

Youth in Europe

A statistical portrait



2009 edition

Youth in Europe

A statistical portrait

2009 edition

*Europe Direct is a service to help you find answers
to your questions about the European Union*

Freephone number (*):

00 800 6 7 8 9 10 11

(* Certain mobile telephone operators do not allow access
to 00 800 numbers or these calls may be billed.

More information on the European Union is available on the Internet (<http://europa.eu>).

Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union, 2009

ISBN 978-92-79-12872-1

DOI 10.2785/30500

Cat. No. KS-78-09-920-EN-N

Theme: Population and social conditions

Collection: Statistical books

© European Communities, 2009

© Cover photo: European Commission

Foreword

Young people are the present and the future of Europe and a rich source of dynamism in our societies. However, the situation of young people who are studying and entering professional and adult societal life varies within each country, and even more so between countries at European level.

In November 2009, the Council of Youth Ministers in the 27 Member States of the European Union adopted a resolution which puts into force a new EU Youth Strategy for 2010 - 2018. The resolution outlines the main goals for a long-term strategy for youth: creating more opportunities for young people in education and the labour market and promoting the active citizenship, social inclusion and solidarity of all young people. This strategy will guide both the EU and its Member States in pursuing policies aimed at improving the lives of all young people in the coming decade.

The new strategy is based on a proposal from the European Commission, as a Communication entitled "An EU Strategy for Youth - Investing and Empowering. A renewed open method of coordination to address youth challenges and opportunities" (COM(2009)200 final).

The Communication's proposal for a new EU Youth Strategy stresses the importance of evidence-based policy-making and underlines the need for more information on youth. The EU Youth Report, a publication presenting some statistics and analyses on the situation of youth, was therefore attached to and adopted together with the Commission Communication in April. Published at the time of the adoption of the Resolution on the New EU Strategy by the Council of Ministers responsible for Youth, the present publication, "Youth in Europe. A statistical portrait" provides even more comprehensive data and statistics.

For this publication, all potential Eurostat data sources on youth were explored and some additional interesting information from other sources was included. Each chapter contains basic methodological notes, to enable a better understanding of the statistics presented. The reader is provided with references to other documents and publications which suggest further reading of more detailed studies. Readers are also invited to consult the Eurostat website, which is a rich source of data allowing further analysis.

Pierre Mairesse
Director of Youth, Sport and Citizenship
DG Education and Culture

Inna Šteinbuka
Director of Social Statistics and Information Society
Eurostat



YOUTH IN EUROPE – A statistical portrait

This publication has been managed and produced by Eurostat:

Directorate F: Social statistics and information society - Inna Šteinbuka, Director

Unit F-4. Education, science and culture statistics - Jean-Louis Mercy, Head of Unit

Project management : Marta Beck-Domžalska (Marta.BECK-DOMZALSKA@ec.europa.eu)

Thanks for their collaboration: Veronica Corsini (Unit F-1), Katya Vasileva (Unit F-1), Ingo Kuhnert (Unit F-2), Luis Del Barrio (Unit F-2), Pascal Wolff (Unit F-3), Agnieszka Litwińska (Unit F-4), Dominique Groenez (Unit F-4), Sylvain Jouhette (Unit F-4), Paolo Turchetti (Unit F-4), Hartmut Buchow (Unit F-5), Heidi Seybert (Unit F-6), Christophe Demunter (Unit F-6), Baudouin Quennery (Unit E-4)

Data processing, statistical analysis and desk-top publishing:

SOGETI Luxembourg:

Publication management : Arnaud Desurmont

Marco Alciator, Emmanuel Clément, Antonia Margherita, Veronica Beneitz Pinero, Sebastien Evans and Emmanuelle Berthe

The opinions expressed are those of the individuals authors alone and do not necessarily reflect the position of the European Commission.

For further information: <http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu>

Table of contents

Summary	7
General information	12
Chapter 1: Demography	15
You are young only once... but when do you stop being 'young'?	17
Growing old...	19
... still staying young	20
Multinational youth	23
Chapter 2: Family and living conditions	27
Founding a family: young women leave the parental home earlier than men	29
Marriage: there's no hurry	32
A slight rebound in fertility rates?	34
Living conditions: one in five young persons threatened by poverty	42
Are young households living on a shoestring?	45
Chapter 3: Health	49
A healthy mind in a healthy body	51
Young people can expect to live longer than ever before	54
But death keeps no fixed timetable	55
Kicking the habit: attitudes toward smoking, drinking and drugs	62
Chapter 4: Education	69
Does living longer lead to higher school expectancy?	71
Preparing for the future rather than fulfilling a legal obligation	72
More boys than girls are in vocational programmes	76
Foreign languages open doors to the world, but not all pupils have the same number of keys	81
An increasing number of students in tertiary education	83
'Old tertiary students' are getting older	84
A gender gap by field of tertiary studies	86
Graduates in social sciences, business and law are the most numerous	89
Increasing mobility...but not yet for everyone	90
Younger generations have a higher level of education than their elders...	91
But some young people are still left aside	93
The level of education of parents remains a factor of academic success for their children	95
Youth participation in lifelong learning: increasing initial inequalities rather than bridging the gap?	98

Chapter 5: Employment	101
From school benches to working life	103
Many roads lead to the labour market	107
Young people and unemployment	111
The long road to a steady job	115
Working patterns: how long, when and where do young people work?	120
Young entrepreneurs: well-prepared to meet life's challenges?	130
Chapter 6: Youth and ICT	135
A new way of interacting with the world	137
The digital generation: discovering the world without leaving home	139
E-skills	147
New tools for old jobs: from messages in bottles to electronic mail	152
Chapter 7: Cultural and social involvement	159
Life is not all hard work	161
Broadening young people's horizons	170
Culture: what's in a word?	173
Culture and multiculturalism	174
Active citizenship: today's choices, tomorrow's community life	176
In institutions we trust?	180
Looking to the future	183

SUMMARY

Growing old...still staying young

In 2007, the European Union counted around 96 million young people aged between 15 and 29 years. These young people and their elders are facing two demographic challenges: the ageing and the impending decline of the European population. In fact, according to projections, by 2050 the population aged under 15 will account for a quarter of all persons of working age (15–64) and for half of the population aged over 64.

Overall, young people represented just under a fifth of the EU population in 2007. At national level, the most 'youthful' nations in the EU included Ireland, Cyprus, Slovakia and Poland, which counted the highest proportion of young people in the total population (more than 24 %). By contrast, in Denmark, Germany and Italy young people accounted for less than 18 % of the population.

International migration has become an important driver of European population growth. However, the available data to monitor this phenomenon are still difficult to analyse since no criterion (e.g. citizenship or residence) perfectly captures international mobility. Among the EU Member States for which data are available, Spain, Austria and Germany recorded the highest shares of foreigners among the young population aged 15–29 (representing respectively 15 %, 14 % and 12 %).

Leaving the parental nest, getting married and having children: there's no hurry

The path from childhood to independent adulthood is lined with a number of crucial milestones and decisions, such as leaving the parental home to study or to work, moving in with a partner, getting married and having children. However, this road is not a one-way street; difficulties in securing a steady job or sufficient income and the dissolution of the couple or family may force young people to return to the parental home. In 2007, young women generally tended to leave the parental home earlier (by one or two years) than young men but strong disparities were noted across countries. Indeed, women tended to leave the parental nest at the average age of 22 in

Finland, and 29 in Italy, Malta, Slovenia and Slovakia. For young men, the average age ranged from 23 to over 30. Material reasons were often put forward when young Europeans were asked via opinion polls why they or their peers tended to delay leaving the parental home. In fact, 44 % of young Europeans (aged 15–30) consider that young adults cannot afford to leave the parental home and 28 % agree that not enough affordable housing is available. However, in some countries, more than 20 % of young respondents consider that remaining with their parents allows them to live more comfortably with fewer responsibilities.

In 2006, first marriages usually involved women younger than 30 in a majority of countries. As concerned men, in nearly half of the countries, a majority of first marriages concerned men older than 30. For women, getting married below 20 years of age is a relatively rare phenomenon in European countries, except for Romania and Turkey.

Despite a recent upturn in the average number of children per woman in several Member States, the highest national fertility rates noted in the EU are still beneath the replacement level. The average age at which women have their first child ranged from 25 to 30 and has increased in all Member States over the 1995–2005 period. In a majority of countries, more than half of first births took place after the age of 25 when considering first-time mothers aged 15–29. In Germany, Spain and the United Kingdom, first-time mothers over 30 were even more numerous than their younger counterparts.

Living on a shoestring?

In 2007, 20 % of young Europeans aged 18–24 were at risk of poverty — i.e. living in households who had at their disposal less than 60 % of the median equivalised income of the country they live in. Moreover, the average income of young people aged 16–24 was much lower than that of their elders aged 25–49, as young people still in education either have not started working or are at the beginning of their career.

In 2007, less than 10 % of young European households (the oldest member of which is aged under 30) were unable to afford a meal with meat or fish every second day and to buy a

computer, and one in six were unable to afford a car. Finally, one third of them could not afford one week's holiday away from home per year.

Young people can expect to live longer than ever before, but death keeps no fixed timetable

In 2006, more than 90 % of young Europeans aged 15–24 felt that they were in 'good' or 'very good' health.

In fact, young people can expect to live longer than ever before, with life expectancy at birth ranging in the EU from 71 years in Latvia to 81 years in Spain, France and Sweden. However, young Europeans are also more likely than their older counterparts to die as a result of transport accidents, suicide, drugs and AIDS. Young men aged 20–24 tended to be more affected by transport accident and intentional self-harm than young women. In 2006, nearly 30 % of new HIV cases were diagnosed among young people aged between 15 and 29, almost two thirds of which (60 %) concerned those aged between 25 and 29.

Smoking, drinking alcohol and taking drugs are detrimental to health. In most countries, the proportion of daily smokers increases until the age of 45 and young men are usually more likely to smoke than women. According to the survey, Europeans had their first episode of drunkenness at the age of 13 or 14; and in most European countries more than 80 % of young people aged 15 or 16 had consumed alcohol at least once in the past 12 months. Moreover, in more than half of the countries considered, more than 40 % (but usually less than 50 %) of young people aged between 15 and 16 years declared that they had been drunk at least once in the past 12 months. In 2004, most young people agreed that getting hold of drugs was not difficult at parties, in pubs and nightclubs as well as in their neighbourhood and at school. Young people also considered that the main reason to try drugs was curiosity, followed by peer pressure and thrill-seeking. Less than 20 % of the 15 to 34-year-olds have taken cannabis, which was the most popular drug in all countries for which data are available.

Education - preparing for the future rather than fulfilling a legal obligation

In most European countries, compulsory schooling ends between the ages of 15 and 17, but it is usual to remain in education thereafter. Although participation rates in education tend to decline in all countries after the end of compulsory education, they remain above 80 % in most European countries one year after the theoretical age at which compulsory schooling ends, especially for women.

At EU level, the number of young men and women in upper-secondary education is fairly similar, but girls generally outnumbered boys in general programmes, whereas the opposite is true in vocational programmes. This gender gap is also reflected in tertiary education: women were usually more numerous than men in the first stage of tertiary education (ISCED level 5) and especially in certain fields of education (education, humanities and arts). The reverse was usually true in the second stage of tertiary education (ISCED level 6).

In 2006 there were nearly 19 million tertiary students in the European Union, and 15 % of the population aged between 18 and 34 attended tertiary education. The median age of tertiary students varied widely across Europe, from 20 years in Greece to 26 years in Iceland.

The ability to communicate in more than one language is a desirable skill for all young people, regardless of the educational programme orientation. In 2006, less than 10 % of pupils in upper-secondary education were not learning a foreign language. Nevertheless, pupils in vocational programmes tended to learn fewer foreign languages than their counterparts in general programmes.

Despite the overall increase in the educational attainment level of young generations compared to their elders, some young people with only lower-secondary education are still at a disadvantage: the share of early school-leavers has declined slightly in the EU from 2000 onwards to reach 15 % in 2007, but young men are still more affected by this phenomenon than women.

Although social mobility is often a reality in the Member

States, success in education still appears to be influenced by the educational level of the parents. Young people whose parents have completed at most lower-secondary education more often reached lower- or upper-secondary education than tertiary education. At the other end of the spectrum, young people with tertiary educated parents tended more often to reach and succeed in tertiary education than their peers from lower educational backgrounds.

However, stronger competition requires people to continually update their skills over their entire life: lifelong learning is thus seen as a key factor in securing employment rather than a job. Participation rates in non-formal education and training were slightly higher for young people under 30 than for their older counterparts. But it is noticeable that tertiary educated young adults usually participate more in non-formal education than their peers with a lower educational attainment level.

From school benches to working life: many roads lead to the labour market

Leaving formal education (either school or university) is a crossroad in life requiring young people to decide either to enter the labour market or to be inactive. The path to the labour market can be straightforward (from formal education directly to full-time permanent employment or to inactivity) or more fragmented (combining schooling with part-time work and/or seeking work or alternating inactivity and work and/or seeking work).

Such diversity in patterns of transition from education to work is especially apparent among the population aged 18 to 24 years: in 2007, at EU level, 59 % of young people aged 18 were exclusively in education or training and only 13 % in economic activity. By the age of 24 the proportions were reversed. Moreover, 20 % of Europeans aged 18 and 16 % of those aged 24 combined education or training with economic activity.

The employment rate increases with age. In 2007, it ranged from 37 % (for those aged 15–24) to 75 % for those aged between 25 and 29 years. But being employed does not mean

that young people are no longer eager to study and learn: 14 % and 12 % of young employed Europeans aged 15–24 and 25–29 respectively were still either studying or in training.

A broad spectrum of results in terms of youth unemployment rate was reported in the EU Member States: in 2007, youth unemployment rates ranged from 8 % to more than 20 %. Moreover, in all Member States, young people tended to be more affected by unemployment than their elders. This pattern tends to be exacerbated by the current economic crisis. Indeed, the youth unemployment rate is increasing strongly in nearly all European countries: in the year to the first quarter of 2009, the unemployment rate of young people aged 15–24 increased faster than that of their elders aged 25–59.

Most young people in employment were employees but not all fulfilled their desire of having a full-time permanent job. Indeed, 37 % of temporary workers aged 15–24 and 65 % of temporary workers aged 25–29 had a fixed-term contract because they could not find a permanent job. In contrast to temporary work, a majority of working young persons aged 15–24 chose to work part-time in order to pursue their studies, which could explain why the share of part-timers is higher among the 15 to 24-year-olds than among the 25 to 29-year-olds.

Aside from temporary or part-time employment, young people may also work atypical hours by necessity or in order to better combine education and work. At European level, working on Saturdays was the most common type of atypical working hours for young employees. In fact, 51 % of employees aged 15–24 (35 % of whom were still in formal education) worked on Saturdays either sometimes or usually. In 2007, nearly 60 % of employed persons aged 15–24 were occupied in four economic sectors: 'wholesale and retail trade', 'manufacturing', 'construction' and 'hotels and restaurants'. Among these four sectors, young people still in formal education represented from 25 % (construction) to 44 % (hotels and restaurants) of all employed people aged 15–24.

A new way of interacting with the world

Young people are at the forefront of the technological revolution and the presence of dependent children in the household seems to increase the prevalence of computer and internet access at home.

The share of daily computer and internet users has increased over the past five years in all age groups, but the gap across generations has remained stable. In 2008, more than 70 % of those aged 16–24 used a computer daily and 66 % used the internet every day or almost every day, mostly from home and from the place of education.

E-skills can be considered as a key competence that can contribute to a successful life in a knowledge-based society and there is an obvious gap between computer skill levels of younger and older generations. In 2007, 41 % of Europeans aged 16–24 were able to carry out five or six computer-related activities, against only 18 % of those aged 45–54. Young generations (aged 16–24) have integrated the Internet into their day-to-day life as a communication tool, e.g. using search engines to find information (86 %), sending emails with attached files (77 %) or posting messages on chat rooms (61 %). More technical competences were less common — for instance, only 25 % of people aged 16–24 were able to create a web page. At EU-27 level, young people aged 16–24 declared that they acquired their e-skills mostly through self-study (72 %), informal assistance (65 %) and formal education institutions (65 %).

Among the wide range of Internet activities, more than 80 % of the population aged 16–24 accessed the internet to communicate, to search for information, to use online services and for leisure activities. The distribution of internet activities did not change significantly over the past years. Although young women and men showed similar interest in most activities (such as email exchanges, use of advanced communication services, etc.), major gender disparities emerge when considering leisure activities (which men are more interested in) and the search for information on health, education and training (which women are more interested in). Compared to their elders, young people aged 16–24 less

frequently ordered goods and services over the Internet; films, music, clothes and sports goods were widely sought after on the internet by young people.

Life is not all hard work

In most countries, leisure time (excluding TV and video) accounted for more than 20 % of a normal day of 15 to 19-year-olds. As people get older, this share tends to decrease as the gradual shift to working life leaves less time for leisure.

Leisure time can be used to partake in enriching cultural events such as the cinema, live performances, live sports and cultural visits. At European level, more than 82 % of 16 to 24-year-olds went to see at least one film in the reference year; this share was twice high as for people aged 30 and over. In contrast, only 56 % of Europeans aged 16 to 24 went to see a live show. Less than half of young Europeans went on a cultural visit during the reference year; this was also the case when considering attendance at live sports events.

Young people often feel the need for adventure as travelling has always been a source of knowledge and personal development. Available data on tourism are difficult to interpret since the data distributions by age make no distinction between young people travelling on their own and with their parents. Broadly speaking, the age distribution of tourists corresponds approximately to the age distribution of the total population, but in most of the new Member States (2004 and 2007 enlargements) tourists aged 15 to 24 years accounted for a relatively high share of the tourist population. However, the average number of holiday trips per tourist as well as the destinations of tourists (domestic and/or abroad) did not reveal significant differences between age groups.

In their everyday life young people have different opportunities to make their voices heard or to participate in community life. In 2006, recreational groups and religious organisations were the most popular types of community engagement among European youth: 27 % of young men aged between 16 and 29 (against 19 % of young women) took part in recreational groups and 16 % of them (against 20 % of young women) took part in church or other religious organisations. At the other end of the spectrum, less than

4 % of young Europeans participated in the activities of political parties or trade unions.

Aside from a generational gap (36 % of people aged 30 and over declared being quite interested in politics compared to only 26 % of 16 to 24-year-olds), interest in politics also reveals gender differences: relatively more young men declared that they were interested in politics compared to young women. This rather limited interest in politics is shared by all age groups and is accompanied by a limited trust in

politicians and national parties and, to a lesser extent, in national parliaments. Nevertheless, most people aged 16–29 and 30 and over trust the European Parliament.

Finally, young Europeans are more optimistic than their elders when picturing their life in 20 years' time: 47 % of 15 to 24-year-olds expect life to get better and young people especially believe that work opportunities for men and women will be more equal and that access to education will be easier in the future.

GENERAL INFORMATION

GEOGRAPHICAL COVERAGE

This publication covers the European Union (EU) and its 27 Member States:

Belgium (BE), Bulgaria (BG), the Czech Republic (CZ), Denmark (DK), Germany (DE), Estonia (EE), Greece (EL), Spain (ES), France (FR), Ireland (IE), Italy (IT), Cyprus (CY), Latvia (LV), Lithuania (LT), Luxembourg (LU), Hungary (HU), Malta (MT), the Netherlands (NL), Austria (AT), Poland (PL), Portugal (PT), Romania (RO), Slovenia (SI), Slovakia (SK), Finland (FI), Sweden (SE) and the United Kingdom (UK).

Where data availability permits, information is also included for:

- the Candidate Countries: Croatia (HR), the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (MK) and Turkey (TR);
- the EFTA (European Free Trade Association) countries: Iceland (IS), Liechtenstein (LI), Norway (NO) and Switzerland (CH).

DATA SOURCES

Main sources

The main data sources used for this publication are Eurostat databases: Demographic statistics, the European Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS), the European Survey on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC), Health statistics, the UNESCO-OECD-EUROSTAT (UOE) data collection on education, the Community survey on ICT usage in households and by individuals and Tourism Statistics. Additionally, data from the Harmonised Time Use Survey (HETUS) were used.

Other sources

Data from the European Statistical System have been complemented by other sources of information: Eurobarometer (which is an opinion pool but not a statistical

survey), EuroHIV (HIV/AIDS Surveillance in Europe), the European Monitoring Centre for Drug and Drug Addiction (EMCDDA) and the research-oriented European Social Survey (ESS). Readers should note that data from these sources may be based on different standards to those used in the European Statistical System. These sources are briefly described in boxes in the chapter where they are quoted.

The date of extractions varies according to the various sources of information but all data have been extracted before April 2009. Please note that this publication was produced at the onset of the current economic crisis. As a result, except for some data on unemployment, data measuring the impact of the crisis on young people in Europe were not available at the time of drafting the publication. However, the most recent data are available on the Eurostat website at: <http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/eurostat/home>

ABBREVIATIONS and SYMBOLS

Countries

EU-27	European Union of 27 Member States
EU-25	European Union of 25 Member States
EU-15	European Union of 15 Member States
BE	Belgium
BG	Bulgaria
CZ	Czech Republic
DK	Denmark
DE	Germany
EE	Estonia
IE	Ireland
EL	Greece
ES	Spain
FR	France
IT	Italy
CY	Cyprus

LV	Latvia
LT	Lithuania
LU	Luxembourg
HU	Hungary
MT	Malta
NL	Netherlands
AT	Austria
PL	Poland
PT	Portugal
RO	Romania
SI	Slovenia
SK	Slovakia
FI	Finland
SE	Sweden
UK	United Kingdom
HR	Croatia
MK ⁽¹⁾	Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia
TR	Turkey
IS	Iceland
LI	Liechtenstein
NO	Norway
CH	Switzerland

Symbols:

:	not available
u	unreliable or uncertain data
()	data published with warning concerning the reliability
p	provisional value
e	estimated value

⁽¹⁾ Provisional code which does not prejudice in any way the definitive nomenclature for this country, which will be agreed following the conclusion of negotiations currently taking place on this subject at the United Nations.

Demography

1



Just under 20% of the population in the EU-27 is aged between 15 and 29. However, low fertility rates and longer life expectancy suggest that this figure is set to fall in the next decades.

This indicates that society is reshaping and that younger generations will have to face the subsequent economic and social changes. Migration must also be taken into account when talking about the age composition of the population.

Europe is an attractive place for people coming from outside Europe and a large proportion of migrants are young people. Mobility within the EU also contributes to the changing structure of society.

Europe is facing new challenges, and its youngest generations will have to overcome them, just as the previous generations had to face the challenges of their time.

YOU ARE YOUNG ONLY ONCE... BUT WHEN DO YOU STOP BEING 'YOUNG'?

There is no clear-cut definition of youth since it may be considered as a transition phase. Youth can be defined as 'the passage from a dependant childhood to independent adulthood' when young people are in transition between a world of rather secure development to a world of choice and risk.⁽¹⁾

Finding a common definition of youth is not an easy task. Age is a useful but insufficient indication to characterise the transition to adulthood. Some qualitative information reveals how societies acknowledge the increasing maturity of young people (see Table 1.1).

Table 1.1: Some determinants of adulthood

	Age limit of child benefits (maximum age until possible prolongation)	Age at the end of full time compulsory schooling	Voting age	Minimum age for standing for elections
BE	18 (25)	15	18	18
BG	20	16	18	21
CZ	15 (26)	15	18	21
DK	18	16	18	18
DE	18 (25)	16	18	18
EE	16 (19)	16	18	18
IE	16 (19)	16	18	:
EL	18 (22)	15	18	25
ES	18	16	18	:
FR	20	16	18	:
IT	18	16	18	18
CY	18 (23)	15	18	25
LV	15 (20)	16	18	21
LT	18 (24)	16	18	20
LU	18 (27)	16	18	18
HU	18 (23)	18	18	:
MT	16 (21)	16	18	18
NL	17	18	18	18
AT	18 (26)	15	16	18
PL	18 (21)	16	18	:
PT	16 (24)	15	18	18
RO	18	16	18	23
SI	18 (26)	15	18	18
SK	16 (25)	16	18	21
FI	17	16	18	18
SE	16	16	18	18
UK	16 (20)	16	18	18
TR	:	14	18	25
IS	18	16	18	18
LI	18	15	18	:
NO	18	16	18	18

Source: MISSOC, Eurydice, EKCYP

Note: age limit of child benefit: the age in bracket refers to the maximum age until child benefit may be prolonged. Such a prolongation depends on different conditions across countries.

Voting age: DE: depends on the type of election in some Länder; IT: depends on the type of election; SI: varies according to additional conditions.

Minimum age for standing for elections: BG, IT, EE, CY, LT and RO: depends on the type of election.

⁽¹⁾ Walther, Andreas, Gry Moerch Hejl, Torben Bechmann Jensen, 'Youth Transitions, Youth Policy and Participation. State of the Art Report', 2002.



The age limit of child benefits, the end of full-time compulsory schooling, the voting age and the minimum age for standing for election may be considered as key milestones to adulthood.

The age limit of child benefits usually ranges from 15 (in the Czech Republic and Latvia) to 18, but it is often prolonged if young people are still in education.

The end of compulsory education may be seen as the time when young persons are incited to make their own choices concerning their future professional life. It ranges from 14 to 18 years when considering full-time education but may be extended in case of part-time studies (Belgium, Germany, the Netherlands and Poland).

Considering civic rights, the voting age in the European Union is 18 in all countries except Austria (16). In Italy the

legal voting age is 18 (to elect the Chamber of Deputies) but the Senate is elected only by people aged 25 and over. The age to stand for election as a candidate varies considerably across countries, from 18 to 25, and may depend of the type of election.

Aside from the above-mentioned key milestones that are mainly related to age, adulthood is also considered as the time when young people become financially self-sufficient. The average increase in the number of years of study (especially through increased participation in higher education), combined with difficulties in getting a first job and access to affordable housing have increased the length of the transition from youth to independence. For all these reasons and due to the lack of a commonly agreed definition of youth, this publication focuses on the population aged between 15 and 29.

'Promoting young people's full participation in education, employment and society'

The Communication from the European Commission on promoting youth is a major step in a policy process on youth issues which started in 2001 with the White Paper on Youth. It conveys, in a context of aging societies, a strong message for better, earlier and more investment in young people to promote their education, employment, social inclusion, health and active citizenship in a lifecycle approach. Investment should not merely be financial.

Personal involvement is needed by relevant stakeholders, such as policy makers, labour and education institutions, enterprises, youth workers, researchers, families and organisations working for and with young people.

The Communication highlights the need to substantially reduce youth unemployment and improve the quality of jobs. All young people, and Europe as a whole, need to have the skills and opportunities to work productively for economic and social well-being. Key to young people's full participation is access to a good job which also requires qualitative and relevant education. Promoting full participation of young managers, entrepreneurs and workers is also a key component in building innovative, knowledge-based and internationally competitive EU economies.

Working towards young people's full participation in society can be done more successfully through a transversal youth strategy. This requires stronger cross-sectoral cooperation between policy fields impacting on youth and a greater focus on youth in such policies.

Member States are to this end invited to take a number of measures aiming at forging closer links between existing processes, such as the Lisbon Strategy, health strategies and various open methods of coordination, in order for them to deliver further and better opportunities for young people, and concentrate on actions that will be more beneficial to young people's professional integration, social inclusion and active citizenship.

Source: 'Promoting young people's full participation in education, employment and society', European Commission, September 2007

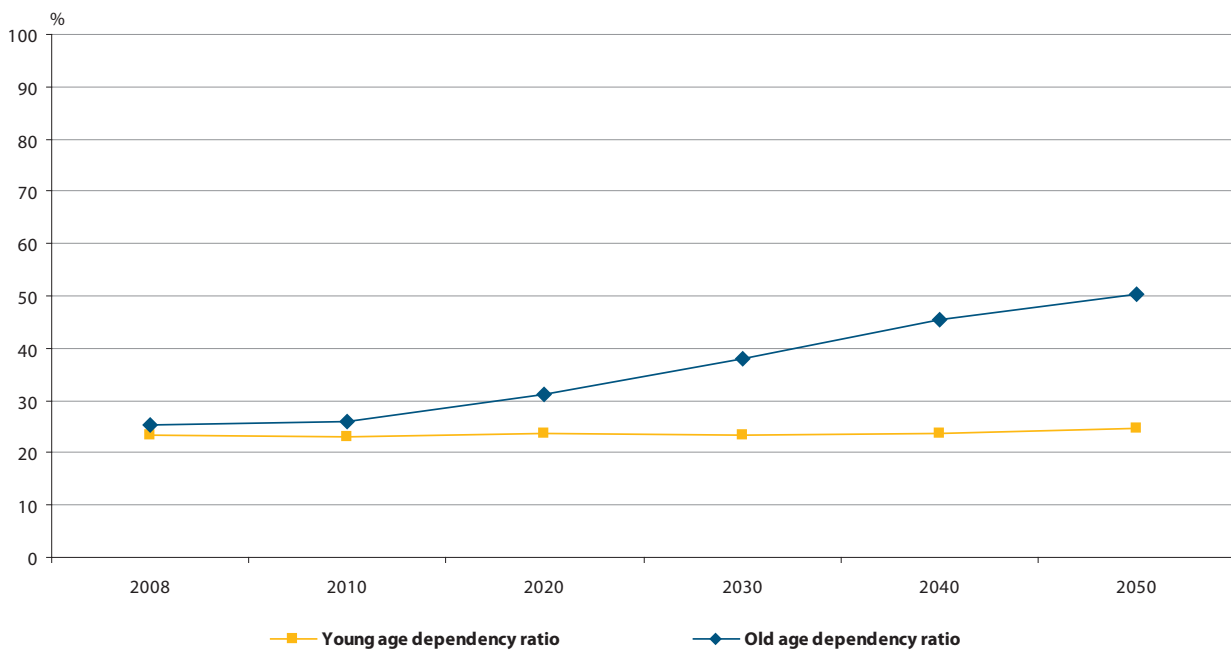
GROWING OLD...

In the near future the European Union will face two demographic challenges, namely the ageing and impending decline of its population. The share of young people will further drop while that of older people will increase.

The projections of the old and young age dependency ratios reflect this future evolution: by 2050, the population aged

under 15 will account for less than a quarter of persons of working age (aged 15–64), while the population aged over 65 will represent more than 50% of the working age population. Projections indicate that between 2008 and 2050 the young age dependency ratio will remain stable, while the old age dependency ratio will double (see Figure 1.1).

Figure 1.1: Projection of young and old age dependency ratios, EU-27, 2008–2050 (%)



Source: Eurostat, EUROPOP2008 convergence scenario

Old age dependency ratio: the ratio between the total number of elderly persons (aged 65 and over) and the number of persons of working age (from 15 to 64).

Young age dependency ratio: the ratio between the total number of young persons (aged under 15) and the number of persons of working age (from 15 to 64).

Source: Eurostat, *Glossary on Demographic Statistics*, 2000 Edition

In particular, by 2050, the old age dependency ratio is expected to reach almost 60% in Spain, Italy and Slovenia, while it may reach 40% in Cyprus, Luxembourg and the United Kingdom (see Table 1.2).

The young age dependency ratio is projected to be between 20% and 30% in all Member States, with the highest levels foreseen for Ireland and France.

Table 1.2: Projections of young and old age dependency ratios, 2008–2050 (%)

	Young age dependency ratio						Old age dependency ratio					
	2008	2010	2020	2030	2040	2050	2008	2010	2020	2030	2040	2050
EU-27	23.3	23.2	23.8	23.5	23.6	24.6	25.4	25.9	31.1	38.0	45.4	50.4
BE	25.6	25.4	26.3	26.8	26.6	26.8	25.8	26.1	30.6	37.6	42.3	43.9
BG	19.3	19.5	21.8	19.6	19.6	21.9	25.0	25.3	31.1	36.3	43.6	55.4
CZ	20.1	20.0	22.6	19.9	19.6	22.3	20.6	21.8	31.1	35.7	42.7	54.8
DK	28.0	27.6	26.5	28.0	29.3	27.5	23.6	25.0	31.8	37.8	42.7	41.3
DE	20.7	20.4	19.5	21.2	21.5	21.5	30.3	31.2	35.3	46.2	54.7	56.4
EE	21.8	22.2	26.3	23.9	22.2	24.9	25.2	25.0	29.2	34.4	39.0	47.2
IE	29.8	30.4	32.1	29.1	27.5	29.8	16.3	16.7	20.2	24.6	30.6	40.4
EL	21.3	21.5	22.3	20.7	21.6	23.7	27.8	28.2	32.8	38.5	48.2	57.0
ES	21.3	22.0	23.4	20.7	21.3	24.1	24.1	24.4	27.4	34.3	46.4	58.7
FR	28.1	28.4	29.5	29.2	29.6	29.7	25.3	25.8	32.8	39.0	44.0	44.7
IT	21.3	21.4	20.9	19.9	21.4	22.3	30.5	31.0	35.5	42.4	54.1	59.2
CY	25.0	24.3	25.8	25.4	23.3	24.4	17.7	18.0	22.3	27.4	30.8	37.7
LV	19.8	19.8	23.1	21.3	19.4	21.8	25.0	25.2	28.1	34.6	40.7	51.2
LT	22.3	21.3	21.9	22.1	19.7	21.1	23.0	23.2	26.0	34.7	42.8	51.1
LU	26.9	26.5	25.3	26.6	27.3	26.6	20.9	21.1	24.2	30.8	36.3	37.8
HU	21.8	21.6	22.6	21.1	20.5	22.4	23.5	24.2	30.3	34.1	40.1	50.8
MT	23.3	22.4	22.4	22.6	20.7	21.5	19.8	21.2	31.2	39.1	41.7	49.8
NL	26.5	26.1	24.3	26.0	27.1	25.6	21.8	22.8	30.7	40.0	46.8	45.6
AT	22.7	22.1	21.6	22.7	23.0	23.2	25.4	26.0	29.2	38.1	46.0	48.3
PL	21.8	21.0	22.0	20.5	18.2	20.4	18.9	19.0	27.2	36.0	41.3	55.7
PT	22.8	22.9	22.1	20.9	21.6	22.9	25.9	26.6	30.7	36.6	44.6	53.0
RO	21.8	21.6	21.6	19.4	18.9	20.6	21.3	21.3	25.7	30.3	40.7	54.0
SI	19.8	19.9	21.7	20.6	20.5	23.3	23.0	23.9	31.2	40.8	49.4	59.4
SK	21.8	20.9	21.2	19.5	17.9	19.9	16.6	16.9	23.8	32.3	40.0	55.5
FI	25.3	25.0	27.3	28.1	26.9	27.3	24.8	25.7	36.8	43.9	45.1	46.6
SE	25.6	25.3	28.2	28.8	27.3	27.6	26.7	27.8	33.7	37.4	40.8	41.9
UK	26.4	26.2	27.7	28.5	27.6	27.4	24.3	24.7	28.6	33.2	36.9	38.0

Source: Eurostat, EUROPOP2008 convergence scenario

Note: FR: metropolitan France.

... STILL STAYING YOUNG

In 2007, some 96 million young people lived in the European Union (see Table 1.3). At EU-level, people aged between 25 and 29 were more numerous than those aged 20–24, the latter being also more numerous than the population aged 15–19. This is especially the case in Spain where the population aged 25–29 is 60 % larger than that aged 15–19. To a lesser degree, a similar situation is noted in Greece (42 %), Ireland (38 %) and Portugal (35 %).

Only five Member States (Belgium, Denmark, France, the Netherlands and Sweden) and the EFTA countries counted more young people aged 15–19 than 20–24. A significant difference can be noted in Sweden, where people aged 15–19 are 14 % more numerous than those aged 20–24.

Table 1.3: Young people by age group (15–19, 20–24, 25–29), 1.01.2007

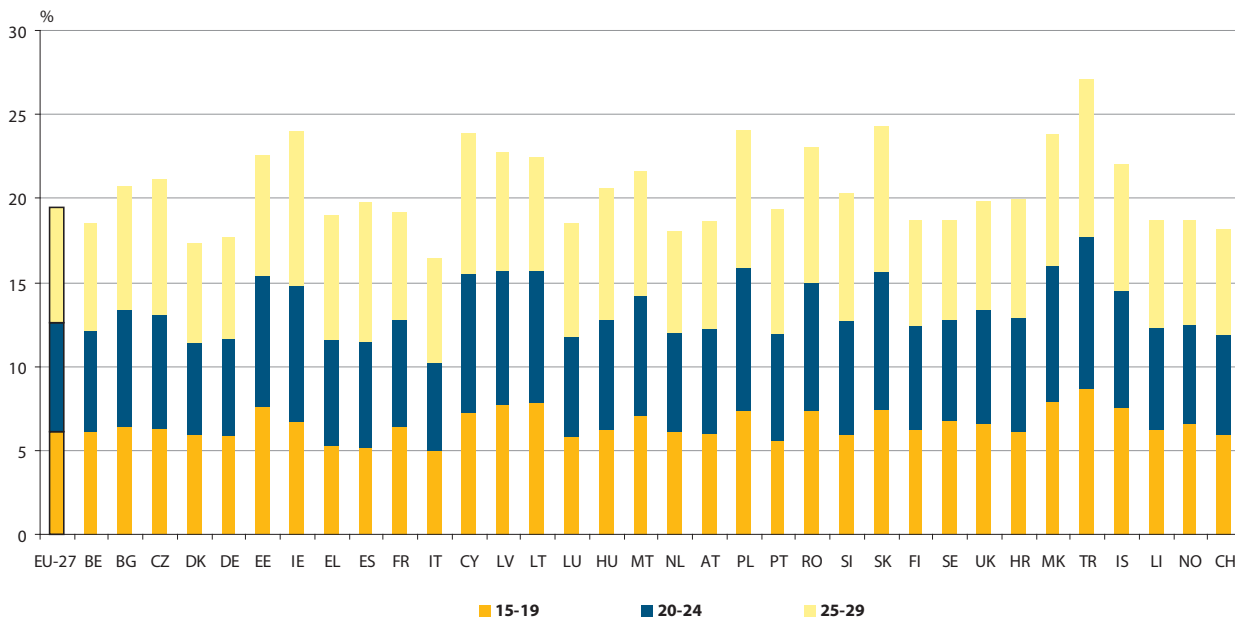
EU-27	30271150	32051018	33968613
BE	643400	637132	678363
BG	492016	532931	566307
CZ	651247	694953	829472
DK	322821	296255	323822
DE	4762364	4848270	4919128
EE	102512	104808	96016
IE	287221	347701	397604
EL	588416	702130	834962
ES	2286283	2825477	3679617
FR	4072737	4058836	4046025
IT	2941233	3109753	3676293
CY	56075	64974	65088
LV	175489	182970	160012
LT	265721	267385	226912
LU	27896	28232	31908
HU	623637	662339	788350
MT	28647	29416	30173
NL	998488	966035	989477
AT	496578	521615	530897
PL	2788120	3286045	3118350
PT	586291	679240	792696
RO	1588553	1627063	1763192
SI	119569	135712	153171
SK	399473	443032	468001
FI	325347	332004	330967
SE	619722	541577	547734
UK	4021294	4125133	3924076
HR	270000	300725	312703
MK	161819	165160	159130
TR	6275601	6568257	6778535
IS	23017	21632	22993
LI	2178	2158	2230
NO	308270	278497	288838
CH	447169	445696	471770

Source: Eurostat, Demographic statistics

Note: TR: 2006 data.



Figure 1.2: Distribution of young people (15–29) as a share of total population, by age group, 1.01.2007 (%)



Source: Eurostat, Demographic statistics
Note: TR: 2006 data.

In 2007, 19.5% of the EU population was aged between 15 and 29 (see Figure 1.2). The most 'youthful' nations in the EU were Slovakia, Poland, Ireland and Cyprus, which accounted for the highest proportion of young people in the population (24%).

It should be noted that the share of young people aged 15–29 in the total population was greater than 20% in the new 12

Member States (2004 and 2007 enlargements). Among the EU-15 Member States, only Ireland reported a significantly higher share of young people than the EU average.

Conversely, Denmark, Germany and Italy were the least youthful countries, as young people accounted for less than 18% of the population.

THE CHALLENGES OF EUROPEAN DEMOGRAPHY

'The Union no longer has a "demographic motor"'. Those Member States whose population is not set to fall before 2050 represent only a small share of Europe's total population. Of the five largest Member States, only the populations of Britain and France will grow between 2005 and 2050 (+8% and +9.6% respectively). The population will start to drop in some cases before 2015, and in some cases the fall will be more than 10–15% by 2050.

Immigration has recently mitigated the impact of falling birth rates in many countries.

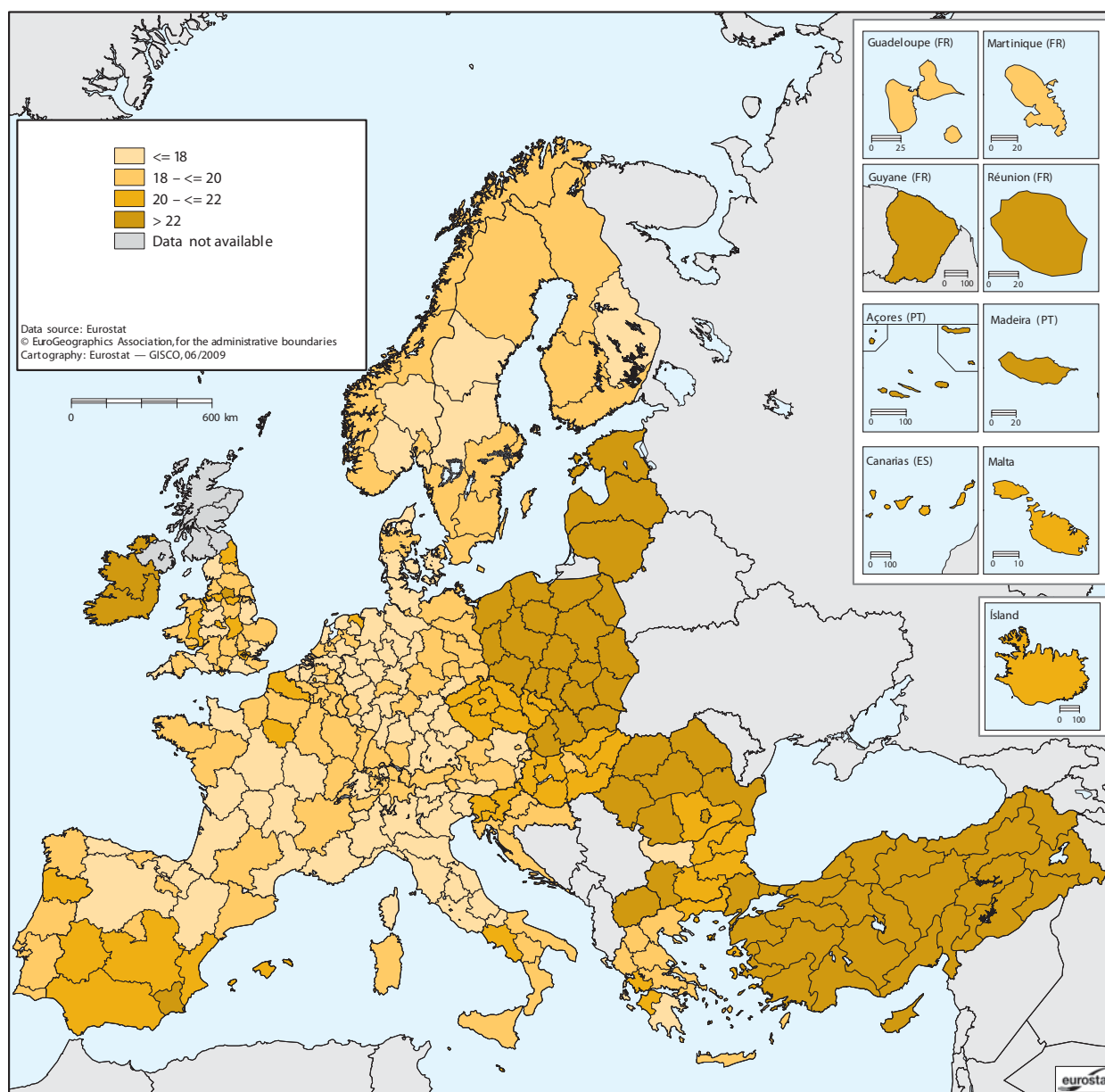
The situation in the new member states and candidate countries accentuates the demographic contrasts. Forecasts for Bulgaria and Romania show negative growth (-21% and -11% respectively by 2030), as do UN forecasts for Croatia (-19%). However, the population of Turkey is set to rise by more than 19 million between 2005 and 2030 (+25%).

These developments are part of a wider trend: all parts of the world will witness demographic ageing over this century.

However, the populations of our neighbouring regions in Europe, Africa and the Middle East will start to age much later: their populations are much younger, with an average age of 20 years or less, compared to 35 in Europe.'

Source: European Commission Green Paper *Confronting demographic change: a new solidarity between the generations*, 2005

Map 1.1: Population aged 15 to 29, by region (NUTS 2), 1.01.2007 (%)



At regional level (NUTS 2), the percentage of young people (aged 15–29) in the total population ranged from 12% in Liguria (Italy) to nearly 30% in Van (Turkey).

In a number of countries, some regions were especially youthful and counted more than 25% of young people aged 15–29 (see Map 1.1). This was the case in the regions of Warminsko-Mazurskie, Podkarpackie, Wielkopolskie and Lubuskie (Poland) and in Východné Slovensko (Slovakia), Inner London (United Kingdom) and in all Turkish regions except Trabzon, Aydin, Kastamonu and Balikesir.

In contrast, young people represented less than 15% of the total population in six Italian regions (Piemonte, Valle d'Aosta, Liguria, Friuli-Venezia Giulia, Emilia-Romagna, Toscana) and in Sjælland (Denmark).

Moreover, young people accounted for less than 20% of the population in all regions in Denmark, Germany, Austria, Finland, Sweden, Croatia, Norway and Switzerland. This was also the case in Luxembourg and Liechtenstein.

MULTINATIONAL YOUTH

Europe has experienced major changes in international migration patterns since the end of the Second World War, most notably through a progressive shift from emigration to immigration. This trend has gained strength and international immigration has become a key factor in the population growth of the European Union. Immigration, involving mostly young people has a rejuvenating impact on the age composition of the population. On the other hand, population ageing, including the ageing of the workforce as well as the imminent population and labour force decline, will continue to function as a major pull factor for international immigration. However, migration flows remain hard to predict as international migration remains a volatile demographic process. Furthermore, besides established immigration flows from outside of the European Union, migration flows between Member States have become increasingly important.

The number of foreign citizens resident in a country — either citizens of other EU Member States or of non-EU countries — can serve as an indicator of the scale and patterns of migration. However, some caution is required in interpreting these figures. It should be noted that having a citizenship different from that of the country of residence is not necessarily the direct result of immigration. Many resident foreign citizens have not immigrated themselves but are descendants of migrants, born in the country of residence and having kept the citizenship of their parents. Conversely, some migrants may acquire the citizenship of the destination country and are no longer counted as foreign citizens. The number of foreign citizens also depends on national legislation regarding immigration and the acquisition of citizenship.

Thus, the current size and composition of the foreign population is the result of both recent and historical immigration. Immigration is influenced by various factors such as linguistic or former colonial ties (for example, immigration to Spain, the United Kingdom, France and the Netherlands), favourable economic conditions, or a combination of these factors.

Unfortunately, population statistics by citizenship and age group are not available for all countries. The data presented below refer to less than half of the EU Member States.

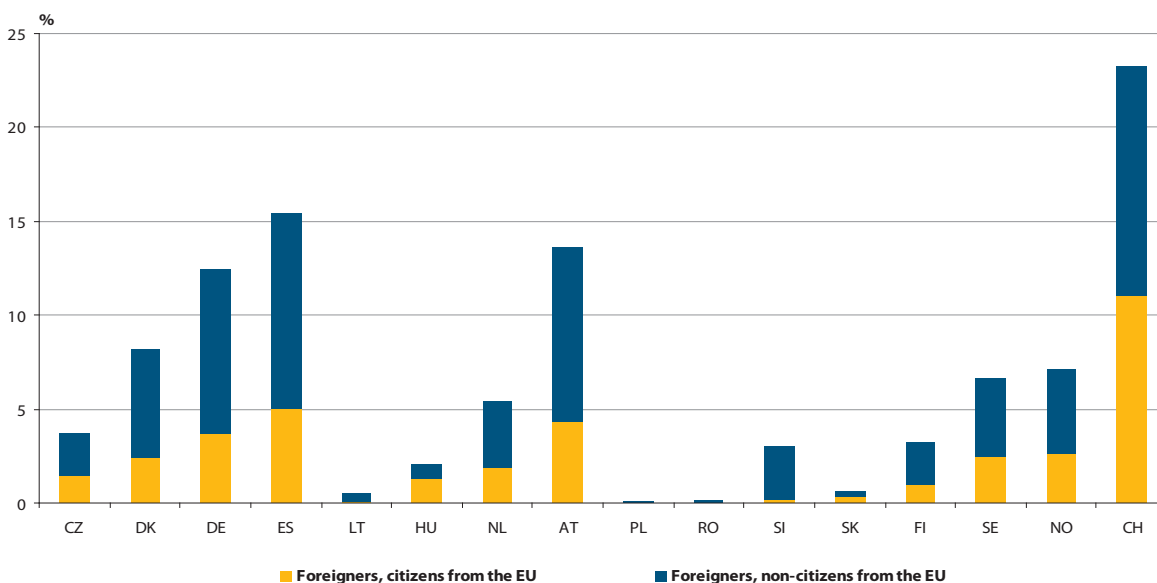
The largest group of third-country citizens living in the European Union are from Turkey and Morocco. Citizens of Turkey comprise the largest group of foreigners in Germany, Denmark and the Netherlands, while Moroccans are the most numerous in Belgium, France and Spain.

Figure 1.3 indicates that more than 15% of young people in Spain in 2007 were foreign citizens. This was the highest share among the 14 EU Member States for which data are available. Austria and Germany ranked second and third, with 14% and 12% respectively. In these three countries, more than two thirds of foreigners were citizens of a non-EU country.

The lowest shares of foreign citizens can be found in Poland, Romania and Slovakia, as well as in some of the other countries that joined the EU in the last few years.

Among the 16 countries for which data are available (14 EU Member States and two EFTA countries), Switzerland recorded the highest share of foreigners among the population aged 15–29 (23%), of which nearly half (48%) were citizens of an EU Member State.

Figure 1.3: Young people aged 15–29 by citizenship (EU and non-EU citizenship), 2007 (%)



Source: Eurostat, Population — International Migration and Asylum statistics

Note: the category 'unknown citizenship' was not taken into account. BE, BG, EE, IE, EL, FR, IT, CY, LV, LU, MT, PT, UK: data not available.



The distribution by citizenship (by continent) of the foreign population aged 15–29 (see Figure 1.4 and Table 1.4) shows that in nearly all countries for which data are available, the share of foreigners from Europe (intra- or extra-EU) was higher than 50%. Spain was the only exception, with 39% of young foreigners coming from America, 20% from Africa and 5% from Asia.

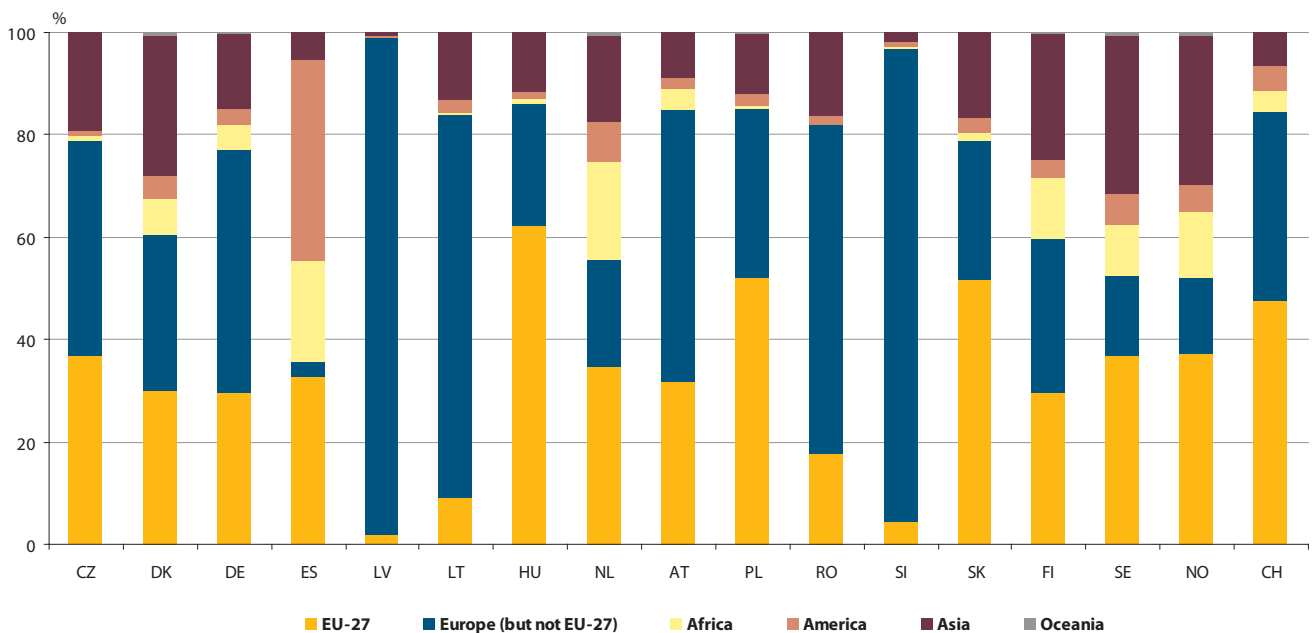
In Lithuania and Romania, more than 60% of foreigners were from a non-EU country in Europe, while in Latvia and Slovenia this share reached 97% and 92% respectively. Conversely, more than half of young foreigners in Hungary,

Poland and Slovakia were citizens of another EU Member State.

Africans constituted a significant part of young foreigners in Spain (20%) and the Netherlands (16%) and to a lesser degree in the Nordic countries (10% to 13% in Sweden, Finland and Norway).

The Nordic countries were, however, the preferred destination of Asians. Indeed, the share of Asians among young foreigners in Finland, Denmark, Sweden and Norway was above 25%.

Figure 1.4: Distribution of young people aged 15–29 with foreign citizenship by continent of origin, 2007 (%)



Source: Eurostat, Population — International Migration and Asylum statistics
 Note: BE, BG, EE, IE, EL, FR, IT, CY, LU, MT, PT, UK: data not available.

Table 1.4: Number of young people aged 15–29 with foreign citizenship by continent of origin, 2007

	NON-NATIONALS						
	Total	EU-27	Europe (but not EU-27)	Africa	America	Asia	Oceania
BE	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
BG	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
CZ	81418	30065	34147	805	777	15508	45
DK	78431	23209	23792	5414	3531	21109	577
DE	1824231	537067	855069	92150	56143	263640	3036
EE	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
IE	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
EL	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
ES	1360284	444162	42609	269242	530816	72878	455
FR	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
IT	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
CY	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
LV	60364	1173	58580	31	112	461	7
LT	13499	374	3067	23	98	541	4
LU	39128	:	:	:	:	:	:
HU	43120	26422	10242	445	557	4890	26
MT	2497	:	:	:	:	:	:
NL	191749	56133	33146	31302	12728	26647	1180
AT	214521	67169	112497	8453	4603	18664	268
PL	8626	3196	2026	37	126	723	14
PT	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
RO	10339	1624	5968	1	129	1530	0
SI	12128	538	11207	29	107	238	6
SK	7939	4115	2130	140	221	1314	12
FI	32110	9460	9454	3838	1085	7788	144
SE	119966	41410	17504	11375	6730	34991	535
UK	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
NO	62329	22988	9234	8140	3162	18156	310
CH	314636	149474	116756	12267	15093	20506	493

Source: Eurostat, Population — International Migration and Asylum statistics

Note: the category 'unknown citizenship' is included in the total but not show as a separate category.

Family and living conditions

2



The path from childhood to independent adulthood is lined with a number of milestones and life choices, such as leaving the parental home to study or work, moving in with a partner,

getting married and having children. Describing these steps can provide some insights into the living conditions of young people in Europe.

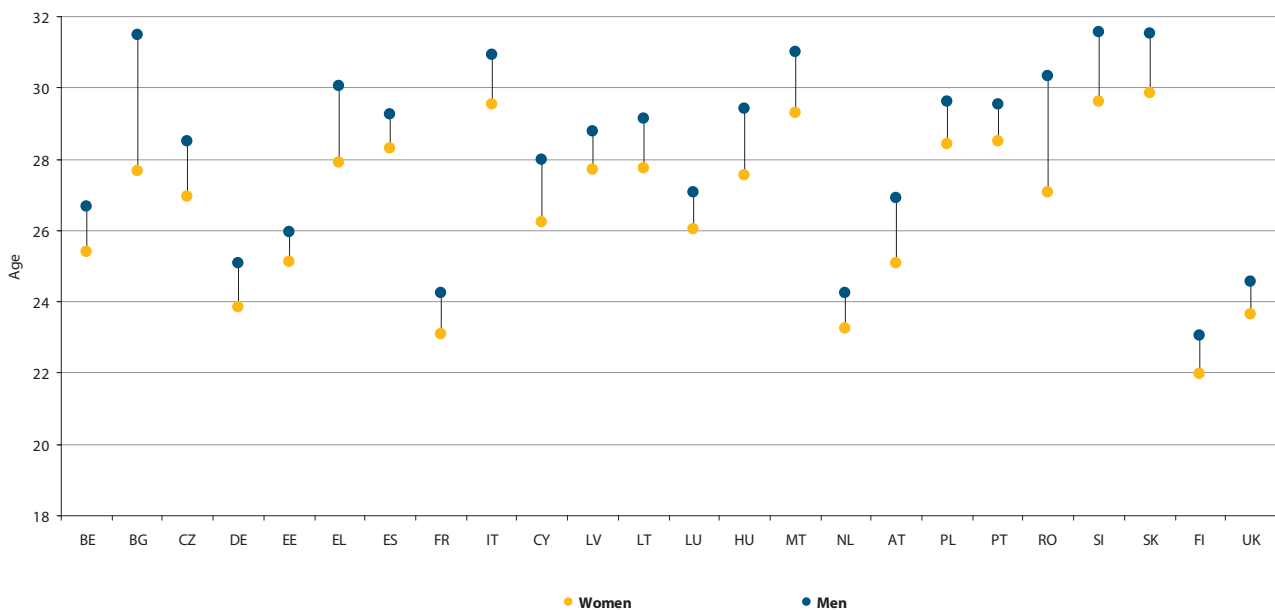
FOUNDING A FAMILY: YOUNG WOMEN LEAVE THE PARENTAL HOME EARLIER THAN MEN

Leaving the security of the parental nest to live independently is usually a challenging experience for young people. There are many factors involved in the decision to leave the parental home, including the 'quality' of the home environment (in terms of the parent-child relationship and living conditions), having a strong relationship with a partner, studying full-time or not, support from parents in cash or in kind, labour market conditions, the cost of housing, etc. Moreover, such a decision may not be definitive: difficulties in securing a full-time permanent job or sufficient income and the possible dissolution of the couple or family may force young people to

return to the parental home.

In 2007, in all countries for which data are available, women moved out of the parental home on average at an earlier age than men, but strong disparities were noted across countries (see Figure 2.1). Indeed, in Finland women tended to leave the parental home at the age of 22, against over 29 in Italy, Malta, Slovenia and Slovakia. For men, the average age of independence varied from 23 years in Finland to over 30 years in Bulgaria, Greece, Italy, Malta, Romania, Slovenia and Slovakia.

Figure 2.1: Average age of young people when leaving the parental household, by sex, 2007



Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

Note: DK, IE, SE: data not available.

The largest discrepancies between women and men in the average age for leaving the parental home were recorded in Bulgaria and Romania, with 3.8 and 3.2 years respectively. By contrast, in the majority of Member States this gap was only between one and two years. Estonia, Spain and the United Kingdom were the only countries where the difference between men and women was less than one year.

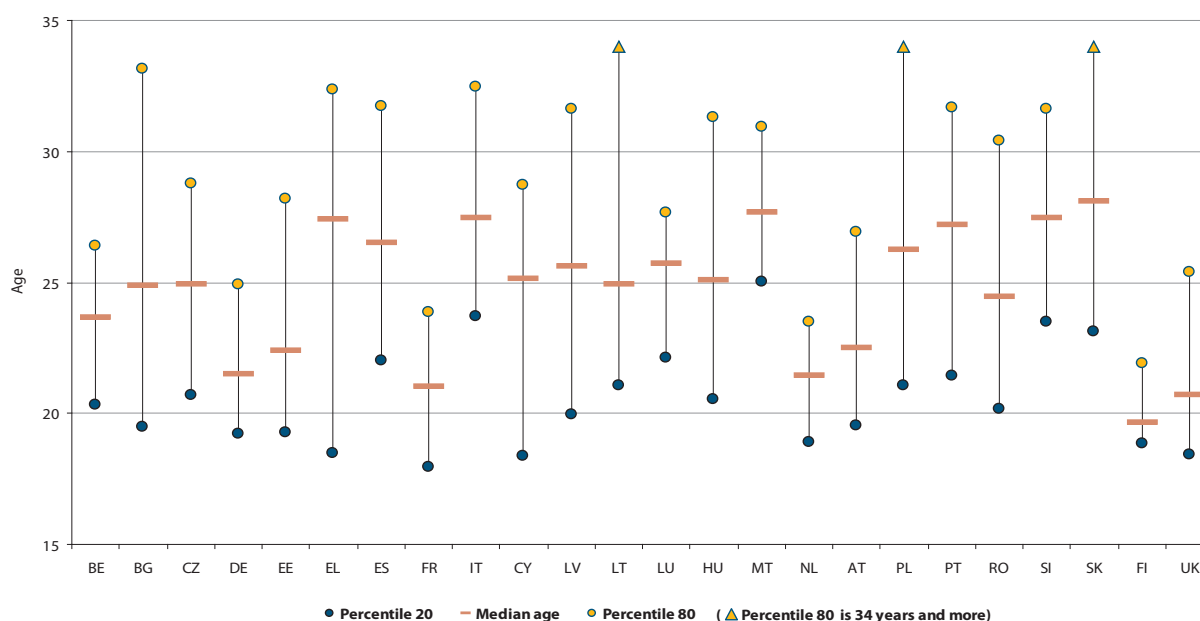
The distribution of ages (showing the median age and the age at which 20% and 80% of young women have left the parental household) gives a more detailed description of the transition to independence among the female population (see Figure 2.2). The percentile 20 is the age at which 20% of women have moved out of the parental home (or conversely, the age at

which 80% of women are still living with their parents). In parallel, percentile 80 is the age at which 80% of women have left the parental home.

Strong disparities were recorded across countries when considering the age at which 20% of women have left the parental home. In 2007, one in five women in France (percentile 20) had left the parental home at the age of 18, while in Malta the same percentage was reached at the age of 25. In less than half of the countries under review, 20% of women had left the parental home at the age of 20. In Finland, 80% of women had moved out of their parents' home by the age of 22, while in Lithuania, Poland and Slovakia 80% of women were living independently by the age of 34 (or more).



Figure 2.2: Age range at which women have moved out of the parental household (percentile 20, median and percentile 80), 2007



Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS
Note: DK, IE, SE: data not available.

The difference between the two ages (percentiles 20 and 80) is the time span during which 60% of young women left home at close to the median age. A broad difference between percentiles 20 and 80 indicates that departure from the parental home is more spread out across ages. The age range for leaving the parental home was more concentrated in Finland, where 60% of young women left the parental home between the ages of 19 and 22. In contrast, a broader distribution was recorded in Bulgaria, Greece, Lithuania, Poland and Slovakia.

There are various reasons why young people delay departure from the parental home. In this respect, the Eurobarometer survey shows that young people predominantly remain with their parents for material reasons (see Figure 2.3). In fact, 44% of Europeans aged between 15 and 30 considered that young adults cannot afford to move out of the parental home,

and 28% agreed that not enough affordable housing was available.

General lack of financial resources was mentioned by a majority of young people in Bulgaria, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Poland and Portugal, and by more than one third of young people in most of the remaining countries. Difficulties in finding affordable housing were also mentioned by more than one third of respondents in nearly half of the Member States.

Aside from financial considerations, 16% of young Europeans considered that living with their parents allowed them to live more comfortably without the corresponding responsibilities. This view was held by more than 20% of young respondents in one third of the countries under review.

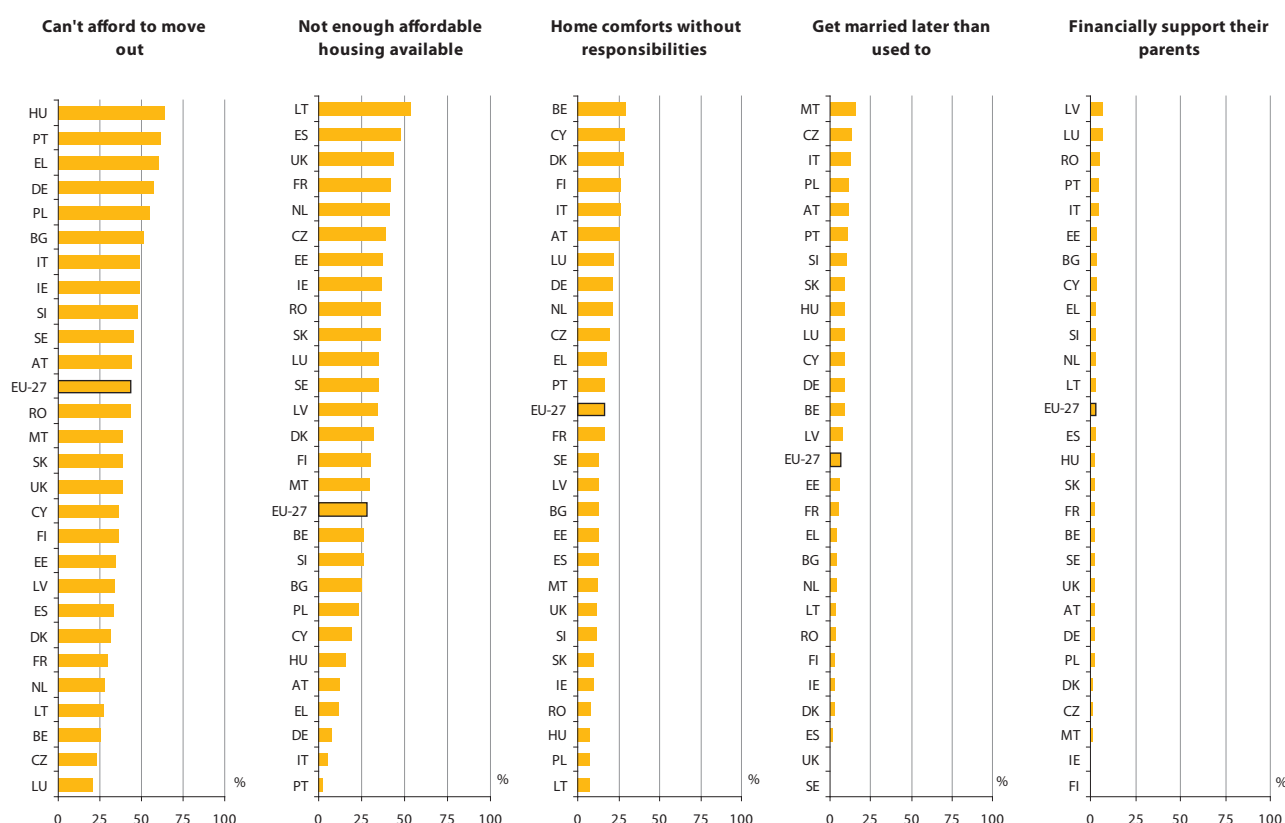
Eurobarometer surveys are opinion polls based on the subjective responses of the persons interviewed.

The standard Eurobarometer survey was established in 1973. Each survey includes approximately 1000 face-to-face interviews per Member State (except Germany: 1500; Luxembourg: 600; the United Kingdom: 1300, including 300 in Northern Ireland). It is conducted between two and five times per year, with reports published twice a year. The Special Eurobarometer reports are based on in-depth thematic studies carried out for various services of the European Commission or other EU institutions and integrated in the standard Eurobarometer polling waves. The Flash Eurobarometer are ad-hoc thematic telephone interviews conducted at the request of any service of the European Commission. They enable the Commission to obtain results relatively quickly and to focus on specific target groups, as and when required (i.e. doctors, SMEs, etc.)

In a large majority of countries, less than 10% of young people considered that getting married later than in the past was the main reason to remain with their parents. This reason was mentioned most frequently in Malta (15%), the Czech Republic (14%), Italy (13%), Poland (12%), Austria and Portugal (both 11%).

The time when young people had to provide financial support for their parents seems to be over. In fact, less than 3% of young Europeans considered it as a reason not to leave the parental household, with the highest shares being recorded in Latvia (7%), Luxembourg (6%) and Romania (5%).

Figure 2.3: Main reason why young adults remain longer in the parental household, according to young people aged 15–30, 2007 (%)





MARRIAGE : THERE'S NO HURRY

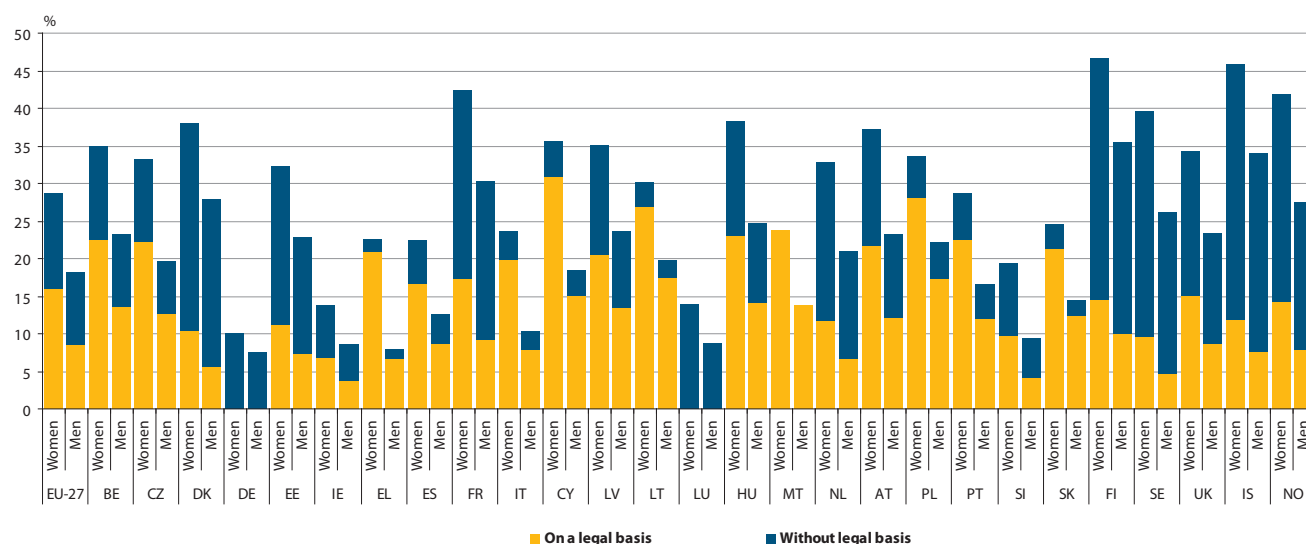
European family patterns have evolved over the past decades and today young people tend to remain longer in the parental household. Once they have left the parental nest, they may choose to live either as singles or to found a family of their own (thus to live in a consensual union with or without a legal basis).

In 2006, almost 30% of women aged between 15 and 29 in the European Union were living with a partner in the same household (see Figure 2.4). This proportion was 18% for young men of the same age. Among these couples, a majority were living together in a legal union.

In all the countries under review, the share of young women living in a consensual union was higher than that of young men: more than 40% of young women aged 15–29 in France, Finland, Iceland and Norway were living in a consensual union in 2006.

Generally speaking, the highest proportions of consensual unions (most of which are not founded on a legal basis) were recorded in the Nordic countries. Conversely, in Greece, Italy, Cyprus, Lithuania, Malta, Poland and Slovakia 5% or less of young men and women were living in a household as a couple without legal basis.

Figure 2.4: Young people (aged 15–29 years) living in a consensual union, with or without legal basis, by sex, 2006 (%)



Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC

Note: BG, RO: data not available; LU (on a legal basis): data not available;

DE (on a legal basis), MT (without legal basis): unreliable or uncertain data due to too small sample size; CY (men, without legal basis), EL, LT, PT (without legal basis), IE (men on a legal basis and without legal basis), SK (men without legal basis): data lack reliability due to small sample size.

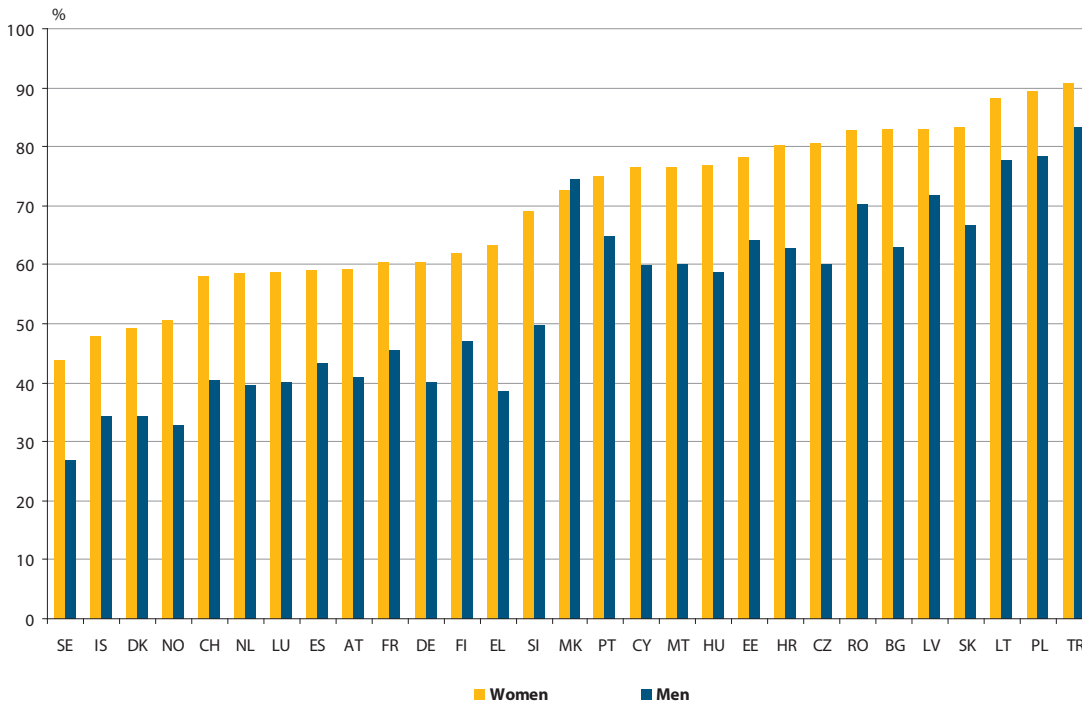
A consensual union means that both partners live in the same household. A consensual union with legal basis means that the partner is a legal spouse or registered partner. In fact, some countries have a legal framework for registering partnerships (in most countries these are same-sex partnerships and they have a legal status parallel to married couples). A consensual union is without legal basis when people are considered as 'de facto' partners.

Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC

In 2006, in a majority of countries, first marriages involved women younger than 30 (see Figure 2.5). In Lithuania, Poland and Turkey around 90% of first marriages involved brides younger than 30 but some Nordic countries are notable

exceptions: in Denmark (49%), Iceland (48%) and Sweden (44%), less than half of first marriages concerned women younger than 30.

Figure 2.5: First marriages of persons younger than 30 as a percentage of all first marriages, by sex, 2006



Source: Eurostat, Demographic statistics
Note: BE, IE, IT, UK and LI: data not available.

A different picture emerges when considering men: in nearly half of the countries for which data are available, most first marriages involved men older than 30. In Denmark, Greece, Sweden, Iceland and Norway less than 40% of first marriages involved men younger than 30. Conversely, three quarters or more of first marriages were concluded by men under 30 in Lithuania, Poland, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Turkey.

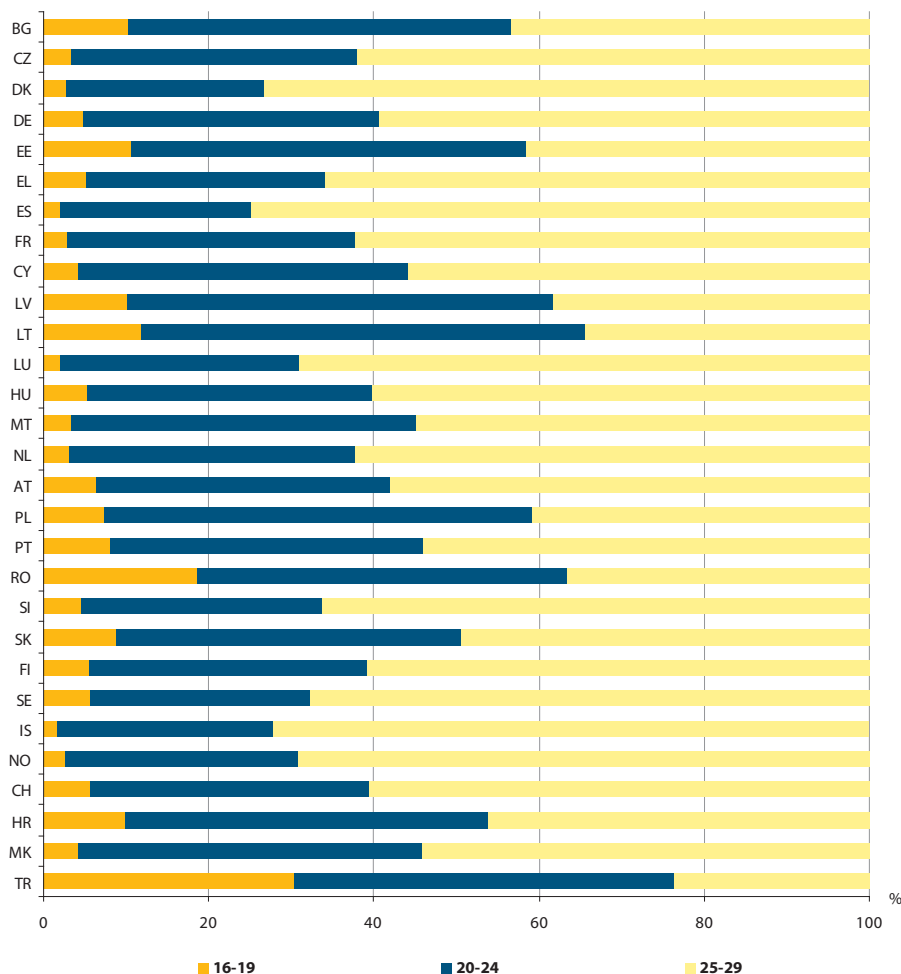
The analysis of the distribution of first marriages of women aged under 30 shows that in the majority of countries, more than 50% of first marriages involved women aged between 25

and 29 (see Figure 2.6). This is especially the case in Denmark, Spain and Iceland, where this proportion exceeded 70%.

However, in some countries marriage tended to occur at a younger age. Young women aged 16–19 accounted for a high share of all first marriages of women under 30 in Romania (19%), Bulgaria (10%), the Baltic States (10%), Croatia (10%) and Turkey (30%). In these countries as well as in Poland and Slovakia, women aged 20–24 accounted for between 44% (Croatia) and 54% (Lithuania) of all first marriages of women under 30.



Figure 2.6: Distribution of first marriages of women aged under 30, by age group, 2006 (%)



Source: Eurostat, Demographic statistics
 Note: BE, IE, IT, UK and LI: data not available.

A SLIGHT REBOUND IN FERTILITY RATES?

Becoming a parent is another milestone in the life of young people. In Europe, fertility trends over the past decades indicate a sharp decline in total fertility rates, far below the replacement level (see Table 2.1) and an increase in the average age of first-time mothers (see Table 2.3). Different reasons can explain this pattern: the increasing length of education, the later age of departure from the parental home, the widespread use of birth control methods, later entry into working life and unstable employment conditions when starting a career.

After a long period of decreasing fertility rates, recent evolutions from 2000 to 2006 indicate an upturn in the average number of children per woman in several Member States. This is particularly the case in Sweden (+0.30), the Czech Republic (+0.19), Estonia (+0.16) and Spain (+0.15). However, despite this recent trend, even the highest national fertility rates in the EU (2.0 in France and 1.9 in Ireland) were still beneath the replacement level (estimated at 2.1 children per woman).

Looking at time series starting in 1980 gives a better idea of the drop and slight rebound in fertility levels. For instance, the highest fertility levels in 1980 were reported in Ireland (3.2 children per woman) and Romania (2.4), but in both countries, they have decreased between 1980 and 2006 to reach 1.9 and 1.3 respectively.

Fertility rates have also fallen between 2000 and 2006 in a number of countries, including Malta (-0.28), Portugal (-0.21), Cyprus and Luxembourg (both -0.13). In 2006, fertility rates were between 1.3 and 1.4 in nearly half of the countries under review. Slovakia (1.24) and Poland (1.27) recorded the lowest total fertility rates.

Table 2.1: Total fertility rate, 1980–2006

	1980	1990	2000	2006
	TFR			
EU-27	:	:	:	1.53
BE	:	:	1.62	:
BG	:	:	1.27	1.37
CZ	2.10	1.89	1.14	1.33
DK	1.55	1.67	1.77	1.83
DE	:	:	:	1.32
EE	2.02	2.05	1.39	1.55
IE	3.23	2.12	1.90	1.90
EL	:	:	1.27	1.39
ES	2.20	1.36	1.23	1.38
FR	:	:	1.89	2.00
IT	1.68	1.36	1.26	1.32
CY	:	2.40	1.60	1.47
LV	:	:	1.24	1.35
LT	:	2.03	1.39	1.31
LU	1.46	1.60	1.78	1.65
HU	1.92	1.84	1.33	1.34
MT	1.99	2.05	1.69	1.41
NL	1.60	1.62	1.72	1.70
AT	1.65	1.46	1.36	1.40
PL	2.28	1.99	1.37	1.27
PT	2.25	1.57	1.56	1.35
RO	2.40	1.80	1.30	1.31
SI	2.11	1.46	1.26	1.31
SK	2.31	2.09	1.29	1.24
FI	:	:	1.73	1.84
SE	1.68	2.14	1.55	1.85
UK	:	:	:	1.84
HR	:	:	1.39	1.38
MK	:	:	1.70	1.46
TR	:	3.07	2.27	:
IS	2.48	2.31	2.08	2.08
LI	:	:	1.58	1.42
NO	1.72	1.93	1.85	1.90
CH	1.55	1.59	1.50	1.43

Source: Eurostat, Demographic statistics

Note: EU-27 is estimated; IT: 2005.

Total fertility rate is the mean number of children that would be born alive to a woman during her lifetime if she were to pass through her childbearing years conforming to the fertility rates by age of a given year. It is therefore the completed fertility of a hypothetical generation, computed by adding the fertility rates by age for women in a given year (the number of women at each age is assumed to be the same). The total fertility rate is also used to indicate the replacement level fertility; in more developed countries, a rate of 2.1 is considered to be replacement level.

Source: Eurostat, Demographic Glossary



Reality as expressed by total fertility rates (see Table 2.1) sometimes differs from desire expressed by people in opinion polls (see Table 2.2). When people are asked about the ideal number of children for a family, the number they give does not systematically reflect the reality observed. In fact, ideal values (as expressed in the Eurobarometer survey) are always higher than those observed in fertility rates, and are even higher than the replacement level: the average number of children desired was 2.3, with even a slightly higher value noted for 15 to 24-year-olds compared to the older

population. Thus it seems that in European countries the two-child family is the ideal one.

The mean ideal number of children for a family was the highest (higher than 2.6 children) in Ireland, Cyprus and Finland for both young men and women aged between 15 and 24 years. Conversely, it was the lowest in the Czech Republic, Austria, Slovakia and Romania (close to or below 2 children) for both sexes of the same age group.

Table 2.2: Mean ideal number of children, by sex and age of the respondents, 2006

	Men			Women		
	15-24	25-39	15 and over	15-24	25-39	15 and over
EU-25	2.31	2.19	2.25	2.36	2.23	2.29
BE	2.19	2.25	2.25	2.41	2.23	2.26
BG	2.19	2.15	2.15	2.12	2.20	2.17
CZ	1.77	1.87	1.98	2.08	1.98	2.05
DK	2.47	2.37	2.45	2.61	2.40	2.58
DE	2.24	2.17	2.20	2.25	2.16	2.18
EE	2.33	2.43	2.54	2.43	2.48	2.61
IE	2.91	2.65	2.89	2.91	2.72	2.95
EL	2.47	2.39	2.59	2.36	2.48	2.59
ES	2.27	2.05	2.14	2.25	2.09	2.25
FR	2.45	2.39	2.40	2.67	2.38	2.49
IT	2.18	1.94	2.00	2.21	1.96	2.04
CY	2.89	2.78	2.95	2.76	2.91	3.04
LV	2.27	2.44	2.49	2.28	2.40	2.44
LT	2.11	2.23	2.30	2.32	2.19	2.40
LU	2.23	2.31	2.26	2.27	2.19	2.23
HU	2.20	2.03	2.17	2.19	2.23	2.23
MT	2.01	1.99	2.08	2.15	1.93	2.17
NL	2.41	2.14	2.31	2.51	2.33	2.43
AT	1.88	1.29	1.79	1.65	1.63	1.81
PL	2.41	2.24	2.34	2.15	2.20	2.32
PT	2.04	1.95	2.06	2.13	2.31	2.20
RO	1.81	1.89	1.95	1.99	1.86	2.06
SI	2.16	2.26	2.38	2.34	2.38	2.46
SK	2.01	2.11	2.15	2.01	2.10	2.21
FI	2.56	2.52	2.53	2.89	2.67	2.76
SE	2.43	2.39	2.39	2.63	2.41	2.47
UK	2.48	2.49	2.42	2.64	2.49	2.42
HR	2.50	2.34	2.45	2.35	2.25	2.41
TR	2.39	2.48	2.58	2.56	2.47	2.55

Source: Eurobarometer No 253 *Childbearing Preferences and Family Issues in Europe*, 2006⁽²⁾

⁽²⁾ Eurobarometer question: 'Generally speaking, what do you think is the ideal number of children for a family?'

The average age at which women have their first child has increased in all EU Member States between 1995 and 2005 (see Table 2.3). This increase – of around 3 years – was the most significant in the Czech Republic, Hungary and Slovenia. In 2005, the average age for becoming a mother for

the first time was the highest (between 29 and 30 years) in Germany, Spain, Luxembourg, the United Kingdom and Switzerland and the lowest (around 25 years) in Bulgaria, the Baltic States, Romania and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia.

Table 2.3: Mean age of women at the birth of the first child, 1995 and 2005

	1995	2005
BE	27.3	:
BG	22.4	24.7
CZ	23.3	26.6
DK	27.4	28.4
DE	27.5	29.1
EE	23.0	25.2
IE	27.3	:
EL	26.6	28.5
ES	28.4	29.3
FR	:	28.5
IT	28.0	:
CY	:	27.5
LV	:	25.0
LT	23.1	24.9
LU	27.4	29.0
HU	23.8	26.7
MT	:	:
NL	28.4	28.9
AT	25.6	27.2
PL	23.8	25.8
PT	25.8	27.4
RO	22.9	24.8
SI	24.9	27.7
SK	:	25.7
FI	27.2	27.9
SE	27.2	28.7
UK	29.3	30.0
HR	:	26.5
MK	:	25.2
IS	24.9	26.3
NO	26.4	27.7
CH	28.1	29.5

Source: Eurostat, Demographic statistics
Note: UK: 1996 and 2006.

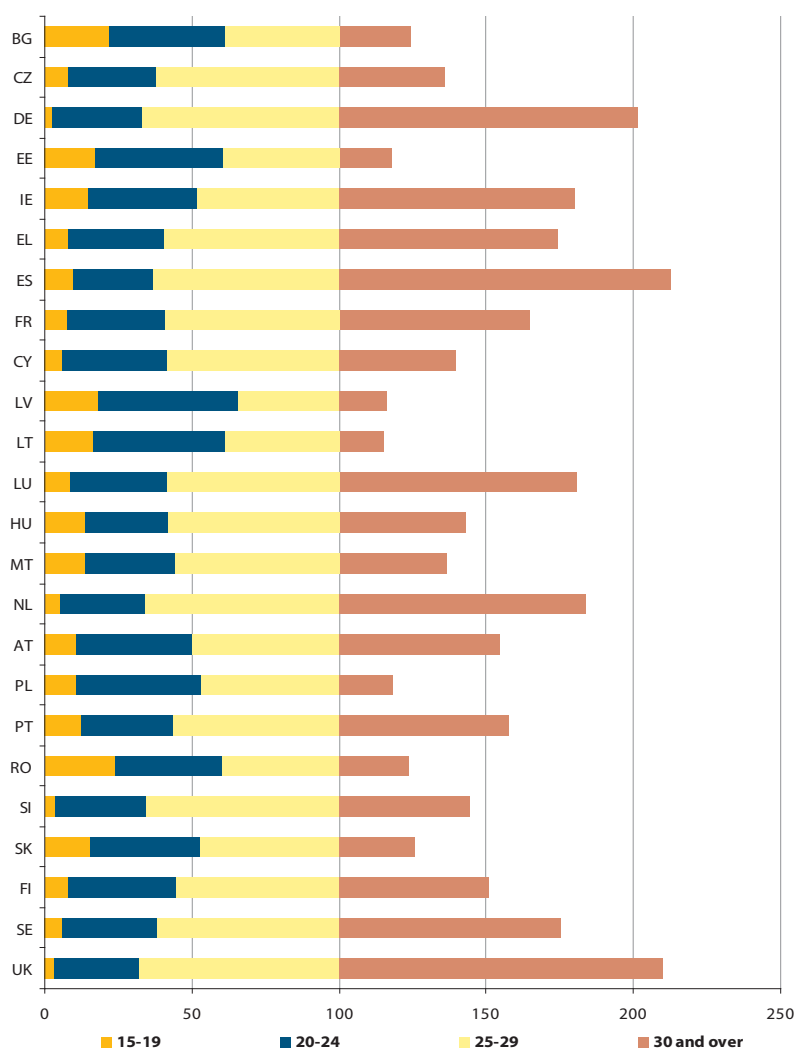


The increasing age of first-time mothers can also be seen when considering the distribution of first births for women younger and older than 30 (see Figure 2.7). Taking 100 as a basis for the number of first births before the age of 30, it is possible to appreciate how behaviours on fertility differ across countries after the age of 30. In the Member States that joined the European Union in 2004 and 2007, there were more than twice as many first-time mothers aged under 30 than aged 30 and over, but in the remaining EU Member States, first-time mothers aged 30 and over accounted for more than half of those aged under 30. In Germany, Spain and the United Kingdom, first-time mothers over 30 were more numerous than their younger counterparts.

Considering first-time mothers aged 15–29, a majority of first births took place after the age of 25 in more than half of the countries for which data are available. In Germany, the Netherlands, Slovenia and the United Kingdom, first-time mothers aged between 25 and 29 accounted for more than two thirds of all first-time mothers aged under 30; in Ireland, Austria and Poland this proportion reached 50%.

The proportion of first-time mothers aged 24 or under among those younger than 30 was the highest (over 60%) in the Baltic States, Bulgaria and Romania. In the last two countries, first-time mothers aged between 15 and 19 accounted respectively for 22% and 24% of first-time mothers aged under 30.

Figure 2.7: Distribution of first births of women, index by age group (15–29 first births=100), 2006



Source: Eurostat, Demographic statistics

Reading note: in 2006, for every 100 first births before the age of 30, there were 113 first births after the age of 30 in Spain. In other words, in 2006, in Spain, more women aged over 30 gave birth for the first time than women aged under 30.

Note: BE, DK, IT: data not available.

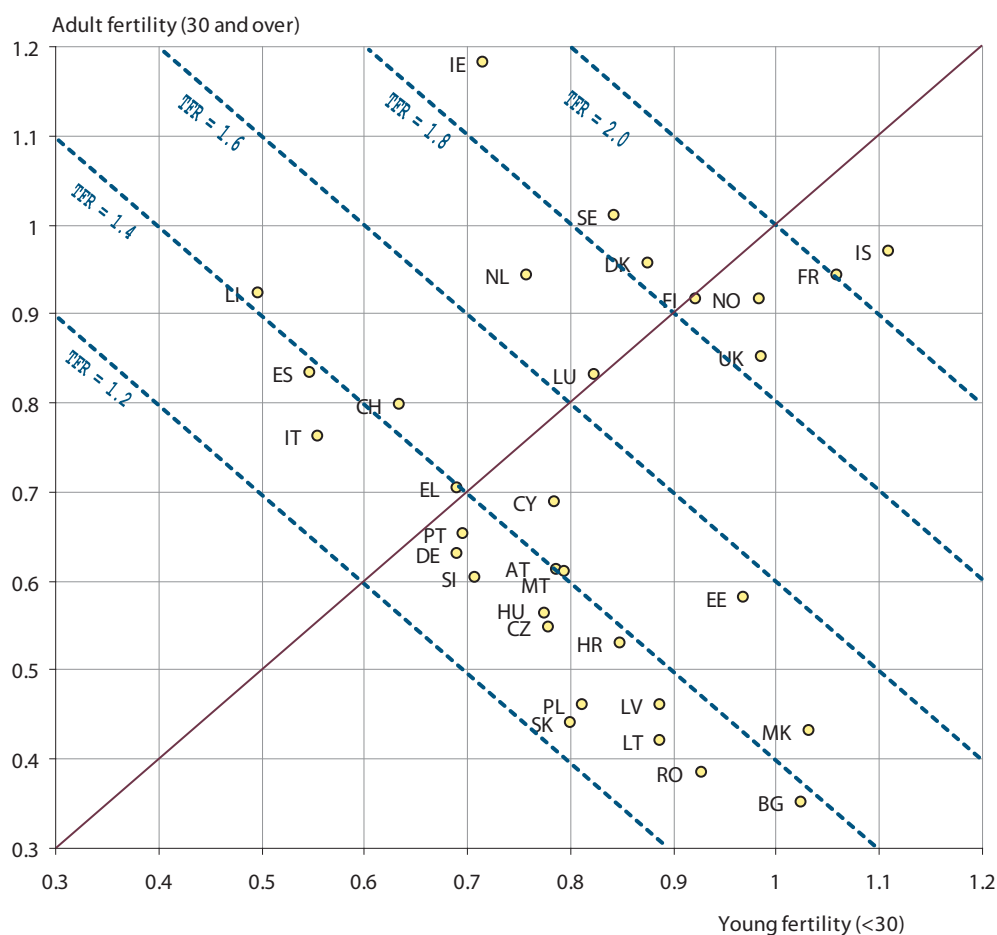
Another way of comparing total fertility rates across generations is to present the fertility rates of women aged 15–29 years and 30 years and over in the same graph (see Figure 2.8, where the horizontal axis represents the fertility rate of the younger group and the vertical axis the fertility rate of the older group). The diagonal lines represent the total fertility rate.

In the first cluster of countries, including France, Luxembourg, the United Kingdom and the Nordic countries, the fertility rates are higher than the EU-25 average (roughly 1.5 child per woman in 2006) and are fairly similar between the two age groups. In the second and largest cluster (bottom right of the graph), fertility levels are below the EU average

and fertility rates of the younger group are either equal to or higher than those of the older group. This cluster includes the 12 new Member States, Greece, Portugal, Germany and Austria as well as Croatia and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia.

Italy and Spain may be considered as exceptions as they are included in neither of the clusters mentioned above. They featured low total fertility rates, in particular for young women aged under 30 (less than 0.6 child per woman). Ireland featured one of the highest total fertility rates in the EU, mainly due to the high fertility rate among women aged over 30.

Figure 2.8: Fertility rates, by age group (15–29 and over 30 years), 2006





Today, an increasing number of children are born to unmarried couples. Between 1996 and 2006, the share of children born out of wedlock has increased in nearly all countries under review, but wide variations are still recorded across countries (see Table 2.4). In Greece and Cyprus, the proportion of children born outside marriage was lower than 10% in 2006. Conversely, in Bulgaria, Estonia, France,

Sweden, Iceland and Norway, 50% or more of all children were born out of wedlock. Although in some countries this share has more than doubled over the 10-year period (Belgium, Spain, Italy, Cyprus, Lithuania, Malta and the Netherlands), differences across countries in the share of children born outside marriage remain significant.

Table 2.4: Births outside marriage as a percentage of all births, 1996 and 2006

	1996	2006
BE	19	39
BG	28	51
CZ	17	33
DK	46	46
DE	17	30
EE	48	58
IE	25	33
EL	3	5
ES	12	28
FR	:	50
IT	8	19
CY	1	6
LV	33	43
LT	14	30
LU	15	29
HU	23	36
MT	3	22
NL	17	37
AT	28	37
PL	10	19
PT	19	32
RO	21	29
SI	32	47
SK	14	27
FI	35	41
SE	54	55
UK	36	44
HR	7	11
MK	8	13
IS	61	66
LI	10	16
NO	48	53
CH	7	15

Source: Eurostat, Demographic statistics

Note: BE: 2007.

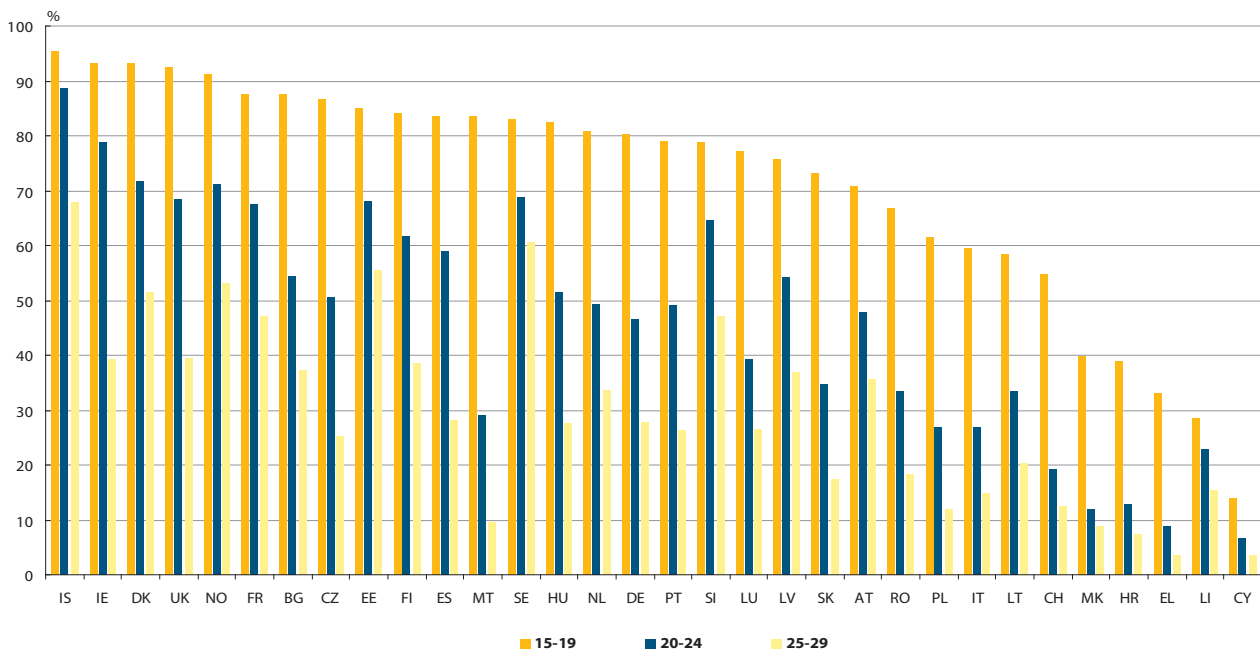
Live births outside marriage: live births where the mother's marital status at the time of birth is other than married.

Source: Eurostat, Demographic glossary

The share of births out of wedlock was especially high among the youngest age group of mothers, but it was also remarkably heterogeneous across European countries (see Figure 2.9). However, it should be noted that this phenomenon was fairly limited since comparatively few births are registered for

women aged 15–19 and few persons marry before the age of 20. Considering young mothers aged 15–19, more than 90% of children were born out of wedlock in Denmark, Ireland, the United Kingdom, Iceland and Norway.

Figure 2.9: Births outside marriage, by age group, 2005 (%)



Source: Eurostat, Demographic statistics
Note: BE: data not available.

The percentage of births outside marriage tends to decrease with age not only because people nowadays usually marry after the age of 20, but also because women aged over 20 may have better control over their fertility. In nearly half of the countries for which data are available, more than half of births among the 20 to 24-year-olds were out of wedlock; in this age group the highest shares (over 70%) were recorded in

Denmark, Ireland, Iceland and Norway and the lowest in Greece and Cyprus (below 10%).

Considering women aged between 25 and 29, more than half of children were born out of wedlock in Denmark, Estonia, Sweden, Iceland and Norway, whereas they represented less than 4% in Greece and Cyprus.



LIVING CONDITIONS: ONE IN FIVE YOUNG PERSONS THREATENED BY POVERTY

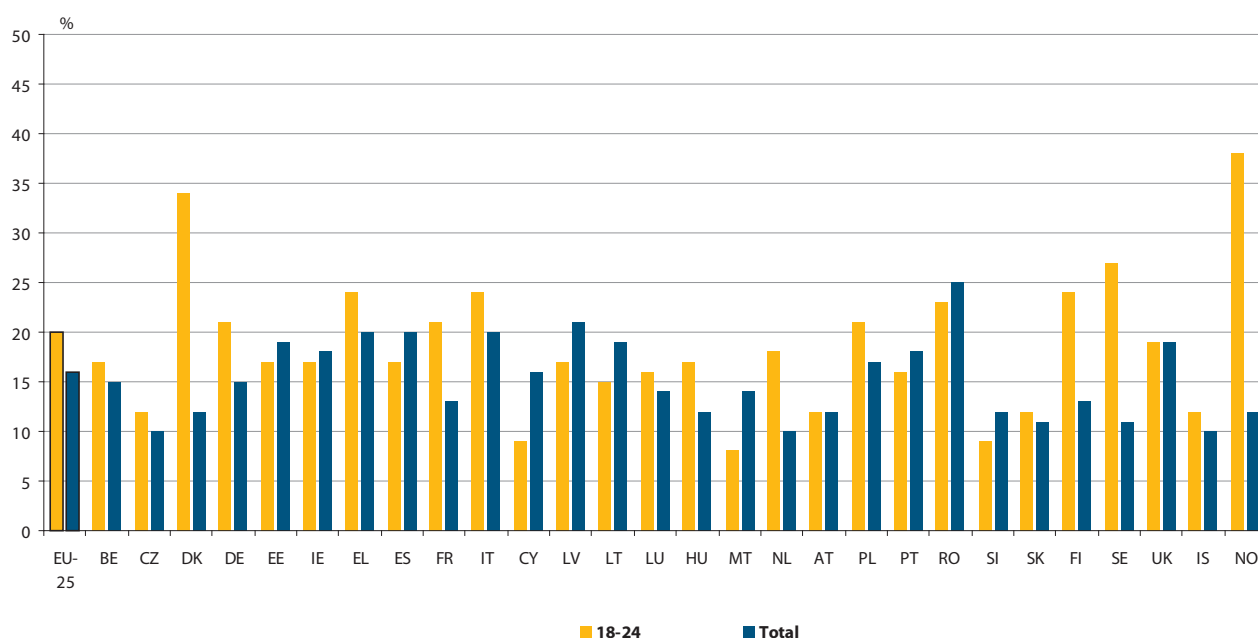
Becoming an adult is a transitional phase on more than one account, be it moving out of education and into working life or moving out of the parental household into independence. Young people are thus more exposed to the risks linked to these profound changes in their lives.

The share of young people who are at risk of poverty can be measured by taking the proportion of the population aged between 18 and 24 with an equivalised total net income after social transfers below 60 % of the national median income and

comparing this proportion to that concerning the total population (see Figure 2.10).

In a majority of countries, the share of young people aged 18 to 24 years who are at risk of poverty is higher than among the overall population. Compared to the overall population, young people are particularly at risk in Denmark, Sweden and Norway. Such differences may be attributable to the way social transfers are awarded: in some countries, people may need to have a sufficient work record to be entitled to social transfers.

Figure 2.10: At-risk-of-poverty rate after social transfers (<60 % of median equivalised income), by age group, 2007 (%)



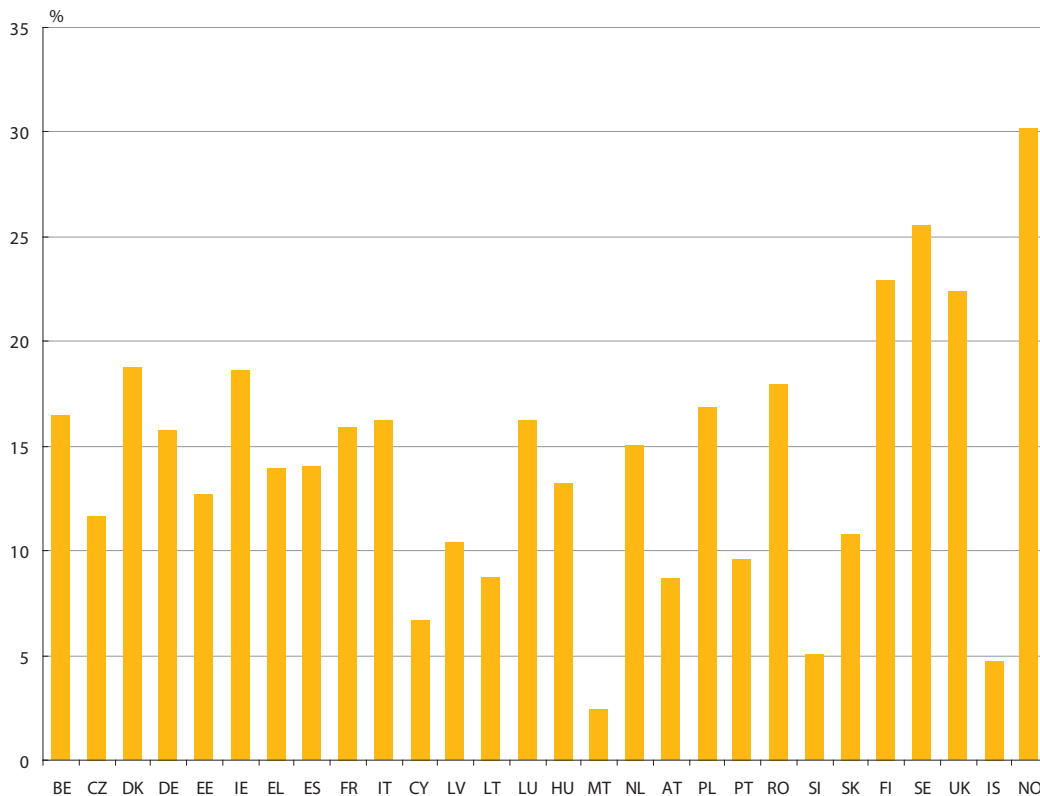
Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC

Note: BG: data not available; DE: provisional.

Generally speaking, in 2007, the average income of young people aged 16–24 was much lower than that of their elders (aged 25–49), as young people are either still in education or at the beginning of their career. The gap between the mean equivalised net income of persons aged 16–24 and that of 25

to 49-year-olds was the highest in Finland, Sweden, the United Kingdom and Norway (see Figure 2.11). By contrast, the smallest discrepancies in mean equivalised net income across generations were noted in Malta, Slovenia and Iceland.

Figure 2.11: Relative difference of mean equivalised net income (in PPS) between the 16 to 24-year-olds and the 25 to 49-year-olds, 2007 (%)



Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC

Note: BG data not available; DE: provisional.

Mean equivalised net income: average of the equivalised net income over all persons (adults and children). **Net income** is total income from all sources minus income tax. **Equivalised income** is defined as the household's total income divided by its 'equivalent size', to take account of the size and composition of the household, and is attributed to each household member: the total household income is divided by its equivalent size using the so-called 'modified OECD' equivalence scale (this scale gives a weight of 1.0 to the first adult, 0.5 to any other household member aged 14 and over and 0.3 to each child under 14 years).

Social transfers include family/children-related allowances, education-related allowances, unemployment benefits, sickness benefits, disability benefits, social exclusion not elsewhere classified and housing allowances as well as old age benefits and survivor's benefits.

The at-risk-of-poverty rate is measured as the share of persons with an equivalised disposable income below the at-risk-of-poverty threshold. The threshold can be set at 60% (the most frequently), 50% or 40% of the national median (or mean) equivalised disposable income.

Purchasing power standards (PPS): the purchasing power parity is a conversion rate that uses the prices of a selection of comparable products and thus accounts of the real purchasing power of a currency. The amounts obtained using this rate are called purchasing power standards (PPS).

Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC



Young people can encounter difficulties in securing a full-time permanent job; as a result young men and women may be at risk of poverty, even when they are employed (see Table 2.5). In 2007, at EU-25 level, 9 % of young persons aged between 18 and 24 years were in work but at risk of poverty, which was one percentage point higher than for the population aged between 25 and 54. However, this gap was not always in

favour of the older generation: in around half of the countries for which data are available, the at-risk-of-poverty rate for people in work was lower among the younger generation than among the older one. Conversely, in the Nordic countries and Romania, the in-work at-risk-of-poverty-rate was substantially higher among the population aged 18–24 than among the population aged 25–54.

Table 2.5: In-work at-risk-of-poverty rates by age group, 2007 (%)

	18-24	25-54
EU-25	9 p	8 p
BE	5	4
BG	:	:
CZ	3	4
DK	20	3
DE	11 p	7 p
EE	4	9
IE	5	5
EL	14	14
ES	7	11
FR	7	6
IT	14	10
CY	5	6
LV	6	10
LT	5	8
LU	11	10
HU	4	6
MT	2	5
NL	2	5
AT	5	6
PL	12	12
PT	11 p	8 p
RO	23	16
SI	4	5
SK	4	5
FI	12	4
SE	19	6
UK	10	7
IS	10	7
NO	28	5

Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC

In-work at-risk-of-poverty: individuals who are classified as employed and who are at risk of poverty.

Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC

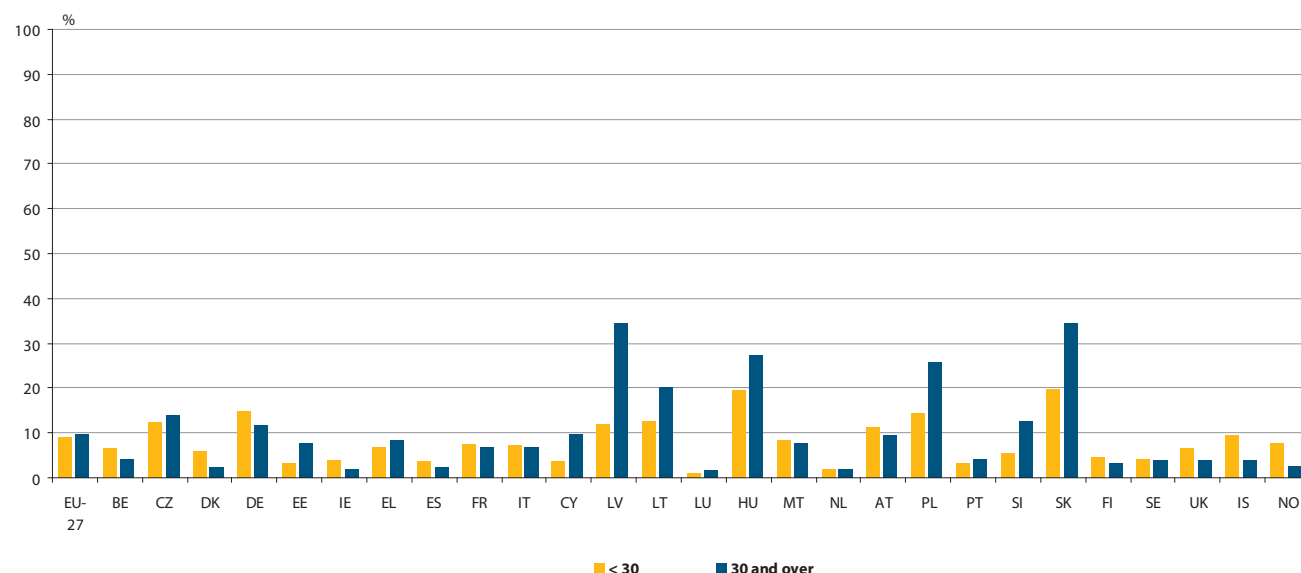
ARE YOUNG HOUSEHOLDS LIVING ON A SHOESTRING?

When starting out in independent life, 'young' households (households in which the oldest member is aged under 30 years) frequently have little savings, as people aged under 30 years are often at the beginning of their professional career and possibly at the bottom of the income ladder. Data on the proportion of households unable to afford food, ICT equipment, cars and leisure give a more straightforward picture of the financial situation or difficulties of young households in Europe (see Figures 2.12 to 2.15).

At the European level, less than 10% of households were unable to afford a meal with meat, chicken or fish every second day (see Figure 2.12). In most countries this

concerned less than 10% of young households, but higher percentages (nearly 20%) were recorded in Hungary and Slovakia. Comparing the younger and older households reveals varying patterns across countries. In Latvia, the share of households unable to afford a meal with meat, chicken or fish every other day was 2.8 times lower among young households than among their older counterparts. To a lesser degree, a similar pattern was noted in Cyprus and Slovenia. By contrast, 'young' households were worse off than their older counterparts in the Nordic countries, Belgium, Germany, Austria, the United Kingdom, and — to a lesser extent — France, Italy and Malta.

Figure 2.12: Proportion of households unable to afford a meal with meat, chicken or fish every second day, by age of the oldest household member, 2007 (%)



Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC

Note: BG, RO: data not available..

When asking households if they can afford to pay for something, the question refers to their ability to pay, regardless of whether they actually want the item or not. However, consumption preferences vary according to the age of the respondent and socioeconomic characteristics of the

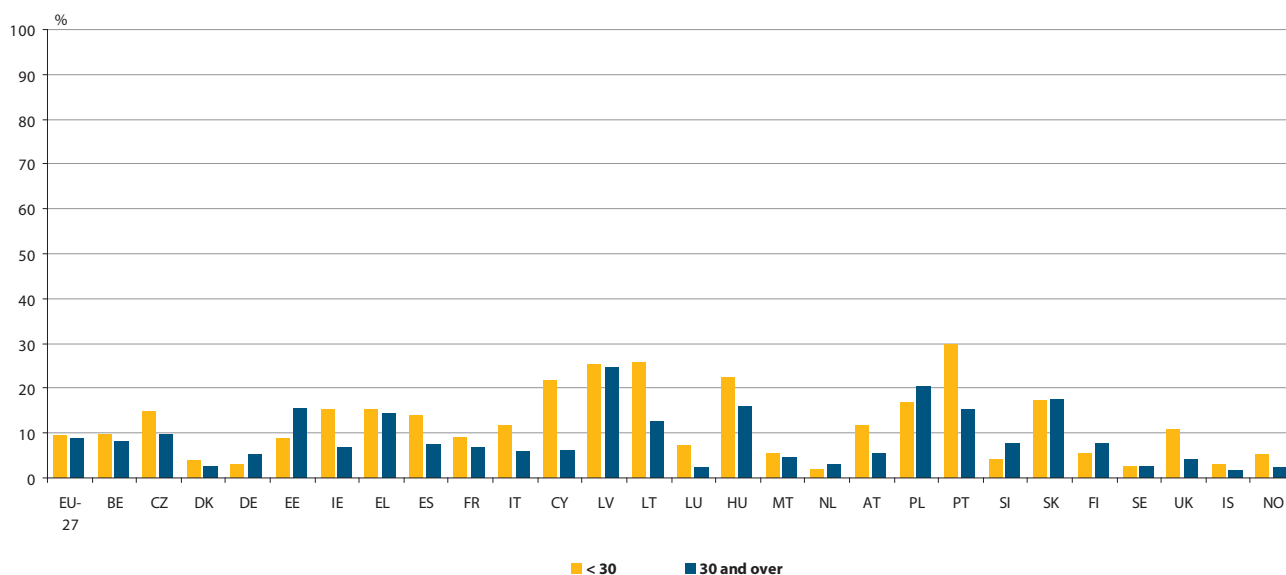
household and may affect the answers given (and thus cross-country comparisons). For instance, young persons may have a stronger preference for computers and holidays away from home than their older counterparts.



In 2007, in the European Union, less than 10% of households declared that they were unable to afford a computer (see Figure 2.13). At EU level the value was a little higher among young households, but differences were considerably higher in some countries. In all countries, the share of households unable to afford a computer did not exceed 30% among

young households, and did not exceed 25% among older households. However, over 20% of young households declared to be unable to afford a computer in Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary and Portugal. Conversely, in several countries, only less than 5% of households were unable to afford a computer.

Figure 2.13: Proportion of households unable to afford a computer, by age of the oldest household member, 2007 (%)



Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC

Note: BG, RO: data not available.

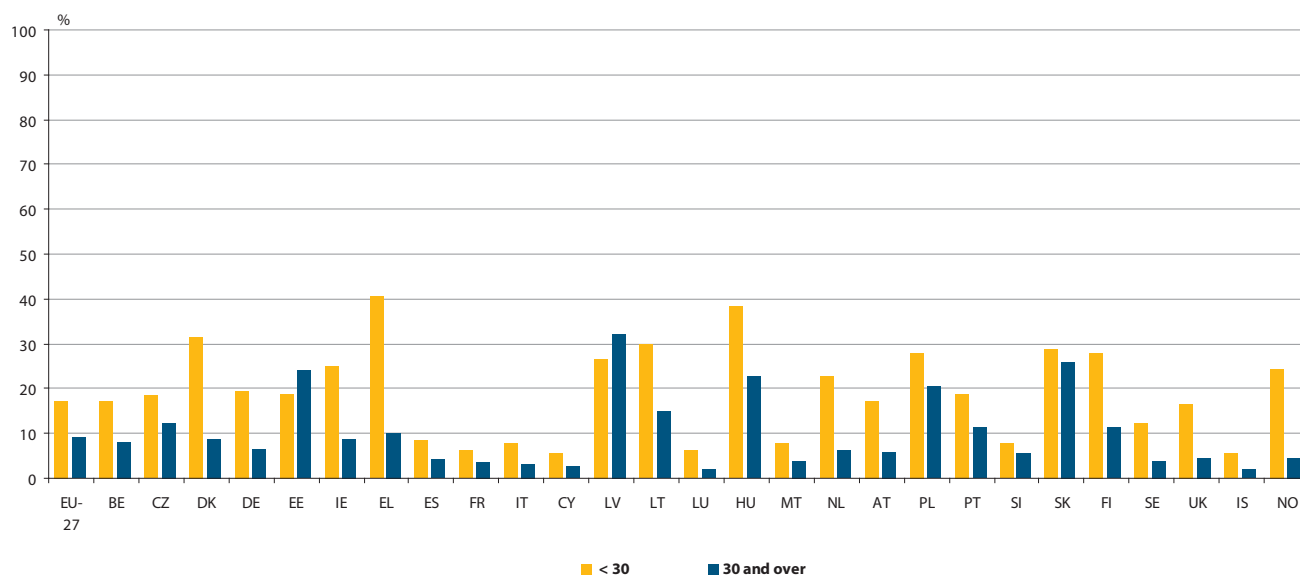
Buying a car is a far greater financial burden than buying a computer; consequently the percentage of households unable to afford a car was higher whatever the age group considered (see Figure 2.14).

At EU level around one in six young households could not afford a car, which is almost twice the share recorded for their older counterparts. In all but two countries (Estonia and

Latvia), this difficulty was more prevalent among young households.

More than one third of young households in Greece and Hungary could not afford a car but it is the case of less than 10% of young households in Spain, France, Italy, Cyprus, Luxembourg, Malta, Slovenia and Iceland.

Figure 2.14: Proportion of households unable to afford a car, by age of the oldest household member, 2007 (%)



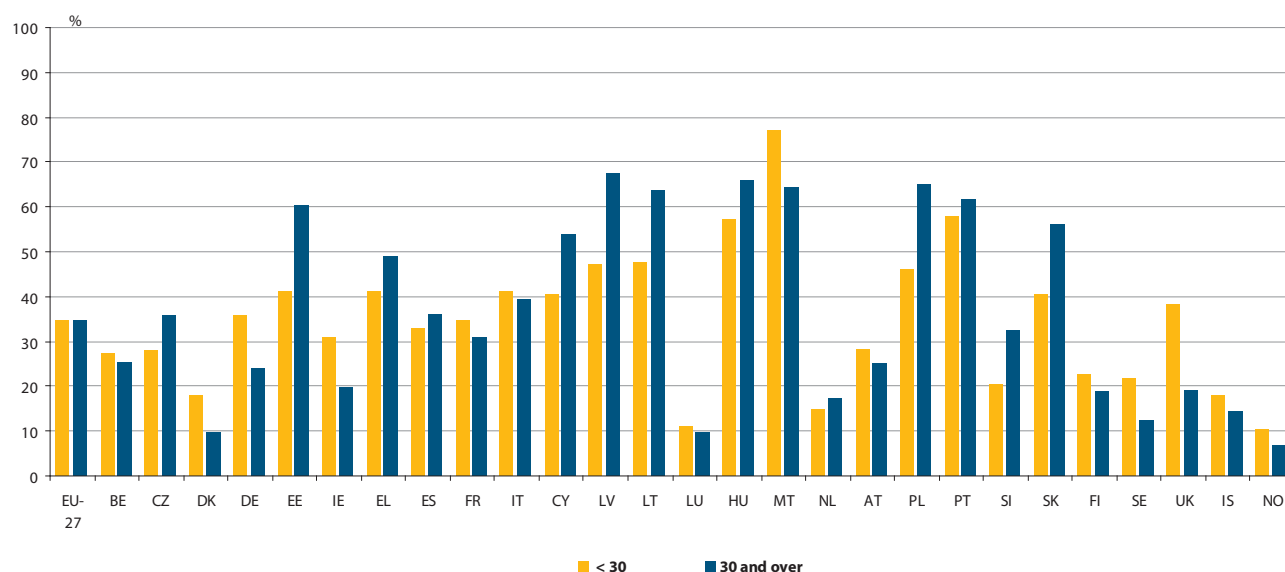
Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC

Note: BG, RO: data not available.

At European level, one third of households could not afford one week's holiday per year away from home (see Figure 2.15) and this proportion was similar for younger and older households (see Figure 2.15). More than half of young households in Malta, Hungary and Portugal could not afford one week of annual holiday away from home. In contrast, in Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Denmark, Slovenia, Iceland and Norway, more than 80% of 'young' households were able to afford such a holiday.

Major differences across age groups were recorded in Denmark, Germany, Ireland, Malta, Sweden and the United Kingdom, where a far higher share of young households were unable to afford holidays compared to their older counterparts. The opposite was true in the Baltic States, the Czech Republic, Cyprus, Poland, Slovenia and Slovakia, where the older generation was more frequently unable to afford one week's holiday away from home.

Figure 2.15: Proportion of households unable to afford one week's annual holiday away from home, by age of the oldest household member, 2007 (%)



Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC

Note: BG, RO: data not available.

Health

3



A HEALTHY MIND IN A HEALTHY BODY

Some of the most important events to which young people must adjust are the many physical and psychological changes that occur during adolescence, including the continuing development of self-esteem. Intellectual development and emotional independence pave the way for a more complex and sophisticated self-concept.

In 2006, more than 91 % of the European Union's population aged between 15 and 24 felt that they were in 'good' or 'very good' health (see Table 3.1). The lowest proportions in this respect were reported in Lithuania and Latvia.

Only a very small percentage (not exceeding 3 %) of young people aged 15–24 defined themselves as being in poor or very poor health.

The percentage of young Europeans declaring good or very good health is decreasing with age. In 2006, Europeans aged between 25 and 34 generally felt that their health hovered between fair and very good. However, in relation to their younger counterparts a higher proportion of young Europeans aged 25–34 considered themselves to be only in fair health. In Latvia, Slovenia and Norway, more than 4 % of 25 to 34-year-olds considered themselves to be in poor or very poor shape.

However, a more detailed analysis of differences across countries remains difficult since the perception of one's health is very subjective.

Table 3.1: Self-perception of health status among young people, by age group, 2006 (%)

	15-24					25-34				
	Very good	Good	Fair	Bad	Very bad	Very good	Good	Fair	Bad	Very bad
EU-27	46.2	45.4	7.0	1.1	0.2	32.9	52.2	12.1	2.3	0.5
BE	54.9	38.4	4.9	1.1	0.6	42.0	47.2	8.2	2.3	0.3
BG	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
CZ	57.4	35.8	5.6	0.9	0.3	37.7	49.6	9.6	2.3	0.8
DK	57.8	32.2	7.6	1.7	0.6	54.2	34.4	8.2	2.4	0.8
DE	39.8	50.6	8.3	1.0	0.3	23.4	56.9	16.6	2.7	0.4
EE	19.7	66.0	12.2	1.7	0.4	14.0	67.2	15.6	2.8	0.4
IE	69.7	25.4	4.3	0.4	0.2	57.2	34.9	6.5	0.8	0.5
EL	90.4	7.7	1.3	0.4	0.2	82.2	13.5	2.4	1.3	0.6
ES	39.0	55.5	4.3	1.1	0.1	26.4	61.2	9.3	2.5	0.5
FR	57.5	36.1	5.3	0.9	0.2	40.5	46.5	10.7	2.0	0.4
IT	38.0	54.0	6.8	1.0	0.1	24.3	60.0	13.4	1.8	0.5
CY	84.8	11.4	2.5	0.9	0.3	73.5	21.2	4.0	0.9	0.3
LV	9.5	69.7	18.8	1.9	0.1	5.7	63.9	25.9	3.6	0.8
LT	20.7	61.5	15.9	1.7	0.1	9.5	62.2	25.0	2.8	0.5
LU	66.9	28.7	3.9	0.5	:	46.3	42.8	9.6	1.1	0.1
HU	38.8	50.0	9.1	1.7	0.5	23.4	54.4	18.4	3.0	0.7
MT	52.6	44.4	2.7	0.3	0.1	48.6	46.2	4.8	0.4	:
NL	32.7	60.5	6.2	0.6	:	27.7	58.8	10.0	2.6	0.8
AT	71.6	22.7	4.6	0.9	0.2	60.1	31.2	7.3	1.1	0.2
PL	44.9	46.2	6.9	1.7	0.2	25.4	57.4	13.7	3.1	0.3
PT	22.1	63.9	11.7	2.0	0.3	13.4	65.3	17.5	2.4	1.4
RO	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
SI	35.5	52.3	9.8	1.9	0.5	27.7	52.5	15.7	3.3	0.9
SK	60.9	28.8	8.3	1.5	0.4	37.7	43.8	15.6	2.2	0.7
FI	71.0	17.7	9.3	1.4	0.7	66.6	22.2	9.0	1.5	0.7
SE	48.8	40.8	9.1	1.2	0.2	45.5	41.3	10.1	2.2	0.9
UK	47.5	42.5	8.7	1.1	0.2	44.5	43.7	9.4	2.3	0.2
IS	58.4	31.7	7.6	2.2	:	60.1	29.1	9.3	0.4	1.1
NO	43.0	45.2	9.1	2.6	0.3	38.2	48.0	9.1	4.2	0.6

Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC



The relationship between body image and self-esteem is now well established and is generally stronger in girls. Gender differences are also apparent in the ways in which male and female adolescents see their bodies. 'Girls tend to view their bodies primarily as a means of attracting others, while boys perceive their bodies as a means of effectively operating in the external environment'⁽¹⁾.

Obesity is a major public health concern, described by the World Health Organization (WHO) as a 'global epidemic' due to its high and increasing prevalence. Excessive weight and obesity among young people have been shown to be significantly associated with long-term morbidity and mortality. Physical changes during adolescence may lead to weight problems (overweight or underweight). For instance, Malta and the United Kingdom⁽²⁾ count more than 30 % of overweight young people between the ages of 15 and 24 (see Table 3.2). Weight problems during adolescence can compromise health later in life, as it is associated with increased mortality, especially from coronary heart disease, arteriosclerosis and colorectal cancer. Further, negative

stereotypical attitudes towards obesity can arise at an early age and obese people may encounter discrimination at school or work.

Adolescence is a time when the physiological need for nutrients increases; a diet of high nutritional quality is therefore particularly important. The World Health Organisation recognises that young people who develop healthy eating habits early in life are more likely to maintain them into adulthood and are less likely to suffer from chronic diseases.

Adolescence is also the period when young people adopt new eating habits (for instance an increasing number of meals taken outside the home or school). Future weight and body care are also influenced by lifestyles and especially the balance between sedentary activities (computer use, video gaming, watching television, etc.) and more physical activities (sports, outdoor activities, etc.). Nevertheless, people generally tend to gain weight as they get older.

The Body Mass Index (BMI) or Quetelet's index is a measure of a person's weight relative to his or her height that correlates fairly well with body fat content in adults. BMI is accepted by experts as the most useful measure of obesity for adults when only weight and height data are available. BMI is calculated as the result of dividing body weight (in kg) by body height (in metres) squared.

The following classification is used for BMI (according the international obesitas taskforce, OTF):

- less than 18.5: underweight;
- between 18.5 and less than 25: normal weight;
- between 25 and less than 30: overweight;
- equal or greater than 30: obese.

Source: Eurostat, Health Interview Surveys methodology

⁽¹⁾ WHO, Young people's health in context 2001–2002.

⁽²⁾ Data from Germany and UK are based on measured height and weight, while in other countries the height and weight were self-reported; UK data cover only England.

When considering the young population by age group (see Table 3.2), the share of underweight people was higher among people aged 15 to 24 than those aged 25 to 34, whereas the share of overweight and obese was higher among the latter age group.

The share of underweight young people aged between 15 and 24 years was below 15% in most European countries, except France (16%), the United Kingdom (17%) and Norway (30%).

In all European countries except Malta and the United Kingdom, less than 30% of the 15 to 24-year-olds were overweight. This was however no longer the case when considering the population aged 25 to 34 years, as in most European countries more than 30% of this population was overweight. Estonia, France, Italy, Lithuania, Norway and Switzerland were the only exceptions. Conversely, Ireland

(38%), Germany (43%), Malta (48%) and the United Kingdom (53%) reported the highest share of overweight and obese people among the population aged 25 to 34 years.

Overweight and obesity levels were higher among older generations, accounting for more than half of the population aged 45–54 in most EU countries.

The share of underweight women was as a rule much higher than that of men, which suggests that women tend to be more careful about their waistline.

Conversely, obesity was more prevalent among men in nearly all countries and for all age classes. In nine European countries, more than half of men aged between 25 and 34 were overweight and obese, whereas this was the case for less than 35% of women (except in the United Kingdom and Iceland).

Table 3.2: Body Mass Index (BMI), by sex and age group (%)

	Women						Men						Total					
	Overweight and obese			Underweight			Overweight and obese			Underweight			Overweight and obese			Underweight		
	15-24	25-34	45-54	15-24	25-34	45-54	15-24	25-34	45-54	15-24	25-34	45-54	15-24	25-34	45-54	15-24	25-34	45-54
BE	10.6	26.0	41.6	14.7	7.7	3.0	14.7	40.4	58.4	9.1	1.0	0.8	12.7	33.3	50.1	11.8	4.3	1.9
BG	8.3	23.2	55.6	19.4	10.0	2.1	26.3	42.3	58.2	2.6	1.2	1.1	17.2	32.8	56.8	11.2	5.6	1.6
CZ	11.6	21.1	60.2	13.0	5.5	1.7	21.3	49.6	73.8	4.9	0.4	:	16.6	35.5	66.9	8.9	2.9	0.9
DK	16.0	26.5	37.7	9.4	4.5	2.7	22.7	42.4	60.5	3.6	0.7	0.8	19.4	34.3	49.2	6.4	2.6	1.8
DE	21.7	32.0	59.5	3.5	3.9	0.9	31.1	52.8	76.6	1.2	0.8	:	26.5	42.7	68.1	2.3	2.3	0.5
EE	9.9	26.7	60.4	14.9	7.3	0.6	13.1	29.7	58.0	4.6	0.6	0.7	11.5	28.2	59.2	9.7	4.0	0.6
IE	22.0	30.5	47.5	3.7	2.5	2.0	31.1	48.8	72.8	1.3	1.3	1.1	25.8	38.2	58.3	2.7	2.0	1.6
EL	13.0	21.0	56.6	9.2	4.7	1.2	30.0	51.3	71.4	1.7	0.5	0.6	21.2	36.3	63.9	5.6	2.6	1.1
ES	11.9	23.2	49.5	14.2	6.1	1.1	22.6	47.9	67.6	5.6	0.6	0.2	17.3	35.8	58.5	9.8	3.3	0.7
FR	11.2	21.8	33.6	19.3	10.5	3.7	9.9	34.7	55.7	12.4	2.0	0.4	10.6	27.9	44.5	15.9	6.5	2.1
IT	7.7	12.1	38.8	18.3	10.6	2.5	17.4	36.2	60.9	5.2	0.7	0.5	12.6	24.3	49.6	11.7	5.6	1.5
CY	14.2	18.6	50.9	18.7	12.5	1.6	19.5	49.9	66.4	5.9	1.7	0.5	16.9	33.7	58.5	12.1	7.3	1.1
LV	8.2	26.4	61.7	17.9	7.2	1.4	11.6	37.6	57.7	9.5	0.8	0.8	10.0	32.0	59.8	13.6	4.0	1.1
LT	11.7	18.1	62.7	8.5	8.2	1.1	31.0	41.8	64.8	:	0.6	0.4	20.0	28.4	63.7	4.8	4.9	0.8
LU	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
HU	15.0	26.8	59.2	15.4	8.5	2.7	26.7	52.4	64.9	1.9	1.4	1.6	21.1	39.6	62.0	8.3	5.0	2.2
MT	23.4	32.4	62.3	10.5	5.4	2.6	44.8	64.1	75.7	5.0	0.7	0.8	33.9	47.8	68.9	7.8	3.1	1.7
NL	12.6	29.3	43.3	13.4	3.8	1.5	14.4	40.7	61.0	9.8	0.6	0.4	13.5	35.1	52.3	11.6	2.2	1.0
AT	8.5	16.7	36.7	12.7	5.4	2.0	25.5	53.8	72.7	16.2	0.9	0.7	17.1	35.3	54.7	14.5	3.1	1.3
PL	7.4	20.6	56.8	16.9	6.2	2.1	15.7	44.0	64.3	6.1	0.3	1.1	11.6	32.4	60.4	11.5	3.2	1.6
PT	13.1	28.7	58.0	10.0	5.2	1.6	25.2	44.0	64.6	3.3	2.2	1.3	19.7	36.4	61.1	6.4	3.7	1.5
RO	8.0	26.0	54.8	15.7	5.0	1.3	17.2	39.6	61.0	1.6	1.1	1.0	12.5	32.9	57.8	8.8	3.0	1.2
SI	9.9	22.7	50.0	9.9	10.2	:	20.5	41.4	70.8	1.1	3.4	1.1	15.7	32.0	59.6	5.0	6.9	0.5
SK	6.0	21.4	59.3	19.0	11.6	0.6	15.7	54.4	74.4	7.5	0.7	:	10.3	36.6	66.7	13.9	6.6	0.3
FI	16.8	26.7	42.5	11.7	2.3	1.2	19.2	51.0	68.7	6.9	1.6	0.6	17.9	37.8	54.5	9.5	2.0	0.9
SE	14.3	26.6	39.1	9.9	3.6	1.9	21.8	46.5	56.5	5.0	0.6	0.6	18.2	37.0	48.0	7.4	2.1	1.2
UK	32.1	47.2	63.4	16.8	7.8	3.2	30.1	59.5	75.6	16.9	2.8	3.5	31.1	53.1	68.9	16.8	5.4	3.3
IS	25.5	35.9	52.2	6.9	4.0	1.1	29.7	53.7	68.1	2.7	:	:	27.2	43.8	59.3	5.2	2.2	0.6
NO	11.8	20.1	29.7	32.6	27.4	24.5	16.5	36.5	42.7	26.8	25.7	25.0	14.2	28.7	36.7	29.7	26.5	24.7
CH	7.9	19.1	30.9	17.2	8.3	5.8	14.1	36.8	57.9	10.3	1.0	0.8	11.0	27.9	44.5	13.7	4.7	3.3

Source: Eurostat, Health Interview Surveys (1996–2003 data, depending on the country)

Note: UK: the survey concerns England only. 'Underweight' in England = BMI < 20.



YOUNG PEOPLE CAN EXPECT TO LIVE LONGER THAN EVER BEFORE

Economic development and the improvement of health systems across Europe have led to a continuous increase in life expectancy at birth. As a result, life expectancy in Europe is higher than in most countries of the world.

With an average life expectancy at birth of 81.1 years, Spain is the EU Member State where one can expect to live longest, followed by Sweden, France, and Cyprus (see Table 3.3). Life expectancy at birth was also higher than 81 years in Iceland, Liechtenstein and Switzerland. In contrast, Bulgaria, Latvia, Lithuania and Romania reported the lowest life expectancy at birth (below 73 years).

Women usually live longer than men in the European Union, but the difference in life expectancy between men and women may vary substantially between countries.

In the Baltic States, women can expect to live more than 10 years longer than men. Conversely, differences in life expectancy were lower than five years in seven Member States, the lowest difference being registered in Cyprus (3.6 years).

Demographic changes and the steady increase in life expectancy have led to a significant shift in the place of young people in European societies: there will be ever-fewer young people and young workers in comparison with an increasing number of older workers, elderly and very old people.⁽³⁾

Table 3. 3: Life expectancy at birth, by sex, 2006

	Women	Men	Total
BE	82.3	76.6	79.5
BG	76.3	69.2	72.7
CZ	79.9	73.5	76.8
DK	80.7	76.1	78.4
DE	82.4	77.2	79.9
EE	78.6	67.4	73.1
IE	82.1	77.3	79.7
EL	81.9	77.2	79.5
ES	84.4	77.7	81.1
FR	84.4	77.3	80.9
IT	83.8	77.9	:
CY	82.4	78.8	80.6
LV	76.3	65.4	70.9
LT	77.0	65.3	71.1
LU	81.9	76.8	79.4
HU	77.8	69.2	73.5
MT	81.9	77.0	79.5
NL	82.0	77.7	80.0
AT	82.8	77.2	80.1
PL	79.7	70.9	75.3
PT	82.3	75.5	78.9
RO	76.2	69.2	72.6
SI	82.0	74.5	78.3
SK	78.4	70.4	74.4
FI	83.1	75.9	79.6
SE	83.1	78.8	81.0
UK	81.1	77.1	79.1
HR	79.3	72.5	76.0
MK	76.2	71.7	73.9
IS	82.9	79.5	81.2
LI	83.1	78.9	81.0
NO	82.9	78.2	80.6
CH	84.2	79.2	81.8

Source: Eurostat, Demographic statistics

Note: IT: 2004 data; UK: 2005 data.

⁽³⁾ Communication from the Commission, Green Paper *Confronting demographic change: a new solidarity between the generations*, COM (2005)94 final.

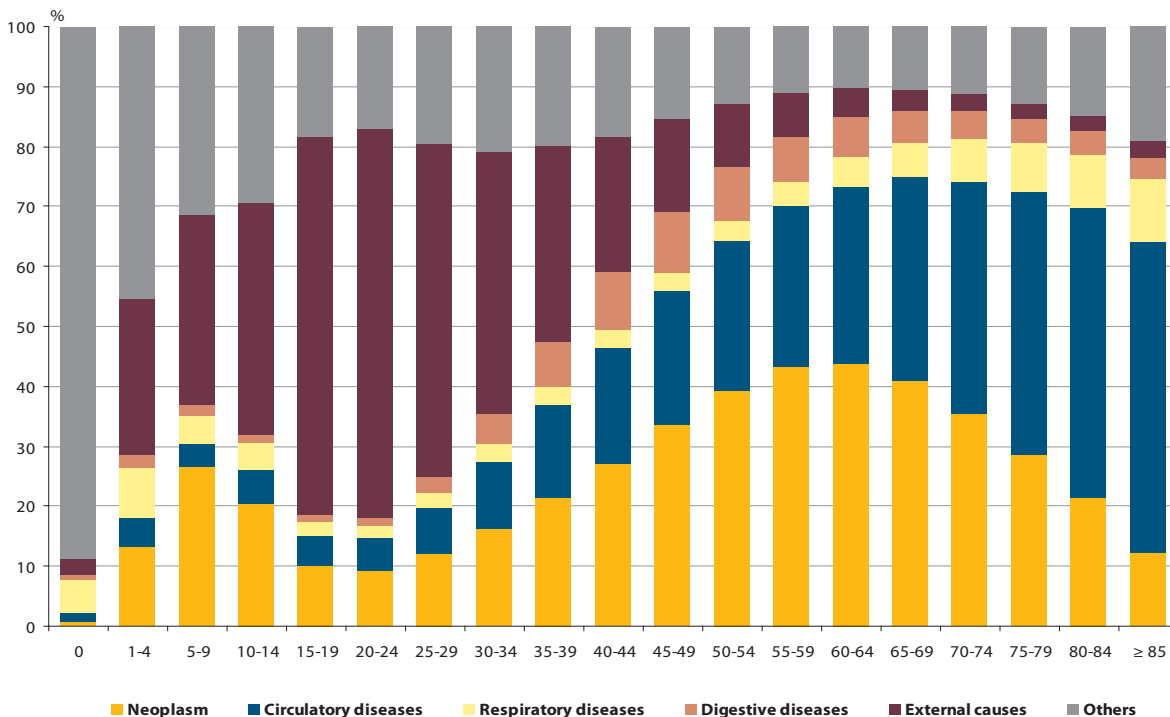
BUT DEATH KEEPS NO FIXED TIMETABLE

Figure 3.1 shows that causes of death vary substantially according to the age-group concerned. Most people over 45 die because of cancer and circulatory or respiratory diseases, whereas young people generally fall victim to external factors, such as transport accidents, accidental falls, intentional self-harm and assault.

In 2006, external causes accounted for a little more than 60% of deaths among young people aged 15 to 29.

Considering external causes of death, it appears that about 30% of deaths caused by transport accidents and 30% of those caused by drug dependence involved young people aged between 15 and 29 (see Table 3.4).

Figure 3.1: Causes of death in the EU-27, by age group, 2006 (%)



Source: Eurostat, Health statistics (Causes of death)

The International Classification of Diseases provides codes to classify diseases and a wide variety of signs, symptoms, abnormal findings, complaints, social circumstances and external causes of injury or disease. It is published by the World Health Organisation. The **ICD** is used world-wide for morbidity and mortality statistics, reimbursement systems and automated decision support in medicine. This system is designed to promote international comparability in the collection, processing, classification, and presentation of these statistics. The ICD is a core classification of the WHO Family of International Classifications (WHO-FIC).



In 2006, more than 12 000 young men aged 15 to 29 years died as a result of transport accidents in the EU-27. In particular, young men aged between 20 and 24 were the most involved in fatal transport accidents (see Table 3.4).

As a result of the stressful challenges some adolescents and young people go through; intentional self harm (and suicide) was the second most common cause of death for young people aged between 15 and 29. In 2006, more than 7 000 young people committed suicide in the EU-27, 82 % of whom were young men.

In general, young men were the most hard-hit by external factors of death. This is even more apparent when age increases. This would suggest that attitudes towards risk are different between young men and women.

Differences between young men and women were less pronounced when considering AIDS (HIV disease) but remained noticeable.

Table 3.4: Causes of death of young people: number of cases, by main external factor, sex and age group, EU-27, 2006

Causes of death	EU-27 number of cases - all ages				Women			Men		
		15-19	20-24	25-29	15-19	20-24	25-29	15-19	20-24	25-29
Suicide and intentional harm	58527	1478	2731	3132	326	433	544	1152	2298	2588
Transport accidents	49688	4285	5821	4654	1003	1016	730	3282	4805	3924
Accidental poisoning	11010	188	621	816	71	112	113	117	509	703
AIDS (HIV disease)	5833	122	74	222	49	31	81	73	43	141
Homicide, assault	5402	184	378	462	53	87	116	131	291	346
Drug dependence, toxicomania	2878	105	318	443	26	56	57	79	262	386

Source: Eurostat, Health statistics (Causes of death)

Homicide and assault: injuries inflicted by another person with intent to injure or kill, by any means. It excludes injuries due to legal intervention and operations of war.

Accidental poisoning: accidental overdose of drug, wrong drug given or taken in error, and drug taken inadvertently, accidents in the use of drugs, medicaments and biological substances in medical and surgical procedures (self-inflicted) poisoning, when not specified whether accidental or with intent to harm.

Source: WHO International Classification of Death Causes

At EU-27 level, the overall number of deaths provides meaningful and striking information on the risks posed by external causes of death for young Europeans.

The **crude death rate** describes mortality in relation to the total population. Expressed per 100 000 inhabitants, it is calculated as the number of deaths recorded in the population for a given period divided by population in the same period and then multiplied by 100 000. Crude death rates are calculated for 5-year age groups. At this level of detail, comparisons between countries and regions are meaningful.

Source: Eurostat, Causes of death

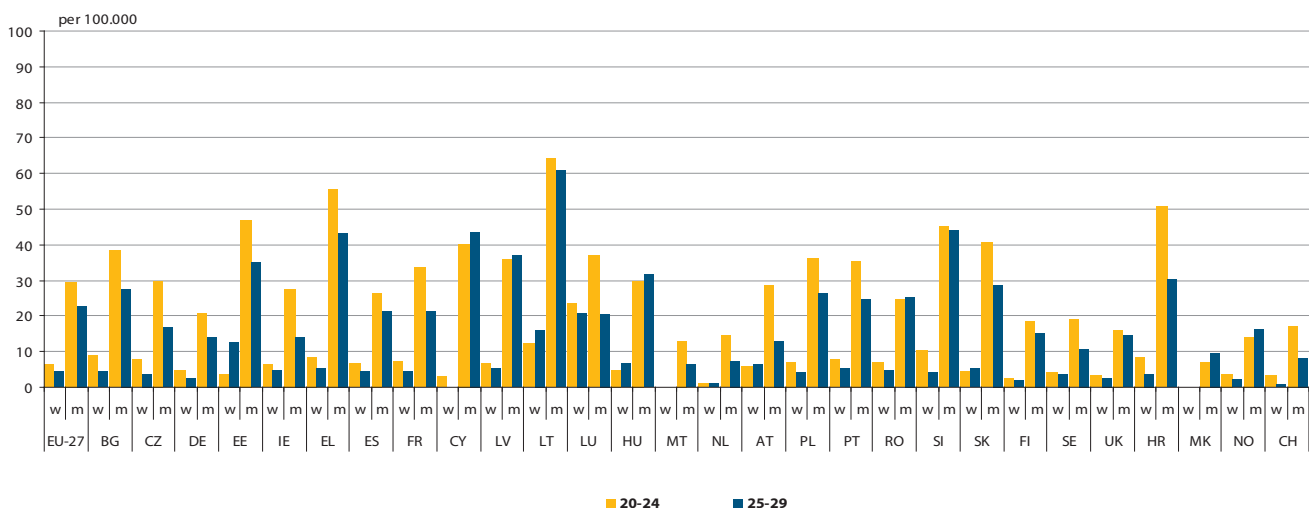
In 2006, young people aged between 20 and 24 were the most affected by transport accidents (see Figure 3.2). In all European countries for which data are available, death rates related to transport accidents were higher among men than among women.

Greece and Lithuania recorded the highest crude death rates resulting from transport accidents among men aged 20–24,

followed by Estonia, Slovenia, Cyprus, Bulgaria, and Luxembourg as well as Croatia. All these countries registered crude death rates well above the EU-27 average.

The number of fatalities linked to transport accidents generally tended to decrease with age, what seems to indicate a certain level of maturity and sense of responsibility among older drivers.

Figure 3.2: Crude death rates of young people caused by transport accidents, by sex and age group, 2006 (per 100 000 inhabitants)



Source: Eurostat, Health statistics (Causes of death)

Note: EU-27 based on available data; BE, DK and IT: data not available; FR, LU, PT, UK, CH: 2005.

A transport accident is any accident involving a device designed primarily for, or being used at the time primarily for, conveying persons or goods from one place to another.

A *traffic accident* is any vehicle accident occurring on the public highway [i.e. originating on, terminating on, or involving a vehicle partially on the highway]. A vehicle accident is assumed to have occurred on the public highway unless another place is specified, except in the case of accidents involving only off-road motor vehicles, which are classified as non-traffic accidents unless the contrary is stated.

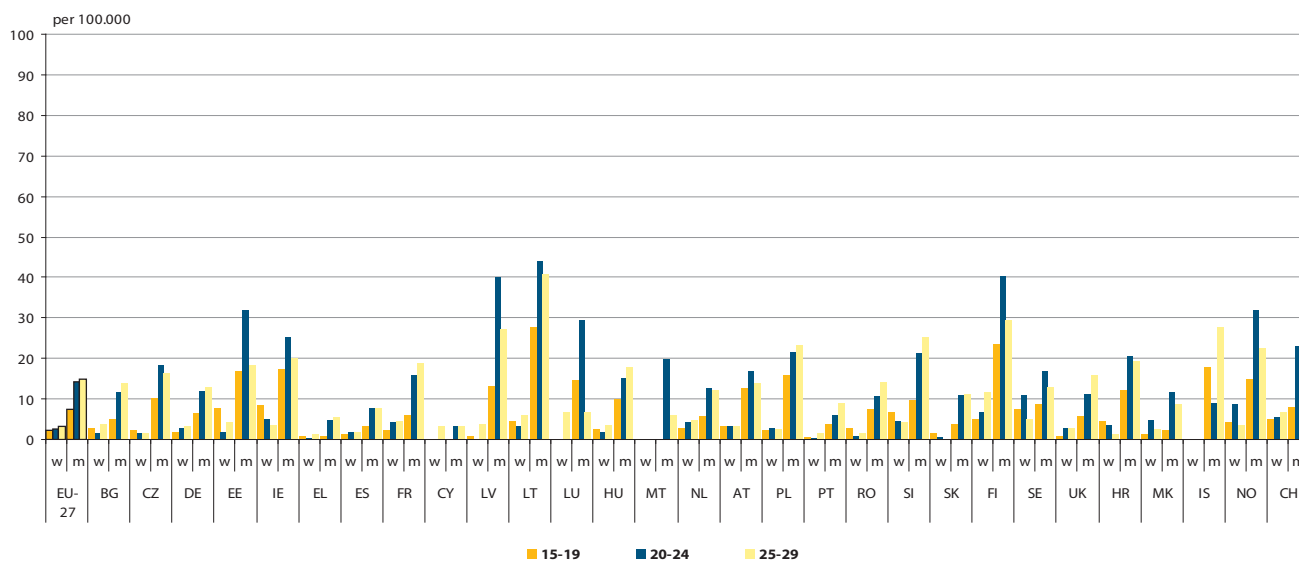
Source: WHO International Classification of Death Causes



At EU-27 level, the crude death rate by suicide stood at 15 per 100 000 inhabitants among the male population aged 25–29 (see Figure 3.3). Young women tend to be less affected by suicide and intentional self-harm, with crude death rates generally lower than 5 per 100 000 inhabitants.

The Baltic States and Finland reported the highest male suicide and self-inflicted injury rates among the population aged 20–24 and 25–29 years. The highest female suicide and self-inflicted injury rates were found in Sweden (20–24 age class) and Finland (25–29 age class) where they stood at around 11 per 100 000 inhabitants.

Figure 3.3: Crude death rates of young people caused by intentional self-harm (including suicide), by sex and age group, 2006 (per 100 000 inhabitants)



Source: Eurostat, Health statistics (Causes of death)

Note: BE, DK and IT: data not available; FR, LU, PT, UK, IS, CH: 2005.

Intentional self-harm implies purposely self-inflicted poisoning or injury and suicide (attempted).

Suicide is the act of deliberately killing oneself. Risk factors for suicide include mental disorder (such as depression, personality disorder, alcohol dependence, or schizophrenia), and some physical illnesses, such as neurological disorders, cancer, and HIV infection.

Source: WHO International Classification of Death Causes

'Adolescence is the stage in life at which experimentation with substances usually take place (...). However, the majority of adolescents who experiment with substances do not become problem users.'⁽⁴⁾ Substance use disorders (and especially drugs use) depends on existing risks and protective factors. Thus, psychosocial and familial risk and protective factors (e.g. influence of peer group, family, social activities and schools) may help define at-risk populations, individual risks

and protective factors (e.g. gender, personality and temperament, psychopathology, etc.) may help define individual at high risk⁽⁴⁾.

Effective methods of prevention among youths include early detection of risk behaviour and possible underlying problems, together with appropriate actions to support them and their families before any substance abuse has taken place.

⁽⁴⁾ EMCDDA, *Preventing later substance use disorders in at-risk children and adolescents*, Thematic paper, February 2009.

In 2006, in EU Member States, deaths related to drug dependence remained on average below 2 per 100 000 inhabitants (see Table 3.5). Among countries for which data are available, Austria, Ireland and the United Kingdom recorded crude death rates higher than 5 per 100 000 inhabitants among men aged 20–24 and 25–29 years.

Female drug-related deaths were the highest in Austria and Switzerland, with crude death rates between 2 and 5 per 100 000 inhabitants (except for the 15–19 age group in Switzerland).

Table 3.5: Crude death rates of young people related to drug dependence, by sex and age group, 2006 (per 100 000 inhabitants)

	Women			Men		
	15-19	20-24	25-29	15-19	20-24	25-29
EU-27	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.5	1.6	2.2
BE	:	:	:	:	:	:
BG	-	-	-	-	-	-
CZ	-	0.3	-	-	-	0.2
DK	:	:	:	:	:	:
DE	0.1	0.8	0.4	0.2	2	2.9
EE	:	:	:	-	-	2.1
IE	-	1.7	2.1	5.4	5.2	7.2
EL	:	:	:	-	-	-
ES	-	-	0.1	-	0.3	0.7
FR	-	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.7	1.1
IT	:	:	:	:	:	:
CY	-	-	-	-	6.2	3.1
LV	:	:	:	-	-	-
LT	-	-	-	-	2.2	3.5
LU	:	:	:	-	-	6.9
HU	-	-	-	:	:	:
MT	:	:	:	:	:	:
NL	-	-	-	-	-	-
AT	5	4.2	2.3	11.5	12.4	10.2
PL	-	-	-	-	0.1	0.1
PT	:	:	:	:	:	:
RO	:	:	:	:	:	:
SI	:	:	:	-	-	-
SK	:	:	:	:	:	:
FI	-	-	-	-	1.2	-
SE	:	:	:	-	0.7	1.4
UK	0.7	1.5	1.8	2.1	6.6	10.5
HR	-	0.7	1.3	-	0.6	2.5
MK	:	:	:	-	-	2.5
IS	:	:	:	-	9.1	-
NO	0.7	0.7	0.7	-	0.7	1.4
CH	0.5	3.2	5.1	2.7	7.6	6.5

Source: Eurostat, Health statistics (Causes of Death)

Note: EE, FR, LU, UK, MK, IS, CH: 2005.

Drug dependence, as a cause of death, comprises the following items: mental and behavioural disorders due to use of opioids, cannabinoids, sedatives, hypnotics, cocaine, hallucinogens, volatile solvents, multiple drug use and other psychoactive substances or stimulants, including caffeine.

This category also includes situations when two or more psychoactive substances are known to be involved, but it is impossible to assess which substance is contributing most to the disorders. It is also used when the exact identity of some or even all the psychoactive substances being used is uncertain or unknown, since many multiple drug users themselves often do not know the details of what they are taking.

Source: WHO International Classification of Death Causes



AIDS is a global epidemic affecting both younger and older generations alike. Governments have taken action in order to combat and avoid its spreading. In spite of education and information campaigns, Europe still has a significantly high prevalence of HIV.

In 2006, at EU-27 level, 28 % of newly-diagnosed HIV cases concerned young people aged between 15 and 29 (see Table 3.6). Within this age group, the population aged 25–29 accounted for the vast majority of new cases (60 %). Some discrepancies were noted between country patterns and the EU-27 average. Young people aged 15–29 comprised more than 70 % of newly-diagnosed HIV cases in Estonia, against around 50 % in Bulgaria, Cyprus, Latvia, Romania and Slovakia. The lowest shares were found in Iceland, with young people accounting for 9 % of newly-diagnosed cases.

Taking a closer look at the overall distribution of newly-diagnosed HIV cases among the population aged 15–29 years, the highest number of new cases concerned young people aged between 25 and 29. Conversely, Bulgaria and Estonia counted more young people aged between 20 and 24 newly-diagnosed with HIV. It should be noted that there is a difference between newly-diagnosed cases and newly-infected cases. Newly-diagnosed people may in fact have been infected long before undergoing the HIV test. Furthermore, these data should be interpreted with caution since HIV testing patterns may vary according to country, and young adults aged between 25 and 29 may be more willing to be tested for HIV than their younger counterparts.

Table 3.6: Share of young people newly diagnosed with HIV, by age group, 2006 (%)

	% of newly diagnosed HIV cases among 15-29 on the total of newly diagnosed HIV cases (all known ages)	% of newly diagnosed HIV cases broken down by age group as a percentage of the newly diagnosed cases in the population aged 15-29		
		15-19	20-24	25-29
EU-27	27.8	6.9	32.8	60.3
BE	26.1	3.1	37.8	59.1
BG	55.6	14.0	50.0	36.0
CZ	41.9	0.0	35.9	64.1
DK	20.4	4.3	23.9	71.7
DE	26.4	4.6	32.2	63.2
EE	70.2	15.0	44.4	40.6
IE	29.1	4.1	30.6	65.3
EL	29.6	1.8	31.1	67.1
ES	:	:	:	:
FR	21.7	5.8	30.5	63.7
IT	:	:	:	:
CY	47.1	0.0	50.0	50.0
LV	49.0	9.0	45.5	45.5
LT	36.0	11.1	33.3	55.6
LU	33.9	10.5	36.8	52.6
HU	35.5	0.0	45.5	54.5
MT	:	:	:	:
NL	24.7	5.9	34.4	59.7
AT	:	:	:	:
PL	42.9	4.3	34.8	60.9
PT	24.8	7.9	34.0	58.0
RO	50.0	33.3	26.7	40.0
SI	24.2	0.0	50.0	50.0
SK	51.9	0.0	42.9	57.1
FI	23.6	2.2	37.0	60.9
SE	25.2	6.3	26.3	67.4
UK	27.6	6.8	30.2	63.0
HR	27.3	5.6	27.8	66.7
TR	28.7	6.5	23.4	70.1
IS	9.1	0.0	0.0	100.0
NO	29.5	7.5	25.0	67.5
CH	24.6	4.4	39.3	56.3

Source: Euro HIV

Note: EU-27: estimates.

The most common modes of HIV transmission include heterosexual sex, men who have sex with men (MSM) and injection drug users (IDU). In the EU, 54% of newly-diagnosed cases in 2006 within the age range 15–29 involved heterosexual relations, followed by MSM (35%) and IDU (11%) (see Table 3.7).

However, the situation varies from one country to another: in the Czech Republic, Germany, Greece, Hungary, the Netherlands, Slovenia, Slovakia, Croatia and Iceland, MSM was the most common mode of transmission, while in Bulgaria, Lithuania, Latvia, Poland and Portugal IDU accounted for the majority of transmission cases.

Table 3. 7: Newly-diagnosed HIV cases among 15–29-year-olds, by mode of transmission, 2006 (%)

	Men who have sex with men (MSM)	Injecting Drug User (IDU)	Hemophliacs	Transfusion	Heterosexual	Mother To Child (MTC)	Nosocomial
EU-27	35.0	10.6	0.1	0.4	53.5	0.4	0.0
BE	32.1	0.6	0.0	3.8	63.5	0.0	0.0
BG	6.0	62.0	0.0	0.0	32.0	0.0	0.0
CZ	48.6	8.1	0.0	0.0	43.2	0.0	0.0
DK	46.7	6.7	0.0	0.0	46.7	0.0	0.0
DE	57.3	8.5	0.2	0.0	34.0	0.0	0.0
EE	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
IE	20.5	15.9	0.0	0.0	63.6	0.0	0.0
EL	69.3	3.6	0.0	0.7	26.4	0.0	0.0
ES	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
FR	32.0	3.0	0.0	0.0	64.4	0.7	0.0
IT	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
CY	25.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	75.0	0.0	0.0
LV	5.5	57.8	0.0	0.0	36.7	0.0	0.0
LT	9.4	81.3	0.0	0.0	9.4	0.0	0.0
LU	44.4	11.1	0.0	0.0	44.4	0.0	0.0
HU	82.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	17.6	0.0	0.0
MT	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
NL	50.9	2.6	0.0	0.4	46.1	0.0	0.0
AT	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
PL	10.4	58.4	0.0	0.0	31.2	0.0	0.0
PT	18.4	41.8	0.4	0.2	39.3	0.0	0.0
RO	5.2	1.3	0.0	6.5	87.0	0.0	0.0
SI	85.7	14.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
SK	53.8	7.7	0.0	0.0	38.5	0.0	0.0
FI	34.2	10.5	0.0	0.0	55.3	0.0	0.0
SE	27.4	11.9	0.0	0.0	60.7	0.0	0.0
UK	34.4	2.5	0.1	0.4	61.9	0.7	0.0
HR	83.3	11.1	0.0	0.0	5.6	0.0	0.0
TR	10.8	3.1	0.0	0.0	86.2	0.0	0.0
IS	100.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
NO	32.9	3.8	0.0	0.0	63.3	0.0	0.0
CH	35.2	5.5	0.0	1.4	56.6	0.0	1.4

Source: Euro HIV

Note: the category 'other modes of transmission' is excluded.

European Centre for the Epidemiological Monitoring of AIDS – EuroHIV (HIV/AIDS Surveillance in Europe) has coordinated the surveillance of HIV/AIDS in the WHO European Region (53 countries) since 1984. Its mission is to understand, improve and share European HIV/AIDS surveillance data in order to better inform disease prevention, control and care. Its objectives include making international comparisons, assessing trends, characterising affected populations, predicting disease burden and evaluating surveillance methods.



KICKING THE HABIT: ATTITUDES TOWARD SMOKING, DRINKING AND DRUGS

The main causes of death for people over 45 include cancer and circulatory and respiratory diseases. These can partly be ascribed to bad habits that increase the risk of occurrence. As a result, unhealthy habits and persistent behavioural risks (such as tobacco, alcohol and drug consumption) in young people may affect their future health.

The World Health Organization (WHO) has identified tobacco smoking as a serious cause of premature illness and death in developed countries, as it was responsible for more than 14 % of all deaths in the WHO European Region in 2005⁽⁵⁾.

The combined effects of nicotine (the main drug found in tobacco) and other gases which enter the lungs when smoked, greatly increases the risk of disease and ill-health. Smoking has been identified as a risk factor of lung cancer, heart disease and other major illnesses, and has been identified as dangerous during pregnancy for the mother and the unborn child.

Although the vast majority of smoking-related deaths occur among middle-aged and elderly people, smoking behaviours are very often acquired during adolescence. It is also recognised that secondary or passive smoking can put the health of others at risk. This is one of the reasons why smoking has been so widely banned by law in public areas across EU Member States.

Young daily smokers may acquire the habit and become addicted before reaching adulthood, making them less able to quit this addiction and more likely to suffer from tobacco-related health complications. The longer the onset of smoking

is delayed, the less likely a person is to become addicted. According to estimates, half of all new male adolescent smokers will not kick the habit for at least 16 years, while young women will not give up for at least 20 years⁽⁵⁾.

The total proportion of smokers increases with age and there were, generally speaking, more daily smokers between the ages of 25 and 34 than between the ages of 15 and 24 (see Table 3.8). Sweden reported fairly encouraging figures regarding young smokers, followed by Slovakia: in both countries, less than 20 % of people aged 15–24 and 25–34 were daily smokers (but this proportion was higher among the 45–55 age group).

In contrast, several countries reported higher shares of young daily smokers. For instance, in Austria, 41 % of 15 to 24-year-olds and 44 % of the 25 to 34-year-olds were smoking daily. Bulgaria also counted high shares of smokers (31 % for the population aged 15–24 years and half of the population aged 25–34).

Ireland (and Hungary to a lesser extent) was the only country where the share of smokers decreased with age.

Considering the distribution of young smokers by sex, it can be said that young men are more likely to be daily smokers than young women. Only in Sweden, the United Kingdom and Norway was the share of female smokers aged 15–24 higher than that of their male counterparts. Estonia reported the highest share of young male daily smokers: 47 % of young men aged 15–24 and two-thirds of men aged 25–34 were regular smokers.

⁽⁵⁾ WHO- Europe Health Report, 2005.

Table 3.8: Daily smokers, by sex and age group, 1996-2003 (%)

	Women			Men			Total		
	15-24	25-34	45-55	15-24	25-34	45-55	15-24	25-34	45-55
BE	24.4	24.8	24.4	27.6	32.0	34.5	26.0	28.4	29.4
BG	28.8	43.2	23.2	32.1	58.4	51.0	30.5	50.9	36.7
CZ	15.7	20.5	28.5	31.6	34.6	38.0	23.8	27.7	33.2
DK	26.5	31.1	37.7	32.3	34.4	41.4	29.5	32.7	39.5
DE	29.8	32.3	22.5	40.6	39.4	29.3	35.3	35.9	25.9
EE	19.0	28.7	21.1	47.1	66.2	53.7	33.2	47.3	36.8
IE	28.5	24.8	18.4	29.7	28.2	23.1	29.0	26.2	20.4
EL	16.5	24.9	19.6	33.4	53.3	50.4	24.6	39.2	34.9
ES	31.1	34.1	25.5	34.8	38.7	41.8	33.0	36.4	33.6
FR	24.8	33.2	19.0	31.3	40.8	35.0	28.0	36.8	26.9
IT	17.2	22.0	24.6	28.0	40.4	37.1	22.7	31.3	30.7
CY	10.3	12.3	13.7	38.0	44.9	43.1	24.6	28.0	28.0
LV	18.0	22.3	19.7	41.7	57.1	55.1	30.0	39.8	36.1
LT	14.7	15.3	12.1	37.9	49.7	47.6	25.5	30.9	28.7
LU	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
HU	31.2	33.9	30.1	45.5	41.7	40.1	38.6	37.8	35.0
MT	24.2	25.0	18.0	28.9	34.7	35.8	26.4	29.8	26.7
NL	26.7	23.6	31.4	30.4	37.0	36.4	28.6	30.4	33.9
AT	37.0	39.6	34.0	44.7	47.5	41.5	40.9	43.6	37.8
PL	10.2	29.1	26.4	23.4	50.9	50.5	16.8	40.0	38.2
PT	10.6	19.7	6.1	25.9	47.1	31.6	18.8	33.4	18.1
RO	8.8	17.6	9.5	18.8	43.4	40.7	13.9	30.7	24.8
SI	23.0	34.8	28.2	33.7	38.6	53.8	28.8	36.7	39.8
SK	13.3	9.5	10.5	23.1	28.5	33.8	17.7	18.2	21.9
FI	20.6	21.2	19.6	23.4	31.7	25.5	21.9	25.9	22.3
SE	17.2	16.4	24.3	10.5	13.1	24.1	13.7	14.7	24.2
UK	35.7	33.6	23.2	31.5	36.4	27.1	33.7	34.9	25.2
IS	21.4	25.7	25.7	27.1	28.3	28.0	23.9	27.0	26.9
NO	27.2	25.3	37.5	24.3	28.5	36.8	25.7	27.0	37.1
CH	29.7	27.2	26.2	35.7	39.4	38.4	32.8	33.2	32.3

Source: Eurostat, Health Interview Surveys (data 1996–2003, depending on the country)

Note: FR, IT and UK: data refer to daily and occasional smokers.



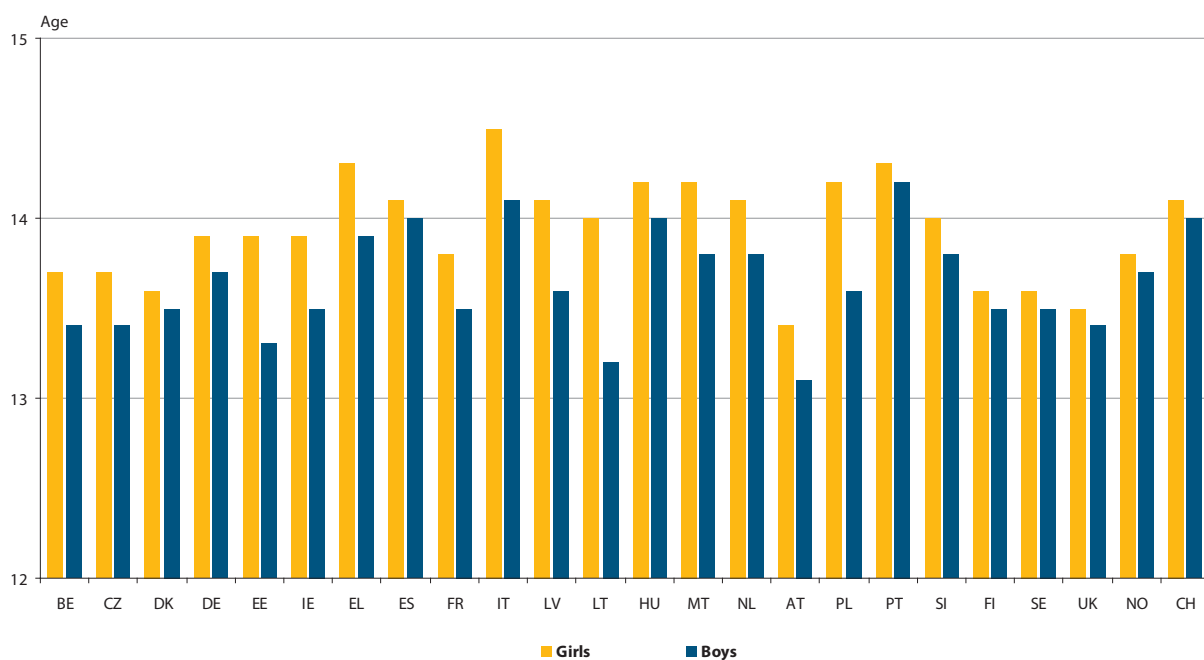
For adolescents, alcohol consumption can be one of the desired privileges of adulthood, as it can give some young people the impression of appearing older. They may see it as a means of being more autonomous and achieving independence from parents or guardians. Alcohol may also facilitate interaction and making new friends, increase perceived popularity or influence young people's image among their peers.

According to the WHO survey, most young Europeans have their first spell of drunkenness between the ages of 13 and 14

in all countries for which data are available (see Figure 3.4). It should also be noted that girls tend to have their first hangover at a marginally later age than boys.

According to this survey, the earliest episodes of drunkenness were recorded in Austria (for both girls and boys), while in Mediterranean countries, such as Greece, Spain, Italy and Portugal this age was slightly higher. However, these observations relate to the first episode of drunkenness, which depends also on the type of alcohol consumed (beer, wine, strong alcohols, etc.).

Figure 3.4: Average age of first episode of drunkenness, 2002



Source: WHO, *Young people's health in context 2001–2002*

In all countries under review by the ESPAD report, more than 70% of young Europeans aged 15–16 years have consumed alcohol over the past 12 months (see Table 3.9). Denmark (94%) and the Czech Republic (93%) registered the highest shares, closely followed by Austria (92%) and Germany (91%) but with a limited geographical coverage).

Conversely, the lowest shares of youths having consumed alcohol over the past 12 months were found in Romania (74%), Sweden (71%) as well as in Norway (66%) and Iceland (56%).

In the majority of countries, more than 40% (but usually less than half) of young Europeans aged between 15 and 16 years declared that they had been drunk at least once in the past 12 months. In Denmark, Austria and the United Kingdom more than half of 15 to 16-year-olds reported having been drunk at least once in the past 12 months.

In contrast, the lowest shares of inebriation among young people were noted in Cyprus, Greece, Romania, Portugal, Italy and Belgium.

European School Survey on Alcohol and Other Drugs (ESPAD)

In the 1980s, the group of experts in epidemiology of drug problems of the Pompidou Group at the Council of Europe commissioned a team of investigators to develop a standardised school survey questionnaire. The purpose was to produce a standard survey instrument which would allow different countries to compare alcohol and drug use in student populations in different countries.

A main goal of the ESPAD project is to collect comparable data on alcohol, tobacco and drug use among students aged between 15 and 16 in as many European countries as possible. The most important goal in the long run is to monitor trends in alcohol and drug habits among students in Europe and to compare trends between countries and between groups of countries.

Table 3.9: Consumption of alcohol and episodes of drunkenness among the population aged 15–16, 2007 (%)

	Consumption of any alcohol in the last 12 months	People drunk in the last 12 months
BE	83	29
BG	83	45
CZ	93	48
DK	94	73
DE	91	50
EE	87	42
IE	78	47
EL	87	26
ES	77	46
FR	81	36
IT	81	27
CY	79	18
LV	89	45
LT	87	43
LU	:	:
HU	84	42
MT	87	38
NL	84	36
AT	92	56
PL	78	31
PT	79	26
RO	74	26
SI	87	43
SK	88	50
FI	77	45
SE	71	37
UK	88	57
HR	84	43
IS	56	:
NO	66	40
CH	85	41

Source: ESPAD, The 2007 ESPAD report, *Substance Use among Students in 35 European Countries*

Note: DK, ES: limited comparability; BE: Flanders, DE: 7 Bundesländer.



In 2005, cannabis was the most popular drug among young people aged 15–34, especially in the Czech Republic, Spain, France, Italy and the United Kingdom, where more than 16% of young persons admitted taking this drug. Cocaine consumption was fairly high in Spain and the United Kingdom (5%), but well behind cannabis consumption.

The consumption of ecstasy was also high in the Czech Republic (8%) and the United Kingdom (4%).

Bulgaria, Greece, Cyprus and Malta recorded the lowest levels of drug consumption by young people in Europe.

Table 3.10: Drug use among young people (15–34 years old), by drug type, 2005 (%)

	Year	Age group	%				
			Cannabis	Cocaine	Amphetamines	Ecstasy	LSD
BE	2004	15-34	11.3	:	:	:	:
BG	2005	18-34	3.5	0.7	0.9	1.1	0.4
CZ	2004	18-34	19.3	0.4	1.5	7.7	0.8
DK	2005	16-34	12.5	2.9	2.2	0.9	0.2
DE	2003	18-34	14.6	1.7	2.2	1.9	0.5
EE	2003	15-34	10.1	1.2	2.9	3.7	0.8
IE	2002-03	15-34	8.6	2.0	0.8	2.3	0.2
EL	2004	15-34	3.2	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.2
ES	2005-06	15-34	20.3	5.2	2.1	2.5	:
FR	2005	15-34	16.7	1.2	0.2	1.0	0.2
IT	2005	15-34	16.5	3.2	0.6	0.7	0.9
CY	2006	15-34	3.4	0.7	0.3	1.3	0.5
LV	2003	15-34	8.1	0.4	2.4	1.9	1.0
LT	2004	15-34	4.6	0.6	0.7	0.9	0.2
LU	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
HU	2003	18-34	7.7	0.7	1.9	2.6	0.8
MT	2001	18-34	1.9	:	:	:	:
NL	2005	15-34	9.5	1.0	0.7	2.7	0.1
AT	2004	15-34	12.1	1.6	1.5	1.7	0.4
PL	2002	16-34	6.3	1.3	1.6	0.5	1.0
PT	2001	15-34	6.3	0.6	0.1	0.8	0.2
RO	2004	15-34	:	:	:	:	:
SI	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
SK	2004	15-34	8.8	0.9	0.5	2.4	:
FI	2004	15-34	6.8	0.7	1.3	1.5	0.3
SE	2006	16-34	5.0	:	:	:	:
UK	2004	16-34	19.0	4.7	2.9	4.1	0.5
NO	2004	15-34	9.6	1.8	2.0	1.2	0.4

Source: EMCDDA

European Monitoring Centre for Drugs and Drug Addiction (EMCDDA)

The European Monitoring Centre for Drugs and Drug Addiction (EMCDDA) located in Lisbon was founded in 1993. It is the hub of drug-related information in the European Union. It provides the EU and its Member States with a factual overview of European drug problems and a common information framework to support the drugs debate. Today it offers policy-makers the scientific evidence base they need for drawing up drug laws and strategies and helps professionals and researchers pinpoint best practice and new areas for analysis.

A special Eurobarometer survey was carried out in 2004 to investigate the opinion of young people aged 15–24 on drugs. According to the results of this survey, getting hold of drugs does not appear to be difficult for young Europeans (see Table 3.11). This easy availability mainly concerns places where people go out in the evening. In 2004, 79% of young respondents agreed that drugs were easily available at parties, and 76% agreed that drugs could be obtained easily in pubs or nightclubs. This share dropped to 63% for the ease of buying drugs near their home and to 57% at or near school.

As stated by European youths in the Eurobarometer survey, parties and clubs seem to be the most convenient place to purchase drugs. For 92% of young Spaniards interviewed, parties are the easiest place for getting drugs. In Belgium, Greece, Italy, the Netherlands and Portugal young people

consider drugs are more readily available in pubs and clubs.

In Ireland, 78% of respondents feel that they have easy access to drugs close to where they live. This contrasts with Austria, Finland and Sweden, where buying drugs near the home is not deemed to be easy.

Drug dealing also seems to be rife in schools and colleges. In two thirds of the countries for which data are available, more than half of young respondents considered that getting drug near or at school and college is easy.

According to these results, it appears that young people generally think that it is not very difficult to get hold of drugs. Drug consumption seems to be less a matter of access, but of will and motivation.

Table 3.11: Share of respondents aged 15–24 years who agree that drugs are easily available, by place of acquisition, 2004 (%)

	Parties	Pubs/Clubs	Near where you live	School/ colleges
EU-15	79	76	63	57
BE	83	88	55	60
BG	:	:	:	:
CZ	:	:	:	:
DK	78	68	68	48
DE	74	69	59	54
EE	:	:	:	:
IE	86	82	78	59
EL	81	87	60	62
ES	92	90	75	66
FR	86	69	71	68
IT	77	88	63	65
CY	:	:	:	:
LV	:	:	:	:
LT	:	:	:	:
LU	74	70	66	63
HU	:	:	:	:
MT	:	:	:	:
NL	66	69	61	39
AT	66	60	42	32
PL	:	:	:	:
PT	85	86	60	61
RO	:	:	:	:
SI	:	:	:	:
SK	:	:	:	:
FI	49	43	39	25
SE	60	53	43	39
UK	79	77	65	51

Source: Flash Eurobarometer, No 158 *Young people and drugs*, 2004⁽⁶⁾

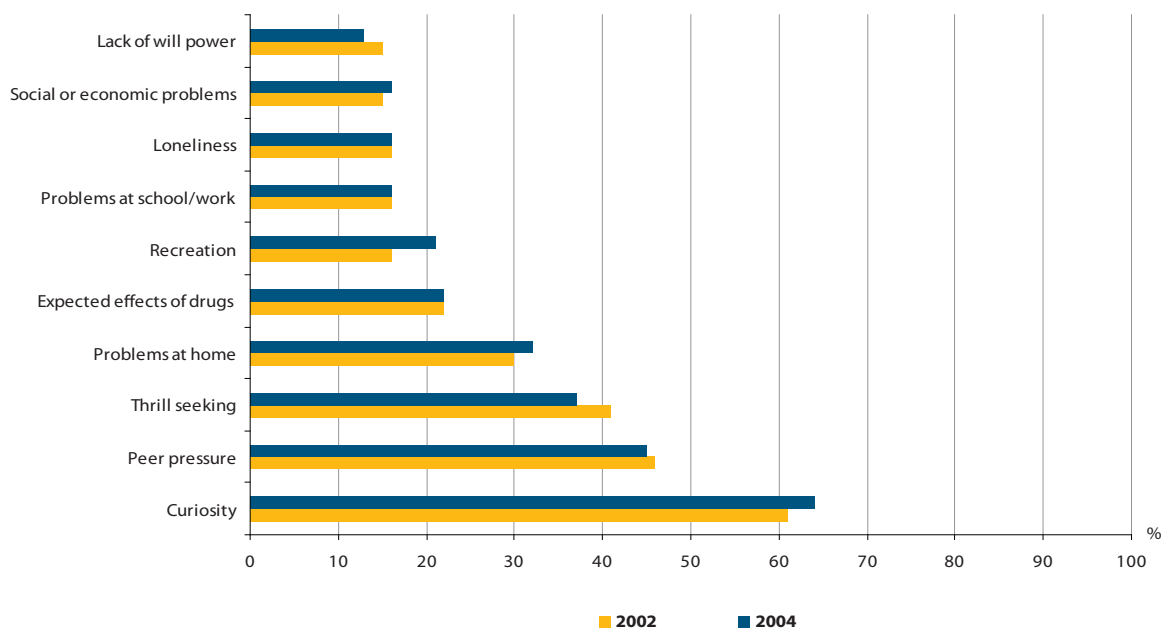
⁽⁶⁾ Eurobarometer question: Please tell me if you tend to agree or tend to disagree with the following statements: 'It is easy to get drugs in/near...'



In 2004, according to the Eurobarometer survey, more than 60% of young people considered that curiosity remains the main reason for trying drugs, a little more than 45% invoked peer pressure and nearly 40% thrill seeking (see Figure 3.5). About one third of respondents considered that young people try drugs on account of problems at home.

Loneliness, together with social or economic problems and problems at school or work were given as a reason for trying drugs by around 15% of young Europeans respondents.

Figure 3.5: Perception of reasons why young people aged between 15 and 24 try drugs, EU-15, 2002 and 2004 (%)



Source: Flash Eurobarometer, No 158 *Young people and drugs*, 2004⁽⁷⁾

⁽⁷⁾ Eurobarometer question: 'In your opinion, what are the main reasons why people experiment with drugs? Please choose the three that come closest to your own opinion.'

Education



In Europe, the extension of schooling is a long-term phenomenon as the rapid economic growth between 1950 and 1975 increased the demand for a qualified labour force. More recently, higher unemployment rates and increasing competition on the labour market have stressed the need to improve the level of education of the population overall.

The gradual shift towards the knowledge-based economy (i.e. ever-evolving technologies and increasing internationalisation) requires people to be able to renew their skills continuously so as to secure employment rather than jobs and to participate fully in Europe's changing society.

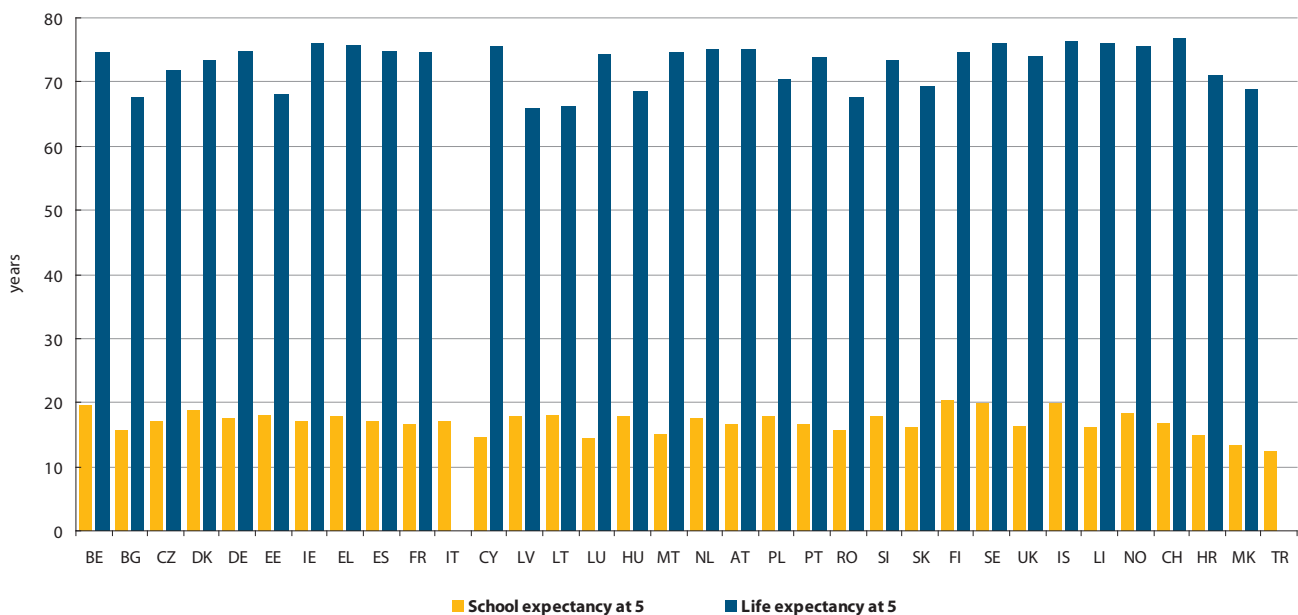
DOES LIVING LONGER LEAD TO HIGHER SCHOOL EXPECTANCY?

Past decades have shown a continuous increase in life expectancy in Europe. This affects the general organisation of life and especially the length of the main stages of life: education, working life and retirement are thus supposed to be longer than in the past.

Comparing school expectancy and life expectancy provides a broad approximation of the time people spend in initial schooling during their lifetime (see Figure 4.1). Three groups of countries emerge. In the first group (Cyprus, Luxembourg

and the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia), people usually spend less than one fifth of their life in the school system (but school expectancy is underestimated in Cyprus and Luxembourg since many of their students study abroad). By contrast, in Belgium, Hungary and Poland as well as in Nordic and Baltic countries, five-year-old children can expect to spend more than a quarter of the rest of their expected lifetime at school and university. The remaining countries stand between these two extremes.

Figure 4.1: School expectancy of pupils and students (ISCED 0–6) and life expectancy at the age of 5, 2006



Source: Eurostat, UOE data collection
Note: UK: life expectancy at 5: 2005

School expectancy: school expectancy is calculated by adding the net educational enrolment rates for each single year of age and age band. The net enrolment rates are calculated by dividing the number of students (ISCED 0 to 6) of a particular age or age group by the number of persons in the population in the same age or age band.

Source: Eurostat, UOE

In most European countries, school life spans from around 14 years in Cyprus and Luxembourg to a little more than 20

years in Finland. In Croatia and Turkey, school expectancy is 13.3 and 12.5 years respectively.



School expectancy depends of various factors that structure each education system: the length of compulsory schooling, pre-primary education access and patterns, the different types of provision (vocational or general) in upper-secondary education and the way pupils are oriented towards them, the type of admission and the variety of provision in tertiary education. Beyond compulsory education, school expectancy is also affected, among other factors (e.g. socioeconomic conditions) by the fact that parents and pupils often balance

their investment in education against the prospect of higher future earnings and protection against unemployment.

Nonetheless, this approximation only considers the time spent in formal education. The development of lifelong learning opportunities reinforces the need to consider the time spent in non-formal education and informal learning in order to evaluate the total time devoted to education in a lifetime.

PREPARING FOR THE FUTURE RATHER THAN FULFILLING A LEGAL OBLIGATION

In most European countries, compulsory schooling ends between the ages 14 and 17 years, which corresponds in general to the end of lower-secondary education (see Table 1.1). Nowadays it is by no means exceptional to remain in education after the end of compulsory schooling (see Table 4.1). From this age onwards, young Europeans may choose

whether to continue their education or to become economically active. Most young people choose to continue their studies beyond compulsory education, but many of them do not take a clear-cut decision and opt for a transitional phase during which they try to conciliate studies and work.

Table 4.1: Students participation at the end of the compulsory education age (X, X+1 and X+2) as a percentage of the population concerned, 2006

	X	X+1	X+2
BE	99.8	99.8	98.9
BG	85.9	81.4	75.6
CZ	100.0	100.0	96.1
DK	90.7	84.0	80.0
DE	96.9	92.2	85.6
EE	96.5	93.0	80.2
IE	97.2	88.5	89.5
EL	92.7	101.8	87.1
ES	93.1	82.9	70.0
FR	96.6	92.0	78.8
IT	88.8	83.1	79.4
CY	99.1	95.7	80.1
LV	96.5	94.5	86.2
LT	99.5	96.4	93.1
LU	84.2	77.1	70.1
HU	82.2	69.6	58.0
MT	79.3	63.9	42.8
NL	81.9	72.5	62.5
AT	96.5	93.7	93.0
PL	97.4	95.5	93.6
PT	91.2	82.0	73.2
RO	83.6	73.0	62.7
SI	98.3	97.3	95.9
SK	94.8	90.6	82.4
FI	96.4	95.7	94.0
SE	99.3	97.7	94.6
UK	85.9	71.7	47.6
HR	96.0	95.4	86.3
MK	98.1	81.6	75.5
TR	67.1	63.4	59.2
IS	94.5	83.6	73.4
LI	92.6	95.7	94.4
NO	94.4	92.1	86.1
CH	98.6	92.1	88.3

Source: Eurostat, UOE data collection

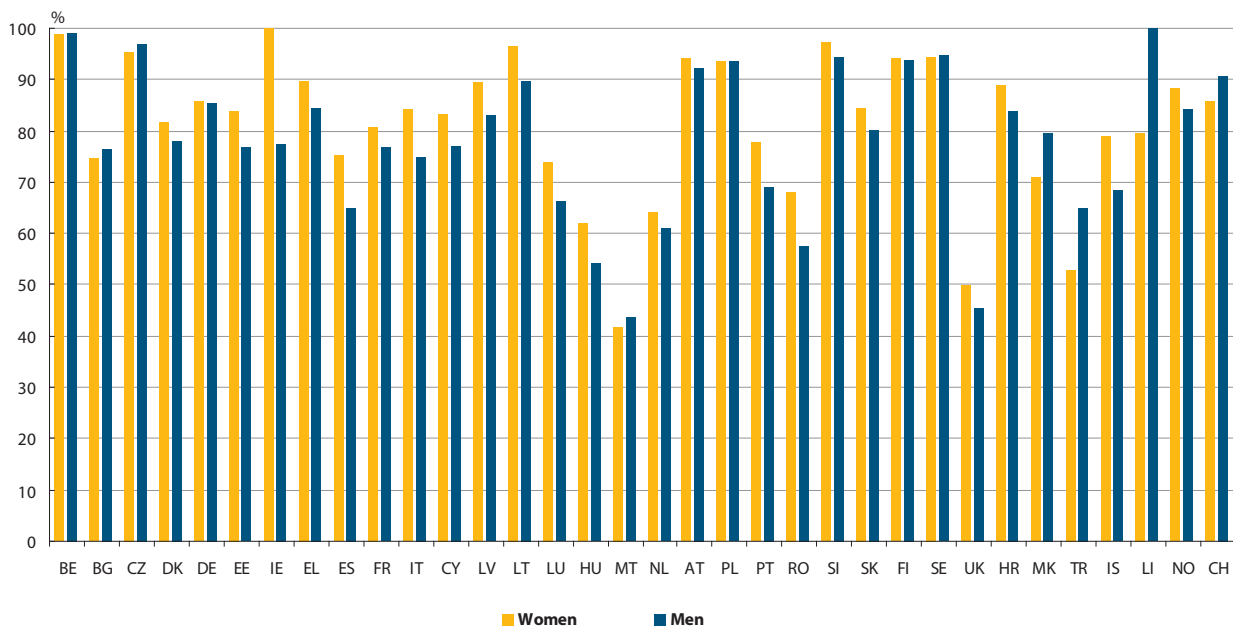
Note: (X) is the upper age of compulsory education (which varies across countries — please see Table 1.1).

In all countries, participation rates tend to decline after the end of compulsory schooling. However, in 2006, in the great majority of European countries, over 80 % of the population remained at school at least one year after the theoretical age at which compulsory schooling ends. To varying degrees, Malta and Turkey are exceptions, as just over 60 % of the population remained in education one year after the end of compulsory schooling. Participation rates in education tended to decline more perceptibly in the second year after the end of

compulsory education, but remained above 70 % in most countries. By contrast, in Malta and the United Kingdom less than 50 % of young people remained in education two years after the end of compulsory education.

Young women tend to remain in education longer than their male counterparts. In most countries, school participation rates two years after the end of compulsory education were higher among women than among men (see Figure 4.2).

Figure 4.2: Students participation (all ISCED levels) at the end of the compulsory education age (X+2) as a percentage of the population concerned, by sex, 2005/06



Source: Eurostat, UOE data collection

Differences between women and men in terms of school participation at the end of compulsory education were remarkable in Ireland, Romania and Iceland: in these countries female participation rates exceeded those of men by more than 10 percentage points. In contrast, male participation rates were higher than those of their

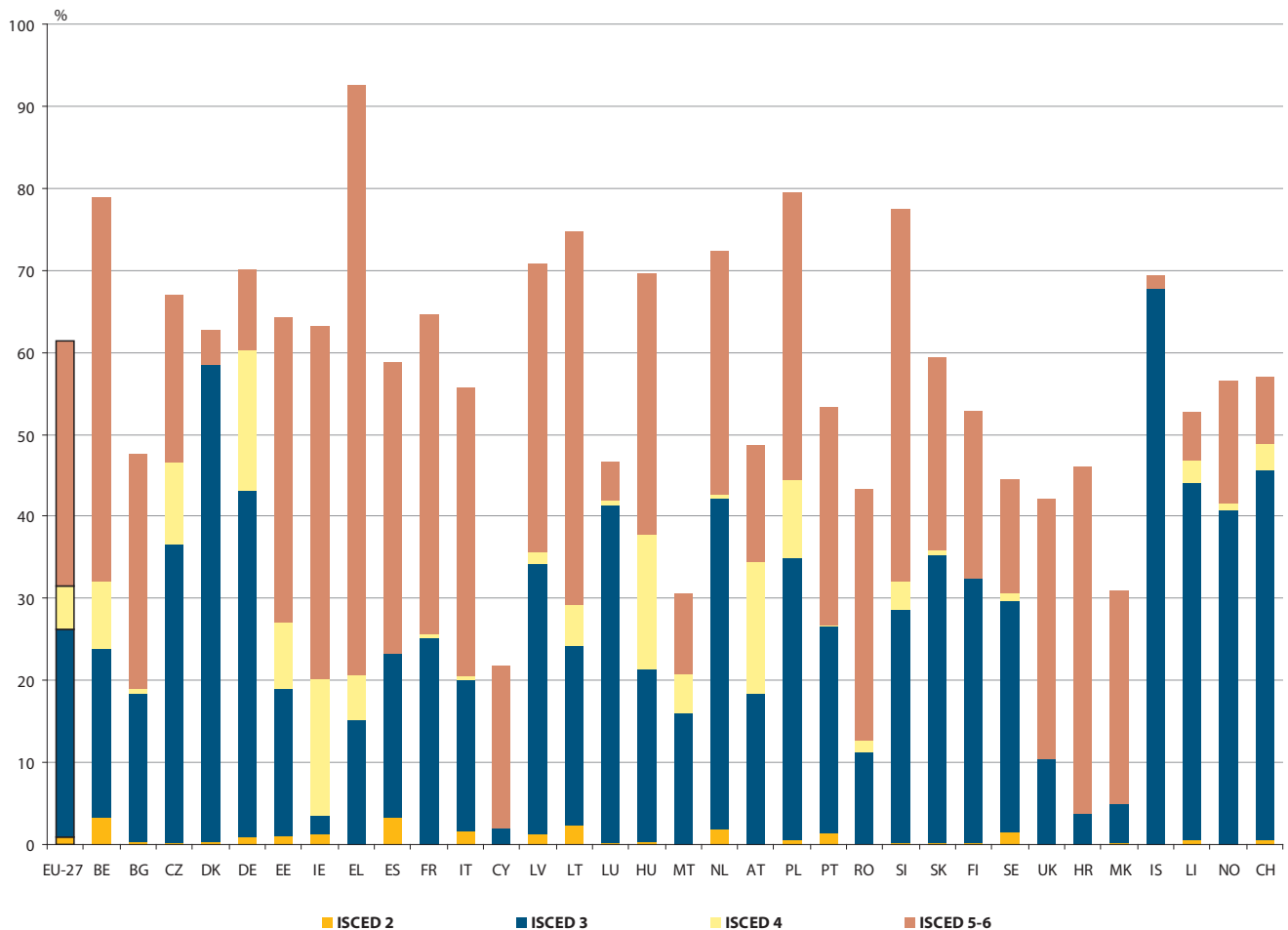
counterparts in Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Malta, Sweden, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Turkey, Switzerland and Liechtenstein. Participation rates for male and female students two years after the end of compulsory education were very similar in Poland and Finland.



At the age of 19, more than 60% of young Europeans were still in formal education, although at different levels because of differences between education systems (see Figure 4.3). However, in Bulgaria, Austria, Romania, Sweden, the United Kingdom and Croatia, more than half of young people aged 19 were no longer in formal education.

This share reached 70% in the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia. In these countries, the transition to the labour market has already started for a majority of young people. In Cyprus, Malta and Luxembourg, many young people choose to pursue their studies abroad.

Figure 4.3: Participation rate in education of young people aged 19 years, by ISCED level, 2005/06 (%)



Source: Eurostat, UOE data collection

Overall, young people aged 19 and who were still in formal education were either still in upper-secondary education (ISCED level 3), in post-secondary non-tertiary education (ISCED level 4) or in tertiary education (ISCED level 5–6). In Denmark, Germany, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway and Switzerland, more than 40% of young people were still in upper-secondary education at 19 years of age. However, country comparisons on this issue should be made with caution since national education systems differ considerably: in all these countries except the Netherlands, upper-secondary education ends in theory at the

age of 19 or even 20.

In Belgium, the Baltic States, Ireland, Greece, Spain, France, Italy, Poland, Slovenia and Croatia more than one third of 19-year-olds were already in tertiary education.

A comparatively low share of 19-year-olds attended post-secondary non-tertiary education (ISCED level 4), reaching 10% or more only in the Czech Republic, Germany, Ireland, Hungary and Austria, where the provision of this type of education is more developed.

The International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) is an instrument suitable for assembling, compiling and presenting comparable statistics and indicators on education. It presents standard concepts, definitions and classifications and covers all organised and sustained learning opportunities for children, youth and adults including those with special needs education, irrespective of the institution or entity providing them or the form in which they are delivered.

LEVEL 0 — Pre-primary education: programmes at level 0, (pre-primary) defined as the initial stage of organized instruction are designed primarily to introduce very young children to a school-type environment, i.e. to provide a bridge between the home and a school-based atmosphere. Upon completion of these programmes, children continue their education at level 1 (primary education).

LEVEL 1 — Primary education or first stage of basic education: programmes at level 1 are normally designed on a unit or project basis to give students a sound basic education in reading, writing and mathematics along with an elementary understanding of other subjects such as history, geography, natural science, social science, art and music. In some cases religious instruction is featured.

LEVEL 2 — Lower-secondary or second stage of basic education: the contents of education at this stage are typically designed to complete the provision of basic education which began at ISCED level 1. In many, if not most countries, the educational aim is to lay the foundation for lifelong learning and human development on which countries may expand, systematically, further educational opportunities. The programmes at this level are usually on a more subject-oriented pattern using more specialized teachers and more often several teachers conducting classes in their field of specialization. The end of this level often coincides with the end of compulsory education where it exists.

LEVEL 3 — Upper-secondary education: this level of education typically begins at the end of full-time compulsory education for those countries that have a system of compulsory education. More specialization may be observed at this level than at ISCED level 2 and often teachers need to be more qualified or specialized than for ISCED level 2. The entrance age to this level is typically 15 or 16 years. The educational programmes included at this level typically require the completion of some nine years of full-time education (since the beginning of level 1) for admission or a combination of education and vocational or technical experience with, as minimum entrance requirements, the completion of level 2 or demonstrable ability to handle programmes at this level.

LEVEL 4 — Post-secondary non-tertiary education: ISCED level 4 captures programmes that straddle the boundary between upper-secondary and post-secondary education from an international point of view, even though they might clearly be considered as upper-secondary or post-secondary programmes in a national context. ISCED 4 programmes can, considering their content, not be regarded as tertiary programmes. They are often not significantly more advanced than programmes at ISCED 3 but they serve to broaden the knowledge of participants who have already completed a programme at level 3.

LEVEL 5 — First stage of tertiary education (not leading directly to an advanced research qualification): this level consists of tertiary programmes having an educational content more advanced than those offered at levels 3 and 4. Entry to these programmes normally requires the successful completion of ISCED level 3A or 3B or a similar qualification at ISCED level 4A. All degrees and qualifications are cross-classified by type of programmes, position in national degree or qualification structures (see below) and cumulative duration at tertiary. There is a distinction between the programmes which are theoretically based/research preparatory (history, philosophy, mathematics, etc.) or giving access to professions with high skills requirements (e.g. medicine, dentistry, architecture, etc.), and those programmes which are practical/technical/occupationally specific. The first type is called 5A, the second, 5B.

LEVEL 6 — Second stage of tertiary education (leading to an advanced research qualification): this level is reserved for tertiary programmes which lead to the award of an advanced research qualification. The programmes are therefore devoted to advanced study and original research and are not based on course-work only.

Source: International Standard Classification of Education ISCED 1997, UNESCO

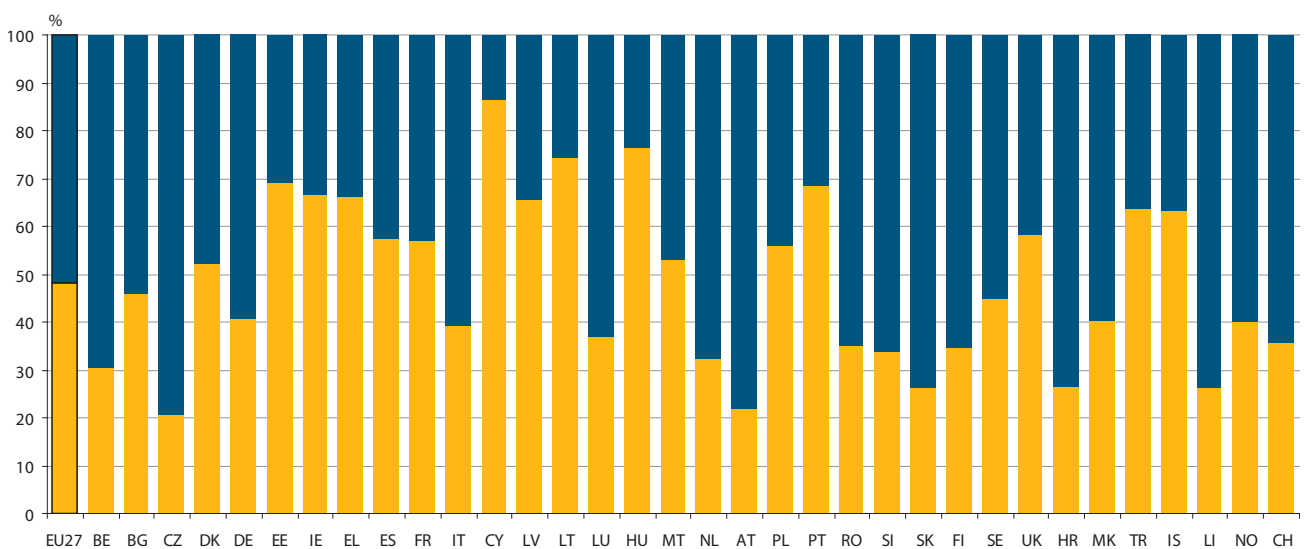


MORE BOYS THAN GIRLS ARE IN VOCATIONAL PROGRAMMES

Further participation in higher education can depend on the programme orientation (general or vocational) of upper-secondary education. At EU level, just over half of pupils in upper-secondary education attended vocational programmes which place more emphasis on preparing students to enter into the labour market (see Figure 4.4). In 2006, this

proportion was especially high (more than 70%) in the Czech Republic, Austria, Slovakia, Croatia and Liechtenstein. By contrast, in the Baltic States, Ireland, Greece, Hungary, Portugal, Turkey and Iceland, more than 60% of students followed general programmes. In Cyprus, this was the case for more than 80% of upper-secondary students.

Figure 4.4: Students in upper-secondary education (ISCED level 3) by programme orientation (general or vocational), 2005/06 (%)



Source: Eurostat, UOE data collection

Note: 'vocational programme' includes 'pre-vocational programmes'.

The ISCED classification defines general and vocational education as follows:

General education: education which is mainly designed to lead participants to a deeper understanding of a subject or group of subjects, especially, but not necessarily, with a view to preparing participants for further (additional) education at the same or a higher level. Successful completion of these programmes may or may not provide the participants with a labour-market relevant qualification at this level. These programmes are typically school-based.

Vocational or technical education: education which is mainly designed to lead participants to acquire the practical skills, know-how and understanding necessary for employment in a particular occupation or trade or class of occupations or trades. Successful completion of such programmes lead to a labour-market relevant vocational qualification recognised by the competent authorities in the country in which it is obtained (e.g. Ministry of Education, employers' associations, etc.).

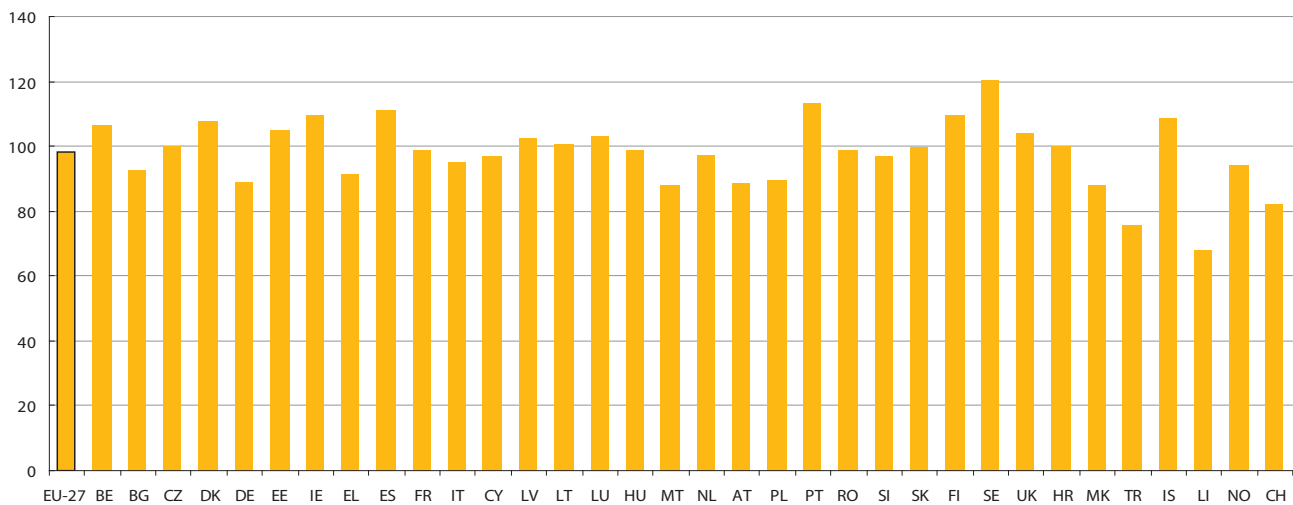
Source: International Standard Classification of Education ISCED 1997, UNESCO

In 2006, the number of boys attending upper-secondary education was quite similar to that of girls. In the EU-27, there were 98 girls for every 100 boys at this level (see Figure 4.5).

Most countries recorded a balanced distribution between boys and girls in terms of upper-secondary education attendance. The number of girls to every hundred boys ranged from 90 in Poland to 111 in Spain. However, there are a few

exceptions: Germany (89), Malta (88), Austria (89), the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (88), Turkey (76), Liechtenstein (69) and Switzerland (82) counted considerably fewer girls than boys in upper-secondary school. Conversely, in most Nordic countries, the Baltic States, Belgium, Ireland, Spain, Luxembourg, Portugal and the United Kingdom, girls outnumbered boys in upper-secondary education.

Figure 4.5: Number of girls for 100 boys in upper-secondary education (ISCED level 3), 2005/06



Source: Eurostat, UOE data collection



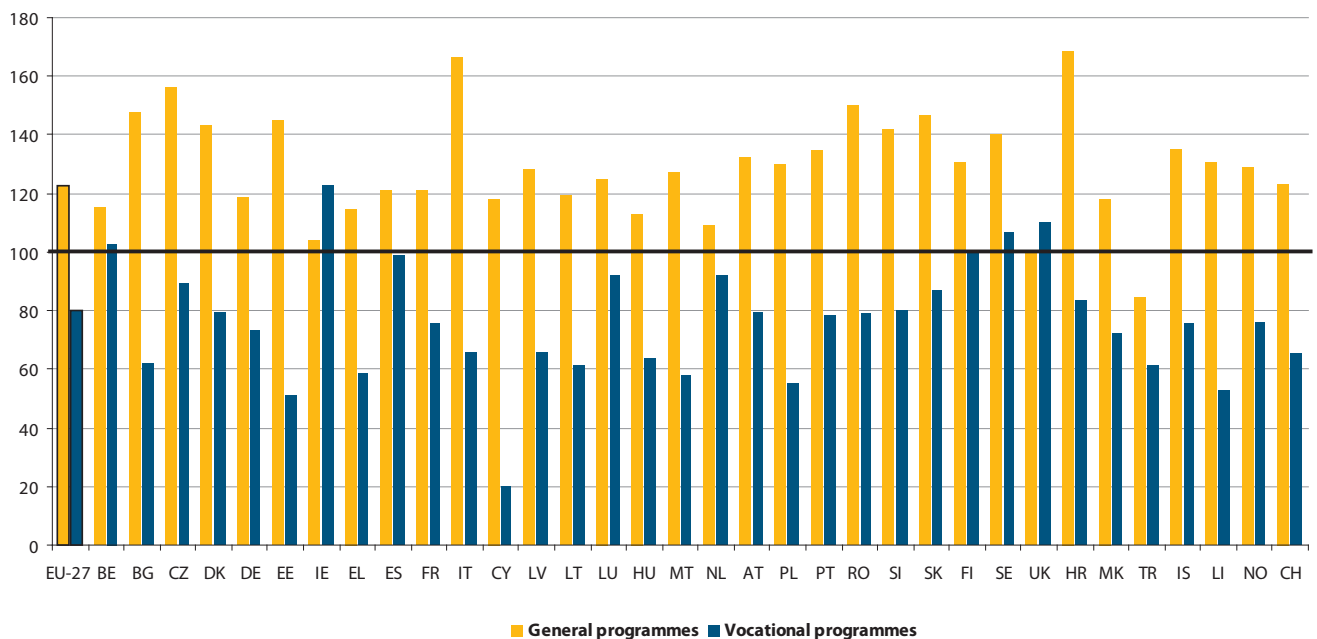
Although in most countries the gender gap in upper-secondary education was low, strong discrepancies emerged when considering attendance by programme orientation (see Figure 4.6). In all European countries (except Turkey), girls outnumber boys in general upper-secondary education, (meaning that they mainly prepare for further education) whereas boys are more focused on preparing access to the labour market.

The reverse is true when considering vocational programmes of the same level, except in Belgium, Ireland, Sweden and the

United Kingdom where girls outnumber boys regardless of the programme orientation.

Nonetheless, the degree of feminisation of vocational programmes varies significantly across countries. Bulgaria, the Baltic States, Greece, Italy, Cyprus, Hungary, Malta, and Poland registered less than 70 girls for every 100 boys in vocational programmes, while in Belgium, Spain and the Netherlands there were more than 90 girls for every 100 boys.

Figure 4.6: Number of girls for 100 boys in upper-secondary education, by programme orientation (general and vocational), 2005/06



Source: Eurostat, UOE data collection

Figure 4.6 compares the male and female population in general and vocational courses. In the EU-27, when considering the population of girls and boys separately (see Table 4.2), it appears that more than 46% of girls in upper-secondary education attended vocational programmes,

whereas this was the case for 57% of boys. In some countries, differences in participation in vocational education between girls and boys were very substantial — for example, this was the case in Bulgaria, Estonia, Italy, Cyprus, Malta and Poland.

Table 4.2: Students in upper-secondary education (ISCED level 3) by sex and programme orientation (general or vocational), 2005/06 (%)

	Women		Men	
	General	Vocational	General	Vocational
EU-27	53.7	46.3	43.0	57.0
BE	31.7	68.3	29.3	70.7
BG	57.0	43.0	35.8	64.2
CZ	25.3	74.7	16.2	83.8
DK	59.3	40.7	44.7	55.3
DE	46.8	53.2	35.1	64.9
EE	79.6	20.4	57.9	42.1
IE	64.8	35.2	68.5	31.5
EL	73.9	26.1	59.0	41.0
ES	59.8	40.2	54.9	45.1
FR	62.7	37.3	51.2	48.8
IT	50.6	49.4	28.9	71.1
CY	95.5	4.5	78.3	21.7
LV	73.0	27.0	58.2	41.8
LT	80.5	19.5	68.0	32.0
LU	40.6	59.4	33.5	66.5
HU	81.5	18.5	71.2	28.8
MT	63.4	36.6	44.0	56.0
NL	34.4	65.6	30.6	69.4
AT	26.7	73.3	17.9	82.1
PL	67.0	33.0	46.1	53.9
PT	74.0	26.0	62.3	37.7
RO	42.4	57.6	27.9	72.1
SI	40.3	59.7	27.5	72.5
SK	31.4	68.6	21.3	78.7
FI	37.5	62.5	31.4	68.6
SE	48.0	52.0	41.2	58.8
UK	57.2	42.8	59.4	40.6
HR	33.1	66.9	19.6	80.4
MK	46.7	53.3	34.8	65.2
TR	67.9	32.1	60.5	39.5
IS	69.7	30.3	56.3	43.7
LI	36.8	63.2	19.1	80.9
NO	46.6	53.4	33.9	66.1
CH	43.8	56.2	29.3	70.7

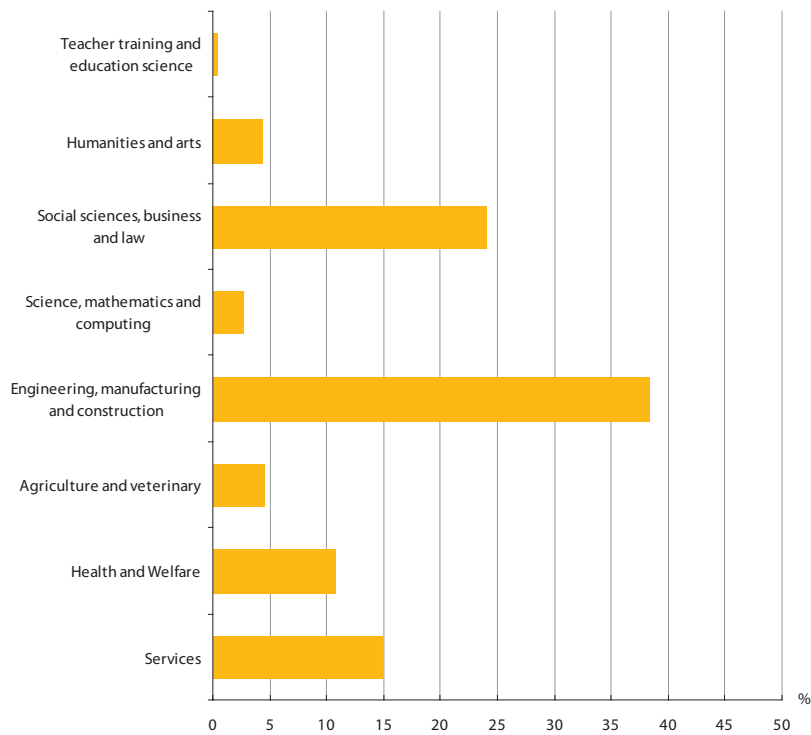
Source: Eurostat, UOE data collection



Young men and women graduating from vocational programmes in upper-secondary education are mainly prepared to work in business and industry. Indeed, at European level, 62 % of graduates in vocational programmes

at this level studied either 'social sciences, business and law' or 'engineering, manufacturing and construction', followed by 'services' (15 %) and 'health and welfare' (11 %) (see Figure 4.7).

Figure 4.7: Graduates from vocational programmes at ISCED levels 3, by field of study, EU-27, 2006 (%)



Source: Eurostat, UOE data collection
Note: EU-27: estimate

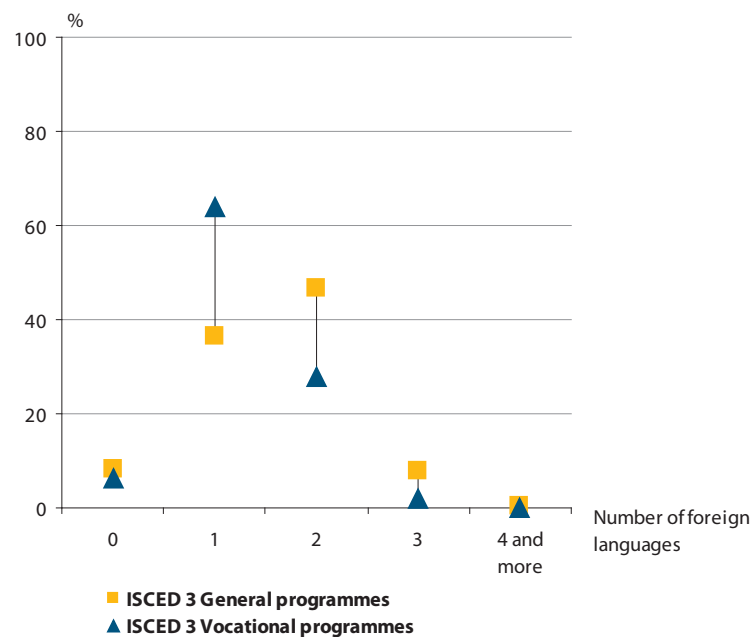
FOREIGN LANGUAGES OPEN DOORS TO THE WORLD, BUT NOT ALL PUPILS HAVE THE SAME NUMBER OF KEYS

General and vocational upper-secondary education have different purposes and their curricula differ in numerous aspects; however, multilingualism (i.e. the ability to use several languages) is a common preoccupation. Indeed, the European Commission's communication entitled *A New Framework Strategy for Multilingualism* states that knowledge of many languages is a 'a source of wealth and a bridge to greater solidarity and mutual understanding' but also that 'the ability to understand and communicate in more than one language — already a daily reality for the majority of people across the globe — is a desirable life-skill for all European citizens. It encourages us to become more open to other people's cultures and outlooks, improves cognitive skills and strengthens learners' mother-tongue skills; it enables people to take advantage of the freedom to work or study in another

Member State.' Learning languages is thus a 'key for the future' which should be given to all pupils both in general and vocational upper-secondary education.

In fact, at EU-27 level, learning languages at school is a reality for most pupils in upper-secondary education regardless of the programme orientation: less than 10 % of pupils were not learning a foreign language (see Figure 4.8) in 2006. Nevertheless, pupils in vocational programmes tended to learn fewer foreign languages than their counterparts in general programmes. Indeed, the majority (64 %) of pupils in vocational programmes were learning one foreign language and a little more than 25 % were learning two foreign languages in 2006. Conversely, in general programmes a majority of pupils were learning at least two foreign languages.

Figure 4.8: Students in upper-secondary education (ISCED level 3) learning foreign languages, by programme orientation (general and vocational), EU-27, 2005/06 (%)



Source: Eurostat, UOE data collection

Note: EU-27: estimate; 'vocational programme' includes 'pre-vocational programmes'.



In most countries, all or nearly all upper-secondary pupils in general programmes were learning at least one foreign language in 2005/2006 ⁽¹⁾ (see Table 4.3). Portugal and the United Kingdom were exceptions, as 40% or more of pupils were not learning a foreign language. With the exception of Ireland, Spain, Portugal and Turkey, the share of pupils who

were not learning a foreign language was higher in vocational programmes than in general programmes. In 2006, more than 20% of pupils in vocational programmes were not learning a foreign language in Belgium, Bulgaria, Greece, Lithuania, Portugal, Turkey and Iceland.

Table 4.3: Students in upper-secondary education (ISCED level 3) learning foreign languages, by programme orientation (general and vocational), 2005/06 (%)

	No foreign languages		One foreign language		Two foreign languages		More than two foreign languages	
	General	Vocational	General	Vocational	General	Vocational	General	Vocational
EU-27	8.4	6.4	36.7	63.8	46.6	27.8	8.4	2.0
BE	0.4	24.4	10.8	25.8	59.9	41.5	28.8	8.3
BG	0.2	30.2	21.4	21.9	77.4	47.5	1.0	0.4
CZ	0.0	4.3	0.0	66.3	96.9	28.6	3.1	0.8
DK	0.1	6.0	0.0	94.0	74.6	0.0	25.3	0.0
DE	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
EE	0.0	0.0	19.1	16.1	34.1	83.9	46.8	0.0
IE	18.7	8.1	72.9	89.0	7.6	2.8	0.8	0.0
EL	1.4	25.2	91.8	73.8	6.9	1.0	0.0	0.0
ES	4.4	0.0	68.2	97.3	27.3	2.7	0.1	0.0
FR	0.0	2.4	10.4	87.4	83.2	10.2	6.4	0.0
IT	1.4	4.4	73.1	57.2	18.5	34.7	7.0	3.8
CY	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
LV	1.1	:	24.7	:	63.7	:	10.0	:
LT	1.6	22.9	42.5	64.2	52.0	12.2	3.9	0.7
LU	0.0	11.7	0.0	25.9	9.1	19.3	90.9	43.1
HU	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
MT	16.7	:	56.7	:	18.5	:	8.1	:
NL	0.0	:	0.0	:	43.7	:	56.3	:
AT	1.5	4.1	22.4	68.5	63.7	25.1	12.4	2.3
PL	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
PT	40.8	27.1	50.1	55.8	9.2	17.1	0.0	0.0
RO	0.0	0.9	8.4	62.0	88.3	37.0	3.3	0.1
SI	1.0	3.1	0.1	59.0	92.5	35.3	6.4	2.6
SK	0.0	0.2	0.7	67.0	97.3	32.5	2.0	0.3
FI	0.0	:	0.3	:	40.1	:	59.6	:
SE	0.0	1.0	7.9	88.6	71.8	9.9	20.3	0.5
UK	47.7	:	46.0	:	6.1	:	0.3	:
HR	0.0	1.9	10.1	76.7	84.1	15.8	5.8	5.6
TR	33.0	27.8	59.3	67.7	7.6	4.5	0.0	0.0
IS	11.4	51.6	21.6	26.8	37.7	17.0	29.2	4.7

Source: Eurostat, UOE data collection

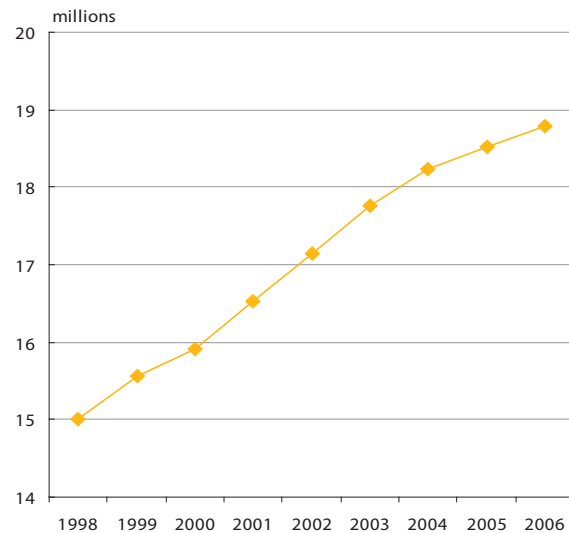
Note: 'vocational programme' includes 'pre-vocational programmes'.

⁽¹⁾ For more information on teaching languages at school please see Eurydice - Eurostat: 'Key data on teaching languages at school in Europe, 2008'

AN INCREASING NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN TERTIARY EDUCATION

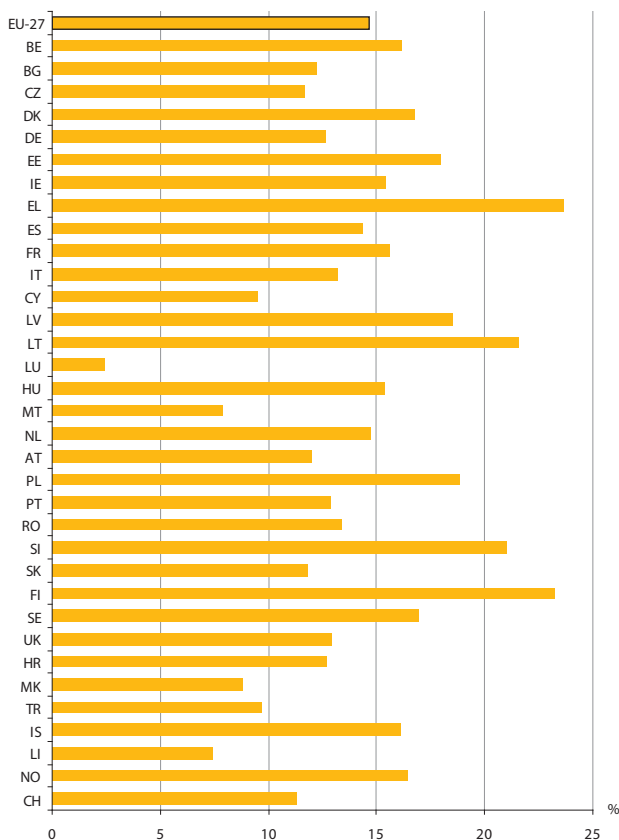
Tertiary education is the final stage of formal education. Education, research and innovation (also known as the 'knowledge triangle') play a key role in facing the challenges of globalisation and the development of a knowledge-based society. By creating new knowledge and transferring it to students, higher education sets the basis for further innovation and contributes to the future prosperity of the European Union. In the 2005/2006 academic year, there were almost 19 million tertiary students in the European Union (see Figure 4.9). In fact, the number of tertiary education students has increased by nearly 25 % between 1998 and 2006.

Figure 4.9: Number of tertiary students, EU-27, 1998-2006 (millions)



Source: Eurostat, UOE

Figure 4.10: Participation rate of the population aged 18-34 in tertiary education (ISCED 5-6), 2005/06 (%)



Source: Eurostat, UOE data collection
Note: LU: many student are studying abroad.

Of course, the total number of tertiary students must be compared to the overall population of the same age group. Figure 4.10 considers the share of tertiary students aged between 18 and 34 in relation to the overall population of the same age.

This increasing number of students (driven by the need for a more highly skilled labour force and individual motivations) and the aim of widening access to higher education (through the development of national provision and growing international mobility) have raised new challenges for higher education systems. Indeed, the growing heterogeneity of the student population requires all stakeholders to combine efficiency and equity^{(2) (3)}.

At EU-27 level, 15 % of the population aged between 18 and 34 attended tertiary education in the academic year 2005/2006, but participation rates differed across countries: nearly half of the countries presented participation rates higher than the EU-27 average. In Greece, Lithuania, Slovenia and Finland, participation rates were above 20 %.

⁽²⁾ 'Efficiency and Equity in European Education and Training Systems: Analytical Report for the European Commission' prepared by the European Expert Network on Economics of Education (EENEE) to accompany the Communication and Staff Working Paper by the European Commission under the same title, 2006.

⁽³⁾ Eurostudent 2005-2008, 'Students and economic conditions of student life in Europe', Final report.

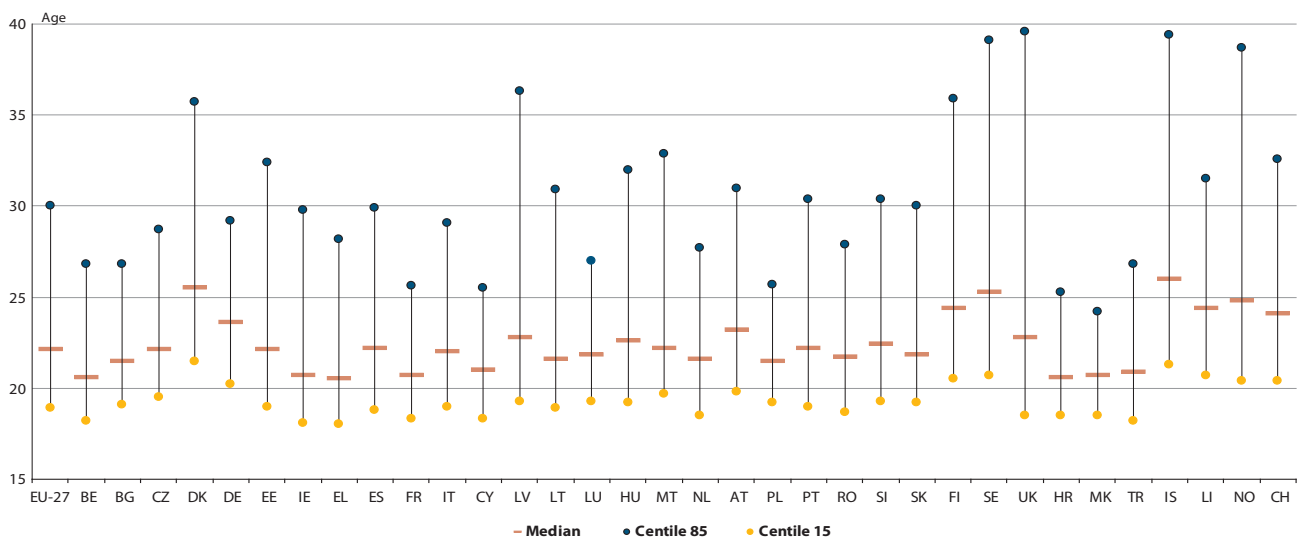


'OLD TERTIARY STUDENTS' ARE GETTING OLDER

Students may rely on three sources of income when they attend tertiary education: financial support from their parents or their family and/or public support schemes and/or income from a job⁽⁴⁾. The distribution by age of full-time students provides an indication on the age at which young people are still in higher education and thus not yet fully economically active. In this respect Figure 4.11 shows strong disparities across European countries, which may be explained by several factors characterising national education systems, such as the theoretical starting age of tertiary education (related to the duration of secondary education), the length of tertiary

education programmes and the types of financial support students can receive from public authorities⁽⁵⁾. Compulsory military or non-military services, as well as public policies aiming to encourage lifelong learning participation at tertiary level, also have an impact on the age of student populations. Finally, the levels of participation in programmes leading to advanced research qualifications also have an impact on the age of student populations. In the EU-27, half of full-time tertiary students were older than 22 years in academic year 2005/06.

Figure 4.11: Distribution by age of full-time students in tertiary education (ISCED 5 and 6), (median age, percentile 15 and percentile 85), 2005/06



Source: Eurostat, UOE data collection

The **median age** is the age that divides the student population in two halves. The age corresponding to percentile 15 of the population is the age that divides students into two groups so that 15% of them are younger than that age and 85% are older. The age corresponding to percentile 85 of the population is the age that divides students into two groups so that 85% of them are younger than that age and 15% are older.

Across Europe, the median age of full-time tertiary students ranges from 21 years in Greece to 26 years in Iceland. The highest median ages were observed in the Nordic countries, Germany, Austria, Liechtenstein and Switzerland: in these

countries half of all students are older than 23. Moreover, in the Nordic countries, Latvia and the United Kingdom, 15% of all full-time students are older than 35.

⁽⁴⁾ Eurostudent 2005–2008, 'Students and economic conditions of student life in Europe', Final report.

⁽⁵⁾ Eurydice - Eurostat 'Key data on higher education', 2007.

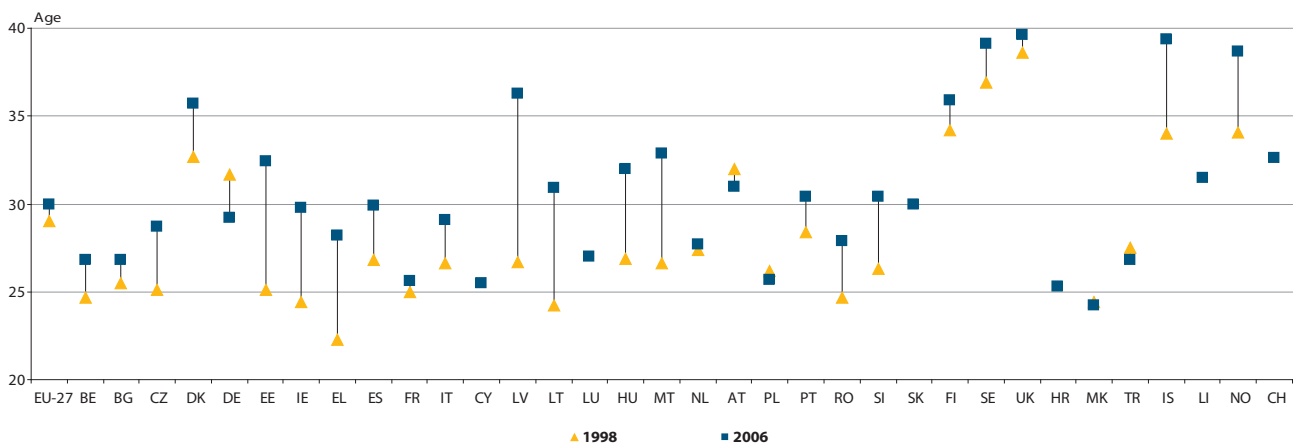
The minimum age of the oldest full-time tertiary students increased by one year between 1998 and 2006 (see Figure 4.12). In 1998, 15% of European full-time students were older than 29 years, whereas 15% of students were older than 30 in 2006.

Most European countries have witnessed an ageing of the full-time tertiary students between 1998 and 2006: the 'old student' population is becoming older. The Baltic States have recorded a very substantial increase in the age of the oldest

students over the period under review, increasing by seven years in Estonia and Lithuania and by almost ten years in Latvia.

Significant but lower increases in the age of older students were also recorded in Ireland, Greece, Hungary, Malta and Iceland, where the lower age limit rose by 5 to 6 years. In Germany, Austria, Poland, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia and Turkey, the minimum age of the oldest students decreased slightly.

Figure 4.12: Minimum age of the oldest full-time students (percentile 85) in tertiary education (ISCED 5 and 6), 1998 and 2006



Source: Eurostat, UOE data collection

Note: CY, LU, SK, HR, LI, CH (1998): data not available; BE, MT, TR: 1999.

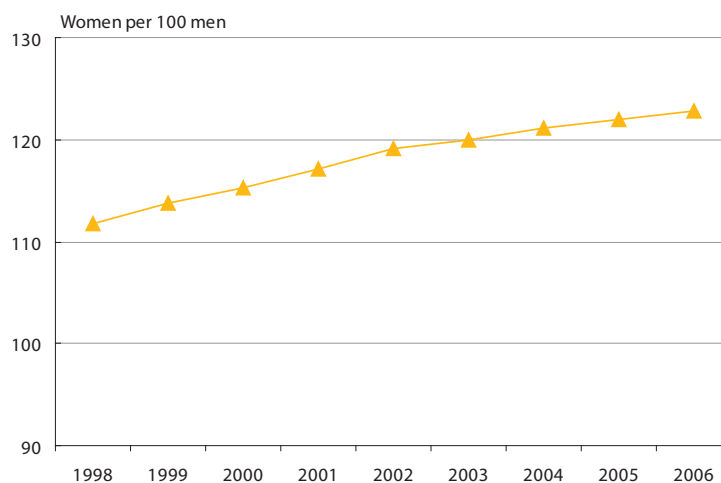


A GENDER GAP BY FIELD OF TERTIARY STUDIES

The gender gap is often seen as men having better situations than women in terms of participation in education, educational attainment, wage and employment characteristics. It should be noted that the situation of women regarding participation in tertiary education has improved to

such an extent that they now outnumber men at this level of education. In 1998, there were nearly 112 women for every 100 men in tertiary education, while this ratio stood at 123 women for 100 men in 2006 (see Figure 4.13).

Figure 4.13: Number of women for 100 men in tertiary education (ISCED 5-6), EU-27, 1998–2006



Source: Eurostat, UOE data collection

Women were far more numerous than men in tertiary education in the Baltic States, Sweden, Norway and Iceland. Greece, Cyprus, Luxembourg and the Netherlands counted a similar number of women and men in higher education and Germany, Turkey and Switzerland were the only countries where men outnumbered women.

Overall, the feminisation of tertiary education is stronger than in upper-secondary education. One reason for this can be the fact that women in upper-secondary education more frequently attend general programmes (preparing them for

tertiary education) than vocational programmes (please refer to Figure 4.6).

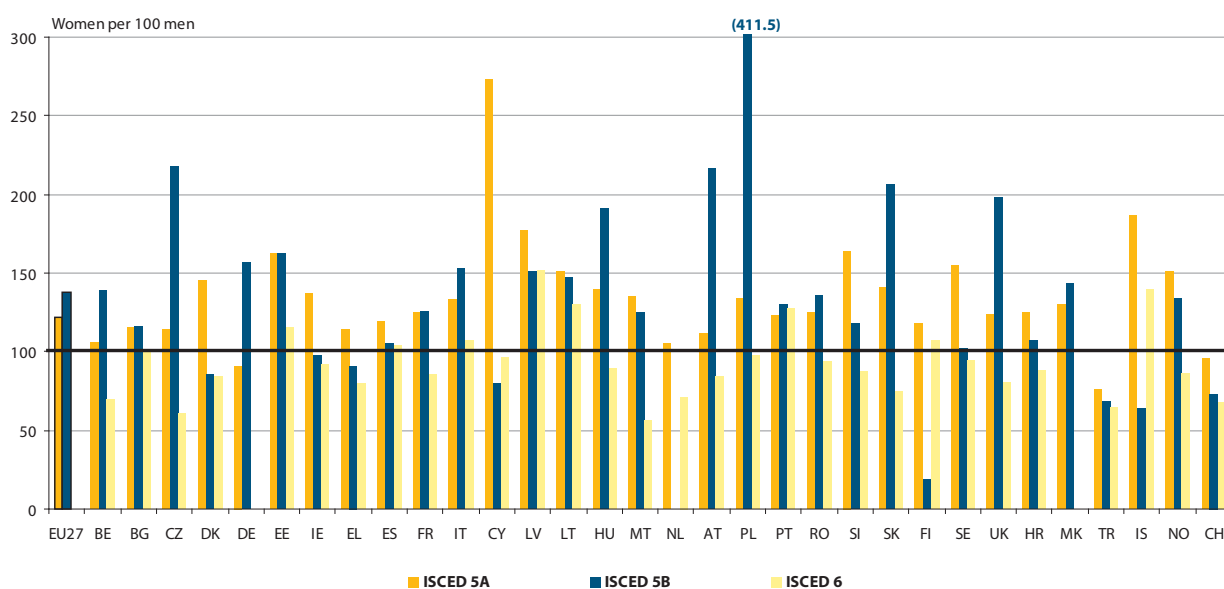
The general picture of tertiary education participation speaking in favour of women must be slightly adjusted when considering participation in the various stages (ISCED level 5 or 6) and various programmes of tertiary education (ISCED level 5A or 5B) (see Figure 4.14). Furthermore, gender preferences in terms of field of study are well established (see Table 4.4).

In 2006, women were usually more numerous than men in the first stage of tertiary education (ISCED level 5). Some countries were exceptions: in Denmark, Ireland, Greece, Cyprus, Finland and Iceland, men outnumbered women at ISCED level 5B, whereas in Germany this was the case at ISCED level 5A. Switzerland and Turkey counted more male students in the first stage of tertiary education.

However, the reverse is usually true in the second stage of tertiary education (ISCED level 6), leading to an advanced research qualification. In more than two thirds of the

countries for which data are available, men outnumbered women in ISCED level 6. Exceptions included some southern countries (such as Bulgaria, Spain, Italy and Portugal), as well as the Baltic States, Finland and Iceland. As a result, 'women's intellectual potential and their contribution to society are thus not being fully capitalised upon' and 'the EU's research capacity will be difficult to sustain and impossible to increase according to the plan without a disproportionate amount of the growth necessarily coming from training and retaining women'⁽⁶⁾.

Figure 4.14: Number of women for 100 men enrolled in tertiary education, by detailed level of education (ISCED 5A, 5B and 6), 2005/06



Source: Eurostat, UOE data collection

Note: EU-27, DE, MK (ISCED 6): data not available.; LU: data not available; LI: ISCED 5B and ISCED 6: data not available.

Field of education and training is defined as the subject matter taught in an educational programme. The rationale of the classification for fields of education and training is the subject content approach. The programmes are put together by closeness in subject matter content. The programmes are aggregated to narrow and broad fields, based on 'knowledge closeness'. It must be emphasised that it is the main subject content of the programme which decides into which field it should be classified.

Education: teacher training and education science.

Humanities and Arts: arts and humanities.

Social sciences, business and law: social and behavioural science, journalism and information, business and administration and law.

Science: life sciences, physical sciences, mathematics and statistics, computing.

Engineering, manufacturing and construction: engineering and engineering trades, manufacturing and processing, architecture and building.

Agriculture: agriculture, forestry and fishery, veterinary.

Health and welfare: health, social services.

Services: personal services, transport services, environmental protection and security services.

Source: Eurostat, UOE Manual

⁽⁶⁾ European Commission, DG RTD: 'She figures: Women and Science statistics and indicators', 2006.



Female students tend to be more present in certain specific fields of study, such as education, humanities and arts, health and welfare (see Table 4.4). Their presence is slightly less pronounced in social sciences, business and law as well as in agriculture and services. By contrast, in sciences, mathematics and computing women usually represent less than 40 % of the total number of students. This pattern is even more pronounced in engineering, manufacturing and construction,

where women usually account for less than one third of students.

This overall pattern is to varying extents reflected across most countries. However, in the 2005/06 academic year, almost half of all students in sciences, mathematics and computing in Bulgaria, Italy and Portugal are women.

Table 4.4: Women among tertiary students (ISCED 5 and 6), by field of study, 2005/06 (%)

	Education	Humanities and arts	Social sciences, business and law	Science, mathematics and computing	Engineering, manufacturing and construction	Agriculture and veterinary	Health and welfare	Services
EU-27	75.3	66.1	58.2	37.2	24.4	49.7	74.2	50.2
BE	73.3	56.1	53.3	31.9	24.2	50.6	72.1	45.0
BG	68.0	62.7	60.3	48.9	31.8	42.9	67.4	46.9
CZ	75.3	64.9	61.1	32.5	24.0	57.0	74.5	47.8
DK	70.9	62.4	50.4	32.6	32.9	52.5	80.4	21.7
DE	68.5	66.3	48.7	34.8	18.2	46.8	73.6	51.2
EE	90.3	75.2	65.5	39.1	27.3	52.9	89.1	51.0
IE	77.9	64.2	56.3	42.3	16.4	44.6	79.3	48.1
EL	:	:	:	:	23.6	:	:	:
ES	78.2	60.8	58.8	34.1	28.0	54.0	76.0	57.1
FR	75.5	68.6	61.4	35.7	23.4	41.0	71.2	40.5
IT	87.3	72.3	57.2	49.7	28.3	45.1	65.6	47.9
CY	87.8	75.7	47.8	35.9	14.0		69.1	38.8
LV	85.3	77.5	66.7	30.5	20.8	48.7	86.1	51.5
LT	77.8	73.3	67.9	33.8	25.2	47.1	84.5	42.9
LU	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
HU	72.5	66.4	65.2	31.1	18.7	45.0	76.3	58.8
MT	78.0	54.8	56.6	36.2	29.1	17.7	68.5	57.0
NL	74.1	54.1	46.8	15.6	15.0	50.2	73.5	49.0
AT	74.6	66.2	55.3	34.3	21.3	60.9	66.8	50.7
PL	72.9	70.1	62.4	36.7	27.1	53.5	73.2	48.9
PT	82.2	60.6	59.4	49.5	25.7	56.0	77.1	49.1
RO	74.8	69.5	61.8	53.9	29.7	37.4	66.8	46.3
SI	80.1	72.5	65.9	33.0	24.1	55.5	79.7	47.1
SK	75.3	58.6	63.1	35.8	28.5	39.5	81.4	43.9
FI	80.6	71.3	62.7	39.8	18.8	51.5	84.4	70.2
SE	75.8	62.3	61.0	42.9	27.8	59.5	80.6	59.4
UK	74.1	61.6	55.2	36.9	19.8	61.1	78.2	65.1
HR	91.9	70.6	64.3	42.0	25.4	44.7	73.8	25.6
MK	73.7	69.1	60.7	52.2	32.3	31.8	73.9	37.0
TR	52.7	46.2	44.8	39.5	18.6	43.9	60.8	31.0
IS	83.4	66.3	58.8	38.2	32.0	42.5	86.8	81.8
LI	:	44.4	28.0	:	37.1	:	21.4	:
NO	74.2	62.2	56.4	33.4	24.0	56.3	80.6	48.2
CH	71.0	59.4	46.3	29.1	14.5	48.9	69.1	50.5

Source: Eurostat, UOE data collection

GRADUATES IN SOCIAL SCIENCES, BUSINESS AND LAW ARE THE MOST NUMEROUS

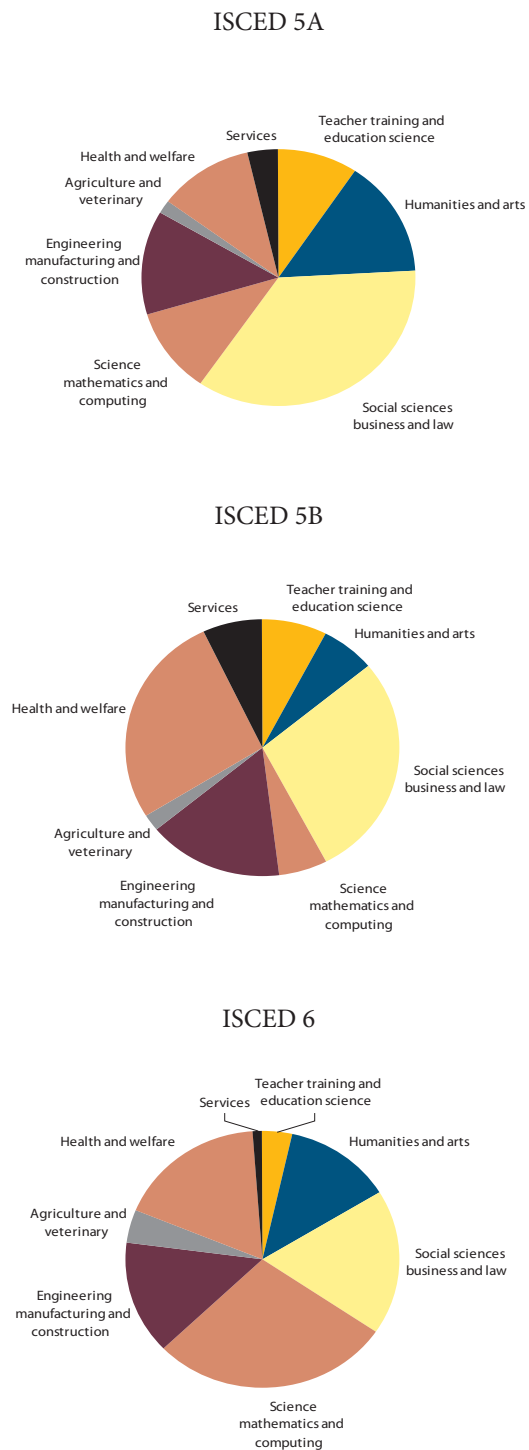
The distribution of tertiary graduates by field of study largely depends on the level of tertiary education concerned (see Figure 4.15).

In ISCED 5A, more than one third of graduates studied 'social sciences, business and law', followed by 'humanities and arts' (15%), 'engineering, manufacturing and construction' (13%), and 'health and welfare' (12%). Graduates in 'sciences, mathematics and computing' accounted for 11% of the total and those in 'teacher training and education science' accounted for 9%.

More than half of first qualification graduates from ISCED 5B studied either 'social sciences, business and law' or 'health and welfare'. All other fields of study (except 'engineering, manufacturing and construction' standing at nearly 16%) accounted for less than 8% of graduates.

The distribution of graduates at the second stage of tertiary education leading to an advanced research qualification (ISCED 6) is rather different from that observed in ISCED levels 5A and 5B. At this level, nearly 30% of graduates qualified in 'sciences, mathematics and computing', and 18% qualified in 'social sciences, business and law' or in 'health and welfare'.

Figure 4.15: First graduates in tertiary education (ISCED levels 5A, 5B and 6), by field of study, EU-27, 2006 (%)



Source: Eurostat, UOE data collection
Note: EU-27: estimation



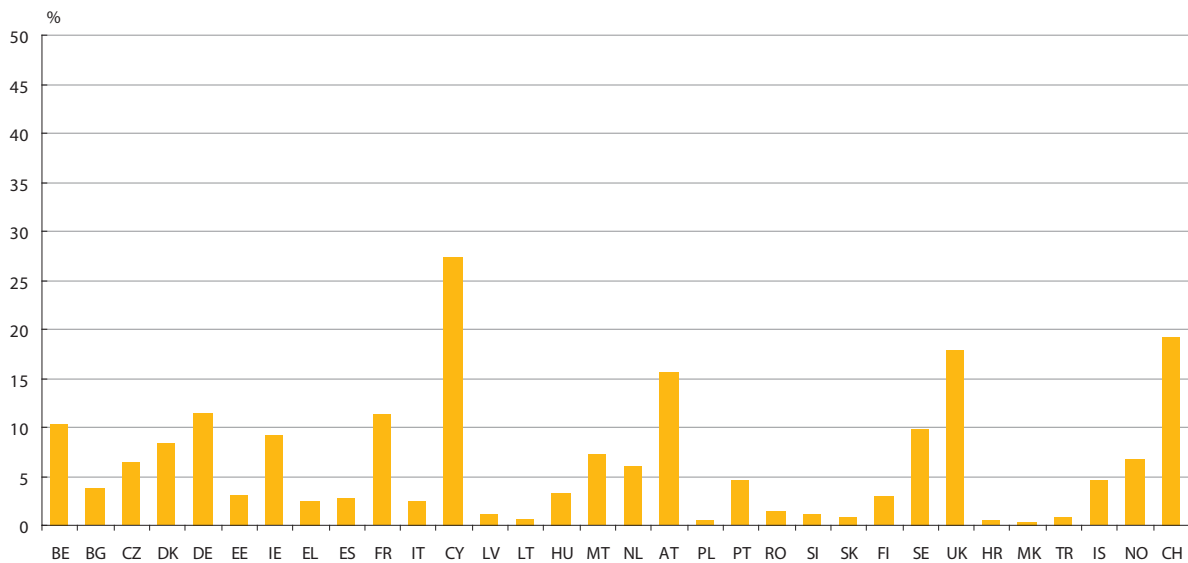
INCREASING MOBILITY... BUT NOT YET FOR EVERYONE

The forging of the European Union, coupled with globalisation and increasing international competition between companies and qualified people, highlights the need to deepen the European identity, young people's openness to the world and their sense of cooperation. This is why the High Level Expert forum on mobility, established by the European Commission, has stated that 'learning mobility should become a natural feature of being European and an opportunity provided to all young people in Europe'⁽⁷⁾. In its view, learning mobility has two objectives: to strengthen Europe's competitiveness and a knowledge-intensive society as well as to deepen the sense of European identity and citizenship within young generations. It should also concern various young populations: pupils and students in secondary and tertiary education but also trainees, apprentices, volunteer workers or participants in professional training in or outside Europe⁽⁷⁾. However, statistical information on mobility is only

partially captured, and mainly relates to tertiary education. Moreover, data on mobility based on the citizenship criterion are not fully comparable across countries since legislations governing the acquisition of citizenship across Europe are different. In addition, they do not fully encompass student mobility: students of foreign citizenship who arrived many years ago in the reporting country are considered as mobile, whereas nationals who had prior education in another country and came back to their home country for tertiary studies are not considered as mobile students.

Only seven European countries recorded shares of foreign students in their total tertiary student population higher than 10% (see Figure 4.16). Within this group of countries, only Cyprus, Austria, the United Kingdom and Switzerland registered shares higher than 15%.

Figure 4.16: Tertiary students who are not citizens of reporting country, 2005/06 (% of all students)



Source: Eurostat, UOE data collection

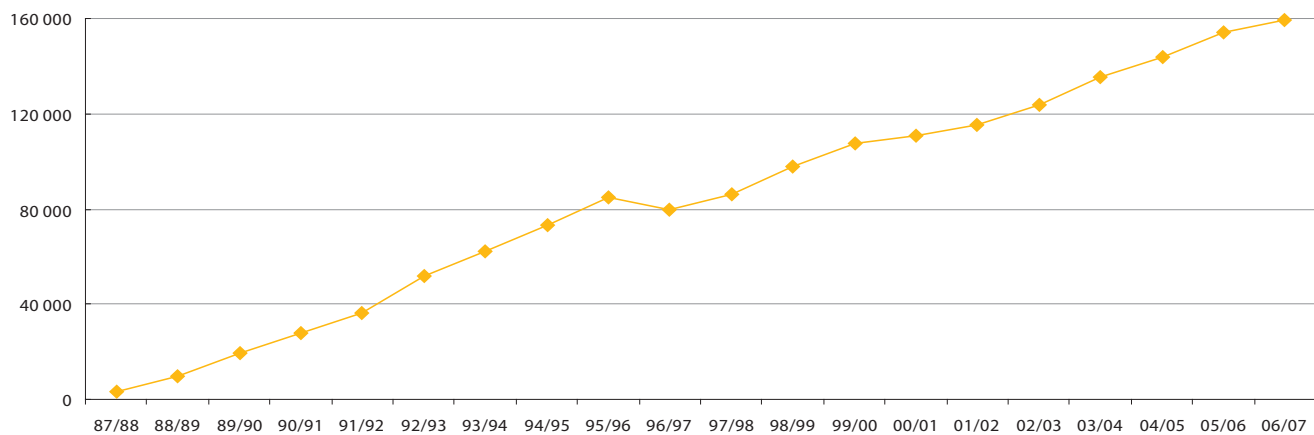
Note: LU, LI: data not available

⁽⁷⁾ Report of the High Level Expert Forum on mobility, 'Making learning mobility an opportunity for all', 2008, available on http://ec.europa.eu/education/focus/focus363_en.htm

Various EU programmes were created to support student mobility across Europe, but none of them equalled the success of the Erasmus programme which is often considered as the European Union's flagship mobility programme. In fact, it has

encountered growing success over the years, supporting 3 244 students in its first year (academic year 1987/88) and nearly 160 000 students in 2006/07. Overall, 1 700 000 students have already participated in the Erasmus programme.

Figure 4.17: Number of students participating in the Erasmus programme, 1987/88–2006/07

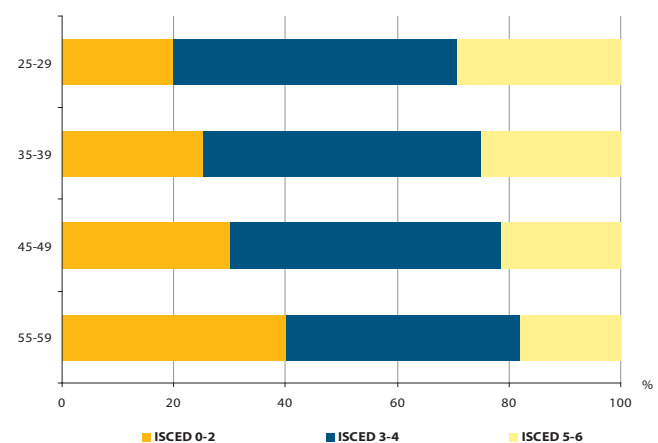


Source: European Commission – DG Education and Culture

YOUNGER GENERATIONS HAVE A HIGHER LEVEL OF EDUCATION THAN THEIR ELDERS...

Parents generally want their children to have a better situation than themselves. This can be seen in the level of education of younger generations. In fact, 30% of those aged 25 to 29 but only 18% of those aged between 55 and 59 have completed higher education in the EU-27 (see Figure 4.18). Furthermore, the share of people having completed upper-secondary education has also increased from one generation to the next: they represent slightly more than 50% of the population aged 25–29 compared to 43% of those aged 55–59. In contrast, the share of people aged 25–29 having completed at most lower-secondary education is only 20%, whereas this share stands at 39% for the population aged between 55 and 59 years.

Figure 4.18: Population by age group and by educational attainment, EU-27, 2007 (%)

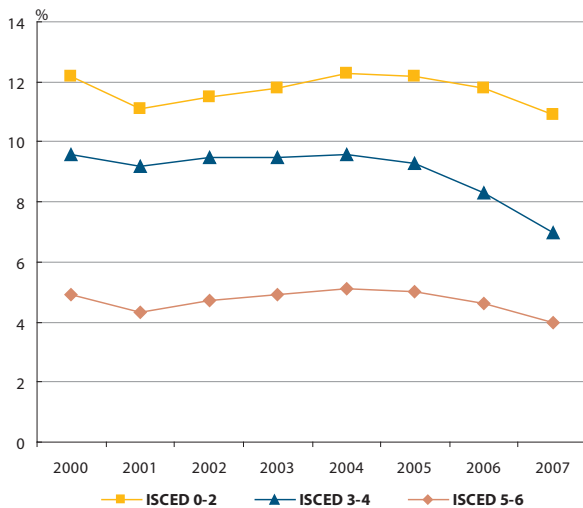


Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS



A higher level of education has an impact on the transition from education to working life. In fact, people having completed tertiary education can expect higher returns on education (in terms of occupation and wages) than others. Moreover, the level of education is also a determining factor in securing job in Europe. Indeed, the unemployment rate decreases with the level of education (see Figure 4.19). In other words, better education lowers the risk of unemployment. In 2007, at EU-27 level, people with lower-secondary education were more than two times more likely to be unemployed than people with tertiary education: the unemployment rate of people having completed compulsory

Figure 4.19: Unemployment rates by educational attainment, population aged 15–64, EU-27, 2000–2007 (%)



Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

At EU-27 level, 80% of the population aged between 25 and 29 has completed at least upper-secondary education, against 61% for the 55–59 age group (see Table 4.5). From one generation to the next, almost all Member States and candidate countries registered an increase in the share of people having completed at least upper-secondary education. Exceptions are Latvia, Lithuania and Romania, where the share of people aged between 25 and 29 having completed at least upper-secondary education was lower by 7 percentage points or more than that of the population aged 35–39 (which stands higher than 85%). In these countries, middle-age groups have increased their level of education compared to their older counterparts, but this trend was not confirmed for the younger generation.

The overall increase in educational attainment for younger generations tends to smooth differences across countries. Nonetheless, some disparities remain. When considering the 25–29 age group, few countries reported shares below the EU average. In Malta and Portugal, less than half of the population aged 25–29 had completed at least upper-secondary education in 2007. This situation was also reported in Turkey.

schooling stood at more than 11% over the last 7 years, whereas it remained below 5% for those with higher education. The unemployment rate gap between people educated to a low level and those educated to a tertiary level has remained stable over the past 7 years.

In terms of unemployment rate, the benefits of continuing just beyond compulsory education (i.e. to complete upper-secondary education) are also substantial. Generally speaking, the unemployment rate of people with a low educational level is 1.5 times higher than those with a medium level.

Table 4.5: Population which completed at least upper-secondary education (ISCED levels 3–6), by age group, 2007 (%)

	25-29	35-39	45-49	55-59
EU-27	80.4	75.5	70.6	61.5
BE	82.2	78.3	66.1	53.5
BG	81.4	82.3	80.5	69.3
CZ	94.0	94.6	91.3	85.3
DK	84.8	81.8	73.1	70.1
DE	85.0	86.0	85.3	81.8
EE	84.1	:	:	85.7
IE	85.9	75.7	64.3	44.2
EL	76.6	70.5	58.2	40.9
ES	65.1	58.1	46.6	31.6
FR	83.6	76.6	66.0	55.4
IT	71.8	58.1	50.3	38.2
CY	85.0	81.4	72.2	49.5
LV	80.5	90.4	91.7	81.7
LT	85.2	92.1	95.8	86.2
LU	82.2	69.1	64.3	53.0
HU	86.6	83.3	80.8	74.1
MT	46.0	34.2	20.2	:
NL	83.4	78.9	72.8	63.6
AT	86.5	84.7	80.6	70.6
PL	92.7	91.0	89.3	78.2
PT	49.1	30.8	21.9	15.1
RO	77.7	86.1	79.9	61.9
SI	94.6	84.3	80.9	71.8
SK	94.0	94.0	90.1	81.6
FI	89.9	86.2	84.5	69.2
SE	89.8	91.0	85.2	78.0
UK	81.0	74.0	71.5	66.5
HR	90.7	80.8	75.5	67.1
TR	40.4	24.4	21.0	13.4
IS	67.3	67.0	62.7	57.1
NO	79.5	80.9	73.0	78.6
CH	90.0	87.9	85.3	82.4

Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

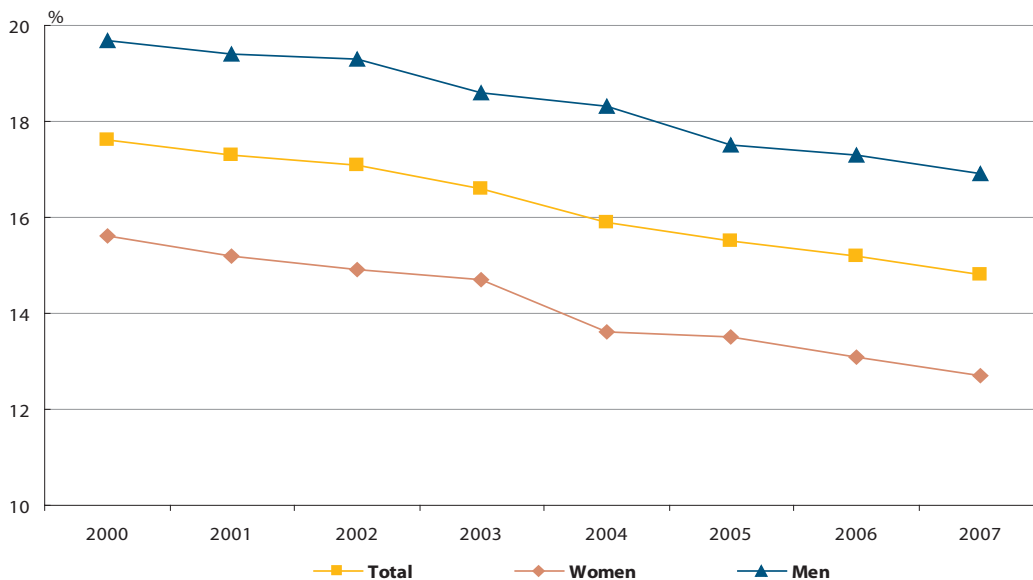
BUT SOME YOUNG PEOPLE ARE STILL LEFT ASIDE

In most European countries, compulsory education ends with the completion of lower-secondary education or during upper-secondary education. European policy-makers consider that young people who leave school with only lower-secondary education will be disadvantaged on the labour market and will possibly be at a greater risk of poverty and social exclusion than their peers who go beyond compulsory education. As a result, the decrease in the number of early school-leavers (i.e. the population aged 18–24 with at most lower-secondary education and not in further education and

training) below 10 % has been identified as a key target, and this indicator is under scrutiny to monitor the progress towards this goal of the Lisbon strategy.

At EU level, the percentage of early school-leavers has decreased slightly but continuously between 2000 and 2007 (from 18 % in 2000 to 15 % in 2007); still, more young men than women leave school with low qualifications (see Figure 4.20).

Figure 4.20: Early school-leavers, total and by sex, EU-27, 2000–2007 (%)



Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

Early school leavers refers to persons aged 18 to 24 in the following two conditions: the highest level of education or training attained is ISCED 0, 1, 2 or 3c short and respondent declared not having received any education or training in the four weeks preceding the survey

Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS



Europe tends to show a North/South division on this issue (see Table 4.6). In fact, some Southern countries recorded more than 30 % of early school-leavers (Spain, Malta, Portugal and Turkey), whereas other countries (mainly from Northern Europe) registered lower shares of early school-leavers (less than 15 %). In all countries except Bulgaria and Turkey, the percentage of early school-leavers was higher among men than among women.

However, data on early school-leavers should be analysed in their national context. In fact, as stated by the European Commission⁽⁸⁾, although early school-leavers are often understood as a homogeneous group of young people 'at risk', they can be very heterogeneous. They may be either 'positive leavers', who choose to take up employment, apprenticeship or alternative career paths; or 'opportune leavers', who haven't decided on a career path, but leave to take up a job or perhaps a relationship in preference to school; or 'circumstantial leavers', who leave school for non-educational reasons, for example family obligations. There are also the 'discouraged leavers', who are unsuccessful at school and who have low levels of performance and interest.

Table 4.6: Early school-leavers, total and by sex, 2007 (%)

	Total	Women	Men
EU-27	14.8	12.7	16.9
BE	12.3	10.7	13.9
BG	16.6	16.9	16.3
CZ	5.5	5.4	5.7
DK	12.4	8.9	15.7
DE	12.7	11.9	13.4
EE	14.3	(¹)	21.0
IE	11.5	8.7	14.2
EL	14.7	10.7	18.6
ES	31.0	25.6	36.1
FR	12.7	10.9	14.6
IT	19.3	15.9	22.6
CY	12.6	6.8	19.5
LV	16.0	12.3	19.7
LT	8.7	5.9	11.4
LU	15.1	11.1	19.2
HU	10.9	9.3	12.5
MT	37.6	33.3	41.5
NL	12.0	9.6	14.4
AT	10.9	10.2	11.6
PL	5.0	3.6	6.4
PT	36.3	30.4	42.0
RO	19.2	19.1	19.2
SI	4.3	2.7	5.7
SK	7.2	6.3	8.1
FI	7.9	6.3	9.7
SE	12.0	10.7	13.3
UK	13.0	11.4	14.6
HR	3.9	:	5.2
TR	47.6	55.0	39.4
IS	28.1	24.6	31.5
NO	5.9	4.3	7.4
CH	7.6	6.7	8.5

Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

Note: CZ, SE, UK, IS: data refer to 2006; DK: break; PT, FI, IS: provisional; LV (men): provisional; LT, LU (women): unreliable due to small sample size.

⁽⁸⁾ European Commission – Detailed analysis of progress towards the Lisbon objectives in education and training, 2006 Report, analysis based on indicators and benchmarks.

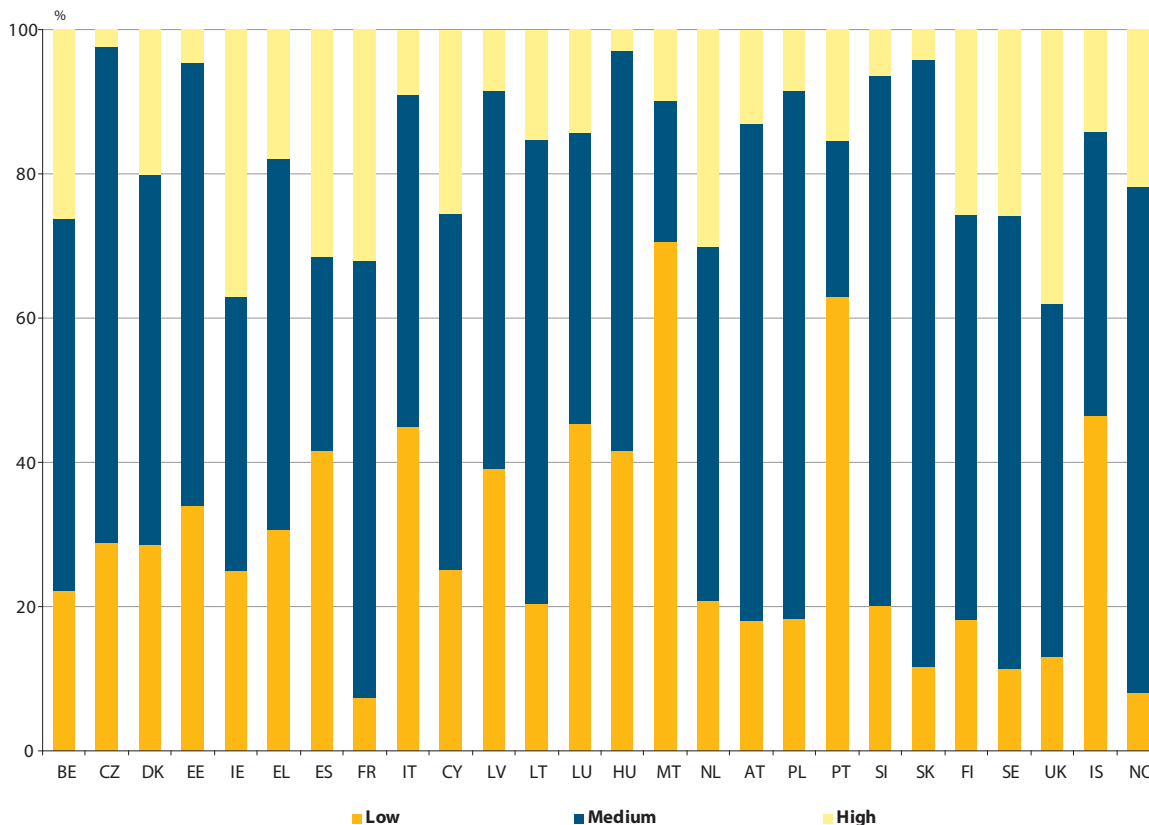
THE LEVEL OF EDUCATION OF PARENTS REMAINS A FACTOR OF ACADEMIC SUCCESS FOR THEIR CHILDREN

The chances young people have to become highly qualified are often influenced by socioeconomic background. Indeed, studies usually recognise that school and education are key factors of social mobility, but comparable and harmonised data at EU-27 level are rare. Evaluating the social background of people is complex, and is usually approximated using different variables. For purely illustrative purposes, some data from the 2005 ad hoc module of the EU Survey on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC) may be used to link the level of education of parents to that of their children. The highest level of educational attainment between mother and father is considered here. Some data should be handled with caution because of the small sample sizes in certain countries. Comparability across countries is also hampered by the overall level of education of the total population. In countries where only a low proportion of the overall population have completed tertiary education, people are less likely to complete this level irrespective of the level of education of their parents.

In all countries for which data are available, the majority of people aged 25–34 whose parents have a low level of education have achieved themselves either lower or upper-secondary education (see Figure 4.21).

In more than half of the countries considered, most people aged 25–34 whose parents have low education have themselves completed upper-secondary education. This indicates a certain level of social mobility between generations. Nonetheless, in Malta (70%) and Portugal (63%), more than half of the population aged 25–34 whose parents achieved lower-secondary education also has a low level of education. Mobility is much more limited when considering people from disadvantaged social or educational backgrounds and completion of tertiary education. In fact, with the exception of Ireland and the United Kingdom, less than one third of those aged 25–34 from underprivileged socioeconomic backgrounds have completed tertiary education.

Figure 4.21: Distribution of the population aged 25–34 whose parents have a low educational attainment level, by level of education, 2005 (%)



Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC ad hoc module 2005

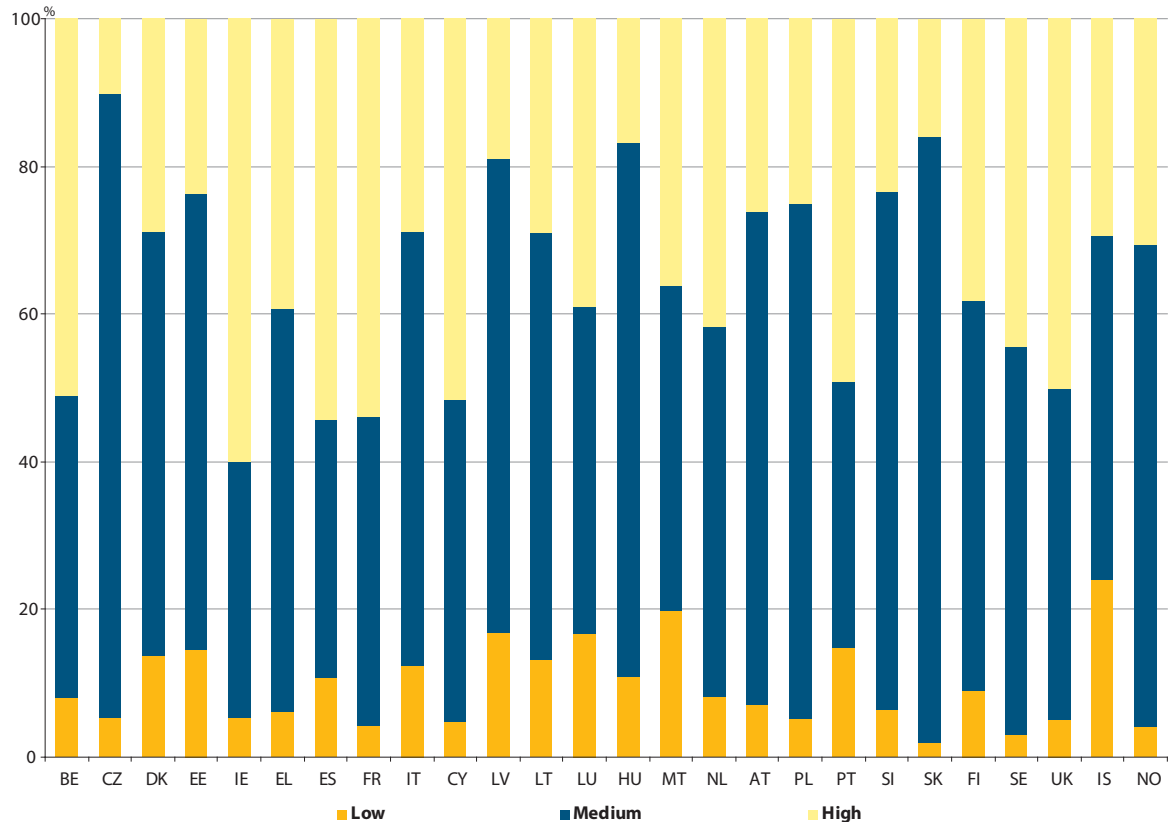
Note: the highest level of educational attainment between the two parents is considered here. BG, DE, RO: data not available.



People whose parents have completed upper-secondary education are less likely to leave school just after lower-secondary education and have better chances of completing higher education than people whose parents achieved lower-secondary education. In most countries, less than 15% of young people whose parents have achieved upper-secondary

education have themselves completed only lower-secondary education (see Figure 4.22). In Belgium, Spain, France, Ireland, Cyprus and the United Kingdom, more than 50% of persons whose parents have achieved upper-secondary education have succeeded in tertiary education.

Figure 4.22: Distribution of the population aged 25–34 whose parents have a medium educational attainment level, by educational level, 2005 (%)



Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC ad hoc module 2005

Note: the highest level of educational attainment between the two parents is considered here. BG, DE, RO: data not available.

The level of education is defined in accordance with the 1997 International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED 1997) and often aggregated into three levels:

Low: below the second cycle of secondary education (up to ISCED level 3c short);

Medium: second cycle of secondary education (ISCED levels 3–4 other than 3c short);

High: tertiary education (ISCED levels 5–6).

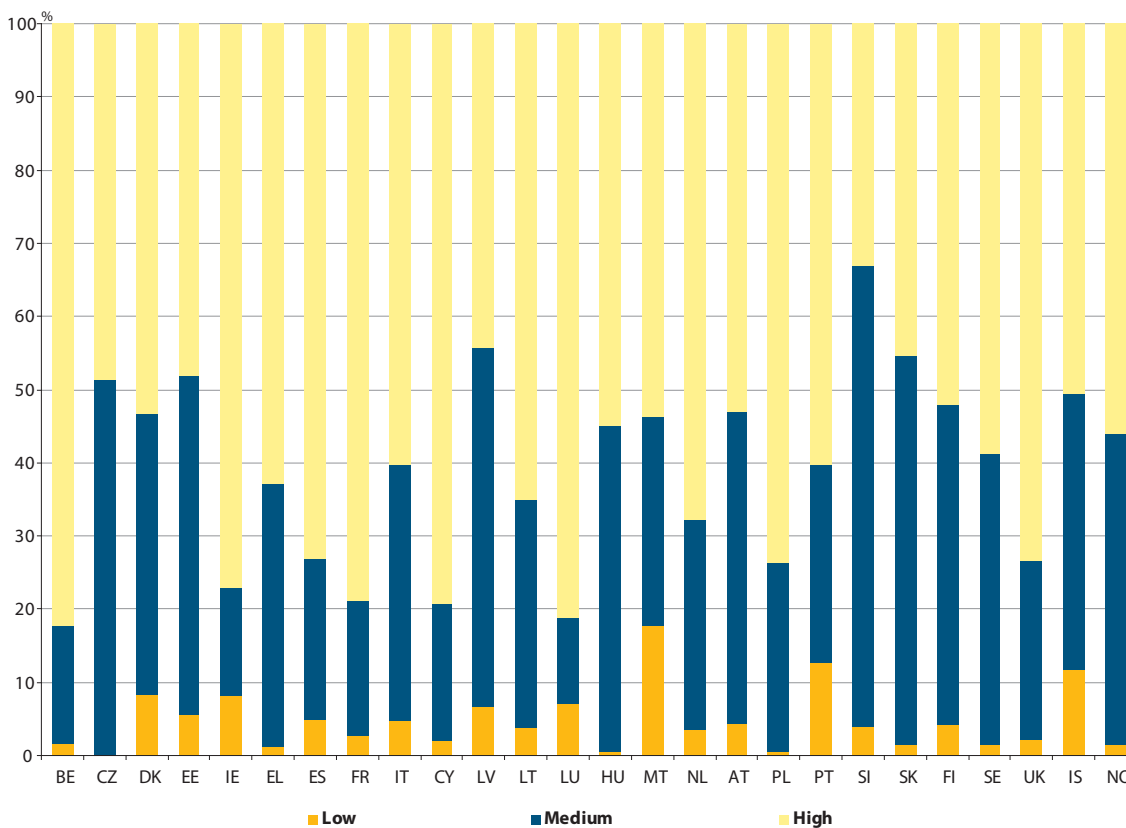
For more details:

http://circa.europa.eu/irc/dsis/employment/info/data/eu_ifs/LFS_MAIN/Related_documents/ISCED_EN.htm

Finally, persons aged 25–34 whose parents have a tertiary level of education are far more likely to complete tertiary education themselves (see Figure 4.23). They are also less at risk of achieving only lower-secondary education. In more than two

thirds of countries for which data are available, more than 50% of this population has completed tertiary education, whereas less than 5% achieved only lower-secondary education.

Figure 4.23: Distribution of the population aged 25–34 whose parents have completed tertiary education, by level of education, 2005 (%)



Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC ad hoc module 2005

Note: the highest level of educational attainment between the two parents is considered here. BG, DE, RO: data not available.

In all European countries, access to higher education is facilitated by public financial support to students and their parents (i.e. tax relief). This support may have different purposes (for instance to cover living costs, to pay for administrative fees or to contribute to tuition costs) and take on several forms (e.g. grants, loans, or a combination of the two)⁽⁹⁾. However, their impact on the social and economic situation of students is difficult to assess. Recent data from the Eurostudent survey show that students in tertiary education still rely on parents, family contributions and part-time jobs to pursue their tertiary studies⁽¹⁰⁾.

European countries are aware that they partly fail to offer equal opportunities for all and those who are engaged in the

Bologna process have recognised that ‘the social dimension of the Bologna Process is a constituent part of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) and a necessary condition for the attractiveness and competitiveness of the EHEA. We therefore renew our commitment to making quality higher education equally accessible to all, and stress the need for appropriate conditions for students so that they can complete their studies without obstacles related to their social and economic background. The social dimension includes measures taken by governments to help students, especially from socially disadvantaged groups, in financial and economic aspects and to provide them with guidance and counselling services with a view to widening access⁽¹¹⁾.

⁽⁹⁾ Eurydice – Eurostat: ‘Key data on higher education’, 2007.

⁽¹⁰⁾ Eurostudent survey 2005-2008: ‘Students and Economic Conditions of Student Life in Europe, Final report’.

⁽¹¹⁾ Bergen communiqué: <http://www.ond.vlaanderen.be/hogeronderwijs/bologna/actionlines/socialdimension.htm>



YOUTH PARTICIPATION IN LIFELONG LEARNING: INCREASING INITIAL INEQUALITIES RATHER THAN BRIDGING THE GAP?

Increasing globalisation goes hand-in-hand with growth and employment, but also with stronger international competition which requires enterprises and workers to be increasingly flexible. Lifelong learning participation (i.e. participation in all learning activities undertaken throughout life, with the aim

of improving knowledge, skills and competences, within a personal, civic, social and/or employment-related perspective) is considered as a key component of an integrated flexicurity approach and will allow people to secure employment rather than a job⁽¹²⁾.

The report by the European Expert Group on Flexicurity states that 'Flexicurity can be described as a policy strategy to enhance, at the same time and in a deliberate way, the flexibility of labour markets, work organisations and employment relations on the one hand, and security — employment security and social security — on the other. Its objective is to combine employment and income security with flexible labour markets, work organisation and labour relations. The key principles that underpin a flexicurity strategy are that flexibility and security should not be seen as opposites, but can be made mutually supportive.'

Source: 'Flexicurity pathways turning hurdles into stepping stones', June 2007; and Wilthagen, T. and F. Tros (2004). 'The concept of 'flexicurity': a new approach to regulating employment and labour markets.' *Transfer* 10(2): 166–186.

Formal education is defined as 'education provided in the system of schools, colleges, universities and other formal educational institutions that normally constitutes a continuous 'ladder' of education for children and young people, generally beginning at the ages of five to seven and continuing up to 25 (or even older).

Non-formal education is defined as 'any organised and sustained educational activities that do not correspond exactly to the above definition of formal education. Non-formal education may therefore take place both within and outside educational institutions, and cater to persons of all ages. Depending on country contexts, it may cover educational programmes to impart adult literacy, basic education for out-of-school children, life-skills, work-skills, and general culture. Non-formal education programmes do not necessarily follow the 'ladder' system, and may have a differing duration'.

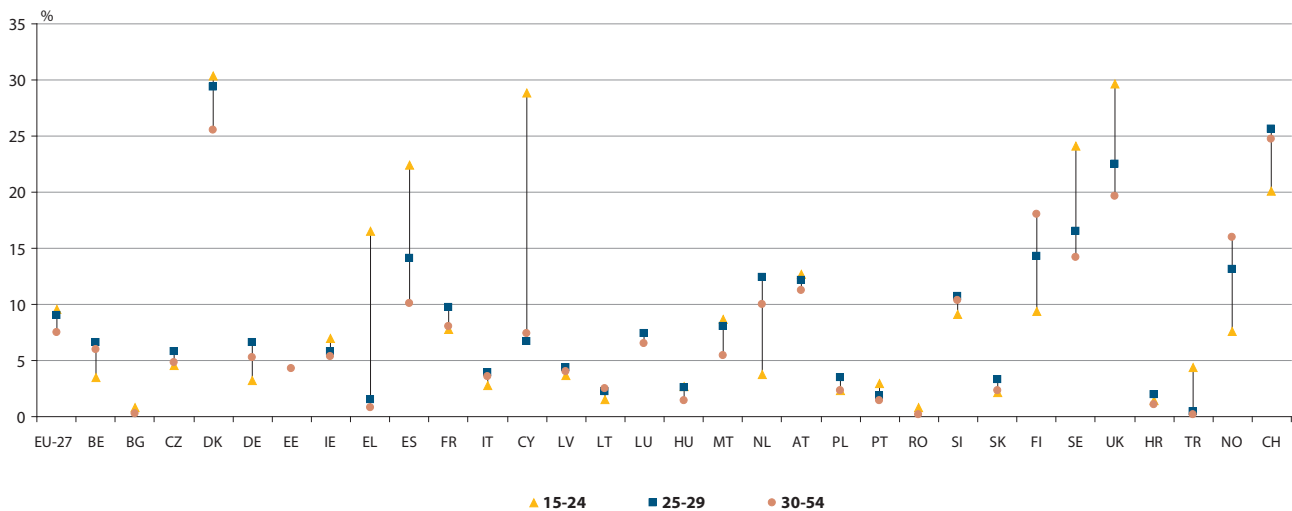
Informal learning is defined as '...intentional, but it is less organised and less structured...and may include, for example, learning events (activities) that occur in the family, at the workplace, and in the daily life of every person, on a self-directed, family-directed or socially-directed basis'.

Source: Eurostat - Classification of learning activities—Manual

At EU-27 level, participation rates in non-formal education and training were below 10% in all age groups considered (15–24, 25–29 and 30–54). However, Denmark, Spain, Austria, Sweden, the United Kingdom and Switzerland were

above the EU average for all age groups (see Figure 4.24). Participation rates were especially high in Denmark (higher than 25% for all age groups considered) and the United Kingdom (from 19% to 29%).

⁽¹²⁾ Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions, Towards Common Principles of Flexicurity: More and better jobs through flexibility and security [SEC(2007) 861] [SEC(2007) 862].

Figure 4.24: Participation in non-formal education and training, by age group, 2007

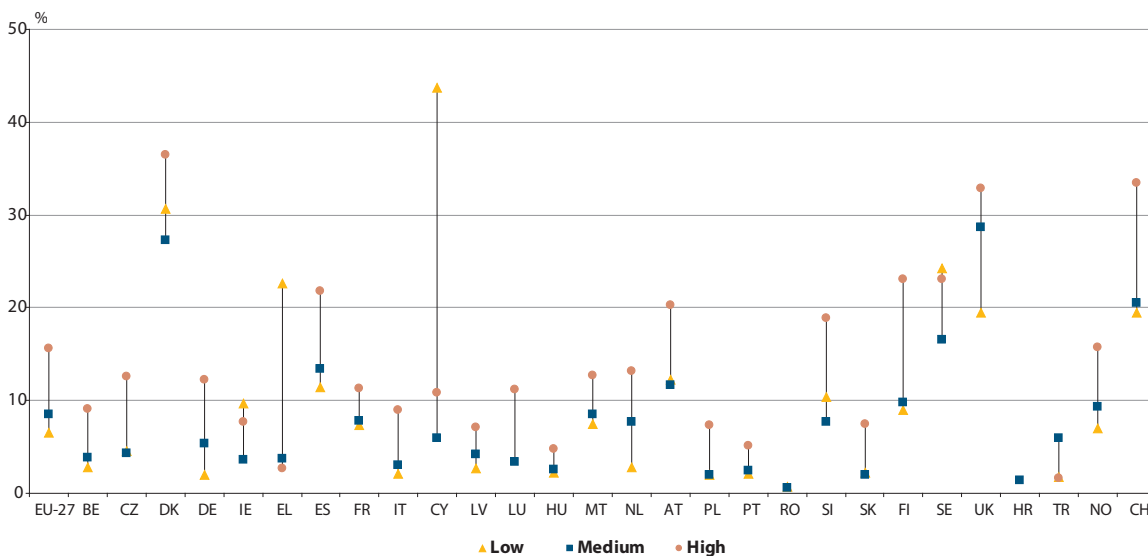
Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

Note: 15–24: BG, LT, HR: data lack reliability due to small sample size; EE, LU: unreliable due to small sample size. 25–29: LV, LT, LU, MT, HR: data lack reliability due to small sample size; 25–29: BG, EE, RO: unreliable due to small sample size; 30–54: BG, RO, HR: data lack reliability due to small sample size.

Although participation rates in non-formal education were fairly similar across all age groups in a majority of countries, a different pattern was reported in Greece, Spain, Cyprus, Sweden and the United Kingdom: in these countries, young people participate more in non-formal education than their elders. Conversely, the opposite was observed in Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Finland, Norway and Switzerland.

discrepancies in participation rates were much higher. In fact, in all countries except Greece, Cyprus and to a lesser extent Sweden, young adults with a tertiary level of education participate more in non-formal education than their peers with a lower level of education. This situation suggests that lifelong learning opportunities must be further developed in order to reach the people who need it most.

When considering the educational level of young adults participating in non-formal education (see Figure 4.25),

Figure 4.25: Participation of people aged 15–29 in non-formal education, by educational level, 2007 (%)

Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

Note: low: BG, EE, LT, LU, HR: unreliable due to small sample size. Medium: BG, EE, LT: unreliable due to small sample size; LU, MT, HR: data lack reliability due to small sample size. High: BG, EE, LT, RO, HR: unreliable due to small sample size; LV, LU, MT, SI: data lack reliability due to small sample size.

Employment

5



For young people, the transition from education to employment is an important step towards independence, but this process may vary significantly between and within countries. The path to independence can be straightforward (from formal education directly into full-time work) or more fragmented (combining schooling with part-time work or alternating inactivity, work and/or unemployment).

The choice of the age of the reference population under analysis affects results when describing the situation of young people on the labour market: young people aged less than 15 years and those aged more than 29 are considered to be far less affected by the transition from school to work. Indeed, school is compulsory until the age of 15 in all countries under review except Turkey, while most young people aged more than 29 years have already completed the transition from school to working life (25 or 26 is the theoretical age of completion for tertiary education).

In the analysis presented below, the young population will be divided into two age groups (15–24 and 25–29) in order to better reflect the diversity of situations of the European youth. Most young people aged 15–24 are still in education⁽¹⁾ and conversely most people aged 25–29 have already gained a foothold in the labour market.

In recent years, an increasing number of young people have chosen to continue their studies beyond compulsory schooling in order to have better chances on the labour market. But although today's young people are less numerous and better educated than their older counterparts, the transition into the labour market often remains difficult for them, and many of those who have already gained a foothold in the labour market hold lower quality jobs. This situation could be explained by a possible mismatch of skills acquired in initial education and labour market requirements, the economic situation, general labour market conditions and labour legislation which may not favour the integration of inexperienced people into employment.

The integration of young people in the labour market is a major policy issue for the EU and many Member States. Indeed, the European Employment Guidelines — as part of the Growth and Jobs package adopted by the European Council in 2005 — call for intensified efforts to build employment pathways for young people and to reduce youth unemployment. With the adoption of the European Youth Pact in 2005, Member States have given prominence to policies targeting young people.

The main data source in this section is the **European Union Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS)**. The EU-LFS is a large quarterly sample survey covering the population in private households in the EU, EFTA (except Liechtenstein) and candidate countries. It provides annual and quarterly results on labour participation of people aged 15 and over as well as on persons outside the labour force.

The EU-LFS sample size amounts to approximately 1.5 million individuals each quarter. The quarterly sampling rates vary between 0.2% and 3.3% in each country. This makes the LFS the largest household survey in Europe.

The concepts and definitions used in the survey are based on those of the International Labour Organisation (ILO). As a result, data from the EU-LFS count among the most comparable international labour market statistics.

FROM SCHOOL BENCHES TO WORKING LIFE

Young people usually remain in education until the age of 14–17 years, corresponding to the end of full-time compulsory schooling⁽²⁾. However, in a majority of European countries, most young people aged 19 were still in formal education in 2006⁽³⁾. Comparing the situation of young Europeans of the same age across countries is thus hampered by differences in

education systems in terms of length of compulsory schooling, progression within the educational system (automatic progression or possibility of repeating a year) and access to tertiary education (tuition fees, limitation and/or selection procedures, public financial support schemes, etc.).

⁽¹⁾ Obviously, the participation rate in education is very high among young people aged 15–19 and decreases thereafter, with patterns varying between countries. Here, the entire 15–24 age group is considered for reasons of data reliability concerning economic activity (employment and unemployment). Results of the specific 2009 EU-LFS ad hoc module entitled *Entry of young people into the labour market* are expected by the end of 2010.

⁽²⁾ Further details on the structure of European education systems can be found at: <http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/Eurydice>.

⁽³⁾ See Figure 4.3 Participation rate in education of young people aged 19 years, by ISCED level, 2006, in the chapter 4.



The Labour Force Survey uses the International Labour Office's definition of employment, according to which people working for at least one hour a week for pay, profit or family gain during the reference week of the survey are considered to be employed. The combination of work and studies may

therefore take different forms: young people who combine studies and work can either be in apprenticeship or simply need or wish to earn money beside their lessons at school or university. Some of them may also be employed and follow evening courses.

The economically **active population** (labour force) comprises both **employed and unemployed persons**.

Employed persons are persons who, during the reference week, performed work, even for just one hour per week, for pay, profit or family gain or were not at work but had a job or business from which they were temporarily absent because of, e.g., illness, holidays, industrial dispute, education or training.

Unemployed persons are persons who were without work during the reference week, were currently available for work and were either actively seeking work in the past four weeks or had already found a job to start within the next three months.

Activity rates represent active persons as a percentage of the total population of the same age.

Inactive persons are those who were classified neither as employed nor as unemployed during the reference week.

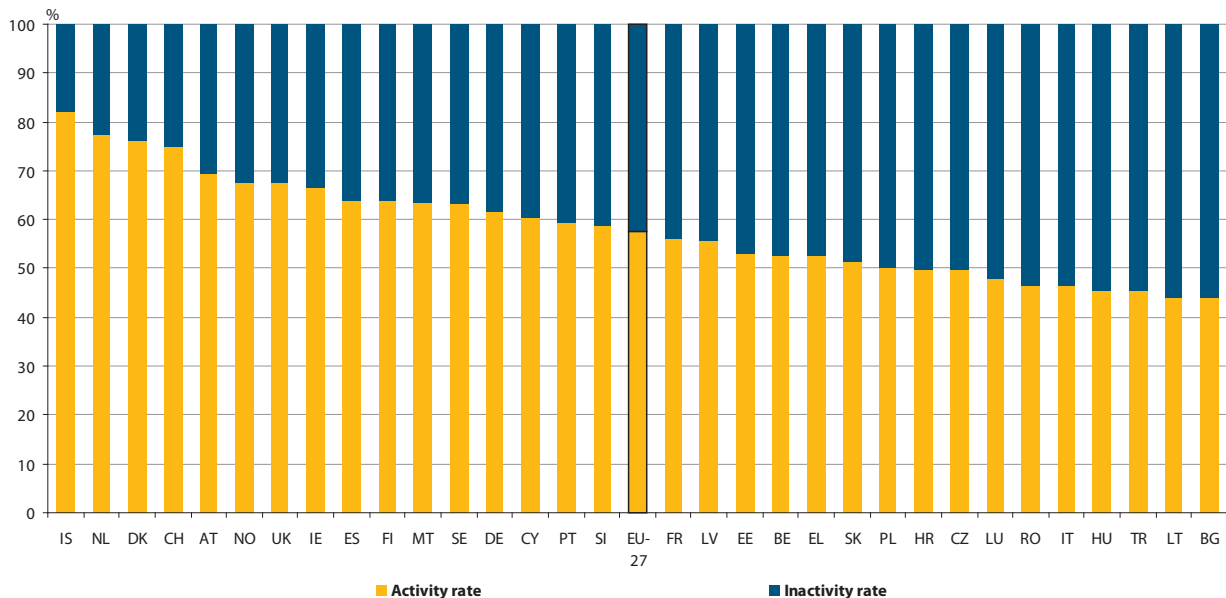
Inactivity rates represent inactive persons as a percentage of the total population of the same age.

Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

Regarding activity rates (employment and unemployment taken together), the European population aged between 15 and 29 is considerably heterogeneous (see Figure 5.1). At the EU level, 58 % of young people aged 15–29 were active in 2007. In this respect three groups of countries can be distinguished: countries where activity rates of young people

were below 50 % (Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Italy, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Hungary, Romania and Turkey), those with activity rates above 70 % (Denmark, the Netherlands, Iceland and Switzerland) and finally those with activity rates between 50 % and 70 %.

Figure 5.1: Activity and inactivity rates of young people aged 15–29 years, 2007 (%)



Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

Note: countries are ordered by activity rate.

Indeed, in most countries inactivity is more widespread among young people aged 15–24 years, as many of them are still in education and do not work during their studies (see Figure 5.2).

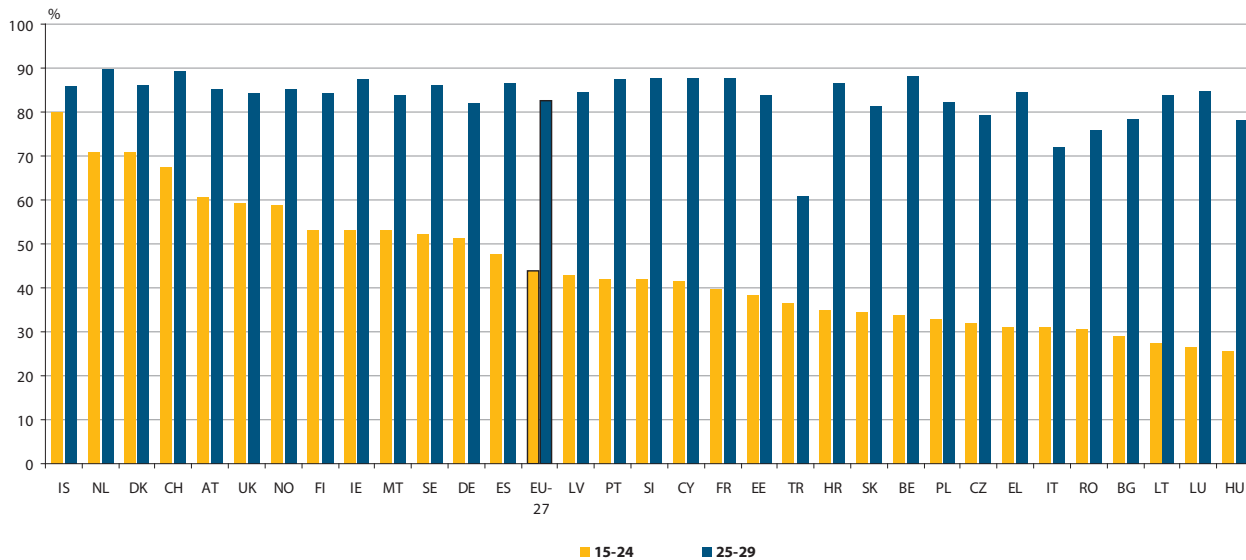
In 2007, the Netherlands, Denmark, Iceland and Switzerland recorded the highest activity rates among young people aged

15–24. It should be noted that these countries have a dual system in which class-based and work-based training are provided in parallel. In such systems young people divide their time between educational institutions and the workplace.

As the structure of the various educational systems in Europe hampers comparability in terms of activity rate across countries for the age group 15–24, a specific focus on those aged 25–29 would be more relevant (see Figure 5.2). The latter are indeed generally considered to have completed — in most cases — their education (including tertiary education). Considering the EU-27 as a whole, around 80 % of young

people aged 25–29 were active in 2007; this proportion was nearly double that of young people aged 15–24. Italy and Turkey reported the lowest activity rates among young people aged 25–29. This may be explained by the time young people devoted to education in Italy, and by low labour market participation (especially for women) in Turkey.

Figure 5.2: Activity rates of young people, by age group, 2007 (%)



Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

Note: countries are ordered by activity rate of people aged 15–24.

Gender differences were also noted in terms of activity rates: in 2007, at national level more than half of young men aged 15–29 years were active, while the situation was more heterogeneous for women. The highest female activity rates were recorded in Denmark, the Netherlands and Switzerland (more than 70 %) whereas the lowest were reported in Hungary (39 %) and Turkey (26 %). The overall participation of women in the labour market was generally lower for all age

groups, mainly on account of childcare and family responsibilities. Young women’s preference for general orientation programme in upper-secondary education and their high participation in tertiary education have an impact on the duration of education which can also partly explain the lower female activity rates for the 25–29 age group compared to their male counterparts.



Activity rates vary significantly with the educational attainment level (see Table 5.1). In the European Union, activity rates generally increase with the completed level of education, with the exception of a few Member States (Spain, Italy, Cyprus, Luxembourg and Portugal for data related to lower- and upper-secondary education). In Bulgaria, Hungary, Slovakia and Turkey, activity rates of people aged 25–29 with only low educational attainment were below 60%. Young people with the highest level of educational attainment

recorded activity rates ranging from 69% in Italy to 95% in the Netherlands and 96% in Croatia.

In all Member States except Portugal, female activity rates were positively correlated with educational attainment level. Conversely, the situation for young men was more contrasted, but in nearly all countries male activity rates were higher than those of women whatever the educational attainment level.

Table 5.1: Activity rates of young people aged 25–29, by educational attainment level, 2007 (%)

	Total			Women			Men		
	Low	Medium	High	Low	Medium	High	Low	Medium	High
EU-27	74.2	81.9	89.3	57.9	74.7	87.5	87.2	88.3	91.8
BE	75.1	88.3	93.9	61.6	80.8	93.6	86.3	94.1	94.2
BG	58.3	80.4	89.5	46.9	71.0	86.5	68.2	87.1	94.1
CZ	61.2	80.3	82.0	43.2	64.8	76.7	79.8	93.8	88.8
DK	78.0	87.0	90.6	66.8	83.3	89.0	87.6	90.0	92.7
DE	67.7	81.6	92.3	46.4	79.9	90.0	88.5	83.3	95.3
EE	(77.1)	83.9	86.9	u	(67.4)	80.2	(88.0)	97.3	(96.9)
IE	70.3	87.2	92.9	51.6	78.4	92.2	82.3	94.4	93.9
EL	81.1	82.8	90.1	55.8	75.6	91.0	94.6	89.7	89.1
ES	85.3	84.7	88.5	76.0	80.8	86.9	92.2	88.4	90.3
FR	78.6	88.7	90.7	62.4	80.6	88.3	90.6	95.9	93.8
IT	69.8	73.8	69.3	48.9	67.1	68.8	85.2	80.3	70.2
CY	85.6	83.2	92.0	68.6	76.2	91.2	95.7	88.7	93.2
LV	75.3	84.4	91.2	(52.5)	75.5	88.7	87.7	92.5	95.3
LT	66.5	84.5	89.7	(53.8)	75.5	88.0	(74.4)	92.3	91.9
LU	85.6	82.7	87.6	(72.8)	80.2	87.8	(96.6)	84.7	87.3
HU	58.5	79.4	85.8	40.8	66.0	80.8	75.8	90.6	93.0
MT	76.0	92.0	93.8	53.0	(89.2)	92.8	95.9	94.4	95.0
NL	78.0	90.1	94.6	64.4	84.9	93.9	88.1	95.1	95.5
AT	75.4	85.7	90.6	65.0	79.1	87.8	88.4	91.8	93.8
PL	62.0	79.7	91.7	42.8	66.4	89.7	75.9	90.4	94.8
PT	89.6	77.9	93.4	83.1	79.3	93.8	94.3	76.5	92.4
RO	64.4	75.2	91.1	53.3	70.2	90.8	75.9	79.5	91.3
SI	(71.6)	86.8	92.9	(56.9)	82.3	91.2	(79.2)	90.2	96.3
SK	56.5	81.4	89.0	46.1	65.0	84.0	66.8	95.7	95.6
FI	65.7	83.9	91.2	45.5	77.5	88.8	78.1	88.8	95.1
SE	77.8	87.1	87.9	67.0	81.7	86.5	85.8	91.4	89.6
UK	68.3	84.7	92.5	48.4	75.9	90.9	86.2	94.1	94.3
HR	(70.1)	86.0	95.7	(56.9)	79.6	(95.3)	(80.6)	91.2	(96.3)
TR	51.4	70.4	85.1	20.5	37.0	77.6	89.6	91.4	90.9
IS	86.7	82.8	:	75.3	73.9	:	94.8	89.7	94.8
NO	76.7	85.6	88.6	65.3	80.0	87.2	84.5	89.6	90.6
CH	77.9	89.4	92.7	70.8	85.6	89.2	86.6	92.9	95.7

Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

In addition, differences between male and female activity rates are more significant when the educational attainment level is low. Portugal reported the lowest gender gap at this level with a discrepancy of only 11 percentage points, as opposed to Malta and Germany, with a gender gap of around 42 percentage points. A gender gap of 69 percentage points was observed in Turkey.

On the other hand, considering the highest level of educational attainment, the gender gap in activity rates was only about 4 percentage points at EU level, with the largest gaps recorded in Turkey. In Greece, Portugal and Luxembourg, activity rates of tertiary-educated persons aged 25–29 were even higher among women than among men.

MANY ROADS LEAD TO THE LABOUR MARKET

The transition of young people from school to the labour market may be gradual, depending in particular on their situation regarding education. Young people who are still in education may enter the labour market progressively. Those studying in vocational programmes may work as apprentices; others may work part-time (a few hours each week or month) either to finance their studies or to earn money for other personal reasons.

In 2007, as in 2000, at least half of all 20-year-olds in the EU had already entered the labour market and were either employed (full-time or part-time for even few hours a week) or unemployed (actively seeking a job). However, some notable differences were recorded between countries (see Table 5.2). Young people in Denmark, the Netherlands, Austria and the United Kingdom, as well as in Iceland and

Switzerland entered the labour market fairly early compared to their peers in other European countries. By contrast, in Greece, Italy, Luxembourg, Hungary and Romania, most young persons entered the labour market after the age of 23.

The youngest age at which at least 50 % of young people were in the labour market did not change between 2000 and 2007 at EU level as well as in ten Member States, but the transition happened at a later age in 12 of them. For instance, the youngest age at which at least 50 % of young people were in the labour market increased by two years in Greece, Italy, Luxembourg, Malta, Romania and Slovakia. Finally, only five Member States registered a trend towards an earlier transition to the labour market; in Austria, a two-years decrease was reported for this indicator.

Table 5.2: Youngest age at which at least 50% of young people are already in the labour market, 2000 and 2007

	2000	2007	Trend
EU-27	20	20	→
BE	22	22	→
BG	23	22	↓
CZ	20	21	↑
DK	16	15	↓
DE	19	19	→
EE	21	21	→
IE	19	19	→
EL	21	23	↑
ES	21	20	↓
FR	21	21	→
IT	21	23	↑
CY	20	21	↑
LV	20	20	→
LT	21	22	↑
LU	21	23	↑
HU	22	23	↑
MT	(17)	19	↑
NL	16	16	→
AT	19	17	↓
PL	21	22	↑
PT	21	21	→
RO	21	23	↑
SI	21	21	→
SK	19	21	↑
FI	18	19	↑
SE	20	19	↓
UK	17	17	→
HR	:	21	:
TR	:	22	:
IS	16	16	→
NO	17	18	↑
CH	17	17	→

Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

Note: →: no change ↑: increase ↓: decrease

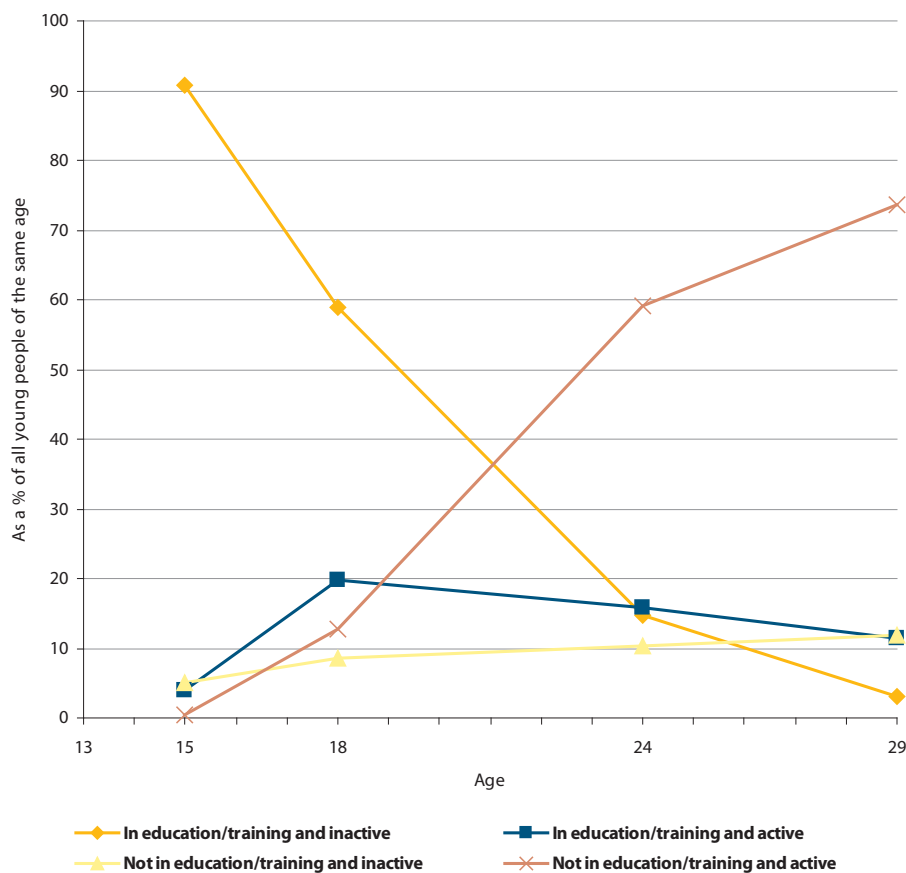


The transition from education to work can take place gradually. Snapshots of the young population at successive ages reveal more diverse patterns of transition (see Figure 5.3). At 15 years, almost all young people are exclusively in education or training, between 18 and 24, some young students may choose (or be obliged) to combine education and work, whereas more than 80% of young people aged 29 are already economically active.

The proportion of young people devoting themselves exclusively to education or training decreases significantly with age, while the proportion of young active people

increases. In 2007, 91% of all Europeans aged 15 were in education or training and not active, whereas this proportion fell to 3% for those aged 29 years. By this age, roughly three quarters of young Europeans were already active (and not in education or training). The transition mainly takes place between the ages of 18 and 24. Indeed, in 2007, 59% of young people aged 18 were exclusively in education or training, and only 13% were exclusively active. Conversely, by the age of 24 these proportions were reversed. However, 20% of all Europeans aged 18 and 16% of those aged 24 combined education or training with economic activity.

Figure 5.3: Situation of young people aged 15, 18, 24 and 29, as a percentage of all young people of the same age, EU-27, 2007



Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

The same transitional patterns can be seen at national level, albeit with variations across countries (see Figures 5.4a, b and c).

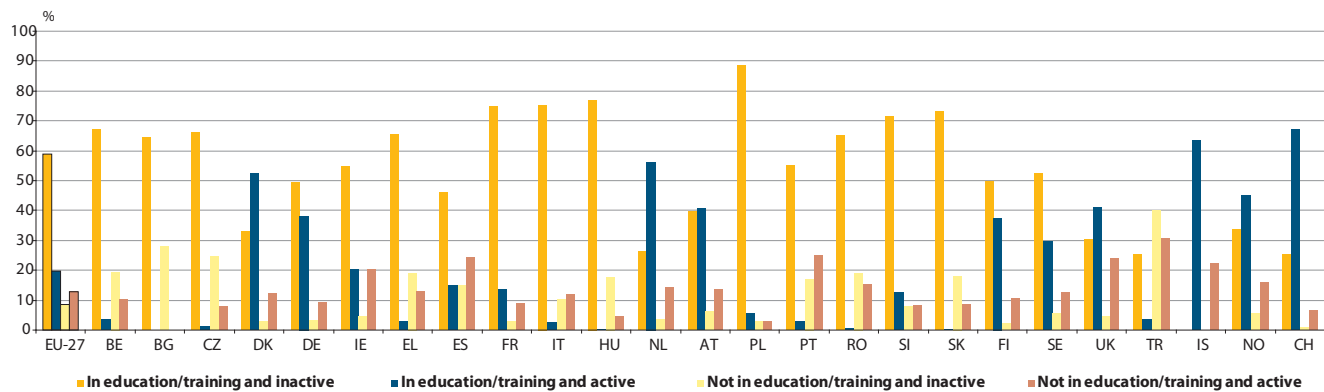
At the age of 15, most young people were in education or training and not yet active in all European countries except Denmark, where 48% of them combined education and economic activity.

More than 40% of 18-year-olds in Denmark, the Netherlands, Austria, the United Kingdom, Iceland, Norway and Switzerland were in education (or training) and active; in the remaining countries most 18-year-olds were in education or

training and inactive. The situation in the former group may be explained by the high share of young people attending vocational programmes in upper-secondary education.

The highest percentage of young people aged 18 years who were in education (or training) and inactive was recorded by Poland (89%), whereas the lowest percentage was noted in Turkey and Switzerland (25%). In Turkey, 40% of 18-year-olds were neither in education nor active. In the majority of countries, the percentage of young active people neither in education nor in training did not exceed 15%.

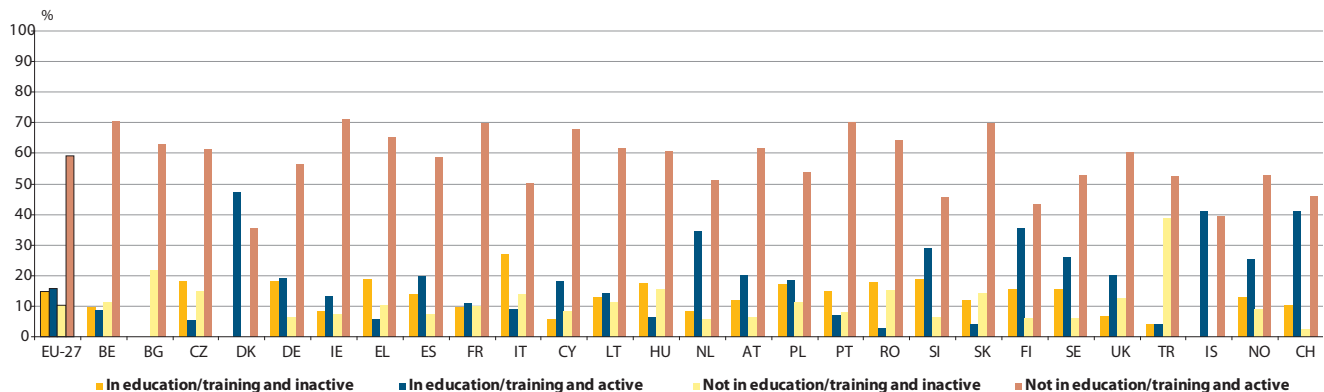
Figure 5.4a: Situation of young people aged 18, 2007 (%)



By the age of 24, most young people were already active and neither in education nor training in all countries except Denmark, where 47% of them still combined work and education. In the Netherlands, Finland, Iceland and Switzerland, more than three in ten young people were in the same situation. At this age, young people combining

education (or training) and economic activity may include tertiary students working part-time to finance their studies (who also depend on the existing public support schemes), to earn extra money to afford living expenses, or to gain a first professional experience. In contrast, in Italy, almost 27% of young people aged 24 were still in education and not active.

Figure 5.4b: Situation of young people aged 24, 2007 (%)

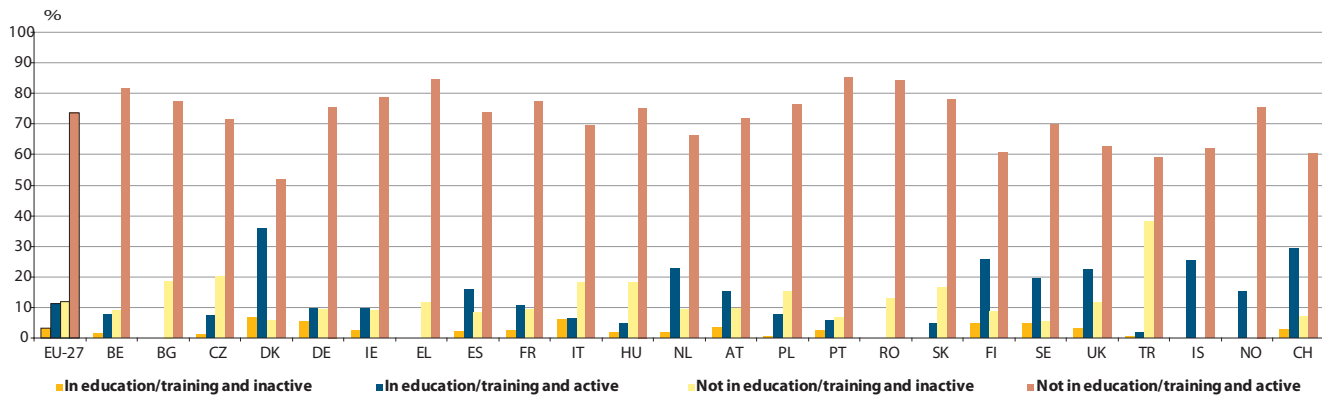




In most countries, more than 70% of young people aged 29 years were active and no longer in education or training. At this age, the share of young inactive people not in education (or training) was relatively high in Bulgaria, the Czech

Republic, Italy, Hungary, Poland, Slovakia and Turkey. In this respect the latter country reported the highest share with 38%.

Figure 5.4c: Situation of young people aged 29, 2007 (%)



Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

Notes (Figures 5.4a, b and c): EE, CY, LV, LT (18-year-olds and 29-year-olds), LU, MT, SI (29-year-olds), HR: data not shown due to too small sample size; BG, DK (18-year-olds and 24-year-olds); EL, RO, SK, NO (29-year-olds); IS (18-year-olds): data not shown for some categories due to too small sample size; AT, CH; EL (18-year-olds); CZ, IE, NL, PL, PT (18-year-olds and 29-year-olds); RO, SI, NO (18-year-olds and 24-year-olds); CY, LT, SK (24-year-olds); FI (24-year-olds and 29-year-olds); BE, DK, FR, HU (29-year-olds): certain data lack reliability due to small sample size.

YOUNG PEOPLE AND UNEMPLOYMENT

Once the transition from education to employment is over, a further challenge remains: finding a relatively stable situation on the labour market. Involuntary temporary or part-time work as well as long-term unemployment may have

repercussions on family life, such as delaying or preventing departure from the parental home, setting up a family and having children.

Based on the ILO definition, Eurostat defines **unemployed persons** as persons who:

- are without work;
- are available to start work within the next two weeks;
- and have actively sought employment at some time during the previous four weeks.

The **unemployment rate** is the number of people unemployed as a percentage of the labour force (the total number of people employed plus unemployed).

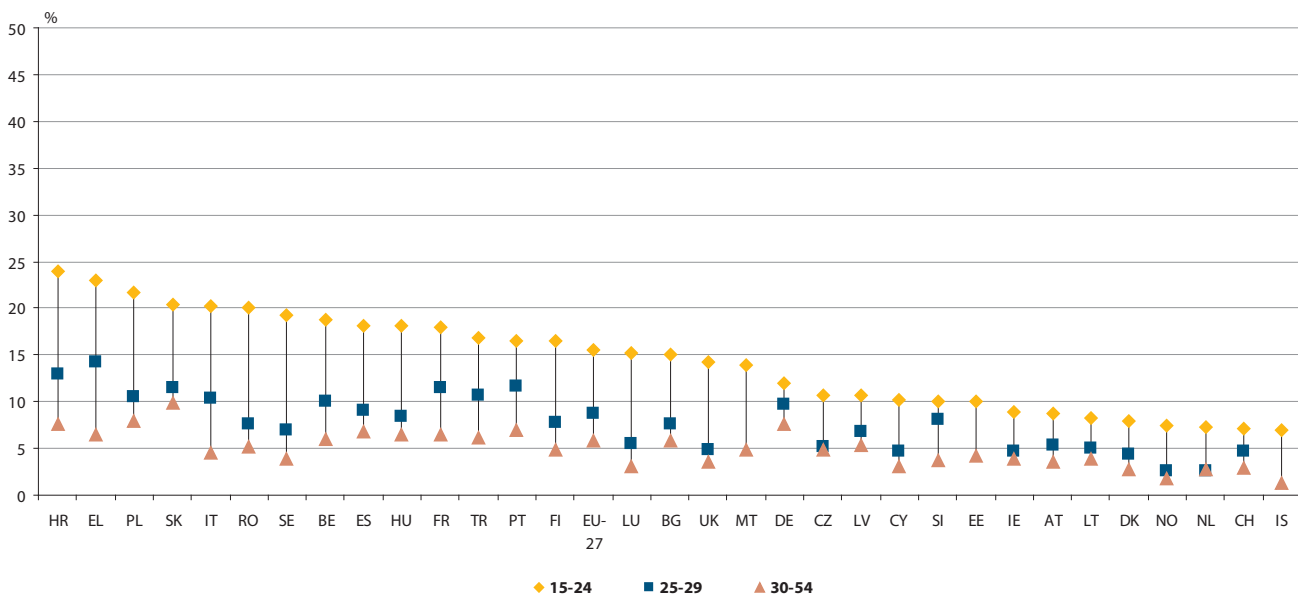
Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

Considering unemployment among young people, a broad spectrum of results was reported across the EU Member States (see Figure 5.5). In 2007, Denmark and the Netherlands recorded the lowest unemployment rates for both young age classes (15–24 and 25–29). The youth unemployment rate in Denmark and the Netherlands stood at 8% and 7% respectively for the age class 15–24 and at 4% and 3% respectively for the age class 25–29. As presented above, Denmark and the Netherlands also reported a high share of young people in education or training and who were economically active (see Figure 5.4). Ireland and Austria reported youth unemployment rates below 10% for the age class 15–24. At the other end of the spectrum, more than 20% of active young people aged 15–24 were unemployed in Greece, Italy, Poland, Slovakia, Romania as well as Croatia.

Unemployment rates were lower among the population aged 25–29, with 9% observed at EU-level but still 14% in Greece and nearly 12% in France, Portugal and Slovakia.

Young people tend to be far more affected by unemployment than their elders. In fact, unemployment rates were usually two to sometimes five times higher among those aged 15–24 than among the population aged 30–54. In the European Union, unemployment rates ranged from 6% for the 30 to 54-year-olds to 15% for the 15 to 24-year-olds. In the Czech Republic and the Netherlands the unemployment rate among young people aged 25–29 was very close to that of their elders aged 30–54.

Figure 5.5: Unemployment rate, by age group, 2007 (%)



Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

Note: EE, LT, LU: age group 15-24: data lack reliability due to the small sample size; LT, LU, HR: age group 25-29: data lack reliability due to the small sample size; EE, MT, IS: age group 25-29: unreliable or uncertain data due to too small sample size.



Unemployment rates tend to decrease with the educational attainment level (see Table 5.3). Greece, Italy, Portugal, and Turkey were, however, exceptions, which counted the highest unemployment rates among young people aged 25-29 with tertiary education. It should also be noted that unemployment rates varied significantly across European countries among the population of the same age and educational attainment level. The unemployment rate among the population aged 25-29 with at most lower-secondary education ranged from

10% in Turkey to 62% in Slovakia. Unemployment rates for this population exceeded 12% in half of the Member States. Differences were less pronounced for people aged 25-29 with at most upper-secondary education or tertiary education. Unemployment rates for these young people with upper-secondary education ranged from 5% in the Czech Republic to 14% in Greece. Unemployment rates for people with tertiary education ranged from 3% in Czech Republic to 17% in Greece.

Table 5.3: Unemployment rates among young people, by age group and educational attainment level, 2007 (%)

	15-24				25-29			
	Total	Low	Medium	High	Total	Low	Medium	High
EU-27	15.5	20.1	13.5	10.7	8.8	15.2	8.2	6.3
BE	18.8	29.1	17.5	11.5	10.0	23.0	9.8	5.7
BG	15.1	29.5	12.3	u	7.5	(21.0)	6.2	u
CZ	10.7	31.2	8.6	(8.8)	5.2	26.9	4.5	2.5
DK	7.6	8.8	5.8	u	4.4	u	(3.1)	(4.6)
DE	12.0	16.0	8.6	u	9.6	29.9	8.1	3.8
EE	(10.0)	u	u	u	u	u	u	u
IE	9.0	16.9	7.6	(5.2)	4.7	11.8	5.3	(2.5)
EL	22.9	17.8	23.7	32.0	14.3	11.6	13.9	16.8
ES	18.2	20.7	16.5	13.5	9.1	11.2	8.5	7.9
FR	18.0	29.3	15.9	9.7	11.5	20.7	11.7	7.6
IT	20.3	22.5	19.0	19.3	10.4	11.5	8.6	14.0
CY	10.2	(12.3)	9.0	(10.7)	4.6	u	(4.3)	(5.3)
LV	10.7	(16.8)	9.4	u	6.5	u	(6.3)	u
LT	(8.2)	u	(8.1)	u	(5.0)	u	(5.6)	u
LU	(15.2)	(21.4)	u	u	(5.5)	u	u	u
HU	18.0	30.5	15.6	(12.3)	8.4	25.7	7.2	4.7
MT	13.9	17.7	u	u	u	u	u	u
NL	7.3	10.3	5.1	u	2.5	(5.9)	(2.0)	(1.7)
AT	8.7	12.4	6.2	u	5.4	(12.6)	4.6	u
PL	21.7	22.8	21.7	20.0	10.6	22.9	11.2	7.7
PT	16.6	16.2	14.8	25.9	11.7	11.0	9.9	14.7
RO	20.1	18.6	21.0	(21.1)	7.6	12.0	7.3	4.9
SI	10.1	(13.2)	(9.4)	u	8.1	u	(7.6)	(8.7)
SK	20.3	66.2	15.3	(19.0)	11.5	62.2	9.9	7.1
FI	16.5	24.1	12.2	u	7.8	(17.1)	8.5	4.4
SE	18.4	29.7	12.4	(12.3)	7.0	16.2	6.4	5.6
UK	14.3	26.4	11.3	6.4	4.9	10.9	5.3	2.1
HR	(24.0)	(29.5)	23.2	(26.9)	(12.9)	u	(11.2)	(14.3)
TR	16.8	13.9	19.4	25.4	10.7	10.2	10.9	11.6
IS	7.0	8.1	u	u	u	u	u	u
NO	7.4	11.3	u	u	2.6	u	u	u
CH	7.1	7.8	6.5	u	4.7	(8.3)	4.5	4.1

Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

Young people in unemployment and especially those in long-term unemployment are particularly at risk of social exclusion since they are sometimes not even entitled to unemployment benefits or other welfare transfers (e.g. if they do not have any work experience).

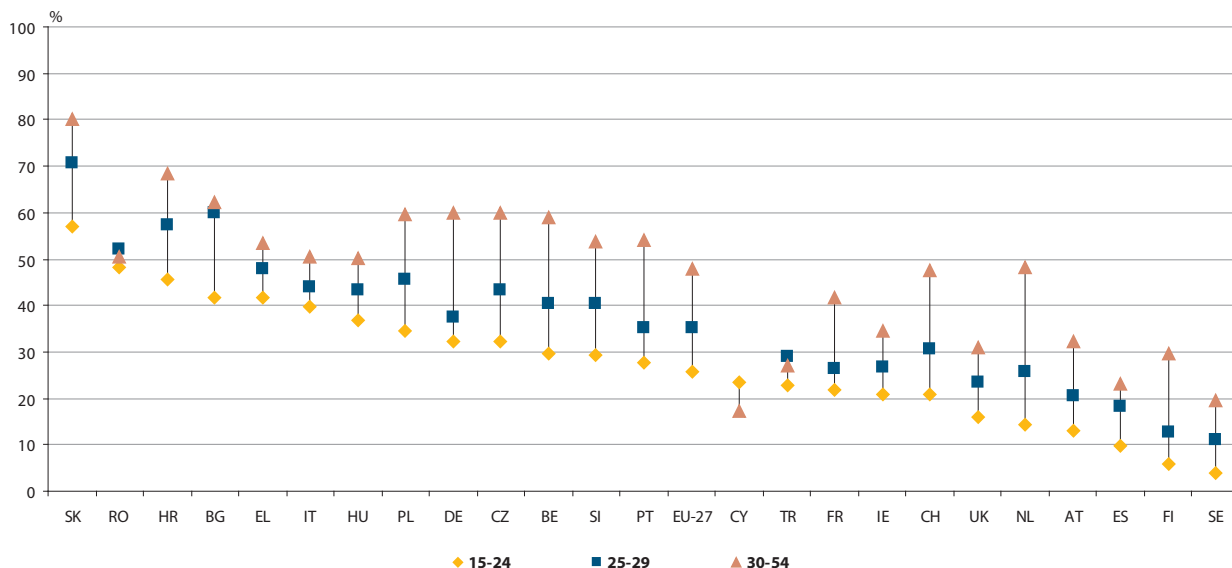
In 2007, 26 % and 35 % of unemployed people in Europe aged 15–24 and 25–29 respectively had been unemployed for 12 months or more (see Figure 5.6). This indicates a strong mismatch between the qualifications of young people and labour market needs, even though other national factors also need to be taken into account, such as the general labour market conditions.

At national level, there is a large amplitude in the shares of people in long-term unemployment among all unemployed people. Indeed, these shares ranged from 4 % in Sweden to

57 % in Slovakia for people aged between 15 and 24. In Bulgaria, Greece, Italy, Hungary, Poland, Slovakia and Romania, more than one third of unemployed people in this age group have been unemployed for more than one year. Among those aged between 25 and 29, half of the countries reported long-term unemployment shares higher than the EU average which stood at 35 %.

However, unemployed people aged 30–54 were generally the most affected by long-term unemployment. This suggests that it is more difficult for people in this age group to find a (new) job than for the young people. The reasons to explain this can include the higher mobility and adaptability of young people, the lower pay offered to young people than to their more experienced elders but also a more frequent return to education for those aged 15–24 after an unemployment spell.

Figure 5.6: Long-term unemployed people as a percentage of total unemployed people, by age group, 2007



Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

Note: DK, EE, LV, LT, LU, MT and NO — CY (25–29): unreliable or uncertain data due to too small sample size; CY (35–54) — IE, AT, FI and HR (25–29) — CY, SI, FI and HR (15–24): data lack reliability due to small sample size.

Long-term unemployed persons are persons who have been unemployed for one year or more. Long-term unemployment shares show the percentage of the long-term unemployed persons in the total unemployed population in the same age group.

Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS



Are young people paying the price of the current economic crisis?

Although it is too early to measure the full impact of the current economic crisis on the European economies, recent data indicate that unemployment has been rising sharply in the European Union since the first quarter of 2008.

At EU-27 level, the unemployment rate of young people aged 15–24 has increased by 4 percentage points between the first quarter of 2008 and the first quarter of 2009, reaching 18.9 % in the first quarter of 2009. This increase was especially high in the Baltic States, Spain and Ireland. The unemployment rate of young people aged 15–24 has increased in nearly all European countries over the period under review, and ranged from 6.5 % in the Netherlands to 35.7 % in Spain in the first quarter of 2009.

At EU-27 level and in nearly all Member States, the unemployment rate increased at a much faster pace among the population aged 15–24 than among the population aged 25–59, which recorded an increase of 1.4 percentage points between the first quarter of 2008 and the first quarter of 2009.

Quarterly unemployment rates by age group, 2008–2009 (%)

	15-24					25-59				
	2008q01	2008q02	2008q03	2008q04	2009q01	2008q01	2008q02	2008q03	2008q04	2009q01
EU-27	14.9	15.1	15.7	16.4	18.9	6.2	5.9	5.8	6.3	7.6
BE	16.5	14.3	22.7	17.8	20.8	6.3	5.7	6.2	5.8	6.8
BG	14.4	13.1	11.4	12.1	14.2	5.9	5.1	4.6	4.4	5.7
CZ	10.1	8.6	10.3	10.4	13.0	4.4	3.9	3.9	4.0	5.3
DK	6.9	7.2	8.7	7.6	9.5	2.8	2.4	2.4	2.9	4.6
DE	10.6	10.8	11.1	9.5	11.1	8.0	7.4	6.6	6.6	7.7
EE	:	(8.9)	14.7	15.8	24.5	3.7	3.6	5.3	6.6	10.3
IE	8.8	10.7	15.1	15.9	19.3	4.1	4.5	5.4	6.4	9.2
EL	23.4	20.6	21.3	23.0	25.5	7.5	6.5	6.4	7.1	8.5
ES	21.3	23.9	24.2	29.2	35.7	8.4	9.0	9.9	12.4	15.7
FR	17.2	16.9	17.7	20.7	22.5	6.4	5.9	6.0	6.5	7.3
IT	21.3	20.4	19.5	23.9	26.3	6.1	5.8	5.1	5.9	6.7
CY	11.2	7.1	8.4	9.3	10.0	3.8	2.7	3.1	2.8	4.0
LV	10.7	11.9	12.2	18.5	28.2	6.3	5.9	7.0	9.3	12.7
LT	(10.1)	(10.8)	15.0	17.3	25.0	4.5	3.9	5.0	7.0	10.9
LU	(17.3)	(13.5)	23.0	(18)	:	3.3	4.4	4.2	4.3	:
HU	20.1	18.8	20.8	19.7	25.3	7.2	6.9	6.8	7.2	8.7
MT	12.4	12.9	11.4	12.3	12.6	4.7	4.7	4.7	5.1	5.4
NL	5.7	5.6	4.9	5.0	6.5	2.5	2.2	1.9	2.0	2.4
AT	8.1	6.8	8.2	9.0	9.2	3.6	3.0	3.1	3.2	4.0
PL	18.9	17.1	16.1	17.1	19.3	6.9	6.1	5.6	5.6	7.1
PT	16.4	14.3	17.1	18.0	20.1	7.3	7.1	7.4	7.4	8.5
RO	19.8	17.4	19.2	17.9	21.3	5.3	4.7	4.2	5.0	5.7
SI	12.8	(9.3)	9.1	10.9	14.3	4.3	3.6	3.5	3.6	4.6
SK	19.0	19.1	19.4	18.6	22.4	9.6	9.1	7.9	7.7	9.3
FI	17.1	22.2	11.2	14.2	19.1	5.5	4.9	4.9	5.0	6.4
SE	20.5	25.1	16.2	18.8	24.3	4.4	4.0	4.0	4.4	5.7
UK	13.3	13.9	16.6	16.0	17.5	3.8	3.8	4.2	4.5	5.4
HR	25.0	(20)	(20.2)	22.6	:	8.6	6.9	5.7	7.4	:
TR	19.0	14.8	17.1	21.6	25.2	8.8	6.7	7.1	9.0	12.5
IS	6.4	10.7	4.9	10.9	12.2	1.5	1.2	2.1	2.9	6.5
NO	7.2	8.5	7.2	7.1	8.7	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.9	2.2
CH	:	7.0	:	:	:	:	2.8	:	:	:

Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

Note: MT: 2008q1: break in serie.

THE LONG ROAD TO A STEADY JOB

The employment rate is an essential indicator used in monitoring the labour market situation of a specific population since it represents the number of employed people as a percentage of the total population. Nonetheless, in the case of young people, this indicator should be complemented by information on those who are employed but are also attending formal and/or non-formal education and training. In fact, it is not rare for young people to combine education and work (often part-time) for various purposes

(apprenticeship, gaining a first experience in the labour market, earning money to finance studies, living expenses or leisure activities, etc.).

In 2007, 51 % of the EU population aged 15–29 was employed at least one hour per week (see Table 5.4). Employment rates reached more than 70 % in Denmark, the Netherlands as well as Iceland and Switzerland whereas it stood below 40 % in Bulgaria, Italy and Turkey.

Table 5.4: Employment rates of young people by age group, 2007 (%)

	15-29	15-24	25-29
EU-27	50.6	37.0	75.3
BE	45.5	27.5	79.4
BG	39.0	24.5	72.6
CZ	46.2	28.5	75.3
DK	71.1	65.3	82.2
DE	54.8	45.1	74.0
EE	49.0	34.5	80.1
IE	62.0	48.4	83.3
EL	43.6	24.0	72.4
ES	55.4	39.1	78.6
FR	47.8	32.5	77.6
IT	39.6	24.7	64.3
CY	56.3	37.4	83.7
LV	50.8	38.4	78.8
LT	41.1	25.2	79.7
LU	43.7	22.5	80.3
HU	40.2	21.0	71.6
MT	57.1	45.7	79.3
NL	73.1	65.9	87.4
AT	64.2	55.5	80.6
PL	42.5	25.8	73.7
PT	51.4	34.9	77.2
RO	40.5	24.4	70.0
SI	53.6	37.6	80.6
SK	43.4	27.6	72.1
FI	55.7	44.4	77.8
SE	54.3	42.2	80.1
UK	60.5	50.8	80.1
HR	40.8	26.5	75.3
TR	39.1	30.4	54.6
IS	78.0	74.3	84.3
NO	64.0	54.5	82.9
CH	70.4	62.6	85.1

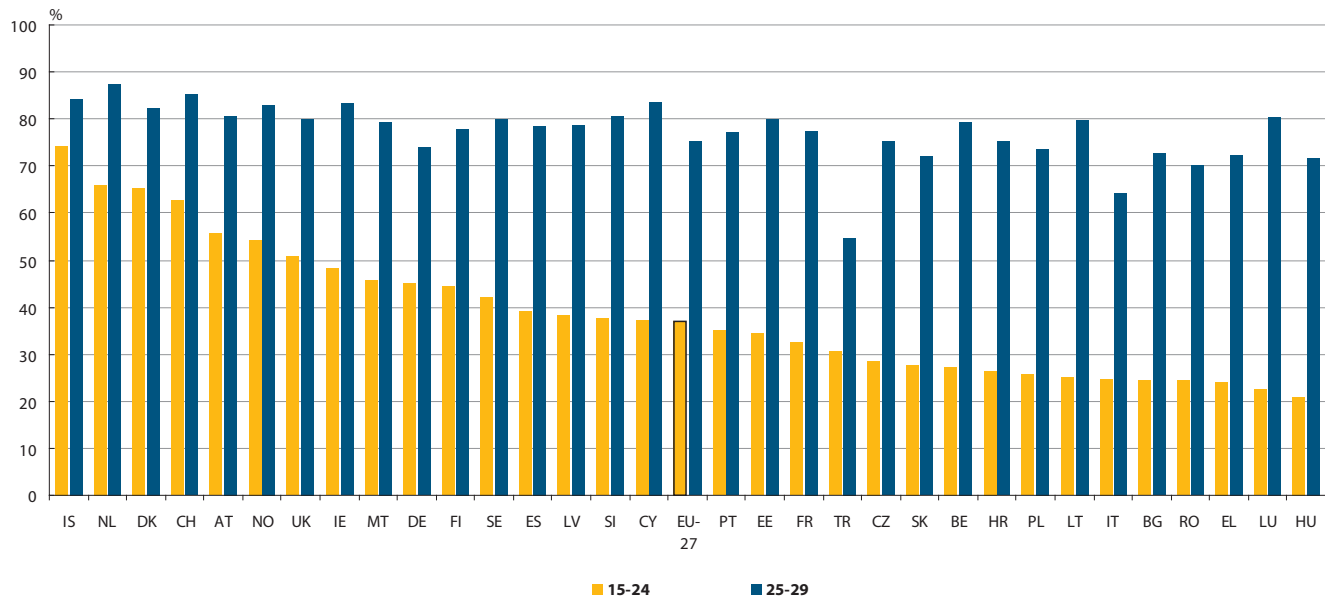
Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS



In 2007, employment rates among young people aged 25–29 were on average twice as high as employment rates observed for the younger age group (15–24) (see Figure 5.7). Most young people aged 25–29 are considered to have already made the transition from education to the labour market. In the

European Union, 75 % of young people in this age group were already employed, and the employment rate of the population aged 25–29 varied from 87 % in the Netherlands to 64 % in Italy and 55 % in Turkey.

Figure 5.7: Employment rates of young people, by age group, 2007 (%)

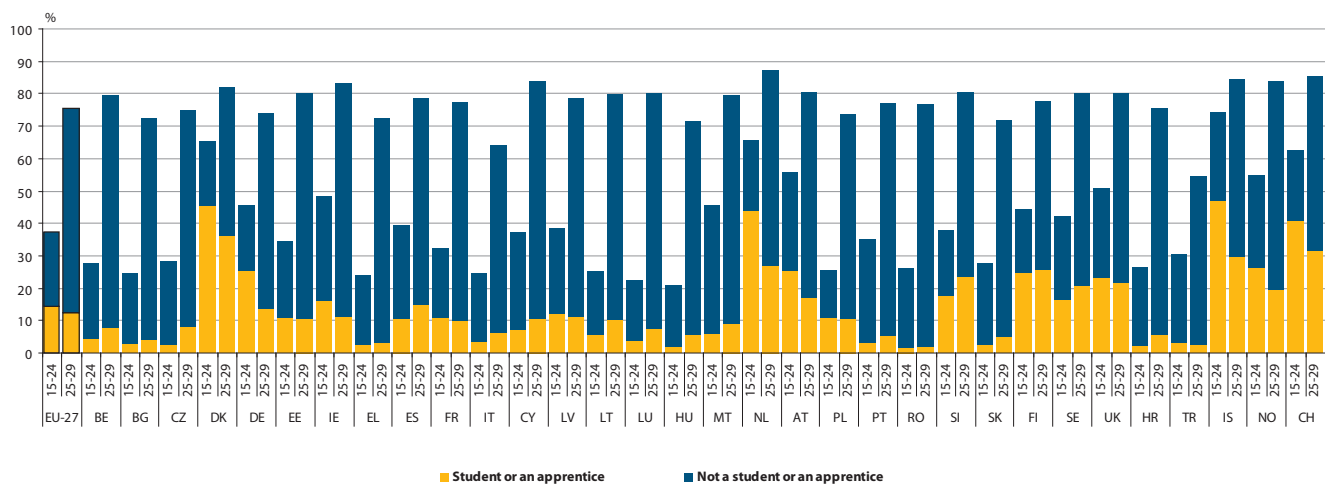


Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

At EU-27 level, around 14 % of persons aged 15–24 were employed and studying or in training (compared to 12 % for the 25–29 age group — see Figure 5.8). This share was much higher in some countries, namely Denmark, the Netherlands

and Iceland. Conversely, Romania reported the lowest share of young employed people in education, with about 2 % for both age classes.

Figure 5.8: Employment rates of young people, by age group and by participation in formal or/and non-formal education and training, 2007 (%)



Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

Note: LU, HR (student or an apprentice): data lack reliability due to small sample size for the age group 15–24; EE, LU, MT, HR (student or an apprentice): data lack of reliability due to small sample size for the age group 25–29.

Professional status varies among young people in employment: they can be self-employed (with or without employees), employees or family workers. As highlighted below (see Table 5.5), the large majority of young people who are occupied in the labour market are employees. However, in Greece, Italy (25–29 age group), Romania as well as in Turkey, young employees accounted for less than 80 % of total employment. These countries reported also the highest shares of family workers and self-employed workers. These countries reported a higher share of employment in the agricultural sector than the EU average (which stood at 5 %). For instance, in Romania and Turkey the agricultural sector accounted for more than 20 % of total employment, whereas in Greece it represented 11 %.

The proportion of young people running their own business is very low in Europe. In the EU-27 only about 4 % of young people aged 15–24 and 9 % of those aged 25–29 were self-employed in 2007. In all countries, the share of self-employed workers was higher among the population aged 25–29 than 15–24. Nevertheless, self-employed workers generally accounted for less than 10 % of the employed population aged

25–29, except in Greece, Italy, Cyprus, Poland, Romania, Slovakia and Turkey.

The low share of self-employment among young people is not surprising as many of them still lack the skills, experience and resources to open their own business. Indeed, young people are often at their first professional experience, and may wish to gain experience as employees before setting up their own business. However, lack of experience may not be the main reason not to be self-employed. Motivations such as challenges, being one's own boss and making more money are usually more cited among the driving factors that influence entrepreneurship.

Regarding professional status, the lowest shares (below 4 %) were reported for the category of family workers, except in Greece, Poland, Romania and Turkey. In Romania and Turkey, respectively 29 % and 25 % of the employed population aged 15–24 years were family workers. Once again, the higher proportion of family workers can be linked to the importance of agricultural sector in these countries.

Table 5.5: Professional status of young employed people, by age group, 2007 (%)

	15-24			25-29		
	Employee	Family worker	Self-employed	Employee	Family worker	Self-employed
EU-27	93.3	2.7	4.0	89.8	1.6	8.7
BE	95.4	0.6	4.0	91.4	(0.4)	8.2
BG	94.2	(2.3)	(3.4)	93.3	(1.1)	5.7
CZ	92.8	(0.6)	6.6	89.9	(0.2)	9.9
DK	98.4	u	u	94.1	(0.3)	5.6
DE	98.2	0.6	1.2	93.7	(0.5)	5.8
EE	92.8	u	u	92.8	(0.0)	u
IE	97.0	(0.9)	2.1	92.6	(0.4)	7.0
EL	76.1	16.2	7.8	77.8	7.3	14.9
ES	92.4	2.8	4.8	90.6	1.0	8.4
FR	97.9	(0.2)	1.9	94.7	(0.1)	5.2
IT	85.2	3.4	11.4	79.6	2.0	18.5
CY	91.1	(1.7)	7.2	88.3	(0.6)	11.0
LV	94.4	u	u	94.4	u	u
LT	92.2	u	u	91.0	u	u
LU	98.4	u	1.6	95.7	u	(4.3)
HU	96.4	(0.8)	2.7	93.4	(0.5)	6.1
MT	95.8	u	4.2	90.2	u	(9.8)
NL	96.4	(0.4)	3.3	93.5	(0.3)	6.2
AT	96.1	2.2	1.7	93.9	(0.6)	5.5
PL	85.8	8.7	5.5	86.4	3.5	10.1
PT	93.5	2.0	4.5	91.5	(0.9)	7.7
RO	60.9	27.8	11.3	77.2	11.4	11.4
SI	89.0	(8.9)	(2.1)	93.9	(1.8)	(4.3)
SK	94.4	(0.3)	5.3	88.1	(0.0)	11.9
FI	96.4	(0.9)	2.7	93.3	(0.2)	6.5
SE	97.5	(0.8)	1.7	94.9	(0.2)	5.0
UK	95.9	(0.2)	3.9	91.9	(0.2)	7.9
HR	90.0	u	u	90.0	u	u
TR	69.1	24.9	5.9	72.5	11.8	15.7
IS	98.2	u	u	93.8	0.2	6.0
NO	97.6	(0.7)	1.7	94.9	0.3	4.9
CH	93.5	3.6	2.8	92.5	1.6	5.8

Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS



Self-employed are persons who work in their own business, professional practice or farm for the purpose of earning a profit, and who either work on their own or employ at least one other person.

Employees are defined as persons who work for a public or private employer and who receive compensation in the form of wages, salaries, fees, gratuities, payment by results or payment in kind; non-conscript members of the armed forces are also included.

Family workers are persons who help another member of the family to run a farm or other business, provided they are not classed as employees.

Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

Young people generally tend to work as employees, but not all of them have a full-time permanent job. Employers may be reluctant to offer a permanent and full-time contract to somebody who is just entering the labour market with little or no previous experience. For many young people, a temporary

and/or part-time job is seen as a stepping-stone towards permanent employment, although the choice of a part-time or temporary job can be guided in some cases by family responsibilities or other personal reasons, including education and training.

Employees with temporary contracts are those who declare themselves as having a fixed-term employment contract or a job which will terminate if certain objective criteria are met, such as the completion of an assignment or the return of the employee who was temporarily replaced.

Full-time/part-time distinction in the main job is declared by the respondent except in the Netherlands, Iceland and Norway where part-time is determined if the usual hours are fewer than 35 hours and full-time if the usual hours are 35 hours or more, and in Sweden where this criterion is applied to the self-employed.

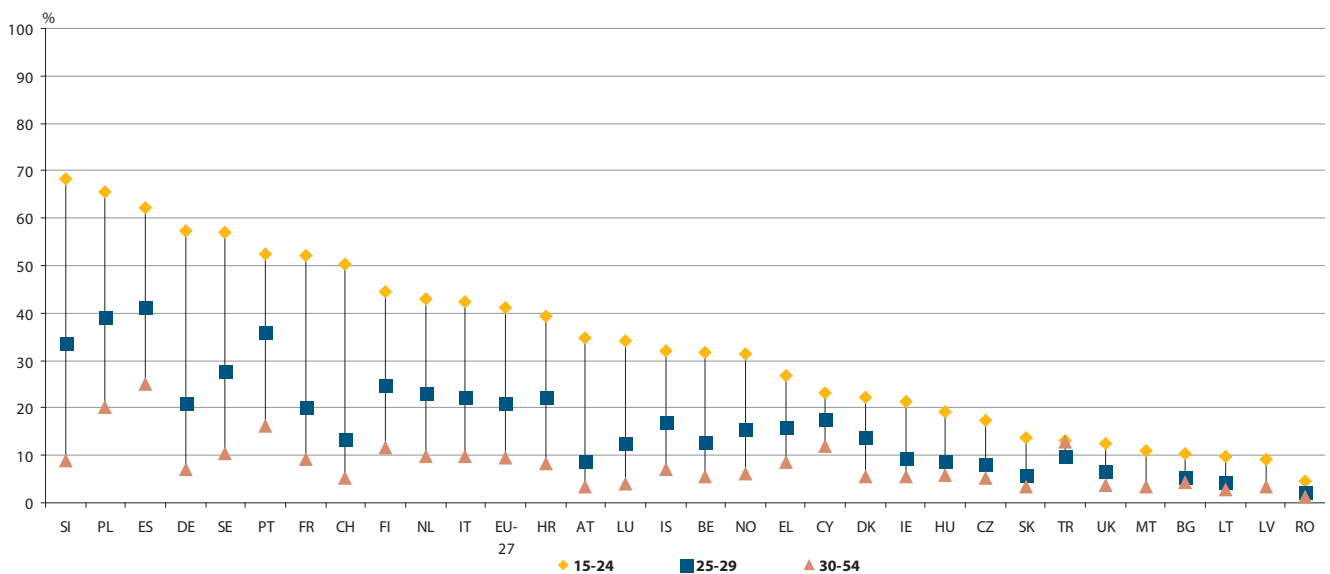
Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

At European level, on average four in ten employed persons aged 15–24 had a temporary contract in 2007, compared with around two in ten for the 25–29 age group (see Figure 5.9). Among the younger age class, more than 60% of employees in Slovenia, Poland and Spain reported working on a temporary basis.

temporary work is cut by half when considering young people aged 25–29. This reduction is more striking when considering people aged 30–54, among which less than 10% were in temporary employment (except in Spain, Cyprus, Poland, Portugal, Finland, Sweden and Turkey). In Spain and Poland more 20% of the population aged 30–54 were temporary workers.

The share of temporary workers tends to decrease with age. Indeed, at EU level the share of young employees in

Figure 5.9: Young employees in temporary work, by age group, 2007 (%)



Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

Note: countries are ordered by the percentage of young temporary workers among the 15 to 24-year-olds.

LT (15–24 and 25–29), MT (15–24 and 30–54), LU and HR (25–29): data lack of reliability due to small sample size; EE — LV and MT for the 25–29 age group: unreliable or uncertain data due to small sample size for the age class.

Temporary employment can be either voluntary or involuntary. The latter comprises persons that could not find a permanent job and persons with contracts comprising a training or probationary period.

In 2007, a majority of young Europeans were not willingly in temporary employment (see Table 5.6). This is also true at national level, except for Slovenia, where about 60 % of young people aged 15–24 in temporary work did not want a permanent job. The proportion of people making the deliberate choice of working on a temporary basis was slightly higher among those aged 15–24 than among the population aged 25–29 in all countries except Germany and Hungary.

In 2007, temporary workers aged 15–24 were more likely than their older counterparts to be offered a contract including a training period since many of them were still in education. Indeed, 40 % of young temporary workers aged 15–24 had a work contract including a period of training. However, the situation in this matter varies considerably between countries:

temporary employment often involved a contract covering a period of training in Germany and Austria. In many countries temporary jobs were not desired since people could not find a permanent job. For many young employees aged 25–29, not being able to find a permanent job was clearly the main reason for having a temporary contract (65 % at EU level and more than 80 % in Belgium, Greece, Spain, Portugal and Turkey).

The educational attainment level does not seem to have a significant influence on the reasons to have a temporary job. However, young people aged 15–24 with at most lower-secondary education and who were in temporary employment usually had a contract covering a period of training (see Figure 5.10), but better-qualified people in this age group also had difficulties in securing a permanent job.

Most young people aged 25–29, declared that they could not find a permanent job, whatever their educational attainment level.

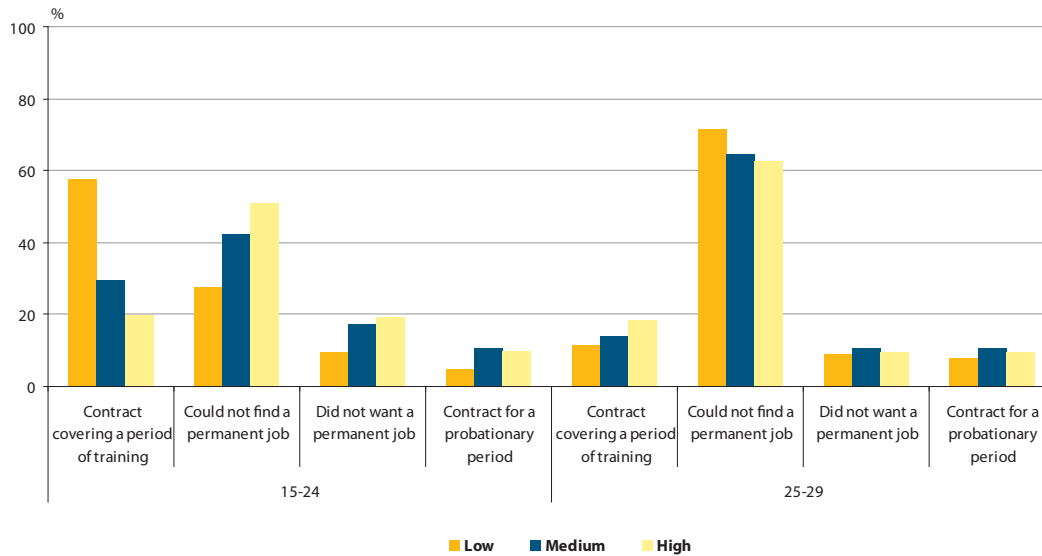
Table 5.6: Reasons for having temporary work, by age group, 2007 (%)

	15-24				25-29			
	Contract covering a period of training	Person could not find a permanent job	Person did not want a permanent job	Contract for a probationary period	Contract covering a period of training	Person could not find a permanent job	Person did not want a permanent job	Contract for a probationary period
EU-27	40.3	37.1	14.4	8.2	15.2	65.1	10.0	9.7
BE	19.7	64.3	16.0	u	(6.6)	87.9	(5.5)	u
BG	u	u	u	u	u	u	u	u
CZ	(5.1)	63.2	19.3	12.5	u	74.8	17.3	u
DK	52.4	22.5	23.3	(1.8)	38.3	38.1	u	u
DE	83.3	9.0	1.6	6.1	47.4	31.2	5.5	15.9
EE	u	u	u	u	:	u	u	u
IE	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
EL	23.2	62.9	(5.9)	(8.1)	10.2	82.3	u	u
ES	13.0	71.8	12.4	2.8	8.0	82.7	7.2	2.1
FR	30.8	39.1	23.0	7.0	12.4	60.9	21.6	5.1
IT	53.6	32.6	6.7	7.2	29.1	57.4	4.5	(9.0)
CY	u	u	u	u	u	u	u	u
LV	u	u	u	u	u	u	u	u
LT	u	u	u	u	u	u	u	u
LU	u	u	u	u	u	u	u	u
HU	(1.7)	55.3	16.6	26.5	(2.2)	52.9	22.1	22.8
MT	u	u	u	u	u	u	u	u
NL	5.3	31.2	28.8	34.6	(2.7)	41.7	7.9	47.6
AT	82.8	(4.1)	8.0	5.1	u	u	u	u
PL	21.5	59.5	6.9	12.1	10.1	73.0	5.5	11.4
PT	12.1	72.8	4.2	11.0	9.9	80.6	(2.0)	7.4
RO	u	u	u	u	u	u	u	u
SI	(3.2)	28.8	59.5	(8.5)	(9.0)	56.5	(24.2)	(10.3)
SK	u	66.7	32.0	u	u	u	u	u
FI	8.0	40.5	49.8	(1.7)	u	u	u	u
SE	u	42.9	45.0	u	(1.0)	60.9	25.0	13.1
UK	13.0	34.2	47.0	5.8	12.2	61.7	20.3	(5.9)
HR	u	u	u	u	u	u	u	u
TR	6.5	83.6	8.9	1.0	u	90.9	8.4	u
IS	u	u	69.0	u	u	u	u	u
NO	24.1	25.3	50.3	(0.3)	(7.0)	62.7	30.3	:
CH	99.6	:	:	(0.4)	:	:	:	:

Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS



Figure 5.10: Reasons for having temporary work, by age group and educational attainment level, EU-27, 2007 (%)



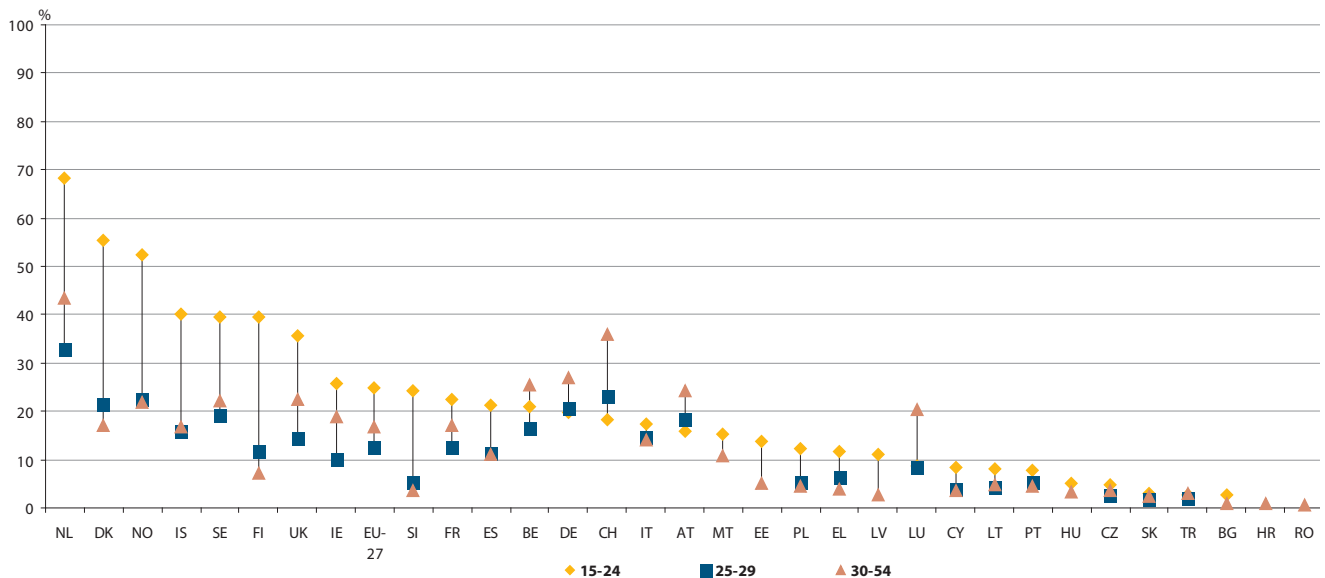
Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

WORKING PATTERNS: HOW LONG, WHEN AND WHERE DO YOUNG PEOPLE WORK?

Young people can enter the labour market not only as temporary workers but also as part-time workers. The two are not mutually exclusive, as one may have a part-time fixed-term contract. In 2007, on average, 25% of European employees aged 15–24 worked part-time (see Figure 5.11), mainly because they were still in education (see Table 5.7).

This proportion fell by half when considering the population aged 25–29. Considerable variations were noted across countries. Part-time work shares ranged from 3% in Slovakia to 68% in the Netherlands for employees aged 15–24, and from less than 2% in Slovakia to 33% in the Netherlands for employees aged 25–29.

Figure 5.11: Part-time workers as a percentage of total employment, by age group, 2007



Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

Note: only employees are considered. BG and EE (15-24), LT and LU (15-24 and 25-29), SI (25-29), HR (30-54): data lack reliability due to small sample size; BG, EE, CY, MT, RO and HR: the data are not shown for some age groups due to too small sample size.

In the EU the share of part-time workers aged 30–54 was generally lower than the share of part-time workers aged 15–24, but greater than that of those aged 25–29. However this was not the case in all Member States. Five countries (Belgium, Germany, Austria, Luxembourg and Switzerland) reported a different pattern: part-time employment rates were higher among the population aged 30–54 than the population aged 15–24 and 25–29.

Among young Europeans aged 15–24, the fact of being in education or training was the main reason for part-time

employment (see Table 5.7). For those aged 25–29 the reasons for having a part-time job were more diverse, including own illness, disability and other family or personal reasons; but looking after children or incapacitated adults was the most frequent reason. However a different picture emerges in some Member States: in Greece, France, Italy and Portugal a majority of part-time workers aged 25–29 declared to be in such a position because it was not possible for them to find a full-time job.

Table 5.7: Reasons for having a part-time job, as a percentage of all part-time workers, 2007 (%)

	15-24			25-29		
	Education or training	Could not find a full-time job	Other reasons	Education or training	Could not find a full-time job	Other reasons
EU-27	62.0	23.6	14.5	21.2	33.6	45.2
BE	25.5	37.2	37.3	(4.0)	30.4	65.6
BG	u	u	u	u	u	u
CZ	68.5	(13.2)	(18.4)	30.7	(16.6)	52.7
DK	84.7	7.2	8.1	53.1	17.8	29.1
DE	60.4	25.7	13.9	33.3	28.0	38.7
EE	u	u	u	u	u	u
IE	:	:	:	:	:	:
EL	37.9	49.6	(12.5)	(9.3)	69.1	21.5
ES	47.3	33.8	18.9	20.9	41.0	38.1
FR	18.1	58.1	23.8	(3.0)	55.5	41.5
IT	31.8	55.3	12.9	12.7	56.0	31.3
CY	u	u	u	u	u	u
LV	79.3	u	u	u	u	u
LT	u	u	u	u	u	u
LU	u	u	u	u	u	u
HU	(29.9)	41.2	(29.0)	u	u	45.9
MT	u	u	u	u	u	u
NL	83.3	6.0	10.7	23.3	10.6	66.1
AT	52.2	21.7	26.1	27.7	18.5	53.8
PL	57.4	17.6	25.0	(10.0)	41.3	48.7
PT	40.4	48.7	(10.9)	u	65.5	u
RO	u	u	u	u	u	u
SI	84.3	(2.8)	(12.8)	u	u	u
SK	u	u	u	u	u	u
FI	74.4	17.2	8.4	59.9	24.0	(16.1)
SE	44.4	40.8	14.9	21.9	43.7	34.3
UK	73.5	15.3	11.2	19.6	14.9	65.5
HR	u	u	u	u	u	u
TR	38.1	19.5	42.3	(3.1)	27.1	69.9
IS	83.4	(1.9)	14.6	u	u	64.3
NO	78.6	11.7	9.6	33.8	25.5	40.7
CH	68.4	10.6	21.0	27.4	14.0	58.5

Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

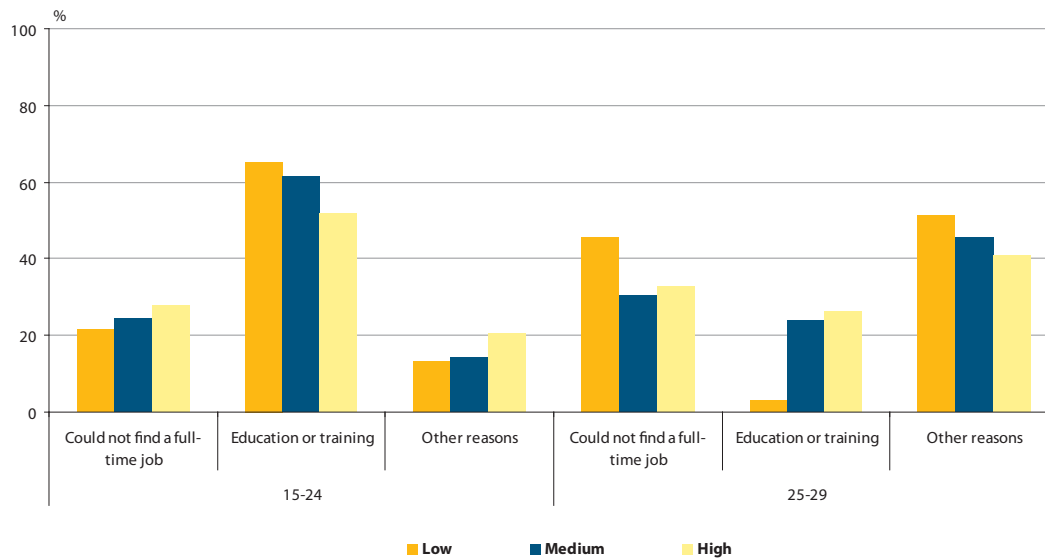
Note: the category 'other reasons' includes 'looking after children or incapacitated adults', 'other family or personal reasons', 'own illness or disability' and the category 'any other reasons'. Only employees are considered



Most people aged 15–24 chose to be in part-time employment in order to pursue their studies. In fact, this was the case for more than half of those working part-time, with the highest percentage notices for those with low educational attainment (see Figure 5.12).

Part-time workers aged 25–29 more often cited other reasons, such as family or personal reasons, own illness or disability to explain their situation. In this age group, people with a low educational attainment level declared more frequently than others that they could not find a full-time job.

Figure 5.12: Reasons for having a part-time job, as a percentage of all part-time workers, by age group and educational attainment level, EU-27, 2007



Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

Note: Only employees are considered. The category 'other reasons' includes 'looking after children or incapacitated adults,' 'other family or personal reasons,' 'own illness or disability' and the category 'any other reasons'. Low (25-29 age group): education and training: data lack reliability due to small sample size.

Apart from having a temporary or a part-time job, young people may also work during atypical hours (i.e. working evenings or at night, on Saturdays or Sundays or in shifts). Working atypical hours may be considered as a necessity for many workers depending on age.

Young people who are no longer in formal education may find that working during atypical hours is a burden as they may face difficulties in reconciling work and family life (or in

founding a family). Conversely, people who are still in formal education may consider such working hours as an opportunity to pursue formal education and to gain a first working experience as well as extra income.

Atypical working time

Shift work

The question of shift work applies only to employees. Shift work is a regular work schedule during which an enterprise is operational or provides services beyond the normal working hours from 8:00 to 18:00 on weekdays (evening closing hours may be later in the case of a longer break at noon in some Member states). Shift work is a work organisation under which different groups or crews of workers succeed each other at the same work site to perform the same operations. Shift work usually involves work during unsocial hours in the early morning, at night or in the weekend and the weekly rest days not always coincide with the normal rest days.

Evening or night work

Since the definitions of evening and night differ widely, it is not easy to establish a strictly uniform basis for all Member States. In general, however, evening work is considered to be work done after usual working hours but before the usual hours of sleep in the Member State concerned. It implies the opportunity to sleep at normal times. Night work is generally regarded as work done during usual sleeping hours and implies abnormal sleeping times. In this context, 'usually' is interpreted as meaning at least half the number of days on which the person worked during a four-week reference period before the interview; 'sometimes' is interpreted as meaning less than half the number of days worked (but at least one occasion) and 'never' as no occasion during the four-week reference period preceding the interview.

Working on Saturdays or Sundays

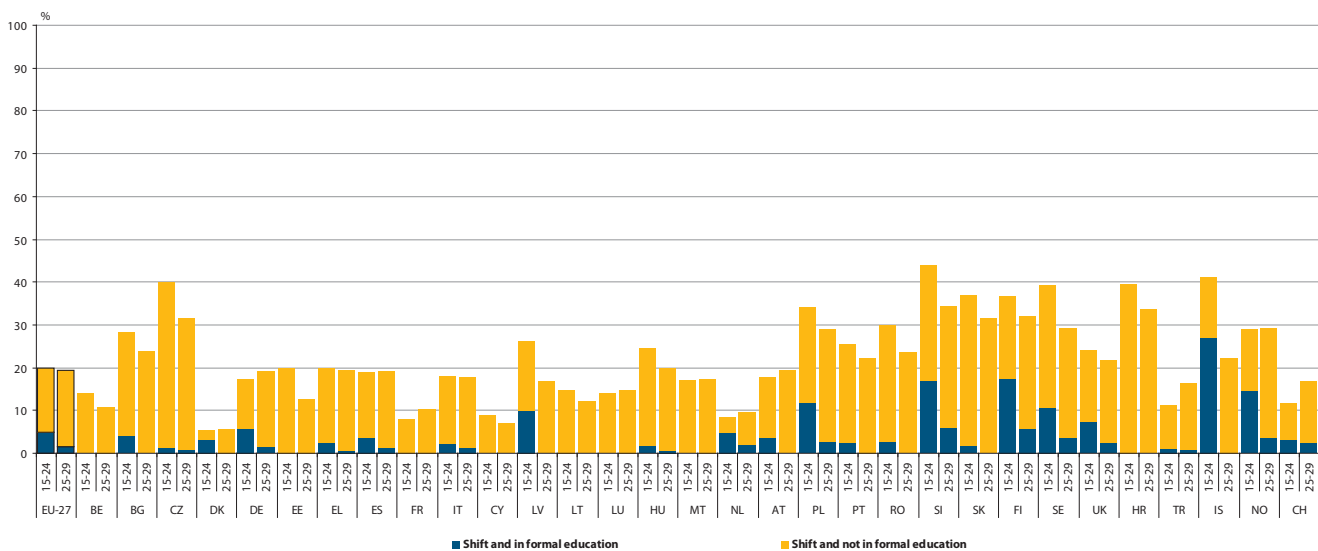
This concept is interpreted strictly on the basis of formal agreements concluded with the employer. Employees taking office work home and/or occasionally working at the workplace on Saturday or Sunday are not generally included under this heading. In this context, 'usually' may be interpreted as meaning two or more Saturdays (or Sundays) during a four-week reference period before the interview, 'sometimes' as one Saturday (or Sunday) in this period and 'never' as no Saturday (or Sunday) during the four-week reference period preceding the interview.

Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

In 2007, nearly 20% of employees aged 15–24 and 25–29 were working in shifts in the European Union (see Figure 5.13), which is slightly more than for employees aged 30–54. At national level, this proportion varied from 6% in Denmark (for both age groups) to 44% (age class 15–24) and 34% (age

class 25–29) in Slovenia. In almost all countries and for both age classes, there were fewer employees working in shift work and still attending formal education than employees having already left formal education.

Figure 5.13: Young employees working in shifts, by age group and by participation in formal education, 2007 (%)



Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

Note: IE: data not available; LU for the 15-24 age group, BE, FR and LU for the 25-29 age group: data on 'shift and formal education' are not available. BG and SK for the 15-24 age group; EL and SI for the 25-29 age group; HU: data on 'shift and formal education' lack reliability due to small sample size. BE, BG, DK, EE, FR, CY, LV, LT, LU, MT, AT, PT, RO, SK, HR, IS: the sub-division 'shift and formal education' for some age groups is not shown due to too small sample size.



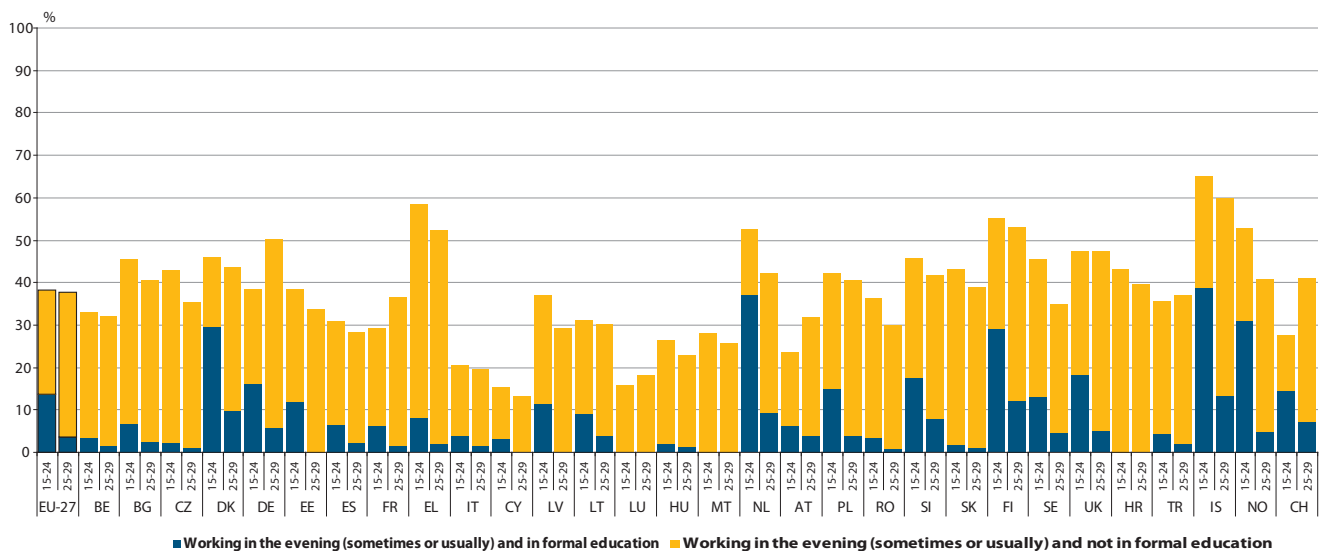
Atypical working hours are more usually associated with young people: evening work, night work or Saturday or Sunday work.

In 2007, 38 % of young European workers (aged 15–29) usually or occasionally worked in the evenings (see Figure 5.14). However, this percentage was higher than 50 % in Greece, Finland as well as Iceland. This share was slightly higher than that of employees aged 30–54.

In many countries (except Germany, France, Austria, the United Kingdom, as well as Turkey and Switzerland), the

share of employees working in the evenings was higher among the 15–24 age group than among the 25–29 age group. This may be explained either by the fact that young people who have left formal education may have difficulties finding a daytime job or by the fact that many young people combine formal education and work (as apprentices or otherwise). The proportion of employees aged 15–24 combining (regular or occasional) evening work and formal education ranged from 2 % in the Czech Republic to 37 % in the Netherlands and 39 % in Iceland. This share was around 30 % in Denmark, Finland and Norway.

Figure 5.14: Young employees working in the evening, by age group and by participation in formal education, 2007 (%)



Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

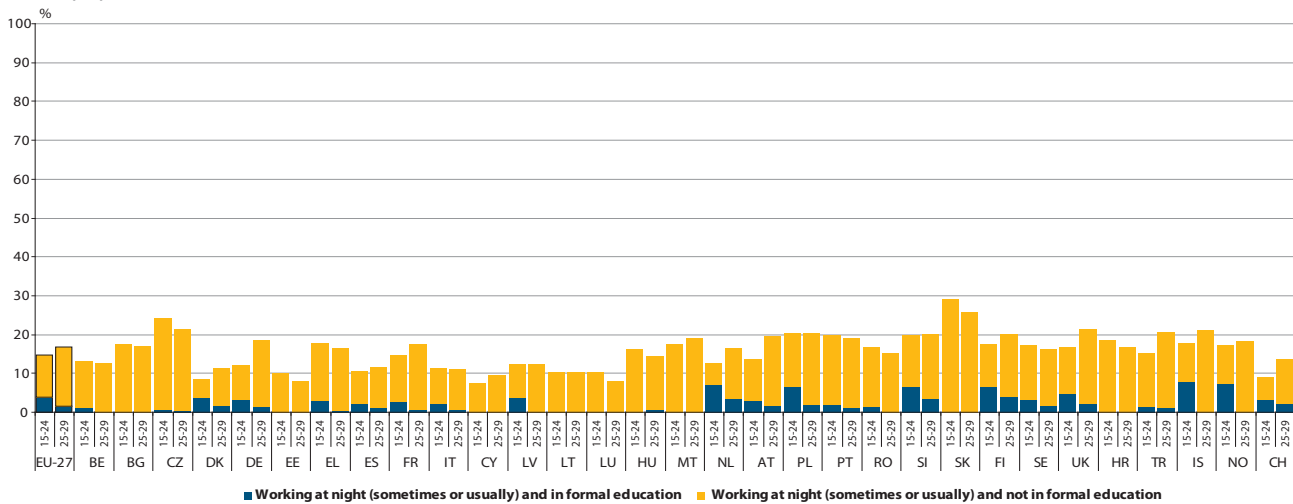
Note: EE, CY for the 15–24 age group; BG, RO, SI for the 25–29 age group; LT, SK: data for the category 'in formal education' lack reliability due to small sample size. LU, MT, HR; EE, CY, LV for the 25–29 age group: the sub-division between 'in formal education' and 'not in formal education' is not shown due to too small sample size.

Night work is less widespread among young employees than evening work. In 2007, at European level, 15 % of employees aged 15–24 and 17 % of those aged 25–29 were working (usually or sometimes) during usual sleeping hours (see Figure 5.15), which is no different from the pattern observed for older employees (30–54). At national level, this share ranged from 8 % (in Denmark) to 29 % in Slovakia for young people aged 15–24. Moreover, the percentage of young employees who combined formal education and night work (either usually or sometimes) was lower than 7 % for the age

class 15–24 (except in the Netherlands, Iceland and Norway) and below 5 % for the age class 25–29.

Regardless of age class, young employees no longer in education who worked at night were more numerous than those still in formal education (except in the Netherlands for those aged 15–24). Moreover, night work was more widespread among those aged 25–29 who were no longer in formal education than among their younger peers aged 15–24.

Figure 5.15: Young employees working at night, by age group and by participation in formal education, 2007 (%)



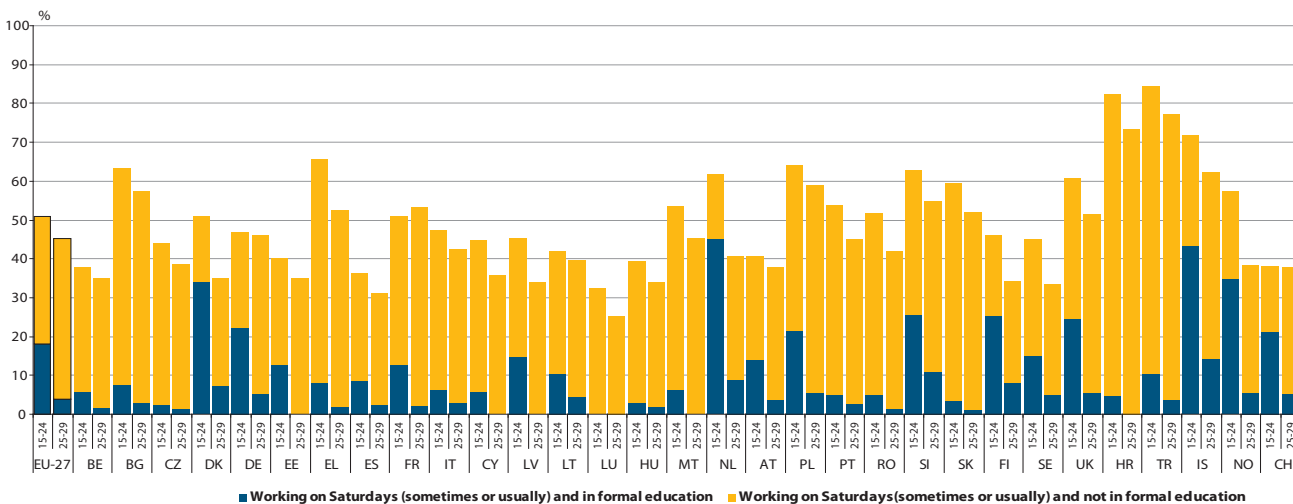
Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

Note: CZ and SI; BE, LV and RO for the 15-24 age group; DK, EL, HU and AT for the 25-29 age group: data for the category 'in formal education' lack reliability due to small sample size. BG, CY, LT, LU, MT, SK and HR: the sub-division between 'in formal education' and 'not in formal education' is not shown due to too small sample size. EE and HU for the 15-24 age group; BE, LV, RO, IS and NO for the 25-29 age group: the sub-division between 'in formal education' and 'not in formal education' is not shown due to too small sample size. EE (25-29): data not shown due to too small sample size.

At European level, Saturday work was the most common type of atypical working hours for young workers. In fact, 51 % of employees aged 15–24 and 45 % of those aged 25–29 worked on Saturdays either regularly or occasionally (see Figure 5.16). For both age categories, employees who were no longer in formal education comprised the majority of those who worked on Saturdays. This pattern was noted in most

countries except Denmark, the Netherlands, Finland, Iceland, Norway and Switzerland, where most employees aged 15–24 working on Saturdays were still in formal education. The share of young employees who are no longer in formal education and regularly work on Saturdays was especially high in Turkey, where they accounted for 73 % of employees aged 15–24 and 70 % of employees aged 25–29.

Figure 5.16: Young employees working on Saturdays, by age group and by participation in formal education, 2007 (%)



Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

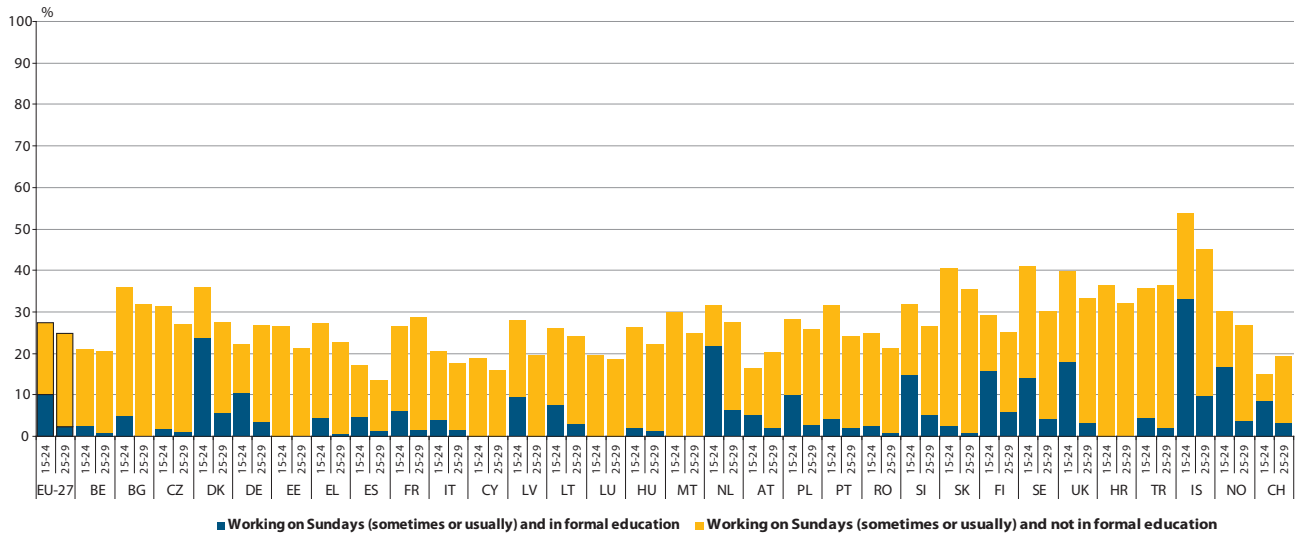
Note: LT; EE, MT, and HR for the 15-24 age group; BG and SK for the 25-29 age group: data for the category 'in formal education' lack reliability due to small sample size. LU; EE, CY, LV, MT and HR for the 25-29 age group: the sub-division between 'in formal education' and 'not in formal education' is not shown due to too small sample size.



On average, the percentage of young employees who regularly or occasionally work on Sundays was below 30% at the European level in 2007 (see Figure 5.17). Sunday work was more widespread among employed people aged 15–24 than among those aged 25–29 in most countries except Germany, France, Austria as well as Turkey and Switzerland.

The percentage of young employees aged 15–24 who work on Sundays (usually or sometimes) and are still in formal education was below 10% in a majority of countries. However, in the Netherlands, Denmark and Iceland, they accounted for 22%, 24% and 33% respectively.

Figure 5.17: Young employees working on Sundays, by age group and by participation in formal education, 2007 (%)



Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

Note: LT; BG and CY for the 15-24 age group; BE, EL, RO, SI, SK for the 25-29 age group: data for the category 'in formal education' lack reliability due to small sample size. EE, LU, MT, HR; BG, CY, LV for the 25-29 age group: the sub-division between 'in formal education' and 'not in formal education' is not shown due to too small sample size.

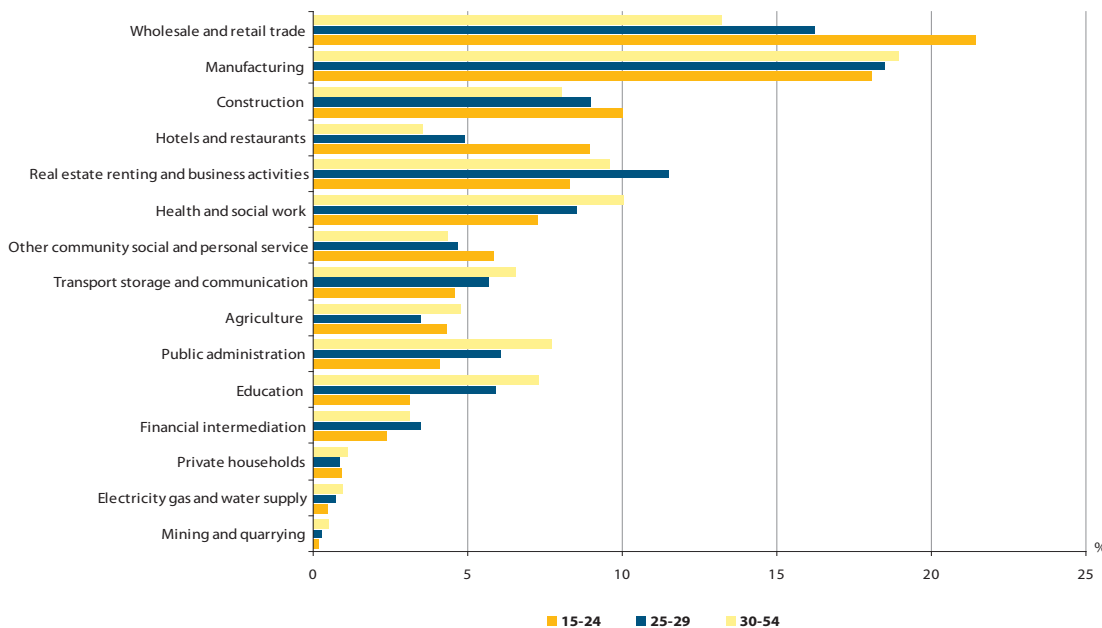
Analysing where young people work provides an indication not only on their preferred sector of employment, but also on which economic sectors need young people the most for their qualifications and adaptability. Moreover, some economic sectors also train young people still in formal education and offer them the possibility of earning money during their studies.

The distribution of the employed population by sector of activity and age group reveals differing patterns across ages (see Figure 5.18). In 2007, 58% of employed people aged 15–24 were occupied in 'wholesale and retail trade', 'manufacturing', 'construction', and 'hotels and restaurants'. These four sectors employed 49% of workers aged 25–29 years

and 44% of those aged 30–54.

'Manufacturing' and 'wholesale and retail trade' were the main sectors of employment for all age groups, but young people aged 15–24 were more concentrated in 'construction' and 'hotels and restaurants', whereas their elders were relatively more numerous in 'real estate renting and business activities' (25–29) or 'health and social work' (30–54).

Figure 5.18: Distribution of employed people by age group and economic sector, EU-27, 2007 (%)

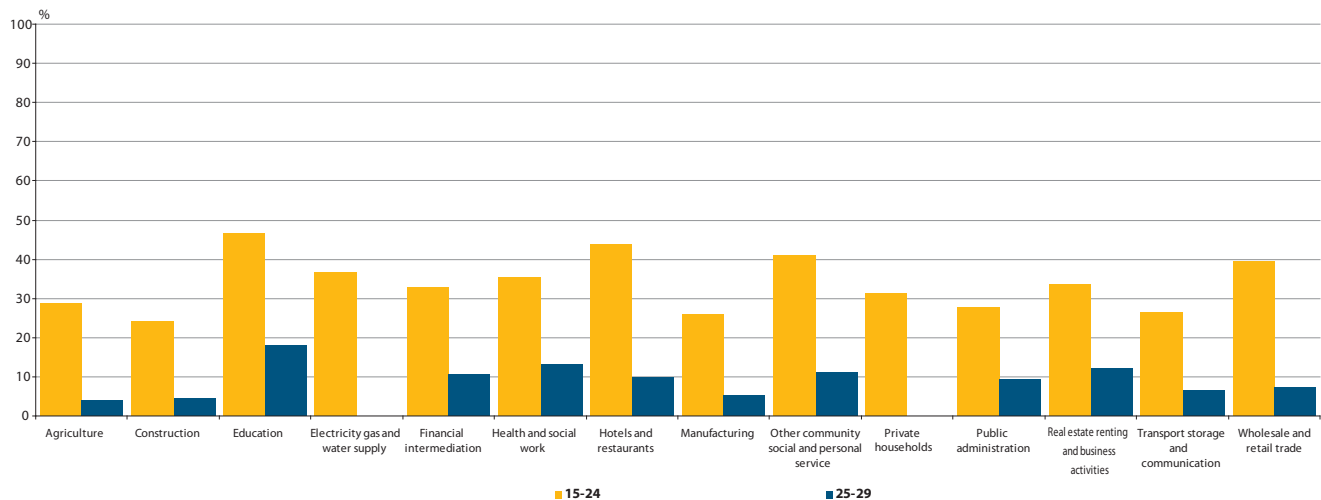


Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

Some economic sectors employed more young people than others (especially ‘hotels and restaurants’ and ‘wholesale and retail trade’). This employment structure by age across economic sectors may be partly attributable to the qualification levels required in each sector and the possibilities they offer regarding the combination of formal education and employment. In nearly all economic sectors, more than 20% of young workers aged between 15 and 24 combined formal education and employment (see Figure 5.19). In the four sectors employing the majority of young people aged between 15 and 24 (‘wholesale and retail trade’, ‘manufacturing’, ‘construction’, and ‘hotels and restaurant’), the shares of young

people still in formal education were respectively 39%, 26%, 24% and 44%. High shares of young employed people (15–24) still in formal education were also recorded in ‘education’ (47%) and ‘other community social and personal service’ (41%). Obviously, the share of employed people still participating in formal education decreased with age. In almost all sectors, less than 10% of employed people aged 25–29 were still in formal education. The ‘education’ sector is a notable exception: in this sector, 18% of workers aged 25–29 were still in formal education. This may be explained by the qualification level required to work in this sector and by the time devoted to teacher training.

Figure 5.19: Young employed persons still in formal education as a share of all young employed persons, by age group and economic sector, EU-27, 2007 (%)



Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

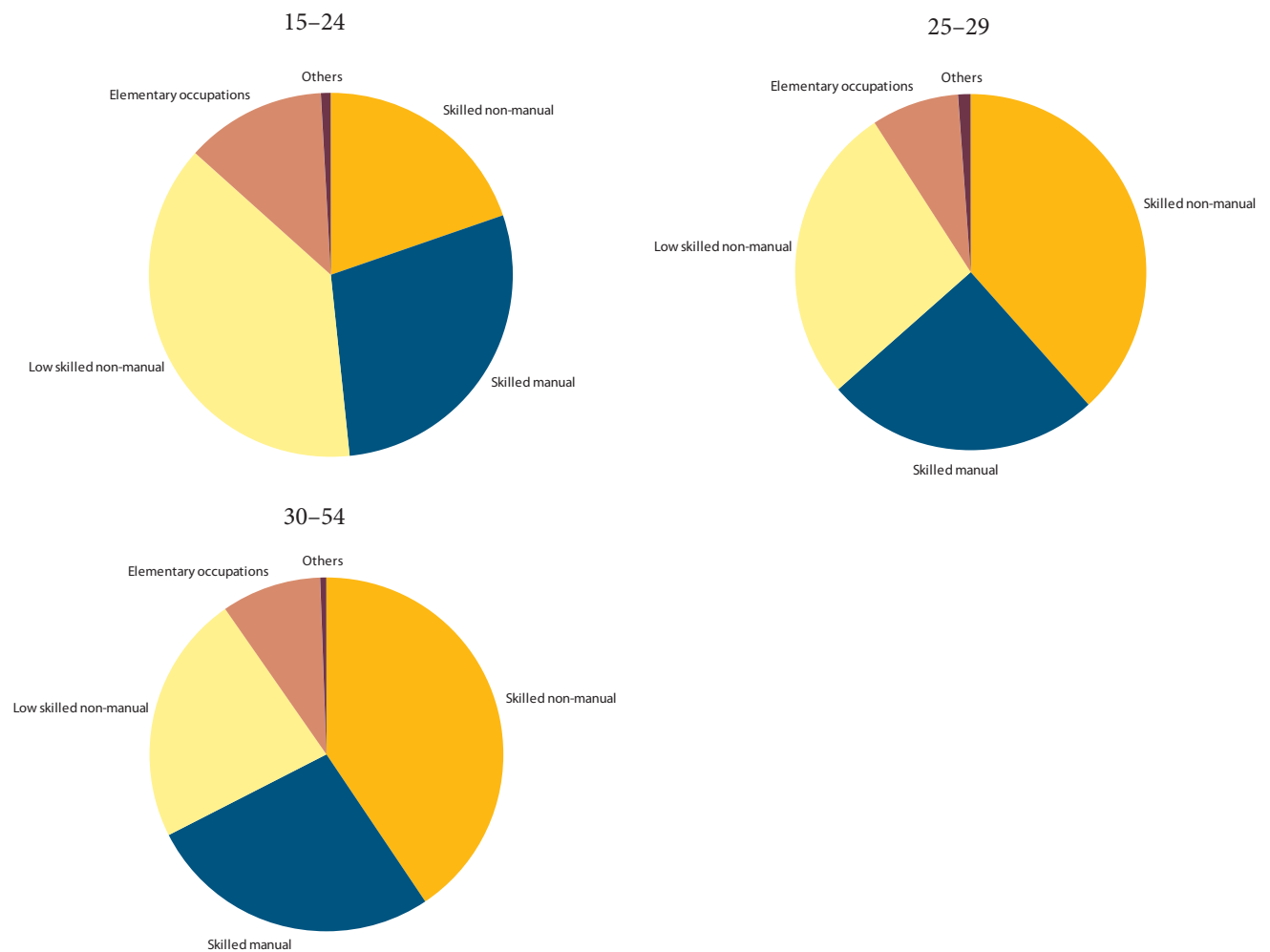
Note: ‘electricity, gas and water supply’ and ‘private households’ (formal education, 25–29): unreliable or uncertain data due to small sample size.



Regarding employment by occupation, it is not surprising that young people tend to work more frequently in occupations requiring lower qualifications than their elders who may be more qualified. This pattern may be accentuated by the fact that high proportions of young workers hold part-time jobs.

In 2007, 51 % of workers aged 15–24 in the EU were employed in elementary or low-skilled non-manual occupations (i.e. clerks or services workers and shop and market sales workers), against only 35 % and 32 % of the population aged 25–29 and 30–54 respectively (see Figure 5.20).

Figure 5.20: Occupational structure of the employed population, by age group, EU-27, 2007 (%)



Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

According to the **International Standard Classification of Occupations - ISCO-88 (Com)**, the category '**skilled non-manual**' includes 'legislators, senior officials and managers', 'professionals' and 'technicians and associate professionals'; the category '**low skilled non-manual**' includes 'clerks' and 'service workers and shop and market sales workers'; the category '**skilled manual**' includes 'skilled agricultural and fishery workers', 'craft and related traded workers' and 'plant and machine operators and assemblers'.

At European level, the proportion of young workers aged 15–24 employed in elementary occupations or in low-skilled non-manual occupations was around 1.5 times higher than among those aged 25–29 and 30–54 (see Table 5.8).

In all countries except the Czech Republic, they represented

more than one third of the population of workers aged 15–24 and their proportion was more than 60% in the Nordic countries (except Finland), the Netherlands and the United Kingdom. In these countries, many young people may still be in formal education.

Table 5.8: Distribution of the employed population according to occupation, by age group, EU-27, 2007 (%)

	15-24				25-29				30-54			
	Elementary occupations	Low skilled non-manual	Skilled manual	Skilled non-manual	Elementary occupations	Low skilled non-manual	Skilled manual	Skilled non-manual	Elementary occupations	Low skilled non-manual	Skilled manual	Skilled non-manual
EU-27	12.5	38.7	28.8	20.0	8.1	27.6	25.6	38.7	9.3	22.8	27.3	40.6
BE	10.1	33.8	27.5	28.6	8.1	27.5	19.1	45.3	9.8	24.9	19.6	45.7
BG	16.8	36.5	33.1	13.6	11.8	30.5	31.1	26.7	11.9	21.7	36.0	30.4
CZ	4.1	28.0	41.3	26.6	3.1	22.1	33.5	41.3	5.0	18.2	36.1	40.6
DK	25.0	44.5	18.4	12.0	7.1	27.0	19.1	46.9	8.4	21.8	19.2	50.6
DE	7.6	34.9	31.1	26.4	5.6	27.7	22.1	44.6	8.1	23.9	23.8	44.2
EE	(10.7)	26.0	36.4	27.0	u	u	30.4	48.2	8.0	15.6	34.2	42.3
IE	9.8	46.6	24.9	18.7	7.8	32.3	23.0	36.9	8.6	26.8	22.2	42.4
EL	5.6	45.1	36.8	12.5	5.3	34.5	28.8	31.4	7.0	24.6	32.3	36.1
ES	18.9	36.7	29.5	14.9	14.6	28.7	27.2	29.5	13.6	23.9	28.3	34.3
FR	10.2	34.5	31.1	24.2	6.9	27.8	24.4	40.9	10.2	23.8	24.7	41.3
IT	9.1	38.5	33.2	19.1	7.3	29.3	28.4	35.0	9.3	21.7	27.5	41.5
CY	16.9	42.9	21.2	19.0	13.6	35.6	15.9	34.9	14.8	30.5	21.7	33.0
LV	13.6	25.1	26.6	34.7	9.5	18.9	30.1	41.5	11.0	16.2	33.1	39.7
LT	(13.8)	25.9	35.9	24.4	(9.0)	18.6	32.1	40.3	9.4	16.4	36.4	37.9
LU	(11.9)	40.3	(24.2)	(23.6)	(8.8)	(27.8)	13.2	50.1	12.3	23.4	18.9	45.4
HU	8.8	35.7	35.6	19.9	4.9	27.1	31.9	36.0	7.9	23.7	34.3	34.1
MT	12.3	41.4	22.0	24.3	(8.8)	30.9	20.9	39.4	13.2	24.7	24.9	37.2
NL	21.8	42.0	16.1	20.1	5.3	26.6	15.8	52.3	6.7	23.1	16.4	53.8
AT	8.4	38.7	31.4	21.6	9.7	28.8	23.1	38.5	11.9	25.3	23.4	39.4
PL	8.6	36.5	39.0	15.9	5.8	24.9	32.3	36.9	8.0	16.8	41.2	34.0
PT	14.6	38.4	35.3	11.7	9.8	32.3	29.6	28.2	13.4	24.3	35.7	26.6
RO	18.3	18.5	53.9	9.2	10.2	17.6	42.3	29.8	10.9	16.1	49.7	23.3
SI	15.0	35.6	35.4	13.9	(3.8)	23.8	28.6	43.7	6.8	19.5	33.4	40.3
SK	9.3	30.3	38.5	21.9	6.8	22.2	34.0	37.0	8.3	19.6	36.2	35.9
FI	18.4	36.6	27.6	17.3	5.5	23.5	24.8	46.1	6.4	20.3	24.4	48.9
SE	13.5	47.3	26.0	13.2	5.1	31.1	20.7	43.1	4.8	24.8	21.2	49.2
UK	14.7	51.6	15.1	18.6	10.6	31.0	14.7	43.7	9.0	26.4	17.0	47.6
HR	(9.6)	38.7	37.4	(14.3)	(6.6)	(34.0)	30.3	29.1	8.3	27.6	33.6	30.5
TR	17.3	27.7	43.7	11.3	13.4	23.4	38.9	24.2	14.4	15.6	46.2	23.8
IS	17.6	51.9	17.6	12.9	8.0	30.2	19.8	42.0	5.0	20.0	23.1	51.9
NO	9.4	56.0	24.4	10.2	4.2	29.5	21.7	44.7	4.0	26.9	20.6	48.6
CH	3.6	35.2	32.1	29.2	4.4	24.1	23.4	48.2	5.6	23.3	21.8	49.4

Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

Note: the category 'others' is excluded.

Not surprisingly, the share of young people (15–24) employed in skilled manual and skilled non-manual occupations was lower than in the older age groups (25–29 and 30–54). At the European level, they accounted for 49% of employed persons in the 15–24 age class. This share increased to 64% and 68% for the 25–29 and 30–54 age classes respectively. This may be attributable to the fact that young people aged between 15 and 24 years have not yet completed the necessary level of education to work in such positions or lack the required work

experience to aspire to senior or management positions. This seems especially true when considering skilled non-manual occupations (legislators, senior officials and managers, professionals, technicians and associate professionals): 20% of young people (aged 15–24) work in skilled non-manual occupations; this share increased to 39% for the 25–29 age group.



YOUNG ENTREPRENEURS: WELL-PREPARED TO MEET LIFE'S CHALLENGES?

Entrepreneurship is at the heart of the economy and fosters economic dynamism, growth and job creation. However, becoming self-employed is easier said than done. The main barrier for new entrepreneurs is an administrative one, access to finance and contacts with customers.

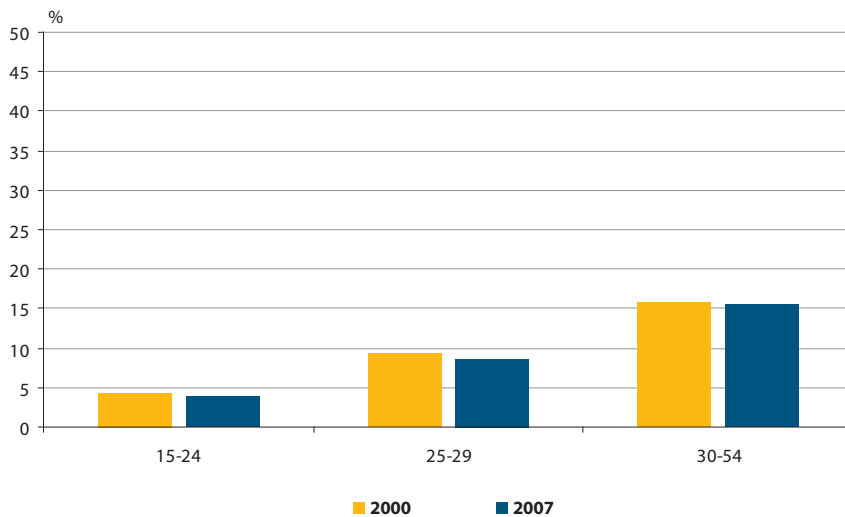
This is why the challenge for the European Union is to continue promoting the key factors for building a climate in which entrepreneurial initiative and business activities can thrive. Policy measures have been taken to boost the EU's levels of entrepreneurship, adopting the most appropriate approach for motivating more entrepreneurs and for getting more firms to grow⁽⁴⁾.

Only about 4 % of young workers aged 15–24 and 9 % of those

aged 25–29 were self-employed in the EU-27 in 2007 (see Table 5.5 and Figure 5.21). These shares increased significantly when considering people aged 30–54. Overall, more than 15 % of employed persons were self-employed with or without employees in 2007. In general, most self-employed workers do not have employees. However, the share of self-employed workers with employees increases with age even if it remains below 50 %.

Over the period 2000–2007, the share of self-employed workers decreased slightly among young Europeans. With twice the European average in 2007, Italy reported the highest share of self-employed workers among young people for both age classes (15–24 and 25–29) (please refer to Table 5.5) .

Figure 5.21: Proportion of self-employed workers among all workers, by age group, EU-27, 2000 and 2007 (%)



Source: Eurostat, EU-LFS

⁽⁴⁾ For more details refer to the European green paper *Entrepreneurship in Europe* - http://ec.europa.eu/enterprise/entrepreneurship/green_paper/green_paper_final_en.pdf

The **Survey on Factors of Business Success** (FOBS) is a follow-up to the data collection exercise for business demography. While the business demography project provides data on enterprise births, survivals, deaths and related changes in employment, the purpose of this survey is to shed more light on factors that support or hamper the success of newly born enterprises.

Information is presented on the motivations for starting-up a business, barriers and risks encountered during the first years of existence, the current situation of the enterprise, and business plans for future development. This information is relevant for better targeted policy-making to boost entrepreneurship.

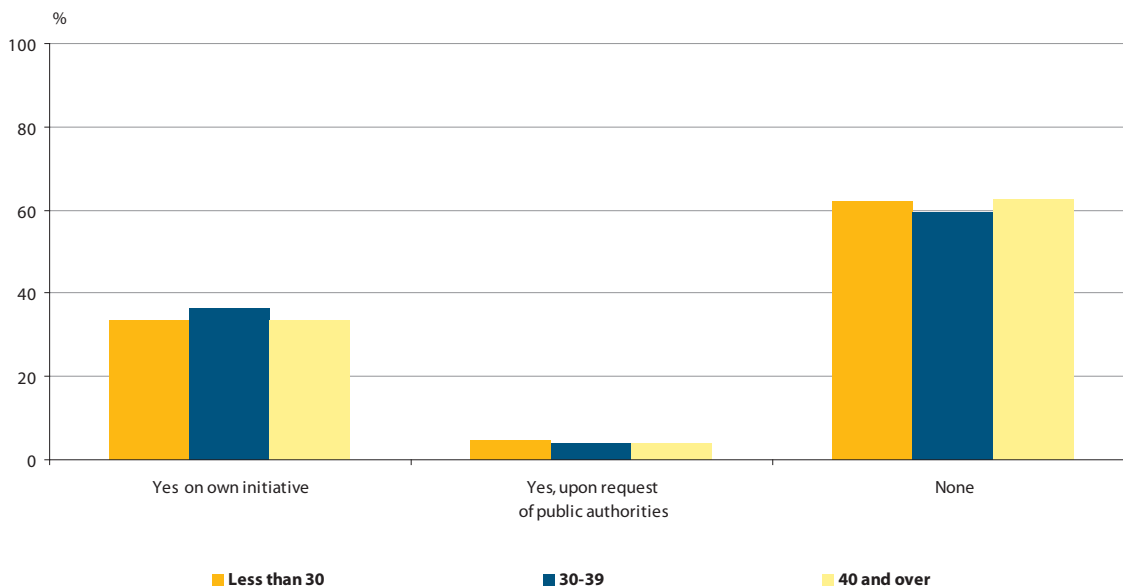
The population that was surveyed in this project was enterprises created in 2002, that had survived to 2005, and that were still managed by their founders at the time of the survey. The survey was carried out from June 2005 to January 2006 by the National Statistical Institutes of 15 EU Member States (Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, France, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Austria, Portugal, Romania, Slovenia, Slovakia and Sweden), on a voluntary basis.

Source: Eurostat, Factor of Business Success statistics

Besides creativity, innovation and risk acceptance, turning ideas into action (i.e. entrepreneurship) needs specific skills to plan and manage projects in order to achieve business objectives. Such skills may be gained through experience but also through specific training. According to the FOBS, 60 % of entrepreneurs did not have any special training to help start up, and if training was received, it was acquired on their own initiative (see Figure 5.22).

In fact, more than one third of young entrepreneurs followed training on their own initiative and only 5 % did so at the request of public authorities. Italy and France were notable exceptions: in Italy around 50 % of entrepreneurs followed specific training courses on their own initiative, while a quarter of French entrepreneurs did so at the request of a public authority. The same pattern applies for all ages: the attendance rate of young entrepreneurs to specific training courses was not higher than that of their older counterparts.

Figure 5.22: Training received to help the start-up of enterprises, EU-27, 2005 (%)



Source: Eurostat, FOBS survey

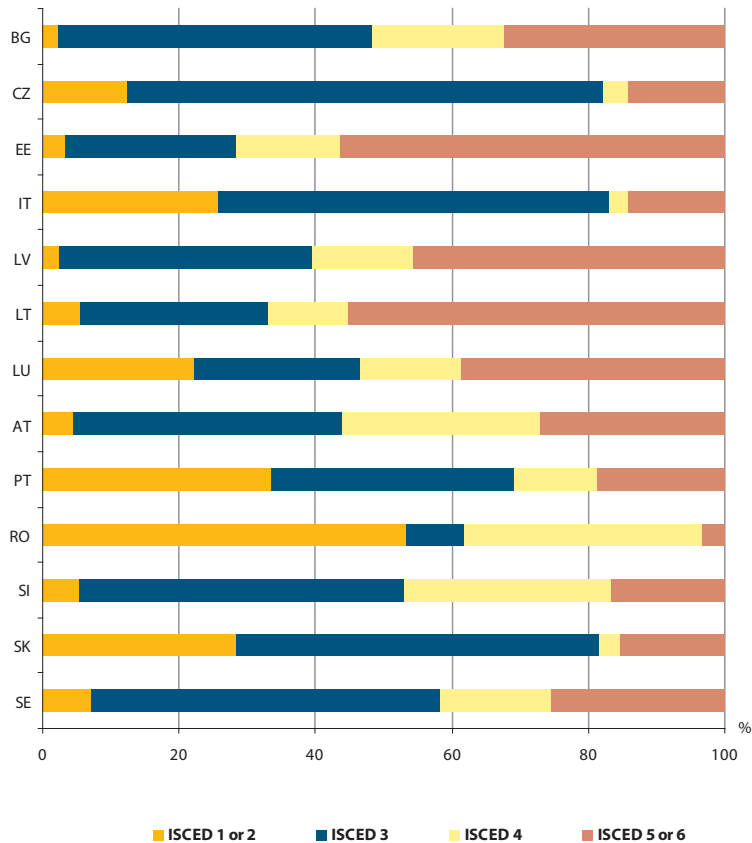
Note: the aggregate 'EU' consists of AT, BG, CZ, DK, EE, FR, IT, LV, LT, LU, PT, RO, SI, SK and SE.



Young entrepreneurs come from diverse educational backgrounds (see Figure 5.23). Data from the FOBS survey show that a high proportion of young entrepreneurs have completed higher education in the Baltic States while in

Romania the majority of them have only completed lower secondary education.

Figure 5.23: Educational attainment level of entrepreneurs aged under 30 years, 2005 (%)

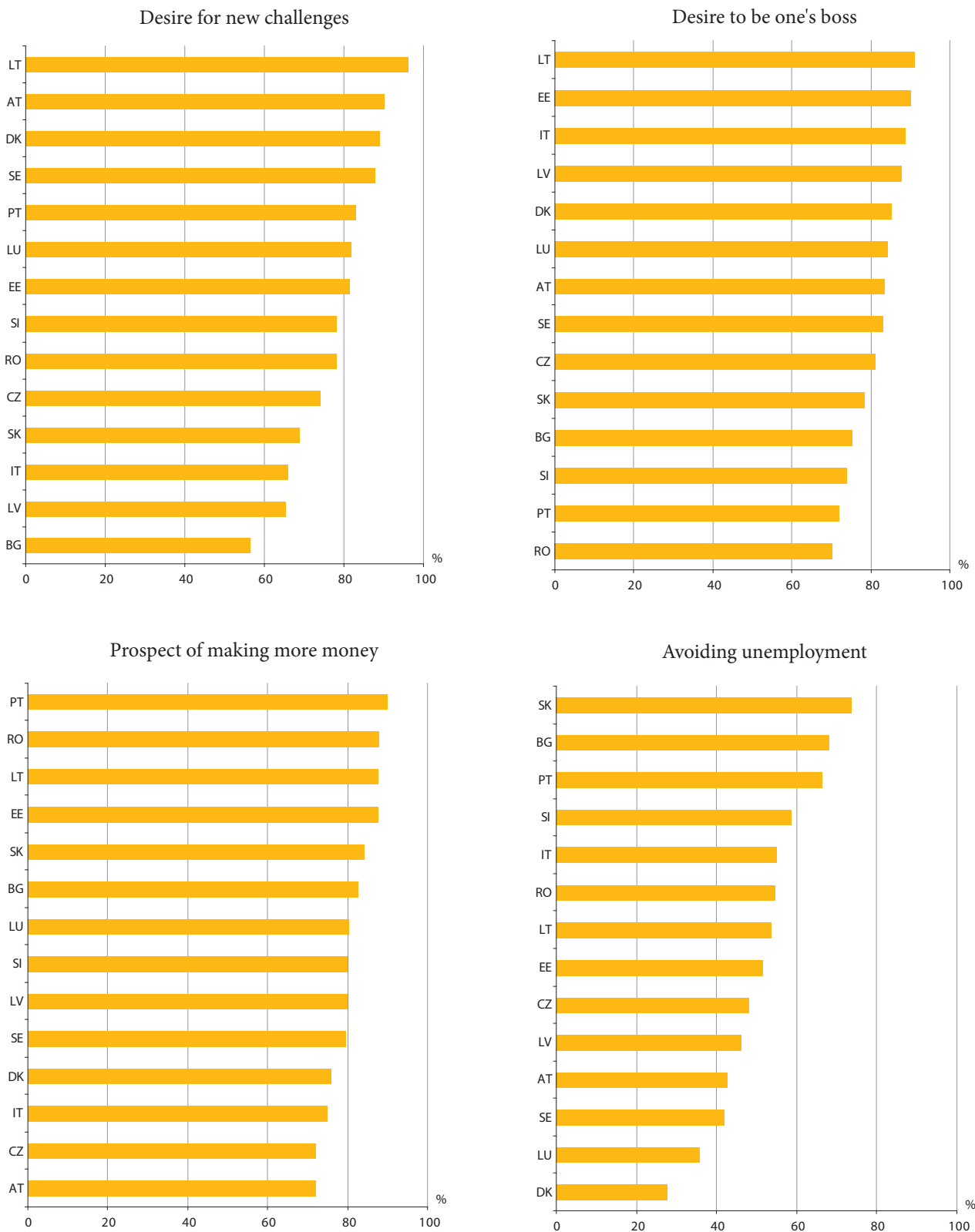


Source: Eurostat, FOBS survey
Note: DK and FR: data not available.

Among the numerous motivations for entrepreneurship (the survey considered 13 of them), the four most frequent and relevant included: being one's own boss, making more money, seeking a new challenge and avoiding unemployment (see Figure 5.24). Multiple answers were allowed for this question. When comparing the motivations given, it appears that in all Member States the main motivations reported by entrepreneurs included the desire for new challenges and to

be one's own boss. The prospect of earning more money is also an important aspect when starting up one's business: this motivation was most often cited in Bulgaria, Portugal, Romania, Slovenia and Slovakia. Avoiding unemployment can also encourage young people to set up their own business, as this seems to be a main driver of entrepreneurship in Bulgaria, Portugal and Slovakia.

Figure 5.24: Four main motivations of young entrepreneurs (aged under 30 years) for the start-up of enterprises, 2005 (%)



Source: Eurostat, FOBS survey
 Note: FR: data not available.

Youth and ICT



A NEW WAY OF INTERACTING WITH THE WORLD

Young people are at the forefront of the technology revolution, which is the driving force behind the global emergence and evolution of the information and knowledge society.

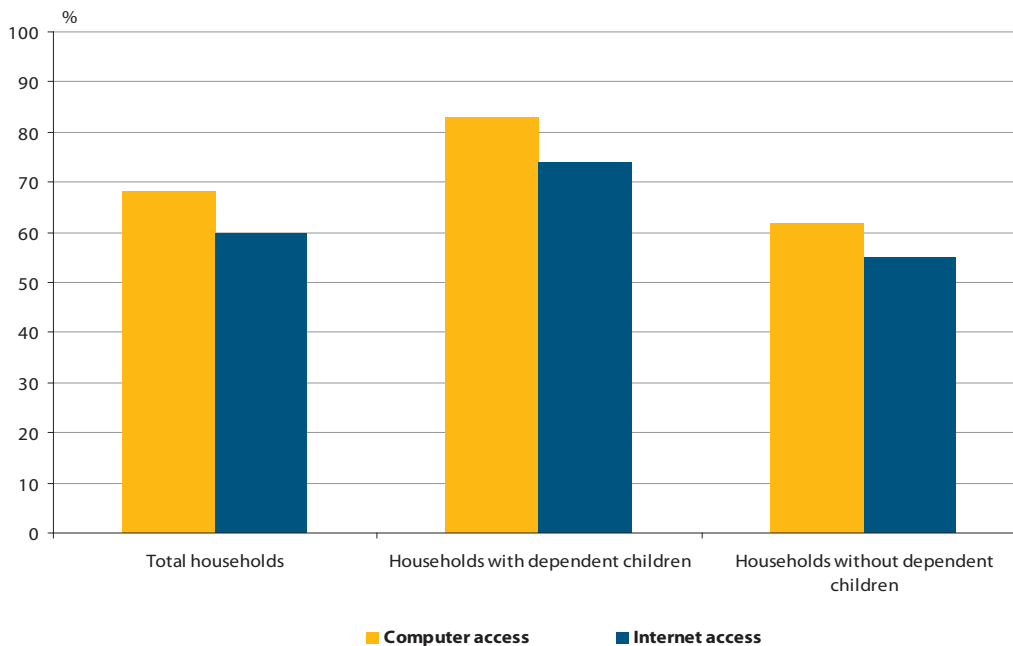
Young people are often key drivers in the use and dissemination of information and communication technologies (ICT). Indeed, they are usually more enthusiastic about new technologies and are generally among the first to embrace and spread them, thus contributing to their success.

They adapt quickly and are generally eager to access the great quantities of information made available through technological innovation. Young people are capable of using

ICT in diverse and novel ways, as a result of which new habits are being created within EU societies that are replacing traditional forms of socialisation, education, work and communication. Computers and the Internet are increasingly gaining ground in European households. Sitting in front of the computer, playing video games and surfing the web are becoming routine activities around the world, and Europe is following suit.

In 2008, more than two thirds of EU households (68%) had access to a computer at home. This share was slightly lower for Internet access at home (60%) (see Figure 6.1).

Figure 6.1: Households having access to a computer and to the Internet at home, EU-27, 2008 (%)



Source: Eurostat, Community survey on ICT usage in households and by individuals

The presence of dependent children seems to increase the prevalence of computer and Internet access at home, which may be used for their education and/or studies, but also for leisure purposes.

In fact, 83% of EU households with dependent children had

access to a computer at home in 2008. This share amounted to 62% among households without dependent children. In both instances the share of households with access to the Internet was around 8 percentage points lower than the share of those having access to a computer.

Dependent children are defined in the ICT usage survey as household members aged 15 years or less.

Source: Eurostat, Methodological manual for information society statistics, 2008



Table 6.1 focuses on computer and Internet access at home in Europe in 2008.

Looking at the population as a whole, the Netherlands recorded the highest share of households with access to a computer at home (88%). Sweden, Norway and Denmark followed with 87%, 86% and 85% respectively. In Luxembourg (83%) and Germany (82%), more than four in five households were equipped with a computer.

Conversely, the proportion of households having access to a computer in Bulgaria and Romania was much lower (29% and 38% respectively). Moreover, in Greece less than half of all households owned a computer in 2008 (44%).

Accessing the Internet usually requires a computer, but not every household with a computer has access to the Internet. Therefore the share of households with Internet access is always slightly lower than the share of households with computer access.

It is therefore not surprising to see that the Netherlands, Denmark, Sweden, Norway, Luxembourg and Germany recorded the highest shares of households connected to the web. By contrast, Bulgaria, Romania and Greece reported the lowest shares of households with Internet access.

When focusing on the composition of households, and especially the presence of dependent children, national trends are similar to the EU tendency: households with dependent children more often tend to have access to a computer and to the Internet than those without dependent children.

It is also worth mentioning that almost all households equipped with a computer in the Netherlands, Luxembourg, Finland, Sweden, Norway, Malta and the Baltic countries also had access to the Internet. This was the case for all households, regardless of the presence of dependent children.

Table 6.1: Households with access to a computer and to the Internet at home, 2008 (%)

	Total households		Households with dependent children		Households without dependent children	
	Access to a computer	Access to Internet	Access to a computer	Access to Internet	Access to a computer	Access to Internet
EU-27	68	60	83	74	62	55
BE	70	64	86	80	64	57
BG	29	25	57	50	24	21
CZ	52	46	74	63	44	39
DK	85	82	.	.	81	76
DE	82	75	98	94	77	70
EE	60	58	89	87	49	48
IE	70	63	83	76	62	55
EL	44	31	66	45	36	26
ES	64	51	80	63	56	45
FR	68	62	84	77	58	53
IT	56	47	74	60	48	41
CY	56	43	81	60	43	33
LV	57	53	77	73	48	44
LT	52	51	80	77	39	39
LU	83	80	93	91	79	76
HU	59	48	80	65	51	42
MT	63	59	84	80	55	52
NL	88	86	98	98	84	82
AT	76	69	92	84	70	63
PL	59	48	81	61	48	41
PT	50	46	76	66	41	39
RO	38	30	48	35	31	26
SI	65	59	91	85	56	50
SK	63	58	84	75	54	51
FI	76	72	97	96	70	66
SE	87	84	96	95	84	80
UK	78	71	88	82	74	67
NO	86	84	98	98	79	77

Source: Eurostat, Community survey on ICT usage in households and by individuals

THE DIGITAL GENERATION: DISCOVERING THE WORLD WITHOUT LEAVING HOME

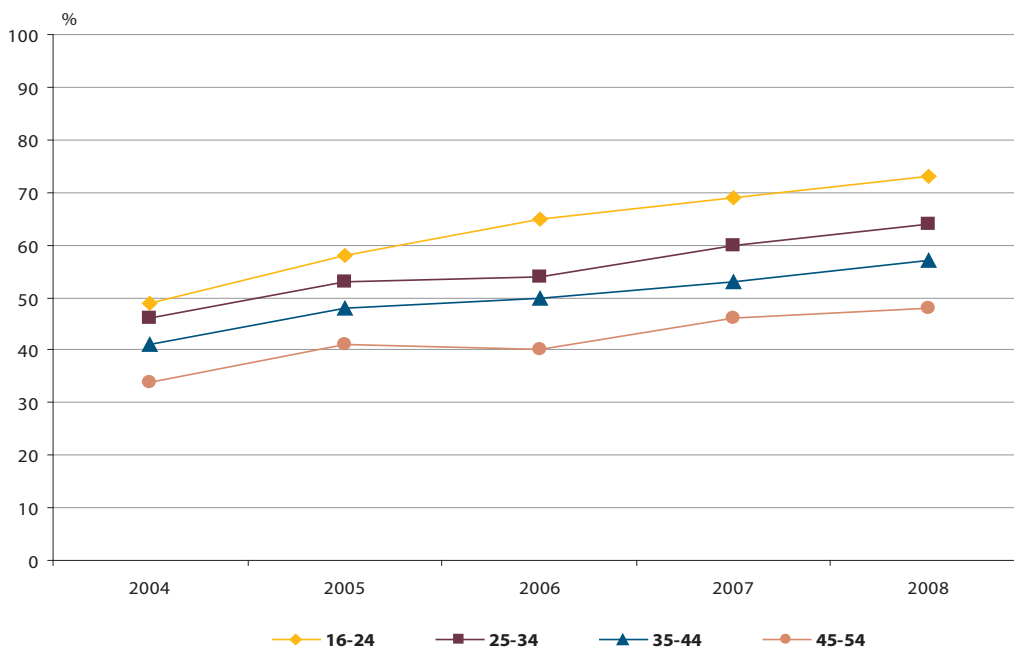
The popularity of computers has grown in recent years as their cost has fallen. This availability has also driven the cost of Internet access down, so that many households can now afford an Internet connection. This, along with the vast amount of information available online, has led to a rise in Internet use.

It is plain to see that daily computer use has risen in Europe since 2004. Indeed, computers are part of the day-to-day life of all Europeans, especially among young people.

Although trends over time are relatively similar across all age ranges, young people aged 16–24 were the leading group when considering daily computer use from 2004 onwards. More than 70% of them used a computer on a daily basis in 2008, while less than half of them did so in 2004.

Among the population aged 45–54, an average of 48% used a computer every day or almost every day in 2008. However this proportion has increased in relation to 2004 and should continue to rise in the future.

Figure 6.2: Individuals who used a computer on average every day or almost every day in the past 3 months, by age group, EU-27, 2004–2008 (%)



Source: Eurostat, Community survey on ICT usage in households and by individuals



In Europe, the frequency of computer use varied widely between age groups (see Table 6.2) in 2008.

Unsurprisingly, using a computer every day was more widespread among people aged 16–24 than those aged 25–34 and 45–54 in all EU Member States (except for Cyprus, where the proportions were identical for the two youngest groups).

Regardless of the age group under consideration, the frequency of computer use was the highest in the Nordic countries, followed by Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Germany.

Conversely, the lowest frequency of computer use was noted in Romania.

Table 6.2: Frequency of computer use in the past 3 months, by age group (as a % of individuals in each age group), 2008

	16-24			25-34			45-54		
	Every day or almost every day	At least once a week (but not every day)	At least once a month (but not every week)	Every day or almost every day	At least once a week (but not every day)	At least once a month (but not every week)	Every day or almost every day	At least once a week (but not every day)	At least once a month (but not every week)
EU-27	73	14	3	64	13	4	48	11	4
BE	78	11	3	70	13	3	55	15	2
BG	57	15	2	42	13	3	22	10	2
CZ	63	25	4	46	26	8	37	16	9
DK	90	7	1	89	6	2	75	10	2
DE	83	12	:	79	12	:	64	14	5
EE	79	14	2	64	20	4	37	17	6
IE	61	20	3	60	17	2	40	15	5
EL	58	23	4	48	12	5	21	9	4
ES	66	20	5	56	18	6	35	13	5
FR	74	19	:	72	14	:	55	10	5
IT	67	3	4	56	2	3	41	1	3
CY	51	25	4	51	13	2	27	5	2
LV	81	13	2	64	17	4	33	15	6
LT	78	10	2	56	14	3	32	13	3
LU	88	10	1	78	10	3	68	11	3
HU	75	15	2	64	14	3	49	11	2
MT	77	10	2	49	17	5	33	10	1
NL	85	12	2	80	15	2	71	15	2
AT	77	15	:	74	14	3	60	15	3
PL	75	14	3	58	15	4	27	13	5
PT	75	12	:	57	11	5	25	6	2
RO	41	23	4	29	13	3	14	9	2
SI	77	16	3	66	17	4	32	11	6
SK	80	13	2	63	20	2	60	12	3
FI	87	10	2	86	9	3	69	17	4
SE	87	9	1	84	12	3	76	13	4
UK	78	14	:	71	13	:	61	14	:
NO	91	7	2	91	7	0	73	17	2

Source: Eurostat, Community survey on ICT usage in households and by individuals

Internet and computer use are closely related; consequently their frequency of use followed relatively similar patterns throughout the period under review.

Between 2004 and 2008, the population aged 16–24 was the main group of users to access the Internet daily (see Figure 6.3). In 2008, 66 % of Europeans in this age category accessed the Internet every day or almost every day, which is nearly twice the share observed in 2004 (34 %).

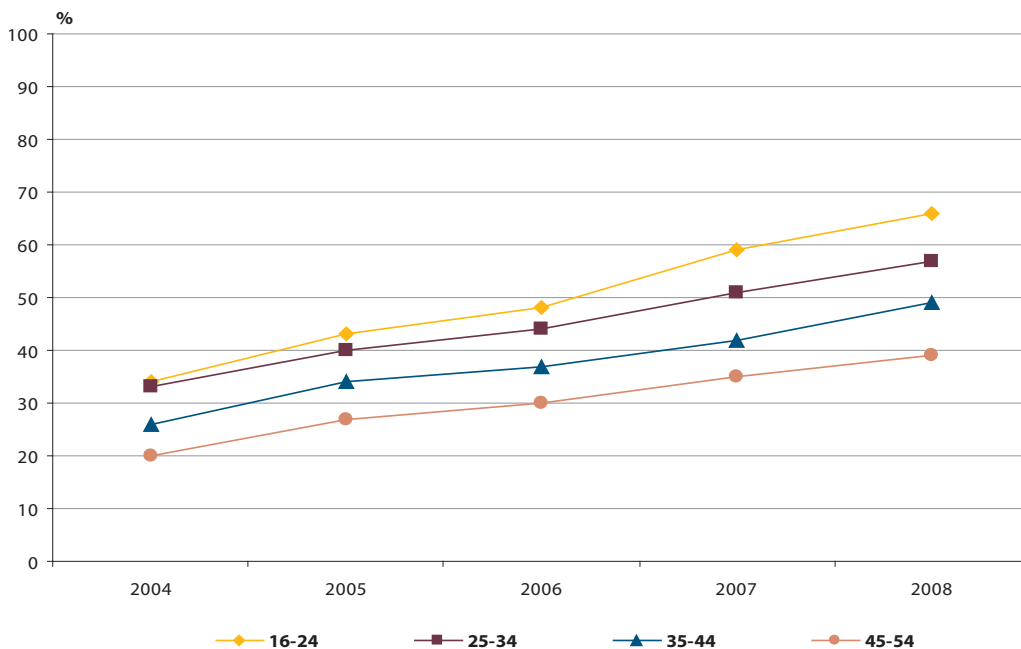
This last statement is also valid for the other age categories, which recorded a strong increase in the share of daily Internet

users, growing by a factor of 1.7, 1.8 and 1.9 respectively among the population aged 25–34, 35–44 and 45–54.

Differences between the share of people using the Internet daily have increased slightly between age groups, but more markedly so between the two youngest age groups.

Although both age categories (16–24 and 25–34) recorded similar shares of daily Internet users in 2004, this difference reached almost 10 percentage points in 2008 (66 % for the population aged 16–24, and 57 % for those aged 25–34).

Figure 6.3: Individuals who accessed the Internet on average every day or almost every day in the past 3 months, by age group, EU-27, 2004–2008 (%)



Source: Eurostat, Community survey on ICT usage in households and by individuals



As for the frequency of computer use, daily Internet use was the highest mainly in the Nordic countries, Luxembourg and the Netherlands in all age groups (see Table 6.3). The share of young people aged 16–24 who accessed the Internet daily exceeded 80 % in these countries. These proportions were not much lower when considering the intermediary age category (25–34) in the Nordic countries, which recorded a difference of 0 to 4 percentage points, contrary to the EU trend, with a discrepancy of 9 percentage points.

This gap between age categories was however more important in the Baltic States, Malta, Poland, Portugal and Slovenia. In these countries the gap between those aged 16–24 and those aged 45–54 exceeded 40 percentage points.

Romania recorded the lowest proportions of daily web surfers in every age category: among the population aged 16–24, only one third used the Internet daily in 2008. This share was only 10 % among the population aged 45–54.

Table 6.3: Frequency of Internet use in the past 3 months, by age group (as a % of individuals in each age group), 2008

	16-24			25-34			45-54		
	Every day or almost every day	At least once a week (but not every day)	At least once a month (but not every week)	Every day or almost every day	At least once a week (but not every day)	At least once a month (but not every week)	Every day or almost every day	At least once a week (but not every day)	At least once a month (but not every week)
EU-27	66	17	4	57	14	5	39	14	5
BE	75	13	3	66	15	3	49	17	3
BG	49	16	2	36	14	2	15	11	2
CZ	56	28	6	39	26	9	28	18	9
DK	89	8	1	88	6	2	73	12	2
DE	75	16	:	72	15	5	50	20	6
EE	78	15	2	63	21	5	34	19	7
IE	54	22	4	52	21	4	29	18	5
EL	47	24	7	40	11	4	15	8	4
ES	59	22	6	50	18	8	29	15	5
FR	67	23	:	67	15	5	43	15	6
IT	60	4	5	50	2	5	34	2	4
CY	41	24	5	36	16	2	18	7	3
LV	79	15	2	61	19	3	30	16	5
LT	75	12	2	53	14	3	28	13	3
LU	86	11	2	75	11	4	65	11	3
HU	67	20	3	57	15	3	41	13	2
MT	73	13	3	44	17	6	30	10	1
NL	84	13	2	78	17	2	65	18	3
AT	69	18	4	65	17	5	46	20	5
PL	66	18	4	50	15	5	21	12	4
PT	70	14	3	52	12	4	18	8	2
RO	33	21	5	22	13	2	10	8	1
SI	75	16	2	62	17	4	26	11	3
SK	72	18	4	54	22	5	44	19	3
FI	87	10	3	86	10	3	66	17	4
SE	86	11	1	82	13	2	69	17	3
UK	72	17	:	64	17	:	51	21	:
NO	91	7	2	91	6	1	68	21	2

Source: Eurostat, Community survey on ICT usage in households and by individuals

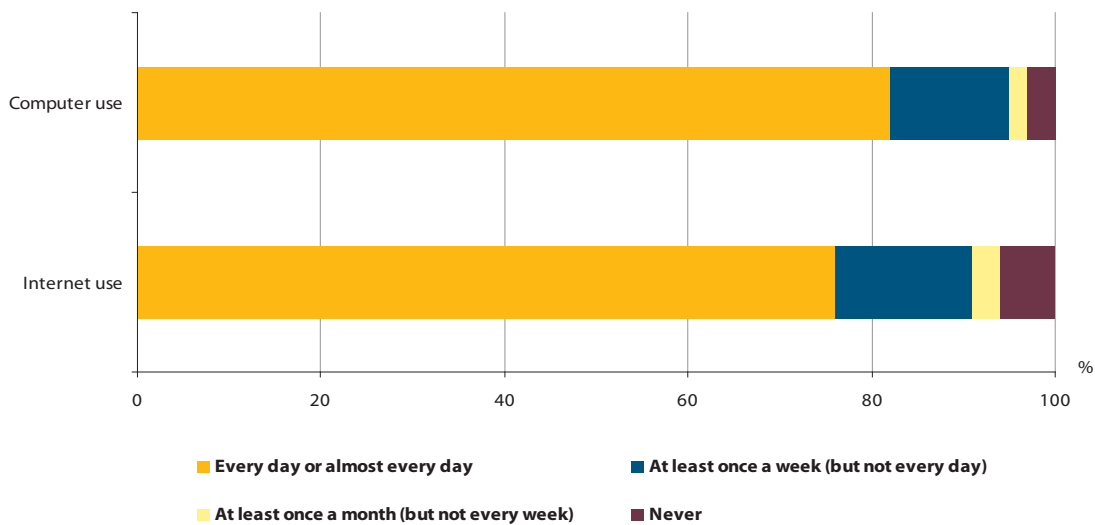
Age seems to be a determining factor in the frequency of Internet use, but the status of young people (students, workers, etc.) is also relevant. The Internet is now commonly used in schools and universities as a learning tool to access information.

In 2008, 82 % of European students used a computer every

day or almost every day (see Figure 6.4). Only 5 % of them used a computer less than once a week.

The Internet was used on a daily basis by 76 % of students in the EU, whereas only 6 % did not access the Internet at all.

Figure 6.4: Frequency of computer and Internet use by students, EU-27, 2008 (%)



Source: Eurostat, Community survey on ICT usage in households and by individuals



Even Jules Verne could not have imagined the possibilities that are now offered to young Europeans to explore the world without even setting foot outside. Computers and the Internet give access to a world of possibilities. With the widespread availability of high-tech goods in European society, many people, and especially the young, may be tempted to remain in the comfort of the home, but at the same time they are offered more possibilities to explore the outside world virtually.

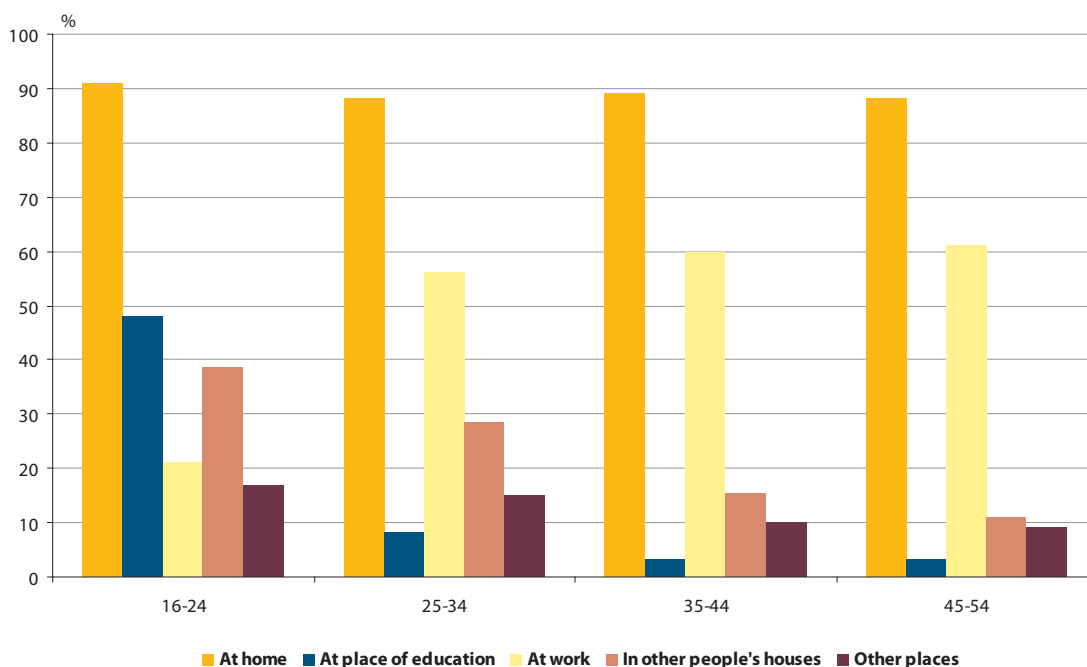
The use of computers and the Internet are changing mentalities and relations as young people increasingly embrace cyber friendships and relationships, making extensive use of Internet social networks.

Home is the most common place where computers are used,

regardless of the age group considered. Around 90 % of respondents declared having used a computer from home in the course of the past three months (see Figure 6.5).

Almost half of Europeans aged 16–24 (48 %) used a computer at their place of education in 2008. For the older age groups, the second most common location to use a computer was the workplace (56 % to 61 %). In contrast, only 21 % of the population aged 16–24 used a computer at work in 2008. Young Europeans were also proportionally more numerous than their elders to use a computer at other people's homes. This may be considered as a means of accessing ICT when they are not available at young people's home and may also be considered as a good way of acquiring e-skills through informal assistance.

Figure 6.5: Place of computer use (as a % of individuals who used a computer within the past 3 months), by age group, EU-27, 2008



Source: Eurostat, Community survey on ICT usage in households and by individuals

Place of computer/Internet use:

At home: the respondent has used the computer/Internet at home for any purpose, private or work-related.

At place of work (other than home): is defined as the usual place of work. If the respondent usually works at home then 'at home' should be coded. If the respondent's work is usually based in a number of places then any of these places are counted as their place of work. However, use of mobile technology in places such as hotels etc. even for work related purposes, should be coded as 'at other places'.

At place of education: this should refer to the respondent's own place of education. If the respondent works at an educational establishment — e.g. a teacher — then 'at place of work' is used.

Other people's homes: is defined as other people's house except if the respondent's place of work is another person's home.

At other places: this category includes ANY places not already mentioned above (e.g. public library, hotel, airport, Internet café, etc.).

Source: Eurostat, Methodological manual for Information Society Statistics, 2008

In 2008, more than 80 % of young Europeans (aged 16–24 and 25–34) who accessed the Internet within the past 3 months did so from home (see Table 6.4). Home was by far the most common place from which the Internet was accessed in all EU Member States.

However, differences appear between both age categories when looking at the second most common place of Internet use: whereas 46 % of persons aged 16–24 used the Internet at

their place of education, this was the case for only 8 % of the population aged 25–34.

This is easily explained by the fact that most people aged over 25 are no longer in education and have started working. In 2008, half of the European population aged 25–34 accessed the Internet from the workplace, while this was the case for only 18 % of those aged 16–24.

Table 6.4: Place of Internet use (as a % of individuals who used the Internet within the last 3 months), by age group, 2008

	16-24					25-34				
	At home	At place of education	At a relative, neighbour or friend's house	At work	In an Internet café	At home	At place of education	At a relative, neighbour or friend's house	At work	In an Internet café
EU-27	85	46	39	18	:	83	8	29	51	:
BE	92	40	18	12	2	89	5	10	46	2
BG	77	36	8	8	:	82	3	5	36	:
CZ	80	67	27	11	:	83	6	15	43	:
DK	94	55	27	25	3	97	15	22	61	2
DE	91	40	40	24	:	90	8	31	51	:
EE	89	39	25	12	5	89	5	9	45	:
IE	79	36	8	18	6	79	5	4	48	4
EL	68	35	22	12	34	69	5	15	52	20
ES	82	39	40	17	11	72	9	32	50	13
FR	88	43	58	14	:	84	:	51	49	:
IT	84	44	43	9	:	76	12	29	49	:
CY	78	40	37	10	20	75	1	18	61	8
LV	83	53	44	17	13	81	4	24	44	6
LT	86	60	36	17	5	86	4	19	44	3
LU	95	44	27	15	8	92	5	23	58	4
HU	74	64	37	9	6	78	8	27	43	6
MT	96	22	22	24	3	88	5	13	44	2
NL	97	56	42	30	2	97	7	26	70	2
AT	84	38	23	31	:	82	9	14	57	:
PL	78	51	31	10	:	80	:	22	42	:
PT	80	58	54	13	13	78	12	39	51	8
RO	65	49	16	7	:	82	2	8	46	:
SI	88	58	57	21	:	84	9	33	54	:
SK	81	58	35	16	17	71	6	27	57	8
FI	93	57	63	23	6	94	20	57	69	10
SE	95	57	44	23	7	93	11	28	60	4
UK	90	46	38	28	:	87	9	27	60	8
NO	97	65	43	35	7	94	12	35	70	10

Source: Eurostat, Community survey on ICT usage in households and by individuals

Considering the breakdown by country, in nine EU Member States and Norway more than 90 % or more of those aged 16–24 who accessed the Internet within the last three months did so from home.

In the Czech Republic, 67 % of Internet users aged 16–24 connected to the Internet from their place of education. Norway and Hungary were ranked second and third, with 65 % and 64 % respectively.

Among the population aged 25–34, Internet use from home was followed mainly by the place of work and place of education. In this respect, the Netherlands and Norway recorded the highest shares of Internet access from work

(both 70 %), closely followed by Finland (69 %).

To access the Internet from a neighbour's, relative's or friend's house is relatively common in Finland. This was the case for 63 % of Internet users aged 16–24 and 57 % of users aged 25–34. This practice was also observed to a lesser degree in France, Portugal and Slovenia.

Internet cafés were relatively popular in Greece among both age categories, accounting for 34 % of Internet users aged 16–24 and 20 % of those aged 25–34. In Cyprus, Internet cafés were used by one in five Internet surfers aged 16–24. Internet cafés were also fairly popular in Spain, accounting for 11 % and 13 % of Internet users aged 16–24 and 25–34 respectively.

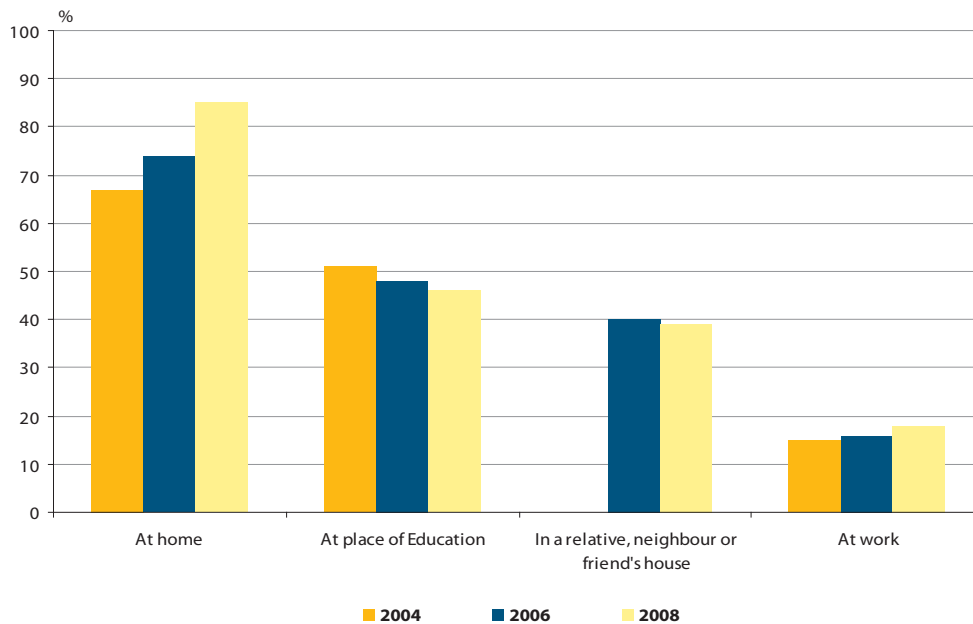


The evolution of the different places of use of the Internet among young people aged 16–24 who used the Internet within the last three months did not change significantly in recent years (see Figure 6.6). Home remains the most common place to access the Internet, and the share of home use has also grown over time (from 67 % in 2004 to 85 % in 2008).

The share of people aged 16–24 who accessed the Internet from their place of education has slightly decreased from 2004 onwards.

Individual Internet connections, together with the expansion of broadband connections, have made the Internet more accessible from home and could explain this trend.

Figure 6.6: Place of use of the Internet of people aged 16–24 (as percentage of individuals aged 16–24 who used the Internet within the last 3 months), EU-27, 2004–2008



Source: Eurostat, Community survey on ICT usage in households and by individuals

Note: category 'in a relative's, neighbour's or friend's house': 2004 data are not available.

E-SKILLS

The availability of adequate skills for developing, implementing and using information and communication technology (ICT) is an important condition for Europe to become a knowledge-based society. As such, young people should develop skills that will be needed in the future. E-skills not only include purely technical skills, but also cross-disciplinary, cognitive and problem-solving skills as well as an understanding of the fundamentals of the new communication strategies. In fact, the European e-Skills Forum considers that e-skills include three main categories that are only partially covered by current data (see below). Developing computer skills will also foster new types of social relations, business competitiveness and innovation in Europe.

Finally, the lack of adequate e-skills may increase the risk of exclusion.

Digital competence, which ‘involves the confident and critical use of Information Society Technology (IST) for work, leisure and communication and is underpinned by basic ICT skills: the use of computers to retrieve, assess, store, produce, present and exchange information, and to communicate and participate in collaborative networks via the Internet’, has been recognised as a key competence that can contribute to a successful life in a knowledge society⁽¹⁾. The 2007 Survey on ICT usage in households and by individuals included a specific set of questions on e-skills.

The European e-Skills Forum has adopted a definition of the term ‘e-skills’ covering three main categories:

ICT practitioner skills: the capabilities required for researching, developing, designing, strategic planning, managing, producing, consulting, marketing, selling, integrating, installing, administering, maintaining, supporting and servicing ICT systems.

ICT user skills: the capabilities required for the effective application of ICT systems and devices by the individual. ICT users apply systems as tools in support of their own work. User skills cover the use of common software tools and of specialised tools supporting business functions within industry. At the general level, they cover ‘digital literacy’. Digital literacy involves the confident and critical use of ICT for work, leisure and communication underpinned by basic ICT skills: the use of computers to retrieve, assess, store, produce, present and exchange information and to communicate and participate in collaborative networks via the Internet.

E-business skills: the capabilities needed to exploit opportunities provided by ICT, notably the Internet; to ensure more efficient and effective performance of different types of organisations; to explore possibilities for new ways of conducting business/administrative and organisational processes; and/or to establish new businesses.

Source: European Commission, DG Enterprises and Industry

⁽¹⁾ Recommendation of the European Parliament and of the Council of 18 December 2006 on key competences for lifelong learning (2006/962/EC)



There is an obvious gap in computer skills between younger and older generations. In 2007, 41 % of Europeans aged 16–24 were able to carry out 5 or 6 computer-related activities (see Table 6.5). At EU level this figure tends to drop as age increases, reaching 35 % for the population aged 25–34 and 18 % for those aged 45–54. However this was not the case in every country. Indeed, the share of highly skilled computer users (5–6 activities) was higher among those aged 25–34 than 16–24 in Denmark, Ireland, the Netherlands, Finland, Sweden and Iceland. Among the population aged 16–24, the

highest shares of people with high computer skills were found in Slovenia (64%). Denmark ranked first for both intermediary age categories (25–34 and 35–44), and the highest shares among the oldest age category (45–54) were found in Luxembourg.

The differences between countries may be explained by the various ways of acquiring computer skills (formal education, self-learning, peers, etc.).

Table 6.5: Level of computer skills by age group (as a % of individuals in each age group), 2007

	16-24			25-34			35-44			45-54		
	5 or 6 activities	3 or 4 activities	1 or 2 activities	5 or 6 activities	3 or 4 activities	1 or 2 activities	5 or 6 activities	3 or 4 activities	1 or 2 activities	5 or 6 activities	3 or 4 activities	1 or 2 activities
EU-27	41	35	13	35	29	13	26	27	15	18	24	15
BE	36	34	17	32	29	16	26	25	21	19	25	17
BG	16	30	18	11	22	13	6	16	14	5	13	9
CZ	38	33	19	22	25	22	18	24	20	11	21	17
DK	48	39	10	53	28	10	46	29	12	35	32	14
DE	45	41	11	44	36	12	32	39	15	25	33	19
EE	50	29	11	35	25	15	25	24	15	13	18	11
IE	23	26	20	31	22	16	21	21	17	10	19	19
EL	35	30	19	29	24	13	15	21	14	9	12	12
ES	53	30	8	42	27	10	29	24	11	19	19	12
FR	50	39	7	40	37	12	27	30	18	22	26	14
IT	37	30	9	32	21	9	23	20	11	15	17	10
CY	36	28	18	29	25	12	20	21	12	12	15	8
LV	35	41	18	20	33	23	12	27	21	6	17	17
LT	45	39	10	29	28	11	16	22	13	8	17	10
LU	60	33	5	47	33	9	41	33	10	38	27	12
HU	53	28	8	38	27	13	29	29	12	20	23	11
MT	42	33	10	29	28	6	16	24	13	10	16	10
NL	44	40	15	46	35	12	38	35	16	34	32	18
AT	58	28	7	47	30	11	37	30	14	27	31	16
PL	33	39	19	21	29	20	8	21	23	5	13	15
PT	54	27	11	38	22	10	19	19	12	10	12	10
RO	12	23	25	7	13	19	4	11	15	3	7	11
SI	64	26	6	48	26	14	27	29	14	15	22	15
SK	36	43	17	25	34	21	18	32	21	13	35	21
FI	46	36	16	50	28	15	35	33	19	25	28	20
SE	37	45	14	38	36	15	35	34	16	23	30	23
UK	42	37	12	36	33	15	30	29	15	21	35	17
IS	48	43	8	51	34	10	44	38	13	30	30	19
NO	52	37	8	52	32	10	46	30	18	30	32	20

Source: Eurostat, Community survey on ICT usage in households and by individuals

Levels of computer skills: the following activities were selected:

- Copying or moving a file or folder
- Using copy and paste tools to duplicate or move information within a document
- Using basic arithmetic formulas in a spreadsheet
- Compressing files
- Connecting and installing new devices, e.g. a printer or a modem
- Writing a computer program using a specialised programming language

Source: Eurostat, Methodological manual for Information Society Statistics, 2007

Using an Internet search engine was the most common e-skill among young Europeans (aged 16–24 and 25–34) (see Table 6.6). Overall, finding web-based information is a fairly widespread skill in Europe. This was the case for 90 % or more of 16 to 24-year-olds in seven countries. Romania remained the only country where more than half of the population aged 16–24 declared they were unable to use an Internet search engine.

Young generations have integrated the Internet into their day-to-day life as a communication tool. Sending an e-mail with an attached file was a routine task for 77 % of Europeans aged 16–24 and 66 % of those aged 25–34.

Chatting over the Internet was a more common e-skill among the younger population (61 % of those aged 16–24, 37 % of those aged 25–34). This was particularly the case in Estonia, where the shares (84 % of 16 to 24-year-olds and 64 % of the upper age category) exceeded the EU averages by a wide margin.

More technical competences (peer-to-peer file sharing, creating a web page) were less common but remained more accessible for the younger generation: 25 % of those aged 16–24 were able to create a web page, while this was the case for 15 % of the population aged 25–34.

Table 6.6: Internet skills of young people by age group (as a % of individuals in each age group), 2007

	16-24						25-34					
	Use search engine to find information	Send emails with attached files	Post messages to chat rooms	Use peer-to-peer file sharing	Use Internet to make phone calls	Create a web page	Use search engine to find information	Send emails with attached files	Post messages to chat rooms	Use peer-to-peer file sharing	Use Internet to make phone calls	Create a web page
EU-27	86	77	61	34	29	25	74	66	37	20	23	15
BE	91	84	50	27	18	17	81	74	28	14	18	11
BG	64	54	48	26	32	12	47	40	31	16	23	5
CZ	81	84	45	15	38	21	63	61	23	8	23	12
DK	96	90	73	39	40	29	92	89	56	24	40	30
DE	95	84	73	25	27	23	93	81	48	16	26	18
EE	89	92	84	45	54	40	81	83	64	37	46	29
IE	71	61	27	13	13	11	72	63	18	10	13	8
EL	77	56	37	27	12	13	60	46	19	16	12	9
ES	90	77	70	53	16	23	78	65	44	32	14	14
FR	91	86	66	36	58	34	80	74	37	20	40	20
IT	71	67	59	36	25	22	59	56	41	22	23	16
CY	66	48	19	26	20	13	53	45	13	10	11	7
LV	95	87	76	34	44	18	81	71	50	19	30	11
LT	93	81	64	47	59	18	69	57	39	26	38	8
LU	92	88	73	54	42	42	87	80	50	30	34	19
HU	86	80	61	34	23	23	74	66	37	17	20	12
MT	81	74	58	35	16	23	65	59	30	16	12	11
NL	98	92	59	60	51	33	95	89	41	35	34	24
AT	90	77	54	19	29	27	85	76	33	15	26	17
PL	90	72	65	37	31	23	69	54	36	20	25	10
PT	88	81	69	38	24	25	64	56	40	20	21	11
RO	48	45	33	23	10	10	31	28	16	9	8	4
SI	93	85	60	56	23	28	84	72	42	38	23	21
SK	93	86	57	26	27	19	78	68	27	11	20	13
FI	99	91	63	44	33	33	98	90	53	35	38	34
SE	90	82	44	41	16	21	90	79	30	32	18	18
UK	85	78	55	33	19	32	79	75	30	20	12	18
IS	98	91	70	57	36	60	95	88	56	32	47	48
NO	96	86	67	58	27	39	94	89	51	37	34	32

Source: Eurostat, Community survey on ICT usage in households and by individuals



At EU-27 level, acquiring e-skills is often a 'learning by doing' process (see Table 6.7): most young people acquire at least part of their e-skills by sitting in front of their computer and experimenting (72 % of people aged 16–24 and 66 % of people aged 25–34). But asking for informal assistance from colleagues, friends and family members is also frequent, (65 % of the population aged 16–24 and 59 % of those aged 25–34). Formalised educational institutions are a more popular way of acquiring e-skills among the younger population, probably due to the fact that education in the field of information technologies has become widespread in European schools in recent years. Indeed, in 2002/03 most European countries had included ICT in their compulsory curriculum in primary and general secondary education as a 'separate subject in its own right and/or as a tool for other subjects'⁽²⁾.

In all European countries, young people aged 16–24 combine these three ways of acquiring or improving their e-skills, but their order of importance may vary across countries. For

instance, in Germany, asking for informal assistance (as did 91 % of the 16–24 age group) was more widespread than learning by doing (87 %) or learning at formal educational institutions (69 %).

In nearly all Member States, less than half of the population aged between 16 and 24 studied alone using books, cd-roms or other learning aids. A notable exception is Estonia, where 69 % of young people in this age category learnt how to use the Internet through self-study. France and Sweden were the only other countries where this share reached at least 50 %.

People aged between 25 and 34 generally used the same learning methods as their younger counterparts, though they were relatively less numerous to do so. It should also be emphasised that training courses (on one's own initiative or at the employer's request) were more widespread among the population aged 25–34 than among their younger counterparts: in nearly half of countries, more than 10 % of those aged 25–34 attended such training courses.

Table 6.7: Ways of acquisition of e-skills by age group (as a % of individuals in each age group), 2007

	16-24						25-34					
	Through self-study (learning by doing)	Through informal assistance	Through self-study using books	Through formalised educational institution	Through training courses on own initiative	Through training courses on demand of employer	Through self-study (learning by doing)	Through informal assistance	Through self-study using books	Through formalised educational institution	Through training courses on own initiative	Through training courses on demand of employer
EU-27	72	65	32	65	7	5	66	59	33	38	13	17
BE	62	48	23	59	3	4	62	44	23	35	8	8
BG	41	37	15	52	4	1	37	28	14	21	8	5
CZ	47	59	33	84	5	4	41	52	30	34	8	16
DK	95	84	33	59	2	3	92	81	34	44	9	19
DE	87	91	37	69	8	15	86	87	45	53	10	38
EE	92	80	69	87	3	:	87	76	63	51	12	10
IE	29	19	11	54	7	2	35	24	17	34	16	7
EL	63	47	13	64	14	2	50	36	13	27	26	8
ES	84	72	30	62	17	5	73	65	33	34	27	17
FR	90	86	53	62	5	3	86	80	51	45	8	14
IT	65	60	38	53	15	4	55	47	35	26	17	11
CY	61	56	32	73	12	2	55	48	25	41	19	16
LV	56	44	13	91	5	2	55	43	13	47	12	7
LT	42	68	46	90	4	1	34	54	36	44	9	5
LU	73	71	21	75	2	5	77	71	32	42	15	18
HU	62	46	47	79	4	2	57	45	45	44	16	12
MT	63	47	24	68	19	5	52	44	26	25	26	7
NL	81	71	13	46	2	3	88	71	19	26	5	12
AT	77	64	24	72	9	10	76	64	28	43	18	26
PL	66	58	28	81	2	1	54	47	23	41	7	8
PT	89	87	48	74	13	5	66	64	40	37	20	15
RO	39	31	18	42	1	0	26	20	14	17	3	3
SI	84	78	41	77	10	5	79	73	44	53	15	15
SK	81	78	42	78	9	1	66	70	36	38	10	15
FI	73	60	34	66	2	3	75	55	35	58	6	12
SE	94	87	50	79	4	6	92	83	54	59	16	32
UK	58	34	15	68	:	7	55	41	18	41	12	21
IS	90	86	28	85	12	5	89	82	42	66	27	21
NO	92	89	26	39	2	3	92	90	30	34	4	23

Source: Eurostat, Community survey on ICT usage in households and by individuals

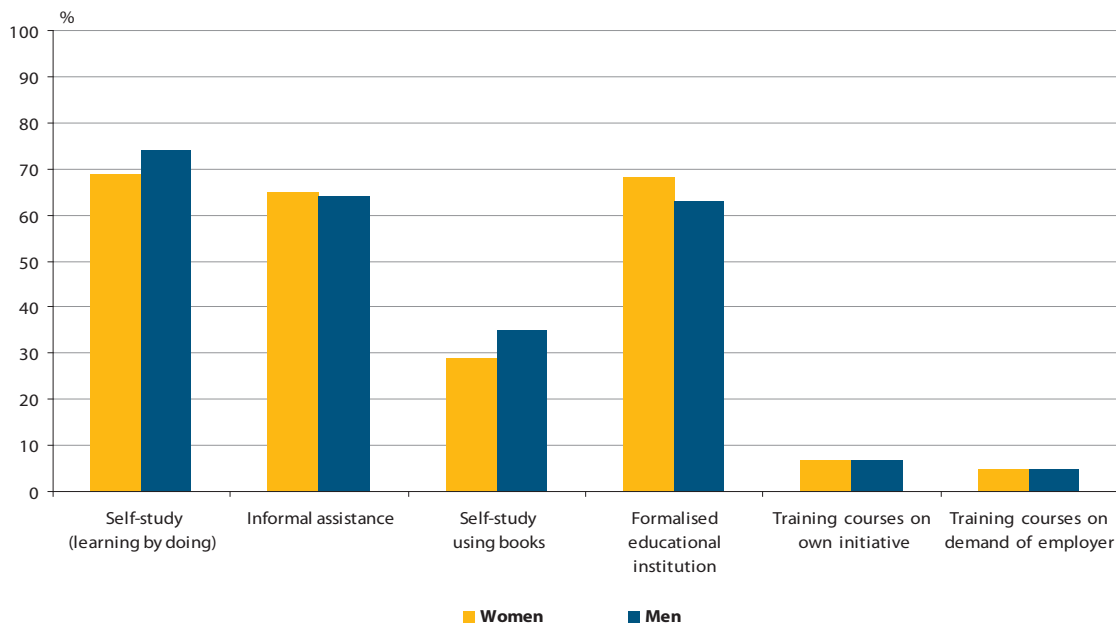
⁽²⁾ Eurydice, 'Key data on information and communication technology in schools in Europe', 2004 Edition.

No great difference was noted between men and women in the methods used to acquire e-skills (see Figure 6.7). In fact, it seems that most people combined informal assistance, formal education and learning by doing.

Young people aged 16–24 generally tend to learn computer-

related skills by doing: 74% of men and 69% of women improved their e-skills in this manner in 2007, whereas more than 60% of young people resorted to informal assistance and formalised education. Formal education was slightly more common as a method among young women than among men.

Figure 6.7: Ways of acquiring e-skills among the population aged 16–24, by sex, EU-27, 2007 (%)



Source: Eurostat, Community survey on ICT usage in households and by individuals



NEW TOOLS FOR OLD JOBS: FROM MESSAGES IN BOTTLES TO ELECTRONIC MAIL

Search tools, online shopping, games, e-banking and peer-to-peer file sharing are common words in youth-speak. Older generations may wonder if young people are speaking the same language or doing the same things they were during their youth. The reality is that young Europeans have fully integrated the Internet into their way of life. They use the Internet to search for information, shop, manage their bank accounts, listen to music and play games with friends they have never met. These activities are very similar to those of their elders, except that they are done in a new way. This is especially true when considering communication: the youngest generations are developing new ways of interacting

with the world via the Internet.

Searching for information and online services are the most common online activities regardless of age. Older generations (aged 25 and over) are keener to look for information on goods and services than young people aged 16–24, who were more inclined to surf the Internet for leisure activities related to obtaining and sharing audiovisual content.

More than 80 % (see Table 6.8) of Internet users in the EU used e-mails to communicate. However, young people tended to use advanced kinds of communication tools (such as chat sites, instant messaging, etc.) more than their elders.

Table 6.8: Internet activities of Europeans (as a % of individuals who used the Internet in the past 3 months) by age group, EU-27, 2008

	16-24	25-34	35-44	45-54
Communication	94	91	87	85
Sending / receiving emails	89	88	84	82
Advanced communication services	83	65	49	43
Information search and online services	95	96	93	91
Finding information about goods and services	74	86	84	82
Training and education	72	57	51	47
Downloading software	42	36	27	23
Using services related to travel and accommodation	41	57	55	55
Reading / downloading online newspapers / news magazines	40	46	41	39
Banking, the selling of goods or services	37	60	56	51
Seeking health information on injury, disease or nutrition	33	49	48	48
Looking for a job or sending a job application	28	30	20	15
Leisure activities related to obtaining and sharing audiovisual content	84	69	55	47
Downloading / listening to / watching / playing music, films and/or games	78	58	43	35
Peer-to-peer file sharing for exchanging movies, music, video files	24	15	7	5
Using podcast service to automatically receive audio or video files of interest	10	8	5	3
Interaction with public authorities	33	51	50	49
Obtaining information from public authorities web sites	28	46	46	45
Downloading official forms	17	30	29	28
Sending filled forms	12	22	21	21

Source: Eurostat, Community survey on ICT usage in households and by individuals

The Internet is also a means for young people to get in touch with potential employers: about 30 % of young Europeans aged 16–24 and 25–34 used the Internet to look for a job or send job applications.

Younger people are less inclined than their elders to use the

Internet for interactions with public authorities or with Internet banking services.

Similarly, the upper age categories are more likely to use the Internet to find information about holidays and health than their younger counterparts.

Communication:

Sending/receiving e-mails includes the use of e-mail for sending messages to friends or for getting information on goods/services.

Advanced communication services include 'telephoning over the Internet', 'video calls (via webcam) over the Internet', 'posting messages to chat sites, newsgroups or on-line discussion forum', 'use of instant messaging', 'reading weblogs and blogs' and 'creating or maintaining own weblog or blog'.

Information search and online services:

Finding information about goods or services comprises using the Internet to search for information about household goods, for example, films, music, video-games, books, e-learning material, clothes, electronic equipment computer software or services, for example banking, financial or health services. It should not include transactions, e.g. purchases of any goods or services (although one will usually look up information on a good or services before actually purchasing it).

Training and education includes 'looking for information about education, training or course offers', 'doing an online course (on any subject)' and 'consulting the Internet with the purpose of learning'.

Downloading software includes downloading software either free of charge or against payment.

Using services related to travel and accommodation includes using the Internet for ascertaining information or to purchase goods and services in relation to travel and accommodation, for example travel tickets, hotels or any other type of accommodation or websites containing information for tourists.

Listening to web radios/watching web television covers both live streaming (real-time) and radio or TV 'on demand' (batch, i.e. the user can listen to/watch programmes later on). This does not result in any saving of information on, for example, the respondent's computer.

Reading or downloading online newspapers/news magazines should include all types of online newspapers and magazines, either free of charge or against payment.

Banking, selling goods and services includes 'Internet banking' (for account management, excluding financial share purchases) and 'selling goods and services' (e.g. via auctions).

Seeking health-related information (e.g. injury, disease, nutrition, improving health, etc.) refers to Internet use for health-related activities. The scope is limited to private use; professional use is not to be taken into account. Private should however not be limited to personal use, but can also include Internet use for health-related activities on behalf of other family members or friends. It includes general searches via a search engine (Google, Yahoo!, etc.) using keywords in one of the mentioned fields. It also includes more specific searches on specialised websites such as the Ministry of Health, non-governmental bodies or interest groups. Although not yet available in most countries, it also includes activities such as making an appointment online with a practitioner, requesting a prescription or seeking medical advice online from a practitioner.

Looking for a job or sending a job application includes searching specific web sites for 'job hunting' or for sending a job application. Sending a job application should be included in this category only if it was sent online.

Leisure activities related to obtaining and sharing audiovisual content:

Downloading, listening to, watching, playing music, films and/or games includes 'downloading and/or listening to music (other than via web radio)', 'downloading and/or watching movies, short films or video files (other than via web TV)', 'downloading computer games or their updates' and 'playing networked games with others'.

Using peer-to-peer file sharing for exchanging films, music, video files: peer-to-peer (P2P) refers to a network where the communication/information is distributed to a wide variety of computers rather than residing on one central server. In this network each computer has equal capabilities which differ from a traditional client/server network. P2P is increasingly being used for sharing files, films and music. Certain P2P activities are illegal, which can influence the reliability of answers or response rates.

Using a podcast service to automatically receive audio or video files of interest: the term 'podcast' is derived from 'iPod' and 'broadcast'. It is a method of distributing files, such as audio programmes, music files or videos over the Internet for playback on personal computers and mobile devices.

Interaction with public services or administrations:

Obtaining information from public authorities' websites includes searching to obtain any information from public authorities' website. Public authorities' websites include local or central government offering information or services.

Downloading official forms includes downloading official forms from public authorities' websites for any purpose of use (e.g. for information or for requesting a service).

Sending in filled-in forms includes filled-in forms sent via the Internet (public authorities' websites) only. Forms downloaded, printed, filled in and sent by post should not be included in this category.

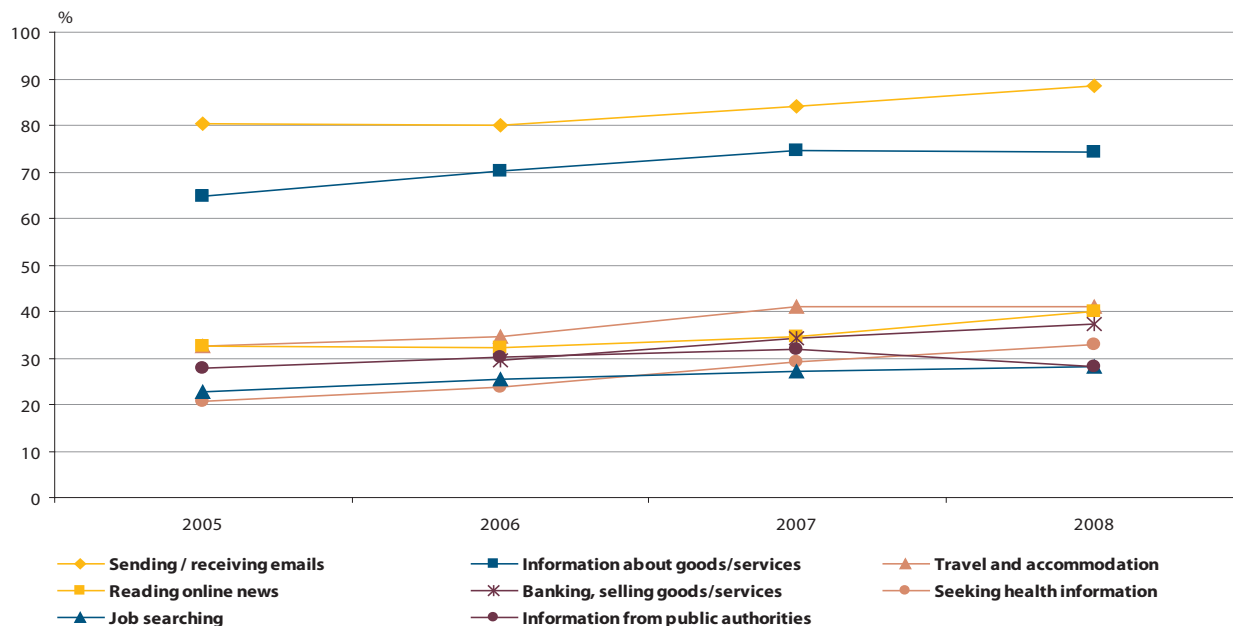
Source: Eurostat, Methodological Manual for statistics on the Information Society, 2008



The distribution of Internet activities carried out by young people did not change significantly between 2005 and 2008 (see Figures 6.8 and 6.9).

However, time series on all mentioned leisure activities are not available.

Figure 6.8: Internet activities of young people aged 16–24 (as a % of individuals aged 16–24 who used Internet in the last 3 months), EU-27, 2005–2008

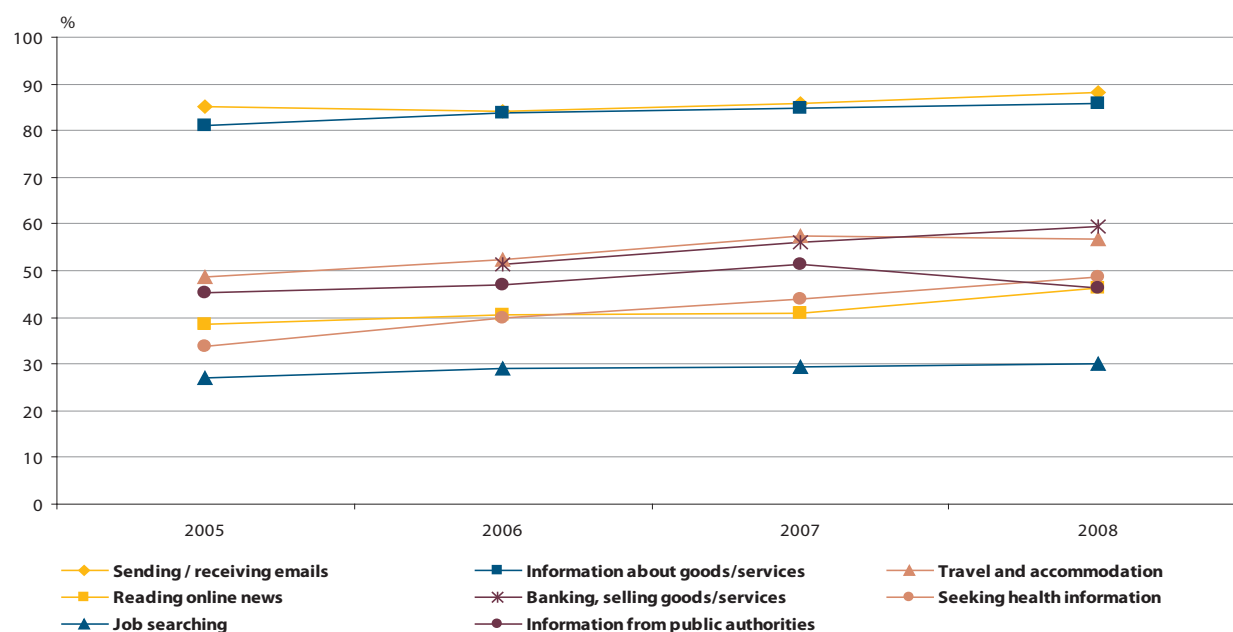


Source: Eurostat, Community survey on ICT usage in households and by individuals

Among Internet users aged 16–24, the evolution of most activities has been positive from 2005 onwards. The exchange of e-mails, the main activity in this age category, increased from 80 % in 2005 to 89 % in 2008. Other activities such as the search for information on goods and services or health

and Internet banking are also becoming more widespread among young Internet users. Although the share of young people who searched for information on health increased between 2005 and 2008, it did not exceed 40 % in 2008.

Figure 6.9: Internet activities of young people aged 25–34 (as a % of individuals aged 25–34 who used Internet in the past 3 months), EU-27, 2005–2008



Source: Eurostat - Community survey on ICT usage in households and by individuals

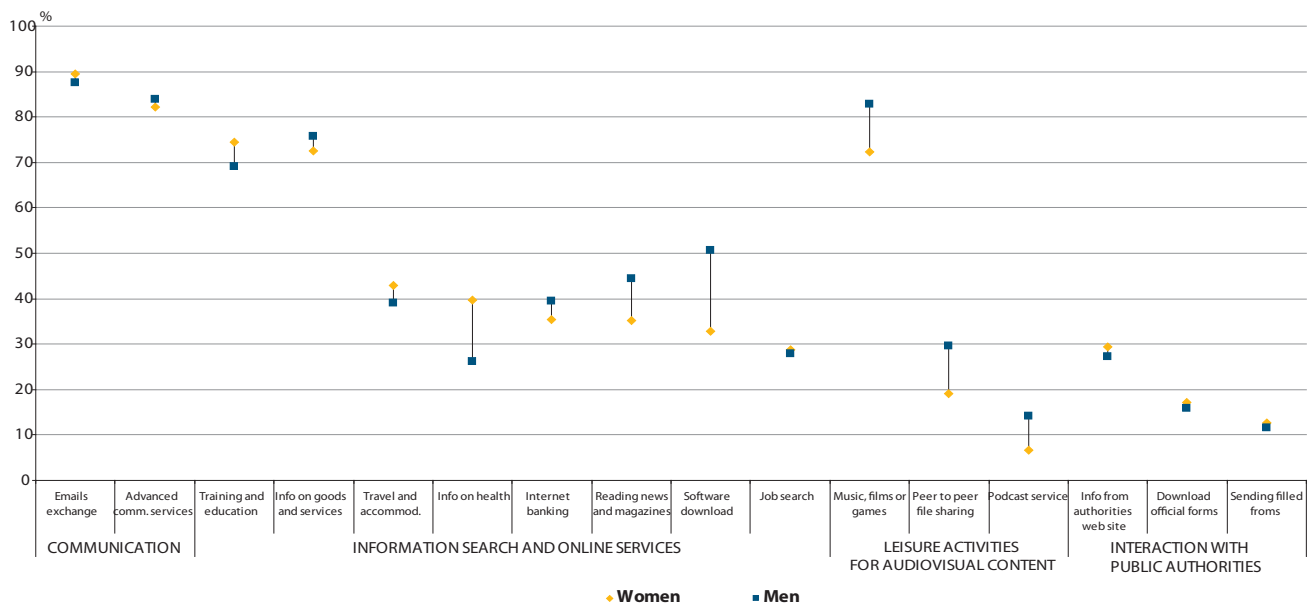
As for their younger counterparts, the exchange of e-mails and the search for information on goods and services were the main activities of Internet users aged 25-34. However the gap between both activities was much narrower for the older age group. In general, all activities saw an increase between 2005 and 2008, especially the search for information on health which rose by more than 40 %.

Similar patterns between young women and men were reported for some Internet activities, but strong differences

were recorded for others (see Figure 6.10).

In fact, although the shares of young women and men were fairly similar in terms of Internet activities related to communication or to interaction with public authorities (including downloading and sending forms), major disparities emerge when considering the kind of information sought by women and men and online leisure activities.

Figure 6.10: Internet activities of people aged 16–24, by sex, EU-27, 2008 (%)



Source: Eurostat, Community survey on ICT usage in households and by individuals

Among the population aged 16-24, young men were more interested than women in downloading software (51 % of men against 33 % of women), downloading, listening to, watching or playing music, films and/or games (83 % against 72 %), using peer-to-peer file sharing (30 % against 19 %), reading news and magazines (45 % against 35 %) and using podcast services (14 % against 7 %).

Conversely, women were relatively more interested than men in looking for information on health (40 % of young women against 26 % of men) and on education and training (75 % against 69 %).



Although many young people aged 16–24 are daily users of the Internet, they less frequently purchase good or services over the Internet than their older counterparts (see Figure 6.11). This may be explained by the fact that young people usually do not have a regular income and do not always have access to a credit card, which is the main means of payment used over the Internet.

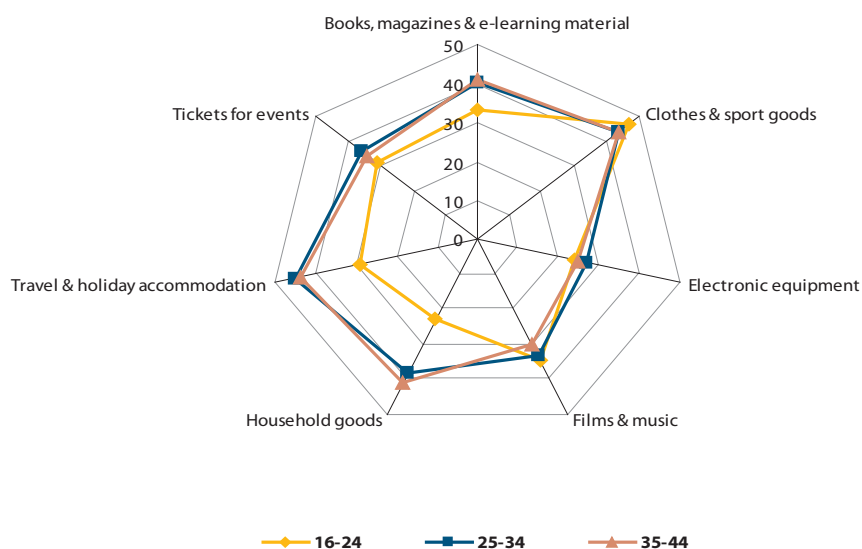
In 2008, clothes and sports goods were the main types of goods acquired via the Internet by young people aged 16–24 who ordered goods or services over the Internet in the course of the last twelve months (47%). These products ranked second for the population aged 25–34 and 35–44, just after travel and holiday accommodation.

No remarkable difference was noted between age groups concerning the acquisition of films and music, which were purchased by 30% of the population aged 35–44 and 35% of young people aged 16–24.

Significant discrepancies were however noted for other products: people aged 25–34 and 35–44 were more likely to buy household goods and to purchase services such as travel and holiday accommodation.

To a lesser degree, people aged 25–44 also tended to purchase books and magazines more often than their younger counterparts.

Figure 6.11: Type of items purchased by individuals who ordered goods or services over the Internet for private use in the course of the past year, EU-27, 2008 (%)



Source: Eurostat, Community survey on ICT usage in households and by individuals

In 2008, Internet users in the EU-27 aged between 25 and 34 tended to purchase goods via Internet more often than their juniors. This was also true at national level for most categories of goods presented here (see Table 6.9).

Clothes and sports goods accounted for the main products purchased over the Internet by young people aged 16–24 in 14 Member States. The share of people who bought this kind of product exceeded 50 % in four countries and even reached 62 % in Finland. Moreover, in Finland, 61 % of those aged 25–34 bought clothes and sports goods via the Internet.

The main purchases of people aged 25–34 concerned travel and accommodation (45 % at EU level). This was the case in 13 Member States and in Norway, which recorded the highest shares in terms of travel and accommodation purchases (79 %).

In both age categories under review, the highest shares of individuals who purchased tickets for events were found in Denmark, Estonia, Finland and Norway.

In all countries except for the Czech Republic, Greece, Latvia and Slovakia, the share of the population which bought books magazine or e-learning material through the Internet was higher among those aged 25–34 than 16–24. Conversely, in a majority of countries a higher share of young people aged 16–24 bought films and music on the Internet. For example, in the Czech Republic and Greece, the share of the population which bought films and music over the Internet in the past year was twice as high among the population aged 16–24 than 25–34.

Table 6.9: Type of items purchased by individuals who ordered goods or services over the Internet for private use in the last year, by age group, 2008 (%)

	Books, magazines & e-learning material		Clothes & sport goods		Electronic equipment		Films & music		Household goods		Travel & holiday accommodation		Tickets for events	
	16-24	25-34	16-24	25-34	16-24	25-34	16-24	25-34	16-24	25-34	16-24	25-34	16-24	25-34
EU-27	33	40	47	44	24	27	35	33	23	38	29	45	31	36
BE	14	23	32	29	14	13	19	20	9	15	25	37	30	36
BG	31	32	22	30	15	16	29	19	:	11	:	25	:	19
CZ	34	22	48	40	21	36	18	7	5	23	9	17	39	30
DK	25	37	54	46	33	34	39	46	11	19	35	52	47	58
DE	44	58	52	55	31	37	39	41	34	56	28	43	34	37
EE	:	20	26	35	:	:	:	:	:	26	:	31	62	52
IE	16	26	23	21	9	17	34	30	5	10	40	61	29	35
EL	22	18	22	19	29	22	26	9	12	12	29	19	12	11
ES	15	24	25	22	18	17	15	16	7	14	45	65	29	40
FR	36	36	60	51	13	17	32	36	37	47	40	51	32	40
IT	24	28	38	30	21	25	28	23	10	16	23	38	17	23
CY	12	32	36	31	28	22	24	17	3	13	19	33	4	3
LV	13	7	36	32	39	34	12	7	19	35	12	23	33	29
LT	17	26	14	16	10	9	19	22	10	18	17	34	40	37
LU	51	54	32	36	20	20	46	42	17	27	40	61	43	47
HU	40	41	31	29	18	11	11	16	7	13	8	23	21	27
MT	21	30	29	35	37	26	26	28	11	15	14	19	11	6
NL	35	37	37	46	29	30	31	25	7	26	32	48	38	38
AT	38	51	46	40	23	27	25	24	13	24	17	31	23	29
PL	26	34	48	47	27	21	:	:	29	38	:	:	9	11
PT	30	31	37	25	29	24	24	17	:	19	:	54	19	27
RO	54	60	25	17	13	13	46	47	2	15	9	24	11	16
SI	15	31	26	34	27	23	18	14	22	31	17	29	18	21
SK	23	19	44	41	18	17	12	12	10	23	16	19	23	16
FI	35	42	62	61	25	23	43	36	17	36	41	65	46	56
SE	32	37	42	40	18	23	39	38	11	16	33	51	39	42
UK	28	39	49	43	25	29	51	47	20	45	29	51	35	39
NO	29	44	48	47	29	30	47	40	16	35	50	79	54	64

Source: Eurostat, Community survey on ICT usage in households and by individuals

Cultural and social involvement



The European Union's primary role is one of economic, legal and political integration, but its cultural dimension has been recently reassessed by the European Commission: 'The European Union is not just an economic process or a trading power, it is already widely – and accurately – perceived as an unprecedented and successful social and cultural project.'⁽¹⁾ Moreover, its successive enlargements have led to an increase of diversity within the European area and its overall functioning has proved its ability to 'respect Member States' varied and intertwined history, languages and cultures'⁽²⁾.

People aged under 30 are the first generation to have grown up in the context of EU enlargements and who have enjoyed early in their lives the four freedoms of the Single Market (free movement of people, goods, services and capital). Indeed, 'United in Diversity', the official motto of the European Union, bears witness to the new melting pot of European youth.

LIFE IS NOT ALL HARD WORK

Broadly speaking, leisure time is for young people a period of time when they choose what they want to do with people they want to be with. Young people's leisure time is sometimes associated with potentially risky behaviour (drinking, smoking or violence, etc.) but it is mainly an opportunity to play, relax and learn through informal learning (i.e. outside the academic framework). As pointed out by the United Nations⁽³⁾, 'research confirms that leisure time is important in helping young people achieve a broad range of positive outcomes: social/emotional, vocational, physical, cognitive, and civic development and engagement'. These positive outcomes can have an impact on both personal and community development.

In the context of this publication, daily activities are divided into different categories: sleeping, eating, working, studying, household work, television and video, and free time (see Figure 7.1). As people get older, the share of free time decreases and there is a gradual shift from study to working time. In nearly two thirds of countries for which Time Use Survey data are available, free time (excluding time devoted to TV and video) accounted for more than 20 % of a normal day among young people aged between 15 and 19, but this share dropped to less than 20 % in all countries when considering the population aged between 30 and 49.

Apart from sleeping, which accounts for more than one third of people's daily activities (whatever the age group) but decreases with age in all countries, a number of differences emerge across countries: young people aged between 15 and 19 dedicated less than 20 % of a typical day to leisure in Bulgaria, France and the United Kingdom, whereas young people in Germany and Norway dedicated more than 25 % of

their time to leisure pursuits. In all countries, studying was the second most important activity keeping young people busy in the course of a normal day. Young people in Italy and Slovenia dedicated the largest amount of time to studying with 19 % and 18 % of a normal day respectively. In Germany, the United Kingdom and Norway, young people spent less than 13% of a normal day on studying.

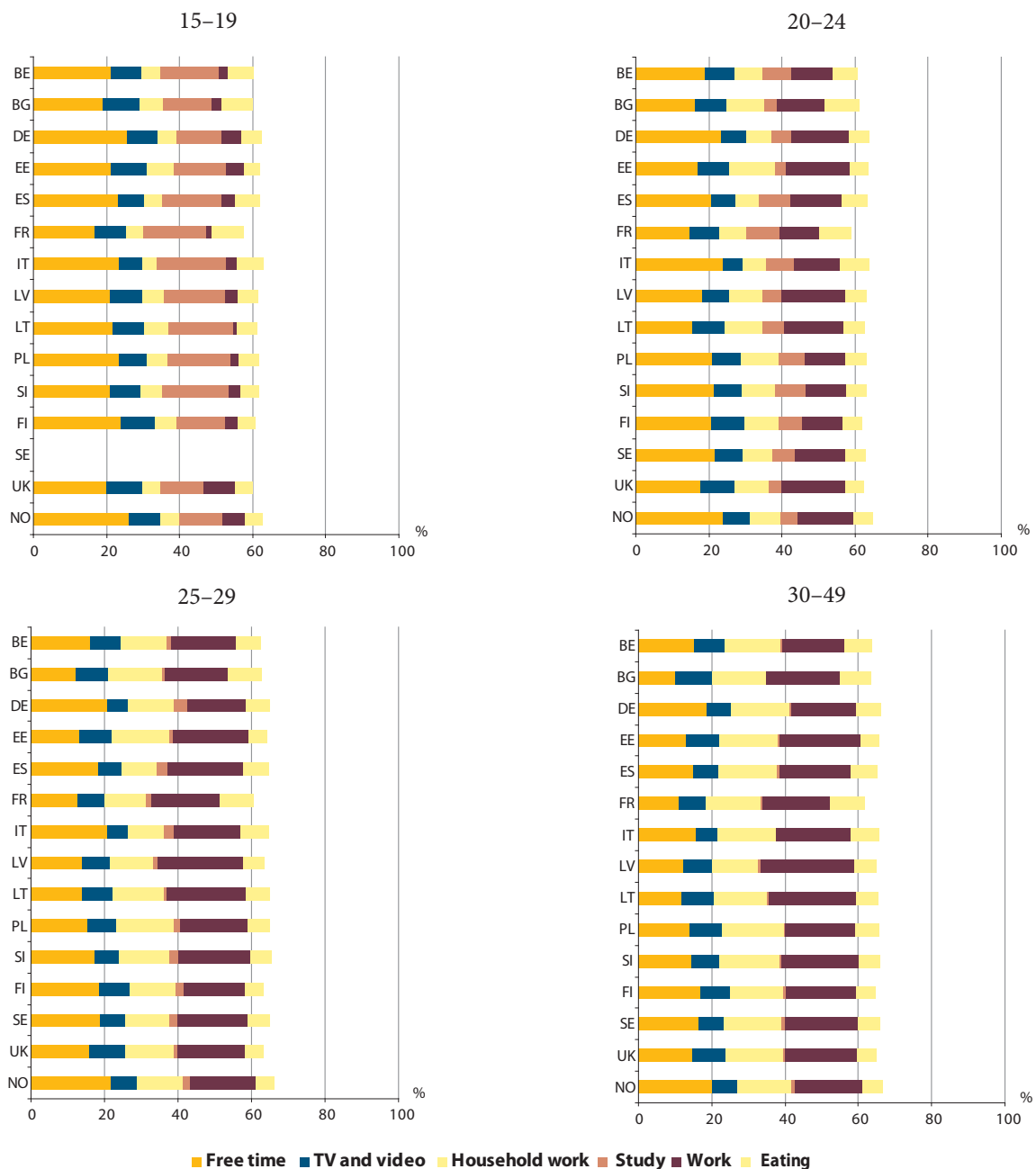
Among the youngest population (aged 15–24), the time devoted to work varies considerably across countries. In two thirds of the countries under review, young people aged between 15 and 19 spend less than 5% of their time working. This share stood above 5 % in Germany, Estonia and Norway, and reached 9 % in the United Kingdom. Differences across countries were more marked when considering the 20 to 24-year-olds. This may be due to the fact that the transition from school to working life usually occurs at this age and that some young people combine part-time study (in upper-secondary education or tertiary education) with part-time employment. In all countries, the share of time devoted to work in this age group ranged from around 11 % (France, Slovenia and Finland) to a little more than 17 % (Estonia, Latvia and the United Kingdom).

Watching television and videos can be regarded as a universally popular activity, as in all age categories spend between 5 % and 10 % of their time in front of the TV. Young people aged between 15 and 19 spent between 6 % (Italy) and 10 % (United Kingdom) of a normal day watching television and videos. Such differences across countries were fairly consistent in all age groups.

⁽¹⁾⁽²⁾ Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions on a European agenda for culture in a globalizing world (Sec(2007) 570).

⁽³⁾ World Youth Report, chapter 8 *Rethinking leisure time: expanding opportunities for young people communities*, United Nations, 2003.

Figure 7.1: Distribution of daily time use (24 hours) of Europeans by age group and type of main activity, (%)*



Source: Harmonised Time Use Survey (HETUS); *data from 1995 to 2005 according to country.

Note: the figure shows the percentage in the total daytime of the following activities (free time, TV and video, household work, study, work and eating). Sleeping and unspecified activities are not shown in the graph but comprised the remainder of the daily time use of Europeans. Data for Sweden are not available for the population aged under 20 years.

Data presented here are taken from the national **Time Use Surveys (TUS)**. Time Use Surveys take a representative sample of individuals who complete a diary during one weekday and one week-end day distributed over the whole year. The diary allows the surveyed person to code two activities (the main and the secondary activity) carried out at the same time. It should be noted that the results are estimates and that sampling errors can affect the results. The activities have been coded in most countries following the Harmonised European Time Use (HETUS) activity coding list. The surveyed persons responded to questions related to the individual and to the household. The reference year of the survey varied from 1999 to 2005 according to country.

Work is defined according to ILO definition. Actual hours worked includes total employment time plus 'travel from/to work'.

Study includes studies at primary, secondary and tertiary education institutions as part of the formal education system and study during free time. Study is defined here as total study time plus 'travel related to study'.

Free time is defined here as total leisure time plus 'other personal care' and 'travel related to leisure' minus TV and Video;

Household work is defined here as total domestic time plus 'travel related to shopping', 'transporting a child' and 'other domestic travel'.

The percentages presented in the figure refer to the main activity. This affects the total real time spent on some activities since some of them can be done simultaneously (e.g. eating and watching TV), one being the main activity and the other being the secondary activity.

For more details please refer to: <https://www.testh2.scb.se/tus/tus/>

Source: Harmonised Time Use Survey

Household work does not seem to be a priority for young people, as for instance the amount of time devoted to chores was generally more than twice as high among the population aged 30–49 than among young people aged 15–19 (see Table

7.1). In all countries under review women spent more time doing housework than men. Women in Bulgaria, Spain and Italy spent more than twice as much time as men doing household work, regardless of age group.

Table 7.1: Share of daily time spent on housework, by age group and sex (%)*

		15-19	20-24	25-29	30-49
BE	Women	5.6	10.0	15.7	19.4
	Men	4.3	5.3	8.6	10.7
BG	Women	8.7	14.7	21.0	19.7
	Men	4.0	5.2	7.4	9.7
DE	Women	6.4	9.0	15.3	20.8
	Men	4.0	4.8	8.6	10.7
EE	Women	9.0	18.5	21.7	20.3
	Men	5.8	6.9	10.1	10.7
ES	Women	6.5	9.2	13.8	24.2
	Men	2.9	3.5	5.3	8.1
FR	Women	5.9	10.1	16.1	20.4
	Men	3.4	4.4	6.8	9.6
IT	Women	5.6	10.1	16.0	25.4
	Men	2.1	2.5	3.7	6.9
LV	Women	7.1	12.3	18.7	17.1
	Men	4.9	5.7	5.6	7.8
LT	Women	8.1	16.0	19.3	19.4
	Men	4.9	4.8	9.1	8.8
PL	Women	7.6	14.6	22.7	22.7
	Men	4.5	6.3	9.0	11.2
SI	Women	6.2	11.8	19.4	21.2
	Men	5.2	6.5	8.1	12.0
FI	Women	7.6	11.7	16.1	18.9
	Men	4.0	6.3	8.6	10.3
SE	Women	:	9.0	16.0	18.8
	Men	:	7.2	8.9	12.4
UK	Women	6.1	12.4	18.6	21.1
	Men	3.4	5.9	7.8	10.7
NO	Women	6.7	11.0	17.7	17.8
	Men	4.0	5.8	8.4	11.9

Source: Harmonised Time Use Survey (HETUS); * data from 1995 to 2005 according to country.

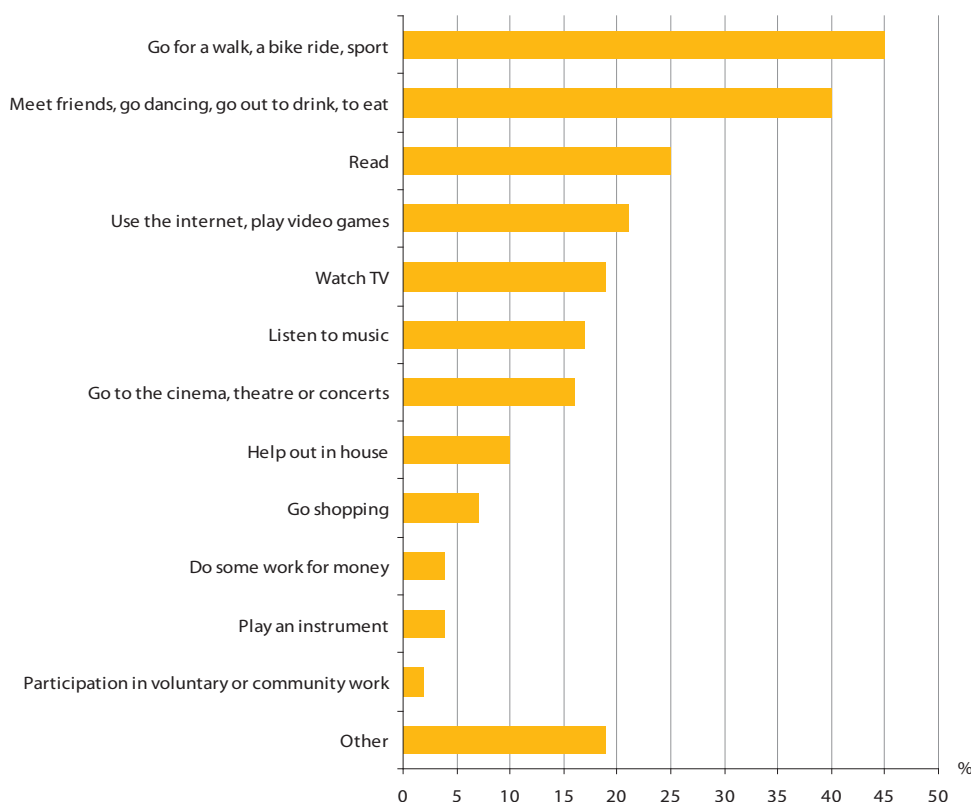
Note: data for Sweden are not available for the population aged under 20 years.

What young people do during leisure time depends on their interests and imagination, as well as on the type of leisure facilities available in their neighbourhood and their available budget. When, in 2007, the Eurobarometer survey asked young people what they regularly do for leisure, 45% of young Europeans aged 15–30 answered that they do sports (going for a walk, a bike ride, etc.) and 40% go out to meet friends, to dance, to drink or eat (see Figure 7.2). Reading remains a common form of entertainment for a quarter of young Europeans. Using the internet, playing video games, watching

TV, listening to music and going to the cinema and theatre were also popular leisure activities for more than 15% of young people.

Helping out in the house (10%) and going shopping (7%) were expectedly less popular among young Europeans, as these activities are often considered as chores. Less than 5% of young Europeans declared working to earn money, whereas participation in voluntary or community work was mentioned by only 2% of young Europeans aged between 15 and 30.

Figure 7.2: Regular leisure activities of Europeans aged 15–30, 2007 (%)



Source: Flash Eurobarometer No 202 *Young Europeans: A survey among young people aged between 15–30 in the European Union*, Analytical Report, 2007⁽⁴⁾

Eurobarometer surveys are opinion polls based on the subjective responses of the persons interviewed.

The standard Eurobarometer survey was established in 1973. Each survey includes approximately 1000 face-to-face interviews per Member State (except Germany: 1500; Luxembourg: 600; the United Kingdom: 1300, including 300 in Northern Ireland). It is conducted between 2 and 5 times per year, with reports published twice a year. The Special Eurobarometer reports are based on in-depth thematic studies carried out for various services of the European Commission or other EU institutions and integrated in the standard Eurobarometer polling waves. The Flash Eurobarometer are ad hoc thematic telephone interviews conducted at the request of any service of the European Commission. They enable the Commission to obtain results relatively quickly and to focus on specific target groups, as and when required (i.e. doctors, SMEs, etc.).

⁽⁴⁾ Several responses are possible for the Eurobarometer question 'What do you regularly do during your leisure time?'

Leisure time can also be used to partake in enriching cultural events, such as going to the cinema or live performances. Although access to films at home has increased through DVDs and the internet, young people still enjoy going to the cinema. The proportion of young film-goers varies according to several factors: the density of cinema screens in a country⁽⁵⁾, the price of cinema tickets and the film programming. According to the EU-SILC ad hoc module on social participation held in 2006, at European level, more than 82 % of young people aged between 16 and 24 went to see at least one film over the preceding year, against 69 % for the 25–29 age group and 37 % for those aged 30 and over (see Table 7.2).

In 17 European countries, more than 50% of young Europeans aged 16–24 went to the cinema between one and

six times in the year preceding the survey of 2006. Moreover, in Belgium, Ireland, Spain, France, Luxembourg, Austria and Iceland more than 35 % of people in this age bracket went to the cinema more than six times a year. To a lesser extent, cinema was also popular among young people aged 25–29: in all countries under review over 40% of people aged 25–29 went to the cinema at least once in the year preceding the survey. In Ireland, Spain and Luxembourg, respectively 29 %, 33 % and 35 % of the population aged 25–29 went to see seven or more films in the year preceding the survey.

Conversely, the share of young people who did not go to the cinema was higher than the European average in the Member States that joined the European Union in 2004 as well as in Portugal, Greece and the Netherlands.

Table 7.2: People who went to the cinema in the past 12 months, by frequency and age group, 2006 (%)

	None			1-6 times			> 6 times		
	16-24	25-29	30 and over	16-24	25-29	30 and over	16-24	25-29	30 and over
EU-27	17.7	30.8	62.6	54.5	49.4	31.5	27.8	19.8	6.0
BE	13.8	26.1	61.7	49.1	53.9	32.5	37.2	20.0	5.7
BG	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
CZ	24.5	37.9	76.0	56.1	48.4	22.1	19.4	13.7	1.9
DK	12.6	13.9	41.0	56.4	62.3	49.5	31.0	23.8	9.5
DE	10.8	24.8	56.4	66.8	59.4	40.1	22.3	15.8	3.5
EE	28.5	47.9	82.7	56.1	40.9	16.0	15.4	11.1	1.3
IE	18.7	25.2	59.3	41.0	45.8	33.1	40.3	29.0	7.6
EL	21.9	31.5	71.3	56.6	50.7	25.3	21.5	17.8	3.4
ES	13.8	24.6	59.9	44.2	42.1	29.0	41.9	33.4	11.0
FR	15.6	29.5	56.4	47.4	48.7	33.5	37.0	21.8	10.1
IT	16.8	30.8	67.0	53.9	47.1	27.0	29.3	22.1	6.1
CY	20.7	42.6	79.2	54.6	40.4	17.4	24.7	17.0	3.4
LV	41.9	57.7	84.4	46.5	36.3	14.4	11.6	(6.0)	1.3
LT	36.8	51.6	85.0	53.1	44.1	13.8	10.2	(4.3)	1.2
LU	11.8	26.6	57.6	37.2	38.2	31.5	50.9	35.2	10.9
HU	30.3	47.8	81.0	45.8	38.0	16.1	23.8	14.3	2.9
MT	26.2	45.8	75.0	51.2	41.8	22.3	22.6	12.4	2.7
NL	19.3	32.0	62.6	55.6	52.3	32.9	25.1	15.7	4.5
AT	14.8	28.5	68.6	49.8	51.0	26.0	35.4	20.5	5.3
PL	24.8	43.6	74.4	63.0	47.3	23.6	12.2	9.1	2.0
PT	25.0	38.1	79.6	50.1	42.6	16.8	24.9	19.2	3.6
RO	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
SI	21.7	37.8	76.8	55.7	46.5	19.6	22.6	15.7	3.6
SK	20.2	39.6	79.3	63.0	49.2	19.0	16.9	11.2	1.7
FI	16.1	25.4	59.6	61.4	57.3	36.5	22.4	17.3	3.8
SE	16.3	22.8	55.2	68.2	65.4	40.7	15.4	11.8	4.1
UK	18.5	25.9	54.2	46.8	49.3	37.9	34.7	24.9	7.9
IS	(4.2)	(12.2)	39.5	42.0	55.9	49.7	53.8	32.0	10.9
NO	13.1	22.9	53.7	51.1	43.1	37.3	35.8	34.1	9.0

Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC ad hoc module on social participation 2006

⁽⁵⁾ Eurostat, *Pocketbook on cultural statistics*, 2007.

Live performances (concerts, plays, operas, ballets and dance shows) were less popular among young people than going to the cinema. The attendance to live events depends on their variety and quality but also on other factors such as other entertainment opportunities. Moreover, live performances are often more expensive than, for instance, cinema tickets, which could explain why differences in attendance rates are less pronounced between age groups than for cinema.

In nearly all countries, more than half of the 16 to 24-year-olds attended at least one live show in the year preceding the 2006 survey (see Table 7.3). This share even reached more than 70 % in Estonia, Lithuania, Portugal, Slovakia, Iceland

and Norway. Young people in Austria, Iceland and Norway appear to be more inclined to attend live performances than other young Europeans: respectively 19 %, 21 % and 24 % of 16 to 24-year-olds in these three countries attended live performances more than six times in the year preceding the survey.

In contrast, live performance attendance tended to be significantly lower in other parts of Europe. In Italy, Malta and Poland, more than half of the population aged 16– 24 did not attend a live show during the 12 months preceding the survey.

Table 7.3: People who attended a live performance in the past 12 months, by frequency and age group, 2006 (%)

	None			1-6 times			> 6 times		
	16-24	25-29	30 and over	16-24	25-29	30 and over	16-24	25-29	30 and over
EU-27	44.0	49.3	60.6	47.7	43.7	34.5	8.3	7.0	4.9
BE	44.6	43.4	58.4	46.2	46.6	35.5	9.2	10.0	6.1
BG	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
CZ	46.4	55.0	67.8	44.4	39.6	29.2	9.3	5.4	3.0
DK	37.5	36.6	44.4	54.0	54.8	49.3	8.5	(8.6)	6.3
DE	44.3	48.7	47.6	49.5	47.1	47.1	6.3	4.2	5.3
EE	27.7	33.4	52.4	63.6	59.7	42.6	8.7	(7.0)	5.1
IE	42.8	46.1	54.4	47.2	44.5	41.0	(10.0)	(9.4)	4.6
EL	47.9	50.2	74.1	45.7	45.1	24.5	6.4	(4.7)	1.4
ES	45.7	49.7	69.1	43.7	40.7	26.1	10.6	9.6	4.8
FR	39.0	43.3	57.2	51.8	48.9	38.2	9.2	7.8	4.6
IT	52.3	60.2	76.4	42.1	34.7	20.9	5.6	5.1	2.7
CY	36.5	50.7	65.5	58.1	44.2	31.2	5.4	(5.1)	3.4
LV	36.5	47.3	62.2	58.4	47.9	35.3	5.1	(4.8)	2.5
LT	27.9	45.4	61.1	63.1	51.4	36.0	9.0	(3.2)	2.9
LU	35.0	48.5	48.8	50.0	39.5	41.6	15.0	12.0	9.6
HU	38.5	54.0	72.1	45.5	35.0	21.6	(16.0)	11.0	6.3
MT	68.3	75.1	82.8	29.4	23.2	15.7	(2.4)	(1.7)	1.6
NL	42.2	35.1	49.8	52.0	55.9	43.1	5.8	9.0	7.1
AT	41.7	41.6	47.1	39.7	40.3	35.3	18.6	18.1	17.6
PL	51.4	67.4	82.5	44.1	30.1	16.4	4.5	2.5	1.1
PT	26.6	33.4	64.0	63.2	58.3	32.5	10.2	8.4	3.5
RO	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
SI	46.3	52.9	63.0	46.9	38.8	30.5	6.8	8.3	6.5
SK	26.2	37.4	55.7	64.7	56.3	41.5	9.1	6.3	2.9
FI	36.0	31.5	40.8	49.6	51.3	48.1	14.4	17.2	11.1
SE	33.3	33.1	43.9	55.3	58.3	49.3	11.4	(8.6)	6.9
UK	44.5	41.1	49.4	44.8	49.4	43.2	10.8	9.5	7.4
IS	16.4	19.3	27.7	62.6	59.6	58.4	21.0	21.1	13.8
NO	28.8	30.1	40.2	47.0	44.7	46.7	24.2	25.2	13.1

Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC ad hoc module on social participation 2006

In spite of Europe's rich and unique cultural heritage (318 European cultural sites were recorded in the 2007 UNESCO World Heritage list)⁽⁶⁾, cultural visits were less frequent among young people compared to cinema and live

performance attendance. In 2006, in close to 50% of the countries under consideration, more than half of the population in all age brackets failed to make even one cultural visit during the year preceding the survey (see Table 7.4).

Table 7.4: People who went on a cultural visit in the past 12 months, by frequency and age group, 2006 (%)

	None			1-6 visits			> 6 visits		
	16-24	25-29	30 and over	16-24	25-29	30 and over	16-24	25-29	30 and over
EU-27	52.2	53.6	58.3	42.1	39.5	35.4	5.7	6.9	6.3
BE	56.5	55.8	58.9	37.9	39.6	34.0	5.6	(4.6)	7.1
BG	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
CZ	46.5	48.3	58.8	48.9	45.9	37.6	4.6	5.8	3.6
DK	50.9	47.9	40.2	41.4	42.2	49.3	(7.7)	(9.9)	10.5
DE	40.9	42.8	42.5	55.4	53.3	53.1	3.7	4.0	4.3
EE	49.4	57.4	70.3	47.1	39.6	26.6	3.5	3.0	3.1
IE	64.1	57.0	64.6	31.9	33.8	28.7	(4.0)	(9.3)	6.7
EL	73.2	83.0	87.4	25.8	16.6	11.9	(1.0)	(0.4)	0.7
ES	47.5	47.8	59.3	43.6	40.7	32.5	8.9	11.5	8.2
FR	58.8	52.8	55.4	36.3	40.3	37.9	4.9	6.9	6.7
IT	62.4	70.7	77.7	34.4	25.9	19.8	3.2	3.5	2.5
CY	66.7	71.8	76.7	30.7	24.9	21.1	(2.6)	(3.3)	2.2
LV	42.9	53.3	67.7	52.9	41.4	30.0	4.2	(5.3)	2.3
LT	48.4	65.8	75.3	47.9	32.8	22.9	3.7	(1.4)	1.8
LU	51.1	47.3	48.4	39.6	40.5	42.3	9.3	12.2	9.3
HU	39.6	51.7	63.5	43.8	37.7	28.8	16.6	10.6	7.7
MT	85.3	87.6	85.4	11.7	10.1	13.0	(2.9)	(2.4)	1.6
NL	55.1	52.3	50.1	38.8	38.5	40.3	(6.1)	9.2	9.7
AT	66.7	55.4	60.2	17.4	25.6	28.9	15.9	19.0	10.8
PL	53.0	62.2	73.3	43.4	34.6	23.5	3.7	3.2	3.3
PT	53.0	54.9	73.7	42.2	40.3	23.1	4.9	(4.8)	3.2
RO	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
SI	52.2	57.0	61.4	44.0	36.3	33.9	3.8	6.7	4.7
SK	37.0	44.1	62.0	57.3	51.3	35.3	5.7	(4.5)	2.7
FI	38.9	32.6	38.9	46.4	44.2	42.0	14.7	(23.1)	19.1
SE	41.5	41.1	41.8	48.2	47.3	45.4	10.3	11.5	12.8
UK	53.9	45.0	46.9	38.0	42.9	40.6	8.1	12.1	12.5
IS	56.3	50.6	51.5	40.8	42.8	42.6	(2.9)	(6.6)	6.0

Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC ad hoc module on social participation 2006

In 2006, close to 42% of young Europeans aged 16–24 had been on a cultural visit between one and six times over the last 12 months. This was the case in nearly half of EU countries, but it is not possible to determine if these visits were carried out on a private basis or in the context of school trips. Hungary (17%), Austria (16%) and Finland (15%)

reported the highest shares of young people aged 16 to 24 having been on a cultural visit more than six times a year. These countries also reported the highest participation rates among young people aged 25 to 29. In Spain, Luxembourg, Sweden and the United Kingdom more than 10% of this age group went on at least 7 cultural visits.

⁽⁶⁾ Eurostat, *Pocketbook on cultural statistics*, 2007.

Playing and watching sports typically stir up fierce passion, but sports can also teach young people the importance of respect for others and increase the feeling of belonging to a specific community (team or supporters). In 2006, in more than two thirds of EU Member States, a majority of people aged 16–29 did not attend any live sports event over the 12 months preceding the survey, whether it was played by professionals or amateurs (including those played by one's children or siblings) (see Table 7.5). This may be partly explained by the increasing number of sporting events broadcast on television and via the internet.

In 2006, around 40 % of people aged 16–29 in Germany, Estonia, Latvia, Portugal and Slovakia attended live sports events between one and six times a year. But in Ireland (22 %), Luxembourg (18 %), Cyprus and Slovakia (17 %), Sweden and Iceland (16 %) and Denmark (15 %) a significant proportion of people aged between 16 and 29 attended live sports events more than once a month.

Live sports were not very popular in Greece, Hungary, Malta and the United Kingdom, where more than 60 % of young people did not attend such events.

Table 7.5: People aged 16–29 who attended live sports events in the past 12 months, by frequency, 2006 (%)

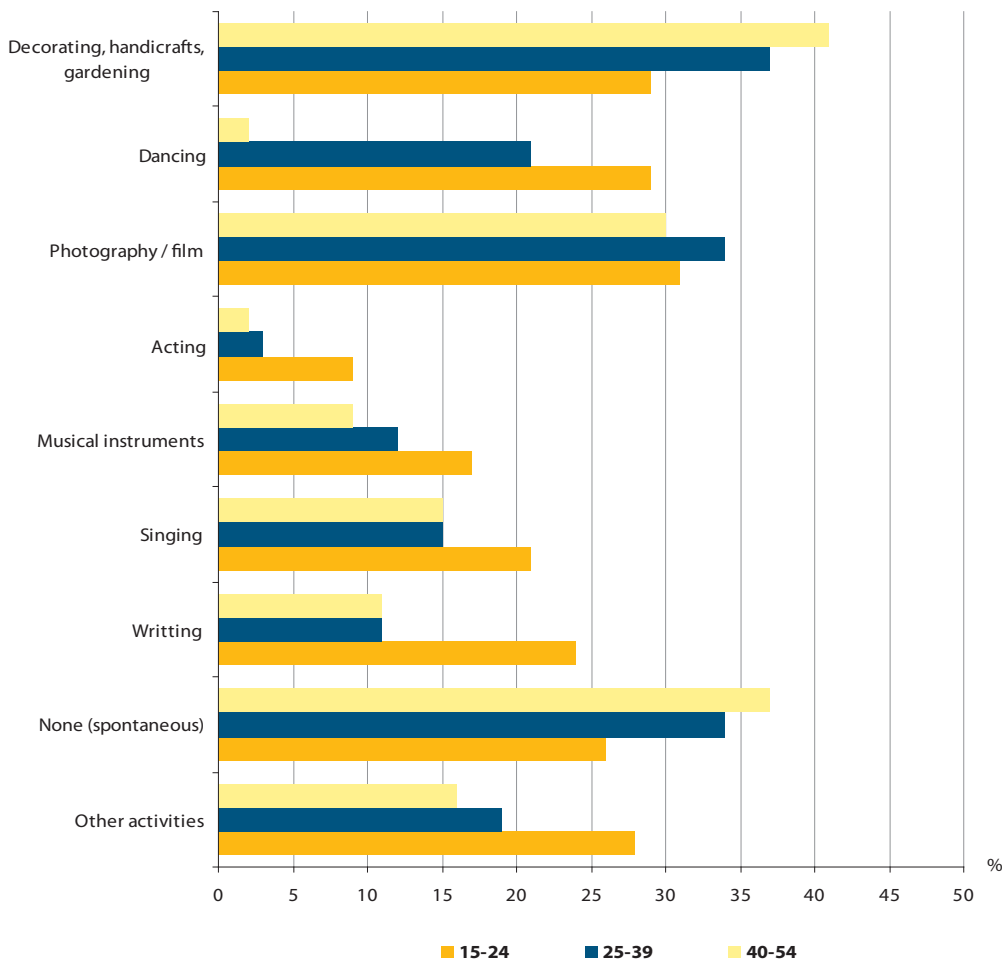
	None	1-3 times	4-6 times	7-12 times	> 12 times
EU-27	53.6	22.6	9.8	5.3	8.9
BE	58.0	14.6	8.4	4.2	14.7
BG	:	:	:	:	:
CZ	41.6	23.9	13.4	8.4	12.8
DK	46.7	17.4	12.4	8.5	15.0
DE	41.2	29.0	11.9	6.4	11.5
EE	53.3	28.0	10.0	5.1	3.7
IE	41.9	18.3	10.6	7.6	21.6
EL	60.1	22.4	9.3	3.7	4.5
ES	57.0	19.9	7.8	4.4	10.8
FR	59.3	20.9	8.9	5.1	5.9
IT	55.7	21.2	10.7	5.6	6.8
CY	55.4	12.2	8.6	6.5	17.3
LV	50.6	31.8	10.2	3.8	3.6
LT	56.2	27.0	9.5	4.2	3.1
LU	48.8	19.3	8.5	5.2	18.2
HU	63.6	16.7	9.0	6.4	4.4
MT	76.1	11.4	4.6	3.6	4.3
NL	52.3	19.1	9.4	5.3	13.9
AT	53.1	15.2	13.1	7.7	11.0
PL	58.9	23.7	9.7	4.0	3.7
PT	50.4	28.7	9.6	4.4	7.0
RO	:	:	:	:	:
SI	56.9	19.4	10.5	5.5	7.7
SK	29.4	26.2	15.9	11.4	17.2
FI	45.3	26.8	9.6	5.6	12.8
SE	43.9	21.0	10.7	8.2	16.3
UK	60.9	20.4	6.3	3.5	8.9
IS	47.7	19.0	11.3	6.4	15.6
NO	42.9	22.1	12.4	9.5	13.2

Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC ad hoc module on social participation 2006

Leisure time can also be dedicated to artistic activities. According to the Eurobarometer survey, young Europeans tend to participate more in artistic activities than their elders. Among the population interviewed in 2007, photography and

film (31%) were the preferred activities of young Europeans aged 15–24, followed by dancing (29%), decorating activities (29%) and singing (21%) (see Figure 7.3).

Figure 7.3: Participation rates in artistic activities, by age group, EU-27, 2007 (%)



Source: Special Eurobarometer No 278 *European cultural values 2007*⁽⁷⁾

Young people aged 15–24 also enjoyed writing, singing and playing an instrument more than the older generations. Acting was not a very popular activity, as less than 10% of the people surveyed had performed on stage in the 12 months

preceding the survey, but overall the share of people who took part in a play was higher among the 15 to 24-year-olds than among the older population.

⁽⁷⁾ Eurobarometer question: 'I am going to read out a list of artistic activities. Please tell me if, in the last 12 months, you have either on your own or as a part of an organised group or classes done...? (not in a professional way — amateur activities)'

BROADENING YOUNG PEOPLE'S HORIZONS

Whether they call themselves travellers, backpackers or tourists, young people often feel the need for adventure. Travelling is regarded as a source of knowledge and personal enrichment. Young travellers have various motivations to go abroad: to explore other cultures and interact with local people, to help people and make positive contributions, to learn or practise foreign languages, to study or work and to experience everyday life abroad, to learn more about themselves, to relax and to spend time with friends or

relatives⁽⁸⁾. Europe and Europeans are key actors of the global tourism market; as pointed out by recent data: 'Europe is the most important tourism region, both as a destination and as a source. In spite of the steady fall in its market share over the last ten years, as a consequence of the dramatic growth of very dynamic regions like Asia (especially South Asia), Europe's tourism flows still increased in absolute terms from 1995 to 2000 and then fluctuated in the following six years.'⁽⁹⁾

Travel refers to the activity of travellers. A **traveller** is someone who moves between different geographic locations, for any purpose and any duration.

Trip refers to the travel by a person from the time of departure from his usual residence until he/she returns: it thus refers to a round trip. A trip is made up of visits to different places. A holiday trip covers the whole period for which a person travels for leisure purposes.

Source: International Recommendations for Tourism Statistics 2008 UN Statistical Commission

Data on young travellers and tourism are difficult to interpret since current breakdowns by age do not distinguish between young people travelling on their own and with their parents;

moreover, information on who finances young people's travels is also lacking.

New travel patterns

New holiday patterns are emerging, forcing public and private tour operators to develop new tourism products and services and to rethink their marketing and promotional strategies, including:

- more holiday trips, but shorter stays;
- growing interest in last-minute travel and budget holidays;
- growth in independent travel at the expense of package tours;
- desire for a more direct contact with nature and the environment;
- desire to gain an authentic experience of places;
- interest in adventure;
- development of local tourism, i.e. destinations/areas close to the usual place of residence (weekend trips);
- development of new cultural horizons (living culture), that go beyond merely visiting museums and monuments or, more generally a single attraction, to include all the territory and the cultural context where the attraction is located (e.g. food, traditions, way of life, etc.);
- interest in local customs, folklore and resources (e.g. craftwork, etc.).

The increase in travel frequency and shorter stays has also been stimulated by the spread of budget airline travel, which has been identified as one of the main factors of tourism growth in Europe in 2006.

Source: Eurostat, *Panorama on tourism*, 2008

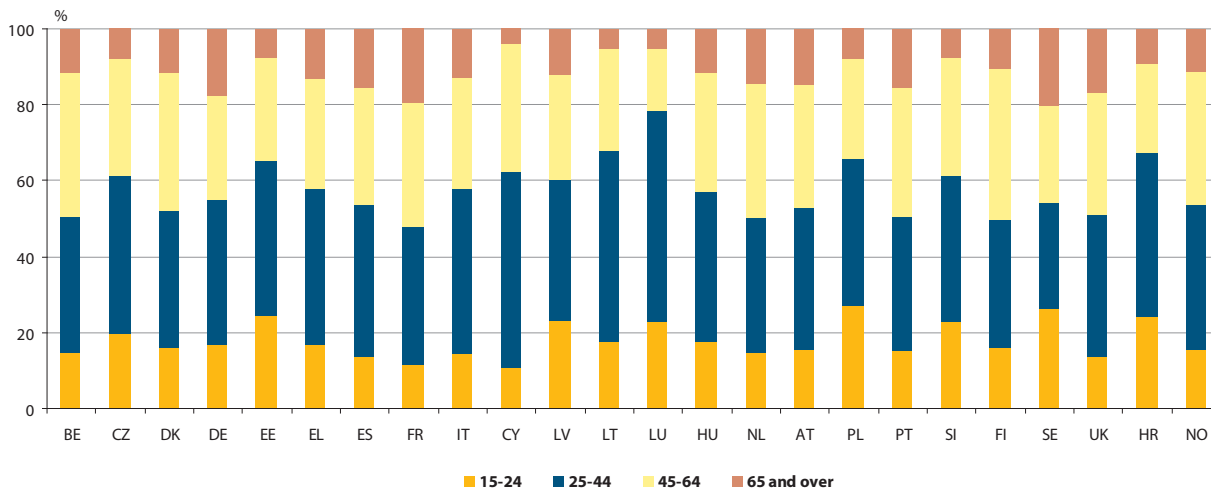
⁽⁸⁾ WYSE Travel Confederation, *New Horizons II, The Young Independent Traveller*, 2007.

⁽⁹⁾ Eurostat, *Panorama on tourism*, 2008.

Broadly speaking, the age distribution of tourists corresponds approximately to the age distribution of the total population⁽¹⁰⁾. In most European countries for which data are available, young people aged 15–24 accounted for less than 20% of the total number of tourists (i.e. those who spent 4 nights or more on holiday – see Figure 7.4). Estonia, Latvia, Poland, Slovenia, Sweden and Croatia were exceptions, with

shares of young tourists accounting for between 20% and 30% of all tourists. With the exception of Cyprus, the younger age group (15–24) accounted for relatively high shares of the tourist population in the new EU Member States (2004 and 2007 enlargements). Conversely, this age group accounted for the lowest shares in Spain and France.

Figure 7.4: Distribution of the total number of tourists, holidays of 4 nights or more, by age group, 2007 (%)

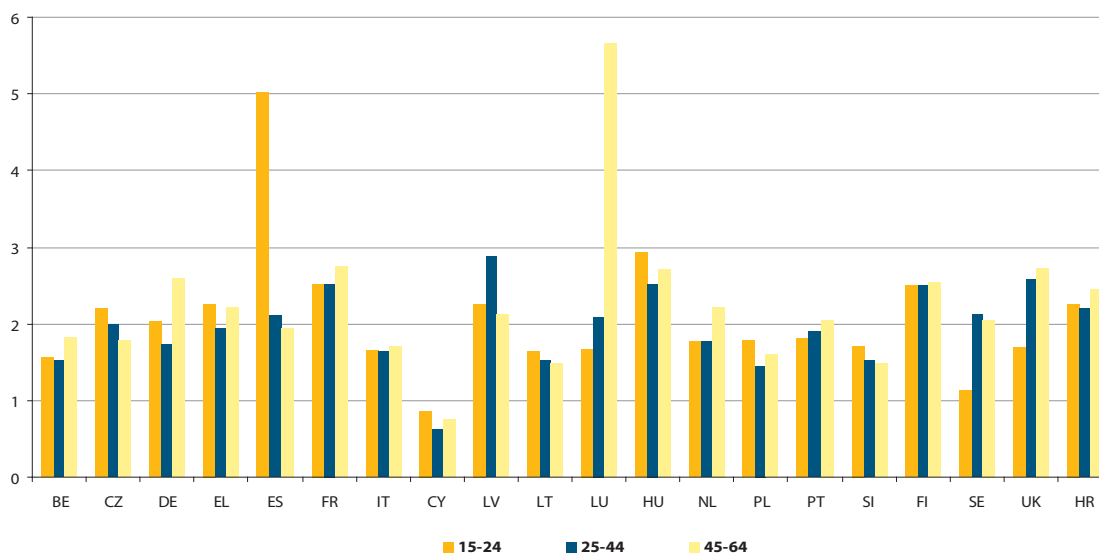


Source: Eurostat, Tourism Statistics
 Note: IT and SE: 2006 data.

No marked differences were recorded across age groups in the average number of holiday trips (see Figure 7.5). In all countries, people made on average less than 3 holiday trips a year in 2006, except in Spain (people aged 15–24) and Luxembourg (people aged 45–64). Overall, the average

number of annual trips ranged from less than 1 in Cyprus to 2.85 in Latvia. With the exception of Spain, no great discrepancy in the number of holiday trips was found between people aged 15–24 and those aged 25–44.

Figure 7.5: Average number of holiday trips (of 4 nights or more) per tourist, by age group, 2007



Source: Eurostat, Tourism Statistics
 Note: IT and SE : 2006 data.

⁽¹⁰⁾ Eurostat, *Statistics in focus* 69/2008, 'Tourism in Europe: does age matter?'



Table 7.6 includes data on holidays within the country of residence (domestic holidays), abroad (outbound holidays which encompass both holidays in another EU country and outside the European Union) or both. For nearly all countries, the main holiday destinations were similar across all age groups. Outbound holidays were the most popular in all age

groups in Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Lithuania, Slovenia, the United Kingdom and Norway, whereas domestic holidays were more sought after in many Mediterranean or southern European countries as well as in the Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland and Finland.

Table 7.6: Tourists having spent holidays (of 4 nights or more) domestically and/or abroad, by age group, 2007 (%)

	15-24			25-44			45-64		
	Domestic	Outbound	Domestic and Outbound	Domestic	Outbound	Domestic and Outbound	Domestic	Outbound	Domestic and Outbound
BE	10.9	72.1	17.0	8.8	83.1	8.1	12.7	76.4	10.9
BG	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
CZ	45.9	22.1	32.0	42.3	28.3	29.4	50.1	26.2	23.7
DK	9.2	81.1	9.7	18.0	68.5	13.6	15.3	73.6	11.1
DE	24.3	69.9	5.8	30.2	64.3	5.5	28.1	63.9	8.1
EE	:	58.8	:	:	67.8	:	:	71.3	:
IE	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
EL	87.8	10.0	2.2	85.2	12.6	2.2	88.6	10.5	0.9
ES	76.5	12.6	10.8	71.7	17.4	10.9	77.4	11.7	10.9
FR	67.9	16.7	15.4	74.5	6.6	18.9	66.8	9.0	24.2
IT	71.8	15.4	12.7	69.3	16.8	13.9	73.0	13.1	13.8
CY	19.7	30.3	50.0	9.9	40.1	50.0	10.6	39.4	50.0
LV	56.9	40.8	2.3	48.3	51.4	0.3	51.4	47.2	1.5
LT	21.9	76.1	1.9	13.7	83.6	2.7	17.8	78.0	4.2
LU	:	99.4	:	:	99.4	:	:	99.4	:
HU	75.0	22.1	2.9	75.0	22.1	2.9	75.0	22.1	2.9
MT	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
NL	17.4	40.7	41.8	20.9	37.4	41.6	18.5	38.4	43.2
AT	16.4	38.2	45.4	17.3	33.5	49.2	15.4	34.5	50.1
PL	66.2	19.8	14.0	65.9	19.2	15.0	62.3	21.4	16.3
PT	77.0	16.2	6.7	71.6	17.3	11.2	67.3	20.1	12.6
RO	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
SI	16.7	63.9	19.4	16.8	66.5	16.7	22.3	64.3	13.5
SK	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
FI	46.2	27.3	26.5	47.1	24.4	28.5	47.2	23.3	29.5
SE	50.9	43.0	6.1	52.8	42.7	4.5	47.2	50.5	2.3
UK	28.1	58.5	13.4	35.3	51.7	13.0	29.1	52.9	18.0
HR	57.6	22.7	19.6	63.8	15.4	20.8	58.7	15.9	25.4
NO	19.0	54.5	26.5	24.1	51.8	24.1	22.8	52.9	24.4

Source: Eurostat, Tourism Statistics

Note: CZ, DE, IT, HU, PT, SE and UK: 2006 data.

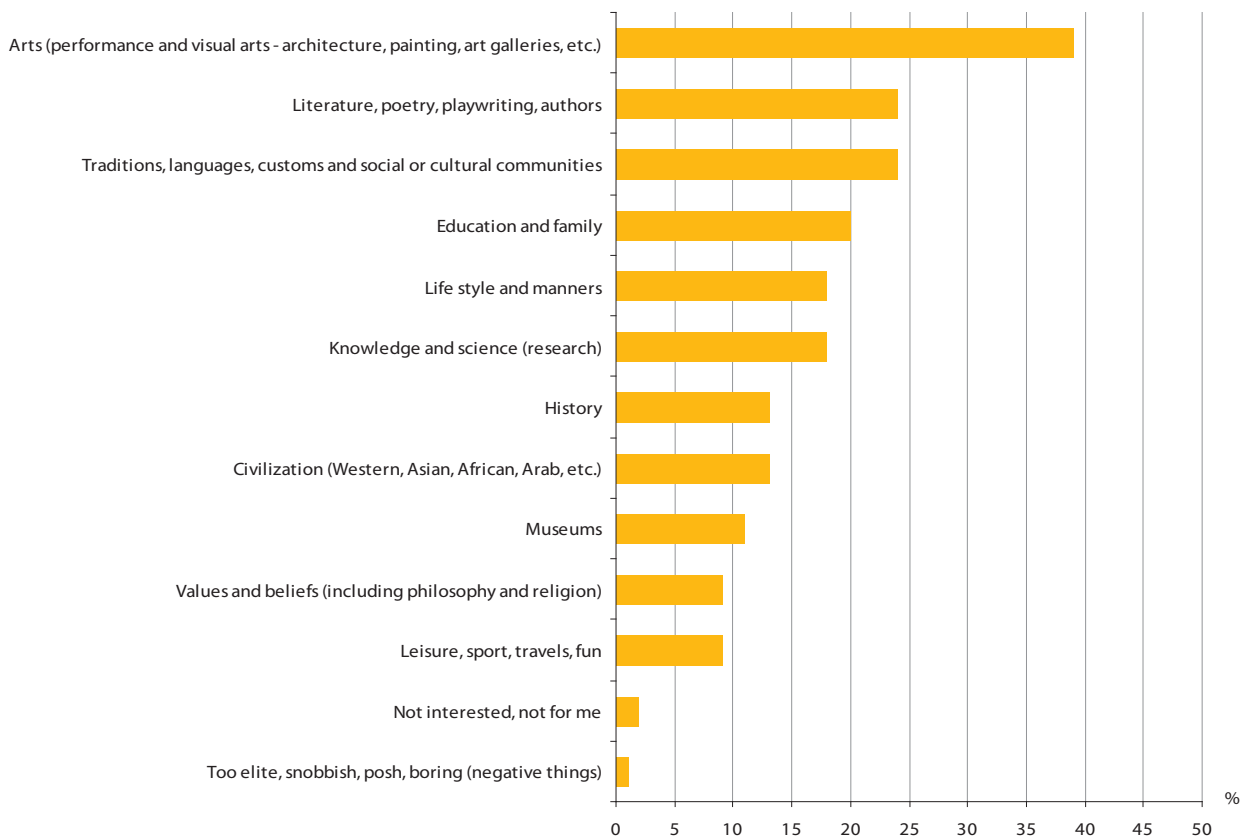
CULTURE: WHAT'S IN A WORD?

'Culture is generally recognised as complex to define. It can refer to the fine arts, including a variety of works of art, cultural goods and services. 'Culture' also has an anthropological meaning. It is the basis for a symbolic world of meanings, beliefs, values, traditions which are expressed in language, art, religion and myths.'⁽¹¹⁾

Asking people what culture evokes for them provides an indication on the subjective understanding of this word. This conception varies depending on age, education and socio-

economic background. According to a Eurobarometer survey, more than one third of Europeans associate the world culture with the arts (performance arts and visual arts or architecture, painting, art galleries) (see Figure 7.6). A little less than a quarter of Europeans consider that the term 'culture' is associated with literature, poetry and playwriting or traditions, languages, customs and social or cultural communities.

Figure 7.6: Associations made with the word 'culture', persons aged over 14 years, EU-27, 2007 (%)



Source: Special Eurobarometer No 278 *European cultural values*, 2007⁽¹²⁾

Around one fifth of Europeans linked culture either to education and family, lifestyle and manners or knowledge and science. It is remarkable that less than 15% of the people interviewed thought of culture in terms of history and civilization. 9% of Europeans of all ages connected culture to values and beliefs (including philosophy and religion), and

the same percentage related culture to leisure, sports, travel and fun. Finally, only a small fraction of people were not interested in culture or considered it too elitist, snobbish or boring.

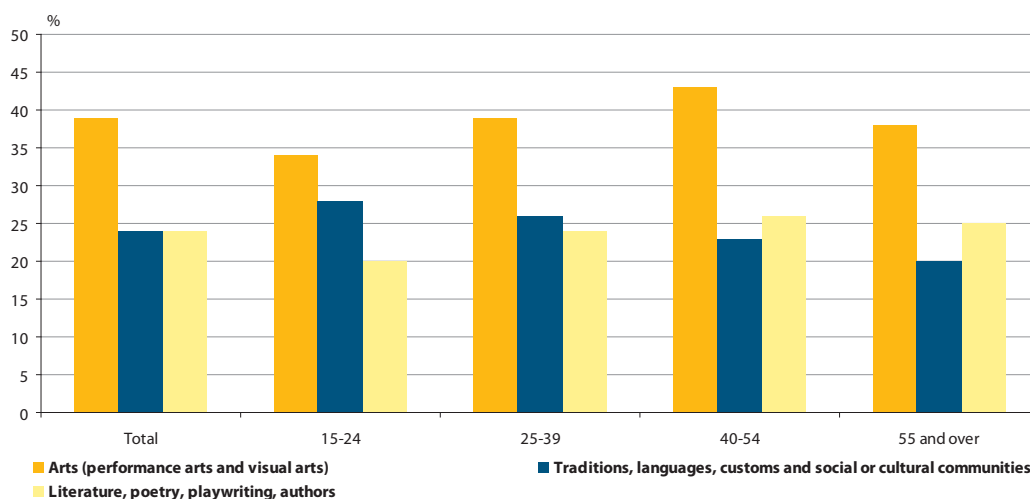
⁽¹¹⁾ Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions on a European agenda for culture in a globalizing world (Sec(2007) 570).

⁽¹²⁾ Eurobarometer question: 'Please tell me what comes to mind when you think about the word 'culture': Multiple answers were possible.'

The subjective meaning of the word ‘culture’ does not vary extensively across ages: people mostly think of culture in terms of arts (either performance or visual arts — see Figure 7.7). As age increases people are more likely to think of culture in these terms, while the link to tradition and language is less prevalent. In relation to their elders, a higher share of young

people aged 15–24 tend to associate culture with traditions, languages, customs and social and cultural communities, but a lower share associate culture with literature, poetry and playwriting. People aged 40 and over tend to associate culture more with arts and literature rather than traditions.

Figure 7.7: Meaning of the word culture (selected concepts), by age group, EU-27, 2007 (%)



Source: Special Eurobarometer No 278 *European cultural values, 2007*⁽¹³⁾

CULTURE AND MULTICULTURALISM

‘Multiculturalism is generally understood as a shared commitment in multicultural society to recognise, maintain, and to accord respect and value to the different cultures that coexist within a territorially defined space, be it that of a nation, city, region or locality’⁽¹⁴⁾. Moreover, researchers have identified three new trends of internationalisation of young people in Europe: the growing number of ‘third-culture kids’ (i.e. second and third generation of immigrants), the increasing desire for mobility (to visit other countries, to study or find employment abroad) and the cross-border mobility of young qualified professionals.

Coupled with an intensive use of communication technologies, these trends boost the multicultural aspects of

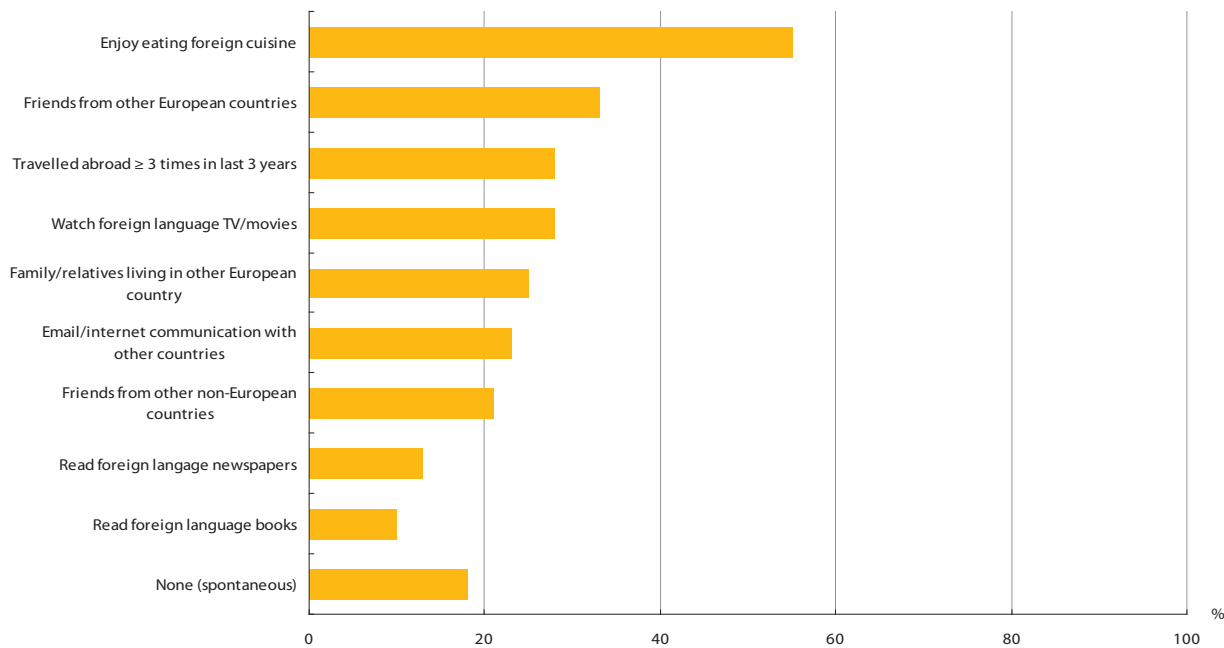
European societies and increase the opportunities for young people to be in contact with different cultures.

When asked about activities that involve exchanges with foreign cultures, it appears that young Europeans tend to think first and foremost about practical aspects. Indeed, according to Eurobarometer, a majority of young Europeans aged between 15 and 24 years declared that they enjoy eating foreign cuisine (see Figure 7.8). Less than 15% of the same age group read foreign-language newspapers or books, whereas 28% enjoyed watching foreign television and movies. 33% of young Europeans enjoyed making friends with people from other European countries and more than 28% learnt to know other cultures by travelling abroad.

⁽¹³⁾ Eurobarometer question: ‘Please tell me what comes to mind when you think about the word ‘culture’. Multiple answers were possible.’

⁽¹⁴⁾ ERICarts, *Sharing diversity national approaches to intercultural dialogue in Europe*, Study for the European Commission, March 2008.

Figure 7.8: Type of cross-cultural contacts among the population aged 15–24, EU-27, 2007 (%)

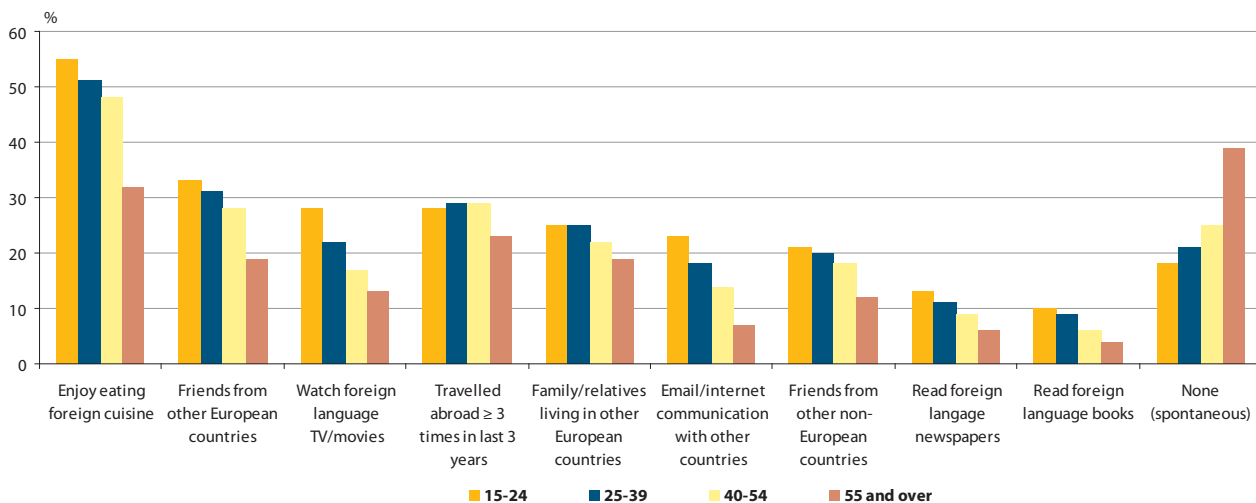


Source: Eurobarometer No 278 *European cultural values, 2007*⁽¹⁵⁾

Cultural exchanges tend to be more widespread among younger generations (see Figure 7.9). Only 18% of people aged between 15 and 24 declared having had none of the cited

cultural exchanges, against 39% of the population aged 55 and over.

Figure 7.9: Type of cross-cultural contacts by age group, EU-27, 2007 (%)



Source: Special Eurobarometer No 278 *European cultural values, 2007*⁽¹⁵⁾

⁽¹⁵⁾ Eurobarometer respondents were given a number of statements on different types of such contact, and asked which apply to them.



Young people apply the concept of cultural exchange to their lives in different ways depending on age and accessibility. While eating foreign cuisine and travelling abroad can be considered as accessible activities for most of the population, reading foreign-language newspapers and books requires fluency in a foreign language.

Certain types of multicultural contact are more prevalent among younger respondents. This is especially true of eating foreign cuisine, which is enjoyed by 55 % of the population aged 15–24, compared to 32 % of those aged 55 and above. Foreign cuisine is closely linked to migration flows, as people settling into a country also bring with them their culinary

traditions. As a result, foreign cuisine has become a very popular vector of cultural exchange in contemporary society.

Increased mobility within Europe (for instance through study mobility, twinings between foreign cities, cross-border workers and tourism) has also increased opportunities to make friends across Europe: around 30 % of young people (aged 15–24 and 25–39) declared they had friends in other European countries. Watching foreign-language television and films was also more popular among young people, only 13 % of respondents aged over 50 listed it as an important cultural exchange activity compared to 28 % of respondents aged 15–24 and 22 % of those aged 25–39.

ACTIVE CITIZENSHIP: TODAY'S CHOICES, TOMORROW'S COMMUNITY LIFE

Our life tomorrow depends on the choices we make today. As all Europeans, young people have a say in the choices made today that will determine the world they will live in tomorrow. As a consequence, active citizenship among young people, i.e. the 'political participation and participation in associational

life characterised by tolerance and non-violence and the acknowledgement of the rule of law and human rights⁽¹⁶⁾, is a key component of the future of European democracies.

Active citizenship

DG Education and Culture of the European Commission commissioned a 'Study on Active Citizenship Education'. As stated in its introduction, through this study the Commission's DG Education and Culture wished to 'provide a deeper, more qualitative insight into active citizenship education in 33 countries in Europe (EU, Accession and Candidate countries and EFTA/EEA countries)' and 'to present a reflection on the concept of active citizenship and its various understandings.'

According to this study, the term citizenship is used to express three different concepts which can be used at the same time:

- what a citizen is, i.e. his or her status;
- what a citizen can or cannot do, i.e. in terms of rights and duties; and
- what activities a citizen undertakes, i.e. a set of practices that demonstrate his/her or membership of a society.

Source: Study on Active Citizenship Education — 2007

⁽¹⁶⁾ European Commission — DG Education and Culture, *Indicators for active citizenship and citizens' education. Research report.*

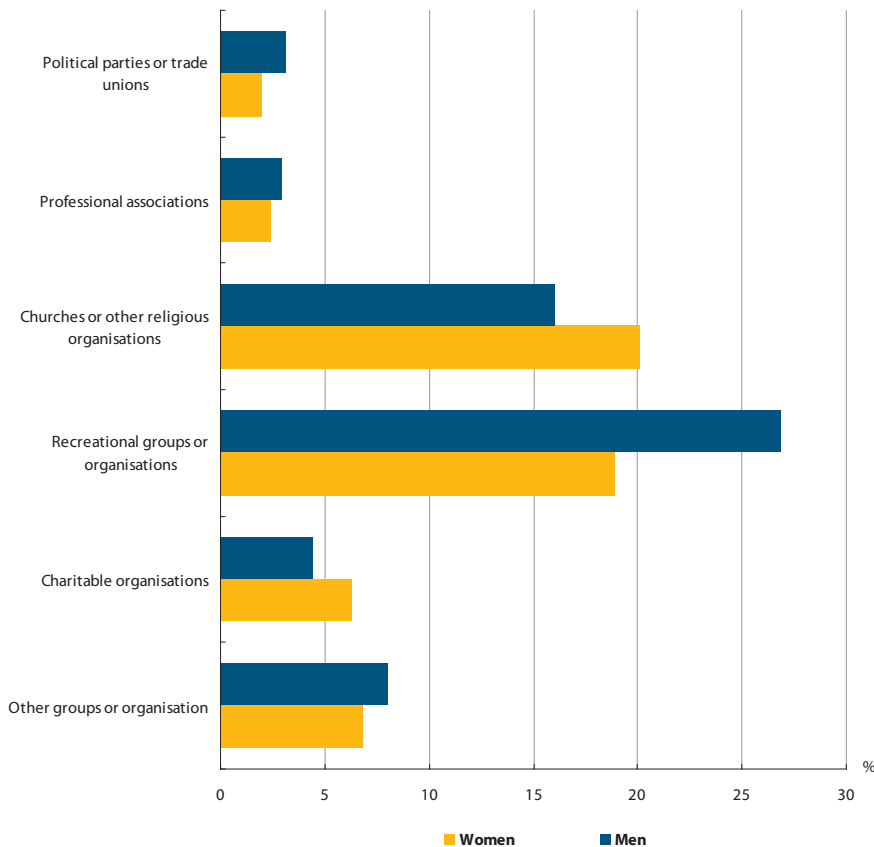
In their everyday life, young people have different opportunities to make their voice heard or to participate in community life, such as participation in political parties or trade unions, professional associations, religious organisations, recreational groups and charitable organisations (see Figure 7.10).

Participation in recreational groups and religious organisations were the most popular types of engagements among European young people in 2006. Over the past twelve months, 27% of young men aged between 16 and 29 took part in recreational activities through dedicated groups or organisations, against 19% of young women. Religion

remains a common way of being active in society, with 20% of young women and 16% of young men participating in religious organisations. In general, men aged 16–29 were more active than women in political parties, trade unions, professional associations and recreational groups, while female participation was higher in religious or charitable organisations.

In 2006, only less than 4% of young Europeans declared to have participated in the activities of political parties or trade unions.

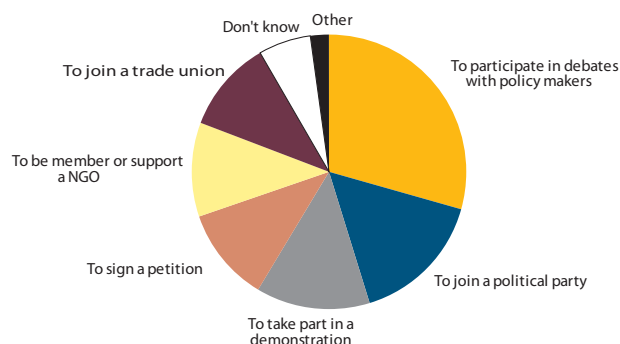
Figure 7.10: Population aged 16–29 which in the past 12 months took part in various organisations, by sex, EU-27, 2006 (%)



Source: Eurostat, EU-SILC ad hoc module on social participation, 2006
Note: EU-27: estimates

In 2007, 30% of young Europeans surveyed by Eurobarometer thought that participating in debates was the most important political action to ensure that their voice is heard by policy-makers (see Figure 7.11). Joining a political party ranked second (16%) and taking part in a demonstration third (13%). Signing a petition, being a member of or supporting an NGO, or joining a trade union were equally recognised as effective expressions of political activism by 11% of young Europeans.

Figure 7.11: Perception of political actions to ensure that one's voice is heard by policymakers, young people aged 15–30, EU-27, 2007 (%)

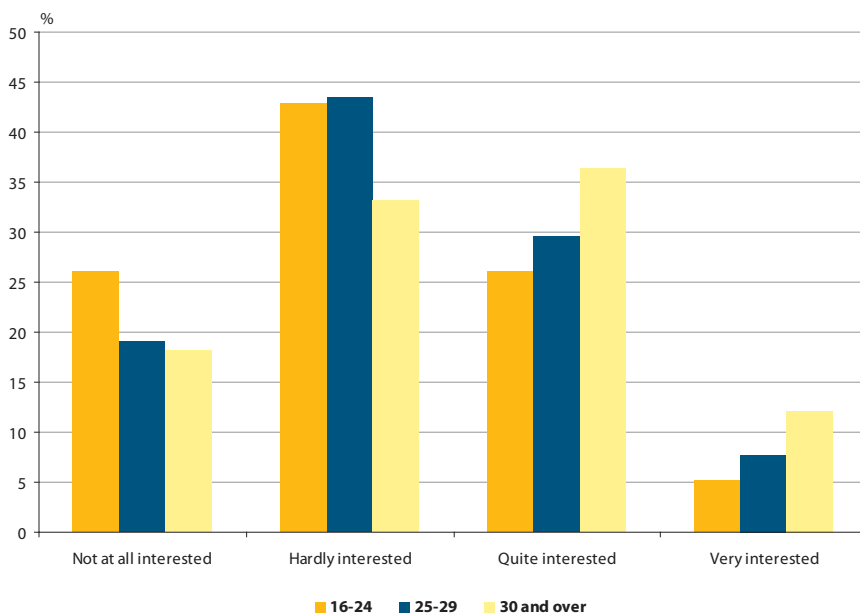


Source: Flash Eurobarometer: No 202 *Young Europeans: A survey among young people aged between 15–30 in the European Union – Analytical Report, 2007* ⁽¹⁷⁾

In most EU countries, the legal voting age is 18, but respondents aged 16–24 and 25–29 show little interest in politics when questioned by the European Social Survey. Indeed, a majority of young people declared being hardly or not at all interested in politics, whereas less than 8% declared being very interested in politics. It appears that interest in politics increases with age (see Figure 7.12): in 2006, 36% of

people aged 30 and over declared being quite interested in politics, whereas only 26% and 30% of the population aged 16–24 and 25–29 years old respectively mentioned a similar interest in politics. The share of the population declaring to be very interested in politics was more than twice as high among older generations than compared to the younger generation.

Figure 7.12: Interest in politics, by age group, EU-27, 2006 (%)*



Source: European Social Survey⁽¹⁸⁾

*ESS2 (Reference period 2004–2005): CZ, EL, IT, LU and ESS3 (Reference period 2006–2007): BE, BG, DK, DE, EE, IE, ES, FR, CY, LV, HU, NL, AT, PL, PT, RO, SI, SK, FI, SE, UK.

⁽¹⁷⁾ Eurobarometer question: 'Which of the following political actions do you think is the MOST important to ensure that your voice is heard by the policy makers? I will read six possibilities please select the MOST important one!'

⁽¹⁸⁾ European Social Survey question: 'How interested would you say you are in politics?'

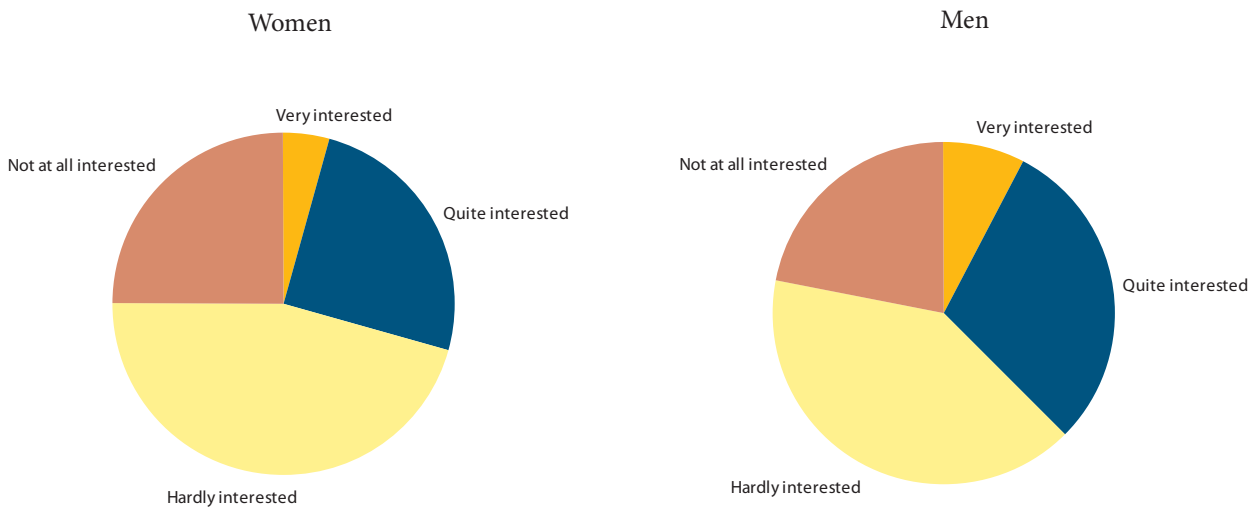
The **European Social Survey** (ESS) is an academically driven social survey (which is not conducted in the framework of the European Statistical System) designed to chart and explain the interaction between Europe's changing institutions and the attitudes, beliefs and behaviour patterns of its diverse populations. Now, in its fourth round, the survey covers over 30 nations.

Source: European Social Survey (<http://www.europeansocialsurvey.org>)

Aside from the generational gap, interest in politics also reveals gender differences, as young men aged 16–29 reported a higher interest in politics than young women of the same

age (see Figure 7.13). Almost 40% of young men declared being quite or very interested in politics, while this was the case for nearly 30% of young women.

Figure 7.13: Interest in politics of people aged 16–29, by sex, EU-27, 2006 (%)*



Source: European Social Survey⁽¹⁹⁾

*ESS2 (Reference period 2004–2005): CZ, EL, IT, LU and ESS3 (Reference period 2006–2007): BE, BG, DK, DE, EE, IE, ES, FR, CY, LV, HU, NL, AT, PL, PT, RO, SI, SK, FI, SE, UK.

⁽¹⁹⁾ European Social Survey question: 'How interested would you say you are in politics?'

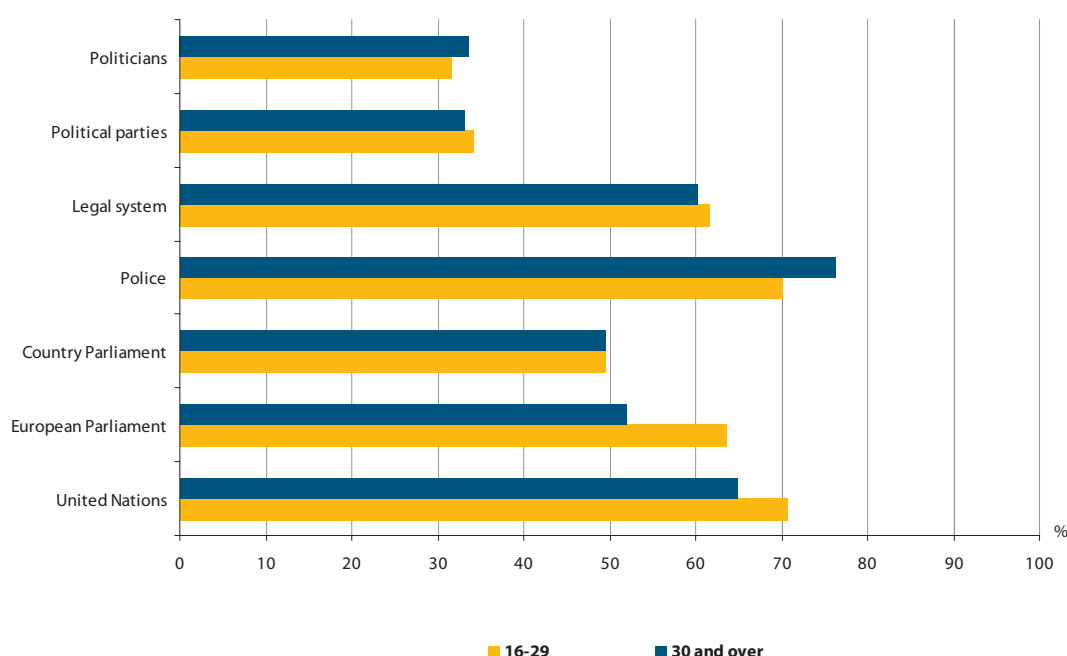
IN INSTITUTIONS WE TRUST?

‘Trust in political institutions refers to the extent to which individuals have a high degree of confidence in the institutions (government and parliament) and public administration of the country where they live’⁽²⁰⁾. In democracies, such confidence in institutions may be considered as a prerequisite to become active citizens.

The European Social Survey has asked people (between 2004 and 2007, depending on the country) how much they personally trust each of the institutions that was mentioned to them. Results point to a lack of trust of Europeans towards

their national political institutions (see Figure 7.14). Indeed less than 40 % of young people aged between 16 and 29 trust (or neither trust nor distrust) politicians and political parties. Older generations tend to trust (or be neutral to) politicians slightly more than young people. Conversely, young people are more positive towards political parties than their elders. Overall, trust in national parliaments remains higher than in politicians and political parties, but remains nonetheless slightly below 50 %.

Figure 7.14: Trust in various political institutions, by age group, EU-27, 2006 (%)*



Source: European Social Survey⁽²¹⁾

*ESS2 (Reference period 2004–2005): CZ, EL, IT, LU and ESS3 (Reference period 2006–2007): BE, BG, DK, DE, EE, IE, ES, FR, CY, LV, HU, NL, AT, PL, PT, RO, SI, SK, FI, SE, UK.

Note: people were asked the following question: ‘Please tell me on a score of 0–10 how much you personally trust each of the institutions I read out. 0 means you do not trust an institution at all, and 10 means you have complete trust’. In the figure score 5 to 10 were aggregated.

Trust (or neutral feeling) in the police and the legal system was high for both age groups. In fact, 70 % of the population aged 16–29 and 75 % of people aged 30 and over trust the police. Trust in the legal system was also fairly widespread (around 60 % of the overall population). Moreover, younger people tend to be more trustful of international institutions: 71 % of people aged between 16 and 29 and 65 % of people aged 30 and over trust the United Nations.

Although trust in the European Parliament — the only directly elected body of the European Union — stood above 50 %, differences were noted across generations: 63 % of young people interviewed in the European Social Survey trust the European Parliament, but this was the case for 52 % of the population aged 30 and over.

⁽²⁰⁾ OECD, *Society at glance* 2006

⁽²¹⁾ European Social Survey question: ‘How much do you personally trust each of these institutions? I read out’

Trust in the European Parliament among young people varied considerably across countries (see Table 7.7).

In all countries, a majority of young people rather trusted the European Parliament (i.e. people gave a score between 5 and 10). This was especially the case in Belgium, Denmark and Finland, where more than 80 % of young people aged 16–24 were of this opinion. However, in nearly half of the countries

for which data are available more than one third of the two youngest age groups (16–24 and 25–29) mistrusted the European Parliament (people gave a score below 5). Suspicion against the European Parliament reached more than 40 % in Germany, Austria and the United Kingdom among both age groups. Moreover, a similar lack of trust was expressed by those aged 25–29 in Latvia, Hungary and Poland.

Table 7.7: Trust in the European Parliament among young people, by age group, 2006 (%)^{*}

	16-24					25-29				
	No trust	1-4	5	6-9	Complete trust	No trust	1-4	5	6-9	Complete trust
BE	0.8	15.0	22.2	62.0	0.0	3.1	17.7	26.0	53.1	0.0
DK	0.9	16.4	19.0	59.5	4.3	1.5	14.9	31.3	52.2	0.0
DE	6.8	36.3	25.3	29.8	1.7	6.8	36.2	27.7	26.6	2.8
EE	3.2	20.7	23.5	46.5	6.0	2.2	21.3	27.0	47.2	2.2
IE	5.0	20.5	24.2	47.2	3.1	3.7	25.7	27.9	41.9	0.7
ES	2.6	30.6	26.4	37.9	2.6	5.8	27.2	23.1	43.4	0.6
FR	4.3	30.7	30.7	34.4	0.0	5.1	32.4	30.9	29.4	2.2
CY	6.7	21.1	23.3	46.7	2.2	8.7	20.3	11.6	58.0	1.4
LV	11.4	24.9	23.0	39.3	1.5	11.7	35.1	23.4	29.7	0.0
HU	3.9	33.0	22.3	38.8	1.9	8.2	33.7	14.3	41.8	2.0
NL	4.1	20.3	25.0	48.0	2.7	0.9	25.9	33.9	39.3	0.0
AT	9.2	34.5	20.4	34.2	1.6	14.1	36.3	20.0	28.9	0.7
PL	3.8	31.0	23.3	40.3	1.6	6.2	34.1	23.3	34.9	1.6
PT	5.7	28.6	22.9	41.7	1.0	9.8	19.7	31.8	36.4	2.3
SI	4.6	32.0	18.3	42.6	2.5	2.7	36.9	22.5	36.9	0.9
SK	2.5	30.7	20.8	42.0	3.9	2.6	26.6	31.8	35.7	3.2
FI	0.0	17.5	17.5	65.0	0.0	1.4	30.8	21.0	46.9	0.0
SE	1.5	27.3	23.4	44.9	2.9	4.7	33.0	19.8	42.5	0.0
UK	6.3	39.0	26.8	27.8	0.0	10.2	37.8	28.3	23.6	0.0

Source: European Social Survey⁽²²⁾

^{*}ESS2 (Reference period 2004–2005): CZ, EL, IT, LU and ESS3 (Reference period 2006–2007): BE, DK, DE, EE, IE, ES, FR, CY, LV, HU, NL, AT, PL, PT, SK, SI, FI, SE, UK.

Note: people were asked the following question: 'Please tell me on a score of 0–10 how much you personally trust the European Parliament. I read out. 0 means you do not trust an institution at all, and 10 means you have complete trust'.

⁽²²⁾ European Social Survey question: 'How much you personally trust each of the European Parliament?'



Most young Europeans aged 16–29 were confident about the United Nations (see Table 7.8). For instance, more than 75% of young people trusted the United Nations in the Nordic countries (Denmark, Finland, Sweden and Norway). Except for Cyprus, younger Europeans tended to trust the United

Nations more than their elders. However, some countries also recorded a high share of young people with a more balanced opinion of the United Nations: in half of the countries more than 20% of people aged between 16 and 29 neither trusted nor distrusted (score of 5) the United Nations.

Table 7.8: Trust in the United Nations, by age group, 2006 (%)*

	16-29					30 and over				
	No trust	1-4	5	6-9	Complete trust	No trust	1-4	5	6-9	Complete trust
BE	3.0	15.8	21.5	58.3	1.4	6.6	26.3	20.0	46.7	0.4
DK	1.0	10.6	12.6	67.3	8.5	1.8	12.7	16.2	65.4	3.9
DE	5.6	32.0	23.0	36.9	2.5	6.3	36.1	21.7	34.6	1.4
EE	2.4	20.5	20.8	53.2	3.1	4.8	26.1	21.8	41.4	6.0
IE	3.7	20.8	18.8	53.0	3.7	4.6	22.8	18.8	48.8	4.9
ES	3.0	25.6	23.6	44.9	3.0	7.2	26.9	26.6	37.4	2.0
FR	4.2	23.7	18.8	50.6	2.6	6.8	29.5	21.4	40.8	1.6
CY	14.3	41.7	17.1	25.1	1.7	14.6	34.1	17.8	31.7	1.8
LV	10.1	25.7	23.8	38.0	2.4	15.2	32.0	22.2	28.0	2.5
HU	4.6	27.6	16.8	45.4	5.6	6.2	25.7	20.9	38.4	8.8
NL	2.6	18.0	20.6	57.7	1.1	3.4	21.3	22.2	52.8	0.3
AT	7.0	31.7	21.6	37.5	2.2	7.9	36.1	17.4	36.8	1.7
PL	4.1	25.2	20.0	45.2	5.5	5.8	26.0	26.8	37.6	3.7
PT	6.5	18.8	24.1	47.8	2.8	7.5	29.1	24.3	37.3	1.8
SI	5.6	29.0	18.8	42.9	3.6	7.1	32.5	20.7	35.4	4.4
SK	3.0	28.1	19.4	43.3	6.2	3.9	30.4	23.9	38.4	3.4
FI	0.3	9.4	13.8	74.1	2.5	1.5	14.6	14.6	67.8	1.5
SE	1.7	10.2	11.9	69.0	7.2	1.6	13.2	16.5	65.5	3.2
UK	3.4	25.4	24.9	45.4	0.9	5.6	31.7	21.7	39.9	1.2
NO	0.8	6.1	10.6	77.4	5.0	0.6	11.7	11.8	71.2	4.7

Source: European Social Survey ⁽²³⁾

*ESS2 (Reference period 2004–2005): CZ, EL, IT, LU and ESS3 (Reference period 2006–2007): BE, DK, DE, EE, IE, ES, FR, CY, LV, HU, NL, AT, PL, PT, SK, SI, FI, SE, UK and NO.

Note: people were asked for a number of institutions: 'Please tell me on a score of 0–10 how much you personally trust each of the institutions I read out. 0 means you do not trust an institution at all, and 10 means you have complete trust.'

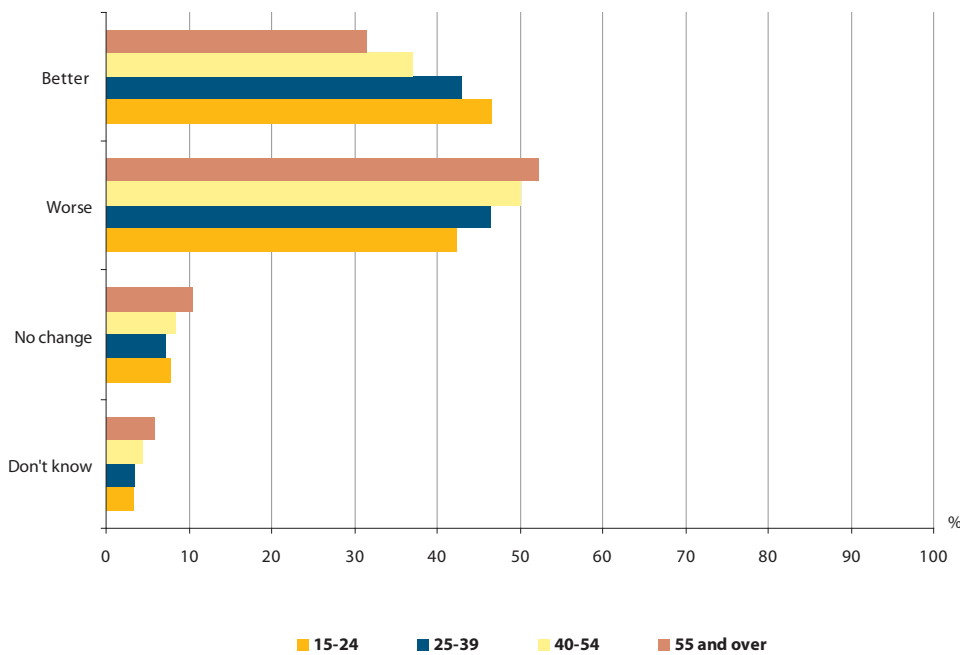
⁽²³⁾ European Social Survey question: 'How much you personally trust each of the United Nations?'

LOOKING TO THE FUTURE

Today's young Europeans grew up enjoying liberty and democracy. Most grew up within a single market with few barriers to mobility and most share a common currency. But they also face new challenges such as increasing globalisation, climate change and the growing need for sustainable development. When asked about their expectations on how their life will be in 20 years' time, young Europeans tend to

be more optimistic than their elders (see Figure 7.15). In fact, the percentage of people thinking that people will be better off in 20 years' time decreases with age: 47% of the youngest respondents expected life to get better, but only 31% of respondents aged 55 and over thought so. Moreover, most people aged 40 and over thought that life would get worse in the future.

Figure 7.15: How Europeans see life in 20 years' time, by age group, EU-27, 2008 (%)



Source: Flash Eurobarometer No 227 *Expectations of European citizens regarding the social reality in 20 years' time* – Analytical Report, 2008⁽²⁴⁾

⁽²⁴⁾ Eurobarometer question: 'Overall, in 20 years' time, would you say that people's lives in [our country] will be better than today or worse than today?'

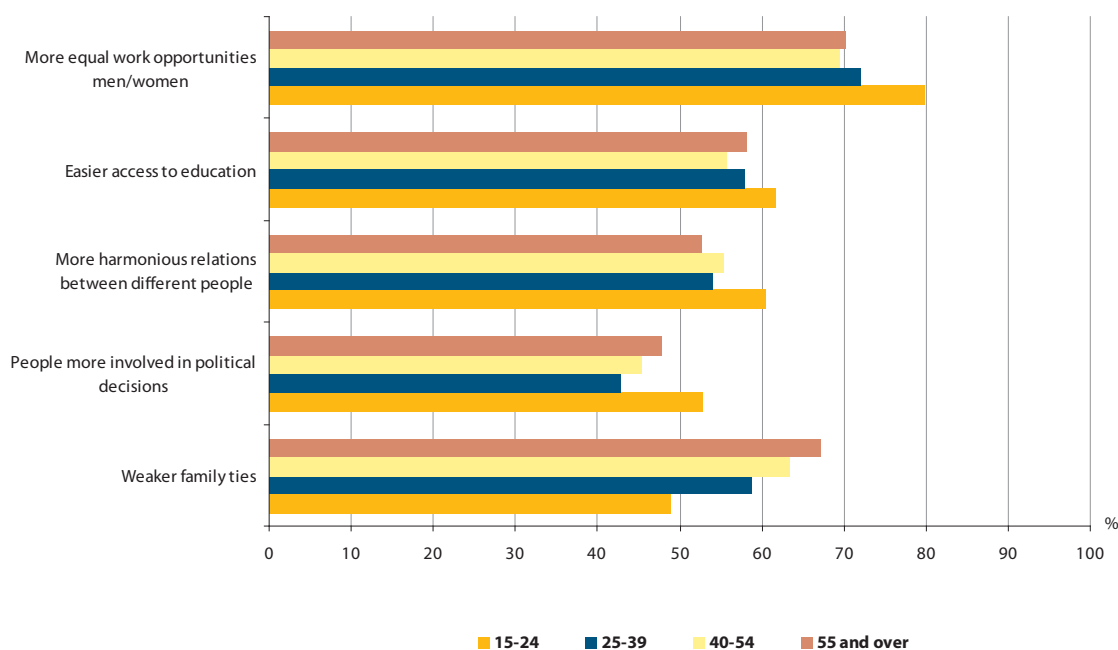


In 2008, a majority of young people believed that work opportunities for men and women would be more equal and that access to education would be easier (see Figure 7.16). Older people were a little more sceptical on these issues but still trusted that some improvements would occur. Around 60% of young people also thought that relations between people would be more harmonious in future.

Differences across generations were stronger when considering involvement in political decisions and family ties. A majority of young people aged 15–24 considered that in 20

years people would be more involved in political decisions, but their elders were more pessimistic: only 43% of people aged between 25 and 39 believed that political involvement would increase. The youngest respondents were also the most likely to disagree that family ties would be weaker in 20 years' time (49%). By contrast, 59% of those aged 25–39 considered that family ties would be more fragile in the future, and this share even reached 67% among the population aged 55 and over.

Figure 7.16: Europeans thinking that the future will look more positive, by age group, EU-27, 2008 (%)



Source: Flash Eurobarometer No 227 *Expectations of European citizens regarding the social reality in 20 years' time* – Analytical Report, 2008⁽²⁵⁾

⁽²⁵⁾ Eurobarometer question: 'Thinking about [our country] in, let's say 20 years' time, do you strongly agree, agree, disagree or strongly disagree with the following statement?'

European Commission

Youth in Europe – A statistical portrait

Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union

2009 — 184 pp. — 21 x 29.7 cm

ISBN 978-92-79-12872-1

How to obtain EU publications

Publications for sale:

- via EU Bookshop (<http://bookshop.europa.eu>);
- from your bookseller by quoting the title, publisher and/or ISBN number;
- by contacting one of our sales agents directly. You can obtain their contact details on the Internet (<http://bookshop.europa.eu>) or by sending a fax to +352 2929-42758.

Free publications:

- via EU Bookshop (<http://bookshop.europa.eu>);
- at the European Commission's representations or delegations. You can obtain their contact details on the Internet (<http://ec.europa.eu>) or by sending a fax to +352 2929-42758.



Youth in Europe

A statistical portrait

This publication attempts to draw a portrait of young people living in Europe. 'Youth in Europe' is based on data available at EU level, using mainly a broad selection of harmonised data sources available at Eurostat.

The reader will find statistical information on a wide range of topics relating to youth in Europe, including demographic aspects (ageing of the population, founding a family), health and living conditions, education and starting out in working life, and participation in cultural and social activities.

The data presented in 'Youth in Europe' show that the situation of young people differs considerably from one country to another, which can be explained by a range of cultural, social and economic factors. This publication aims to encourage further interest and research into the fascinating world of young people in order to better understand the Europe of today and of tomorrow.

<http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat>



Publications Office

ISBN 978-92-79-12872-1



9 789279 128721