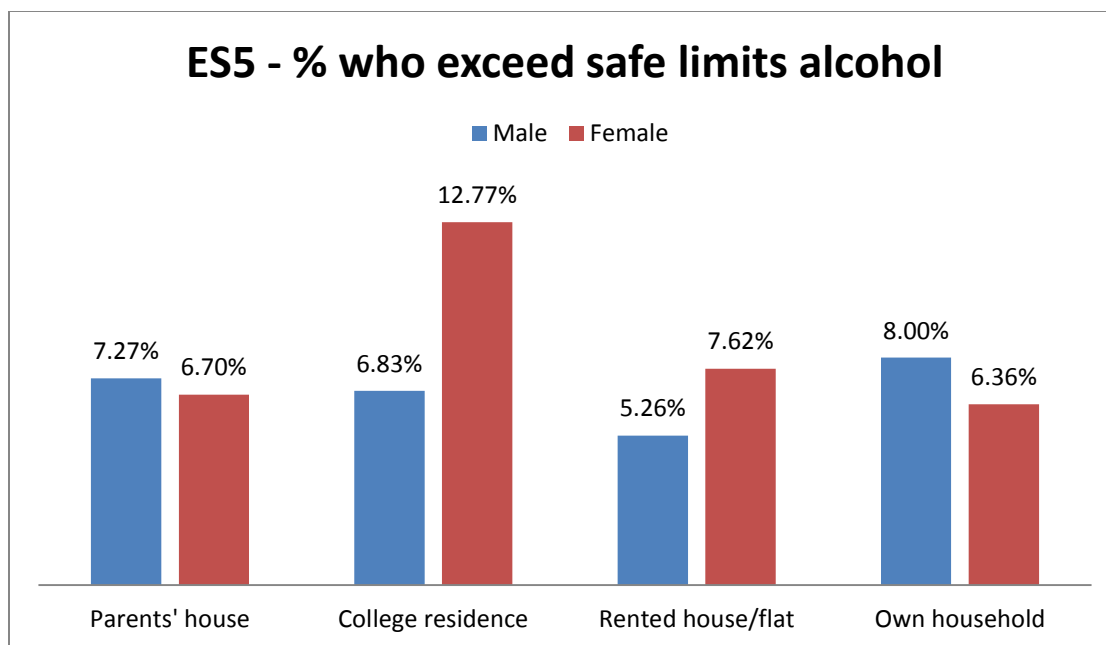
Figure 77 - ES5 Place of Residence versus % who exceed safe limits for alcohol consumption

Expenditure on alcohol.

It is difficult to extract data on alcohol expenditure from ES4. ES3 expenditure figures would indicate that those students living with their parents spend the most money on alcohol, 25% more than spent by resident students. This pattern is repeated in ES5, whereby students living at home with their parents spend the most on alcohol, which is different to the pattern for consumption. One possible explanation is that students living with their parents go out to socialise, whereas those in student residences may buy cheaper alcohol in off-licenses and socialise in the student halls. Eurostudent 5 noted that younger students consumed more alcohol but on average spent less money on alcohol, so there may be a pattern there. ES5 also noted that students from higher socio-economic groups consumed more alcohol.

Weekly spend on alcohol	
Parents' house	€18.62
College residence	€16.75
Rented house/flat	€16.96
Own household	€15.22
Average	€17.45

Table 118 - ES5 - Place of residence versus weekly spend on alcohol

Smoking

The figures for smoking demonstrate a clear trend of fewer students smoking over the period of the survey. This tallies with published figures showing that lower numbers of young people are smoking than used to be the case (Gavin, Molcho, Kelly and Nic Gabhainn, 2013).

Smoking patterns – ES3			
	Smokes regularly	**Smokes Occasionally**	**Does not smoke**
Living with parents	12.1%	9.9%	78.0%
College Residence	13.0%	11.8%	75.2%
Rented	17.7%	10.9%	71.4%
Own household	33.3%	10.6%	56.1%

Table 119 - ES3 - Place of residence versus smoking

ES3 shows that those living in on-campus accommodation or with their parents are more likely not to smoke than either those in private rented accommodation, or home-owners. It should be noted that since the smoking ban in 2004, most on-campus college residences are completely no smoking. The percentage of students living in their own home that are regular smokers, at 33.3%, is very different from the students in other residence types, and presumably is a function of age. This is underlined by the fact that on average students living in their own home have been smoking for over 12 years, compared with students in different living arrangements who have been smoking for between 4 and 6 years.

A similar pattern arises when students were asked if they have ever smoked in the past. Those in their own home have the lowest proportion who have never smoked (42.4%). The other groups range between 54% and 62% who have never smoked.

In ES4, the results are shown below:

Smoking patterns – ES4			
	Smokes regularly %	**Smokes Occasionally %**	**Does not smoke %**
Living with parents	13.0%	10.9%	76.0%
College Residence	8.1%	12.1%	79.8%
Rented	17.6%	13.5%	68.9%
Own household	24.4%	9.0%	66.6%

Table 120 - ES4 - Place of residence versus smoking

In ES4 those in on-campus accommodation are most likely to not smoke, and least likely to smoke regularly, which is a different result to ES3, where those living with their parents were least likely to smoke. Once again, home-owners are most likely to smoke, and most likely to smoke regularly, although the difference between this group and those in private rented accommodation is not as significant as in ES3.

In ES5, the pattern from ES4 is still evident. Those in student halls are least likely to smoke, followed by those who are living with their parents. Those living in their own home are most likely to smoke.

Smoking patterns - ES5			
	Smokes regularly	Smokes Occasionally	Does not smoke
Living with parents	9.3%	11.5%	79.2%
College Residence	7.4%	12.1%	80.5%
Private Rented Accommodation	14.1%	14.5%	71.4%
Own household	17.2%	12.1%	70.7%
Average	11.3%	12.7%	75.9%

Table 121 - ES5 - Place of Residence versus smoking

If trends over the seven year period are examined, it is evident that the patterns are quite consistent. One trend that is quite clear is that the percentage of students in their own homes who smoke has dropped at a very high rate, albeit from a much higher level than the other groups.

This pattern becomes very clear if the percentage that smokes regularly over the period of the three surveys is considered.
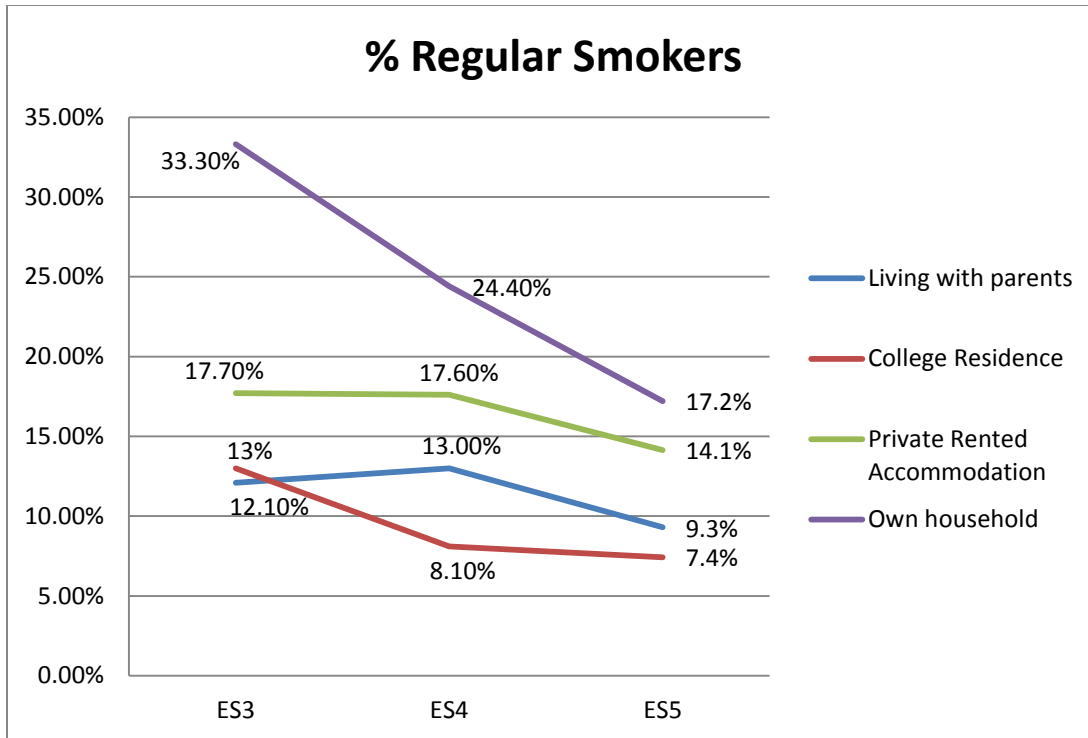
Figure 78 - Place of residence versus regular smokers

Regular exercise

The Eurostudent 4 survey noted that "22% indicated that they do not exercise at all" (p. 9). The questions asked is: "How frequently do you exercise i.e. at least 30 minutes duration where your heart rate was raised?" It is noticeable that the number of students taking no exercise decreased dramatically for ES5, with only 7% of students indicating that they never exercised. The ES5 report noted that the survey had been taken in April/May whereas the previous surveys had been taken in October/November, so people may be encouraged to take exercise outside. That said, April/May is closer to exams and students may have some time pressures, which would restrict their exercise. The Eurostudent 4 data is as follows:

Full-time students - regular exercise				
	No exercise %	3 times or less per week %	4 times or more per week %	Total
Living with Parents	21.9%	57.1%	21.0%	100%
On Campus Accommodation	19.2%	62.3%	18.6%	100%
Private Rented Accommodation	22.4%	58.1%	19.6%	100%
Own Home	29.9%	54.2%	15.9%	100%

Table 122 – ES4 - Place of residence versus exercise

Here it can be seen that students living at home with parents are more likely to exercise four or more times per week, and students living in on-campus accommodation are lowest in that category. Given that students living in on-campus accommodation spend more time on college-related activities, have more time available to exercise, and are closer to on-campus sports facilities, it might be expected that they would have higher rates of regular exercise.

Home-owners are the most likely to take no exercise, and less likely than students in other living arrangements to exercise more than 4 times per week.

The figures for ES5 are shown in Table 123

ES5 - regular exercise				
	No exercise %	3 times or less per week %	4 times or more per week %	Total
Living with Parents	6.5%	67.2%	26.3%	100%
On Campus Accommodation	4.8%	71.1%	24.1%	100%
Rented	8.1%	67.6%	24.3%	100%
Own Home	10.5%	68.0%	21.5%	100%
Average	7.1%	68.0%	24.8%	100%

Table 123 - ES5 - Place of residence versus exercise

Again, the pattern is similar: those living with their parents are more likely to exercise four or more times per week, with those in their own home least likely to take exercise this regularly. Those students living in their own home are most likely to take no exercise (10.5% compared with 7.1% average), and students in on-campus accommodation are the least likely to take no exercise. It should be noted that the differences between the groups for this variable are quite small.

Health-related issues

In the analysis of health-related issues, it was difficult to identify any clear pattern. Home-owners appeared to experience minor health issues (colds, headaches, difficulty concentrating) less often than the other groups. In particular, resident students would appear to catch colds much more frequently than home-owners. However, in ES3, resident students were most positive about their overall health, and students living in their own home rated their overall health lower than the other groups. As was seen in the analysis on disability, home-owners are more likely to experience chronic illness, or other long-term illnesses, and this may have influenced this result. ES3 reported that students (their analysis

included part-time and post-graduate students) living with parents had better overall health; however the results of the analysis in this thesis would suggest that this finding does not apply to full-time undergraduate students.

Mental health / positive well-being

The mental health of respondents was monitored using the WHO-5 analysis. The background on WHO-5 test is provided in ES4:

> The WHO (World Health Organisation) Wellbeing Index was designed to assess depression, anxiety and psychological distress on a self-rating scale. The five-item measure assesses subjective positive wellbeing, 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. . . A score below 13 indicates poor wellbeing. (Harmon et al, 2011, p. 31)

The data analysis for WHO-5 for ES4 is shown below:

ES4 - WHO-5						
	Cheerful	**Calm**	**Active**	**Refreshed**	**Interest**	**WHO-5**
Living with parents	3.14	2.70	2.51	1.73	2.83	12.91
College Residence	3.34	2.92	2.70	1.96	3.04	13.95
Private Rented Accommodation	3.09	2.65	2.54	1.84	2.88	13.01
Own household	3.10	2.63	2.56	2.08	3.21	13.58

Table 124 - ES4 - Place of residence versus WHO-5 score

In ES4 this shows that students living on campus have the highest WHO-5, and those living with their parents the lowest. A score below 13 indicates poor well-being

In ES5, when the average WHO-5 is calculated for the different groups, there is very little difference between the groups, and the pattern is different to the ES4 findings. Students living in on-campus accommodation have the lowest score, by a small margin, and those living with their parents the highest, which is the reverse of the ES4 result.

ES5 - WHO-5						
	Cheerful	Calm	Active	Refreshed	Interest	WHO-5
Living with parents	2.11	2.52	2.60	3.16	2.43	12.83
College Residence	1.96	2.39	2.55	3.01	2.37	12.28
Private Rented Accommodation	2.06	2.48	2.58	3.11	2.37	12.59
Own household	2.15	2.50	2.70	3.03	2.10	12.47

Table 125 - ES5 - Place of residence versus WHO-5 score

As there is no discernible pattern, there is no conclusion that can be drawn in relation to differences in mental health among students in different living arrangements. This would appear not to support the assertion in ES3 that students in rented accommodation in particular "have lower levels of subjective well-being in other domains" (p. 57).

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