



## **Engagement proposal for Youth for Europe initiative**

*Recommendation on communication channels for increasing participation of young women in education, volunteering, exchange and employment in Finland, France, Italy, Luxembourg, Slovakia and Spain*

**A Thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Business Administration**

**Authored by: Anna Smoljaninov**

**Student ID: 202101011MBA**

**Supervisor: Prof. Josefina Bengoechea**

**April 2023**

**Master of Business Administration**

**European Business University of Luxembourg**

# Table of Contents

<b>List of Figures.....</b>	<b>7</b>
<b>List of Tables .....</b>	<b>17</b>
<b>1. Executive Summary .....</b>	<b>18</b>
<b>2. Introduction.....</b>	<b>20</b>
<b>3. Literature Review .....</b>	<b>23</b>
3.1 Youth Education .....	23
3.2 Youth Volunteering .....	25
3.3 Youth Exchange.....	27
3.4 Youth Employment.....	29
<b>4. Methodology .....</b>	<b>34</b>
<b>5. Data .....</b>	<b>36</b>
5.1 Youth Education .....	36
5.1.1 Finland .....	36
5.1.2 France.....	41
5.1.3 Italy .....	45
5.1.4 Luxembourg.....	50
5.1.5 Slovakia.....	53
5.1.6 Spain .....	58
5.1.7 Summary .....	63
5.2 Youth Volunteering .....	63
5.2.1 Finland .....	64
5.2.2 France.....	74
5.2.3 Italy .....	81
5.2.4 Luxembourg.....	86
5.2.5 Slovakia.....	91
5.2.6 Spain .....	96
5.2.7 Summary .....	102
5.3 Youth Exchange.....	104
5.3.1 Finland .....	104
5.3.2 France.....	108
5.3.3 Italy .....	112
5.3.4 Luxembourg.....	116
5.3.5 Slovakia.....	120
5.3.6 Spain .....	124
5.3.7 Summary .....	127
5.4 Youth Employment.....	128
5.4.1 Finland .....	128
5.4.2 France.....	136
5.4.3 Italy .....	143
5.4.4 Luxembourg.....	151

5.4.5 Slovakia.....	157
5.4.6 Spain .....	164
5.4.7 Summary .....	172
<b>6. Discussion.....</b>	<b>174</b>
6.1 Finland .....	174
6.1.1 Youth Education .....	174
6.1.2 Youth Volunteering.....	175
6.1.3 Youth Exchange.....	176
6.1.4 Youth Employment .....	176
6.1.5 Priority Focus Area .....	177
6.2 France.....	177
6.2.1 Youth Education .....	177
6.2.2 Youth Volunteering.....	178
6.2.3 Youth Exchange.....	179
6.2.4 Youth Employment .....	179
6.2.5 Priority Focus Area .....	180
6.3 Italy .....	181
6.3.1 Youth Education .....	181
6.3.2 Youth Volunteering.....	181
6.3.3 Youth Exchange.....	182
6.3.4 Youth Employment.....	182
6.3.5 Priority Focus Area .....	183
6.4 Luxembourg.....	184
6.4.1 Youth Education .....	184
6.4.2 Youth Volunteering.....	185
6.4.3 Youth Exchange.....	185
6.4.4 Youth Employment .....	186
6.4.5 Priority Focus Area .....	187
6.5 Slovakia.....	187
6.5.1 Youth Education .....	187
6.5.2 Youth Volunteering.....	188
6.5.3 Youth Exchange.....	188
6.5.4 Youth Employment .....	189
6.5.5 Priority Focus Area .....	189
6.6 Spain .....	190
6.6.1 Youth Education .....	190
6.6.2 Youth Volunteering.....	191
6.6.3 Youth Exchange.....	191
6.6.4 Youth Employment .....	192
6.6.5 Priority Focus Area .....	193
<b>7. Culture .....</b>	<b>194</b>
7.1 Finland .....	195

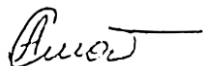
7.1.1 Hofstede Indices.....	195
7.1.2 Cultural Dimensions .....	196
7.1.3 Summary .....	197
7.2 France.....	197
7.2.1 Hofstede Indices.....	197
7.2.2 Cultural Dimensions .....	198
7.2.3 Summary .....	199
7.3 Italy .....	200
7.3.1 Hofstede Indices.....	200
7.3.2 Cultural Dimensions .....	201
7.3.3 Summary .....	202
7.4 Luxembourg.....	202
7.4.1 Hofstede Indices.....	202
7.4.2 Cultural Dimensions .....	204
7.4.3 Summary .....	204
7.5 Slovakia.....	205
7.5.1 Hofstede Indices.....	205
7.5.2 Cultural Dimensions .....	206
7.5.3 Summary .....	206
7.6 Spain .....	207
7.6.1 Hofstede Indices.....	207
7.6.2 Cultural Dimensions .....	208
7.6.3 Summary .....	209
<b>8. Communication .....</b>	<b>210</b>
8.1 Finland .....	210
8.1.1 Internet Use .....	210
8.1.2 Social Media .....	212
8.1.3 Alternative Communication Channels .....	216
8.2 France.....	219
8.2.1 Internet Use .....	219
8.2.2 Social Media .....	221
8.2.3 Alternative Communication Channels .....	225
8.3 Italy .....	228
8.3.1 Internet Use .....	228
8.3.2 Social Media .....	230
8.3.3 Alternative Communication Channels .....	234
8.4 Luxembourg.....	236
8.4.1 Internet Use .....	236
8.4.2 Social Media .....	238
8.4.3 Alternative Communication Channels .....	242
8.5 Slovakia.....	244
8.5.1 Internet Use .....	244

8.5.2 Social Media .....	246
8.5.3 Alternative Communication Channels .....	250
8.6 Spain .....	252
8.6.1 Internet Use .....	252
8.6.2 Social Media .....	254
8.6.3 Alternative Communication Channels .....	258
<b>9. Recommendations .....</b>	<b>261</b>
9.1 Overview .....	261
9.1.1 Website .....	261
9.1.2 Social Media .....	261
9.1.3 Newsletter .....	263
9.1.4 Blog.....	263
9.1.5 Partners .....	264
9.1.6 Representative Office.....	265
9.2 Finland .....	265
9.3 France.....	269
9.4 Italy .....	273
9.5 Luxembourg.....	278
9.6 Slovakia.....	282
9.7 Spain .....	286
<b>10. Conclusion .....</b>	<b>291</b>
<b>11. Declaration of Conflicting Interests .....</b>	<b>294</b>
<b>12. Acknowledgments .....</b>	<b>294</b>
<b>13. References.....</b>	<b>295</b>
<b>14. Appendices.....</b>	<b>312</b>
14.1 Appendix A.....	312
14.2 Appendix B .....	317
14.3 Appendix C .....	325
14.4 Appendix D.....	326

## STATUTORY DECLARATION

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## List of Figures

<b>Figure 1.</b> Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment level in Finland for years 2012-2021.....	36
<b>Figure 2.</b> Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment level in Finland for years 2012-2021.....	37
<b>Figure 3.</b> Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 with tertiary educational attainment level in Finland for years 2012-2021.....	38
<b>Figure 4.</b> Participation rate (%) of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 in non-formal education and training in Finland for years 2012-2021.....	39
<b>Figure 5.</b> Percentage of male vs. female early leavers from education and training aged 18-24 of total population in Finland for years 2012-2021.....	39
<b>Figure 6.</b> Percentage of male vs. female early leavers from education and training, who would like to work, aged 18-24 in Finland for years 2012-2021. ....	40
<b>Figure 7.</b> Percentage of male vs. female early leavers from education and training aged 18-24 with employed labour status in Finland for years 2012-2021. ....	41
<b>Figure 8.</b> Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment level in France for years 2012-2021. ....	41
<b>Figure 9.</b> Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment level in France for years 2012-2021. ....	42
<b>Figure 10.</b> Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 with tertiary educational attainment level in France for years 2012-2021.....	42
<b>Figure 11.</b> Participation rate (%) of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 in non-formal education and training in France for years 2012-2021.....	43
<b>Figure 12.</b> Percentage of male vs. female early leavers from education and training aged 18-24 of total population in France for years 2012-2021.....	44
<b>Figure 13.</b> Percentage of male vs. female early leavers from education and training, who would like to work, aged 18-24 in France for years 2012-2021.....	44
<b>Figure 14.</b> Percentage of male vs. female early leavers from education and training aged 18-24 with employed labour status in France for years 2012-2021.....	45
<b>Figure 15.</b> Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment level in Italy for years 2012-2021.....	46
<b>Figure 16.</b> Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment level in Italy for years 2012-2021.....	46
<b>Figure 17.</b> Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 with tertiary educational attainment level in Italy for years 2012-2021. ....	47
<b>Figure 18.</b> Participation rate (%) of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 in non-formal education and training in Italy for years 2012-2021.....	48
<b>Figure 19.</b> Percentage of male vs. female early leavers from education and training aged 18-24 of total population in Italy for years 2012-2021. ....	48
<b>Figure 20.</b> Percentage of male vs. female early leavers from education and training, who would like to work, aged 18-24 in Italy for years 2012-2021. ....	49
<b>Figure 21.</b> Percentage of male vs. female early leavers from education and training aged 18-24 with employed labour status in Italy for years 2012-2021. ....	49
<b>Figure 22.</b> Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment level in Luxembourg for years 2012-2021. ....	50
<b>Figure 23.</b> Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment level in Luxembourg for years 2012-2021. ....	51
<b>Figure 24.</b> Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 with tertiary educational attainment level in Luxembourg for years 2012-2021. ....	51

<b>Figure 25.</b> Participation rate (%) of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 in non-formal education and training in Luxembourg for years 2012-2021. ....	52
<b>Figure 26.</b> Percentage of male vs. female early leavers from education and training aged 18-24 of total population in Luxembourg for years 2012-2021. ....	53
<b>Figure 27.</b> Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment level in Slovakia for years 2012-2021. ....	54
<b>Figure 28.</b> Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment level in Slovakia for years 2012-2021. ....	54
<b>Figure 29.</b> Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 with tertiary educational attainment level in Slovakia for years 2012-2021. ....	55
<b>Figure 30.</b> Participation rate (%) of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 in non-formal education and training in Slovakia for years 2012-2021. ....	56
<b>Figure 31.</b> Percentage of male vs. female early leavers from education and training aged 18-24 of total population in Slovakia for years 2012-2021. ....	56
<b>Figure 32.</b> Percentage of male vs. female early leavers from education and training, who would like to work, aged 18-24 in Slovakia for years 2012-2021. ....	57
<b>Figure 33.</b> Percentage of male vs. female early leavers from education and training aged 18-24 with not employed labour status in Slovakia for years 2012-2021. ....	58
<b>Figure 34.</b> Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment level in Spain for years 2012-2021. ....	59
<b>Figure 35.</b> Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment level in Spain for years 2012-2021. ....	59
<b>Figure 36.</b> Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 with tertiary educational attainment level in Spain for years 2012-2021. ....	60
<b>Figure 37.</b> Participation rate (%) of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 in non-formal education and training in Spain for years 2012-2021. ....	61
<b>Figure 38.</b> Percentage of male vs. female early leavers from education and training aged 18-24 of total population in Spain for years 2012-2021. ....	61
<b>Figure 39.</b> Percentage of male vs. female early leavers from education and training, who would like to work, aged 18-24 in Spain for years 2012-2021. ....	62
<b>Figure 40.</b> Percentage of male vs. female early leavers from education and training aged 18-24 with employed labour status in Spain for years 2012-2021. ....	63
<b>Figure 41.</b> Number of volunteers by type of volunteering in Finland for years 2015 and 2017. ....	64
<b>Figure 42.</b> Number of volunteers aged 15-24 by type of volunteering in Finland in 2015. ....	65
<b>Figure 43.</b> Share of male vs. female volunteers by type of volunteering in Finland for years 2015 and 2017. ...	65
<b>Figure 44.</b> Number of hours in volunteering in the past 4 weeks by gender in Finland for years 2015 (sample size 1,026), 2018 (sample size 1,000) and 2021 (sample size 1,094). ....	66
<b>Figure 45.</b> Number of hours in volunteering in the past 4 weeks by age in Finland for years 2015 (sample size 1,026), 2018 (sample size 1,000) and 2021 (sample size 1,094). ....	67
<b>Figure 46.</b> Share of males by their responses when asked if they are willing to volunteer in Finland for years 2015 (sample size 1,026), 2018 (sample size 1,000) and 2021 (sample size 1,094). ....	67
<b>Figure 47.</b> Share of females by their responses when asked if they are willing to volunteer in Finland for years 2015 (sample size 1,026), 2018 (sample size 1,000) and 2021 (sample size 1,094). ....	68
<b>Figure 48.</b> Share of young individuals aged 15-24 by their responses when asked if they are willing to volunteer in Finland for years 2015 (sample size 1,026), 2018 (sample size 1,000) and 2021 (sample size 1,094). ....	69
<b>Figure 49.</b> Share of young males aged 15-24 by their responses when asked if they are willing to volunteer in Finland for years 2015 (sample size 1,026), 2018 (sample size 1,000) and 2021 (sample size 1,094). ....	69
<b>Figure 50.</b> Share of young females aged 15-24 by their responses when asked if they are willing to volunteer in Finland for years 2015 (sample size 1,026), 2018 (sample size 1,000) and 2021 (sample size 1,094). ....	70



<b>Figure 51.</b> Share of young individuals aged 15-24 by their responses when asked how much they are planning to volunteer in the next three years in Finland for years 2015 (sample size 1,026), 2018 (sample size 1,000) and 2021 (sample size 1,094).	71
<b>Figure 52.</b> Share of young individuals aged 15-24 by their responses when asked in which type of volunteering they would engage in the next three years in Finland for years 2015 (sample size 1,026), 2018 (sample size 1,000) and 2021 (sample size 1,094).	71
<b>Figure 53.</b> Share of individuals by age and by their responses when asked if they have sufficient skills to participate in volunteering in the next three years in Finland in 2021 (sample size 1,094).	72
<b>Figure 54.</b> Participation of male vs. female volunteers aged 16-24 in formal volunteering by educational attainment in Finland in 2015.	73
<b>Figure 55.</b> Participation of male vs. female volunteers aged 16-24 in informal volunteering by educational attainment in Finland in 2015.	73
<b>Figure 56.</b> Number of volunteers by type of volunteering in France for years 2013 and 2015.	74
<b>Figure 57.</b> Number of volunteers aged 15-24 by type of volunteering in France in 2015.	75
<b>Figure 58.</b> Share of individuals aged 18-30, who spend time to volunteer, in France for years 2016-2020 (sample size 4,500).	75
<b>Figure 59.</b> Share of males vs. females aged 18-30, who spend time to sign a petition or defend a cause on the internet, blog and social media, in France for years 2016-2020 (sample size 4,500).	76
<b>Figure 60.</b> Share of male vs. female volunteers by type of volunteering in France in 2015.	77
<b>Figure 61.</b> Share of individuals aged 18-30, who spend time to volunteer, by educational attainment in France for years 2016 and 2019 (sample size 4,500).	77
<b>Figure 62.</b> Participation of male vs. female volunteers aged 16-24 in formal volunteering by educational attainment in France in 2015.	78
<b>Figure 63.</b> Participation of male vs. female volunteers aged 16-24 in informal volunteering by educational attainment in France in 2015.	79
<b>Figure 64.</b> Share of individuals aged 18-30 by their responses when asked how often they volunteer in an association or another organisation (e.g. union) in France for years 2016-2021 (sample size 4,644).	79
<b>Figure 65.</b> Share of individuals aged 18-30 by their responses when asked if they are willing to volunteer for a cause in France for years 2016-2021 (sample size 4644).	80
<b>Figure 66.</b> Number of volunteers by type of volunteering in Italy for years 2013 and 2015.	81
<b>Figure 67.</b> Number of volunteers aged 15-24 by type of volunteering in Italy in 2015.	81
<b>Figure 68.</b> Share of male vs. female volunteers by type of volunteering in Italy for years 2013 and 2015.	82
<b>Figure 69.</b> Share of male vs. female volunteers aged 18-28 from the Universal Civic Service in Italy for years 2017 and 2019.	83
<b>Figure 70.</b> Share of volunteers aged 18-28 from the Universal Civic Service by educational attainment in Italy for years 2017 and 2019.	84
<b>Figure 71.</b> Participation of male vs. female volunteers aged 16-24 in formal volunteering by educational attainment in Italy in 2015.	85
<b>Figure 72.</b> Participation of male vs. female volunteers aged 16-24 in informal volunteering by educational attainment in Italy in 2015.	85
<b>Figure 73.</b> Number of volunteers by type of volunteering in Luxembourg in 2015.	86
<b>Figure 74.</b> Number of volunteers aged 15-24 by type of volunteering in Luxembourg in 2015.	87
<b>Figure 75.</b> Share of male vs. female volunteers by type of volunteering in Luxembourg in 2015.	87
<b>Figure 76.</b> Participation of male vs. female volunteers aged 16-24 in formal volunteering by educational attainment in Luxembourg in 2015.	88
<b>Figure 77.</b> Participation of male vs. female volunteers aged 16-24 in informal volunteering by educational attainment in Luxembourg in 2015.	89
<b>Figure 78.</b> Share of the Luxembourgish residents (sample size 2,058) by their responses in 2021 when asked if they are willing to volunteer in the future.	90

<b>Figure 79.</b> Share of current non-volunteering Luxembourgish residents (sample size 788 / 2,058) by their responses in 2021 when asked if they are willing to volunteer in the future. ....	90
<b>Figure 80.</b> Number of volunteers by type of volunteering in Slovakia in 2015. ....	91
<b>Figure 81.</b> Number of volunteers aged 15-24 by type of volunteering in Slovakia in 2015. ....	91
<b>Figure 82.</b> Share of male vs. female volunteers by type of volunteering in Slovakia in 2015. ....	92
<b>Figure 83.</b> Share of young people aged 15-30 in formal and informal volunteering in Slovakia for years 2011 (sample size 327), 2017 (sample size 806) and 2019 (sample size 1,000). ....	93
<b>Figure 84.</b> Share of males vs. females aged 15-29 in formal volunteering by involvement status within the last 12 months in Slovakia in 2017 (sample size 806). ....	93
<b>Figure 85.</b> Share of males vs. females aged 15-29 in informal volunteering by involvement status within the last 12 months in Slovakia in 2017 (sample size 806). ....	94
<b>Figure 86.</b> Participation of male vs. female volunteers aged 16-24 in formal volunteering by educational attainment in Slovakia in 2015. ....	94
<b>Figure 87.</b> Participation of male vs. female volunteers aged 16-24 in informal volunteering by educational attainment in Slovakia in 2015. ....	95
<b>Figure 88.</b> Share of individuals aged 18 and more collaborating with NGOs in Spain for years 2014-2021. ....	96
<b>Figure 89.</b> Number of volunteers by type of volunteering in Spain in 2015. ....	97
<b>Figure 90.</b> Number of volunteers aged 15-24 by type of volunteering in Spain in 2015. ....	97
<b>Figure 91.</b> Share of individuals collaborating with NGOs by age in Spain for years 2017-2021. ....	98
<b>Figure 92.</b> Share of volunteers aged 14-24 per population of Spain for years 2017-2021. ....	99
<b>Figure 93.</b> Share of male vs. female individuals aged 14 and more collaborating with NGOs in Spain for years 2017-2021. ....	99
<b>Figure 94.</b> Share of male vs. female volunteers by type of volunteering in Spain in 2015. ....	100
<b>Figure 95.</b> Participation of male vs. female volunteers aged 16-24 in formal volunteering by educational attainment in Spain in 2015. ....	101
<b>Figure 96.</b> Participation of male vs. female volunteers aged 16-24 in informal volunteering by educational attainment in Spain in 2015. ....	101
<b>Figure 97.</b> Incoming vs. outgoing mobility of Erasmus+ students in Finland for years 2017-2021. ....	104
<b>Figure 98.</b> Share of male vs. female students from elsewhere in the EU in tertiary education in Finland for years 2015-2020. ....	105
<b>Figure 99.</b> Share of students in primary education by number of foreign languages studied in Finland for years 2013-2020. ....	106
<b>Figure 100.</b> Share of students in lower secondary education by number of foreign languages studied in Finland for years 2013-2020. ....	107
<b>Figure 101.</b> Share of students in upper secondary education by number of languages studied in Finland for years 2013-2020. ....	107
<b>Figure 102.</b> Incoming vs. outgoing mobility of Erasmus+ students in France for years 2017-2021. ....	108
<b>Figure 103.</b> Share of male vs. female students from elsewhere in the EU in tertiary education in France for years 2015-2020. ....	109
<b>Figure 104.</b> Share of students in primary education by number of foreign languages studied in France for years 2013-2020. ....	110
<b>Figure 105.</b> Share of students in lower secondary education by number of foreign languages studied in France for years 2013-2020. ....	111
<b>Figure 106.</b> Share of students in upper secondary education by number of languages studied in France for years 2013-2020. ....	112
<b>Figure 107.</b> Incoming vs. outgoing mobility of Erasmus+ students in Italy for years 2017-2021. ....	112
<b>Figure 108.</b> Share of male vs. female students from elsewhere in the EU in tertiary education in Italy for years 2015-2020. ....	113

<b>Figure 109.</b> Share of students in primary education by number of foreign languages studied in Italy for years 2013-2020.	114
<b>Figure 110.</b> Share of students in lower secondary education by number of foreign languages studied in Italy for years 2013-2020.	115
<b>Figure 111.</b> Share of students in upper secondary education by number of foreign languages studied in Italy for years 2013-2020.	115
<b>Figure 112.</b> Incoming vs. outgoing mobility of Erasmus+ students in Luxembourg for years 2017-2021.	116
<b>Figure 113.</b> Share of male vs. female students from elsewhere in the EU in tertiary education in Luxembourg for years 2015-2020.	117
<b>Figure 114.</b> Share of students in primary education by number of foreign languages studied in Luxembourg for years 2013-2020.	118
<b>Figure 115.</b> Share of students in lower secondary education by number of foreign languages studied in Luxembourg for years 2013-2020.	118
<b>Figure 116.</b> Share of students in upper secondary education by number of foreign languages studied in Luxembourg for years 2013-2020.	119
<b>Figure 117.</b> Incoming vs. outgoing mobility of Erasmus+ students in Slovakia for years 2017-2021.	120
<b>Figure 118.</b> Share of male vs. female students from elsewhere in the EU in tertiary education in Slovakia for years 2015-2020.	121
<b>Figure 119.</b> Share of students in primary education by number of foreign languages studied in Slovakia for years 2013-2020.	121
<b>Figure 120.</b> Share of students in lower secondary education by number of foreign languages studied in Slovakia for years 2013-2020.	122
<b>Figure 121.</b> Share of students in upper secondary education by number of foreign languages studied in Slovakia for years 2013-2020.	123
<b>Figure 122.</b> Incoming vs. outgoing mobility of Erasmus+ students in Spain for years 2017-2021.	124
<b>Figure 123.</b> Share of male vs. female students from elsewhere in the EU in tertiary education in Spain for years 2015-2020.	124
<b>Figure 124.</b> Share of students in primary education by number of foreign languages studied in Spain for years 2013-2020.	125
<b>Figure 125.</b> Share of students in lower secondary education by number of foreign languages studied in Spain for years 2013-2020.	126
<b>Figure 126.</b> Share of students in upper secondary education by number of foreign languages studied in Spain for years 2013-2020.	127
<b>Figure 127.</b> Labour force participation rate for population aged 15-24 in Finland for years 2012-2021.	128
<b>Figure 128.</b> Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with less than primary, primary and lower secondary education in Finland for years 2012-2021.	129
<b>Figure 129.</b> Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with upper-secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education in Finland for years 2012-2021.	130
<b>Figure 130.</b> Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with tertiary education in Finland for years 2012-2021.	131
<b>Figure 131.</b> Youth employment rate for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 in Finland for years 2012-2021.	131
<b>Figure 132.</b> Part-time employment as % of the total employment for male vs. female youth aged 15-24 in Finland for years 2012-2021.	132
<b>Figure 133.</b> Share of temporary female employees aged 15-24 by main reason for temporary employment in Finland for years 2012-2021.	132
<b>Figure 134.</b> Youth unemployment rate for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 in Finland for years 2012-2021.	133
<b>Figure 135.</b> Share of male vs. female individuals aged 15-19 not in employment, education or training as % of total number of young people in the corresponding age group in Finland for years 2012-2021.	134

<b>Figure 136.</b> Share of male vs. female individuals aged 20-24 not in employment, education or training as % of total number of young people in the corresponding age group in Finland for years 2012-2021. ....	134
<b>Figure 137.</b> Male vs. female youth aged 15-24 neither in employment nor in education and training with not wanting to work labour status in Finland for years 2012-2021. ....	135
<b>Figure 138.</b> Labour force participation rate for population aged 15-24 in France for years 2012-2021. ....	136
<b>Figure 139.</b> Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with less than primary, primary and lower secondary education in France for years 2012-2021. ....	136
<b>Figure 140.</b> Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with upper-secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education in France for years 2012-2021. ....	137
<b>Figure 141.</b> Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with tertiary education in France for years 2012-2021. ....	138
<b>Figure 142.</b> Youth employment rate for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 in France for years 2012-2021. ....	139
<b>Figure 143.</b> Part-time employment as % of the total employment for male vs. female youth aged 15-24 in France for years 2012-2021. ....	139
<b>Figure 144.</b> Share of temporary female employees aged 15-24 by main reason for temporary employment in France for years 2012-2021. ....	140
<b>Figure 145.</b> Youth unemployment rate for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 in France for years 2012-2021. ....	141
<b>Figure 146.</b> Share of male vs. female individuals aged 15-19 not in employment, education or training as % of total number of young people in the corresponding age group in France for years 2012-2021. ....	142
<b>Figure 147.</b> Share of male vs. female individuals aged 20-24 not in employment, education or training as % of total number of young people in the corresponding age group in France for years 2012-2021. ....	142
<b>Figure 148.</b> Male vs. female youth aged 15-24 neither in employment nor in education and training with not wanting to work labour status in France for years 2012-2021. ....	143
<b>Figure 149.</b> Labour force participation rate for population aged 15-24 in Italy for years 2012-2021. ....	143
<b>Figure 150.</b> Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with less than primary, primary and lower secondary education in Italy for years 2012-2021. ....	144
<b>Figure 151.</b> Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with upper-secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education in Italy for years 2012-2021. ....	145
<b>Figure 152.</b> Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with tertiary education in Italy for years 2012-2021. ....	145
<b>Figure 153.</b> Youth employment rate for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 in Italy for years 2012-2021. ....	146
<b>Figure 154.</b> Part-time employment as % of the total employment for male vs. female youth aged 15-24 in Italy for years 2012-2021. ....	147
<b>Figure 155.</b> Share of temporary female employees aged 15-24 by main reason for temporary employment in Italy for years 2012-2021. ....	147
<b>Figure 156.</b> Youth unemployment rate for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 in Italy for years 2012-2021. ....	148
<b>Figure 157.</b> Share of male vs. female individuals aged 15-19 not in employment, education or training as % of total number of young people in the corresponding age group in Italy for years 2012-2021. ....	149
<b>Figure 158.</b> Share of male vs. female individuals aged 20-24 not in employment, education or training as % of total number of young people in the corresponding age group in Italy for years 2012-2021. ....	149
<b>Figure 159.</b> Male vs. female youth aged 15-24 neither in employment nor in education and training with not wanting to work labour status in Italy for years 2012-2021. ....	150
<b>Figure 160.</b> Labour force participation rate for population aged 15-24 in Luxembourg for years 2012-2021. .	151
<b>Figure 161.</b> Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with less than primary, primary and lower secondary education in Luxembourg for years 2012-2021. ....	152

<b>Figure 162.</b> Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with upper-secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education in Luxembourg for years 2012-2021.....	152
<b>Figure 163.</b> Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with tertiary education in Luxembourg for years 2015-2021.....	153
<b>Figure 164.</b> Youth employment rate for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 in Luxembourg for years 2012-2021.....	154
<b>Figure 165.</b> Part-time employment as % of the total employment for male vs. female youth aged 15-24 in Luxembourg for years 2012-2021.....	154
<b>Figure 166.</b> Youth unemployment rate for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 in Luxembourg for years 2012-2021.....	155
<b>Figure 167.</b> Share of male vs. female individuals aged 15-19 not in employment, education or training as % of total number of young people in the corresponding age group in Luxembourg for years 2014 and 2017. ....	156
<b>Figure 168.</b> Share of male vs. female individuals aged 20-24 not in employment, education or training as % of total number of young people in the corresponding age group in Luxembourg for years 2014, 2017 and 2018. ....	156
<b>Figure 169.</b> Labour force participation rate for population aged 15-24 in Slovakia for years 2012-2021.....	157
<b>Figure 170.</b> Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with less than primary, primary and lower secondary education in Slovakia for years 2012-2020.....	157
<b>Figure 171.</b> Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with upper-secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education in Slovakia for years 2012-2021.....	158
<b>Figure 172.</b> Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with tertiary education in Slovakia for years 2012-2021.....	159
<b>Figure 173.</b> Youth employment rate for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 in Slovakia for years 2012-2021.....	160
<b>Figure 174.</b> Part-time employment as % of the total employment for male vs. female youth aged 15-24 in Slovakia for years 2012-2020.....	160
<b>Figure 175.</b> Share of temporary female employees aged 15-24 by main reason for temporary employment in Slovakia for years 2012-2020.....	161
<b>Figure 176.</b> Youth unemployment rate for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 in Slovakia for years 2012-2021.....	162
<b>Figure 177.</b> Share of male vs. female individuals aged 15-19 not in employment, education or training as % of total number of young people in the corresponding age group in Slovakia for years 2012-2021.....	163
<b>Figure 178.</b> Share of male vs. female individuals aged 20-24 not in employment, education or training as % of total number of young people in the corresponding age group in Slovakia for years 2012-2021.....	163
<b>Figure 179.</b> Male vs. female youth aged 15-24 neither in employment nor in education and training with not wanting to work labour status in Slovakia for years 2012-2021.....	164
<b>Figure 180.</b> Labour force participation rate for population aged 15-24 in Spain for years 2012-2021.....	164
<b>Figure 181.</b> Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with less than primary, primary and lower secondary education in Spain for years 2012-2021.....	165
<b>Figure 182.</b> Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with upper-secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education in Spain for years 2012-2021.....	166
<b>Figure 183.</b> Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with tertiary education in Spain for years 2012-2021.....	167
<b>Figure 184.</b> Youth employment rate for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 in Spain for years 2012-2021.....	168
<b>Figure 185.</b> Part-time employment as % of the total employment for male vs. female youth aged 15-24 in Spain for years 2012-2021.....	169
<b>Figure 186.</b> Share of temporary female employees aged 15-24 by main reason for temporary employment in Spain for years 2012-2021.....	169

<b>Figure 187.</b> Youth unemployment rate for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 in Spain for years 2012-2021. ....	170
<b>Figure 188.</b> Share of male vs. female individuals aged 15-19 not in employment, education or training as % of total number of young people in the corresponding age group in Spain for years 2012-2021. ....	171
<b>Figure 189.</b> Share of male vs. female individuals aged 20-24 not in employment, education or training as % of total number of young people in the corresponding age group in Spain for years 2012-2021. ....	171
<b>Figure 190.</b> Male vs. female youth aged 15-24 neither in employment nor in education and training with not wanting to work labour status in Spain for years 2012-2021. ....	172
<b>Figure 191.</b> Edward Hall's scale for low-context and high-context cultures. ....	194
<b>Figure 192.</b> A summary of cultural factors for information-oriented and relationship-oriented cultures. ....	195
<b>Figure 193.</b> Estimated score for six cultural dimensions, according to Hofstede Insights, for Finland. ....	195
<b>Figure 194.</b> Estimated score for six cultural dimensions, according to Hofstede Insights, for France. ....	197
<b>Figure 195.</b> Estimated score for six cultural dimensions, according to Hofstede Insights, for Italy. ....	200
<b>Figure 196.</b> Estimated score for six cultural dimensions, according to Hofstede Insights, for Luxembourg. ....	202
<b>Figure 197.</b> Estimated score for six cultural dimensions, according to Hofstede Insights, for Slovakia. ....	205
<b>Figure 198.</b> Estimated score for six cultural dimensions, according to Hofstede Insights, for Spain. ....	207
<b>Figure 199.</b> Share of male vs. female individuals aged 16-24 by their level of overall digital skills in Finland in 2021. ....	210
<b>Figure 200.</b> Share of male vs. female young people aged 16-24 with daily frequency of internet use in Finland for years 2012-2021. ....	211
<b>Figure 201.</b> Share of male vs. female individuals aged 16-24 using internet for interacting with public authorities in Finland for years 2012-2021. ....	211
<b>Figure 202.</b> Share of male vs. female Facebook users aged 18-24, as percentage of total Facebook users, in Finland for years 2018-2022. ....	212
<b>Figure 203.</b> Share of male vs. female Instagram users aged 18-24, as percentage of total Instagram users, in Finland for years 2018-2022. ....	213
<b>Figure 204.</b> Share of male vs. female Messenger users aged 18-24, as percentage of total Messenger users, in Finland for years 2018-2022. ....	213
<b>Figure 205.</b> Share of LinkedIn users aged 18-24, as percentage of total LinkedIn users, in Finland for years 2019-2022. ....	214
<b>Figure 206.</b> Share of male vs. female Twitter audience, as reported by Twitter, in Finland for years 2019-2021. ....	215
<b>Figure 207.</b> Market shares of mass media industry by sector in Finland for years 2012-2019. ....	216
<b>Figure 208.</b> Main sources of news by media in Finland in 2021. ....	218
<b>Figure 209.</b> Devices used to access news in Finland for years 2014-2021. ....	219
<b>Figure 210.</b> Share of male vs. female individuals aged 16-24 by their level of overall digital skills in France in 2021. ....	220
<b>Figure 211.</b> Share of male vs. female young people aged 16-24 with daily frequency of internet use in France for years 2012-2021. ....	220
<b>Figure 212.</b> Share of male vs. female individuals aged 16-24 using internet for interacting with public authorities in France for years 2012-2021. ....	221
<b>Figure 213.</b> Share of male vs. female Facebook users aged 18-24, as percentage of total Facebook users, in France for years 2018-2022. ....	221
<b>Figure 214.</b> Share of male vs. female Instagram users aged 18-24, as percentage of total Instagram users, in France for years 2018-2022. ....	222
<b>Figure 215.</b> Share of male vs. female Messenger users aged 18-24, as percentage of total Messenger users, in France for years 2018-2022. ....	223
<b>Figure 216.</b> Share of LinkedIn users aged 18-24, as percentage of total LinkedIn users, in France for years 2019-2022. ....	223

<b>Figure 217.</b> Share of male vs. female Twitter audience, as reported by Twitter, in France for years 2019-2021.	224
<b>Figure 218.</b> Value of digital advertising market in France for years 2012-2022.	225
<b>Figure 219.</b> Main sources of news by media in France for years 2013-2021.	226
<b>Figure 220.</b> Devices used to access news in France for years 2013-2021.	227
<b>Figure 221.</b> Share of male vs. female individuals aged 16-24 by their level of overall digital skills in Italy in 2021.	228
<b>Figure 222.</b> Share of male vs. female young people aged 16-24 with daily frequency of internet use in Italy for years 2012-2021.	229
<b>Figure 223.</b> Share of male vs. female individuals aged 16-24 using internet for interacting with public authorities in Italy for years 2012-2021.	229
<b>Figure 224.</b> Share of male vs. female Facebook users aged 18-24, as percentage of total Facebook users, in Italy for years 2018-2022.	230
<b>Figure 225.</b> Share of male vs. female Instagram users aged 18-24, as percentage of total Instagram users, in Italy for years 2018-2022.	231
<b>Figure 226.</b> Share of male vs. female Messenger users aged 18-24, as percentage of total Messenger users, in Italy for years 2018-2022.	231
<b>Figure 227.</b> Share of LinkedIn users aged 18-24, as percentage of total LinkedIn users, in Italy for years 2019-2022.	232
<b>Figure 228.</b> Share of male vs. female Twitter audience, as reported by Twitter, in Italy for years 2019-2021.	233
<b>Figure 229.</b> Main sources of news by media in Italy for years 2013-2021.	235
<b>Figure 230.</b> Devices used to access news in Italy for years 2013-2021.	236
<b>Figure 231.</b> Share of male vs. female individuals aged 16-24 by their level of overall digital skills in Luxembourg in 2021.	236
<b>Figure 232.</b> Share of male vs. female young people aged 16-24 with daily frequency of internet use in Luxembourg for years 2012-2021.	237
<b>Figure 233.</b> Share of male vs. female individuals aged 16-24 using internet for interacting with public authorities in Luxembourg for years 2012-2021.	238
<b>Figure 234.</b> Share of male vs. female Facebook users aged 18-24, as percentage of total Facebook users, in Luxembourg for years 2018-2022.	239
<b>Figure 235.</b> Share of male vs. female Instagram users aged 18-24, as percentage of total Instagram users, in Luxembourg for years 2018-2022.	239
<b>Figure 236.</b> Share of male vs. female Messenger users aged 18-24, as percentage of total Messenger users, in Luxembourg for years 2018-2022.	240
<b>Figure 237.</b> Share of LinkedIn users aged 18-24, as percentage of total LinkedIn users, in Luxembourg for years 2019-2022.	240
<b>Figure 238.</b> Share of male vs. female Twitter audience, as reported by Twitter, in Luxembourg for years 2019-2021.	241
<b>Figure 239.</b> Media reach by source of media in Luxembourg in May 2020.	242
<b>Figure 240.</b> Use of devices to access internet by type of device in Luxembourg for years 2013-2019.	243
<b>Figure 241.</b> Share of male vs. female individuals aged 16-24 by their level of overall digital skills in Slovakia in 2021.	244
<b>Figure 242.</b> Share of male vs. female young people aged 16-24 with daily frequency of internet use in Slovakia for years 2012-2021.	245
<b>Figure 243.</b> Share of male vs. female individuals aged 16-24 using internet for interacting with public authorities in Slovakia for years 2012-2021.	245
<b>Figure 244.</b> Share of male vs. female Facebook users aged 18-24, as percentage of total Facebook users, in Slovakia for years 2018-2022.	246

<b>Figure 245.</b> Share of male vs. female Instagram users aged 18-24, as percentage of total Instagram users, in Slovakia for years 2018-2022.....	247
<b>Figure 246.</b> Share of male vs. female Messenger users aged 18-24, as percentage of total Messenger users, in Slovakia for years 2018-2022.....	247
<b>Figure 247.</b> Share of LinkedIn users aged 18-24, as percentage of total LinkedIn users, in Slovakia for years 2019-2022.....	248
<b>Figure 248.</b> Share of male vs. female Twitter audience, as reported by Twitter, in Slovakia for years 2019-2021.....	249
<b>Figure 249.</b> Main sources of news by media in Slovakia for years 2017-2021.....	250
<b>Figure 250.</b> Internet use of males vs. females aged 16-24 in the last three months by type of activity in Slovakia in 2022.....	251
<b>Figure 251.</b> Devices used to access news in Slovakia for years 2017-2021.....	251
<b>Figure 252.</b> Share of male vs. female individuals aged 16-24 by their level of overall digital skills in Spain in 2021.....	252
<b>Figure 253.</b> Share of male vs. female young people aged 16-24 with daily frequency of internet use in Spain for years 2012-2021.....	253
<b>Figure 254.</b> Share of male vs. female individuals aged 16-24 using internet for interacting with public authorities in Spain for years 2012-2021.....	253
<b>Figure 255.</b> Share of male vs. female Facebook users aged 18-24, as percentage of total Facebook users, in Spain for years 2018-2022.....	254
<b>Figure 256.</b> Share of male vs. female Instagram users aged 18-24, as percentage of total Instagram users, in Spain for years 2018-2022.....	255
<b>Figure 257.</b> Share of male vs. female Messenger users aged 18-24, as percentage of total Messenger users, in Spain for years 2018-2022.....	255
<b>Figure 258.</b> Share of LinkedIn users aged 18-24, as percentage of total LinkedIn users, in Spain for years 2019-2022.....	256
<b>Figure 259.</b> Share of male vs. female Twitter audience, as reported by Twitter, in Spain for years 2019-2021.....	257
<b>Figure 260.</b> Male vs. female media penetration rate by media type in Spain in 2022.....	258
<b>Figure 261.</b> Main sources of news by media in Spain for years 2013-2021.....	258
<b>Figure 262.</b> Devices used to access news in Spain for years 2013-2021.....	259



## List of Tables

<b>Table 1.</b> Definitions for six cultural dimensions of the 6-D Model, according to Hofstede Insights. ....	194
<b>Table 2.</b> Advertising audience review for Finland, as of February 2022. ....	215
<b>Table 3.</b> Value of the mass media market by mass media type in Finland for years 2012-2021. ....	217
<b>Table 4.</b> Advertising audience review for France, as of February 2022. ....	225
<b>Table 5.</b> Print vs. online weekly newspaper reach in France in 2021. ....	226
<b>Table 6.</b> Advertising audience review for Italy, as of February 2022. ....	233
<b>Table 7.</b> Evolution of media use in Italy for years 2012-2019 (excluding 2014). ....	234
<b>Table 8.</b> Advertising audience review for Luxembourg, as of February 2022. ....	242
<b>Table 9.</b> Reach of daily printed vs. online newspapers in Luxembourg from February 2021 to January 2022. ....	243
<b>Table 10.</b> Advertising audience review for Slovakia, as of February 2022. ....	249
<b>Table 11.</b> Advertising audience review for Spain, as of February 2022. ....	257
<b>Table 12.</b> Print vs. online weekly newspaper reach in Spain in 2021. ....	259
<b>Table 13.</b> Advantages and disadvantages of using Facebook, Instagram, Twitter and YouTube, as communication channels. ....	263
<b>Table 14.</b> Key partner organisations of Youth for Europe project. ....	264
<b>Table 15.</b> Recommended communication channels for youth volunteering promotion in Finland. ....	267
<b>Table 16.</b> Recommendations for content for youth volunteering promotion in Finland. ....	268
<b>Table 17.</b> Recommended communication channels for youth employment promotion in France. ....	271
<b>Table 18.</b> Recommendations for content for youth employment promotion in France. ....	273
<b>Table 19.</b> Recommended communication channels for youth employment promotion in Italy. ....	276
<b>Table 20.</b> Recommendations for content for youth employment promotion in Italy. ....	278
<b>Table 21.</b> Recommended communication channels for youth volunteering promotion in Luxembourg. ....	280
<b>Table 22.</b> Recommendations for content for youth volunteering promotion in Luxembourg. ....	282
<b>Table 23.</b> Recommended communication channels for youth education promotion in Slovakia. ....	284
<b>Table 24.</b> Recommendations for content for youth education promotion in Slovakia. ....	286
<b>Table 25.</b> Recommended communication channels for youth employment promotion in Spain. ....	289
<b>Table 26.</b> Recommendations for content for youth employment promotion in Spain. ....	290
<b>Table 27.</b> Overview of the identified limitations of this research. ....	294

## 1. Executive Summary

The topics related to youth development have a significant impact on the direction of the European policy-making, given the importance of youth interaction with society and active citizenship in shaping a sustainable future on the national and international scales. While majority of the studies, current initiatives and policies in the field of youth development and communication are focused on expanding the number of opportunities for youth to engage in various activities, this thesis takes a different approach by examining and proposing targeted communication tools to ensure sufficient awareness of youth of such opportunities. This research helps to design an effective communication framework for the European Commission's Youth for Europe project to target youth on a per-country basis, as opposed to the generalised approach. The scope of this thesis includes six selected countries – Finland, France, Italy, Luxembourg, Slovakia and Spain – and focuses on increasing the engagement of young women, as the target group, in the areas of youth education, volunteering, exchange or employment. The purpose of this research is to define the priority focus area out of the four selected areas and develop a recommendation on the national communication channels, leveraging cultural and gender-specific factors. Consequently, three research questions were stated for this thesis, with the first one aiming to identify a priority engagement area for each country, the second one centring on the choice of important cultural and communication factors, and the third one focusing on the actual recommendations of communication channels for the six selected countries.

The research is divided into three key steps in accordance with the research questions. The first step involves the analysis of the quantitative data for participation of young women in education, volunteering, exchange and employment, and the qualitative data on youth policies implemented in the relevant areas in each selected country. The second step evaluates important cultural factors using the Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions Theory (1980) and the cultural framework of Edward Hall (1976) (CFI, 2022) (Würtz, 2005). Furthermore, it examines the quantitative data for female youth engagement on social media, their digital skills and preferences for alternative communication channels. The third step provides the final output of the research in a form of the recommended communication channels for each country, supported by qualitative data on the benefits and shortcomings of each channel.

This thesis contains several key findings, as per the three research questions. Upon completing the first step, youth volunteering was identified as a priority focus area for Finland and Luxembourg; youth employment was defined as a priority focus area for France, Italy and Spain, and youth education was selected as a priority focus area for Slovakia. In terms of the cultural factors, Finland, France and Luxembourg were determined to exhibit low-context and information-oriented cultures with preferences for efficient communication, while Italy, Slovakia and Spain were determined to exhibit high-context and relationship-oriented cultures with a high importance of personalisation and human interaction. As for the communication modes, young women in all countries actively use social media and prefer mobile-friendly interaction. Whereas young females in Finland, France and Spain have a relatively high level of digital skills, Italy, Luxembourg and Slovakia appear to have more young women with lower levels of digital skills, indicating the need for non-digital communication tools.

In accordance with the third research question, this thesis concludes with a recommended combination of digital and non-digital communication channels for Youth for Europe that is specific to each selected country, given the identified cultural factors and preferred ways of communication. In terms of the digital communication channels, the use of Facebook, Instagram, LinkedIn, YouTube, Pinterest, emails and newsletters, blog, Youth for Europe website, a mobile application and promotion via government websites is recommended for all six countries, but varies in terms of the implementation timeline. In contrast, the use of Snapchat is recommended only for Finland, France, Luxembourg and Slovakia; the use of TikTok is recommended only for Finland, Italy and Spain and the use of Twitter is recommended only for France, Italy and Spain. In addition, implementing digital newspapers is recommended for Slovakia and Spain; using a podcast is recommended for Italy, Luxembourg and Slovakia, and

promoting through influencers is recommended for Italy and Spain. In terms of the non-digital communication channels, the use of partner networks, including partners within the relevant focus area, universities and other educational institutions and events and fairs is recommended for all six countries, but varies in terms of the implementation timeline. Furthermore, the use of leaflets is recommended for France, Italy and Spain; the use of radio is recommended for Luxembourg, and the use of television is recommended for Finland, France, Italy and Spain. Promotion through the representative office is only recommended for Italy, given its location, and the use of youth ambassadors is only recommended for Slovakia.

The findings of this research represent an important step towards the recognition of the importance of cultural factors and different communication styles of young women, as well as other target groups within youth. This thesis contributes to the existing studies in the field, addressing the current research gap, and encourages policy-makers to design targeted communication frameworks to ensure that young people have equal awareness of new opportunities developed for them. In terms of the future research in the field, it is recommended to evaluate content considerations, in addition to communication channels per se, the significance of promotion in native languages, preferences of youth based on qualitative surveys and the impact of factors other than gender, such as socioeconomic background and ethnicity.

## 2. Introduction

The topic of youth development has been the focus of policy-makers for many years, particularly in the European Union (EU). Youth education, employment, cultural heritage, social skills, environmental concern, among other factors, directly impact the vision, direction and the speed of economic and social growth in the country. Hence, recognising the importance of this topic becomes crucial for the multigenerational sustainable development on a national scale. On the wider European level, the task of the policy-makers in supporting youth development in the EU is complicated, as they need to manage the variations and discrepancies in the existing national youth policies and address the cross-border effects of youth issues in Europe. These factors make the European context of youth policy development an interesting angle for examination in the relevant research field.

In the EU, the European Commission and the Council of Europe drive the implementation of youth activities and projects on the European level (Chevalier & Loncle, 2021). Such projects include the Erasmus+ Programme, which facilitates youth exchange, and the European Solidarity Corps programme, which provides youth with the possibilities of participating in volunteering, training and internships within relevant fields (Iskra, 2022). In addition, the EU Youth Strategy 2019-2027 was implemented by the Council of the European Union in November 2018. The main focus of the strategy is to encourage active citizenship amongst youth and equip young people with the needed tools to become a successful member of the democratic society (European Youth Portal, n.d.). The EU Youth Strategy 2019-2027 has 11 key goals, which include but are not limited to gender equality, access to quality education and employment, social inclusion, collaboration between youth organisations and equal opportunities for youth participation in the European initiatives (European Youth Portal, n.d.).

### Youth for Europe

Youth for Europe is another European initiative funded by the European Commission after being incorporated into the European Youth Together project as a part of the Key Action 3 for Erasmus+ Programme (Youth 4 Europe, 2023). The long-term goal of this initiative is to create an inclusive society in Europe and increase youth participation in policy-making and active citizenship (Youth 4 Europe, 2023). Youth for Europe aims to improve youth engagement in policy-making and the general awareness of this topic by offering opportunities in several key areas, which are education and training, volunteering, exchange and employment. The provision of such opportunities is facilitated through the project partner organisations, which are listed and described in Table 14 in section 9.1.5 further in this thesis. Even though Youth for Europe has a long-term orientation and a great potential to make a measurable positive impact in the European youth policy development field, it represents a relatively recent project and is still positioned in the growth stage with a specific scope. In contrast to other initiatives, no prior studies focusing on Youth for Europe have been conducted, which not only limits the general awareness of this initiative but also creates a research gap. In the context of this thesis, this generates an opportunity to examine the potential of Youth for Europe initiative and contribute to its development by providing recommendations on increasing youth engagement in the areas of youth education, volunteering, exchange and employment.

In spite of significant efforts of the European policy-makers in the field of youth development, a European-wide unified youth policy is impossible to implement, as the domain of youth is addressed by national policies, which vary on a per-country basis. Current European initiatives like Erasmus+ attempt to bridge the gaps between youth from different countries using a common European approach. Majority of such initiatives and national youth policies are focusing on increasing the number of available opportunities for youth, however, their effectiveness might be limited in the long-run if there exists a lack of awareness of youth of the availability of these opportunities in the first place. The presence of these gaps in communication between the policy-makers and project leaders and the target audience, in this case represented by youth, results in improvements and new developments in the field not reaching young people or reaching only specific segments of youth.

Communication gaps described in the previous paragraph create a problem of having disadvantaged groups within targeted youth and curb equality, including gender equality. This thesis aims to address this problem by adapting currently used common European approach of Youth for Europe to individual countries based on the local cultural factors and the use of various communication channels. The importance of examining the identified problem in the context of Youth for Europe goes beyond responding to the existing research gap. It has the potential to promote a new mindset for the implementation of the European initiatives, which would recognise the differences of young people and the need to incorporate cultural values when designing marketing and promotional activities for such initiatives with the aim of raising awareness. This research could become the first step in the direction of moving away from a common European approach, which generalises youth and overlooks national and individual divergencies, towards a more targeted, effective approach, which focuses on reaching a specific segment in a specific country or region.

In order to effectively address the identified problem, young women have been selected as the target segment of youth. This allows to further narrow the scope of the research and analyse the differences in communication between young women and other genders (i.e. young men in the case of this thesis), which should be taken into account when designing promotional activities in various countries. To advance the positive impact of such targeted framework in empowering young women in Europe, this thesis represents the first stage of a research project conducted in partnership with a non-profit organisation New Women for Europe (NWFE). The mission of NWFE - “to participate in the construction of a Europe based on an improved understanding of women” - is closely aligned with the key objective of this thesis - to highlight the important differences of young women in European countries and leverage them to create more effective communication tools (New Women for Europe, n.d.). As this research is conducted in the context of Youth for Europe project, which is an example of a direct initiative of the European Commission, it contributes to NWFE’s goal of influencing the European political process. This thesis, jointly with NWFE, recognises the need to have a differentiated approach to young women, accept the value they bring to the European society and raise awareness of the differences and complementarities between young women and other genders.

Consequently, the scope of this thesis is narrowed to young women in a sample of countries in the EU. To ensure a fair representation of the EU, such sample should have at least one country from Northern, Western, Southern and Eastern Europe and should not exhibit overlaps in terms of regions (e.g. Benelux, Nordic, etc.). Therefore, the selected sample for this research contains Finland (Northern Europe, Nordic region), France (Western Europe, France region), Italy (Southern Europe, Italy-Malta region), Luxembourg (Western Europe, Benelux region), Slovakia (Eastern Europe, Visegrad region) and Spain (Southern Europe, Iberia region). Furthermore, the scope of this thesis is limited to four key youth engagement areas in the context of Youth for Europe, which are youth education, youth volunteering, youth exchange and youth employment. The remaining EU countries, genders different to women and youth engagement areas that vary from the four selected are excluded from the scope of this research to allow for a more targeted analysis.

The key purpose of this thesis is to provide recommendations on effective communication channels for Youth for Europe based on the cultural and gender-specific factors for one of the four focus areas in each selected country. This leads to the definition of the three research questions this thesis aims to answer:

**Research Question 1:** Out of the four focus areas – youth education, volunteering, exchange and employment – which area should be considered a national priority for female youth engagement in each country?

**Research Question 2:** Which national cultural and gender-specific factors should be reflected in communication channels targeting female youth for them to be more effective?

**Research Question 3:** Which communication channels should be used by Youth for Europe in the future to increase female youth engagement in the identified national priority focus area?

Thus, three key objectives of this research can be defined accordingly:

**Objective 1:** To identify which of the four focus areas should be prioritised based on the current and past engagement of female youth in each area in each country.

**Objective 2:** To analyse important cultural factors for each country and consider the differences in communication of young women, as opposed to other genders.

**Objective 3:** To provide recommendations on communication channels for Youth for Europe that should leverage national culture and gender differences in each country and increase the overall awareness of the platform for young females.

Although this research focuses on Youth for Europe, the provided recommendations on communication channels and other results of this thesis are not limited to the project and can be potentially used by other European initiatives.

To ensure the coherent argument provision, this thesis is structured in the chronological order of the research questions, with the results of the given section acting as an input for succeeding sections. The subsequent section is a Literature Review that summarises existing research in the fields of youth education, volunteering, exchange and employment, defining the research gap. The Literature Review is followed by a brief overview of the Methodology used for this research, including data collection, analysis and interpretation. The Data section comes after the Methodology, containing the evaluation of the engagement of young women and men in the areas of education, volunteering, exchange and employment in the selected countries. The Discussion section links the key trends provided in the Data section, reviews current national policies for the selected countries in the domains of youth education, volunteering, exchange and employment and concludes by identifying a priority focus area for each country. The Culture section follows the Discussion section and analyses the cultural factors and communication styles for the selected countries, relating them to the priority focus area defined in the previous section. The succeeding Communication section analyses the social interaction and engagement of youth in the selected countries by examining internet use by gender, use of social media and alternative communication channels. The Recommendations section evaluates currently used communication channels for Youth for Europe and proposes future communication channels for short-term, mid-term and long-term implementation for each country within the priority focus area based on the discussion from the Culture and Communication sections. The thesis is drawn to a close in the Conclusion section, which summarises the results and answers for the defined research questions, provides an overview of the thesis limitations and recommends areas for further research.

### 3. Literature Review

The topic of youth development has been explored by many studies, reflecting the everchanging dynamic of the subject. Although previous studies have profoundly examined youth activities and their application in policy-making, few have adopted a specific focus on attracting female youth to certain types of youth engagement or emphasising the importance of local cultural factors when selecting communication channels to raise youth awareness. The following thematic literature review provides a chronological overview of existing research on each of the four selected types of youth engagement, divided into corresponding subsections.

#### 3.1 Youth Education

Given that volunteering and youth exchange have gained increased attention from policy-makers only at the start of the 21<sup>st</sup> century, there naturally exists far more literature on the topics of youth education and employment. In his study, J. Eggleston laid foundation for future research on youth education by examining how it can fit within different European communities and social structures (Eggleston, 1975). He highlighted the importance of understanding the concept of community in different countries for policy-makers in facilitating youth immersion into society (Eggleston, 1975). R. Persson and A. Dahlgren added to the research on the topic by exploring the role of peer groups and parents in the promotion of youth education, with a focus on the Swedish youth sample (Persson & Dahlgren, 1975). By differentiating between sexes and the Swedish school types, Persson and Dahlgren found that males had better access to social engagement, and that political engagement was highly influenced by the type of the school a young person attended at the time (Persson & Dahlgren, 1975). J. Ewen took a further step in his study on youth and community engagement in England and Wales by not only analysing the local youth service and policy, but also making recommendations to policy-makers on how to improve them (Ewen, 1975). Based on his prior work and personal opinion, Ewen encouraged the British policy-makers responsible for youth development to focus more on the actual needs of local youth and establish a more cooperative environment for stakeholders taking part in youth activities (Ewen, 1975).

Creating a more collaborative environment in policy-making on a European level is challenging due to significant variations in national institutional systems between countries. In their book “Youth in Society: The Construction and Deconstruction of Youth in East and West”, C. Wallace and S. Kovatcheva discussed the differences in conditions for youth engagement between the Western and Eastern European countries at the time (Wallace & Kovatcheva, 1998). The authors significantly contributed to the given study field by examining the impact of political systems and cultural factors on youth education and employment. Although differences in educational systems and labour markets in welfare capitalist and communist countries created diverse conditions for youth in terms of education requirements and job search, Wallace and Kovatcheva found that both Western and Eastern Europe experienced a similar trend of extended training in 1970s (Wallace & Kovatcheva, 1998). The authors explored the topic further by looking at gender differences and paradoxical educational reforms. Between 1980 and 1990, the percentage of young females in higher education significantly increased in both Western and Eastern Europe, following a strong focus of policy-makers on promoting female education (Wallace & Kovatcheva, 1998). However, Wallace and Kovatcheva argued that, in 1990s, young women were still mainly employed in those sectors of the labour market that were considered ‘feminised’, despite being better educated than young men (Wallace & Kovatcheva, 1998). This potentially discouraged young women from looking for higher paid jobs, reducing the effectiveness of educational reforms for young females in terms of their future entry into the labour market (Wallace & Kovatcheva, 1998). Even though Eastern European countries focused on eliminating gender inequality under communism, their shift to market economies worsened the gender division in youth education and employment and created additional challenges for youth in post-communist countries (Wallace & Kovatcheva, 1998). Nevertheless, in his book “Youth Transition: In Eastern Europe and the West”, K. Roberts argued that youth from Eastern European countries was still more competitive than youth from

Western European countries because political and economic transitions made them more adaptable and skilled in terms of foreign languages (Roberts, 2008). Whereas Wallace's and Kovatcheva's work added to prior research by linking educational systems to political systems and highlighting the gender bias in youth employment and education, it barely examined the cultural aspect, failing to discuss the differences between Western and Eastern Europe beyond welfare structures.

European Youth Forum's report on youth education and employment published in 2004 continued to explore the trends that changed education and employment patterns within youth population in the European countries (European Youth Forum, 2004). It further discussed the educational prolongation for youth in Europe, building upon Wallace's and Kovatcheva's work. The report studied country-specific trends, finding that Nordic countries, France, Germany and Austria had a higher educational achievement among youth than Southern European countries like Spain, Italy and Portugal (European Youth Forum, 2004). In terms of the gender differences, young females had a higher level of educational attainment, especially tertiary education, than young males in majority of the European countries (European Youth Forum, 2004). Whereas the European Youth Forum's report focused primarily on investigating the gender differences based on the level of educational attainment, C. Iannelli and E. Smyth expanded the focus area by analysing gender and social differences also by fields of study, fulfilling a research gap at the time (Iannelli & Smyth, 2008). The study not only supported Wallace's and Kovatcheva's work by stating that higher educational attainment among young females did not create benefits for young females when entering the labour market, but also added to it by showing that gender division in various study fields led to the creation of more 'feminised' labour market sectors (Iannelli & Smyth, 2008). Relying on their previous research, Iannelli and Smyth came to a conclusion that countries with higher gender segregation in youth education also experienced a higher gender bias in the labour markets (Iannelli & Smyth, 2008). In contrast to Iannelli and Smyth, A. M. Piusi and R. Arnaus took a more qualitative approach in their study on gender gaps in higher education in Europe (Piusi & Arnaus, 2010). The authors criticised educational policies at the time for generalising all females and being overfocused on eliminating the gender gap, while overlooking qualities and values of young females that their male counterparts do not possess (Piusi & Arnaus, 2010). Based on the interviews conducted with females from Italy, France and Spain, Piusi and Arnaus concluded that expanding the policy-making goal from simply increasing the participation of female youth in education to making higher education institutions more welcoming for female students and leveraging their strengths is necessary to achieve meaningful long-term results (Piusi & Arnaus, 2010).

J. Picatoste, L. Pérez-Ortiz and S. M. Ruesga-Benito continued to critically evaluate policies for youth education, emphasising the need to enhance educational strategy with technological elements and adopt a sustainable approach to knowledge-building (Picatoste, Pérez-Ortiz, & Ruesga-Benito, 2018). They argued that this step is necessary to consequently improve youth employability, as a higher level and quality of education generally leads to increased labour productivity, per capita income and aggregate growth (Picatoste, Pérez-Ortiz, & Ruesga-Benito, 2018). In terms of the policy implications, the authors recommended fostering environments that welcome self-development and lifelong learning of Information and Communications Technology (ICT) skills. The study contributed to prior research by showing the importance of adapting existing educational policies to new social trends. Nonetheless, it did not discuss differences between genders, countries, education structures or cultures in the EU. Moreover, despite focusing on the changes to education policies, the study did not consider the aspect of attracting youth to education and ensuring that they are aware of any educational enhancements.

In conclusion, the topic of youth education has been extensively researched in previous studies. Some authors focused on the gender differences, others adopted a cross-country comparison approach and nearly all authors tried to link their findings to possible policy implications. Whereas policy improvements are crucial, their effectiveness could be negatively affected if young people are not aware of them. It is evident that there is a gap in the current literature in terms of exploring ways of attracting youth to education in the context of local culture, gender and most suitable communication channels.



### 3.2 Youth Volunteering

As youth became more interested in volunteering and non-formal education, this topic attracted more attention from researchers and was recognised by policy-makers as an important area of youth policy focus. Still, the subject of youth volunteering was widely explored only in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. Prior to that, the studies focused on the general topic of volunteering, laying foundation for future researchers without deep-diving into youth volunteering. One of such studies was the cross-country analysis of voluntary association membership conducted by E. Curtis, E. G. Grabb and D. E. Baer in 1992 (Curtis, Grabb, & Baer, 1992). The study found that the US, Canada, the UK, West Germany and Italy had the highest volunteering participation rates at the time, which were driven by factors like church and union membership, government centralisation, industrialisation, community size and urbanisation (Curtis, Grabb, & Baer, 1992). Nevertheless, in spite of emphasising the importance of culture and history for people when deciding to volunteer, the study did not investigate this (Curtis, Grabb, & Baer, 1992). Curtis, Grabb and Baer continued their research on the topic, publishing another study in 2001, which found that economic development, religious traditions and the number of years in democratic political system are positively correlated with volunteering rates, confirming and extending the results of the previous study in 1992 (Curtis, Baer, & Grabb, 2001). Nordic and Western European countries were found to experience the highest volunteering rates, whereas the US was ranked the highest of all 33 countries considered in the study when focusing on volunteering in churches and religious organisations (Curtis, Baer, & Grabb, 2001). Overall, the study significantly contributed to the relevant research field and suggested the determinants for consideration in policy-making, however, it still did not address the impact of age, gender or cultural factors on volunteering.

The study on volunteering in Central and Eastern Europe by B. Voicu and M. Voicu further advanced the research on the topic, having fulfilled a literature gap at the time by narrowing down the focus to Eastern Europe instead of Western (Voicu & Voicu, 2009). The study presented two approaches for the determination of reasons why people volunteer, one being access to resources and the other one being personal values, emphasising the importance of the cultural aspect, which was not explored in previous studies (Voicu & Voicu, 2009). Moreover, Voicu and Voicu discussed contradictory opinions of prior works on the topic regarding gender and volunteering: whereas Wilson-Musick (1997) and Wilson (2000) claimed that females volunteer more because they are less active in employment, Dekker and van den Broek (1996) stated that men are more likely to volunteer because they have better access to resources and education (Wilson & Musick, 1997) (Wilson, 2000) (Dekker & van den Broek, 1996) (Voicu & Voicu, 2009). Voicu and Voicu found a positive correlation between male gender and volunteering, implying that men volunteer more than women, especially in traditional societies (Voicu & Voicu, 2009). They also concluded that post-communist societies experienced lower rates of volunteering than Western European countries, with Czech Republic and Slovakia being the exceptions. Given that the bloc culture of post-communist countries negatively affected participation in volunteering, the study showed that cultural and historical factors play a crucial role in voluntary activity (Voicu & Voicu, 2009). Based on their results, Voicu and Voicu recommended the policy-makers aiming to increase volunteering in Eastern European countries to target young people from urbanised areas with access to education (Voicu & Voicu, 2009). The study was a valuable contribution to the research field, presenting a coherent analysis of social and demographic factors, as well as discussing the cultural aspect in Eastern Europe.

C. Walker and S. Stephenson also established the link between the social and cultural changes in Eastern Europe and youth activities, including volunteering, in their study of Eastern Europe and former USSR countries (Walker & Stephenson, 2010). Youth, as a social group, was faced with substantial risks in terms of unemployment and lack of resources in Eastern Europe and former USSR in 1990s (Walker & Stephenson, 2010). Even though young people experienced a temporary loss of personal values during such social changes, the shift towards an individualised society in Eastern Europe during post-communist times encouraged youth to engage in social activities more, including volunteering (Walker

& Stephenson, 2010). Nonetheless, Walker and Stephenson found that, in spite of positive changes in youth's interpretation of volunteering, gender biases prevailed, as volunteering in Eastern Europe was still largely perceived as a feminised activity during socialist and post-communist times (Walker & Stephenson, 2010).

I. Valor-Segura and R. Rodríguez-Bailón used a different approach in their study on the motives of the Spanish university students by analysing personal reasons for young people to volunteer rather than social determinants (Valor-Segura & Rodríguez-Bailón, 2011). The study found that participants with prior engagement in volunteering showed more commitment to volunteering again (Valor-Segura & Rodríguez-Bailón, 2011). Based on their results, the authors recommended volunteering organisations choosing between applicants with prior experience and without prior experience to select the former (Valor-Segura & Rodríguez-Bailón, 2011). J. Willems and M. Walk took a step further by linking youth volunteering motives to potential volunteering task preferences (Willems & Walk, 2013). The authors found that youth volunteers driven by value and career motives will likely be dissatisfied with administrative and maintenance tasks, however, they will be motivated to engage in leadership, fundraising and membership orientation activities (Willems & Walk, 2013).

While previously discussed studies were concerned with understanding why people volunteer, M. Pantea contributed to the research field by exploring why young people do not engage in cross-border volunteering in Eastern Europe (Pantea, 2013). The study concluded that factors like migration, lack of association between education and volunteering and insufficient volunteering infrastructure were preventing youth from engaging in cross-border volunteering in Eastern Europe at the time (Pantea, 2013). Pantea linked these factors to the political past and encouraged cross-border collaboration in national policy-making in Eastern European countries when targeting young volunteers (Pantea, 2013).

I. G. Mainar, C. Marcuello-Servós and M. I. Saz-Gil built upon previous studies on the motives of children and young people in Spain to volunteer by including parental influence as a key factor (Mainar, Marcuello-Servós, & Saz-Gil, 2015). The study concluded that young people are more likely to engage in volunteering than adults, therefore, volunteering organisations should focus on collaborating with youth and education institutions (Mainar, Marcuello-Servós, & Saz-Gil, 2015). Marcuello-Servós and Saz-Gil continued to explore the topic, expanding from Spain to a cross-country comparison of youth volunteering in the EU (Garcia-Lacruz, Marcuello-Servós, & Saz-Gil, 2016). The study found that Nordic countries have higher youth volunteering rates, while Mediterranean and Eastern European countries have lower youth volunteering rates (Garcia-Lacruz, Marcuello-Servós, & Saz-Gil, 2016). This finding is consistent with conclusions of Voicu & Voicu (2009) that volunteering rates decrease from Northern Europe to Southern Europe and from Western Europe to Eastern Europe (Voicu & Voicu, 2009) (Garcia-Lacruz, Marcuello-Servós, & Saz-Gil, 2016). The authors also concluded that economic growth, membership in a non-governmental organisation, higher education and higher government expenditure positively impact youth volunteering rates, whereas unemployed youth and young housewives are less likely to volunteer (Garcia-Lacruz, Marcuello-Servós, & Saz-Gil, 2016). In terms of gender differences, the study found that young males tend to engage more in volunteering activities related to leisure and professional services, while young females volunteer more in activities related to social issues and justice (Garcia-Lacruz, Marcuello-Servós, & Saz-Gil, 2016). Nonetheless, the study did not provide any recommendations on policy-making for youth volunteering and did not discuss the role of cultural differences between different countries and regions.

A recent study by B. Enjolras explored the differences between volunteering capabilities in all EU countries, focusing on both individual and national factors (Enjolras, 2021). Enjolras concluded that Nordic countries experience higher rates of volunteering due to higher social trust, higher welfare and lower level of inequality; Continental countries experience medium rates of volunteering due to medium social trust, medium welfare and medium level of inequality; Mediterranean countries experience medium to low rates of volunteering due to medium social trust, lower welfare and higher level of

inequality and post-communist countries experience low rates of volunteering due to lower social trust, lower welfare and medium level of inequality (Enjolras, 2021). These results are consistent with the findings of Voicu & Voicu (2009) and Garcia-Lacruz, Marcuello-Servós, & Saz-Gil (2016). Although the study recommended relevant stakeholders to focus on improving the social trust and equality to increase volunteering rates, it did not provide suggestions to policy-makers on the actual ways to do so.

In conclusion, the topic of youth volunteering has been previously studied by many researchers and looked at from a variety of perspectives, including gender. Nonetheless, there exists a clear research gap, as the cultural aspect has been barely explored as a factor impacting cross-country volunteering in combination with gender-specific determinants. Whereas ways to attract more young volunteers have been discussed, no previous studies provided specific recommendations on the appropriate communication channels to do so in different countries based on the cultural and gender attributes.

### **3.3 Youth Exchange**

Similar to youth volunteering, the topic of youth exchange in Europe was widely studied only in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, driven by the increasing popularity of the Erasmus Programme. Scholars started analysing various factors that influence the decision of young students to engage in exchange programs. One of such studies was conducted by M. Souto-Otero in 2008, when he investigated the link between the socio-economic backgrounds and financial capabilities of Erasmus students, fulfilling a research gap at the time (Souto-Otero, 2008). The study showed that students, who completed their Erasmus study abroad, found the experience positive and valuable, having acquired new language skills, received better social integration and engaged in active citizenship (Souto-Otero, 2008). The study also concluded that, although the Erasmus Programme has become more inclusive since its creation in 1987, it still experienced socio-economic barriers at the time, with majority of programme students having high-income financial backgrounds (Souto-Otero, 2008). The author provided a valuable contribution to the field of study with this work by expanding the focus beyond policy-making and recommending the EU institutions to increase student awareness of the benefits of youth exchange via information-sharing. Nonetheless, the study did not mention specific communication channels that should be leveraged.

The European Parliament itself conducted a similar study in 2010 to define important factors that affect youth participation in student exchange and identify ways to improve youth engagement in the Erasmus Programme (European Parliament, 2010). The study found that financial issues tend to be the main barrier for students from all European countries, whereas other factors, such as language skills, insufficient awareness of the programme, existing commitments and credit recognition, vary on a per-country basis (European Parliament, 2010). The study also recommended raising awareness of the benefits of student exchange among youth using buddy mentoring, feedback from programme alumni and the creation of a unified platform for a better student integration on a European level (European Parliament, 2010). Whereas the study did not mention the impact of cultural differences on youth exchange in various countries, it still emphasised the importance of understanding country-specific factors and deriving national solutions to address relevant socio-economic barriers (European Parliament, 2010). C. R. González, R. B. Mesanza and P. Mariel explored such country-specific factors and the effect they have on student mobility as a part of the Erasmus Programme in their study (González, Mesanza, & Mariel, 2011). The study found that student mobility is highly affected by the country's size, official language, climatic conditions and cost of living, as well as the general quality of university education and distance from the students' host country (González, Mesanza, & Mariel, 2011). The authors recommended agreements with neighbouring countries as a potential way to improve youth exchange and encourage students, who are highly affected by distance and cost of living factors (González, Mesanza, & Mariel, 2011). Despite bringing forward a sufficient list of country-specific factors and proposed solutions to address student mobility barriers, the study failed to discuss cultural aspects and the barriers they could generate for students (González, Mesanza, & Mariel, 2011).

M. Ballatore and M. K. Ferede continued to assess the significance of the socio-economic status for youth exchange, focusing on France, Italy and the UK (Ballatore & Ferede, 2013). The study referenced Souto-Otero's (2008) work, confirming his findings that a large majority of Erasmus students come from better socio-economic backgrounds (Souto-Otero, 2008) (Ballatore & Ferede, 2013). The authors expanded Souto-Otero's (2008) results by stating that majority of Erasmus students have experienced more travel for study and non-study purposes prior to engaging in the programme (Ballatore & Ferede, 2013). Although Ballatore and Ferede built upon existing research and recommended policy-makers to increase non-Erasmus student awareness, they did not specify communication channels that should be leveraged to spread information more effectively (Ballatore & Ferede, 2013).

In 2013, Souto-Otero et al. conducted another study on the barriers for youth exchange within the Erasmus Programme, focusing on Germany, Spain, Finland, the UK, Poland, Czech Republic and Sweden (Souto-Otero, Huisman, Beerkens, de Wit, & Vujić, 2013). The authors identified that the impact the barriers have on youth exchange varies by the student's degree of choice (Souto-Otero, Huisman, Beerkens, de Wit, & Vujić, 2013). They recommended policy-makers to focus on improving the marketing communication of the Erasmus Programme by highlighting personal development and networking benefits for students (Souto-Otero, Huisman, Beerkens, de Wit, & Vujić, 2013). Even though the study contributed to the research field and policy-making, its recommendations focused on the marketing content rather than communication channels. M. Lesjak et al. further explored the significance of the degree choice in student engagement in youth exchange, adding gender as another determinant (Lesjak, Juvan, Ineson, Yap, & Podovšovnik Axelsson, 2015). They found that female students were more motivated to study abroad than male students, confirming that youth exchange motivation is affected by gender (Lesjak, Juvan, Ineson, Yap, & Podovšovnik Axelsson, 2015). Moreover, Lesjak et al. concluded that students' motivation to study abroad is impacted by their country of origin, contradicting the findings of González, Mesanza, & Mariel (2011) (Lesjak, Juvan, Ineson, Yap, & Podovšovnik Axelsson, 2015). The authors' recommendations were aligned with those of Souto-Otero et al. (2013), stating that relevant stakeholders should focus on tailoring the information on the Erasmus Programme and relevant institutions to students' needs and highlighting the programme benefits (Lesjak, Juvan, Ineson, Yap, & Podovšovnik Axelsson, 2015).

While also aiming to determine ways to increase the European student exchange, E. Urquía-Grande and C. del Campo took a different approach in their study by examining factors that increase satisfaction from student exchange for outgoing Spanish students (Urquía-Grande & del Campo, 2016). By looking at the data on cultural and academic environment in the host universities, the authors concluded that the Spanish students experienced better cultural adaptation in universities located in Central Europe (Urquía-Grande & del Campo, 2016). Nordic countries were ranked to have the lowest satisfaction from study abroad experience of the Spanish students, possibly due to cultural differences and higher costs of living (Urquía-Grande & del Campo, 2016). The study also analysed youth exchange preferences by gender, finding that female Spanish students prefer to go to Finland, the UK and the Netherlands, and male Spanish students prefer to go to Italy and Sweden (Urquía-Grande & del Campo, 2016). Nevertheless, the study did not provide sufficient explanation for such gender-specific preferences.

A. Cunha and Y. Santos studied the Erasmus Programme youth exchange trends, with both outgoing and incoming students, in Portugal for a period between 1987 and 2014 to gain a better understanding of students' motivation to go to a specific country (Cunha & Santos, 2018). By looking at international student mobility trends, the study confirmed Souto-Otero's (2008) results that students' choice of the destination country is impacted by its geographical location, official language and academic excellence (Souto-Otero, 2008) (Cunha & Santos, 2018). The authors also validated the conclusions of González, Mesanza and Mariel (2011) that the social status of students' parents is a significant determinant when making a choice to study abroad (González, Mesanza, & Mariel, 2011) (Cunha & Santos, 2018). For Portuguese students, Spain was found to be the most popular destination because of its geographical

location, similarity between Spanish and Portuguese languages and cultural proximity, whereas Luxembourg, Malta and Iceland were amongst the least popular destinations (Cunha & Santos, 2018).

A. Atalar took an interesting approach in his study on youth exchange by evaluating it as an effective tool for international collaboration (Atalar, 2020). The study found that English-speaking countries are more attractive to international youth, and that establishing international student offices can support students with social and cultural immersion (Atalar, 2020). The study by M. Sustarsic and B. Cheng also recognised youth exchange as a foreign policy tool that can strengthen knowledge exchange (Sustarsic & Cheng, 2022). The study found that the benefits of youth exchange go far beyond personal development and skills, playing an important role in the global culture interchange and achievement of international goals, including environmental issues, through common positive attitudes of younger generations (Sustarsic & Cheng, 2022). Whereas the study contributed to the research field, specifically in terms of global benefits of youth exchange, it did not emphasise specific ways it should be promoted to attract more youth in the future, only considering past experiences of foreign exchange alumni.

In conclusion, studies on youth exchange centred on both the social determinants and the individual factors that influence students' willingness to engage in programmes like Erasmus. The matter of culture is still barely explored in this research field, although some studies have highlighted the role of cultural affinity. Yet there exists a research gap presented by the lack of scholars' focus on using cultural aspects when determining the most appropriate country-specific ways to raise awareness and promote youth exchange.

### **3.4 Youth Employment**

In contrast to youth volunteering and exchange, the topic of youth employment received much more attention from scholars, historically being a key policy objective. Following political transformations in Eastern Europe at the end of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, youth employment became an even more important matter for policy-makers, as such transitions required labour market changes, significantly affecting vulnerable youth. In his study, J. Tholen analysed the socio-economic determinants of youth labour market participants in Eastern European countries during the transition period (Tholen, 1998). The author concluded that long-term unemployed young females were less likely to find a job through social networks than young males because of their domestic and family commitments (Tholen, 1998). In addition to highlighting the gender differences in job-seeking practices amongst youth, the study also predicted that youth employment trends in Eastern Europe will likely match those of Mediterranean countries in the future, allowing other scholars to evaluate this prediction in the subsequent studies.

In their study, A. Furlong, B. Stalder and A. Azzopardi argued that, although youth is a vulnerable group in the general labour market, there exist more vulnerable groups among young people as well, with young mothers being one example (Furlong, Azzopardi, & Stalder, 2000). The report concluded with recommendations for policy-makers to reduce youth vulnerability in employment (e.g. public support for young entrepreneurs), increase labour market flexibility, reduce long-term unemployment and encourage young people from Eastern European countries to learn new languages and IT skills to become more competitive in the Western labour markets (Furlong, Azzopardi, & Stalder, 2000). Whereas the report provided good suggestions for policy-making, it did not sufficiently cover the topic of gender and culture in youth employment vulnerability.

In the report on the new model of education and employment in Eastern Europe after its political transition, K. Roberts explored the link between the changes in the education system and the youth employment trends (Roberts, 2001). The general changes in the education system in Eastern European countries at the end of the 20<sup>th</sup> century included increased opportunities for youth to participate in non-vocational training and higher privatisation of the education sector (Roberts, 2001). Roberts argued that these changes resulted in the creation of a new employment model in Eastern Europe, which was based on an increased supply of a more educated workforce in the youth labour market (Roberts, 2001).

Whereas Roberts emphasised the importance of youth trends in Eastern Europe for Western European policy-makers at the time, the report did not discuss the challenges Eastern European youth would face when trying to enter Western European labour markets, including cultural differences (Roberts, 2001).

The study by D. Neumark and W. Wascher took a different approach when exploring the topic of youth employment by looking at the cross-country impact of minimum wages (Neumark & Wascher, 2004). The authors found a negative correlation between youth employment and minimum wage rates, highlighting that the negative effect of minimum wages is more significant on youth labour force than adult labour force (Neumark & Wascher, 2004). Nonetheless, the scope of the study was narrow, with minimum wage rates being the only cross-country difference considered. In contrast to Neumark and Wascher (2004), N. O'Higgins analysed a number of factors that impact youth employment rates in his study on youth employment policies in Europe and Central Asia (O'Higgins, 2004). The author agreed with Neumark and Wascher (2004) that youth labour force is impacted more by the labour market changes, stating that, generally, youth unemployment rate was twice as high as adult unemployment rate at the time, with the exception of Germany and Austria, which shared a dual education system (O'Higgins, 2004). O'Higgins also found that youth unemployment rates vary by gender in different countries, with female youth unemployment rates being higher, especially in Southern European countries like Italy and Spain (O'Higgins, 2004). The author encouraged policy-makers to focus on education and Active Labour Market Policies (ALMPs), such as self-employment, vocational training, career counselling and wage subsidies, in order to improve youth employment conditions (O'Higgins, 2004). The study significantly contributed to the research field by analysing a range of determinants of youth employment and providing effective recommendations to policy-makers, emphasising the importance of attracting youth to the labour market, which is highly relevant for this thesis.

The European Youth Forum report, previously mentioned in section 3.1, confirmed the results of prior studies, stating that youth unemployment rate tends to be double the adult unemployment rate, and that youth is indeed more impacted in the labour market (European Youth Forum, 2004). Youth not in employment, education or training (NEET) is particularly vulnerable to being excluded from social activities (European Youth Forum, 2004). The report supported the results of previous research works that female youth unemployment is higher than male youth unemployment in majority of European countries, with this trend being most present in Southern European countries (European Youth Forum, 2004). Furthermore, European Youth Forum concluded that, although female youth showed higher educational attainment, this did not benefit young women in the labour market, agreeing with results presented by Wallace and Kovatcheva (1998) (European Youth Forum, 2004) (Wallace & Kovatcheva, 1998). Most importantly, the report emphasises the need for European policy-makers to avoid generalising youth trends on a European level, as individual factors like gender, race, educational attainment and financial situation should be accounted for (European Youth Forum, 2004). Moreover, the report discussed National Action Plans (NAPs) for selected European countries, showing that individual countries require differing measures (European Youth Forum, 2004). For example, at the time, Finland aimed to increase vocational training opportunities, France focused on incorporating ICT skills in education, Italy prioritised lifelong learning, Luxembourg highlighted the importance of increasing female youth employment rates and Spain aimed to increase employment opportunities for vulnerable youth, including females and disabled (European Youth Forum, 2004). The report added to the existing studies by taking a country-by-country approach and emphasising the need to focus on individual determinants and national factors when targeting youth employment instead of generalising them. Nonetheless, the report failed to mention the impact of cultural differences on youth employment.

In their book on youth entrepreneurship in Eastern Europe, P. Blokker and B. Dallago focused on understanding the importance of self-employment for youth employment trends in Central and Eastern European countries (Blokker & Dallago, 2008). Supporting Furlong, Azzopardi and Stalder (2000), Blokker and Dallago argued that, although self-employment is generally relevant when developing youth employment policies, it is particularly important in Eastern Europe due to economic and political

transitions (Furlong, Azzopardi, & Stalder, 2000) (Blokke & Dallago, 2008). Despite acknowledging Tholen's (1998) theory that Eastern European countries will experience "Mediterraneanisation", the authors claimed that policy-makers could avoid this by encouraging youth entrepreneurship, as an alternative employment path (Tholen, 1998) (Blokke & Dallago, 2008). One of the key conclusions of the book was that, even though many scholars consider post-communist countries as a single bloc, a more country-specific approach should be applied to ensure that national factors like history, institutional capacity and selected policies are taken into account (Blokke & Dallago, 2008). Although the authors significantly contributed to youth entrepreneurship study field and provided relevant policy recommendations, they did not discuss the impact of gender and cultural specifics of Eastern European countries on youth employment, including self-employment (Blokke & Dallago, 2008).

B. Contini built upon prior studies by continuing to assess a range of determinants that impact youth employment variance in different European countries (Contini, 2010). The author concluded that the increase in female employment negatively impacted youth employment, creating a substitution effect, despite both of the social groups representing vulnerable parts of the labour force (Contini, 2010). Such trend was particularly significant in Southern Europe, where one disadvantaged group - female workers - crowded out another disadvantaged group - young workers (Contini, 2010). Interestingly, this crowding out effect was not significant in Nordic countries, where female employment was historically higher than elsewhere in Europe (Contini, 2010). Furthermore, Contini argued that basic economic theory is insufficient in justifying the differences between youth employment trends and employment growth between European countries (Contini, 2010). Instead, policy-makers should look beyond economic factors and consider national institutional frameworks, as well as cultural heritage (Contini, 2010). Although Contini emphasised the importance of leveraging cultural factors and social capital to strengthen national institutions, the paper neither specified ways to do so nor discussed specific cultural determinants that should be considered. H.-P. Blossfeld, D. Hofäcker and S. Bertolini argued that the European policy-makers were faced with conflicting choices, facing the trade-off between the more flexible European labour markets in support of internationalisation and a higher insecurity for young workers due to labour market deregulation (Blossfeld, Hofäcker, & Bertolini, 2011). Such uncertainty discouraged youth from actively entering the labour markets, with many young people choosing to stay longer in education, have part-time jobs or, in case of female youth in more traditional societies, have a family to become housewives (Blossfeld, Hofäcker, & Bertolini, 2011). The authors stated that, in terms of the welfare regimes, social-democratic countries (e.g. Nordic) showcase more gender equality in employment and higher welfare benefits, resulting in less uncertainty and social exclusion for youth (Blossfeld, Hofäcker, & Bertolini, 2011). The combination of closed labour markets and historically paternalistic culture and traditions in Southern European countries resulted in youth experiencing more difficulties in finding employment, with female youth being particularly disadvantaged (Blossfeld, Hofäcker, & Bertolini, 2011). The book contributed to the existing research by jointly considering a mix of several determinants and national systems in the context of youth employment. Although it mentioned certain cultural factors, such as paternalistic culture in Southern Europe, it did not go into further details on how these factors can impact youth and their employment choices.

In their study on inclusion and employment, S. P. Dhakal, J. Connell and J. Burgess considered the supply- and demand-side challenges faced by youth in the labour markets (Dhakal, Connell, & Burgess, 2018). On the supply side, youth is disadvantaged in terms of skills and frequently encounters mismatches between education and the labour market requirements (Dhakal, Connell, & Burgess, 2018). On the demand side, youth faces high employer demands in terms of previous experience and education, combined with lower wages, high insecurity in the labour market and lack of information (Dhakal, Connell, & Burgess, 2018). The last factor is especially important, as not having sufficient information regarding career planning and employment prospects discourages youth from entering the labour markets in the first place (Dhakal, Connell, & Burgess, 2018). The authors suggested policy-makers to strengthen the link between education systems and the labour markets and implement policies on microlevels to understand whether they are effective or not (Dhakal, Connell, & Burgess, 2018).

J. O'Reilly, R. Grotti and H. Russell further examined the subtopic of youth transition from education to work by considering five transition regimes implemented across the European countries and focusing on gender segregation in youth employment (O'Reilly, Grotti, & Russell, 2019). They found that, although there is a general upward trend of young women participating in the labour market, it is still sector-specific, driven both by educational choices of more 'feminised' subjects and recruitment gender biases (O'Reilly, Grotti, & Russell, 2019). High availability of vocational training exacerbates gender segregation across sectors, therefore, the authors concluded that such segregation is more likely to be higher in countries with employment-centred regimes, such as Germany and Austria (O'Reilly, Grotti, & Russell, 2019). Furthermore, youth employment trends in countries with universalistic regimes (e.g. Finland) are driven by changes in female youth employment, whereas in countries with sub-protective (e.g. Italy, Spain) and post-socialist regimes (e.g. Slovakia, Bulgaria) they are driven by male youth employment, reflecting a lower participation of young women in the labour markets in latter countries (O'Reilly, Grotti, & Russell, 2019). The study represented a valuable addition to existing literature, providing guidance both on the micro-level for HR strategies and the macro-level for policy-makers.

Given such differences in regimes and institutional systems, the EU member countries face the challenge of ensuring that national policies are compatible with the European policies. M. Bussi and P. Graziano analysed the extent to which the French youth employment policies are consistent with the European Youth Guarantee programme (Bussi & Graziano, 2019). They concluded that, although the key objectives of the Youth Guarantee programme are to reduce the number of young people NEET and reintegrate them into employment, the French national policies did not have effective mechanisms to reach youth and did not introduce active horizontal partnerships between employers and other stakeholders (e.g. trade unions). Bussi and Graziano recommended that the French policy-makers should focus on implementing stronger measures to quickly reach and reintegrate youth into the labour market (Bussi & Graziano, 2019). The study is highly relevant, as it showed the need to adapt individualised approaches to youth engagement rather than use general European policies, however, it failed to discuss the importance of cultural factors when building national communication channels for youth. By looking at the Youth Guarantee programme and its implementation in Spain, M. À. Cabasés and M. Úbeda also concluded that the effects of the current programmes are limited because they are targeting youth, as a homogenous group, not being adapted to individual needs and differences within the group, such as gender, educational attainment, ethnicity, etc. (Cabasés & Úbeda, 2022). Within the youth sector of the Spanish labour market, female workers represent a disadvantaged group, with young women of non-European nationality and with lower education levels being hit the most. Cabasés and Úbeda argued that one reason behind this is the historical existence of patriarchal structures in Spain, with women having to dedicate majority of their time to household care, which was also witnessed during Covid-19 pandemic. Even though the Spanish policy-makers adopted a set of measures to relieve the population from economic impacts of the pandemic, these measures were neither targeting youth nor recognising gender differences. Furthermore, many young females in Spain struggled with a lack of technological skills during digital transformations brought by Covid-19. Cabasés and Úbeda urged policy-makers to adopt a mix of youth- and gender-specific approaches when designing youth employment policies in Spain, which aligns with purpose of this thesis. Nevertheless, the authors did not examine the relevance of the cultural factors when targeting female youth in Spain.

In summary, the topic of youth employment has been explored by scholars from a variety of angles, with some looking at specific countries and others conducting cross-country analyses. Whereas many studies provided useful recommendations to policy-makers in terms of structural and institutional changes, there has been a clear lack of focus on the communication channels that are needed to ensure that any policy changes actually reach young workers.

While the review discussed four different, yet interrelated, areas of youth engagement, there exists a general research gap in all of these study fields. Majority of research works that explored the topics in question were attempting to review existing policies and propose policy changes that would improve



youth participation in certain activities, with many focusing on female youth. However, few studies recognised the lack of effective measures that would bridge the gap between the policy execution and real changes in the lives of young women. Such gap is driven by the use of generalised communication channels that do not incorporate cultural and gender-specific factors needed to actually reach female youth in different countries. Although later studies have started showing the need for individualisation in youth policy-making, the role of cultural differences has not been sufficiently investigated. To the author's best knowledge, no prior research works have examined the use of culture and gender-specific factors in communication channels for a combination of four areas of youth engagement – education, volunteering, exchange and employment – in the context of Youth for Europe project.

## 4. Methodology

The methodology for this research involved the collection and analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data. The methodology can be divided into three consecutive steps presented below:

### **Step 1: Identifying a priority focus area for each selected country**

The data collected for Step 1, which is provided in the Data and Discussion sections, is a combination of quantitative and qualitative. To ensure the validity and reliability of the research, official public databases, including Eurostat, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) statistical database and the World Bank open data, have been selected as data sources for quantitative data presented in the Data section for Step 1. Given the lack of data on youth volunteering in the public databases, official studies and surveys that are included in the national volunteering policies for each country in Youth Wiki database - an online source of youth policies in European countries powered by the European Commission - have been used as alternative sources to allow for a thorough analysis (Youth Wiki, n.d.). These are Taloustutkimus Oy survey for Finland, Institut National de la Jeunesse et de l'Éducation Populaire (INJEP) reports for France, the Universal Civic Service reports for Italy, TNS Ilres survey for Luxembourg, studies by Brozmanová Gregorová, Siekelová & Šolcová (2018) and Čavojská, Feherpataky-Kuzmová and Fishbone Vlčková (2020) for Slovakia and studies by Plataforma Del Voluntariado De España for Spain.

The data on youth education, volunteering, exchange and employment was obtained in a raw format from identified resources, organised by gender, age and time, amongst other variables, and transformed into visual graphs, as an output of data analysis. In the Data section, the quantitative data is categorised thematically by the four focus areas and the six selected countries. The data on youth education includes formal education, non-formal education and early leavers from education by gender. The data on youth volunteering varies based on the selected country due to individual data availability, generally including the number of formal and informal volunteers by gender and age. The data on youth exchange includes incoming and outgoing Erasmus+ student mobility, the share of mobile students in tertiary education by gender and the number of foreign languages studies at different stages of education. The data on youth employment includes youth labour force participation rate, employment rate by gender and educational attainment, employment and unemployment rates, part-time employment and youth NEET.

The Discussion section provides an overview of the current youth policies and programmes implemented in the areas of youth education, volunteering, exchange and employment in the selected countries. To ensure reliability, the qualitative data for this section was obtained from the official updated national Youth Wiki pages. To allow for a more complete analysis, qualitative data presented in the Discussion section is supported by the relevant quantitative data from the Data section. Moreover, the data from the Discussion section is also categorised thematically by the four focus areas and the six selected countries. The joint comparative analysis of the quantitative and the qualitative data from the Data and Discussion sections enables the observation of trends in the engagement of young women in each focus area and the gaps in the relevant national policies, which leads to the selection of a priority focus area for the chosen countries, answering the first research question.

### **Step 2: Defining relevant cultural and gender-specific communication factors for each selected country**

The data for Step 2, which is presented in the Culture and Communication sections, is also a combination of quantitative and qualitative. The data on the cultural factors is based on the Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions Theory of Geert Hofstede (1980) and the cultural framework of Edward Hall (1976) (CFI, 2022) (Würtz, 2005). To ensure reliability, the quantitative and qualitative data for each cultural dimension for the selected countries in accordance with Hofstede's work is obtained from the official Hofstede country comparison tool powered by Hofstede Insights organisation. The qualitative

data for the cultural framework of Edward Hall is based on the definitions and case studies from International Marketing textbook published by Cateora, Money, Gilly & Graham (2020). For a more thorough analysis of the impact of culture on communication, the qualitative data from online secondary sources on the business communication styles in each country is presented in the Culture section as well. The data in the Culture section is categorised thematically by relevant cultural frameworks and the six selected countries.

The data in the Communication section is primarily quantitative, with some qualitative arguments used to support the data analysis. Similar to Step 1, to establish validity, the data sources are represented by official databases, software tools and studies, including Eurostat, NapoleonCat social media marketing software, global digital studies conducted by DataReportal and digital news reports of the University of Oxford's Reuters Institute for the Study of Journalism. The data in the Communication section is categorised thematically by the internet use, social media use and the use of alternative media sources for each selected country. The data on the internet use is gender-specific and includes the level of digital skills, daily access to internet and the use of internet to interact with authorities. The data on social media includes the use of Facebook, Instagram, Messenger, LinkedIn, Twitter and advertising reach by gender. The data on alternative media sources varies for each selected country based on the data availability, generally including the use of television, radio, online media and printed media. The quantitative data has been obtained in a raw format from the given sources, organised by gender, age, type of social media and other relevant factors, and transformed into visual graphs and tables, as outputs of data analysis.

The summaries for each selected country in the Culture section and data analysis and discussion in the Communication section emphasise the cultural and gender-specific factors related to communication that should be considered when selecting communication tools, answering the second research question.

### **Step 3: Recommending communication channels for Youth for Europe for the priority focus area from Step 1 in each selected country based on the factors from Step 2**

In contrast to Steps 1 & 2, the data for Step 3, which is presented in the Recommendations section, is entirely qualitative. The recommendations on communication channels are based on the data and discussion from the previous steps and categorised thematically by countries. In addition, recommended communication channels are grouped into digital and non-digital by theme and short-term, mid-term and long-term by timeline. To ensure a more thorough research output, qualitative data on benefits and shortcomings of currently used and recommended channels is also provided in the Recommendations section. Such qualitative data was obtained from online secondary sources, therefore, it plays a supporting role, as opposed to being the recommendation driver, to mitigate reliability issues. To allow for a straightforward data interpretation, the recommendations on communication channels for the engagement of young women in the priority focus areas in the selected countries are provided in the table format and represent the final research results, answering the third research question.

### **Ethical Considerations**

In terms of the ethical considerations in data collection, analysis and interpretation, all quantitative and qualitative data is cited and referenced, where applicable. Numeric values from the quantitative data are given as taken directly from primary data sources to avoid data misrepresentation. Whenever the data for certain figures was not available, resulting in missing data points, this was clearly indicated in the description of the relevant figure.

## 5. Data

This section provides an overview of the key trends in youth education, volunteering, exchange and employment in Finland, France, Italy, Luxembourg, Slovakia and Spain. The data is based on the general definition of youth as individuals aged 15-24 years, which is consistent with the United Nations' (UN) definition of youth, and uses the standard time period between 2012 and 2021 for the 10-year trend observation (United Nations, n.d.). However, some data sets deviate from the standardised age or time period due to data unavailability, which is one of the limitations of this thesis.

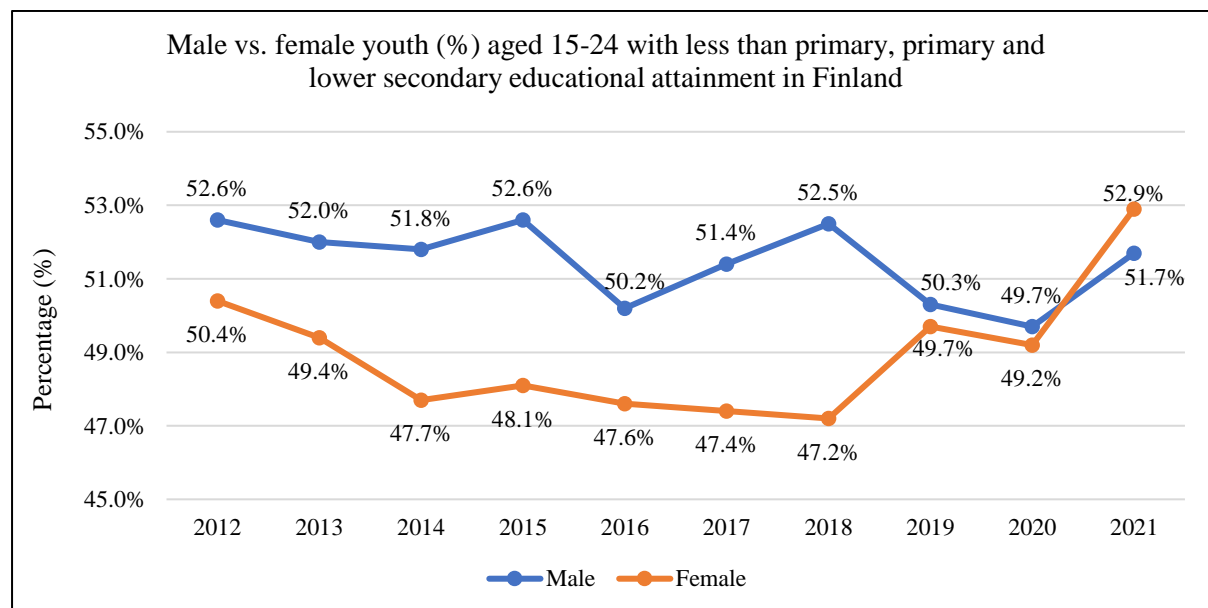
### 5.1 Youth Education

This subsection reviews the data for youth education in the six selected countries, focusing on the gender differences among youth in formal education, non-formal education and early leavers from education.

#### 5.1.1 Finland

The Finnish education system is considered to be highly effective, with Finland being ranked 8<sup>th</sup> most educated country in 2018 by the OECD (Johnson Hess, 2018). The Finnish children receive early childhood and pre-primary education, entering primary education in schools after turning 7 years old (Leverage Edu, 2022). Following the completion of primary education, the Finnish students choose between the general and vocational upper secondary education, with the latter equipping them with specific skills for the chosen career path (Leverage Edu, 2022). Finally, students can continue to receive tertiary education either in the Finnish universities or polytechnics (Education in Finland, n.d.).

##### 5.1.1.1 Formal Education

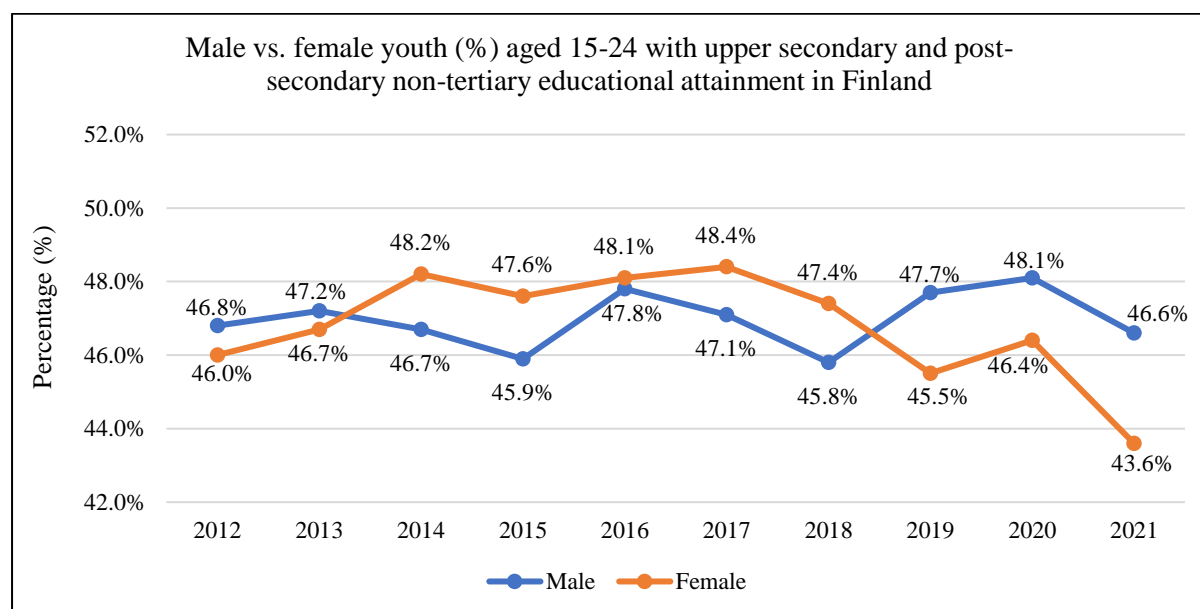


*Figure 1. Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment level in Finland for years 2012-2021.*

*Note:* Data adapted from: "Young people by educational attainment level, sex and age" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_DEMO\\_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth\\_educ](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_DEMO_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth_educ)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As can be seen in Figure 1 above, there were fewer young females with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment than young males in Finland over the period of 2012-2021, with 2021 being the exception. Over the years, the number of young females with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment remained lower than in 2012, with the exception of 2021. While the share of young males with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment in Finland experienced occasional increases, it also did not return to its original

mark in 2012 throughout the period, with the exception of 2015. Such decreases observed for both male and female youth can be explained by the reduction in the number of the Finnish schools over the last 10 years (Clausnitzer, 2022). In 2020, the shares of both male and female youth decreased due to the challenges brought by Covid-19 pandemic, e.g. reduced contact teaching, however, they experienced a sharp increase, with females surpassing males for the first time in 10 years in 2021. This increase can be driven by both an increased public spending for primary and lower secondary education per student and higher government spending to reduce negative impacts of Covid-19, such as €5.5 billion crisis package issued by the Finnish government on 2<sup>nd</sup> June 2020 (Clausnitzer, 2022) (Kangas, 2020).



*Figure 2. Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment level in Finland for years 2012-2021.*

*Note: Data adapted from: "Young people by educational attainment level, sex and age" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_DEMO\\_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth\\_educ](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_DEMO_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth_educ)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.*

As shown in Figure 2, there was no clear dominance of male vs. female youth with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment in Finland over the period of 2012-2021. While there was an upward trend in female youth completion of upper secondary education at the start of the decade, the shares have significantly declined since 2018. Sharp drops in the shares of both male and female youth in 2021 were driven by negative impacts of Covid-19, including the lack of contact hours with teachers. Moreover, the Finnish schools currently face the challenges of shortages of qualified teachers and reduced public spending on vocational education (Clausnitzer, 2022) (Teivainen, 2023).

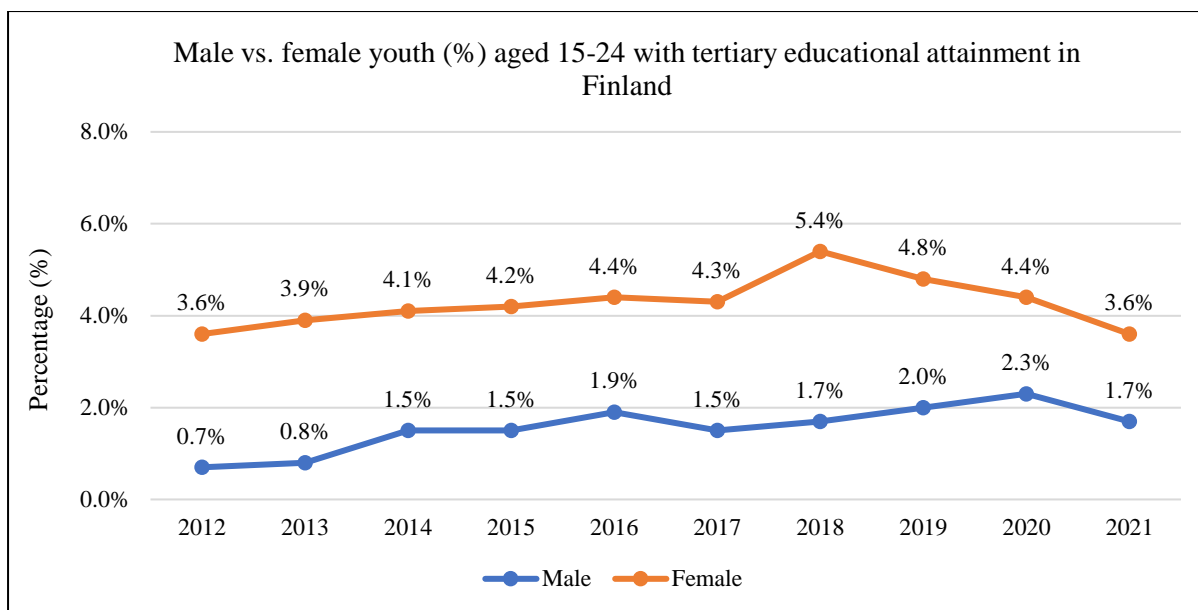


Figure 3. Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 with tertiary educational attainment level in Finland for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Young people by educational attainment level, sex and age" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_DEMO\\_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth\\_educ](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_DEMO_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth_educ)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As can be seen in Figure 3 above, the share of young females with tertiary educational attainment in Finland exceeded the share of young males over the entire 10-year period. Increases in tertiary education completion for both young men and women could be driven by the general expansion of tertiary education in the EU since the start of the decade, however, the negative impacts of Covid-19 caused a decline in the shares in 2021 (OECD, 2013). Nonetheless, the shares of young males and females with tertiary educational attainment in Finland were significantly below the EU average over the period of 2012-2021 (note: see Figure A.1 in Appendices). One potential reason could be the fact that since the start of the 21<sup>st</sup> century, the Finnish youth education policies were mainly directed at increasing vocational education attendance rather than focusing on tertiary education (Mäki-Fränä, 2019). Moreover, the number of available places in tertiary education in Finland is determined by the predicted demand in the labour market for specific study fields, resulting in students willing to study certain subjects having to wait several years to enter the university (OECD, 2013). Both of these aspects of the Finnish youth education policies lead to lower tertiary education attendance rates for both male and female youth in Finland, when compared to the EU average.

### 5.1.1.2 Non-Formal Education

Non-formal education can be defined as participation in courses that are not part of the official education system, yet result in qualifications that are formally recognised (Statistics Finland, n.d.). Such courses include language courses, further vocational education and employer training activities (Statistics Finland, n.d.).

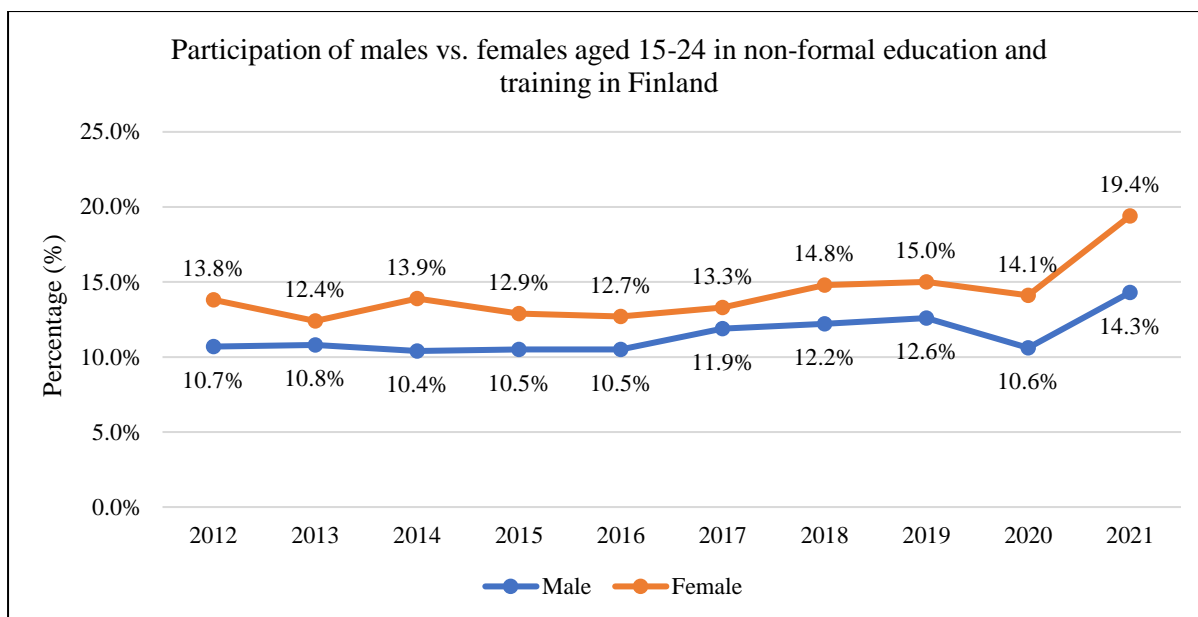


Figure 4. Participation rate (%) of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 in non-formal education and training in Finland for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Participation rate in non-formal education and training (last 4 weeks) by sex and age" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_EDUC\\_060/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_EDUC_060/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

Figure 4 shows that, over the entire period of 2012-2021, female youth participation in non-formal education exceeded male youth participation in Finland, with the gap widening in 2021. The increase in both male and female youth participation in non-formal education in 2021 can be explained by the need for advanced digital skills for remote working and studying, as a result of Covid-19, and higher flexibility, as the courses were delivered online, allowing more people to attend.

### 5.1.1.3 Early Leavers

Eurostat defines early leavers from education and training as young people aged 18-24 with lower secondary educational attainment or lower, who did not continue their education (Eurostat, 2022).

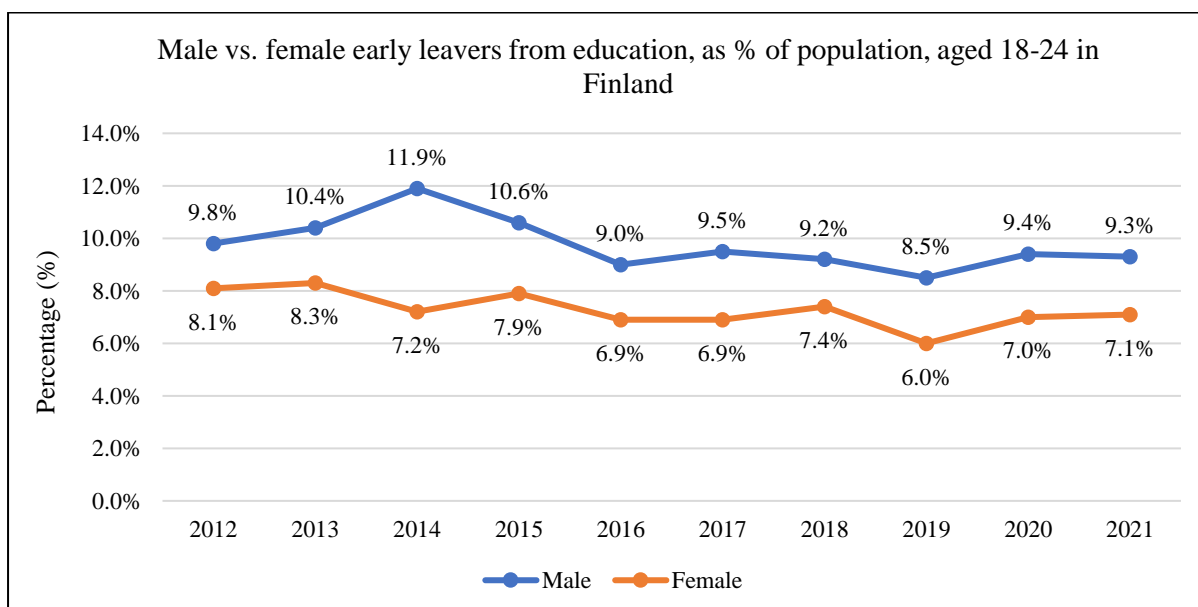


Figure 5. Percentage of male vs. female early leavers from education and training aged 18-24 of total population in Finland for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: “Early leavers from education and training by sex and labour status” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/edat\\_lfse\\_14/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/edat_lfse_14/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As can be seen in Figure 5, there were more male early leavers from education than female early leavers in Finland over the entire period of 2012-2021, which is consistent with a higher female participation in tertiary education, as shown in Figure 3.

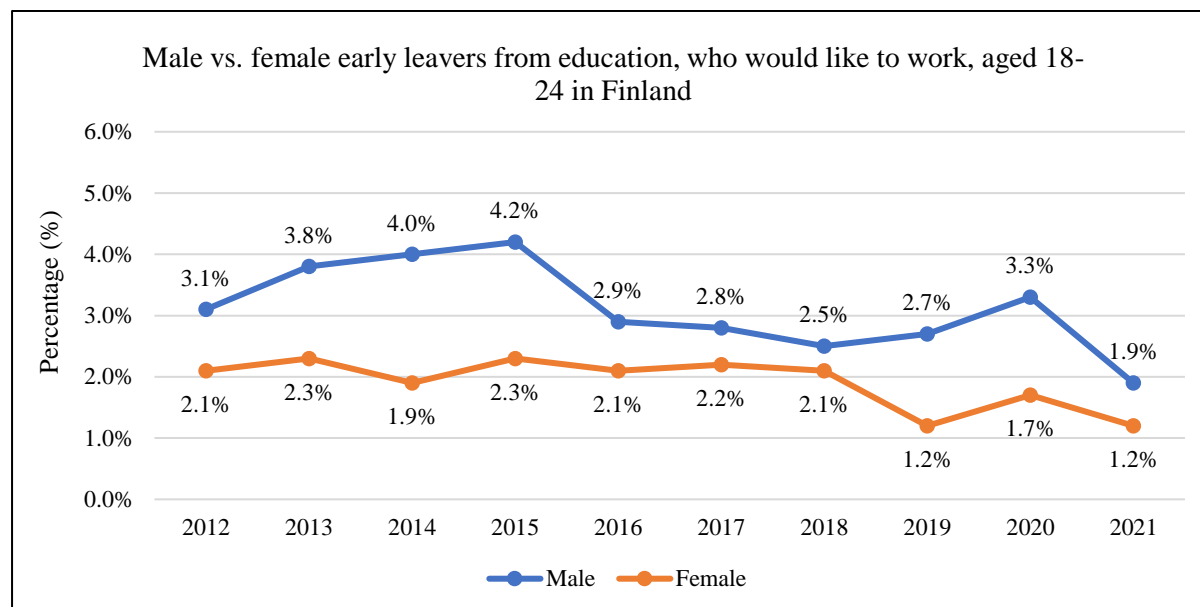


Figure 6. Percentage of male vs. female early leavers from education and training, who would like to work, aged 18-24 in Finland for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: “Early leavers from education and training by sex and labour status” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/edat\\_lfse\\_14/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/edat_lfse_14/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As provided in Figure 6, among early leavers from education in Finland, young males showed a greater willingness to enter the labour market than young females. This can be associated with additional household and family responsibilities that young women might experience, preferring to become housewives. Moreover, Figure 7 below shows that, throughout the entire period of 2012-2021, there were more employed male early leavers than female early leavers in Finland. This could be partially explained by fewer young female early leavers actually willing to enter the labour market.

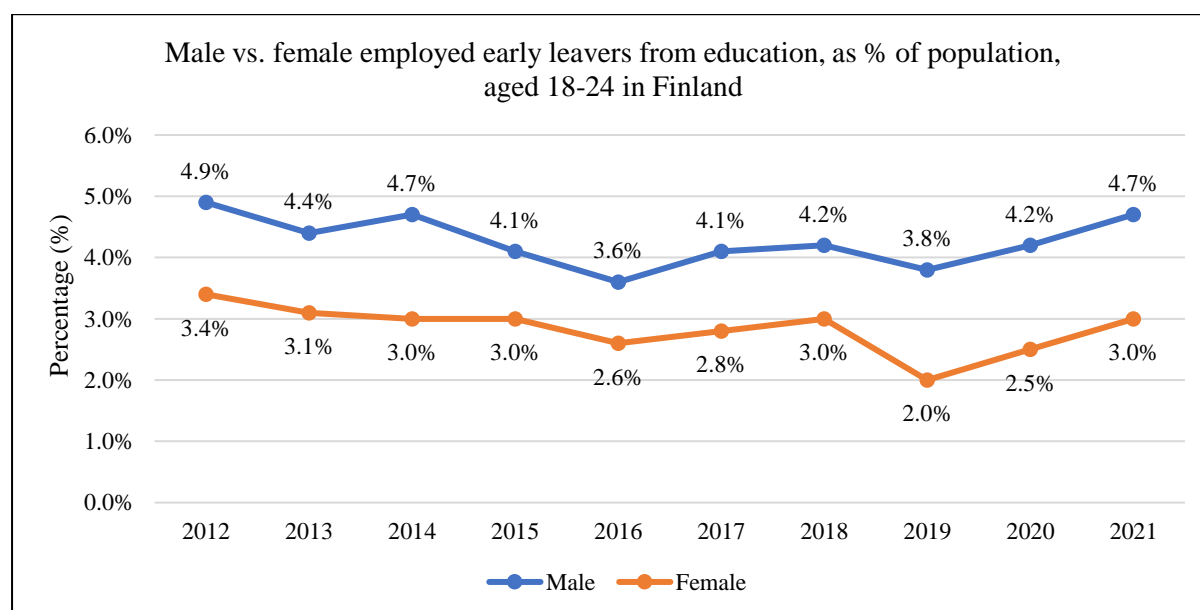




Figure 7. Percentage of male vs. female early leavers from education and training aged 18-24 with employed labour status in Finland for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: “Early leavers from education and training by sex and labour status” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/edat\\_lfse\\_14/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/edat_lfse_14/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

## 5.1.2 France

The French education system is divided into primary, secondary and higher education phases (Besart, 2021). Pre-school education became mandatory for children in France since 2019 (The Local, 2020). Moreover, all children are required to complete primary education in schools at the age of 6 (Besart, 2021). After that, students receive compulsory lower secondary education in collèges and upper secondary education in lycées, selecting between the general, vocational and technological study pathways (France Éducation internationale, n.d.). Finally, the French students obtain tertiary education either through an academic diploma, received in universities and higher education institutions, or a vocational diploma with a technological focus (Besart, 2021).

### 5.1.2.1 Formal Education

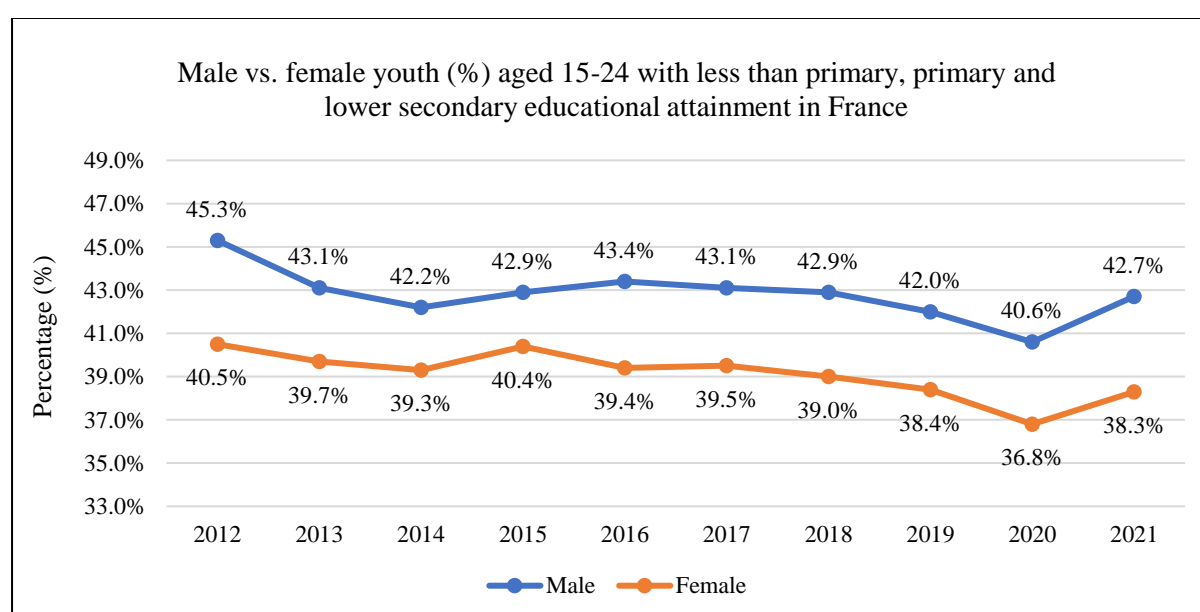


Figure 8. Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment level in France for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: “Young people by educational attainment level, sex and age” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_DEMO\\_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth\\_educ](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_DEMO_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth_educ)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As shown in Figure 8, there were more young males than females with less than primary, primary or lower secondary educational attainment in France over the entire period of 2012-2021. There was a decline in the shares of both young males and females in 2020 due to Covid-19 and its implications, such as no physical teaching. Nonetheless, the shares increased again to their pre-pandemic levels in 2021, when Covid-19 restrictions were eased, and students became more adapted to new conditions.

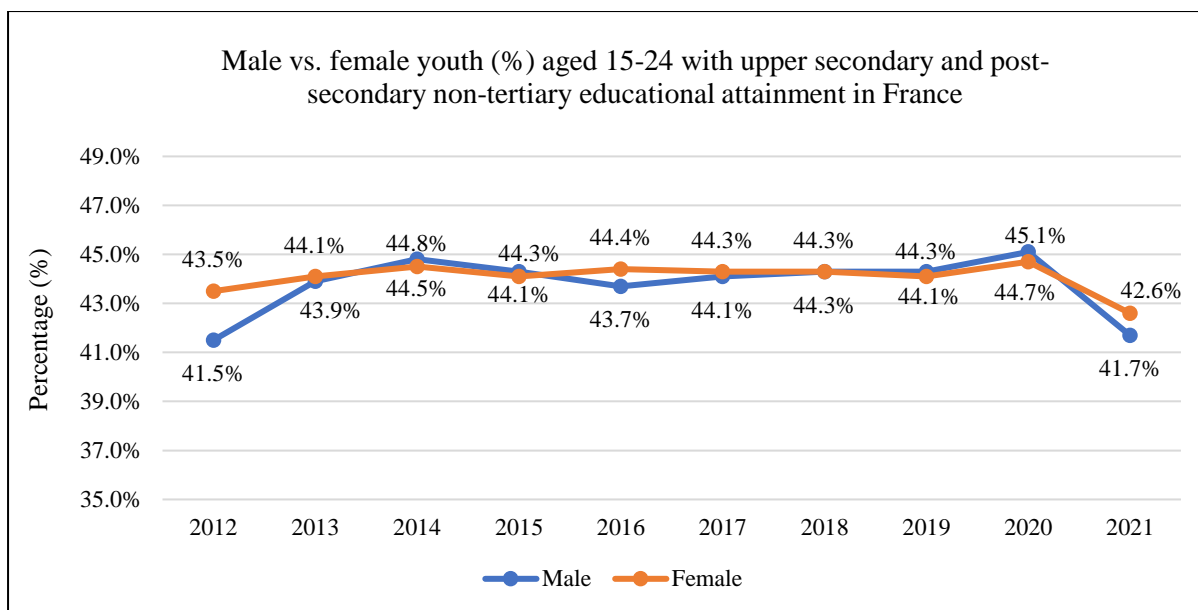


Figure 9. Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment level in France for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Young people by educational attainment level, sex and age" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_DEMO\\_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth\\_educ](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_DEMO_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth_educ)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As can be seen in Figure 9, the shares of young males and females with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment were almost identical in France since 2013. Both shares sharply decreased in 2021, which reflects the negative consequences of Covid-19 for students of both genders in terms of experiencing challenges in obtaining their qualifications.

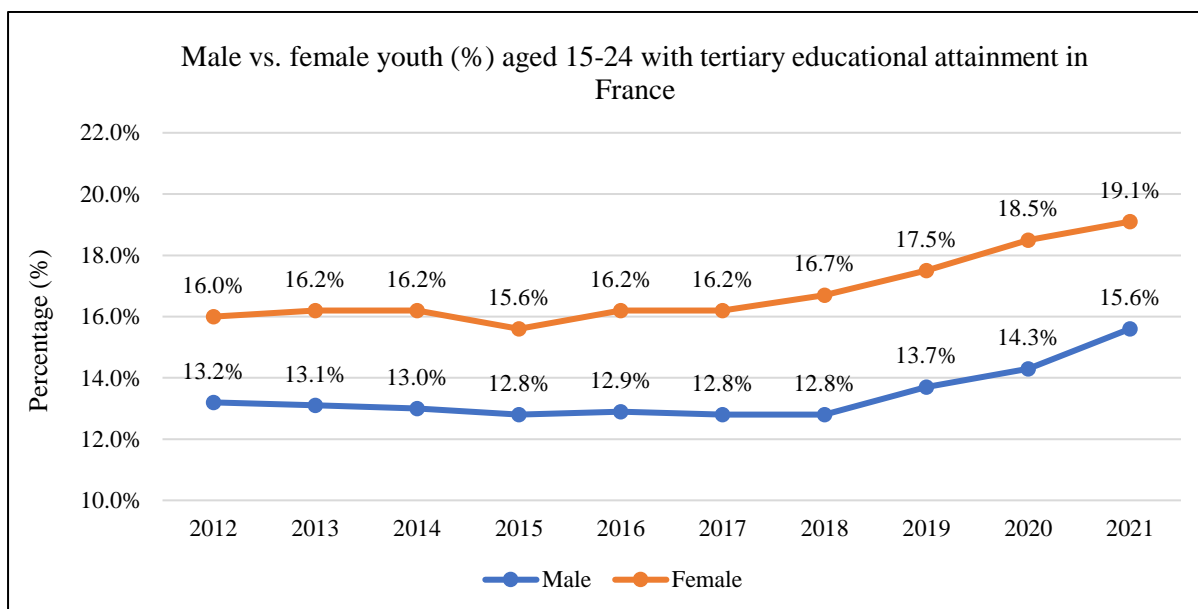


Figure 10. Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 with tertiary educational attainment level in France for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Young people by educational attainment level, sex and age" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_DEMO\\_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth\\_educ](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_DEMO_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth_educ)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As displayed in Figure 10, the share of young females with tertiary educational attainment in France has been consistently higher than the share of young males, with both genders experiencing an upward

trend in recent years. Generally, young women with tertiary educational attainment have lower risks of being unemployed than young women with upper secondary educational attainment in most of the countries, however, this is particularly present in France (OECD, 2021). According to the OECD, the unemployment rate of young females with upper secondary educational attainment is more than double the unemployment rate of young females with tertiary educational attainment in France, justifying the higher share of young females in the French tertiary education than young males (OECD, 2021).

### 5.1.2.2 Non-Formal Education

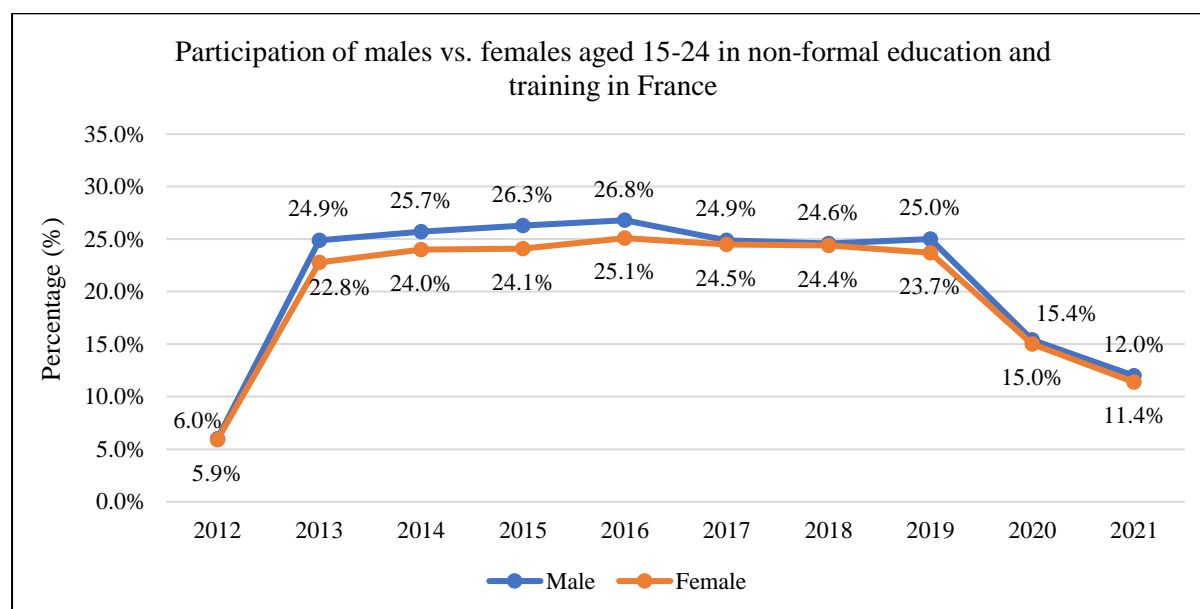


Figure 11. Participation rate (%) of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 in non-formal education and training in France for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Participation rate in non-formal education and training (last 4 weeks) by sex and age" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_EDUC\\_060/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_EDUC_060/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As shown in Figure 11, the participation rates of young males and females in non-formal education and training in France have been similar, even almost identical in certain years. The sharp increase in male and female youth participation in non-formal training in 2013 can be explained by the strengthened national focus on this area of education as a result of the recommendation of the Council of the European Union issued on 20<sup>th</sup> December 2012 to increase opportunities for non-formal education and validate such education paths (The Council of the European Union, 2012). In 2020 and 2021, participation of both young men and women in non-formal education reduced in France due to Covid-19, as there was a decrease in the physical delivery of courses, availability of technology and teachers (Chheng, 2021).

### 5.1.2.3 Early Leavers

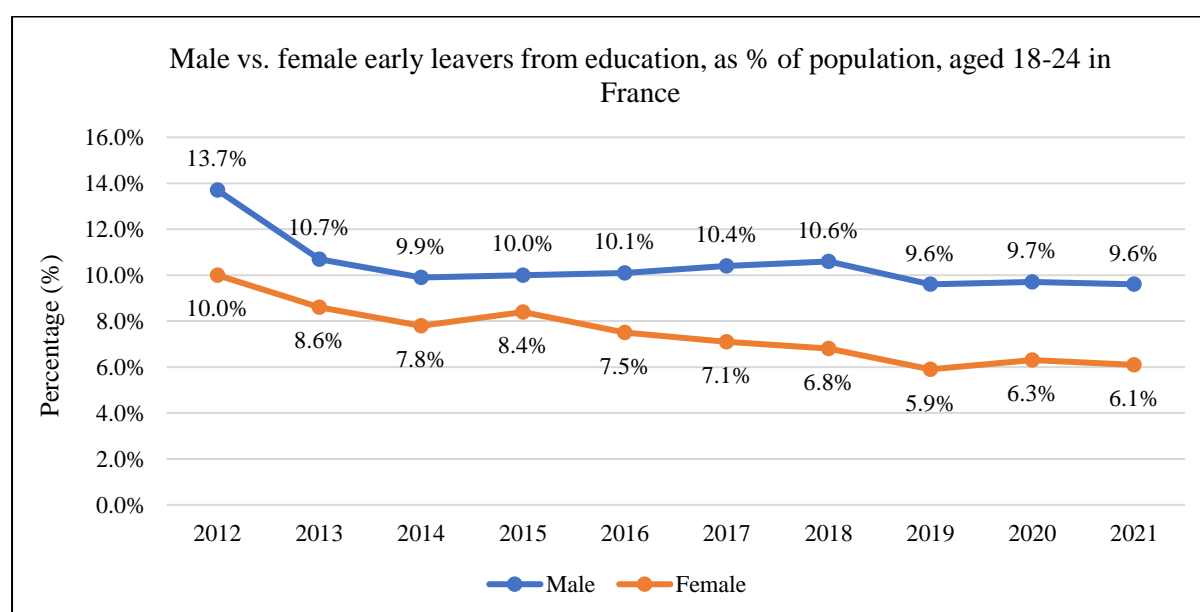


Figure 12. Percentage of male vs. female early leavers from education and training aged 18-24 of total population in France for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Early leavers from education and training by sex and labour status" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/edat\\_lfse\\_14/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/edat_lfse_14/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As presented in Figure 12, there were more male early leavers from education in France than female early leavers over the entire period of 2012-2021, with both genders experiencing a gradual reduction over the years. Such declining trends can be explained by upper secondary and tertiary educational attainments acting as important differentiators for youth, when entering the French labour market (OECD, 2016). Therefore, young people became more reluctant to leave education early in order to have better career prospects. Naturally, there are less female early leavers, as more young women enrol in tertiary education to avoid higher risks of unemployment in France, as shown in Figure 10.

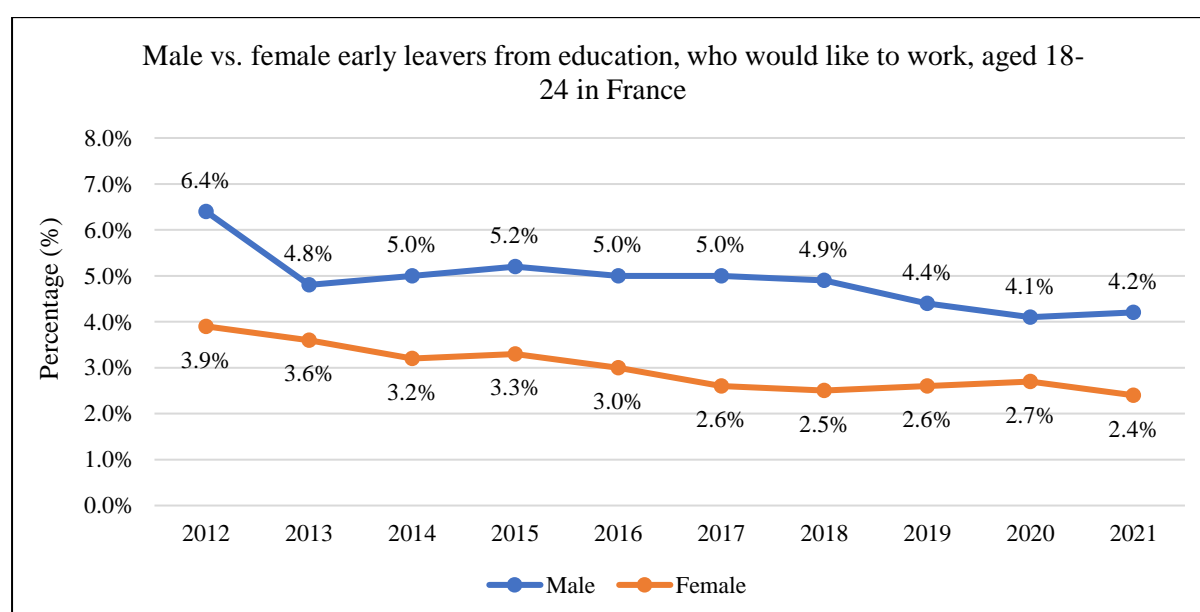
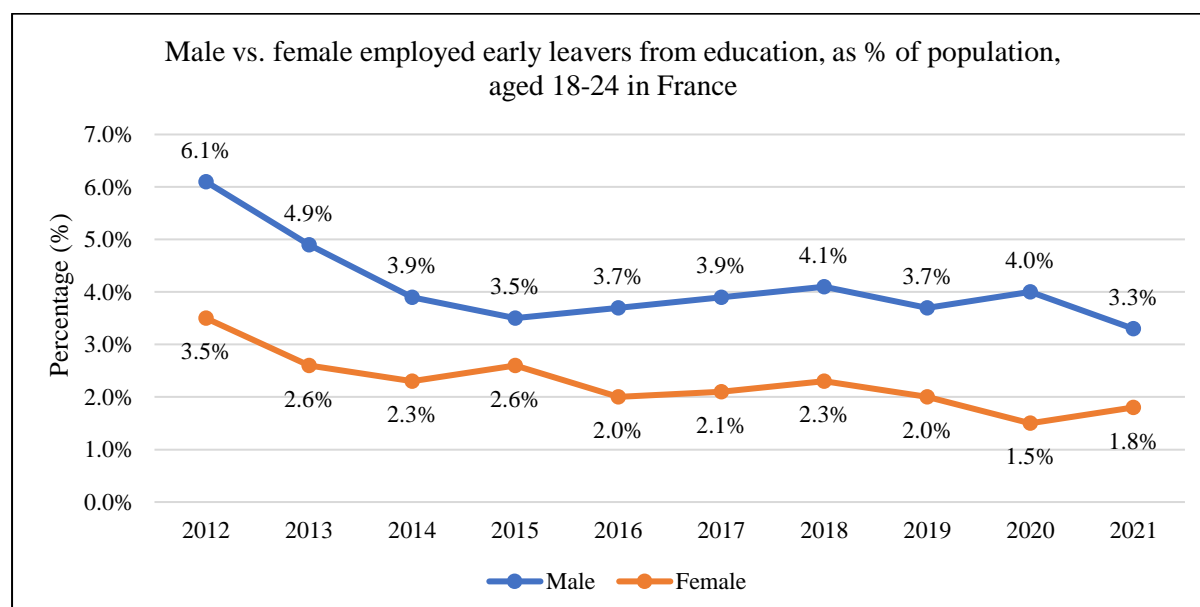


Figure 13. Percentage of male vs. female early leavers from education and training, who would like to work, aged 18-24 in France for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Early leavers from education and training by sex and labour status" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/edat\\_lfse\\_14/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/edat_lfse_14/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As provided in Figure 13, male early leavers from education in France were more willing to work than female early leavers over the entire period of 2012-2021. Similar to Finland, this can be explained by additional household responsibilities for women, who chose to leave education to care for the family.



*Figure 14. Percentage of male vs. female early leavers from education and training aged 18-24 with employed labour status in France for years 2012-2021.*

*Note: Data adapted from: "Early leavers from education and training by sex and labour status" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/edat\\_lfse\\_14/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/edat_lfse_14/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.*

Figure 14 shows that more male early leavers from education than female early leavers were employed in France over the period of 2012-2021. Whereas this gap can be partially justified by the fact that fewer female early leavers were willing to work over this time period, it also shows that young women with no upper secondary or tertiary educational attainment are more exposed to the unemployment risks than their male counterparts (OECD, 2021).

### 5.1.3 Italy

The Italian education system also has three stages. The primary education is mandatory for all children aged 6, with no compulsory pre-school education (LearnAmo, 2020). Lower secondary education is also mandatory for all students, however, upper secondary education is compulsory only for the first two years and then becomes optional (LearnAmo, 2020). For upper secondary education, students have the choice between a vocational education school, a technical school and a specialised lyceum (liceo) (LearnAmo, 2020). Finally, the Italian students receive tertiary education in universities that provide courses in their selected study fields (LearnAmo, 2020).

### 5.1.3.1 Formal Education

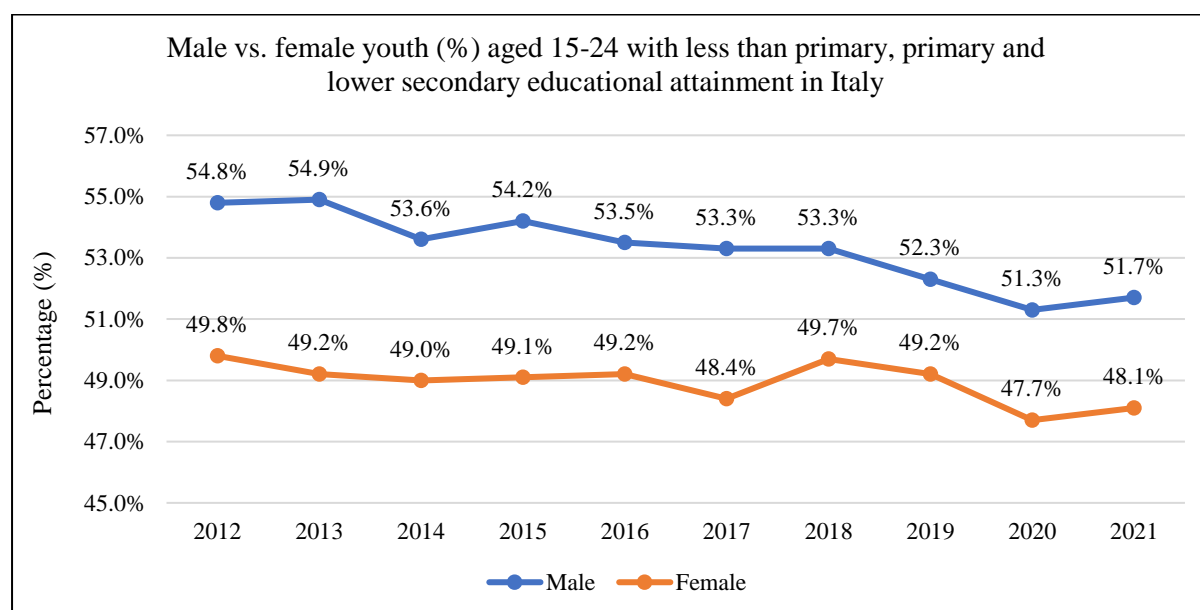


Figure 15. Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment level in Italy for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: “Young people by educational attainment level, sex and age” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_DEMO\\_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth\\_educ](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_DEMO_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth_educ)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As can be seen in Figure 15, there were more young males with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment in Italy than young females over the entire period of 2012-2021. In 2020, both shares declined to their lowest point since the start of the decade due to Covid-19, however, they increased again in 2021 after pandemic restrictions have been reduced.

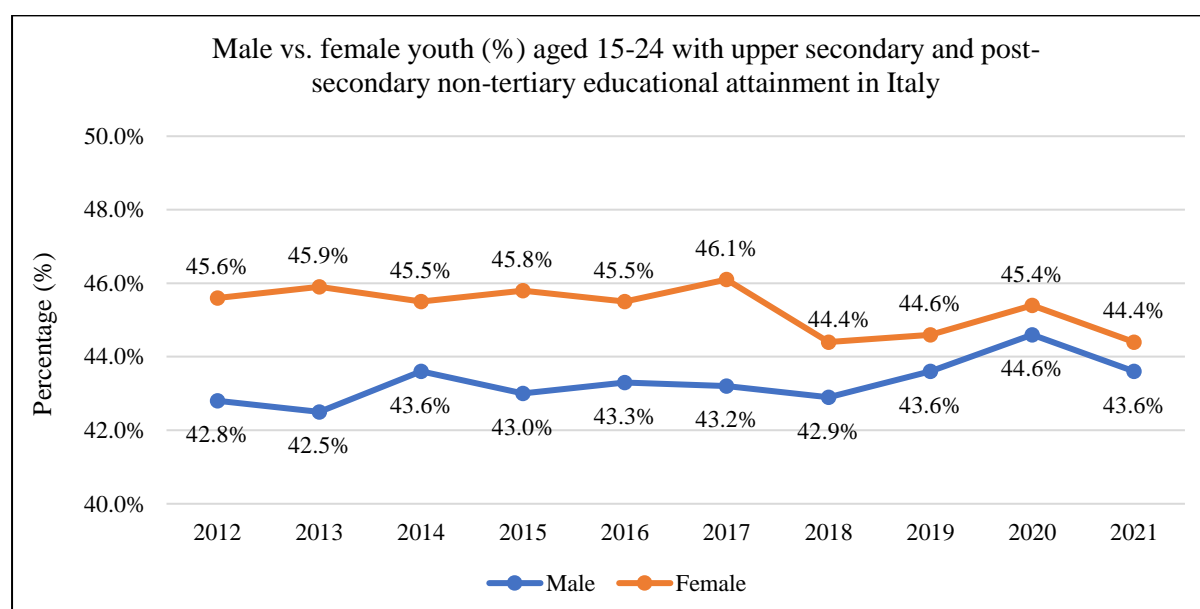


Figure 16. Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment level in Italy for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: “Young people by educational attainment level, sex and age” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_DEMO\\_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth\\_educ](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_DEMO_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth_educ)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

Figure 16 shows that there were more young females with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment than young males in Italy over the entire period of 2012-2021. To enter tertiary education in Italy, students are required to complete upper secondary education and pass the graduation exam (LearnAmo, 2020). As young women engage more in tertiary education in Italy than young males (*note: see Figure 17 below*), this is reflected in a higher number of young females completing upper secondary education (OECD, 2021). Nonetheless, it can be observed in Figure 16 that the shares of both young men and women with upper secondary educational attainment have reduced in 2021, reflecting the negative impact of Covid-19 on students' ability to complete their studies.

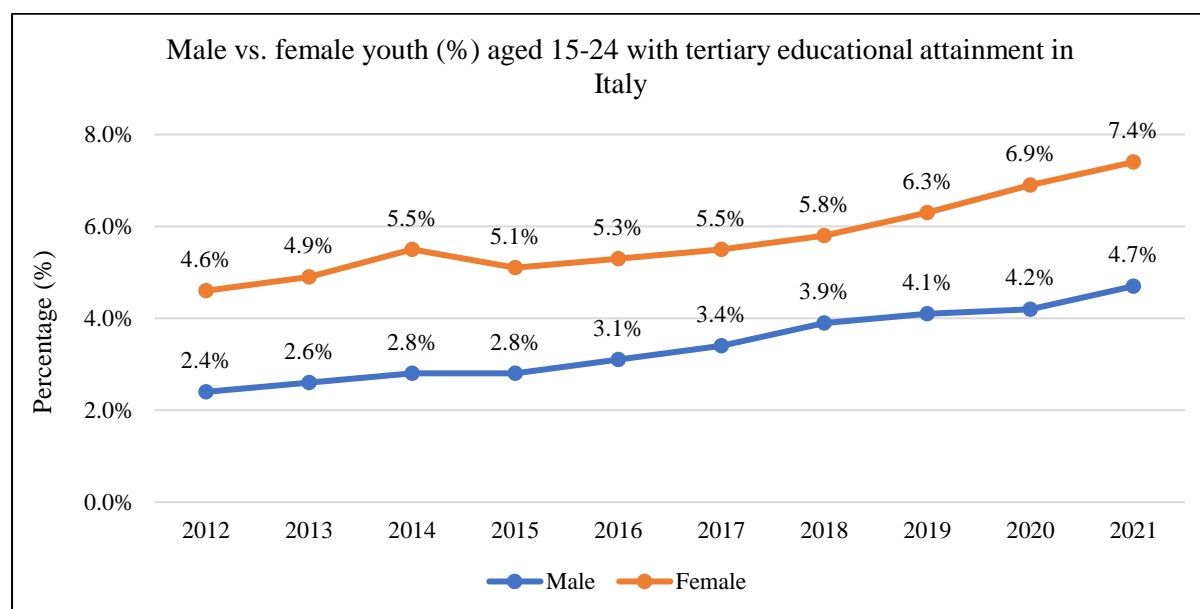


Figure 17. Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 with tertiary educational attainment level in Italy for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Young people by educational attainment level, sex and age" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_DEMO\\_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth\\_educ](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_DEMO_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth_educ)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As provided in Figure 17, there were more young females with tertiary educational attainment than young males in Italy over the period of 2012-2021. Similar to France, this can be explained by young women with tertiary educational attainment in Italy facing lower risks of unemployment than young females with upper secondary educational attainment (OECD, 2021). This encourages young women in Italy to obtain higher education in order to ease their entry into the labour market. Nonetheless, the numbers of both young males and females with tertiary educational attainment experienced a consistent upward trend over the period of 2012-2021. This is justified by the fact that young males in Italy also face employment disadvantages when having upper secondary educational attainment instead of tertiary, although this disadvantage is not as significant as for their female counterparts (OECD, 2021).

### 5.1.3.2 Non-Formal Education

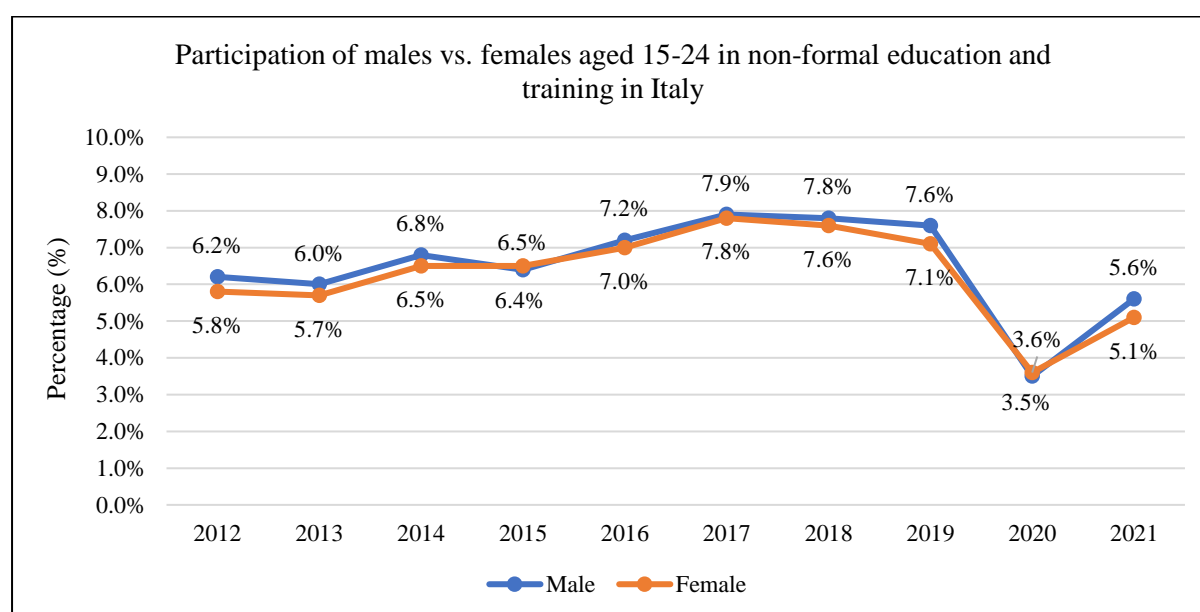


Figure 18. Participation rate (%) of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 in non-formal education and training in Italy for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Participation rate in non-formal education and training (last 4 weeks) by sex and age" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_EDUC\\_060/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_EDUC_060/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

Figure 18 shows that, similar to France, the participation rates of young men and women in non-formal education in Italy were almost identical and experienced similar trends over the period of 2012-2021. There was a sharp decline in the participation of both young males and females in non-formal education in 2020 due to Covid-19 restrictions and the reduction of available courses and physical teaching.

### 5.1.3.3 Early Leavers

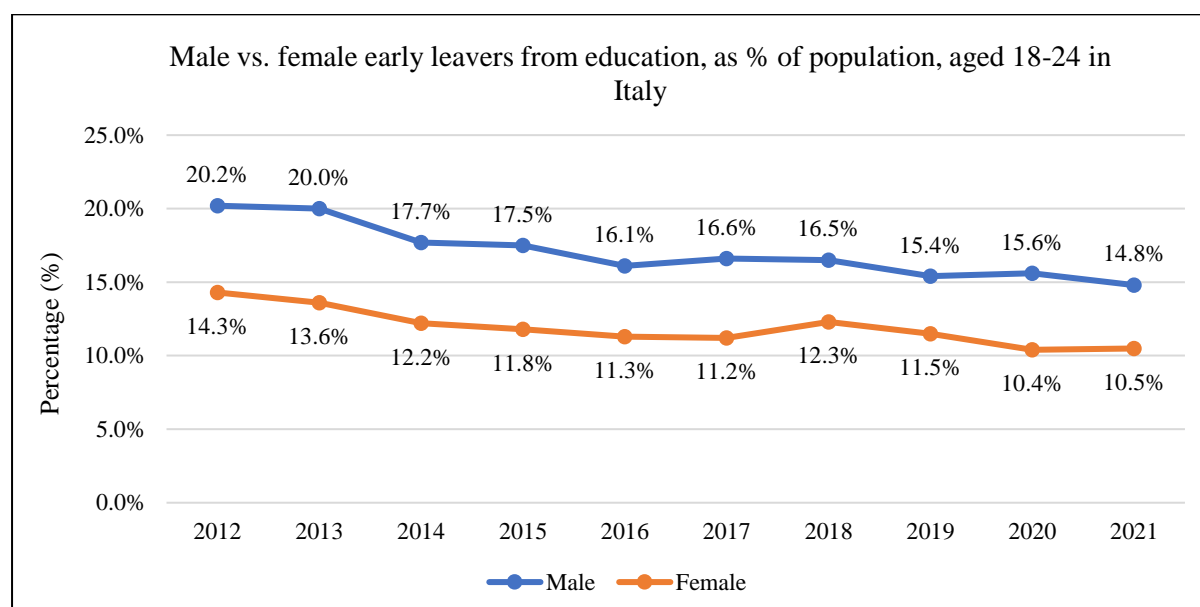


Figure 19. Percentage of male vs. female early leavers from education and training aged 18-24 of total population in Italy for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Early leavers from education and training by sex and labour status" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/edat\\_lfse\\_14/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/edat_lfse_14/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.



As shown in Figure 19, there were more male early leavers from education than female early leavers in Italy over the period of 2012-2021. This is consistent with data presented in Figures 16 and 17, showing a higher number of young women in Italy with upper secondary and tertiary educational attainment.

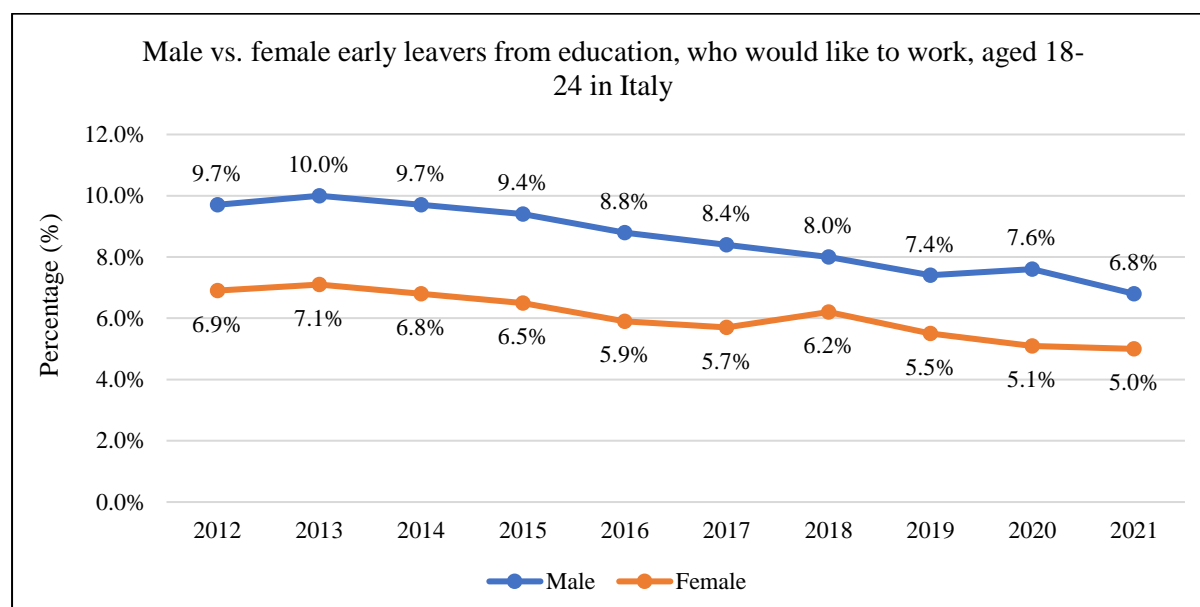


Figure 20. Percentage of male vs. female early leavers from education and training, who would like to work, aged 18-24 in Italy for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Early leavers from education and training by sex and labour status" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/edat\\_lfse\\_14/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/edat_lfse_14/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

Among early leavers in Italy, young males were more willing to work than young females over the period of 2012-2021, as provided in Figure 20. Similar to other countries, this could indicate that young women, who chose to leave education to become housewives, are less likely to actively engage in the labour market.

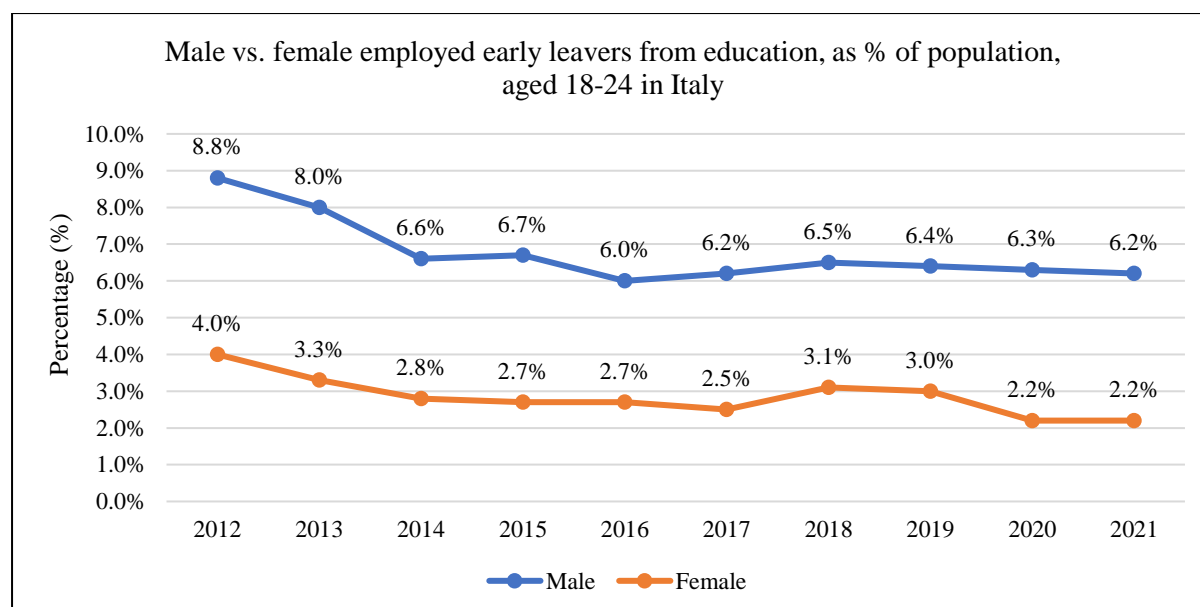


Figure 21. Percentage of male vs. female early leavers from education and training aged 18-24 with employed labour status in Italy for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Early leavers from education and training by sex and labour status" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/edat\\_lfse\\_14/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/edat_lfse_14/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As displayed in Figure 21, more male early leavers were employed than female early leavers in Italy over the period of 2012-2021. While this can be partially attributed to female early leavers being less willing to work, this can also be justified by the fact that female early leavers with no upper secondary or tertiary education are disadvantaged when trying to enter the Italian labour market.

## 5.1.4 Luxembourg

The Luxembourgish education system is divided into primary, post-primary and higher education stages (INFPC, n.d.). All children in Luxembourg are required to complete two years of pre-school education prior to entering the primary school at the age of 6 (INFPC, n.d.). For post-primary education, students have to choose between the classic or technical path, with the latter having further selection of general, technical and vocational programmes (INFPC, n.d.). Finally, students in higher education can obtain a standard university diploma, a higher technician diploma (Brevet de Technicien Supérieur) or a diploma of having master skills in a specific area (Brevet de maîtrise) (INFPC, n.d.).

### 5.1.4.1 Formal Education

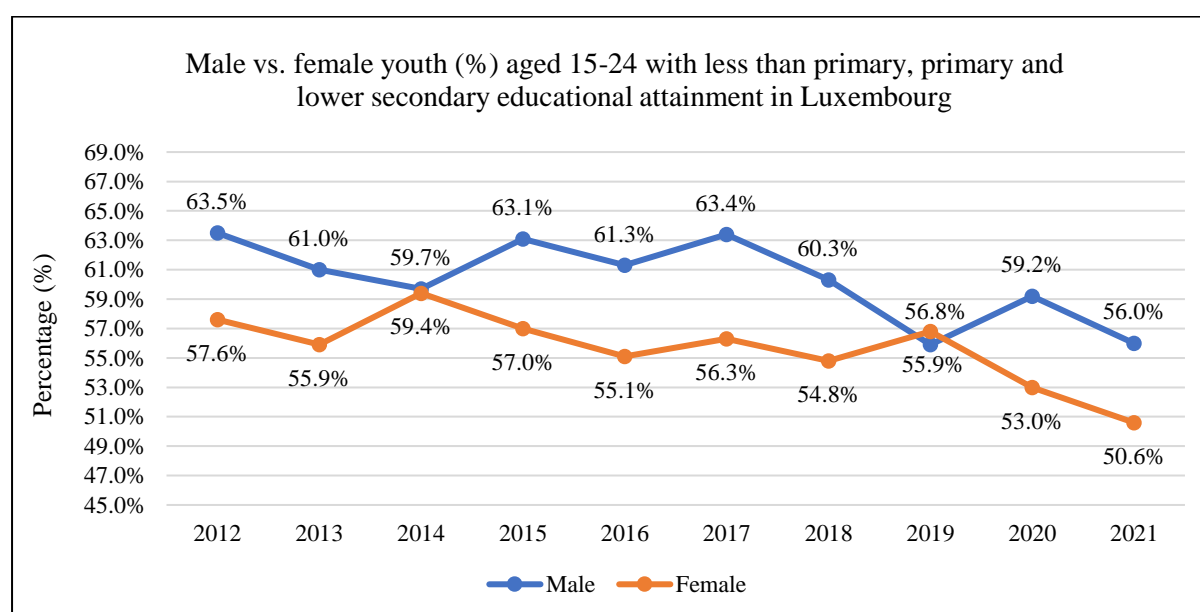


Figure 22. Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment level in Luxembourg for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Young people by educational attainment level, sex and age" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_DEMO\\_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth\\_educ](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_DEMO_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth_educ)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As shown in Figure 22, the share of young males with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment was higher than the share of young females in Luxembourg during 2012-2021, with the exception of 2019. The shares of both young males and females with primary and lower secondary educational attainment reduced in 2021, indicating the negative impacts of Covid-19 on students' ability to complete their studies.

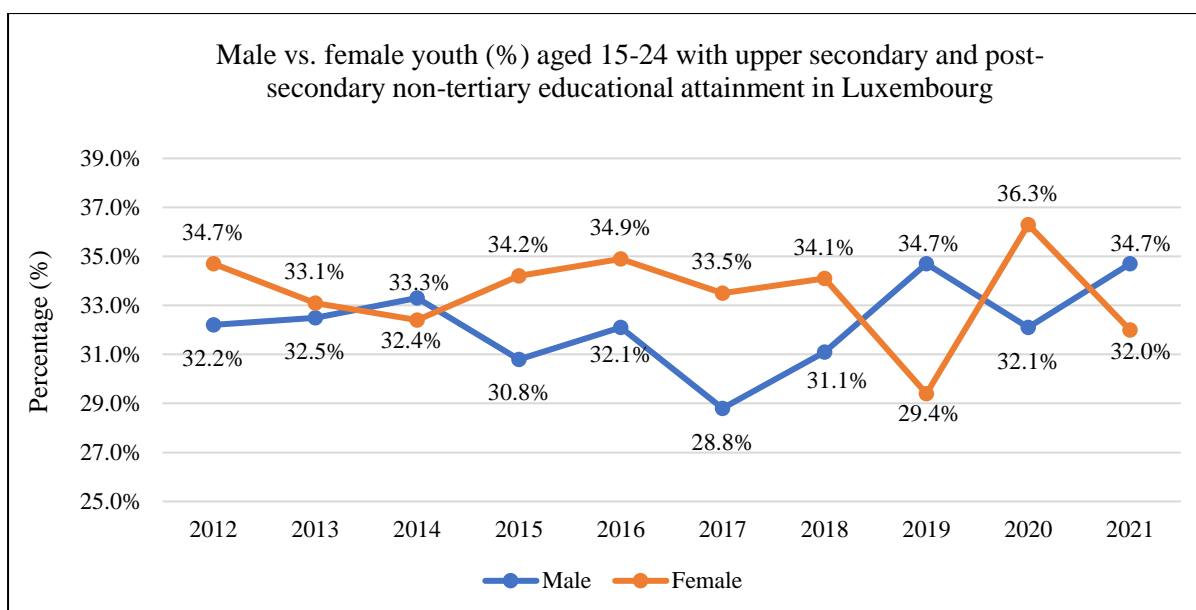


Figure 23. Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment level in Luxembourg for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Young people by educational attainment level, sex and age" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_DEMO\\_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth\\_educ](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_DEMO_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth_educ)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As can be seen in Figure 23, the shares of young males and females with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment were fluctuating in Luxembourg during 2012-2021, with young women generally dominating. Moreover, there was an inconsistency between the changes in the shares of young males and females during Covid-19, with the shares of young men decreasing in 2020 and increasing in 2021, and the shares of young women increasing in 2020 and decreasing in 2021.

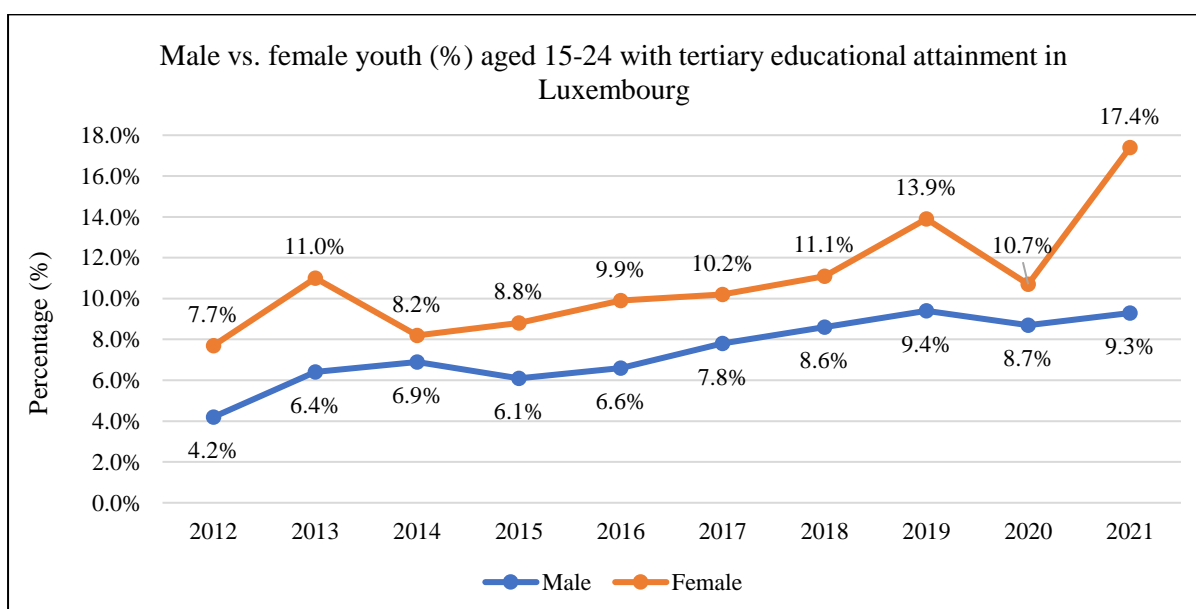


Figure 24. Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 with tertiary educational attainment level in Luxembourg for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Young people by educational attainment level, sex and age" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_DEMO\\_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth\\_educ](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_DEMO_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth_educ)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As provided in Figure 24, there were more young females with tertiary educational attainment than young males in Luxembourg over the entire period of 2012-2021, with both genders experiencing an upward trend due to the general tertiary education expansion in the EU (OECD, 2013). There was a decline both in young men and women with tertiary educational attainment in Luxembourg in 2020 due to Covid-19. However, both shares increased in 2021 due to the relaxation of restrictions, although the number of young males had a slower growth. A higher share of young females with tertiary educational attainment in Luxembourg can be explained not just by the willingness of young women to gain an advantage in the labour market, but also by the active promotion of higher education for women in Luxembourg (Research Luxembourg, 2022). For example, the Ministry of Equality in Luxembourg designed videos showing success stories of women in science to encourage young girls to pursue tertiary education in the scientific study fields (Research Luxembourg, 2022).

### 5.1.4.2 Non-Formal Education

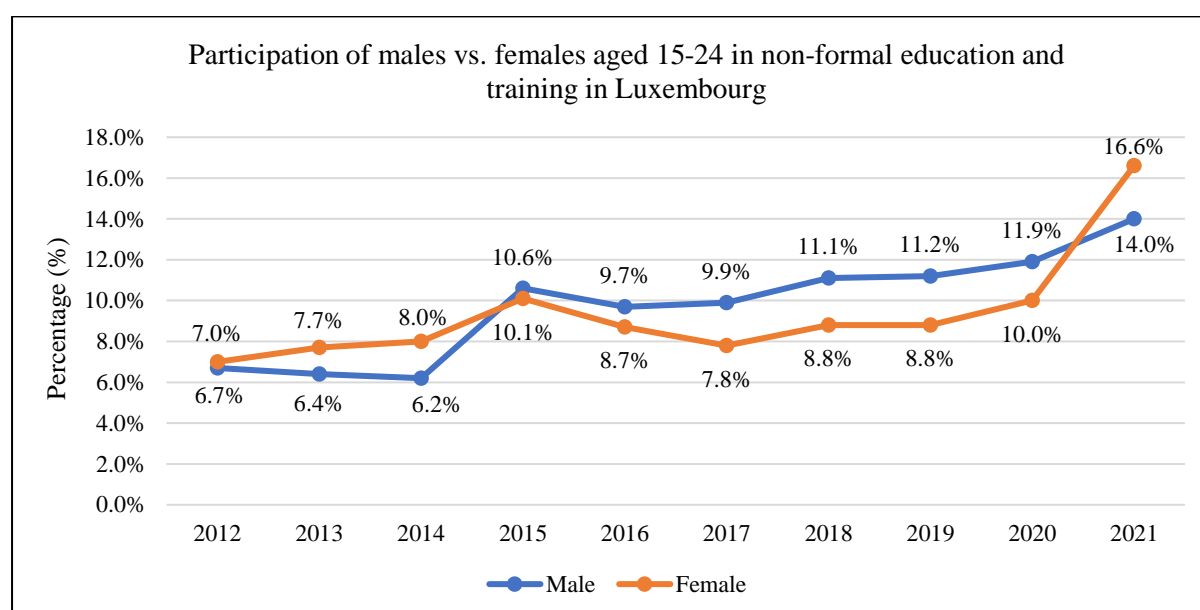


Figure 25. Participation rate (%) of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 in non-formal education and training in Luxembourg for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Participation rate in non-formal education and training (last 4 weeks) by sex and age" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_EDUC\\_060/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_EDUC_060/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As displayed in Figure 25, the participation rate of young females in non-formal education was lower than the participation rate of young males in Luxembourg since 2015, however, it experienced a sharp increase in 2021, surpassing the participation of young men. Interestingly, there were no declines in the participation of both genders in non-formal training during Covid-19, which can be explained by a high level of digital literacy in Luxembourg. In 2021, Luxembourg was ranked 4<sup>th</sup> in the EU in terms of the connectivity in the country, 6<sup>th</sup> in the EU for its digital society index and had almost a perfect score (97/100) for supplying businesses with digital public resources and tools (Schnuer, 2022). Therefore, digital transition of businesses and institutions during Covid-19 was more effective in Luxembourg, with majority of non-formal education courses already existing in online versions.

### 5.1.4.3 Early Leavers

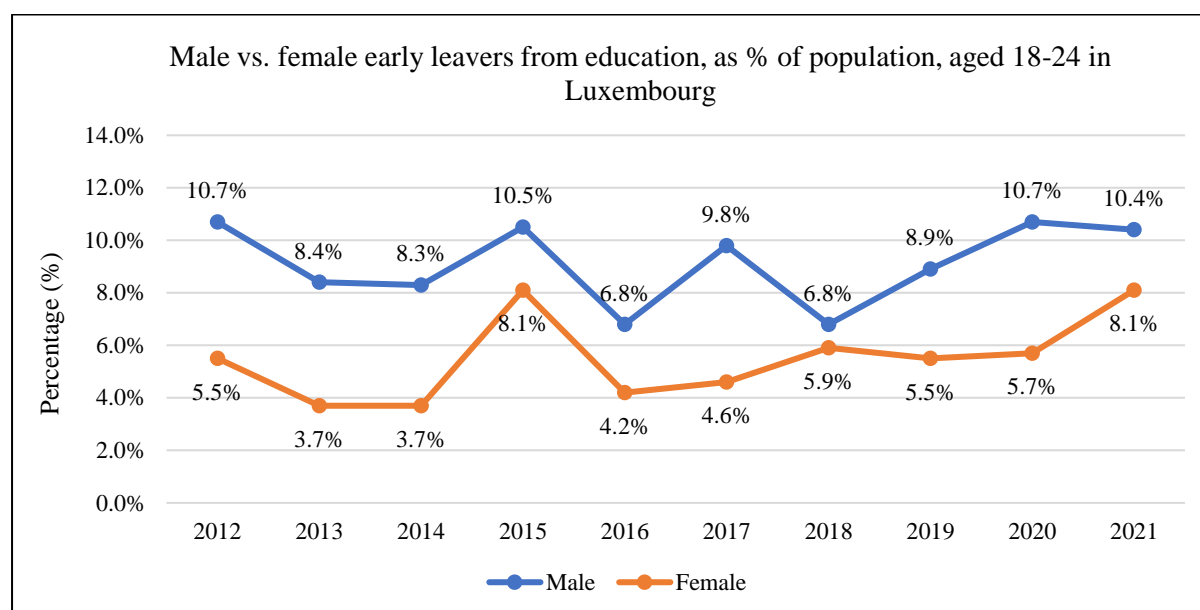


Figure 26. Percentage of male vs. female early leavers from education and training aged 18-24 of total population in Luxembourg for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Early leavers from education and training by sex and labour status" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/edat\\_lfse\\_14/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/edat_lfse_14/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As shown in Figure 26, there were more male early leavers from education than female early leavers in Luxembourg over the entire period of 2012-2021. This is consistent with a higher participation of young women in tertiary education in Luxembourg, as provided in Figure 24. No sufficient data on the willingness to work for early leavers from education by gender is available for Luxembourg, preventing further discussion on their employment status.

### 5.1.5 Slovakia

In Slovakia, the education system is also divided into primary, secondary and tertiary education. Attending primary school is compulsory for all children aged 6 with or without an optional pre-school education (The International Union of Youth, n.d.). For mandatory secondary education, students can choose between colleges, general or specialised secondary schools and gymnasiums (Scholaro Database, n.d.) (The International Union of Youth, n.d.). After completing their secondary education, students can enrol into universities to complete Bachelor, Master or PhD degrees for tertiary education (The International Union of Youth, n.d.).

### 5.1.5.1 Formal Education

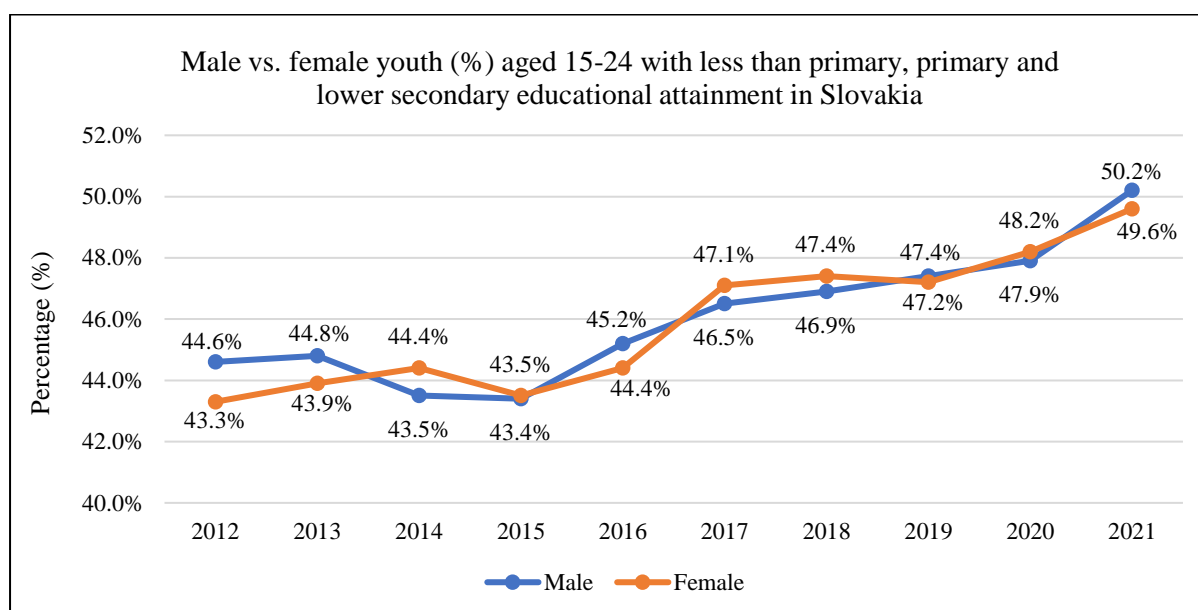


Figure 27. Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment level in Slovakia for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Young people by educational attainment level, sex and age" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_DEMO\\_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth\\_educ](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_DEMO_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth_educ)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As can be seen in Figure 27, there was no clear domination of either gender with less than primary, primary or lower secondary educational attainment level in Slovakia over the period of 2012-2021. Generally, the shares of both young males and females with primary or lower secondary educational attainment in Slovakia increased throughout the decade, with very small gaps between the genders.

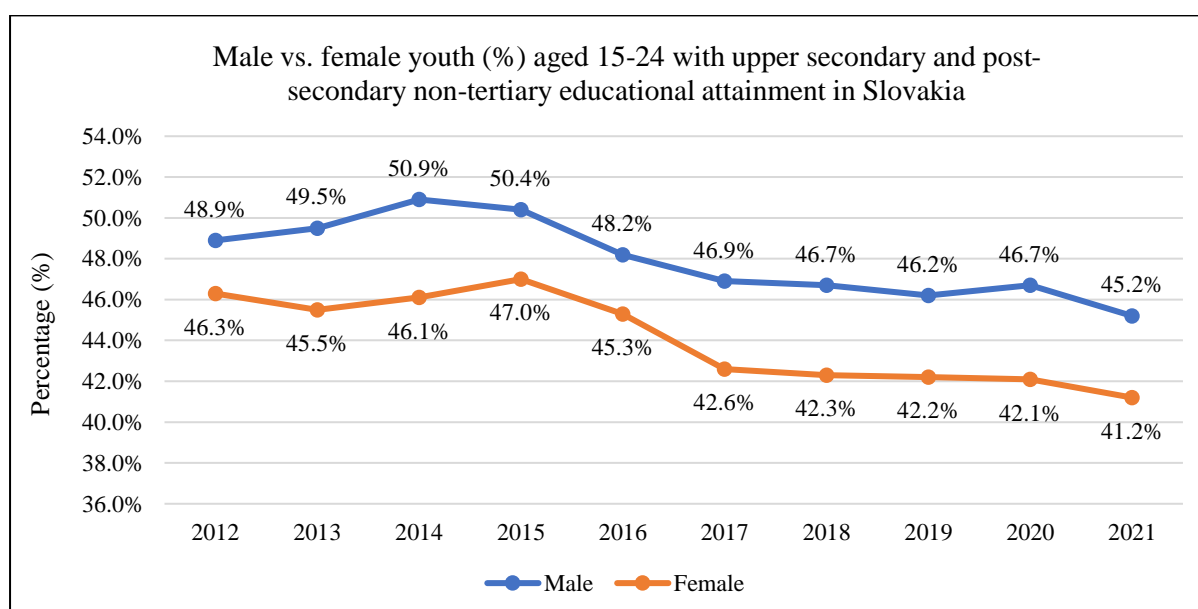


Figure 28. Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment level in Slovakia for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Young people by educational attainment level, sex and age" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_DEMO\\_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth\\_educ](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_DEMO_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth_educ)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As shown in Figure 28, there were more young males with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment than young females in Slovakia over the entire period of 2012-2021. There was a slight decline in the shares of both young males and females with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment in Slovakia in 2021, reflecting the negative consequences of Covid-19 on students' ability to obtain qualifications.

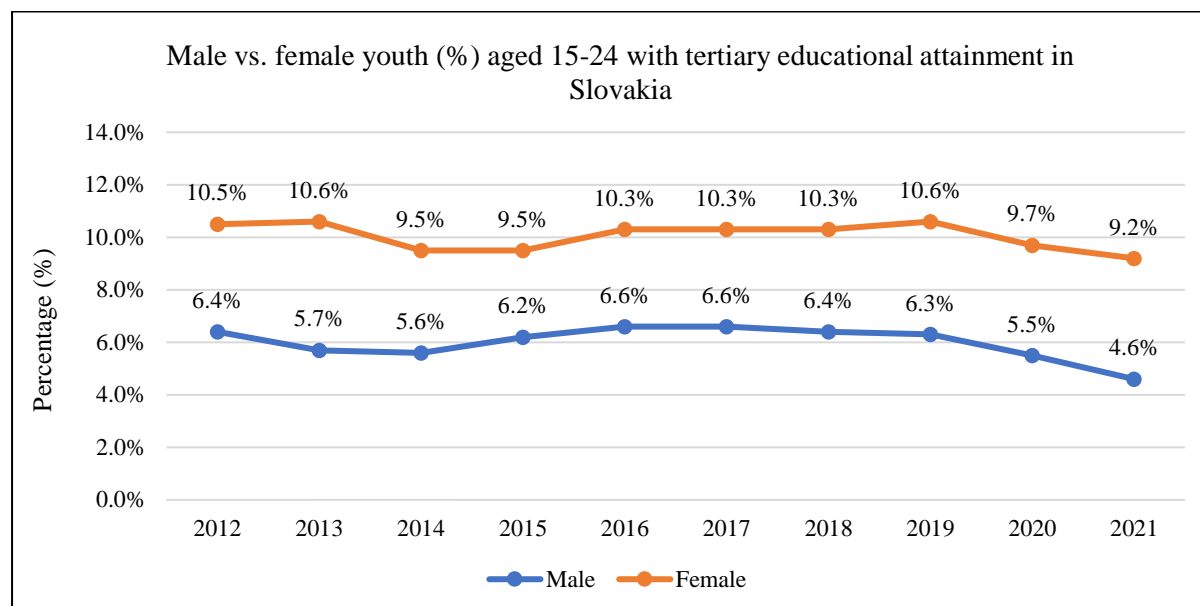


Figure 29. Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 with tertiary educational attainment level in Slovakia for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Young people by educational attainment level, sex and age" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_DEMO\\_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth\\_educ](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_DEMO_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth_educ)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As can be seen in Figure 29, there were more young females with tertiary educational attainment in Slovakia than young males over the entire period of 2012-2021. The positive impact of having tertiary educational attainment for young females, when entering the labour market, is significant in the Baltic countries and Eastern European countries, especially Lithuania, Estonia and Poland (OECD, 2021). Slovakia is no exception to this, therefore, young women are dedicated to obtaining tertiary education in order to reduce the risk of being unemployed, resulting in a higher number of young females with tertiary educational attainment in Slovakia.

### 5.1.5.2 Non-Formal Education

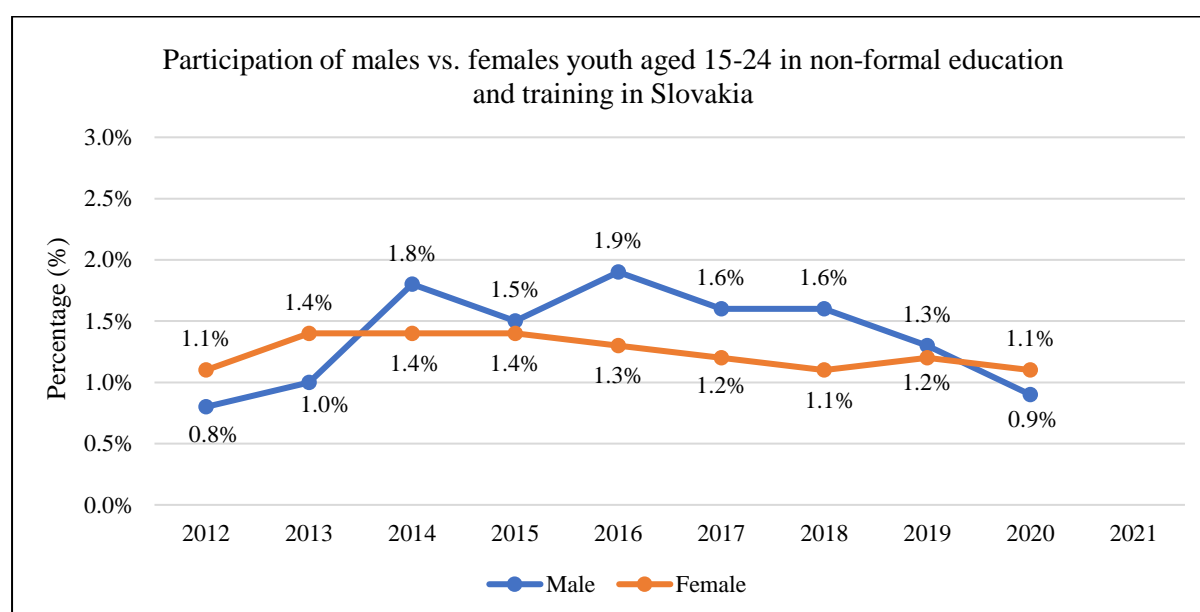


Figure 30. Participation rate (%) of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 in non-formal education and training in Slovakia for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Participation rate in non-formal education and training (last 4 weeks) by sex and age" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_EDUC\\_060/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_EDUC_060/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As displayed in Figure 30, the participation rate of young males in non-formal education and training in Slovakia was higher than of young females for majority of years during the period of 2012-2020, with no data available for 2021. In 2020, the participation rates of both genders in non-formal education in Slovakia decreased due to Covid-19 restrictions. Generally, the participation rates of young men and women in non-formal education in Slovakia were much lower than the average participation rates of young men and women in the EU over the period of 2012-2021 (note: see Figure A.2 in Appendices).

### 5.1.5.3 Early Leavers

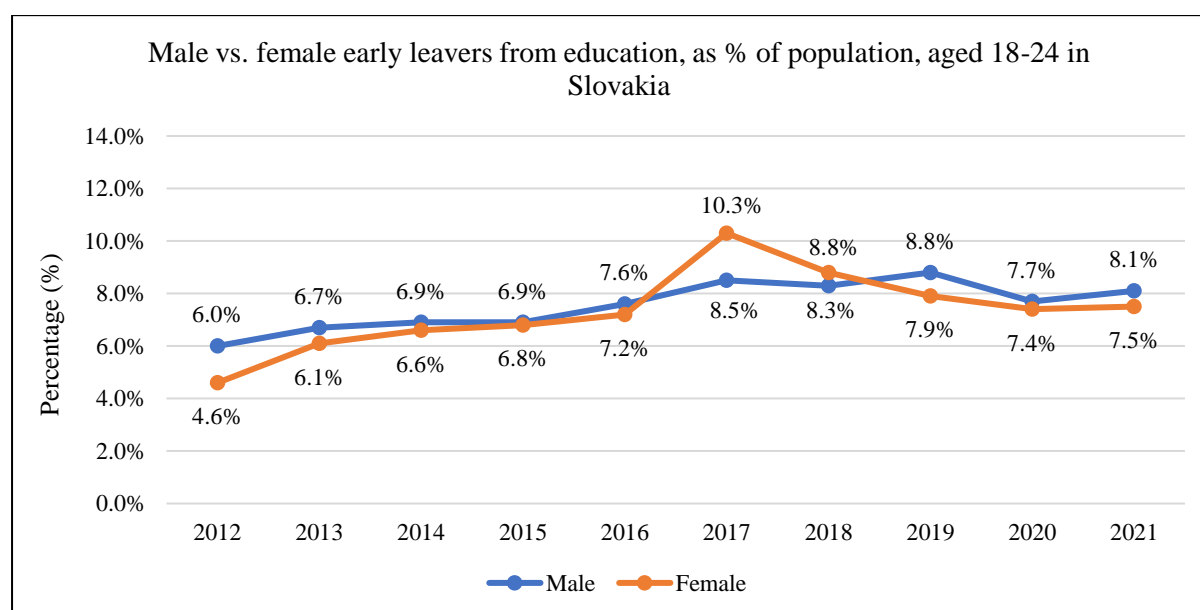


Figure 31. Percentage of male vs. female early leavers from education and training aged 18-24 of total population in Slovakia for years 2012-2021.



Note: Data adapted from: “Early leavers from education and training by sex and labour status” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/edat\\_lfse\\_14/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/edat_lfse_14/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As can be seen in Figure 31, there were more male early leavers from education in Slovakia than female early leavers over the period of 2012-2021, with the exception of 2017. Nonetheless, the gaps between the genders were fairly small throughout the decade. The increases in female early leavers in Slovakia in 2017-2018 are consistent with the declines in the share of young women with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment in Slovakia in the same years, as given in Figure 28, indicating that more female students left education early.

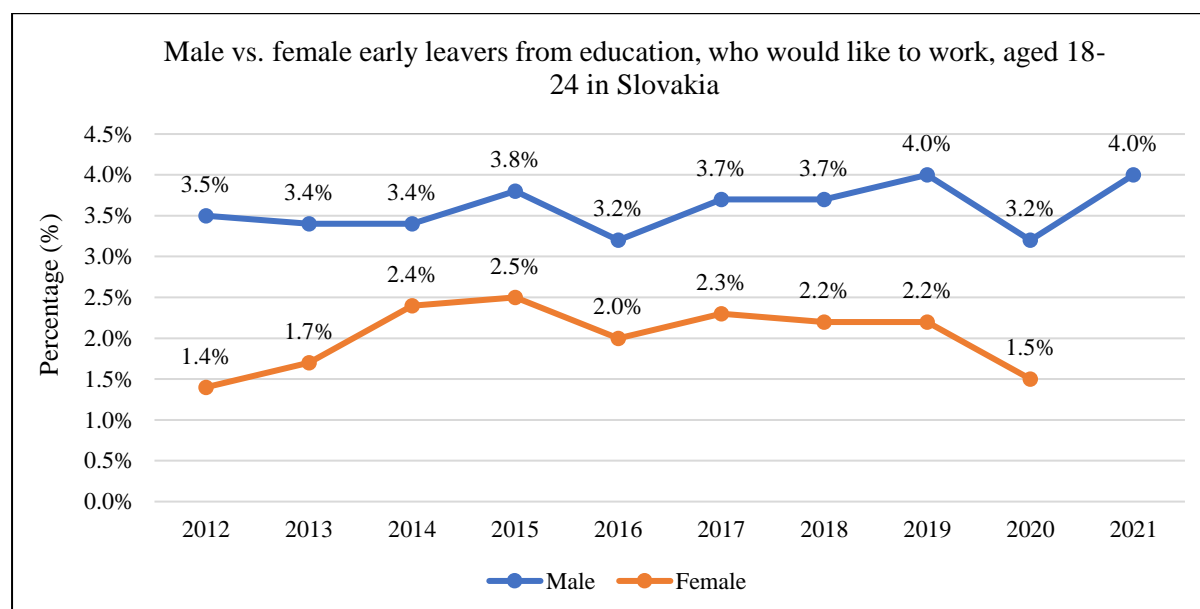


Figure 32. Percentage of male vs. female early leavers from education and training, who would like to work, aged 18-24 in Slovakia for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: “Early leavers from education and training by sex and labour status” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/edat\\_lfse\\_14/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/edat_lfse_14/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

Figure 32 shows that male early leavers in Slovakia were more willing to work than female early leavers over the period of 2012-2021. Similar to other countries, this can be explained by women leaving education to care for family and not being actively present in the labour market. No sufficient data on employed young male and female early leavers from education in Slovakia is available for meaningful conclusions, therefore, data on unemployed young male and female early leavers is provided in Figure 33 below:

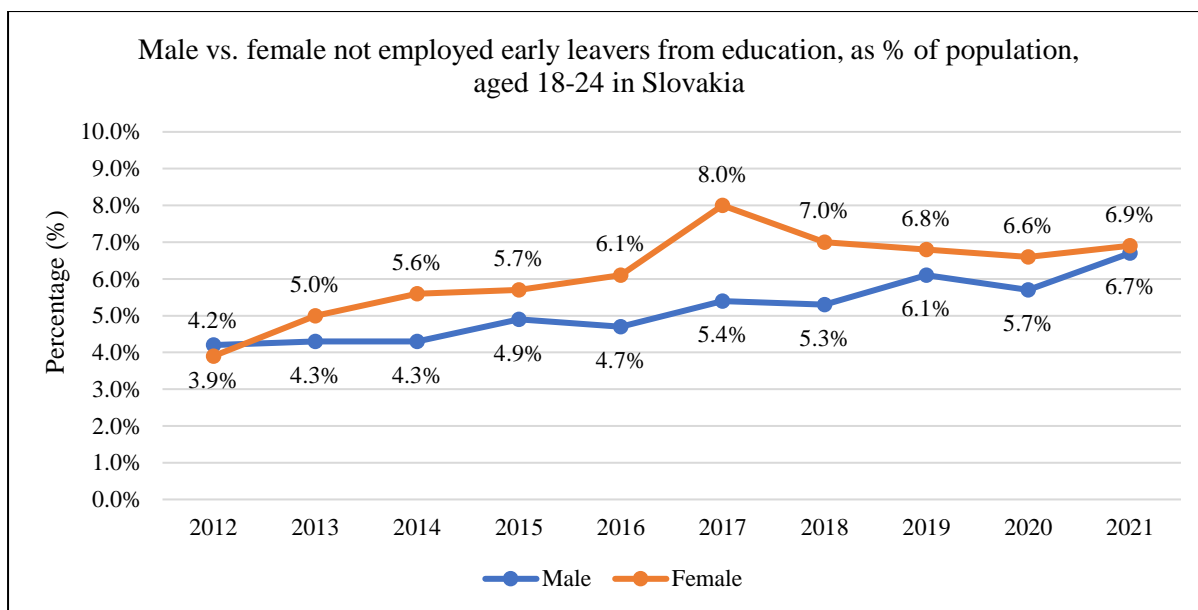


Figure 33. Percentage of male vs. female early leavers from education and training aged 18-24 with not employed labour status in Slovakia for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Early leavers from education and training by sex and labour status" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/edat\\_lfse\\_14/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/edat_lfse_14/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As shown in Figure 33, there were more unemployed female early leavers from education in Slovakia than male early leavers over the period of 2013-2021, with 2012 being the exception. Over time, the shares of unemployed early leavers of both genders increased in Slovakia. This indicates that having no upper secondary and tertiary education makes it more difficult for young people to enter the labour market, with young women being more disadvantaged.

### 5.1.6 Spain

In contrast to other countries, the Spanish education system is divided into just primary and secondary phases. Children can receive optional pre-school education in a nursery (*guardería*) prior to entering the mandatory primary school at the age of 6 (Wise, 2018). Students then continue to obtain compulsory lower secondary education in schools until the age of 16 (Wise, 2018). Upper secondary education is optional, with the choice of completing either the Spanish Baccalaureate (*Bachillerato*) or vocational training (Study in Spain, n.d.). Receiving *Bachillerato* certificate allows students to enter universities for tertiary education, which still falls under 'secondary education' stage in Spain (Study in Spain, n.d.).

### 5.1.6.1 Formal Education

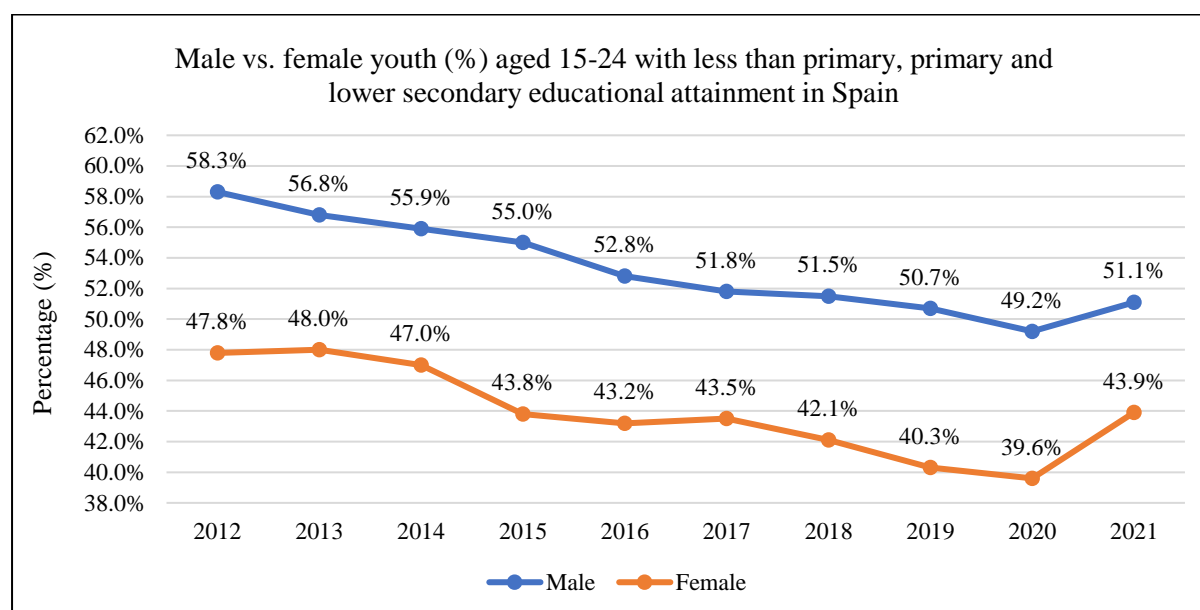


Figure 34. Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment level in Spain for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: “Young people by educational attainment level, sex and age” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_DEMO\\_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth\\_educ](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_DEMO_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth_educ)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As can be seen in Figure 34, there were more young males with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment in Spain than young females over the period of 2012-2021, with fairly big gaps between the two genders. In 2020, the shares of both young males and females declined due to Covid-19 restrictions, however, they increased again in 2021 after the restrictions were eased.

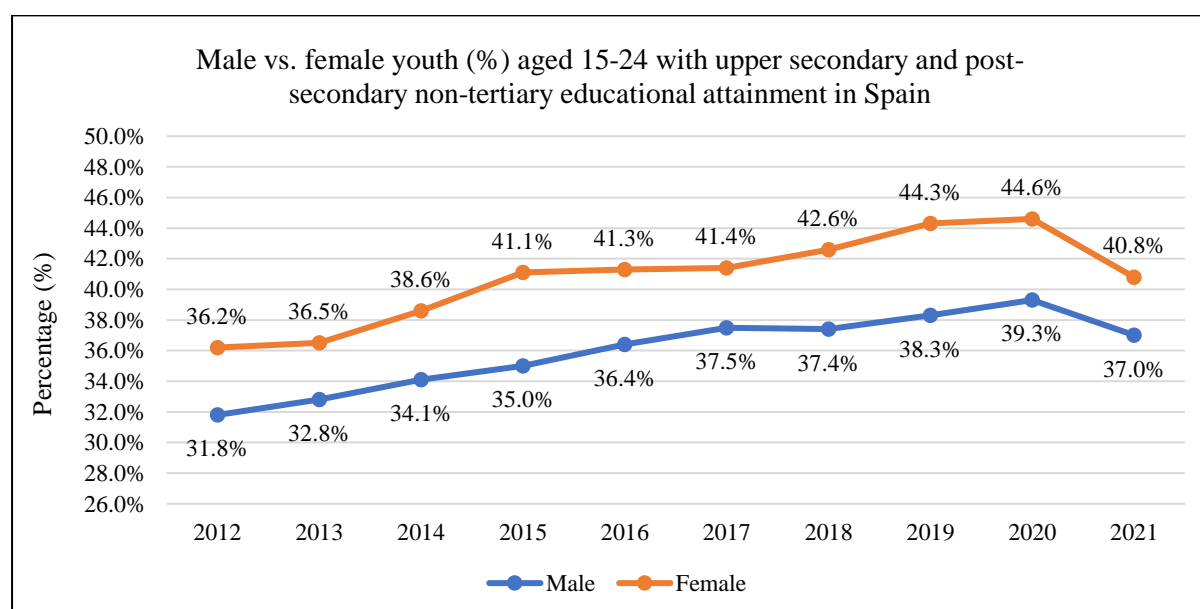


Figure 35. Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment level in Spain for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: “Young people by educational attainment level, sex and age” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_DEMO\\_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth\\_educ](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_DEMO_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth_educ)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

Figure 35 shows that there were more young females with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment in Spain than young males over years 2012-2021. This is driven by the fact that having upper secondary educational attainment increases the chances of young women to enter the Spanish labour market (OECD, 2021). There was a decline in the shares of both young males and females in 2021, reflecting the negative impact of Covid-19 on student completion of higher education.

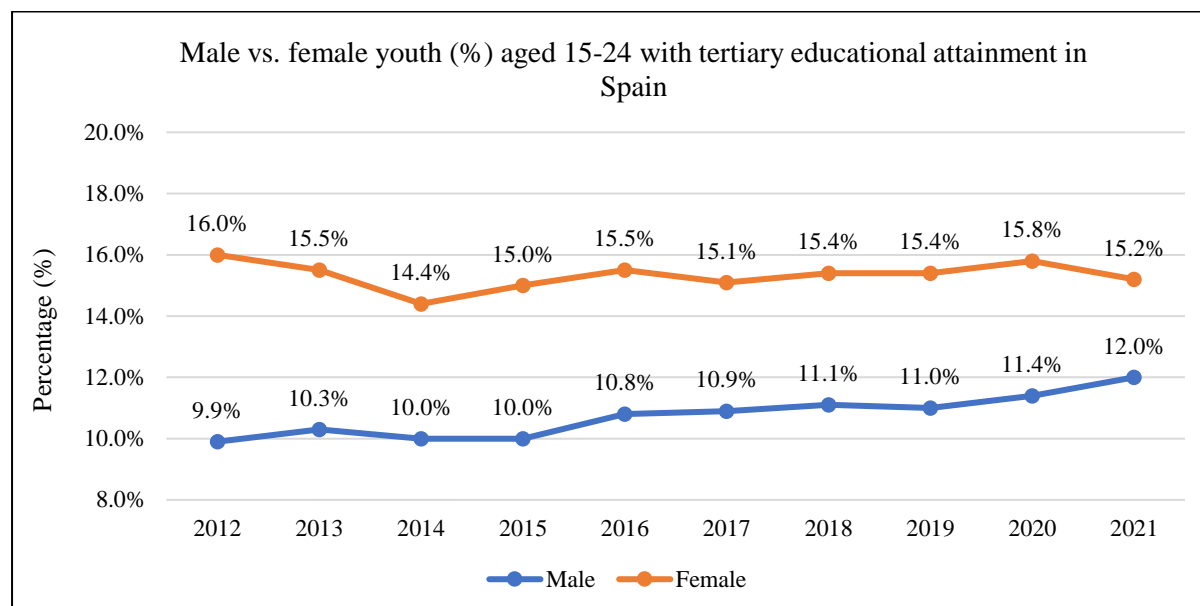


Figure 36. Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 with tertiary educational attainment level in Spain for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: “Young people by educational attainment level, sex and age” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_DEMO\\_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth\\_educ](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_DEMO_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth_educ)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As displayed in Figure 36, there were more young females with tertiary educational attainment in Spain than young males over the entire period of 2012-2021. This is justified by the fact that young females with upper secondary education are more likely to be unemployed than young males with the same educational attainment level in Spain (OECD, 2021). Therefore, young women are motivated to complete tertiary education in order to increase their competitiveness in the Spanish labour market and reduce the risk of being unemployed (OECD, 2021).

### 5.1.6.2 Non-Formal Education

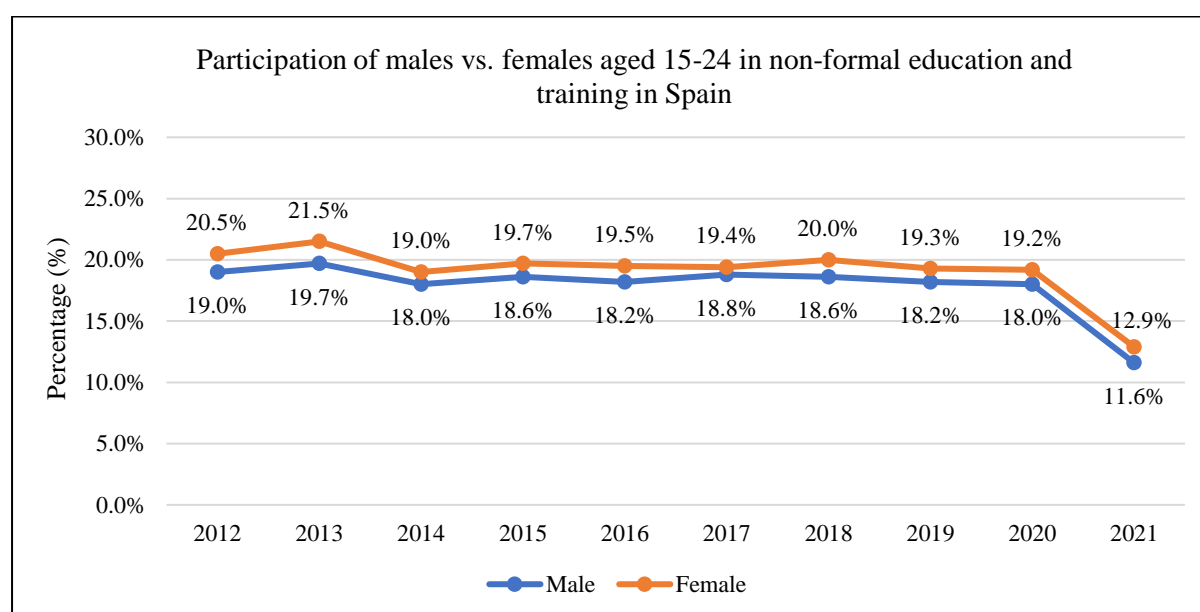


Figure 37. Participation rate (%) of male vs. female youth aged 15-24 in non-formal education and training in Spain for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Participation rate in non-formal education and training (last 4 weeks) by sex and age" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_EDUC\\_060/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_EDUC_060/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As shown in Figure 37, the participation rate of young females in non-formal education in Spain was slightly higher than of young males, with both genders experiencing almost identical trends over the period of 2012-2021. Due to Covid-19, there was a decline in both young male and female participation rates in non-formal education in 2021, with many restrictions still being in place in the first half of 2021 in Spain (The Local, 2021).

### 5.1.6.3 Early Leavers

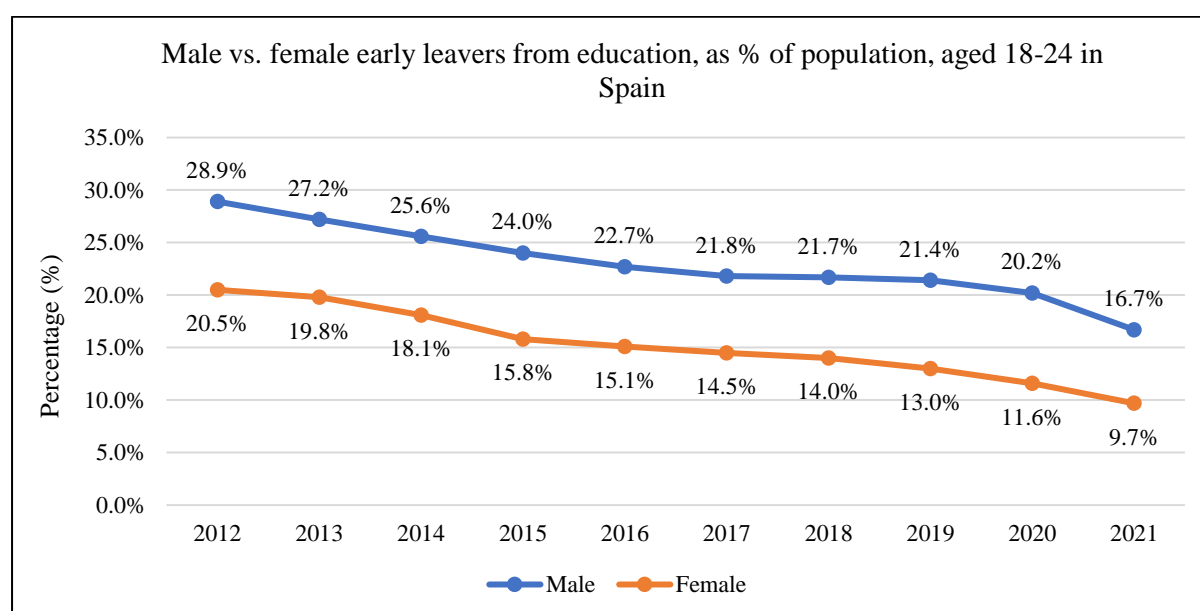


Figure 38. Percentage of male vs. female early leavers from education and training aged 18-24 of total population in Spain for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Early leavers from education and training by sex and labour status" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/edat\\_lfse\\_14/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/edat_lfse_14/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As presented in Figure 38, there were more male early leavers from education in Spain than female early leavers over the period of 2012-2021. This is consistent with more young women having upper secondary and tertiary educational attainment level in Spain for the same time period instead of leaving education early, as shown in Figures 35 and 36. Moreover, the shares of both male and female early leavers in Spain were much higher than the average shares of young male and female early leavers in the EU over the period of 2012-2021 (*note: see Figure A.3 in Appendices*).

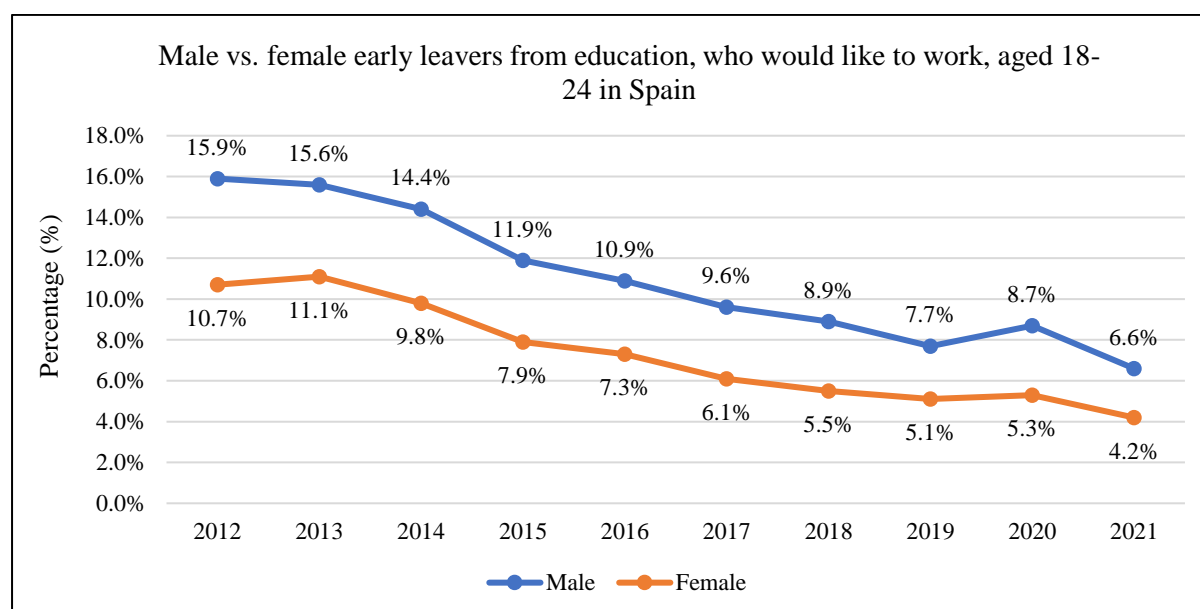
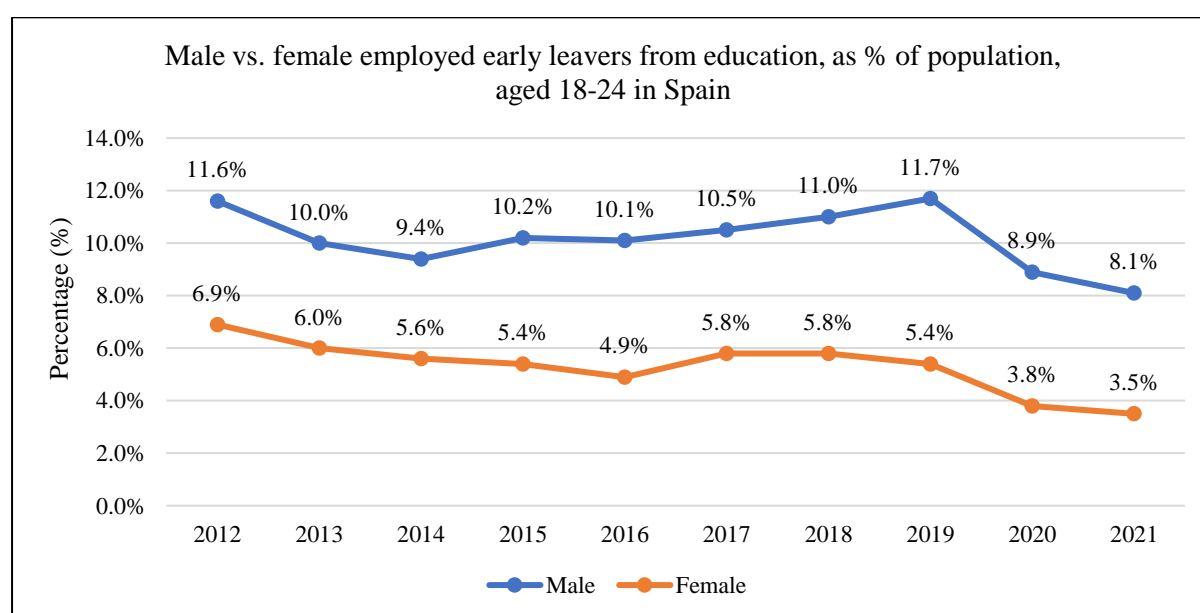


Figure 39. Percentage of male vs. female early leavers from education and training, who would like to work, aged 18-24 in Spain for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Early leavers from education and training by sex and labour status" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/edat\\_lfse\\_14/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/edat_lfse_14/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As can be seen in Figure 39, more male early leavers from education were willing to work than female early leavers in Spain over the period of 2012-2021. As previously mentioned with other countries, this can be explained by the fact that young women, who leave education early to become housewives, are less likely to be active in the labour market due to family care.



*Figure 40. Percentage of male vs. female early leavers from education and training aged 18-24 with employed labour status in Spain for years 2012-2021.*

*Note: Data adapted from: "Early leavers from education and training by sex and labour status" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/edat\\_lfse\\_14/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/edat_lfse_14/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.*

Figure 40 shows that more male early leavers from education in Spain were employed than female early leavers over the entire period of 2012-2021. There are significant gaps between the numbers of employed male and female early leavers in Spain, with the latter being more than twice as low as the former in 2020 and 2021. This can be justified by female early leavers being less willing to work than their male counterparts and having more challenges when trying to enter the Spanish labour market with no upper secondary or tertiary education.

### **5.1.7 Summary**

In terms of the educational attainment over the period of 2012-2021, there were more young females with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment in Italy and Spain. France, Luxembourg and Finland experienced fluctuating trends and Slovakia had more young males with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment. Over the period of 2012-2021, there were more young females with tertiary educational attainment in all six countries. Overall, there were more young women aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary education in all selected countries, except for Slovakia (*note: see Figures A.4-A.9 in Appendices*). This leads to a conclusion that young females have been generally more engaged in higher education in all countries over the last decade, apart from Slovakia. Moreover, the completion of tertiary education by female youth in France, Luxembourg and Spain exceeded the average level of the EU (*note: see Figure A.1 in Appendices*).

In terms of the non-formal education and training, young female participation rates were higher than young male participation rates in Finland and Spain over the period of 2012-2021, while the opposite was true for France, Italy and Slovakia, with the exception of specific years. For the same time period, the participation rates of young women in non-formal education and training in Finland, France and Spain were higher than the EU average, with France having the highest rates, however, they were lower in Italy and Slovakia, with Slovakia having the lowest rates (*note: see Figure A.2 in Appendices*).

In terms of the early leavers from education over the period of 2012-2021, there were more male early leavers than female early leavers in all six countries. Furthermore, among early leavers in all countries, excluding Luxembourg due to not having sufficient data, there were fewer employed female early leavers, however, the willingness to work for female leavers was also lower. Comparing to the average number of female early leavers from education in the EU, the number of female early leavers was higher in Italy and Spain, with Spain having the most, and was lower in France, Luxembourg, Slovakia and Finland, with Luxembourg having the fewest (*note: see Figure A.3 in Appendices*).

## **5.2 Youth Volunteering**

The following subsection focuses on exploring trends in youth volunteering in the selected countries. Currently, there is a significant lack of data on youth volunteering in the EU, as well as volunteering per se. Therefore, the types of data discussed in this section vary for each country based on individual country reports and general data from public sources. Furthermore, given the limited availability of data on youth volunteering, data on volunteers from several age groups and the general number of volunteers are used to support the discussion, however, the discussion is limited to specific years for which the data is available. As opposed to other sections, the order of the subsections for each country for this subsection is not consistent due to the variations in the available data.

This subsection presents the data on two types of volunteering – formal and informal. Formal volunteering, also known as organisation-based volunteering, is volunteering work, which is conducted through an organisation or a club, with specified number of hours and role descriptions (Community Southwark, 2020). In contrast, informal volunteering, also known as direct volunteering, is volunteering

work, which is carried out by people helping other individuals, who are not part of their family (Community Southwark, 2020). Such work is not done through any organisation, with examples including beach clean-up and neighbour help (Community Southwark, 2020).

## 5.2.1 Finland

### 5.2.1.1 Number of Volunteers

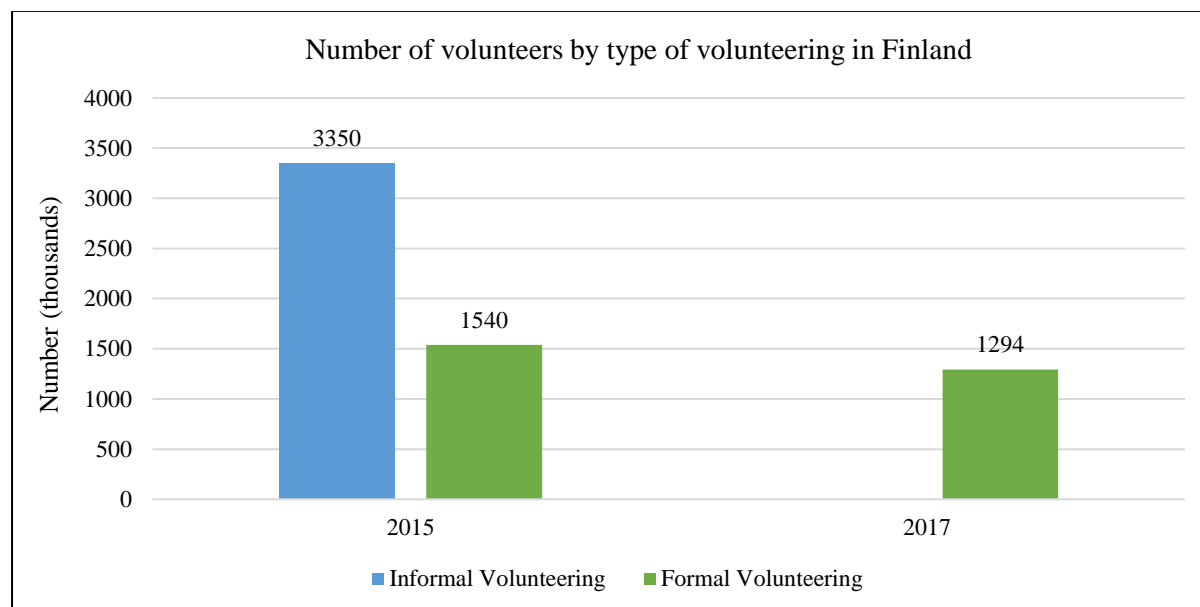
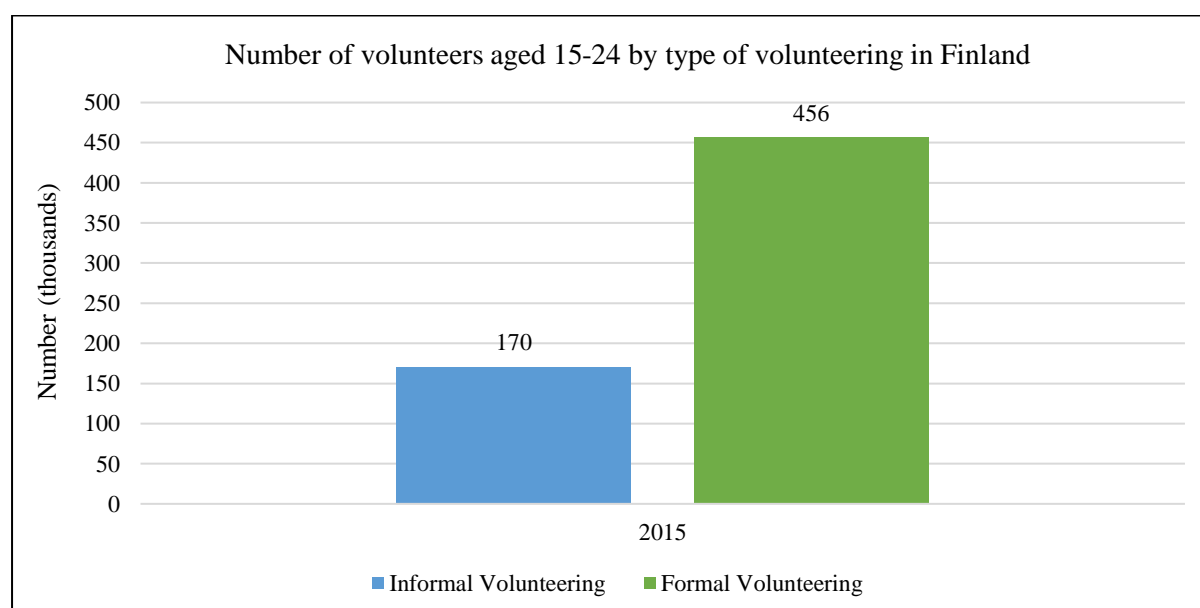


Figure 41. Number of volunteers by type of volunteering in Finland for years 2015 and 2017.

Note: Data adapted from: "Volunteering Database: Finland" by UN Volunteers, 2022, (<https://knowledge.unv.org/country/finland>). (UN Volunteers, 2022). Copyright 2022 by UN Volunteers.

As can be seen in Figure 41 above, the total number of informal volunteers exceeded the total number of formal volunteers by more than twice in Finland in 2015. This implies that majority of volunteer work was direct and not carried out through an organisation in Finland in 2015. The number of formal volunteers further reduced in 2017, having a decline of 15.97% over the period of 2015-2017 (*note: data for informal volunteering numbers in Finland in 2017 was not available*).

### 5.2.1.2 Number of Young Volunteers



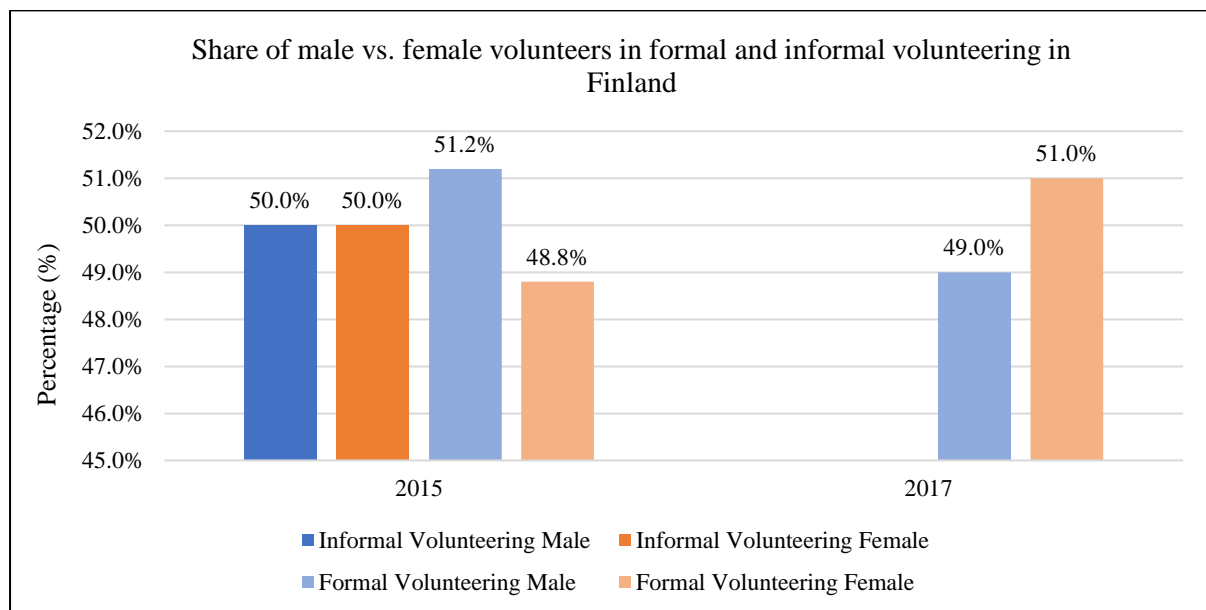


*Figure 42. Number of volunteers aged 15-24 by type of volunteering in Finland in 2015.*

*Note: Data adapted from: "Number of volunteers by age and type of volunteer work (thousands) - Annual" by ILOSTAT, 2015, ([https://www.ilo.org/shinyapps/bulkexplorer32/?lang=en&segment=indicator&id=FOW\\_TVOL\\_AGE\\_VOL\\_NB\\_A](https://www.ilo.org/shinyapps/bulkexplorer32/?lang=en&segment=indicator&id=FOW_TVOL_AGE_VOL_NB_A)). (ILOSTAT, 2015). Copyright 2022 by ILOSTAT.*

Figure 42 shows that, in contrast to the general population, there were more formal than informal volunteers amongst youth in Finland in 2015. This implies that young people preferred volunteering through organisations. This is attributed to the fact that formal volunteering has important benefits for young people, including supervision by an assigned manager, acquisition of transferrable skills and a formal recognition of volunteering activities in one's resume (Community Southwark, 2020). Such benefits are important for young people at the start of their careers, explaining their willingness to participate in formal volunteering more. Generally, young informal volunteers represented 5.08% of the total number of informal volunteers and young formal volunteers represented 29.61% of the total number of formal volunteers in Finland in 2015.

### 5.2.1.3 Male vs. Female Formal and Informal Volunteers



*Figure 43. Share of male vs. female volunteers by type of volunteering in Finland for years 2015 and 2017.*

*Note: Data adapted from: "Volunteering Database: Finland" by UN Volunteers, 2022, (<https://knowledge.unv.org/country/finland>). (UN Volunteers, 2022). Copyright 2022 by UN Volunteers.*

As provided in Figure 43, the share of males and females in informal volunteering was equal in Finland in 2015. In contrast, there were more males in formal volunteering than females in Finland for the same year, although the difference was not significant. In 2017, the share of females in formal volunteering in Finland increased, overtaking males, yet the gap still remained relatively small (*note: data for the shares of males and females in informal volunteering in Finland in 2017 was not available*).

### 5.2.1.4 Number of Volunteering Hours

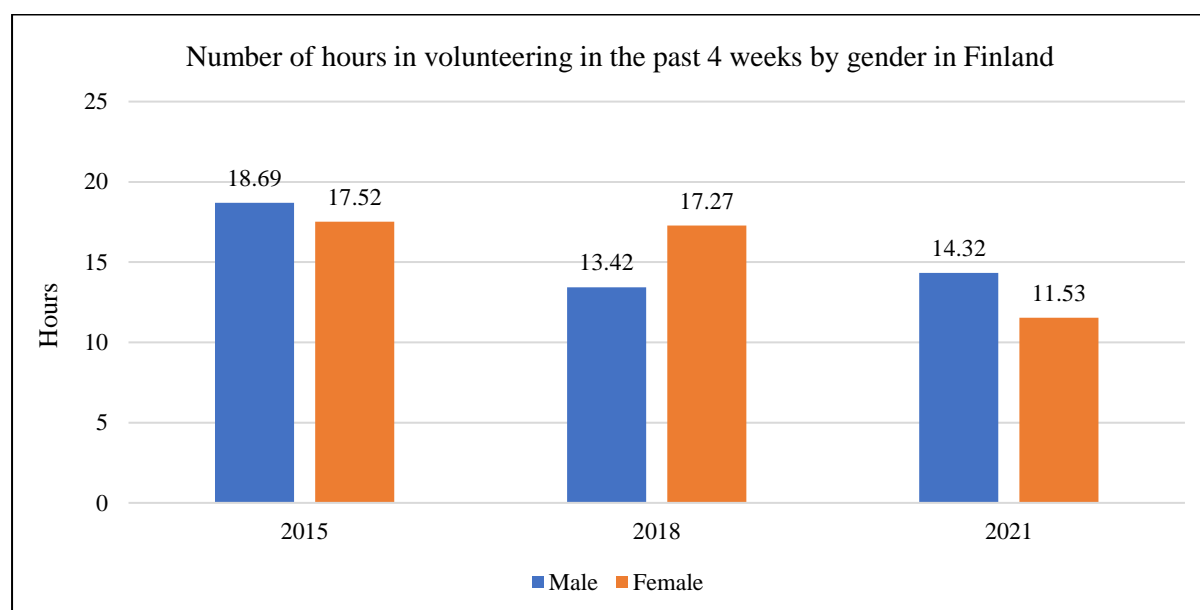


Figure 44. Number of hours in volunteering in the past 4 weeks by gender in Finland for years 2015 (sample size 1,026), 2018 (sample size 1,000) and 2021 (sample size 1,094).

Note: Data adapted from: "Vapaaehtoistyön tekeminen Suomessa" by J. Rahkonen, 2021, ([https://kansalaisareena.fi/wp-content/uploads/2021/05/Vapaaehtoistyö\\_tutkimusraportti\\_2021.pdf](https://kansalaisareena.fi/wp-content/uploads/2021/05/Vapaaehtoistyö_tutkimusraportti_2021.pdf)). (Rahkonen, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Taloustutkimus Oy.

Data presented in Figure 44 above, as well as in other Figures in this subsection, is based on the survey conducted by Taloustutkimus Oy in Finland in 2021, with the representative sample of 1094 people aged 15 and above (Rahkonen, 2021). The results of the survey were weighted in accordance with the Finnish population to ensure a fair representation of age and gender (Rahkonen, 2021). The results of the study conducted in 2021 are compared with the results of the same studies conducted in 2015 and 2018, with sample sizes of 1,026 people and 1,000 people, correspondingly (Taloustutkimus Oy, 2015) (Rahkonen, 2018). Figure 44 shows that the number of hours spent in volunteering in the past 4 weeks at the time of the survey was higher for sampled males in Finland in 2015 and 2021. While it was higher for sampled females in 2018, this was driven by a decrease in the number of hours spent volunteering for men rather than an increase for women. Over the period of 2015-2021, the number of hours spent doing volunteer work decreased for sampled females, with 1.43% decrease from 2015 to 2018 and 33.24% decrease from 2018 to 2021, driven by the negative impacts of Covid-19. A decrease of 28.20% in the number of hours spent in volunteering was also seen for sampled males from 2015 to 2018. Nonetheless, there was an increase of 6.70% for sampled males from 2018 to 2021, yet the number of hours did not reach its 2015 level.

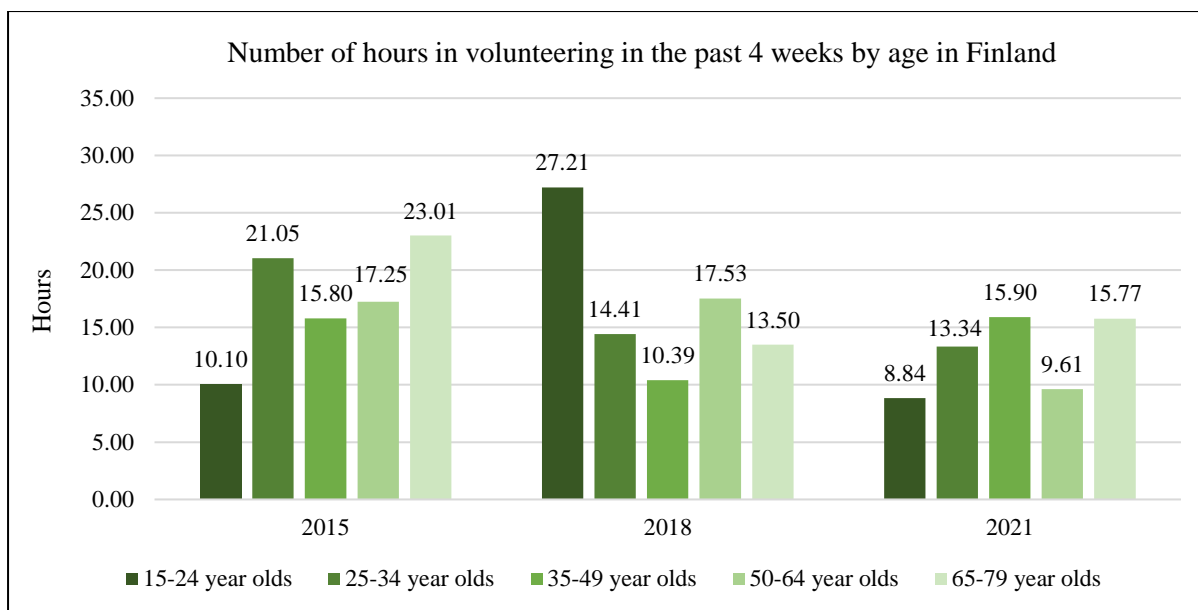


Figure 45. Number of hours in volunteering in the past 4 weeks by age in Finland for years 2015 (sample size 1,026), 2018 (sample size 1,000) and 2021 (sample size 1,094).

Note: Data adapted from: "Vapaaehtoistyön tekeminen Suomessa" by J. Rahkonen, 2021, ([https://kansalaisareena.fi/wp-content/uploads/2021/05/Vapaaehtoistyö\\_tutkimusraportti\\_2021.pdf](https://kansalaisareena.fi/wp-content/uploads/2021/05/Vapaaehtoistyö_tutkimusraportti_2021.pdf)). (Rahkonen, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Taloustutkimus Oy.

When looking at the number of hours spent in volunteering by age groups, as opposed to gender, Figure 45 shows that sampled young people aged 15-24 spent the least number of hours in volunteering in Finland in 2015. Even though they spent the greatest number of hours in volunteering in 2018, with 169.40% increase from 2015 to 2018, the number of hours in volunteering for the Finnish youth decreased by 67.51% from 2018 to 2021, making them the age group with the least number of hours in volunteering again in 2021.

### 5.2.1.5 Willingness to Volunteer

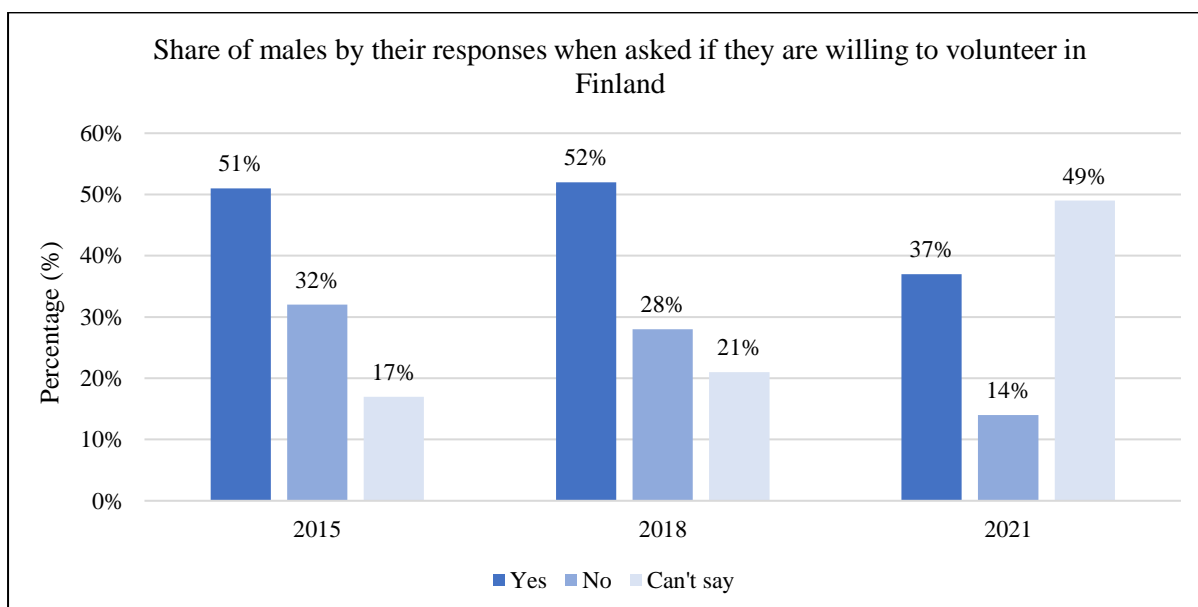


Figure 46. Share of males by their responses when asked if they are willing to volunteer in Finland for years 2015 (sample size 1,026), 2018 (sample size 1,000) and 2021 (sample size 1,094).

Note: Data adapted from: "Vapaaehtoistyön tekeminen Suomessa" by J. Rahkonen, 2021, ([https://kansalaisareena.fi/wp-content/uploads/2021/05/Vapaaehtoistyö\\_tutkimusraportti\\_2021.pdf](https://kansalaisareena.fi/wp-content/uploads/2021/05/Vapaaehtoistyö_tutkimusraportti_2021.pdf)). (Rahkonen, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Taloustutkimus Oy.

As can be seen in Figure 46, majority of sampled males answered that they are willing to volunteer in Finland in 2015 and 2018. In 2021, majority of sampled males answered that they cannot say whether they are willing to volunteer or not in Finland. The share of sampled males, who answered that they are not willing to volunteer, decreased over the period of 2015-2021.

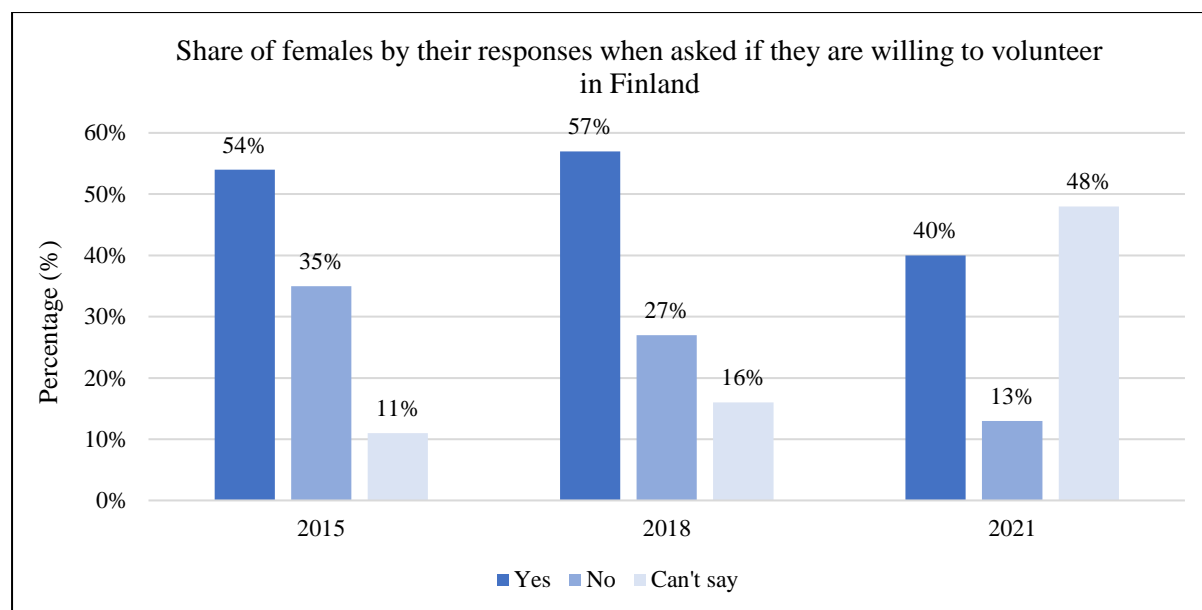


Figure 47. Share of females by their responses when asked if they are willing to volunteer in Finland for years 2015 (sample size 1,026), 2018 (sample size 1,000) and 2021 (sample size 1,094).

Note: Data adapted from: "Vapaaehtoistyön tekeminen Suomessa" by J. Rahkonen, 2021, ([https://kansalaisareena.fi/wp-content/uploads/2021/05/Vapaaehtoistyö\\_tutkimusraportti\\_2021.pdf](https://kansalaisareena.fi/wp-content/uploads/2021/05/Vapaaehtoistyö_tutkimusraportti_2021.pdf)). (Rahkonen, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Taloustutkimus Oy.

Similar to sampled males, Figure 47 above shows that majority of sampled females answered that they are willing to volunteer in Finland in 2015 and 2018. In 2021, majority of sampled females answered that they cannot say whether they are willing to volunteer or not. The share of sampled females, who answered that they are willing to volunteer, was higher for all three years than the share of sampled males in Finland. Just like with sampled men, the share of sampled women, who answered that they are not willing to volunteer, decreased over the period of 2015-2021. Nonetheless, this was not driven by a higher interest from the Finnish males and females in engaging in volunteer activities, but was rather attributed to the fact that significantly more sampled men and women were uncertain about their willingness to volunteer in 2021. Overall, sampled females showed a higher willingness to volunteer than their male counterparts for all three years in Finland.

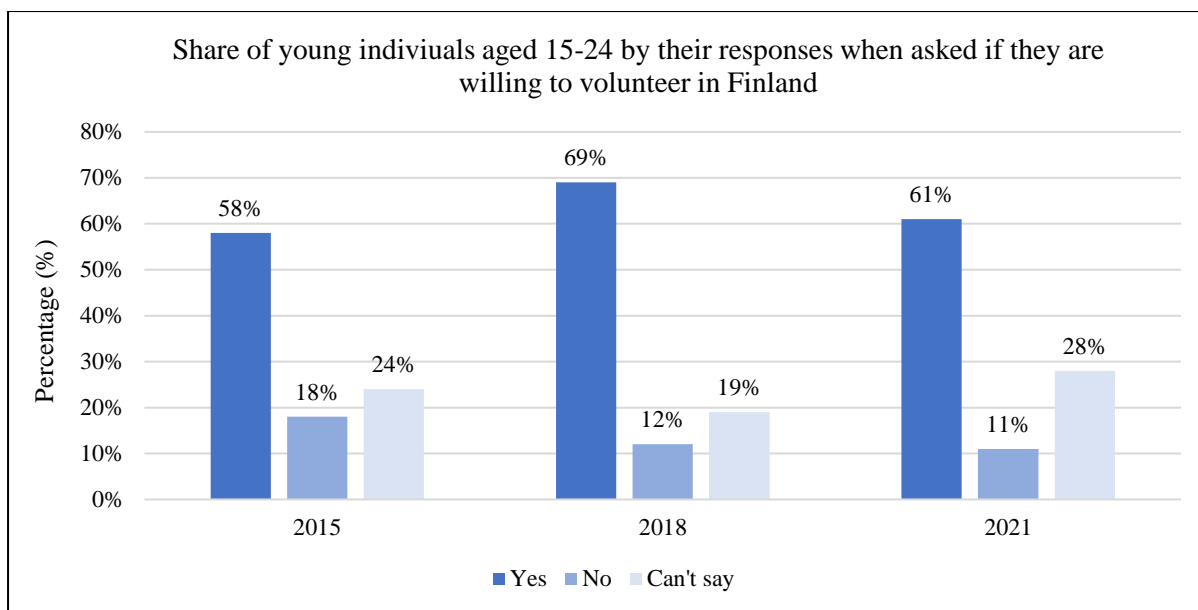


Figure 48. Share of young individuals aged 15-24 by their responses when asked if they are willing to volunteer in Finland for years 2015 (sample size 1,026), 2018 (sample size 1,000) and 2021 (sample size 1,094).

Note: Data adapted from: "Vapaaehtoistyön tekeminen Suomessa" by J. Rahkonen, 2021, ([https://kansalaisareena.fi/wp-content/uploads/2021/05/Vapaaehtoistyö\\_tutkimusraportti\\_2021.pdf](https://kansalaisareena.fi/wp-content/uploads/2021/05/Vapaaehtoistyö_tutkimusraportti_2021.pdf)). (Rahkonen, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Taloustutkimus Oy.

As provided in Figure 48, majority of sampled young individuals aged 15-24 answered that they are willing to volunteer in Finland in 2015, 2018 and 2021. The share of sampled youth, who answered that they are not willing to volunteer, decreased over the period of 2015-2021. This indicates a growing interest from the Finnish youth in engaging in volunteer activities over the years, as the shares of young individuals, who were uncertain about their willingness to volunteer, did not significantly increase.

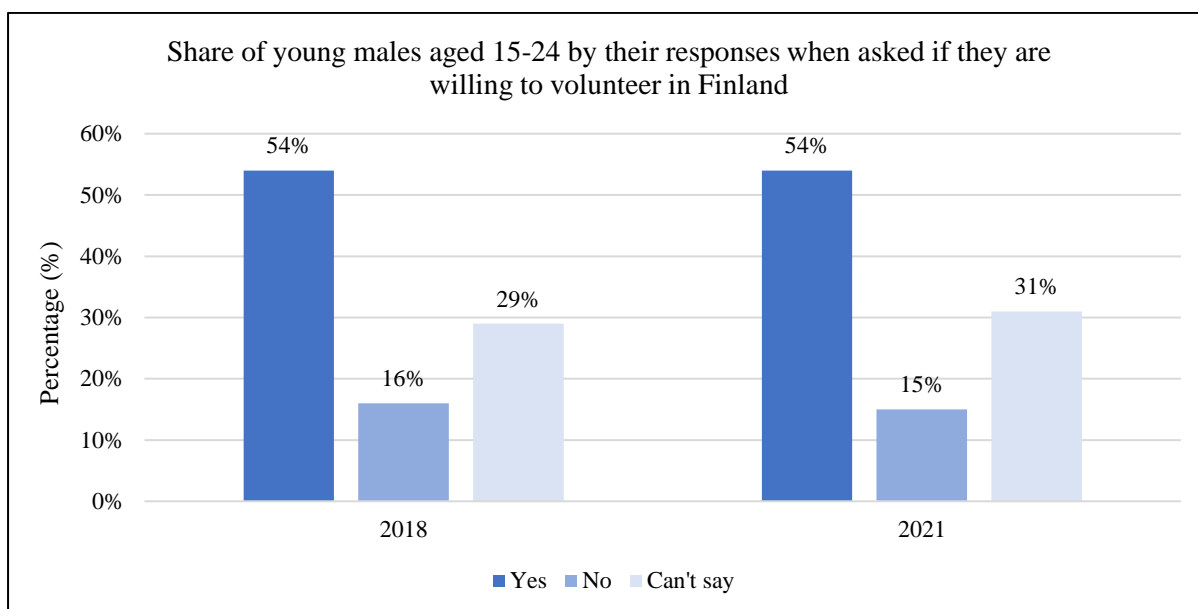


Figure 49. Share of young males aged 15-24 by their responses when asked if they are willing to volunteer in Finland for years 2015 (sample size 1,026), 2018 (sample size 1,000) and 2021 (sample size 1,094).

Note: Data adapted from: "Vapaaehtoistyön tekeminen Suomessa" by J. Rahkonen, 2021, ([https://kansalaisareena.fi/wp-content/uploads/2021/05/Vapaaehtoistyö\\_tutkimusraportti\\_2021.pdf](https://kansalaisareena.fi/wp-content/uploads/2021/05/Vapaaehtoistyö_tutkimusraportti_2021.pdf)). (Rahkonen, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Taloustutkimus Oy.

Figure 49 shows data for the Finnish youth segment by gender, which is only available for years 2018 and 2021. Majority of sampled young males answered that they are willing to volunteer, with the shares remaining the same for both years. The share of sampled young men, who answered that they are not

willing to volunteer, decreased from 2018 to 2021, while the share of sampled young men, who answered that they cannot say if they are willing to volunteer or not, increased from 2018 to 2021.

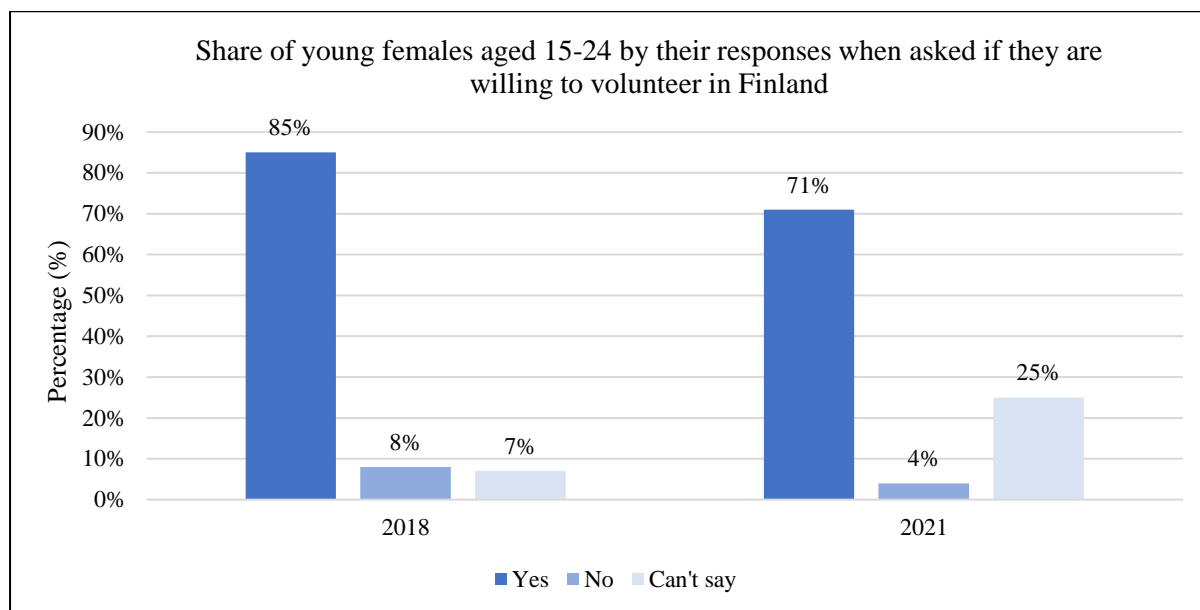


Figure 50. Share of young females aged 15-24 by their responses when asked if they are willing to volunteer in Finland for years 2015 (sample size 1,026), 2018 (sample size 1,000) and 2021 (sample size 1,094).

Note: Data adapted from: "Vapaaehtoistyön tekeminen Suomessa" by J. Rahkonen, 2021, ([https://kansalaisareena.fi/wp-content/uploads/2021/05/Vapaaehtoistyö\\_tutkimusraportti\\_2021.pdf](https://kansalaisareena.fi/wp-content/uploads/2021/05/Vapaaehtoistyö_tutkimusraportti_2021.pdf)). (Rahkonen, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Taloustutkimus Oy.

As displayed in Figure 50 above, similar to young males, majority of sampled young females answered that they are willing to volunteer, with the share decreasing by 16.47% from 2018 to 2021. The share of sampled young women, who answered that they are not willing to volunteer, decreased from 2018 to 2021, while the share of sampled young women, who answered that they cannot say whether they are willing to volunteer or not, increased from 2018 to 2021. These trends are also seen with young males, as provided in Figure 49. For both years, the shares of sampled young females, who answered that they are willing to volunteer, were higher than for their male counterparts in Finland. In contrast, the shares of sampled young females, who chose 'no' or 'can't say' as answers, were lower than for sampled young males both in 2018 and 2021.

When comparing the answers of sampled young individuals and the general sample, it can be seen that:

- The shares of both young males and females, who answered that they are willing to volunteer, represented the majority in 2021. For the general samples of males and females of all ages, majority was represented by sampled males and females, who chose 'no' or 'can't say' as answers, in 2021.
- The shares of young women, who chose 'no' or 'can't say' as answers, were lower than for the general sample of females of all ages in 2018 and 2021.
- The differences between the shares of males and females for all three answers were more significant for young individuals than for the general sample, both in 2018 and 2021.

### 5.2.1.6 Volunteering Frequency and Type

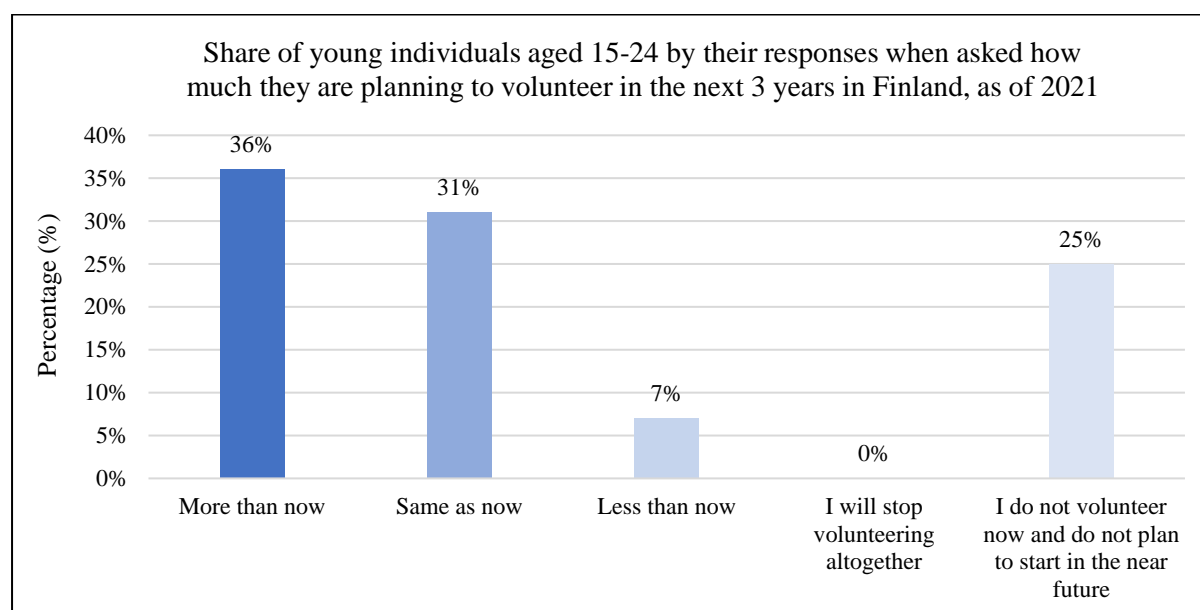


Figure 51. Share of young individuals aged 15-24 by their responses when asked how much they are planning to volunteer in the next three years in Finland for years 2015 (sample size 1,026), 2018 (sample size 1,000) and 2021 (sample size 1,094).

Note: Data adapted from: “Vapaaehtoistyön tekeminen Suomessa” by J. Rahkonen, 2021, ([https://kansalaisareena.fi/wp-content/uploads/2021/05/Vapaaehtoistyö\\_tutkimusraportti\\_2021.pdf](https://kansalaisareena.fi/wp-content/uploads/2021/05/Vapaaehtoistyö_tutkimusraportti_2021.pdf)). (Rahkonen, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Taloustutkimus Oy.

Figure 51 shows that majority of sampled young individuals answered that they are planning to volunteer more than now in the next three years, followed by young individuals, who answered that they are planning to volunteer same as now. This indicates that majority of the Finnish youth is motivated to increase their engagement in volunteering in the near future. Although none of the sampled youth stated that they will stop volunteering altogether, a quarter of the sampled youth reported that they do not currently volunteer and are not planning to start in the next three years. This shows that a fairly significant segment of the Finnish youth is potentially discouraged from engaging in volunteering.

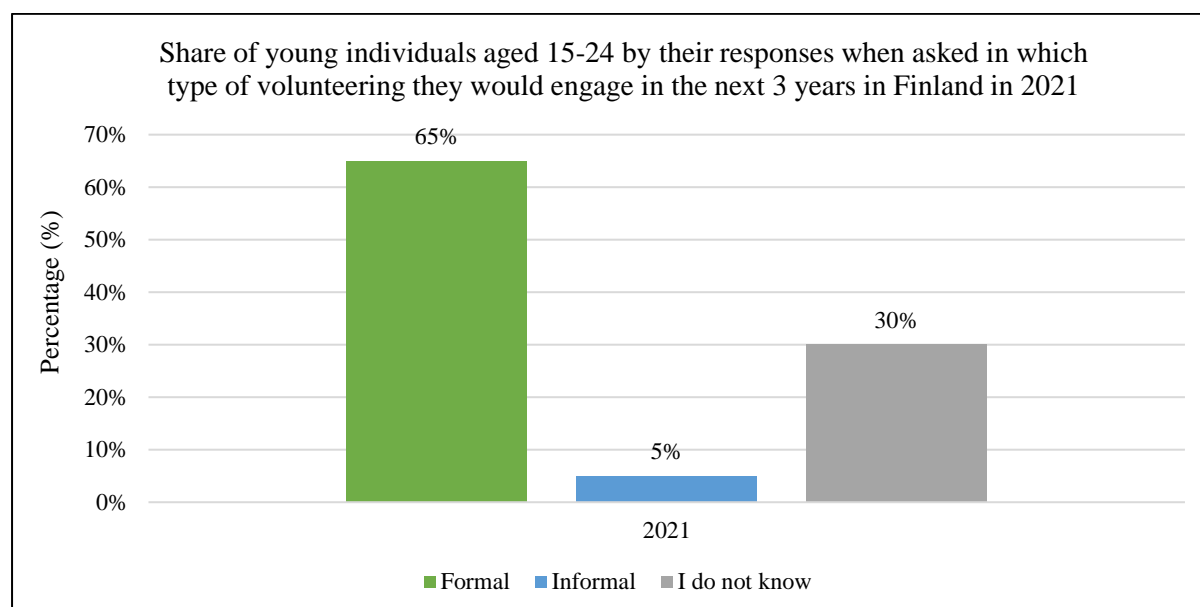


Figure 52. Share of young individuals aged 15-24 by their responses when asked in which type of volunteering they would engage in the next three years in Finland for years 2015 (sample size 1,026), 2018 (sample size 1,000) and 2021 (sample size 1,094).

Note: Data adapted from: “Vapaaehtoistyön tekeminen Suomessa” by J. Rahkonen, 2021, ([https://kansalaisareena.fi/wp-content/uploads/2021/05/Vapaaehtoistyö\\_tutkimusraportti\\_2021.pdf](https://kansalaisareena.fi/wp-content/uploads/2021/05/Vapaaehtoistyö_tutkimusraportti_2021.pdf)). (Rahkonen, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Taloustutkimus Oy.

As can be seen in Figure 52 above, majority of sampled young individuals stated that they would engage in formal volunteering in the next three years, while only 5% of sampled young individuals said they would engage in informal volunteering in Finland in 2021. This is consistent with the data provided in Figure 42, supporting the fact that formal volunteering is more preferred by the Finnish youth than informal due to its potential benefits for the future career and education opportunities for young people.

### 5.2.1.7 Volunteering Skills

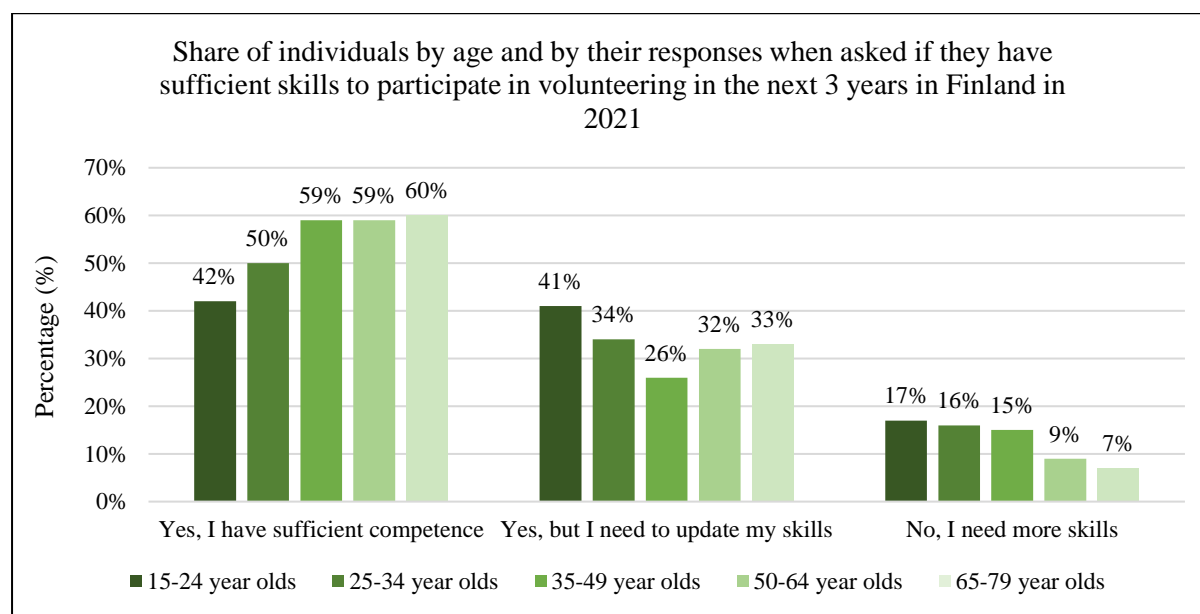


Figure 53. Share of individuals by age and by their responses when asked if they have sufficient skills to participate in volunteering in the next three years in Finland in 2021 (sample size 1,094).

Note: Data adapted from: “Vapaaehtoistyön tekeminen Suomessa” by J. Rahkonen, 2021, ([https://kansalaisareena.fi/wp-content/uploads/2021/05/Vapaaehtoistyö\\_tutkimusraportti\\_2021.pdf](https://kansalaisareena.fi/wp-content/uploads/2021/05/Vapaaehtoistyö_tutkimusraportti_2021.pdf)). (Rahkonen, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Taloustutkimus Oy.

As provided in Figure 53, as of 2021, sampled youth had the lowest share of individuals stating that they have sufficient skills to participate in volunteering in Finland in the next three years, when compared to other age groups. Moreover, sampled youth had the highest share of individuals stating that they do not have sufficient skills for the same year. This indicates the need to improve opportunities to train and learn new skills for the Finnish youth in order to increase the participation of this age group in volunteering and make it more productive.



### 5.2.1.8 Volunteering by Educational Attainment

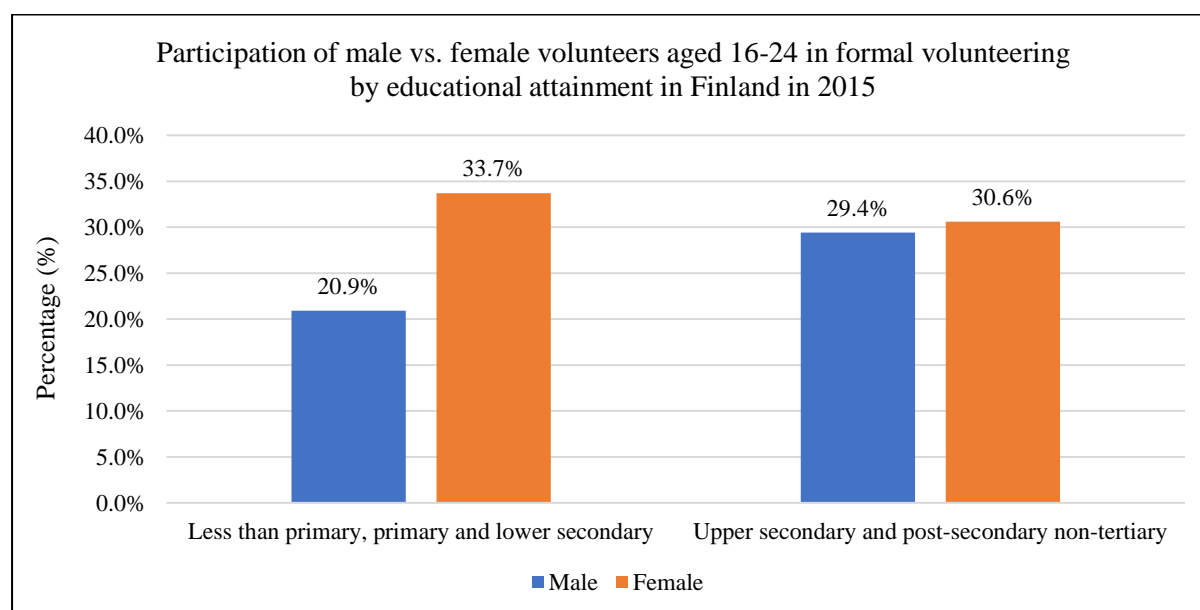


Figure 54. Participation of male vs. female volunteers aged 16-24 in formal volunteering by educational attainment in Finland in 2015.

Note: Data adapted from: "Participation in formal or informal voluntary activities or active citizenship by sex, age and educational attainment level" by Eurostat, 2021, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ILC\\_SCP19/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ILC_SCP19/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Eurostat.

In terms of the educational attainment, Figure 54 shows that participation of young women with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment in formal volunteering was higher than for young men in Finland in 2015. The same is true for young males and females with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment in Finland in 2015, although the gap between the two genders was less significant.

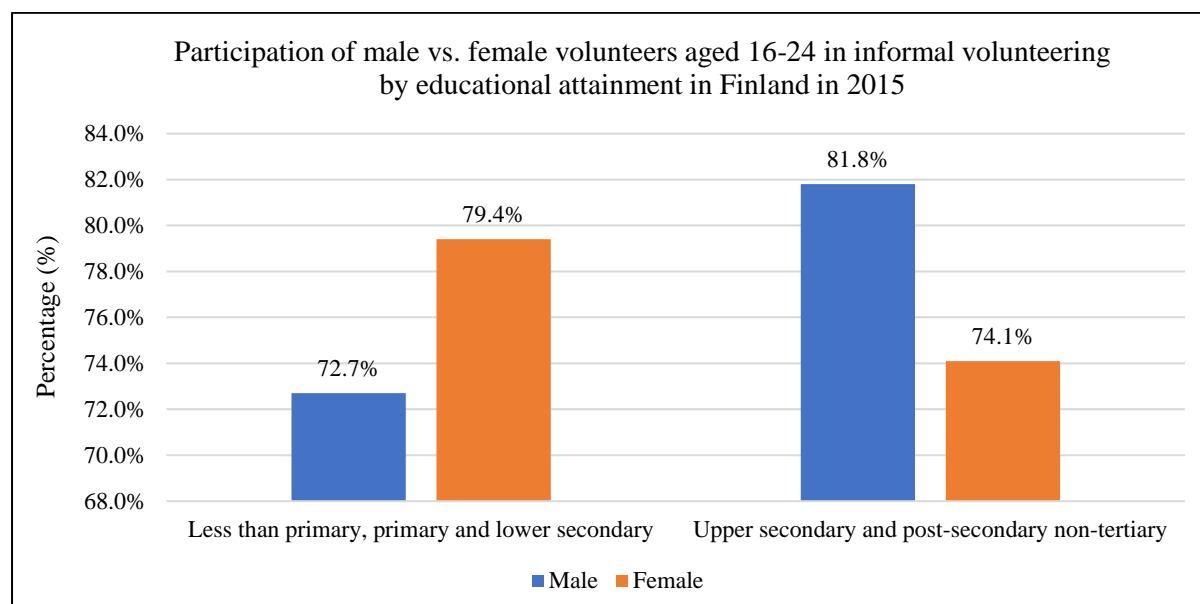


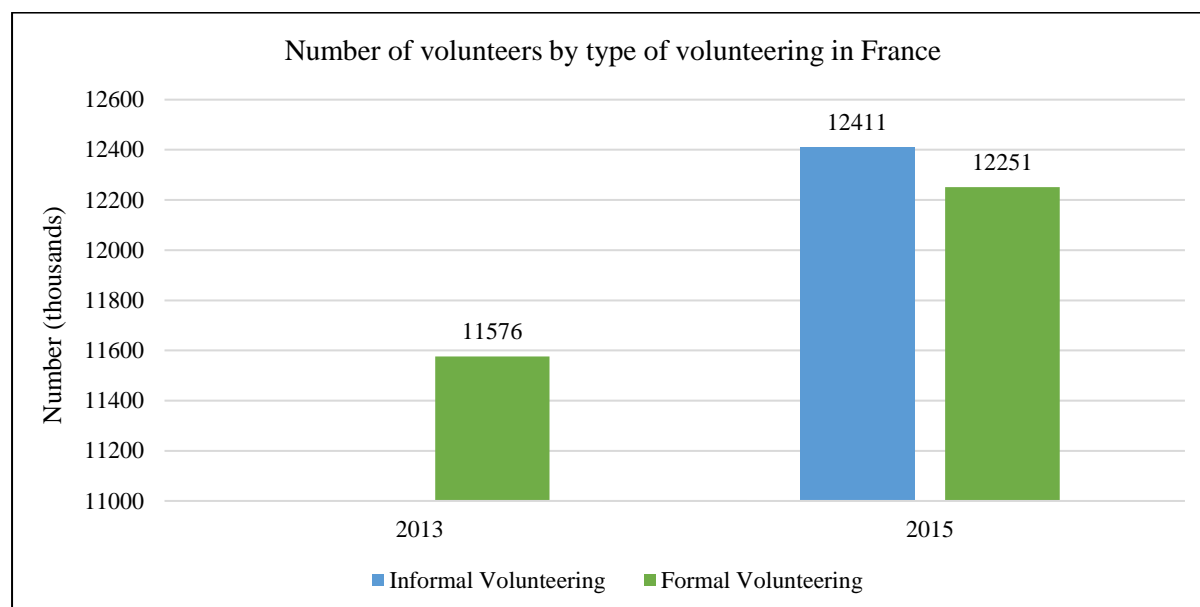
Figure 55. Participation of male vs. female volunteers aged 16-24 in informal volunteering by educational attainment in Finland in 2015.

Note: Data adapted from: "Participation in formal or informal voluntary activities or active citizenship by sex, age and educational attainment level" by Eurostat, 2021, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ILC\\_SCP19/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ILC_SCP19/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Eurostat.

As displayed in Figure 55 above, participation of young women with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment in informal volunteering was higher than for young men in Finland in 2015. In contrast to formal volunteering, participation of young males with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment in informal volunteering was higher than for young females in Finland for the same year. Nonetheless, participation of young males and females with both educational attainment levels was higher in informal volunteering than formal, indicating that majority of the Finnish youth engaged in some non-organisational form of social activity.

## 5.2.2 France

### 5.2.2.1 Number of Volunteers



*Figure 56. Number of volunteers by type of volunteering in France for years 2013 and 2015.*

*Note: Data adapted from: "Volunteering Database: France" by UN Volunteers, 2022, (<https://knowledge.unv.org/country/france>). (UN Volunteers, 2022). Copyright 2022 by UN Volunteers.*

As can be seen in Figure 56 above, the number of formal volunteers in France increased by 5.83% from 2013 to 2015. Given that there is no data on informal volunteering in France for 2013, it is not possible to track the changes in the number of informal volunteers in France from 2013 to 2015. Like in Finland, there were more informal than formal volunteers in France in 2015, however, the total numbers of both informal and formal volunteers in France exceeded those in Finland for the same year.

### 5.2.2.2 Number of Young Volunteers

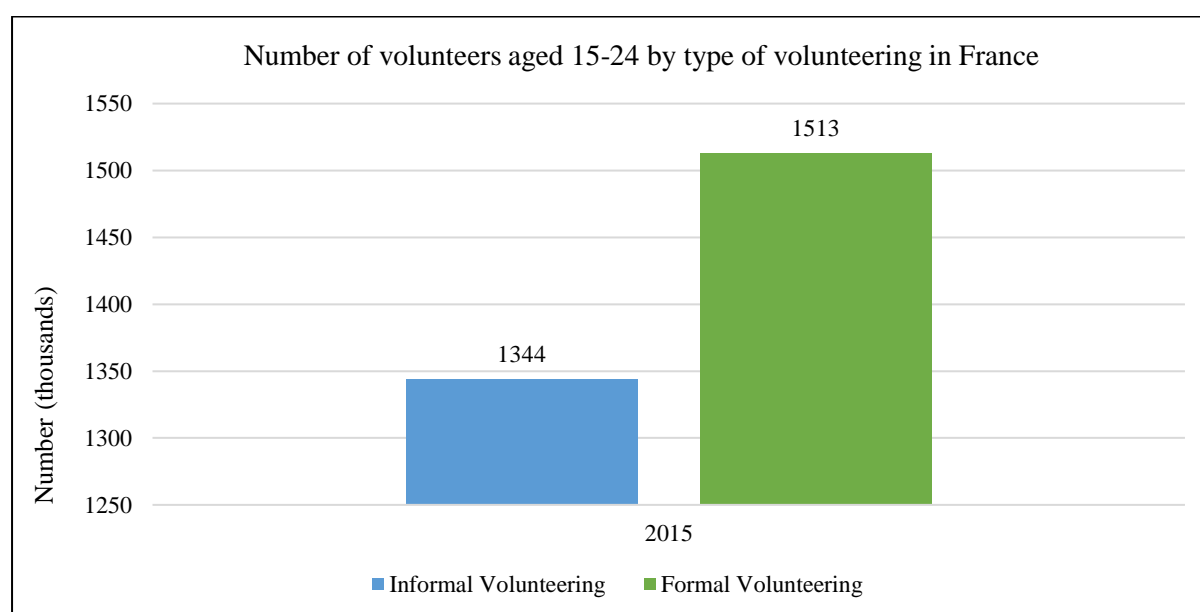


Figure 57. Number of volunteers aged 15-24 by type of volunteering in France in 2015.

Note: Data adapted from: "Number of volunteers by age and type of volunteer work (thousands) - Annual" by ILOSTAT, 2015, ([https://www.ilo.org/shinyapps/bulkexplorer32/?lang=en&segment=indicator&id=FOW\\_TVOL\\_AGE\\_VOL\\_NB\\_A](https://www.ilo.org/shinyapps/bulkexplorer32/?lang=en&segment=indicator&id=FOW_TVOL_AGE_VOL_NB_A)). (ILOSTAT, 2015). Copyright 2022 by ILOSTAT.

Figure 57 shows that there were more formal than informal volunteers amongst the French youth in 2015. Similar to Finland, this is explained by a higher attractiveness of formal volunteering for young people, given its benefits for education and employment. Generally, young informal volunteers represented 10.83% of the total number of informal volunteers and young formal volunteers represented 12.35% of the total number of formal volunteers in France in 2015.

### 5.2.2.3 Time Spent Volunteering

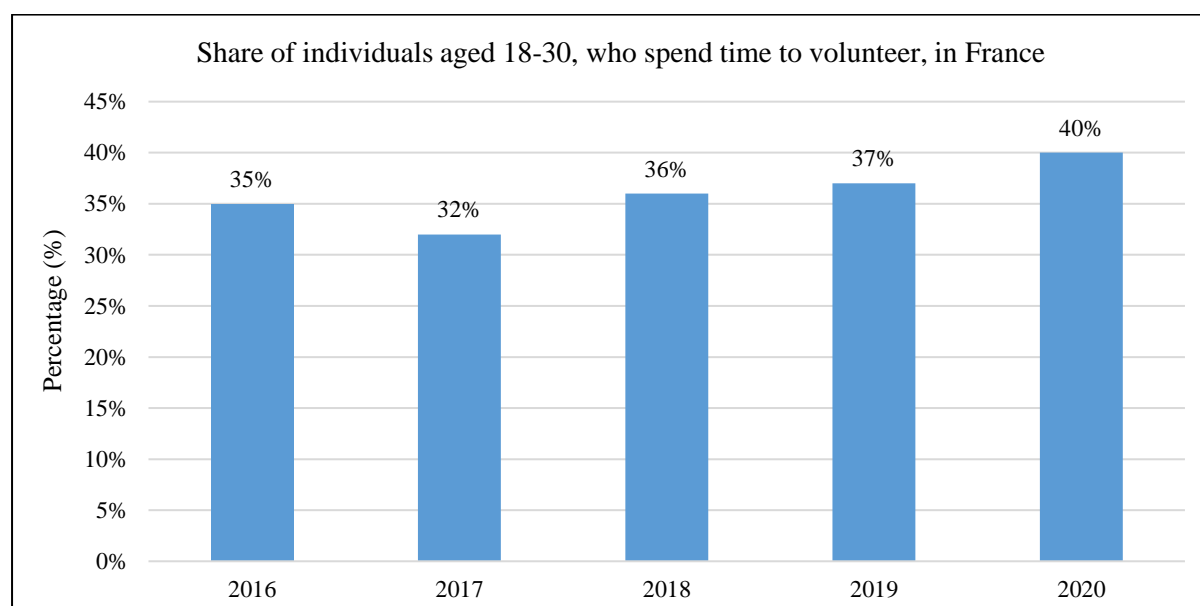
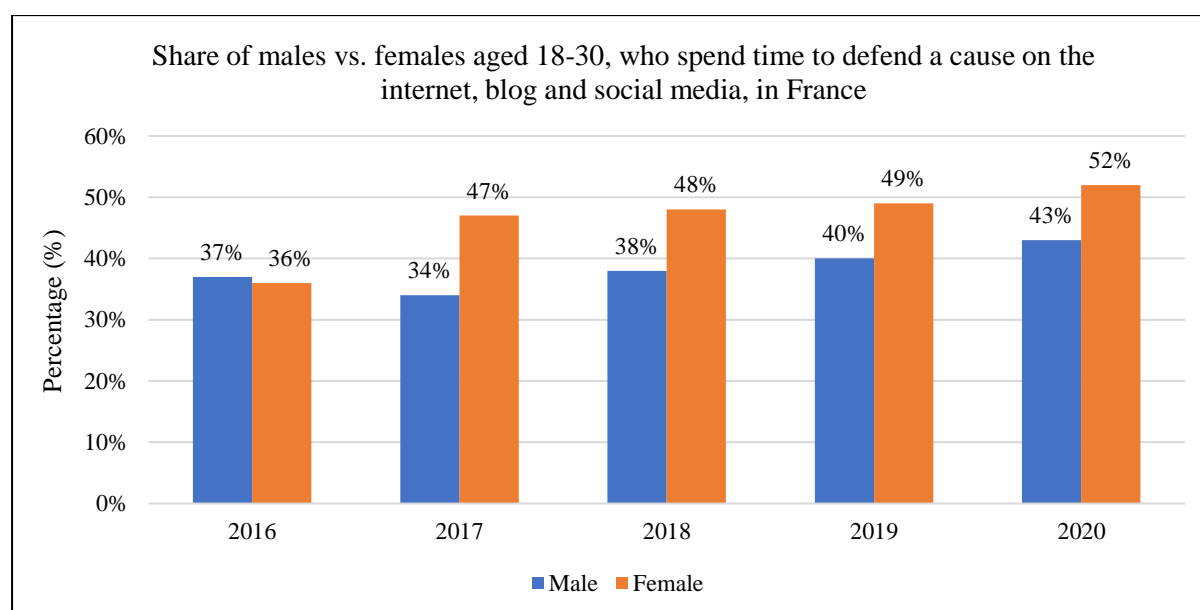


Figure 58. Share of individuals aged 18-30, who spend time to volunteer, in France for years 2016-2020 (sample size 4,500).

Note: Data adapted from: "Baromètre DJEPVA sur la jeunesse 2020" by L. Brice Mansencal, M. Coulange, C. Maes and J. Müller, 2020, ([https://injep.fr/wp-content/uploads/2020/12/rapport-2020-14-Baromètre-DJEPVA\\_2020.pdf](https://injep.fr/wp-content/uploads/2020/12/rapport-2020-14-Baromètre-DJEPVA_2020.pdf)). (Brice Mansencal, Coulange, Maes, & Müller, 2020). Copyright 2020 by INJEP.

Data presented in Figure 58 above, as well as in other Figures in this subsection, is based on the reports conducted by the Institut National de la Jeunesse et de l'Éducation Populaire (INJEP) in France in 2019, 2020 and 2021, with the representative samples of 4,500, 4,500 and 4,644 people aged between 18 and 30, respectively (Baillet, Brice Mansencal, Hoibian, & Maes, 2019) (Brice Mansencal, Coulange, Maes, & Müller, 2020) (Berhuet, Brice Mansencal, Hoibian, Millot, & Müller, 2021). The results of the studies conducted in 2019, 2020 and 2021 are compared with the results of the same studies conducted in 2016, 2017 and 2018, with the representative samples of 4,000, 4,500 and 4,500 people aged between 18 and 30, correspondingly (Aldegghi, Guisse, Hoibian, Jauneau-Cottet, & Maes, 2016) (Brice, Datsenko, Guisse, Hoibian, & Lautié, 2017) (Brice Mansencal, Datsenko, Guisse, Hoibian, & Lautié, 2018).

As provided in Figure 58 above, the share of sampled individuals aged 18-30, including youth, who spend time to volunteer, increased in France over the period of 2017-2020. This is driven by many young individuals in France perceiving volunteering engagement in organisations, as an opportunity to improve social networks and career prospects (Brice Mansencal, Coulange, Maes, & Müller, 2020).



*Figure 59. Share of males vs. females aged 18-30, who spend time to sign a petition or defend a cause on the internet, blog and social media, in France for years 2016-2020 (sample size 4,500).*

*Note: Data adapted from: "Baromètre DJEPVA sur la jeunesse 2020" by L. Brice Mansencal, M. Coulange, C. Maes and J. Müller, 2020, ([https://injep.fr/wp-content/uploads/2020/12/rapport-2020-14-Baromètre-DJEPVA\\_2020.pdf](https://injep.fr/wp-content/uploads/2020/12/rapport-2020-14-Baromètre-DJEPVA_2020.pdf)). (Brice Mansencal, Coulange, Maes, & Müller, 2020). Copyright 2020 by INJEP.*

According to the 2020 INJEP study, the difference between male and female civil engagement, including volunteering, depends on the specific engagement types (Brice Mansencal, Coulange, Maes, & Müller, 2020). As Figure 59 above shows, the share of sampled females, who spent time to sign a petition or defend a cause on the internet, blog and social media, was higher than the share of sampled males in France over the period of 2016-2020. This is driven by a generally higher presence of women of all age groups on the internet and social media in France (Baillet, Brice Mansencal, Hoibian, & Maes, 2019). Therefore, the French women are more likely to participate in social engagement, including volunteering, if associated activities are related to social media and internet.

#### 5.2.2.4 Male vs. Female Formal and Informal Volunteers

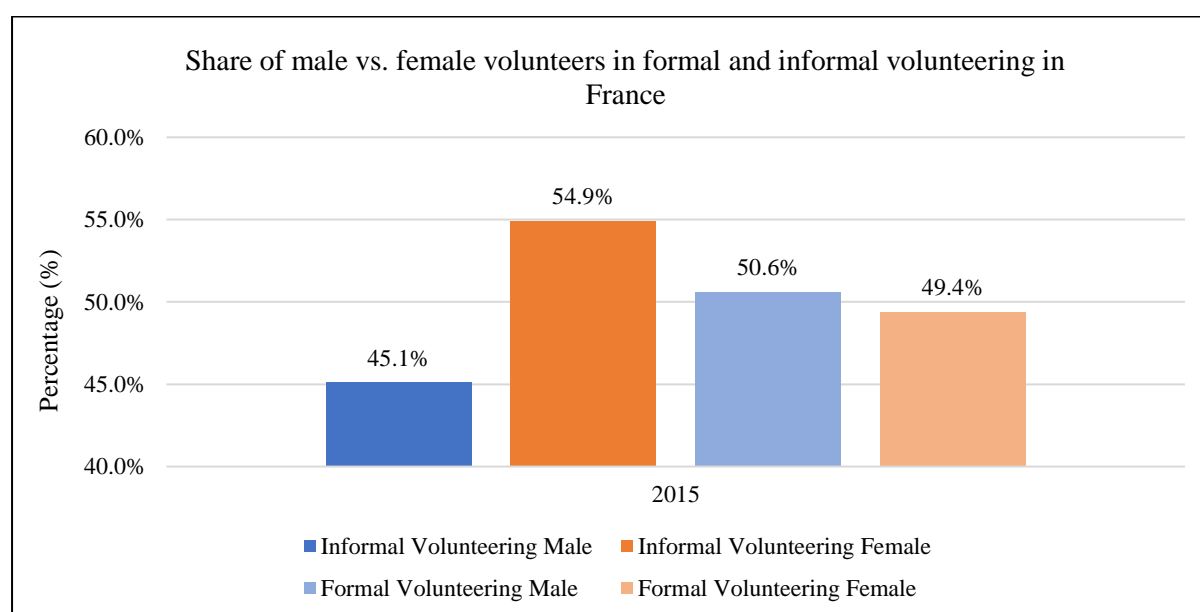


Figure 60. Share of male vs. female volunteers by type of volunteering in France in 2015.

Note: Data adapted from: “Volunteering Database: France” by UN Volunteers, 2022, (<https://knowledge.unv.org/country/france>). (UN Volunteers, 2022). Copyright 2022 by UN Volunteers.

As displayed in Figure 60 above, there were more female volunteers in informal volunteering than male volunteers in France in 2015. In contrast, there were more male volunteers in formal volunteering than female volunteers in France in 2015, although the gap between the two genders was small. Having a higher share of females in informal volunteering and almost equal shares of males and females in formal volunteering in France is consistent with the global trend of men and women having almost the same participation rates for formal volunteering, while female participation is higher for informal volunteering (UN Volunteers, n.d.). Such trends are explained by the general perception of roles and activities in informal volunteering (e.g. child care) as more ‘feminised’ (UN Volunteers, n.d.).

#### 5.2.2.5 Volunteering by Educational Attainment

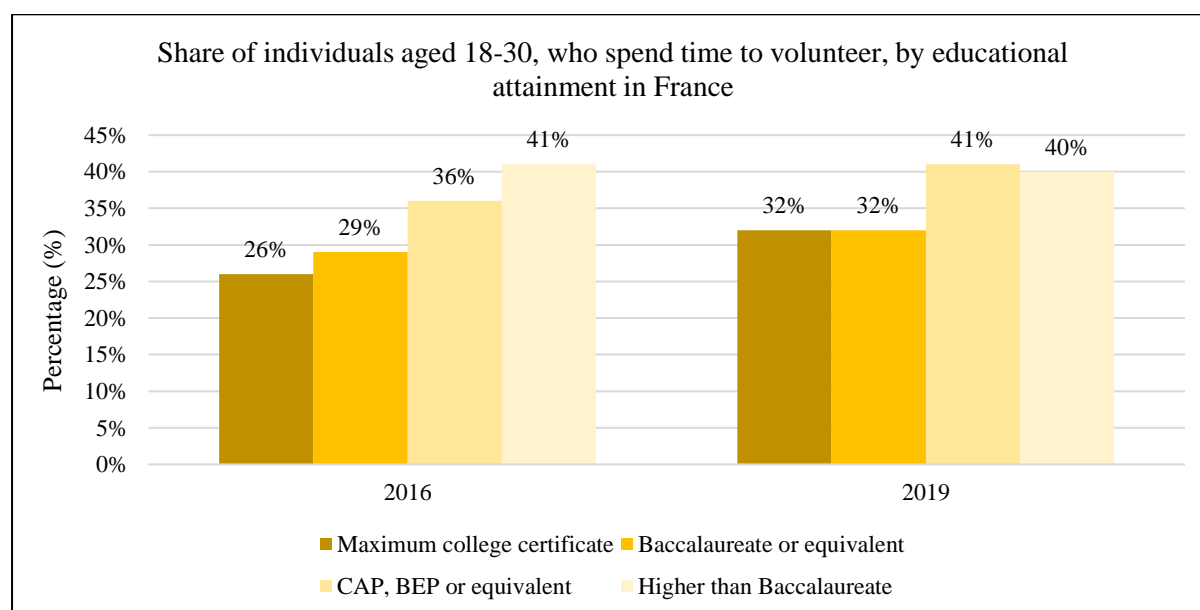


Figure 61. Share of individuals aged 18-30, who spend time to volunteer, by educational attainment in France for years 2016 and 2019 (sample size 4,500).

Note: Data adapted from: “Baromètre DJEPVA sur la jeunesse 2019” by J. Baillet, L. Brice Mansencal, R. Datsenko, S. Hoibian and C. Maes, 2019, (<https://injep.fr/wp-content/uploads/2019/11/rapport-2019-12-barometre-djepva-2019.pdf>). (Baillet, Brice Mansencal, Hoibian, & Maes, 2019). Copyright 2019 by INJEP.

Figure 61 above presents several categories of educational attainment in France. In the French education system, Brevet des collèges (i.e. college certificate) is a diploma awarded to the French students, who complete lower secondary education in France (L’École Française Jules Verne de Riga, n.d.). The French Baccalaureate is a qualification that students receive upon completing the general upper secondary education in France (L’École Française Jules Verne de Riga, n.d.). Certificat d’Aptitudes Professionnelles (CAP) and Brevet d’Etudes Professionnelles (BEP) are diplomas awarded to students, who complete vocational upper secondary education in France (Vocational Education, n.d.). The last category ‘Higher than Baccalaureate’ represents the French students, who complete tertiary education.

As provided in Figure 61 above, in 2016, sampled individuals aged 18-30 with tertiary educational attainment volunteered more than their counterparts with differing educational attainment levels in France. In 2019, there were more volunteers amongst sampled individuals aged 18-30 with vocational upper secondary educational attainment in France. In both years, sampled individuals aged 18-30 with lower secondary and general upper secondary educational attainment volunteered less than their counterparts with vocational upper secondary and tertiary educational attainment in France. This implies that having vocational upper secondary or tertiary education increases the likelihood of a French individual aged 18-30 to volunteer, as opposed to individuals with other educational attainment levels.

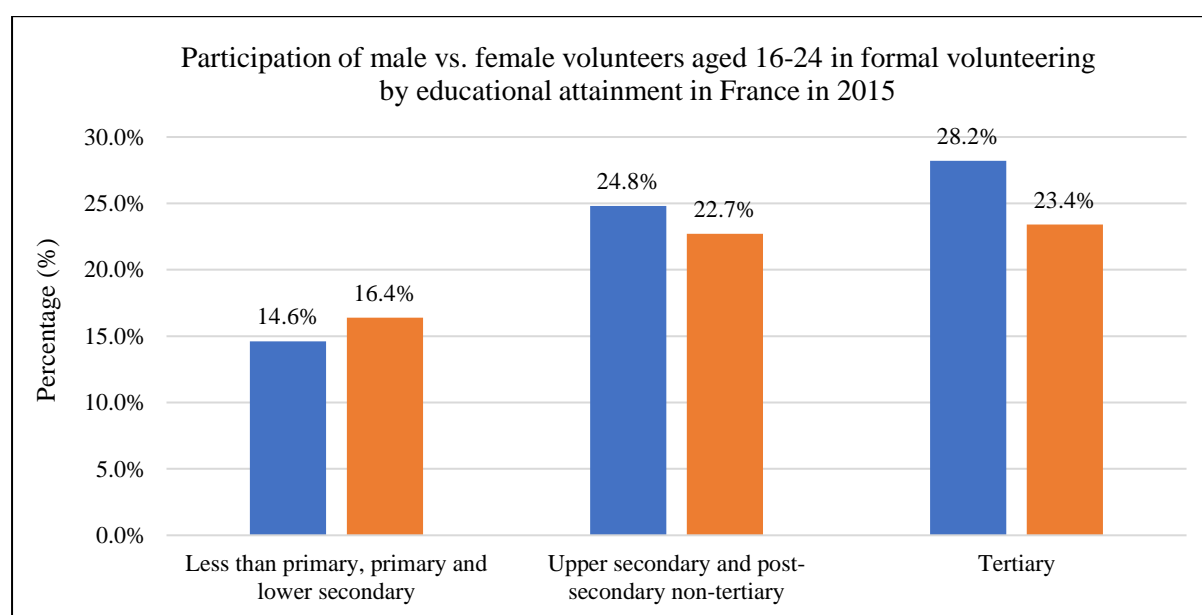


Figure 62. Participation of male vs. female volunteers aged 16-24 in formal volunteering by educational attainment in France in 2015.

Note: Data adapted from: “Participation in formal or informal voluntary activities or active citizenship by sex, age and educational attainment level” by Eurostat, 2021, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ILC\\_SCP19/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ILC_SCP19/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Eurostat.

As can be seen in Figure 62 above, there were more young females with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment participating in formal volunteering in France in 2015. In contrast, there were more young males with upper secondary, post-secondary non-tertiary and tertiary educational attainment participating in formal volunteering in France in 2015. Figure 10 in section 5.1.2.1 shows that there were more young females with tertiary educational attainment prior to and in 2015 in France. This implies that, at the time, young women in higher education in France were less engaged in formal volunteering than their male counterparts. This is also consistent with a generally lower participation of all women in formal volunteering in France in 2015, as presented in Figure 60.

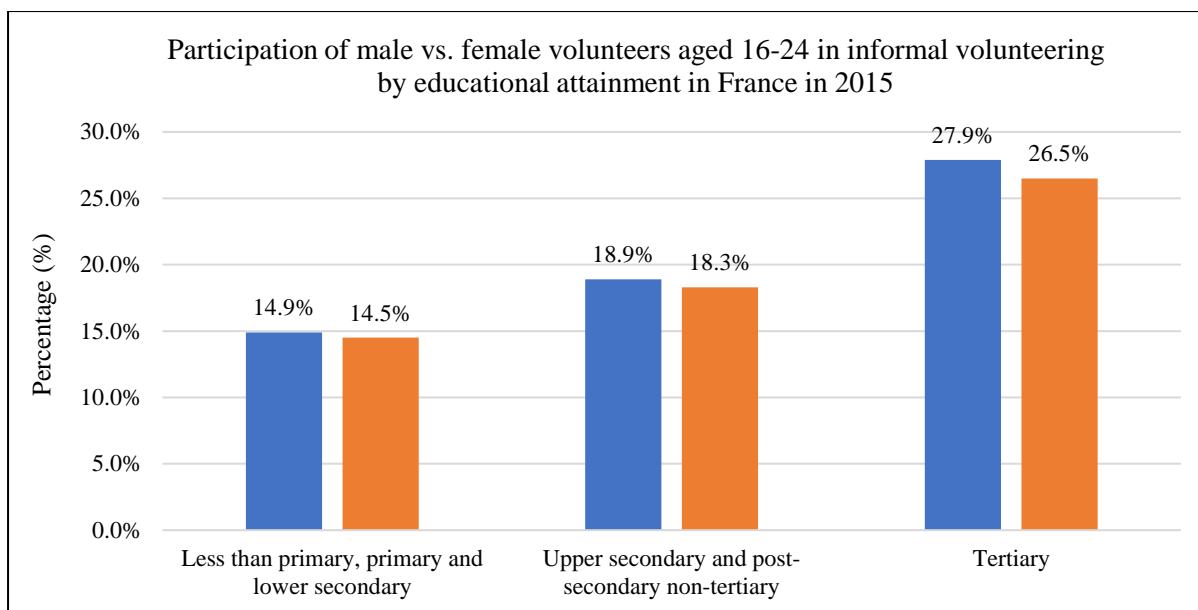


Figure 63. Participation of male vs. female volunteers aged 16-24 in informal volunteering by educational attainment in France in 2015.

Note: Data adapted from: "Participation in formal or informal voluntary activities or active citizenship by sex, age and educational attainment level" by Eurostat, 2021, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ILC\\_SCP19/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ILC_SCP19/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Eurostat.

As provided in Figure 63, there were more young males with all educational attainment levels participating in informal volunteering in France in 2015, although the gap was small for less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment. When comparing with formal volunteering participation rates in France for the same year, the differences between the participation rates of young males and females are smaller for informal volunteering. Figure 60 shows that there were more women of all ages participating in informal volunteering in France in 2015, however, this trend is reversed when considering young females, as a separate age group.

#### 5.2.2.6 Volunteering Frequency

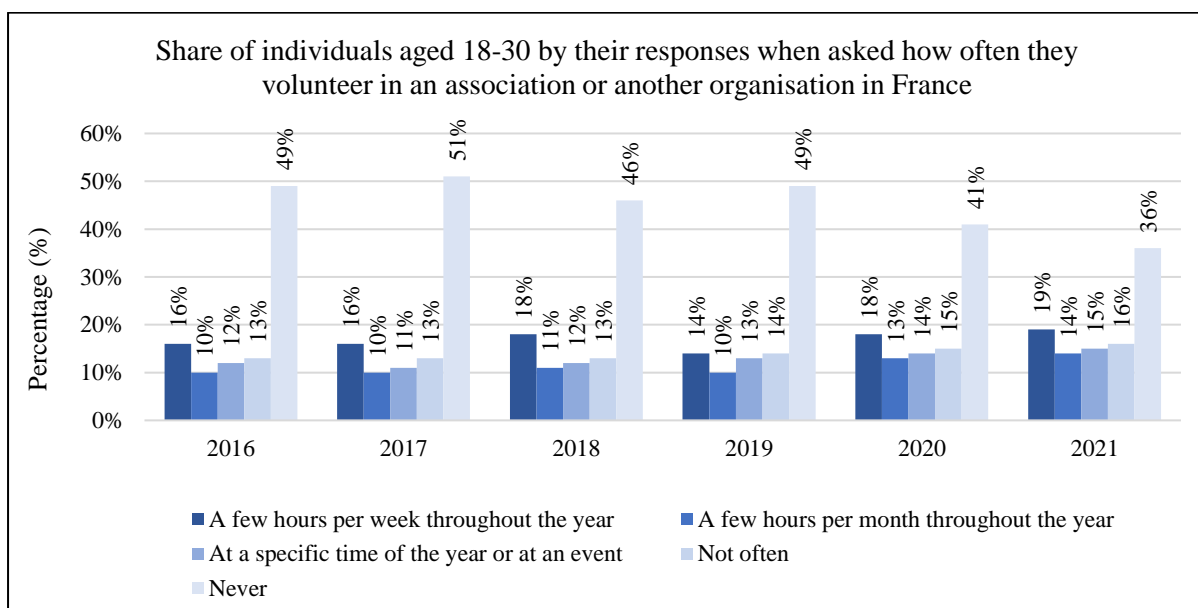


Figure 64. Share of individuals aged 18-30 by their responses when asked how often they volunteer in an association or another organisation (e.g. union) in France for years 2016-2021 (sample size 4,644).

Note: Data adapted from: “Baromètre DJEPVA sur la jeunesse 2021” by S. Berhuet, L. Brice Mansencal, S. Hoibian, C. Millot and J. Müller, 2021, (<https://injep.fr/wp-content/uploads/2022/01/Barometre-DJEPVA-2021.pdf>). (Berhuet, Brice Mansencal, Hoibian, Millot, & Müller, 2021). Copyright 2021 by INJEP.

As provided in Figure 64, majority of sampled individuals aged 18-30 stated that they never volunteer in an association or another organisation in France over the period of 2016-2021, although the share of individuals with this response has been decreasing from 2019 to 2021. Nonetheless, over the period of 2016-2021, second most popular statement amongst sampled individuals aged 18-30 was that they volunteer a few hours per week in an organisation throughout the year in France. From 2019 to 2021, the shares of sampled individuals aged 18-30, who volunteer a few hours per week, a few hours per month and at a specific event, have increased in France, indicating a higher level of commitment of the French youth to volunteering. This is consistent with data presented in Figure 65 below, which shows an increase in the share of sampled individuals aged 18-30, who stated that they already give time to volunteering, when asked if they want to volunteer for a cause, from 2019 to 2021 in France.

### 5.2.2.7 Willingness to Volunteer

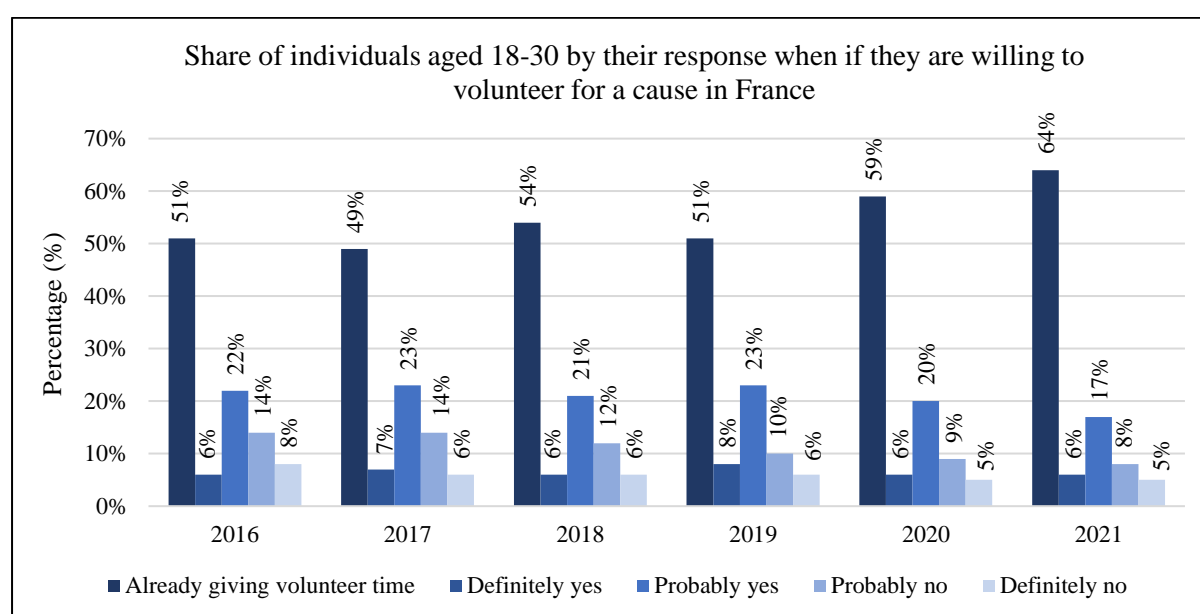


Figure 65. Share of individuals aged 18-30 by their responses when asked if they are willing to volunteer for a cause in France for years 2016-2021 (sample size 4,644).

Note: Data adapted from: “Baromètre DJEPVA sur la jeunesse 2021” by S. Berhuet, L. Brice Mansencal, S. Hoibian, C. Millot and J. Müller, 2021, (<https://injep.fr/wp-content/uploads/2022/01/Barometre-DJEPVA-2021.pdf>). (Berhuet, Brice Mansencal, Hoibian, Millot, & Müller, 2021). Copyright 2021 by INJEP.

The shares of sampled individuals aged 18-30, who stated that they probably or definitely do not want to volunteer for a cause, have decreased over the period of 2019-2021 in France. This shows a growing interest amongst the French youth to engage in volunteering and be socially active.



## 5.2.3 Italy

### 5.2.3.1 Number of Volunteers

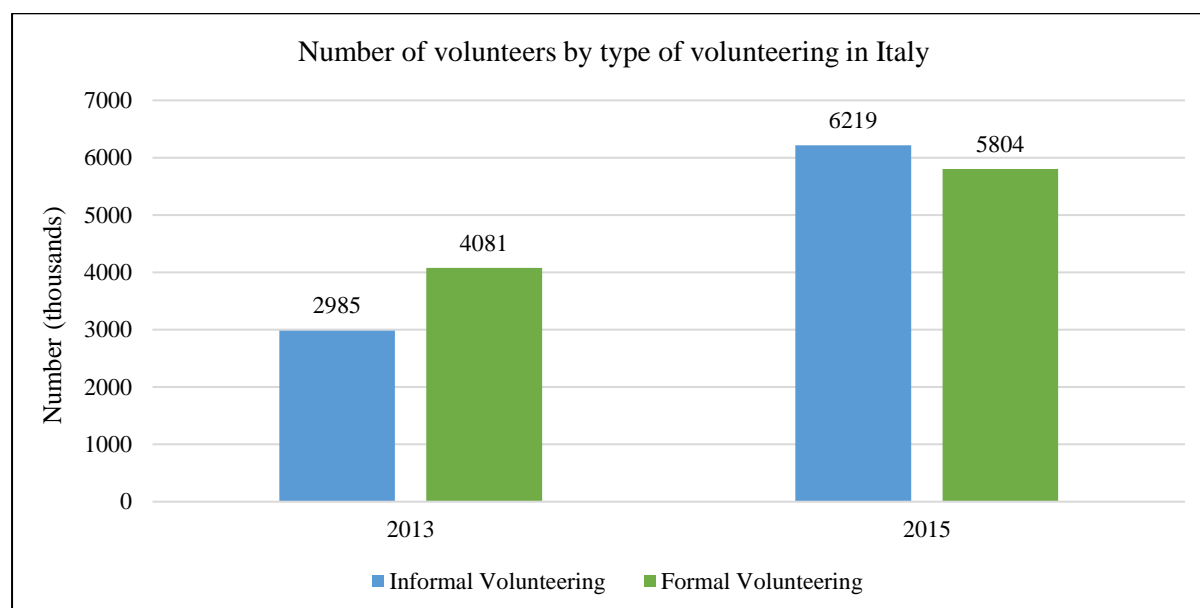


Figure 66. Number of volunteers by type of volunteering in Italy for years 2013 and 2015.

Note: Data adapted from: "Volunteering Database: Italy" by UN Volunteers, 2022, (<https://knowledge.unv.org/country/italy>). (UN Volunteers, 2022). Copyright 2022 by UN Volunteers.

As can be seen in Figure 66 above, there were more formal volunteers in Italy in 2013. In 2015, the number of informal volunteers exceeded the number of formal volunteers. Between 2013 and 2015, the number of informal volunteers increased by 108.34% and the number of formal volunteers increased by 42.22% in Italy. For both years, the number of formal volunteers in Italy was lower than in France. The same was true for the number of informal volunteers in 2015.

### 5.2.3.2 Number of Young Volunteers

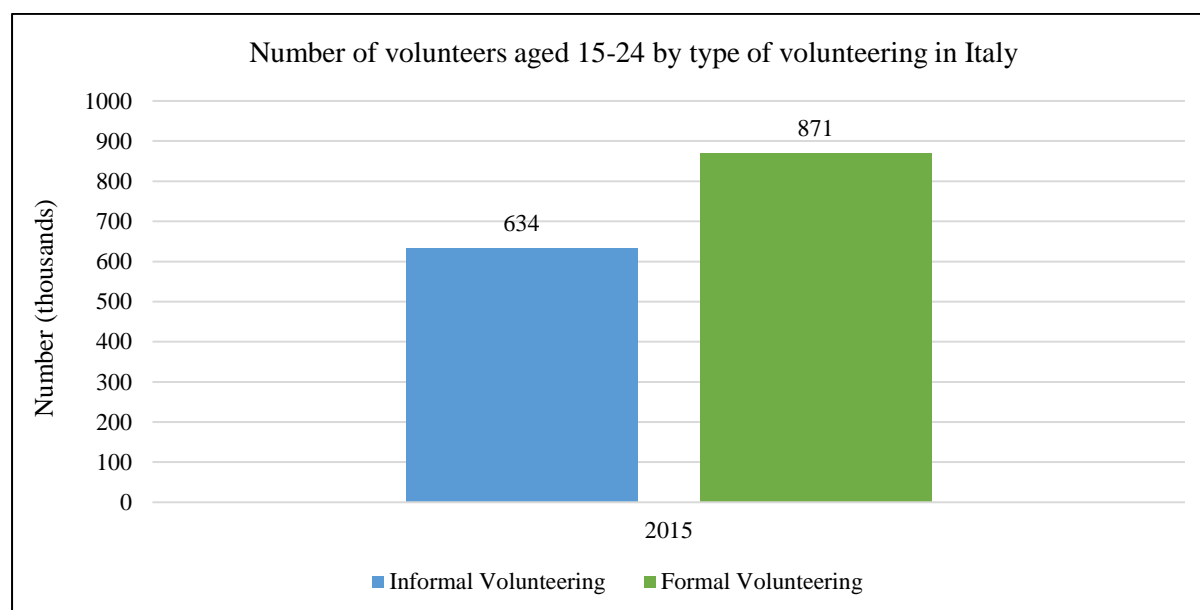


Figure 67. Number of volunteers aged 15-24 by type of volunteering in Italy in 2015.

Note: Data adapted from: "Number of volunteers by age and type of volunteer work (thousands) - Annual" by ILOSTAT, 2015, ([https://www.ilo.org/shinyapps/bulkexplorer32/?lang=en&segment=indicator&id=FOW\\_TVOL\\_AGE\\_VOL\\_NB\\_A](https://www.ilo.org/shinyapps/bulkexplorer32/?lang=en&segment=indicator&id=FOW_TVOL_AGE_VOL_NB_A)). (ILOSTAT, 2015). Copyright 2022 by ILOSTAT.

Figure 67 shows that there were more formal than informal young volunteers in Italy in 2015. Similar to Finland and France, young volunteers in Italy were more attracted to formal volunteering due to its benefits for their education and employment. The number of both informal and formal young volunteers in Italy was higher than in Finland, but lower than in France in 2015. Generally, young informal volunteers represented 10.20% of the total number of informal volunteers and young formal volunteers represented 15.01% of the total number of formal volunteers in Italy in 2015.

### 5.2.3.3 Male vs. Female Formal and Informal Volunteers

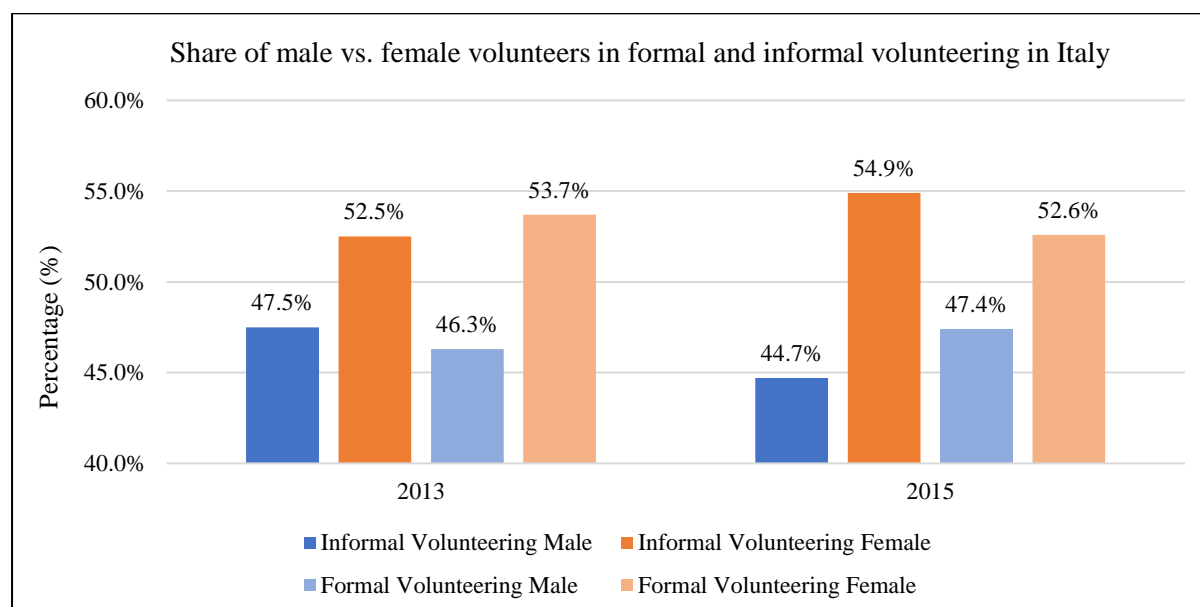


Figure 68. Share of male vs. female volunteers by type of volunteering in Italy for years 2013 and 2015.

Note: Data adapted from: "Volunteering Database: Italy" by UN Volunteers, 2022, (<https://knowledge.unv.org/country/italy>). (UN Volunteers, 2022). Copyright 2022 by UN Volunteers.

As provided in Figure 68, there were more females both in informal and formal volunteering in Italy in 2013 and 2015. The share of women in formal volunteering decreased in Italy from 2013 to 2015 because of the structural disadvantages females faced when volunteering in organisations, including the underrepresentation of women and lower access to leadership positions (RomaSette.it, 2016). On the other hand, the share of females in informal volunteering increased from 2013 to 2015, as women in Italy showed more commitment to social and civil engagement, dedicating more hours to volunteering than men (RomaSette.it, 2016). Nonetheless, according to Reti Solidali, the differences between the general participation of males and females in volunteering in Italy decreased over the recent years (Cappadozzi, 2021).

### 5.2.3.4 Male vs. Female Volunteers in the Universal Civic Service

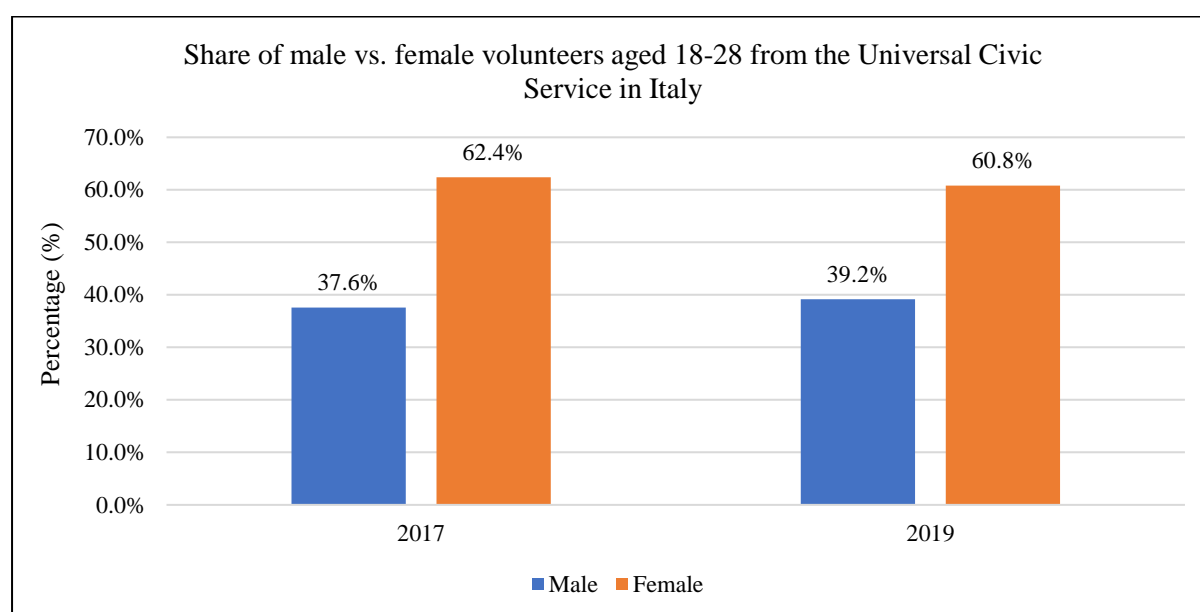


Figure 69. Share of male vs. female volunteers aged 18-28 from the Universal Civic Service in Italy for years 2017 and 2019.

Note: Data adapted from:

- “2.4 Programma nazionale per il volontariato giovanile” by European Commission, 2017, (<https://www.politichegiovani.gov.it/media/1kolmq2l/24n.pdf>). (European Commission, 2017). Copyright 2017 by Youth Wiki.
- “Youth Policies in Italy” by European Commission, 2019, ([https://national-policies.eacea.ec.europa.eu/sites/default/files/2021-06/Italy\\_2019.pdf](https://national-policies.eacea.ec.europa.eu/sites/default/files/2021-06/Italy_2019.pdf)). (European Commission, 2019). Copyright 2019 by Youth Wiki.

Data presented in Figure 69 above, as well as in other Figures in this subsection, is provided by the Universal Civic Service, a key national programme for youth volunteering in Italy, which reached the capacity of having approximately 64,331 young individuals aged 18-28 volunteering in Italy and in foreign countries in 2022 (Youth Wiki, 2022). According to the characteristics of young volunteers provided by the Universal Civic Service in 2017 and 2019, there were more females than males involved in youth volunteering activities of the programme, as shown in Figure 69 (European Commission, 2017) (European Commission, 2019). This is consistent with a generally higher participation of women of all ages in both informal and formal volunteering than of their male counterparts in Italy in earlier years, as provided in Figure 68. According to Reti Solidali, young Italian females are driving the generally higher participation of women in volunteering in Italy, as they tend to be more active in social engagement than women from other age groups (Cappadozzi, 2021). Furthermore, young females still participate in volunteering in Italy, even if they are in education or currently unemployed, because they perceive social engagement, including volunteering, as an opportunity for personal development and acquisition of useful skills (Humanitas Scandicci, 2017) (Cappadozzi, 2021).

### 5.2.3.5 Volunteering by Educational Attainment

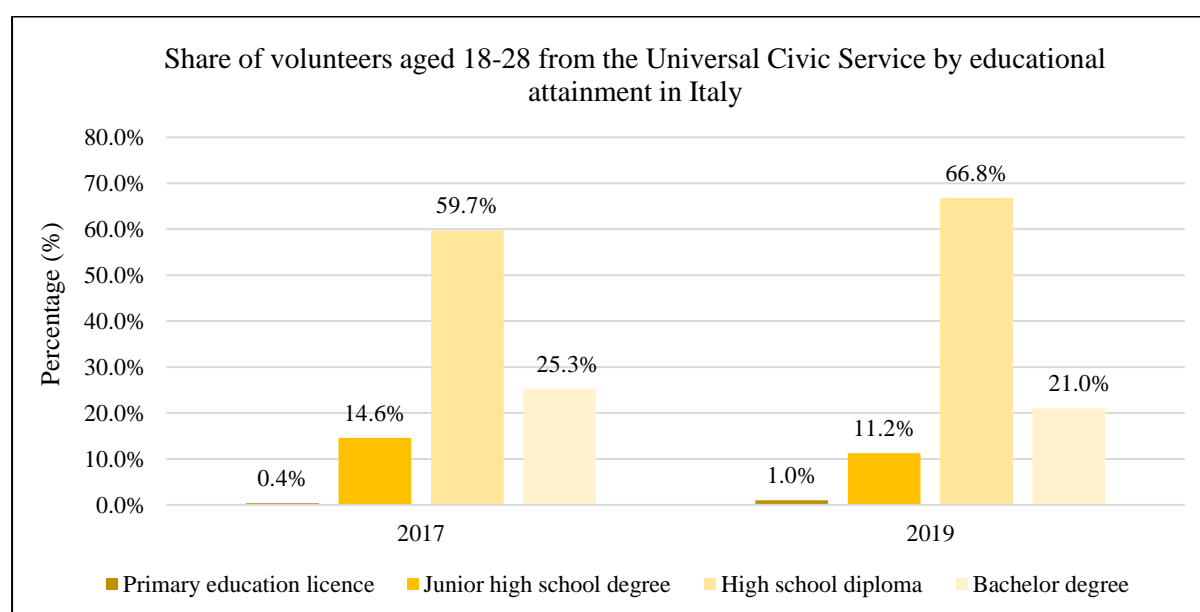


Figure 70. Share of volunteers aged 18-28 from the Universal Civic Service by educational attainment in Italy for years 2017 and 2019.

Note: Data adapted from:

- “2.4 Programma nazionale per il volontariato giovanile” by European Commission, 2017, (<https://www.politichegiovani.it/media/1kolmq2l/24n.pdf>). (European Commission, 2017). Copyright 2017 by Youth Wiki.
- “Youth Policies in Italy” by European Commission, 2019, ([https://national-policies.eacea.ec.europa.eu/sites/default/files/2021-06/Italy\\_2019.pdf](https://national-policies.eacea.ec.europa.eu/sites/default/files/2021-06/Italy_2019.pdf)). (European Commission, 2019). Copyright 2019 by Youth Wiki.

As can be seen in Figure 70, majority of young volunteers in the Universal Civic Service in Italy was constituted by young individuals with upper secondary educational attainment both in 2017 and 2019. The share of young volunteers with tertiary educational attainment was lower than for their counterparts with upper secondary educational attainment in 2017 and 2019, which is consistent with the fact that there were fewer young men and women with tertiary educational attainment than other educational attainment levels in Italy for those years, as shown in Figure 17 in section 5.1.3.1. There were almost no young volunteers with primary educational attainment, who constituted 0.4% and 1.0% of all young volunteers in the Universal Civic Service in Italy in 2017 and 2019, respectively. This implies that young individuals with primary educational attainment are less likely to engage in volunteering than their counterparts with higher educational attainment levels in Italy.

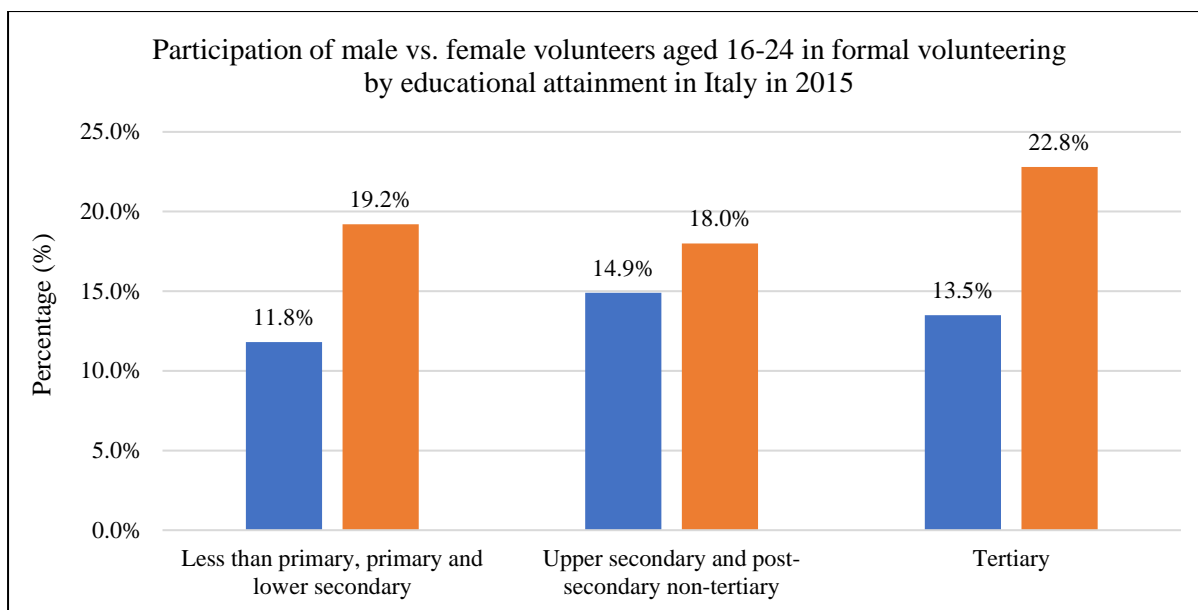


Figure 71. Participation of male vs. female volunteers aged 16-24 in formal volunteering by educational attainment in Italy in 2015.

Note: Data adapted from: "Participation in formal or informal voluntary activities or active citizenship by sex, age and educational attainment level" by Eurostat, 2021, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ILC\\_SCP19/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ILC_SCP19/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Eurostat.

Figure 71 shows that, as of 2015, participation of young females in formal volunteering was higher for all educational attainment levels than for their male counterparts in Italy. This is consistent with the fact that young female students in Italy participate in volunteering more than young male students, as well as the fact that young Italian women are more active in volunteering than women from other age groups (Cappadozzi, 2021). In 2015, the greatest difference between the participation of young males and females in volunteering was seen amongst youth with tertiary educational attainment in Italy, which is in accordance with having more young females with tertiary educational attainment than males in Italy for the same year, as provided in Figure 17 in section 5.1.3.1.

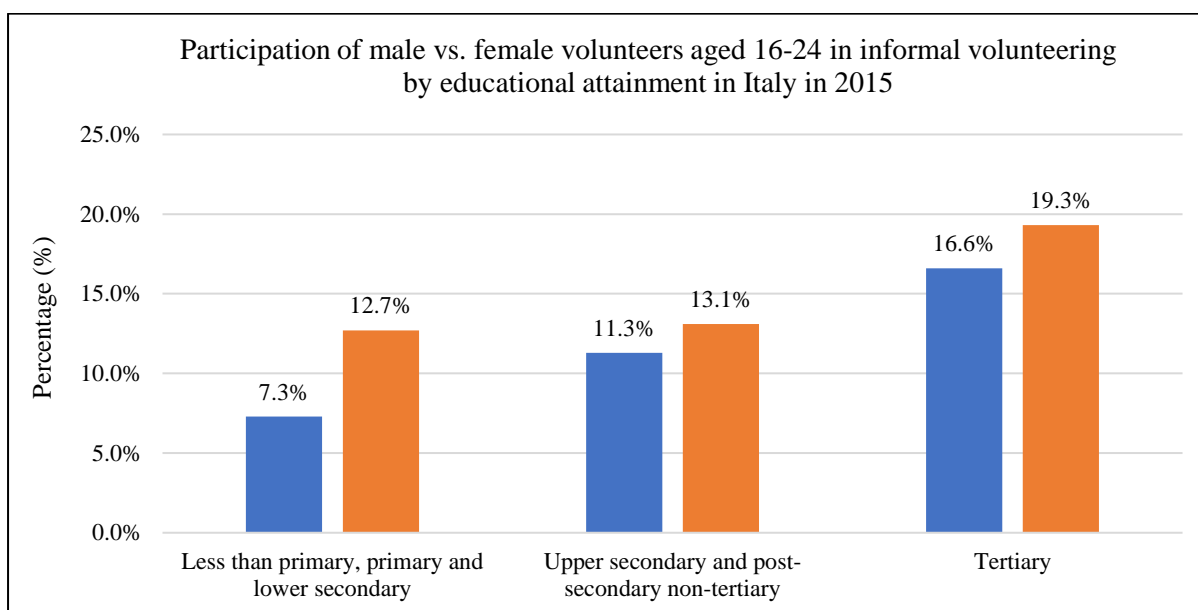


Figure 72. Participation of male vs. female volunteers aged 16-24 in informal volunteering by educational attainment in Italy in 2015.

Note: Data adapted from: “Participation in formal or informal voluntary activities or active citizenship by sex, age and educational attainment level” by Eurostat, 2021, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ILC\\_SCP19/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ILC_SCP19/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Eurostat.

Similar to formal volunteering, Figure 72 shows that participation of young females in informal volunteering was higher for all educational attainment levels than for their male counterparts in Italy in 2015. Nonetheless, the participation rates of young females with all educational attainment levels were lower for informal volunteering than formal in Italy for the same year. Even though participation of women of all age groups was higher for informal volunteering than formal in Italy in 2015, as presented in Figure 68, this was not true for young females, which is consistent with the Italian youth being more engaged in formal volunteering in 2015, as provided in Figure 67.

## 5.2.4 Luxembourg

### 5.2.4.1 Number of Volunteers

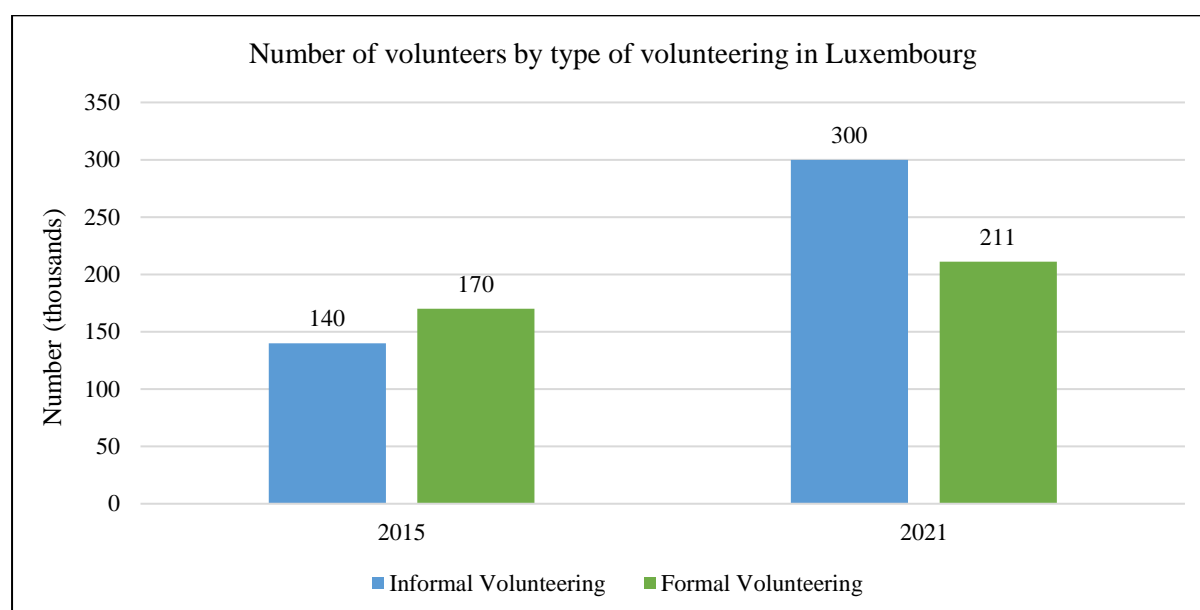


Figure 73. Number of volunteers by type of volunteering in Luxembourg in 2015.

Note: Data adapted from:

- “Volunteering Database: Luxembourg” by UN Volunteers, 2022, (<https://knowledge.unv.org/country/luxembourg>). (UN Volunteers, 2022). Copyright 2022 by UN Volunteers.
- “Enquête sur le bénévolat au Luxembourg” by TNS Ilres, 2021, (<https://mfamigr.gouvernement.lu/dam-assets/le-minist%C3%A8re/attributions/famille/benevolat/tns-ilres-le-benevolat-au-luxembourg-rapport-graphique-17-decembre-2021.pdf>). (TNS Ilres, 2021). Copyright 2021 by TNS Ilres.

As can be seen in Figure 73 above, the number of formal volunteers was higher than the number of informal volunteers in Luxembourg in 2015, while the opposite was true in 2021. Data presented in Figure 73, as well as in other Figures in this subsection, is based on a survey of 2,058 Luxembourgish residents aged 16 and above conducted by TNS Ilres in 2021. Upon weighting the results in accordance with the Luxembourgish population, the survey revealed that 59% of Luxembourgers participate in volunteering, as of 2021, with 33% of the population actively engaging in formal volunteering and 47% actively engaging in informal volunteering (TNS Ilres, 2021). Given that the Luxembourgish population totalled 639,321 people in 2021, 33% of the population equals approximately 211,000 people and 47% of the population equals approximately 300,000 people, as presented in Figure 73 above (Macrotrends, 2023) (TNS Ilres, 2021). From 2015 to 2021, the number of informal volunteers increased by 114.29% and the number of formal volunteers increased by 24.12% in Luxembourg.

### 5.2.4.2 Number of Young Volunteers

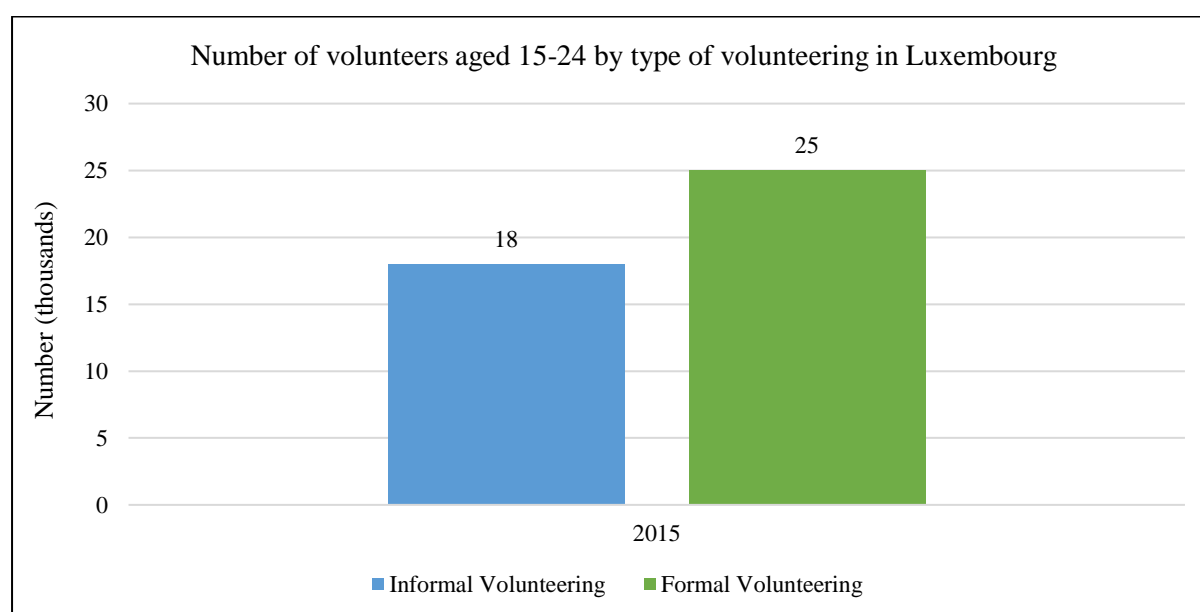


Figure 74. Number of volunteers aged 15-24 by type of volunteering in Luxembourg in 2015.

Note: Data adapted from: "Number of volunteers by age and type of volunteer work (thousands) - Annual" by ILOSTAT, 2015, ([https://www.ilo.org/shinyapps/bulkexplorer32/?lang=en&segment=indicator&id=FOW\\_TVOL\\_AGE\\_VOL\\_NB\\_A](https://www.ilo.org/shinyapps/bulkexplorer32/?lang=en&segment=indicator&id=FOW_TVOL_AGE_VOL_NB_A)). (ILOSTAT, 2015). Copyright 2022 by ILOSTAT.

As provided in Figure 74, there were more young volunteers in formal volunteering than in informal volunteering in Luxembourg in 2015. Similar to Finland, France and Italy, young volunteers in Luxembourg were more interested in formal volunteering because, being a registered social engagement, it provides more opportunities for education and career for young people. Generally, young informal volunteers represented 12.86% of the total number of informal volunteers and young formal volunteers represented 14.71% of the total number of formal volunteers in Luxembourg in 2015.

### 5.2.4.3 Male vs. Female Formal and Informal Volunteers

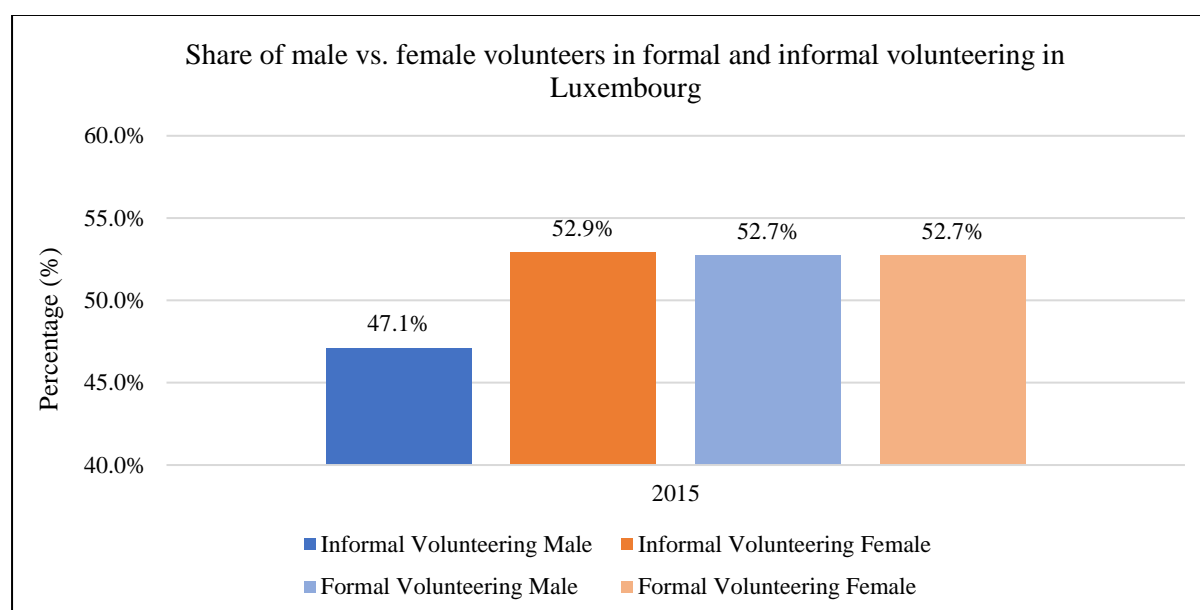


Figure 75. Share of male vs. female volunteers by type of volunteering in Luxembourg in 2015.

Note: Data adapted from: "Volunteering Database: Luxembourg" by UN Volunteers, 2022, (<https://knowledge.unv.org/country/luxembourg>). (UN Volunteers, 2022). Copyright 2022 by UN Volunteers.

Figure 75 shows that the share of female volunteers was higher for informal volunteering than the share of male volunteers in Luxembourg in 2015, whereas the shares of male and female volunteers were equal for formal volunteering in Luxembourg for the same year. The latter can be explained by the generally low levels of gender inequality within the organisations in Luxembourg, when compared with other countries (Georgi, Schmoetten, Brignone, & Faber, 2019). Moreover, the Ministry of Equality between Women and Men was created in Luxembourg in 2015, aiming to provide equal opportunities for women and men in terms of all types of social engagement (The Government of the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg, n.d.). Nonetheless, there were more women in informal volunteering in Luxembourg for the same year because the Luxembourgish females generally participated more in unpaid care work in Luxembourg (Georgi, Schmoetten, Brignone, & Faber, 2019).

#### 5.2.4.4 Volunteering by Educational Attainment

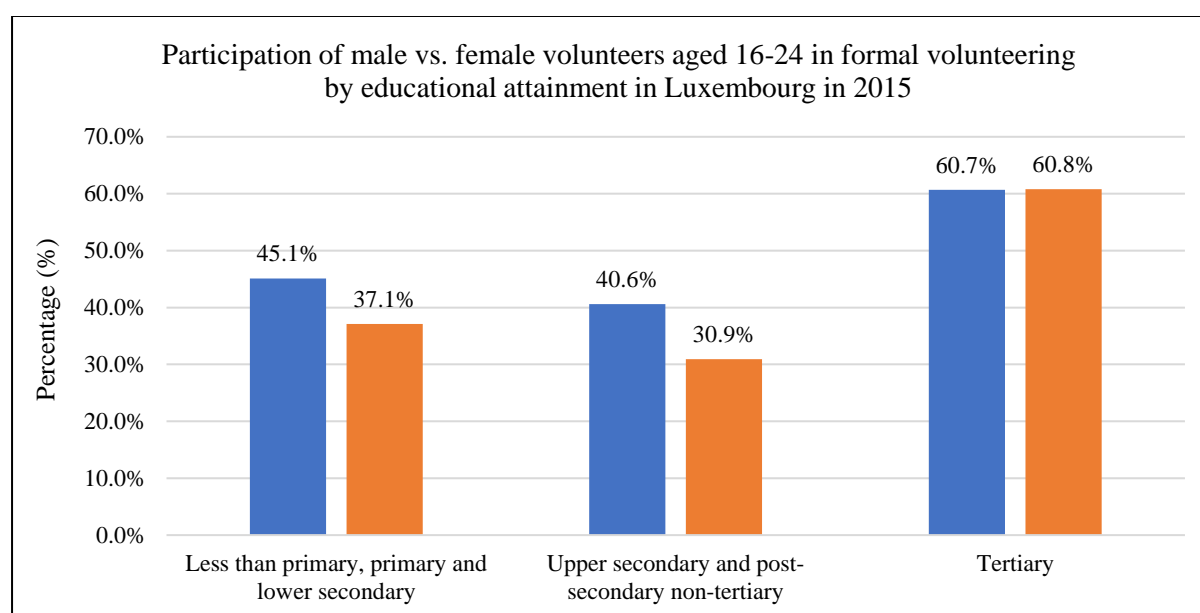
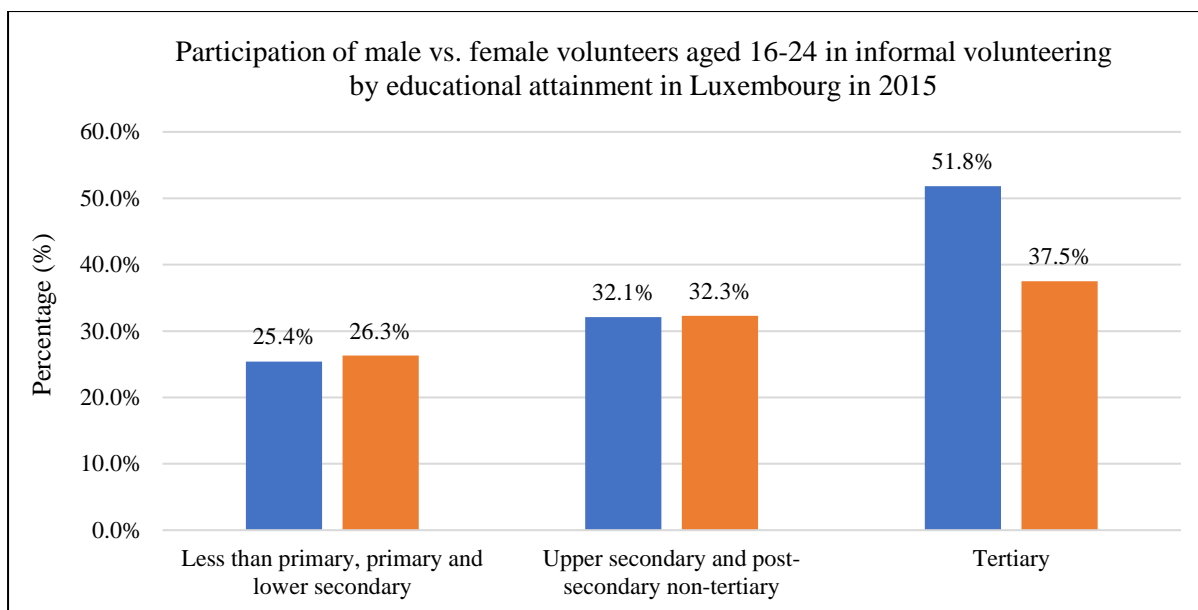


Figure 76. Participation of male vs. female volunteers aged 16-24 in formal volunteering by educational attainment in Luxembourg in 2015.

Note: Data adapted from: "Participation in formal or informal voluntary activities or active citizenship by sex, age and educational attainment level" by Eurostat, 2021, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ILC\\_SCP19/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ILC_SCP19/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Eurostat.

As presented in Figure 76 above, young males with less than primary, primary, lower secondary, upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment participated in formal volunteering more than their female counterparts in Luxembourg in 2015. Participation of young men and women with tertiary educational attainment was almost equal in Luxembourg in 2015. Overall, participation of both genders in formal volunteering was the highest for youth with tertiary educational attainment, as opposed to lower educational attainment levels. This is consistent with the characteristics of young volunteers in Luxembourg, provided by Youth Wiki, stating that young individuals with higher education are more likely to become volunteers in Luxembourg (European Commission, 2022). Characteristics also indicated that young men are more likely to participate in volunteering in associations and clubs than young men, which is consistent with the data provided in Figure 76 (European Commission, 2022).



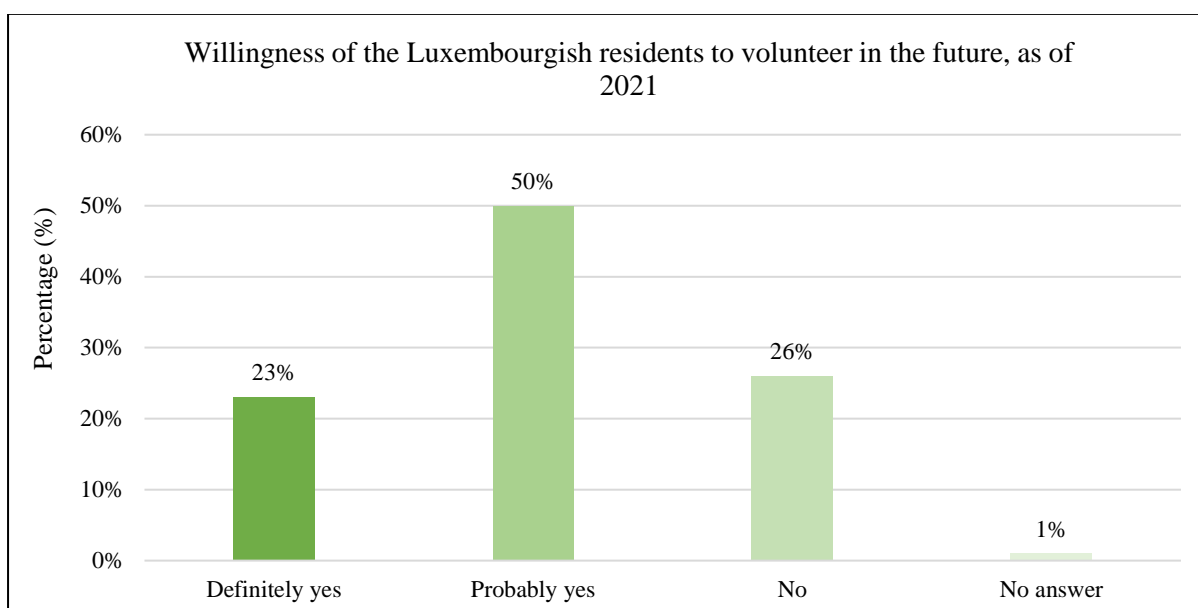


*Figure 77. Participation of male vs. female volunteers aged 16-24 in informal volunteering by educational attainment in Luxembourg in 2015.*

*Note: Data adapted from: "Participation in formal or informal voluntary activities or active citizenship by sex, age and educational attainment level" by Eurostat, 2021, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ILC\\_SCP19/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ILC_SCP19/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Eurostat.*

As shown in Figure 77, young females with less than primary, primary, lower secondary, upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment participated in informal volunteering more than their male counterparts in Luxembourg in 2015, although there was a small difference for less than primary, primary and lower secondary education and almost no difference for upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education. Participation of young males with tertiary educational attainment was higher than for their female counterparts in Luxembourg in 2015. Both young males and females participated in formal volunteering more than in informal volunteering for all educational attainment levels, with the exception of upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education for females, in Luxembourg in 2015. This is consistent with a generally higher participation of the Luxembourgish youth in formal volunteering for the same year, as shown in Figure 74.

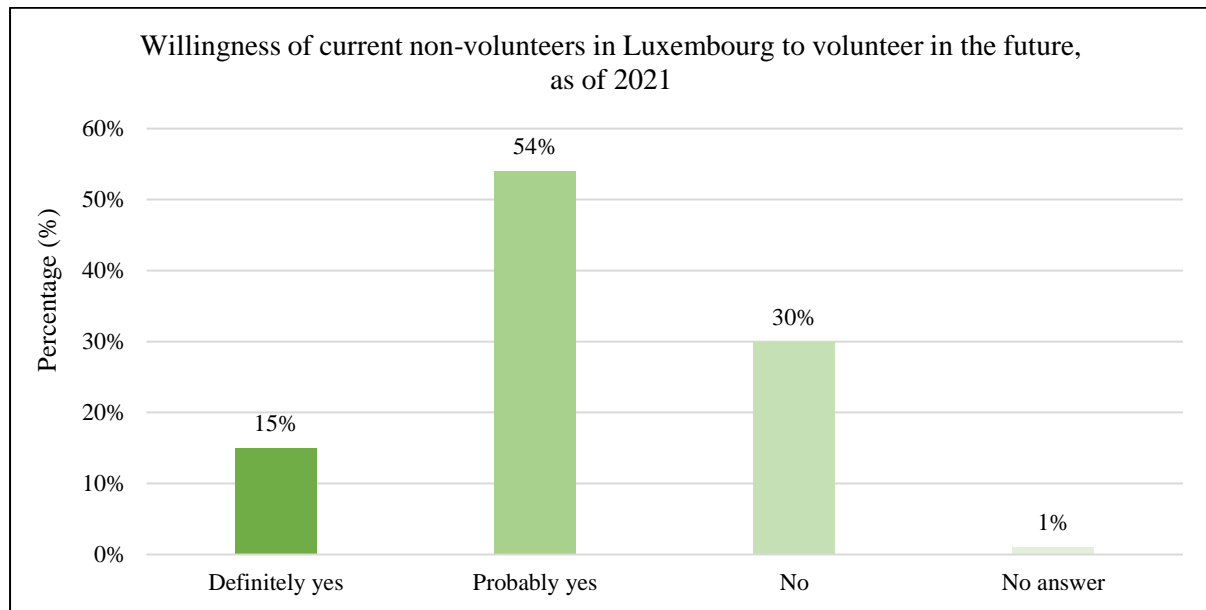
#### 5.2.4.5 Willingness to Volunteer



*Figure 78. Share of the Luxembourgish residents (sample size 2,058) by their responses in 2021 when asked if they are willing to volunteer in the future.*

*Note: Data adapted from: “Enquête sur le bénévolat au Luxembourg” by TNS Ilres, 2021, (<https://mfamigr.gouvernement.lu/dam-assets/le-minist%C3%A8re/attributions/famille/benevolat/ms-ilres-le-benevolat-au-luxembourg-rapport-graphique-17-decembre-2021.pdf>). (TNS Ilres, 2021). Copyright 2021 by TNS Ilres.*

Figure 78 shows that majority of the sampled Luxembourgish residents in 2021 answered that they are probably willing to volunteer in the future. Nevertheless, the share of the sampled Luxembourgish residents, who answered that they are not willing to volunteer in the future, was higher than the share of residents, who answered that they are definitely willing to volunteer in the future. It can be concluded that, although majority of residents in Luxembourg are potentially willing to volunteer, the number of the Luxembourgish residents, who are not willing to volunteer, is still significant, hence, should be addressed by policy-makers.



*Figure 79. Share of current non-volunteering Luxembourgish residents (sample size 788 / 2,058) by their responses in 2021 when asked if they are willing to volunteer in the future.*

*Note: Data adapted from: “Enquête sur le bénévolat au Luxembourg” by TNS Ilres, 2021, (<https://mfamigr.gouvernement.lu/dam-assets/le-minist%C3%A8re/attributions/famille/benevolat/ms-ilres-le-benevolat-au-luxembourg-rapport-graphique-17-decembre-2021.pdf>). (TNS Ilres, 2021). Copyright 2021 by TNS Ilres.*

Out of 2,058 Luxembourgish residents, who were surveyed by TNS Ilres in 2021, 788 residents were non-volunteers at the time (TNS Ilres, 2021). As provided in Figure 79, majority of the sampled current non-volunteers in Luxembourg in 2021 answered that they are probably willing to volunteer in the future, which is a positive indicator for social engagement in Luxembourg. Nonetheless, 30% of sampled current non-volunteers in Luxembourg in 2021 replied that they are not willing to volunteer in the future, representing a substantial lack of interest in volunteering activity in Luxembourg. Therefore, current non-volunteers should be targeted, when promoting volunteering opportunities, to increase their interest in this type of social engagement.

## 5.2.5 Slovakia

### 5.2.5.1 Number of Volunteers

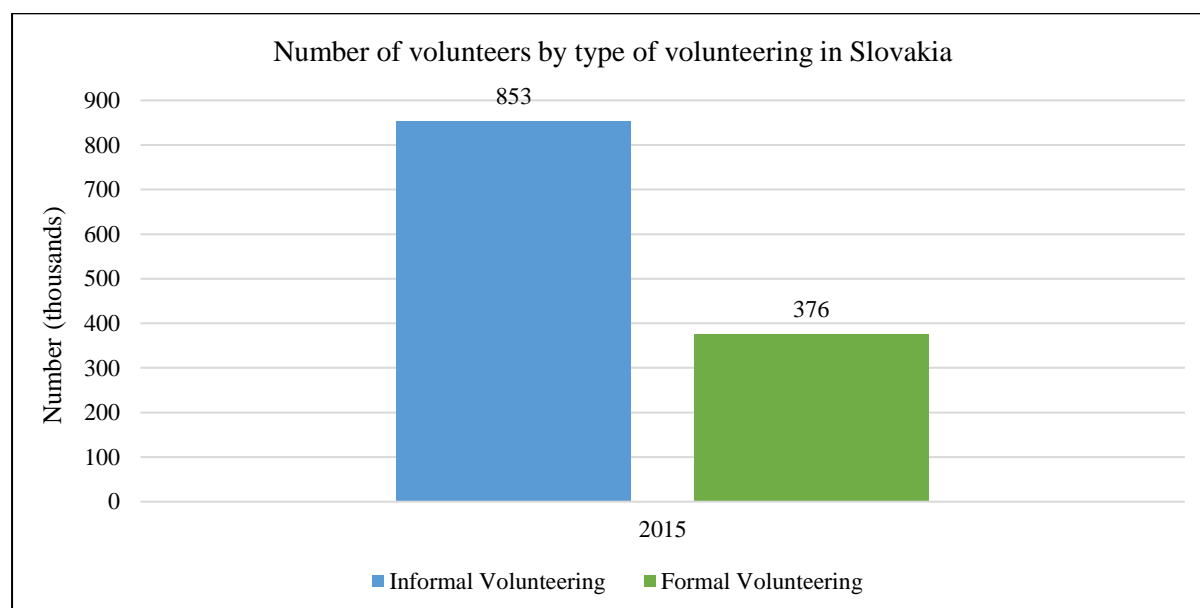


Figure 80. Number of volunteers by type of volunteering in Slovakia in 2015.

Note: Data adapted from: "Volunteering Database: Slovakia" by UN Volunteers, 2022, (<https://knowledge.unv.org/country/slovakia>). (UN Volunteers, 2022). Copyright 2022 by UN Volunteers.

As can be seen from Figure 80 above, there were more informal volunteers in Slovakia than formal volunteers in 2015 (note: data for the numbers of both formal and informal volunteers was not available for other years). The same was true for Finland, France and Italy for the given year, while there were more formal volunteers in Luxembourg in 2015.

### 5.2.5.2 Number of Young Volunteers

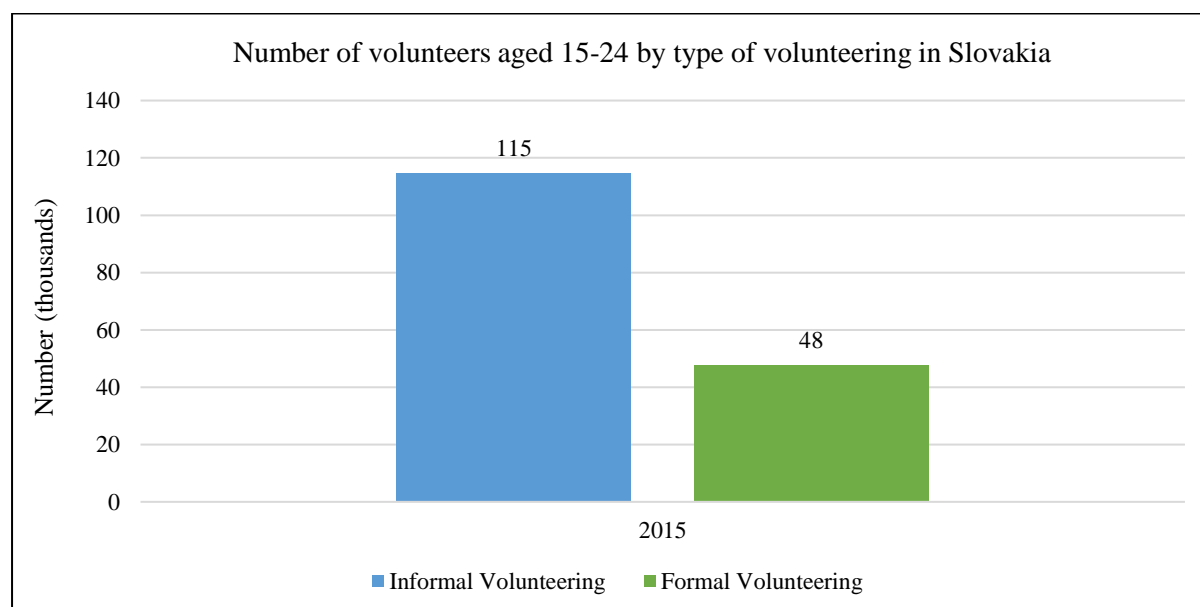


Figure 81. Number of volunteers aged 15-24 by type of volunteering in Slovakia in 2015.

Note: Data adapted from: "Number of volunteers by age and type of volunteer work (thousands) – Annual" by ILOSTAT, 2015, ([https://www.ilo.org/shinyapps/bulkexplorer32/?lang=en&segment=indicator&id=FOW\\_TVOL\\_AGE\\_VOL\\_NB\\_A](https://www.ilo.org/shinyapps/bulkexplorer32/?lang=en&segment=indicator&id=FOW_TVOL_AGE_VOL_NB_A)). (ILOSTAT, 2015). Copyright 2022 by ILOSTAT.

In contrast to other countries, Figure 81 shows that the number of young individuals in informal volunteering in Slovakia was higher than in formal volunteering in 2015. This can be explained by the fact that young individuals in Slovakia are more familiarised with informal volunteering activities, such as helping neighbours (European Commission, 2021). Generally, young informal volunteers represented 13.48% of the total number of informal volunteers and young formal volunteers represented 12.77% of the total number of formal volunteers in Slovakia in 2015.

### 5.2.5.3 Male vs. Female Formal and Informal Volunteers

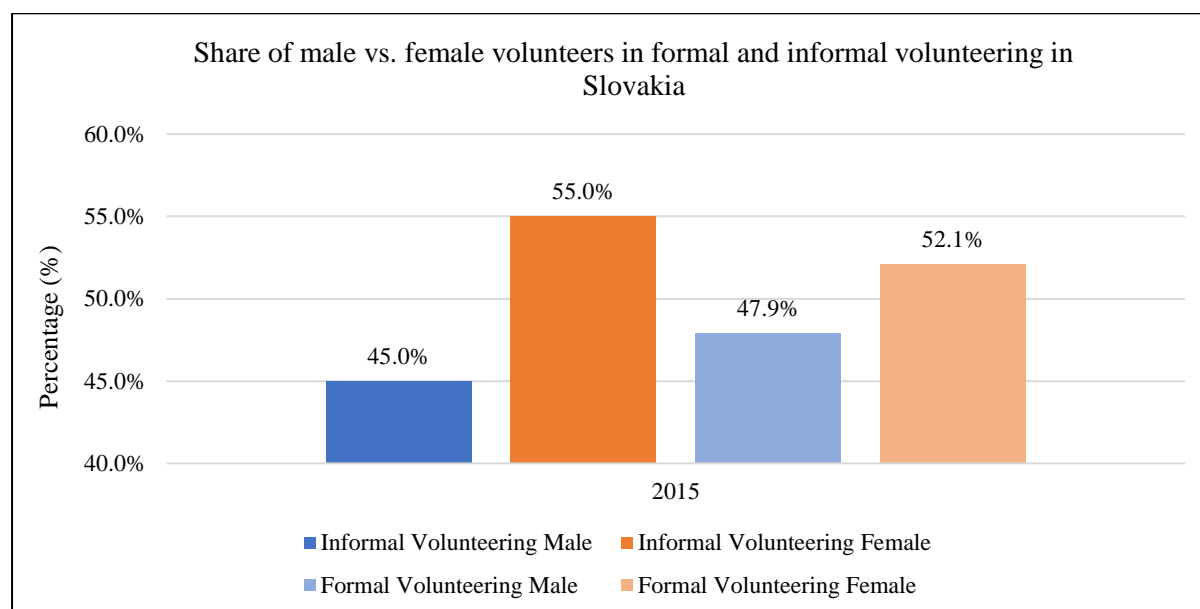


Figure 82. Share of male vs. female volunteers by type of volunteering in Slovakia in 2015.

Note: Data adapted from: "Volunteering Database: Slovakia" by UN Volunteers, 2022, (<https://knowledge.unv.org/country/slovakia>). (UN Volunteers, 2022). Copyright 2022 by UN Volunteers.

As provided in Figure 82, the share of females was higher than the share of males both in formal and informal volunteering in Slovakia in 2015. This indicates that women in Slovakia were more involved in volunteering activities, showing a higher commitment and frequency of participation, especially in informal volunteering (Brozmanová Gregorová, Šolcová, & Siekelová, 2018).

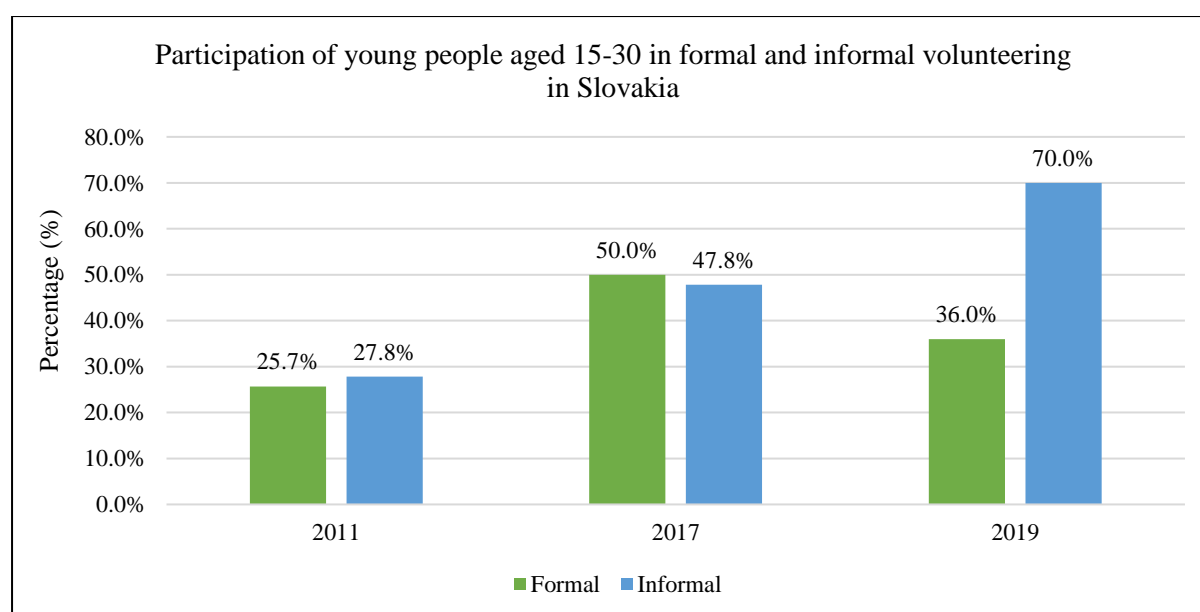


Figure 83. Share of young people aged 15-30 in formal and informal volunteering in Slovakia for years 2011 (sample size 327), 2017 (sample size 806) and 2019 (sample size 1,000).

Note: Data adapted from:

- “Dobrovoľníctvo mládeže na Slovensku – aktuálny stav a trendy” by A. Brozmanová Gregorová, M. Siekelová and J. Šolcová, 2018, ([https://www.dobrovolnickecentra.sk/images/stories/files/1.dobrovolnictvo\\_mladeze\\_online\\_2018.pdf](https://www.dobrovolnickecentra.sk/images/stories/files/1.dobrovolnictvo_mladeze_online_2018.pdf)). (Brozmanová Gregorová, Šolcová, & Siekelová, 2018). Copyright 2018 by Platforma dobrovoľníckych centier a organizácií.
- “Mládež - občianska spoločnosť a participácia” by K. Čavojská, J. Feherpataky-Kuzmová and V. Fishbone Vlčková, 2020, ([https://www.minv.sk/swift\\_data/source/rozvoj\\_obcianskej\\_spolocnosti/vyskum\\_neziskoveho\\_sektora\\_a\\_obcianskej\\_spolocnosti/2020/Sektorova%20rada\\_mladez.pdf](https://www.minv.sk/swift_data/source/rozvoj_obcianskej_spolocnosti/vyskum_neziskoveho_sektora_a_obcianskej_spolocnosti/2020/Sektorova%20rada_mladez.pdf)). (Čavojská, Feherpataky-Kuzmová, & Vlčková, 2020). Copyright 2020 by Ministerstvo Vnútra Slovenskej Republiky.

Data presented in Figure 83, as well as in other Figures in this subsection, is based on two Slovak studies. In 2017, A. Brozmanová Gregorová, M. Siekelová and J. Šolcová conducted a study on youth volunteering trends in Slovakia with a sample of 806 people aged 15-30, comparing the results of a similar study from 2011, with a sample size of 327 participants (Brozmanová Gregorová, Šolcová, & Siekelová, 2018). Another study was conducted by K. Čavojská, J. Feherpataky-Kuzmová and V. Fishbone Vlčková in 2019, aiming to analyse the participation of youth in civil and social engagement, including volunteering, with a sample of 1,000 people aged 15-30 (Čavojská, Feherpataky-Kuzmová, & Vlčková, 2020). Figure 83 above presents the merged results of both studies, showing that there were more young individuals in informal volunteering in Slovakia for years 2011 and 2019. Even though participation of youth in formal volunteering increased significantly in 2017, overtaking participation in informal volunteering, sampled youth showed a higher engagement in volunteering activities, which were not organised by an association or an organisation, in later years.

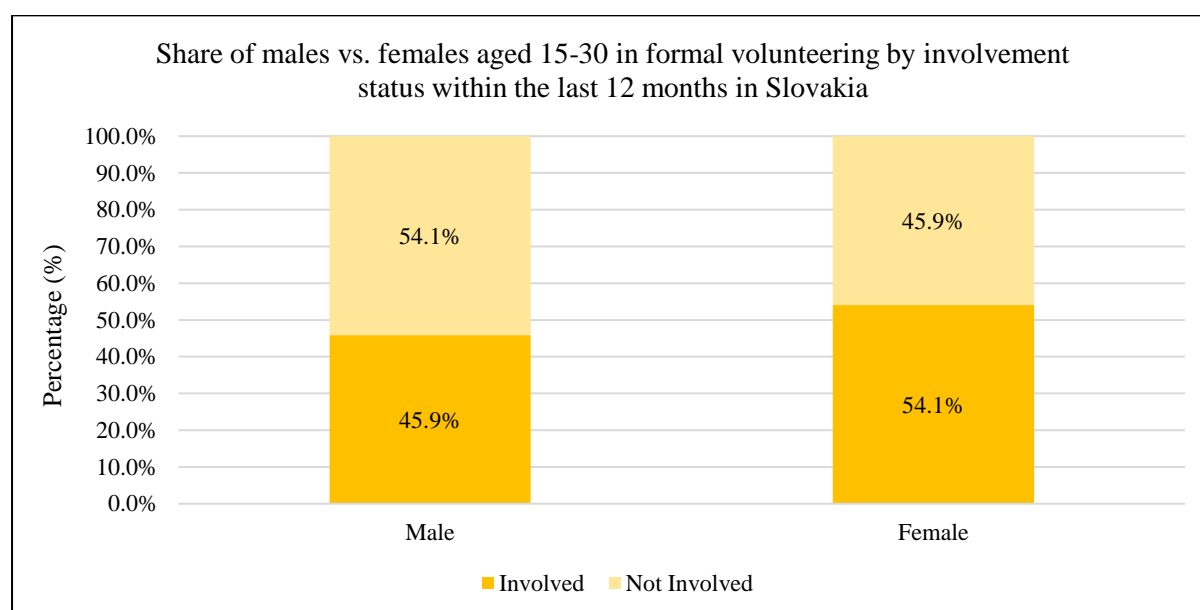


Figure 84. Share of males vs. females aged 15-29 in formal volunteering by involvement status within the last 12 months in Slovakia in 2017 (sample size 806).

Note: Data adapted from: “Dobrovoľníctvo mládeže na Slovensku – aktuálny stav a trendy” by A. Brozmanová Gregorová, M. Siekelová and J. Šolcová, 2018, ([https://www.dobrovolnickecentra.sk/images/stories/files/1.dobrovolnictvo\\_mladeze\\_online\\_2018.pdf](https://www.dobrovolnickecentra.sk/images/stories/files/1.dobrovolnictvo_mladeze_online_2018.pdf)). (Brozmanová Gregorová, Šolcová, & Siekelová, 2018). Copyright 2018 by Platforma dobrovoľníckych centier a organizácií.

As provided in Figure 84, at the time of the survey in 2017, majority of sampled young men indicated that they were not involved in formal volunteering in Slovakia in the past 12 months. In contrast, majority of sampled young women indicated that they were involved in formal volunteering in Slovakia in the past 12 months. Nonetheless, the differences between the shares of involved and non-involved young individuals among both genders were less than 10%. This shows that a significant number of young males and females in Slovakia were not participating in formal volunteering activities.

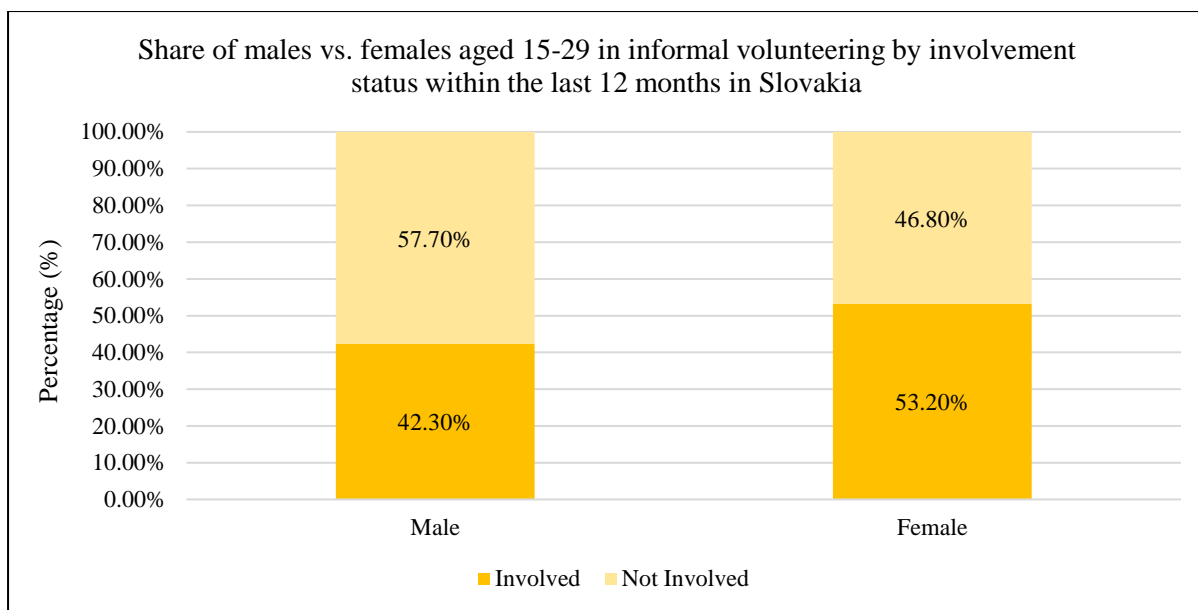


Figure 85. Share of males vs. females aged 15-29 in informal volunteering by involvement status within the last 12 months in Slovakia in 2017 (sample size 806).

Note: Data adapted from: “Dobrovoľníctvo mládeže na Slovensku – aktuálny stav a trendy” by A. Brožmanová Gregorová, M. Siekelová and J. Šolcová, 2018, ([https://www.dobrovolnickecentra.sk/images/stories/files/1.dobrovolnictvo\\_mladeze\\_online\\_2018.pdf](https://www.dobrovolnickecentra.sk/images/stories/files/1.dobrovolnictvo_mladeze_online_2018.pdf)). (Brožmanová Gregorová, Šolcová, & Siekelová, 2018). Copyright 2018 by Platforma dobrovoľníckych centier a organizácií.

Similar to formal volunteering, Figure 85 shows that, at the time of the survey in 2017, majority of sampled young men indicated that they were not involved in informal volunteering in Slovakia in the past 12 months, while the opposite was true for sampled young women. The data presented in both Figures 84 and 85 is consistent with the fact that there were generally more females involved in both formal and informal volunteering in Slovakia in previous years, as shown in Figure 82.

#### 5.2.5.4 Volunteering by Educational Attainment

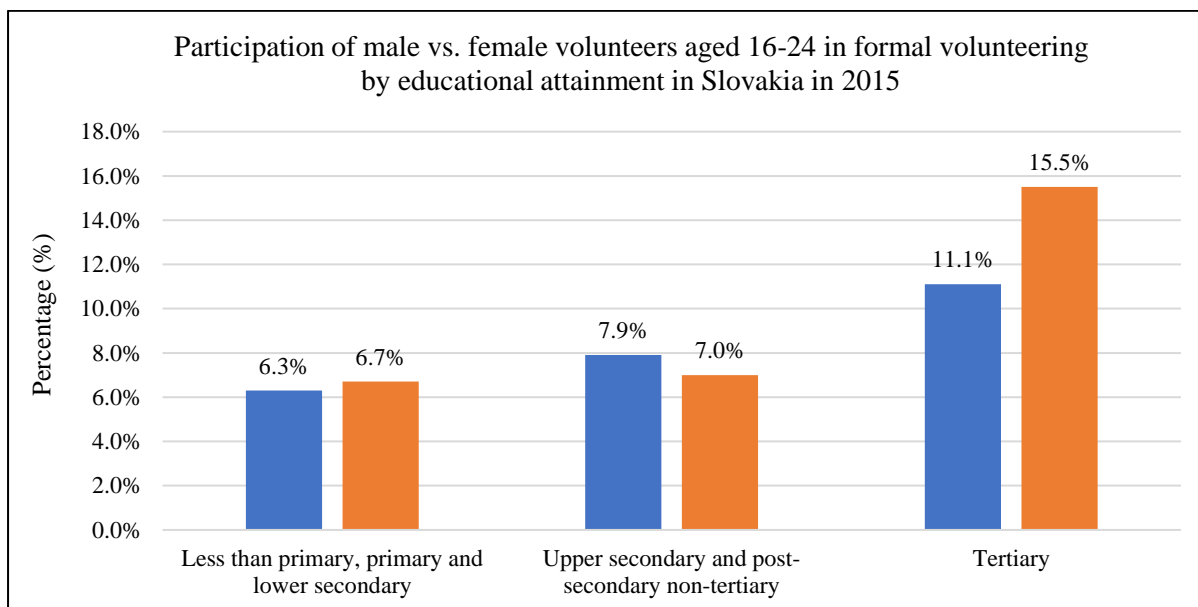
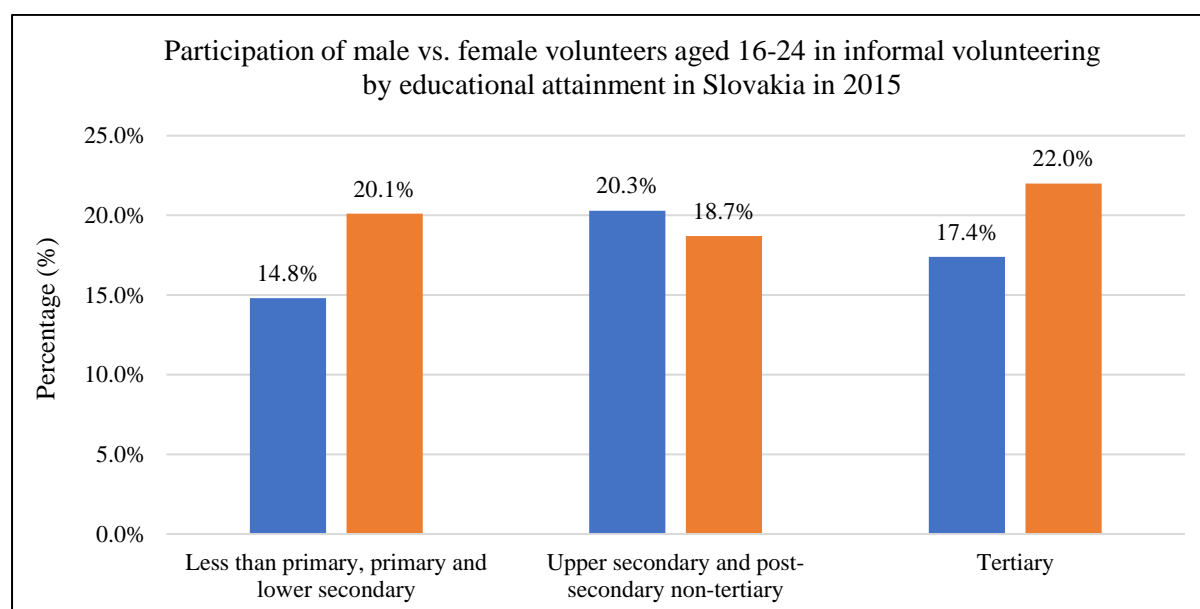


Figure 86. Participation of male vs. female volunteers aged 16-24 in formal volunteering by educational attainment in Slovakia in 2015.

Note: Data adapted from: “Participation in formal or informal voluntary activities or active citizenship by sex, age and educational attainment level” by Eurostat, 2021, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ILC\\_SCP19/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ILC_SCP19/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Eurostat.

As provided in Figure 86, young females with less than primary, primary, lower secondary and tertiary educational attainment participated more in formal volunteering than their male counterparts in Slovakia in 2015, while the opposite was true for youth with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment. The latter could be explained by the higher share of young men with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education in Slovakia for the same year, as shown in Figure 28.



*Figure 87. Participation of male vs. female volunteers aged 16-24 in informal volunteering by educational attainment in Slovakia in 2015.*

*Note: Data adapted from: "Participation in formal or informal voluntary activities or active citizenship by sex, age and educational attainment level" by Eurostat, 2021, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ILC\\_SCP19/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ILC_SCP19/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Eurostat.*

Figure 87 shows that young females with less than primary, primary, lower secondary and tertiary educational attainment also participated in informal volunteering more than their male counterparts in Slovakia in 2015. Similar to formal volunteering, participation of young men in informal volunteering was higher than of young women only for youth with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment in Slovakia in 2015. Participation of both young males and females in informal volunteering was higher than in formal volunteering for all educational attainment levels in Slovakia in 2015. This is consistent with a generally higher participation of youth in informal volunteering in Slovakia for the same year, as presented in Figure 81.

## 5.2.6 Spain

### 5.2.6.1 Number of Volunteers

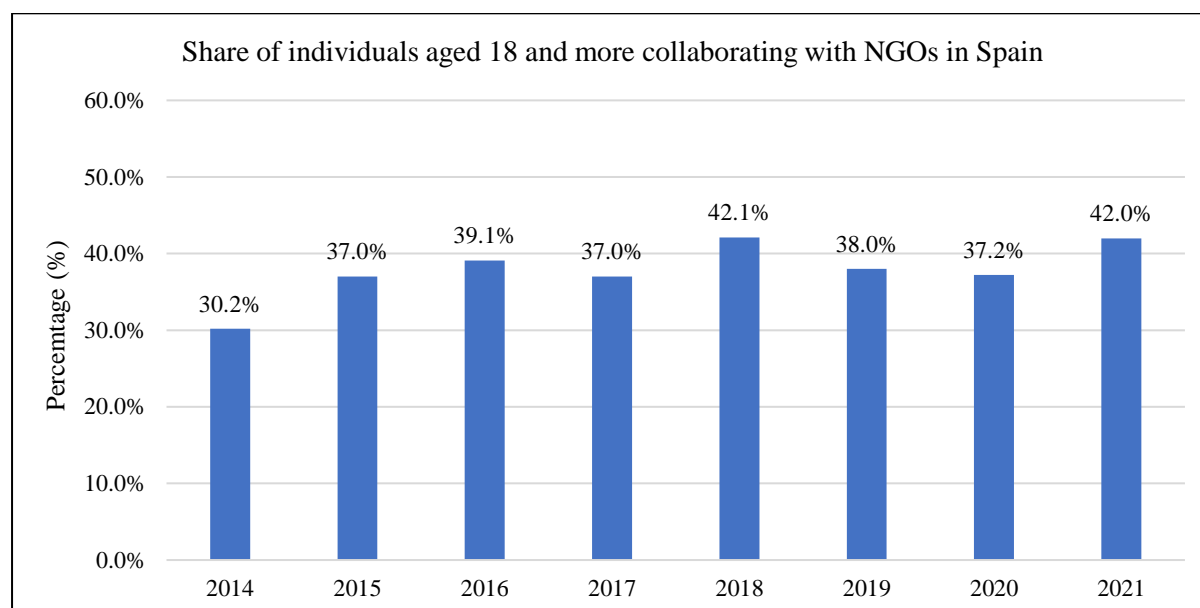


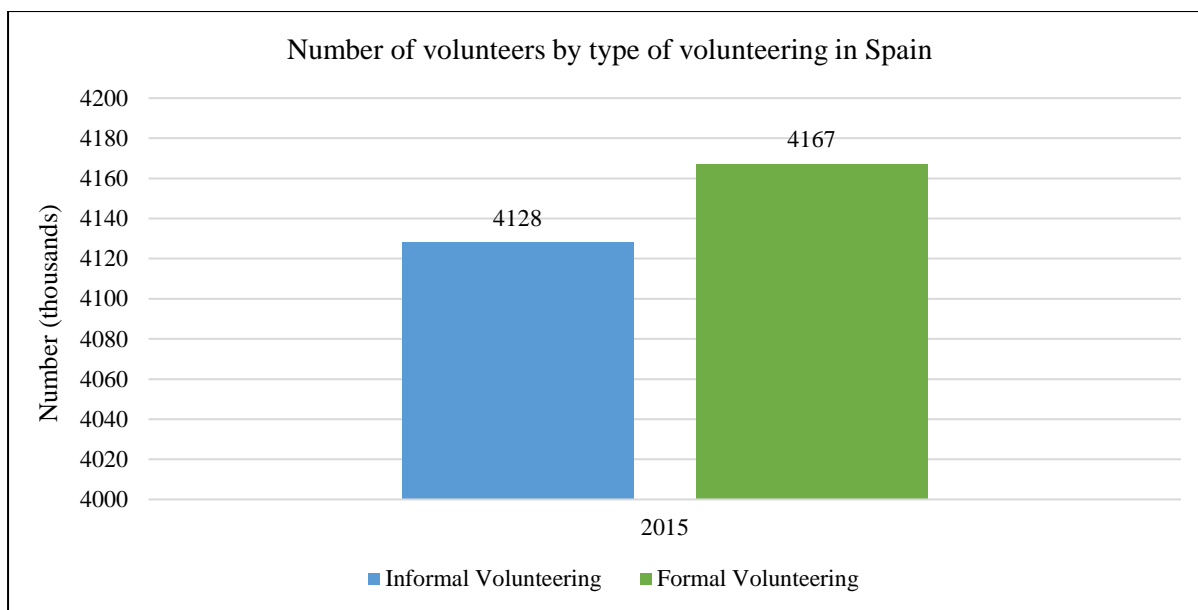
Figure 88. Share of individuals aged 18 and more collaborating with NGOs in Spain for years 2014-2021.

Note: Data adapted from:

- “LA ACCIÓN VOLUNTARIA EN 2018” by Plataforma Del Voluntariado De España, 2018, (<https://plataformavoluntariado.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/02/ultima2018-accionvoluntaria.pdf>). (Plataforma del Voluntariado de España, 2018). Copyright 2018 by Plataforma Del Voluntariado De España.
- “LA ACCIÓN VOLUNTARIA EN 2021” by Plataforma Del Voluntariado De España, 2021, (<https://library.co/document/q2n4vm0r-acci%C3%B3n-voluntaria-avanzando-agenda.html>). (Plataforma del Voluntariado de España, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Plataforma Del Voluntariado De España.

Data presented in Figure 88, as well as in other Figures in this subsection, is based on the studies conducted by Plataforma Del Voluntariado De España. The studies focused on examining volunteering engagement in Spain for several consecutive years to observe the changes in volunteering trends for the Spanish population, with the latest study presenting results for 2021 (Plataforma del Voluntariado de España, 2021). Plataforma Del Voluntariado De España used the data on collaboration of the Spanish population with Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) as one of the key ways to measure the volunteering activity. As can be seen in Figure 88, the share of individuals aged 18 and above collaborating with NGOs in Spain experienced an increasing trend from 2014-2018, except for 2017. The share of individuals aged 18 and above collaborating with NGOs in Spain decreased during 2020 due to the negative implications of Covid-19 but then increased again during the pandemic recovery in 2021, almost reaching its 2018 level.



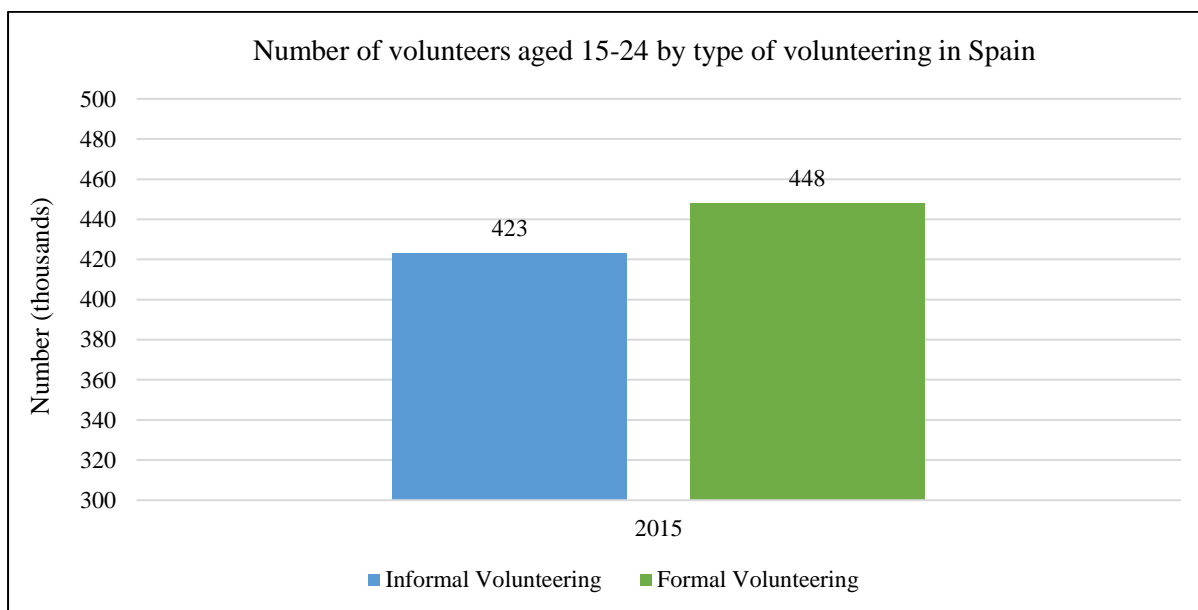


*Figure 89. Number of volunteers by type of volunteering in Spain in 2015.*

*Note: Data adapted from: "Volunteering Database: Spain" by UN Volunteers, 2022, (<https://knowledge.unv.org/country/spain>). (UN Volunteers, 2022). Copyright 2022 by UN Volunteers.*

Figure 89 shows that there were more formal than informal volunteers in Spain in 2015 (*note: data for the numbers of both formal and informal volunteers was not available for other years*). The only other country, which had a higher number of formal volunteers for the same year, was Luxembourg.

### 5.2.6.2 Number of Young Volunteers



*Figure 90. Number of volunteers aged 15-24 by type of volunteering in Spain in 2015.*

*Note: Data adapted from: "Number of volunteers by age and type of volunteer work (thousands) - Annual" by ILOSTAT, 2015, ([https://www.ilo.org/shinyapps/bulkexplorer32/?lang=en&segment=indicator&id=FOW\\_TVOL\\_AGE\\_VOL\\_NB\\_A](https://www.ilo.org/shinyapps/bulkexplorer32/?lang=en&segment=indicator&id=FOW_TVOL_AGE_VOL_NB_A)). (ILOSTAT, 2015). Copyright 2022 by ILOSTAT.*

As provided in Figure 90, there were more young volunteers in formal volunteering than in informal volunteering in Spain in 2015. Similar to Finland, France, Italy and Luxembourg, young volunteers in Spain were attracted to formal volunteering due to its benefits for their career prospects and education opportunities. Generally, young informal volunteers represented 10.25% of the total number of informal

volunteers and young formal volunteers represented 10.75% of the total number of formal volunteers in Spain in 2015.

### 5.2.6.3 Volunteering by Age Group

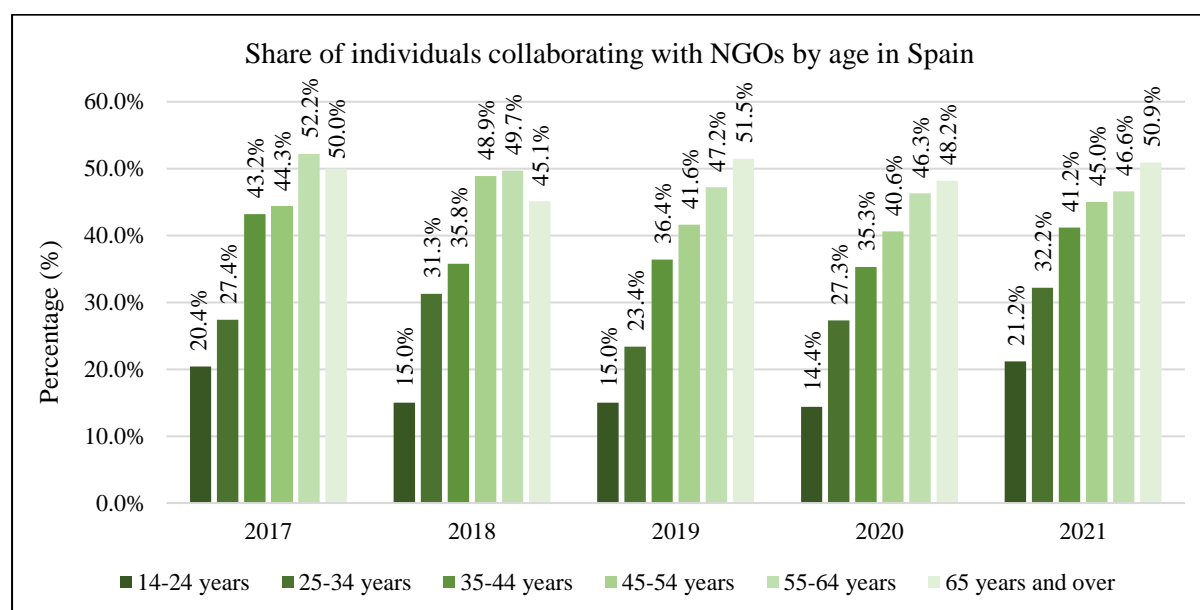


Figure 91. Share of individuals collaborating with NGOs by age in Spain for years 2017-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "LA ACCIÓN VOLUNTARIA EN 2021" by Plataforma Del Voluntariado De España, 2021, (<https://1library.co/document/q2n4vm0r-acci%C3%B3n-voluntaria-avanzando-agenda.html>). (Plataforma del Voluntariado de España, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Plataforma Del Voluntariado De España.

As provided in Figure 91 above, the share of individuals collaborating with NGOs was the lowest for young individuals aged 14-24 in Spain over the period of 2017-2021. This implies that youth aged 14-24 represented the least active age group in volunteering for NGOs in Spain. Over the period of 2017-2020, the share of young individuals aged 14-24 collaborating with NGOs in Spain was declining, being the lowest in 2020 during the pandemic. In 2021, the share of young individuals aged 14-24 collaborating with NGOs in Spain increased to its highest level over the given period, however, remained lower than for other age groups. This indicates the need to implement more effective ways to attract the Spanish youth to volunteering. This is also supported by the data provided in Figure 92 below, which shows that, even though 21.2% of youth aged 14-24 collaborated in some way with NGOs in Spain in 2021, only 7.9% of them per Spanish population were actively volunteering.

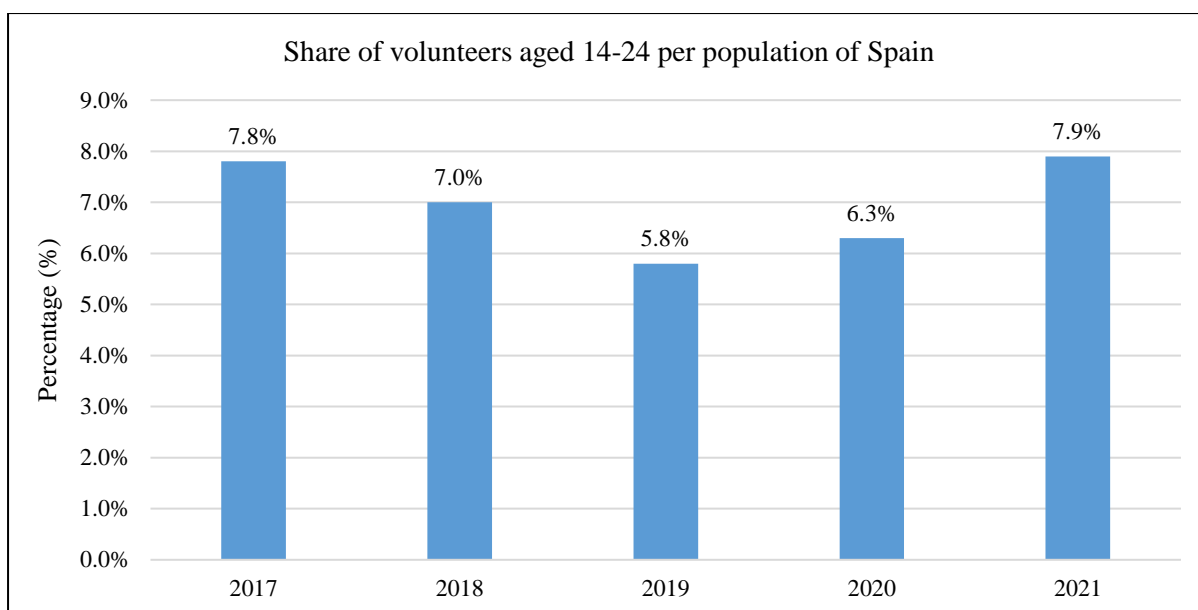


Figure 92. Share of volunteers aged 14-24 per population of Spain for years 2017-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: “LA ACCIÓN VOLUNTARIA EN 2021” by Plataforma Del Voluntariado De España, 2021, (<https://1library.co/document/q2n4vm0r-acci%C3%B3n-voluntaria-avanzando-agenda.html>). (Plataforma del Voluntariado de España, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Plataforma Del Voluntariado De España.

Over the period of 2019-2021, the share of volunteers aged 14-24 per Spanish population increased. Nonetheless, it remained below 10%, implying that a vast majority of young people in Spain is not actively involved in volunteering. This leads to a conclusion that more efficient engagement tools should be used to increase the interest of the Spanish youth in volunteering activities.

#### 5.2.6.4 Volunteering by Gender

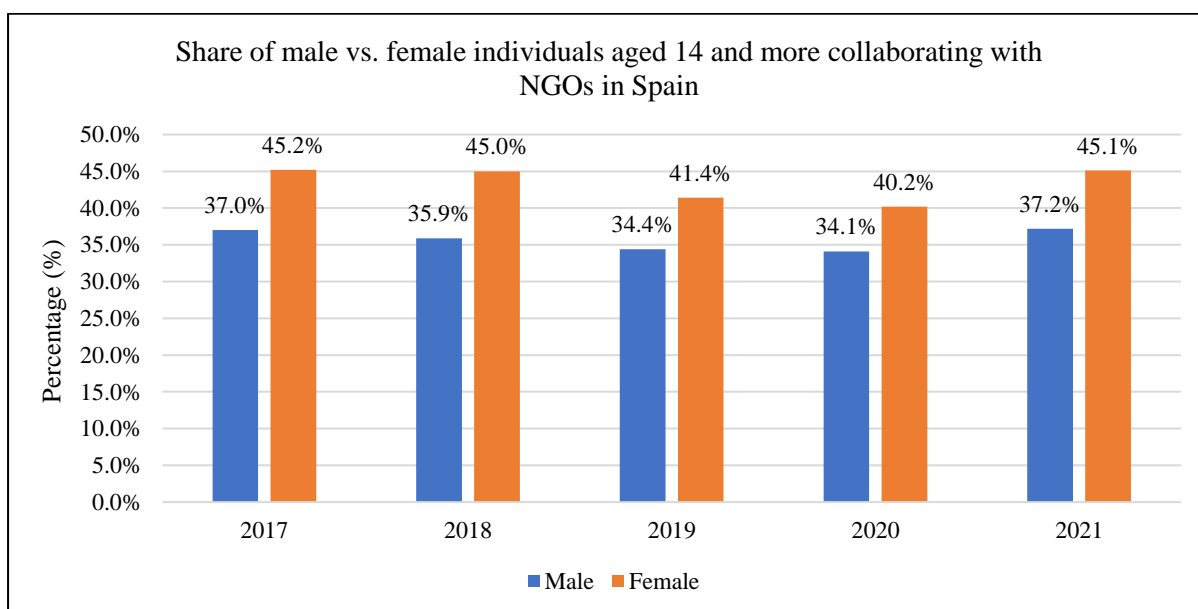


Figure 93. Share of male vs. female individuals aged 14 and more collaborating with NGOs in Spain for years 2017-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: “LA ACCIÓN VOLUNTARIA EN 2021” by Plataforma Del Voluntariado De España, 2021, (<https://1library.co/document/q2n4vm0r-acci%C3%B3n-voluntaria-avanzando-agenda.html>). (Plataforma del Voluntariado de España, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Plataforma Del Voluntariado De España.

When looking at gender differences in NGO collaboration in Spain, Figure 93 shows that there were more females aged 14 and above collaborating with NGOs than males in Spain over the entire period

of 2017-2021. Collaboration of both genders with NGOs decreased in 2020 due to the pandemic restrictions in Spain, but then increased to the highest levels throughout the given period in 2021 during the pandemic recovery. Even though the overall level of collaboration with NGOs in Spain is higher for females, there still exist more masculine and feminine types of volunteering activities within social engagement in Spain. For example, men participate more in volunteering activities related to civil protection and sports, while women participate more in volunteering activities related to education and leisure (European Commission, 2021).

#### 5.2.6.5 Male vs. Female Formal and Informal Volunteers

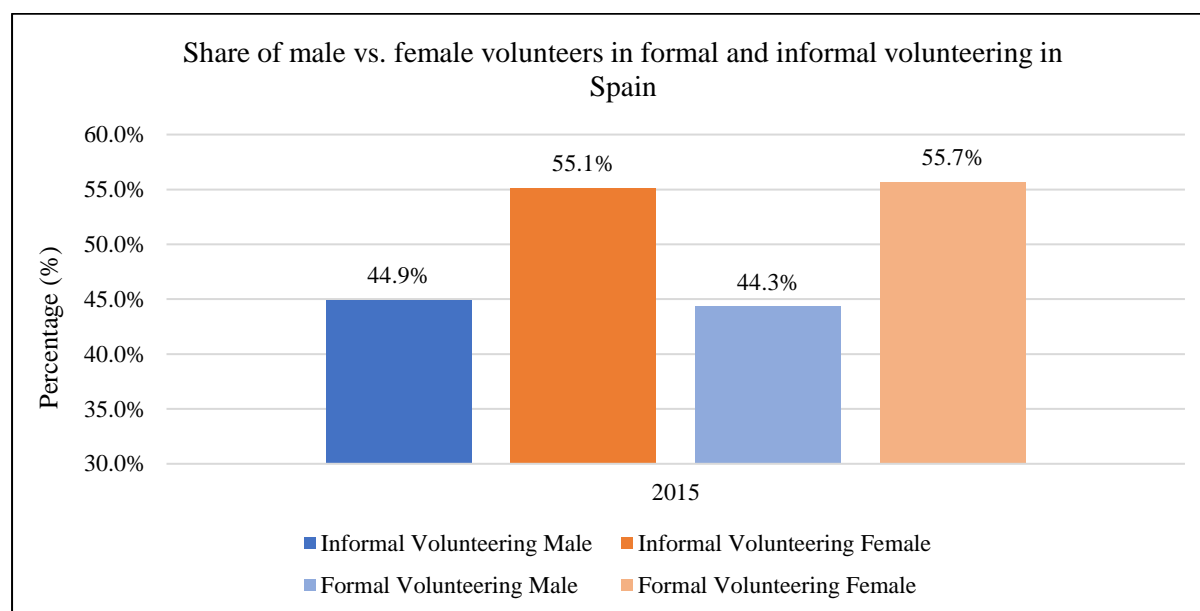


Figure 94. Share of male vs. female volunteers by type of volunteering in Spain in 2015.

Note: Data adapted from: "Volunteering Database: Spain" by UN Volunteers, 2022, (<https://knowledge.unv.org/country/spain>). (UN Volunteers, 2022). Copyright 2022 by UN Volunteers.

As provided in Figure 94 above, there were more females both in formal and informal volunteering than males in Spain in 2015, which is consistent with a generally higher participation of women in volunteering activities and NGO collaboration in Spain for later years, as shown in Figure 93. The shares of both genders were almost identical in formal and informal volunteering in Spain in 2015. This is in accordance with the data presented in Figure 89, which shows that, although there were more informal volunteers in Spain in 2015, the difference between the numbers of formal and informal volunteers was not substantial.

### 5.2.6.6 Volunteering by Educational Attainment

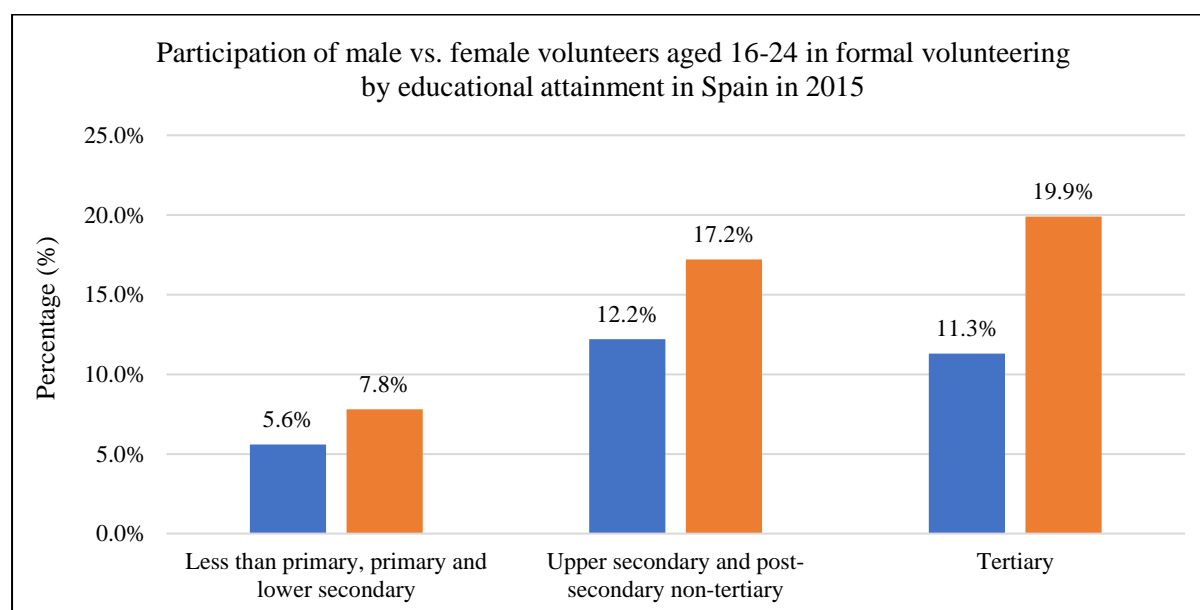


Figure 95. Participation of male vs. female volunteers aged 16-24 in formal volunteering by educational attainment in Spain in 2015.

Note: Data adapted from: "Participation in formal or informal voluntary activities or active citizenship by sex, age and educational attainment level" by Eurostat, 2021, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ILC\\_SCP19/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ILC_SCP19/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Eurostat.

Figure 95 shows that there was a higher participation of young females in formal volunteering than of young males for all educational attainment levels in Spain in 2015, which is consistent with a generally greater share of women in formal volunteering in Spain for the same year, as provided in Figure 94. The highest participation of young females in formal volunteering was for young women with tertiary educational attainment, indicating that having a higher educational attainment level increases the likelihood of young females to engage in formal volunteering in Spain.

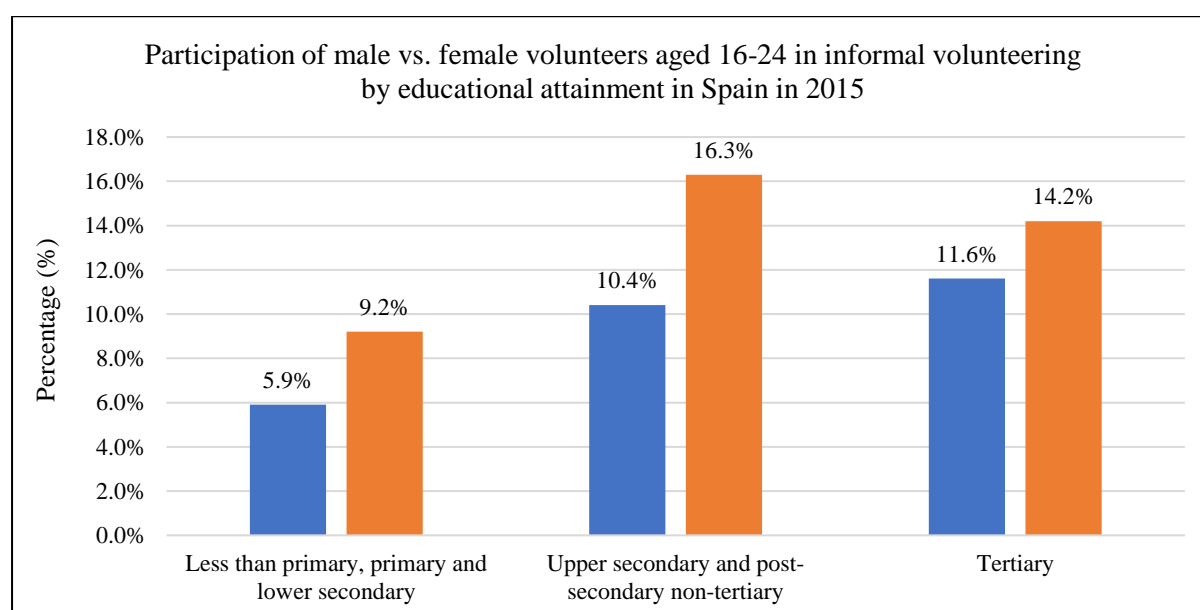


Figure 96. Participation of male vs. female volunteers aged 16-24 in informal volunteering by educational attainment in Spain in 2015.

*Note: Data adapted from: “Participation in formal or informal voluntary activities or active citizenship by sex, age and educational attainment level” by Eurostat, 2021, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ILC\\_SCP19/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ILC_SCP19/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Eurostat.*

As presented in Figure 96, there was a higher participation of young females in informal volunteering than of young males for all educational attainment levels in Spain in 2015, which is also consistent with a generally greater share of females in informal volunteering in Spain for the same year, as provided in Figure 94. The highest participation of young females in formal volunteering was for young women with upper secondary and post-tertiary educational attainment, in contrast to formal volunteering. In 2015, participation of young females with upper secondary, post-secondary non-tertiary and tertiary educational attainment was greater for formal than informal volunteering in Spain, which is consistent with a higher number of formal young volunteers in Spain for the same year, as shown in Figure 90.

## 5.2.7 Summary

In terms of the total number of formal and informal volunteers, there were more informal volunteers in Finland, France, Italy and Slovakia in 2015, while there were more formal volunteers in Luxembourg and Spain for the same year. In 2015, countries were ranked from the highest to the lowest number of formal and informal volunteers in the following order: France, Italy, Spain, Finland, Slovakia and Luxembourg. This is consistent with the sizes of the total population of each country in 2015 – France had the highest population of 63,809,769 people, followed by Italy with 60,232,906 people, Spain with 46,431,342 people, Finland with 5,479,461 people, Slovakia with 5,424,444 people and Luxembourg with 569,408 people (Macrotrends, 2023) (Macrotrends, 2023) (Macrotrends, 2023) (Macrotrends, 2023) (Macrotrends, 2023) (Macrotrends, 2023).

In terms of the number of formal and informal volunteers aged 15-24, there were more formal young volunteers in all countries in 2015, except for Slovakia. Once again, France generally had the highest number of young volunteers, followed by Italy, Spain, Finland, Slovakia and Luxembourg. This is also consistent with the population of youth for 2015, with France having the highest population of 7,859,231 young people aged 15-24, followed by Italy with 5,946,572 young people, Spain with 4,472,595 young people, Slovakia with 659,235 young people, Finland with 648,668 young people and Luxembourg with 67,292 young people (Eurostat, 2022). Note that Slovakia had a higher population of young people than Finland in 2015, yet it had a lower number of young volunteers than Finland for the same year. As of 2015, formal young volunteers represented 70.30% of the total youth population in Finland, 19.25% in France, 14.65% in Italy, 37.15% in Luxembourg, 7.28% in Slovakia and 10.02% in Spain. Informal young volunteers represented 26.21% of the total youth population in Finland, 17.10% in France, 10.66% in Italy, 26.75% in Luxembourg, 17.44% in Slovakia and 10.02% in Spain in 2015. When looking at the number of formal and informal young volunteers as a part of the total youth population in 2015 rather than absolute numbers, it can be seen that Finland had the highest proportion of youth population being formal volunteers and Luxembourg had the highest proportion of youth population being informal volunteers for the given year.

In terms of the share of males and females in formal volunteering, there were more women in formal volunteering in Italy, Slovakia and Spain, while there were more men in formal volunteering in Finland and France in 2015. The shares of males and females in formal volunteering in Luxembourg were equal for the given year. For informal volunteering, there were more women in all countries in 2015, except for Finland, where the shares of males and females in informal volunteering were equal.

In terms of the participation of young males and females in formal volunteering by educational attainment, for less than primary, primary and lower secondary education, participation was higher for young women in all countries, except for Luxembourg, in 2015. For upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education, participation in formal volunteering was higher for young females in Finland, Italy and Spain, while it was higher for young males in France, Luxembourg and Slovakia in 2015. For tertiary education, participation in formal volunteering was higher for young females in all

countries, except for France, where male participation was higher, and Finland, for which data on tertiary education was not available. For all countries, except for Finland, participation of young women with tertiary educational attainment in formal volunteering was higher than of young females with lower educational attainment levels.

In terms of the participation of young males and females in informal volunteering by educational attainment, for less than primary, primary and lower secondary education, participation was higher for young women in all countries, except for France in 2015. For upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education, participation in informal volunteering was higher for young females in Italy, Luxembourg and Spain, while it was lower for young females in Finland, France and Slovakia in 2015. For tertiary education, participation in informal volunteering was higher for young women in Italy, Slovakia and Spain, whereas it was higher for young men in France and Luxembourg for the given year. For Finland, data on tertiary education for informal volunteering was not available. For all countries, except for Finland and Spain, participation of young females with tertiary educational attainment in informal volunteering was higher than of young females with lower educational attainment levels in 2015. In Spain, the same was true for young women with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment.

In Finland, the number of hours spent volunteering decreased for sampled females over the period of 2015-2021. In 2021, the sampled Finnish youth had the lowest number of hours spent volunteering than any other age group. When asked if they are willing to volunteer, sampled females showed higher willingness to volunteer than sampled males in Finland in 2015, 2018 and 2021. The same was true for the sampled Finnish females aged 15-25 in 2018 and 2021. For the same years, there was a decrease in the sampled Finnish youth stating that they are not willing to volunteer. As of 2021, majority of the sampled Finnish youth indicated that they are willing to volunteer more, showing a higher preference for formal volunteering. Nonetheless, more sampled young people aged 15-24 in Finland stated that they do not have sufficient skills to volunteer than respondents from other age groups in 2021.

In France, there was an increase of sampled 18-30 year olds spending time to volunteer over the period of 2017-2020. The share of the sampled French females aged 18-30, who spend time to defend a cause online, was higher than for sampled males and increased throughout the period of 2017-2020. In terms of the educational attainment, sampled individuals aged 18-30 were more likely to volunteer if they had vocational upper secondary or tertiary educational attainment in France in 2016 and 2019. When asked how often they volunteer in an organisation or an association, majority of sampled individuals aged 18-30 responded that they never do so over the period of 2016-2020. Nonetheless, when asked if they are generally willing to volunteer, majority of sampled individuals aged 18-30 responded that they are already doing so in France for years 2016-2021.

In Italy, the share of female volunteers aged 15-29 in the Universal Civic Service was higher than the share of males in 2017 and 2019. For the same years, there were more volunteers aged 15-29 in the Universal Civic Service with upper secondary educational attainment than other educational attainment levels.

In Luxembourg, 59% of the total population was actively engaged in volunteering in 2021, with 33% engaged in formal volunteering and 47% engaged in informal volunteering (TNS Ilres, 2021). Majority of the sampled Luxembourgish residents indicated that they are probably willing to volunteer in 2021. The same was true for sampled non-volunteers in Luxembourg for the given year.

In Slovakia, participation of sampled individuals aged 15-30 was higher for informal volunteering for years 2011 and 2019, whereas it was higher for formal volunteering in 2017. The share of sampled females aged 15-30 was higher than the share of sampled males both in formal and informal volunteering in Slovakia in 2017.

In Spain, the share of individuals aged 18 and over, who collaborated with NGOs in some way, decreased during 2020 due to Covid-19 but then increased in 2021 during the pandemic recovery. Over the period of 2017-2021, the Spanish individuals aged 14-24 collaborated with NGOs less than any other age groups. However, the share of volunteers aged 14-24 per population in Spain increased over the period of 2019-2021. The share of females aged 14 and over collaborating with NGOs was higher than the share of males in Spain for years 2017-2021.

## 5.3 Youth Exchange

This section reviews youth exchange in Finland, France, Italy, Luxembourg, Slovakia and Spain by focusing on the general student mobility, with the Erasmus+ Programme taken as a proxy of student mobility in Europe, and gender-specific youth mobility in tertiary education. Furthermore, it discusses the number of languages studied at various education stages to analyse the extent to which young people in corresponding countries are prepared for youth exchange.

### 5.3.1 Finland

#### 5.3.1.1 Erasmus+ Student Mobility

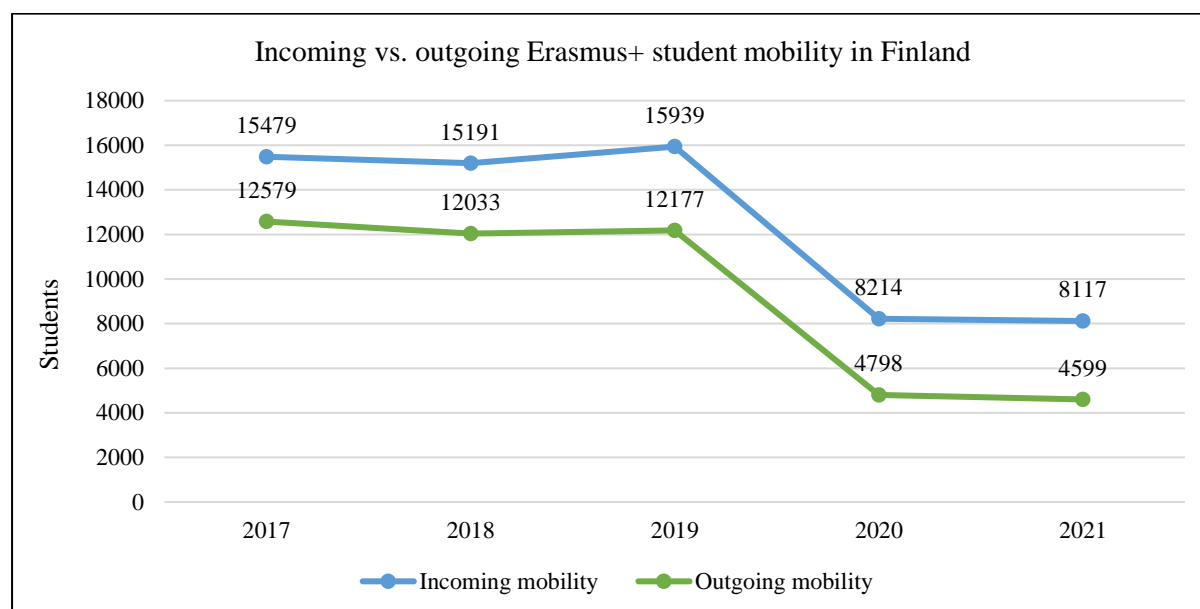


Figure 97. Incoming vs. outgoing mobility of Erasmus+ students in Finland for years 2017-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Erasmus+ in Finland in 2021" by European Commission, 2022, (<https://erasmus-plus.ec.europa.eu/resources-and-tools/statistics-and-factsheets/factsheets/country-2021/finland>). (European Commission, 2022). Copyright 2022 by European Commission.

As shown in Figure 97 above, over the period of 2017-2021, there were more foreign students coming to Finland than the Finnish students going abroad for exchange as a part of the Erasmus+ Programme. Moreover, due to Covid-19 restrictions for travelling, there was a sharp drop in youth exchange in Finland in 2020, which continued to worsen in 2021.



### 5.3.1.2 Male vs. Female Mobile Students

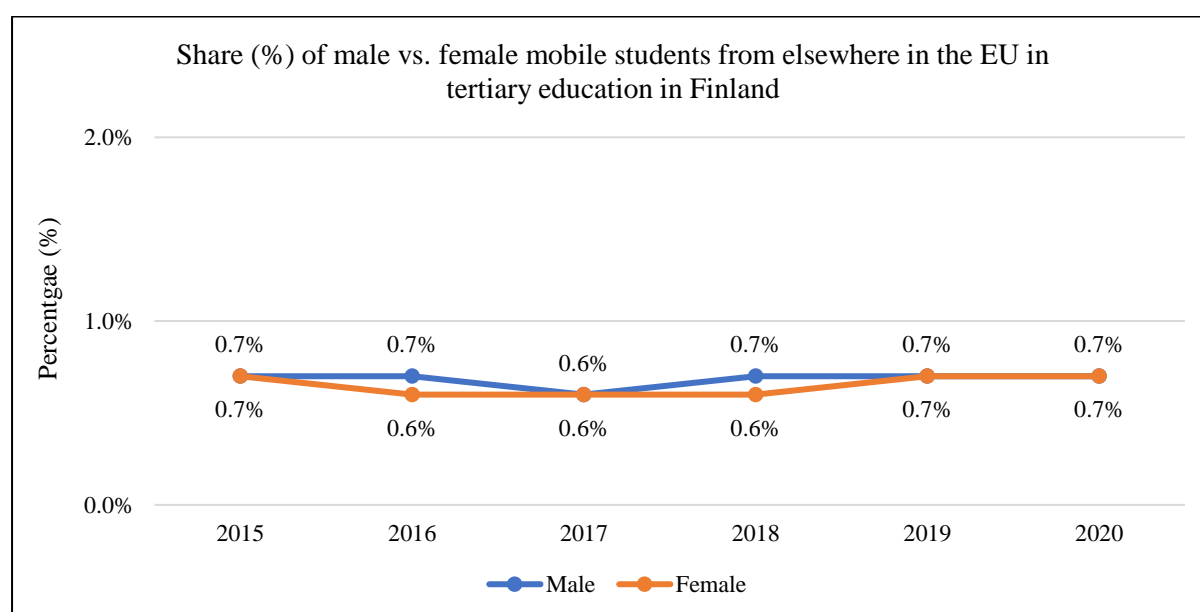


Figure 98. Share of male vs. female students from elsewhere in the EU in tertiary education in Finland for years 2015-2020.

Note: Data adapted from: "Share of mobile students from abroad enrolled by education level, sex and country of origin" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC\\_UOE\\_MOBS03\\$DV\\_1126/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth\\_educ](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC_UOE_MOBS03$DV_1126/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth_educ)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As can be seen in Figure 98, the share of foreign male and female students from elsewhere in the EU in tertiary education in Finland was identical over the period of 2015-2020, except for 2016 and 2018 having small differences. This indicates no significant variance between the shares of male and female exchange students in higher education in Finland. However, the shares of both male and female students from elsewhere in the EU are below 1%, implying that there is a lack of youth exchange from the EU in tertiary education in Finland. This could be driven by demand-side factors, such as a relatively high cost of living in Finland, more courses taught in Finnish than English and colder climate, and supply-side factors, such as the limited availability of study places in tertiary education, which was previously discussed in section 5.1.1.1 (OECD, 2013) (Vera & Tuya, 2020).

### 5.3.1.3 Number of Foreign Languages Studied

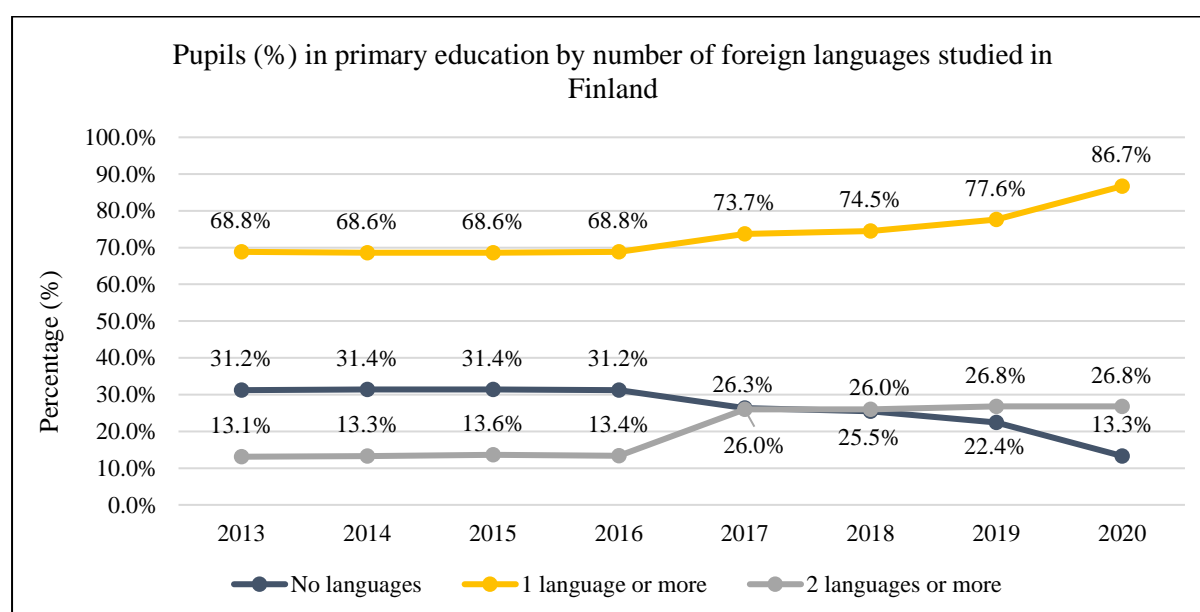


Figure 99. Share of students in primary education by number of foreign languages studied in Finland for years 2013-2020.

Note: Data adapted from: "Pupils by education level and number of modern foreign languages studied – absolute numbers and % of pupils by number of languages studied" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC\\_UOE\\_LANG02\\$DV\\_1125/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC_UOE_LANG02$DV_1125/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

Figure 99 above shows the shares of the Finnish students in primary education studying no foreign languages, one foreign language or more and two foreign languages or more. The share of primary school pupils studying no foreign languages decreased by more than twice in Finland between 2016 and 2020. In contrast, the shares of primary school pupils studying one foreign language or more and two foreign languages or more have been increasing between 2016 and 2020. This indicates that more pupils acquired language skills in one or more foreign languages after completing the compulsory primary school education in Finland. Generally, all Finnish pupils select a foreign language during their first grade since 2020 (third grade prior to 2020), belonging to '1 language or more' category in Figure 99, which represents the majority (Järvinen-Taubert, 2020). During the fourth grade, pupils have the option to select another foreign language (Järvinen-Taubert, 2020).

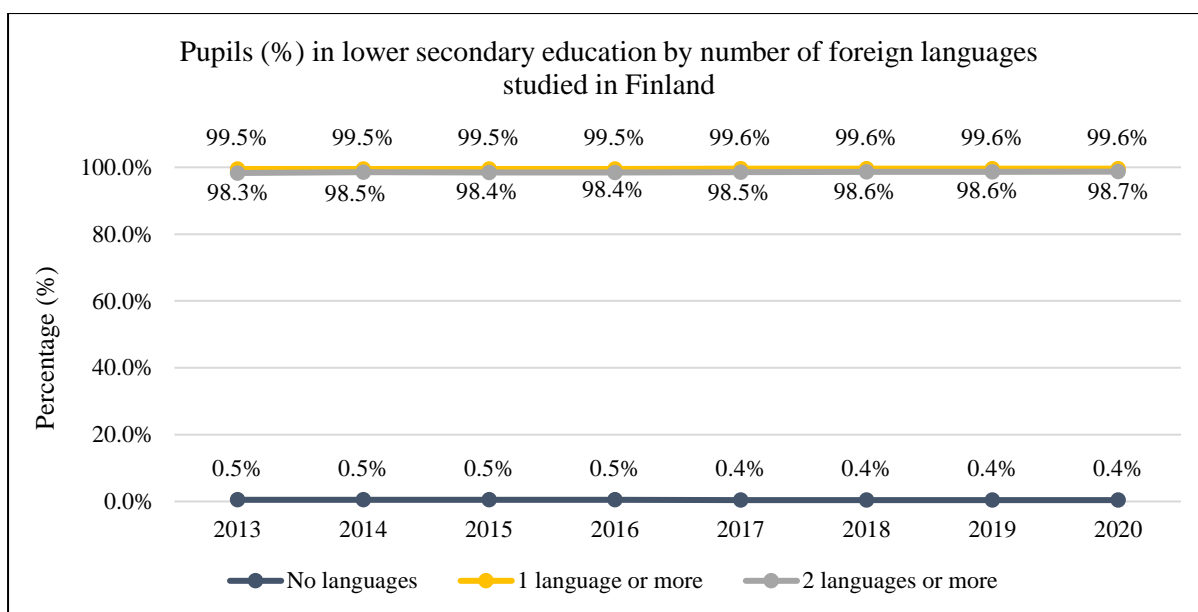


Figure 100. Share of students in lower secondary education by number of foreign languages studied in Finland for years 2013-2020.

Note: Data adapted from: “Pupils by education level and number of modern foreign languages studied – absolute numbers and % of pupils by number of languages studied” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC\\_UOE\\_LANG02\\$DV\\_1125/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC_UOE_LANG02$DV_1125/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

When looking at compulsory lower secondary education, Figure 100 shows that the share of students studying no foreign languages was less than 1% in Finland, whereas almost all students studied one, two or more foreign languages during lower secondary education over the period of 2013-2020. This is attributed to the fact that all students choose an additional foreign language in eighth grade, after already having selected one or two foreign languages in primary school (Järvinen-Taubert, 2020). Therefore, the shares of students in lower secondary education studying one or more foreign languages and two or more foreign languages are almost identical because all students study at least two foreign languages.

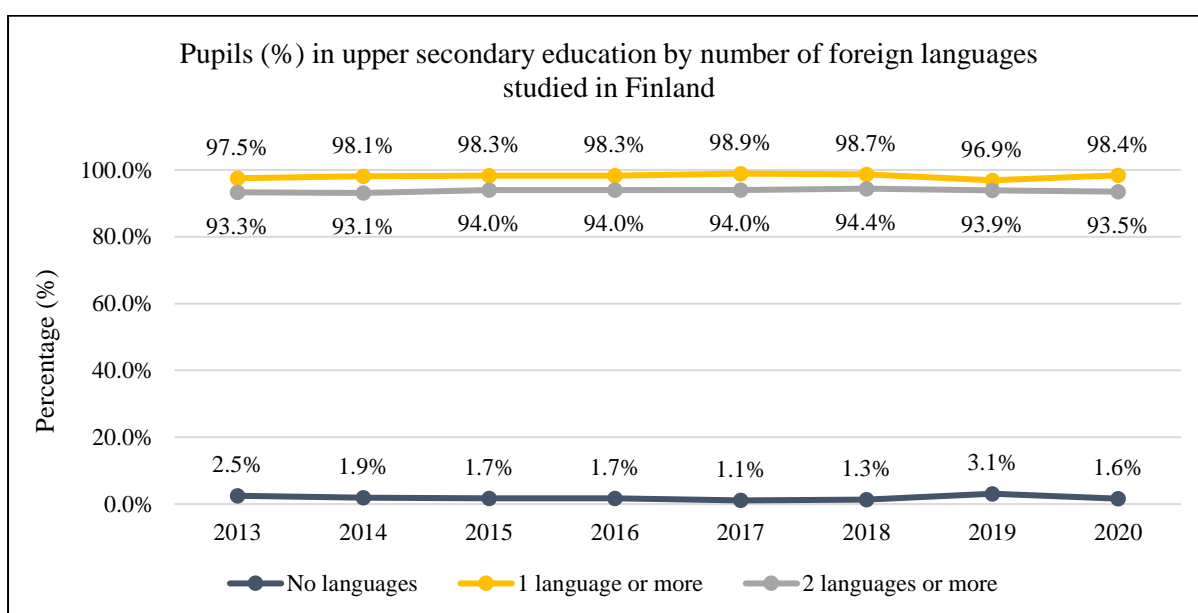


Figure 101. Share of students in upper secondary education by number of languages studied in Finland for years 2013-2020.

Note: Data adapted from: “Pupils by education level and number of modern foreign languages studied – absolute numbers and % of pupils by number of languages studied” by Eurostat, 2022,

Finally, in upper secondary education, which became compulsory in Finland in 2021, the trends in the shares of students are similar to those in lower secondary education, as provided in Figure 101 (Cedefop, 2021). The number of students in upper secondary education in Finland studying no foreign languages was significantly lower than the number of students studying one, two or more foreign languages over the period of 2013-2020.

By looking at the share of students in primary, lower secondary and upper secondary education by the number of foreign languages studied in Finland, it can be concluded that the Finnish students are well prepared for youth exchange in terms of language skills, with many high school students having the knowledge of four or more languages (Järvinen-Taubert, 2020).

## 5.3.2 France

### 5.3.2.1 Erasmus+ Student Mobility

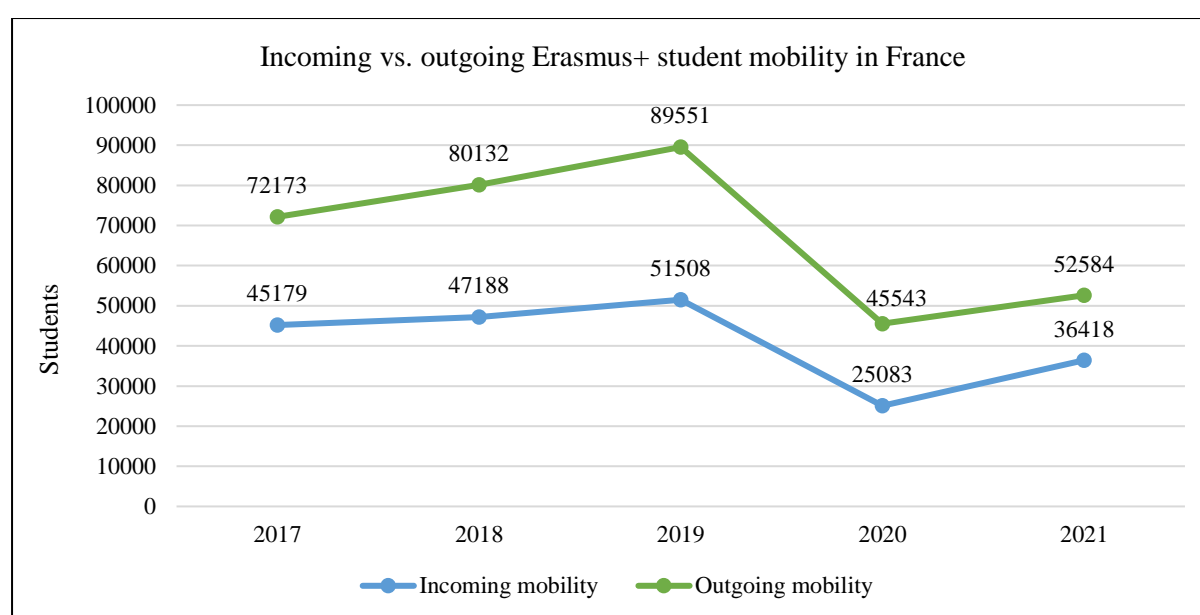


Figure 102. Incoming vs. outgoing mobility of Erasmus+ students in France for years 2017-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Erasmus+ in France in 2021" by European Commission, 2022, (<https://erasmus-plus.ec.europa.eu/resources-and-tools/factsheets-statistics-evaluations/programme-and-country-factsheets/country-factsheets-2021/erasmus-in-france-in-2021>). (European Commission, 2022). Copyright 2022 by European Commission.

As can be seen in Figure 102, the outgoing student mobility in France was significantly higher than the incoming student mobility as a part of the Erasmus+ Programme over the period of 2017-2021. Similar to Finland, there was a large decrease in the number of mobile students in 2020 due to Covid-19 traveling restrictions, however, the numbers started increasing again in 2021, when the restrictions were relaxed.

### 5.3.2.2 Male vs. Female Mobile Students

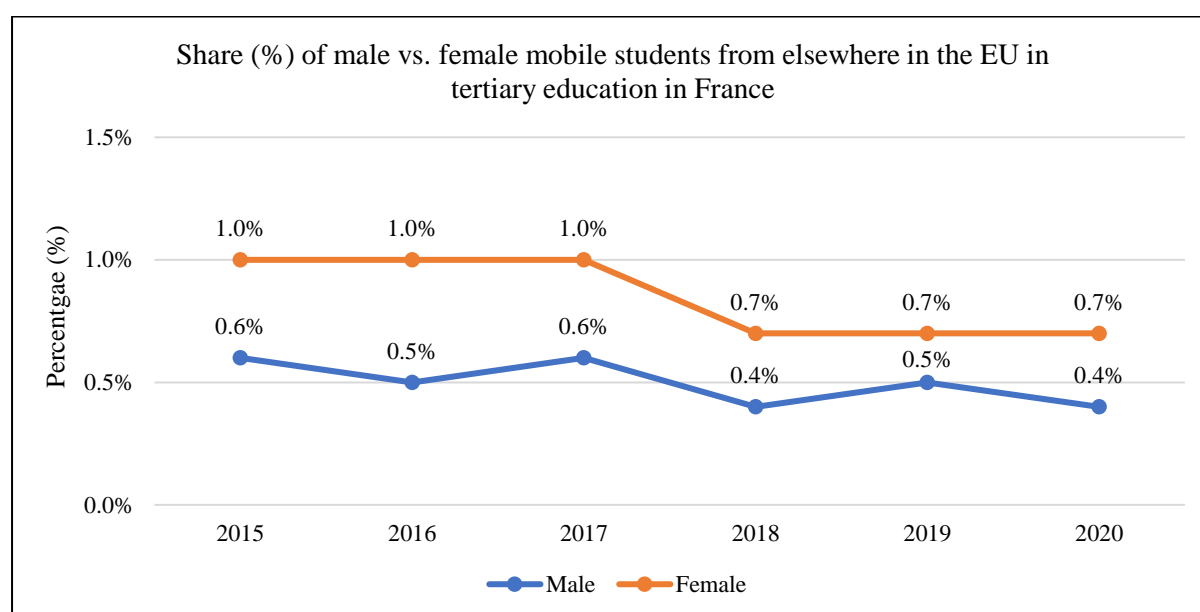


Figure 103. Share of male vs. female students from elsewhere in the EU in tertiary education in France for years 2015-2020.

Note: Data adapted from: "Share of mobile students from abroad enrolled by education level, sex and country of origin" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC\\_UOE\\_MOBS03\\$DV\\_1126/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth\\_educ](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC_UOE_MOBS03$DV_1126/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth_educ)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

Figure 103 above shows that, over the period of 2015-2020, there were more female students from elsewhere in the EU in tertiary education in France than male students. This is consistent with a generally higher participation of female students in tertiary education in France, as provided in Figure 10 in section 5.1.2.1. Nonetheless, over the period of 2015-2020, the share of foreign European students in tertiary education in France remained low, with less than 1% for male students and 1% or less for female students. While the French tertiary education is considered one of the most attractive for foreign students from all over the world, the share of students from elsewhere in the EU in the French tertiary education was less than one fifth of the total share of foreign students in 2020 (Eurostat, 2022).

### 5.3.2.3 Number of Foreign Languages Studied

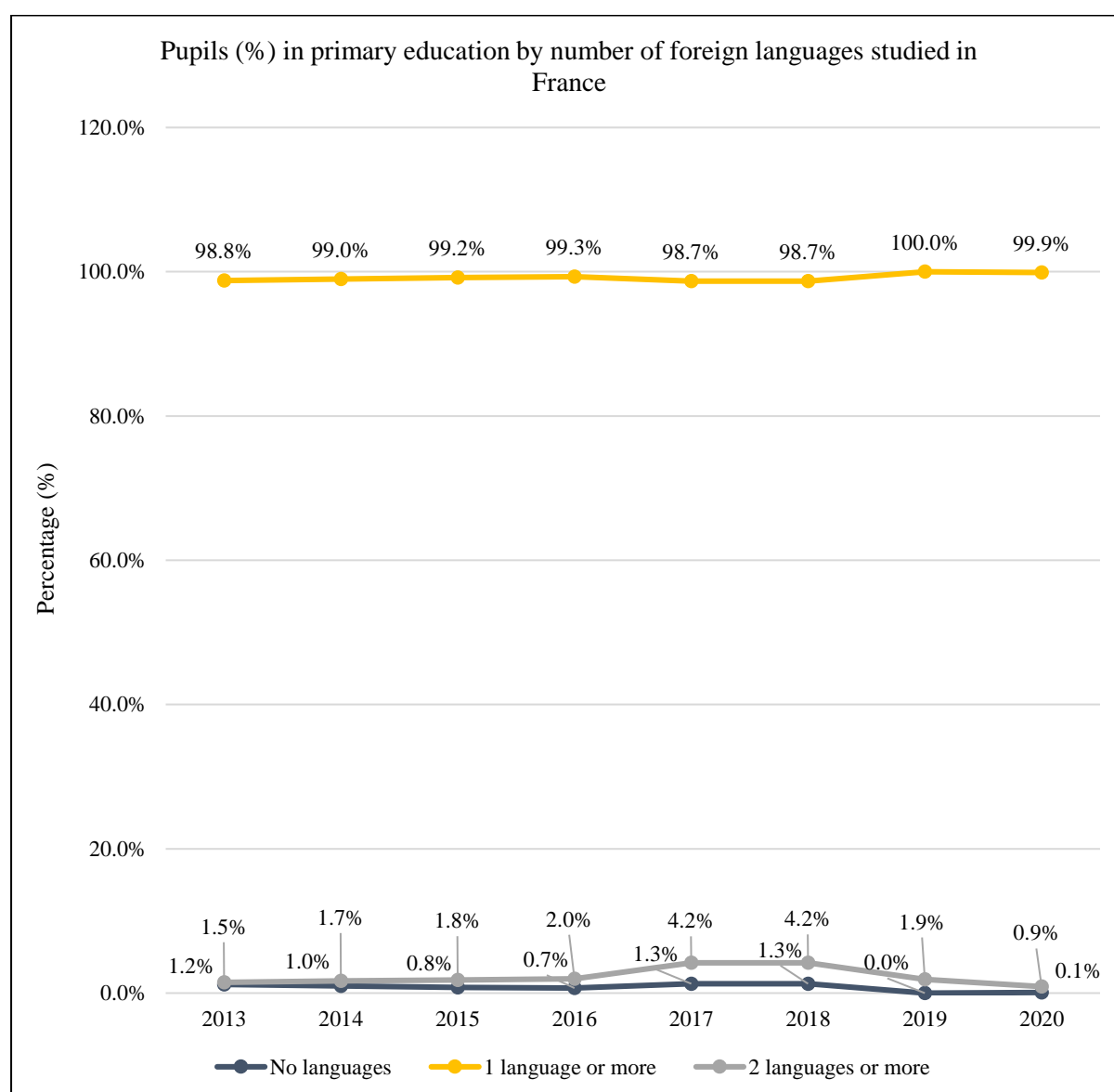


Figure 104. Share of students in primary education by number of foreign languages studied in France for years 2013-2020.

Note: Data adapted from: “Pupils by education level and number of modern foreign languages studied – absolute numbers and % of pupils by number of languages studied” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC\\_UOE\\_LANG02\\$DV\\_1125/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC_UOE_LANG02$DV_1125/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As displayed in Figure 104, the share of pupils in primary school in France studying no foreign languages remained very low over the period of 2013-2020, reaching 0% in 2019. This is due to the fact that even before entering primary education, all children begin to learn a foreign language (English, Spanish, German, Italian or Portuguese) in pre-schools (The Local, 2020). In primary schools, all pupils continue to study one foreign language, which is reflected in the share of pupils studying one or more foreign languages in primary education in France being close to 100% over the period of 2013-2020, as provided in Figure 104. Nonetheless, the share of pupils studying two or more foreign languages in primary education in France was low because not many French primary schools teach a second foreign language (The Local, 2020).

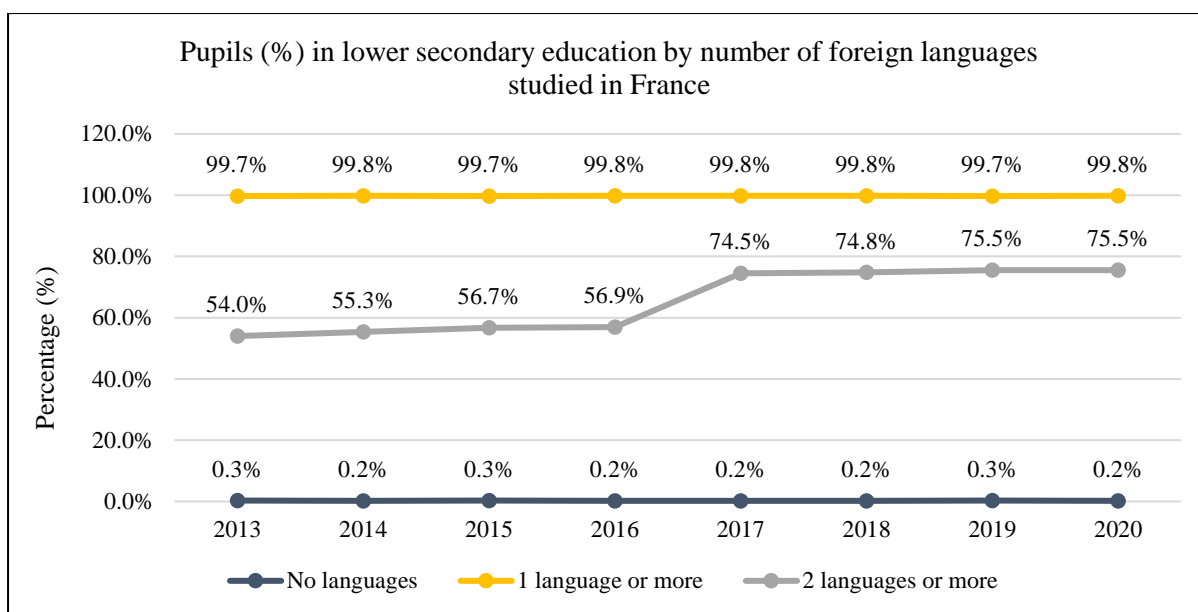


Figure 105. Share of students in lower secondary education by number of foreign languages studied in France for years 2013-2020.

Note: Data adapted from: "Pupils by education level and number of modern foreign languages studied – absolute numbers and % of pupils by number of languages studied" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC\\_UOE\\_LANG02\\$DV\\_1125/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC_UOE_LANG02$DV_1125/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

Figure 105 shows that in lower secondary education, the share of students studying no foreign languages in France remained close to zero over the period of 2013-2020, which is consistent with the French students having to study one foreign language since pre-school. Whereas the share of students in lower secondary education studying one or more languages in France remained close to 100% and was similar to that in primary education for the given period, the share of students in lower secondary education studying two or more languages was significantly higher than in primary education. This is explained by the fact that during lower secondary education, the French students choose an additional foreign language to study (The Local, 2020). A sharp increase in the share of lower secondary students studying two or more foreign languages in 2017 occurred due to English lessons becoming mandatory for all students of age 11 and over in France in 2016 (The Local, 2020).

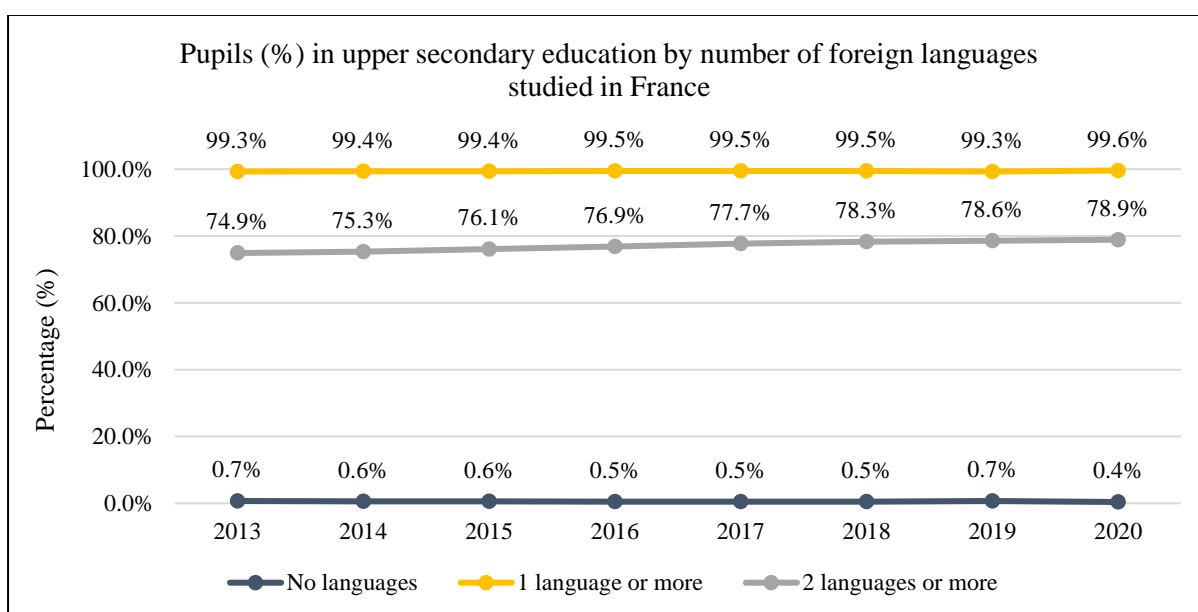


Figure 106. Share of students in upper secondary education by number of languages studied in France for years 2013-2020.

Note: Data adapted from: “Pupils by education level and number of modern foreign languages studied – absolute numbers and % of pupils by number of languages studied” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC\\_UOE\\_LANG02\\$DV\\_1125/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC_UOE_LANG02$DV_1125/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As can be seen in Figure 106, the share of upper secondary students studying no foreign languages in France over the period of 2013-2020 remained close to zero, similar to primary and lower secondary education. The share of upper secondary students studying one or more foreign languages in France was also consistent with primary and lower secondary education, being close to 100%. The share of upper secondary students studying two or more foreign languages experienced an upward trend in France over the period of 2013-2020, as more high school students in France opted to add a third foreign language to their foreign language classes (The Local, 2020).

Overall, the French students are well prepared in terms of foreign language skills for youth exchange upon completing compulsory pre-school, primary, lower secondary and upper secondary education.

### 5.3.3 Italy

#### 5.3.3.1 Erasmus+ Student Mobility

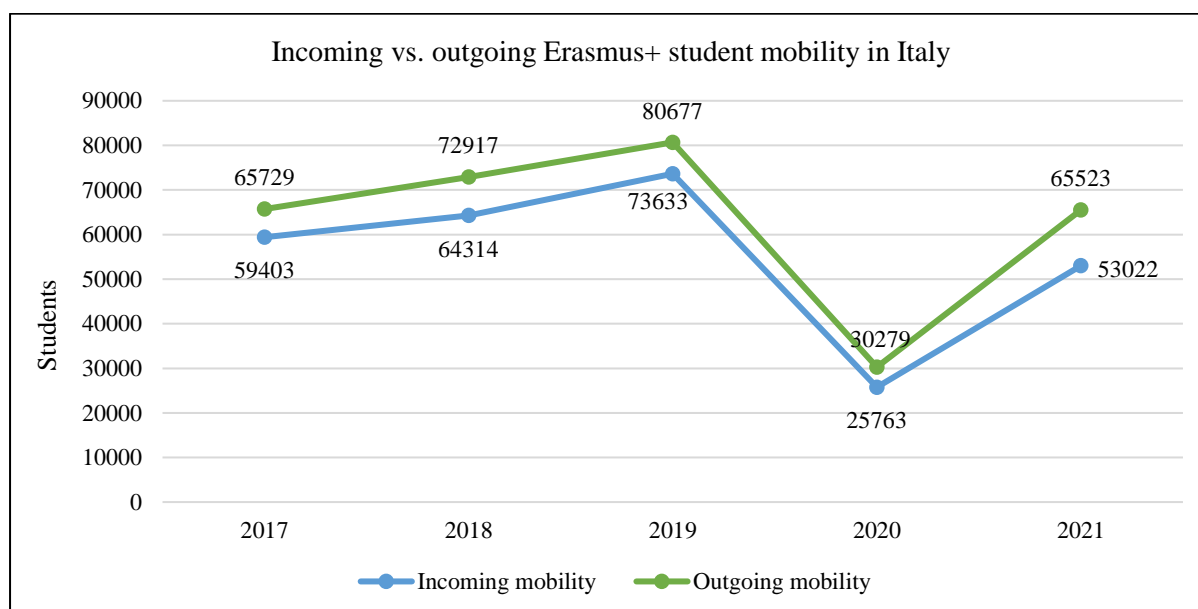


Figure 107. Incoming vs. outgoing mobility of Erasmus+ students in Italy for years 2017-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: “Erasmus+ in Italy in 2021” by European Commission, 2022, (<https://erasmus-plus.ec.europa.eu/resources-and-tools/factsheets-statistics-evaluations/programme-and-country-factsheets/country-factsheets-2021/erasmus-in-italy-in-2021>). (European Commission, 2022). Copyright 2022 by European Commission.

As shown in Figure 107 above, Erasmus+ outgoing student mobility in Italy was higher than incoming student mobility over the period of 2017-2021, indicating that more Italian students went for an exchange abroad than foreign students came for an exchange in Italy. Nonetheless, the gap between the incoming and outgoing student mobility in Italy was not as significant as in France. Similar to Finland and France, Italy also experienced a sharp drop in student exchange in 2020 due to traveling restrictions related to Covid-19. However, the numbers of both incoming and outgoing Erasmus+ students increased again in 2021, when pandemic restrictions were lifted.



### 5.3.3.2 Male vs. Female Mobile Students

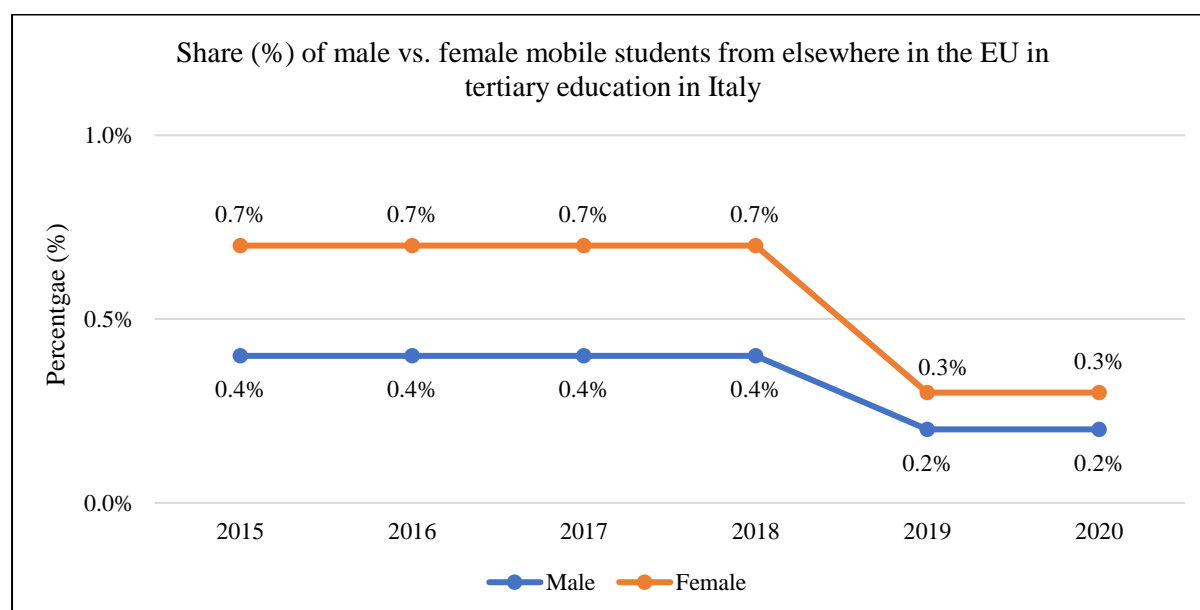


Figure 108. Share of male vs. female students from elsewhere in the EU in tertiary education in Italy for years 2015-2020.

Note: Data adapted from: "Share of mobile students from abroad enrolled by education level, sex and country of origin" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC\\_UOE\\_MOBS03\\$DV\\_1126/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth\\_educ](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC_UOE_MOBS03$DV_1126/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth_educ)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

Figure 108 shows that the share of female students from elsewhere in the EU in tertiary education in Italy remained higher than the share of male students over the period of 2015-2020. This is consistent with the higher participation of young females in tertiary education in Italy, as displayed in Figure 17 in section 5.1.3.1. Nevertheless, Italy had less than 1% of both male and female students from elsewhere in the EU in tertiary education over the entire period of 2015-2020. As of 2020, Italy had only 2.9% of foreign students in tertiary education, being one of the countries with the lowest shares of students from abroad in tertiary education in the EU, along with Poland, Croatia, Greece and Spain (Eurostat, 2022).

### 5.3.3.3 Number of Foreign Languages Studied

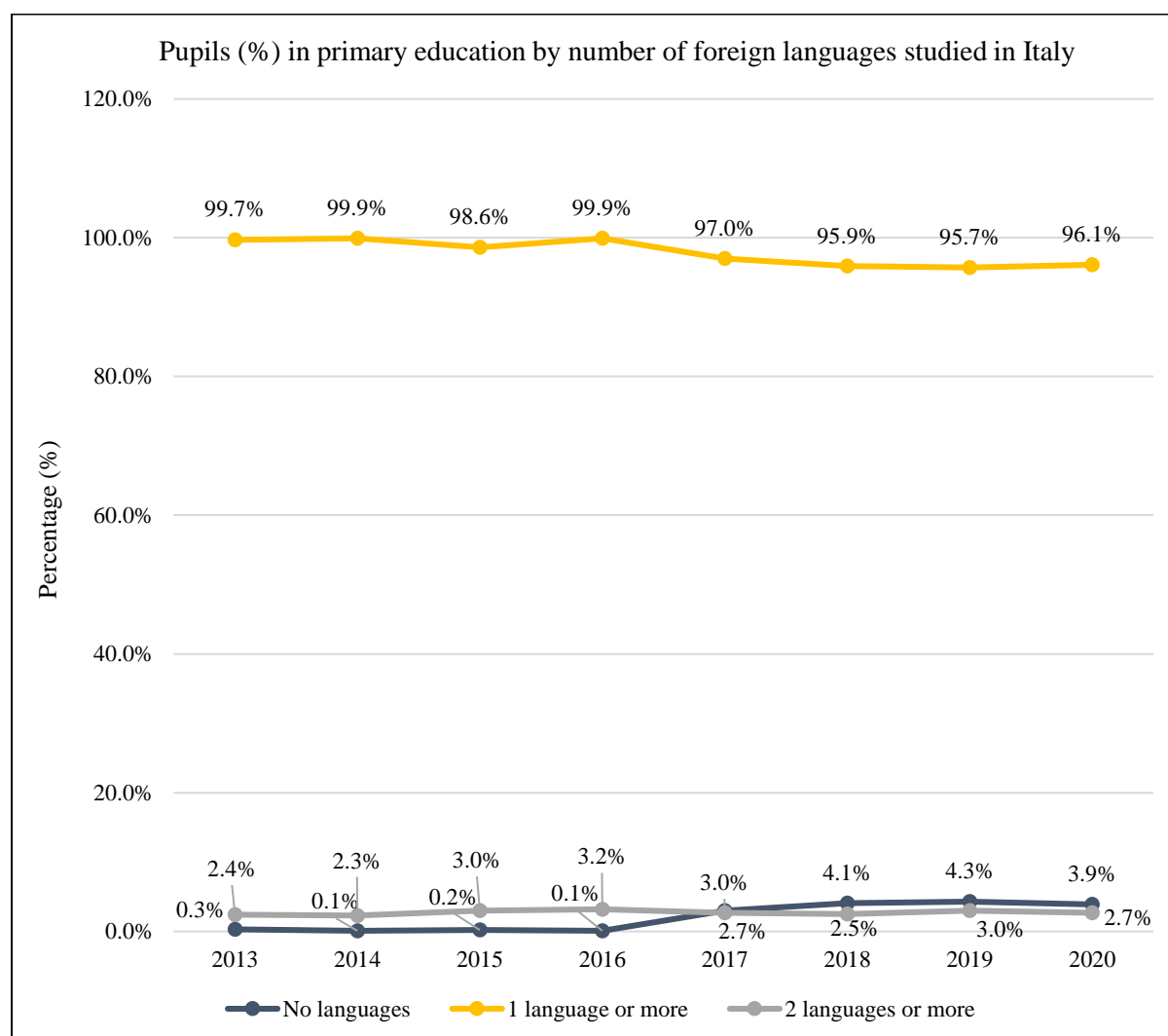


Figure 109. Share of students in primary education by number of foreign languages studied in Italy for years 2013-2020.

Note: Data adapted from: “Pupils by education level and number of modern foreign languages studied – absolute numbers and % of pupils by number of languages studied” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC\\_UOE\\_LANG02\\$DV\\_1125/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC_UOE_LANG02$DV_1125/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As displayed in Figure 109, the share of primary school students studying one foreign language or more in Italy remained close to 100% over the period of 2013-2020 due to English being a mandatory subject in the Italian primary schools (InterNations, n.d.). However, the share of primary school students studying two or more foreign languages in Italy was low in the given period because the second foreign language is not part of the mandatory public school curriculum in the Italian primary education, although this may differ for private and international schools (InterNations, n.d.).

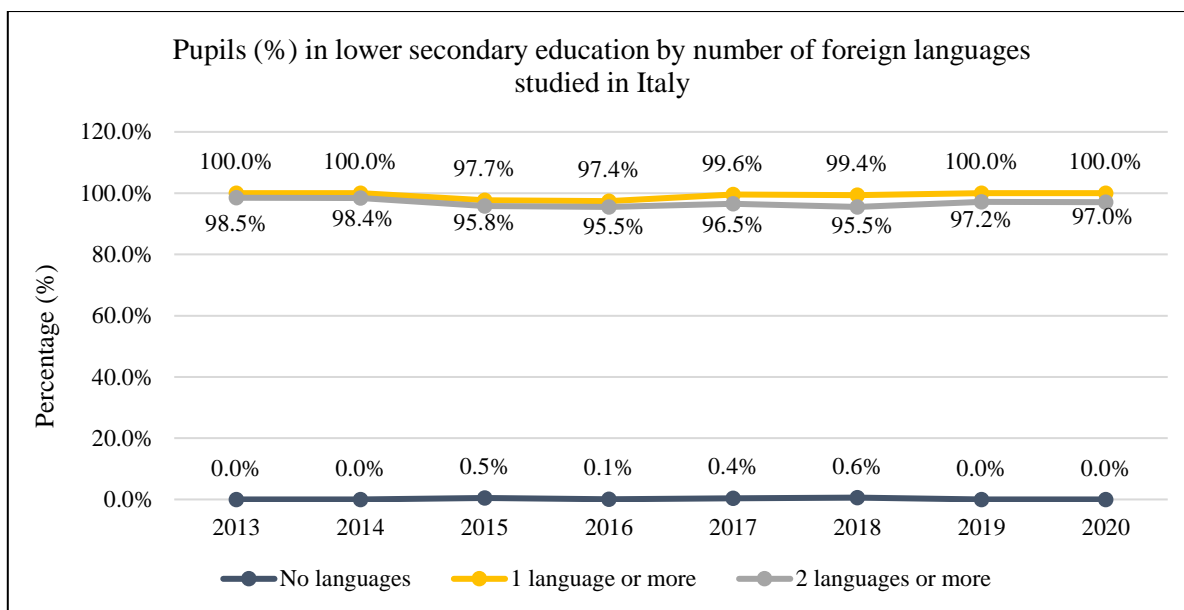


Figure 110. Share of students in lower secondary education by number of foreign languages studied in Italy for years 2013-2020.

Note: Data adapted from: "Pupils by education level and number of modern foreign languages studied – absolute numbers and % of pupils by number of languages studied" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC\\_UOE\\_LANG02\\$DV\\_1125/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC_UOE_LANG02$DV_1125/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

Figure 110 shows that for lower secondary education, the share of students studying no foreign languages in Italy remained close to zero for years 2013-2020, as foreign languages are included in the compulsory curriculum (InterNations, n.d.). The only difference between the public school curriculum for primary and lower secondary education in Italy is the addition of another European language in the latter (InterNations, n.d.). This justifies the shares of lower secondary school pupils studying one or more and two or more foreign languages being close or equal to 100% in Italy over the given period.

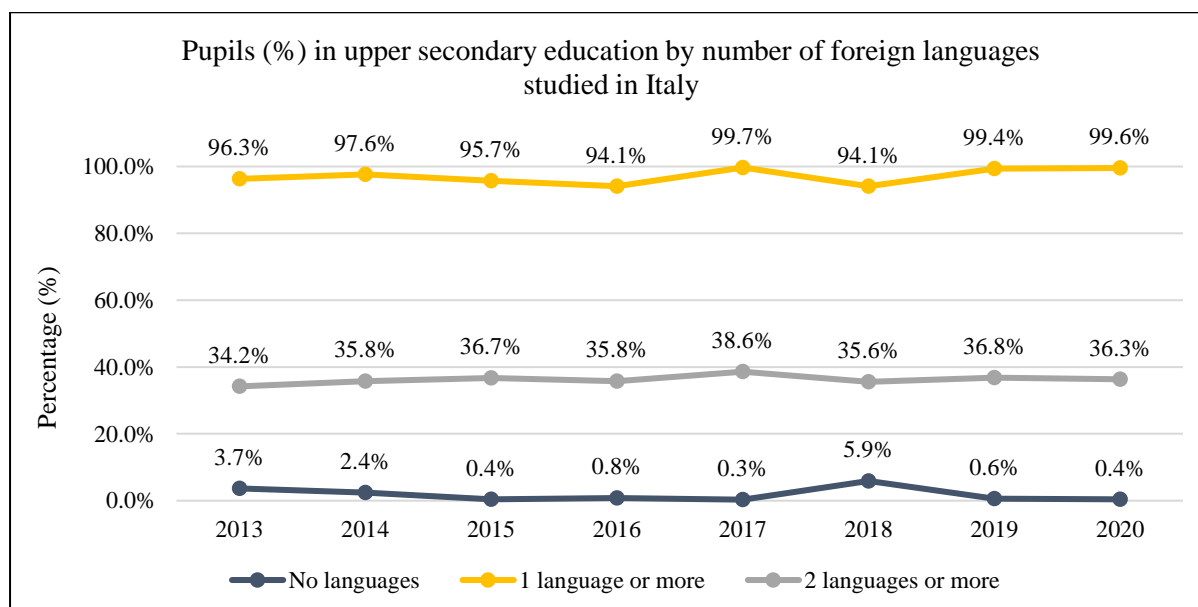


Figure 111. Share of students in upper secondary education by number of foreign languages studied in Italy for years 2013-2020.

Note: Data adapted from: "Pupils by education level and number of modern foreign languages studied – absolute numbers and % of pupils by number of languages studied" by Eurostat, 2022,

As shown in Figure 111, the share of students in upper secondary education studying no foreign languages in Italy was higher than for lower secondary education in the given period. This is because for upper secondary education, students choose specialised lyceums and, depending on the specialisation, they either continue studying foreign languages or not (European Commission, 2022). The share of upper secondary students studying one or more foreign languages in Italy remained high over the period of 2013-2020, but not as high as for lower secondary education. The share of upper secondary students studying two or more foreign languages in Italy was significantly lower than in lower secondary education for the given period.

Overall, majority of students in Italy have the knowledge of English and another foreign European language upon completing lower secondary education, which makes them generally prepared for youth exchange, but not as well prepared as in other countries.

### 5.3.4 Luxembourg

#### 5.3.4.1 Erasmus+ Student Mobility

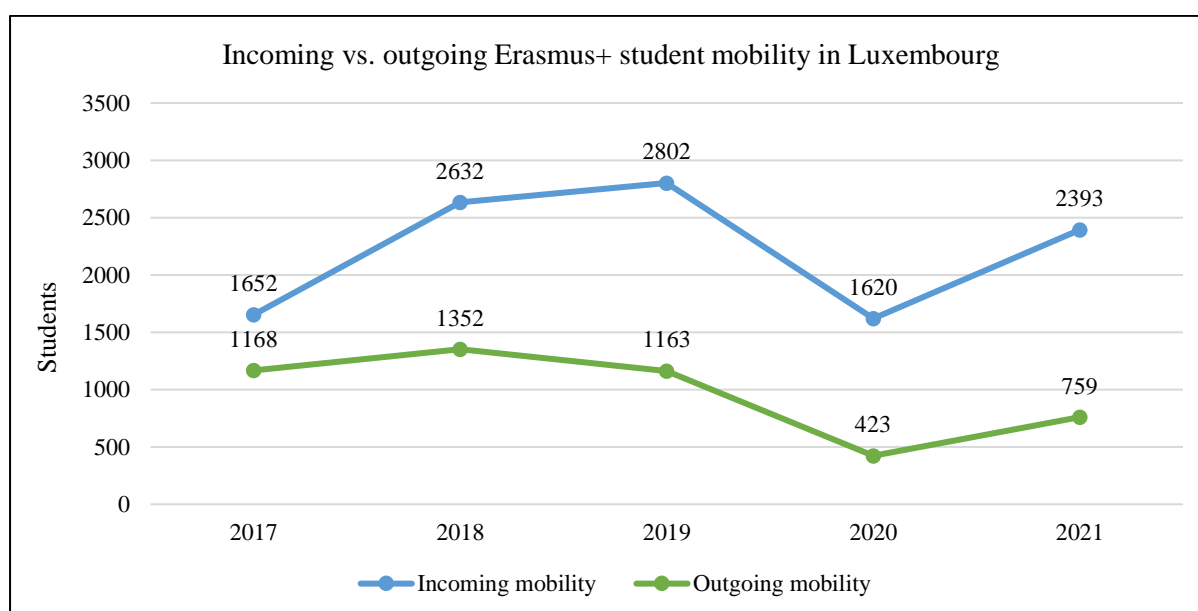


Figure 112. Incoming vs. outgoing mobility of Erasmus+ students in Luxembourg for years 2017-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Erasmus+ in Luxembourg in 2021" by European Commission, 2022, (<https://erasmus-plus.ec.europa.eu/resources-and-tools/factsheets-statistics-evaluations/programme-and-country-factsheets/country-factsheets-2021/erasmus-in-luxembourg-in-2021>). (European Commission, 2022). Copyright 2022 by European Commission.

Figure 112 shows that, in contrast to France and Italy, the outgoing mobility of Erasmus+ students in Luxembourg was lower than incoming student mobility over the period of 2017-2021. In 2020, the number of both incoming and outgoing Erasmus+ students in Luxembourg decreased due to Covid-19 traveling restrictions, which was also seen in other countries. The numbers increased again following the relaxation of Covid-19 restrictions. Overall, the level of Erasmus+ student exchange in Luxembourg is considerably lower than in other European countries. For outgoing mobility, this can partially be explained by the lower population of youth in Luxembourg than in other EU countries (Macrotrends, 2023).

### 5.3.4.2 Male vs. Female Mobile Students

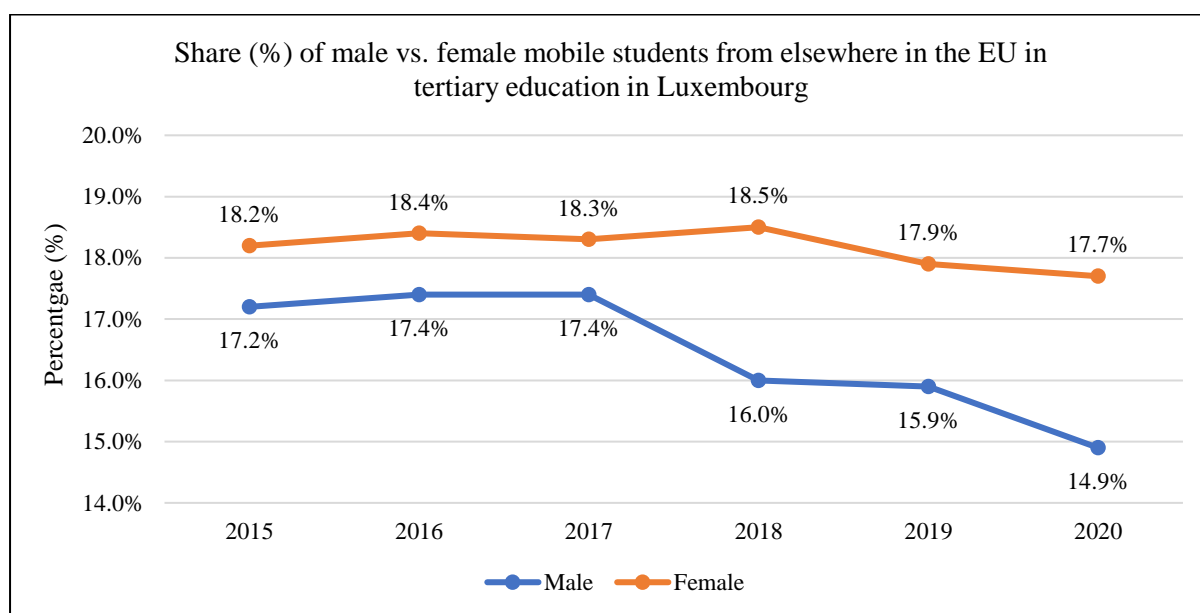


Figure 113. Share of male vs. female students from elsewhere in the EU in tertiary education in Luxembourg for years 2015-2020.

Note: Data adapted from: "Share of mobile students from abroad enrolled by education level, sex and country of origin" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC\\_UOE\\_MOBS03\\$DV\\_1126/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth\\_educ](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC_UOE_MOBS03$DV_1126/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth_educ)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

Figure 113 shows that the share of female students from elsewhere in the EU in tertiary education in Luxembourg has been greater than the share of male students over the period of 2015-2020. This is consistent with a generally higher participation of young women in tertiary education in Luxembourg, as provided in Figure 24 in section 5.1.4.1. Furthermore, the share of students from elsewhere in the EU in tertiary education in Luxembourg was much higher than in other European countries. This is explained by two factors. Firstly, this number is relative to the total number of students in tertiary education in the given country, therefore, it is higher because the overall number of students in higher education in Luxembourg is much lower than in other European countries (Eurostat, 2022). Secondly, as of 2020, within the group of foreign students in tertiary education in Luxembourg, students from elsewhere in the EU represented a majority, as opposed to France, where majority was represented by students from Africa, or Italy, where majority was represented by students from Asia (Eurostat, 2022).

### 5.3.4.3 Number of Foreign Languages Studied

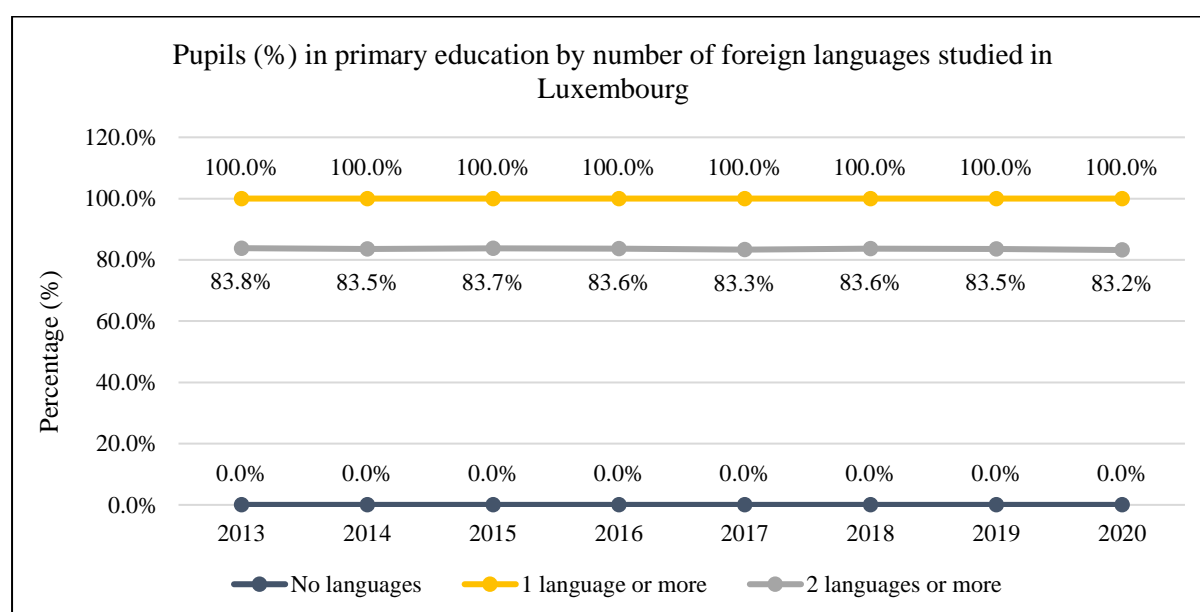


Figure 114. Share of students in primary education by number of foreign languages studied in Luxembourg for years 2013-2020.

Note: Data adapted from: "Pupils by education level and number of modern foreign languages studied – absolute numbers and % of pupils by number of languages studied" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC\\_UOE\\_LANG02\\$DV\\_1125/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC_UOE_LANG02$DV_1125/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As can be seen in Figure 114, there were no students in primary education, who studied no foreign languages in Luxembourg over the period of 2013-2020. This is due to the fact that in primary education in Luxembourg majority of pupils study a combination of French and German, while receiving instructions in Luxembourgish (Eurostat, 2022). As a result, all primary school students in Luxembourg studied one or more foreign languages in the given period, while a vast majority of students studied two foreign languages or more. As of 2020, Luxembourg had the highest share of primary school students studying one or more and two or more foreign languages in the EU (Eurostat, 2022).

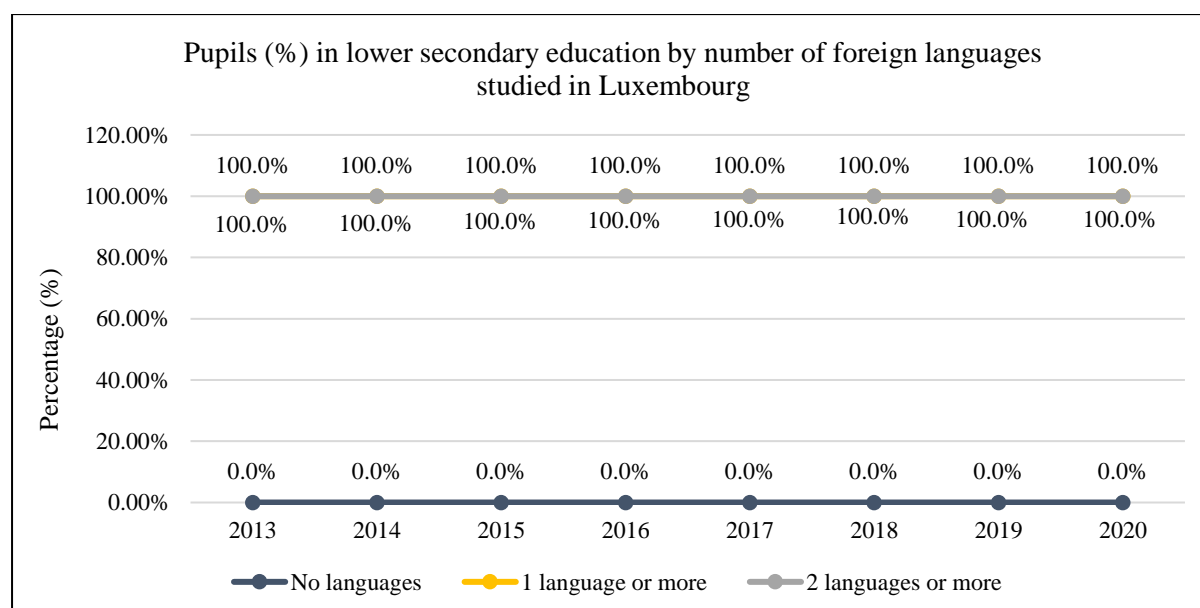


Figure 115. Share of students in lower secondary education by number of foreign languages studied in Luxembourg for years 2013-2020.

Note: Data adapted from: “Pupils by education level and number of modern foreign languages studied – absolute numbers and % of pupils by number of languages studied” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC\\_UOE\\_LANG02\\$DV\\_1125/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC_UOE_LANG02$DV_1125/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

Figure 115 above shows that the share of students in lower secondary education studying no foreign languages in Luxembourg remained equal to zero over the period of 2013-2020 for the same reason as in primary education. Similar to primary school, all students in lower secondary education studied one or more foreign languages in Luxembourg over the period of 2013-2020. The share of students in lower secondary education studying two or more foreign languages was the only statistic that differed from primary education, having reached 100% in Luxembourg over the entire period of 2013-2020. This is justified by the fact that all lower secondary students in Luxembourg are required to study both German and French, with the option to also learn English (Eurostat, 2022).

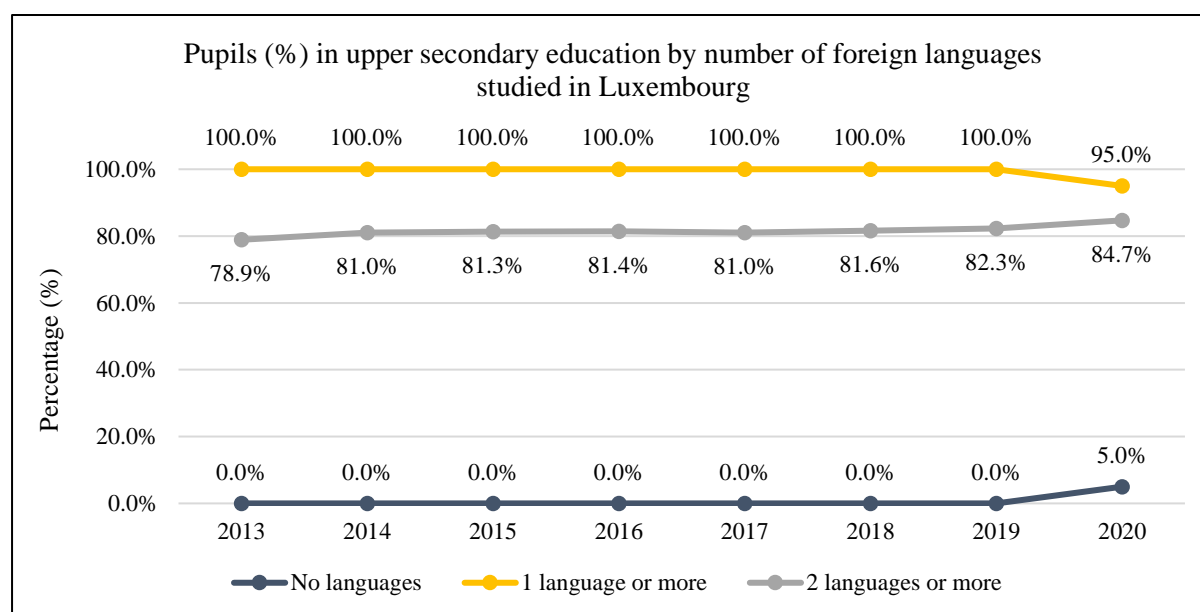


Figure 116. Share of students in upper secondary education by number of foreign languages studied in Luxembourg for years 2013-2020.

Note: Data adapted from: “Pupils by education level and number of modern foreign languages studied – absolute numbers and % of pupils by number of languages studied” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC\\_UOE\\_LANG02\\$DV\\_1125/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC_UOE_LANG02$DV_1125/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As provided in Figure 116, the shares of upper secondary students studying no foreign languages or two or more foreign languages were zero and 100%, respectively, in Luxembourg over the period of 2013-2019, while they became 5% and 95%, correspondingly, in 2020. This can be partially justified by Covid-19 exacerbating existing language challenges for students, who speak languages, which differ from official languages taught in Luxembourg, at home (OECD, 2020). This resulted in fewer students having access to language education during the pandemic (OECD, 2020). The share of students in upper secondary education in Luxembourg studying two or more foreign languages was high in itself, but lower than in lower secondary education over the period of 2013-2020. This is explained by the fact that in upper secondary education, the Luxembourgish students choose between the classical secondary education taught in French and the general secondary education taught in German (The Government of the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg, n.d.). Moreover, upper secondary students have the option to select Italian, Spanish or Portuguese as an additional foreign language (The Government of the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg, n.d.). Nonetheless, studying two or more foreign languages in high school is not compulsory in Luxembourg, hence, the share of such students is lower than in lower secondary education.

Overall, it can be concluded that students, who completed primary, lower secondary and upper secondary education in Luxembourg, are exceptionally prepared for youth exchange in terms of foreign language skills.

## 5.3.5 Slovakia

### 5.3.5.1 Erasmus+ Student Mobility

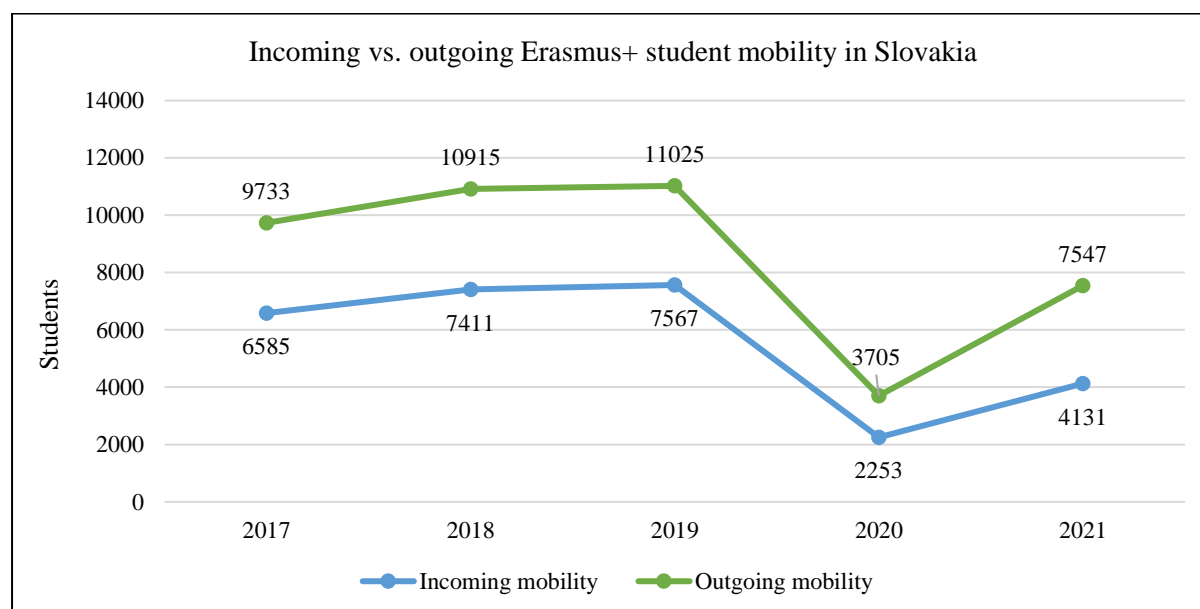
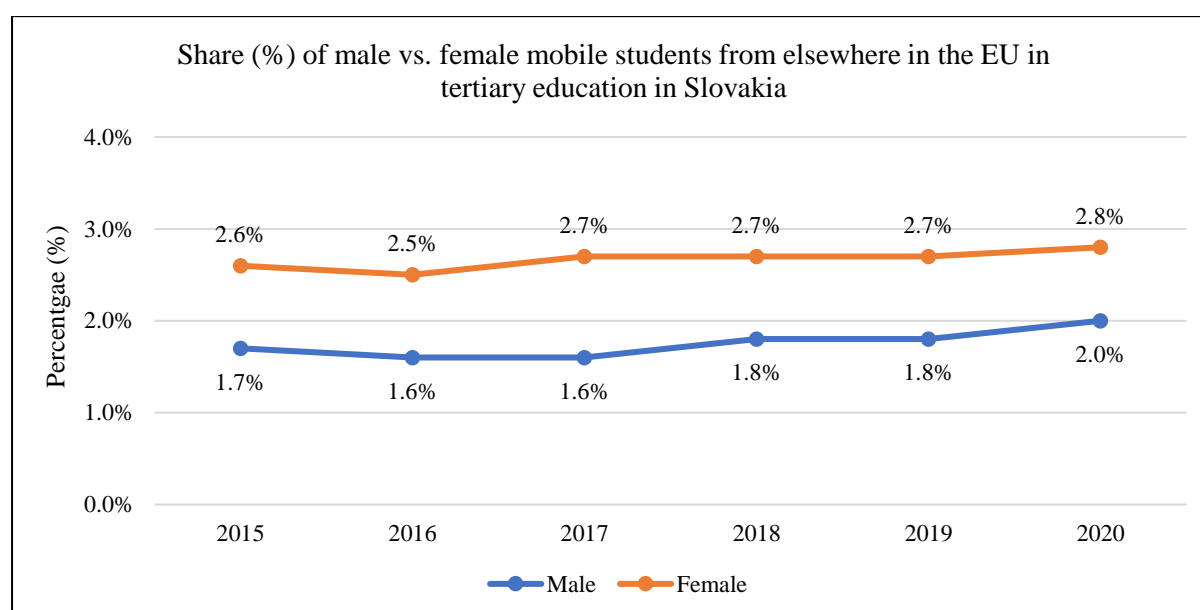


Figure 117. Incoming vs. outgoing mobility of Erasmus+ students in Slovakia for years 2017-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Erasmus+ in Slovakia in 2021" by European Commission, 2022, (<https://erasmus-plus.ec.europa.eu/resources-and-tools/factsheets-statistics-evaluations/programme-and-country-factsheets/country-factsheets-2021/erasmus-in-slovakia-in-2021>). (European Commission, 2022). Copyright 2022 by European Commission.

Similar to France and Italy, Slovakia experienced a higher outgoing mobility of Erasmus+ students than incoming mobility over the period of 2017-2021, as provided in Figure 117 above. Both incoming and outgoing student mobility decreased during 2020 in Slovakia due to Covid-19 restrictions, but then increased in 2021 after the restrictions were eased – a trend, which was also seen in other countries.

### 5.3.5.2 Male vs. Female Mobile Students



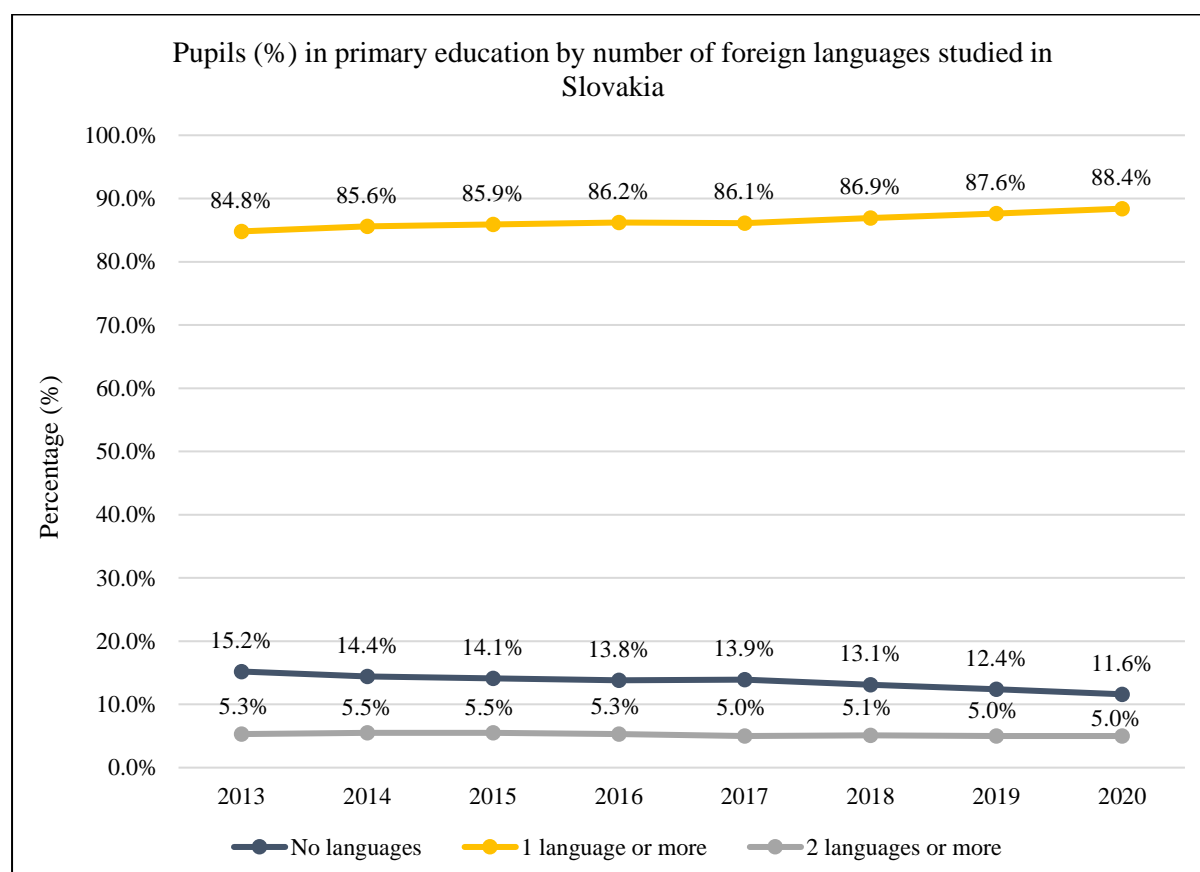


*Figure 118. Share of male vs. female students from elsewhere in the EU in tertiary education in Slovakia for years 2015-2020.*

Note: Data adapted from: "Share of mobile students from abroad enrolled by education level, sex and country of origin" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC\\_UOE\\_MOBS03\\$DV\\_1126/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth\\_educ](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC_UOE_MOBS03$DV_1126/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth_educ)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

Figure 118 shows that the share of female students from elsewhere in the EU in tertiary education in Slovakia was greater than the share of male students throughout the entire period of 2015-2020. This is consistent with a generally higher participation of young females in tertiary education in Slovakia, as displayed in Figure 29 in section 5.1.5.1. Majority of students from abroad in tertiary education in Slovakia come from Europe, especially neighbouring countries like Czech Republic (Eurostat, 2022). Therefore, the reason behind fairly low shares of students from elsewhere in the EU in tertiary education in Slovakia is the overall relatively low number of incoming foreign tertiary education students rather than their country of origin (Eurostat, 2022). For example, in 2020, almost 90% of foreign tertiary education students in Slovakia were European, however, the share of both male and female students from elsewhere in the EU in tertiary education in Slovakia in 2020 remained below 3% (Eurostat, 2022).

### 5.3.5.3 Number of Foreign Languages Studied



*Figure 119. Share of students in primary education by number of foreign languages studied in Slovakia for years 2013-2020.*

Note: Data adapted from: "Pupils by education level and number of modern foreign languages studied – absolute numbers and % of pupils by number of languages studied" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC\\_UOE\\_LANG02\\$DV\\_1125/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC_UOE_LANG02$DV_1125/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As can be seen in Figure 119, the share of students in primary education in Slovakia studying one or more foreign languages represented a majority and experienced an upward trend over the period of 2013-2020. This is due to the fact that in primary school Slovak pupils have the option to start learning a foreign language in their first grade and, if successful, they can add another foreign language in their

third grade (Lauková, n.d.). Given that learning a foreign language is not compulsory in primary school and is dependent on individual student abilities in Slovakia, the share of primary school pupils studying no foreign languages remained above 10% throughout the period of 2013-2020, although experienced a downward trend (Lauková, n.d.). Furthermore, studying a second foreign language in primary school in Slovakia is available to those students, who show superior performance and are part of specialised classes (Lauková, n.d.). Therefore, the share of pupils in primary education in Slovakia studying two or more foreign languages remained low over the period of 2013-2020.

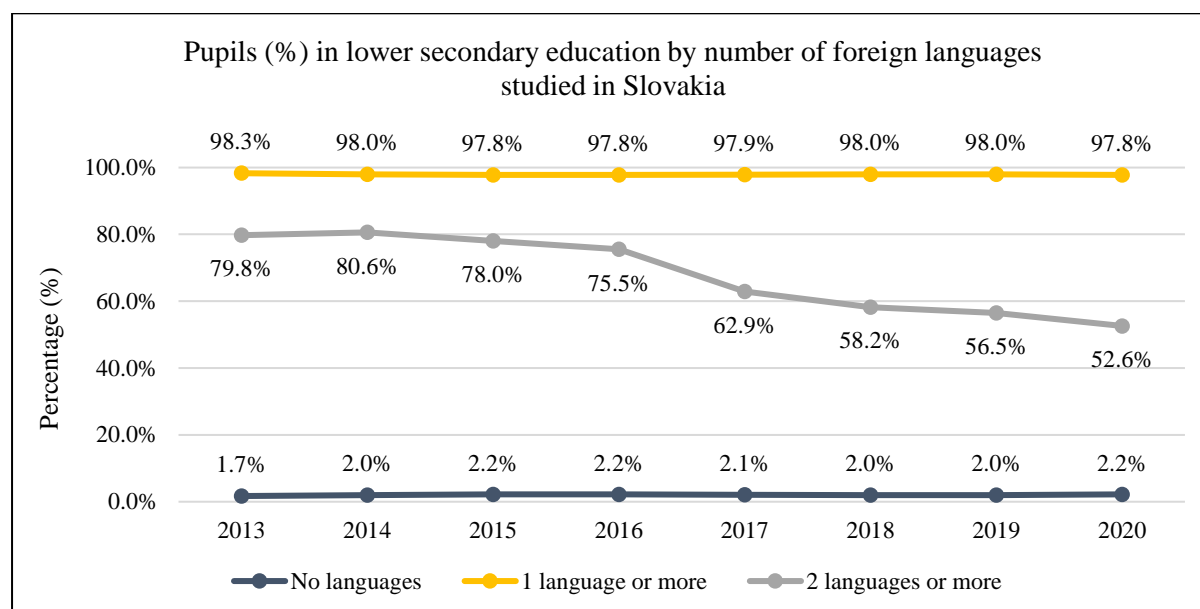


Figure 120. Share of students in lower secondary education by number of foreign languages studied in Slovakia for years 2013-2020.

Note: Data adapted from: "Pupils by education level and number of modern foreign languages studied – absolute numbers and % of pupils by number of languages studied" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC\\_UOE\\_LANG02\\$DV\\_1125/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC_UOE_LANG02$DV_1125/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

Figure 120 shows that in lower secondary education, the share of students studying one or more foreign languages in Slovakia was close to 100% over the entire period of 2013-2020. This is due to the fact that a foreign language, most commonly English or German, is part of the curriculum in lower secondary education in Slovakia (SlovakiaSite, n.d.). For the same reason, the share of students in lower secondary education in Slovakia studying no foreign languages was lower than in primary education over the period of 2013-2020. The share of students in lower secondary education in Slovakia studying two or more foreign languages was significantly higher than in primary education for the given period due to the popularity of bilingual secondary education in Slovakia (Lauková, n.d.). Nonetheless, the number of such students has been decreasing over the period of 2013-2020 due to the challenges related to the insufficient number of bilingual schools, high intensity for students and lack of native teachers (Hurajová, 2016).

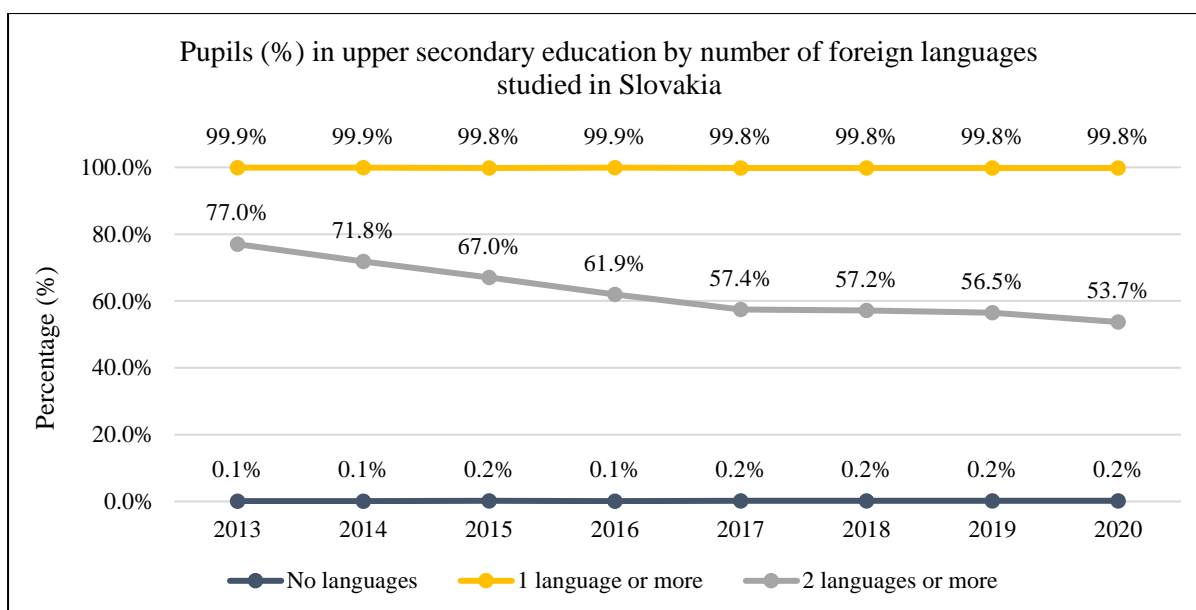


Figure 121. Share of students in upper secondary education by number of foreign languages studied in Slovakia for years 2013-2020.

Note: Data adapted from: "Pupils by education level and number of modern foreign languages studied – absolute numbers and % of pupils by number of languages studied" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC\\_UOE\\_LANG02\\$DV\\_1125/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC_UOE_LANG02$DV_1125/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As shown in Figure 121, the share of students in upper secondary education in Slovakia studying no foreign languages remained close to zero over the period of 2013-2020, as all students continue learning at least one foreign language, most likely English, from lower secondary school regardless of their choice of upper secondary school (SlovakiaSite, n.d.). For the same reason, the share of students in upper secondary school in Slovakia studying one or more foreign languages remained close to 100% for the given time period. However, the number of foreign languages studied in upper secondary education in Slovakia depends on the specialisation of the gymnasium, college or technical school selected by students (Slovakia Garant, 2020). Some institutions specialise in foreign languages, while other specialise in mathematics, chemistry, etc., yet still have languages as a part of their curriculum (Slovakia Garant, 2020). Therefore, the share of students in upper secondary education in Slovakia studying two or more foreign languages was fairly high over the period of 2013-2020, however, was still lower than in lower secondary education for the same period, with the exception of 2019 and 2020.

Overall, students, who complete primary, lower secondary and upper secondary education in Slovakia, are well prepared for youth exchange in countries, where English and German are spoken, as these are two most popular foreign languages studied in Slovakia. However, the Slovak students are less prepared for youth exchange in other foreign languages, when compared with countries like Luxembourg and France.

## 5.3.6 Spain

### 5.3.6.1 Erasmus+ Student Mobility

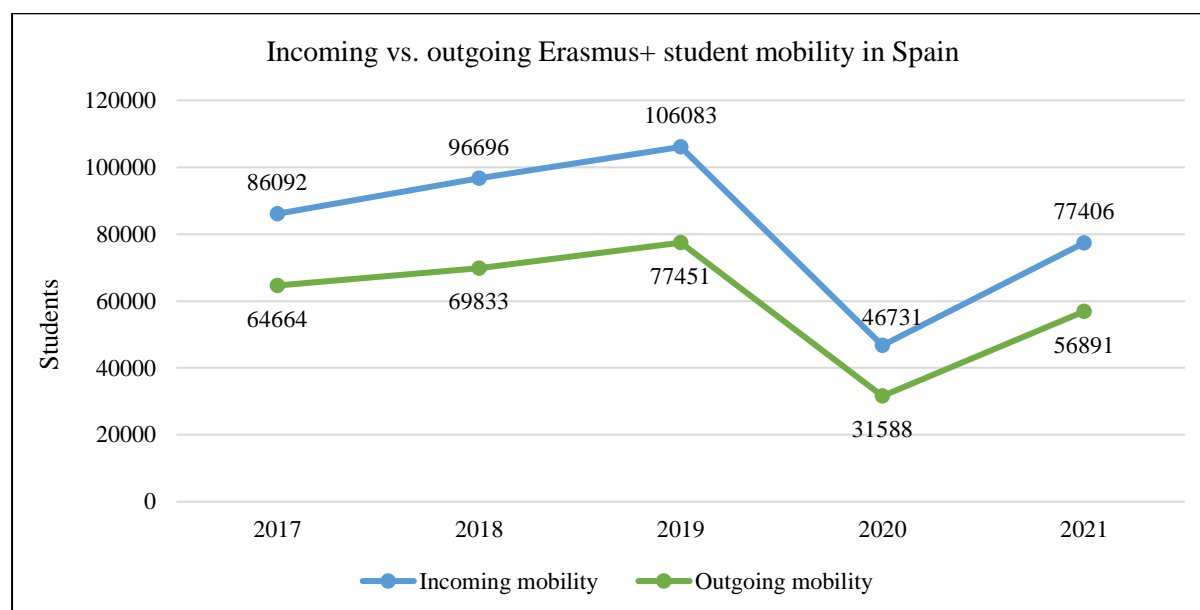


Figure 122. Incoming vs. outgoing mobility of Erasmus+ students in Spain for years 2017-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Erasmus+ in Spain in 2021" by European Commission, 2022, (<https://erasmus-plus.ec.europa.eu/resources-and-tools/factsheets-statistics-evaluations/programme-and-country-factsheets/country-factsheets-2021/erasmus-in-spain-in-2021>). (European Commission, 2022). Copyright 2022 by European Commission.

As shown in Figure 122, Erasmus+ incoming student mobility was higher in Spain than outgoing student mobility over the period of 2017-2021. This is explained by the fact that Spain was historically one of the top receiving countries in the Erasmus+ Programme, being students' favourite destination due to quality education, relatively low cost of living and warm weather (Herrero, 2020). Similar to other countries, Spain experienced a decrease in incoming and outgoing student mobility in 2020 due to Covid-19, but then had an increase in both numbers in 2021, when pandemic restrictions were eased.

### 5.3.6.2 Male vs. Female Mobile Students

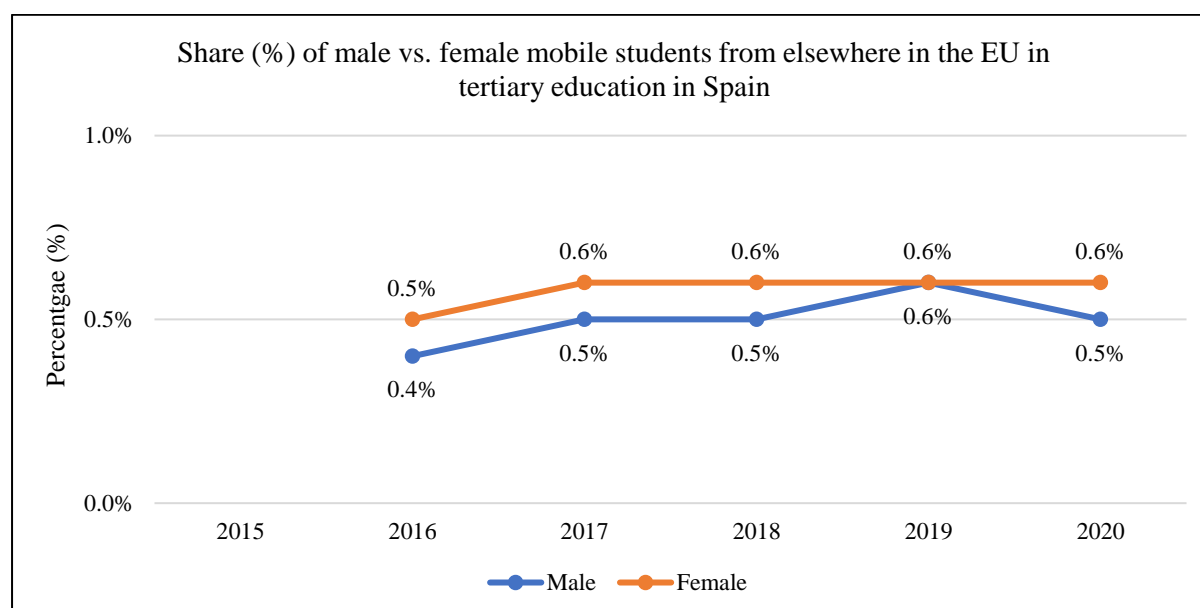


Figure 123. Share of male vs. female students from elsewhere in the EU in tertiary education in Spain for years 2015-2020.

Note: Data adapted from: “Share of mobile students from abroad enrolled by education level, sex and country of origin” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC\\_UOE\\_MOBS03\\$DV\\_1126/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth\\_educ](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC_UOE_MOBS03$DV_1126/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth_educ)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

Figure 123 shows that the share of female students from elsewhere in the EU in tertiary education was slightly higher in Spain than the share of male students over the period of 2016-2020 (*note: data for 2015 was not available*), with the exception of 2019. This is consistent with a higher participation of young women in tertiary education in Spain, as provided in Figure 36 in section 5.1.6.1. Nonetheless, the share of both male and female students from elsewhere in the EU in tertiary education in Spain was lower than 1% for the given period. This can be explained by two factors. Firstly, the overall proportion of foreign students in tertiary education in Spain is low, constituting only 3.8% in 2020 (Eurostat, 2022). Secondly, among foreign students in tertiary education in Spain, majority is represented by students from Central and Southern America, as well as the Caribbean (e.g. 45.5% in 2020), rather than students from the EU (Eurostat, 2022).

### 5.3.6.3 Number of Foreign Languages Studied

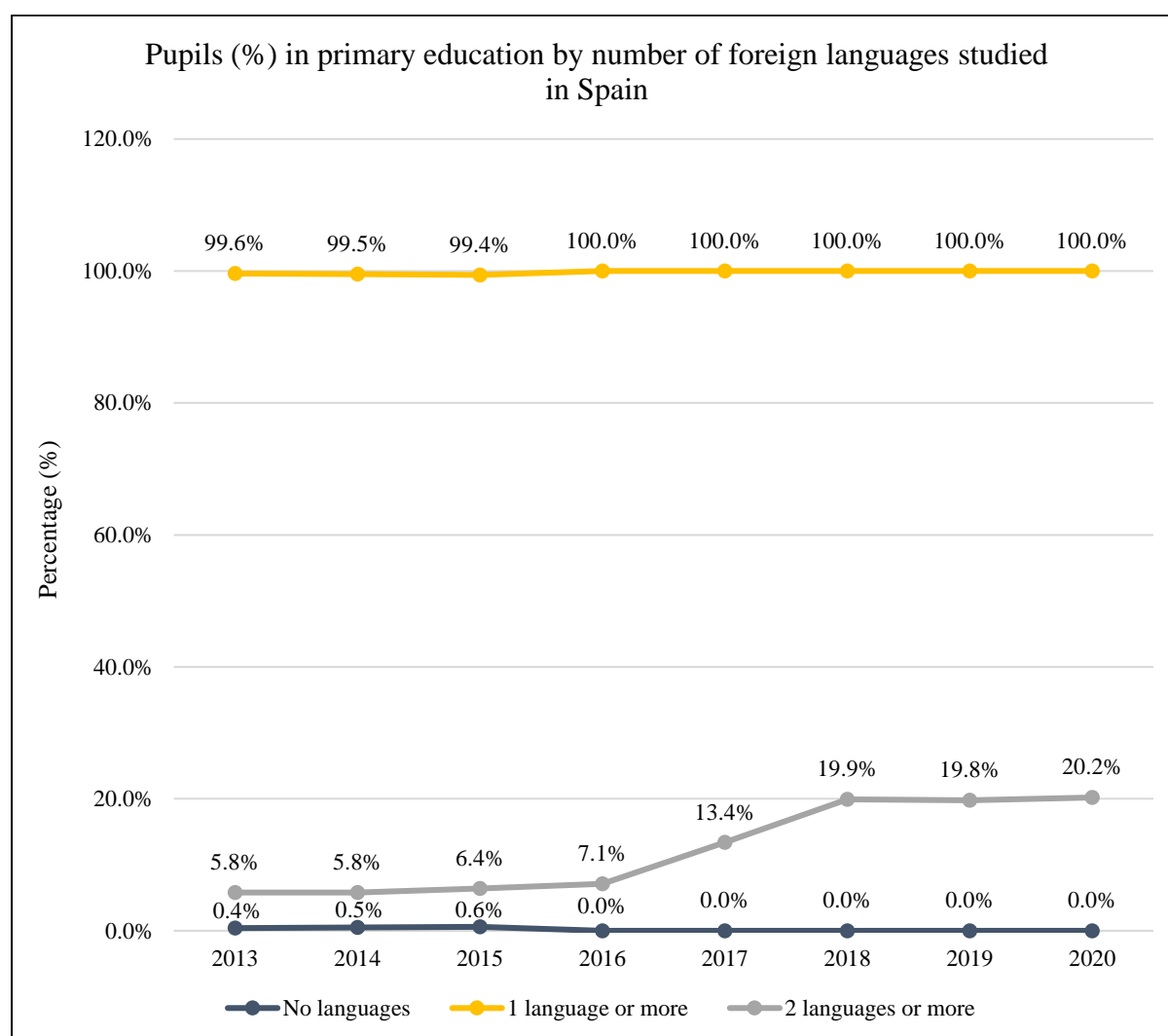


Figure 124. Share of students in primary education by number of foreign languages studied in Spain for years 2013-2020.

Note: Data adapted from: “Pupils by education level and number of modern foreign languages studied – absolute numbers and % of pupils by number of languages studied” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC\\_UOE\\_LANG02\\$DV\\_1125/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC_UOE_LANG02$DV_1125/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As can be seen in Figure 124, the share of students in primary education in Spain studying no foreign languages was close to zero for years 2013-2015 and equal to zero for years 2016-2020. This is explained by the fact that a foreign language is a core subject in the state primary school curriculum in Spain (Fairman, 2023). For the same reason, the share of students in primary education in Spain studying one or more foreign languages was close to 100% for years 2013-2015 and equal to 100% for years 2016-2020. The share of students in primary education in Spain studying two or more foreign languages increased throughout 2013-2020 due to the opening of more international schools in Spain (e.g. 281 schools, as of January 2023), in which pupils have the option to study another foreign language (Fairman, 2023).

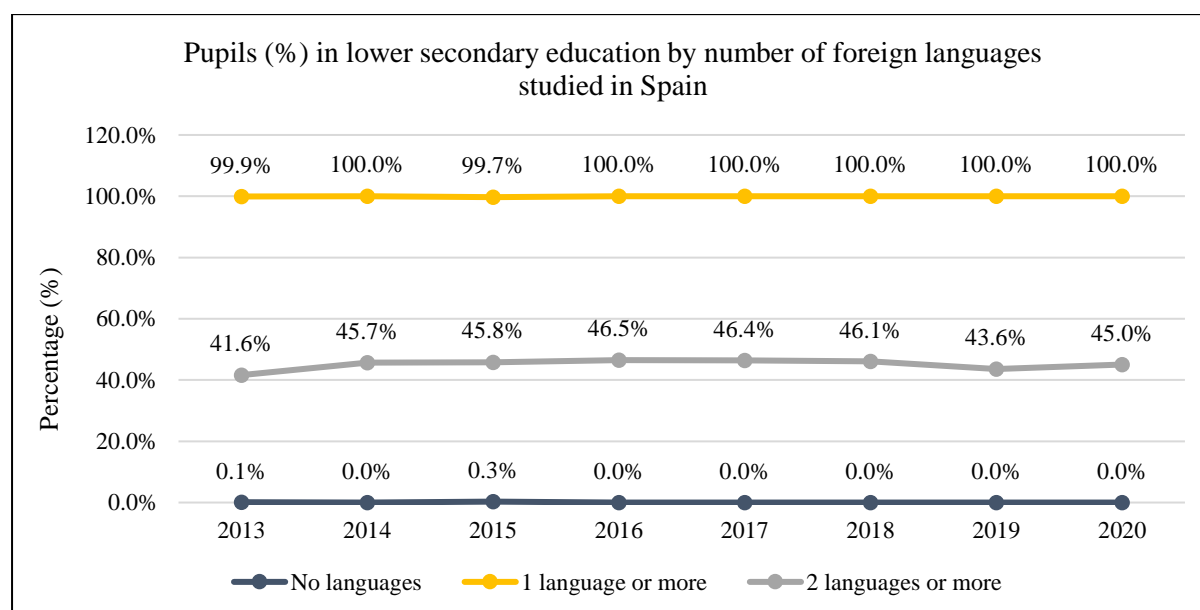


Figure 125. Share of students in lower secondary education by number of foreign languages studied in Spain for years 2013-2020.

Note: Data adapted from: "Pupils by education level and number of modern foreign languages studied – absolute numbers and % of pupils by number of languages studied" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC\\_UOE\\_LANG02\\$DV\\_1125/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC_UOE_LANG02$DV_1125/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

Figure 125 shows that in lower secondary education, the shares of students in Spain studying no foreign languages and one or more foreign languages are similar to those in primary education. This is due to the fact that all students continue studying at least one foreign language from their primary school (Fairman, 2023). Moreover, in lower secondary education, students have the option to add another foreign language to their curriculum, which justifies a higher share of students in Spain studying two or more foreign languages in lower secondary education than in primary education over the period of 2013-2020 (Angloinfo, n.d.).

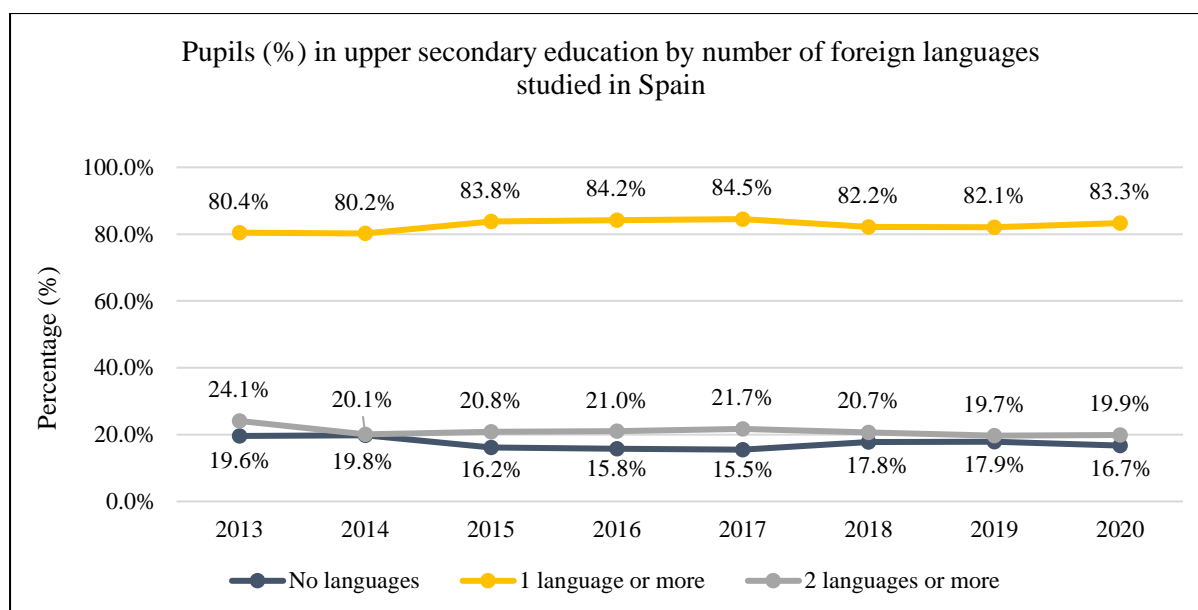


Figure 126. Share of students in upper secondary education by number of foreign languages studied in Spain for years 2013-2020.

Note: Data adapted from: "Pupils by education level and number of modern foreign languages studied – absolute numbers and % of pupils by number of languages studied" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC\\_UOE\\_LANG02\\$DV\\_1125/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC_UOE_LANG02$DV_1125/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As provided in Figure 126, the share of students in upper secondary education studying no foreign languages was much higher than in primary and lower secondary education in Spain for years 2013-2020. This is justified by the fact that, while one of the optional upper secondary education paths – Bachillerato - has foreign language as a compulsory subject, the other path – vocational training – offers it as an optional subject (Fairman, 2022). For the same reason, the share of students in upper secondary education studying one or more foreign languages was lower than in primary and lower secondary education in Spain over the period of 2013-2020. The share of students in upper secondary education studying two or more foreign languages was lower than in lower secondary education in Spain for the given time period because fewer students choose to continue studying two foreign languages in Bachillerato and vocational training (Fairman, 2022).

Overall, the Spanish students, who completed primary and lower secondary education, are well prepared in terms of the foreign language skills for youth exchange. However, upper secondary school graduates are generally less prepared in terms of the language skills than in other countries.

### 5.3.7 Summary

In terms of the Erasmus+ student mobility, all six countries experienced a similar trend of a significant drop in numbers in 2020 due to Covid-19 traveling restrictions. When the restrictions were eased in 2021, Erasmus+ mobility numbers increased again for all countries, except for Finland. For the years 2017-2021, incoming student mobility was higher than outgoing student mobility in Finland, Luxembourg and Spain, while the opposite was true in France, Italy and Slovakia. For the given time period, the highest outgoing student mobility was in France, followed by Italy and Spain, whereas the lowest outgoing student mobility was in Luxembourg, followed by Slovakia and Finland. As for the incoming student mobility, the highest was in Spain, followed by Italy and France, while the lowest was in Luxembourg, followed by Slovakia and Finland.

In terms of the share of male and female students from elsewhere in the EU in tertiary education, female shares were higher throughout the entire period of 2015-2020 in France, Italy, Luxembourg and Slovakia. In Finland and Spain, the shares of female students from elsewhere in the EU in tertiary

education were slightly higher than or equal to the shares of male students for years 2015-2020 (or 2016-2020 for Spain). The highest shares of male and female students in tertiary education were in Luxembourg, followed by Slovakia, over the period of 2015-2020. This is driven both by the overall lower numbers of tertiary students and a lack of dominance of European students among foreign students in tertiary education in Luxembourg and Slovakia (Eurostat, 2022). Majority of foreign students in tertiary education is constituted by Asian students in Finland and Italy, African students in France and Caribbean, Central and Southern American students in Spain, causing the shares of European students to be lower in tertiary education in these countries (Eurostat, 2022).

In terms of the number of foreign languages studied, majority of primary school students in Finland, France, Italy, Slovakia and Spain studied one or more foreign languages over the period of 2013-2020, whereas the same was true for all primary school students in Luxembourg. The share of students in primary education studying two or more languages was the highest in Luxembourg, followed by Finland and Spain. In lower secondary education, almost all students studied one or more foreign languages in Finland, France, Italy, Slovakia and Spain over the period of 2013-2020, while the same was true for all students in Luxembourg. The share of students in lower secondary education studying two or more languages was the highest in Luxembourg, followed by Finland and Italy. In upper secondary education, almost all students studied one or more foreign languages in Finland, France, Italy, Slovakia and Spain over the period of 2013-2020, whereas the same was true for all students in Luxembourg, with the exception of 2020. The share of students in upper secondary education studying two or more foreign languages was the highest in Finland, followed by Luxembourg and France. Overall, students from Finland, France and Luxembourg appear well prepared for youth exchange in terms of the foreign language skills, whereas the provision of foreign language skills could be improved for students in Italy, Slovakia and Spain to ensure that students have a better access to youth exchange opportunities.

## 5.4 Youth Employment

This section reviews the data for youth employment in each of the six countries, focusing on labour force participation rate, employment rate by gender and educational attainment, employment and unemployment rates, part-time employment and youth NEET.

### 5.4.1 Finland

#### 5.4.1.1 Labour Force Participation Rate

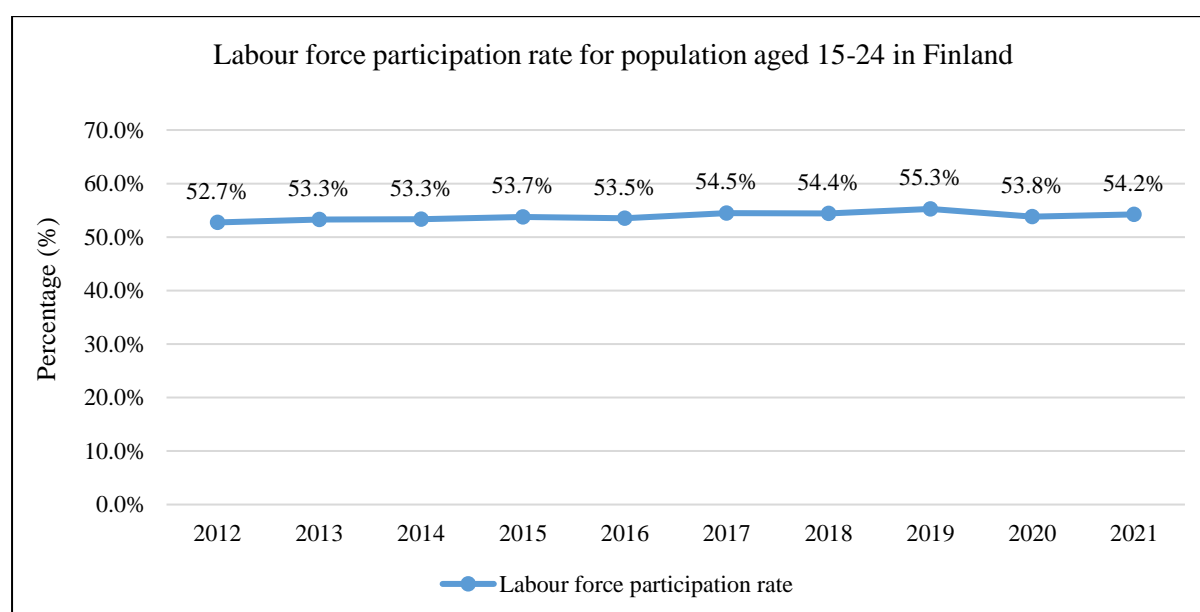


Figure 127. Labour force participation rate for population aged 15-24 in Finland for years 2012-2021.



Note: Data adapted from: “Labour force participation rate” by OECD, 2022, (<https://data.oecd.org/emp/labour-force-participation-rate.htm>). (OECD, 2022). Copyright 2022 by OECD.

As shown in Figure 127 above, youth labour force participation rate remained steady and experienced only minor changes in Finland throughout 2012-2021. In 2020, labour force participation rate for the Finnish youth decreased to the lowest level since 2016 due to Covid-19 challenges, however, increased again in 2021.

#### 5.4.1.2 Employment By Educational Attainment

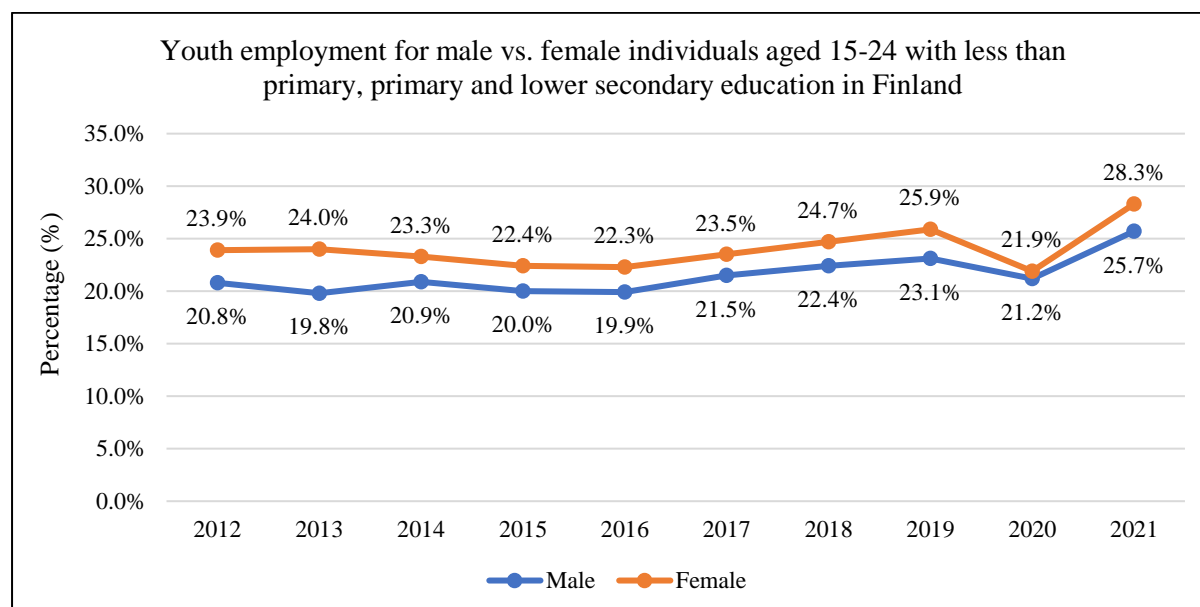


Figure 128. Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with less than primary, primary and lower secondary education in Finland for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: “Youth employment by sex, age and educational attainment level” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth\\_empl\\_010/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth_empl_010/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

Figure 128 shows that employment was higher for young women with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment in Finland than for young men over the period of 2012-2021. A decrease in employment of both male and female youth with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment occurred in 2020 due to Covid-19 pandemic. Nonetheless, employment for both male and female youth with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment increased in 2021 to higher levels than in pre-pandemic time. This is driven by the economic recovery, such as 5.18% increase in GDP from 2020 to 2021 as opposed to 1.09% increase in GDP from 2019-2020, and pandemic relief policies implemented in Finland, such as better provision of unemployment benefits and support for self-employed (Kangas, 2020) (OECD, 2022).

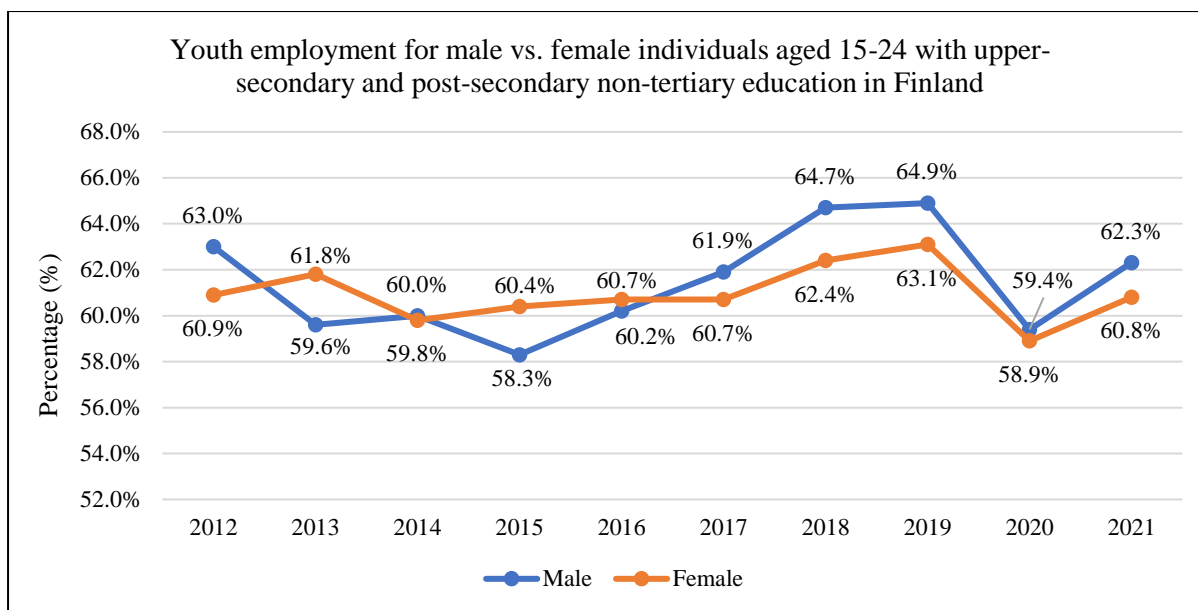


Figure 129. Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with upper-secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education in Finland for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Youth employment by sex, age and educational attainment level" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth\\_empl\\_010/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth_empl_010/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As provided in Figure 129, employment for young males with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment was higher than for their female counterparts in Finland over the period of 2017-2021. This is consistent with the fact that there were more male employed early leavers from education in Finland for the years 2012-2021, as given in Figure 7 in section 5.1.1.1. Moreover, Figure 3 in section 5.1.1.1 shows an increase in young women with tertiary educational attainment in Finland over the period of 2017-2021, which implies that fewer young females with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education were active in the labour market because they continued their studies. A decrease in employment for both genders occurred in 2020 due to Covid-19, however, the numbers increased in 2021. Generally, employment for both young males and females is significantly higher if they have upper secondary educational attainment as opposed to primary or lower secondary educational attainment in Finland.

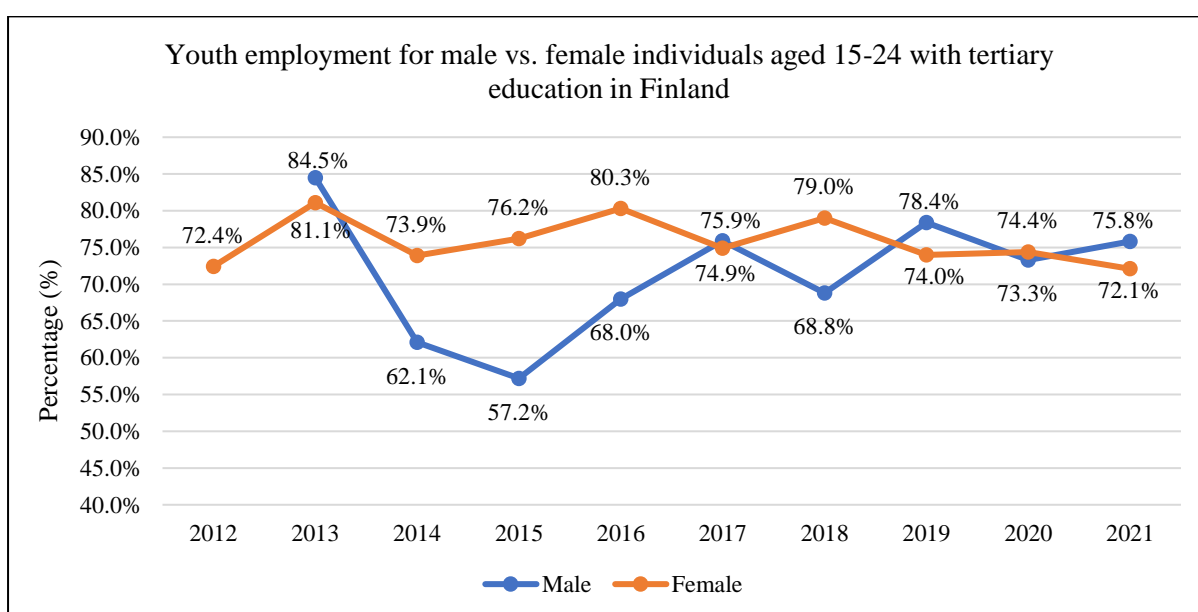


Figure 130. Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with tertiary education in Finland for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Youth employment by sex, age and educational attainment level" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth\\_empl\\_010/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth_empl_010/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As shown in Figure 130 above, there was no clear domination in employment of young men vs. women with tertiary educational attainment in Finland over the period of 2012-2021, with both numbers fluctuating throughout the years (*note: no data for male employment in 2012 was available*). Although there was a higher gap between employment for young males and females with tertiary education at the start of the period, the numbers converged in 2019-2021. Generally, employment for both young males and females with tertiary educational attainment in Finland was higher than for their counterparts with primary, lower secondary and upper secondary educational attainment. This indicates that having tertiary education can be beneficial for employment opportunities in the Finnish labour market.

### 5.4.1.3 Employment Rate

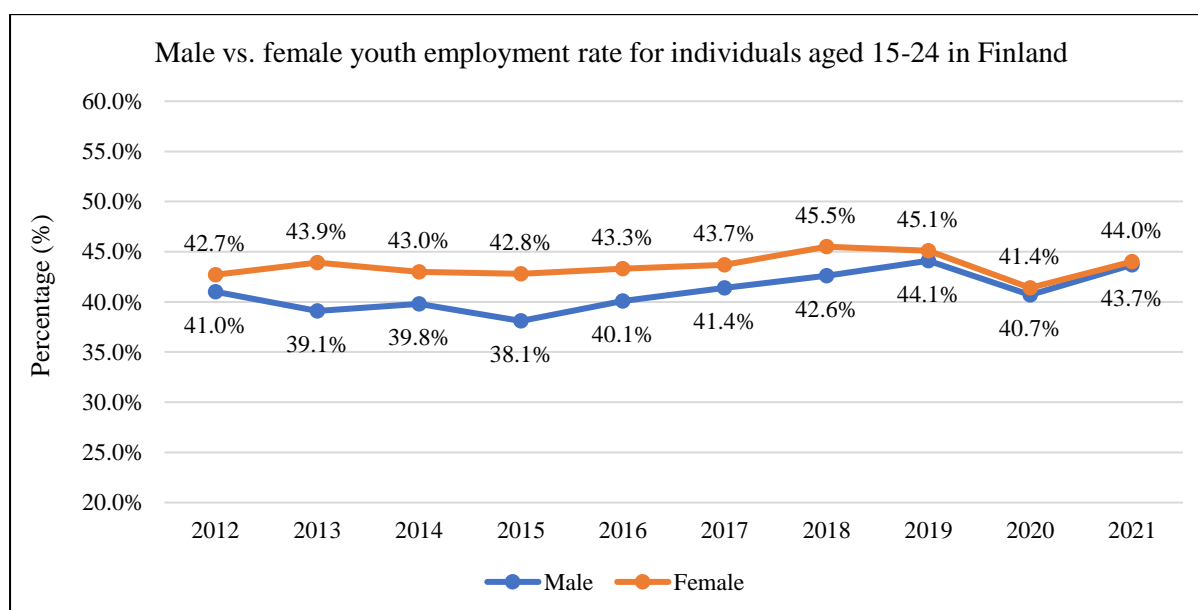


Figure 131. Youth employment rate for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 in Finland for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Youth employment rate by sex, age and country of birth" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_EMPL\\_020/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_EMPL_020/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

Figure 131 above shows that the general employment rate was higher for young females than for young males in Finland over the entire period of 2012-2021. This implies that female youth is not disadvantaged in the Finnish labour market and is more successful in entering it than their male counterparts, although the difference between the male and female employment rates reduced in recent years. Nonetheless, the employment rate for both young men and women decreased in 2020 due to Covid-19. During the pandemic, the employment rate for young females dropped to the lowest mark throughout the given period, whereas the same was not true for young males. This can be partially attributed to the challenges women faced when working from home and caring for the family.

#### 5.4.1.4 Part-Time Employment

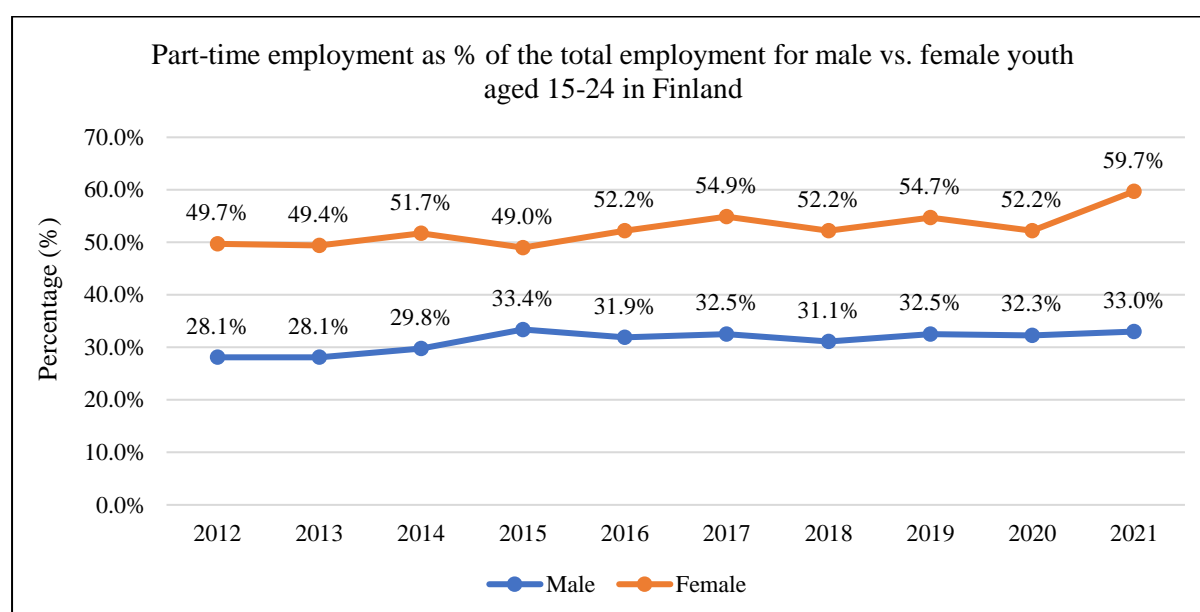


Figure 132. Part-time employment as % of the total employment for male vs. female youth aged 15-24 in Finland for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Part-time employment as percentage of the total employment for young people by sex, age and country of birth" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_EMPL\\_060/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_EMPL_060/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

Although the employment rate for young females remained higher than for young males in Finland for years 2012-2021, Figure 132 shows that majority of young women had part-time employment, as opposed to full-time, for the same time period. The share of part-time employment within total employment for young males was lower in 2012-2021 in Finland. Figure 133 below provides shares of young women in temporary employment by reasons for this employment type:

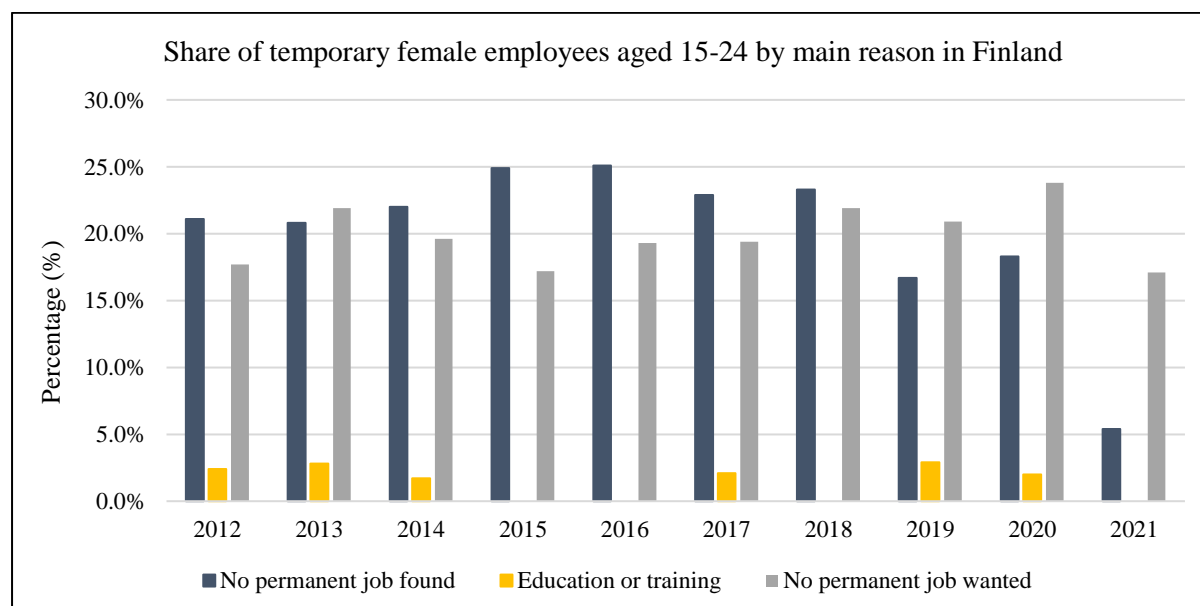


Figure 133. Share of temporary female employees aged 15-24 by main reason for temporary employment in Finland for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Temporary employees by sex, age and main reason" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/LFSA\\_ETGAR/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/LFSA_ETGAR/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As shown in Figure 3 in section 5.1.1.1, more young women had tertiary educational attainment in Finland for years 2012-2021. Given that part-time or temporary employment is a more suitable option for students, some young females in Finland opted for temporary employment for educational purposes, as given in Figure 133, although only a small share of young female workers reported it as the main reason (*note: data for education as the main reason was not available for 2015, 2016, 2018 and 2021*). Prior to 2019, more young females in Finland opted for temporary employment because they could not find a permanent job rather than because they did not want a permanent job. However, the situation has reversed in Finland over the period of 2019-2021. This could be driven by the fact that young women choose flexible part-time or temporary employment to accommodate for caring for the family, especially during Covid-19, e.g. almost 25% of young females in 2020 chose temporary employment because they did not want permanent jobs.

#### 5.4.1.5 Unemployment Rate

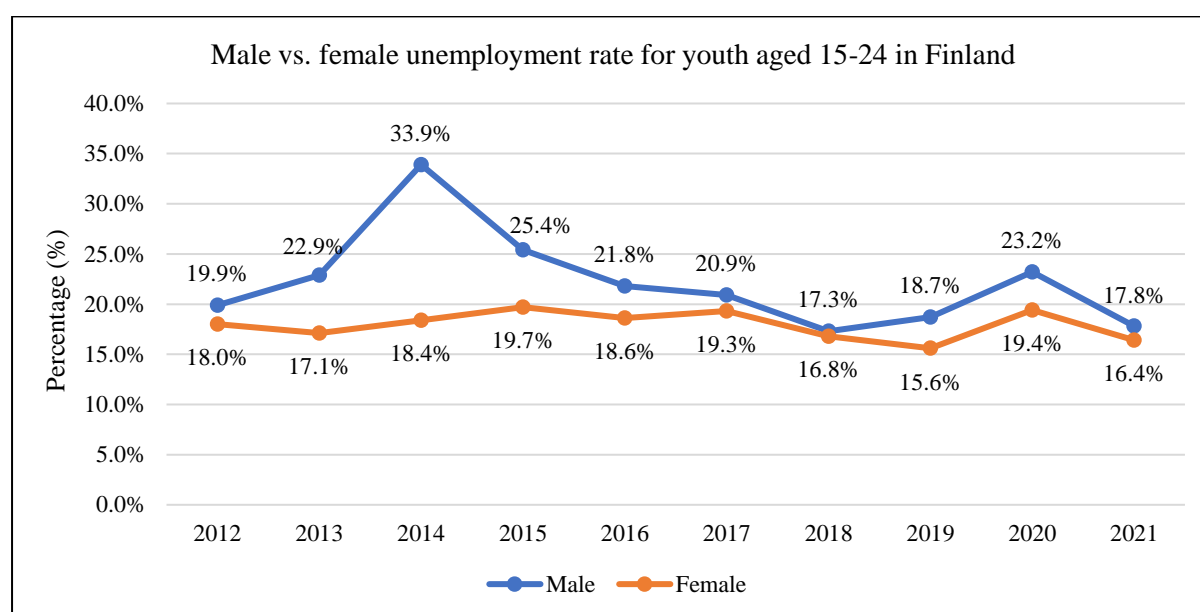


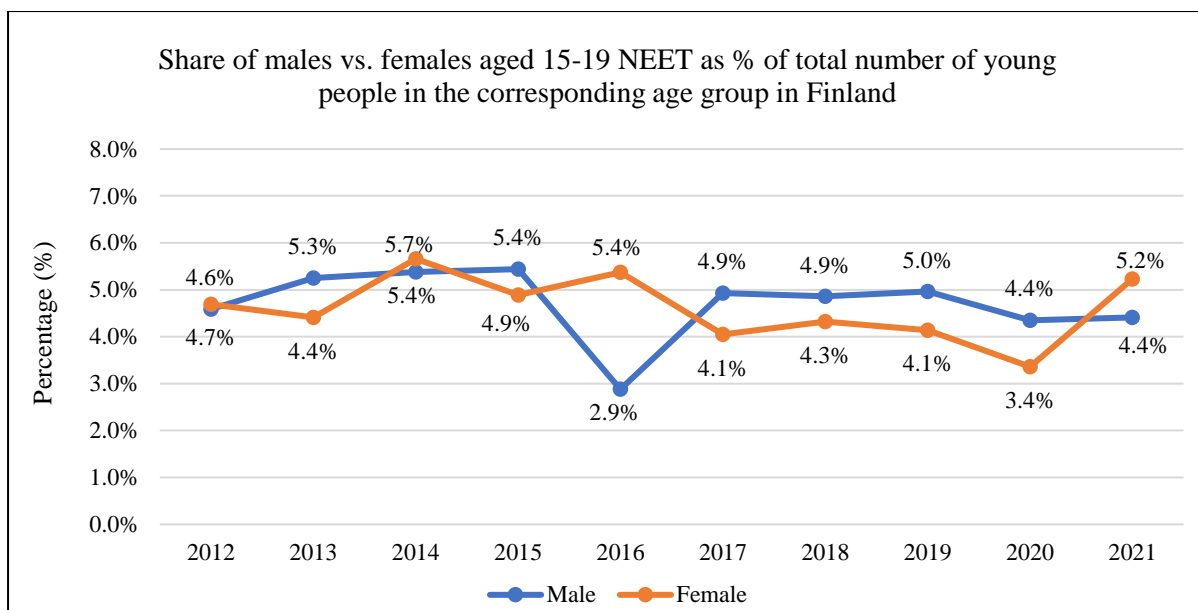
Figure 134. Youth unemployment rate for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 in Finland for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Youth unemployment rate by sex, age and country of birth" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_EMPL\\_100/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_EMPL_100/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

Figure 134 shows that the unemployment rate for young males in Finland was higher than for young females throughout the entire period of 2012-2021. This is consistent with the data in Figure 131, showing that the employment rate was higher for young women than for young men in Finland for the same time period. During 2020, the unemployment rate increased both for young males and females in Finland due to economic challenges related to Covid-19.

#### 5.4.1.6 Youth NEET

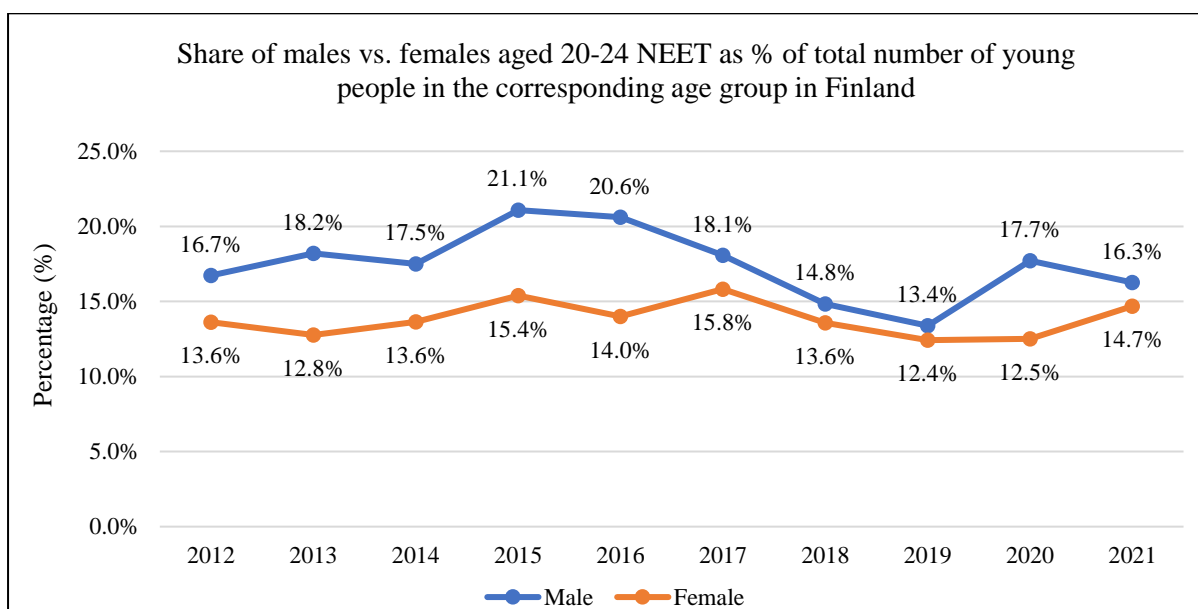
The following two figures divide male and female youth into age groups in accordance with the OECD data: 15-19 and 20-24 year olds.



*Figure 135. Share of male vs. female individuals aged 15-19 not in employment, education or training as % of total number of young people in the corresponding age group in Finland for years 2012-2021.*

*Note: Data adapted from: "Youth not in employment, education or training (NEET)" by OECD, 2022, (<https://data.oecd.org/youthinac/youth-not-in-employment-education-or-training-neet.htm>). (OECD, 2022). Copyright 2022 by OECD.*

Figure 135 above shows that the share of females aged 15-19 NEET in Finland was generally lower than the share of males aged 15-19 NEET over the given period, with the exception of 2014, 2016 and 2021. Nonetheless, the overall shares of both young males and females aged 15-19 NEET in Finland remained fairly low throughout the entire period of 2012-2021. This shows that almost all young males and females aged 15-19 in Finland are actively engaged either in education and training or in employment.



*Figure 136. Share of male vs. female individuals aged 20-24 not in employment, education or training as % of total number of young people in the corresponding age group in Finland for years 2012-2021.*

*Note: Data adapted from: "Youth not in employment, education or training (NEET)" by OECD, 2022, (<https://data.oecd.org/youthinac/youth-not-in-employment-education-or-training-neet.htm>). (OECD, 2022). Copyright 2022 by OECD.*

Figure 136 shows that the shares of both young males and females aged 20-24 NEET in Finland were higher than for young males and females aged 15-19 for years 2012-2021. Throughout the given period,

there were more young men aged 20-24 NEET in Finland than young women aged 20-24 NEET. Generally, NEET rates for both young males and females in Finland are lower than the OECD average for 15-19 year olds, e.g. 4.84% of young individuals NEET among 15-19 year olds in 2021 in Finland, as opposed to 8.26% OECD average (OECD, 2022). However, NEET rates for both young males and females in Finland are close to the OECD average for 20-24 year olds, e.g. 15.51% of young individuals NEET among 20-24 years olds in 2021 in Finland, as opposed to 16.82% OECD average (OECD, 2022). This implies that more Finnish young men and women choose not to engage in the labour market or in education and training at a later stage of their youth.

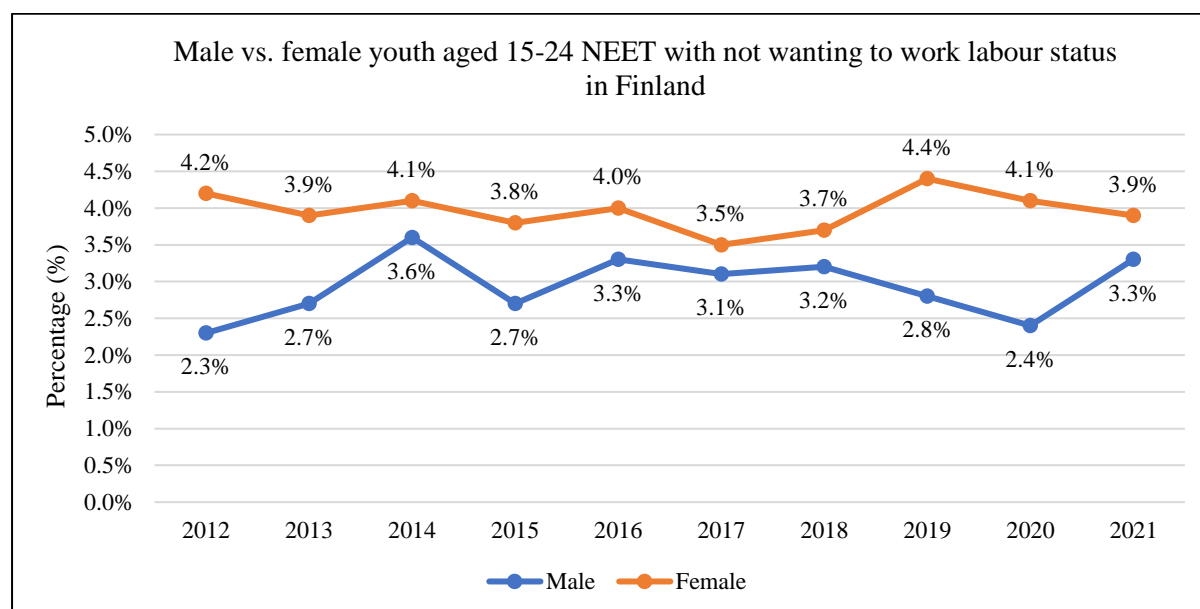


Figure 137. Male vs. female youth aged 15-24 neither in employment nor in education and training with not wanting to work labour status in Finland for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Young people neither in employment nor in education and training by sex, age and labour status (NEET rates)" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDAT\\_LFSE\\_20/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDAT_LFSE_20/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

Although Figures 135 and 136 showed that there were more young males aged 20-24 NEET in Finland than young females aged 20-24 and more young males aged 15-19 NEET in Finland than young females aged 15-19 for years 2012-2021, with the exception of 2014, 2016 and 2020, Figure 137 above shows that among the Finnish youth aged 15-24 NEET, there were more women who did not want to work than men for years 2012-2021. This could only partially be explained by young females leaving the labour market and education to care for the family because fertility rates for young women aged 15-24 have been declining in Finland over the last decade (Eurostat, 2022).

## 5.4.2 France

### 5.4.2.1 Labour Force Participation Rate

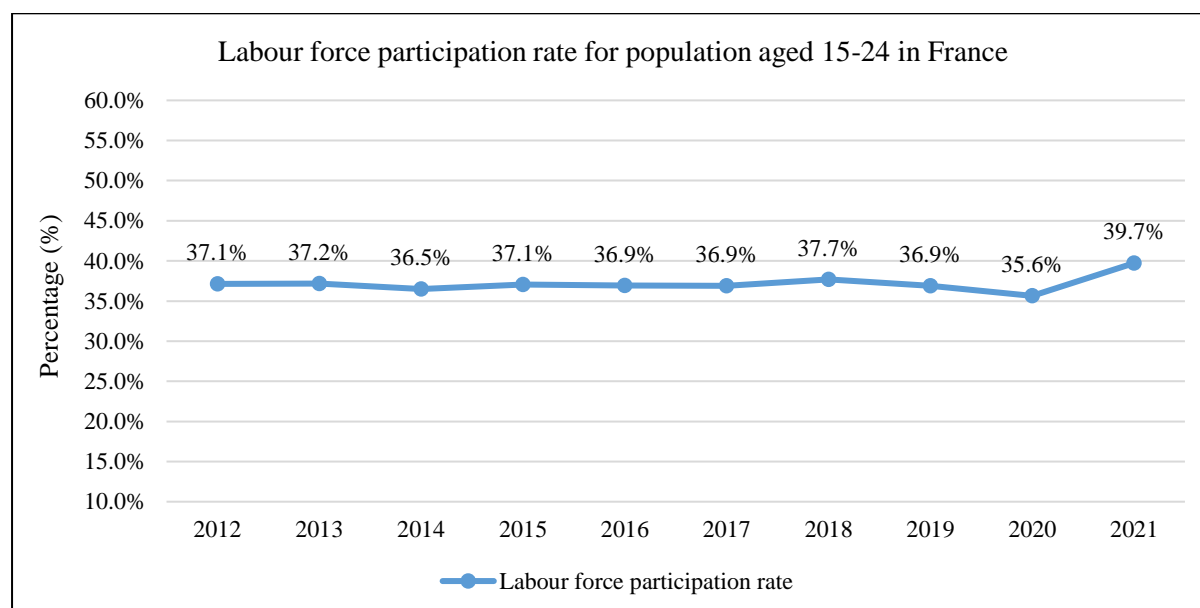


Figure 138. Labour force participation rate for population aged 15-24 in France for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Labour force participation rate" by OECD, 2022, (<https://data.oecd.org/emp/labour-force-participation-rate.htm>). (OECD, 2022). Copyright 2022 by OECD.

As shown in Figure 138 above, youth labour force participation rate in France has been stable over the years 2012-2021 with no major changes. In 2020, youth labour force participation rate in France decreased to the lowest mark throughout the entire period due to Covid-19. However, it increased and surpassed pre-pandemic rates in 2021, driven by the economic recovery in France, following the extensive fiscal support of the French government during the pandemic, with a particular focus on job preservation in the labour market (Franks, Gruss, Patnam, & Weber, 2021).

### 5.4.2.2 Employment By Educational Attainment

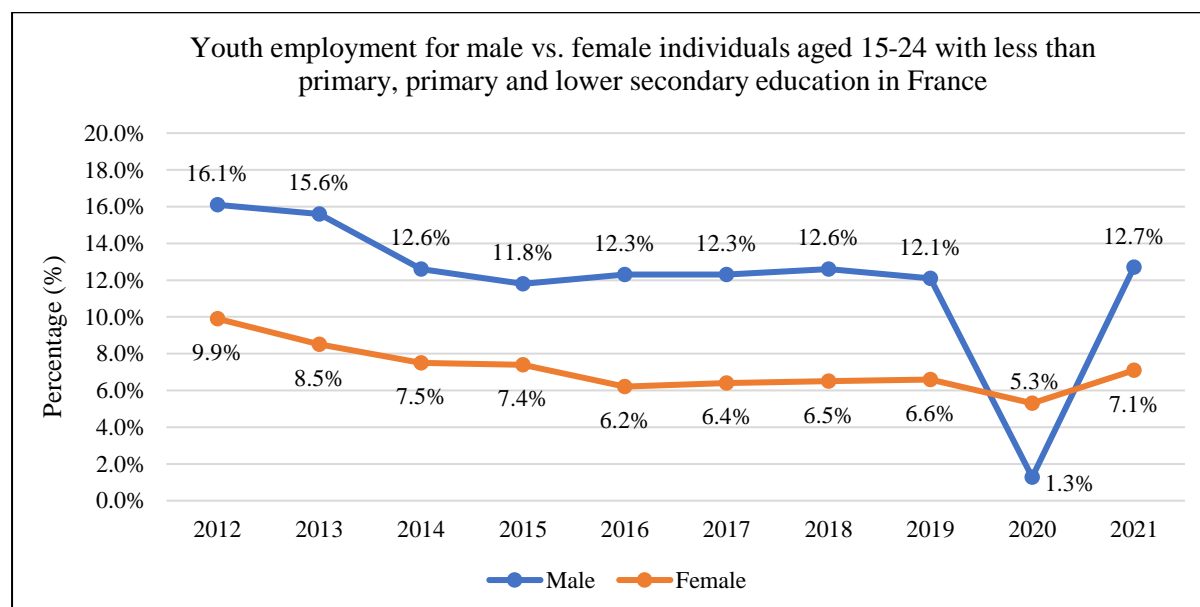


Figure 139. Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with less than primary, primary and lower secondary education in France for years 2012-2021.



Note: Data adapted from: “Youth employment by sex, age and educational attainment level” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth\\_empl\\_010/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth_empl_010/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

Figure 139 shows that employment for young males with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment in France was higher than for young females throughout the entire period of 2012-2021, except in 2020. Although employment for both young men and women with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment decreased in 2020 due to economic challenges brought by Covid-19, the decrease in the employment for young males was much higher than for young females. Similarly, during economic recovery in 2021, the increase in employment for young men with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment was significantly greater than for young women, with both numbers returning to pre-pandemic levels. Overall, the data provided in Figure 139 indicates that young females with less than primary, primary and lower secondary education face more challenges in the French labour market, as opposed to their male counterparts. Nonetheless, it is also true that there were more young males with primary and lower secondary educational attainment in France than females over the entire period of 2012-2021, as shown in Figure 8 in section 5.1.2.1.

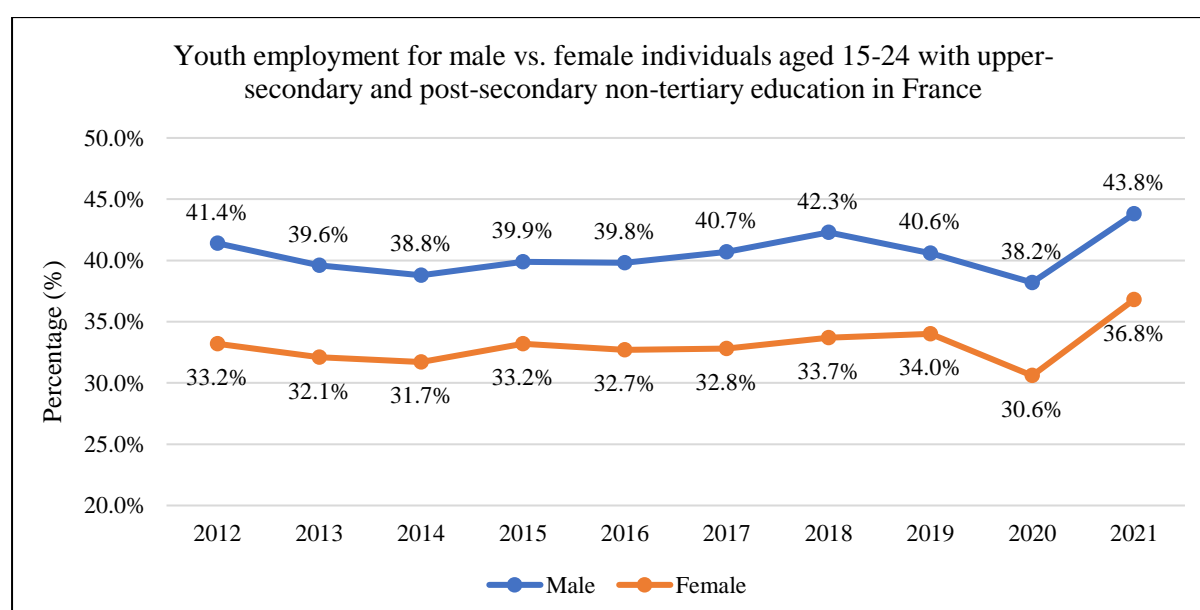
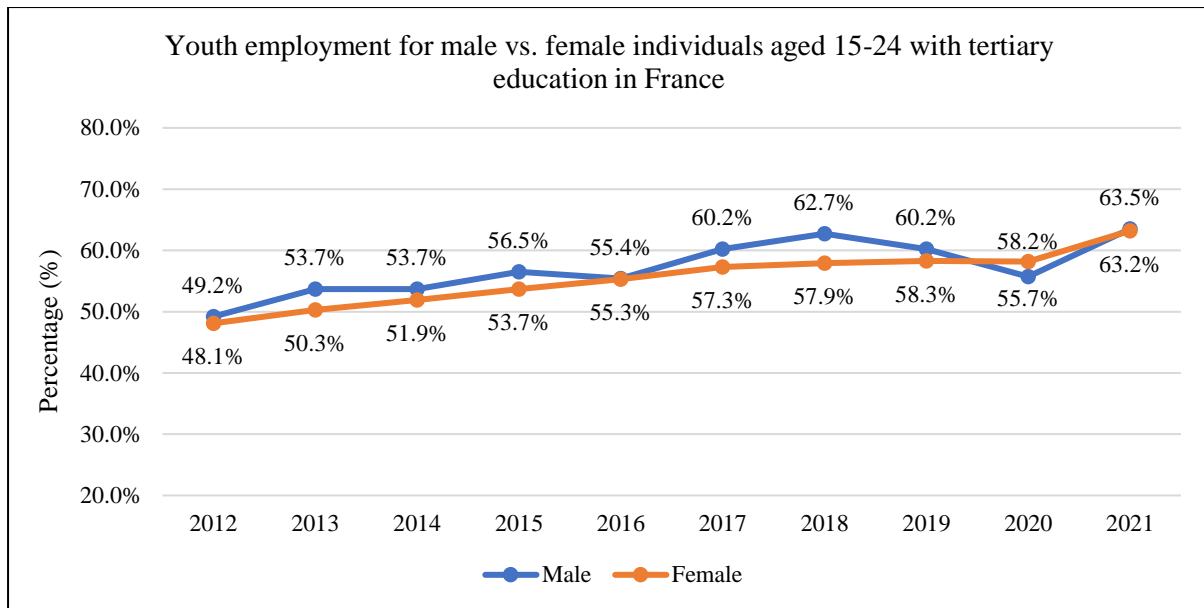


Figure 140. Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with upper-secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education in France for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: “Youth employment by sex, age and educational attainment level” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth\\_empl\\_010/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth_empl_010/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As can be seen in Figure 140, employment for young males with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment in France was higher than for young females throughout the entire period of 2012-2021. In 2020, there was a decrease in employment for both young men and women with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment in France due to the negative impact of Covid-19 on the French economy. Nevertheless, employment for both young males and females with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment in France increased again in 2021, surpassing pre-pandemic levels, which can be explained by the substantial fiscal support of the French government for economic relief (Franks, Gruss, Patnam, & Weber, 2021). Similar to young women with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment, young females with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment in France face more difficulties in finding employment than their male counterparts. However, in contrast to primary and lower secondary education, there was no clear dominance of young males or females with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment in France over the years 2012-2021, as shown in Figure 9 in section 5.1.2.1.



*Figure 141. Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with tertiary education in France for years 2012-2021.*

*Note: Data adapted from: "Youth employment by sex, age and educational attainment level" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth\\_empl\\_010/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth_empl_010/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.*

As can be seen in Figure 141 above, employment for young males with tertiary educational attainment in France was higher than for young females throughout the entire period of 2012-2021, apart from 2020. Although employment for young females with tertiary educational attainment in France slightly decreased in 2020 due to Covid-19, the decrease in employment for their male counterparts has been more substantial. In 2021, employment for both young men and women with tertiary education in France increased to a higher level than in pre-pandemic times, driven by the economic relief policies implemented by the French government (Franks, Gruss, Patnam, & Weber, 2021). Even though there were more young females with tertiary educational attainment than young males in France over the entire period of 2012-2021, as shown in Figure 10 in section 5.1.2.1, this advantage has not been transferred to the labour market, with young women still having lower employment, although the gap between employment for both genders is smaller than for lower educational attainment levels. Overall, it is clear from Figures 139-141 that a higher educational attainment is positively correlated with a higher employment for young males and females in France.

### 5.4.2.3 Employment Rate

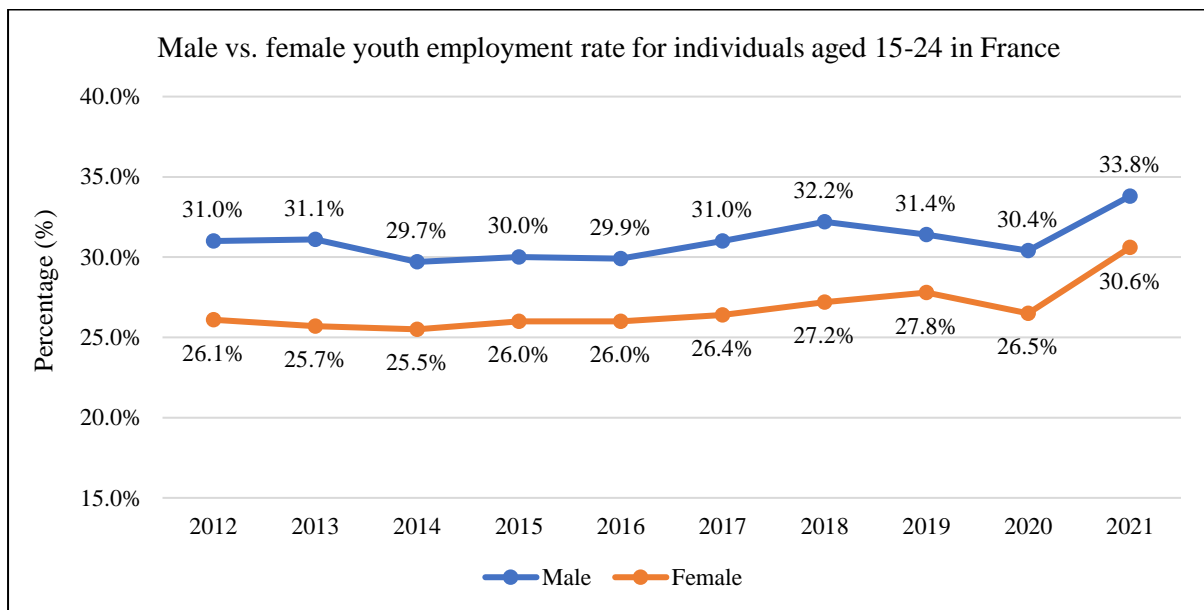


Figure 142. Youth employment rate for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 in France for years 2012-2021.  
 Note: Data adapted from: "Youth employment rate by sex, age and country of birth" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_EMPL\\_020/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_EMPL_020/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

Figure 142 shows that the employment rate for young males in France has been consistently higher than for young females over the entire period of 2012-2021. The employment rates for both genders dropped in 2020 due to Covid-19, however, increased to higher levels than in pre-pandemic times due to the fiscal support from the French government for the economy and the labour market (Franks, Gruss, Patnam, & Weber, 2021). Lower employment rate for young women indicates that they can experience more challenges when trying to enter the French labour market. Furthermore, Figure 143 below shows that, out of employed young people in France, there were more young females with part-time jobs than young males for the period of 2012-2021.

### 5.4.2.4 Part-Time Employment

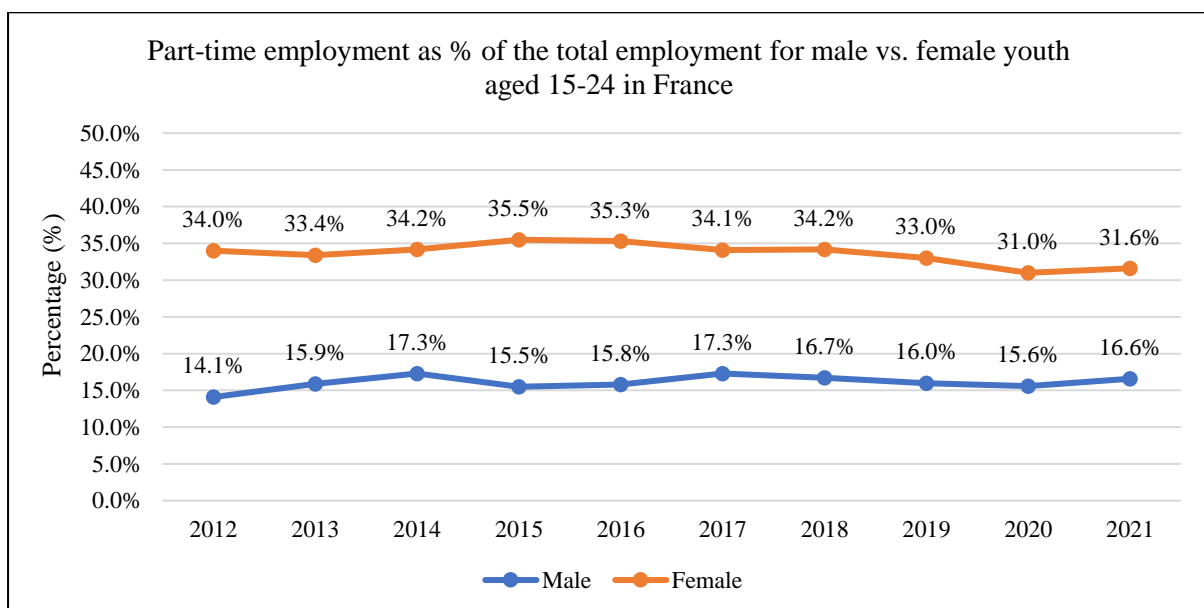


Figure 143. Part-time employment as % of the total employment for male vs. female youth aged 15-24 in France for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: “Part-time employment as percentage of the total employment for young people by sex, age and country of birth” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_EMPL\\_060/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_EMPL_060/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As provided in Figure 143 above, there were approximately twice as many young women with part-time employment in France than young men for years 2012-2021. This implies that twice as many young females than young males had a less secure employment in the French labour market for the given time period. Figure 144 below shows the main reasons for young females having no full-time permanent employment in France.

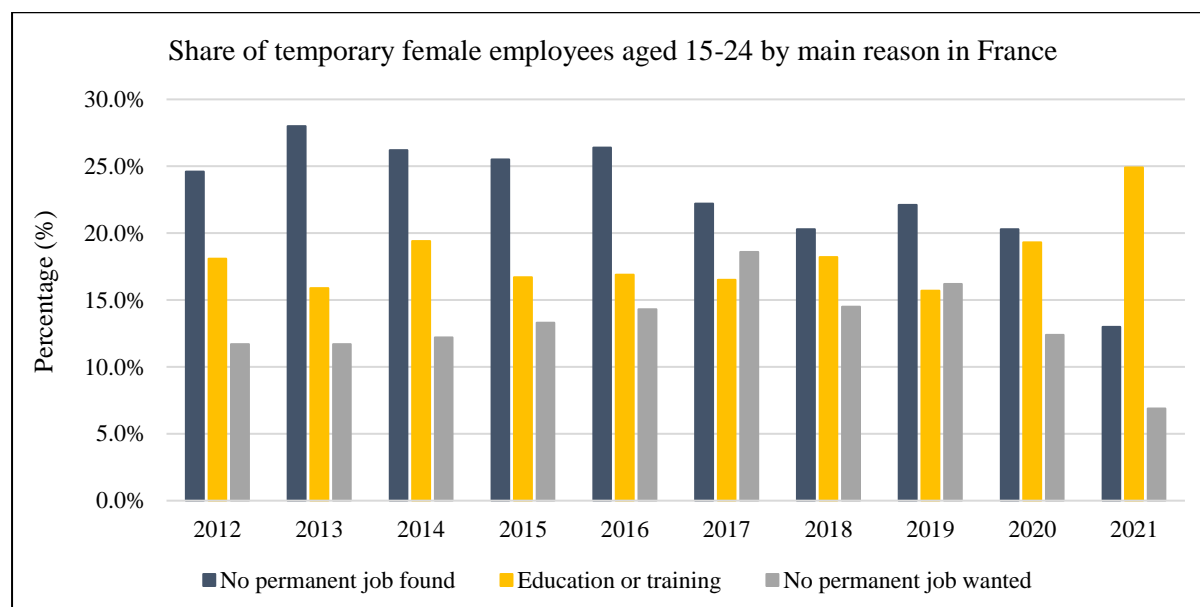


Figure 144. Share of temporary female employees aged 15-24 by main reason for temporary employment in France for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: “Temporary employees by sex, age and main reason” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/LFSA\\_ETGAR/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/LFSA_ETGAR/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As can be seen in Figure 144, over the period of 2012-2020, majority of young women had temporary employment in France because they could not find a full-time employment. This indicates that young females had more challenges in securing permanent jobs in the French labour market than young males, having to settle for part-time employment, which is also supported by data (*note: see Figure A.12 in Appendices*). In 2021, the main reason for having temporary employment for majority of young women was involvement in education and training, which is consistent with an increase in the share of young females with tertiary educational attainment in France in 2021, as shown in Figure 10 in section 5.1.2.1.

### 5.4.2.5 Unemployment Rate

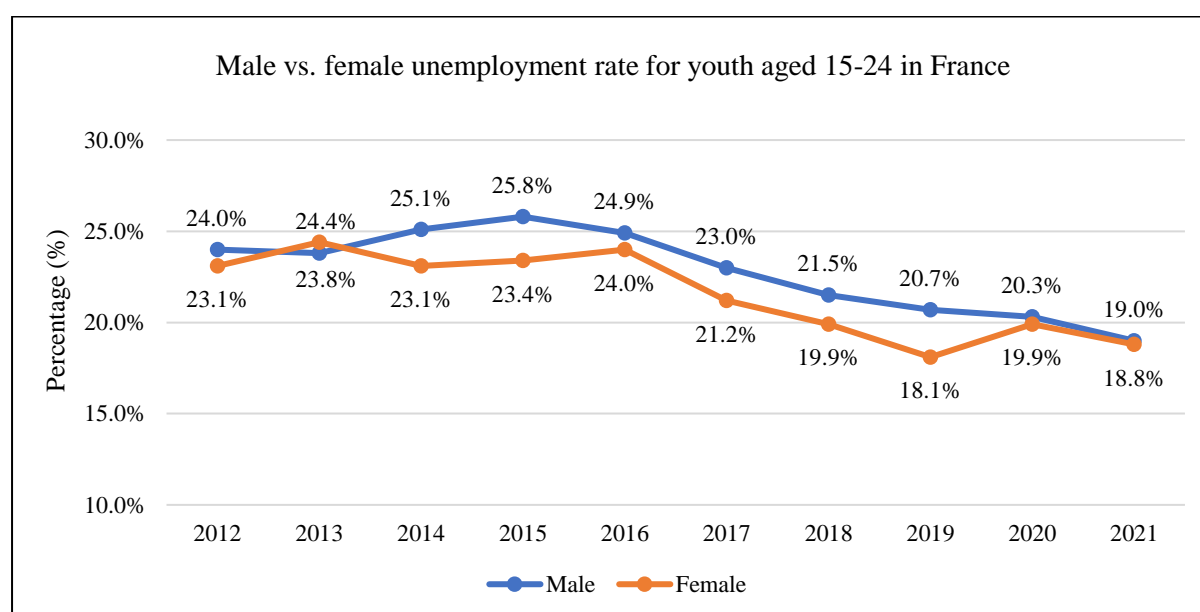


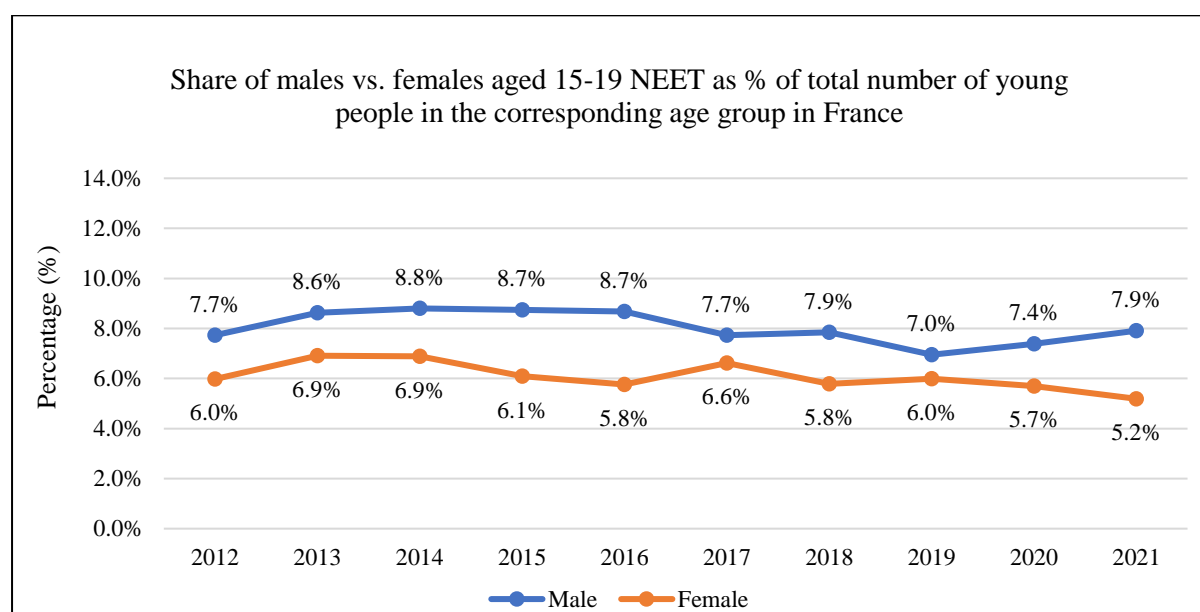
Figure 145. Youth unemployment rate for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 in France for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Youth unemployment rate by sex, age and country of birth" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_EMPL\\_100/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_EMPL_100/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

Figure 145 shows that the unemployment rate was higher for young males in France than young females over the entire period of 2012-2021, with the exception of 2013. This can be partially explained by the general male labour force participation rate being significantly higher in France than the female labour force participation rate (*note: see Figure A.13 in Appendices*) (The World Bank, 2022) (The World Bank, 2022). Nevertheless, the gap between the unemployment rates for young men and women was small, with both rates converging in 2020 and 2021.

### 5.4.2.6 Youth NEET

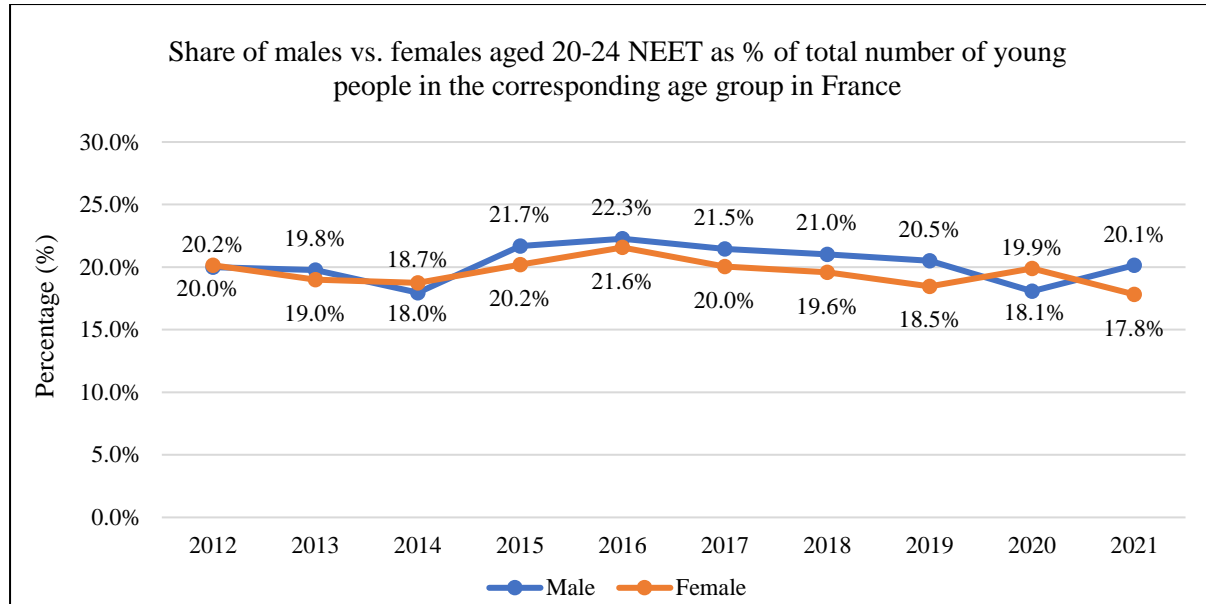
The following two figures divide male and female youth into age groups in accordance with the OECD data: 15-19 and 20-24 year olds.



*Figure 146. Share of male vs. female individuals aged 15-19 not in employment, education or training as % of total number of young people in the corresponding age group in France for years 2012-2021.*

*Note: Data adapted from: "Youth not in employment, education or training (NEET)" by OECD, 2022, (<https://data.oecd.org/youthinac/youth-not-in-employment-education-or-training-neet.htm>). (OECD, 2022). Copyright 2022 by OECD.*

As displayed in Figure 146, there were more young males aged 15-19 NEET in France than young females aged 15-19 NEET for the entire period of 2012-2021. This implies that more young women aged 15-19 in France are actively engaged either in education and training or in employment, with the share of women aged 15-19 NEET decreasing in France over 2019-2021.



*Figure 147. Share of male vs. female individuals aged 20-24 not in employment, education or training as % of total number of young people in the corresponding age group in France for years 2012-2021.*

*Note: Data adapted from: "Youth not in employment, education or training (NEET)" by OECD, 2022, (<https://data.oecd.org/youthinac/youth-not-in-employment-education-or-training-neet.htm>). (OECD, 2022). Copyright 2022 by OECD.*

As shown in Figure 147 above, in contrast to youth aged 15-19, the shares of young males and females aged 20-24 NEET in France were similar over the period of 2012-2021, with the share of young women being slightly higher only in 2014 and 2020. This indicates that, at a later stage of youth, more than twice as many young males and females were not engaged in education and training or employment in France for the given time period. Generally, NEET rates for young women in France are lower than the OECD average for 15-19 year olds, while the opposite is true for young males in France aged 15-19 (OECD, 2022). However, NEET rates for both young males and females in France are higher than the OECD average for 20-24 year olds, e.g. 18.98% of young individuals NEET among 20-24 years olds in 2021 in France, as opposed to 16.82% OECD average (OECD, 2022).

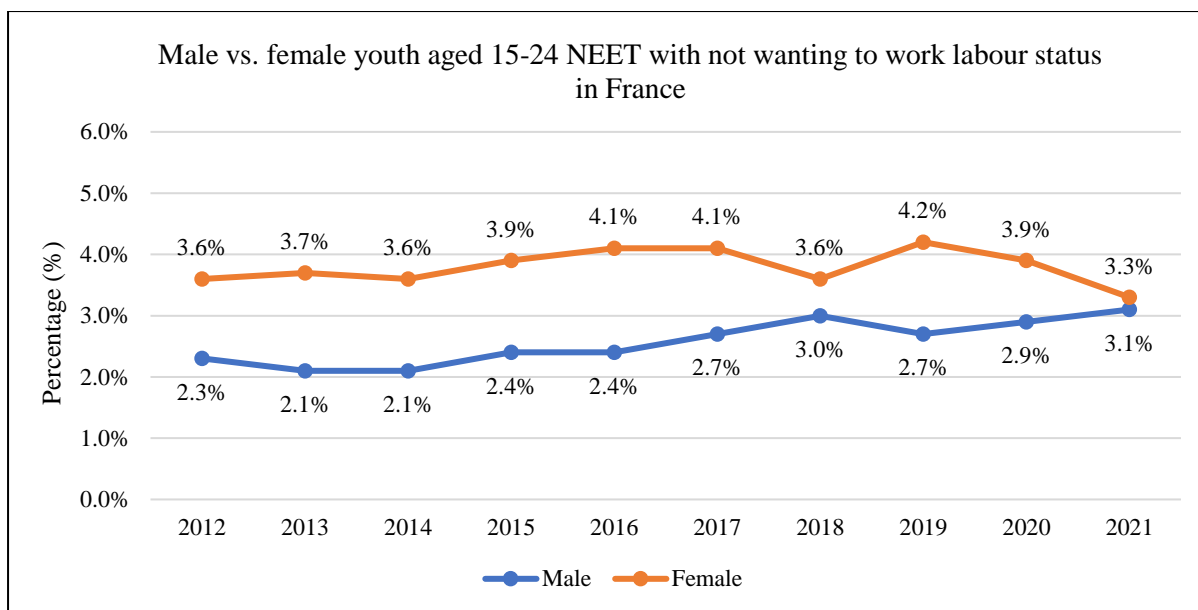


Figure 148. Male vs. female youth aged 15-24 neither in employment nor in education and training with not wanting to work labour status in France for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Young people neither in employment nor in education and training by sex, age and labour status (NEET rates)" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDAT\\_LFSE\\_20/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDAT_LFSE_20/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

Even though there were generally fewer young females NEET in France than young males over the period of 2012-2021, Figure 148 above shows that, out of all French young individuals NEET, more young females did not want to work. One reason behind it could be young women NEET having to care for the family. However, Figure 148 shows that the share of young females NEET in France, who do not want to work, remained below 5% over the given period, which could be explained by the declining fertility rates for young women aged 15-24 in France over the last decade (Eurostat, 2022).

## 5.4.3 Italy

### 5.4.3.1 Labour Force Participation Rate

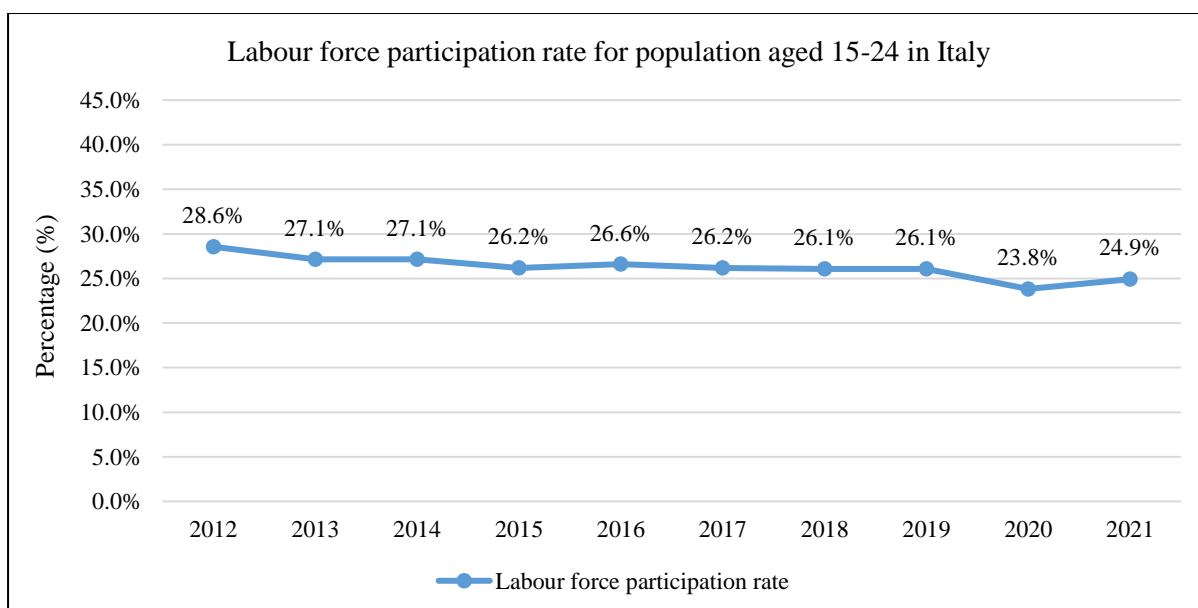


Figure 149. Labour force participation rate for population aged 15-24 in Italy for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: “Labour force participation rate” by OECD, 2022, (<https://data.oecd.org/emp/labour-force-participation-rate.htm>). (OECD, 2022). Copyright 2022 by OECD.

As can be seen in Figure 149, youth labour force participation in Italy has been declining throughout the period of 2012-2021, although the declines were relatively small. The lowest youth labour participation rate was in 2020 due to Covid-19 and its negative impacts on the Italian economy and the labour market. Although the rate increased in 2021, it did not return to its pre-pandemic level.

#### 5.4.3.2 Employment By Educational Attainment

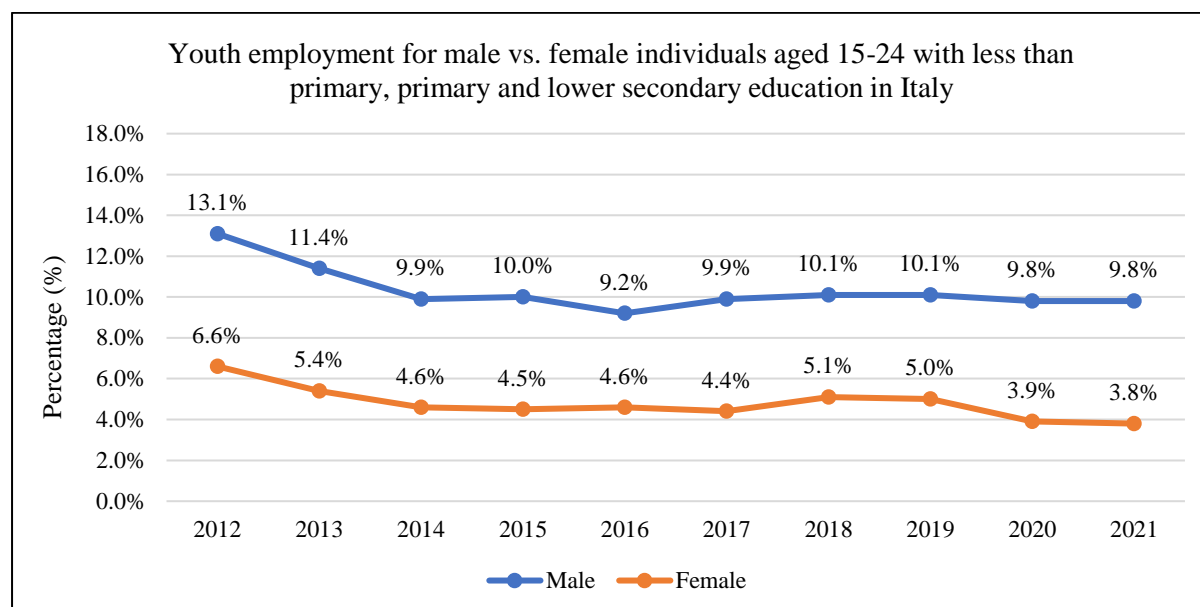


Figure 150. Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with less than primary, primary and lower secondary education in Italy for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: “Youth employment by sex, age and educational attainment level” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth\\_empl\\_010/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth_empl_010/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

Figure 150 above shows that employment for young males with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment in Italy was higher than for young females throughout the entire period of 2012-2021. Employment for both young males and females with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment in Italy decreased in 2020 due to Covid-19. In 2021, employment for young males with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment remained at the same level in Italy, whereas it further decreased to the lowest mark in the given period for their female counterparts. Data provided in Figure 150 indicates that finding a job in the Italian labour market is more challenging for young women with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment than for their male counterparts. Nonetheless, there were also more young men than young women with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment in Italy over the period of 2012-2021, as shown in Figure 15 in section 5.1.3.1.



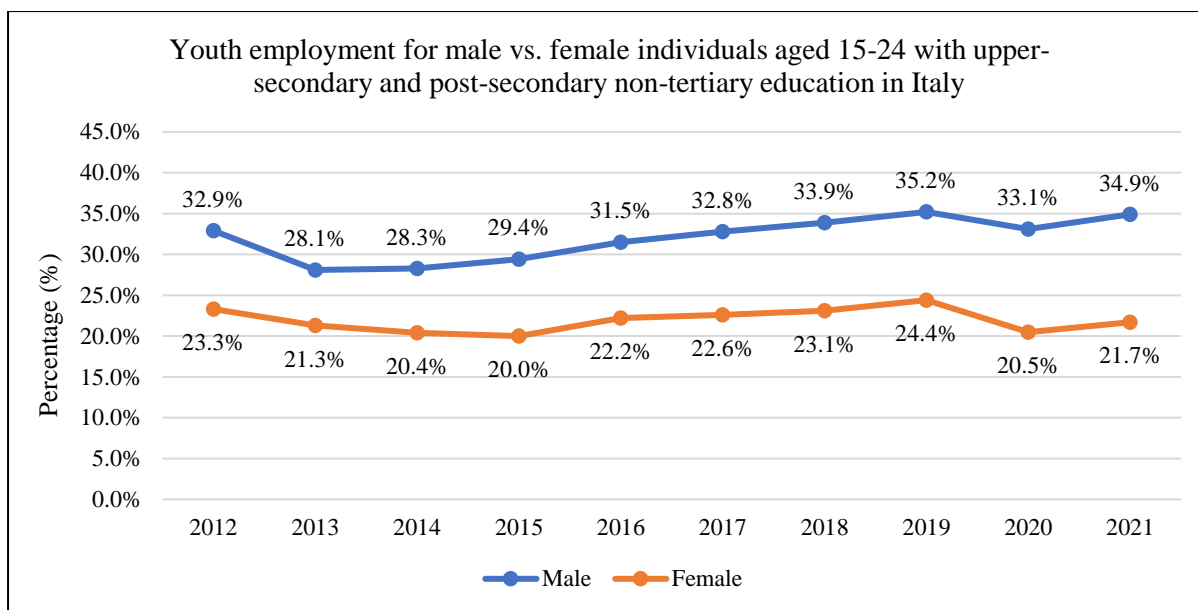


Figure 151. Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with upper-secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education in Italy for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Youth employment by sex, age and educational attainment level" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth\\_empl\\_010/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth_empl_010/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As displayed in Figure 151 above, employment for young males with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment in Italy was higher than for young females over the period of 2012-2021. Similar to employment for youth with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment, employment for both young males and females with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment decreased in Italy in 2020 due to Covid-19 and then increased in 2021, but did not return to pre-pandemic levels. Lower employment for young women with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment in Italy indicates that females with such educational attainment level are more vulnerable and disadvantaged in the Italian labour market than their male counterparts, even though there were more young women with this educational attainment level than young men in Italy for years 2012-2021, as shown in Figure 16 in section 5.1.3.1.

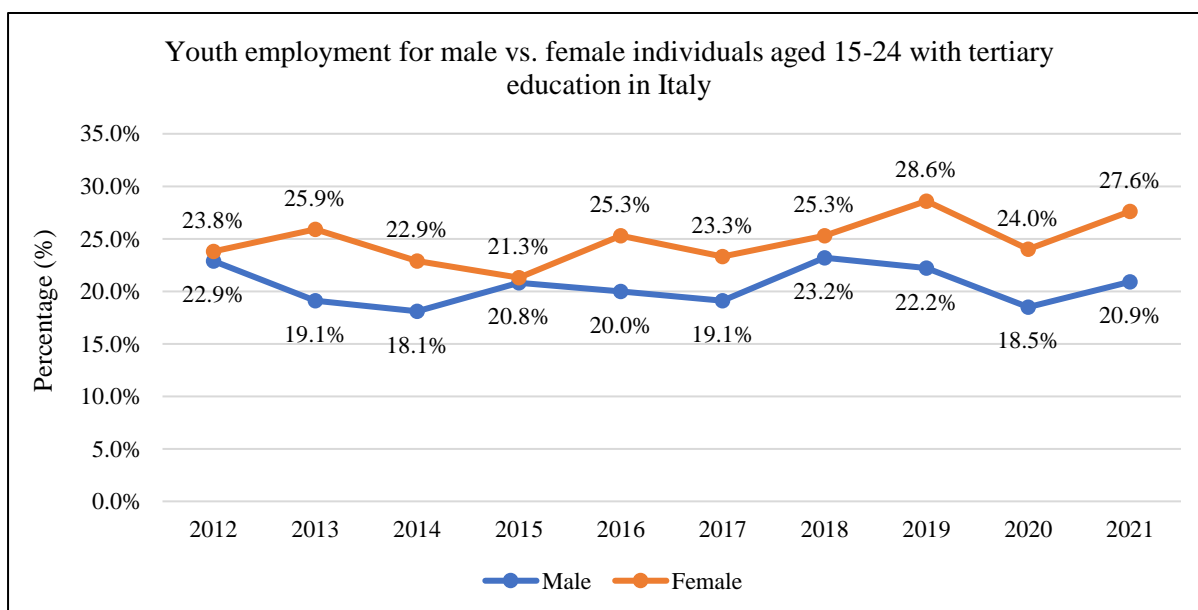


Figure 152. Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with tertiary education in Italy for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: “Youth employment by sex, age and educational attainment level” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth\\_empl\\_010/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth_empl_010/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

In contrast to lower educational attainment levels, employment for young females with tertiary educational attainment in Italy was higher than for young males over the period of 2012-2021, as provided in Figure 152. This is consistent with the fact that there were more young women with tertiary educational attainment in Italy than young men for the given time period, as shown in Figure 17 in section 5.1.3.1. This implies that the advantage of having a higher educational attainment is to some extent transferred into the labour market for young females, making them less vulnerable when looking for a job in Italy. Employment for both young males and females with tertiary educational attainment decreased in Italy in 2020 due to Covid-19 and then increased in 2021 during the economic recovery, yet did not return to pre-pandemic levels. Overall, young men with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment had higher employment than young men with tertiary educational attainment in Italy over the years 2012-2021. On the contrary, employment was higher for young women with tertiary educational attainment in Italy than for young women with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment for the given period. This confirms that young females with tertiary educational attainment in Italy indeed have greater chances of being employed than young females with upper secondary educational attainment (OECD, 2021).

### 5.4.3.3 Employment Rate

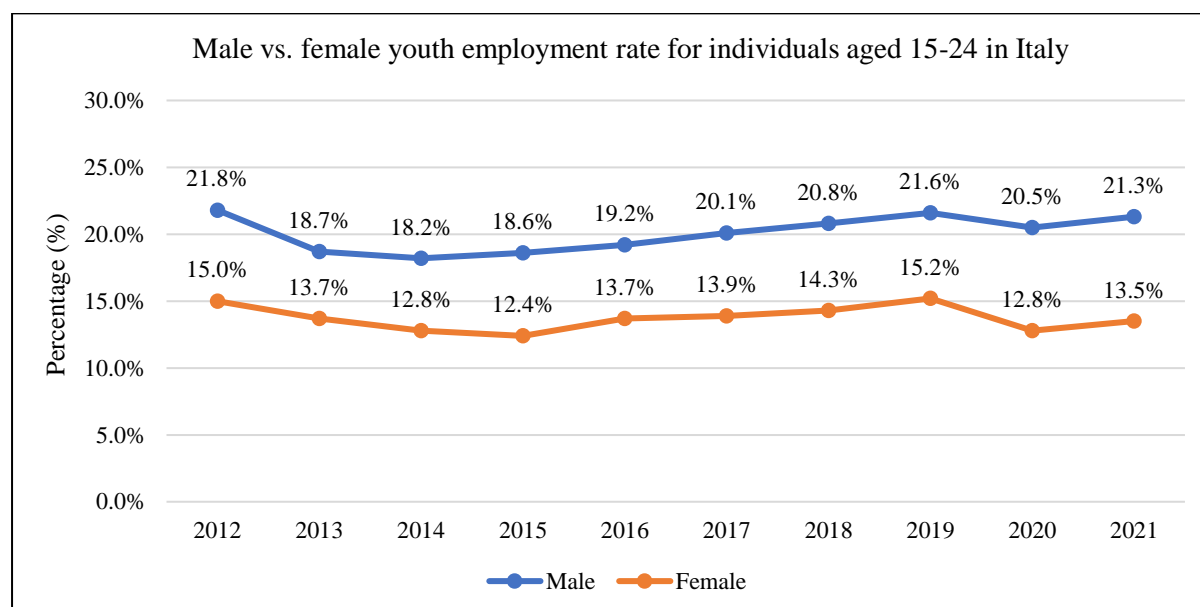


Figure 153. Youth employment rate for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 in Italy for years 2012-2021.  
Note: Data adapted from: “Youth employment rate by sex, age and country of birth” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_EMPL\\_020/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_EMPL_020/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

Figure 153 shows that the employment rate for young males in Italy was higher than for young females over the entire period of 2012-2021. Both employment rates experienced similar trends over time, having declined in 2020 due to Covid-19 and increased in 2021 during the economic recovery, yet not reaching pre-pandemic levels. In addition to young women having a lower employment rate than young men in Italy, over 40% of employed young females had part-time jobs in Italy over the period of 2012-2021, as displayed in Figure 154 below:

### 5.4.3.4 Part-Time Employment

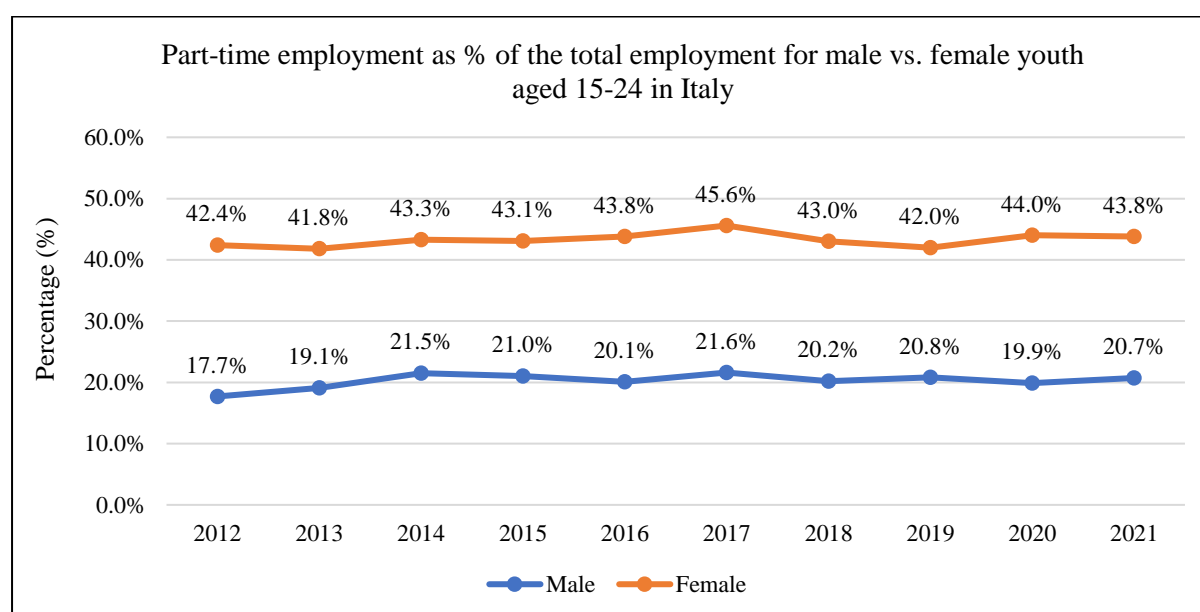


Figure 154. Part-time employment as % of the total employment for male vs. female youth aged 15-24 in Italy for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Part-time employment as percentage of the total employment for young people by sex, age and country of birth" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_EMPL\\_060/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_EMPL_060/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

The data in Figure 154 shows that employed young females in the Italian labour market were more than twice as likely to have part-time jobs than young males. This creates less certainty and protection for young women in the Italian labour market, making them more vulnerable. Figure 155 below provides data on the main reasons behind young females' choice to have a temporary job in Italy for years 2012-2021:

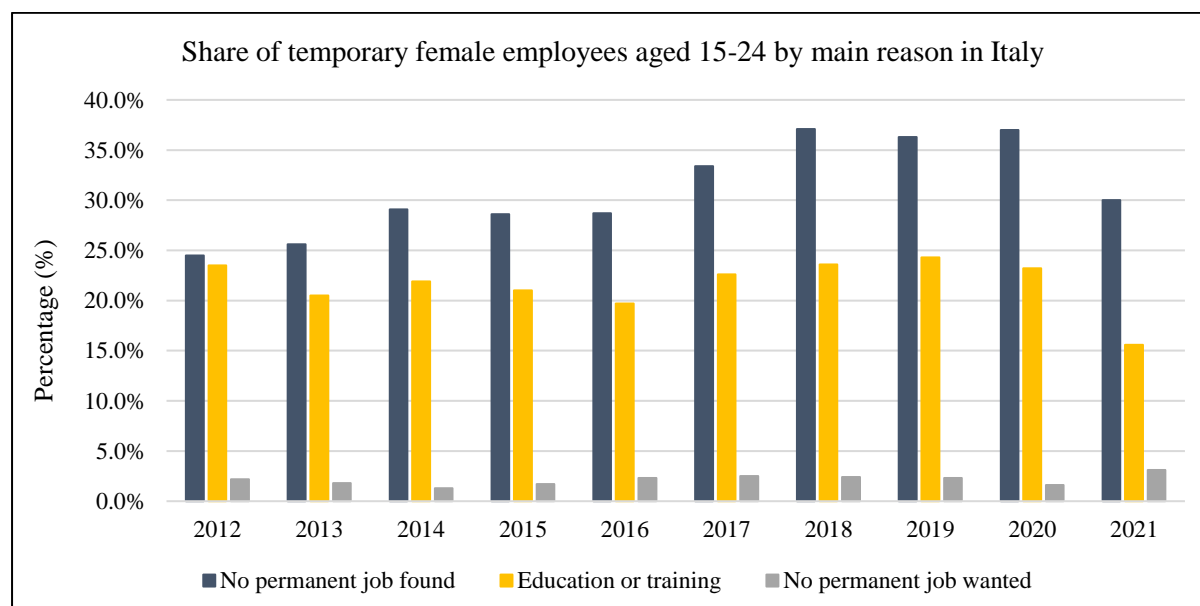
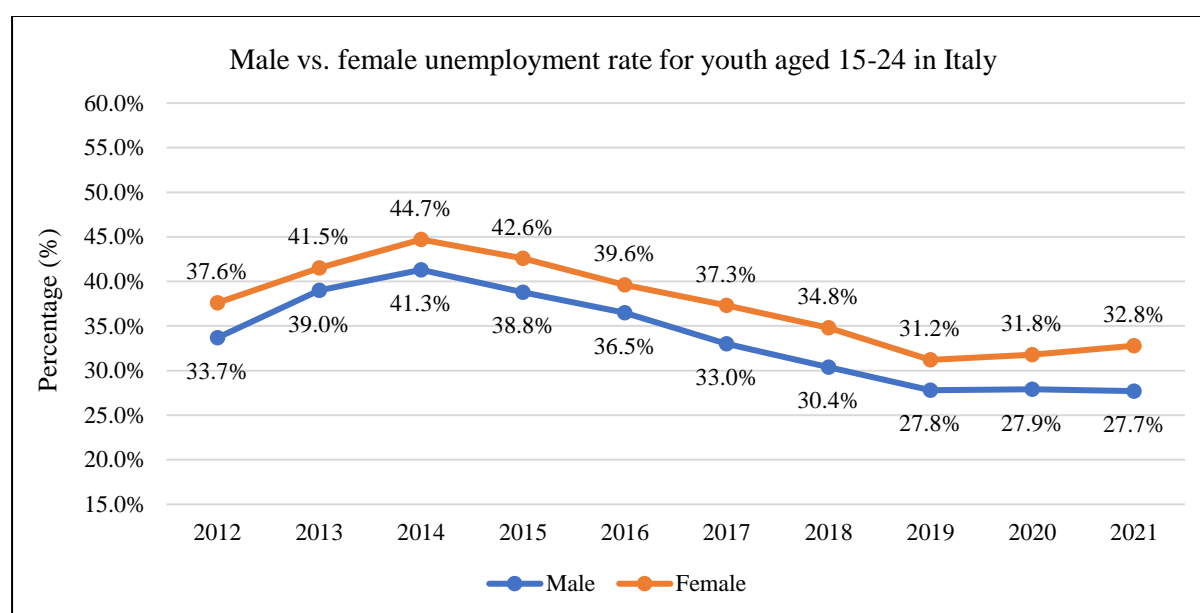


Figure 155. Share of temporary female employees aged 15-24 by main reason for temporary employment in Italy for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Temporary employees by sex, age and main reason" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/LFSA\\_ETGAR/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/LFSA_ETGAR/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As provided in Figure 155, majority of young women opted for temporary employment in Italy because they could not find a permanent job. This shows that young females are less likely to secure a permanent full-time employment in the Italian labour market than young males, with fewer young males having part-time employment for the same reason (*note: see Figure A.14 in Appendices*). The second most common reason for young women opting for temporary employment in Italy for years 2012-2021 was education and training, which is consistent with more young females in Italy having upper secondary and tertiary educational attainment for the same years, as shown in Figures 16 and 17 in section 5.1.3.1. Finally, not willing to have a permanent job was the least common reason for young females opting for temporary employment in Italy, indicating that young females are relatively determined in seeking full-time permanent employment in the Italian labour market.

### 5.4.3.5 Unemployment Rate



*Figure 156. Youth unemployment rate for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 in Italy for years 2012-2021.*  
*Note: Data adapted from: "Youth unemployment rate by sex, age and country of birth" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_EMPL\\_100/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_EMPL_100/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.*

As can be seen in Figure 156 above, the unemployment rate was higher for young females in Italy than for young males over the entire period of 2012-2021. This is consistent with youth employment rate being higher in Italy for young males than young females for the same years, as given in Figure 153. Both rates experienced similar trends, being in decline from 2014 onwards. In 2020, the unemployment rate for both young males and females in Italy increased due to economic challenges and the labour market uncertainty brought by Covid-19. However, in 2021, the unemployment rate for young men decreased, whereas the unemployment rate for young women continued to increase in Italy. Data displayed in Figure 156 indicates that young females are generally more vulnerable and disadvantaged in the Italian labour market, with higher educational attainment not necessarily benefitting all women.

### 5.4.3.6 Youth NEET

The following two figures divide male and female youth into age groups in accordance with the OECD data: 15-19 and 20-24 year olds.

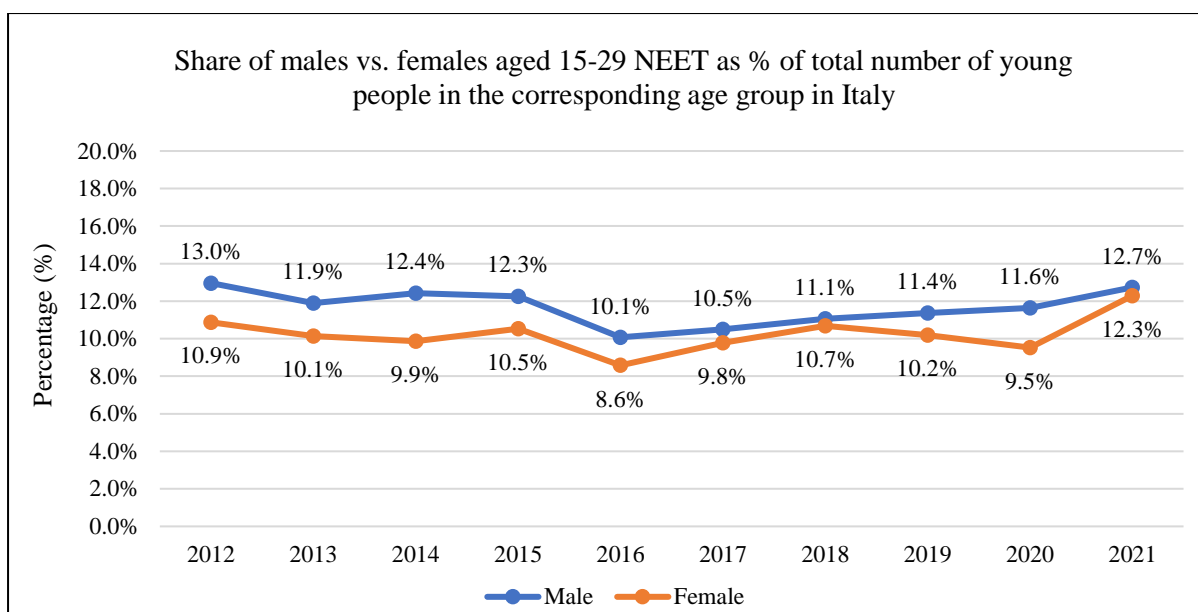


Figure 157. Share of male vs. female individuals aged 15-19 not in employment, education or training as % of total number of young people in the corresponding age group in Italy for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Youth not in employment, education or training (NEET)" by OECD, 2022, (<https://data.oecd.org/youthinac/youth-not-in-employment-education-or-training-neet.htm>). (OECD, 2022). Copyright 2022 by OECD.

As shown in Figure 157 above, there were more young males aged 15-19 NEET in Italy than young females aged 15-19 NEET over the years 2012-2021. The share of young men aged 15-19 NEET in Italy has been increasing since 2016, reaching its highest mark in 2021 due to the negative consequences of Covid-19 for youth. Similarly, the share of young women aged 15-19 NEET in Italy was the highest in 2021, with more females leaving education and employment because of the pandemic implications.

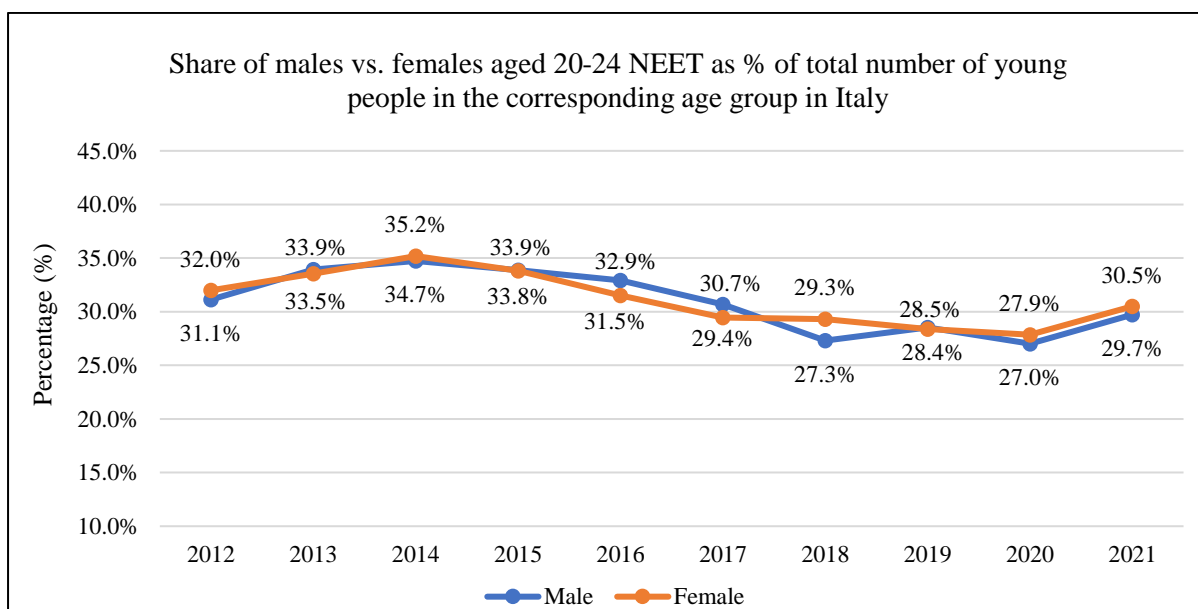
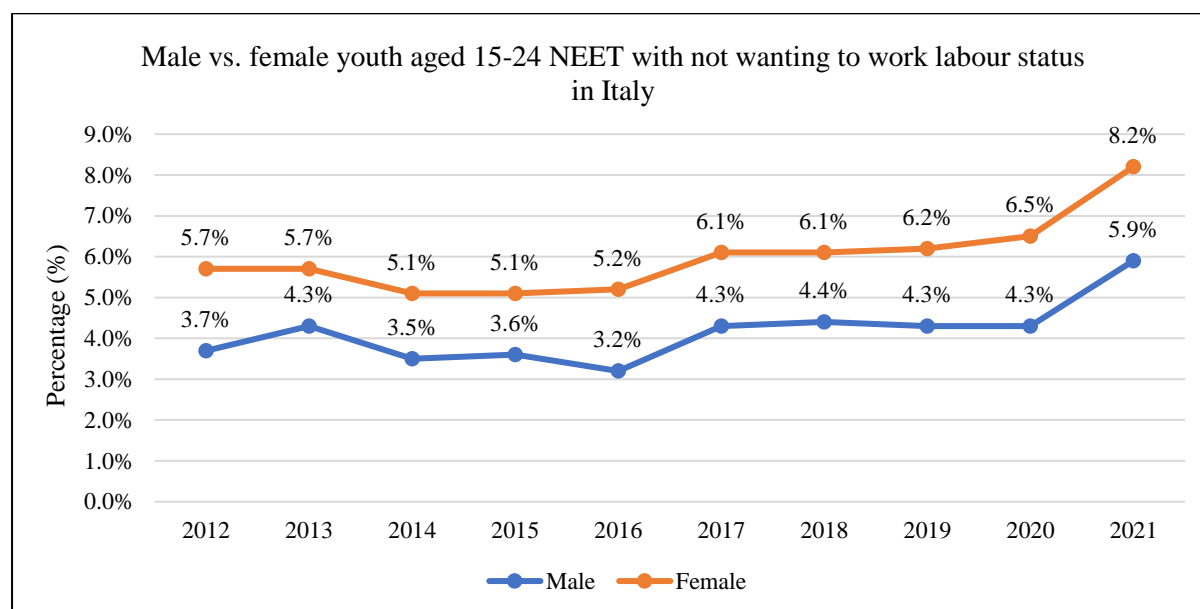


Figure 158. Share of male vs. female individuals aged 20-24 not in employment, education or training as % of total number of young people in the corresponding age group in Italy for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Youth not in employment, education or training (NEET)" by OECD, 2022, (<https://data.oecd.org/youthinac/youth-not-in-employment-education-or-training-neet.htm>). (OECD, 2022). Copyright 2022 by OECD.

As can be seen in Figure 158, the shares of young males and females aged 20-24 NEET in Italy were almost the same for the period of 2012-2021, with no clear dominance of either gender. The shares of young men and women aged 20-24 NEET in Italy were more than twice as high as the shares of their

counterparts aged 15-19 for the given period. This indicates that more young people in Italy leave education and training or employment at a later stage of their youth. Generally, NEET rates for both young males and females in Italy are higher than the OECD average for 15-19 year olds, e.g. 12.52% of young individuals NEET among 15-19 year olds in 2021 in Italy, as opposed to 8.26% OECD average (OECD, 2022). Similarly, NEET rates for both young males and females in Italy are higher than the OECD average for 20-24 year olds, e.g. 30.11% of young individuals NEET among 20-24 years olds in 2021 in Italy, as opposed to 16.82% OECD average (OECD, 2022).



*Figure 159. Male vs. female youth aged 15-24 neither in employment nor in education and training with not wanting to work labour status in Italy for years 2012-2021.*

*Note: Data adapted from: "Young people neither in employment nor in education and training by sex, age and labour status (NEET rates)" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDAT\\_LFSE\\_20/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDAT_LFSE_20/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.*

Figure 159 shows that, out of young people NEET in Italy, there were more young females not willing to work than young males for years 2012-2021. The number of young women NEET in Italy increased both during Covid-19 in 2020 and the pandemic recovery times in 2021, reaching its highest mark throughout the given period. This could only be partially explained by young females having greater family caring responsibilities, as the fertility rate for women aged 15-24 in Italy has been declining over the last decade (Eurostat, 2022).

## 5.4.4 Luxembourg

### 5.4.4.1 Labour Force Participation Rate

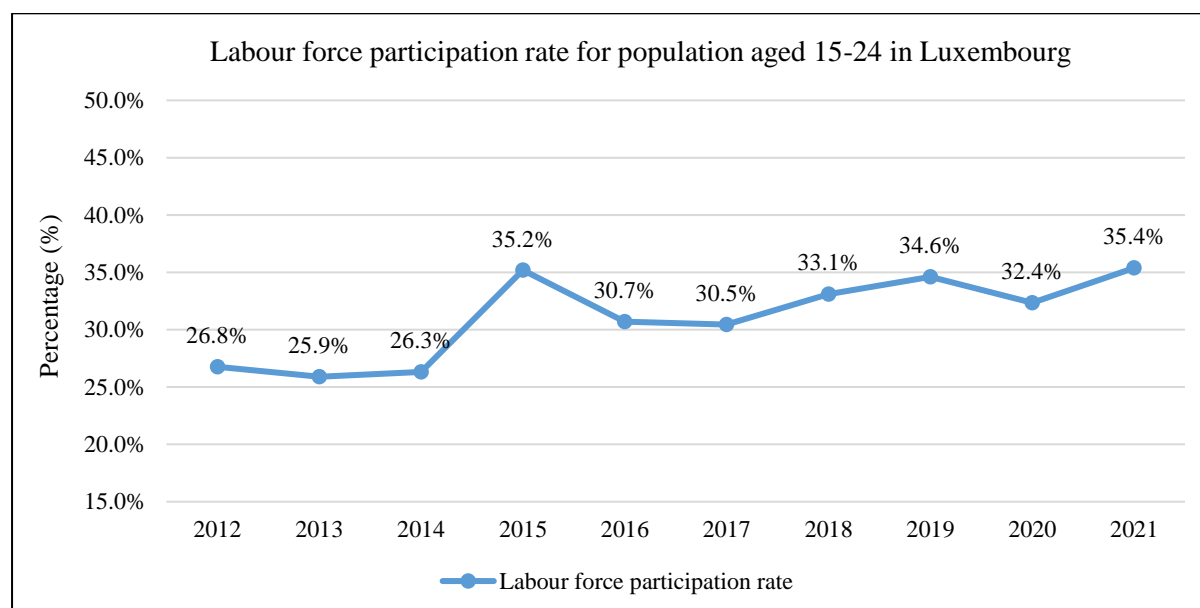
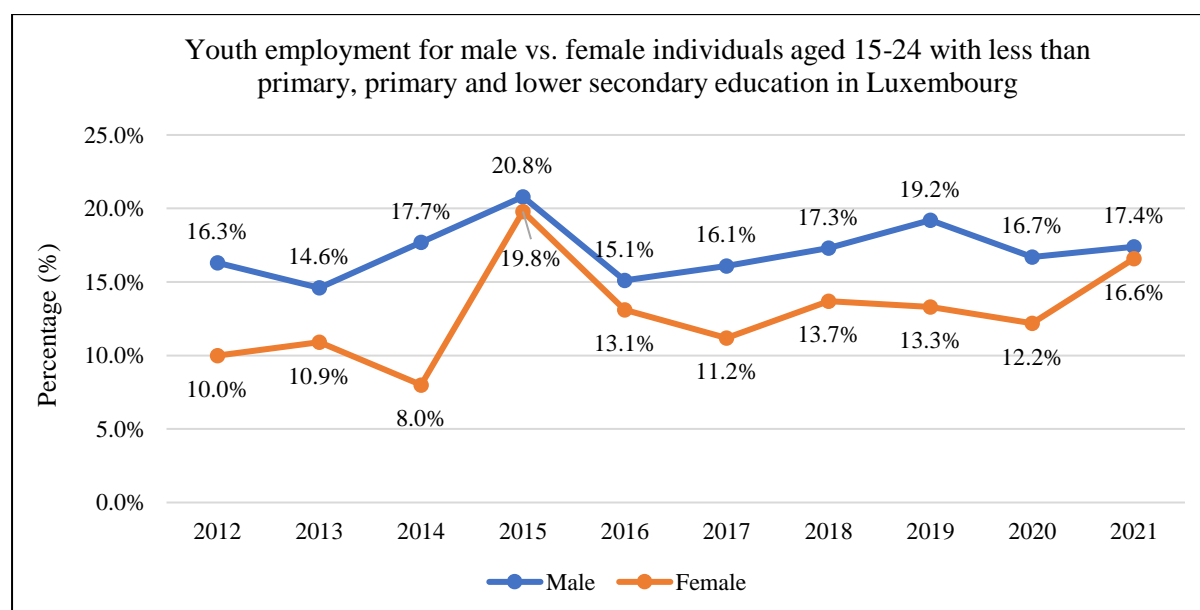


Figure 160. Labour force participation rate for population aged 15-24 in Luxembourg for years 2012-2021.  
 Note: Data adapted from: "Labour force participation rate" by OECD, 2022, (<https://data.oecd.org/emp/labour-force-participation-rate.htm>). (OECD, 2022). Copyright 2022 by OECD.

As can be seen in Figure 160, youth labour force participation rate in Luxembourg significantly increased in 2015. This increase was driven by the introduction of the Youth Guarantee initiative by the Luxembourgish government in accordance with the wider European programme, which aimed to provide support to young people in seeking quality employment (Ministry of the Economy, 2015). In 2020, there was a decrease in youth labour force participation rate in Luxembourg due to the Covid-19 economic challenges. However, the rate increased again in 2021, reaching its highest level throughout the years 2012-2021, following a strong emphasis of the pandemic relief policies in Luxembourg on supporting employment and decreasing uncertainty in the labour market (OECD, 2022).

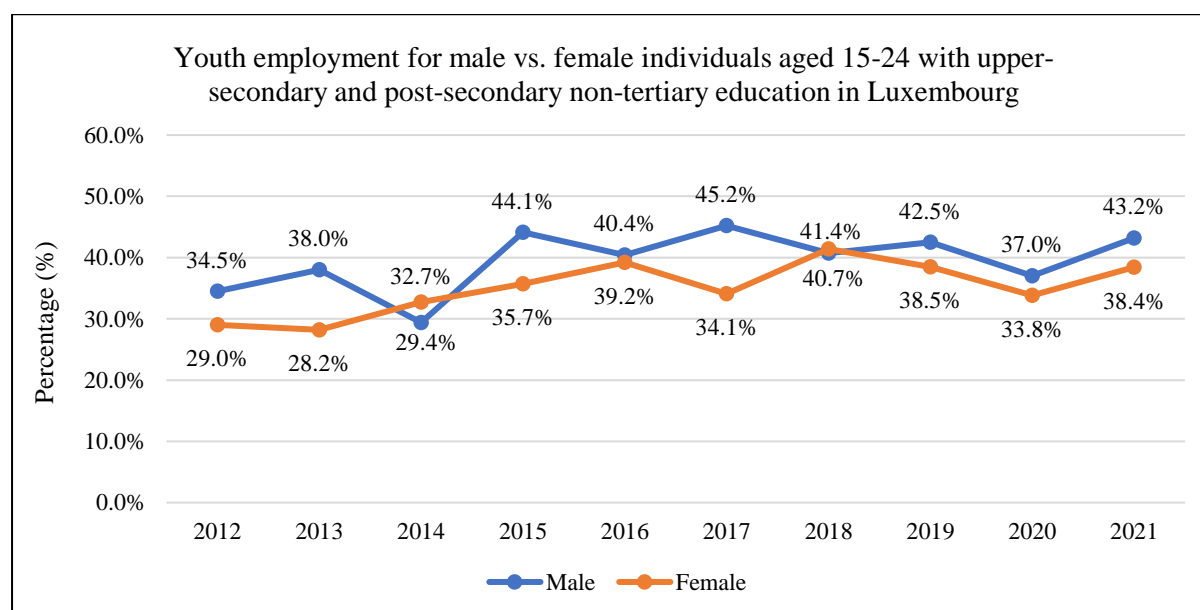
### 5.4.4.2 Employment By Educational Attainment



*Figure 161. Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with less than primary, primary and lower secondary education in Luxembourg for years 2012-2021.*

*Note: Data adapted from: “Youth employment by sex, age and educational attainment level” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth\\_empl\\_010/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth_empl_010/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.*

Figure 161 above shows that employment for young males with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment in Luxembourg was higher than for young females throughout the entire period of 2012-2021. This implies that securing a job in the Luxembourgish labour market is more challenging for young women with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment than for their male counterparts. Nonetheless, there were also more young men with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment in Luxembourg than young women over the period of 2012-2021, as displayed in Figure 22 in section 5.1.4.1. Employment for both young males and females with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment in Luxembourg increased to its highest level in 2015, with an increase for young women being more significant, due to the introduction of new youth employment support initiatives, such as job counselling and professional training for youth, as a part of the Youth Guarantee initiative (Ministry of the Economy, 2015). In 2020, employment for both young males and females with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment in Luxembourg decreased due to Covid-19, although there was an increase for both genders in 2021.



*Figure 162. Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with upper-secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education in Luxembourg for years 2012-2021.*

*Note: Data adapted from: “Youth employment by sex, age and educational attainment level” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth\\_empl\\_010/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth_empl_010/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.*

As provided in Figure 162, employment for young males with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment in Luxembourg was higher than for young females over the entire period of 2012-2021, with 2014 and 2018 being the only exceptions. This indicates that young women with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment might face more challenges in the Luxembourgish labour market than young men with the same educational attainment level. Employment for both young males and females with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment in Luxembourg decreased in 2020 due to the economic challenges related to Covid-19, but then increased again in 2021.



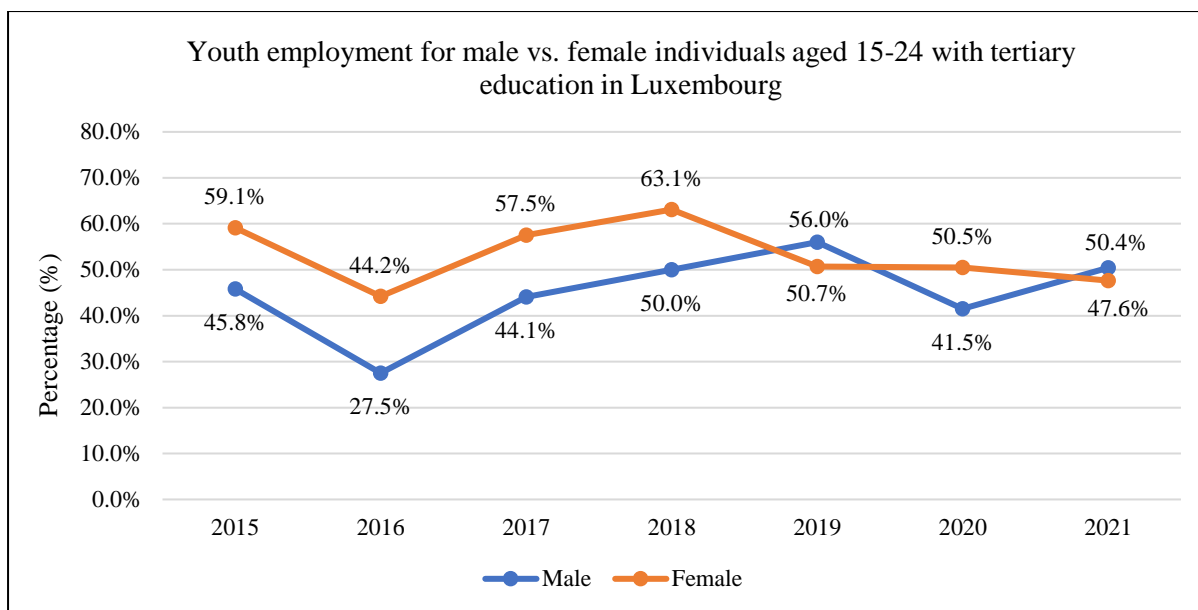


Figure 163. Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with tertiary education in Luxembourg for years 2015-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Youth employment by sex, age and educational attainment level" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth\\_empl\\_010/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth_empl_010/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As can be seen in Figure 163 above, employment for young females with tertiary educational attainment in Luxembourg was higher than for young males for majority of the period of 2015-2021, with 2019 and 2021 being exceptions (*note: data for employment of young males with tertiary educational attainment was not available prior to 2015, not allowing for meaningful comparison for years 2012-2014*). This is consistent with more young women having tertiary educational attainment in Luxembourg over the period of 2012-2021, as shown in Figure 24 in section 5.1.4.1. This implies that having tertiary educational attainment is to some extent advantageous for young women in the Luxembourgish labour market. In 2020, employment for both young males and females with tertiary educational attainment in Luxembourg decreased due to Covid-19, although young men were more negatively impacted. Nonetheless, in 2021, employment for young females with tertiary educational attainment in Luxembourg continued to decrease, while employment for young males increased.

#### 5.4.4.3 Employment Rate

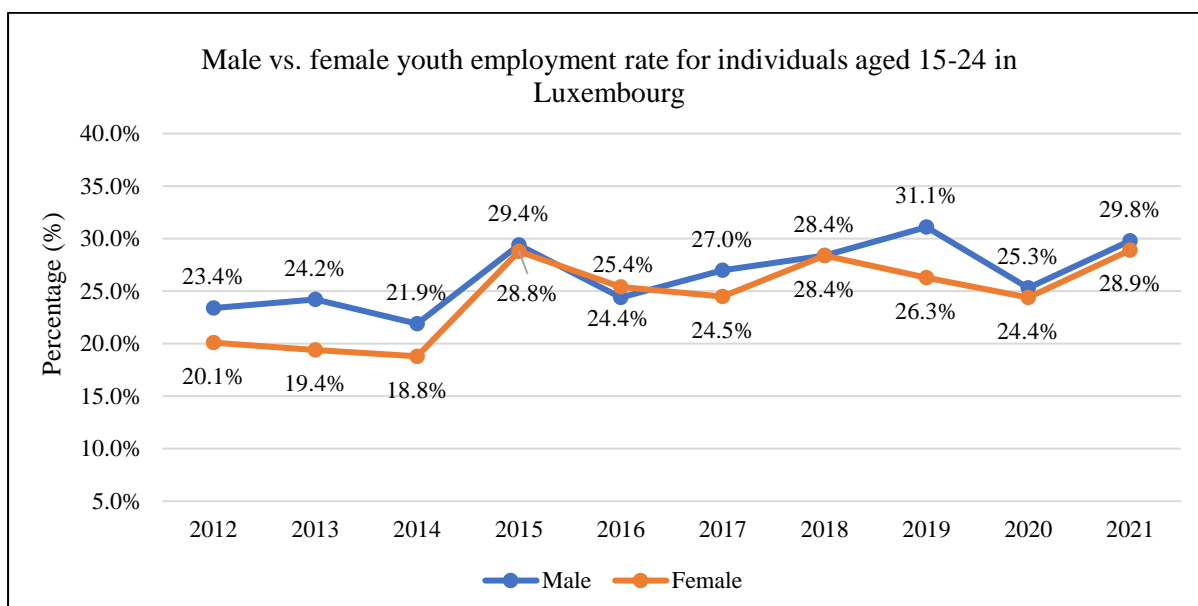


Figure 164. Youth employment rate for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 in Luxembourg for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Youth employment rate by sex, age and country of birth" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_EMPL\\_020/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_EMPL_020/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

Figure 164 shows that the employment rate for young males in Luxembourg was higher than for young females over the period of 2012-2021, with the exception of 2016. Nonetheless, the gaps between the employment rates for both genders reduced in 2020 and 2021. Due to Covid-19, the employment rates for both young men and women decreased in 2020. Whereas in 2021 the employment rate for young females in Luxembourg increased to its highest mark throughout the entire period, the employment rate for young males did not return to its pre-pandemic level, although also increased in 2021.

#### 5.4.4.4 Part-Time Employment

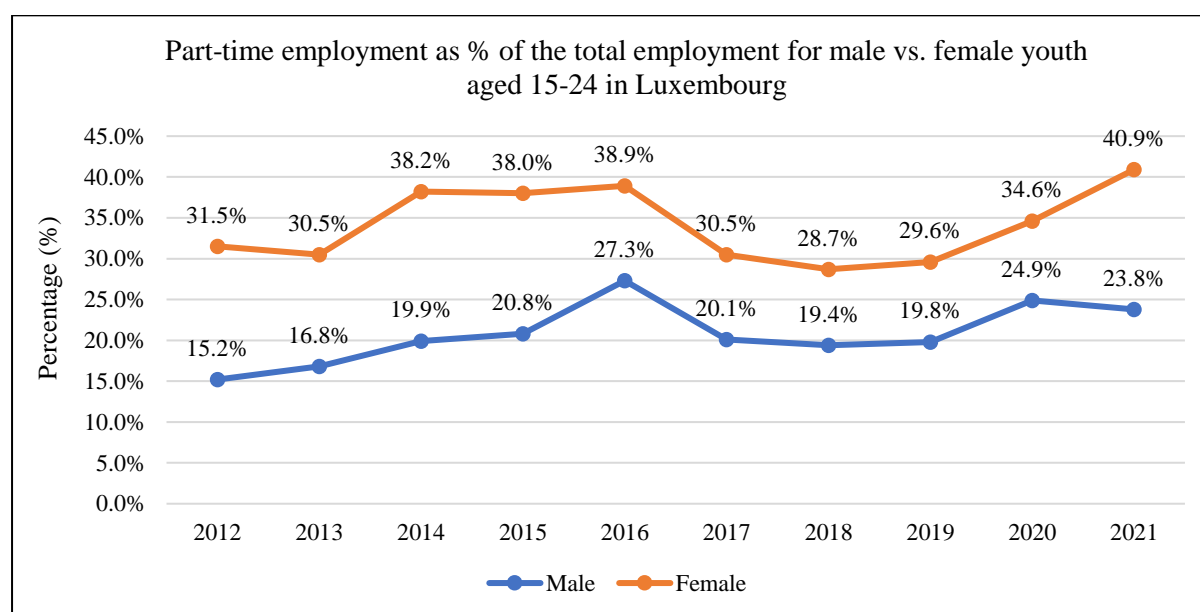


Figure 165. Part-time employment as % of the total employment for male vs. female youth aged 15-24 in Luxembourg for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Part-time employment as percentage of the total employment for young people by sex, age and country of birth" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_EMPL\\_060/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_EMPL_060/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As provided in Figure 165, out of employed young people in Luxembourg, there were more young females with part-time jobs throughout the entire period of 2012-2021. Although more young men and women had part-time employment in Luxembourg in 2020 due to the labour market uncertainty caused by Covid-19, the number of young males with part-time jobs decreased in 2021, while the opposite was true for young females. Moreover, in 2021, the number of young women with part-time employment reached its highest mark over the years 2012-2021, reflecting lower security in the Luxembourgish labour market for young females in post-pandemic times. No data is available on the main reasons young females in Luxembourg opted for part-time or temporary employment, preventing the possibility of a meaningful discussion on this matter.

### 5.4.4.5 Unemployment Rate

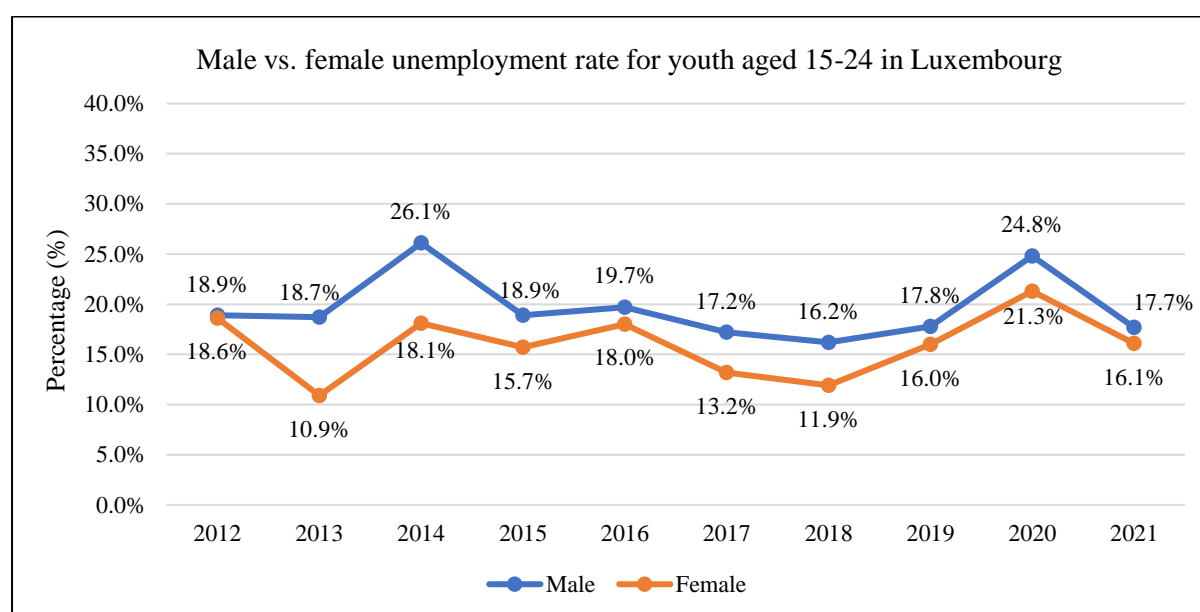


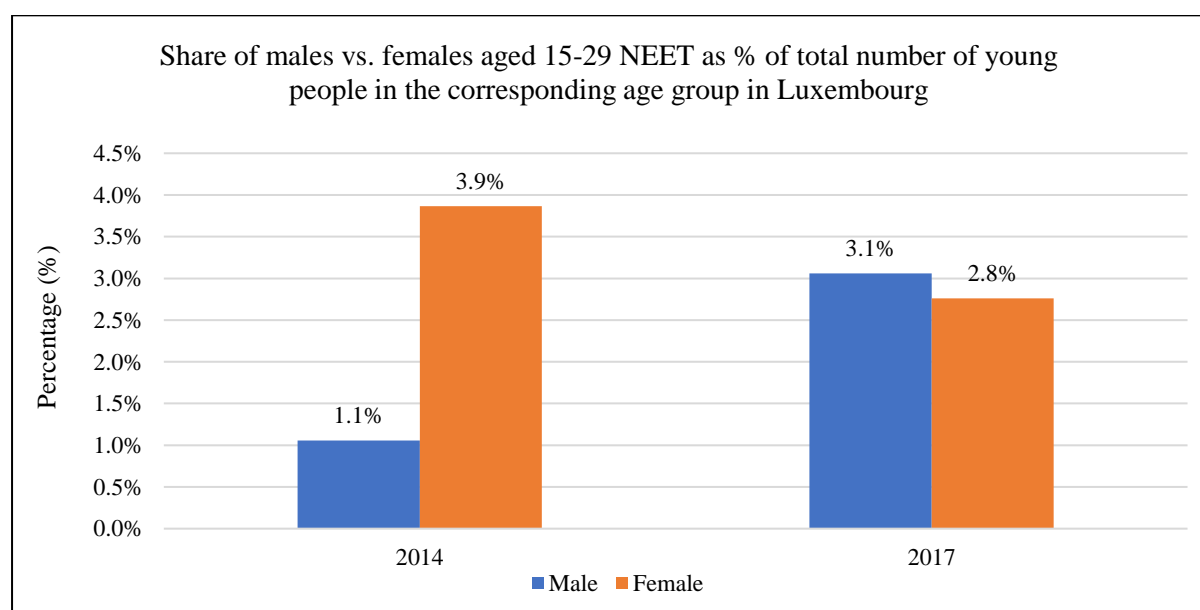
Figure 166. Youth unemployment rate for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 in Luxembourg for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Youth unemployment rate by sex, age and country of birth" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_EMPL\\_100/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_EMPL_100/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As shown in Figure 166, the unemployment rate was higher for young males in Luxembourg than young females for years 2012-2021. This can be partially explained by a generally higher participation of men in the labour force in Luxembourg than the participation of women (*note: see Figure A.15 in Appendices*) (The World Bank, 2022) (The World Bank, 2022).

### 5.4.4.6 Youth NEET

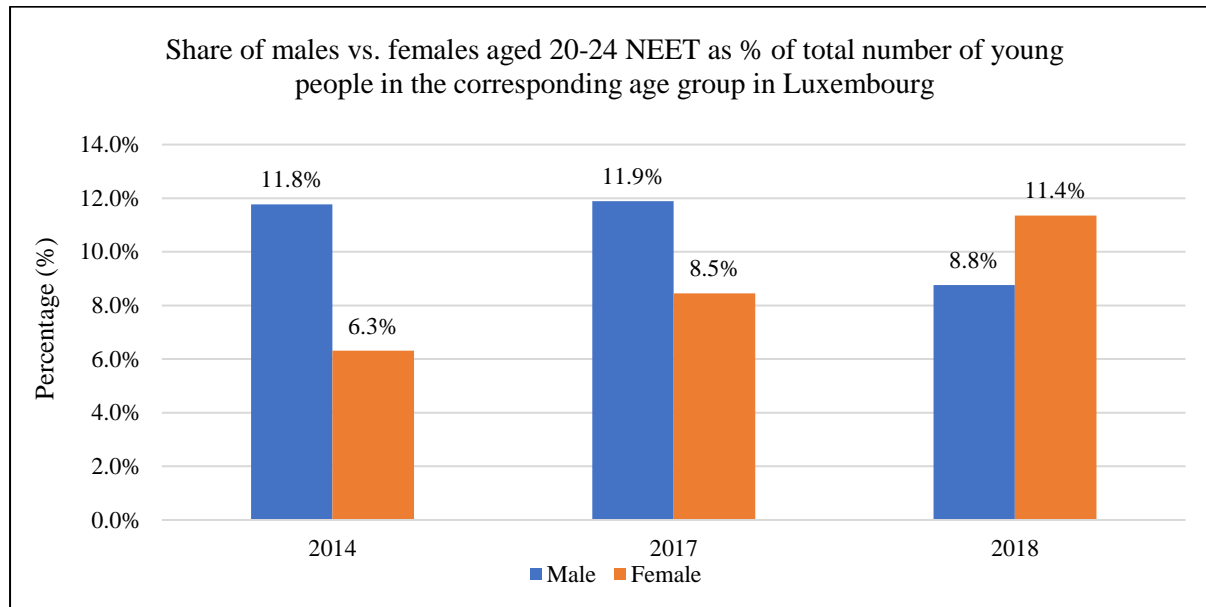
The following two figures divide male and female youth into age groups in accordance with the OECD data: 15-19 and 20-24 year olds. Given the lack of available data on youth NEET for Luxembourg, the comparison of young male and female NEET rates is limited to separate years, as opposed to continuous periodic trends.



*Figure 167. Share of male vs. female individuals aged 15-19 not in employment, education or training as % of total number of young people in the corresponding age group in Luxembourg for years 2014 and 2017.*

*Note: Data adapted from: "Youth not in employment, education or training (NEET)" by OECD, 2022, (<https://data.oecd.org/youthinac/youth-not-in-employment-education-or-training-neet.htm>). (OECD, 2022). Copyright 2022 by OECD.*

Figure 167 shows that the share of males aged 15-19 NEET in Luxembourg increased from 2014 to 2017, while the opposite was true for females aged 15-19 NEET. This implies that, over the years, more young women in Luxembourg were actively engaged either in education and training or employment.



*Figure 168. Share of male vs. female individuals aged 20-24 not in employment, education or training as % of total number of young people in the corresponding age group in Luxembourg for years 2014, 2017 and 2018.*

*Note: Data adapted from: "Youth not in employment, education or training (NEET)" by OECD, 2022, (<https://data.oecd.org/youthinac/youth-not-in-employment-education-or-training-neet.htm>). (OECD, 2022). Copyright 2022 by OECD.*

In contrast to the Luxembourgish youth aged 15-19 NEET, Figure 168 above shows that the share of females aged 20-24 NEET in Luxembourg increased from 2014 to 2018 and was significantly higher than the share of females aged 15-19 NEET in Luxembourg. This indicates that fewer young women are actively engaged in education and training or employment at the later stage of their youth in Luxembourg. Generally, NEET rates for both young individuals in Luxembourg are lower than the OECD average for 15-19 year olds, e.g. 1.49% of young individuals NEET among 15-19 year olds in 2018 in Luxembourg, as opposed to 6.67% OECD average (OECD, 2022). Similarly, NEET rates for both young males and females in Luxembourg are lower than the OECD average for 20-24 year olds, e.g. 10.06% of young individuals NEET among 20-24 years olds in 2018 in Luxembourg, as opposed to 15.43% OECD average (OECD, 2022).

No meaningful data is available on young people NEET in Luxembourg with not wanting to work labour status, limiting further discussion on the matter.

## 5.4.5 Slovakia

### 5.4.5.1 Labour Force Participation Rate

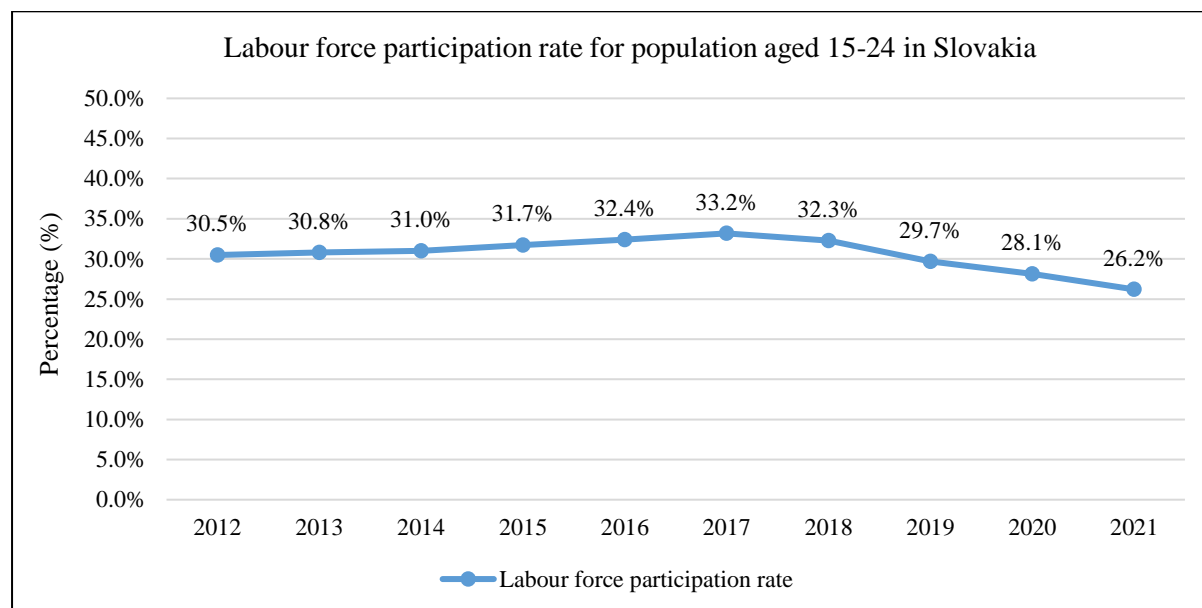


Figure 169. Labour force participation rate for population aged 15-24 in Slovakia for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Labour force participation rate" by OECD, 2022, (<https://data.oecd.org/emp/labour-force-participation-rate.htm>). (OECD, 2022). Copyright 2022 by OECD.

As can be seen in Figure 169 above, youth labour force participation rate in Slovakia increased from 2012 until 2017, however, experienced a decline over the years 2018-2021. Generally, Slovakia underwent a mismatch in the demand and supply in the labour market over the recent years, having a shortage of young workers in particular (Cedefop, 2019). Two main reasons behind the decreasing youth labour force participation rate in Slovakia have been the higher number of young people working abroad and more early leavers from education and training in recent years (Cedefop, 2019).

### 5.4.5.2 Employment By Educational Attainment

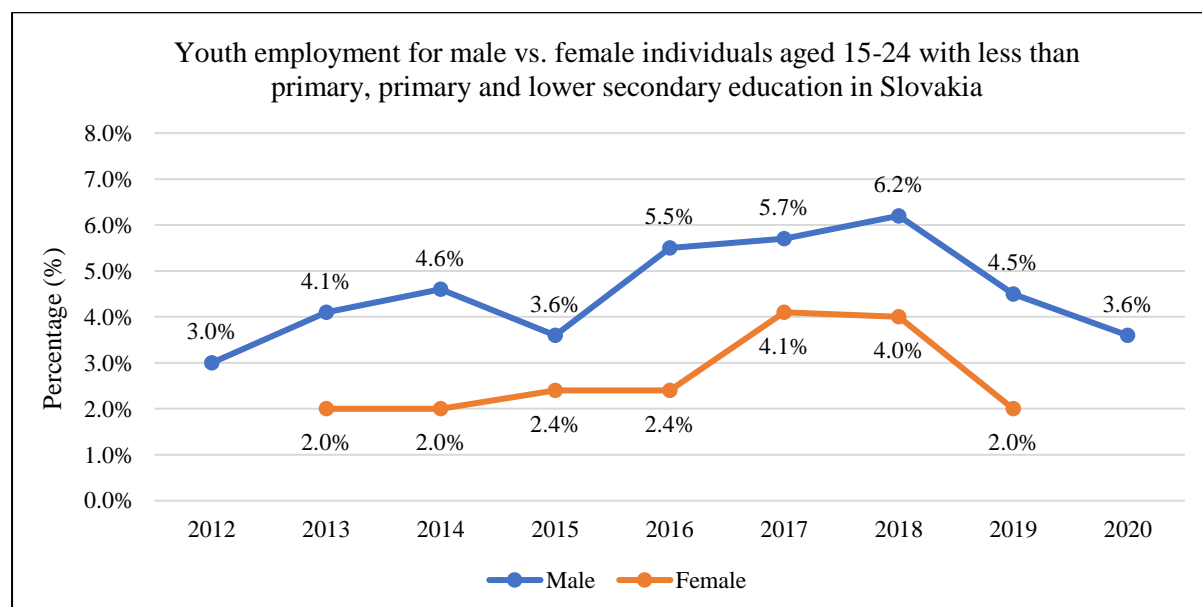


Figure 170. Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with less than primary, primary and lower secondary education in Slovakia for years 2012-2020.

Note: Data adapted from: “Youth employment by sex, age and educational attainment level” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth\\_empl\\_010/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth_empl_010/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As shown in Figure 170, employment for young males with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment in Slovakia was higher than for young females over the period of 2013-2019 (note: data on female youth was not available for years 2012, 2020 and 2021; data for male youth was not available for 2021). A decline in employment for both young men and women with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment in Slovakia occurred in 2019 due to the challenges encountered by youth with lower educational attainment in adapting to the labour market disruption caused by the introduction of Industry 4.0 (Cedefop, 2019). In 2020, employment for young males with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment continued to decline because of the additional challenges brought by Covid-19. Figure 27 in section 5.1.5.1 shows that there were no significant differences between the shares of young men and women with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment in Slovakia for years 2012-2021. Given lower employment for young females with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment in Slovakia over the period of 2013-2019, it can be concluded that young women had more challenges in entering the labour market than their male counterparts.

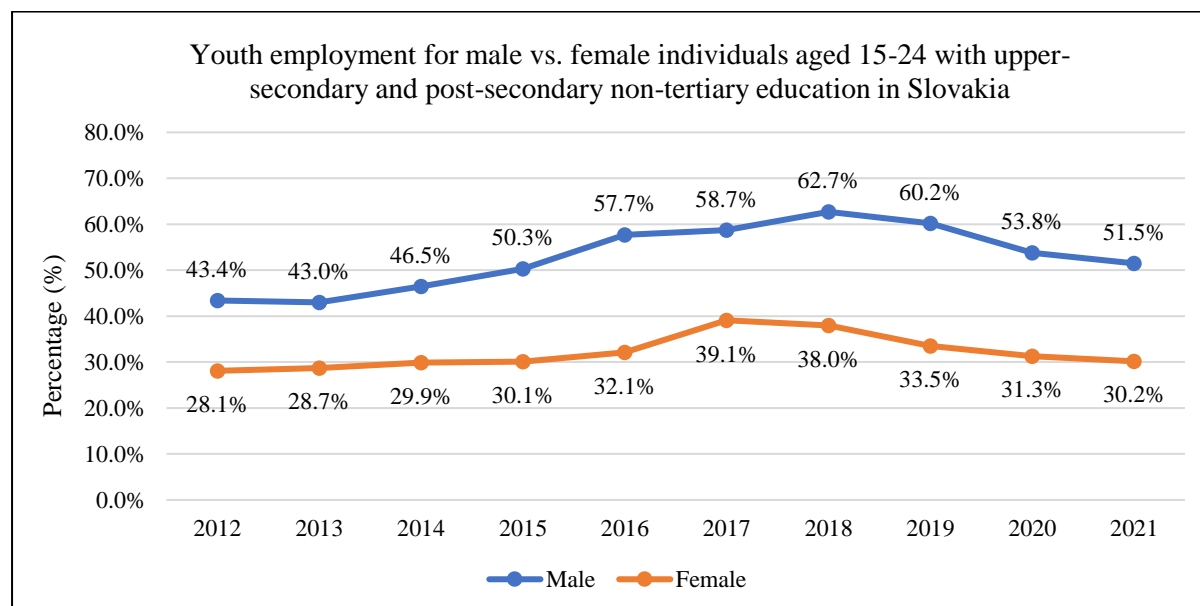


Figure 171. Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with upper-secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education in Slovakia for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: “Youth employment by sex, age and educational attainment level” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth\\_empl\\_010/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth_empl_010/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As provided in Figure 171, employment for young males with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment in Slovakia was higher than for young females over the period of 2012-2021. This is consistent with more young men having upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment in Slovakia over the same period, as shown in Figure 28 in section 5.1.5.1. Employment for both young males and females with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education in Slovakia started declining in 2019 due to the increased demand for digital skills and retraining of the labour force, driven by Industry 4.0 (Cedefop, 2019). Employment for both genders continued to decline in 2020 and 2021 due to the negative impacts of Covid-19 added to the existing labour market challenges. Given a relatively high gap between employment for young males and females with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment in Slovakia, it can be concluded that young women were less advantaged in the Slovak labour market over the period of 2012-2021.

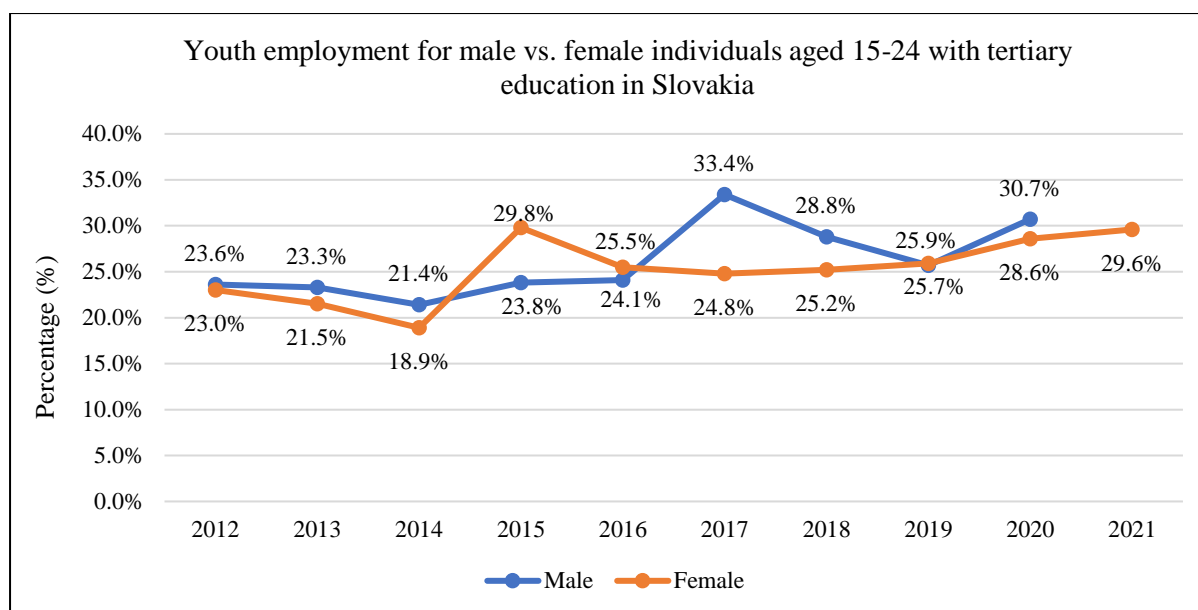


Figure 172. Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with tertiary education in Slovakia for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Youth employment by sex, age and educational attainment level" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth\\_empl\\_010/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth_empl_010/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As displayed in Figure 172, employment for young males with tertiary educational attainment in Slovakia was higher than for young females over the period of 2012-2020, with the exception of 2015, 2016 and 2019 (note: data for young males was not available for 2021). Interestingly, employment for both young men and women with tertiary educational attainment in Slovakia did not decline during Covid-19, showing greater demand for young workers with higher educational attainment. Figure 29 in section 5.1.5.1 shows that there were more young females with tertiary educational attainment in Slovakia for years 2012-2021, however, employment for such young women was not higher than for their male counterparts for given period. This shows that having tertiary educational attainment does not necessarily transfer to an advantage in the labour market for young females in Slovakia. Moreover, employment for young women with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment in Slovakia was higher than for young women with tertiary educational attainment for the period of 2012-2021. This implies that, even though young females in Slovakia engage in tertiary education more to reduce the risk of being unemployed, this does not always work in reality. Overall, employment for both young males and females with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment was higher than for their counterparts with tertiary educational attainment in Slovakia for the given period.

### 5.4.5.3 Employment Rate

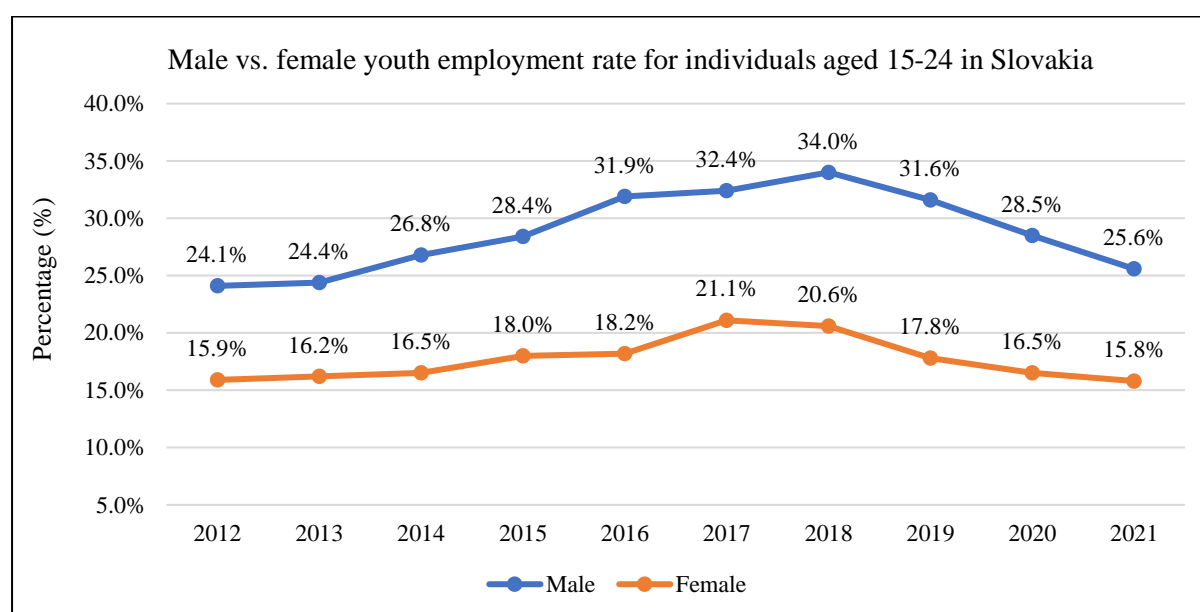


Figure 173. Youth employment rate for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 in Slovakia for years 2012-2021. Note: Data adapted from: “Youth employment rate by sex, age and country of birth” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_EMPL\\_020/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_EMPL_020/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As shown in Figure 173 above, the employment rate for young males in Slovakia was higher than for young females over the entire period of 2012-2021. Similar to youth labour force participation rate, the employment rates for both genders decreased over the years 2018-2021 due to Industry 4.0 and Covid-19 challenges (Cedefop, 2019). Data in Figure 173 indicates that young females in Slovakia faced more difficulties when trying to secure a job in the Slovak labour market than their male counterparts.

### 5.4.5.4 Part-Time Employment

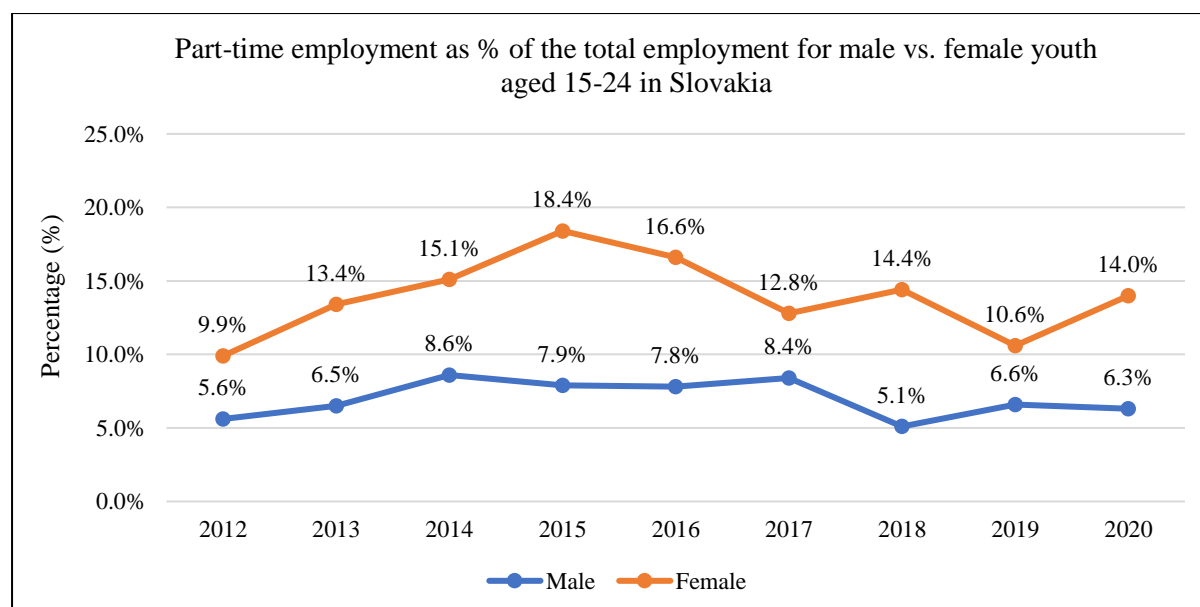


Figure 174. Part-time employment as % of the total employment for male vs. female youth aged 15-24 in Slovakia for years 2012-2020.

Note: Data adapted from: “Part-time employment as percentage of the total employment for young people by sex, age and country of birth” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_EMPL\\_060/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_EMPL_060/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.



Figure 174 shows that, out of employed youth in Slovakia, there were more young females with part-time jobs than males for years 2012-2020 (*note: data for young males and females with part-time employment was not available for 2021*). Part-time employment increased for young women in Slovakia in 2020 due to the labour market instability and greater responsibilities for family care during Covid-19. Generally, over the period of 2012-2020, more Slovak young females had part-time jobs, which are less secure, than their male counterparts. Figure 175 below shows main reasons for young women in Slovakia opting for temporary employment as opposed to full-time permanent jobs:

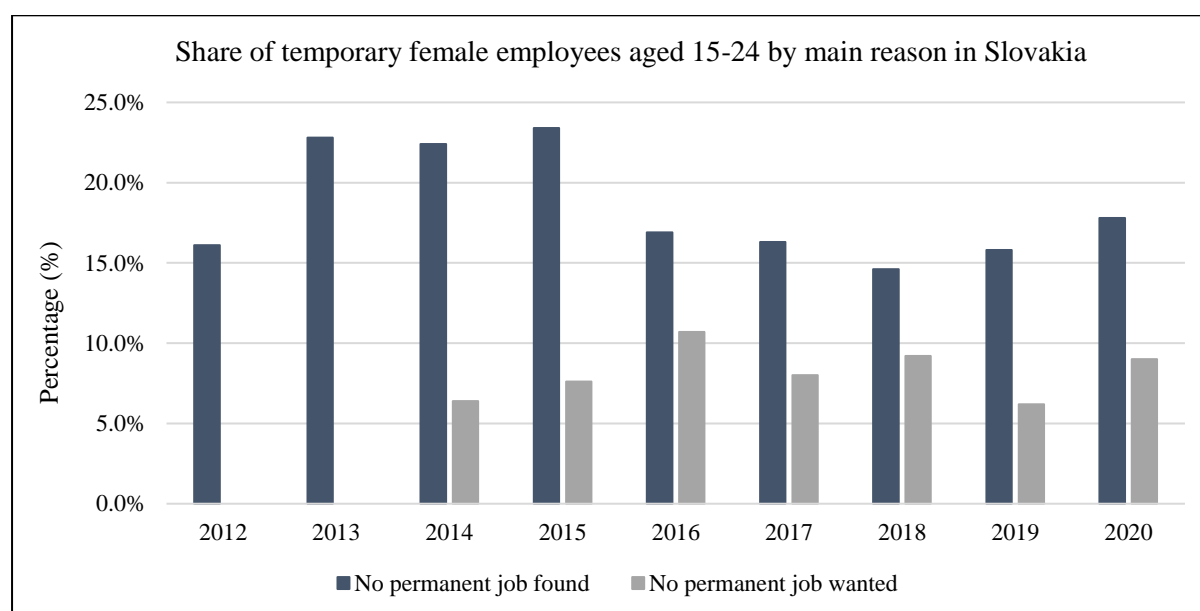


Figure 175. Share of temporary female employees aged 15-24 by main reason for temporary employment in Slovakia for years 2012-2020.

Note: Data adapted from: "Temporary employees by sex, age and main reason" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/LFSA\\_ETGAR/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/LFSA_ETGAR/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As provided in Figure 175, majority of young females in Slovakia opted for temporary employment because they could not find a permanent job over the period of 2012-2020 (*note: data for education, as a reason, was not available for the given period; data for not wanting a job, as a reason, was not available for years 2012-2013; data for all three reasons was not available for 2021*). Over the same time period, the share of male employees with temporary jobs as a result of not having found a permanent job was lower in Slovakia (*note: see Figure A.14 in Appendices*). This indicates that young women had more difficulties in securing a permanent job in the Slovak labour market than young men for the given time period. Nonetheless, there were more young females with temporary jobs as a result of not wanting a permanent job than young males in Slovakia (*note: see Figure A.16 in Appendices*).

### 5.4.5.5 Unemployment Rate

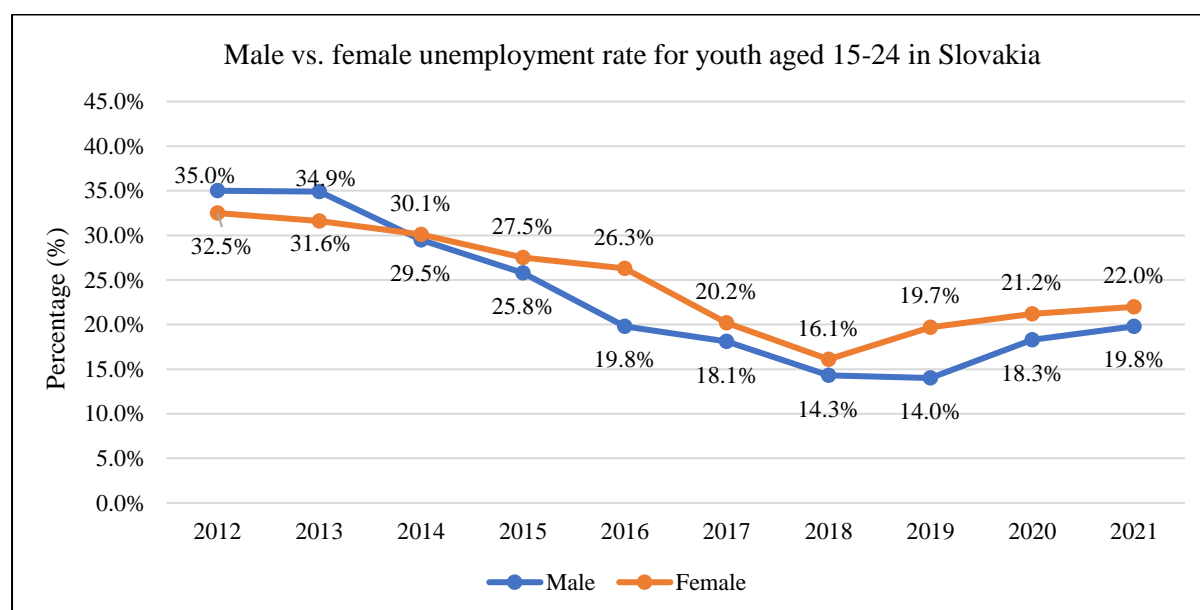


Figure 176. Youth unemployment rate for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 in Slovakia for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Youth unemployment rate by sex, age and country of birth" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_EMPL\\_100/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_EMPL_100/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As can be seen in Figure 176, the unemployment rate was lower for young men than young women in Slovakia over the period of 2014-2021, while the opposite was true in 2012 and 2013. This is consistent with young males having a higher employment rate than young females for the same period, as presented in Figure 173. A higher unemployment rate for young women in Slovakia shows that they might face more challenges when trying to enter the labour market and secure a job. The unemployment rate for both genders increased in 2020 and 2021 due to the negative impacts of Covid-19.

### 5.4.5.6 Youth NEET

The following two figures divide male and female youth into age groups in accordance with the OECD data: 15-19 and 20-24 year olds.

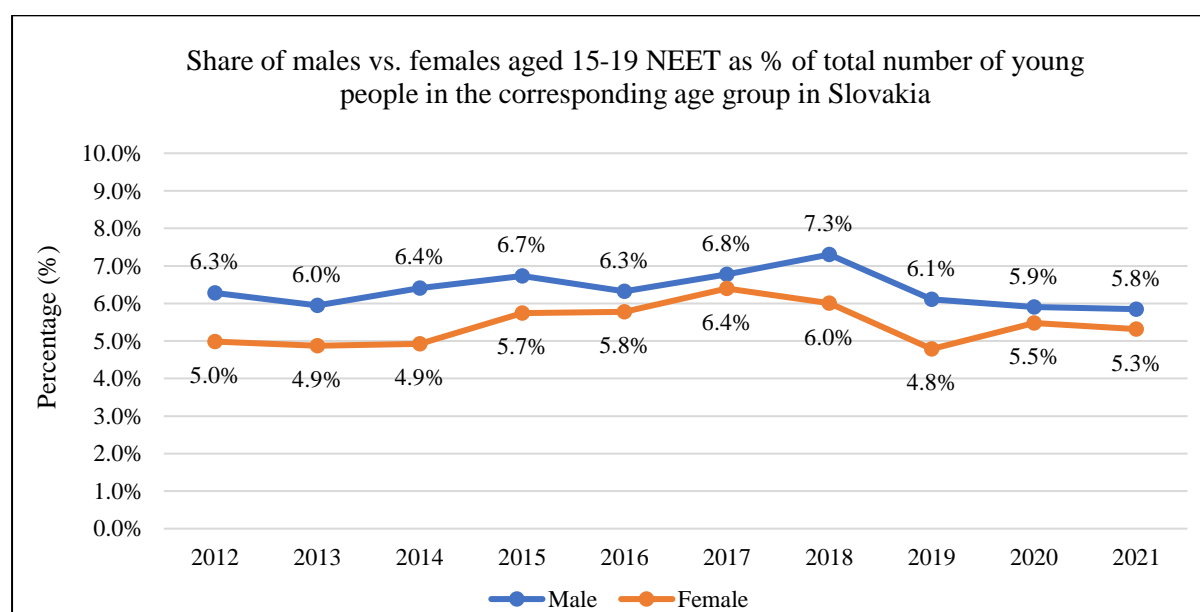


Figure 177. Share of male vs. female individuals aged 15-19 not in employment, education or training as % of total number of young people in the corresponding age group in Slovakia for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Youth not in employment, education or training (NEET)" by OECD, 2022, (<https://data.oecd.org/youthinac/youth-not-in-employment-education-or-training-neet.htm>). (OECD, 2022). Copyright 2022 by OECD.

As displayed in Figure 177, there were more young males aged 15-19 NEET in Slovakia than young females aged 15-19 NEET for the entire period of 2012-2021. This indicates that young women aged 15-19 in Slovakia were more engaged in education and training or employment. Even though the share of young females aged 15-19 NEET in Slovakia increased in 2020 due to Covid-19, it decreased again in 2021, showing that more young women returned to education or employment.

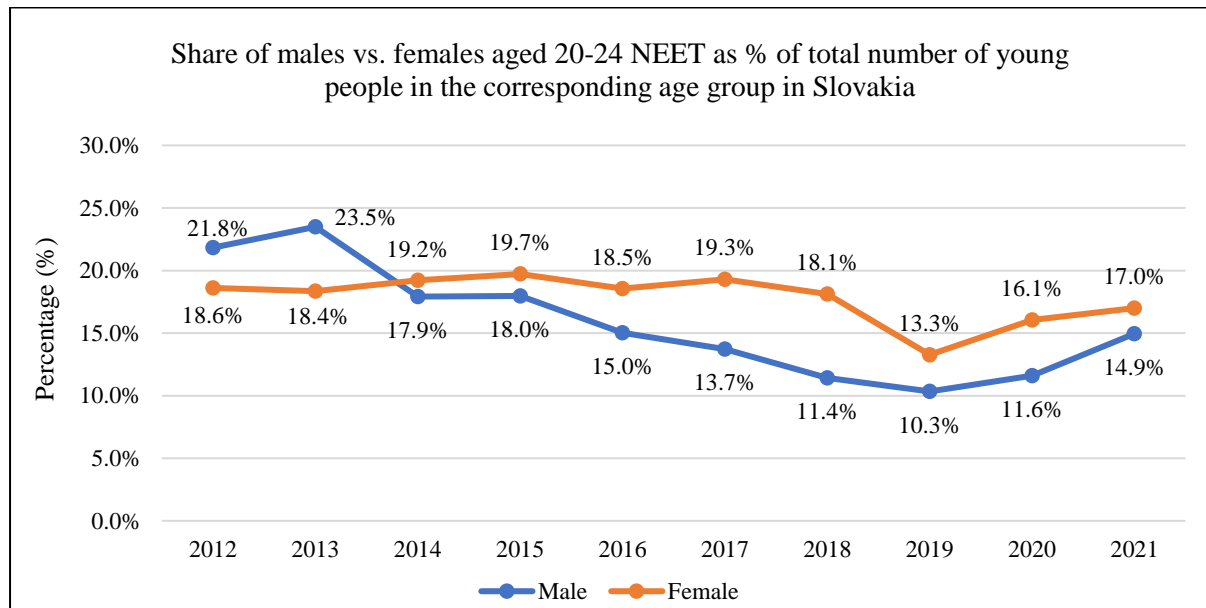


Figure 178. Share of male vs. female individuals aged 20-24 not in employment, education or training as % of total number of young people in the corresponding age group in Slovakia for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Youth not in employment, education or training (NEET)" by OECD, 2022, (<https://data.oecd.org/youthinac/youth-not-in-employment-education-or-training-neet.htm>). (OECD, 2022). Copyright 2022 by OECD.

In contrast to youth aged 15-19 NEET in Slovakia, Figure 178 shows that the share of young females aged 20-24 NEET in Slovakia was higher than the share of young males over the period of 2014-2021, with 2012 and 2013 being the exceptions. The shares of both young men and women NEET increased in 2020 and 2021 due to Covid-19, with more youth aged 20-24 not being involved in education and training or employment during the pandemic in Slovakia. The shares of young males and females aged 20-24 NEET in Slovakia were higher than the shares of their counterparts aged 15-19 for the given period, showing that more young people in Slovakia leave education and training or employment at a later stage of their youth. Generally, NEET rates for both young men and women in Slovakia are lower than the OECD average for 15-19 year olds, e.g. 5.59% of young individuals NEET among 15-19 year olds in 2021 in Slovakia, as opposed to 8.26% OECD average (OECD, 2022). Similarly, NEET rates for both young males and females in Slovakia are lower than the OECD average for 20-24 year olds, e.g. 15.94% of young individuals NEET among 20-24 years olds in 2021 in Slovakia, as opposed to 16.82% OECD average (OECD, 2022).

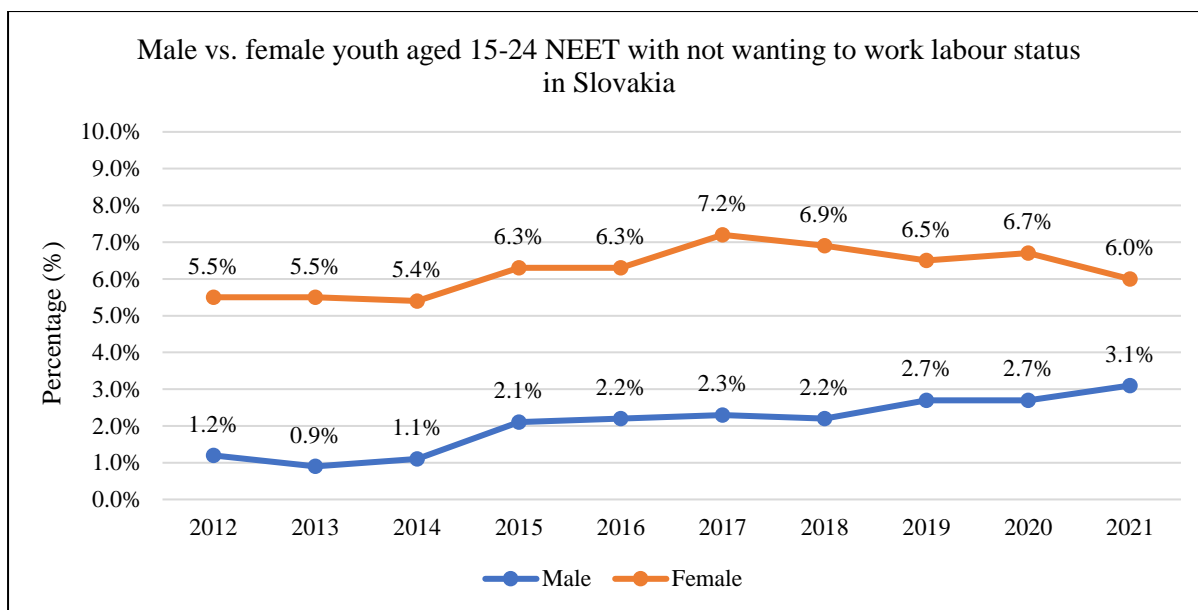


Figure 179. Male vs. female youth aged 15-24 neither in employment nor in education and training with not wanting to work labour status in Slovakia for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Young people neither in employment nor in education and training by sex, age and labour status (NEET rates)" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDAT\\_LFSE\\_20/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDAT_LFSE_20/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

Figure 179 shows that, out of young people NEET in Slovakia, there were more young females not willing to work than young males for years 2012-2021. Given that the fertility rate for females aged 15-24 in Slovakia slightly increased over recent years, this could partially justify a higher number of young women NEET in Slovakia not willing to work as opposed to their male counterparts because of family care (Eurostat, 2022).

## 5.4.6 Spain

### 5.4.6.1 Labour Force Participation Rate

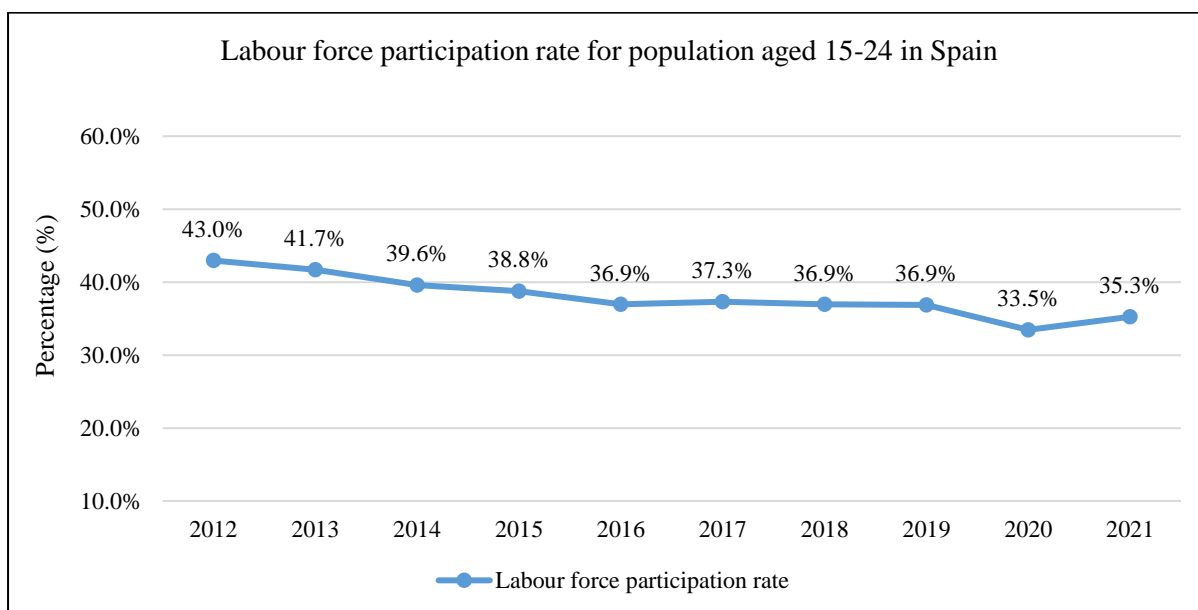


Figure 180. Labour force participation rate for population aged 15-24 in Spain for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Labour force participation rate" by OECD, 2022, (<https://data.oecd.org/emp/labour-force-participation-rate.htm>). (OECD, 2022). Copyright 2022 by OECD.

As can be seen in Figure 180 above, youth labour force participation rate in Spain has declined throughout the period of 2012-2021. The sharpest decrease took place in 2020, driven by the labour market instability and negative economic impacts of Covid-19. Although the rate increased again in 2021, when pandemic restrictions have been eased, it did not return to its pre-pandemic level.

#### 5.4.6.2 Employment By Educational Attainment

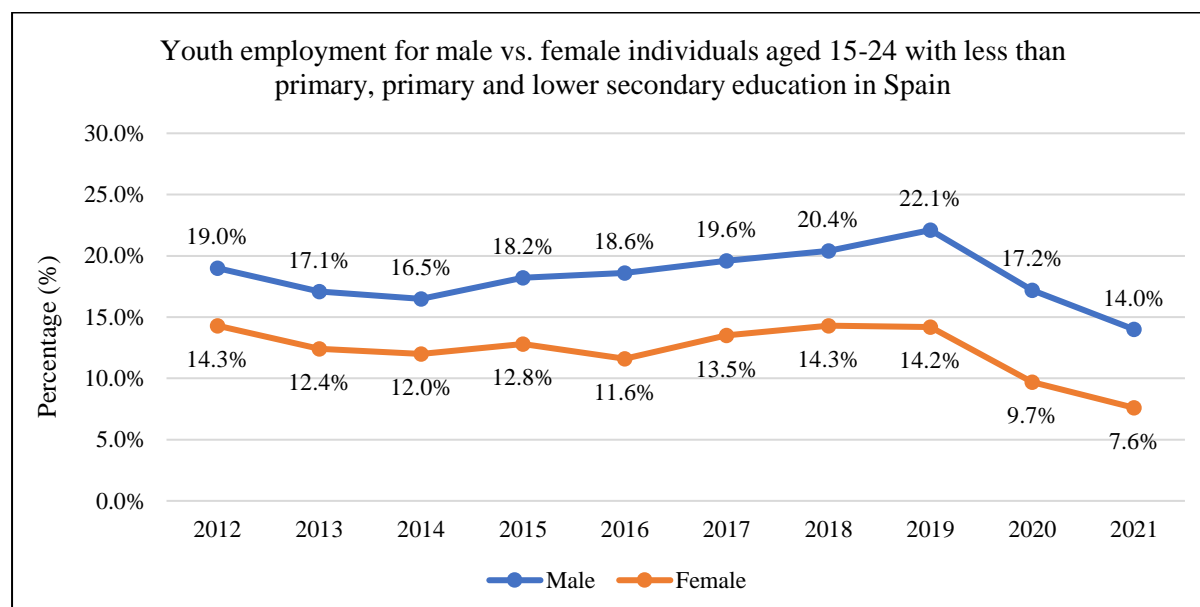
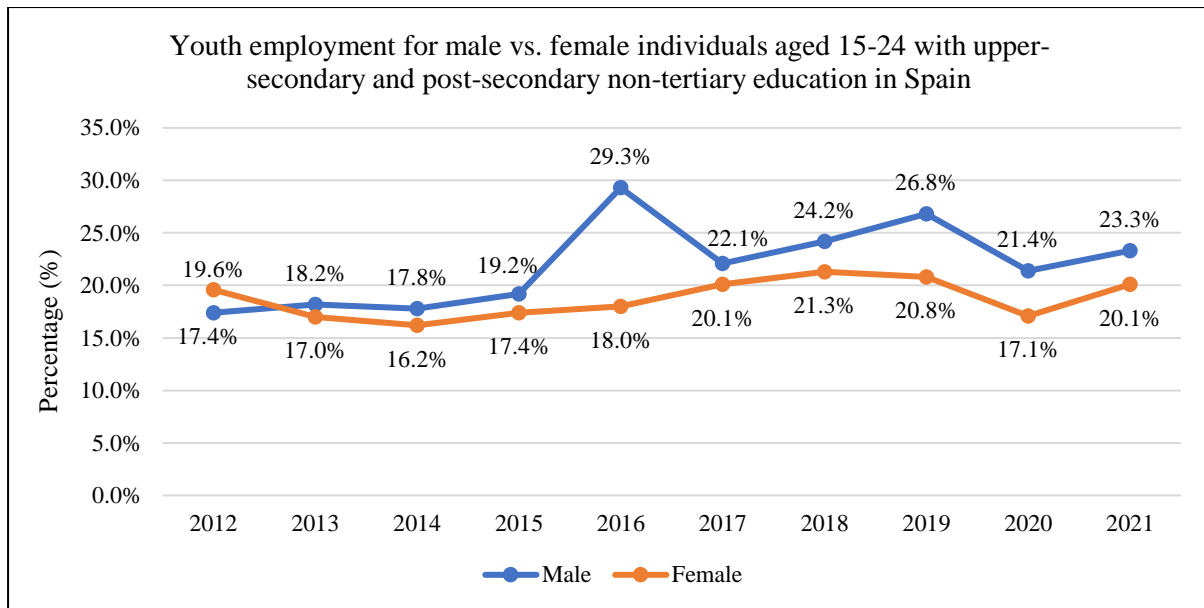


Figure 181. Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with less than primary, primary and lower secondary education in Spain for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Youth employment by sex, age and educational attainment level" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth\\_empl\\_010/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth_empl_010/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

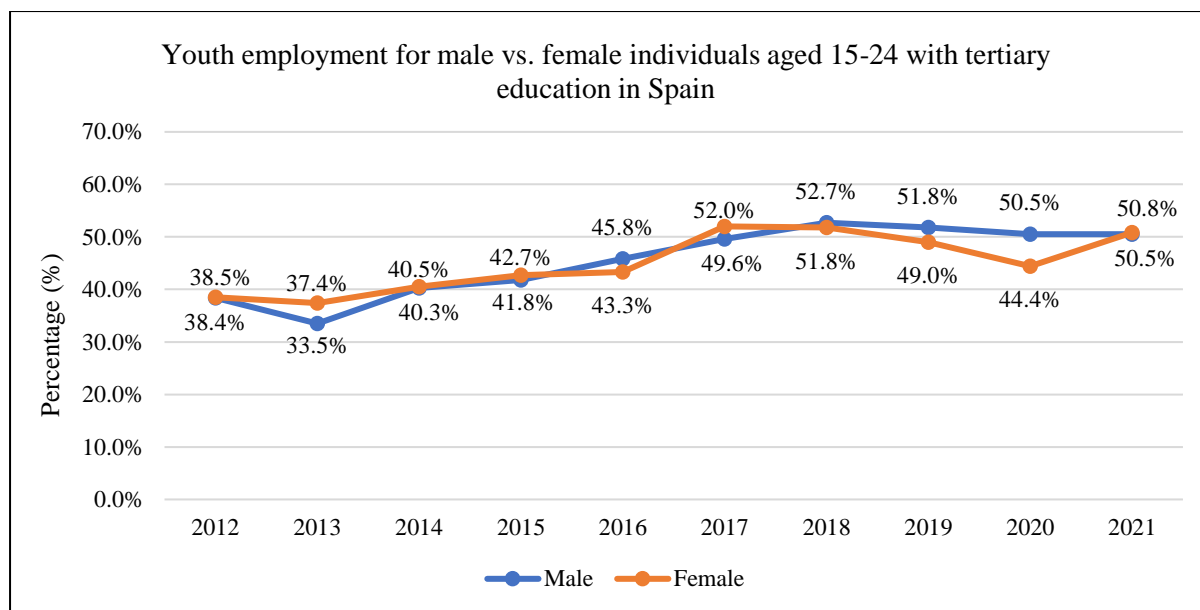
As shown in Figure 181, employment for young males with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment in Spain was higher than for young females over the period of 2012-2021. This is consistent with the higher number of young men with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment in Spain over the same period, as provided in Figure 34 in section 5.1.6.1. Employment for both young males and females with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment in Spain decreased in 2020 and 2021 due to the higher labour market instability, economic contraction and increased number of layoffs during Covid-19 (Wijffelaars, 2020).



*Figure 182. Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with upper-secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education in Spain for years 2012-2021.*

*Note: Data adapted from: "Youth employment by sex, age and educational attainment level" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth\\_empl\\_010/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth_empl_010/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.*

Figure 182 displays that employment for young males with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment in Spain was higher than for young females over the period of 2013-2021, with 2012 being the exception. Figure 35 in section 5.1.6.1 shows that, over the given period, there were more young women with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment in Spain than young men. This implies that young females with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment in Spain face more challenges when seeking employment as opposed to young males with the same educational attainment. Employment for both genders decreased in 2020 due to the negative impact of Covid-19 on the Spanish economy and the labour market. Nevertheless, it increased for both young men and women in 2021, following the economic relief measures introduced by the Spanish government to combat layoffs (González, Gómez, & Pérez, 2020). Given that employment for both young males and females with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment in Spain decreased in 2021, it can be concluded that lower educational attainment made young people more vulnerable to layoffs.



*Figure 183. Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with tertiary education in Spain for years 2012-2021.*

*Note: Data adapted from: "Youth employment by sex, age and educational attainment level" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth\\_empl\\_010/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth_empl_010/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.*

As shown in Figure 183 above, employment for young females with tertiary educational attainment in Spain was higher for years 2012-2017, with the exception of 2016. It then declined over the period of 2018-2020, resulting in employment for young men with tertiary educational attainment in Spain surpassing employment for young women with the same educational attainment level. Employment for both young males and females with tertiary educational attainment in Spain decreased in 2020 due to the negative economic impact of Covid-19. It then increased for young females in 2021, overtaking employment for their male counterparts. Over the given period, the gaps between employment for young men and women with tertiary educational attainment in Spain have been relatively small, even though there were more young females with tertiary educational attainment in Spain for the same years, as provided in Figure 36 in section 5.1.6.1. This indicates that having tertiary educational attainment does not necessarily transfer into a significant labour market advantage for young women in Spain. Nevertheless, employment for young males and females with tertiary educational attainment in Spain was higher over the period of 2012-2021 than for young people with lower educational attainment levels, implying that having tertiary education can increase employability in the Spanish labour market.

### 5.4.6.3 Employment Rate

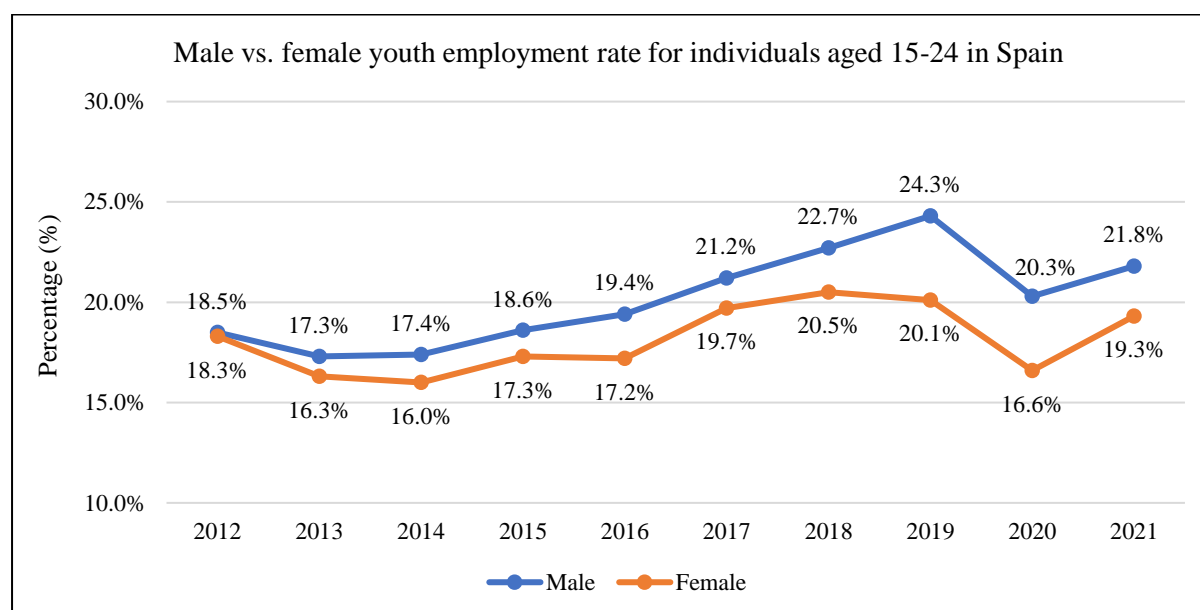
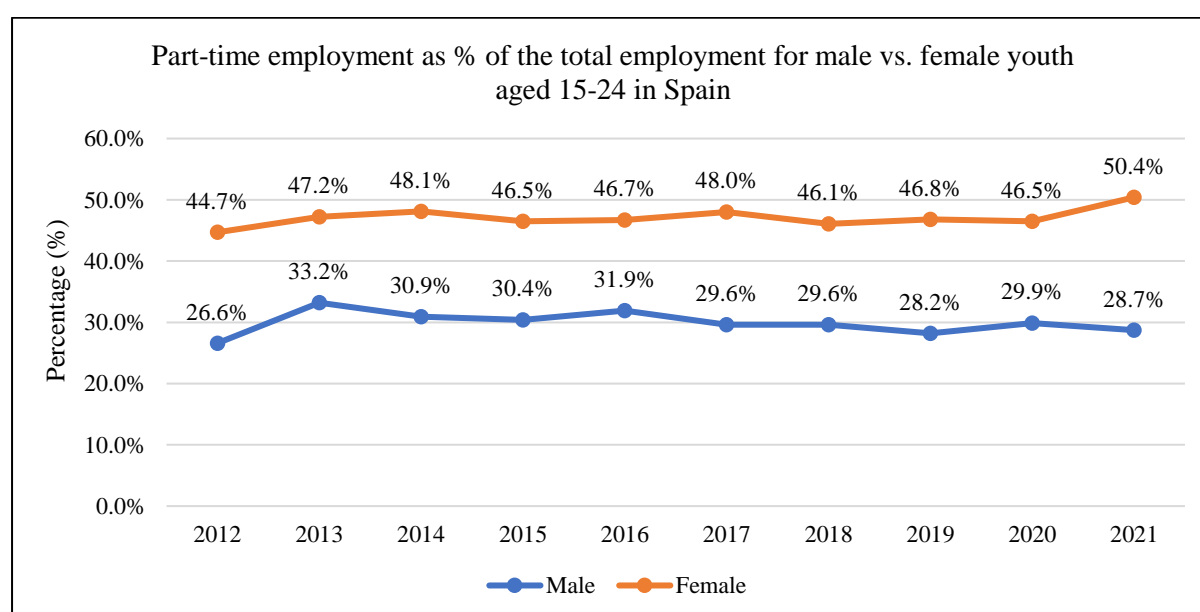


Figure 184. Youth employment rate for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 in Spain for years 2012-2021.  
 Note: Data adapted from: "Youth employment rate by sex, age and country of birth" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_EMPL\\_020/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_EMPL_020/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As can be seen in Figure 184, the employment rate was higher for young males in Spain than young females over the period of 2012-2021. The employment rates for both young males and females decreased in 2020 due to the labour market instability, driven by Covid-19. Historically, female employment in Spain was lower than male, including young individuals, due to the higher vulnerability of the Spanish women in the labour market. Factors that drove this in the past and continue driving it in the present are the discouragement of married females from seeking employment due to family care, higher risks of being unemployed for females with temporary and part-time contracts and educational attainment levels (Lázaro, Moltó, & Sánchez, 2000). Indeed, Figure 185 below shows that there were more young women in part-time employment in Spain than young males over the period of 2012-2021:

### 5.4.6.4 Part-Time Employment

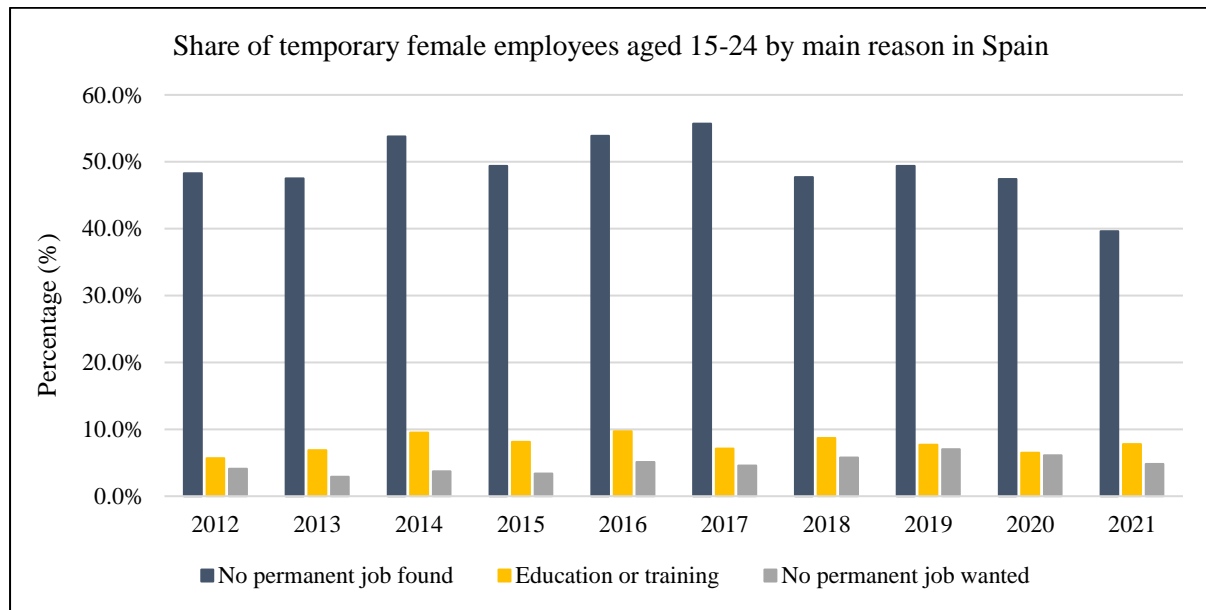




*Figure 185. Part-time employment as % of the total employment for male vs. female youth aged 15-24 in Spain for years 2012-2021.*

*Note: Data adapted from: "Part-time employment as percentage of the total employment for young people by sex, age and country of birth" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_EMPL\\_060/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_EMPL_060/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.*

According to Figure 185, in 2021, the share of part-time employment as a percentage of total employment for young women in Spain increased to the highest level throughout the period of 2012-2021 due to a higher insecurity of the Spanish labour market, driven by the negative implications of Covid-19. As a result, young females became even more vulnerable in the labour market, while already being more prone to part-time employment than their male counterparts. Figure 186 below provides data on the main reasons why young women in Spain opted for temporary employment for the given time period:



*Figure 186. Share of temporary female employees aged 15-24 by main reason for temporary employment in Spain for years 2012-2021.*

*Note: Data adapted from: "Temporary employees by sex, age and main reason" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/LFSA\\_ETGAR/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/LFSA_ETGAR/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.*

Figure 186 shows that over the years 2012-2021, majority of young females had temporary employment because they could not find a permanent job in Spain. Less than 10% of young females in Spain had temporary employment due to being in education or training over the same time period. Not wanting to have a permanent job was the least common reason for having temporary employment amongst the three. In comparison, there were fewer young males, who opted for temporary employment due to not having found a permanent job, in Spain for years 2012-2021 (*note: see Figure A.17 in Appendices*). Although the differences between the two genders were not significant, it still indicates that finding a permanent job can be more challenging for young women than young men in the Spanish labour market.

### 5.4.6.5 Unemployment Rate

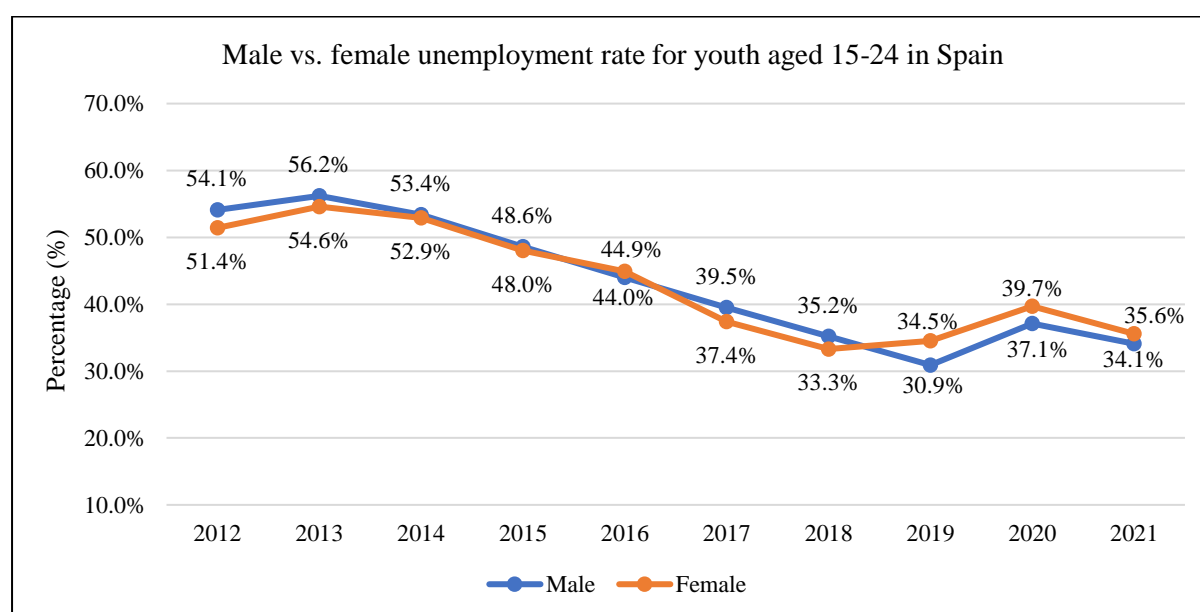
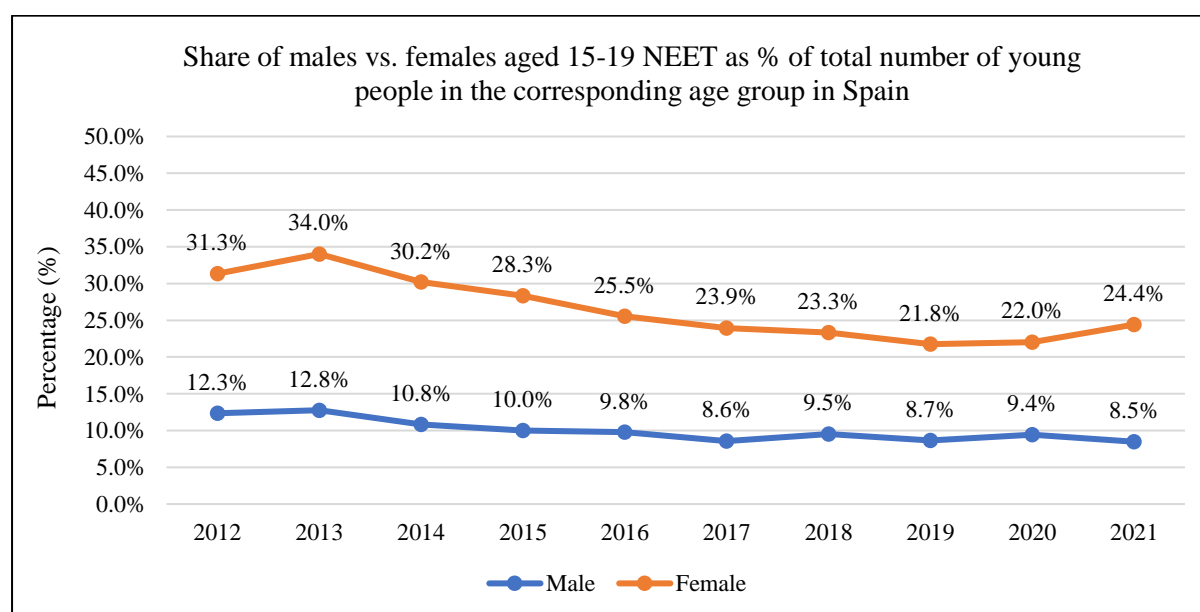


Figure 187. Youth unemployment rate for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 in Spain for years 2012-2021. Note: Data adapted from: "Youth unemployment rate by sex, age and country of birth" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_EMPL\\_100/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_EMPL_100/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As given in Figure 187, the unemployment rates for both young males and females in Spain were similar throughout the period of 2012-2021. The unemployment rate for young women in Spain increased in 2020, being higher than the unemployment rate for young men. It remained higher than for young males also in 2021. This is justified by the fact that more women lost jobs in Spain than men during Covid-19, resulting in a wider gender gap in the Spanish labour market (Baeza, 2022). Moreover, employment recovery for men in Spain was faster than for women during and after the pandemic (Baeza, 2022).

### 5.4.6.6 Youth NEET

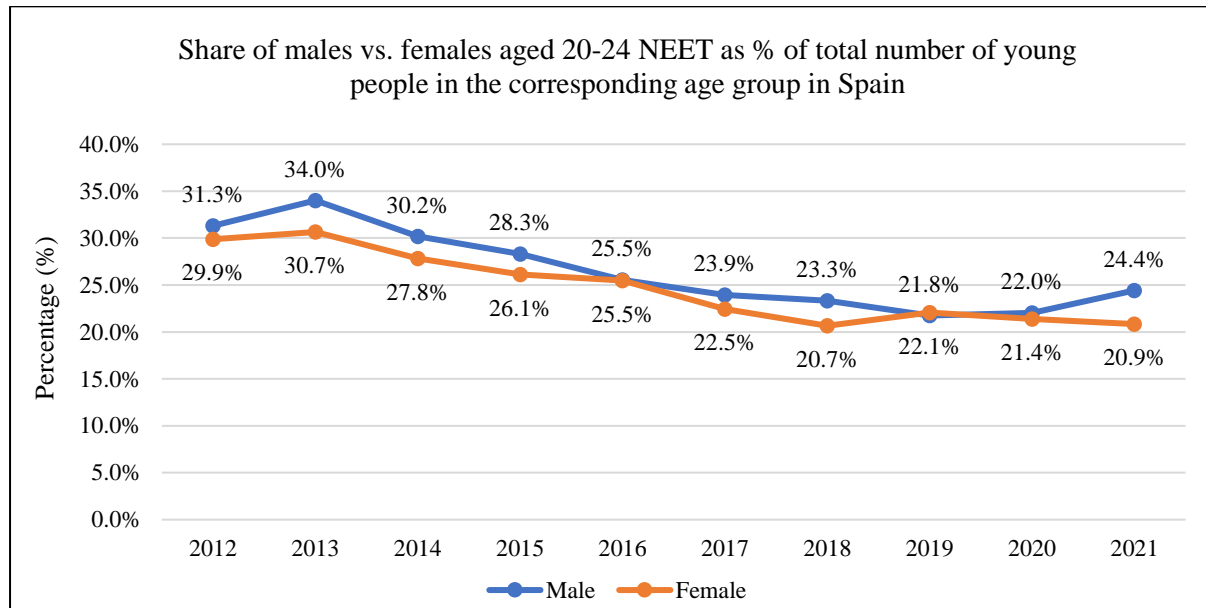
The following two figures divide male and female youth into age groups in accordance with the OECD data: 15-19 and 20-24 year olds.



*Figure 188. Share of male vs. female individuals aged 15-19 not in employment, education or training as % of total number of young people in the corresponding age group in Spain for years 2012-2021.*

*Note: Data adapted from: "Youth not in employment, education or training (NEET)" by OECD, 2022, (<https://data.oecd.org/youthinac/youth-not-in-employment-education-or-training-neet.htm>). (OECD, 2022). Copyright 2022 by OECD.*

As displayed in Figure 188, there were more young females aged 15-19 NEET in Spain than young males aged 15-19 NEET for the entire period of 2012-2021. The share of young women aged 15-19 NEET in Spain was more than twice as high as the share of young men aged 15-19 for given years. This indicates that there were fewer young females aged 15-19, who engaged in education and training or employment, in Spain over the period of 2012-2021. While it declined over the years, the share of young women aged 15-19 NEET in Spain increased again in 2021, reflecting the negative impact of Covid-19 on the willingness and ability of young females to participate in education and training or employment.



*Figure 189. Share of male vs. female individuals aged 20-24 not in employment, education or training as % of total number of young people in the corresponding age group in Spain for years 2012-2021.*

*Note: Data adapted from: "Youth not in employment, education or training (NEET)" by OECD, 2022, (<https://data.oecd.org/youthinac/youth-not-in-employment-education-or-training-neet.htm>). (OECD, 2022). Copyright 2022 by OECD.*

In contrast to youth aged 15-19 NEET in Spain, Figure 189 shows that the share of young males aged 20-24 NEET was higher than the share of young females over the period of 2012-2021, with 2016 and 2019 being the exceptions. The shares of young women aged 20-24 NEET in Spain were lower than the shares of young women aged 15-19 NEET, implying that more young females leave education and training or employment at an earlier stage of their youth, with some returning to education and the labour market at a later age. Generally, NEET rates for both young males and females in Spain became lower than the OECD average for 15-19 year olds over the recent years, e.g. 7.44% of young individuals NEET among 15-19 year olds in 2021 in Spain, as opposed to 8.26% OECD average (OECD, 2022). In contrast, NEET rates for both young males and females in Spain are higher than the OECD average for 20-24 year olds, e.g. 22.67% of young individuals NEET among 20-24 years olds in 2021 in Spain, as opposed to 16.82% OECD average (OECD, 2022).

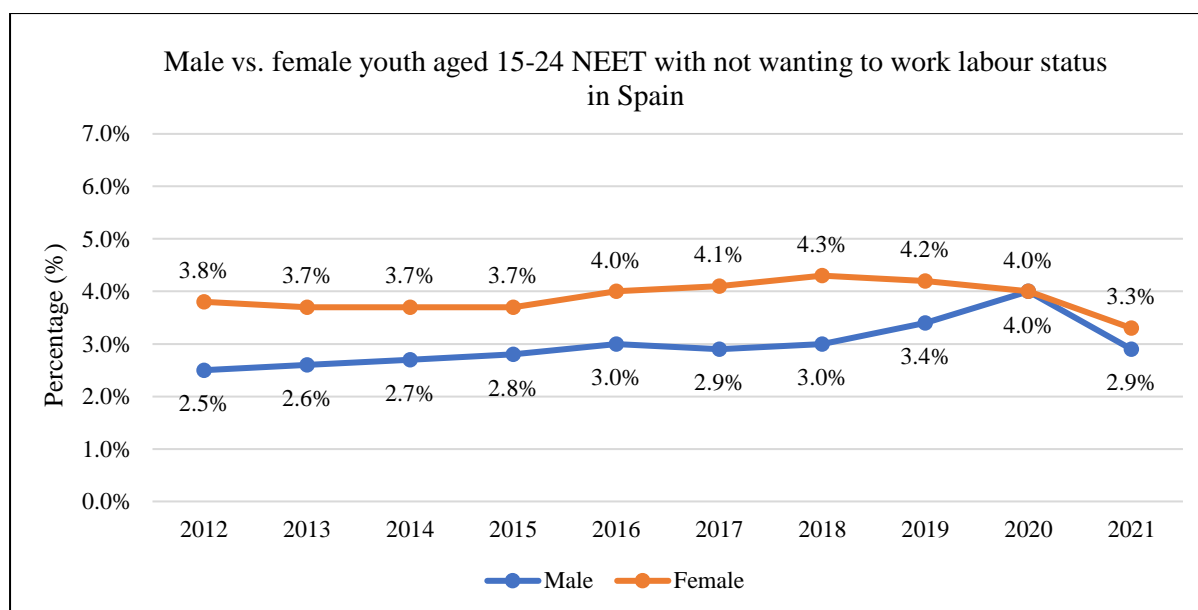


Figure 190. Male vs. female youth aged 15-24 neither in employment nor in education and training with not wanting to work labour status in Spain for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: “Young people neither in employment nor in education and training by sex, age and labour status (NEET rates)” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDAT\\_LFSE\\_20/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDAT_LFSE_20/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As provided in Figure 190, there were more young females NEET in Spain not willing to work than young males throughout the period of 2012-2021. However, over the recent years, the share of young women not willing to work among the NEET group in Spain was declining, which can be partially explained by the decreasing fertility rate of young women aged 15-24 in Spain over the last decade, as it reduces needs to care for family for young females (Eurostat, 2022).

### 5.4.7 Summary

In terms of the labour force participation rate for youth, over the period of 2012-2021, Finland generally had the highest rate, while Italy had the lowest. Youth labour force participation rate decreased for all six countries during Covid-19 in 2020, then increased in 2021 after pandemic restrictions were eased in all countries, except for Slovakia.

In terms of the employment by gender and educational attainment level, for young individuals with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment, employment was generally higher for young males than females in all countries, except for Finland, over the period of 2012-2021. For young individuals with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment, employment was generally higher for young males than females in all countries for the given period. For young individuals with tertiary educational attainment, employment was generally higher for young males in France and Slovakia, while the opposite was true for Italy, Luxembourg and Spain throughout the period of 2012-2021. For Finland, there was no clear domination of either gender with tertiary educational attainment. Young women with tertiary educational attainment had higher employment than young women with lower educational attainment levels in all countries, except for Slovakia, over the given period. In Slovakia, young women with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment had higher employment than young women with less than primary, primary, lower secondary or tertiary educational attainment.

In terms of the employment rate, all countries generally had a higher employment rate for young males than young females, except for Finland, over the period of 2012-2021. The highest employment rate for young women was in Finland, while the lowest employment rate for young women was in Italy for the given time period. During 2020, the employment rate decreased for young females in all countries due

to Covid-19. It then increased in 2021 during the economic recovery in all countries, except for Slovakia, where it continued to decline.

In terms of the part-time employment as a percentage of total employment, it was generally higher for young females than for young males in all six countries over the period of 2012-2021. The volume of part-time employment for young women as a percentage of total employment was the highest in Finland and the lowest in Slovakia for the given time period. Over the years 2012-2021, majority of young females in Italy, Slovakia and Spain had temporary employment because they could not secure a permanent job. This was also true in Finland for years 2012-2018 and in France for years 2012-2020. Over the period of 2019-2021, majority of young women in Finland had temporary employment because they did not want a permanent job. In 2021, majority of young women in France had temporary employment because they were engaged in education and training. No data on the main reasons for temporary employment for young females in Luxembourg was available.

In terms of the youth unemployment rate, Finland, France and Luxembourg had generally higher unemployment rates for young males than females, while the opposite was true for Italy, Slovakia and Spain over the period of 2012-2021. The unemployment rate for young females was the highest in Spain and the lowest in Luxembourg for the given period. In 2020, the unemployment rate for young women increased in all countries due to the negative implications of Covid-19 for the local labour markets. In 2021, the unemployment rate for young females decreased after the economic relief for all countries, except for Italy and Slovakia, where it continued to increase.

In terms of the young individuals NEET, Finland, France, Italy and Slovakia had generally more young males aged 15-19 NEET than young females, while the opposite was true in Spain over the period of 2012-2021. For the same years, Finland and Spain had more young males aged 20-24 NEET, whereas Slovakia had more young females aged 20-24 NEET. There was no clear dominance of either gender in young individuals aged 20-24 NEET in France and Italy over the given period. Out of youth aged 15-24 NEET, there were more young females not willing to work than young males in all countries, except for Luxembourg, for which limited data on youth NEET is available. As of 2021, Finland (5.23%), France (5.19%), Slovakia (5.31%) and Spain (6.33%) had lower rates of young females aged 15-19 NEET than the OECD average (8.44%), while the rate for Italy (12.29%) was higher than the OECD average (OECD, 2022). For the same year, Finland (14.69%), France (17.82%) and Slovakia (16.99%) had lower rates of young females aged 20-24 NEET than the OECD average (18.44%), while the rates for Italy (30.51%) and Spain (20.85%) were higher than the OECD average (OECD, 2022).

## 6. Discussion

This section provides a summarised discussion of female youth engagement in the four focus areas in all six countries, exemplifying the trends presented in section 5 and current national youth policies that target youth education, volunteering, exchange and employment. A priority focus area is then selected for each country based on such discussion.

### 6.1 Finland

#### 6.1.1 Youth Education

Youth education policies in Finland are managed jointly by the Ministry of Education and Culture and the Finnish National Agency for Education (European Commission, 2022). As previously mentioned, the Finnish education system is highly praised by other countries for its benefits for students, teachers and other involved stakeholders (Johnson Hess, 2018). Such benefits include free access to education, active use of innovative digital tools, provision of support for students and, most importantly, equal opportunities (Rastogi, 2023). The latter emphasises equality in access to education for students of all genders, social backgrounds, ethnicities, etc., promoting social development and economic growth in Finland (Rastogi, 2023). This is also supported by the data provided in section 5.1.1, which indicates that young females are not disadvantaged in the Finnish education system.

Figure 1 shows that, although the share of young females with less than primary, primary and lower secondary educational attainment was lower than the share of young males in Finland over the period of 2012-2020, the gap between the two genders was relatively small. Similarly, there was no significant difference between the shares of young men and women with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment in Finland, with no clear dominance of either gender, as presented in Figure 2. The share of young females with tertiary educational attainment was higher than the share of young males in Finland for years 2012-2021, as given in Figure 3. When comparing this data for Finland with the EU average, it can be seen that the share of young women with less than primary, primary, lower secondary, upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment in Finland was generally higher than the EU average over the period of 2012-2021 (*note: see Figures A.10-A.11 in Appendices*). The opposite was true for the share of young females with tertiary educational attainment (*note: see Figure A.1 in Appendices*).

Generally, the Finnish National Youth Work and Youth Policy Programme 2020-2023 majorly focuses on improving access to education and increasing social inclusion in education in Finland (The Ministry of Education and Culture, 2020). By fulfilling the needs of young people with a tailored education system, it aims to reduce the vulnerability of youth and promote inclusion (The Ministry of Education and Culture, 2020). The policy has generally been successful in decreasing the exclusion of young individuals from upper secondary education in Finland, with the share of both young males and females with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment in Finland being higher than the EU average for years 2012-2021 (*note: see Figure A.11 in Appendices*). Nonetheless, gender differences are still present in the Finnish education system, particularly in upper secondary education, with more young females selecting general upper secondary education and more young males selecting vocational upper secondary education (European Commission, 2022). Raising awareness through the implementation of more efficient communication and information channels is considered to be key in increasing the gender equality in education by the Finnish authorities (European Commission, 2022).

In terms of the non-formal education and training, the share of young females was higher than the share of young males in Finland over the period of 2012-2021, as shown in Figure 4. Moreover, the share of young women in non-formal education and training was higher in Finland than the EU average for the same period (*note: see Figure A.2 in Appendices*). The importance of validating non-formal education is emphasised both in the Government Programme 2020-2023 and the National Strategy for Life Long Guidance in Finland (European Commission, 2022). The Finnish policies related to non-formal

education also highlight the need to increase awareness of education and career training opportunities through effective information distribution channels, specifically digital communication (European Commission, 2022). Sharing such information is a responsibility of the governmental administration in Finland, according to the Youth Act, a legislation implemented by the Finnish Ministry of Education and Culture (European Commission, 2022). This results in a generally high awareness of the Finnish youth of non-formal education and training opportunities. Given that the share of young females in non-formal education and training was higher in Finland than the EU average for years 2012-2021 (*note: see Figure A.2 in Appendices*), it can be concluded that the Finnish policies related to non-formal education are effective in attracting youth, particularly young women, to lifelong learning and informal education opportunities.

Over the period of 2012-2021, the share of young females, who left education early, was lower than the share of young males in Finland, as provided in Figure 5. Reduction in the number of early leavers from education and the dropout rates is another key objective of the national youth education and training strategy in Finland (European Commission, 2022). Several measures have been implemented to fulfil this objective, including the increase of minimum age of school leave to 18 years and access to secondary education for all students free of charge (European Commission, 2022). Furthermore, the Youth Guarantee programme, adopted in Finland with the purpose of improving access of the Finnish youth to education and employment and incorporated in its Government Programme, also supports the government in improving access to training and the labour market for early leavers from education (European Commission, 2022). The share of young female early leavers from education was lower in Finland than the EU average over the period of 2012-2021 (*note: see Figure A.3 in Appendices*). This indicates that the measures for reducing the number of early leavers from education implemented by the Finnish government are proving to be effective for the Finnish youth, including females.

### **6.1.2 Youth Volunteering**

In terms of the youth volunteering, the Ministry of Education and Culture represents a leading authority in Finland (European Commission, 2022). As discussed in section 5.2.1, a survey conducted by Taloustutkimus Oy in 2021 revealed that young people aged 15-24 spent the lowest number of hours in volunteering in the past 4 weeks amongst all age groups in Finland at the time of the survey conduction, as shown in Figure 45. This indicates a lack of engagement of the Finnish youth in volunteering activities in recent years. Although youth volunteering is considered to be an effective way of increasing active citizenship, there currently exists no national strategy for youth volunteering in Finland (European Commission, 2022). Furthermore, youth volunteering was not discussed in the Finnish National Youth Work and Youth Policy Programme 2020-2023, and neither a national programme on youth volunteering nor quality assurance system for youth volunteering are present in Finland (The Ministry of Education and Culture, 2020) (European Commission, 2022).

Generally, majority of young males and females responded that they would be willing to volunteer in Finland in 2021, with young women showing higher willingness to do so, as provided in Figures 49 and 50. Nevertheless, Kansalaisareena, a social influencer of volunteering in Finland, identified that the main issue for the Finnish youth, when it comes to volunteering, is not the lack of willingness but rather the lack of encouragement to participate (Kostiainen, 2019). Information on volunteering opportunities is distributed by civil society organisations, municipalities, NGOs and organisations managing such opportunities in Finland (e.g. the Finnish National Youth Council Allianssi, Kirkkopalvelut), with no Finnish ministries directly involved in this process (European Commission, 2023). Moreover, volunteering activities were incorporated in upper secondary education in Finland in 2016 (European Commission, 2023). However, existing information provision channels are not sufficient, hence, the introduction of more effective communication tools to promote volunteering was identified as a needed measure for the government programme (European Commission, 2022). Given that there is no specification of the target groups within the Finnish youth (e.g. young females) in the Youth Act and

the Government Decree on Youth Work and Youth Policy, the development of effective communication channels becomes a challenging task, lacking a targeted approach and focusing on youth generalisation.

Another key challenge for youth volunteering in Finland is the need to have advanced skills to complete administrative voluntary tasks, as well as other types of tasks, for young volunteers (European Commission, 2022). As shown in Figure 53, youth is affected by this issue more than other age groups, as the share of individuals aged 15-24 stating that they had sufficient skills to volunteer in the next three years in Finland was lower than for other age groups, while the share of individuals aged 15-24 stating that they do not have sufficient skills was higher than for other age groups in 2021. Although volunteering organisations support young volunteers through the provision of training opportunities and workshops, this is limited to the members of such organisations (European Commission, 2022).

### **6.1.3 Youth Exchange**

In Finland, youth exchange and mobility is managed through the Erasmus+ Programme, the European Solidarity Corps and Nordplus (The Ministry of Education and Culture, 2020) (European Commission, 2022). One of the key objectives in terms of youth exchange in Finland is the increase of inclusivity in mobility programmes, with the implementation of more targeted approaches to youth exchange and emphasis on equality in terms of gender, ethnicity, social background, etc. (The Ministry of Education and Culture, 2020).

Promotion of youth exchange in Finland is conducted through youth organisations, which are part of the mobility programmes, and local youth centres (European Commission, 2022). As of 2021, there were 31 Erasmus+ youth mobility projects, 88 Erasmus+ youth mobility organisations, 10 Erasmus+ youth cooperation projects and 36 Erasmus+ youth cooperation organisations in Finland (European Commission, 2022). Figure 97 shows that there were more incoming Erasmus+ students than outgoing Erasmus+ students in Finland over the period of 2017-2021. This indicates that Finland remained a fairly attractive destination for youth exchange, offering high quality education and student facilities to Erasmus+ students (Francesca, 2019). Nonetheless, the number of incoming Erasmus+ students was lower in Finland than in countries like France and Spain due to factors like higher cost of living and colder climate, as discussed in section 5.3.1.2. However, this is related to the country-specific factors, as opposed to the lack of youth mobility opportunities and awareness on youth exchange.

The importance of youth exchange is also reflected in the Finnish education system, which equips students with language skills, as well as the knowledge of cultures and international societies (European Commission, 2022). As can be seen in Figure 99, the share of students in primary education studying two or more foreign languages in Finland was higher than the EU average for years 2013-2020 (*note: see Figure A.27 in Appendices*). Furthermore, the share of students in both lower secondary and upper secondary education studying one or more and two or more foreign languages in Finland was also higher than the EU average over the same period (*note: see Figures A.28-A.29 in Appendices*). This indicates that the Finnish students are generally more prepared in terms of language skills for youth exchange than students in other European countries, hence, the Finnish national policy on increasing internationalisation in schools to encourage youth exchange is effective (European Commission, 2022).

### **6.1.4 Youth Employment**

In Finland, youth employment policies are coordinated by the Ministry of Economic Affairs and Employment (European Commission, 2021). Similar to youth education, youth employment remains a key focus of the Finnish National Youth Work and Youth Policy Programme 2020-2023, supported by the Youth Guarantee initiative, with the goal of increasing support for youth regardless of their status in the labour market and promoting social inclusion and security (The Ministry of Education and Culture, 2020) (European Commission, 2023). The Finnish implementation of the Youth Guarantee in terms of improving youth employment, specifically decreasing the time between young people becoming unemployed and being offered an employment opportunity, proved to be highly effective



(European Commission, 2023). General labour force participation rate for the Finnish youth was higher than the EU average over the period 2012-2021 (*note: see Figure A.18 in Appendices*). As shown in Figure 131, the youth employment rate for both males and females was higher in Finland than the EU average over the period of 2012-2021 (*note: see Figure A.19 in Appendices*), with more young women being employed in the Finnish labour market. In addition, employment for young females with all educational attainment levels was also higher in Finland than for the EU average employment of their female counterparts (*note: see Figures A.20-A.22 in Appendices*). Hence, it can be concluded that the Finnish youth is actively participating in the labour market, with young females being in a more advantageous position in terms of employment in Finland than in other European countries.

Young individuals in Finland receive extensive support in terms of career planning, training opportunities, demand for vocational skills and general employment guidance provided both face-to-face in one-stop guidance centres and online through websites, databases and digital reports (European Commission, 2023). Nonetheless, online information resources and communication channels should be enhanced in terms of the user friendliness in Finland (European Commission, 2021). Education and career guidance is specifically targeted at young people NEET, with youth workshop activities introduced for this group of the Finnish youth (European Commission, 2022). Such activities include career coaching and practical exercises related to employability improvement (Ministry of Education and Culture, n.d.). Given that NEET rates for youth aged 15-24 in Finland are lower than the OECD average, as discussed in section 5.4.1.6, it can be concluded that youth outreach programmes and workshops for youth NEET in Finland are effective in reducing the number of young individuals NEET.

### **6.1.5 Priority Focus Area**

Following the discussion of youth engagement in the four focus areas in Finland in sections 6.1.1 – 6.1.4, it becomes clear that there exists a gap in the national policy related to youth volunteering. Young women are fairly well-positioned in the Finnish education system, given the significant efforts to increase social inclusion. They are also more present in the Finnish labour market, as opposed to the labour markets in other European countries, facing fewer disadvantages and having more support when trying to secure a job. The Finnish education system ensures sufficient preparation of students for youth exchange, which positively impacts youth in education in Finland, given high social inclusion. In contrast, having no national strategy for youth volunteering negatively impacts the Finnish youth, including females. Information on volunteering opportunities, as well as training for volunteering skills, does not reach a significant part of the Finnish youth, even though majority of young males and females would be willing to volunteer, if asked (Kostiainen, 2019). Therefore, youth volunteering is selected as a priority focus area for Finland. As there is no specification of the target groups within the Finnish youth, designing targeted communication channels to attract young women presents an important step in increasing the general participation in youth volunteering and active citizenship in Finland.

## **6.2 France**

### **6.2.1 Youth Education**

In terms of the youth education strategy, the French public authorities responsible for policies in this field, including the Ministry of National Education and the Ministry of Labour, Employment and Economic inclusion, prioritise reduction of inequality, increase of educational accomplishment and success and access to lifelong training, as key objectives for improving the French education system (European Commission, 2021). The inequality amongst the French students is driven more by the differences in their socio-economic backgrounds rather than gender (European Commission, 2021). However, gender segregation is still present in the French education (European Commission, 2021). For example, the study of secondary school students, conducted by the Directorate of Evaluation, Forecasting and Performance Monitoring (DEPP) in June 2020, showed that student engagement differed based on their gender (European Commission, 2021). During Covid-19 lockdown, female

secondary school students generally demonstrated a higher commitment to studying and adjusted better to digital education tools than male students (European Commission, 2021). Nonetheless, male secondary school students had fewer issues with completing their education and related tasks than female students (European Commission, 2021). Generally, youth education policies implemented by the French public authorities have been effective in increasing educational accomplishment, as the share of young females with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment in France was almost equal to the EU average over the period of 2012-2021, as presented in Figure 9 (*note: see Figure A.11 in Appendices*). For the same period, Figure 10 shows that the shares of both young males and females with tertiary educational attainment in France were higher than the EU average (*note: see Figure A.1 in Appendices*).

Furthermore, the French public authorities majorly focus on encouraging and facilitating youth participation in non-formal education and training (European Commission, 2021). Firstly, there exist several measures supporting youth in validating skills and qualifications received during non-formal education, including volunteering passports (“*bénévole passports*”) and portfolios of learnt skills (European Commission, 2021). Secondly, youth engagement in non-formal education is encouraged through a variety of communication channels, which aim to raise awareness of existing opportunities. Information is distributed through institutional websites (e.g. [jeunes.gouv.fr](http://jeunes.gouv.fr)), on-site of organisations related to youth work and education (e.g. the Centre for Youth Information and Documentation, the National Office of Information on Studies and Profession) and websites that promote opportunities to work in the non-formal education sector (e.g. Director’s Certificate of Aptitude) (European Commission, 2021). As a result of these measures to increase youth engagement in non-formal education and training, the participation rates of both young males and females in non-formal education in France were higher than the EU average over the period of 2012-2021, as shown in Figure 11 (*note: see Figure A.2 in Appendices*).

Another key priority of youth education policy in France is a decrease in the number of early school leavers from education and training (European Commission, 2021). This issue is collaboratively addressed by the ministries responsible for national education and employment, local municipalities, educational institutions, labour market representatives and families of early leavers (European Commission, 2021). Reduction in the number of early leavers in France is achieved through the increase in career guidance, ability of all early leavers to re-enter education, improved access to vocational training and active monitoring in schools to reduce the rates of educational failure (European Commission, 2021). Figure 12 shows that the shares of young male and female early leavers from education in France were lower than the EU average over the period of 2012-2021 (*note: see Figure A.3 in Appendices*), with a general reduction in the number of young male and female early leavers in France in recent years. This indicates that the French national measures aimed at decreasing the number of young early leavers from education have been effective.

## 6.2.2 Youth Volunteering

In France, youth volunteering and volunteering initiatives and programmes are managed primarily by the Ministry of National Education, with the support from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Ministry for Higher Education, the Ministry for Economy and Finance and the Ministry of the Interior (European Commission, 2021). Even though there currently exists no national policy related to youth volunteering per se, the French public authorities are promoting youth engagement in volunteering through initiatives related to the general increase in active citizenship (e.g. Universal National Service) and community development (European Commission, 2021). Moreover, local municipalities are responsible for creating and implementing their own strategies and programmes related to youth volunteering (European Commission, 2021). NGOs and volunteering organisations also play a key role in shaping youth engagement in volunteering in France through their promotional activities (European Commission, 2021).

An increased focus on promoting youth volunteering in France in recent years resulted in the growing share of young people aged 18-30 spending time to volunteer in France over the period of 2018-2020, as shown in Figure 58. Given that having vocational upper secondary and tertiary educational attainment increased the likelihood of young people to volunteer, as provided in Figure 61, participation of the French youth in volunteering was also positively reinforced by more young women having tertiary educational attainment and a higher engagement in non-formal education, when compared to other European countries, as shown in Figures 10 and 11. Furthermore, a greater participation of young people in volunteering in France can also be attributed to the increased awareness on volunteering opportunities, which were actively promoted over the recent years, being a key objective of the French authorities. Information on volunteering opportunities is distributed on-site in youth information offices, which are part of the Youth Information Network in France, and online via the youth platform of the Civil Service Agency, the website of the Ministry of National Education and the websites of volunteering organisations in France (European Commission, 2023).

### 6.2.3 Youth Exchange

Promotion of youth exchange and mobility has been one of the main topics in the French policy-making (European Commission, 2021). France has many exchange programmes in place, promoting them on national and regional levels through the collaboration between all parties concerned with youth mobility, e.g. youth organisations, NGOs, youth representatives, etc. (European Commission, 2021). Key programmes driving youth exchange in France include the Erasmus+ Programme and the programmes of the Franco-German Youth Office (European Commission, 2021). As of 2021, 660 Erasmus+ mobility youth organisations operated in France, with 129 Erasmus+ youth mobility projects being in place for the same year (European Commission, 2022).

Although there are many youth mobility projects and initiatives in France, the French government recognises the need to continuously increase the visibility of exchange opportunities for young people (European Commission, 2022). Education institutions, including schools and universities, play a key role in raising awareness of the French youth of the international mobility programmes (European Commission, 2022). The French authorities encourage partnerships between education institutions, mobility organisations and public institutions, emphasising the need to involve students in exchange projects (European Commission, 2022). In addition, internationalisation is promoted in the French education system through the provision of language skills (European Commission, 2022). As given in Figure 104, the share of students in primary education studying one or more foreign languages in France was higher than the EU average over the period of 2012-2021 (*note: see Figure A.27 in Appendices*). After English lessons became mandatory for all students of age 11 and over in France in 2016, the share of students in lower secondary education studying two or more languages became higher in France than the EU average, as presented in Figure 105 (*note: see Figure A.28 in Appendices*) (The Local, 2020). Figure 106 shows that the shares of students in upper secondary education studying one or more and two or more languages were also higher in France than the EU average over the period of 2012-2021 (*note: see Figure A.29 in Appendices*). This indicates that the French students are generally more prepared for youth exchange in terms of the language skills than students from other European countries, which contributes to the promotion of youth mobility, with France having one of the highest levels of outgoing Erasmus+ student mobility over the period of 2017-2021, as given in Figure 102.

### 6.2.4 Youth Employment

In France, policies for youth employment are implemented by the Ministry of Labour and the Ministry of National Education, with the support from other ministries, National Employment Service, France Compétences Agency, local authorities and partner organisations (e.g. International Labour Organisation) (European Commission, 2021). Generally, youth, as an age group, is particularly vulnerable in the French labour market, facing a higher unemployment rate than older age groups (European Commission, 2023). This vulnerability was exacerbated by the Covid-19 pandemic

(European Commission, 2023). Consequently, the French authorities defined a list of priorities to improve youth employability, including the reduction of the youth unemployment rate, decrease in inequality in the labour market, driven by educational attainment and gender differences, and increased support provision during the transition stage between education and employment for youth (European Commission, 2023). Several initiatives have been implemented recently to address the identified priorities in terms of the youth employability in France. Skills Investment Plan was introduced for years 2018-2020 by the Ministry of Labour, aiming to increase the access of low-skilled youth to training opportunities in order to improve their employability in the French labour market (European Commission, 2021). Furthermore, ‘*1 jeune, 1 solution*’ plan was established to support youth during Covid-19 by creating training opportunities, providing career guidance and developing personalised career paths to enter the labour market (European Commission, 2021).

In addition to national policies, youth is also supported through the Youth Guarantee programme in France, which particularly targets youth NEET (European Commission, 2021). The French National Employment Service is tasked with targeting youth NEET and offering them support from the Youth Guarantee (European Commission, 2021). Young people NEET, who agree to participate, are then provided with career counselling, training and financial support, as a part of the Youth Guarantee initiative (European Commission, 2021). Nonetheless, as discussed in section 5.4.2.6, the share of youth aged 15-19 NEET in France was almost equal to the OECD average and the share of youth aged 20-24 NEET in France was higher than the OECD average over the period of 2012-2021 (*note: see Figures A.25-A.26 in Appendices*) (OECD, 2022). This indicates that currently used measures to approach and engage youth NEET are not highly effective in reducing the number of young people, who are not active in education or employment.

General awareness on employment opportunities and support for youth is raised through initiatives like the Youth Guarantee, public events managed by key stakeholders, such as National Employment Service, youth forums and job fairs, information and advice centres, universities, Youth Information Network and digital campaigns, such as the audio-visual campaign with youth role models sharing apprenticeship experiences (European Commission, 2021). Whereas there exists a variety of such information channels in France, with some of them targeting young people with lower skills or worse social backgrounds, vulnerability of youth in employment is still evident in the French labour market, particularly for young females. Figure 142 shows that the employment rate was higher for young males than young females in France over the period of 2012-2021, with the employment rate for the French young women being lower than the EU average for the same period (*note: see Figure A.19 in Appendices*). Moreover, employment for young females was generally lower than for young males for all educational attainment levels in France over the period of 2012-2021, as presented in Figures 139-141, even though the share of young females with tertiary educational attainment was higher in France over the same period, as provided in Figure 10. When comparing to the EU average, employment for young females was also lower for all educational attainment levels in France for years 2012-2021 (*note: see Figures A.20-A.22 in Appendices*).

### **6.2.5 Priority Focus Area**

Following the discussion of youth engagement in the four focus areas in France in sections 6.2.1 – 6.2.4, it can be concluded that the French youth, particularly young females, face challenges in the French labour market. Young women are relatively well represented in the French education system, especially in tertiary education. However, this does not make young females more advantaged in the French labour market, facing lower employment regardless of their educational attainment. Furthermore, the labour force participation rate of the French youth, given in Figure 138, was lower than the EU average for years 2012-2021 (*note: see Figure A.18 in Appendices*), indicating the need to improve youth engagement in the labour market. As previously discussed, current measures of engaging youth NEET should also be strengthened to improve the general participation of both male and female youth in

employment. At the same time, measures implemented to increase youth engagement in volunteering and exchange have proven to be more effective in improving youth participation in these areas. Therefore, youth employment is selected as a priority focus area for France. Targeting young females in this domain is an important step towards improving their position in the French labour market.

## **6.3 Italy**

### **6.3.1 Youth Education**

As of 2020, the Italian youth education policies are handled by the Ministry of Education, which is responsible for policies implemented in schools, and the Ministry of Universities and Research, which manages universities and scientific research programmes (European Commission, 2021). Schools are also managed by the regional government and local municipalities (European Commission, 2021). All governmental activities related to youth education are overseen by the Higher Education Council in Italy to ensure a uniform approach (European Commission, 2021).

Similar to other countries, the concept of lifelong learning is promoted in Italy with the purpose of encouraging the participation of all people, including youth, in education, both formal and non-formal (European Commission, 2022). Provision of equal opportunities in education and increased educational mobility also represent important objectives of youth education policies in Italy (European Commission, 2021).

Over the years, a high number of early school leavers remained a key issue within the Italian education system (European Commission, 2022). Even though numerous steps, including the extension of compulsory education, have been taken to reduce the drop-out rates, the share of early school leavers among youth aged 18-24 was higher in Italy for both young males and females than the EU average over the entire period of 2012-2021, as shown in Figure 19 (*note: see Figure A.3 in Appendices*). To further reduce the drop-out rates, promotion of non-formal education was proposed as an important strategy to encourage the Italian youth to continue their education. Currently, formal education system in Italy is not always effective in providing skills required by employers, therefore, non-formal education becomes an alternative option for students, who leave formal education (European Commission, 2022).

To encourage youth to participate in non-formal education, information on such opportunities is shared by NGOs, youth organisations, training centres and other private stakeholders, aiming to increase youth awareness (European Commission, 2021). National policy-makers are also planning to actively introduce non-formal learning activities in the formal education system to improve youth's employability. Nonetheless, Figure 18 shows that the participation rate of both young males and females in non-formal education in Italy was lower than the EU average over the period of 2012-2021 (*note: see Figure A.2 in Appendices*). This indicates the need to introduce more effective communication channels to increase youth's participation in non-formal education.

### **6.3.2 Youth Volunteering**

In Italy, general volunteering activities are coordinated by the Ministry of Labour and Social Policies (European Commission, 2022). The Department for Youth Policies and the Universal Civic Service is specifically responsible for managing youth volunteering and promoting civic engagement for young people on the governmental level (European Commission, 2022). In addition, the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Universities and Research and regional public authorities are supporting the Ministry of Labour and Social Responsibilities in the creation of frameworks for volunteer skills recognition and promotion of volunteering amongst students (European Commission, 2022).

The main national programme aimed at increasing youth participation in volunteering is the Universal Civic Service, which is managed by the Department for Youth Policies and the Universal Civic Service (European Commission, 2022). The Universal Civic Service serves as a key policy-making tool in the

national strategy on the third sector development, specifically the promotion of volunteering activities (European Commission, 2022). The target groups of the programme include economically disadvantaged youth, youth with lower educational attainment levels and youth NEET (European Commission, 2022).

According to the data provided in Figure 69, the share of female young volunteers in the Universal Civic Service was higher than the share of young male volunteers in 2017 and 2019. Moreover, Figure 70 shows that young volunteers with upper secondary and tertiary educational attainment represented the majority in the Universal Civic Service for the same years. Given that the shares of young females with upper secondary, post-secondary non-tertiary and tertiary educational attainment were higher than the shares of young males in Italy for years 2017 and 2019, as presented in Figures 16 and 17, it can be concluded that female youth is more prone to volunteer in Italy.

Participation of youth in volunteering has been increasing in Italy over the recent years, with the Universal Civic Service continuously growing its capacity (Youth Wiki, 2022). This is also driven by volunteering promotion initiatives, with information provided by the Volunteering Service Centres in schools, the Youth Information Centres, the Eurodesk Italia and other organisations from the third sector, as well as the Department of Youth Policy and the Universal Civic Service itself (European Commission, 2023). Furthermore, one of the key objectives of the Italian government is to introduce a national unified youth platform that would provide an overview of youth opportunities, including volunteering engagement (European Commission, 2023).

### **6.3.3 Youth Exchange**

Youth exchange in Italy is promoted through both the European and the national programmes. The main European programme for youth exchange and mobility implemented in Italy is the Erasmus+ Programme. On the national level, exchange opportunities are provided by the ITACA High School Programme and the National Agency for Youth (European Commission, 2021).

In terms of the Erasmus+ mobility, Italy had more outgoing students than incoming over the years 2017-2021, as provided in Figure 107. When comparing to Finland, France, Luxembourg, Slovakia and Spain, Italy had the second highest numbers of both outgoing and incoming students through Erasmus+ for the same years. This is driven by the high level of youth exchange activity, with 237 Erasmus+ youth mobility projects and 1272 Erasmus+ youth mobility organisations operating in Italy in 2021 (European Commission, 2022).

Nonetheless, majority of youth exchange programmes and initiatives in Italy are oriented towards educational opportunities, as opposed to vocational training and apprenticeships (European Commission, 2021). Whereas there exists a need for a better coordination between companies in different countries in terms of youth exchange, another recommendation is to increase the use of the Erasmus+ language courses to facilitate international mobility (European Commission, 2021). Although the share of students in lower secondary education studying two or more foreign languages was higher in Italy than the EU average for years 2013-2020, as shown in Figure 110, the opposite was true for upper secondary school students, as provided in Figure 111 (*note: see Figures A.28-A.29 in Appendices*). Therefore, improving foreign language skills can be beneficial for youth exchange in Italy, which requires better language focus in formal education and more effective awareness raising initiatives for non-formal education.

### **6.3.4 Youth Employment**

In Italy, youth employment policies are coordinated by the Ministry of Labour and Social Policies and the Ministry of Economic Development, with the support of the National Agency for Active Labour Policies, the National Labour Inspectorate and the National Institute for the Analysis of Public Policies (European Commission, 2022).

Over the years, Italy faced high levels of youth unemployment and reduced activity of youth in the Italian labour market, which was only exacerbated by Covid-19 (European Commission, 2022). The labour force participation rate for youth aged 15-24 in Italy, shown in Figure 149, has been lower than the EU average over the entire period of 2012-2021 (*note: see Figure A.18 in Appendices*). Furthermore, the unemployment rate for both young males and females in Italy has been almost twice as high as the EU average for the same years, with the Italian young women being particularly disadvantaged, as provided in Figure 156 (*note: see Figure A.23 in Appendices*). Young women in Italy are also more impacted by the labour market insecurity and precariousness of employment, with the share of young females with part-time employment being higher than the share of young males, as given in Figure 154, and higher than the EU average for years 2012-2021 (*note: see Figure A.24 in Appendices*).

One of the current issues in the Italian labour market is the lack of growth in the demand for young high-skilled workers, increasing the risk of over-education for youth (European Commission, 2022). Figures 150 and 151 show that employment for youth with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment tends to be greater than for youth with lower educational attainment levels, reducing unemployment and increasing labour market engagement for youth with higher educational attainment levels. Nonetheless, having tertiary education does not necessarily improve employment prospects or guarantee a higher salary in the Italian labour market (European Commission, 2022). This leads to many young graduates, particularly women, agreeing to worse employment conditions or being discouraged from participating in the labour market (European Commission, 2022).

Another key problem in youth employment in Italy is a high number of youth NEET. The shares of both males and females aged 15-24 NEET in Italy have been higher than the OECD average over the entire period of 2012-2021 (*note: see Figures A.25-A.26 in Appendices*). The Youth Guarantee is the main programme supporting the reduction of youth NEET in Italy through career counselling, provision of internships and non-formal training, access to civic service opportunities and youth employment incentives for companies (European Commission, 2022). Nonetheless, Figures 157 and 158 show that the shares of both male and female youth aged 15-19 and 20-24 NEET in Italy increased post-Covid in 2021, indicating the need for stronger policies and more effective measures to reach inactive youth.

In addition to the Youth Guarantee programme, career counselling and guidance services are available for the Italian youth in the Employment Centres and Employment Agencies, as well as universities, which have an important role in facilitating the transition of youth from education to employment (European Commission, 2022). The support for this transition is delivered through the dual learning system, which links educational institutions with employers, with key objectives to reduce unemployment, lower the rates of youth NEET and prevent early school leaving (European Commission, 2022).

Nonetheless, the lack of participation of youth in the labour force, high unemployment rates, particularly for young women, and a growing number of youth NEET in Italy indicate that there is a need for more effective ways to engage youth, including females, in employment.

### **6.3.5 Priority Focus Area**

Following the discussion of youth engagement in the four focus areas in Italy in sections 6.3.1 – 6.3.4, it can be concluded that the activity of the Italian youth, especially young women, in the labour market remains a key challenge. According to Figure 19, the share of young female early leavers from education in Italy was lower than the share of young males for the same period. This is consistent with the generally higher shares of young women with upper secondary, non-tertiary and tertiary educational attainment in Italy over the period of 2012-2021, as given in Figures 16 and 17. As previously discussed in section 6.3.4, there exists a mismatch between the demand for high-skilled workers and the supply of young graduates with higher education in the Italian labour market. Even though young women in Italy are more active in education, this does not translate to a labour market advantage for them.

However, this benefits volunteering engagement, as there are more young women volunteering in the Universal Civic Service, with majority represented by youth with higher educational attainment levels. In terms of the exchange, youth mobility through the Erasmus+ Programme in Italy is one of the highest in the EU, yet it is more oriented towards education than employment. At the same time, young women are facing difficulties in entering the Italian labour market, with a significant share of youth being inactive and not motivated to seek information on employment opportunities and vocational training. Therefore, youth employment is selected as a priority focus area for Italy. Implementing more effective communication channels and providing targeted information can reduce the number of young females NEET and encourage a higher participation of young women in employment in Italy.

## **6.4 Luxembourg**

### **6.4.1 Youth Education**

In Luxembourg, youth education is managed by the Ministry of Education, Children and Youth, which is responsible for school education, and the Ministry of Higher Education and Research, which is responsible for higher education (European Commission, 2022). They are supported by the Ministry of Family Affairs, Integration and the Greater Region and the Ministry of Labour and Employment in the relevant fields of youth education policies (European Commission, 2022).

Currently, the main objectives in terms of the youth education in Luxembourg include increasing the quality of education, actively integrating non-formal education into formal, reducing the drop-out rates and implementing digital tools in education (European Commission, 2022). Furthermore, there exists a need to mitigate the impact of gender, ethnicity and socioeconomic background on education in order to promote equality (European Commission, 2022). In terms of the gender, young women are not underrepresented in the Luxembourgish education, particularly in upper secondary and tertiary, which is also supported by data shown in Figures 23 and 24 (European Commission, 2022). In contrast, young males are defined as the vulnerable group in the Luxembourgish education, being subject to higher drop-outs and lower educational achievements (European Commission, 2022).

Given that a decrease in the number of early leavers from education remains an important goal for the Luxembourgish policy-makers, various measures to combat this issue have been established over the years. Such measures include the introduction of flexible education pathways, prevention of drop-out through supervision, provision of consultations, delivery of workshops, increase in training and internship opportunities in education for higher employability and organisation of non-formal activities (European Commission, 2022). These measures have proven fairly effective, resulting in the general reduction in the drop-out rate in the Luxembourgish education over the recent years (European Commission, 2022). Moreover, Figure 26 shows that the shares of both young male and female early leavers from education in Luxembourg remained lower than the EU average, except for young females in 2021 (*note: see Figure A.3 in Appendices*).

Non-formal education represents an important tool in reducing the number of early leavers. The National Voluntary Service is the main programme in the area of non-formal education in Luxembourg, targeting disadvantaged youth with the goal to motivate early leavers from education to return to the education system (European Commission, 2022). Information on non-formal education opportunities is distributed through a variety of channels in Luxembourg, including the National Youth Service website, the Youth Information Centre and enfancejeunesse.lu website, which is a digital platform offering information on non-formal education in Luxembourg and providing an overview of important youth events (European Commission, 2022). Even though participation of young females in non-formal education in Luxembourg remained lower than the EU average over the period of 2012-2020 (*note: see Figure A.2 in Appendices*), Figure 25 shows a significant increase in participation of young women in non-formal education in Luxembourg in 2021. Generally, participation of both young males and



females in non-formal education in Luxembourg experienced a gradual increase over the recent years, indicating the effectiveness of current awareness initiatives.

### **6.4.2 Youth Volunteering**

Youth volunteering in Luxembourg is mainly managed by the Ministry of Education, Children and Youth through the National Youth Service programme, which is responsible for the execution of the European Solidarity Corps volunteering programme in Luxembourg (European Commission, 2022). Promotion of general volunteering, including amongst youth, in Luxembourg is done by the Ministry of Family Affairs, Integration and the Greater Region (European Commission, 2022). In addition, local volunteering organisations are aiming to engage young volunteers, although regional administration and municipalities are not participating in policy-making for youth volunteering (European Commission, 2022).

No separate national youth volunteering strategy currently exists in Luxembourg, however, youth volunteering is incorporated into the general youth policy strategy, playing a significant role in the overall development of youth engagement (European Commission, 2022). Moreover, the Youth Pact 2017-2020 identifies the promotion of youth participation in formal and non-formal education, as well as volunteering, as a key objective in terms of the youth active citizenship (European Commission, 2022). Awareness on youth volunteering opportunities is raised by the National Youth Service, the Youth Information Centre, the Voluntary Guidance Service, as well as NGOs, volunteering organisations and other stakeholders, such as the National Employment Agency (ADEM), which directs youth to the Voluntary Guidance Service (European Commission, 2023). Nonetheless, no target groups within youth have been defined by the authorities and public agencies for the promotion of youth volunteering opportunities (European Commission, 2022).

Figure 73 shows that there has been a general increase in the number of both formal and informal volunteers in Luxembourg from 2015 to 2021, with 59% of the population actively participating in volunteering in 2021 (TNS Ilres, 2021). However, when asked if they are willing to volunteer in the future, 26% of the sampled Luxembourgish residents answered ‘no’ and 30% of the sampled non-volunteers in Luxembourg answered ‘no’ in 2021, which represents significant parts of the population, when weighted (TNS Ilres, 2021). Out of the sampled Luxembourgish residents, youth aged 16-24 constituted only 11% of residents, who actively participate in volunteering in the youth domain in 2021 (TNS Ilres, 2021). Therefore, there is a need to implement more effective promotion channels that would be tailored to specific groups, such as young women, to increase the general interest of youth in volunteering.

### **6.4.3 Youth Exchange**

Youth exchange initiatives and mobility projects in Luxembourg are managed jointly by the Ministry of Education, Children and Youth and the Ministry of Higher Education and Research (European Commission, 2022). The Erasmus+ Programme is the main youth exchange programme in Luxembourg, locally implemented by the national agency Anefore (European Commission, 2022).

Given that there is a limited number of universities offering tertiary education in the specific fields in Luxembourg, relative youth mobility in proportion to the youth population is significantly higher in Luxembourg than in other EU countries (European Commission, 2022). In 2021, out of 37 Erasmus+ mobility projects, 20 were targeting youth exchange, and, out of 156 Erasmus+ mobility organisations, 130 were represented by youth mobility organisations in Luxembourg. Therefore, the Luxembourgish youth is offered a variety of exchange opportunities related to education, apprenticeships and training, through the Erasmus+ Programme, leading to a higher youth mobility. Furthermore, Figures 114-116 show that the shares of students in primary, lower secondary and upper secondary education studying one or more and two or more languages in Luxembourg were higher than the EU average for years 2013-2020 (*note: see Figures A.27-A.29 in Appendices*). Given a significant language diversity in the

Luxembourgish education system, youth is exceptionally prepared for youth exchange in terms of the foreign language skills, further contributing to a high youth mobility in Luxembourg.

#### **6.4.4 Youth Employment**

In Luxembourg, youth employment is managed by the Ministry of Labour, Employment and the Social and Solidarity Economy and the National Employment Agency (ADEM) (European Commission, 2022). In addition, they are supported by the Ministry of Education, Children and Youth in the implementation of the Youth Guarantee in Luxembourg, the Ministry of the Economy in the entrepreneurial field, the Luxembourg Lifelong Learning Centre in terms of vocational training, as well as the Chamber of Employees, trade unions and regional authorities (European Commission, 2022).

Youth unemployment remains a key issue in the Luxembourgish labour market, with young people having significantly more challenges in securing a job than their adult counterparts, which was only exacerbated during Covid-19 (European Commission, 2022). As displayed in Figure 166, the unemployment rate for young females in Luxembourg was lower than for their male counterparts over the period of 2012-2021, and lower than the EU average for the same years, except for 2019 and 2020 (*note: see Figure A.23 in Appendices*). To address the increasing unemployment and encourage youth to actively seek employment, a number of career guidance and counselling initiatives have been introduced, including the integration of local career services in the National Youth Service and the unification of all career counselling services in one institution, i.e. the House of Guidance (European Commission, 2022). The #YouthYourFuture programme, which provides personalised training and workshops for skills development, the Youth Guarantee programme and the use of employment initiation and employment support contracts for youth by the Employment Fund represent additional employment measures for youth in Luxembourg (European Commission, 2022). Figure 160 shows that, even though the youth labour force participation rate in Luxembourg decreased in 2020 due to Covid-19, it increased to a higher level than in pre-pandemic times in 2021, driven by the improved career counselling opportunities and increased support for youth in terms of the employment.

According to the agencies that forecast labour demand in the Luxembourgish labour market, including the Observatory for Competitiveness and the Study network on the labour market and employment, an increasing demand for high-skilled workforce is expected in the near future, which also applies to youth (European Commission, 2022). This is consistent with employment of both young males and females with tertiary educational attainment being higher in Luxembourg than for their counterparts with lower educational attainment levels over the period of 2012-2021, as provided in Figures 161-163. Given that there were more young females with tertiary educational attainment in Luxembourg than the share of young males for the same years, as shown in Figure 24, it can be concluded that young women remain competitive in the Luxembourgish labour market.

To further address youth inactivity, the Outreach Youth Work programme was implemented in Luxembourg to target youth NEET and provide them with support to return to education or employment (European Commission, 2022). When comparing the latest data on youth NEET in Luxembourg in 2018, the share of youth aged 15-19 and 20-24 in Luxembourg was lower than the OECD average, with the latter group being less active (OECD, 2022). The lack of data on youth NEET in Luxembourg makes it challenging to define trends over time and assess the effectiveness of related policies.

Following the creation of the House of Guidance in 2017, information on career support, guidance and counselling is distributed through this institution, which integrates various career services, including the Career Guidance Service, the National Youth Service and the Centre of psycho-social and educational support (European Commission, 2022). Moreover, secondary schools are responsible for raising awareness of the training paths and helping students to develop useful skills (European Commission, 2022). Additional information on youth employment opportunities is provided on the Youth Information Centre's website (European Commission, 2022).

### 6.4.5 Priority Focus Area

Following the discussion of youth engagement in the four focus areas in Luxembourg in sections 6.4.1 – 6.4.4, it can be concluded that further efforts are required in attracting youth to volunteering. In the Luxembourgish education system, young women are not underrepresented, with young males actually being the vulnerable group. This supports young women in entering the Luxembourgish labour market, with young females with tertiary educational attainment having higher employment than their male counterparts over the period of 2015-2021, with the exception of 2019 and 2021, as provided in Figure 163. In terms of youth exchange, Luxembourg already experiences high levels of mobility and equips youth with sufficient language skills, which contributes to an even greater youth mobility in the future. Even though promotion of youth volunteering is a key objective of the general youth policy in Luxembourg, it is not currently tailored to specific groups, such as young women. Having a more targeted communication can reduce the number of current non-volunteers, increase motivation and ensure that young females, as a target group, have sufficient awareness of youth volunteering opportunities. Therefore, youth volunteering is selected as a priority focus area for Luxembourg.

## 6.5 Slovakia

### 6.5.1 Youth Education

At the national level, youth education policies in Slovakia are coordinated by the Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Sport of the Slovak Republic, which is responsible for both school and university education (European Commission, 2021). At the regional level, youth education is managed by local municipalities in Slovakia (European Commission, 2021).

According to the survey 'It makes sense' (*To dá rozum*), which was conducted in 2020, there exist inequalities in the Slovak education system, with differences in ethnicity and socioeconomic background causing social exclusion for certain groups of youth (European Commission, 2021). In addition to the negative impact on equality in education, such trends can extend social exclusion also to the labour market for vulnerable groups of youth. Other key issues in the Slovak education system identified by youth include the lack of support for development of vocational and social skills, significant financial barriers for educational youth exchange and a mismatch between the current education system and the labour market requirements (European Commission, 2021). This leads to many young people losing motivation and leaving education early in Slovakia. Indeed, Figure 28 shows a decline in the shares of both young males and females with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment in Slovakia from 2015 to 2021. Furthermore, since 2017, the shares of young females with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainment in Slovakia became lower than the EU average, which represents a negative trend for female youth engagement in education (*note: see Figure A.11 in Appendices*). Similar situation is observed for the share of young women with tertiary educational attainment in Slovakia, which was below the EU average in 2020 and 2021, as provided in Figure 29 (*note: see Figure A.1 in Appendices*).

Even though many young people are discouraged from completing their education due to the issues discussed in the previous paragraph, no current national strategy exists to combat early leaving from education in Slovakia (European Commission, 2021). The main reason for it is the fact that the share of both young male and female early leavers from education in Slovakia remained below the EU average for years 2012-2021, as provided in Figure 31 (*note: see Figure A.3 in Appendices*). However, Figure 31 shows that, over the recent years, there were more young male and female early leavers from education in Slovakia than at the start of the given period. Although the introduction of second chance programmes for early leavers is incorporated in the action plan for youth integration in Slovakia, no specific measures are currently put in place to prevent early leave from education (European Commission, 2021). Unlike in other countries, non-formal education is not used to cope with the issue of early leavers, which limits ways to reintegrate youth back into education.

Figure 30 shows that the participation rates of both young males and females in non-formal education in Slovakia generally declined over the recent years, remaining significantly below the EU average over the period of 2012-2021 (*note: see Figure A.2 in Appendices*). This represents a lack of interest and awareness of non-formal education opportunities in Slovakia, particularly for young women. Currently, information on such opportunities is shared through the Information and Counselling Centres at the Offices of Labour, Social Affairs and Family, career advisors in vocational centres, Youth Council of Slovakia, Slovak Youth Institute and the Association of the Information and Counselling Youth Centres in the Slovak Republic (European Commission, 2021) (European Commission, 2021). Nonetheless, very low rates of participation in non-formal education show the need for more effective measures on increasing the interest of young people in this field and raising awareness of such opportunities.

### **6.5.2 Youth Volunteering**

In Slovakia, youth volunteering is overseen by the Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Sport of the Slovak Republic and the Ministry of Interior of the Slovak Republic (European Commission, 2021). The ministries are supported by the Platform of Volunteer Centres and Organisations and Youth Council of Slovakia in coordinating youth volunteering initiatives and encouraging active citizenship (European Commission, 2021).

In spite of the fact that there is no national strategy for youth volunteering in Slovakia, promotion of youth volunteering is discussed as an important objective both in the Strategy for Youth 2014-2020 and the Strategy of Civil Society Development in Slovakia (European Commission, 2021). To achieve this strategic objective, the Youth Strategy emphasises the need to target specific groups of youth and address their needs, to integrate volunteering into formal education and to raise awareness of youth volunteering opportunities (European Commission, 2021). These measures target youth aged 30 or less in Slovakia, focusing on the needs of disadvantaged young people (European Commission, 2021). Educational attainment, health conditions, socioeconomic background and geographic location are defined as potential factors leading to the creation of disadvantaged youth groups, however, gender is not recognised as such factor (European Commission, 2021). Figures 84 and 85 show that majority of the sampled young females were involved in formal and informal volunteering in Slovakia in 2017, in contrast to young males.

General awareness of youth volunteering opportunities is raised through activities of the Slovak Youth Institute, regional Volunteering Centres, the Platform of Volunteer Centres and Organisations and the Slovak Youth Council (European Commission, 2023). Information on youth volunteering in different regions is also available on a variety of the online platforms in Slovakia (European Commission, 2023). In addition, campaigns like Volunteer Days, Volunteer Market and the 72 Hour project are organised to attract youth's attention to volunteering (European Commission, 2023). Following active promotion of youth volunteering in Slovakia over recent years, there was an increase in the participation of young people aged 15-30 in formal and informal volunteering from 2011 to 2019, as given in Figure 83.

### **6.5.3 Youth Exchange**

The main programme for youth exchange implemented in Slovakia is the Erasmus+ Programme, which is administered by the Slovak Academic Association for International Cooperation in terms of educational mobility (European Commission, 2021). Additional exchange and mobility scholarship programmes in Slovakia are the National Scholarship program of the Slovak Republic, Visegrad Scholarship Programme, Central European exchange programme for university studies and Action Austria – Slovakia (European Commission, 2021).

Youth exchange is also recognised as a key strategic objective by the Strategy of the Slovak Republic for Youth 2014-2020, focusing on fostering the international coordination and quality opportunities to promote youth mobility in Slovakia (European Commission, 2021). As of 2021, there were 47 Erasmus+ youth mobility projects and 231 Erasmus+ youth mobility organisations in Slovakia

(European Commission, 2022). Furthermore, there were 22 Erasmus+ youth cooperation projects and 74 Erasmus+ youth cooperation organisations in Slovakia in 2021 (European Commission, 2022). Strategic focus on youth exchange resulted in the growth of both incoming and outgoing Erasmus+ students in Slovakia for years 2017-2019, as provided in Figure 117. Although student mobility in Slovakia was negatively impacted by Covid-19, it started to increase in post-pandemic times in 2021.

In terms of the language skills for youth exchange, Figure 121 shows that the shares of students in upper secondary education studying one or more and two or more foreign languages in Slovakia were higher than the EU average for years 2013-2020 (*note: see Figure A.29 in Appendices*). Therefore, upon completing the compulsory secondary education, the Slovak students are prepared for youth exchange in terms of the foreign language skills, which contributes to the promotion of mobility.

#### **6.5.4 Youth Employment**

In Slovakia, youth employment policies are coordinated jointly by the Ministry of Labour, Social Affairs, and Family of the Slovak Republic, the Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Sport of the Slovak Republic, the Ministry of Economy of the Slovak Republic and regional authorities (European Commission, 2021). The Youth Guarantee programme is also implemented in Slovakia to ensure sufficient employment opportunities and support for youth (European Commission, 2021). In Slovakia, the programme is based on defining the target groups and their needs, preventing youth inactivity, increasing awareness, using targeted information channels, providing individual career guidance and incentivising employers to hire youth (European Commission, 2021).

High level of unemployment presents a key issue currently faced in Slovakia, with disadvantaged groups including youth, women and low-skilled workers (European Commission, 2021). This makes young females with lower educational attainment particularly vulnerable in the Slovak labour market. Majority of challenges related to youth unemployment are linked to the issues in the education system and the discouragement of youth to participate in formal and non-formal educational activities (European Commission, 2021). Figure 176 shows that the unemployment rate for young females was higher than for young males in Slovakia for years 2014-2021. Furthermore, the unemployment rate for young females in Slovakia was higher than the EU average for years 2012-2021 (*note: see Figure A.23 in Appendices*) (European Commission, 2021).

There exists a variety of career counselling initiatives to support youth employment in Slovakia. The Ministry of Labour, Social Affairs, and Family of the Slovak Republic itself provides information on employment and education opportunities (European Commission, 2021). Moreover, the ministries organise career fairs and information fairs, as well as support youth in communicating with employers and creating individual employment plans (European Commission, 2021). Additional guidance on youth employment is provided by Youth Information Centres and NGOs (European Commission, 2021). National projects like the Development of Secondary Vocational Education and Dual Education and Enhancement of Quality and Attractiveness to Vocational Education and Training are implemented to promote lifelong learning opportunities and motivate youth to acquire new skills (European Commission, 2021) (European Commission, 2021).

#### **6.5.5 Priority Focus Area**

Following the discussion of youth engagement in the four focus areas in Slovakia in sections 6.5.1 – 6.5.4, it can be concluded that attracting youth to formal and non-formal education is critical to improve the general youth engagement in social initiatives and active citizenship. One of the key goals in terms of the promotion of youth volunteering in Slovakia is to integrate it in education. However, this will not be effective if more young people continue to leave education and do not engage in non-formal educational activities. Furthermore, the effectiveness of offering language skills for youth exchange and promoting mobility for students is also dependent on the participation of youth in education in Slovakia. Given that the employment rate for young females is higher if they have upper secondary or tertiary

educational attainment in Slovakia, as provided in Figures 171 and 172, participation of female youth in education should be further encouraged to increase their employability. A decrease in the number of early leavers from education and acquisition of new skills through non-formal education and training will reduce disadvantages currently faced by young women. Therefore, youth education is selected as a priority focus area for Slovakia. Having targeted communication to increase awareness of young women of educational opportunities, particularly non-formal, will prevent them from not being active in education and employment and benefit the engagement of young females in other areas, such as volunteering, exchange and employment, in Slovakia.

## **6.6 Spain**

### **6.6.1 Youth Education**

Given that Spain is a decentralised state, the Ministry of Education and Vocational training oversees youth education policies at a national level, whereas public authorities in the Autonomous Regions have the power to manage educational systems locally (European Commission, 2021). Therefore, the ministries of the Autonomous Regions can make amendments to the educational curriculum and introduce new forms of educational activities (European Commission, 2021).

One of the main issues currently faced by the Spanish education system is the number of early school leavers and high drop-out rates. As provided in Figure 38, the shares of both young male and female early leavers from education in Spain remained higher than the EU average over the period of 2012-2021 (*note: see Figure A.3 in Appendices*). Nonetheless, the shares of young male and female early leavers from education in Spain experienced a declining trend throughout the given period, indicating an improvement in addressing this challenge. Furthermore, young males were determined to be the target group, as there are more male early leavers from education in Spain, which is also shown in Figure 38 (European Commission, 2021). This is consistent with the fact that the shares of young women with upper secondary, post-secondary non-tertiary and tertiary educational attainment were higher than the shares of young men in Spain for years 2012-2021, as given in Figures 35 and 36.

A high number of early school leavers in Spain has been addressed through the introduction of vocational training, as an alternative educational pathway, unification of the educational content across the country, extension of the time when a student needs to make a career choice and allowing teachers' opinions to influence the option to repeat grades for students, as opposed to solely relying on academic achievement (European Commission, 2021). Moreover, the Educational Support Project created by the National Centre of Innovation and Education Research in Spain aims to identify the target students with special needs, such as students with disabilities, and support such students throughout their education to facilitate it and prevent drop-out (European Commission, 2021). The Youth Guarantee programme, which is also implemented in Spain, offers second-chance programmes for early leavers, who would like to re-enter education (European Commission, 2021).

Although non-formal and vocational education are used to decrease the number of early school leavers, these measures are not established at a national level and vary for different regions (European Commission, 2021). Nonetheless, participation in non-formal education is encouraged at local levels, with regional administration implementing initiatives to raise awareness of such opportunities (European Commission, 2021). Information on non-formal education and training is shared through the TodoFP portal and the Public Service of State Employment at a national scale (European Commission, 2021). Locally, awareness is raised through the websites of relevant ministries and departments of the Autonomous Regions (European Commission, 2021). In addition, the Youth Institute (INJUVE) acts as the main stakeholder in terms of raising awareness of non-formal education opportunities in Spain (European Commission, 2021). It is responsible for managing the Network of Youth Information Centres and organising events like the University of Youth and Development to attract the Spanish youth to non-formal learning (European Commission, 2021). Given that participation of young males

and females in non-formal education in Spain has been higher than the EU average over the period of 2012-2021, as given in Figure 37 (*note: see Figure A.2 in Appendices*), it can be concluded that awareness initiatives in Spain are relatively effective in attracting youth to non-formal education.

### **6.6.2 Youth Volunteering**

In Spain, general volunteering is managed by the Ministry of Social Rights and 2030 Agenda, which also includes youth volunteering (European Commission, 2021). The ministry is advised by the State Council of Non-Governmental Organisations for Social Action, which supports developments in the field of social policies (European Commission, 2021). In terms of the youth volunteering, the Youth Institute (INJUVE) is responsible for promoting active citizenship and encouraging youth to participate in volunteering in Spain (European Commission, 2021).

There is no national strategy on youth volunteering in Spain, however, an increase in youth volunteering is a key strategic objective of the Youth Strategy 2020. Important goals related to this objective include the promotion of youth volunteering related to ICT, higher social inclusion, provision of equal volunteering opportunities for youth, gender equality in volunteering and strong collaboration with NGOs in the field of youth volunteering (European Commission, 2021).

The Youth Institute (INJUVE) is responsible for raising awareness of youth volunteering opportunities in Spain, with its key volunteering programme – the International Volunteer Fields – targeting youth aged 18-30 in Spain (European Commission, 2021). In addition, information on youth volunteering is shared by the Spanish Agency of International Development Cooperation and the websites of the Volunteering Platform and the Spanish Association of Foundations. At the regional level, information is provided through the websites of platforms, volunteering organisations and NGOs in the corresponding Autonomous Region (European Commission, 2023). These awareness initiatives have been relatively effective, as the share of young volunteers aged 14-24 increased in Spain over the period of 2019-2021, in spite of Covid-19, as given in Figure 92. However, youth aged 14-24 remained the least active age group in terms of NGO collaboration over the period of 2017-2021, as provided in Figure 92. Therefore, a more targeted approach should be adopted by the Spanish NGOs to attract youth to volunteering. Furthermore, gender segregation is present in volunteering in Spain, with either males or females dominating specific sectors and volunteering activities (European Commission, 2021). Nonetheless, women are generally more active in volunteering in Spain, including young women, which is also supported by data shown in Figure 93 (European Commission, 2021).

### **6.6.3 Youth Exchange**

The main youth exchange programme in Spain is the Erasmus+ Programme, which is coordinated by the Spanish Service for Internationalisation of Education and the Spanish National Agency (European Commission, 2021). Generally, Erasmus+ youth mobility in Spain remains one of the highest in the programme, with incoming Erasmus+ student mobility being the highest in Spain among the six selected countries over the period of 2017-2021, as shown in Figure 122. Moreover, as of 2021, there were 272 Erasmus+ youth mobility projects and 1390 Erasmus+ youth mobility organisations in Spain (European Commission, 2022). In contrast to other countries, youth exchange through the Erasmus+ Programme in Spain is active not only in the field of formal education, but also in employment, volunteering and non-formal education areas (European Commission, 2021). This is driven by the extensive support for youth mobility in Spain, including the Youth Mobility Plan of the Chambers of Commerce, the Youth Programme and the Erasmus+ Programme Youth in Action (European Commission, 2021).

Youth exchange programmes are also present at the regional level in the Autonomous Regions, which offer cross-border mobility opportunities for youth (European Commission, 2021). These include exchange opportunities in non-formal education and volunteering fields for youth, with local authorities providing advice and support on the matter (European Commission, 2021). In addition, individual

universities offer exchange programmes for students through their agreements with other institutions (European Commission, 2021).

When looking at the language skills, Figures 125 and 126 show that the shares of students in lower secondary and upper secondary education studying two or more foreign languages were lower in Spain the EU average over the period of 2013-2020 (*note: see Figures A.28-A.29 in Appendices*). Furthermore, the share of students in upper secondary education studying one or more foreign languages was lower in Spain the EU average over the period of 2013-2020 (*note: see Figure A.29 in Appendices*). Therefore, additional efforts are required to improve foreign language skills and promote outgoing youth mobility in Spain.

#### **6.6.4 Youth Employment**

At the national level, youth employment policies are coordinated by the Ministry of Labour and Social Economy, which also manages the implementation of the Youth Guarantee and the Youth Employment Initiative in Spain (European Commission, 2021). The ministry is supported by the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training and the Ministry of Finance (European Commission, 2021). At the regional level, youth employment policies are overseen by the relevant departments of the Autonomous Regions administration (European Commission, 2021).

In 2017, the National Reform Plan was implemented in Spain, defining new strategic objectives for the improvement of the general employment, including youth employment (European Commission, 2021). Such objectives include the facilitation of re-entry into the labour market for inactive and unemployed youth, employability support for disadvantaged youth and provision of training opportunities to improve the skillsets of the Spanish youth (European Commission, 2021). The six focus areas of the strategy are “career guidance, education, job opportunities, equal access to employment and improvement of the institutional framework” (European Commission, 2021).

In spite of the efforts to increase youth employability in Spain, youth unemployment remains a significant issue, driven by the high level of inactivity of youth in the labour market, which became even greater after Covid-19 (European Commission, 2021). Figure 180 shows that the labour force participation rate for youth in Spain experienced a downward trend throughout the period of 2012-2021, with the sharpest drop taking place during the pandemic in 2020. The unemployment rate for young females in Spain was higher than for young males for years 2019-2021, as provided in Figure 187, which reflects the vulnerability of young women in the labour market. Furthermore, the unemployment rate for young females in Spain was more than two times higher than the EU average over the entire period of 2012-2021 (*note: see Figure A.23 in Appendices*).

The findings of the Youth and Labour Market Report 2019 showed that majority of unemployed young people in Spain have lower educational attainment levels, which implies that having higher education increases the chances for youth to enter the Spanish labour market (European Commission, 2021). This is also supported by data provided in Figures 181-183, which indicate that employment was higher for young males and females with higher educational attainment levels. When comparing young males and females with primary and lower secondary and upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary educational attainments, Figures 181 and 182 show that employment was lower for young women over the period of 2012-2021. Even though employment for young women with tertiary educational attainment in Spain was higher than for their female counterparts with other educational attainment levels for the given period, tertiary educational attainment did not give young females a clear advantage in the Spanish labour market, as shown in Figure 183. Moreover, employment for young women with tertiary educational attainment in Spain declined for years 2018-2020 and remained lower than for their male counterparts.

A high level of youth inactivity in the labour market causes the share of youth aged 20-24 NEET in Spain to be significantly higher than the OECD average over the period of 2012-2021 (OECD, 2022).



Nonetheless, the share of young males and females aged 15-19 NEET in Spain experienced a declining trend, except during Covid-19, as shown in Figure 188, due to the reduction in the number of early school leavers.

In addition to the Youth Guarantee, the general youth employment support is provided by the Employment Public Services in Spain, with career counselling opportunities available both in-person in the employment offices and online through the Employment Website (European Commission, 2021). Such counselling services target youth NEET, early leavers from education, low-skilled youth and disadvantaged youth (European Commission, 2021). Career guidance includes activities like individual CV development, information on the demand of the Spanish labour market and advice on career pathways (European Commission, 2021). Moreover, the Strategy for Entrepreneurship and Youth Employment aims to increase the availability of career advice and training opportunities for youth, as well as create a stronger network of young employees and entrepreneurs in Spain (European Commission, 2021).

One of the key current debates on youth employment in Spain is the need to create more targeted youth employment policies, which would focus on gender differences and address vulnerability of the specific groups within youth (European Commission, 2021). Another challenge that should be addressed is job insecurity for youth in the Spanish labour market related to a high number of short-term or part-time jobs (European Commission, 2021). As shown in Figure 185, the share of part-time employment for young females in Spain was higher than for young males and was higher than the EU average over the period of 2012-2021 (*note: see Figure A.24 in Appendices*), making young women more insecure in the Spanish labour market.

### **6.6.5 Priority Focus Area**

Following the discussion of youth engagement in the four focus areas in Spain in sections 6.6.1 – 6.6.4, it can be concluded that there exists a need for a more targeted approach to youth employment. The number of early leavers from education decreased in recent years, with young females being more engaged in education in Spain than young males. Having a higher educational attainment increases the likelihood of young people to volunteer in Spain, as given in Figures 95 and 96. This is beneficial for youth volunteering, as young women have higher educational attainment levels and are more engaged in volunteering and NGO collaboration in Spain. In terms of youth exchange, Spain has an extensive number of mobility projects and a high volume of outgoing and incoming youth mobility. Language skills provided in education to the Spanish students should be improved in order to further increase outgoing mobility in Spain, however, this concerns educational reforms, as opposed to adjustment of communication channels. Although young women in Spain tend to have higher educational attainment levels, this does not translate into a significant advantage for them in the Spanish labour market. Hence, increasing participation of young females in education will not necessarily solve the issue of youth inactivity in the labour market. A more targeted approach is needed to reduce the inactivity of young women in the labour market and attract them to employment opportunities in Spain. Therefore, youth employment is selected as a priority focus area for Spain. Having a targeted communication to increase awareness of young women of employment opportunities is also aligned with the current focus of the Spanish authorities on designing gender-specific youth employment policies.

## 7. Culture

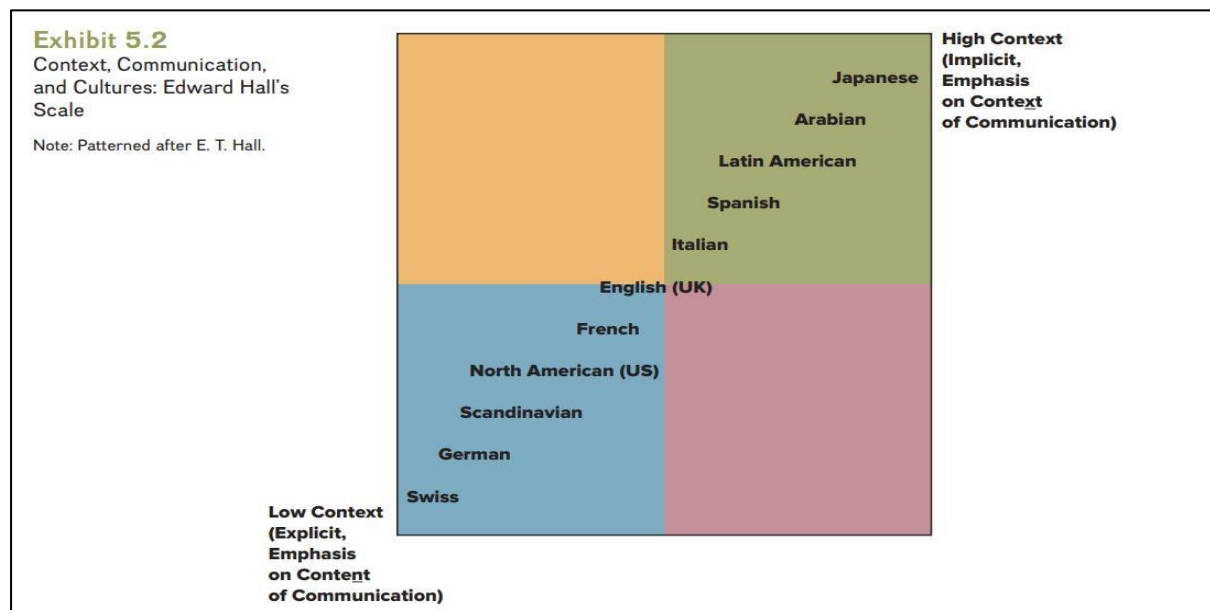
This section aims to explore the cultural factors for the six selected countries and identify their impact on communication. Such factors are evaluated using the 6-D Model, which is based on the Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions Theory of Geert Hofstede (1980) (CFI, 2022). Data on the estimated 6-D Model scores for each country is provided by Hofstede Insights. In addition, several cultural dimensions are analysed using Edward Hall's cultural framework (1976) to determine whether a country exhibits a low-context or a high-context culture (Würtz, 2005). Table 1 below contains the definition for each cultural dimension of the 6-D Model, as provided by Hofstede Insights (Hofstede Insights, 2023):

Cultural Dimension	Hofstede Insights' Definition
<b>Power Distance</b>	"The extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organisations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally"
<b>Individualism</b>	"The degree of interdependence a society maintains among its members"
<b>Masculinity</b>	"What motivates people, wanting to be the best (Masculine) or liking what you do (Feminine)"
<b>Uncertainty Avoidance</b>	"The extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by ambiguous or unknown situations and have created beliefs and institutions that try to avoid these"
<b>Long Term Orientation</b>	"How society has to maintain some links with its own past while dealing with the challenges of the present and future"
<b>Indulgence</b>	"The extent to which people try to control their desires and impulses"

*Table 1. Definitions for six cultural dimensions of the 6-D Model, according to Hofstede Insights.*

*Note: Data adapted from: "Country Comparison" by Hofstede Insights, 2023, (<https://www.hofstede-insights.com/country-comparison/>). (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Copyright 2023 by Hofstede Insights.*

Figures 191 and 192 below show Hall's scale for low-context and high-context cultures and a summary of the cultural factors for information-oriented and relationship-oriented cultures:



*Figure 191. Edward Hall's scale for low-context and high-context cultures.*

Note: Data adapted from: “Chapter 5 – Culture, Management Style, and Business Systems. International Marketing 18<sup>th</sup> Edition” by P. R. Cateora, R. B. Money, M. C. Gilly and J. L. Graham, 2020, (<https://www.hofstede-insights.com/country-comparison/>). (Cateora, Money, Gilly, & Graham, 2020). Copyright 2020 by McGraw-Hill Education.

<b>Exhibit 5.8</b> <b>Dimensions of Culture:</b> <b>A Synthesis</b>	<b>Information-Oriented (IO)</b> Low context Individualism Low power distance Bribery less common Low distance from English Linguistic directness Monochronic time Internet Focus on the foreground Competition	<b>Relationship-Oriented (RO)</b> High context Collectivism High power distance (including gender) Bribery more common* High distance from English Linguistic indirectness Polychronic time Face-to-face Background Reduce transaction costs
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\*We note that Singapore, Hong Kong, Japan, and Chile do not fit all the rules here. Most would agree that all four are relationship-oriented cultures.

Figure 192. A summary of cultural factors for information-oriented and relationship-oriented cultures.

Note: Data adapted from: “Chapter 5 – Culture, Management Style, and Business Systems. International Marketing 18<sup>th</sup> Edition” by P. R. Cateora, R. B. Money, M. C. Gilly and J. L. Graham, 2020, (<https://www.hofstede-insights.com/country-comparison/>). (Cateora, Money, Gilly, & Graham, 2020). Copyright 2020 by McGraw-Hill Education.

## 7.1 Finland

### 7.1.1 Hofstede Indices

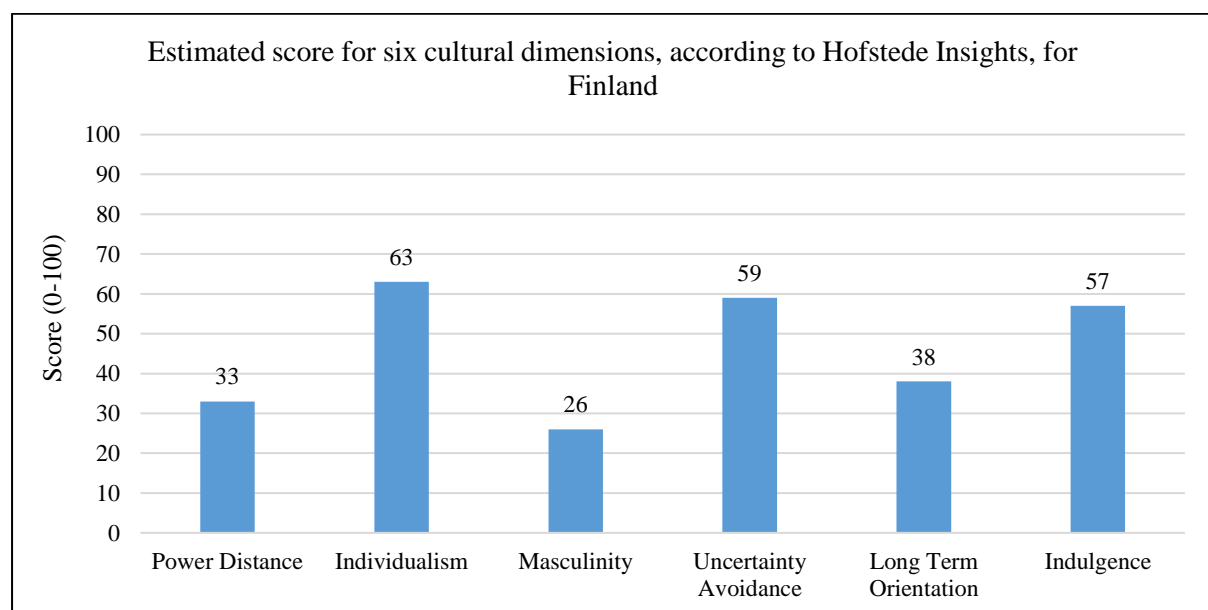


Figure 193. Estimated score for six cultural dimensions, according to Hofstede Insights, for Finland.

Note: Data adapted from: “Country Comparison” by Hofstede Insights, 2023, (<https://www.hofstede-insights.com/country-comparison/finland/>). (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Copyright 2023 by Hofstede Insights.

#### 7.1.1.1 Power Distance

As shown in Figure 193, Finland’s estimated score for Power Distance dimension is 33, which is a low score (Hofstede Insights, 2023). This implies that the Finnish society strongly believes in equality and trust within power structures and organisations (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Countries with low scores for

Power Distance dimension exhibit decentralised power, direct communication and participative leadership style (Hofstede Insights, 2023).

#### **7.1.1.2 Individualism**

For Individualism, Finland has an estimated score of 63, as provided in Figure 193. This indicates that Finns represent an individualist society, where social networks are limited to family members and close friends, as opposed to large groups, with individuals not easily influenced by such networks (Hofstede Insights, 2023). According to Hofstede Insights, business relationships in individualist societies are driven by mutual advantage (Hofstede Insights, 2023).

#### **7.1.1.3 Masculinity**

As presented in Figure 193, an estimated Masculinity score for Finland is 26. This low score in Masculinity dimension implies that the Finnish society is feminine, with success defined by high quality of life, as opposed to individual achievement and competitiveness (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Therefore, Finns prioritise equality and inclusiveness in society and are driven by flexible working conditions and ability to reach an understanding (Hofstede Insights, 2023).

#### **7.1.1.4 Uncertainty Avoidance**

Finland has an estimated score of 59 for Uncertainty Avoidance, as given in Figure 193, which indicates that Finns value certainty and might feel uncomfortable in uncertain environments (Hofstede Insights, 2023). In cultures with high scores for Uncertainty Avoidance, people tend to establish social frameworks and rules, which emphasise stability and create a solid foundation for secure work conditions (Hofstede Insights, 2023).

#### **7.1.1.5 Long Term Orientation**

For Long Term Orientation, Finland has an estimated score of 38, as provided in Figure 193, which implies that the Finnish society is normative (Hofstede Insights, 2023). This means that Finns appreciate their traditions and uphold social standards. Furthermore, normative societies tend to prioritise achievement of short-term results, as opposed to long-term outcomes (Hofstede Insights, 2023).

#### **7.1.1.6 Indulgence**

Figure 193 shows that Finland has an estimated score of 56 for Indulgence, which makes it an indulgent country (Hofstede Insights, 2023). This indicates that Finns value their leisure and invest time in activities that they consider to be fun (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Moreover, indulgent cultures tend to showcase optimistic attitudes and adopt a positive approach in life (Hofstede Insights, 2023).

### **7.1.2 Cultural Dimensions**

In Finland, formal communication style is preferred to informal, with the content of communication being precise and relevant (Commisceo Global, 2020). In terms of linguistic directness, Finns prioritise direct communication, which is succinct and focused on the matter, paying attention to the content of communication instead of the context (Cateora, Money, Gilly, & Graham, 2020). Therefore, the Finnish culture is a low-context culture, similar to Scandinavian countries (Cateora, Money, Gilly, & Graham, 2020). This implies that Finns focus on ensuring that the message is delivered to the recipient in a concise, clear matter instead of focusing on potential implications of such directness and formality for relationships (Cateora, Money, Gilly, & Graham, 2020). Generally, Finns are determined to maintain relationships in the long-run, however, they do not prioritise this in business, giving more attention to actually carrying out their tasks (Commisceo Global, 2020). In terms of the modes of communication, Finns find online communication, such as e-mailing, convenient and do not place high importance on face-to-face communication for business matters.

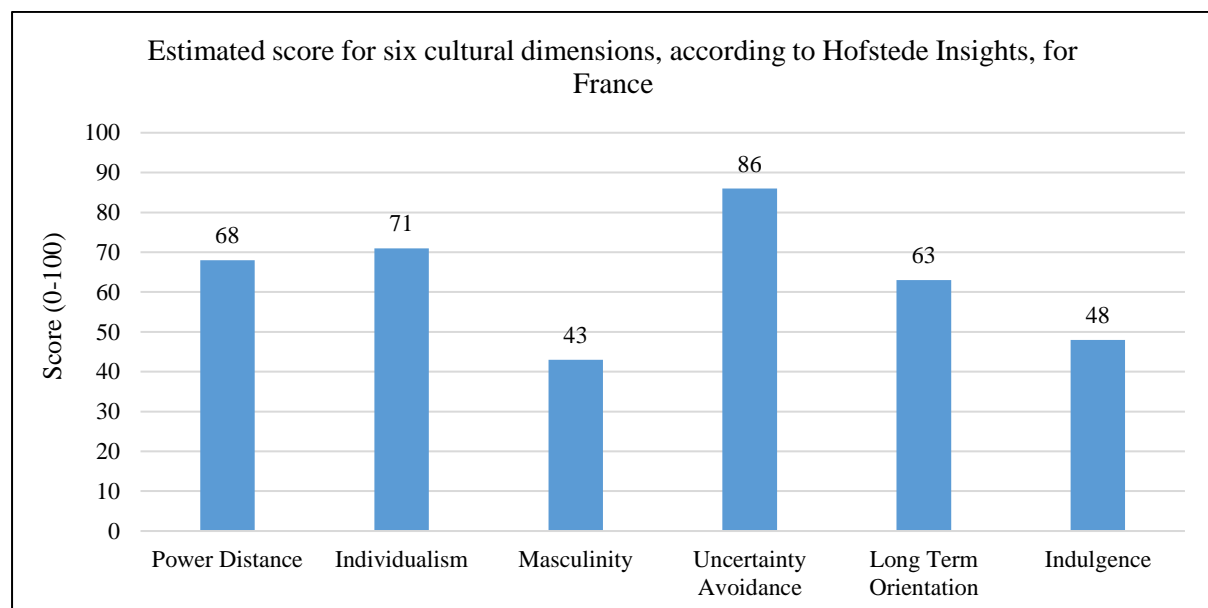
Overall, the Finnish culture is low-context, individualist, as discussed in section 7.1.1.2, has low Power Distance, as provided in section 7.1.1.1., and showcases preference for direct, formal communication, with a focus on the actual content and the ‘foreground’ of the message, without the need for face-to-face meetings. Therefore, it can be concluded that the Finnish culture is information-oriented. According to Hall’s framework, this implies that Finns value coherence, efficiency and productivity, also in communication.

### 7.1.3 Summary

In terms of the implications of the Finnish culture for communication, low Power Distance creates trust in information distributed by the public authorities and representative agencies, as well as relevant organisations. Equality is highly important for Finns due to low Power Distance and a feminine culture, therefore, equal access to opportunities should be emphasised in order to drive youth engagement in volunteering. Information on such opportunities should be direct, formal and concise to increase communicational efficiency, yet detailed enough to ensure awareness and avoid discouragement of youth due to uncertainty. Furthermore, it should highlight flexible conditions and short-term benefits to increase the interest of youth in volunteering engagement, which is driven by a feminine culture and low Long Term Orientation. High Indulgence indicates the need to showcase the aspects of fun and enjoyability of volunteering opportunities to attract the Finnish youth. Finally, the Finnish culture being information-oriented implies that Finns value their time and appreciate efficiency, therefore, the use of effective digital communication tools is necessary to engage the Finnish youth in volunteering.

## 7.2 France

### 7.2.1 Hofstede Indices



*Figure 194. Estimated score for six cultural dimensions, according to Hofstede Insights, for France.*

*Note: Data adapted from: “Country Comparison” by Hofstede Insights, 2023, (<https://www.hofstede-insights.com/country-comparison/france/>). (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Copyright 2023 by Hofstede Insights.*

#### 7.2.1.1 Power Distance

In terms of Power Distance, an estimated score for France is 68, as given in Figure 194. This is driven by the centralisation of power in France, which is present both in the governmental structures and individual organisations (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Consequently, the French society accepts the existence of inequality, which is reflected in the strong presence of hierarchies (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Furthermore, inequality is generated through benefits and privileges, which are only accessible

to people with specific work positions, educational attainment levels and social backgrounds (Hofstede Insights, 2023).

#### **7.2.1.2 Individualism**

Similar to Finland, France represents a country with an individualist society with an estimated score of 71 for Individualism, as provided in Figure 194. According to Hofstede Insights, having high Power Distance and an individualist society is relatively uncommon and can be somewhat contradictory (Hofstede Insights, 2023). In France, the influence of family and close social networks is stronger than in other individualist societies, with opinions of older people being respected due to high Power Distance (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Furthermore, a lack of trust in power structures creates a belief, especially amongst the French youth, that change is only possible through strikes and rebellious actions rather than dialogue (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Being an individualist culture, the French are mainly driven by self-motivation and personal values (Hofstede Insights, 2023).

#### **7.2.1.3 Masculinity**

Figure 194 shows that France has an estimated score of 43 for Masculinity, which makes it a feminine culture (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Nonetheless, according to Hofstede Insights, the extent of cultural masculinity differs for various social classes in France, with higher social classes being more feminine and middle and lower social classes (e.g. the working class) being more masculine (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Such division has not been observed in the 6-D Models of other countries (Hofstede Insights, 2023). This shows that upper class in France is more driven by high quality of life, which defines success, whereas middle and lower classes in France feel successful when they achieve something and become better than their peers (Hofstede Insights, 2023).

#### **7.2.1.4 Uncertainty Avoidance**

France has an estimated score of 86 for Uncertainty Avoidance, as given in Figure 194. This implies that the French do not feel comfortable in uncertain situations and would like to have clarity and stability in their lives (Hofstede Insights, 2023). For example, the French would prefer to be aware of the situation and have a full visibility of the needed information prior to starting a work meeting (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Having high Power Distance, an individualist society and high Uncertainty Avoidance simultaneously means that, although rules and social norms are required to be in place, they are not necessarily followed by all representatives of the society (Hofstede Insights, 2023).

#### **7.2.1.5 Long Term Orientation**

For Long Term Orientation, France has an estimated score of 63, as presented in Figure 194, which makes the French society pragmatic (Hofstede Insights, 2023). This indicates that the French respect traditions, but would be willing to adjust them according to new developments (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Furthermore, pragmatic societies tend to focus on achieving long-term results and show persistence in doing so (Hofstede Insights, 2023).

#### **7.2.1.6 Indulgence**

Figure 194 shows that France has an estimated score of 48 for Indulgence. Although the score is close to the middle, it still leans more towards a restrained culture than an indulgent culture (Hofstede Insights, 2023). For France, this implies that the French have a fairly high control over their impulses and prioritise other aspects of life above leisure activities. Together with high Uncertainty Avoidance, this means that the French tend to have a more structured approach to life, as opposed to relaxed (Hofstede Insights, 2023).

### **7.2.2 Cultural Dimensions**

Similar to Finland, formal communication dominates in France, with the French placing a high importance on formality, professional courtesy and correct use of business titles (Scroope, 2017). In

addition, the French are direct and focus on delivering the content of communication, as opposed to the context (Cateora, Money, Gilly, & Graham, 2020). Consequently, the French culture was determined to be low-context by Hall, however, the importance of communicational context is higher in France than in other countries with low-context cultures (Cateora, Money, Gilly, & Graham, 2020). In terms of the modes of communication, face-to-face communication is relatively important in France for specific business matters, however, online communication is still more convenient, hence widely used by the French (Cultural Differences, n.d.). Moreover, separation of business and personal relationships is important in France, yet having a solid professional relationship is necessary for business partnerships (Passport to Trade 2.0, n.d.).

Overall, the French culture is low-context, individualist, as provided in section 7.2.1.2, with linguistically direct and formal communication, which emphasises the content and the ‘foreground’ of the message. Therefore, it can be concluded that the French culture is information-oriented like the Finnish culture. Nevertheless, there is high Power Distance in France, as discussed in section 7.2.1.1, and relationships still represent a substantial part of the business. Hence, the French culture is information-oriented, with some elements of a relationship-oriented culture (Cateora, Money, Gilly, & Graham, 2020). Even though efficiency and productivity in communication is important in France, the aspect of human connection is also relevant (What is Culture?, n.d.).

### **7.2.3 Summary**

In terms of the implications of the French culture for communication, relying solely on communication from public authorities is not effective, as there is a lack of trust in power structures, given high Power Distance in France. Instead of targeting only youth, sharing information on youth employment opportunities with wider audience can raise awareness amongst young people in France, as families and networks can influence the French youth due to high Power Distance. In terms of the content, information on youth employment opportunities should be direct, formal and succinct, but also be sufficient to positively influence the decision-making of the French youth because of high Uncertainty Avoidance. Moreover, such opportunities should emphasise the possibility of personal achievement and the potential to become more competitive due to high Masculinity for middle class in France, as well as long-term career and personal benefits because of high Long Term Orientation. Using digital communication channels is important to increase communicational efficiency in France, given that the French culture is information-oriented and values productivity. Nevertheless, information on youth employment opportunities should showcase company values. Given that the French culture is individualist, with youth motivated by personal values, and exhibits elements of a relationship-oriented culture, it is important to emphasise how organisational values align with personal values to increase youth’s interest in employment.

## 7.3 Italy

### 7.3.1 Hofstede Indices

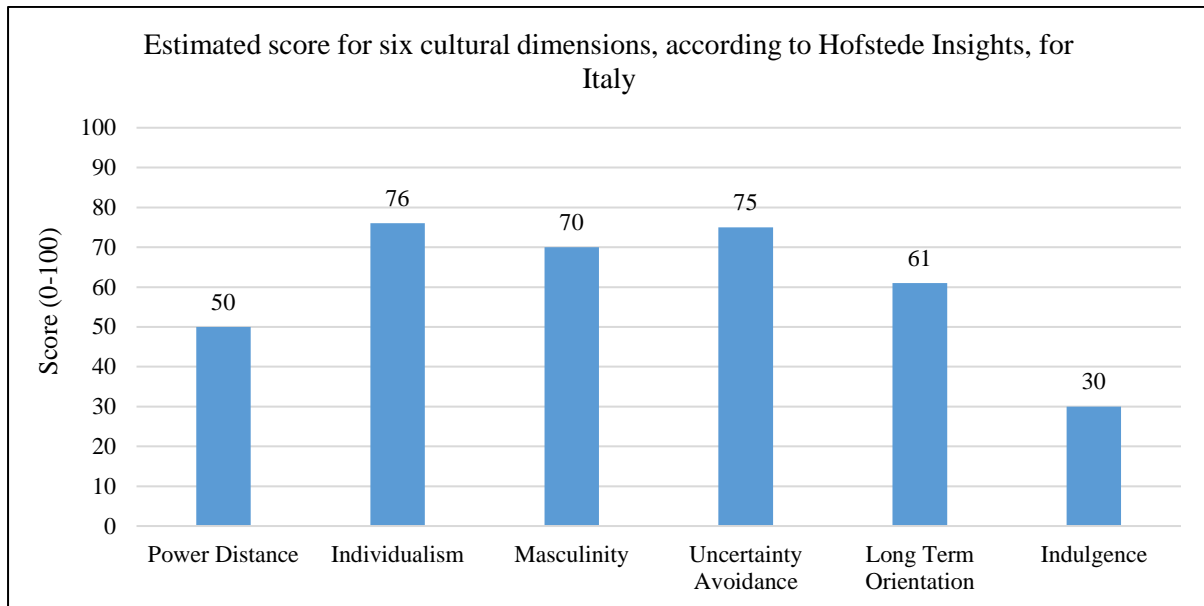


Figure 195. Estimated score for six cultural dimensions, according to Hofstede Insights, for Italy.

Note: Data adapted from: "Country Comparison" by Hofstede Insights, 2023, (<https://www.hofstede-insights.com/country-comparison/italy/>). (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Copyright 2023 by Hofstede Insights.

#### 7.3.1.1 Power Distance

As provided in Figure 195, Italy has an estimated score of 50 for Power Distance, with Southern regions of Italy experiencing a significantly higher level of Power Distance than Northern regions (Hofstede Insights, 2023). This indicates that people from Northern Italy have a higher trust in power structures, prioritising equality and ability to control their choices (Hofstede Insights, 2023). The level of decentralisation in power structures tends to be greater in Northern Italy than in Southern Italy (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Furthermore, the Italian youth, as a social group, highly values flexibility in decision-making (Hofstede Insights, 2023).

#### 7.3.1.2 Individualism

For Individualism, Italy has an estimated score of 76, as given in Figure 195, which makes the Italian society generally individualist (Hofstede Insights, 2023). However, individualist culture is more present in Northern Italy, whereas Southern Italy has a more collectivist approach (Hofstede Insights, 2023). In Northern Italy, close social groups tend to include family and friends, with other networks being beneficial for business contacts and opportunities (Hofstede Insights, 2023). In contrast, Southern Italians have more inclusive social networks, where being a part of a family or a group is important (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Young people, especially in big cities in Northern Italy, are highly driven by personal development and motivated to achieve their goals (Hofstede Insights, 2023).

#### 7.3.1.3 Masculinity

Figure 195 shows that Italy has an estimated score of 70 for Masculinity, which indicates that the Italian society is masculine (Hofstede Insights, 2023). This implies that Italians are career-driven, with success being defined by personal achievement rather than quality of life and job satisfaction (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Therefore, there exists a significant level of competition in the Italian workplaces, which motivates Italians to become more successful (Hofstede Insights, 2023).



#### **7.3.1.4 Uncertainty Avoidance**

Italy has an estimated score of 75 for Uncertainty Avoidance, as presented in Figure 195. This implies that Italians find it difficult to manage uncertainty and prefer stability in their lives (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Even though high Uncertainty Avoidance in Italy results in the creation of many rules and social regulations, high Power Distance leads to many people not following such rules (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Furthermore, having high Masculinity and high Uncertainty Avoidance increases the pressure in working environments in Italy (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Therefore, Italians like to socialise and relax during meals or in the evenings (Hofstede Insights, 2023). In terms of the approach to work, Italians also prefer certainty and feel uncomfortable in the fast-paced environments with frequent changes (Hofstede Insights, 2023).

#### **7.3.1.5 Long Term Orientation**

For Long Term Orientation, Italy has a score of 61, as provided in Figure 195, making the Italian culture pragmatic (Hofstede Insights, 2023). This means that Italians value traditions but are willing to adapt them in accordance with new social conditions (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Moreover, Italians are more focused on long-term outcomes rather than short-term results, showing a high level of determination in the process (Hofstede Insights, 2023).

#### **7.3.1.6 Indulgence**

Figure 195 shows that Italy has an estimated score of 30 for Indulgence, which implies that the Italian culture is restrained (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Once again, the Northern Italian culture has a more restrained approach to leisure, whereas the Southern Italian culture is more indulgent (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Generally, restrained cultures have a higher control over their time-spending, prioritising work over leisure (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Similar to France, the combination of high Uncertainty Avoidance and low Indulgence leads to Italians having a more strict approach to life, as opposed to flexible (Hofstede Insights, 2023).

### **7.3.2 Cultural Dimensions**

In Italy, communication styles also differ in Northern and Southern regions of the country. In Northern Italy, communication is more formal and precise, while in Southern Italy communication is more informal, with high importance placed on forming a relationship with partners prior to doing business (Commisceo Global, 2020). Generally, Italians are direct and like clarity in expressing their points (Evason, 2017). Nonetheless, contextual factors are also important in communication in Italy, including gesticulation and intonation (Commisceo Global, 2020). Therefore, the Italian culture is high-context, according to Hall, focusing on the context of communication (Cateora, Money, Gilly, & Graham, 2020). However, the emphasis on the communicational content is higher in Italy than in other countries with high-context cultures, so it exhibits traits of a low-context culture as well (Cateora, Money, Gilly, & Graham, 2020). In terms of the modes of communication, face-to-face interaction is very important in Italy, whereas using online communication can be considered a lack of effort and interest in the business matter and relationship formation (Evason, 2017). Nevertheless, this applies more to older generations in Italy, with the Italian youth actively using digital modes of communication (Evason, 2017).

Overall, the Italian culture is high-context, yet individualist, as discussed in section 7.3.1.2. Communication in Italy is linguistically direct, being more formal in Northern regions and less formal in Southern regions. Being high-context, the Italian culture places importance on the context and the ‘background’ of the message, however, the relevance of the content of communication is still significant. Therefore, the Italian culture is generally relationship-oriented, but has elements of an information-oriented culture (Cateora, Money, Gilly, & Graham, 2020). In Northern regions, information-oriented factors become more relevant due to lower Power Distance, higher individualism and more formal, direct communication. In Southern regions, information-oriented factors are less present due to higher Power Distance, lower individualism and more informal communication. Such

geographic differences should be taken into consideration when designing appropriate communication tools for the Italian youth. Generally, relationship formation and trust-building should be used in communication in Italy, but efficiency and productivity in communication is also important in attracting the Italian youth.

### 7.3.3 Summary

In terms of the implications of the Italian culture for communication, similar to France, communication channels of public administration should not be used standalone due to a lack of trust in power structures in Italy, especially in Southern regions, where Power Distance is higher. Furthermore, providing information on youth employment opportunities to other age groups might be effective, as youth is more influenced by older groups in Italy due to high Power Distance, and communicates more in networks and groups due to lower Individualism. Generally, the importance of networking is high in Italy, with people actively sharing information on opportunities with their contacts. Therefore, communication methods like word-of-mouth can support raising awareness on youth employment opportunities. Given that the Italian youth values control in decision-making, such opportunities should emphasise the potential to take responsibilities and manage them, however, showing flexibility in employment is also important. In addition, information on youth employment opportunities should bring youth's attention to long-term results, due to high Long Term Orientation, and cover sufficient details to increase certainty in decision-making to address high Uncertainty Avoidance. Using digital communication channels is important to attract the Italian youth, who value efficiency in communication and are more tech-savvy than older generations. Nevertheless, such communication should not be limited to online channels and should also include some form of verbal communication that allows for a more personal approach. This could include role model speech, Q&A sessions and posting feedback videos of other young people instead of a written advertisement.

## 7.4 Luxembourg

### 7.4.1 Hofstede Indices

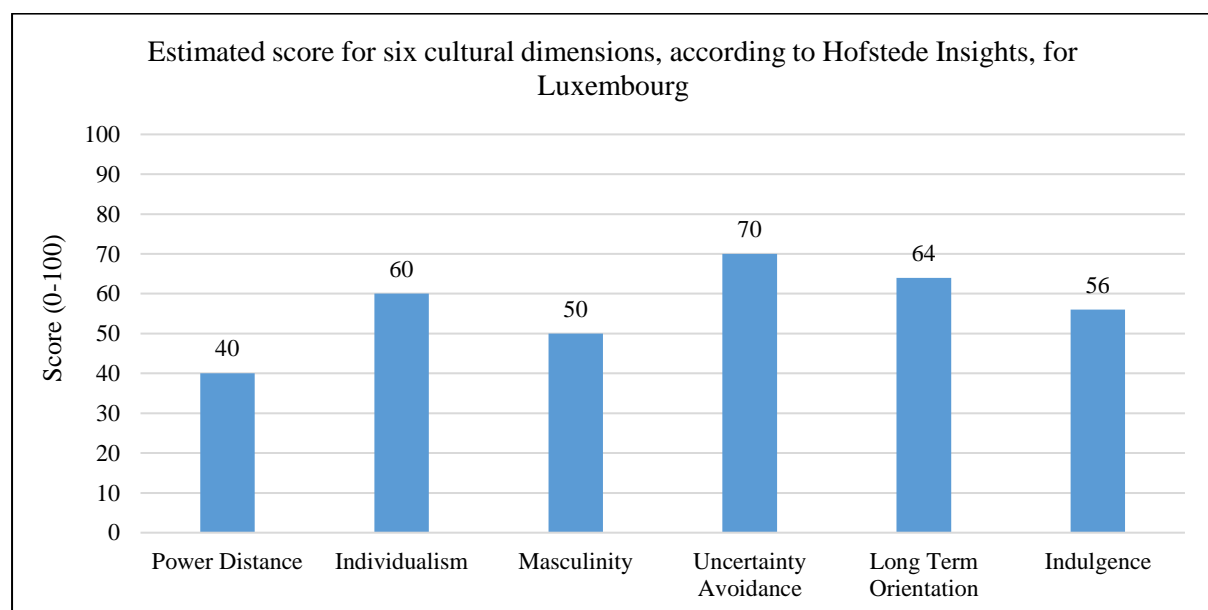


Figure 196. Estimated score for six cultural dimensions, according to Hofstede Insights, for Luxembourg.

Note: Data adapted from: "Country Comparison" by Hofstede Insights, 2023, (<https://www.hofstede-insights.com/country-comparison/luxembourg/>). (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Copyright 2023 by Hofstede Insights.

#### **7.4.1.1 Power Distance**

As shown in Figure 196, Luxembourg has an estimated score of 40 for Power Distance. This implies that Power Distance in Luxembourg is lower than in other countries, with Luxembourgers valuing social equality and having trust in power structures (Hofstede Insights, 2023). In this, Luxembourg is similar to Germany, as it exhibits many hierarchical structures in organisations, which are adhered to (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Moreover, Luxembourgers prefer to address change or conflict through negotiation and communication, as opposed to riots and strikes, like in France (Hofstede Insights, 2023).

#### **7.4.1.2 Individualism**

Luxembourg has an estimated score of 60 for Individualism, as given in Figure 196, which makes the Luxembourgish culture relatively individualist (Hofstede Insights, 2023). This indicates that Luxembourgers mainly socialise in their close circles of family and friends (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Nonetheless, Luxembourg has a lower Individualism score than France (71), Belgium (75) or Germany (67), which shows that the importance of socialising and community networking is higher in Luxembourg than in its neighbouring countries (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Furthermore, this implies that Luxembourgers place a greater value on social welfare and support, which is beneficial for youth volunteering engagement (Hofstede Insights, 2023).

#### **7.4.1.3 Masculinity**

An estimated score of 50 for Masculinity in Luxembourg, as provided in Figure 196, shows that the Luxembourgish culture has traits of both masculine and feminine societies (Hofstede Insights, 2023). According to Hofstede Insights, a masculine approach is more present in business environment in Luxembourg, where success is defined by high competitiveness and personal achievement (Hofstede Insights, 2023). In contrast, feminine traits and focus on quality of life are exhibited in social and community matters, which also includes volunteering (Hofstede Insights, 2023).

#### **7.4.1.4 Uncertainty Avoidance**

As presented in Figure 196, Luxembourg has an estimated score of 70 for Uncertainty Avoidance. Similar to Finland, France and Italy, stability, security and certainty are highly valued in Luxembourg (Hofstede Insights, 2023). This means that Luxembourgers require sufficient information to make informed decisions with certainty. In addition, the introduction of disruptive communication channels can face resistance at first, but will be accepted once Luxembourgers become more familiar with them (Hofstede Insights, 2023).

#### **7.4.1.5 Long Term Orientation**

For Long Term Orientation, Luxembourg has an estimated score of 64, as provided in Figure 196. This implies that the Luxembourgish society is pragmatic, showing respect for traditions but willing to adjust them to new developments and norms (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Luxembourgers tend to be adaptable and focus on long-term outcomes rather than short-term results, showing determination in fulfilling their goals (Hofstede Insights, 2023).

#### **7.4.1.6 Indulgence**

Figure 196 shows that Luxembourg has an estimated score of 56 for Indulgence. This indicates that the Luxembourgish culture is indulgent, with people valuing their leisure and quality time-spending (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Similar to Finland, the general approach to life in Luxembourg tends to be positive (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Due to an indulgent culture, Luxembourgers, particularly youth, are attracted to activities that they consider to be fun and enjoyable (Hofstede Insights, 2023).

### **7.4.2 Cultural Dimensions**

In Luxembourg, formal communication style is preferred, with the content of communication typically being concise, relevant and logically structured (Passport to Trade 2.0, n.d.). Furthermore, Luxembourgers are fairly direct in communicating, which historically comes from the neighbouring German culture. Nonetheless, a great importance is placed on diplomacy and politeness in communication in Luxembourg (Passport to Trade 2.0, n.d.). Similar to Germany, the Luxembourgish culture is low-context, with the content being the focus of communication rather than the context (Cateora, Money, Gilly, & Graham, 2020). In terms of the modes of communication, Luxembourgers use face-to-face communication only when discussing important business matters, with daily interactions typically occurring online, e.g. via emails (Expatica, 2022). Generally, business relationships and trust between partners in Luxembourg are developed at a slow pace (Commisceo Global, 2020). Even though solid business relationships are essential in Luxembourg, personal matters are typically kept separate from business (Passport to Trade 2.0, n.d.).

Overall, the Luxembourgish culture is low-context, individualist and has low Power Distance, as discussed in sections 7.4.1.1 and 7.4.1.2. Moreover, communication in Luxembourg is linguistically direct, highlighting the actual content and the ‘foreground’ of the message. Therefore, the Luxembourgish culture is information-oriented, with Luxembourgers valuing efficiency, relevance and productivity in communication, which is reflected in their preference for digital communication tools.

### **7.4.3 Summary**

In terms of the implications of the Luxembourgish culture on communication, low Power Distance increases trust in public structures and authorities, therefore, the use of public administrative sources in communication can become effective in raising awareness. Even though the Luxembourgish society is individualist, Luxembourgers value social wellbeing, which is beneficial for youth volunteering. Given that community networking is fairly active with regards to social matters, sharing information on youth volunteering opportunities with wider audience can increase youth engagement in the long-term. Information on such opportunities should highlight the long-term benefits of youth volunteering for community, general quality of life, social stability and strengthened security to address the feminine culture in social matters, high Uncertainty Avoidance and high Long Term Orientation. Moreover, emphasising advantages of volunteering for employability and personal development can help in attracting young Luxembourgers, who are career-driven. Information on youth volunteering opportunities in Luxembourg should be succinct and relevant, yet detailed enough to increase certainty and encourage informed decision-making. The use of digital communication channels is beneficial in attracting the Luxembourgish youth to volunteering, as communicational efficiency is important in Luxembourg, especially for younger generations.

## 7.5 Slovakia

### 7.5.1 Hofstede Indices

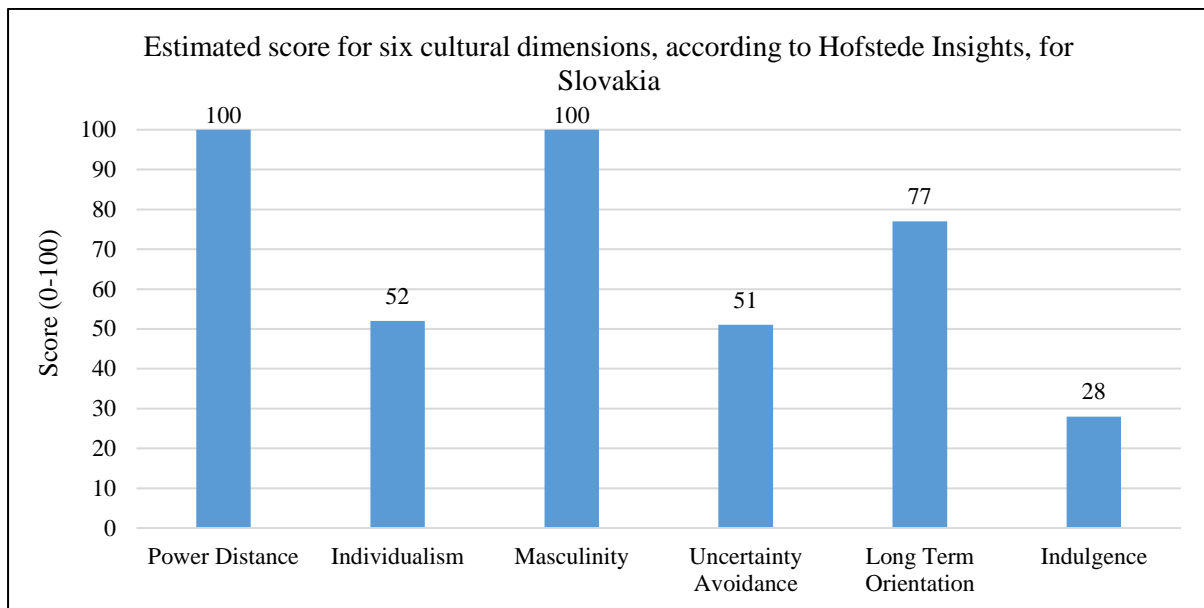


Figure 197. Estimated score for six cultural dimensions, according to Hofstede Insights, for Slovakia.

Note: Data adapted from: "Country Comparison" by Hofstede Insights, 2023, (<https://www.hofstede-insights.com/country-comparison/slovakia/>). (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Copyright 2023 by Hofstede Insights.

#### 7.5.1.1 Power Distance

As shown in Figure 197, Slovakia has an estimated score of 100 for Power Distance. Given that Slovakia was not included in the original Hofstede survey, the score of 100 is not the highest possible, but it is still significantly higher than in other countries (Hofstede Insights, 2023). High Power Distance in Slovakia indicates that people accept the existence of inequality and have a lack of trust in power structures (Hofstede Insights, 2023). In addition, this implies that there is a high level of respect for older generations, which can influence youth's perspectives and opinions (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Due to high Power Distance, hierarchical structures are widely present in Slovakia (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Even though senior managers in Slovakia have more power, they are still expected to earn respect from their colleagues with effective results (Hofstede Insights, 2023).

#### 7.5.1.2 Individualism

Slovakia has an estimated score of 52 for Individualism, as given in Figure 197, which makes the Slovak society neither individualist nor collectivist (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Younger generations in Slovakia are more individualistic, focusing on personal achievement, self-motivation and individual decision-making, which is not largely influenced by family or friends (Czech & Slovak Leaders, 2017). A more individualist approach is also seen in modern and more internationalised organisations in Slovakia (Hofstede Insights, 2023). In contrast, older generations and companies lean more towards a collectivist approach, where the decision-making is influenced by the group's opinion (Hofstede Insights, 2023). This was historically driven by the presence of communism in Slovakia (Hofstede Insights, 2023).

#### 7.5.1.3 Masculinity

As provided in Figure 197, Slovakia has an estimated score of 100 for Masculinity, which makes the Slovak society very masculine (Hofstede Insights, 2023). This implies that success in Slovakia is defined by high competitiveness, personal achievement and being better than others in the field (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Therefore, the importance of status in Slovakia is significant, as it determines the level of individual success (Hofstede Insights, 2023).

#### **7.5.1.4 Uncertainty Avoidance**

Slovakia has an estimated score of 51 for Uncertainty Avoidance, as presented in Figure 197, which means that people in Slovakia neither experience discomfort in uncertain situations nor embrace ambiguity (Hofstede Insights, 2023). According to Czech & Slovak Leaders, Slovaks find it important to develop trusting relationships with potential partners before starting a business, which reflects their willingness to be more certain and reduce risks (Czech & Slovak Leaders, 2017). Though, once such relationships are built, Slovaks can agree to take risks because they trust their partners, even if this would include uncertainty (Czech & Slovak Leaders, 2017).

#### **7.5.1.5 Long Term Orientation**

For Long Term Orientation, Slovakia has an estimated score of 77. This indicates that the Slovak culture is pragmatic, with Slovaks respecting traditions but being open to adapt to changing social environments (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Similar to the French, Italians and Luxembourgers, Slovaks are more dedicated to achieving their long-term objectives than short-term outcomes (Hofstede Insights, 2023).

#### **7.5.1.6 Indulgence**

Figure 197 shows that Slovakia has an estimated score of 28 for Indulgence, which makes the Slovak culture restrained (Hofstede Insights, 2023). This implies that decision-making in Slovakia is impacted by social norms, with Slovaks prioritising hard work over leisure time (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Consequently, Slovaks invest more time in activities that they believe to be beneficial for their success than in activities that are considered to be simple fun (Hofstede Insights, 2023).

### **7.5.2 Cultural Dimensions**

In Slovakia, communication tends to be formal at the start of a business relationship, but becomes more informal as relationships progress, especially for young generations (Commisceo Global, 2020). Although clarity in communication is important in Slovakia, a higher value is placed on the context of communication and ways in which information is delivered to the relevant party (Commisceo Global, 2020). Therefore, the Slovak culture is high-context, with the context of communication playing a more significant role than the content itself. In terms of the modes of communication, having face-to-face meetings in Slovakia is important for relationship-building (Commisceo Global, 2020). During such meetings, time is usually taken to get to know the partners and have ‘small talk’ (Commisceo Global, 2020) (Czech & Slovak Leaders, 2017). This helps to form meaningful relationships and build trust, which are fundamental in Slovakia in and outside of the business (Czech & Slovak Leaders, 2017).

Overall, the Slovak culture is high-context, with high Power Distance and elements of both individualist and collectivist societies. Communication is less linguistically direct than in other countries, focusing on the context and the ‘background’ of the message. Therefore, the Slovak culture is relationship-oriented, with trust and relationships being important for business development. This implies that, although digital communication is used in Slovakia, especially by younger generations, it is important to use other channels that leverage values and personal connection.

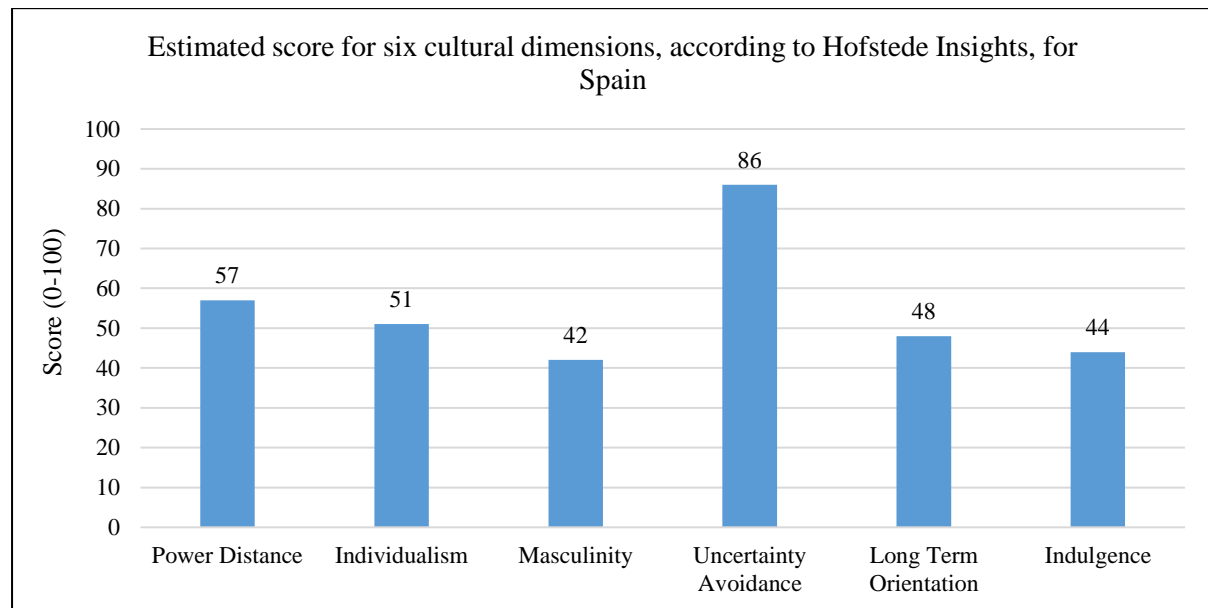
### **7.5.3 Summary**

In terms of the implications of the Slovak culture for communication, very high Power Distance causes distrust in power structures, so information shared by public authorities should be supported by other independent communication channels to raise awareness. High Power Distance in Slovakia also leads to older generations having an influence over younger generations, so sharing information on youth education opportunities with wider age groups can support youth awareness and engagement. Given that younger generations in Slovakia are more individualist, information on youth education opportunities should emphasise prospects for personal development, management of responsibilities and controlled decision-making. Furthermore, highlighting the benefits of education in terms of the higher competitiveness, achievements, personal growth and improvement of social status can increase

the interest of youth in such opportunities due to a highly masculine culture in Slovakia. High Long Term Orientation in Slovakia implies that the use of modern approaches in education and long-term benefits for individuals and society should be highlighted to attract the Slovak youth. Even though digital communication tools are widely used by younger generations in Slovakia, they should be more personalised and aimed to connect with youth. Similar to Italy, live videos and opportunities to interact with alumni or youth ambassadors may prove more effective and generate a higher interest in Slovakia than a simple written description of an opportunity.

## 7.6 Spain

### 7.6.1 Hofstede Indices



*Figure 198. Estimated score for six cultural dimensions, according to Hofstede Insights, for Spain.*

*Note: Data adapted from: "Country Comparison" by Hofstede Insights, 2023, (<https://www.hofstede-insights.com/country-comparison/spain/>). (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Copyright 2023 by Hofstede Insights.*

#### 7.6.1.1 Power Distance

As shown in Figure 198, Spain has an estimated score of 57 for Power Distance. This implies that Power Distance is high in Spain, with the Spanish people accepting the existence of social inequalities and not having significant trust in power structures (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Similar to other countries with high scores for Power Distance, Spain has a high presence of hierarchical structures in organisations, with autocratic leadership being a common approach (Hofstede Insights, 2023). In addition, high Power Distance in Spain means that older generations are respected and can influence younger generations (Hofstede Insights, 2023).

#### 7.6.1.2 Individualism

Spain has an estimated score of 51 for Individualism, as provided in Figure 198. According to Hofstede Insights, this makes the Spanish society collectivist, when comparing to other European countries, although it seems individualist when comparing to the countries worldwide (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Being more collectivist than other European countries causes the Spanish decision-making to be influenced by the group's opinion, with teamwork being highly present and normalised at workplace (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Furthermore, people in Spain tend to socialise in large groups, with social networks going beyond family and close friends (Hofstede Insights, 2023).

### **7.6.1.3 Masculinity**

As presented in Figure 198, Spain has an estimated score of 42 for Masculinity, which makes the Spanish society rather feminine (Hofstede Insights, 2023). This implies that success in Spain is defined in terms of the quality of life and social welfare, as opposed to high individual competitiveness and personal achievement (Hofstede Insights, 2023). The Spanish managers value shared decision-making, where opinions of different parties are heard and taken in consideration (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Moreover, the Spanish prioritise enjoying their work and being engaged in activities that they consider meaningful rather than being better than others in a specific field (Hofstede Insights, 2023).

### **7.6.1.4 Uncertainty Avoidance**

Spain has an estimated score of 86 for Uncertainty Avoidance, as given in Figure 198. This indicates that the Spanish have a high preference for rules and social norms, even if not all such rules are necessarily followed (Hofstede Insights, 2023). High Uncertainty Avoidance causes reluctance to change in Spain, with many people feeling uncomfortable or discouraged in situations that lack clarity (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Hence, the Spanish value stability and require sufficient information to make decisions (Hofstede Insights, 2023).

### **7.6.1.5 Long Term Orientation**

For Long Term Orientation, Spain has an estimated score of 48, which makes the Spanish society normative, similar to Finland (Hofstede Insights, 2023). This means that the Spanish respect their traditions and are not keen to adapt them to changing environments, which is consistent with high Uncertainty Avoidance (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Furthermore, the Spanish tend to be focused on the present and prioritise short-term results over long-term outcomes (Hofstede Insights, 2023).

### **7.6.1.6 Indulgence**

Figure 198 shows that Spain has an estimated score of 44 for Indulgence. This implies that the Spanish society is relatively less indulgent than societies in Finland or Luxembourg (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Even though the Spanish value their leisure time, they still prioritise activities that contribute to their career development and improvement of quality of life (Hofstede Insights, 2023).

## **7.6.2 Cultural Dimensions**

Similar to Slovakia, in Spain, communication is more formal at the initial stages of business interaction, but becomes informal as relationships develop further (Commisceo Global, 2020). The role of positive relationships and trust is very important in Spain, therefore, significant effort is put into forming solid business connections and getting to know the partners prior to doing business (Commisceo Global, 2020). Even though the Spanish are open and fairly direct in communicating their opinion, a great emphasis is placed on the context of communication and how the message is delivered (Evason, Communication, 2018). Hence, the Spanish culture is high-context, with the context of communication being more important than the actual content (Cateora, Money, Gilly, & Graham, 2020). In addition, face-to-face communication is preferred in Spain in order to form meaningful business relationships and exchange opinions on the matters (Commisceo Global, 2020).

Overall, the Spanish culture is high-context, with high Power Distance and a collectivist society, when compared to other European countries. Communication in Spain is preferably conducted face-to-face and is less linguistically direct, being focused on the context and the 'background' of the message. Therefore, the Spanish culture is relationship-oriented, with trust and business relationships being fundamental (Cateora, Money, Gilly, & Graham, 2020). This implies that communication should leverage personal values and human connection in order to be effective in Spain, as opposed to simply being efficient (What is Culture?, n.d.).



### **7.6.3 Summary**

In terms of the implications of the Spanish culture for communication, high Power Distance leads to a lack of trust in power structures and authorities, so sharing information solely via governmental sources will not be effective. Moreover, high Power Distance implies that older generations can influence younger generations, so information on youth employment opportunities should be shared with wider age groups in order to raise youth awareness. Given that the Spanish culture is relatively collectivist, in comparison with other European countries, information can be effectively shared within groups and social networks, which makes communication channels like word-of-mouth more effective in Spain than in other countries. Information on youth employment opportunities should emphasise the positive impact on quality of life and social welfare, as the Spanish society has feminine traits. Furthermore, it should highlight the importance of short-term benefits to address low Long Term Orientation. High Uncertainty Avoidance means that providing sufficient details and guidance is important to allow for informed decision-making and create a sense of certainty for the Spanish youth. Given that the Spanish culture is relationship-oriented, personalised approach is needed to generate youth's interest in employment opportunities, even if digital communication channels are used. Sharing experiences of other participants and role models and allowing for a live interaction with relevant stakeholders can support youth engagement in Spain.

## 8. Communication

This section evaluates social interaction and communication of youth in the six selected countries, analysing the internet use by gender, the use of social media and the reach of alternative communication channels. The internet use subsection discusses the level of digital skills for youth, the share of youth with daily access to internet and the share of youth interacting with public authorities via internet. The social media subsection evaluates the use of Facebook, Instagram, Messenger, LinkedIn, Twitter and the advertising reach of other social media platforms, like YouTube and Pinterest. The alternative communication channels subsection provides data on the reach of media sources other than social media, such as newspapers and television, as well as preferred sources of news and devices to access news in the selected countries. The data on alternative communication channels differs for each selected country depending on the availability of public statistics.

### 8.1 Finland

#### 8.1.1 Internet Use

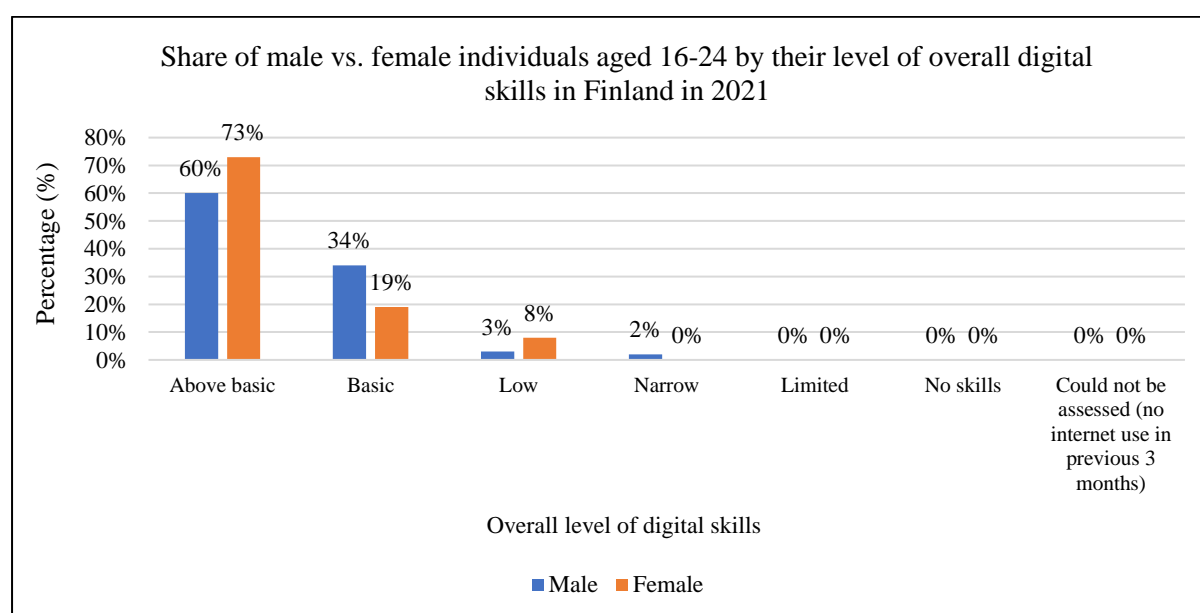


Figure 199. Share of male vs. female individuals aged 16-24 by their level of overall digital skills in Finland in 2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Individuals' level of digital skills (from 2021 onwards)" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ISOC\\_SK\\_DSKL\\_I21/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ISOC_SK_DSKL_I21/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As shown in Figure 199 above, majority of young males and females had an above basic level of digital skills in Finland in 2021. Overall, young women in Finland had above basic, basic or low levels of digital skills in 2021, with no share of young females having narrow or no digital skills. This indicates that using digital communication channels to interact with youth is effective in Finland, especially when targeting young women. Nonetheless, 8% of young females had a low level of digital skills in Finland in 2021, so non-digital communication channels should be used to increase interaction with those individuals.

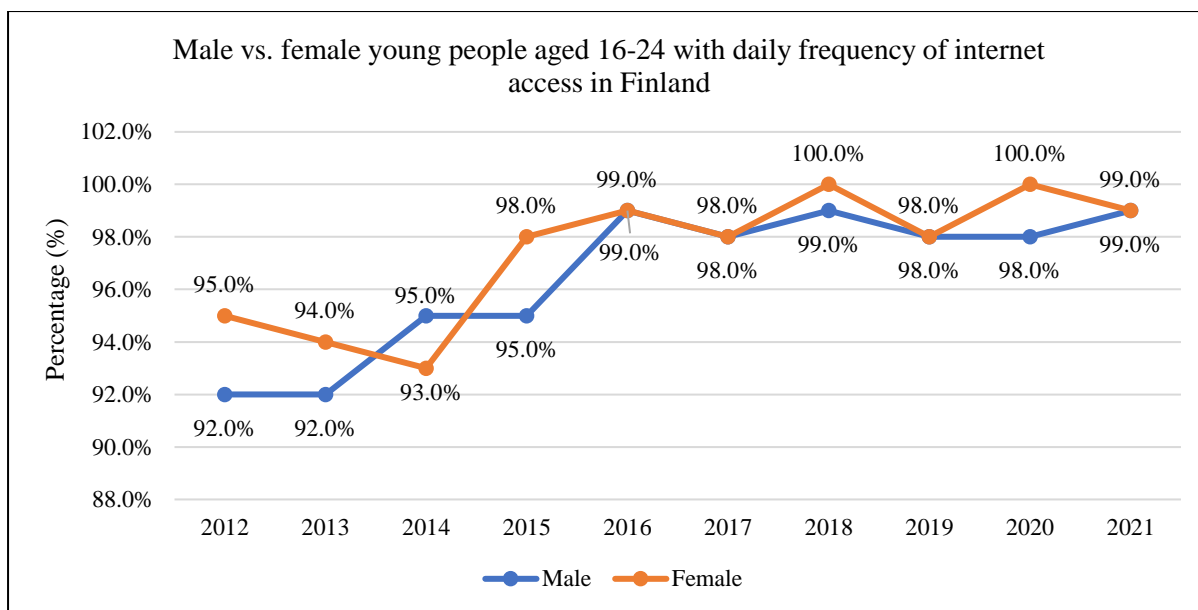


Figure 200. Share of male vs. female young people aged 16-24 with daily frequency of internet use in Finland for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Individuals – frequency of internet use" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ISOC\\_CI\\_IFP\\_FU/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ISOC_CI_IFP_FU/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As provided in Figure 200, the share of young females with daily frequency of internet access in Finland was higher than or equal to the share of young males over the period of 2012-2021, with 2014 being the exception. Generally, the shares of young people with daily frequency of internet access in Finland have increased in recent years, with almost all young men and women using internet daily. Therefore, the use of digital communication channels to interact with youth in Finland can be highly effective, especially for young women.

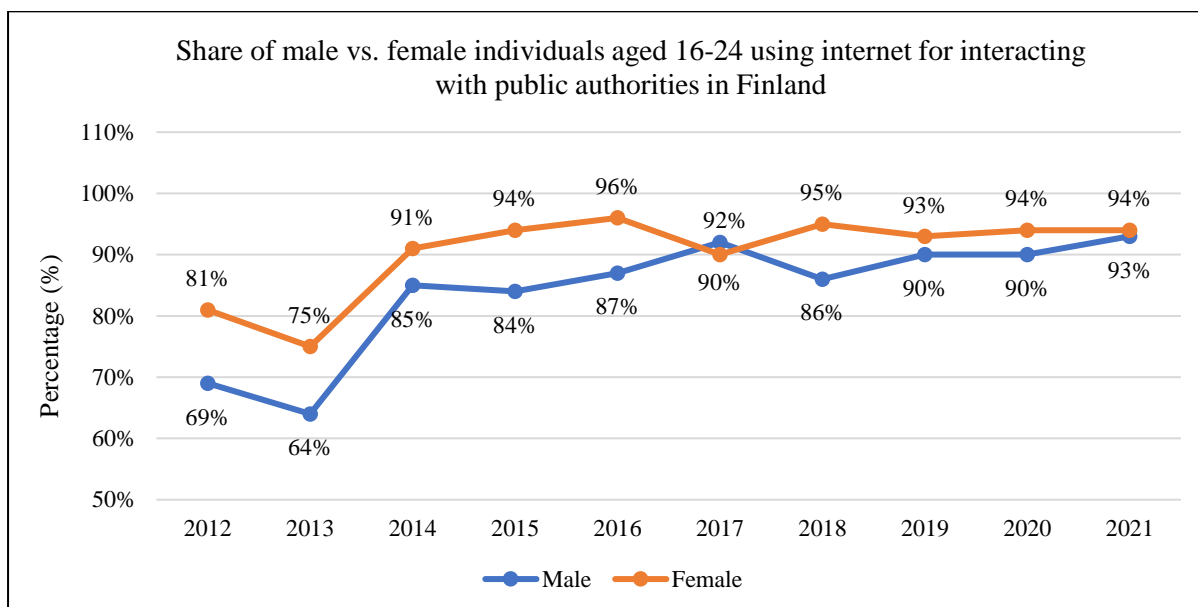


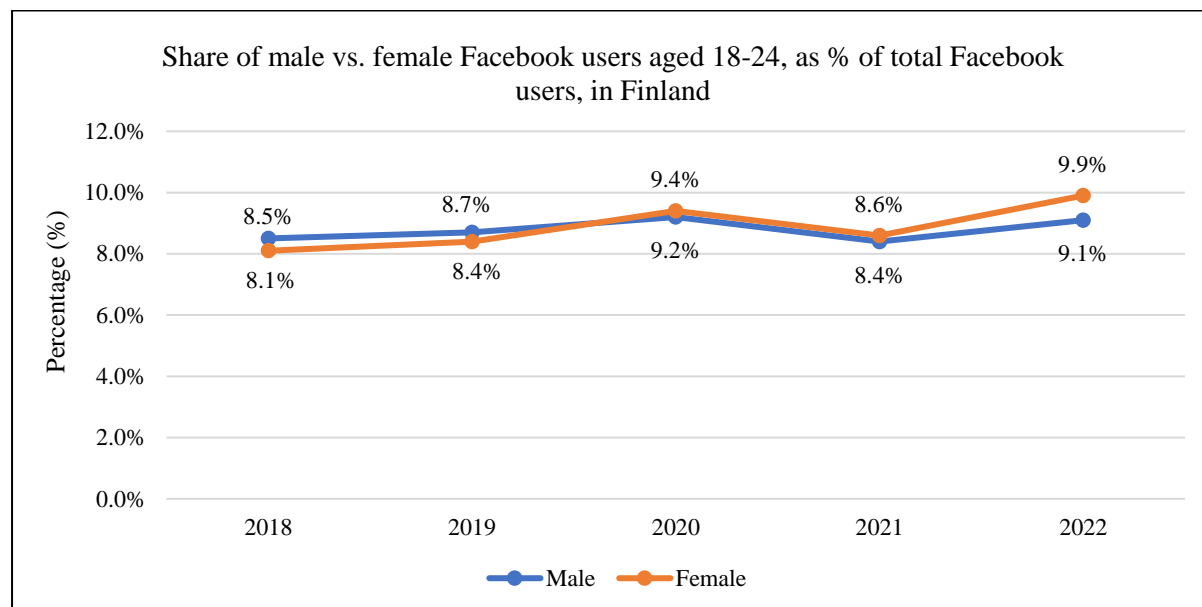
Figure 201. Share of male vs. female individuals aged 16-24 using internet for interacting with public authorities in Finland for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Individuals using the internet for interacting with public authorities" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ISOC\\_BDE15EI/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ISOC_BDE15EI/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

Figure 201 shows that the share of young females using internet to interact with public authorities in Finland was higher than the share of young males over the period of 2012-2021, with 2017 being an

exception. This implies that publishing information on administration websites and representative social media accounts, as well as using other public administration communication channels (e.g. newsletters, reports), can support the interaction with female youth in Finland and promote youth engagement.

### 8.1.2 Social Media



*Figure 202. Share of male vs. female Facebook users aged 18-24, as percentage of total Facebook users, in Finland for years 2018-2022.*

*Note: Data adapted from: "Social media users in Finland" by NapoleonCat, 2023, (<https://napoleoncat.com/stats/social-media-users-in-finland/2022/>). (NapoleonCat, 2023). Copyright 2023 by NapoleonCat.*

As presented in Figure 202 above, the share of female Facebook users aged 18-24 overtook the share of male Facebook users in Finland in recent years, becoming slightly higher over the period of 2020-2022. A decrease in the shares of male and female Facebook users aged 18-24 in Finland in 2021 was caused by the general reduction in the number of Facebook users rather than a decline in young users (NapoleonCat, 2022). The share of female Facebook users aged 18-24 experienced a growing trend for years 2018-2022, indicating a higher engagement of young women through Facebook platform and more interest from this audience in using Facebook in Finland. In 2022, Facebook users aged 18-24 represented the second most active age group in Finland, after 25-34 year olds (NapoleonCat, 2023).

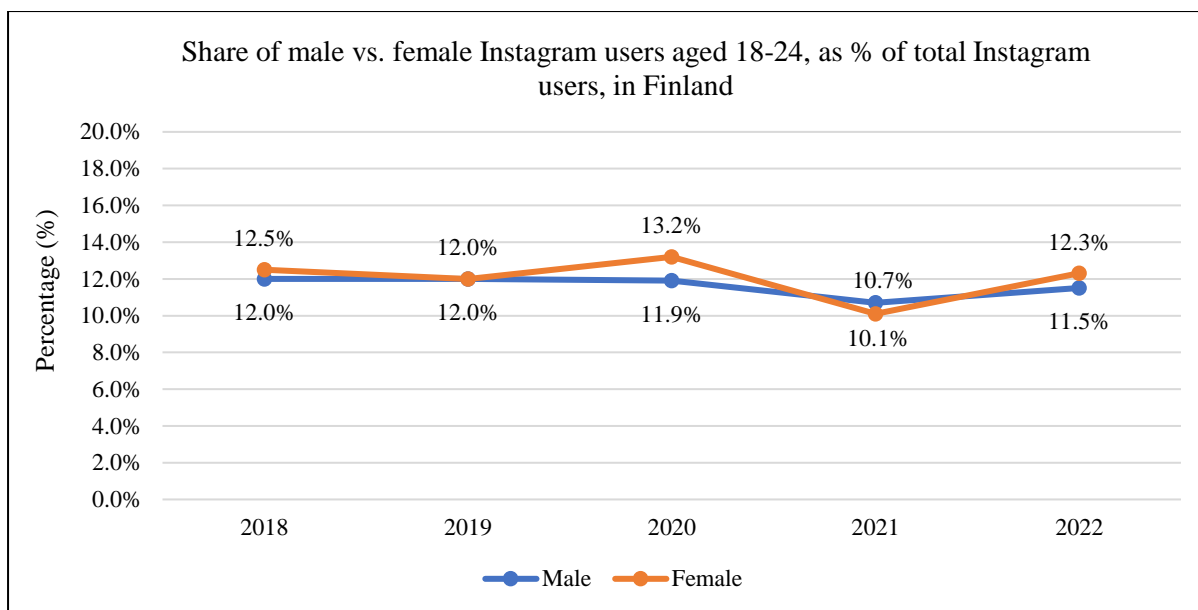


Figure 203. Share of male vs. female Instagram users aged 18-24, as percentage of total Instagram users, in Finland for years 2018-2022.

Note: Data adapted from: "Social media users in Finland" by NapoleonCat, 2023, (<https://napoleoncat.com/stats/social-media-users-in-finland/2022/>). (NapoleonCat, 2023). Copyright 2023 by NapoleonCat.

Figure 203 shows that, similar to Facebook, the share of female Instagram users aged 18-24 in Finland was slightly higher than or equal to the share of male users aged 18-24 over the period of 2018-2022, with 2021 being the exception. The reason for a decrease in the shares of both male and female Instagram users aged 18-24 in Finland in 2021 is the general drop in the number of Instagram users in Finland for that year, as opposed to the factors specific to this age group (NapoleonCat, 2022). In 2022, Instagram users aged 18-24 represented the second most active age group in Finland, after 25-34 year olds (NapoleonCat, 2023). Furthermore, the share of young people aged 18-24 among all Instagram users in Finland was higher than for Facebook over the period of 2018-2022, indicating that Instagram might be a more effective communication tool to engage the Finnish youth, especially young women.

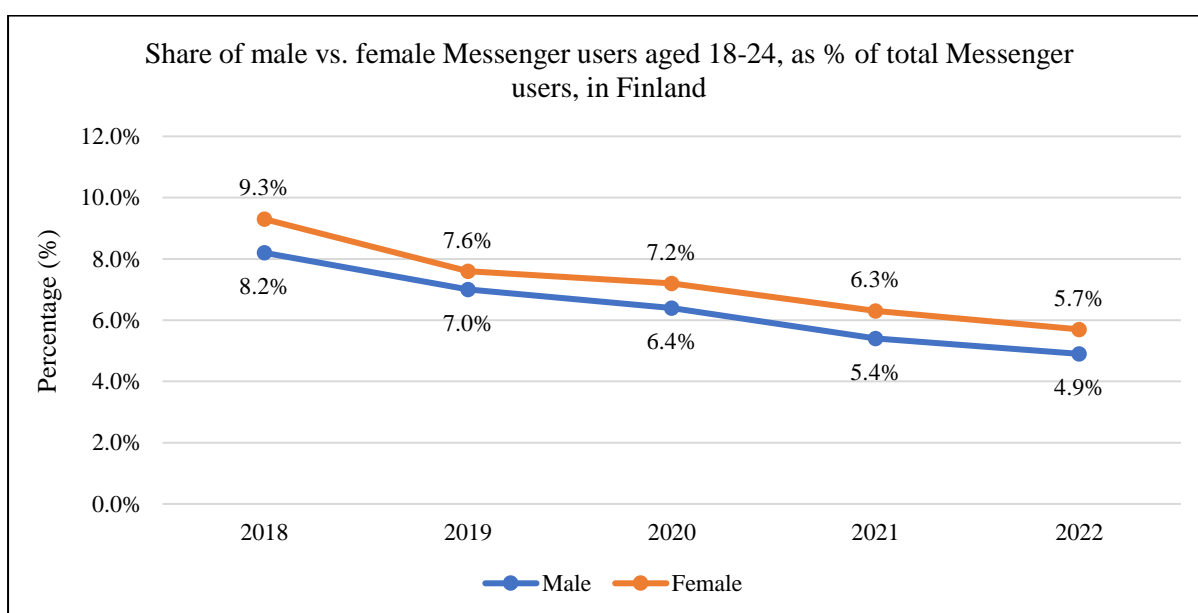


Figure 204. Share of male vs. female Messenger users aged 18-24, as percentage of total Messenger users, in Finland for years 2018-2022.

Note: Data adapted from: "Social media users in Finland" by NapoleonCat, 2023, (<https://napoleoncat.com/stats/social-media-users-in-finland/2022/>). (NapoleonCat, 2023). Copyright 2023 by NapoleonCat.

As provided in Figure 204, the share of female Messenger users aged 18-24 in Finland was higher than the share of male users aged 18-24 over the period of 2018-2022. However, there was a declining trend for young male and female Messenger users in Finland throughout the given period, indicating a reduction in the interaction of the Finnish youth through Messenger. Moreover, in 2022, Messenger users aged 18-24 represented the second least active age group in Finland, with only 13-17 year olds being less active (NapoleonCat, 2022). In terms of the communication tools, this implies that Messenger is not effective in engaging with youth in Finland, but can still be used for interaction purposes like Q&A for Youth for Europe Facebook account.

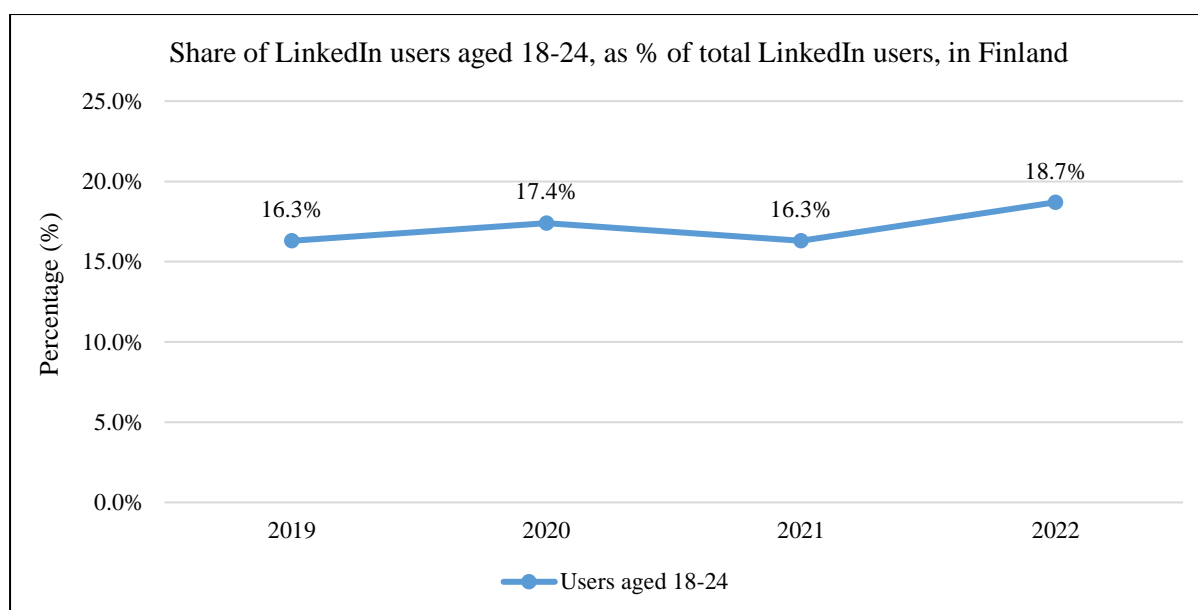


Figure 205. Share of LinkedIn users aged 18-24, as percentage of total LinkedIn users, in Finland for years 2019-2022.

Note: Data adapted from: "Social media users in Finland" by NapoleonCat, 2023, (<https://napoleoncat.com/stats/social-media-users-in-finland/2022/>). (NapoleonCat, 2023). Copyright 2023 by NapoleonCat.

For LinkedIn users, no gender-specific data is available for the six selected countries, including Finland, therefore, a general share of youth aged 18-24 is analysed. As given in Figure 205, the share of LinkedIn users aged 18-24 in Finland experienced growth over the period of 2019-2022. There was a decrease in the share of LinkedIn users aged 18-24 in Finland in 2021, which is attributed to the general reduction in the time people spent on social media after Covid-19 due to its toll on mental health and possibility to return to face-to-face social activities after the pandemic (Jefferson, 2021). Such decrease is also seen in the use of other social media platforms like Facebook and Instagram, as shown in Figures 202 and 203. Growth in the share of LinkedIn users aged 18-24 in Finland makes it an attractive platform for youth engagement and awareness raising activities. In 2022, LinkedIn users aged 18-24 represented the third most active age group in Finland, after 25-34 and 35-44 year olds (NapoleonCat, 2023).

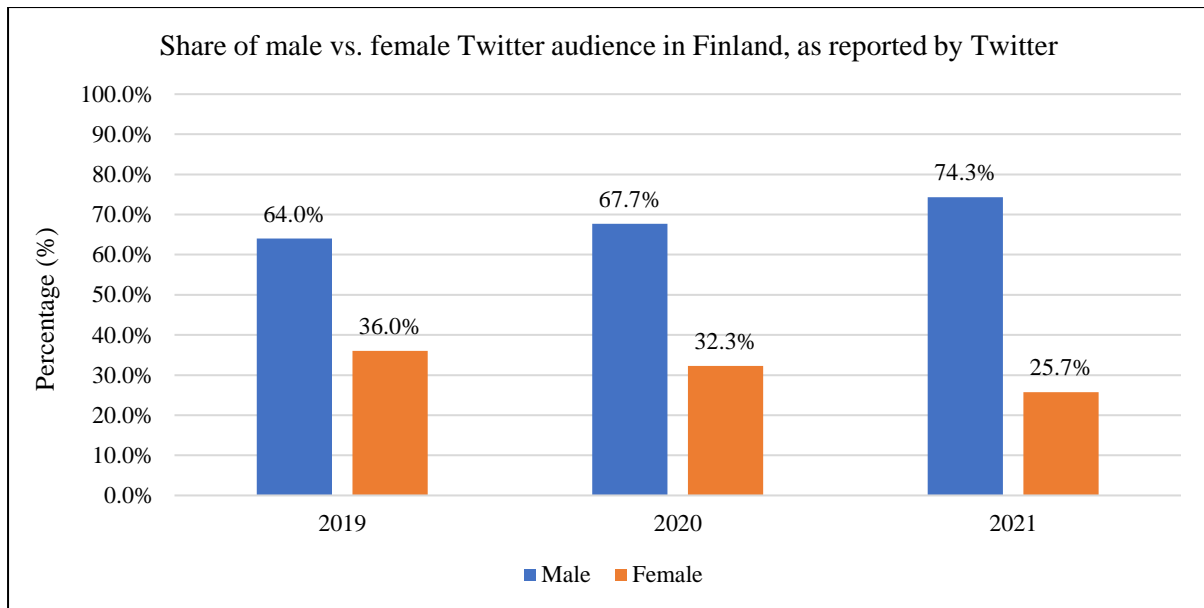


Figure 206. Share of male vs. female Twitter audience, as reported by Twitter, in Finland for years 2019-2021.

Note: Data adapted from:

- “Digital 2019: Finland” by S. Kemp, 2019, (<https://datareportal.com/reports/digital-2019-finland>). (Kemp, 2019). Copyright 2019 by Kepios.
- “Digital 2020: Finland” by S. Kemp, 2020, (<https://datareportal.com/reports/digital-2020-finland>). (Kemp, 2020). Copyright 2020 by Kepios.
- “Digital 2021: Finland” by S. Kemp, 2021, (<https://datareportal.com/reports/digital-2021-finland>). (Kemp, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Kepios.

For Twitter users, no age-specific data is available for the six selected countries, including Finland, therefore, a general share of male and female audience is analysed. Figure 206 shows that the share of female audience for Twitter decreased over the years 2019-2021 in Finland. This implies that Twitter audience in Finland is largely male, even though there are generally more female social media users in Finland (NapoleonCat, 2023). Therefore, using Twitter to target young females in Finland might not be as effective, as using other social media platforms.

Advertising Audience Review for Finland, as of February 2022			
Platform	Total ad reach per population aged 13+	Male ad reach per total ad reach	Female ad reach per total ad reach
Facebook	51.9%	46.0%	54.0%
Instagram	49.8%	42.3%	57.7%
YouTube	91.1%*	48.9%	51.1%
TikTok	21.7%	43.2%	56.8%
LinkedIn	33.3%*	45.2%	54.8%
Pinterest	18.3%	12.3%	81.6%
Snapchat	29.0%	46.9%	53.1%
*Note: data on total ad reach for YouTube and LinkedIn is available only for population aged 18+			

Table 2. Advertising audience review for Finland, as of February 2022.

Note: Data adapted from: “Digital 2022: Finland” by S. Kemp, 2022, (<https://datareportal.com/reports/digital-2022-finland>). (Kemp, Digital 2022: Finland, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Kepios.

Table 2 above shows the advertising reach of several social media platforms in Finland, both general and gender-specific. For all given social media platforms, ad reach is higher for females than for males, with Pinterest having the highest share of female advertising audience in Finland. YouTube has the highest ad reach in Finland, followed by Facebook, Instagram, LinkedIn, Snapchat, TikTok and Pinterest. Thus, as previously mentioned, Facebook, Instagram and LinkedIn should be leveraged, as communication channels to target female youth in Finland. In addition, having a YouTube channel with short videos about youth volunteering opportunities can be beneficial when aiming to raise awareness of young women in Finland. Even though Pinterest has the lowest advertising reach in Finland, vast majority of its audience is represented by women, therefore, this platform can be useful in sharing information with young females in Finland. Given that TikTok and Snapchat have a lower advertising reach than other social media platforms, they can be used as alternative or back-up options once the main information-sharing channels are established.

### 8.1.3 Alternative Communication Channels

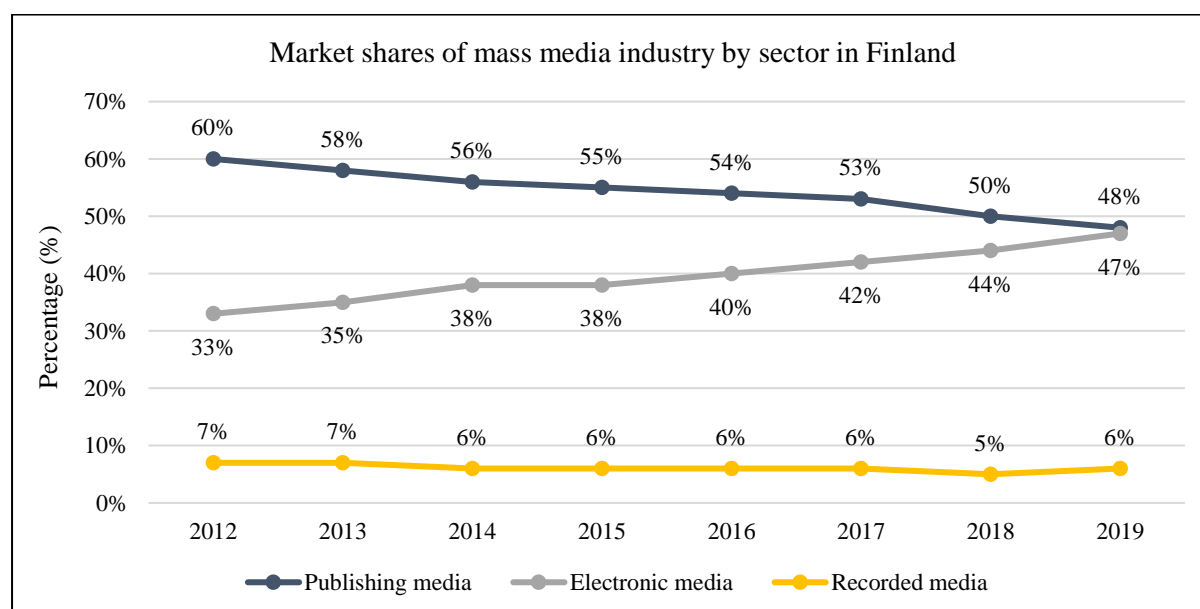


Figure 207. Market shares of mass media industry by sector in Finland for years 2012-2019.

Note: Data adapted from: “Market shares of mass media industry in Finland from 2009 to 2019, by sector” by J. Clausnitzer, 2021, (<https://www.statista.com/statistics/1127425/market-shares-of-mass-media-in-finland-by-sector/>). (Clausnitzer, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Statista.

As can be seen in Figure 207 above, the market share of electronic media in Finland has been growing throughout the period of 2012-2019, while a decline is seen for the market share of publishing media for the same years. This indicates that electronic media and digital communication channels are dominating the market, whereas the marketability of publishing media decreased in Finland. Therefore, digital versions of traditional media, such as online newspapers, should be leveraged for effective communication in Finland, particularly when targeting youth. This is also supported by the data provided in Table 3 below, which shows values of different segments of mass media market in Finland:

Value of mass media market (€ million)										
Year	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021
Daily newspapers	996	911	874	830	807	785	758	734	679	696

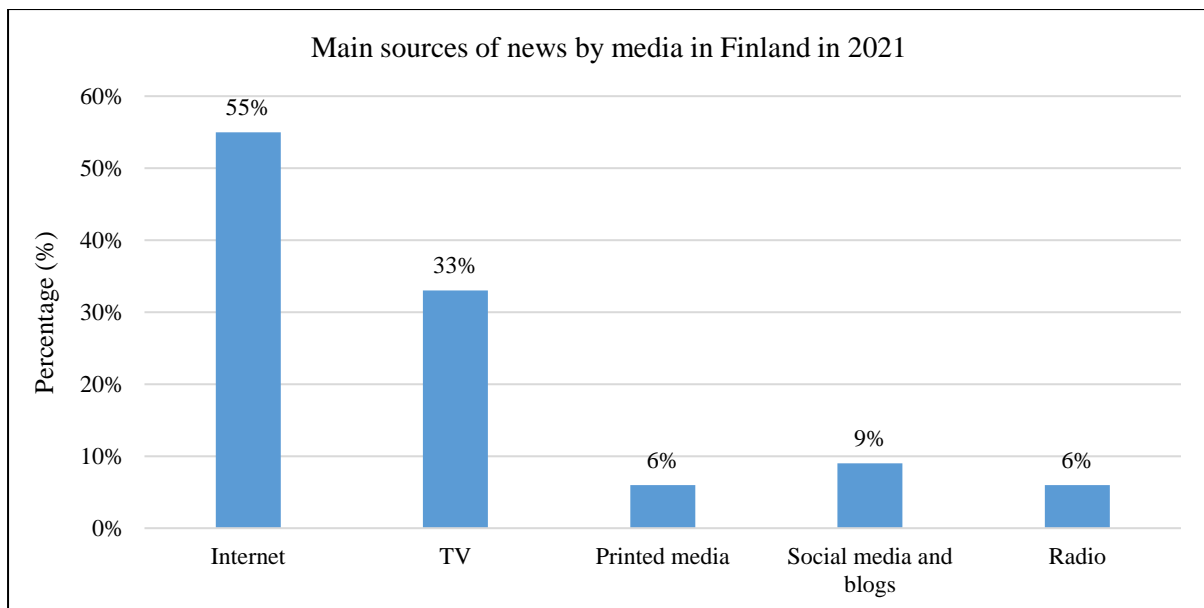


(4-7 times per week)										
Non-daily newspapers (1-3 times per week)	136	132	130	132	135	136	131	129	118	123
Free distribution papers	76	73	73	71	68	68	63	57	43	47
Magazines and periodicals	650	610	550	490	490	470	440	400	370	350
Television	1,055	1,088	1,113	1,052	1,085	1,115	1,182	1,234	1,247	1,279
Radio	58	55	60	63	64	67	72	75	57	68
Internet advertising	222	167	181	192	217	251	298	329	400	483
Influencer marketing	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	28	39
Audio recordings	68	67	58	58	59	73	81	89	93	110
<b>Mass media total</b>	<b>4,030</b>	<b>3,845</b>	<b>3,699</b>	<b>3,568</b>	<b>3,606</b>	<b>3,667</b>	<b>3,703</b>	<b>3,703</b>	<b>3,593</b>	<b>3,771</b>

*Table 3. Value of the mass media market by mass media type in Finland for years 2012-2021.*

*Note: Data adapted from: "Mass media market volume in Finland by Mass media, Information and Year" by Tilastokeskus, 2022, ([https://pxdata.stat.fi/PxWeb/pxweb/en/StatFin/StatFin\\_\\_jvie/statfin\\_jvie\\_pxt\\_12a8.px/table/tableViewLayout1/](https://pxdata.stat.fi/PxWeb/pxweb/en/StatFin/StatFin__jvie/statfin_jvie_pxt_12a8.px/table/tableViewLayout1/)). (Tilastokeskus, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Tilastokeskus.*

In Table 3, year-on-year increases are coded using green colour, decreases are coded using red colour and no change in value is coded using black colour, with 2012 taken as the base year (except for influencer marketing). Table 3 shows that the values of printed media, including daily newspapers, non-daily newspapers, free distribution papers and magazines, have generally experienced declining trends, with 2021 values being lower than 2012 values. This implies that the position of printed media is weakening in the Finnish media market, which is also supported by data in Figure 207. In contrast, the values of television, radio and internet advertising and audio recording segments have shown a generally upward trend, with 2021 values exceeding 2012 values. Influencer marketing became a widely used media source only recently, with a growth in its value from 2020 to 2021. Overall, majority of the Finnish mass media market is dominated by television, followed by printed media, internet advertising, audio recordings, radio and influencer marketing.



*Figure 208. Main sources of news by media in Finland in 2021.*

*Note: Data adapted from: "Which of the following media do you use as the main source of news?" by J. Clausnitzer, 2022, (<https://www.statista.com/statistics/626794/share-of-media-as-the-main-news-source-in-finland/>). (Clausnitzer, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Statista.*

When looking at the main sources of news in Finland, Figure 208 shows that majority of Finns accessed news via internet in 2021, followed by television and social media and blogs. Printed media and radio represented the least accessed media sources for news in Finland in 2021. Given that the value of internet advertising is increasing in the Finnish mass media market, as given in Table 3, and internet acts as the most used media for news, internet communication channels, including social media, should be the driving force behind youth volunteering promotion in Finland.

TV, printed media and radio are examples of traditional media sources, which have high advertising costs (Belyh, 2020). Printed media and radio represent less popular sources of news in Finland, with decreasing values in the Finnish mass media market, so they are not likely to be effective in raising awareness of youth volunteering opportunities in Finland. In addition to the lack of promotional effectiveness, advertising through printed media and radio is expensive, so these communication channels should not be used to target young females for volunteering in Finland. TV advertising is costly, therefore, it should not be implemented for continuous promotion of youth volunteering opportunities in Finland. However, given that it is one of the main sources of news in Finland, Youth for Europe representatives can raise the general awareness of the organisation by participating in interviews, summits and events that would be broadcasted if such opportunities arise.

Moreover, the effectiveness of digital direct marketing in Finland has increased in recent years, particularly when targeting specific audience (International Trade Administration, 2022). Examples of such communication channels include email campaigns, newsletters and push notifications when new content is released (Cuofano, 2023).

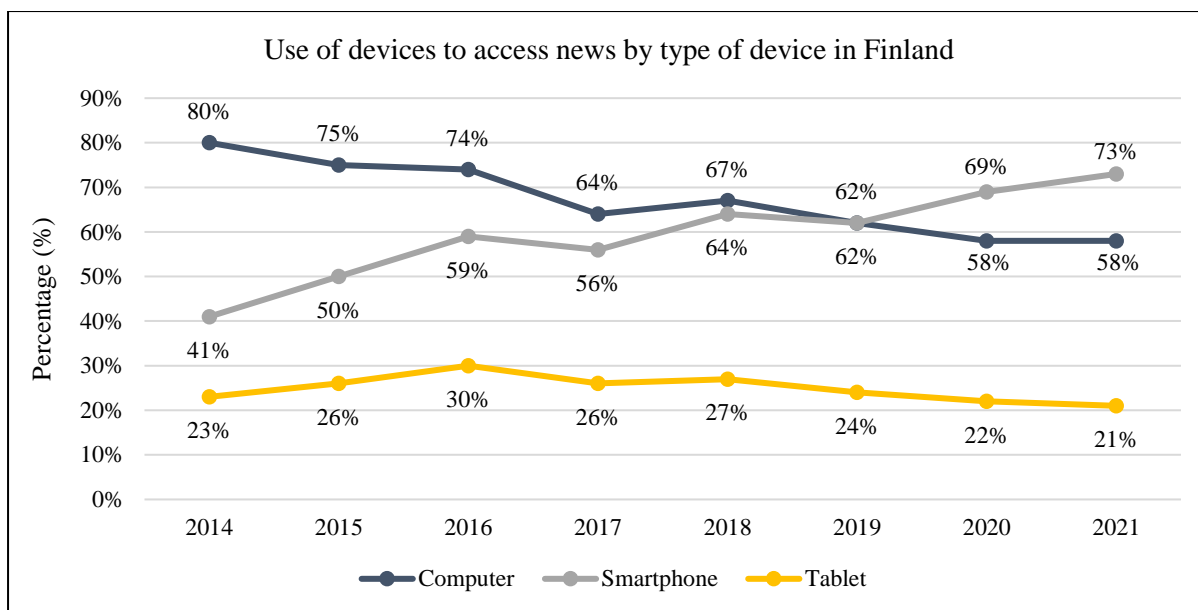


Figure 209. Devices used to access news in Finland for years 2014-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Finland" by E. Reunanen, 2021, (<https://reutersinstitute.politics.ox.ac.uk/digital-news-report/2021/finland>). (Reunanen, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Reuters Institute for Study of Journalism.

In addition to examining media sources, it can be beneficial to analyse the type of devices used to interact with digital information. In Finland, the use of smartphones to access news has been increasing over the period of 2014-2021, while the use of computers and tablets declined, as given in Figure 209. As of 2021, smartphones were most used by Finns to access news, indicating a generally higher use of mobile phones for digital engagement than other type of devices. For Youth for Europe, this implies that communication should be mobile-friendly to be effective, especially when targeting youth. Furthermore, creating a mobile application can increase youth engagement and simplify the process of finding volunteering opportunities for the Finnish youth, including young women. Having such application can also allow to target the Finnish audience using tablets to access news and engage online.

## 8.2 France

### 8.2.1 Internet Use

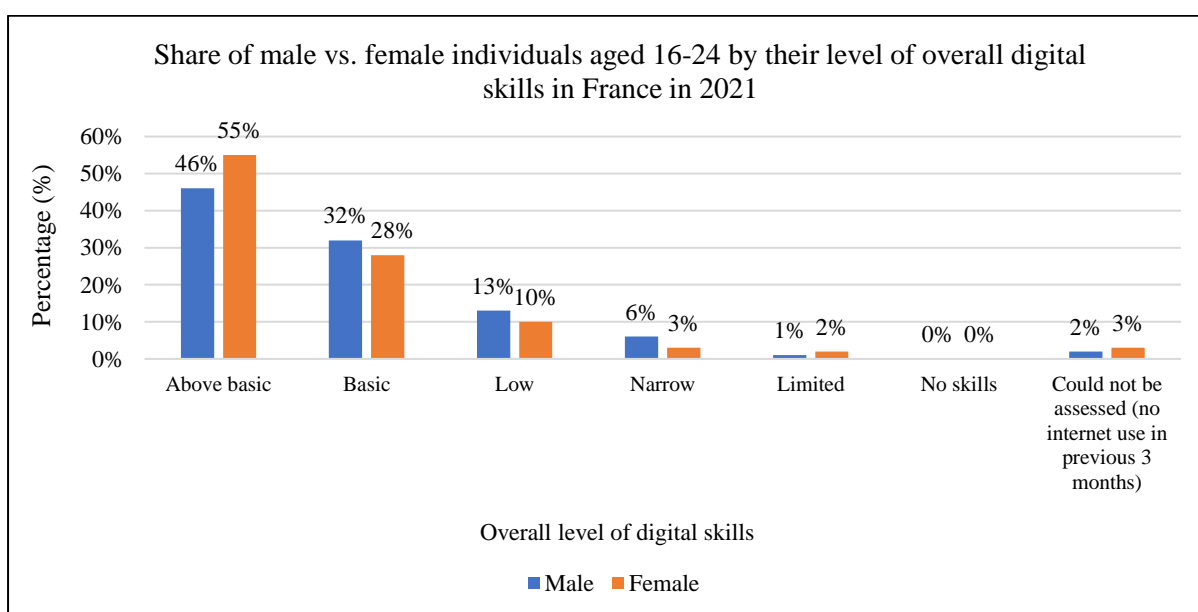


Figure 210. Share of male vs. female individuals aged 16-24 by their level of overall digital skills in France in 2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Individuals' level of digital skills (from 2021 onwards)" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ISOC\\_SK\\_DSKL\\_I21/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ISOC_SK_DSKL_I21/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As shown in Figure 210 above, majority of young males and females in France had an above basic level of digital skills in 2021, with females having a higher share than males. In contrast to Finland, 3% of young women in France had a narrow level of digital skills and 2% had a limited level of digital skills in 2021. Therefore, although the use of digital communication channels is effective in France when targeting young women, as majority had basic or above basic levels of digital skills in 2021, it is also important to use alternative communication channels to target the groups of young females, who have low, narrow or limited levels of digital skills.

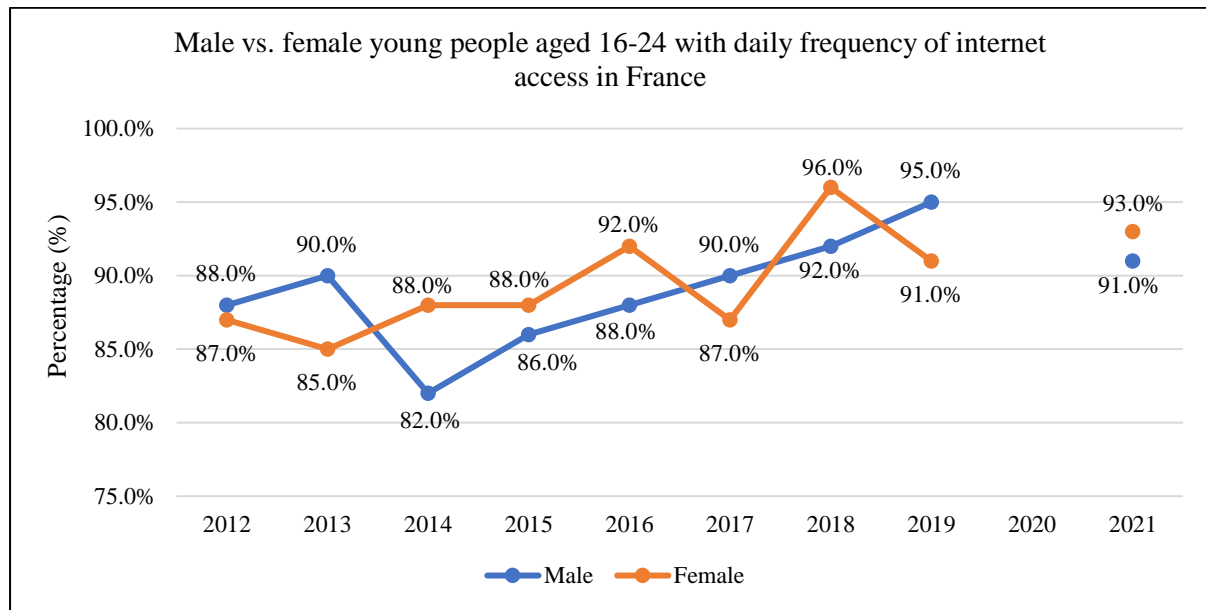


Figure 211. Share of male vs. female young people aged 16-24 with daily frequency of internet use in France for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Individuals – frequency of internet use" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ISOC\\_CI\\_IFP\\_FU/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ISOC_CI_IFP_FU/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As provided in Figure 211, the share of young females with daily frequency of internet access in France was generally higher than the share of young males over the period of 2014-2021, with the exception of 2017 and 2019 (note: data for the shares of young males and females was not available for 2020). While the share of young males with daily frequency of internet access experienced a growing trend throughout the period, the share of young females showed occasional decreases. Hence, although using digital communication channels to target young women in France can be effective, as significant majority accesses internet daily, the use of non-digital communication channels can also be beneficial for raising awareness.

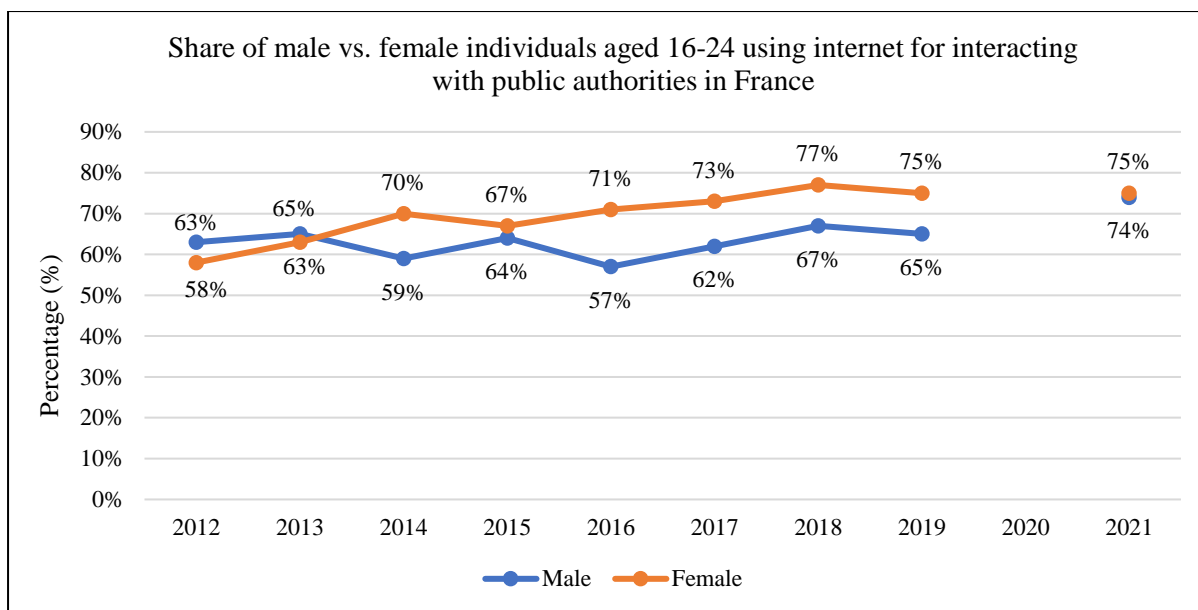


Figure 212. Share of male vs. female individuals aged 16-24 using internet for interacting with public authorities in France for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: “Individuals using the internet for interacting with public authorities” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ISOC\\_BDE15EI/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ISOC_BDE15EI/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

Figure 212 shows that the share of young females using internet to interact with public authorities in France was higher than the share of young males over the period of 2014-2021 (note: data for the shares of young males and females was not available for 2020). This implies that the information shared through public administration channels, such as their websites and social media profiles, can reach approximately 75% of female youth in France, as of 2021. To target the remaining part of young women, alternative digital and non-digital communication channels should be used to raise awareness of youth employment opportunities among young females in France.

## 8.2.2 Social Media

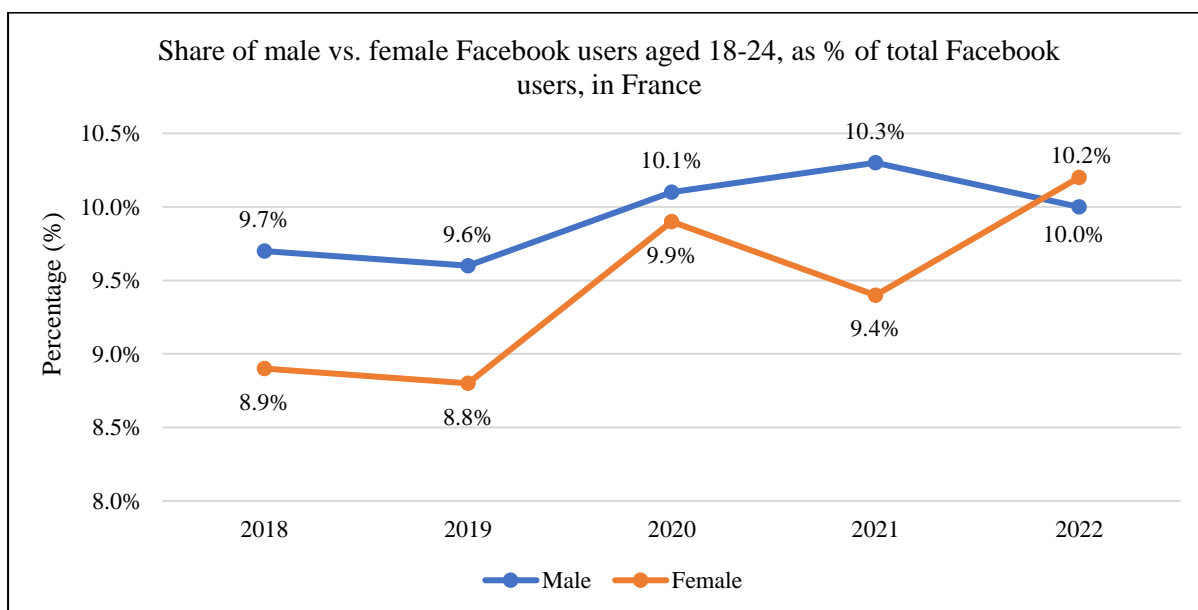


Figure 213. Share of male vs. female Facebook users aged 18-24, as percentage of total Facebook users, in France for years 2018-2022.

Note: Data adapted from: “Social media users in France” by NapoleonCat, 2023, (<https://napoleonicat.com/stats/social-media-users-in-france/2022/>). (NapoleonCat, 2023). Copyright 2023 by NapoleonCat.

As presented in Figure 213 above, the share of male Facebook users aged 18-24 in France was higher than the share of female users over the period of 2018-2021, with young female users overtaking young male users in 2022. Even though there was a reduction in the total number of Facebook users in France in 2022, the share of female users increased, including for 18-24 age group (NapoleonCat, 2023). This means that Facebook can be relatively effective in reaching young women in France and interacting with them. In 2022, Facebook users aged 18-24 represented the second most active age group in France, after 25-34 year olds (NapoleonCat, 2023).

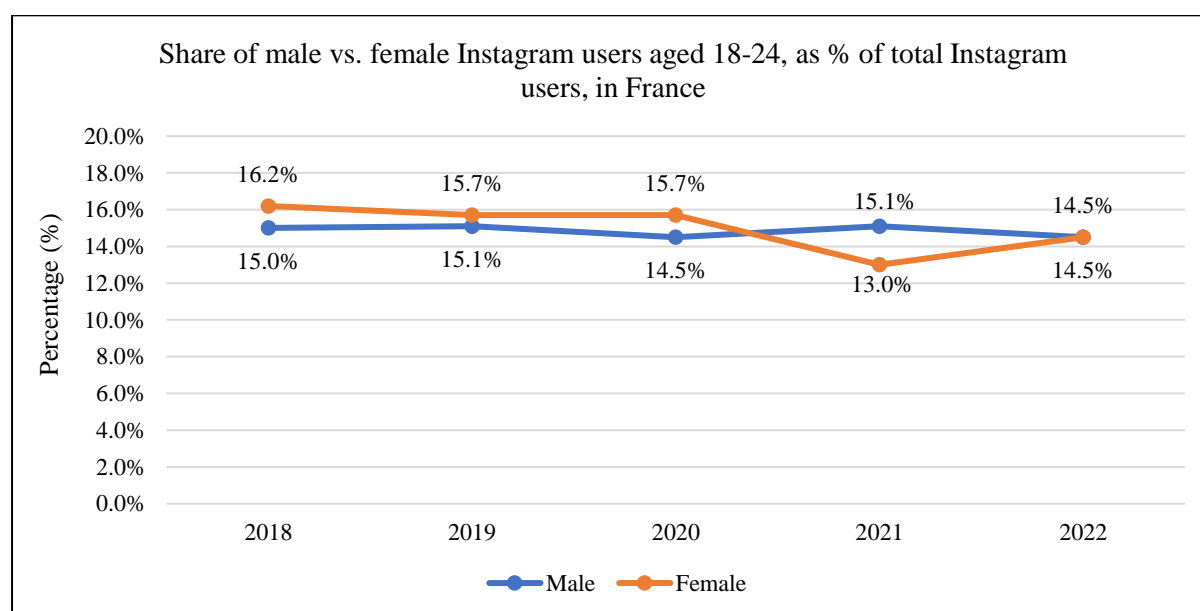


Figure 214. Share of male vs. female Instagram users aged 18-24, as percentage of total Instagram users, in France for years 2018-2022.

Note: Data adapted from: "Social media users in France" by NapoleonCat, 2023, (<https://napoleoncat.com/stats/social-media-users-in-france/2022/>). (NapoleonCat, 2023). Copyright 2023 by NapoleonCat.

Figure 214 shows that the share of female Instagram users aged 18-24 in France was higher than the share of male users over the period of 2018-2020, while the opposite was true in 2021. The shares of male and female Instagram users aged 18-24 were equal in France in 2022. A decrease in the share of young female Instagram users in France in 2021 was driven by the general reduction in the number of Instagram users in France for that year, with majority of users, who stopped using the platform, being females (NapoleonCat, 2022). Moreover, Instagram users aged 18-24 represented the second most active age group in France, after 25-34 year olds (NapoleonCat, 2023). Hence, Instagram is also an example of a social media platform that can be effectively used to interact with youth in France, particularly young women, and increase their awareness of youth employment opportunities.

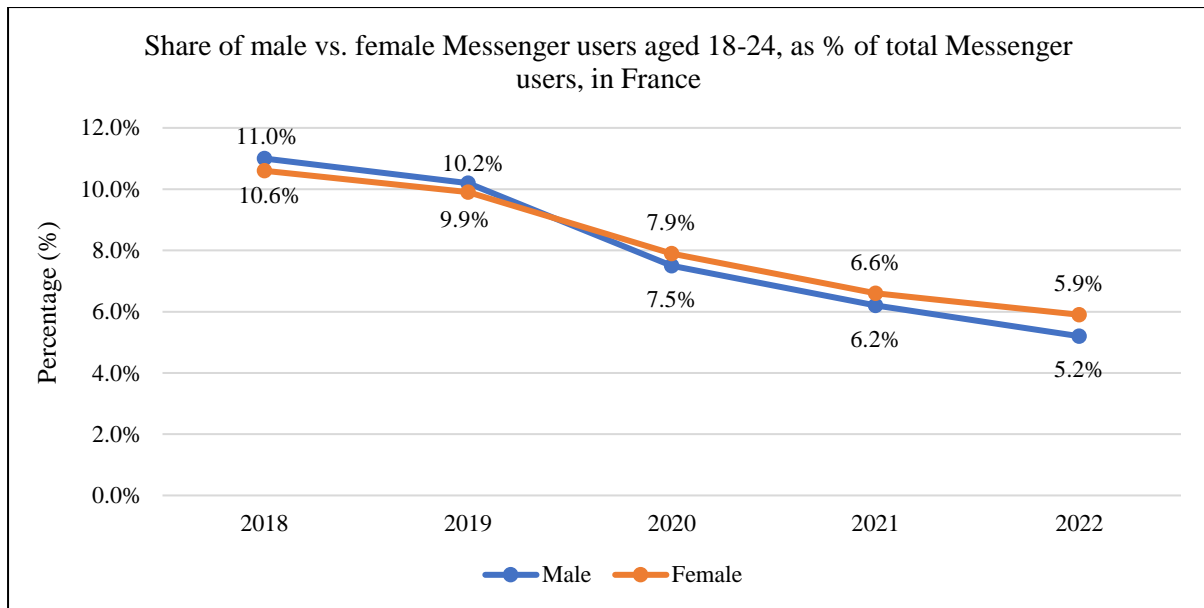


Figure 215. Share of male vs. female Messenger users aged 18-24, as percentage of total Messenger users, in France for years 2018-2022.

Note: Data adapted from: "Social media users in France" by NapoleonCat, 2023, (<https://napoleoncat.com/stats/social-media-users-in-france/2022/>). (NapoleonCat, 2023). Copyright 2023 by NapoleonCat.

Similar to Finland, the shares of both male and female Messenger users in France declined over the period of 2018-2022, as given in Figure 215. Furthermore, Messenger users aged 18-24 represented the third least active age group in France in 2022, with only 13-17 and 65+ years olds being less active (NapoleonCat, 2023). This makes Messenger a less effective communication channel when targeting the French youth, however, it can still be used to interact with young Facebook users, e.g. to answer their questions.

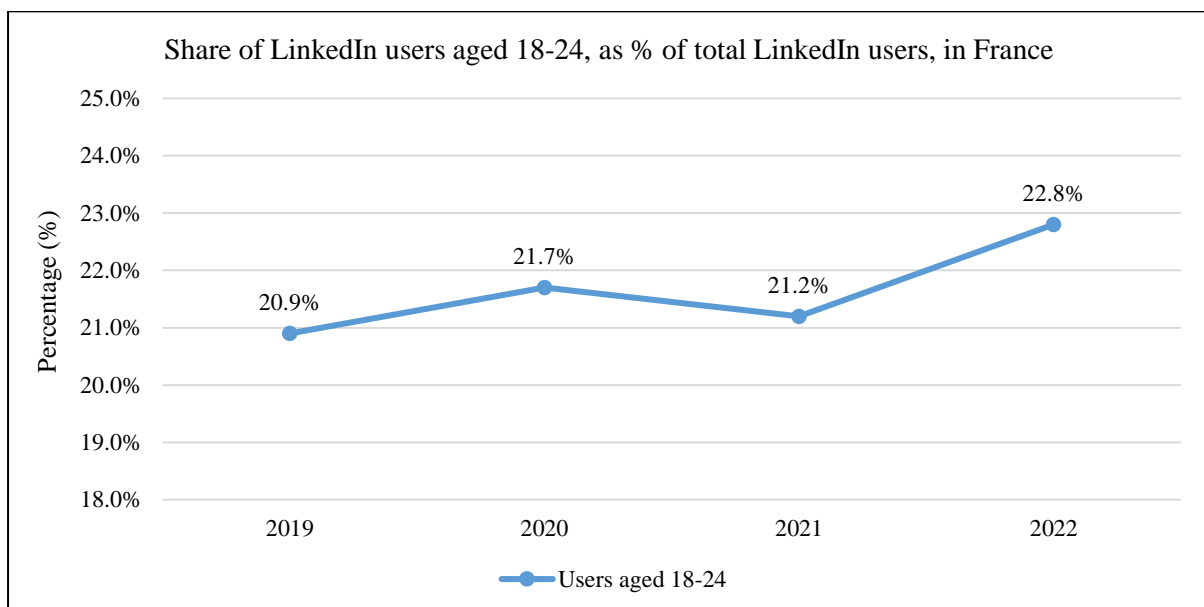


Figure 216. Share of LinkedIn users aged 18-24, as percentage of total LinkedIn users, in France for years 2019-2022.

Note: Data adapted from: "Social media users in France" by NapoleonCat, 2023, (<https://napoleoncat.com/stats/social-media-users-in-france/2022/>). (NapoleonCat, 2023). Copyright 2023 by NapoleonCat.

Figure 216 shows that the share of LinkedIn users aged 18-24 in France has grown over the period of 2019-2022. LinkedIn users aged 18-24 represented the second most active age group in France in 2022,

after 25-34 year olds (NapoleonCat, 2023). Thus, LinkedIn should be used to share the relevant information and target the French youth, including young women. Being a professional network, it can be effective in promoting youth employment opportunities in France.

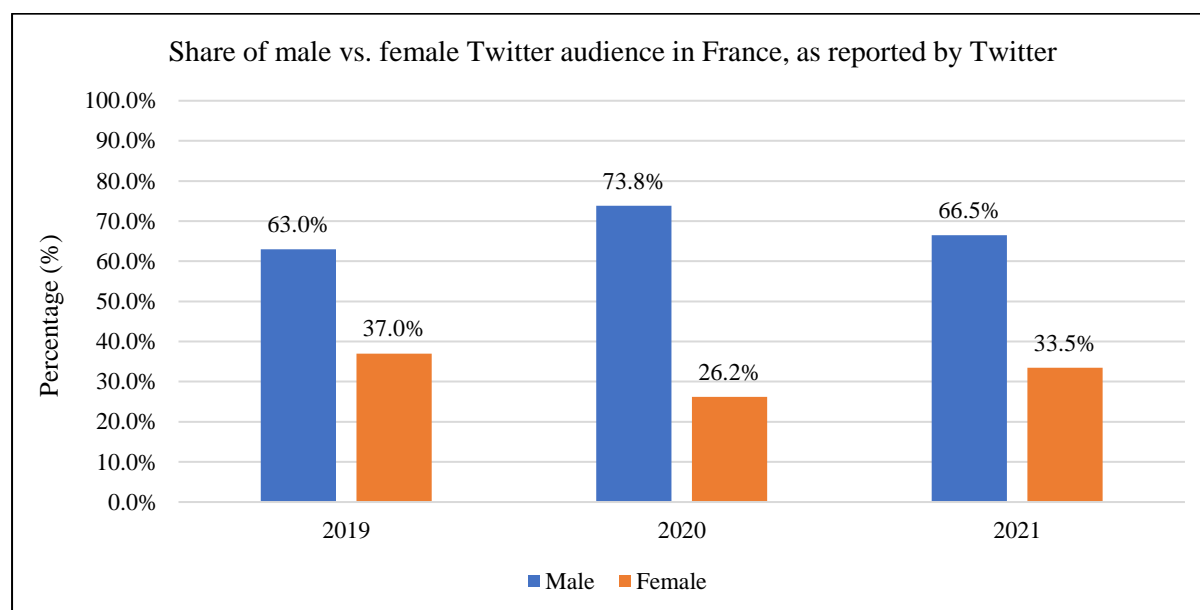


Figure 217. Share of male vs. female Twitter audience, as reported by Twitter, in France for years 2019-2021.

Note: Data adapted from:

- “Digital 2019: France” by S. Kemp, 2019, (<https://datareportal.com/reports/digital-2019-france>). (Kemp, 2019). Copyright 2019 by Kepios.
- “Digital 2020: France” by S. Kemp, 2020, (<https://datareportal.com/reports/digital-2020-france>). (Kemp, 2020). Copyright 2020 by Kepios.
- “Digital 2021: France” by S. Kemp, 2021, (<https://datareportal.com/reports/digital-2021-france>). (Kemp, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Kepios.

As provided in Figure 217, the share of female Twitter users in France decreased from 2019 to 2020, with fewer women interacting on Twitter during the pandemic. Even though it increased again in 2021, it was still lower than in pre-pandemic times. Therefore, promotion of youth employment opportunities for females on Twitter might not be as effective as on other social media platforms in France. Nonetheless, Twitter can still be used as a secondary communication channel to support the main ones.

Advertising Audience Review for France, as of February 2022			
Platform	Total ad reach per population aged 13+	Male ad reach per total ad reach	Female ad reach per total ad reach
Facebook	56.2%	47.9%	52.1%
Instagram	47.6%	47.6%	52.4%
YouTube	88.3%*	49.2%	50.8%
TikTok	33.8%*	44.0%	56.0 %
LinkedIn	44.4%*	52.6%	47.4%
Pinterest	19.7%	18.5%	76.6%
Snapchat	43.4%	46.9%	52.7%



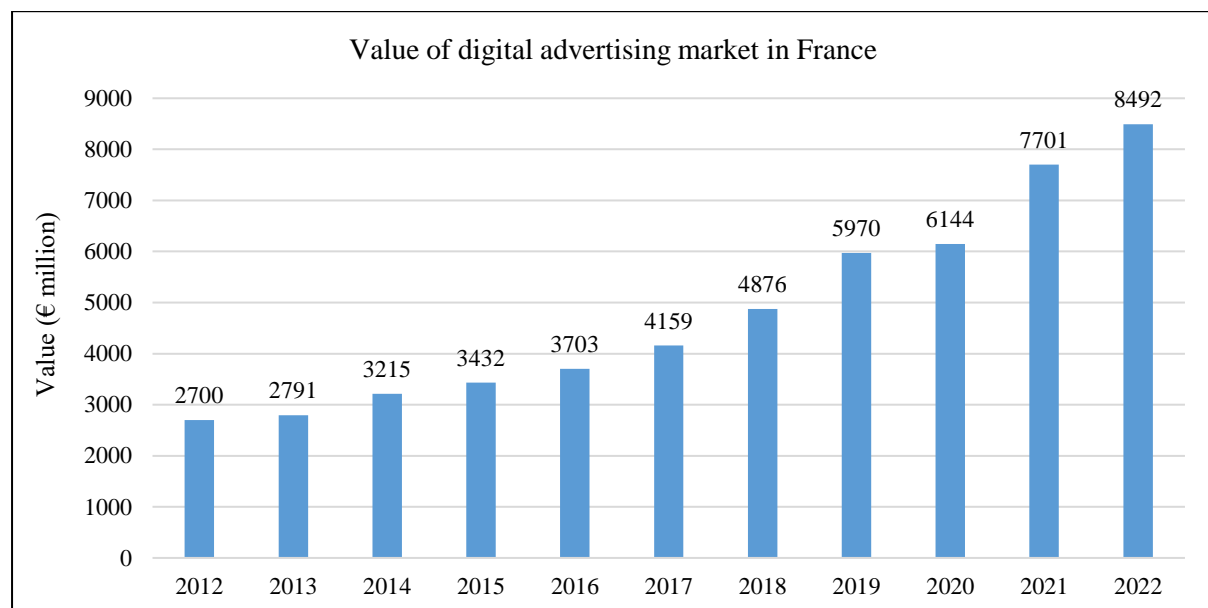
*\*Note: data on total ad reach for YouTube, TikTok and LinkedIn is available only for population aged 18+*

*Table 4. Advertising audience review for France, as of February 2022.*

*Note: Data adapted from: “Digital 2022: France” by S. Kemp, 2022, (<https://datareportal.com/reports/digital-2022-france>). (Kemp, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Kepios.*

Table 4 above shows that, for all given social media platforms, except LinkedIn, ad reach was higher for females than for males, with Pinterest having the highest share of female advertising audience, in France in 2022. Similar to Finland, YouTube had the highest ad reach in France in 2022, followed by Facebook, Instagram, LinkedIn, Snapchat, TikTok and Pinterest. This implies that the use of Facebook and Instagram can be effective in increasing interaction with young females in France. Even though LinkedIn was identified as a potentially beneficial channel for youth engagement in France, it might be more practical for young males than young females. Nonetheless, it is still valuable for youth interaction in France, given its relatively high ad reach in 2022. Having a YouTube channel will also allow Youth for Europe to reach a significant share of the audience, including young females. Given that Snapchat has a similar advertising reach, it should also be considered as a feasible channel for promotion of youth employment opportunities in France. Although Pinterest has the lowest ad reach in France, women represent its primary audience. As a result, it can still be used to share visual content related to youth employment in order to target young females in France. Similarly, TikTok can be implemented as a supporting communication channel in case female youth engagement should be further increased.

### 8.2.3 Alternative Communication Channels



*Figure 218. Value of digital advertising market in France for years 2012-2022.*

*Note: Data adapted from: “Valeur du marché de la publicité digitale en France de 2010 à 2022 (en millions d’euros)” by Statista Research Department, 2023, (<https://fr.statista.com/statistiques/489558/revenus-publicite-digitale-france/>). (Statista Research Department, 2023). Copyright 2023 by Statista.*

As provided in Figure 218 above, the value of digital advertising market in France significantly increased over the period of 2012-2022. This indicates an expansion in the use of digital communication tools in promotion and customer engagement in France. Digital communication channels became more preferred by organisations when aiming to reach a target group and raise awareness, which is also presented in Figure 219 below.

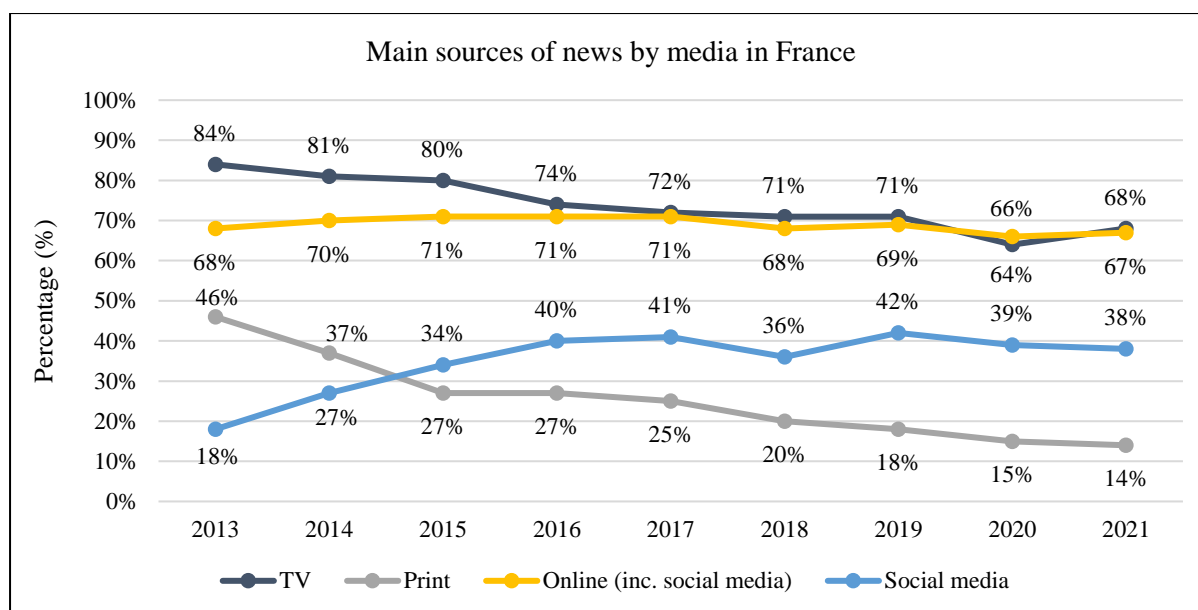


Figure 219. Main sources of news by media in France for years 2013-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "France" by A. Antheaume, 2021, (<https://reutersinstitute.politics.ox.ac.uk/digital-news-report/2021/france>). (Antheaume, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Reuters Institute for Study of Journalism.

Figure 219 shows a decrease in the use of television and printed media, as the main sources of news, in France over the period of 2013-2021. The use of social media as a main source for news increased since the start of the period, but slightly dropped over 2019-2021 due to a high volume of fake news on social media in France, e.g. 44% of the French social media users stated that at least once a week they came across fake news in 2021 (Statista Research Department, 2022). Online media sources were the second most used source of news after television in France throughout the period, except in 2020, with the usage rates for television and online media converging in recent years. This implies that promoting information on youth employment opportunities through online media sources and television is likely to be more effective than using printed media, such as newspapers. This is also supported by data in Table 5 on the weekly audience reach of printed and online versions of the French newspapers in 2021.

Print vs. Online Weekly Newspaper Reach in France in 2021		
Newspaper	Print	Online
20 Minutes	11%	18%
Le Monde	8%	14%
Le Figaro	6%	10%
Le Parisien	6%	10%

Table 5. Print vs. online weekly newspaper reach in France in 2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "France" by A. Antheaume, 2021, (<https://reutersinstitute.politics.ox.ac.uk/digital-news-report/2021/france>). (Antheaume, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Reuters Institute for Study of Journalism.

As presented in Table 5 above, the weekly reach of the digital versions of four popular newspapers in France was higher than the weekly reach of their printed versions in 2021. This increase in subscribers of online media sources, including newspapers, was driven by the transition towards digital communication tools during Covid-19 in France (Antheaume, 2021).

Overall, it can be concluded that printed media should not be used to promote youth employment opportunities in France due to its high cost and decreasing audience reach. While television still acts as the primary source for news in France, the effectiveness of online media sources, including social media, is not significantly lower. Therefore, television should not be used as the main promotion channel for youth employment opportunities because of high advertising costs. However, similar to Finland, Youth for Europe representatives can participate in interviews and public events that would be broadcasted to increase the general awareness of the organisation amongst the French audience, including young women. Based on the cost consideration and promotional effectiveness, online media sources should be the primary modes of communication used to target female youth in France.

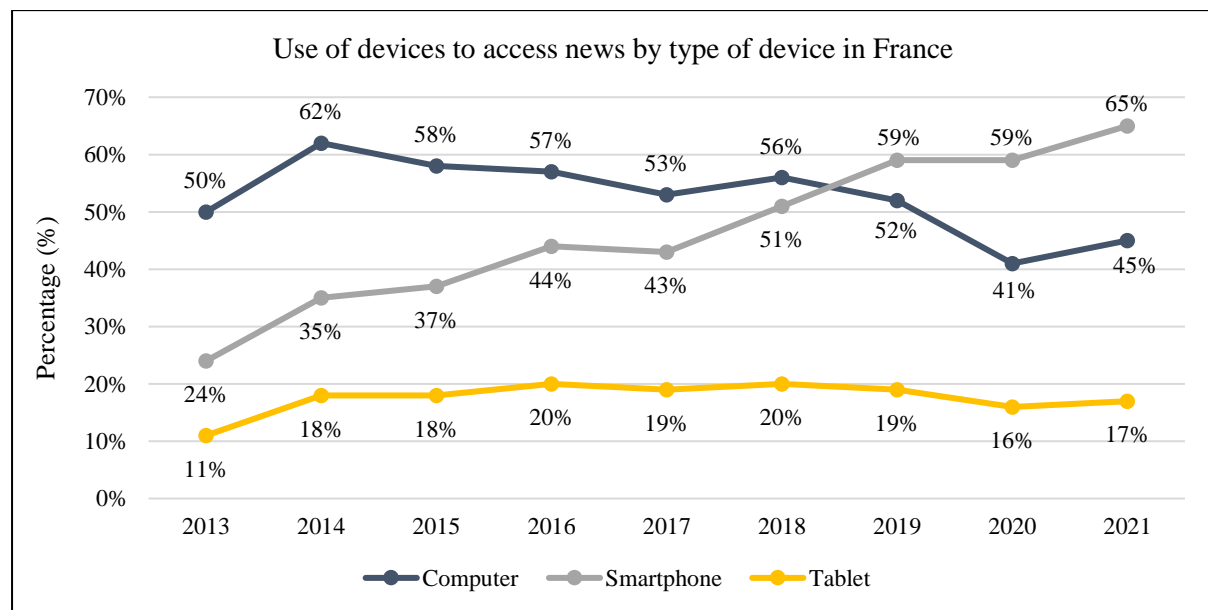


Figure 220. Devices used to access news in France for years 2013-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "France" by A. Antheaume, 2021, (<https://reutersinstitute.politics.ox.ac.uk/digital-news-report/2021/france>). (Antheaume, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Reuters Institute for Study of Journalism.

In terms of the devices used to access news, Figure 220 shows an upward trend in the use of smartphones and a downward trend in the use of computers in France over the period of 2013-2021. As of 2021, smartphones were the main type of devices used to access news in France. This implies that communication channels implemented by Youth for Europe to increase awareness of youth employment opportunities should be mobile-friendly. Similar to Finland, creation of a mobile application will be beneficial in promoting youth interaction and facilitating the process of exploring employment opportunities for the French youth, including young women.

## 8.3 Italy

### 8.3.1 Internet Use

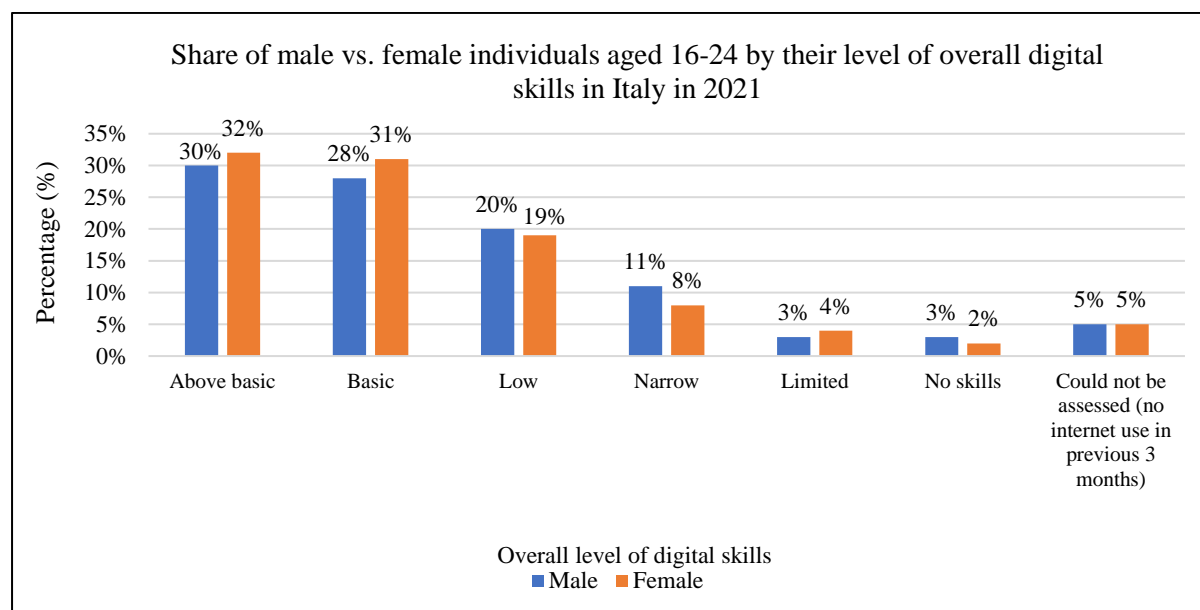


Figure 221. Share of male vs. female individuals aged 16-24 by their level of overall digital skills in Italy in 2021.

Note: Data adapted from: “Individuals’ level of digital skills (from 2021 onwards)” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ISOC\\_SK\\_DSKL\\_I21/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ISOC_SK_DSKL_I21/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As shown in Figure 221 above, the share of young females with above basic and basic digital skills in Italy was slightly higher than the share of young males in 2021. The shares of young females with above basic and basic digital skills were almost the same, representing approximately two thirds of young females in Italy in 2021. The remaining young females had low, narrow, limited or no digital skills, excluding the share of those young women, who could not be assessed. This implies that, although the use of digital communication tools will reach majority of young females in Italy with above basic and basic digital skills, other communication channels should be used to target young women, whose digital skills are not strong. Relying solely on digital communication could result in information not reaching almost a third of young females in Italy, especially if they are not actively searching for youth employment opportunities.

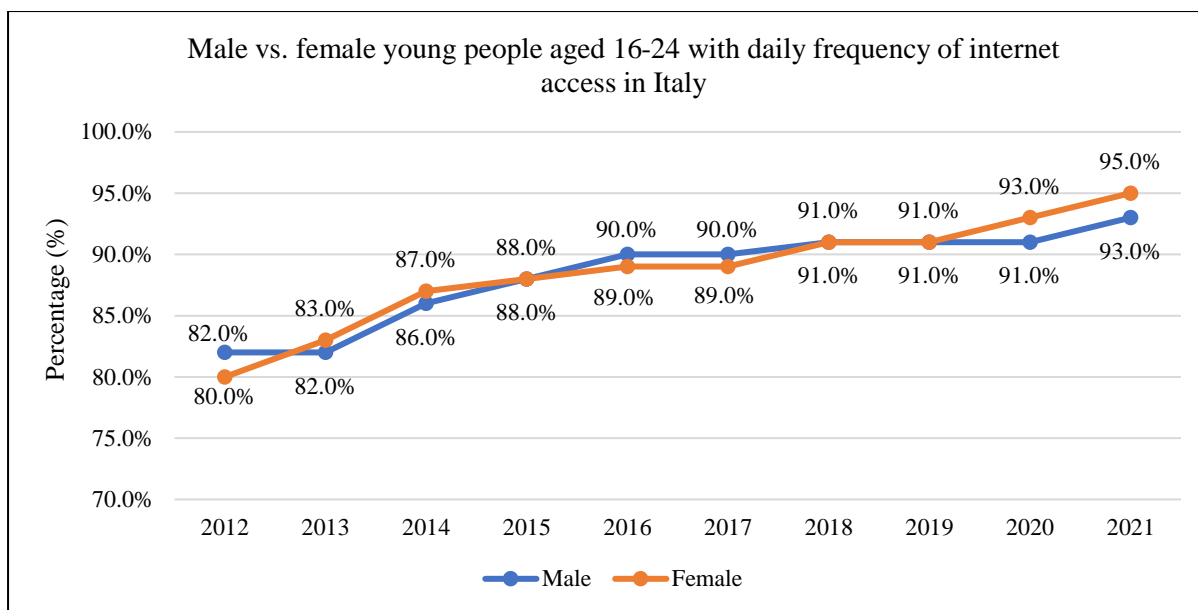


Figure 222. Share of male vs. female young people aged 16-24 with daily frequency of internet use in Italy for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Individuals – frequency of internet use" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ISOC\\_CI\\_IFP\\_FU/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ISOC_CI_IFP_FU/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As provided in Figure 222, the shares of young males and females with daily frequency of internet access have been growing in Italy over the period of 2012-2021, with young women overtaking young men in 2020 and 2021. The data shows that a vast majority of the Italian young females are using internet on a daily basis, therefore, implementing digital communication tools can be effective in raising awareness and increasing interaction with young women. Nonetheless, such tools should accommodate for different levels of digital skills of young females in Italy, as discussed in the previous paragraph.

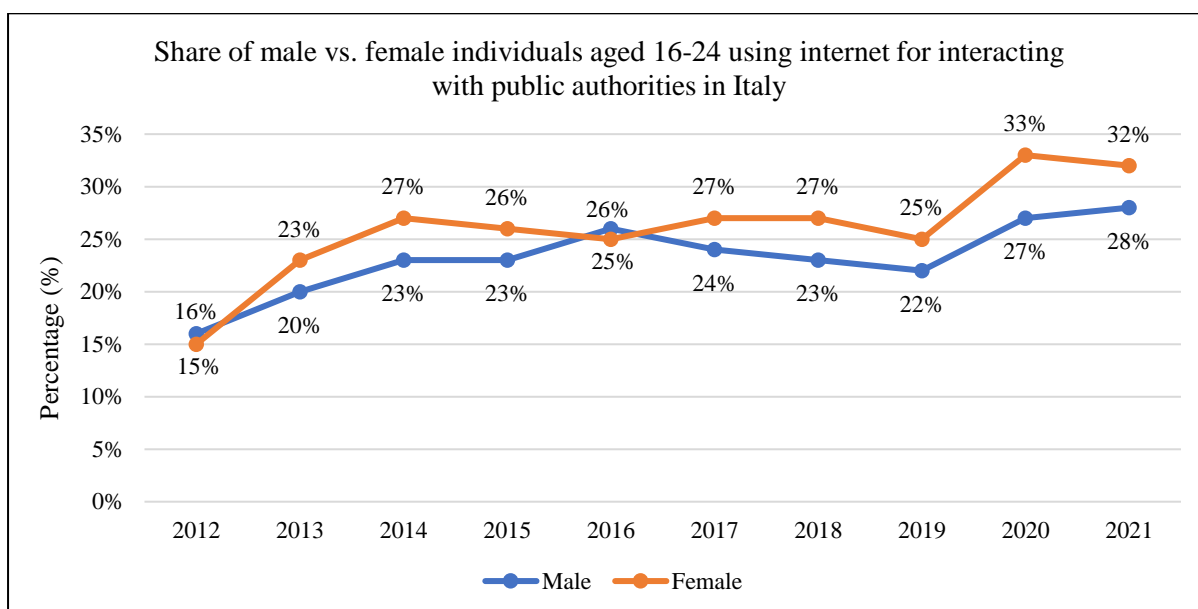


Figure 223. Share of male vs. female individuals aged 16-24 using internet for interacting with public authorities in Italy for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Individuals using the internet for interacting with public authorities" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ISOC\\_BDE15EI/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ISOC_BDE15EI/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

Figure 223 shows that the share of young females using internet to interact with public authorities in Italy was higher than the share of young males over the period of 2013-2021, with 2012 and 2016 being

the exceptions. Nonetheless, the share of young women using internet to interact with public authorities in Italy remained lower than or approximately equal to a third of the representative population, implying that majority of young females do not interact with authorities using internet in Italy. Therefore, information on youth employment opportunities should be shared through non-governmental digital and non-digital communication channels to target majority of young women in Italy. However, promoting Youth for Europe through public administration channels, such as their websites and social media profiles, can support the general awareness of young females of the platform in Italy.

### 8.3.2 Social Media

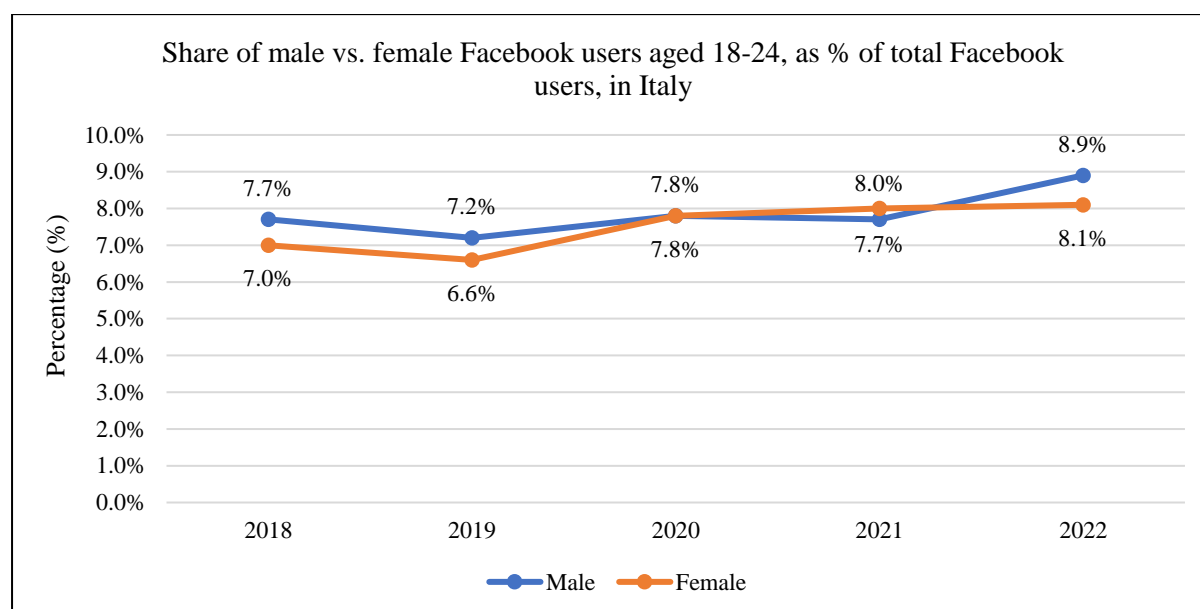


Figure 224. Share of male vs. female Facebook users aged 18-24, as percentage of total Facebook users, in Italy for years 2018-2022.

Note: Data adapted from: "Social media users in Italy" by NapoleonCat, 2023, (<https://napoleoncat.com/stats/social-media-users-in-italy/2022/>). (NapoleonCat, 2023). Copyright 2023 by NapoleonCat.

As presented in Figure 224, the share of female Facebook users aged 18-24 in Italy was lower than the share of male Facebook users aged 18-24 for years 2018, 2019 and 2022, while the opposite was true in 2021. The shares of male and female Facebook users aged 18-24 were equal in 2020. There was a general increase in the share of young female Facebook users over the period of 2019-2022, which indicates that more young women started using Facebook for social engagement. Nevertheless, Facebook users aged 18-24 represented the fourth most active age group in Italy in 2022, after 25-34, 45-54 and 35-44 year olds, yet the difference in the shares was not significant (NapoleonCat, 2023). Hence, Facebook represents a relatively effective communication tool for young women in Italy, with a potential to become a more attractive interaction platform in the future. Notwithstanding, it should not be used as a primary way of communicating with young people in Italy, including females, and should be supported by other modes of communication to effectively target young women.

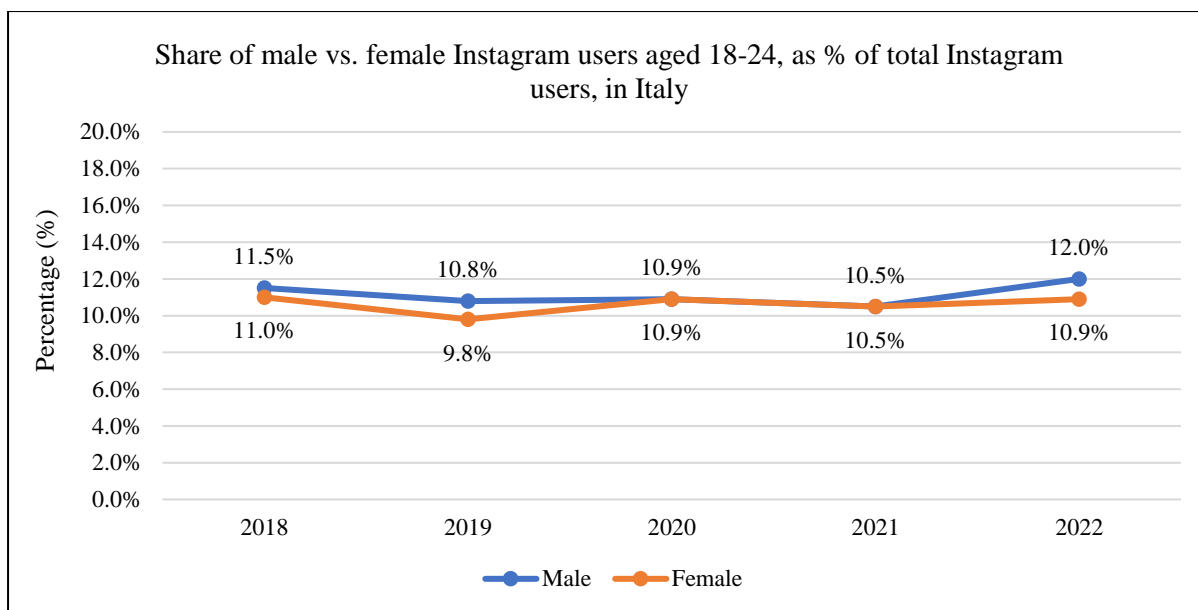


Figure 225. Share of male vs. female Instagram users aged 18-24, as percentage of total Instagram users, in Italy for years 2018-2022.

Note: Data adapted from: "Social media users in Italy" by NapoleonCat, 2023, (<https://napoleoncat.com/stats/social-media-users-in-italy/2022/>). (NapoleonCat, 2023). Copyright 2023 by NapoleonCat.

Figure 225 shows that the shares of male and female Instagram users aged 18-24 in Italy were higher than the shares of young Facebook users. Over the given period, the share of male Instagram users aged 18-24 was higher than the share of female Instagram users aged 18-24 in Italy in 2018, 2019 and 2022, while they were equal in 2020 and 2021. Furthermore, Instagram users aged 18-24 represented the second most active age group in Italy in 2022, after 25-34 year-olds, with the shares of both age groups being almost equal (NapoleonCat, 2023). This indicates that Instagram is an effective communication tool for the Italian youth, including females. Therefore, it can be used to raise awareness of youth employment opportunities and increase engagement of young women in Italy.

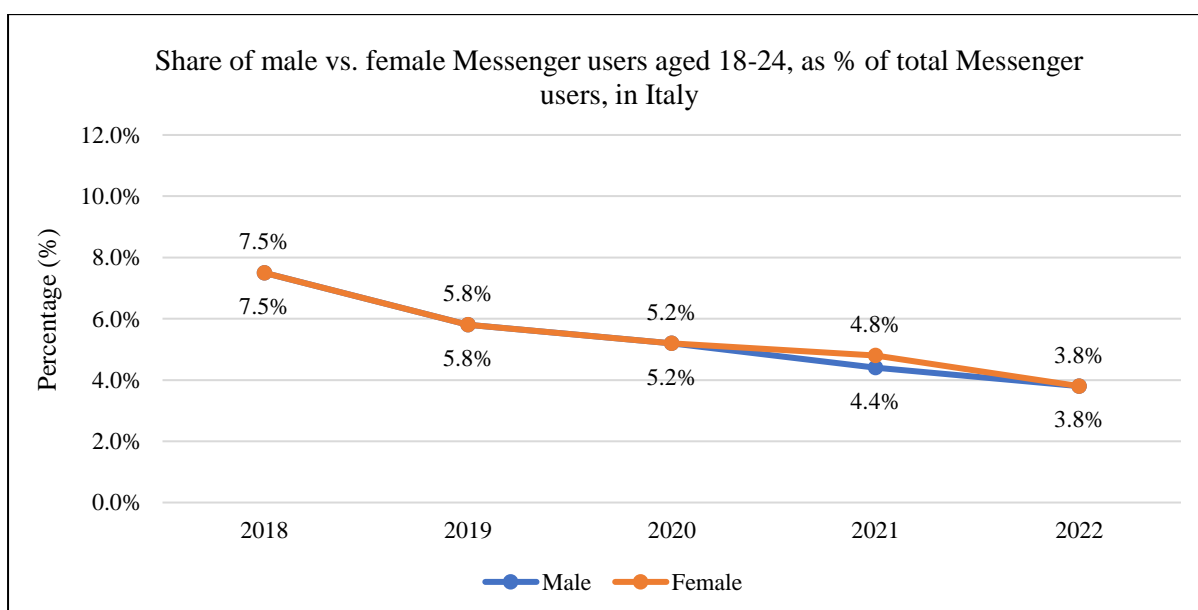


Figure 226. Share of male vs. female Messenger users aged 18-24, as percentage of total Messenger users, in Italy for years 2018-2022.

Note: Data adapted from: "Social media users in Italy" by NapoleonCat, 2023, (<https://napoleoncat.com/stats/social-media-users-in-italy/2022/>). (NapoleonCat, 2023). Copyright 2023 by NapoleonCat.

Similar to Finland and France, the shares of male and female Messenger users aged 18-24 have been decreasing in Italy over the period of 2018-2022, as given in Figure 226. The shares were equal throughout the period, with the exception of 2021, when the share of female Messenger users aged 18-24 was slightly higher than the share of young male Messenger users. In addition, Messenger users aged 18-24 represented the second least active age group in Italy in 2022, with only 13-17 year olds being less active (NapoleonCat, 2023). Hence, using Messenger to interact with youth in Italy, including young women, is less effective than other social media platforms, so it should not be actively implemented to increase engagement. Messenger could be used as a background mode of communication in Italy to reply to messages and questions of young people addressed to the Facebook profile of Youth for Europe.

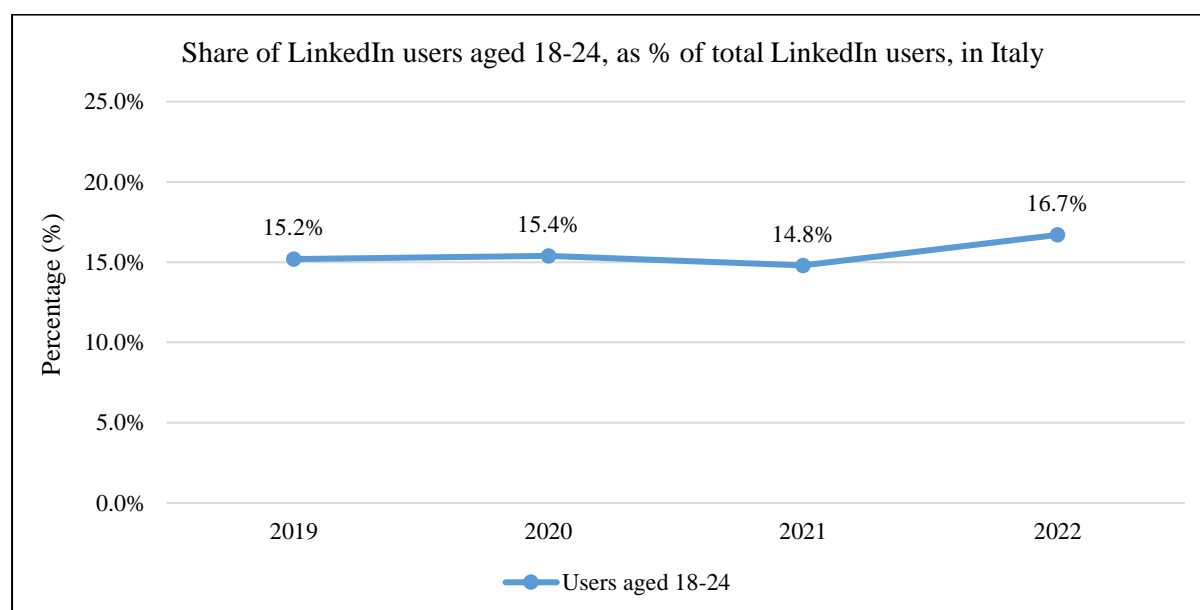


Figure 227. Share of LinkedIn users aged 18-24, as percentage of total LinkedIn users, in Italy for years 2019-2022.

Note: Data adapted from: "Social media users in Italy" by NapoleonCat, 2023, (<https://napoleoncat.com/stats/social-media-users-in-italy/2022/>). (NapoleonCat, 2023). Copyright 2023 by NapoleonCat.

As provided in Figure 227, the share of LinkedIn users aged 18-24 in Italy increased from 2019 to 2022. Even though the overall number of LinkedIn users increased from 2020 to 2021, there was a reduction in the share of young LinkedIn users in 2021 (NapoleonCat, 2022). This indicates that young people in Italy used LinkedIn less in post-pandemic period, preferring to use other ways of seeking employment. Nonetheless, the share of young LinkedIn users in Italy increased in 2022 to a higher level than in pre-pandemic times, with LinkedIn users aged 18-24 representing the second most active user group, along with 35-54 year olds, after 25-34 year olds (NapoleonCat, 2023). This makes LinkedIn an attractive tool for interaction with the Italian youth, including young women, especially on the topic of youth employment opportunities.



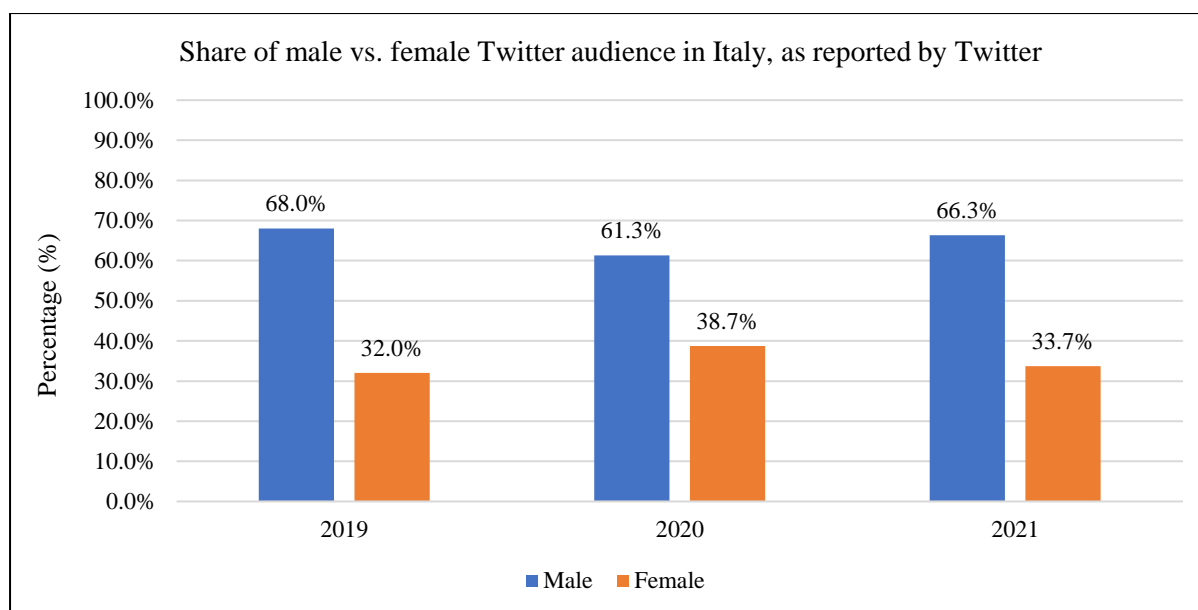


Figure 228. Share of male vs. female Twitter audience, as reported by Twitter, in Italy for years 2019-2021.

Note: Data adapted from:

- “Digital 2019: Italy” by S. Kemp, 2019, (<https://datareportal.com/reports/digital-2019-italy>). (Kemp, 2019). Copyright 2019 by Kepios.
- “Digital 2020: Italy” by S. Kemp, 2020, (<https://datareportal.com/reports/digital-2020-italy>). (Kemp, 2020). Copyright 2020 by Kepios.
- “Digital 2021: Italy” by S. Kemp, 2021, (<https://datareportal.com/reports/digital-2021-italy>). (Kemp, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Kepios.

Figure 228 shows that majority of Twitter audience in Italy was represented by male users over the period of 2019-2021. Although the share of female Twitter audience in Italy increased in 2020 during the pandemic due to a generally higher use of social media, it then decreased again in 2021 almost to its pre-pandemic level. Consequently, information promoted using Twitter will mostly reach male audience in Italy, which makes it a less effective communication tool to target female youth and raise awareness of young women of youth employment opportunities.

Advertising Audience Review for Italy, as of February 2022			
Platform	Total ad reach per population aged 13+	Male ad reach per total ad reach	Female ad reach per total ad reach
Facebook	53.0%	49.9%	50.1%
Instagram	51.0%	49.4%	50.6%
YouTube	74.9%*	49.2%	50.8%
TikTok	26.1%*	44.6%	55.4%
LinkedIn	31.4%*	52.0%	48.0%
Pinterest	15.9%	16.4%	78.7%
Snapchat	5.9%	29.0%	70.4%
*Note: data on total ad reach for YouTube, TikTok and LinkedIn is available only for population aged 18+			

Table 6. Advertising audience review for Italy, as of February 2022.

Note: Data adapted from: “Digital 2022: Italy” by S. Kemp, 2022, (<https://datareportal.com/reports/digital-2022-italy>). (Kemp, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Kepios.

Table 6 above shows that, for all given social media platforms, except LinkedIn, ad reach was higher for females than for males in Italy in 2022. The highest shares of female advertising audience in Italy were seen for Pinterest and Snapchat. YouTube had the highest ad reach in Italy, followed by Facebook, Instagram, LinkedIn, TikTok, Pinterest and Snapchat. This supports the argument that using Facebook, Instagram and LinkedIn can be effective in increasing engagement of young women in Italy in the area of youth employment. Creating a YouTube channel and sharing videos on the feedback of youth representatives, Q&As, useful tips, etc. can be beneficial for Youth for Europe in interacting with young females in Italy. Similar to France, Pinterest can still be used to target young women in Italy by sharing visual content related to youth employment opportunities due to its high share of female audience. TikTok presents a potentially feasible supporting communication channel in Italy, while Snapchat has the lowest audience reach, in spite of having a high share of female audience, which makes it a less attractive interaction tool.

### 8.3.3 Alternative Communication Channels

Table 7 below presents data on the use of various types of media, according to the results of the 2020 Censis report on the media and construction of identity in Italy (Censis, 2020). Similar to Finland, year-on-year increases are coded using green colour, decreases are coded using red colour and no change in value is coded using black colour in Table 7, with 2012 taken as the base year.

Evolution of Media Use in Italy*							
TV	2012	2013	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Satellite TV	36.8%	45.5%	42.4%	43.4%	43.5%	41.2%	41.1%
Traditional TV	95.0%	95.0%	94.0%	95.5%	92.2%	89.9%	87.4%
Web TV	21.1%	23.3%	28.3%	24.4%	26.8%	30.1%	34.5%
Mobile TV	2.5%	6.8%	11.6%	11.2%	22.1%	25.9%	28.2%
Radio	2012	2013	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Traditional radio	55.3%	56.5%	58.3%	63.1%	59.1%	56.2%	50.9%
Internet radio	10.1%	12.3%	14.3%	14.5%	18.6%	17.0%	17.3%
Mobile radio	9.8%	15.2%	17.2%	17.3%	19.1%	20.7%	21.3%
Newspapers	2012	2013	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Printed newspapers	45.5%	43.5%	41.9%	40.5%	35.8%	37.4%	37.3%
Online newspapers	20.3%	20.8%	23.4%	25.3%	25.2%	26.3%	26.4%
News websites	33.0%	34.3%	39.2%	40.5%	43.4%	46.1%	51.6%
*Note: no data available for 2014							

Table 7. Evolution of media use in Italy for years 2012-2019 (excluding 2014).

Note: Data adapted from: "La fruizione dei media degli italiani secondo Censis: boom mobile tv, bene radio, giù stampa ma crescono i siti di informazione" by Primaonline, 2020, (<https://www.primaonline.it/2020/02/20/301777/i-media-e-la-costruzione-dellidentita-16esimo-rapporto-censis-sulla-comunicazione/>). (Primaonline, 2020). Copyright 2020 by Primaonline.

As can be seen in Table 7, traditional television was the most used type of media in Italy over the period of 2012-2019, however, its use declined for 2017-2019. In contrast, the use of web television and mobile

television increased in Italy at the end of the given period. Similarly, traditional radio use decreased between 2012 and 2019, while the use of internet and mobile radio expanded. Moreover, there was a drop in the use of printed newspapers and an increase in the use of online newspapers and news websites in Italy between 2012-2019. These trends show a general shift in preference of media sources in Italy from traditional media, such as printed newspapers, to mobile-friendly and digital media. This is also supported by data provided in Figure 229 below:

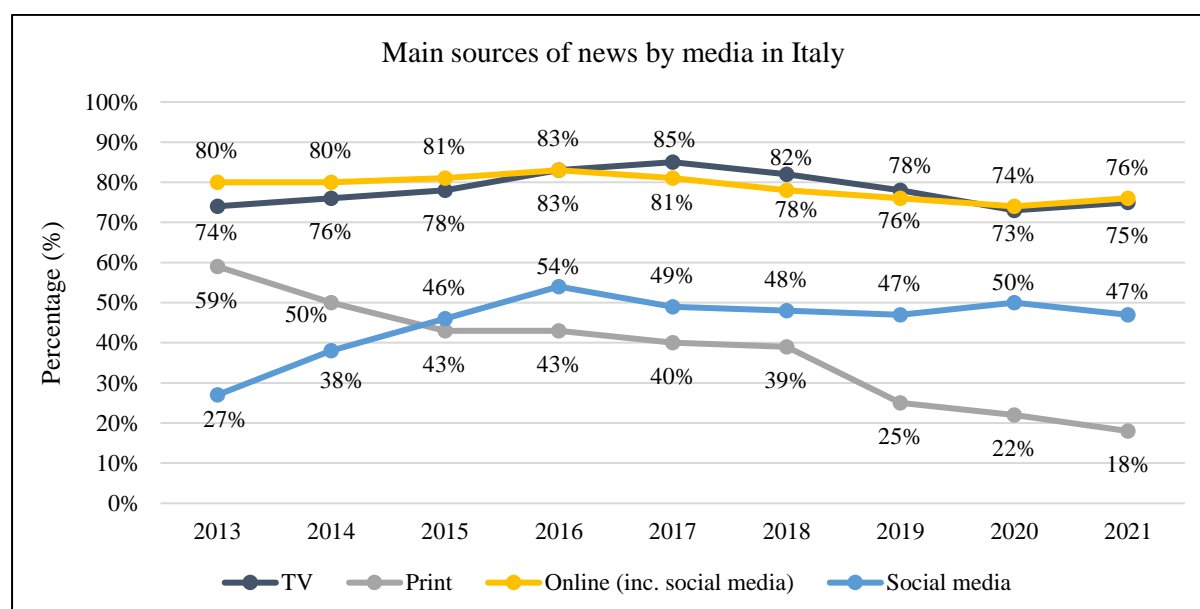


Figure 229. Main sources of news by media in Italy for years 2013-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Italy" by A. Cornia, 2021, (<https://reutersinstitute.politics.ox.ac.uk/digital-news-report/2021/italy>). (Cornia, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Reuters Institute for Study of Journalism.

Figure 229 shows that television and online media represented the most actively used sources of news in Italy over the period of 2013-2021, with online media being used more in 2020 and 2021 due to Covid-19. The use of social media increased significantly at the start of the period, but then remained fairly steady. In contrast, the use of printed media as the main source of news in Italy declined over the period of 2013-2021. This implies that printed media sources should not be used for the promotion of youth employment opportunities in Italy, especially given their high costs of advertising. Online media sources, including social media, should be leveraged as primary communication channels in targeting young females and raising awareness of youth employment opportunities in Italy. Given its high popularity in Italy, television also represents a potentially effective tool in promoting such opportunities, however, it has high costs of advertising.

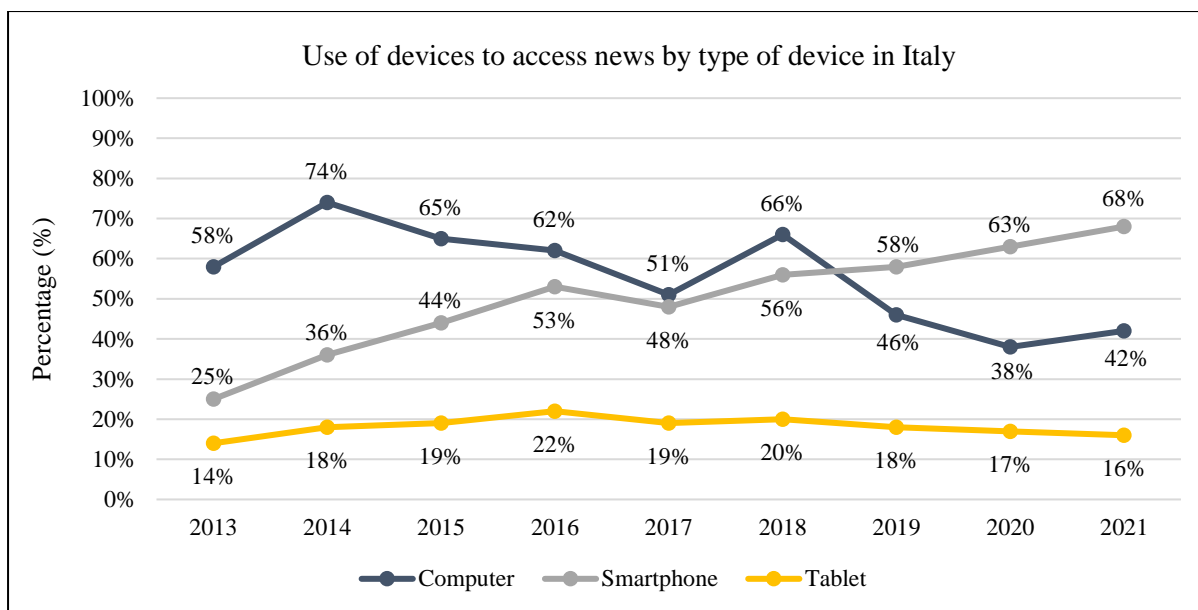


Figure 230. Devices used to access news in Italy for years 2013-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Italy" by A. Cornia, 2021, (<https://reutersinstitute.politics.ox.ac.uk/digital-news-report/2021/italy>). (Cornia, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Reuters Institute for Study of Journalism.

As provided in Figure 230, the use of smartphones to access news in Italy increased over the period of 2013-2021, whereas the use of computers declined, particularly in recent years. This is consistent with a general growth in the use of mobile versions of media sources in Italy, as shown in Table 7. For Youth for Europe, this implies that promotional information should be shared through mobile-friendly communication channels. Furthermore, a mobile application would be beneficial for increasing the engagement with female youth in Italy, similar to Finland and France.

## 8.4 Luxembourg

### 8.4.1 Internet Use

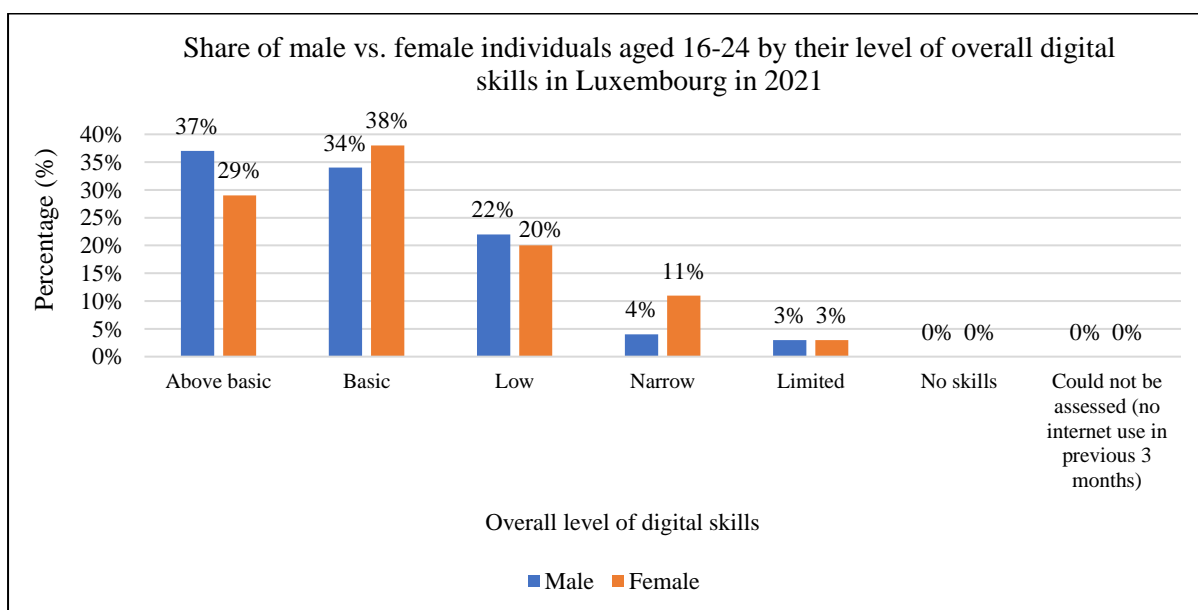


Figure 231. Share of male vs. female individuals aged 16-24 by their level of overall digital skills in Luxembourg in 2021.

Note: Data adapted from: “Individuals’ level of digital skills (from 2021 onwards)” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ISOC\\_SK\\_DSKL\\_I21/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ISOC_SK_DSKL_I21/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As shown in Figure 231 above, majority of young females in Luxembourg had a basic level of digital skills in 2021, while majority of young male users had an above basic level of digital skills. Approximately a third of young women in Luxembourg had low or narrow levels of digital skills, with 3% having limited digital skills in 2021. Nonetheless, there were no young males or females in Luxembourg with no digital skills in 2021, which implies that all youth can interact using digital communication channels to some extent. Consequently, the use of digital communication is beneficial for targeting young women in Luxembourg, however, other modes of communication should be implemented to engage with young females, who have lower levels of digital skills.

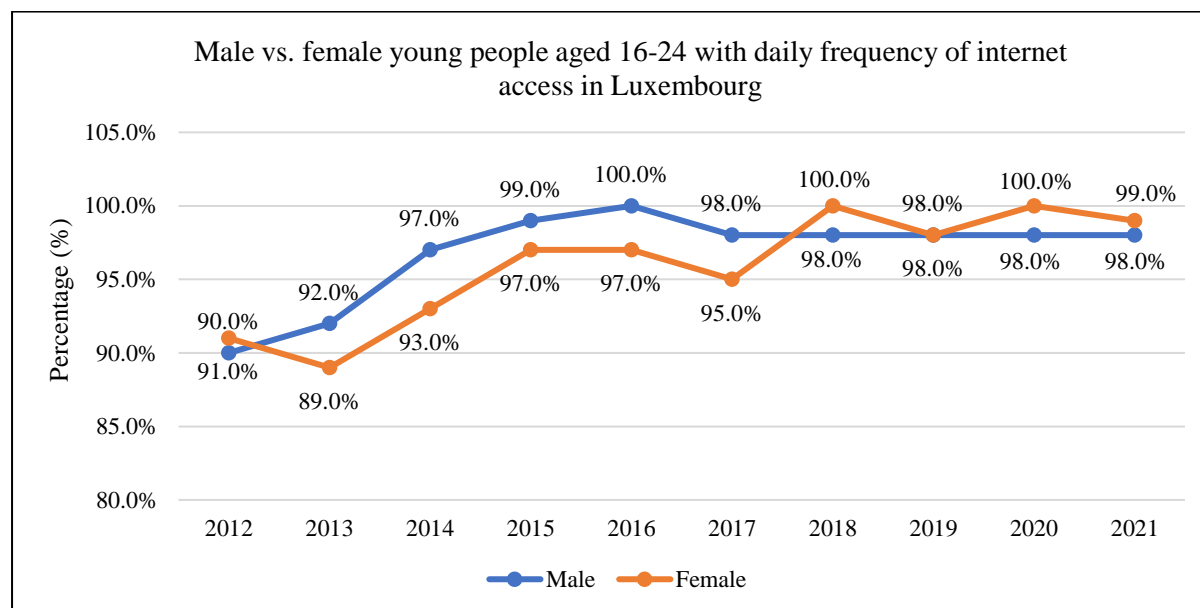


Figure 232. Share of male vs. female young people aged 16-24 with daily frequency of internet use in Luxembourg for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: “Individuals – frequency of internet use” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ISOC\\_CI\\_IFP\\_FU/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ISOC_CI_IFP_FU/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As provided in Figure 232, the share of young males with daily frequency of internet access was higher in Luxembourg than the share of young females for years 2013-2017. Over the period of 2018-2021, the share of young women with daily frequency of internet access was higher than or equal to the share of young men in Luxembourg, being equal to or close to 100%. This indicates that almost all young women accessed internet daily in recent years in Luxembourg, which is consistent with Luxembourg having high connectivity across all regions in the country (The Government of the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg, n.d.). Therefore, information shared through internet and digital communication tools is likely to be effective in reaching a significant majority of young women in Luxembourg, however, the level of digital skills of young females should be taken into consideration.

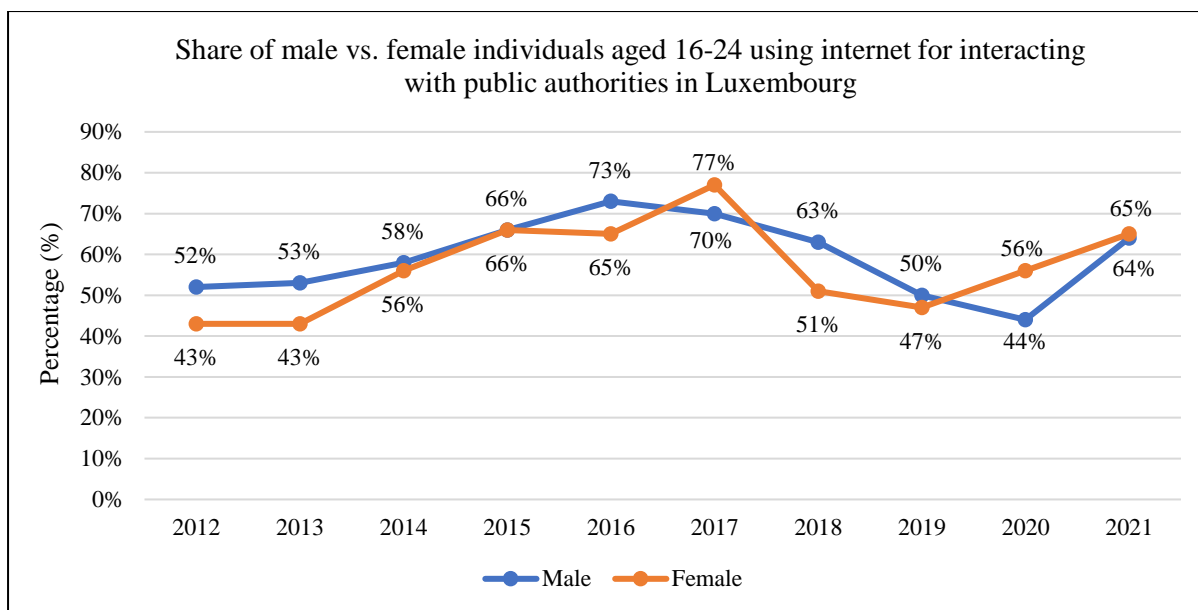
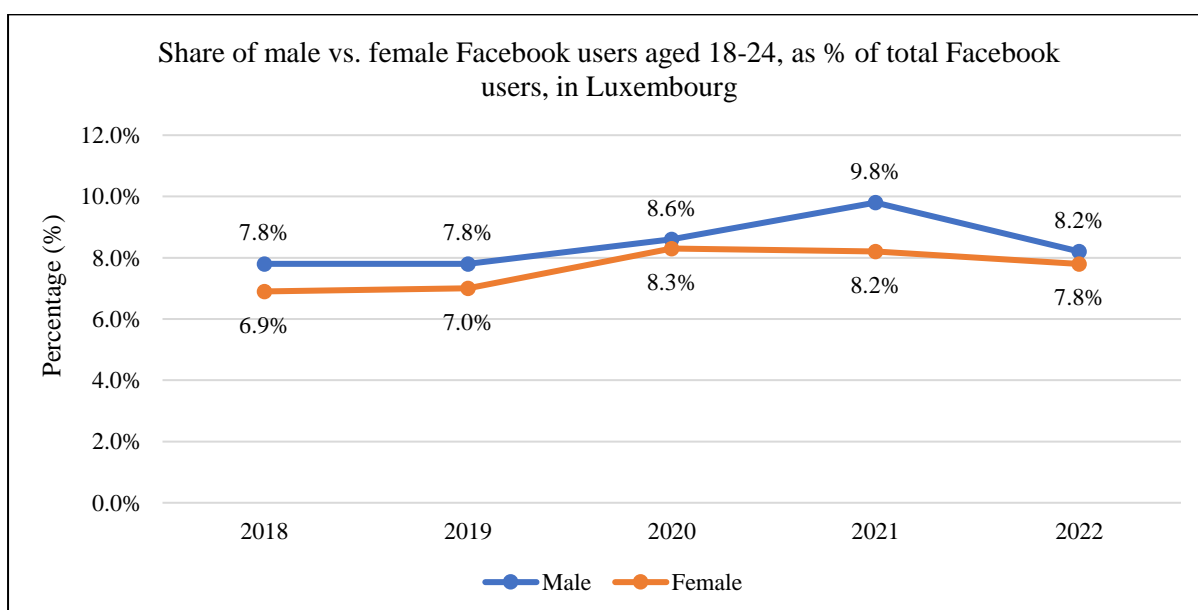


Figure 233. Share of male vs. female individuals aged 16-24 using internet for interacting with public authorities in Luxembourg for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Individuals using the internet for interacting with public authorities" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ISOC\\_BDE15EI/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ISOC_BDE15EI/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

Figure 233 shows that the share of young males using internet to interact with authorities was higher than the share of young females in Luxembourg over the period of 2012-2019, with the exception of 2015 and 2017. In 2020-2021, the share of young females using internet to interact with authorities increased and overtook the share of males in Luxembourg, experiencing a growing trend. Therefore, the information on youth volunteering opportunities shared through public administration channels, such as their websites and social media profiles, can reach majority of female youth in Luxembourg. Nonetheless, a considerable number of young women does not interact with authorities via internet, so digital and non-digital communication channels should be used in addition to public administration channels to raise awareness of young females of youth volunteering opportunities in Luxembourg.

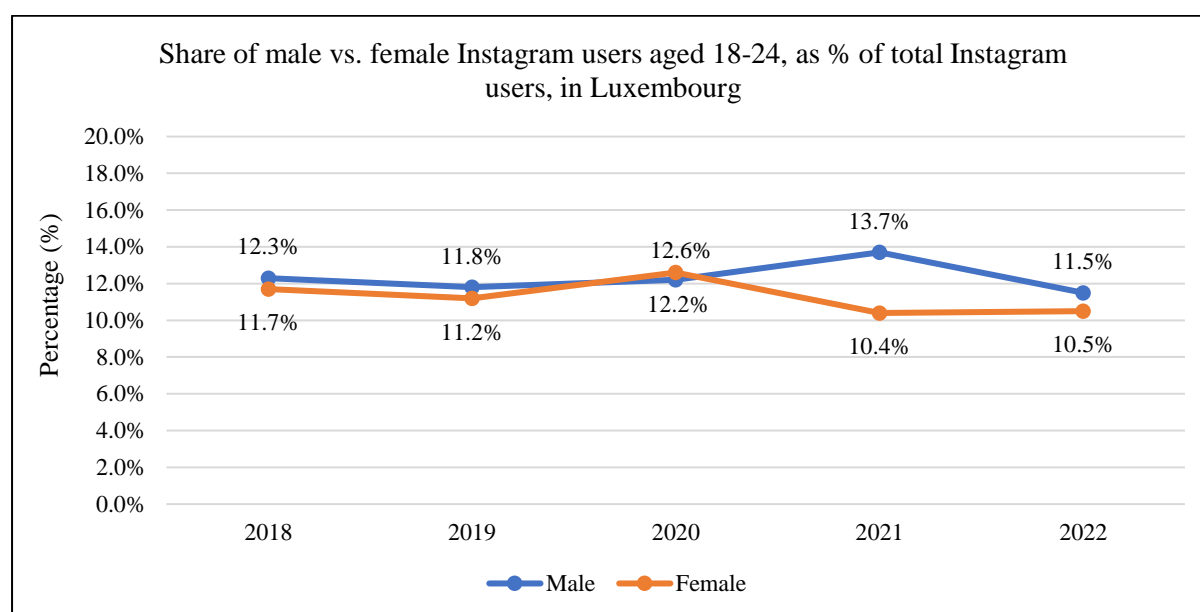
#### 8.4.2 Social Media



*Figure 234. Share of male vs. female Facebook users aged 18-24, as percentage of total Facebook users, in Luxembourg for years 2018-2022.*

*Note: Data adapted from: "Social media users in Luxembourg" by NapoleonCat, 2023, (<https://napoleoncat.com/stats/social-media-users-in-luxembourg/2022/>). (NapoleonCat, 2023). Copyright 2023 by NapoleonCat.*

As presented in Figure 234 above, the share of male Facebook users aged 18-24 in Luxembourg was higher than the share of female Facebook users aged 18-24 over the entire period of 2018-2022. Even though the differences are relatively moderate, this implies that using Facebook might be less effective when targeting young women, as opposed to young men, in Luxembourg. Moreover, Facebook users aged 18-24 were the fourth most active user group in Luxembourg in 2022, after 25-34, 35-44 and 45-54 year olds (NapoleonCat, 2023). Therefore, Facebook can be used for interaction with youth in Luxembourg, including young females, but it should not be the primary mode of communication and should be supported by other communication channels.



*Figure 235. Share of male vs. female Instagram users aged 18-24, as percentage of total Instagram users, in Luxembourg for years 2018-2022.*

*Note: Data adapted from: "Social media users in Luxembourg" by NapoleonCat, 2023, (<https://napoleoncat.com/stats/social-media-users-in-luxembourg/2022/>). (NapoleonCat, 2023). Copyright 2023 by NapoleonCat.*

Figure 235 shows that the share of male Instagram users aged 18-24 in Luxembourg was higher than the share of female users over the period of 2018-2022, with the exception of 2020. Nevertheless, the shares of both male and female Instagram users aged 18-24 in Luxembourg were higher over the given period than the shares of young Facebook users, as given in Figures 234 and 235. This makes Instagram a potentially more effective tool for youth engagement in Luxembourg, including for young women. Furthermore, Instagram users aged 18-24 were the second most active user group in Luxembourg in 2022, after 25-34 year olds (NapoleonCat, 2023). Hence, Instagram should be used to raise awareness of young women of youth volunteering opportunities in Luxembourg.

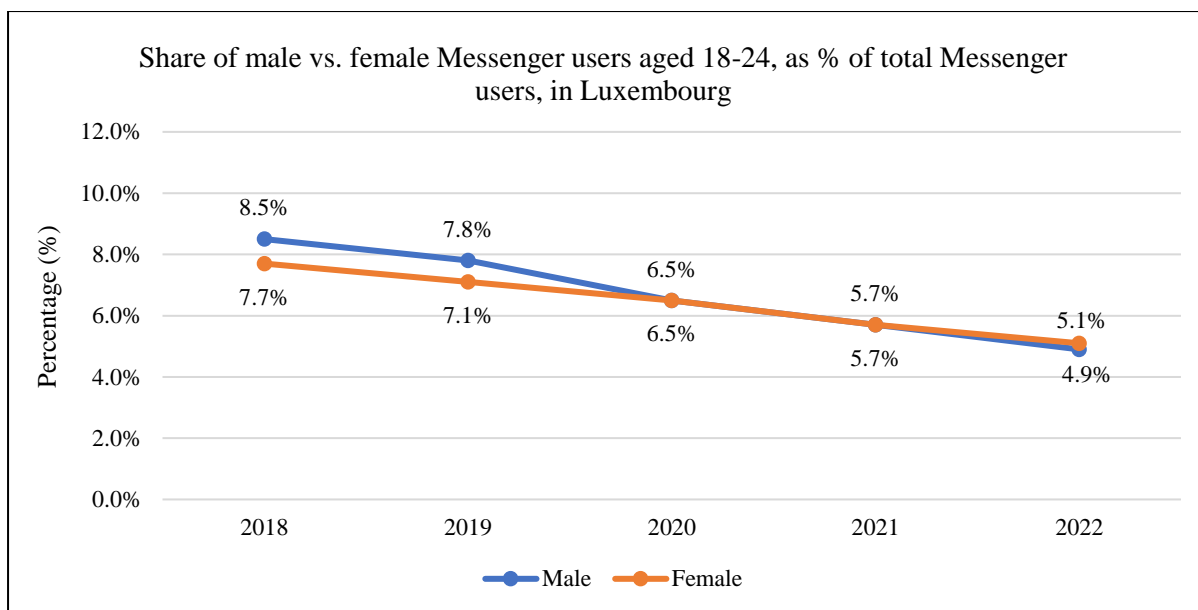


Figure 236. Share of male vs. female Messenger users aged 18-24, as percentage of total Messenger users, in Luxembourg for years 2018-2022.

Note: Data adapted from: "Social media users in Luxembourg" by NapoleonCat, 2023, (<https://napoleoncat.com/stats/social-media-users-in-luxembourg/2022/>). (NapoleonCat, 2023). Copyright 2023 by NapoleonCat.

As provided in Figure 236, the shares of male and female Messenger users experienced a declining trend in Luxembourg over the period of 2018-2022, which was also seen in Finland, France and Italy. The decline was sharper for young male Messenger users and more gradual for young female Messenger users in Luxembourg. In 2022, Messenger users aged 18-24 were the second least active user group in Luxembourg, with only 65+ year olds being less active (NapoleonCat, 2023). Hence, Messenger can only be used as a supporting tool for youth interaction in Luxembourg in a form of answering questions and responding to messages addressed to Youth for Europe's Facebook page.

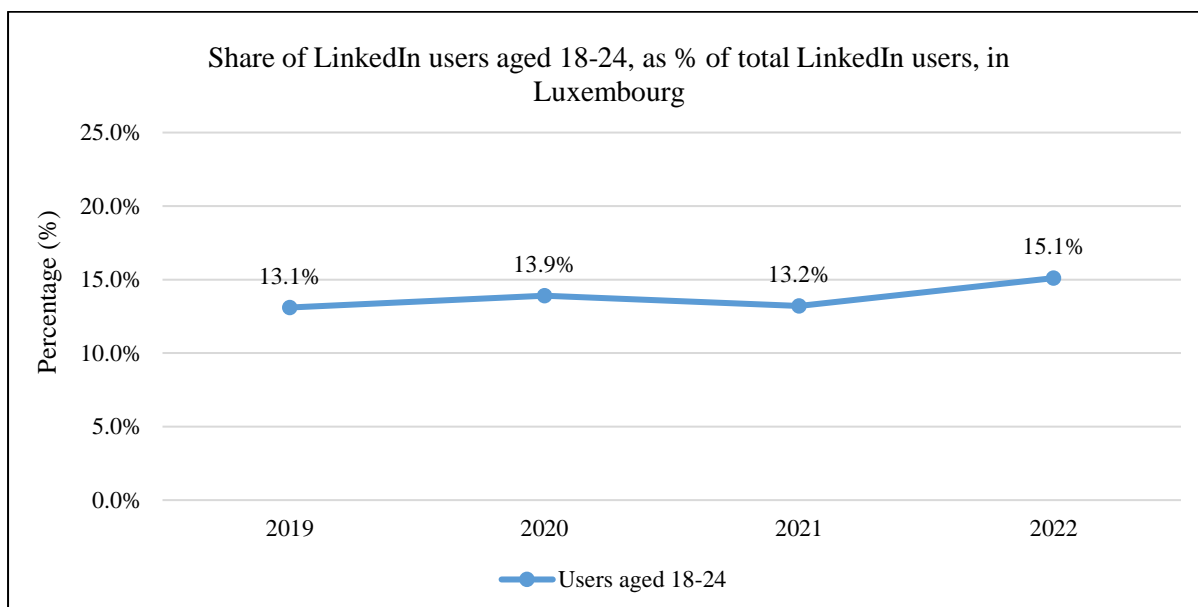


Figure 237. Share of LinkedIn users aged 18-24, as percentage of total LinkedIn users, in Luxembourg for years 2019-2022.

Note: Data adapted from: "Social media users in Luxembourg" by NapoleonCat, 2023, (<https://napoleoncat.com/stats/social-media-users-in-luxembourg/2022/>). (NapoleonCat, 2023). Copyright 2023 by NapoleonCat.



Figure 237 shows that the share of LinkedIn users aged 18-24 increased in Luxembourg from 2019 to 2022. Similar to Italy, there was an increase in the overall number of LinkedIn users from 2020 to 2021 (NapoleonCat, 2022). Therefore, a decrease in the share of young LinkedIn users in Luxembourg in 2021 is not related to the overall number of users and is specific to youth. This means that in post-pandemic period, the engagement of the Luxembourgish youth on LinkedIn was lower. However, it increased again in 2022, surpassing pre-pandemic levels, indicating that LinkedIn could be a valuable youth interaction tool in Luxembourg. LinkedIn users aged 18-24 were the third most active group in Luxembourg in 2022, after 25-34 and 35-54 year olds, which implies that LinkedIn should be supported by other communication channels (NapoleonCat, 2023).

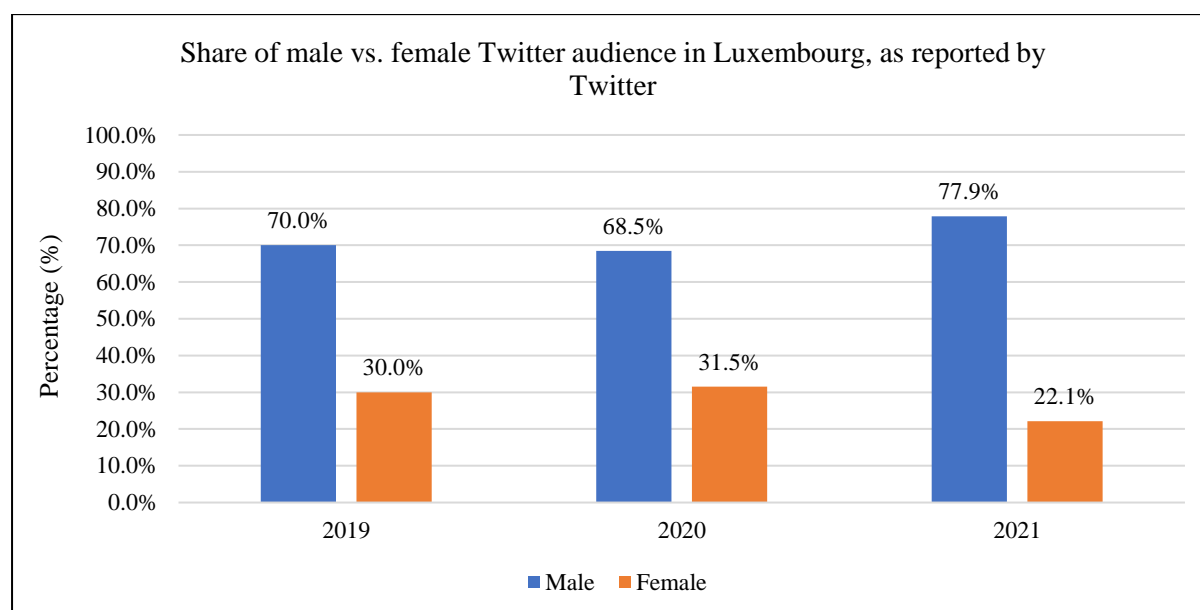


Figure 238. Share of male vs. female Twitter audience, as reported by Twitter, in Luxembourg for years 2019-2021.

Note: Data adapted from:

- “Digital 2019: Luxembourg” by S. Kemp, 2019, (<https://datareportal.com/reports/digital-2019-luxembourg>). (Kemp, 2019). Copyright 2019 by Kepios.
- “Digital 2020: Luxembourg” by S. Kemp, 2020, (<https://datareportal.com/reports/digital-2020-luxembourg>). (Kemp, 2020). Copyright 2020 by Kepios.
- “Digital 2021: Luxembourg” by S. Kemp, 2021, (<https://datareportal.com/reports/digital-2021-luxembourg>). (Kemp, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Kepios.

As given in Figure 238, majority of Twitter audience in Luxembourg was represented by male users for years 2019-2021, which is a trend also seen in other countries. Even though the share of female Twitter users increased in 2020 in Luxembourg, it then dropped to a lower level than in pre-pandemic time in 2021. This indicates that Twitter is not the most marketable social media platform for women in Luxembourg, including female youth. Therefore, promoting youth volunteering opportunities on Twitter for young females in Luxembourg will be less effective than using other social media platforms.

Advertising Audience Review for Luxembourg, as of February 2022			
Platform	Total ad reach per population aged 13+	Male ad reach per total ad reach	Female ad reach per total ad reach
Facebook	56.7%	50.3%	49.7%
Instagram	49.3%	46.8%	53.2%

LinkedIn	59.8%*	57.1%	42.9%
Pinterest	25.4%	22.5%	72.9%
Snapchat	80.2%	44.9%	54.4%

*\*Note: data on total ad reach for LinkedIn is available only for population aged 18+; data on ad reach for YouTube and TikTok is not available*

Table 8. Advertising audience review for Luxembourg, as of February 2022.

Note: Data adapted from: "Digital 2022: Luxembourg" by S. Kemp, 2022, (<https://datareportal.com/reports/digital-2022-luxembourg>). (Kemp, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Kepios.

Table 8 above shows that ad reach was higher for females for Instagram, Pinterest and Snapchat and was higher for males for Facebook and LinkedIn in Luxembourg in 2022. Snapchat had the highest ad reach in Luxembourg in 2022, followed by LinkedIn, Facebook, Instagram and Pinterest, with Pinterest having the highest share of female advertising audience. This implies that Snapchat should be actively used to promote youth engagement in volunteering in Luxembourg, particularly for young females, who constitute majority of the total audience. As previously discussed, Facebook, Instagram and LinkedIn also represent potentially effective social media platforms for youth engagement in Luxembourg. Although Pinterest had the lowest audience reach in Luxembourg in 2022, it had the highest share of female audience, so it can be helpful in raising awareness of female youth of volunteering opportunities through visual content related to youth volunteering.

### 8.4.3 Alternative Communication Channels

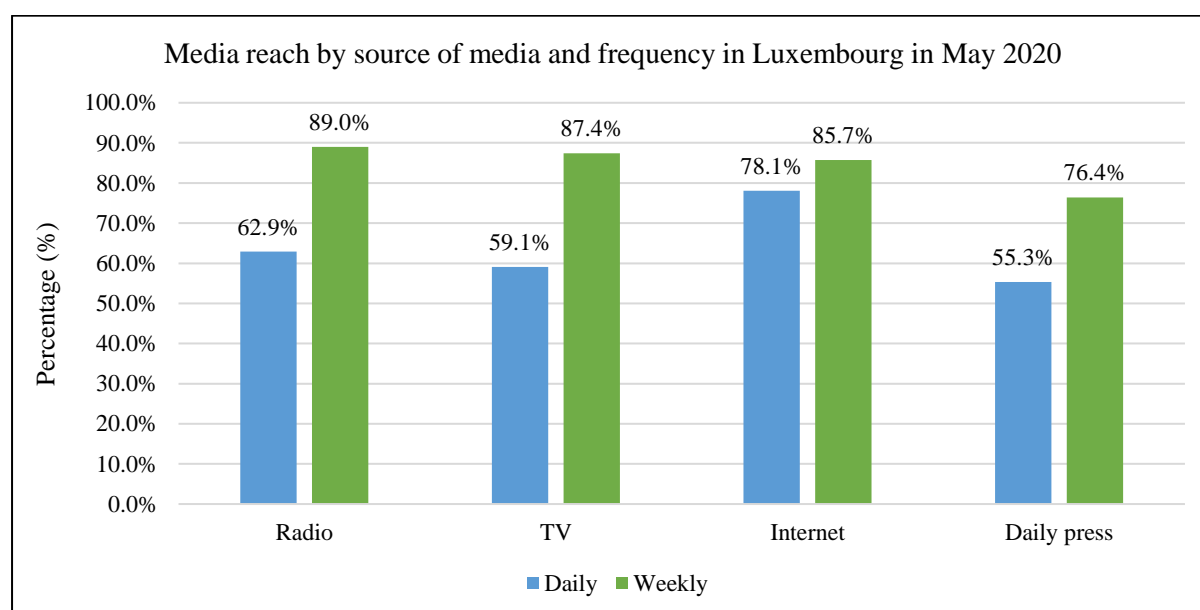


Figure 239. Media reach by source of media in Luxembourg in May 2020.

Note: Data adapted from: "Reach of selected media in Luxembourg as of May 2020, by frequency" by M. C. Götting, 2021, (<https://www.statista.com/statistics/1228606/media-reach-luxembourg/>). (Götting, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Statista.

As can be seen in Figure 239 above, internet had the highest daily media reach, while radio had the highest weekly media reach in Luxembourg in May 2020. When considering both daily and weekly media reach, internet seems to be the most effective source of media in Luxembourg. Hence, internet communication channels should be actively used in promoting youth volunteering opportunities in Luxembourg. In contrast to other countries, the audience reach of radio was greater than the audience reach of television and daily press in Luxembourg in May 2020. In spite of its high cost, radio advertising has several benefits, such as the ability to target selected audience groups and the potential

to invoke emotional response from the audience through audio communication (WellSaid Labs, 2022). Furthermore, the cost of radio advertising is still lower than the cost of advertising through television or printed media (WellSaid Labs, 2022). Podcasts, interviews and testimonials of current volunteers, particularly young women, and volunteering organisations in Luxembourg present examples of potentially effective types of radio advertising to promote youth volunteering opportunities. As shown in Figure 239, daily press had the lowest daily and weekly media reach in Luxembourg in May 2020, which makes it the least effective communication channel.

Reach of printed vs. online newspapers in Luxembourg from February 2021 to January 2022		
Newspaper	Printed	Online
Luxembourger Wort	22.0%	4.0%
L'essentiel	16.6%	2.4%
Tageblatt	4.9%	1.6%
Le Quotidien	2.3%	0.7%

Table 9. Reach of daily printed vs. online newspapers in Luxembourg from February 2021 to January 2022.

Note: Data adapted from:

- “Reach of printed paid daily newspapers in Luxembourg from February 2021 to January 2022” by A. Watson, 2022, (<https://www.statista.com/statistics/1235948/daily-newspaper-reach-in-luxembourg/>). (Watson, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Statista.
- “Reach of online paid daily newspapers in Luxembourg from February 2021 to January 2022” by A. Watson, 2022, (<https://www.statista.com/statistics/1235948/daily-online-newspaper-reach-in-luxembourg/>). (Watson, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Statista.

In contrast to other countries, the reach of printed versions of popular paid newspapers in Luxembourg was higher than the reach of their online versions from February 2021 to January 2022, as shown in Table 9. This indicates that paying for digital newspaper advertising to promote information on youth volunteering opportunities in Luxembourg is likely to be ineffective and impractical due to a very low audience reach. Even though printed newspaper versions had higher reach than online versions in Luxembourg from February 2021 to January 2022, the reach of printed media was still lower than the reach of other types of media, as shown in Figure 239. Therefore, printed media should not be used as a communication channel in promoting youth volunteering opportunities in Luxembourg.

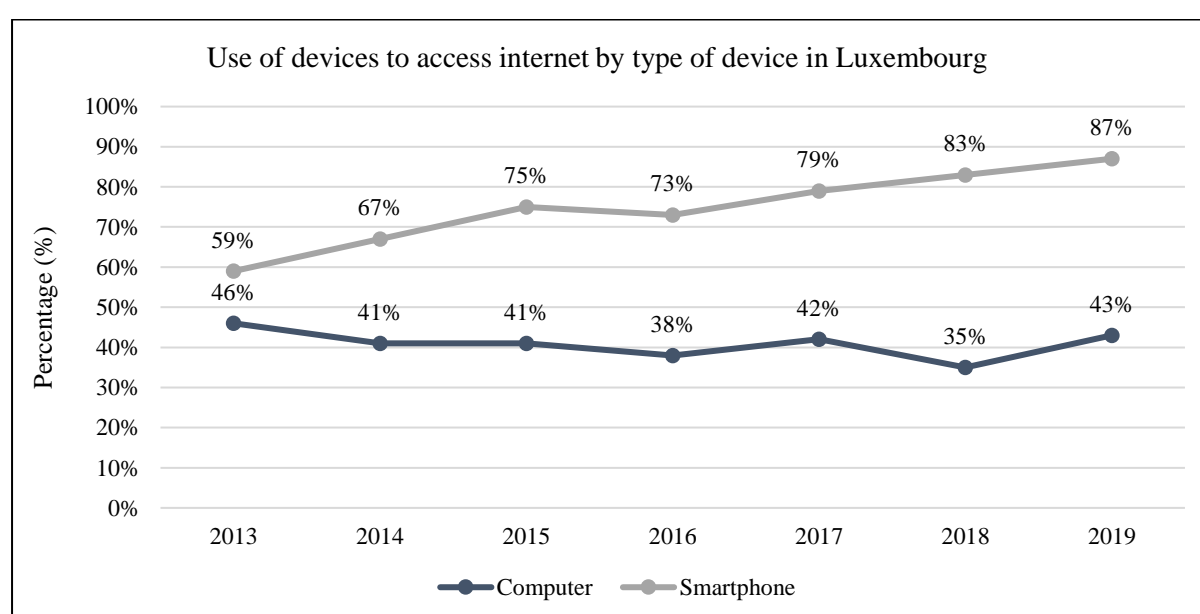


Figure 240. Use of devices to access internet by type of device in Luxembourg for years 2013-2019.

Note: Data adapted from: “Access and use of Internet in households and by individuals (in %)” by STATEC, 2022, ([https://lstat.statec.lu/vis?pg=0&lc=en&tm=smartphone&df\[ds\]=ds-release&df\[id\]=DF\\_C1401&df\[ag\]=LU1&df\[vs\]=1.0&pd=%2C&dq=A.&vw=tb](https://lstat.statec.lu/vis?pg=0&lc=en&tm=smartphone&df[ds]=ds-release&df[id]=DF_C1401&df[ag]=LU1&df[vs]=1.0&pd=%2C&dq=A.&vw=tb)). (STATEC, 2022). Copyright 2022 by STATEC.

As provided in Figure 240, there was an increase in the use of smartphones to access internet and a decline in the use of computers to access internet in Luxembourg over the period of 2013-2019. For Youth for Europe, this indicates the need to have mobile-friendly versions of the main communication channels used to promote youth volunteering opportunities. Similar to Finland, France and Italy, having a mobile application can support youth engagement in Luxembourg, including young women, and ensure that users are quickly notified when new volunteering opportunities are posted.

## 8.5 Slovakia

### 8.5.1 Internet Use

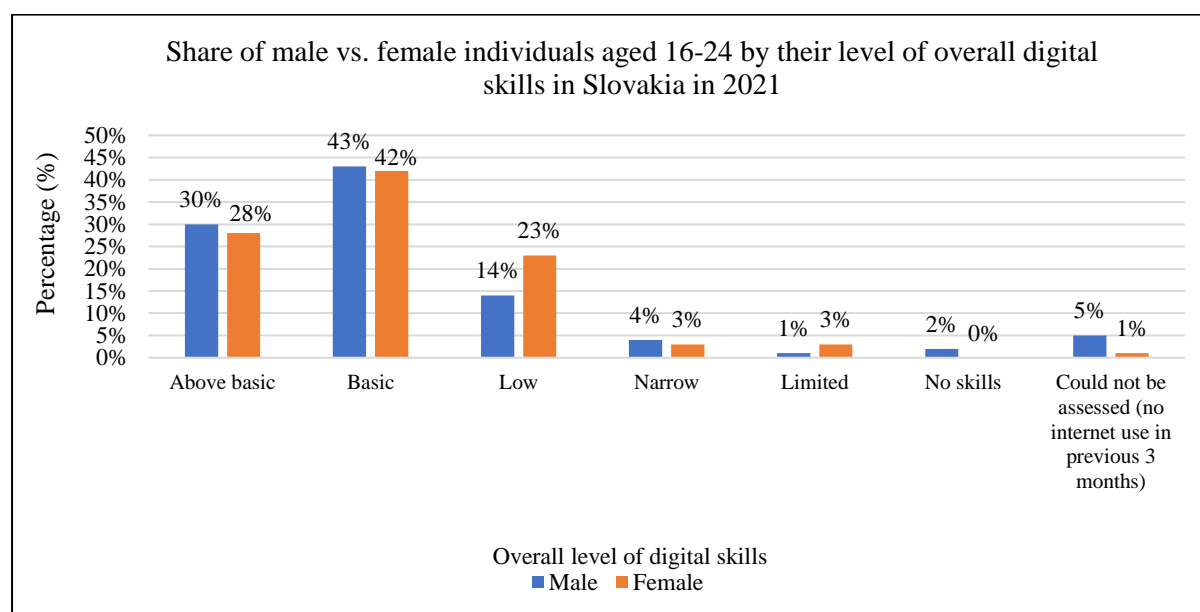


Figure 241. Share of male vs. female individuals aged 16-24 by their level of overall digital skills in Slovakia in 2021.

Note: Data adapted from: “Individuals’ level of digital skills (from 2021 onwards)” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ISOC\\_SK\\_DSKL\\_I21/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ISOC_SK_DSKL_I21/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As can be seen in Figure 241 above, majority of young females in Slovakia had a basic level of digital skills in 2021. While approximately a third of young women had an above basic level of digital skills in Slovakia in 2021, almost a third was also represented by young females with low, narrow and limited levels of digital skills. This implies that using digital communication channels can be effective in targeting many young women in Slovakia, yet a considerable number of young females could face challenges in receiving and acting on the information shared online. Therefore, alternative non-digital communication channels should be implemented in Slovakia to ensure that those young women, who have lower levels of digital skills, are still reached.

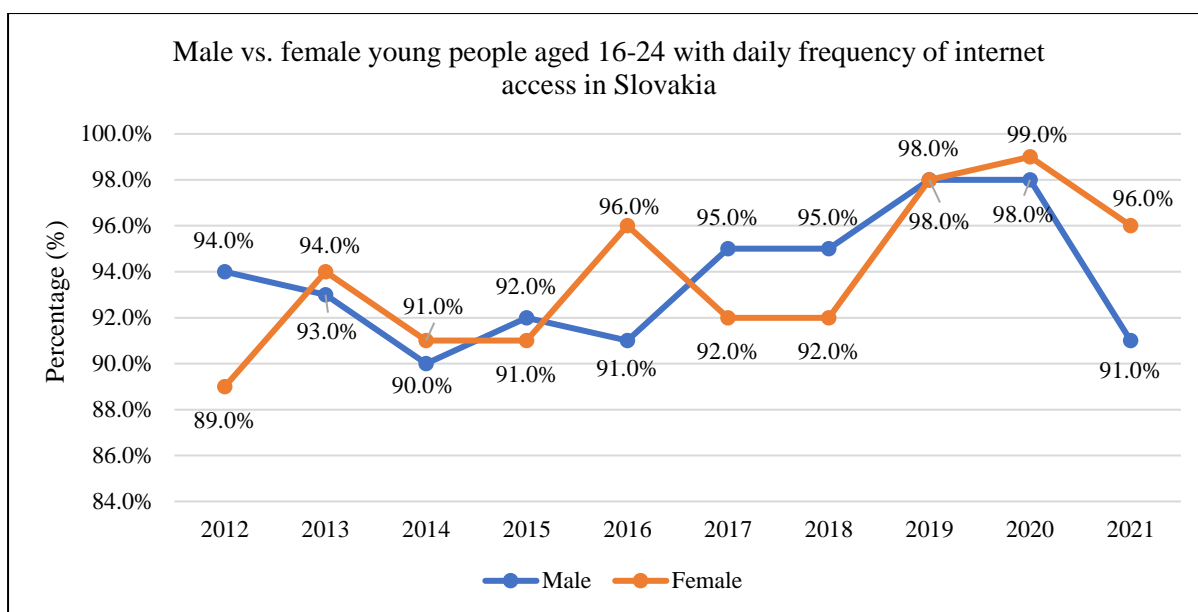


Figure 242. Share of male vs. female young people aged 16-24 with daily frequency of internet use in Slovakia for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Individuals – frequency of internet use" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ISOC\\_CI\\_IFP\\_FU/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ISOC_CI_IFP_FU/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

Figure 242 shows that the shares of young males and females with daily frequency of internet access fluctuated in Slovakia over the period of 2012-2021, with the share of young females dominating in 2020 and 2021. In recent years, almost all young Slovak women accessed internet daily, which means that sharing information on youth education through internet has the potential to reach a vast majority of young females. Hence, digital communication channels are effective, yet they should be varied and supported by other channels to accommodate different levels of digital skills of young Slovak women.

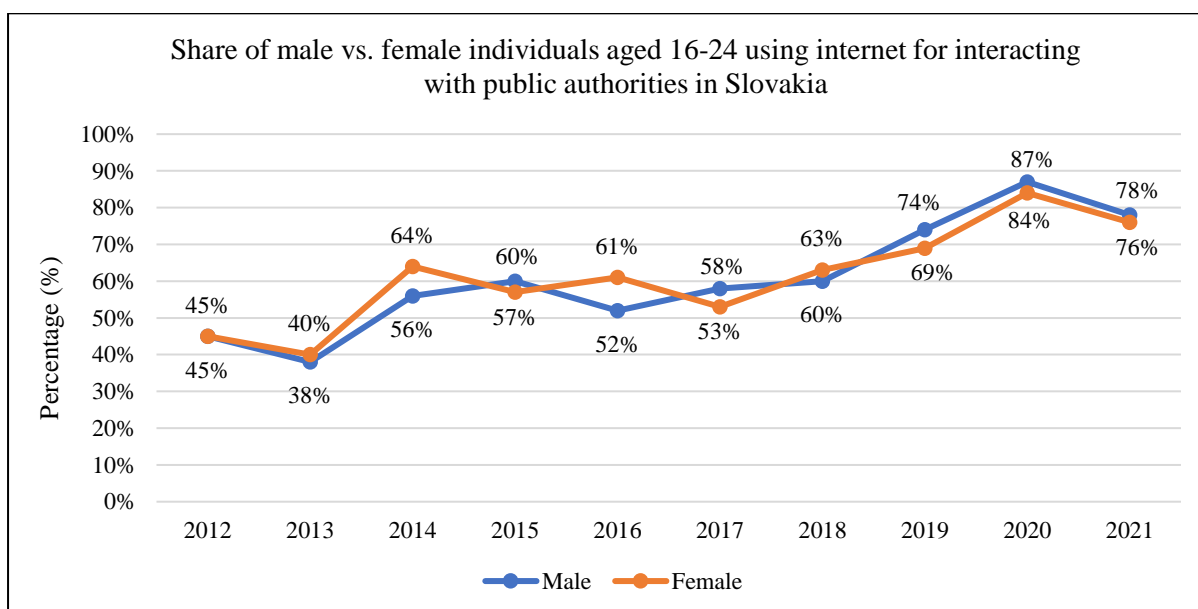


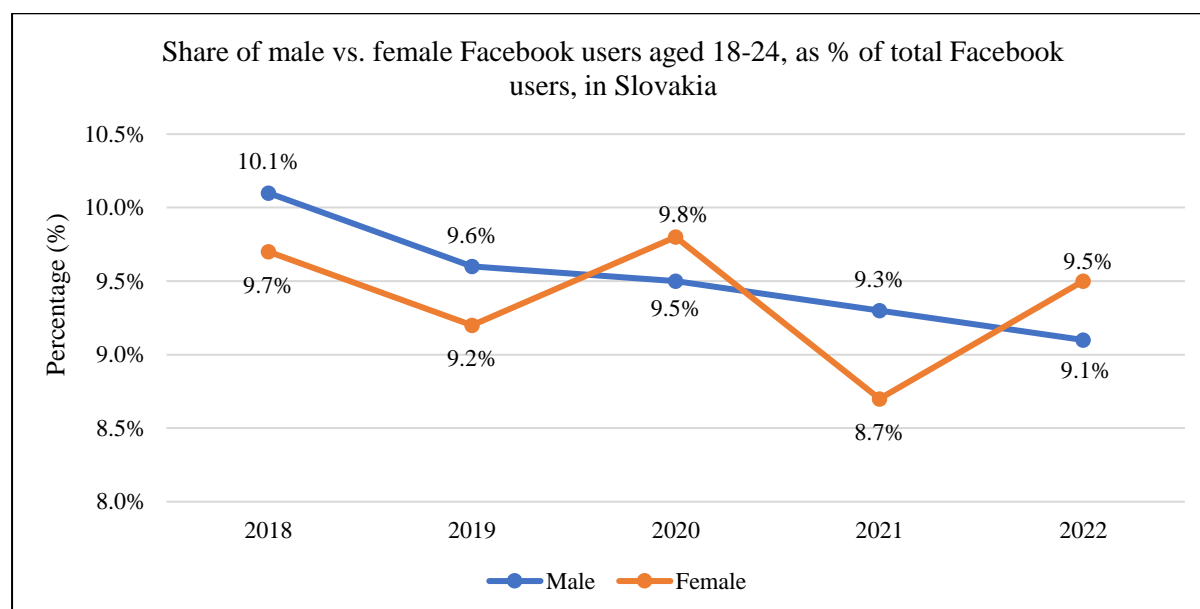
Figure 243. Share of male vs. female individuals aged 16-24 using internet for interacting with public authorities in Slovakia for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Individuals using the internet for interacting with public authorities" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ISOC\\_BDE15EI/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ISOC_BDE15EI/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As presented in Figure 243, the share of young females using internet to interact with public authorities in Slovakia generally dominated over the period of 2012-2018, with the exception of 2015 and 2017,

whereas the share of young males was higher for years 2019-2021. Over the recent years, sharing information on youth education via public administration channels, such as their websites and social media profiles, had the potential of reaching majority of young women in Slovakia. Nonetheless, other digital and non-digital communication modes should be used to target young females, who do not interact with authorities over internet or do not actively use digital communication channels.

## 8.5.2 Social Media



*Figure 244. Share of male vs. female Facebook users aged 18-24, as percentage of total Facebook users, in Slovakia for years 2018-2022.*

*Note: Data adapted from: "Social media users in Slovakia" by NapoleonCat, 2023, (<https://napoleoncat.com/stats/social-media-users-in-slovakia/2022/>). (NapoleonCat, 2023). Copyright 2023 by NapoleonCat.*

As shown in Figure 244, the share of male Facebook users aged 18-24 experienced a downward trend in Slovakia over the period of 2018-2022. The same was not true for the share of female Facebook users aged 18-24, which had an increase both in 2020 and 2022. The total share of young Facebook users in Slovakia changed from 18.1% in 2021 to 18.5% in 2022, yet the increase in the share of young female Facebook users was higher. This indicates that more young women interacted using Facebook in 2022, making it a potentially effective platform for female youth engagement in Slovakia (NapoleonCat, 2022) (NapoleonCat, 2023). Furthermore, Facebook users aged 18-24 represented the third most active user group in Slovakia in 2022, after 25-34 and 35-44 year olds (NapoleonCat, 2023). Hence, Facebook should be considered a relatively beneficial platform for youth interaction in Slovakia.

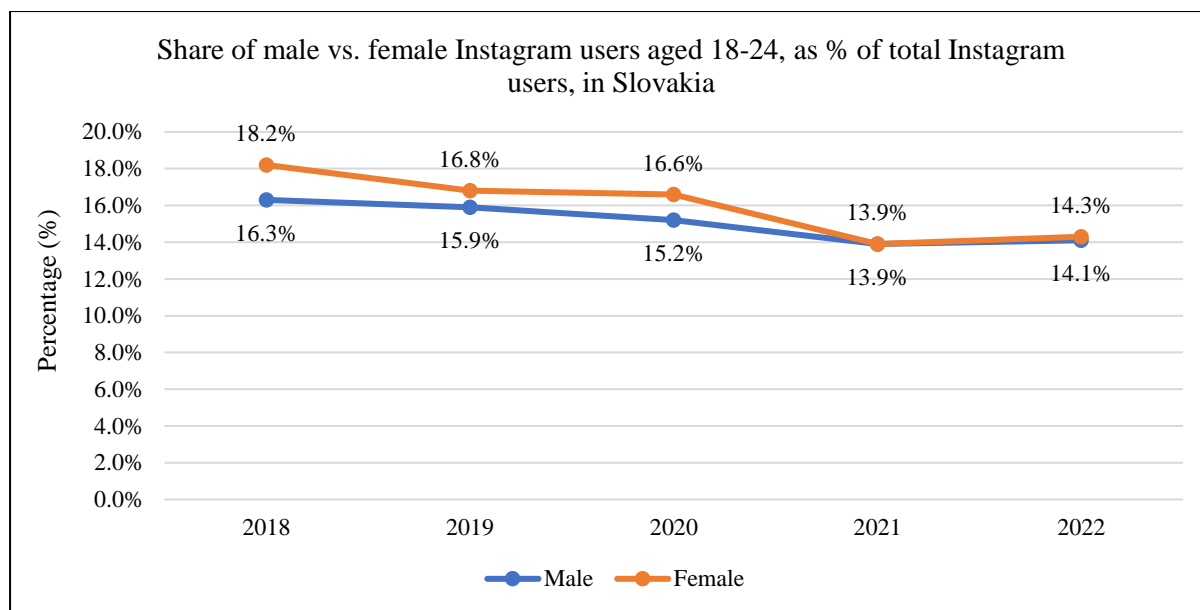


Figure 245. Share of male vs. female Instagram users aged 18-24, as percentage of total Instagram users, in Slovakia for years 2018-2022.

Note: Data adapted from: "Social media users in Slovakia" by NapoleonCat, 2023, (<https://napoleoncat.com/stats/social-media-users-in-slovakia/2022/>). (NapoleonCat, 2023). Copyright 2023 by NapoleonCat.

Figure 245 shows that the share of female Instagram users aged 18-24 in Slovakia was higher than the share of male Instagram users aged 18-24 over the period of 2018-2022, with the exception of 2021, when the shares were equal. The shares of both male and female Instagram users aged 18-24 were higher than the shares of young male and female Facebook users for the given period, as provided in Figures 244 and 245. Moreover, Facebook users aged 18-24 represented the second most active user group in Slovakia in 2022, after 25-34 year olds (NapoleonCat, 2023). This implies that Instagram is an effective tool for youth interaction in Slovakia, particularly for young females, and can be used jointly with Facebook to promote youth education opportunities.

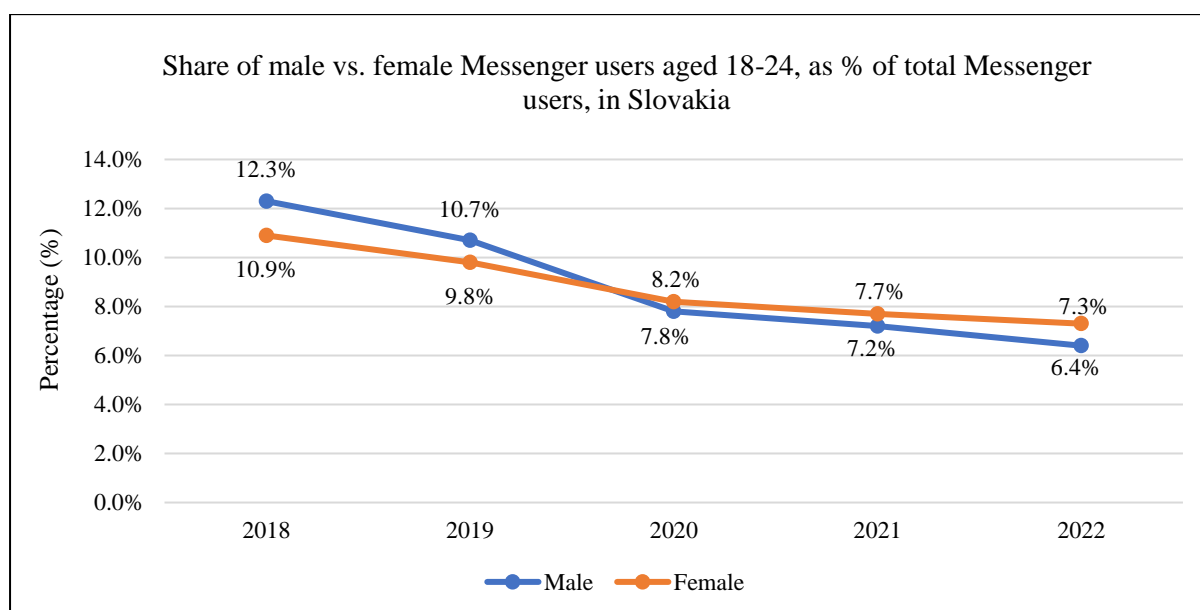
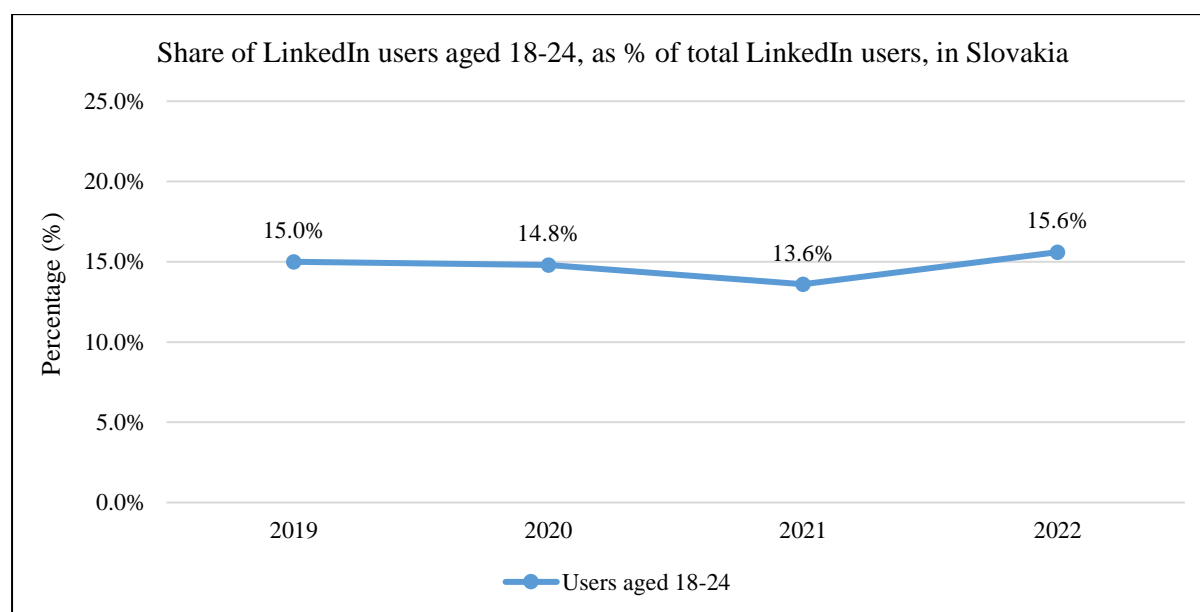


Figure 246. Share of male vs. female Messenger users aged 18-24, as percentage of total Messenger users, in Slovakia for years 2018-2022.

Note: Data adapted from: "Social media users in Slovakia" by NapoleonCat, 2023, (<https://napoleoncat.com/stats/social-media-users-in-slovakia/2022/>). (NapoleonCat, 2023). Copyright 2023 by NapoleonCat.

As presented in Figure 246, the shares of male and female Messenger users aged 18-24 decreased in Slovakia over the period of 2018-2022. Similar to Luxembourg, the decline was sharper for young male users and steadier for young female users. In 2022, Messenger users aged 18-24 represented only the fourth most active user group in Slovakia, after 25-34, 35-44 and 45-54 year olds (NapoleonCat, 2023). Even though the decreasing trends indicate that Messenger should not be used as a primary communication tool for youth in Slovakia, the shares of young male and female Messenger users in Slovakia are higher than in other countries. Therefore, using Messenger as a supporting communication channel can be beneficial for interacting with the Slovak youth, including females, e.g. answering their questions.

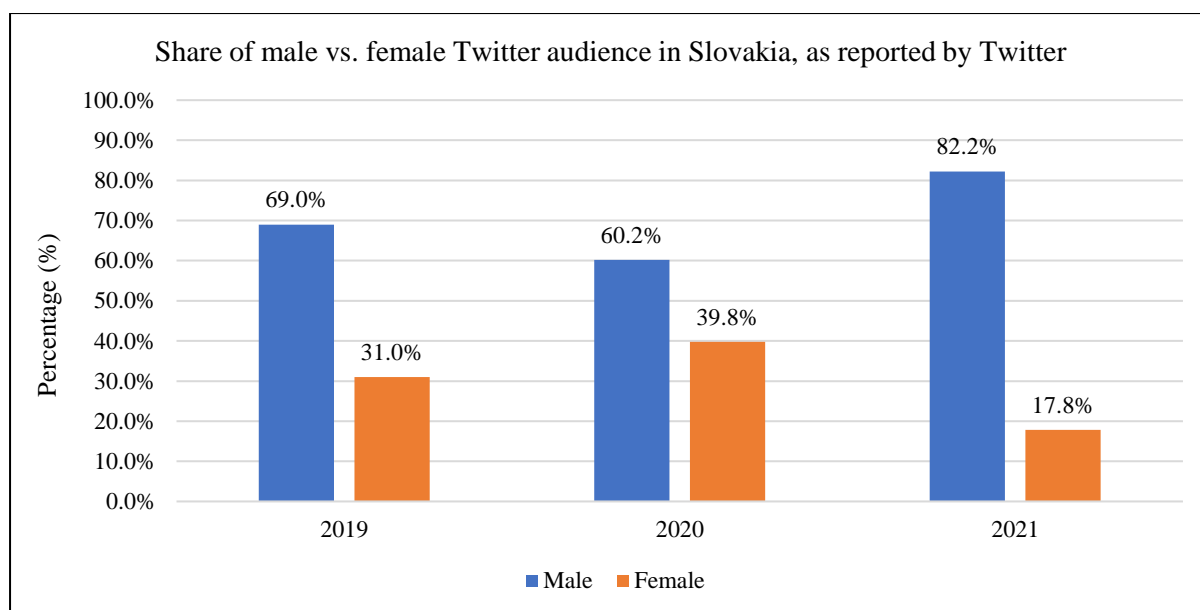


*Figure 247. Share of LinkedIn users aged 18-24, as percentage of total LinkedIn users, in Slovakia for years 2019-2022.*

*Note: Data adapted from: "Social media users in Slovakia" by NapoleonCat, 2023, (<https://napoleoncat.com/stats/social-media-users-in-slovakia/2022/>). (NapoleonCat, 2023). Copyright 2023 by NapoleonCat.*

Figure 247 shows that the share of LinkedIn users aged 18-24 in Slovakia decreased over the years 2019-2021, but then increased in 2022 to a higher level than at the start of the given period. LinkedIn users aged 18-24 represented the third most active user group in Slovakia in 2022, after 25-34 and 35-54 year olds (NapoleonCat, 2023). This means that LinkedIn is more effective in reaching older age groups in Slovakia. Nonetheless, the growth in the share of young LinkedIn users in 2022 indicates that LinkedIn could be a potentially beneficial communication tool in raising awareness of youth education opportunities in Slovakia, although it should not be a primary channel and should be supported by other modes of communication.





*Figure 248. Share of male vs. female Twitter audience, as reported by Twitter, in Slovakia for years 2019-2021.*

*Note: Data adapted from:*

- “Digital 2019: Slovakia” by S. Kemp, 2019, (<https://datareportal.com/reports/digital-2019-slovakia>). (Kemp, 2019). Copyright 2019 by Kepios.
- “Digital 2020: Slovakia” by S. Kemp, 2020, (<https://datareportal.com/reports/digital-2020-slovakia>). (Kemp, 2020). Copyright 2020 by Kepios.
- “Digital 2021: Slovakia” by S. Kemp, 2021, (<https://datareportal.com/reports/digital-2021-slovakia>). (Kemp, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Kepios.

As provided in Figure 248, majority of the Slovak Twitter audience was represented by male users over the period of 2019-2021. Although the share of female Twitter audience in Slovakia increased in 2020 to almost 40%, it then had a sharp drop in 2021. This makes Twitter a less beneficial communication tool for targeting young females in Slovakia, as information on youth education opportunities shared through Twitter is likely to not reach majority of the young Slovak women directly.

Advertising Audience Review for Slovakia, as of February 2022			
Platform	Total ad reach per population aged 13+	Male ad reach per total ad reach	Female ad reach per total ad reach
Facebook	55.0%	47.1%	52.9%
Instagram	32.8%	45.8%	54.2%
YouTube	78.9%*	49.0%	51.0%
LinkedIn	14.2%*	51.0%	49.0%
Pinterest	14.5%	21.1%	73.5%
Snapchat	10.5%	38.6%	60.6%
*Note: data on total ad reach for YouTube and LinkedIn is available only for population aged 18+; data on ad reach for TikTok is not available			

*Table 10. Advertising audience review for Slovakia, as of February 2022.*

*Note: Data adapted from: “Digital 2022: Slovakia” by S. Kemp, 2022, (<https://datareportal.com/reports/digital-2022-slovakia>). (Kemp, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Kepios.*

Table 10 above shows that ad reach was higher for females than for males for all given social media platforms, except for LinkedIn, in Slovakia in 2022. Similar to other countries, Pinterest had the highest share of the Slovak female audience. In 2022, YouTube had the highest ad reach in Slovakia, followed by Facebook, Instagram, Pinterest, LinkedIn and Snapchat. As previously mentioned, Facebook and Instagram represent potentially valuable communication tools for female youth interaction in Slovakia, while LinkedIn could be an additional supporting tool. YouTube should also be used to attract the attention of young women to education opportunities and raise their awareness through video content, which could include Q&A videos and testimonials of female students. In addition, visual content related to youth education should be promoted through Pinterest, which has a primarily female audience and a higher audience reach than LinkedIn in Slovakia. Given that Snapchat has a fairly high share of female audience, but an overall lower audience reach, it can be used as another supporting tool in the future once primary communication channels are established.

### 8.5.3 Alternative Communication Channels

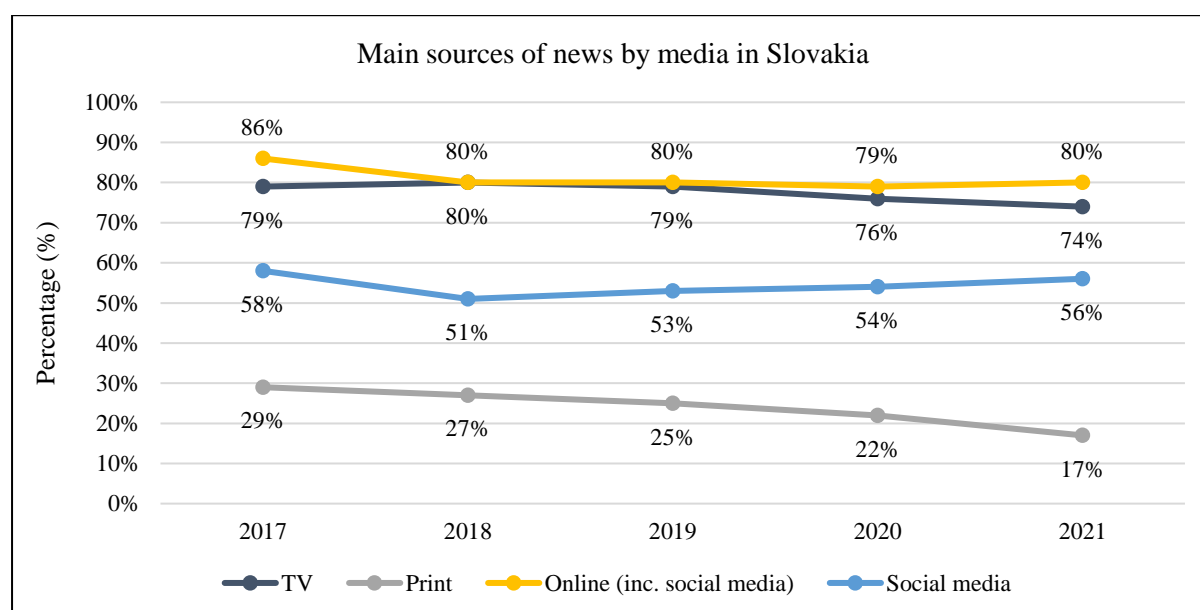


Figure 249. Main sources of news by media in Slovakia for years 2017-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Slovakia" by A. Chlebcová Hečková & S. Smith, 2021, (<https://reutersinstitute.politics.ox.ac.uk/digital-news-report/2021/slovakia>). (Chlebcová Hečková & Smith, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Reuters Institute for Study of Journalism.

As can be seen in Figure 249 above, online media was the main source of news in Slovakia over the period of 2017-2021, followed by television. The use of social media as the main source of news increased in Slovakia from 2018 to 2021. In contrast, a declining trend is observed for the use of printed media as the main source of news in Slovakia throughout the given period. This indicates that promoting youth education opportunities through printed media, such as newspapers, is likely to be ineffective in Slovakia, so this communication channel should not be used. Given that the use of television as the main source of news has been reducing in Slovakia from 2018 to 2021, it should not be the one of the primary promotion channels for youth education opportunities, also due to its high cost of advertising. Nonetheless, similar to Finland and France, Youth for Europe can benefit from participating in interviews and broadcasted events in terms of the general awareness of the organisation in Slovakia.

Figure 250 below provides further insight into the use of internet and online media of young males and females in Slovakia in 2022:

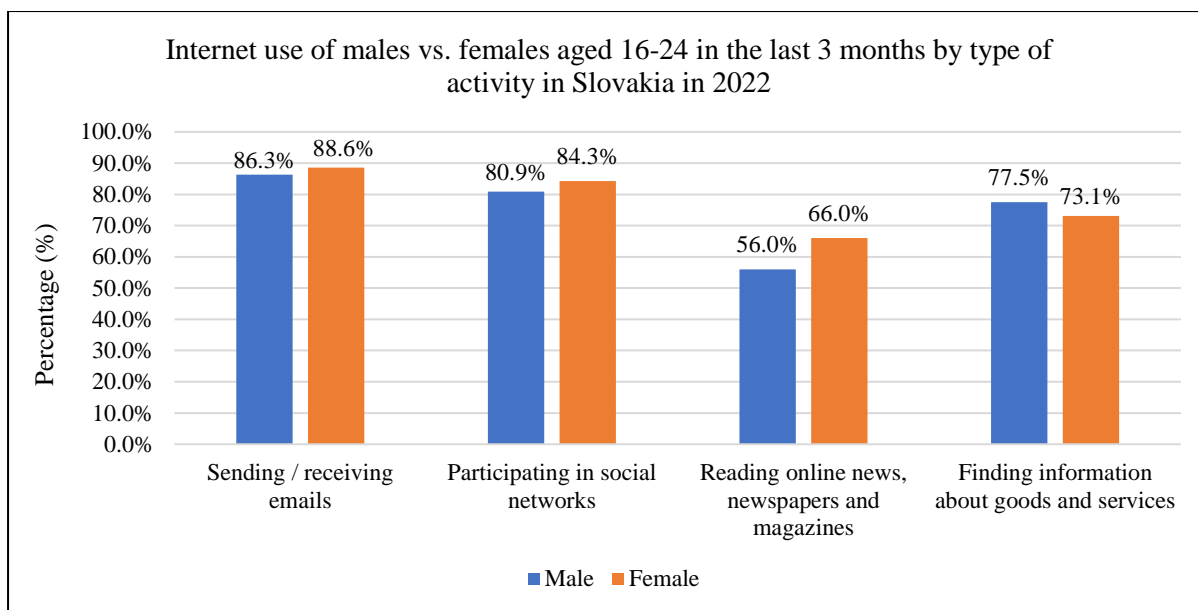


Figure 250. Internet use of males vs. females aged 16-24 in the last three months by type of activity in Slovakia in 2022.

Note: Data adapted from: "Use of the Internet for the following activities for private purpose in the last 3 months [is1007rs]" by Statistical Office of the Slovak Republic, 2022, ([https://datacube.statistics.sk/#!/view/en/VBD\\_SK\\_WIN/is1007rs/v\\_is1007rs\\_00\\_00\\_00\\_en](https://datacube.statistics.sk/#!/view/en/VBD_SK_WIN/is1007rs/v_is1007rs_00_00_00_en)). (Statistical Office of the Slovak Republic, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Statistical Office of the Slovak Republic.

As presented in Figure 250, majority of young males and females used internet to receive and send emails in Slovakia in 2022, with participation in social networks being the second most carried out internet activity for both genders. Young women spent more time sending and receiving emails and participating in social networks than young men in Slovakia in 2022, which makes email marketing and social media engagement effective when targeting young females and promoting youth education. Even though internet use to read online news, newspapers and magazines was relatively significant for both young males and females in Slovakia in 2022, it was mainly driven by reading online news rather than digital versions of newspapers. Nevertheless, young females used internet to reach online news, newspapers and magazines more than young males, therefore, digital newspapers can be a supporting tool in raising general awareness of the benefits of youth education and Youth for Europe organisation.

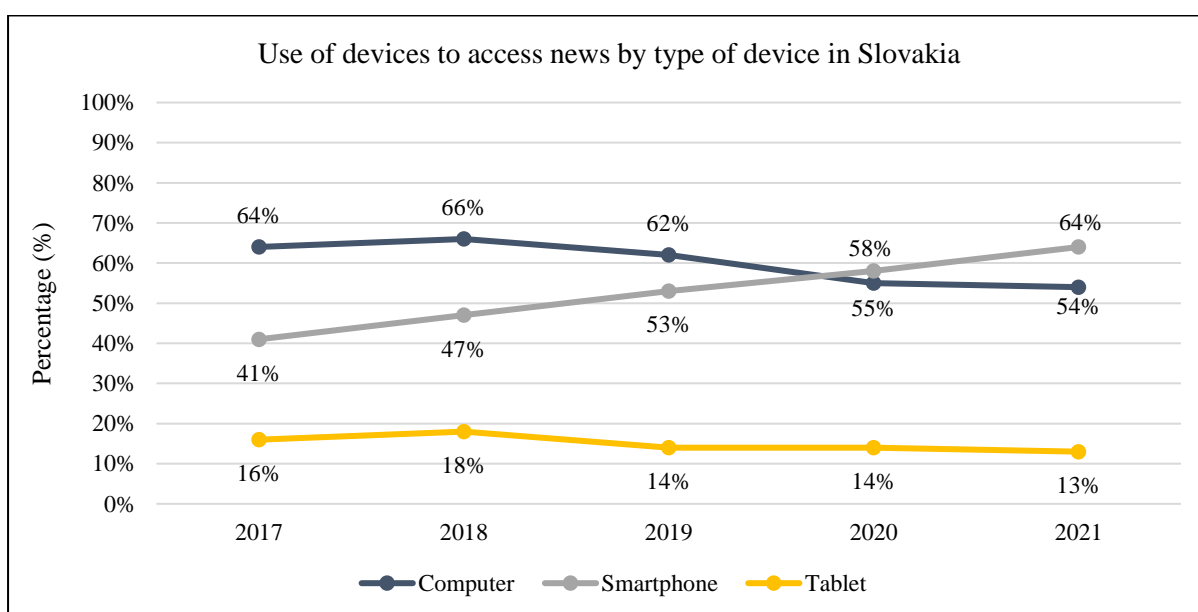


Figure 251. Devices used to access news in Slovakia for years 2017-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: “Slovakia” by A. Chlebcová Hečková & S. Smith, 2021, (<https://reutersinstitute.politics.ox.ac.uk/digital-news-report/2021/slovakia>). (Chlebcová Hečková & Smith, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Reuters Institute for Study of Journalism.

Figure 251 shows that the use of smartphones to access news in Slovakia increased over the period of 2017-2021. On the contrary, the use of computers and tablets to access news declined in Slovakia from 2018 to 2021. This implies that communication tools and promotional activities implemented to raise awareness of youth education opportunities in Slovakia should be mobile-friendly and primarily target young mobile users. Similar to other countries, creating a mobile app for Youth for Europe will enhance the interaction with youth and allow for targeted notifications.

## 8.6 Spain

### 8.6.1 Internet Use

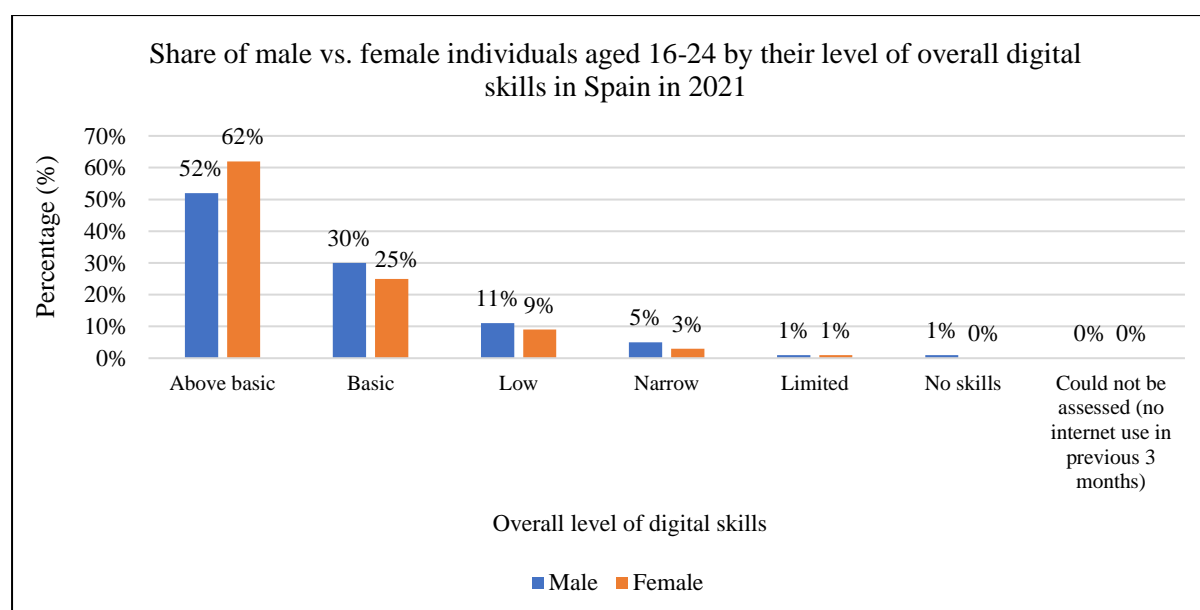


Figure 252. Share of male vs. female individuals aged 16-24 by their level of overall digital skills in Spain in 2021.

Note: Data adapted from: “Individuals’ level of digital skills (from 2021 onwards)” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ISOC\\_SK\\_DSKL\\_I21/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ISOC_SK_DSKL_I21/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As can be seen in Figure 252 above, majority of young females in Spain had an above average level of digital skills in 2021, followed by young women with a basic level of digital skills. Although there were no young females with no digital skills in Spain in 2021, young women with low, narrow or limited levels of digital skills represented approximately 14% of the Spanish female youth. This implies that the information shared through digital communication channels is likely to reach a significant majority of young females in Spain, but supporting non-digital modes of communication should be implemented to effectively target young women with lower levels of digital skills.

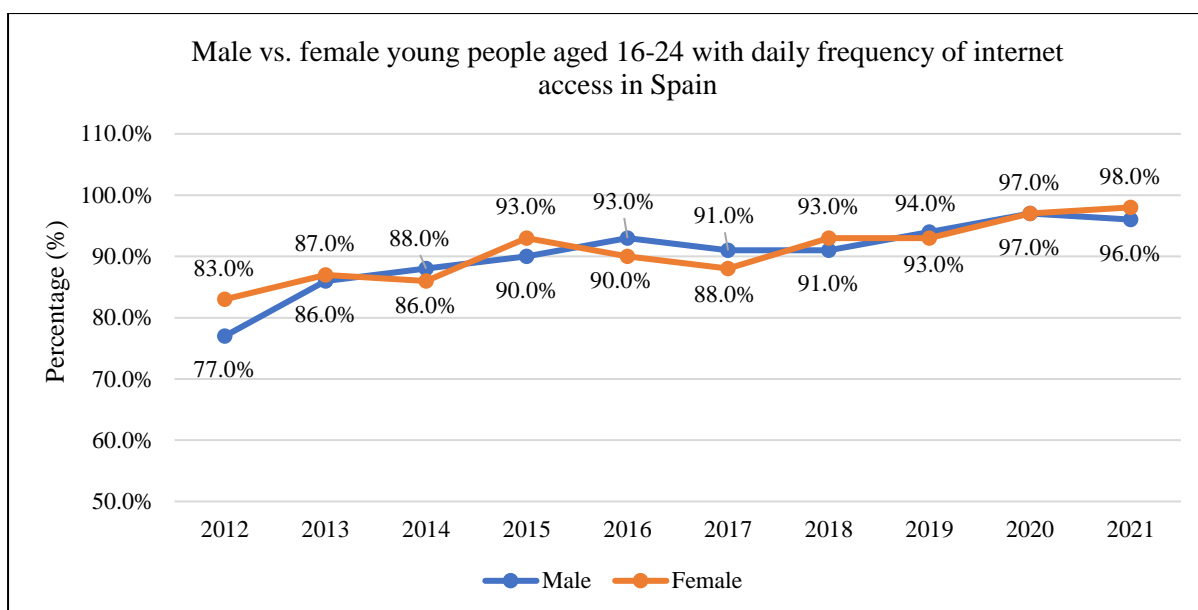


Figure 253. Share of male vs. female young people aged 16-24 with daily frequency of internet use in Spain for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Individuals – frequency of internet use" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ISOC\\_CI\\_IFP\\_FU/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ISOC_CI_IFP_FU/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

As provided in Figure 253, there was no clear domination of the shares of either genders with daily frequency of internet use in Spain over the period of 2012-2021. A general upward trend is observed for the shares of both young males and females with daily frequency of internet access in Spain for the given period. In recent years, almost all Spanish young men and women accessed internet daily, which makes digital communication effective in reaching a vast majority of youth, especially young females. However, a variety of digital communication modes, as well as other types of communication channels, should be implemented to address the differing levels of digital skills of young Spanish women.

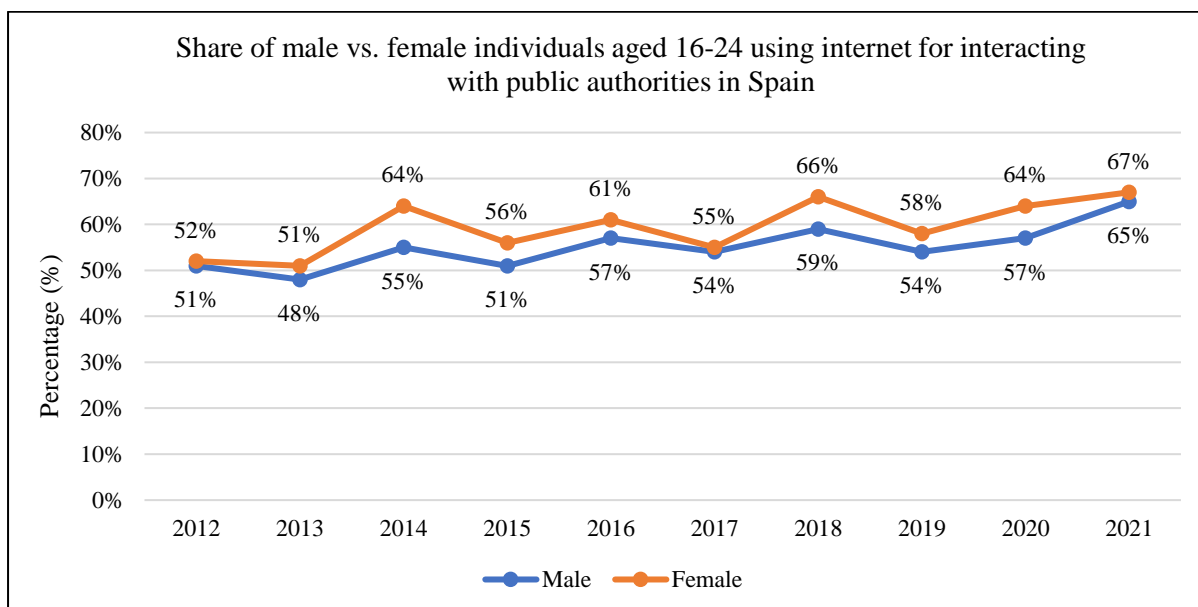
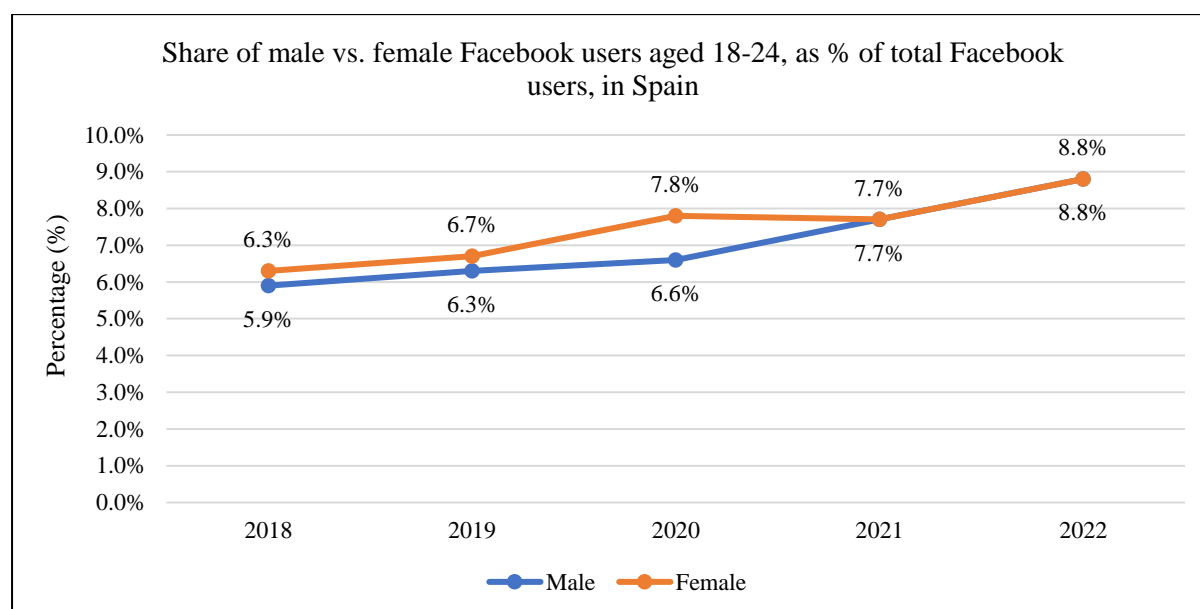


Figure 254. Share of male vs. female individuals aged 16-24 using internet for interacting with public authorities in Spain for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Individuals using the internet for interacting with public authorities" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ISOC\\_BDE15EI/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/ISOC_BDE15EI/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

Figure 254 shows that the share of young females using internet to interact with authorities in Spain was higher than the share of young males throughout the period of 2012-2021. The share of young women using internet to interact with authorities in Spain in 2021 was the highest over the given period, therefore, public administration channels could potentially reach majority of young Spanish females. Hence, such channels can be effective in raising awareness of youth employment opportunities in Spain, but should be combined with alternative communication tools to reach young women, who do not use internet to interact with authorities or prefer non-digital communication channels.

## 8.6.2 Social Media



*Figure 255. Share of male vs. female Facebook users aged 18-24, as percentage of total Facebook users, in Spain for years 2018-2022.*

*Note: Data adapted from: "Social media users in Spain" by NapoleonCat, 2023, (<https://napoleoncat.com/stats/social-media-users-in-spain/2022/>). (NapoleonCat, 2023). Copyright 2023 by NapoleonCat.*

As shown in Figure 255, the share of female Facebook users aged 18-24 in Spain was higher than the share of male Facebook users aged 18-24 over the period of 2018-2020, while both shares were equal in 2021 and 2022. Generally, the shares of male and female Facebook users aged 18-24 experienced an upward trend throughout the given period, which implies that the Spanish youth became more active on Facebook in recent years. In 2022, Facebook users aged 18-24 represented the fourth most active user group in Spain, after 25-34, 35-44 and 45-54 year olds (NapoleonCat, 2023). Therefore, although Facebook presents an effective tool for youth interaction in Spain, particularly for young females, it should still be supported by other communication channels to increase awareness of youth employment.

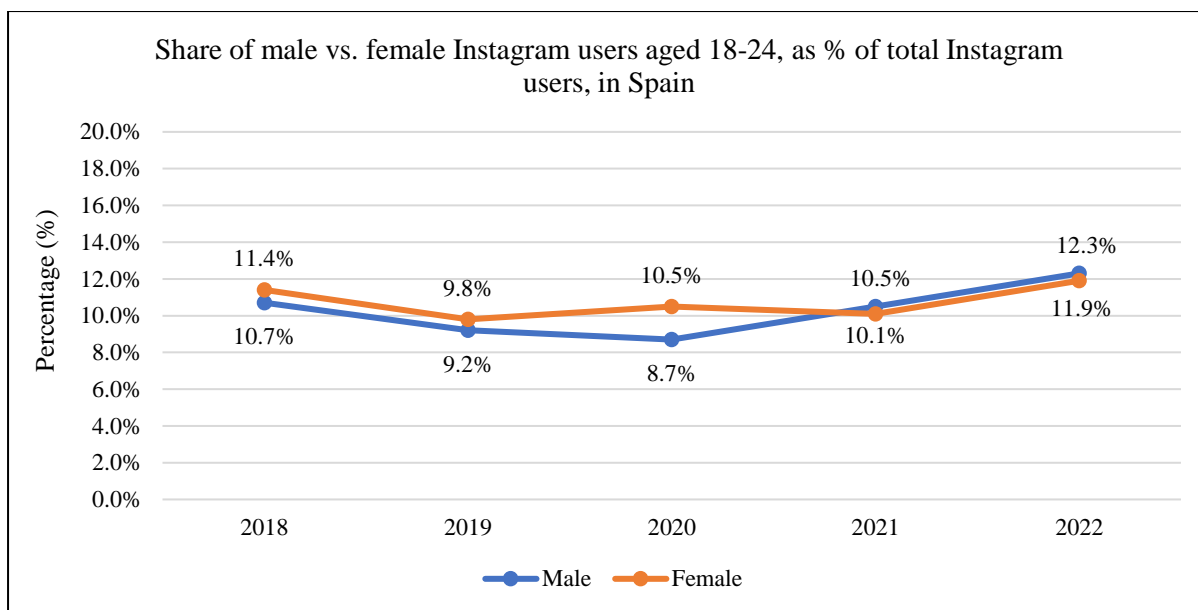


Figure 256. Share of male vs. female Instagram users aged 18-24, as percentage of total Instagram users, in Spain for years 2018-2022.

Note: Data adapted from: "Social media users in Spain" by NapoleonCat, 2023, (<https://napoleoncat.com/stats/social-media-users-in-spain/2022/>). (NapoleonCat, 2023). Copyright 2023 by NapoleonCat.

As provided in Figure 256, the share of female Instagram users aged 18-24 was higher than the share of male Instagram users 18-24 in Spain over the period of 2018-2020, while the opposite was true for 2021 and 2022. The shares of both young male and female Instagram users were higher than the shares of male and female Facebook users aged 18-24 in Spain for the given period, as shown in Figures 255 and 256. Moreover, Instagram users aged 18-24 were the second most active user group in Spain in 2022, after 25-34 year olds. This implies that Instagram is potentially more effective in reaching the Spanish youth, including young women, and should be actively leveraged in promoting youth employment opportunities.

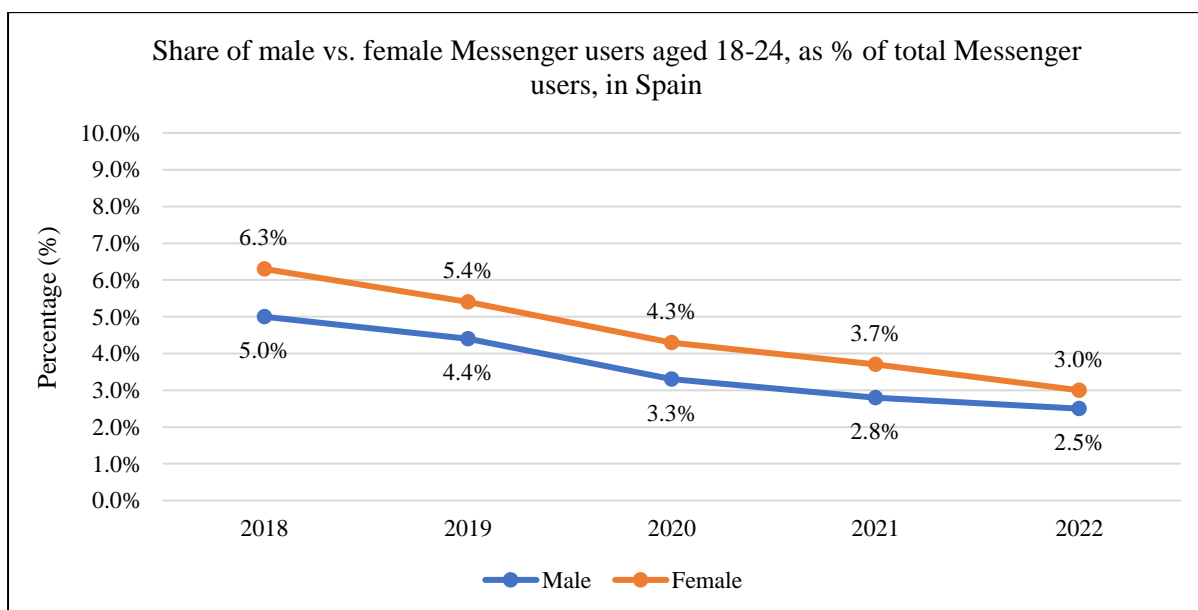


Figure 257. Share of male vs. female Messenger users aged 18-24, as percentage of total Messenger users, in Spain for years 2018-2022.

Note: Data adapted from: "Social media users in Spain" by NapoleonCat, 2023, (<https://napoleoncat.com/stats/social-media-users-in-spain/2022/>). (NapoleonCat, 2023). Copyright 2023 by NapoleonCat.

Figure 257 shows that the shares of male and female Messenger users aged 18-24 declined in Spain over the period of 2018-2022, with the share of young females remaining higher for the given years. The shares of young male and female Messenger users in Spain are generally lower than in other selected countries. Furthermore, Messenger users aged 18-24 represented the second least active user group in Spain in 2022, with only 13-17 year olds being less active (NapoleonCat, 2023). Hence, Messenger is not an effective tool for increasing youth engagement in Spain and should be used only if required for the support of the Facebook account of Youth for Europe.

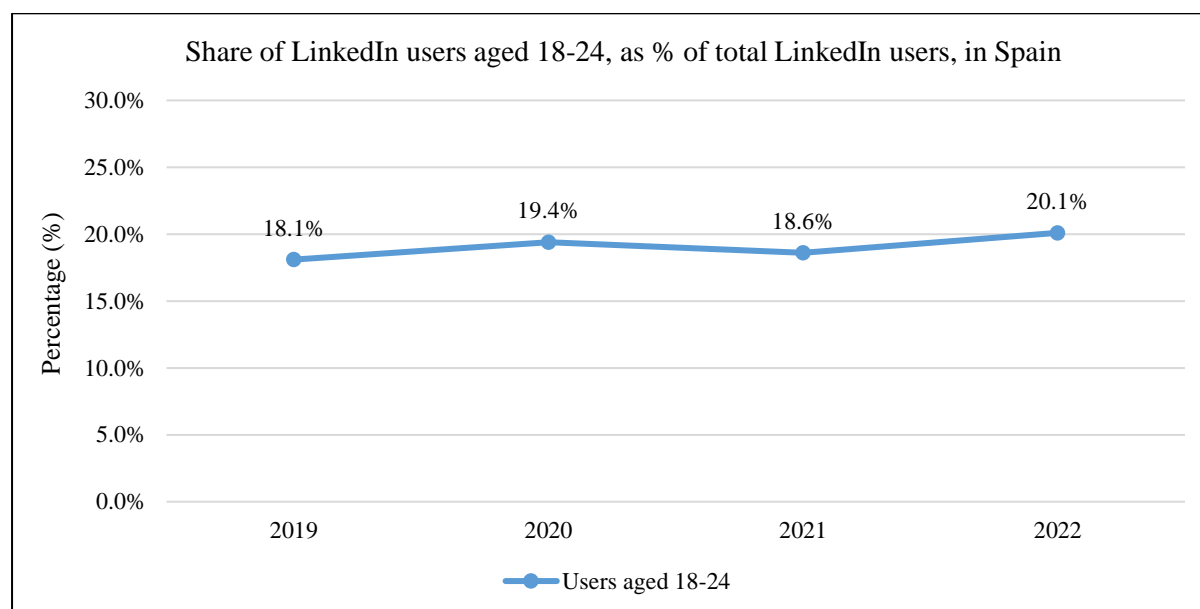


Figure 258. Share of LinkedIn users aged 18-24, as percentage of total LinkedIn users, in Spain for years 2019-2022.

Note: Data adapted from: "Social media users in Spain" by NapoleonCat, 2023, (<https://napoleoncat.com/stats/social-media-users-in-spain/2022/>). (NapoleonCat, 2023). Copyright 2023 by NapoleonCat.

As can be seen in Figure 258, the share of LinkedIn users aged 18-24 increased in Spain from 2019-2022. In addition, the share of young LinkedIn users was higher in Spain than in other selected countries for the given period. As of 2022, LinkedIn users represented the second most active user group in Spain, after 25-34 year olds (NapoleonCat, 2023). This makes LinkedIn a valuable platform for raising awareness of the Spanish youth, including young females, of youth employment opportunities.

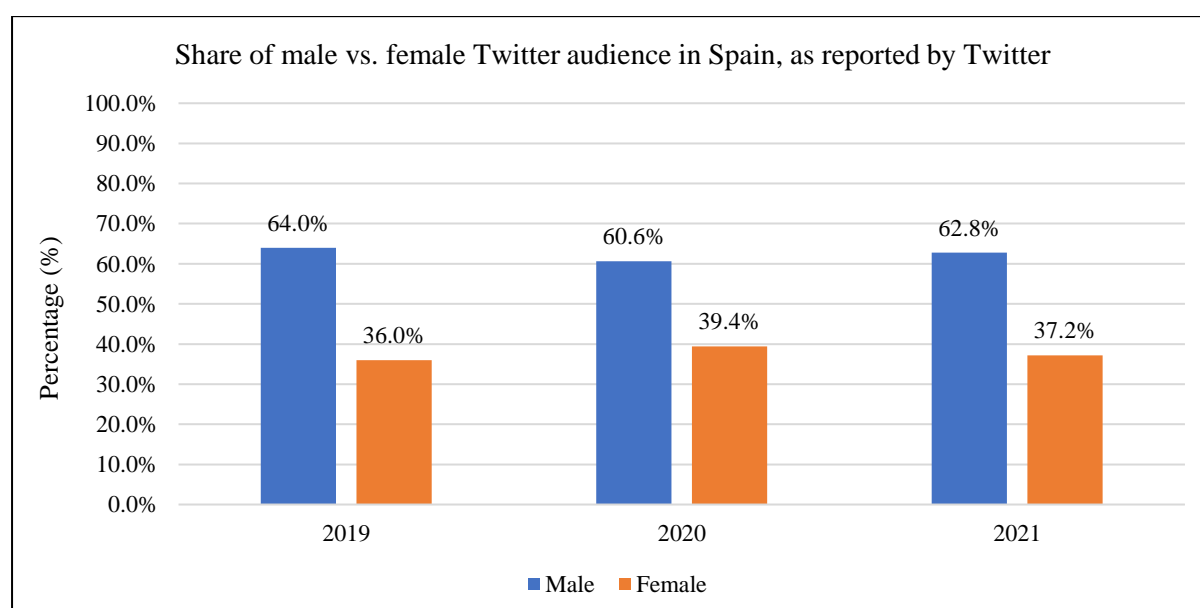




Figure 259. Share of male vs. female Twitter audience, as reported by Twitter, in Spain for years 2019-2021.

Note: Data adapted from:

- “Digital 2019: Spain” by S. Kemp, 2019, (<https://datareportal.com/reports/digital-2019-spain>). (Kemp, 2019). Copyright 2019 by Kepios.
- “Digital 2020: Spain” by S. Kemp, 2020, (<https://datareportal.com/reports/digital-2020-spain>). (Kemp, 2020). Copyright 2020 by Kepios.
- “Digital 2021: Spain” by S. Kemp, 2021, (<https://datareportal.com/reports/digital-2021-spain>). (Kemp, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Kepios.

As presented in Figure 259, majority of Twitter audience in Spain was male over the period of 2019-2021. In contrast to other countries, the share of female Twitter audience in Spain is higher, which makes Twitter a potentially beneficial tool in promoting youth employment opportunities and targeting young females in Spain. Nonetheless, it should not be the primary communication channel and should be supported by other modes of engagement, as Twitter’s audience in Spain is still dominantly male.

Advertising Audience Review for Spain, as of February 2022			
Platform	Total ad reach per population aged 13+	Male ad reach per total ad reach	Female ad reach per total ad reach
Facebook	49.0%	47.0%	53.0%
Instagram	55.4%	44.8%	55.2%
YouTube	91.6%*	49.0%	51.0%
TikTok	35.4%*	38.9%	61.1%
LinkedIn	36.1%*	51.9%	48.1%
Pinterest	17.1%	18.3%	74.8%
Snapchat	8.7%	27.6%	71.9%
*Note: data on total ad reach for YouTube, TikTok and LinkedIn is available only for population aged 18+			

Table 11. Advertising audience review for Spain, as of February 2022.

Note: Data adapted from: “Digital 2022: Spain” by S. Kemp, 2022, (<https://datareportal.com/reports/digital-2022-spain>). (Kemp, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Kepios.

Table 11 above shows that, for all social media platforms, apart from LinkedIn, female ad reach was higher in Spain in 2022, with Pinterest and Snapchat having the highest shares of female audience. YouTube had the highest ad reach in Spain, followed by Instagram, Facebook, LinkedIn, TikTok, Pinterest and Snapchat. As priorly discussed, Instagram, Facebook and LinkedIn represent effective communication tools for female youth engagement in Spain. Similar to other countries, YouTube has the highest audience reach in Spain, therefore, it should be leveraged to raise awareness of female youth of employment opportunities, creating potential for Youth for Europe YouTube channel. Furthermore, TikTok and LinkedIn have a similar audience reach in Spain, hence, TikTok can also be used in targeting young Spanish women with short videos related to youth employment opportunities. Even though both Pinterest and Snapchat have a mainly feminine audience in Spain, the use of Pinterest should be prioritised due to its generally greater audience reach and a higher share of female audience.

### 8.6.3 Alternative Communication Channels

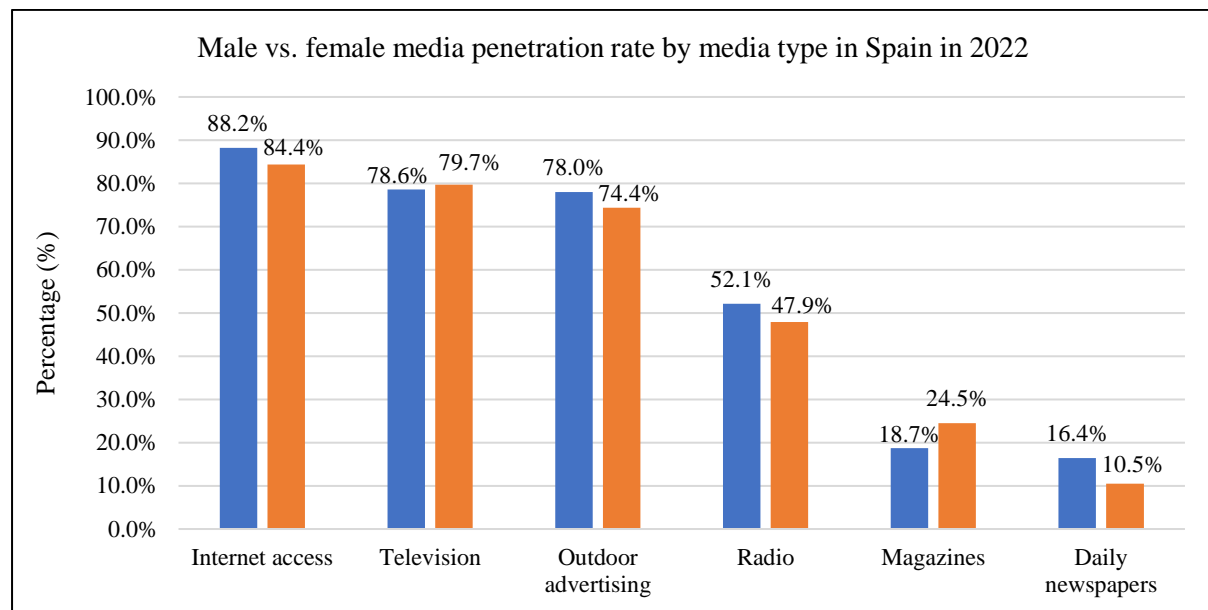


Figure 260. Male vs. female media penetration rate by media type in Spain in 2022.

Note: Data adapted from: "Share of people using different media in Spain in 2022, by media type and gender" by A. Guttman, 2023, (<https://www.statista.com/statistics/436527/media-penetration-in-spain-by-media-type-and-gender/>). (Guttman, 2023). Copyright 2023 by Statista.

As can be seen in Figure 260, internet access had the highest penetration rate for both men and women in Spain in 2022, followed by television, outdoor advertising and radio. Therefore, when targeting young women in Spain, internet communication channels should be primarily used. Television also had a high male and female audience reach in Spain, yet using it as a primary communication mode is expensive and less effective. Magazines and daily newspapers had the lowest media penetration rates for both genders in Spain in 2022, making them an unattractive option for the promotion of youth employment. Data provided in Figure 260 is consistent with trends shown in Figure 261 below:

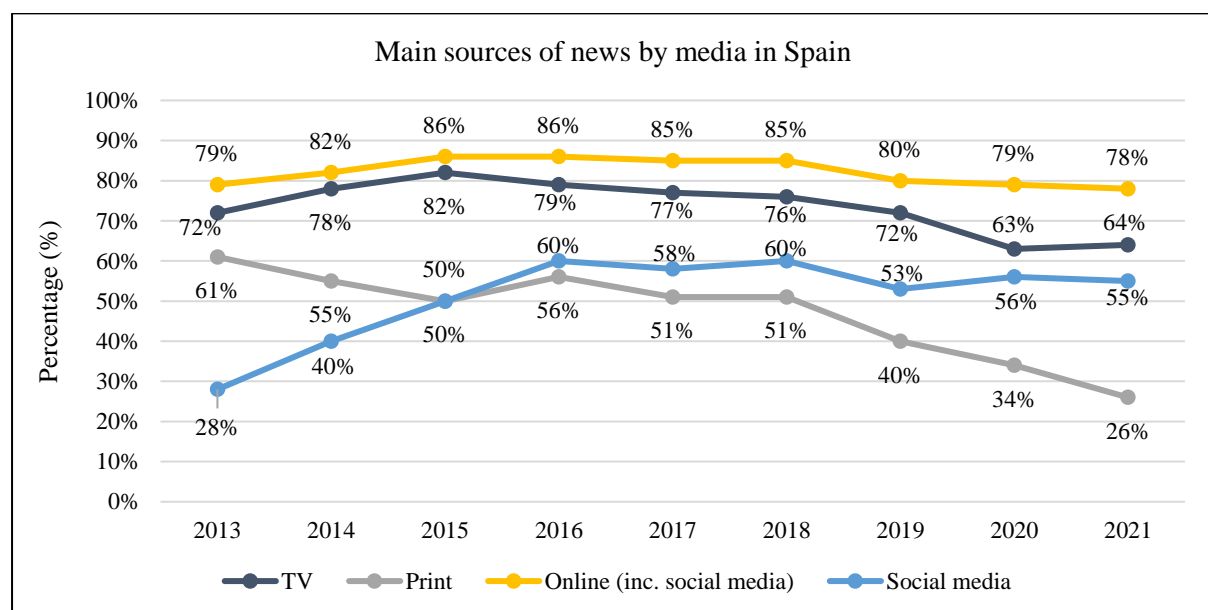


Figure 261. Main sources of news by media in Spain for years 2013-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Spain" by S. Negredo, A. Amoedo, A. Vara, E. Moreno & J. Kaufmann, 2021, (<https://reutersinstitute.politics.ox.ac.uk/digital-news-report/2021/spain>). (Negredo, Amoedo, Vara, Moreno, & Kaufmann, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Reuters Institute for Study of Journalism.

As presented in Figure 261, the use of online media as the main source of news was the highest in Spain over the period of 2013-2021, followed by television. The use of social media as the main source of news increased in Spain from 2013 to 2016, but declined in recent years. Throughout the period, a decreasing trend is observed for the use of printed media in Spain. This indicates that it is becoming less effective in raising awareness, with many people preferring digital versions of newspapers or different media sources. This is also supported by the data provided in Table 12 below, which compares the weekly reach of printed and online versions of popular newspapers in Spain in 2021:

Print vs. Online Weekly Newspaper Reach in Spain in 2021		
Newspaper	Print	Online
El País	16%	21%
20 Minutos	10%	15%
El Mundo	11%	14%
La Vanguardia	7%	11%

Table 12. Print vs. online weekly newspaper reach in Spain in 2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Spain" by S. Negredo, A. Amoedo, A. Vara, E. Moreno & J. Kaufmann, 2021, (<https://reutersinstitute.politics.ox.ac.uk/digital-news-report/2021/spain>). (Negredo, Amoedo, Vara, Moreno, & Kaufmann, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Reuters Institute for Study of Journalism.

Table 12 shows that the weekly reach of the online versions of all four given newspapers was higher than the reach of their printed versions in Spain in 2021. This confirms that using printed media for the promotion of youth employment opportunities is less effective than using digital communication channels. Even though online versions of newspapers in Spain tend to have a higher reach than their printed version, they are still significantly less efficient than other communication tools, such as social media and email marketing. Therefore, digital newspapers can only be used as a supporting communication channel for the promotion of youth employment opportunities in Spain.

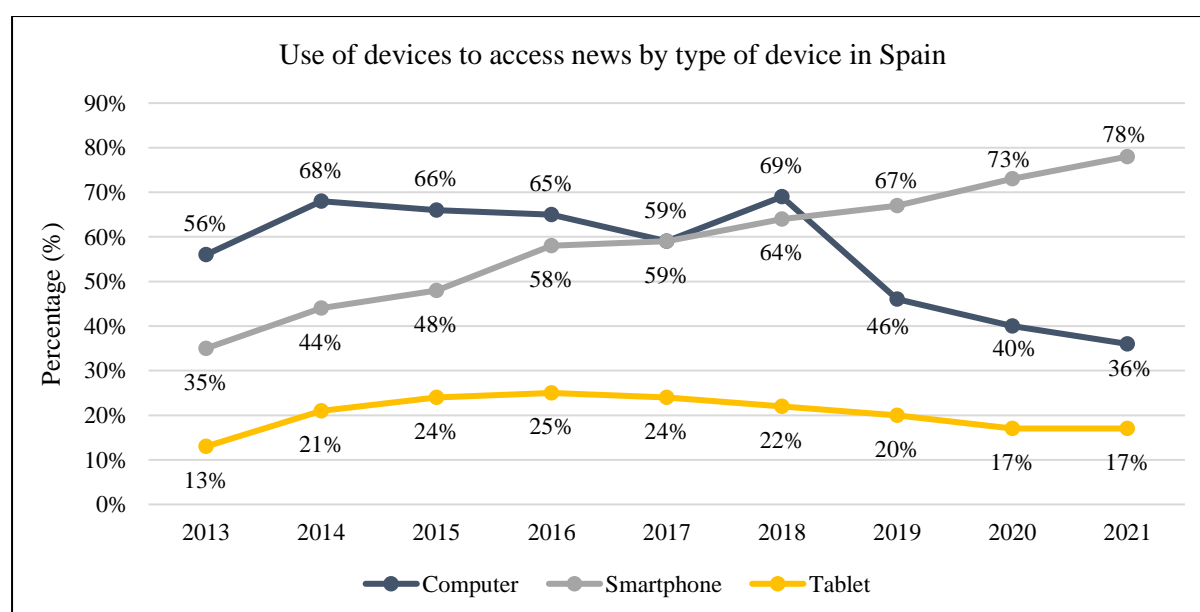


Figure 262. Devices used to access news in Spain for years 2013-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Spain" by S. Negredo, A. Amoedo, A. Vara, E. Moreno & J. Kaufmann, 2021, (<https://reutersinstitute.politics.ox.ac.uk/digital-news-report/2021/spain>). (Negredo, Amoedo, Vara, Moreno, & Kaufmann, 2021). Copyright 2021 by Reuters Institute for Study of Journalism.

As provided in Figure 262, the use of smartphones to access news increased in Spain throughout the period of 2013-2021, overtaking computers and tablets in 2019-2021. The use of computers to access news significantly decreased in Spain over 2019-2021, which indicates the need to implement mobile-friendly communication when promoting youth employment in Spain. Furthermore, similar to other selected countries, the creation of Youth for Europe mobile app will be beneficial for attracting youth to engage with the platform and facilitating the process of browsing job opportunities.

## 9. Recommendations

This section provides an overview of the currently used communication channels for Youth for Europe, including their benefits and disadvantages, and a recommendation on the future communication channels that should be used in each of the selected countries to increase youth engagement in the identified focus areas. The recommendations are based on the cultural and gender-specific factors related to communication in individual countries, which are discussed in sections 7 and 8. Furthermore, recommendations on communication channel implementation are divided into short-, mid- and long-term to allow for a more effective resource allocation and prioritisation. In addition to recommendations on communication channels, this section provides a brief guidance on the content considerations for each country, which can be beneficial for future research on the topic. Table A.1 in Appendix D contains benefits and points for consideration related to each recommended communication channel for all six countries (except the ones discussed in section 9.1), which can be helpful in the implementation stage.

### 9.1 Overview

To promote active citizenship, Youth for Europe uses several communication channels for youth interaction and information distribution. The overview of such channels, as of 12<sup>th</sup> March 2023, is provided in the subsections below. All subsections also contain a succinct summary of advantages and disadvantages of each currently used communication channel, which should be taken into consideration for future engagement.

#### 9.1.1 Website

The main communication tool implemented by Youth for Europe is its website, which contains detailed information on the project itself, existing opportunities on training courses, internships, youth exchanges and volunteering, summaries on debates held in the past, youth proposals and relevant news in a form of blog posts (Youth 4 Europe, 2023). Website, as a communication channel, has many advantages, including the capacity to reach many young people, accessibility from various geographic locations and at different times, brand awareness and ability to coherently group, present and regularly update information (Jobling, 2020). Nonetheless, websites can be subject to service outage and are not focused on reaching specific target groups of youth due to the generalised content (Jobling, 2020).

#### 9.1.2 Social Media

According to Youth for Europe's website, the project uses Facebook, Instagram, Twitter and YouTube to share information on existing opportunities for youth (Youth 4 Europe, 2023). Even though Youth for Europe's website features YouTube videos in Y4 Series of Talks, these videos are posted on a channel of Associazione Joint, a key partner organisation for the project. Moreover, YouTube link provided on the website leads to the channel of another Youth European Organisation project – Youth Networks – which contains outdated content (Youth Networks, n.d.). Therefore, if YouTube will be used as a key promotional channel by Youth for Europe in the future, there is a need to create a new channel with updated content.

Table 13 below summarises the advantages and disadvantages of the four given social media platforms:

Social Media Platform	Advantages	Disadvantages
Facebook	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Ability to embed links into the post</li><li>• Possibility of integration with other social media platforms, such as Instagram and Twitter</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Need for continuous user engagement to avoid loss of followers</li><li>• Risk of inappropriate content and interaction between users, which requires comment filtering</li></ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• No limit on the content format (e.g. images, text, videos, etc.)</li> <li>• Wide audience reach</li> <li>• Opportunity to target specific user profiles</li> <li>• Availability of metrics and traffic data for engagement assessment</li> <li>• No cost for account creation</li> <li>• Easy to navigate</li> <li>• Option to create user groups</li> <li>• Benefits for brand visibility</li> <li>• Operational mobile and web application versions</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Data privacy considerations for youth engagement analysis</li> <li>• Majority of users are represented by older age groups, as opposed to youth in the six selected countries, particularly in Italy and Spain</li> </ul>
<b>Instagram</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• A significant part of the audience is represented by youth</li> <li>• Possibility of integration with other social media platforms, such as Facebook and Twitter</li> <li>• Attractive interface</li> <li>• Opportunity for live streams, e.g. real-time Q&amp;As</li> <li>• Ability to thematically group Instagram stories and use hashtags to promote posts</li> <li>• No cost for account creation</li> <li>• Easy to navigate</li> <li>• Operational mobile and web application versions</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Strong emphasis on visual content</li> <li>• Limited space for image or video description</li> <li>• Risk of inappropriate content and interaction between users, which requires comment filtering</li> <li>• Need for continuous user engagement to avoid loss of followers</li> <li>• Data privacy considerations for youth engagement analysis</li> <li>• Ability to share links only on Instagram stories, profile bios and sponsored posts, but not embed them into post captions</li> </ul>
<b>Twitter</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ability to schedule posts in advance</li> <li>• Opportunity to raise awareness quickly through reposts</li> <li>• Possibility of integration with other social media platforms, such as Facebook and Instagram</li> <li>• No cost for account creation</li> <li>• Easy to navigate</li> <li>• Operational mobile and web application versions</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Limited characters per post</li> <li>• Inability to send messages to groups of users</li> <li>• Need for continuous user engagement to avoid loss of followers</li> <li>• Risk of inappropriate content and interaction between users, which requires comment filtering</li> <li>• Data privacy considerations for youth engagement analysis</li> <li>• Majority of users are male in the six selected countries, particularly in Finland, Luxembourg and Slovakia</li> </ul>

<b>YouTube</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• High appearance of content in Google search</li> <li>• Extensive audience reach in the six selected countries</li> <li>• Openness to creative content</li> <li>• Ability to embed links in video descriptions</li> <li>• No cost for account creation</li> <li>• Easy to navigate</li> <li>• Operational mobile and web application versions</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Focus on audio and video content</li> <li>• Need for continuous content creation, which requires additional resources</li> <li>• Risk of inappropriate content and interaction between users, which requires content and comment filtering</li> <li>• Potential data privacy and copyright issues, which can lead to content removal</li> </ul>
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*Table 13. Advantages and disadvantages of using Facebook, Instagram, Twitter and YouTube, as communication channels.*

*Note: Data adapted from:*

- “The Best Of Social Media: Pros And Cons Of Each Platform” by M. Mottola, 2020, (<https://www.forbes.com/sites/theyec/2020/07/20/the-best-of-social-media-pros-and-cons-of-each-platform/>). (Mottola, 2020). Copyright 2020 by Forbes.
- “14 Pros and Cons of Facebook” by S. Bhatta, 2022, (<https://realproscons.com/pros-and-cons-of-facebook/>). (Bhatta, 2022). Copyright 2022 by RealProscons.
- “How to Add Links to Your Instagram Posts: 7 Ways” by J. Keeley, 2022, (<https://www.makeuseof.com/tag/ways-add-links-instagram-posts/>). (Keeley, 2022). Copyright 2022 by MUO.
- “All The Pros And Cons Of Instagram You Should Know” by A. Thapliyal, 2022, (<https://www.techuntold.com/instagram-pros-cons/>). (Thapliyal, 2022). Copyright 2022 by TechUntold.
- “Advantages and Disadvantages of Twitter” by myAyan, 2021, ([https://www.myayan.com/advantages-and-disadvantages-of-twitter#:~:text=What%20are%20the%20disadvantages%20of%20Twitter%3F%201%201.,No%20Message%20Broadcast%20...%205%205.%20Spamming%20](https://www.myayan.com/advantages-and-disadvantages-of-twitter#:~:text=What%20are%20the%20disadvantages%20of%20Twitter%3F%201%201.,No%20Message%20Broadcast%20...%205%205.%20Spamming%20).)). (myAyan, 2021). Copyright 2021 by myAyan.
- “10 YouTube Advantages and Disadvantages” by Tech Quintal, 2022, (<https://www.techquintal.com/advantages-and-disadvantages-of-youtube/>). (Tech Quintal, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Tech Quintal.
- “Pros And Cons of YouTube” by B. Feldman, 2023, (<https://www.surfnetkids.com/tech/1197/pros-and-cons-of-youtube/#:~:text=Pros%20And%20Cons%20of%20YouTube%201%20Using%20YouTube,known%20people%20through%20YouTube%20is%20great%20More%20items>). (Feldman, 2023). Copyright 2023 by Surfnetkids.

### 9.1.3 Newsletter

In addition to social media, Youth for Europe offers the possibility to subscribe to the newsletter on the project’s website (Youth 4 Europe, 2023). The newsletter is sent to the subscribers via email and contains a description of the current opportunities for youth to get involved in volunteering, education, training and internships, as well as information on organisations that support such youth initiatives and are looking for participants. The newsletter represents a beneficial channel for youth engagement because it allows for targeted communication, enables continuous interaction of users with the platform, supporting brand awareness, and creates room for personalised content (Brockenbush, 2022). Furthermore, newsletter marketing is considered to have lower costs than other types of advertising, e.g. television campaigns (Brockenbush, 2022). Nevertheless, newsletters exhibit the risk of becoming a spam and not reaching the inboxes of all users (Brockenbush, 2022). Newsletters also require continuous research and resources for content creation to avoid low-quality and outdated information, which can cause youth to lose interest in the platform and unsubscribe (Brockenbush, 2022).

### 9.1.4 Blog

Regular blog posts can also be found in the news section of Youth for Europe’s website (Youth 4 Europe, 2023). Such blog posts provide up-to-date information on youth policies, opportunities and recent developments in Europe, which are relevant to youth (Youth 4 Europe, 2023). Every blog post is categorised by the key topics that it discusses, allowing readers to identify the posts that would interest them the most. Moreover, the content in each post contains useful links to organisations, opportunities

and news, as well as similar blog posts that might be of interest to readers. As a communication channel, blog has the potential to increase youth engagement with the platform by posting interesting content regularly, while being a relatively simple tool to use (Woman Entrepreneur Magazine, 2019). At the same time, blog requires constant content creation, tracking of news and resources to avoid youth losing interest in reading new blog posts (Woman Entrepreneur Magazine, 2019). Furthermore, it is effective in raising awareness only once young people already know about Youth for Europe and its website.

### 9.1.5 Partners

Youth for Europe project is powered by a range of partner organisations, which support its key activities and promotion of youth opportunities. Table 14 below provides a list of partners involved in the project with a brief description of each organisation:

Youth for Europe Project Partners	
Organisation	Key Activities
<b>Asociación Brújula Intercultural</b>	Promoting non-formal education and international mobility for youth
<b>Associazione Joint</b>	Increasing international exchange opportunities for youth with a focus on non-formal education and volunteering
<b>Momentum World</b>	Combating social inequality and encouraging youth to engage in formal education and employment
<b>European Centre for Economic, Policy Analysis and Affairs (ECEPAA)</b>	Reducing social exclusion and gender inequality, with a focus on youth, entrepreneurship and education
<b>Associazione Di Promozione Sociale Kora</b>	Improving access to education and volunteering opportunities for youth
<b>Jugend- &amp; Kulturprojekt e.V.</b>	Promoting active citizenship, youth employment and education, entrepreneurship and social equality
<b>Do Great Things (D.G.T.) Association</b>	Encouraging youth interaction and networking, with a focus on non-formal education, entrepreneurship, human rights and active citizenship
<b>Youth Networks</b>	Supporting youth organisations in obtaining funding and preserving their rights

Table 14. Key partner organisations of Youth for Europe project.

Note: Data adapted from:

- “About Y4E” by Youth 4 Europe, 2023, (<https://youthforeurope.eu/about-youth-for-europe/>). (Youth 4 Europe, 2023). Copyright 2023 by Youth 4 Europe.
- “Opportunities” by Asociación Brújula Intercultural, 2022, (<https://asociacionbrujula.es/en/>). (Asociación Brújula Intercultural, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Asociación Brújula Intercultural.
- “Joint Association” by Associazione Joint, n.d., (<https://associazionejoint.org/en/>). (Associazione Joint, n.d.). Copyright 2023 by Associazione Joint.
- “International opportunities for young people” by Momentum World, 2019, (<https://www.momentumworld.org/>). (Momentum World, 2019). Copyright 2023 by Momentum World.
- “What We Do” by ECEPAA, 2023, (<https://www.ecepaa.eu/>). (ECEPAA, 2023). Copyright 2023 by ECEPAA.
- “Expanding Horizons, Together” by Associazione Di Promozione Sociale Kora, 2020, (<https://associazionekora.it/>). (Associazione Di Promozione Sociale Kora, 2020). Copyright 2023 by Associazione Di Promozione Sociale Kora.
- “About Us” by Jugend- & Kulturprojekt e.V., n.d., (<https://www.jkpev.de/en/about-jkpev/>). (JKPeV, n.d.). Copyright 2023 by Jugend- & Kulturprojekt e.V.
- “Our Mission” by D.G.T. Association, n.d., (<https://dgtassociation.ro/ro/about/>). (D.G.T. Association, n.d.). Copyright 2023 by D.G.T. Association.



- “What Can I Publish” by Youth Networks, n.d., (<https://youthnetworks.net/publish/>). (Youth Networks, n.d.). Copyright 2023 by Youth Networks.

While leveraging partner networks for promotional activities is highly effective in raising awareness, reducing costs, sharing resources and audience and building long-term trusting relationships with youth, this promotional channel is limited to the existing awareness of youth of the partner organisations and creates challenges in targeting a specific segment of the young audience (Chmielewska, 2018).

### 9.1.6 Representative Office

Besides online communication channels, such as the website and social media, Youth for Europe also has a central office located in Milan, Italy, which young individuals can visit to ask questions and obtain information (Youth 4 Europe, 2023). Whereas this is highly beneficial for face-to-face engagement with youth and personalisation, having only one central office significantly limits the ability of youth to visit it and interact with Youth for Europe representatives. Notwithstanding, young people are also provided with the phone number and the email address, which could be used to contact Youth for Europe for advice (Youth 4 Europe, 2023). This also addresses the youth’s need for further information and personal interaction, especially for cultures, which emphasise relationship-building (e.g. Italy, Spain).

## 9.2 Finland

Table 15 below summarises the recommendations for digital and non-digital communication channel implementation in the short-term (0-1 year), mid-term (2-5 years) and long-term (over 5 years) with the aim of increasing female youth engagement in volunteering in Finland. For each communication channel, Table 15 provides a list of factors and needs that it addresses, which present a combination of cultural specifics and data on communication means in Finland from sections 7.1 and 8.1.

Digital Communication Channels	
Channel	Addressed Needs / Factors
<b>Short-Term (0-1 year)</b>	
<b>Facebook</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Growth in youth engagement, particularly for young females, through Facebook in Finland</li> </ul>
<b>Instagram</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Higher engagement of young women through Instagram, as opposed to young men</li> </ul>
<b>LinkedIn</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Growth in youth engagement through LinkedIn in Finland</li> </ul>
<b>YouTube</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Highest advertising reach, when compared to other platforms</li> <li>• Opportunity to create video format, e.g. short videos for volunteering awareness</li> </ul>
<b>Email campaigns and newsletters</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Preference for online communication for efficiency due to an information-oriented culture</li> <li>• Different levels of digital skills of young women in Finland</li> <li>• High effectiveness associated with digital direct marketing in Finland</li> </ul>

<b>Blog</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Social media and blogs being better at news promotion in Finland than printed media and radio</li> <li>• Opportunity to create personalised content, which highlights important factors (e.g. contribution of volunteering to social welfare)</li> </ul>
<b>Government websites and social media channels</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• High level of interaction with public authorities through internet by young females</li> <li>• Low Power Distance in Finland, which generates trust in information shared by public authorities</li> </ul>
<b>Youth for Europe website</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Different levels of digital skills of young women in Finland</li> </ul>
<b>Mid-Term (2-5 years)</b>	
<b>Mobile application</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Demand for simplified volunteering opportunity browsing and application process</li> <li>• Ability to receive notifications and quickly find out about new opportunities</li> <li>• Need for communicational efficiency and productivity</li> <li>• Growth in the use of smartphones to access news</li> <li>• Preference for mobile-friendly interaction</li> </ul>
<b>Pinterest</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Higher female advertising reach than for other platforms</li> <li>• Possibility to share information in a visually appealing format</li> <li>• Lower advertising reach than for other platforms, hence, implementation in the mid-term rather than short-term</li> </ul>
<b>Long-Term (over 5 years)</b>	
<b>Snapchat</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Lower advertising reach than for other platforms, hence, implementation in the long-term</li> </ul>
<b>TikTok</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Lower advertising reach than for other platforms, hence, implementation in the long-term</li> </ul>
<b>Non-Digital Communication Channels</b>	
<b>Short-Term (0-1 year)</b>	
<b>Partner network</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Further increase of awareness, visibility, support and resources for Youth for Europe</li> <li>• Possibility of accessing new data and information to gain a better understanding of the target audience</li> <li>• Potential to expand the range of opportunities offered to youth</li> </ul>

<b>Mid-Term (2-5 years)</b>	
<b>Universities and other educational institutions</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ability to target youth, specifically young women, directly through universities and other educational institutions</li> <li>• Higher share of young females than males in tertiary education in Finland</li> <li>• Capacity for both digital and face-to-face communication</li> <li>• Potential collaboration with universities on the provision of volunteering opportunities</li> <li>• Possibility of integrating fun activities for university students to showcase fun aspects of volunteering, responding to high Indulgence in Finland</li> </ul>
<b>Volunteering partners</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Expansion of volunteering opportunities for youth provided by local and international organisations</li> <li>• Potential for higher visibility</li> <li>• Simplification of the application process for the opportunities</li> <li>• Better insights into volunteering initiatives, suitable youth profiles and existing trends for youth volunteering opportunities</li> </ul>
<b>Long-Term (over 5 years)</b>	
<b>Events and fairs</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lower need for face-to-face interaction in Finland, hence, implementation in the long-term</li> <li>• Ability to interact with youth and partners attending events, as well as gain valuable feedback</li> <li>• Opportunity to acquire a better understanding of the needs of the Finnish youth</li> <li>• Possibility to organise events, which target young women specifically</li> <li>• Potential to increase the general awareness of Youth for Europe</li> </ul>
<b>Television</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Growth of the television mass media market value in Finland</li> <li>• Lower use of television as the main source of news, hence, implementation in the long-term</li> <li>• General promotion of Youth for Europe, as opposed to specific ads, for cost considerations</li> <li>• Opportunity for participation in interviews, summits and public events for higher visibility</li> </ul>

*Table 15. Recommended communication channels for youth volunteering promotion in Finland.*

In terms of the digital communication channels, Facebook, Instagram, Youth for Europe website, email campaigns, newsletters and blogs should continue to be used by Youth for Europe to promote volunteering opportunities for youth, including young females. In addition to the currently used social media, LinkedIn and YouTube should be implemented in the short-term to target young females in Finland – the former due to a growing engagement of the Finnish youth on LinkedIn and the latter due to its high advertising reach. In the short-term, Youth for Europe should collaborate with the public authorities in Finland and aim to increase the organisational promotion through the governmental websites, given a high digital interaction of young females with the Finnish public authorities. In the mid-term, a mobile application should be developed to allow for the simplified opportunity browsing

and address a high use of smartphones. This mobile application can be generic for all countries in Europe, but enable filtering for individual countries and selecting local languages for the interface. Such application requires time and resources to be developed, therefore, it is positioned in the mid-term. Pinterest should also be implemented in the mid-term for female youth engagement in Finland, as it has lower advertising reach, yet largely female audience. In the long-term, Snapchat and TikTok can be used as supporting communication channels for the visual content related to youth volunteering promotion, as they have lower advertising reach than other platforms.

In terms of the non-digital communication channels, Youth for Europe should continue growing its existing partner network to gain a higher visibility in the short-term. In the mid-term, the organisation should focus on finding local volunteering and charity organisations to expand the number of volunteering opportunities offered to the Finnish youth, as well as youth from other countries. Moreover, Youth for Europe should establish partnerships with the Finnish universities to target students, given the higher share of female youth in tertiary education in Finland, as shown in Figure 3. Since creating such partnerships takes time, these channels should be leveraged in the mid-term. Events and fairs represent a potentially viable engagement channel to raise the general awareness of Youth for Europe and promote opportunities to youth directly. Television can also be used in the long-term for general awareness raising activities related to the European Youth organisations, including Youth for Europe. Nonetheless, both events and television communication channels are costly and require already having a fairly high organisational awareness level, hence, they are positioned in the long-term.

Table 16 below provides recommendations for the content related to youth volunteering opportunities in Finland, based on the cultural factors discussed in section 7.1.

Potential Content Considerations	
Recommendation	Addressed Need(s)
Emphasise <b>mutual advantage</b> volunteering can generate for youth	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Individualist society, which is driven by mutual advantages</li> </ul>
List potential <b>short-term</b> achievements for youth when volunteering	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Low Long Term Orientation and a normative society with a focus on short-term results</li> </ul>
Show how participation in volunteering can improve <b>quality of life, inclusiveness and stability</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Feminine society, which values quality of life</li> <li>Low Power Distance, with strong beliefs in social equality and inclusion</li> <li>High Uncertainty Avoidance, which reflects social need for stability and security</li> </ul>
Highlight <b>fun</b> aspects and <b>flexible conditions</b> of youth volunteering	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Indulgent society, which prioritises fun activities with a positive impact on lives</li> <li>Feminine society, which values flexibility</li> </ul>
Provide succinct information in a <b>formal, direct</b> and efficient format with <b>only relevant details</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Primary use of formal communication</li> <li>High linguistic directness</li> <li>Preference for concise information</li> <li>Focus on the content of communication due to a low-context and information-oriented Finnish culture</li> <li>Prioritisation of efficient online communication</li> </ul>

Table 16. Recommendations for content for youth volunteering promotion in Finland.

Note: Data adapted from:

- “Country Comparison” by Hofstede Insights, 2023, (<https://www.hofstede-insights.com/country-comparison/finland/>). (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Copyright 2023 by Hofstede Insights.
- “International Marketing” by P. R. Cateora, R. B. Money, M. C. Gilly & J. L. Graham, 2020. Copyright 2020 by McGraw-Hill Education.
- “Finland – Culture, Etiquette and Business Practices” by Commisceo Global, 2020, (<https://www.commisceo-global.com/resources/country-guides/finland-guide>). (Commisceo Global, 2020). Copyright 2020 by Commisceo Global.

## 9.3 France

Table 17 below summarises the recommendations for digital and non-digital communication channel implementation in the short-term (0-1 year), mid-term (2-5 years) and long-term (over 5 years) with the aim of increasing female youth engagement in employment in France. For each communication channel, Table 17 provides a list of factors and needs that it addresses, which present a combination of cultural specifics and data on communication means in France from sections 7.2 and 8.2.

Digital Communication Channels	
Channel	Addressed Needs / Factors
<b>Short-Term (0-1 year)</b>	
<b>Facebook</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by majority of young women</li> <li>• Relative effectiveness of Facebook in reaching young females in France</li> </ul>
<b>Instagram</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by majority of young women</li> <li>• High effectiveness of Instagram in reaching youth, particularly young females, in France</li> </ul>
<b>LinkedIn</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by majority of young women</li> <li>• Growth in youth engagement through LinkedIn in France</li> </ul>
<b>Snapchat</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by majority of young women</li> <li>• Significant advertising reach in France</li> </ul>
<b>YouTube</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by majority of young women</li> <li>• Highest advertising reach, when compared to other platforms</li> <li>• Opportunity to create interactive and personalised content in the video format</li> </ul>
<b>Email campaigns and newsletters</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by majority of young women</li> <li>• Preference for online communication for efficiency due to an information-oriented culture</li> <li>• Different levels of digital skills of young women in France</li> </ul>
<b>Blog</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by majority of young women</li> <li>• Opportunity to create personalised content, which highlights career benefits for employability and personal growth</li> </ul>
<b>Youth for Europe website</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by majority of young women</li> <li>• Different levels of digital skills of young women in France</li> </ul>
<b>Mid-Term (2-5 years)</b>	

<b>Mobile application</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by majority of young women</li> <li>• Demand for simplified employment opportunity browsing and application process</li> <li>• Ability to receive notifications, quickly find out about new opportunities and adapt due to a pragmatic French culture</li> <li>• Need for communicational efficiency and productivity</li> <li>• Growth in the use of smartphones to access news</li> <li>• Preference for mobile-friendly interaction</li> </ul>
<b>Pinterest</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by majority of young women</li> <li>• Opportunity to create visually appealing content</li> <li>• Highest female advertising reach, when compared to other platforms</li> <li>• Lower general advertising reach than for other platforms, hence, implementation in the mid-term</li> </ul>
<b>Government websites and social media channels</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by majority of young women</li> <li>• Fairly high level of interaction with public authorities through internet by young females</li> <li>• High Power Distance in France, which generates a lack of strong trust in information provided by public authorities, hence, implementation in the mid-term</li> <li>• Potential to distribute information to wider audience to encourage networks</li> </ul>
<b>Long-Term (over 5 years)</b>	
<b>Twitter</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by majority of young women</li> <li>• Relatively high share of female Twitter audience in France, when compared to other countries</li> <li>• Mainly male audience, hence, implementation in the long-term</li> </ul>
<b>Non-Digital Communication Channels</b>	
<b>Short-Term (0-1 year)</b>	
<b>Partner network</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Further increase of awareness, visibility, support and resources for Youth for Europe</li> <li>• Possibility of accessing new data and information to gain a better understanding of the target audience</li> <li>• Potential to expand the range of opportunities offered to youth</li> </ul>
<b>Mid-Term (2-5 years)</b>	
<b>Universities and other educational institutions</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need for non-digital communication due to some young women in France having low, narrow or limited levels of digital skills</li> <li>• Ability to target youth, specifically young women, directly through universities and other educational institutions</li> <li>• Higher share of young females than males in tertiary education in France</li> <li>• Growing share of young French women in tertiary education</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Capacity for both digital and face-to-face communication to address efficiency and relationship-building simultaneously</li> <li>• Potential to leverage existing partnerships of universities with employers</li> <li>• Possibility of career-related activities and skills-building workshops for university students to showcase opportunities for personal development and growth to address individualism in France</li> </ul>
<b>Employment partners</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Expansion of employment opportunities for youth provided by local and international organisations</li> <li>• Potential for higher visibility and long-term partnerships</li> <li>• Simplification of the application process for the opportunities</li> <li>• Better insights into internship opportunities, suitable youth profiles and existing trends for youth employment in France</li> </ul>
<b>Long-Term (over 5 years)</b>	
<b>Events and fairs</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Relative importance of face-to-face communication and human connection in France</li> <li>• Ability to interact with youth and partners attending events, as well as gain valuable feedback</li> <li>• Opportunity to acquire a better understanding of the needs of the French youth and form professional relationships, addressing relationship-oriented aspects of the French culture</li> <li>• Possibility to organise events, which target young women specifically</li> <li>• Potential to increase the general awareness of Youth for Europe</li> </ul>
<b>Television</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lower use of television as the main source of news, hence, implementation in the long-term</li> <li>• General promotion of Youth for Europe, as opposed to specific ads, for cost considerations</li> <li>• Opportunity for participation in interviews, summits and public events for higher visibility</li> </ul>
<b>Leaflets and brochures</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need for non-digital communication due to some young women in France having low, narrow or limited levels of digital skills</li> <li>• Lower use of printed media as the main source of news, hence, implementation in the long-run</li> <li>• Potential to create visually appealing content and distribute it to wider audience to encourage networks</li> </ul>

*Table 17. Recommended communication channels for youth employment promotion in France.*

In terms of the digital communication channels, Facebook, Instagram, Youth for Europe website, email campaigns, newsletters and blogs should continue to be used by Youth for Europe to promote employment and internship opportunities to youth, including young females. In addition, LinkedIn, Snapchat and YouTube social media channels should be implemented in the short-term. Using LinkedIn responds to the growth in youth engagement through LinkedIn in France and increases the chances of targeting young women searching for internship opportunities, as LinkedIn is a professional platform. YouTube has the highest advertising reach in France, while Snapchat's advertising reach is close to



LinkedIn and Instagram, making it potentially effective in reaching the French youth. Similar to Finland, the implementation of a mobile application in France should take place in the mid-term due to the development considerations. Although Pinterest has a lower advertising reach in France, it has a mainly female audience, which makes it a valid supporting communication channel in the mid-term. Finally, Youth for Europe can collaborate with public authorities in France to raise organisational awareness through governmental websites and institutions to address a high level of digital interaction of young French women with authorities. However, this channel is positioned in the mid-term because of High Power Distance in France. In the long-term, Twitter could be implemented to target young women, if its female audience continues to grow in France and exceeds 30%.

In terms of the non-digital communication channels, Youth for Europe should continue growing its existing partner network to gain a higher visibility in the short-term. Similar to Finland, Youth for Europe should establish partnerships with the French universities to target students in the mid-term, given a significant, growing share of female youth in tertiary education in France, as shown in Figure 10. Moreover, Youth for Europe should focus on partnering with the French employers in the mid-term to provide more employment and internship opportunities for youth. In the long-term, events, fairs, television and leaflets can be used to attract young women to employment opportunities. Events and fairs address the need for face-to-face communication and human interaction in France, given some relationship-oriented aspects of the French culture, while television is more aimed at the general awareness raising for Youth for Europe. Leaflets and brochures can help targeting young French women, who prefer non-digital communication. Furthermore, leaflets can reach wider audience, rather than focusing on youth, which helps the general organisational promotion. Nonetheless, given the reduction in the use of printed media in France, leaflets and brochures are positioned in the long-term.

Table 18 below provides recommendations for the content related to youth employment opportunities in France, based on the cultural factors discussed in section 7.2.

Potential Content Considerations	
Recommendation	Addressed Need(s)
Discuss opportunities for <b>personal development</b> to encourage youth motivation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Restrained society, which prioritises activities contributing to personal development and career</li> </ul>
List potential <b>long-term</b> career benefits and <b>personal growth</b> linked to youth employment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• High Long Term Orientation and a pragmatic society with a focus on long-term results</li> <li>• Masculine culture amongst youth from middle and lower social classes, which are driven by individual competitiveness and personal growth</li> </ul>
Provide <b>relevant</b> information, addressing youth <b>formally</b> , with a link for <b>further details</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• High Uncertainty Avoidance, which creates a need for visibility and awareness of the details</li> <li>• Preference for formal communication</li> <li>• Focus on the content of communication due to a low-context and information-oriented French culture</li> </ul>
Promote <b>company values</b> to ensure they align with <b>personal values</b> and highlight the importance of <b>workplace culture</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Individualist society, which is driven by personal values</li> </ul>
Emphasise the benefits of employment for <b>quality of life</b> and <b>individual competitiveness</b> ( <i>depending on the targeted social class</i> )	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Feminine culture amongst youth from higher social classes, which are driven by quality of life</li> </ul>



	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Masculine culture amongst youth from middle and lower social classes, which are driven by individual competitiveness</li> </ul>
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*Table 18. Recommendations for content for youth employment promotion in France.*

*Note: Data adapted from:*

- “Country Comparison” by Hofstede Insights, 2023, (<https://www.hofstede-insights.com/country-comparison/france/>). (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Copyright 2023 by Hofstede Insights.
- “International Marketing” by P. R. Cateora, R. B. Money, M. C. Gilly & J. L. Graham, 2020. Copyright 2020 by McGraw-Hill Education.
- “Communication” by C. Scroope, 2017, (<https://culturalatlas.sbs.com.au/french-culture/french-culture-communication>). (Scroope, 2017). Copyright 2017 by Cultural Atlas.

## 9.4 Italy

Table 19 below summarises the recommendations for digital and non-digital communication channel implementation in the short-term (0-1 year), mid-term (2-5 years) and long-term (over 5 years) with the aim of increasing female youth engagement in employment in Italy. For each communication channel, Table 19 provides a list of factors and needs that it addresses, which present a combination of cultural specifics and data on communication means in Italy from sections 7.3 and 8.3.

Digital Communication Channels	
Channel	Addressed Needs / Factors
<b>Short-Term (0-1 year)</b>	
<b>Facebook</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Growing share of young women in Italy with daily access to internet</li> <li>• Relative effectiveness of Facebook in reaching young females in Italy</li> </ul>
<b>Instagram</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Growing share of young women in Italy with daily access to internet</li> <li>• High effectiveness of Instagram in reaching young females in Italy</li> </ul>
<b>LinkedIn</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Growing share of young women in Italy with daily access to internet</li> <li>• Increase in youth engagement through LinkedIn in Italy</li> </ul>
<b>YouTube</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Growing share of young women in Italy with daily access to internet</li> <li>• Highest advertising reach, when compared to other platforms</li> <li>• Opportunity to create interactive and personalised content for youth engagement to address a relationship-oriented culture</li> </ul>
<b>Email campaigns and newsletters</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Growing share of young women in Italy with daily access to internet</li> <li>• Preference for online communication from the Italian youth to ensure efficiency and adaptability</li> <li>• Different levels of digital skills of young women in Italy</li> </ul>

<b>Blog</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Growing share of young women in Italy with daily access to internet</li> <li>• Opportunity to create personalised content to encourage relationship-building and have an individual approach</li> </ul>
<b>Youth for Europe website</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Growing share of young women in Italy with daily access to internet</li> <li>• Different levels of digital skills of young women in Italy</li> </ul>
<b>Mid-Term (2-5 years)</b>	
<b>Mobile application</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Growing share of young women in Italy with daily access to internet</li> <li>• Demand for simplified employment opportunity browsing and application process</li> <li>• Ability to receive notifications, quickly find out about new opportunities and adapt due to a pragmatic Italian culture</li> <li>• Growth in the use of smartphones to access news</li> <li>• Preference for mobile-friendly interaction</li> </ul>
<b>Influencers</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Growing share of young women in Italy with daily access to internet</li> <li>• Opportunity to create personalised content, raise brand awareness and build trusting relationships with youth</li> <li>• Ability to share information in various formats to allow for verbal communication, e.g. Q&amp;A speeches and feedback videos</li> </ul>
<b>Podcast</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Growing share of young women in Italy with daily access to internet</li> <li>• Potential for personalisation and provision of relevant details for youth employment to address high Uncertainty Avoidance</li> <li>• Possibility to distribute information to wider audience to encourage networks</li> <li>• Opportunity to create an audio content, which differs to other platforms</li> </ul>
<b>Long-Term (over 5 years)</b>	
<b>Pinterest</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Growing share of young women in Italy with daily access to internet</li> <li>• Highest female advertising reach, when compared to other platforms</li> <li>• Lower general advertising reach than for other platforms, hence, implementation in the long-term</li> </ul>
<b>TikTok</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Growing share of young women in Italy with daily access to internet</li> <li>• Possibility to create personalised video content, which generates interest from youth</li> <li>• Lower advertising reach than for other platforms, hence, implementation in the long-term</li> </ul>

<b>Twitter</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Growing share of young women in Italy with daily access to internet</li> <li>• Relatively high percentage of female Twitter audience in Italy, when compared to other countries</li> <li>• Mainly male audience, hence, implementation in the long-term</li> </ul>
<b>Government websites and social media channels</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Growing share of young women in Italy with daily access to internet</li> <li>• Low level of interaction with public authorities through internet by young females, hence, implementation in the long-term</li> <li>• High Power Distance in Italy, which generates a lack of trust in information provided by public authorities, particularly in Southern regions</li> <li>• Potential to distribute information to wider audience to encourage networks</li> </ul>
<b>Non-Digital Communication Channels</b>	
<b>Short-Term (0-1 year)</b>	
<b>Partner network</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Further increase of awareness, visibility, support and resources for Youth for Europe</li> <li>• Possibility of accessing new data and information to gain a better understanding of the target audience</li> <li>• Potential to expand the range of opportunities offered to youth</li> </ul>
<b>Universities and other educational institutions</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Strong need for non-digital communication channels due to a significant number of young women in Italy having low, narrow, limited or no digital skills</li> <li>• Ability to target youth, specifically young women, directly through universities and other educational institutions</li> <li>• Higher share of young females than males in tertiary education in Italy</li> <li>• Growing share of young Italian women in tertiary education</li> <li>• Capacity for both digital and face-to-face communication to address efficiency and relationship-building simultaneously</li> <li>• Potential to leverage existing partnerships of universities with employers</li> <li>• Possibility of career-related activities and skill-building workshops for university students to showcase opportunities for personal development, competitiveness and growth to respond to the demand of a masculine Italian society</li> </ul>
<b>Representative office</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Strong need for non-digital communication channels due to a significant number of young women in Italy having low, narrow, limited or no digital skills</li> <li>• High importance of face-to-face communication in Italy</li> <li>• Need for personal engagement to build trusting relationships and address a high-context, relationship-oriented culture in Italy</li> </ul>
<b>Mid-Term (2-5 years)</b>	

<b>Television</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Fairly high use of television as the main source of news in Italy, when compared to other countries, yet implementation in the mid-term for cost considerations</li> <li>Opportunity for participation in interviews, summits and public events for higher visibility</li> <li>Possibility to share content to wider audience to encourage networks</li> </ul>
<b>Events and fairs</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Strong need for non-digital communication channels due to a significant number of young women in Italy having low, narrow, limited or no digital skills</li> <li>High importance of face-to-face communication in Italy</li> <li>Ability to interact with youth and partners attending events, as well as gain valuable feedback</li> <li>Opportunity to acquire a better understanding of the needs of the Italian youth and form professional relationships, addressing a relationship-oriented Italian culture</li> <li>Possibility to organise events, which target young women specifically</li> <li>Potential to increase the general awareness of Youth for Europe</li> </ul>
<b>Employment partners</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Expansion of employment opportunities for youth provided by local and international organisations</li> <li>Potential for higher visibility and long-term partnerships</li> <li>Simplification of the application process for the opportunities</li> <li>Better insights into internship opportunities, suitable youth profiles and existing trends for youth employment opportunities</li> </ul>
<b>Long-Term (over 5 years)</b>	
<b>Leaflets and brochures</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Strong need for non-digital communication channels due to a significant number of young women in Italy having low, narrow, limited or no digital skills</li> <li>Lower use of printed media as the main source of news, hence, implementation in the long-run</li> <li>Potential to create visually appealing content and distribute it to wider audience to encourage networks</li> </ul>

*Table 19. Recommended communication channels for youth employment promotion in Italy.*

In terms of the digital communication channels, Facebook, Instagram, Youth for Europe website, email campaigns, newsletters and blogs should continue to be used by Youth for Europe to promote employment and internship opportunities to youth, including young females. In addition, LinkedIn and YouTube should be implemented in Italy to promote youth employment opportunities in the short-term. LinkedIn represents an optimal tool, given the increase in the engagement of the Italian youth in 2022 and the professional environment of the platform, while YouTube has a higher advertising reach in Italy than other social media platforms. In the mid-term, a mobile application, influencers and podcast should be added as communication channels for youth employment opportunities promotion in Italy. Similar to Finland and France, a mobile application can be general, but allow for country and language selection. Promotion through influencers in the field helps to create personalised content and allows for better relationship-building with the brand to address a relationship-oriented Italian culture. The podcast also

helps to create interesting, targeted content and reach wider audience, relying on word-of-mouth communication in Italy due to extensive social networks. Nevertheless, finding appropriate influencers and creating podcast material requires time and resources, hence, these communication channels are positioned in the mid-term. In the long-term, Pinterest, TikTok and Twitter social media platforms can be used to support youth employment opportunities promotion. Pinterest and TikTok allow for personalised visual content, with Pinterest having a majorly female audience. Twitter should be used in the long-term if the share of its female audience increases in Italy over time and is higher than 30%. Finally, Youth for Europe can collaborate with public authorities to raise organisational awareness through governmental websites with the potential of reaching wider audience. However, given the High Power Distance and low level of digital interaction of young women with public authorities in Italy, this communication channel should be implemented in the long-term.

In terms of the non-digital communication channels, Youth for Europe should continue growing its existing partner network to gain a higher visibility in the short-term. In contrast to Finland and France, partnering with universities should be prioritised in Italy in the short-term to leverage face-to-face communication and relationship-building activities, which are valued by youth due to a relationship-oriented Italian culture. Furthermore, the existence of a representative office for Youth for Europe in Milan should be further promoted to encourage young women in Italy to engage in face-to-face communication, which will improve the brand reputation. In the mid-term, Youth for Europe should partner with employers in Italy to provide more employment and internship opportunities for youth and potentially create joint events and fairs. Such events address the need for non-digital communication channels for young women in Italy and allow for personal engagement with the representatives. In contrast to other countries, raising general organisational awareness through television in Italy was positioned in the mid-term because of a significant use of television as the main source of news in Italy. In the long-term, leaflets and brochures should be distributed to promote youth employment opportunities to target wider audience and allow for personalised interaction. Lower use of printed media in Italy justifies the use of this communication channel only in the long-term.

Table 20 below provides recommendations for the content related to youth employment opportunities in Italy, based on the cultural factors discussed in section 7.3.

Potential Content Considerations	
Recommendation	Addressed Need(s)
Emphasise positive impact of employment on <b>personal development, career and competitiveness</b> for youth	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Masculine society, which is driven by individual competitiveness and personal achievement</li> <li>• Prioritisation of work over leisure</li> </ul>
List potential <b>long-term</b> employment benefits for youth	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• High Long Term Orientation and a pragmatic Italian society with a focus on long-term results</li> </ul>
Show how employment results in <b>stability</b> and <b>certainty</b> for youth	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• High Uncertainty Avoidance, which reflects social need for stability and security</li> </ul>
Highlight possibility of forming <b>meaningful relationships</b> during employment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Importance of social networks and business relationships, especially in Southern Italy</li> <li>• Relationship-oriented culture</li> </ul>
Provide <b>detailed information in various formats</b> (beyond text), including videos, role model speeches and Q&A live sessions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• High Uncertainty Avoidance, which creates the need for visibility and awareness of the details</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Focus on the context of communication due to a high-context and relationship-oriented Italian culture</li> <li>• Preference for face-to-face, personalised interaction</li> </ul>
Offer <b>flexibility</b> and potential to <b>take on responsibility</b> in youth employment opportunities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• High Power Distance, with the Italian youth valuing flexibility and control in decision-making</li> <li>• Masculine society, which is career-driven and motivated by taking responsibility</li> </ul>

Table 20. Recommendations for content for youth employment promotion in Italy.

Note: Data adapted from:

- “Country Comparison” by Hofstede Insights, 2023, (<https://www.hofstede-insights.com/country-comparison/italy/>). (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Copyright 2023 by Hofstede Insights.
- “International Marketing” by P. R. Cateora, R. B. Money, M. C. Gilly & J. L. Graham, 2020. Copyright 2020 by McGraw-Hill Education.
- “Italy – Language, Culture, Etiquette and Business Practices” by Commisceo Global, 2020, (<https://www.commisceo-global.com/resources/country-guides/italy-guide>). (Commisceo Global, 2020). Copyright 2020 by Commisceo Global.

## 9.5 Luxembourg

Table 21 below summarises the recommendations for digital and non-digital communication channel implementation in the short-term (0-1 year), mid-term (2-5 years) and long-term (over 5 years) with the aim of increasing female youth engagement in volunteering in Luxembourg. For each communication channel, Table 21 provides a list of factors and needs that it addresses, which present a combination of cultural specifics and data on communication means in Luxembourg from sections 7.4 and 8.4.

Digital Communication Channels	
Channel	Addressed Needs / Factors
<b>Short-Term (0-1 year)</b>	
<b>Facebook</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Relative effectiveness of Facebook in reaching young females in Luxembourg</li> </ul>
<b>Instagram</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• High effectiveness of Instagram in reaching young females in Luxembourg</li> </ul>
<b>LinkedIn</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Growth in youth engagement through LinkedIn in Luxembourg</li> </ul>
<b>Snapchat</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Highest advertising reach, when compared to other platforms</li> </ul>
<b>YouTube</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Opportunity to create interactive and personalised content in the video format</li> </ul>
<b>Email campaigns and newsletters</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Preference for online communication for efficiency due to an information-oriented Luxembourgish culture</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Different levels of digital skills of young women in Luxembourg</li> </ul>
<b>Blog</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Opportunity to create personalised content and discuss social changes and trends related to volunteering to address pragmatism and high adaptability in Luxembourg</li> </ul>
<b>Podcast</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Potential for personalisation and provision of relevant details for youth volunteering to address high Uncertainty Avoidance</li> <li>• Possibility to distribute information to wider audience to encourage community engagement</li> <li>• Opportunity to create an audio content, which differs to other platforms</li> </ul>
<b>Government websites and social media channels</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Fairly high level of interaction with public authorities through internet by young females in Luxembourg</li> <li>• Low Power Distance in Luxembourg, which generates trust in information shared by public authorities</li> </ul>
<b>Youth for Europe website</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Different levels of digital skills of young women in Luxembourg</li> </ul>
<b>Mid-Term (2-5 years)</b>	
<b>Mobile application</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Demand for simplified volunteering opportunity browsing and application process</li> <li>• Ability to receive notifications and quickly find out about new opportunities</li> <li>• Need for communicational efficiency and productivity</li> <li>• Growth in the use of smartphones to access news</li> <li>• Preference for mobile-friendly interaction</li> </ul>
<b>Long-Term (over 5 years)</b>	
<b>Pinterest</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Highest female advertising reach than for other platforms</li> <li>• Possibility to share information in a visually appealing format</li> <li>• Lower general advertising reach than for other platforms, hence, implementation in the long-term</li> </ul>
<b>Non-Digital Communication Channels</b>	
<b>Short-Term (0-1 year)</b>	
<b>Partner network</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Further increase of awareness, visibility, support and resources for Youth for Europe</li> <li>• Possibility of accessing new data and information to gain a better understanding of the target audience</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Potential to expand the range of opportunities offered to youth</li> </ul>
<b>Universities and other educational institutions</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ability to target youth, specifically young women, directly through universities and other educational institutions</li> <li>• Higher share of young females than males in tertiary education in Luxembourg</li> <li>• Capacity for both digital and face-to-face communication</li> <li>• Potential collaboration with universities on the provision of volunteering opportunities</li> <li>• Possibility of integrating fun activities for university students to showcase fun aspects of volunteering, responding to high Indulgence in Luxembourg</li> </ul>
<b>Mid-Term (2-5 years)</b>	
<b>Volunteering partners</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Expansion of volunteering opportunities for youth provided by local and international organisations</li> <li>• Potential for higher visibility</li> <li>• Simplification of the application process for the opportunities</li> <li>• Better insights into volunteering initiatives, suitable youth profiles and existing trends for youth volunteering opportunities</li> </ul>
<b>Radio</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need for non-digital communication due to some young women in Luxembourg having low, narrow or limited levels of digital skills</li> <li>• Higher weekly media reach in Luxembourg, when compared to television, internet and daily press</li> <li>• Opportunity to create personalised content for young women</li> <li>• Possibility to distribute information to wider audience to encourage community engagement</li> </ul>
<b>Long-Term (over 5 years)</b>	
<b>Events and fairs</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need for non-digital communication due to some young women in Luxembourg having low, narrow or limited levels of digital skills</li> <li>• Lower need for face-to-face interaction in Luxembourg, hence, implementation in the long-term</li> <li>• Ability to interact with youth and partners attending events, as well as gain valuable feedback</li> <li>• Opportunity to acquire a better understanding of the needs of the Luxembourgish youth</li> <li>• Possibility to organise events, which target young women specifically</li> <li>• Potential to increase the general awareness of Youth for Europe</li> </ul>

*Table 21. Recommended communication channels for youth volunteering promotion in Luxembourg.*

In terms of the digital communication channels, Facebook, Instagram, Youth for Europe website, email campaigns, newsletters and blogs should continue to be used by Youth for Europe to promote volunteering opportunities to youth, including young females. In addition, LinkedIn, Snapchat and YouTube social media platforms should be leveraged in the short-term. Using LinkedIn responds to the



growing trend of youth engagement through this platform in Luxembourg, while Snapchat has a significantly higher advertising reach in Luxembourg, compared to other social media platforms. Even though no data on YouTube's advertising reach in Luxembourg was available in Table 8, it is still recommended to use this communication channel for personalised video content to engage with youth. Given the high media reach of radio and other audio communication channels in Luxembourg, a podcast can also be used as a communication tool in the short-term, allowing for personalised content and information sharing with wider audience, in addition to youth. Low Power Distance and a high level of digital interaction of young women with public authorities in Luxembourg makes collaboration and promotion of youth volunteering opportunities through governmental websites a viable option in the short-term. In the mid-term, similar to other countries, the implementation of a mobile application is recommended in Luxembourg to facilitate opportunity browsing and improve communicational efficiency, addressing an information-oriented culture. In the long-term, Pinterest should be used to promote visual content related to youth volunteering. In spite of having a majorly female audience, Pinterest has a lower advertising reach in Luxembourg, hence, it is positioned in the long-term.

In terms of the non-digital communication channels, Youth for Europe should continue growing its existing partner network to gain a higher visibility in the short-term. Furthermore, Youth for Europe should collaborate with universities for a more targeted promotion of volunteering opportunities for youth, including young females. Although such partnerships require time and resources to be developed, Luxembourg has a small number of universities in the country, which makes establishing partnerships with universities in the short-term fairly realistic. In the mid-term, Youth for Europe should consider partnering with local volunteering and charity organisations to provide more volunteering opportunities for youth and create joint volunteering initiatives. In addition, radio can be used for the promotion of such opportunities in the mid-term, as it has the highest weekly audience reach in Luxembourg. Nonetheless, the cost of promotion through radio exceeds the cost of online promotion, therefore, radio is positioned in the mid-term. In the long-term, Youth for Europe should organise events and fairs, where youth can engage with the organisation and its partners. Given that such events require time and financial investment, as well as a significant range of volunteering opportunities and partners, this communication channel is positioned in the long-term.

Table 22 below provides recommendations for the content related to youth volunteering opportunities in Luxembourg, based on the cultural factors discussed in section 7.4.

Potential Content Considerations	
Recommendation	Addressed Need(s)
Emphasise the benefits of volunteering in shaping a more <b>inclusive</b> and <b>adaptable</b> society	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• High Long Term Orientation, which reflects social adaptability</li> <li>• Low Power Distance, with strong beliefs in social equality and inclusion</li> </ul>
List potential <b>long-term</b> advantages for youth when volunteering	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• High Long Term Orientation and a pragmatic society with a focus on long-term results</li> </ul>
Show how participation in volunteering can improve <b>quality of life, social welfare</b> and <b>stability</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Feminine culture in social aspects of life, which is driven by quality of life and the importance of social welfare</li> <li>• High Uncertainty Avoidance, which reflects social need for stability and security</li> </ul>
Highlight <b>fun</b> aspects of youth volunteering	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Indulgent society, which prioritises fun activities with a positive impact on lives</li> </ul>

Provide <b>succinct</b> information in a <b>formal</b> and <b>direct</b> format with only <b>relevant details</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Preference for formal communication</li> <li>• High linguistic directness</li> <li>• Focus on the content of communication due to a low-context and information-oriented Luxembourgish culture</li> <li>• Prioritisation of efficient and concise online communication</li> </ul>
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*Table 22. Recommendations for content for youth volunteering promotion in Luxembourg.*

*Note: Data adapted from:*

- “Country Comparison” by Hofstede Insights, 2023, (<https://www.hofstede-insights.com/country-comparison/luxembourg/>). (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Copyright 2023 by Hofstede Insights.
- “International Marketing” by P. R. Cateora, R. B. Money, M. C. Gilly & J. L. Graham, 2020. Copyright 2020 by McGraw-Hill Education.
- “Business communication” by Passport to Trade 2.0, n.d., (<https://businessculture.org/western-europe/business-culture-in-luxembourg/business-communication-in-luxembourg/>). (Passport to Trade 2.0, n.d.). Copyright 2023 by Passport to Trade 2.0.

## 9.6 Slovakia

Table 23 below summarises the recommendations for digital and non-digital communication channel implementation in the short-term (0-1 year), mid-term (2-5 years) and long-term (over 5 years) with the aim of increasing female youth engagement in education in Slovakia. For each communication channel, Table 23 provides a list of factors and needs that it addresses, which present a combination of cultural specifics and data on communication means in Slovakia from sections 7.5 and 8.5.

Digital Communication Channels	
Channel	Addressed Needs / Factors
<b>Short-Term (0-1 year)</b>	
<b>Facebook</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Relative effectiveness of Facebook in reaching young females in Slovakia</li> </ul>
<b>Instagram</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• High effectiveness of Instagram in reaching young females in Slovakia</li> </ul>
<b>LinkedIn</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Growth in youth engagement through LinkedIn in Slovakia</li> </ul>
<b>YouTube</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Highest advertising reach, when compared to other platforms</li> <li>• Opportunity to create interactive and personalised content in the video format to address a relationship-oriented Slovak culture</li> </ul>
<b>Pinterest</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Highest female advertising reach, when compared to other platforms</li> </ul>
<b>Email campaigns and newsletters</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Different levels of digital skills of young women in Slovakia</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Preference for modern ways of communication by the Slovak youth</li> <li>• Highest time spent by young females on receiving and sending emails, compared to other internet activities, in Slovakia in 2022</li> </ul>
<b>Blog</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Opportunity to create personalised content, which highlights educational benefits for personal development and competitiveness to address a masculine Slovak society</li> </ul>
<b>Podcast</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Potential for personalisation and provision of relevant details for youth education topics to address existing Uncertainty Avoidance</li> <li>• Opportunity to create an audio content, which differs to other platforms</li> </ul>
<b>Youth for Europe website</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Different levels of digital skills of young women in Slovakia</li> </ul>
<b>Mid-Term (2-5 years)</b>	
<b>Mobile application</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Demand for simplified non-formal education and training opportunity browsing and application process</li> <li>• Ability to receive notifications, quickly find out about new opportunities and adapt due to a pragmatic Slovak culture</li> <li>• Growth in the use of smartphones to access news</li> <li>• Preference for mobile-friendly interaction</li> </ul>
<b>Snapchat</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Lower general advertising reach than for other platforms, hence, implementation in the mid-term</li> <li>• Relatively high female advertising reach, when compared to other platforms</li> </ul>
<b>Long-Term (over 5 years)</b>	
<b>Government websites and social media channels</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• High level of interaction with public authorities through internet by young females</li> <li>• High Power Distance in Slovakia, which generates a lack of trust in information shared by public authorities, hence, implementation in the long-term</li> </ul>
<b>Digital newspapers</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Considerable time spent by young females on reading online newspapers and magazines, amongst other internet activities, in Slovakia in 2022</li> </ul>
<b>Non-Digital Communication Channels</b>	
<b>Short-Term (0-1 year)</b>	

<b>Partner network</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Further increase of awareness, visibility, support and resources for Youth for Europe</li> <li>• Possibility of accessing new data and information to gain a better understanding of the target audience</li> <li>• Potential to expand the range of opportunities offered to youth</li> </ul>
<b>Schools, universities and other educational institutions</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ability to target youth, specifically young women, directly through schools, universities and other educational institutions</li> <li>• Higher share of young females than males in tertiary education in Slovakia</li> <li>• Capacity for both digital and face-to-face communication</li> <li>• Potential collaboration with universities on the provision of formal and non-formal education and training opportunities</li> <li>• Possibility of career-related activities and skills-building workshops for students to show how education benefits career prospects and increases competitiveness</li> </ul>
<b>Education partners</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Expansion of education opportunities for youth provided by local and international organisations</li> <li>• Potential for higher visibility and long-term partnerships</li> <li>• Simplification of the application process for the opportunities</li> <li>• Better insights into education opportunities, suitable youth profiles and existing trends for youth education in Slovakia</li> </ul>
<b>Mid-Term (2-5 years)</b>	
<b>Youth ambassadors and influencers</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Relative importance of face-to-face communication for relationship-building in Slovakia</li> <li>• Opportunity to share personalised content, raise brand awareness and build trusting relationships with youth</li> <li>• Ability to provide information in various formats to allow for verbal communication, such as role model speeches, panel interviews and Q&amp;A sessions</li> </ul>
<b>Long-Term (over 5 years)</b>	
<b>Events and fairs</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Relative importance of face-to-face communication for relationship-building in Slovakia</li> <li>• Ability to interact with youth and partners attending events, as well as gain valuable feedback</li> <li>• Opportunity to acquire a better understanding of the needs of the Slovak youth and form professional relationships, responding to a relationship-oriented Slovak culture</li> <li>• Possibility to organise events, which target young women specifically</li> <li>• Potential to increase the general awareness of Youth for Europe</li> </ul>

*Table 23. Recommended communication channels for youth education promotion in Slovakia.*

In terms of the digital communication channels, Facebook, Instagram, Youth for Europe website, email campaigns, newsletters and blogs should continue to be used by Youth for Europe to promote education

opportunities to youth, including young females. In addition, LinkedIn, YouTube and Pinterest social media platforms should be implemented in the short-term in Slovakia. LinkedIn represents an effective communication tool for educational opportunities promotion, given its professional environment and growth in youth engagement through this platform in Slovakia. YouTube has the highest advertising reach, allowing for personalised content creation, which responds to a relationship-oriented culture in Slovakia. In contrast, Pinterest has a lower advertising reach than Facebook, Instagram or YouTube in Slovakia, but it has a mainly female audience and creates opportunity to share visually appealing content to motivate young women to engage in education. Furthermore, a podcast should be used as a communication channel for education opportunities promotion in Slovakia in the short-term, as it encourages personalisation and a detailed exploration of topics related to education. This supports young women in making informed decisions and creates a better perception of the brand. In the mid-term, similar to other countries, a mobile application of Youth for Europe should be introduced in Slovakia to allow for mobile-friendly interaction and simplified browsing of non-formal and training opportunities. Snapchat should also be used in the mid-term, as it has a relatively high female advertising reach in Slovakia. In the long-term, Youth for Europe should collaborate with local government to encourage the promotion of education opportunities through governmental websites, which responds to a high level of digital interaction with public authorities by young women in Slovakia. Nonetheless, high Power Distance creates a lack of trust in the information shared by public authorities, hence, this communication channel should have a supporting function in the long-term. Digital newspapers can also be implemented in the long-term to promote education opportunities to young women, given the considerable time they spend on reading online newspapers and magazines.

In terms of the non-digital communication channels, Youth for Europe should continue growing its existing partner network to gain a higher visibility in the short-term. Furthermore, when promoting education opportunities for young women in Slovakia, it is crucial for Youth for Europe to partner with local schools, universities and other institutions to collaborate with them on creating new, better opportunities and workshops. This would allow for face-to-face communication, which helps to build trust with youth. In addition, Youth for Europe should focus on partnering with organisations, which provide non-formal education and training in Slovakia, to offer better opportunities to young women and show the importance of such activities in career development. In the mid-term, promotion of education opportunities through youth ambassadors and influencers should be leveraged using existing partner networks at institutions and universities. Face-to-face interaction with youth ambassadors addresses the importance of relationship-building in Slovakia, allows for personalisation and is effective in preventing young women from dropping out of education. In the long-term, events and fairs should be organised for youth, including young females, to have a personal interaction, discover new education opportunities and network with the organisation and its partners.

Table 24 below provides recommendations for the content related to youth education opportunities in Slovakia, based on the cultural factors discussed in section 7.5.

Potential Content Considerations	
Recommendation	Addressed Need(s)
Emphasise <b>improved decision-making</b> and <b>leadership</b> upon completing education and training	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Individualist approach amongst youth, which is motivated by having controlled decision-making and personal growth</li> </ul>
List potential <b>long-term</b> benefits education generates for youth	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>High Long Term Orientation and a pragmatic society with a focus on long-term results</li> </ul>

Show how education contributes to <b>personal achievement</b> and <b>competitiveness</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Masculine society, which is driven by individual competitiveness and personal success</li> <li>• Restrained culture, which prioritises career success over leisure</li> </ul>
Highlight <b>modern aspects</b> of education opportunities and how they respond to the needs of youth	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• High Long Term Orientation, which creates the need for adaptability and modernisation</li> </ul>
Provide relevant information in a <b>formal</b> , yet <b>personalised</b> format, including videos, live Q&A sessions and opportunities to connect with youth ambassadors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Preference for formal communication</li> <li>• Need for personalisation</li> <li>• Focus on the context of communication due to a high-context and relationship-oriented Slovak culture</li> <li>• Importance of relationship-building and personal connection</li> </ul>

Table 24. Recommendations for content for youth education promotion in Slovakia.

Note: Data adapted from:

- “Country Comparison” by Hofstede Insights, 2023, (<https://www.hofstede-insights.com/country-comparison/slovakia/>). (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Copyright 2023 by Hofstede Insights.
- “International Marketing” by P. R. Cateora, R. B. Money, M. C. Gilly & J. L. Graham, 2020. Copyright 2020 by McGraw-Hill Education.
- “Slovakia – Culture, Etiquette and Business Practices” by Commisceo Global, 2020, (<https://www.commisceo-global.com/resources/country-guides/slovakia-guide/>). (Commisceo Global, 2020). Copyright 2020 by Commisceo Global.

## 9.7 Spain

Table 25 below summarises the recommendations for digital and non-digital communication channel implementation in the short-term (0-1 year), mid-term (2-5 years) and long-term (over 5 years) with the aim of increasing female youth engagement in employment in Spain. For each communication channel, Table 25 provides a list of factors and needs that it addresses, which present a combination of cultural specifics and data on communication means in Spain from sections 7.6 and 8.6.

Digital Communication Channels	
Channel	Addressed Needs / Factors
<b>Short-Term (0-1 year)</b>	
<b>Facebook</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Growth in youth engagement, particularly for young females, through Facebook in Spain</li> </ul>
<b>Instagram</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• High effectiveness of Instagram in reaching youth, including young females in Spain</li> </ul>
<b>LinkedIn</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Growth in youth engagement through LinkedIn in Spain</li> </ul>
<b>YouTube</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Highest advertising reach, when compared to other platforms</li> <li>• Opportunity to create interactive and personalised content in the video format to address a relationship-oriented Spanish culture</li> </ul>

<b>Email campaigns and newsletters</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Different levels of digital skills of young women in Spain</li> <li>• Opportunity to create personalised content, which highlights career development and improvement of quality of life</li> </ul>
<b>Blog</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Opportunity to create personalised content and discuss social changes and trends related to youth employment with sufficient details to address high Uncertainty Avoidance in Spain</li> </ul>
<b>Youth for Europe website</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Different levels of digital skills of young women in Spain</li> </ul>
<b>Mid-Term (2-5 years)</b>	
<b>Mobile application</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Demand for simplified employment opportunity browsing and application process</li> <li>• Ability to receive notifications, quickly find out about new opportunities and adapt due to a pragmatic Spanish culture</li> <li>• Need for communicational efficiency and productivity</li> <li>• Growth in the use of smartphones to access news</li> <li>• Preference for mobile-friendly interaction</li> </ul>
<b>Pinterest</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Highest female advertising reach, when compared to other platforms</li> <li>• Lower general advertising reach than for other platforms, hence, implementation in the mid-term</li> </ul>
<b>TikTok</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Relatively high advertising reach, yet lower than for Facebook, Instagram, YouTube and LinkedIn, hence, implementation in the mid-term</li> <li>• Possibility to create personalised video content, which generates interest from youth</li> </ul>
<b>Twitter</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Relatively high share of female Twitter audience in Spain, when compared to other countries</li> <li>• Mainly male audience, hence, implementation in the mid-term</li> </ul>
<b>Influencers</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Opportunity to create personalised content, raise brand awareness and build trusting relationships with youth to respond to a relationship-oriented Spanish culture</li> <li>• Ability to share information in various formats to allow for verbal communication, e.g. Q&amp;A speeches and feedback videos</li> </ul>
<b>Long-Term (over 5 years)</b>	



<b>Government websites and social media channels</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Relatively high level of interaction with public authorities through internet by young females in Spain</li> <li>• High Power Distance in Spain, which generates a lack of trust in information shared by public authorities, hence, implementation in the long-term</li> </ul>
<b>Digital newspapers</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Daily frequency of internet access by almost all young women</li> <li>• Higher audience reach for digital newspapers</li> </ul>
<b>Non-Digital Communication Channels</b>	
<b>Short-Term (0-1 year)</b>	
<b>Partner network</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Further increase of awareness, visibility, support and resources for Youth for Europe</li> <li>• Possibility of accessing new data and information to gain a better understanding of the target audience</li> <li>• Potential to expand the range of opportunities offered to youth</li> </ul>
<b>Universities and other educational institutions</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ability to target youth, specifically young women, directly through universities and other educational institutions</li> <li>• Higher share of young females than males in tertiary education in Spain</li> <li>• Capacity for both digital and face-to-face communication to address efficiency and relationship-building simultaneously</li> <li>• Potential to leverage existing partnerships of universities with employers</li> <li>• Possibility of career-related activities and skill-building workshops for university students to showcase opportunities for better prospects and improvement of quality of life in Spain</li> </ul>
<b>Mid-Term (2-5 years)</b>	
<b>Employment Partners</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Expansion of employment opportunities for youth provided by local and international organisations</li> <li>• Potential for higher visibility and long-term partnerships</li> <li>• Simplification of the application process for the opportunities</li> <li>• Better insights into internship opportunities, suitable youth profiles and existing trends for youth employment in Spain</li> </ul>
<b>Leaflets and brochures</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Potential to create visually appealing content and distribute it to wider audience to encourage networks, addressing a collectivist society in Spain</li> <li>• Lower use of printed media as the main source of news, hence, implementation in the long-run</li> </ul>
<b>Long-Term (over 5 years)</b>	
<b>Events and fairs</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• High importance of face-to-face communication in Spain</li> </ul>



	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ability to interact with youth and partners attending events, as well as gain valuable feedback</li> <li>• Opportunity to acquire a better understanding of the needs of the Spanish youth and form professional relationships, addressing relationship-oriented aspects of the Spanish culture</li> <li>• Possibility to organise events, which target young women specifically</li> <li>• Potential to increase the general awareness of Youth for Europe</li> </ul>
<b>Television</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Significant level of television media penetration rate for females in Spain in 2022, overtaking rates for radio and magazines</li> <li>• General promotion of Youth for Europe, as opposed to specific ads, for cost considerations</li> <li>• Opportunity for participation in interviews, summits and public events for higher visibility</li> <li>• Decreasing trend for the use of television as the main source of news in Spain, hence, implementation in the long-term</li> </ul>

*Table 25. Recommended communication channels for youth employment promotion in Spain.*

In terms of the digital communication channels, Facebook, Instagram, Youth for Europe website, email campaigns, newsletters and blogs should continue to be used by Youth for Europe to promote employment opportunities to youth, including young females. In addition, LinkedIn and YouTube social media platforms should be implemented in the short-term. While using LinkedIn is suitable for professional purposes and responds to the growth in youth engagement through this platform in Spain, using YouTube allows to create personalised and interactive content, which addresses a relationship-oriented Spanish culture. In the mid-term, Pinterest, TikTok and Twitter social media platforms should be added to existing communication channels for employment opportunities promotion in Spain. Even though Pinterest has a lower advertising reach than other platforms, it has a majorly female audience and encourages creative visual content, which can drive more interest from young women. TikTok also provides the opportunity to engage youth with interactive video content, having a relatively significant advertising reach. Whereas majority of the Spanish Twitter audience is male, the share of the female audience is higher than in other countries, reaching almost 40% in 2021, as given in Figure 259. This makes Twitter a potentially attractive tool for engagement in the future. Youth for Europe should also consider partnering with influencers to promote employment opportunities in Spain, which will help to raise brand awareness, encourage personalised interaction and support engagement in a variety of formats. Similar to other countries, a mobile application should be introduced in Spain in the mid-term for simplified opportunity browsing and improved communicational efficiency. In the long-term, Youth for Europe should collaborate with local government agents and promote employment opportunities through public organisations and authorities, which responds to a relatively high level of digital interaction of young women with authorities in Spain. Nonetheless, high Power Distance creates a lack of trust in information shared by public agents, hence, this communication channel is positioned in the long-term. Moreover, digital newspapers, used for employment opportunities promotion and raising the general organisational awareness, can act as a supporting tool in the long-term and share information with wider audience, relying on word-of-mouth communication in a collectivist Spanish society.

In terms of the non-digital communication channels, Youth for Europe should continue growing its existing partner network to gain a higher visibility in the short-term. Furthermore, the organisation should partner with universities in Spain to address the importance of face-to-face communication and relationship-building activities in the Spanish culture. This would also create opportunities for joint initiatives, workshops and career-building activities aimed at supporting young women in Spain, given

a higher share of young females in tertiary education, as shown in Figure 36. In the mid-term, Youth for Europe should partner with employers to expand the range of employment opportunities offered to youth through the organisation. In addition, the use of leaflets and brochures can be helpful in the mid-term, as it encourages personalised, visually appealing content and allows to target the wider audience, which is beneficial for collectivist societies. Nevertheless, a lower use of printed media implies that leaflets and brochures can only play a supporting role in the promotion of employment opportunities and should be implemented in the mid-term. In the long-term, Youth for Europe should organise events and fairs to foster face-to-face communication with youth, which is highly valued in Spain, given its relationship-oriented culture. Moreover, television should be considered as a potential communication tool for the general organisational promotion, as it reaches mass audience, which addresses a collectivist society. Although this communication channel is costly, hence, it is positioned in the long-term, it still has a significant level of media penetration rate for females in Spain.

Table 26 below provides recommendations for the content related to youth employment opportunities in Spain, based on the cultural factors discussed in section 7.6.

Potential Content Considerations	
Recommendation	Addressed Need(s)
Emphasise opportunities for <b>personal development</b> , <b>relationship-building</b> and <b>teamwork</b> during employment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Collectivist society, which is driven by social networks and teamwork</li> <li>• Restrained society, which priorities personal development and career</li> <li>• Relationship-oriented culture</li> </ul>
List potential <b>short-term</b> benefits of employment for youth	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Low Long Term Orientation and a normative society with a focus on short-term results</li> </ul>
Show how employment can improve <b>quality of life</b> , <b>social welfare</b> and <b>stability for youth</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Feminine society, which values quality of life and social welfare</li> <li>• High Uncertainty Avoidance, which reflects social need for stability and security</li> </ul>
Highlight the <b>positive impact</b> youth in employment can make for individuals and the society	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Feminine society, which prioritises making a positive impact and engaging in meaningful work</li> </ul>
Provide <b>detailed</b> information in a <b>formal</b> and <b>personalised</b> format, such as role model speeches, live interactions with youth and videos	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• High Uncertainty Avoidance, which creates the need for visibility and awareness of details</li> <li>• Preference for formal communication in business</li> <li>• Focus on the context of communication due to a high-context and relationship-oriented Spanish culture</li> <li>• Need for personalisation and trust-building activities</li> </ul>

Table 26. Recommendations for content for youth employment promotion in Spain.

Note: Data adapted from:

- “Country Comparison” by Hofstede Insights, 2023, (<https://www.hofstede-insights.com/country-comparison/spain/>). (Hofstede Insights, 2023). Copyright 2023 by Hofstede Insights.
- “International Marketing” by P. R. Cateora, R. B. Money, M. C. Gilly & J. L. Graham, 2020. Copyright 2020 by McGraw-Hill Education.
- “Hola! (Hello!) and Welcome to our Guide to Spanish Culture, Business Practices & Etiquette” by Commisceo Global, 2020, (<https://www.commisceo-global.com/resources/country-guides/spain-guide>). (Commisceo Global, 2020). Copyright 2020 by Commisceo Global.

## 10. Conclusion

The topic of youth policy-making and inclusion in the society is highly important for sustainable development and economic prosperity in the long-term. Majority of policy-makers are focusing on the creation of new policies and programmes to improve opportunities for youth, and many studies in the field evaluate such tools. Whereas this work is crucial for youth development, increasing the number of opportunities will prove effective in the long-term if young people have awareness of them and if they can efficiently reach all representatives of youth. This research offers a different perspective for the issue of youth development by centring the attention on the means of raising awareness of youth of existing opportunities, rather than establishing more opportunities per se. By narrowing down the focus to the specific fields of female youth engagement, the selected countries and Youth for Europe project, this research proposes a practical recommendation on the implementation of communication channels. Given that no prior studies examined Youth for Europe initiative and offered tailored recommendations based on the cultural and gender-specific factors, this thesis successfully fills in an existing research gap in the field and contributes to female youth empowerment and promotion of active citizenship in the long-term. Nonetheless, the results of this research are not merely applicable to Youth for Europe project, but can be adapted for other European programmes and initiatives for the selected countries.

This thesis evaluated youth education, volunteering, exchange and employment in Finland, France, Italy, Luxembourg, Slovakia and Spain, which represent a selected sample of the EU countries. The first research question was aimed at identifying a priority focus area out of the four focus areas for female youth engagement in each selected country. In Finland, youth volunteering was selected as a priority focus area because no national strategy for youth volunteering exists in Finland, with majority of youth willing to volunteer but not having enough skills or information on volunteering opportunities. In France, youth employment was selected as a priority focus area because the position of young women in the French labour market is less favourable, with young females having greater unemployment rates than their male counterparts and high youth NEET numbers. In Italy, youth employment was selected as a priority focus area because young women are also less advantaged, in spite of their education, and face high unemployment rates, which result in significant numbers of young females NEET. In Luxembourg, youth volunteering was selected as a priority focus area because the promotion of youth volunteering is considered to be one of the national youth policy objectives, yet, such promotion is generalised and might not reach all target groups, including young women. In Slovakia, youth education was selected as a priority focus area because of a considerably low participation of young women in non-formal educational activities and training, which, in turn, negatively impacts other youth engagement areas in Slovakia. In Spain, youth employment was selected as a priority focus area because young women are more vulnerable in the Spanish labour market, facing higher unemployment rates and less secure part-time employment, which results in high numbers of youth NEET.

The second research question focused on determining the relevant cultural factors and gender differences in communication in the selected countries. The Finnish culture is low-context and information oriented, with high value placed on communicational efficiency, social well-being and equality. Young women in Finland have a high level of digital skills and use internet frequently to interact with public authorities. The Finnish youth, including young females, primarily uses online media sources and mobile devices for communication. The French culture is low-context and information-oriented, with elements of a relationship-oriented culture, which values both efficient communication and the aspect of human interaction. Young women in France are fairly skilled in terms of digital interaction, with majority of them using internet to interact with public authorities. Television and online media act as the main sources of news in France, with a high preference of youth for mobile-friendly communication. The Italian culture is high-context and relationship-oriented, emphasising the importance of trust-building and personalisation. Young women in Italy are less tech-savvy than in other countries in terms of their digital skills and do not use internet frequently to interact with public authorities. Even though the use of television is widespread in Italy, the Italian youth also places high

value on efficient communication, preferring online and mobile-friendly interaction. The Luxembourgish culture is low-context and information-oriented, appreciating efficiency and the use of digital communication tools. Young women in Luxembourg have moderate digital skills and use internet relatively frequently to interact with authorities. In contrast to other countries, radio represents an effective communication mode in Luxembourg, along with digital media. The Slovak culture is high-context and relationship-oriented, with a high importance of personal connection. Nevertheless, the Slovak youth values efficiency in communication, with young women having a moderate level of digital skills and using internet frequently to interact with public authorities. In addition to the dominating online media sources, television and social networks are mainly used in Slovakia. The Spanish culture is high-context and relationship-oriented, prioritising personalisation and human connection over efficiency. Young women in Spain have a high level of digital skills and use internet relatively frequently to interact with public authorities. Digital communication channels are preferred by young females in Spain, yet television has a relatively high reach for the general Spanish population.

The third research question aimed to identify the communication channels that should be used by Youth for Europe to increase female youth engagement in the selected national priority focus areas. In Finland, in terms of the digital communication channels, the use of Facebook, Instagram, LinkedIn, YouTube, email campaigns, newsletters, blog, Youth for Europe website and government social media channels is recommended in the short-term; the use of a mobile application and Pinterest is recommended in the mid-term and the use of Snapchat and TikTok is recommended in the long-term for youth volunteering engagement. In terms of the non-digital communication channels, the use of partner network is recommended in the short-term; the use of universities and volunteering partners is recommended in the mid-term and the use of events and television is recommended in the long-term in Finland.

In France, in terms of the digital communication channels, the use of Facebook, Instagram, LinkedIn, Snapchat, YouTube, email campaigns, newsletters, blog and Youth for Europe website is recommended in the short-term; the use of a mobile application, Pinterest and government websites is recommended in the mid-term and the use of Twitter is recommended in the long-term for youth employment engagement. In terms of the non-digital communication channels, the use of partner network is recommended in the short-term; the use of universities and employment partners is recommended in the mid-term and the use of events, television and leaflets is recommended in the long-term in France.

In Italy, in terms of the digital communication channels, the use of Facebook, Instagram, LinkedIn, YouTube, email campaigns, newsletters, blog and Youth for Europe website is recommended in the short-term; the use of a mobile application, influencers and podcast is recommended in the mid-term and the use of Pinterest, TikTok, Twitter and government websites is recommended in the long-term for youth employment engagement. In terms of the non-digital communication channels, the use of partner network, universities and a representative office is recommended in the short-term; the use of television, events and employment partners is recommended in the mid-term and the use of leaflets is recommended in the long-term in Italy.

In Luxembourg, in terms of the digital communication channels, the use of Facebook, Instagram, LinkedIn, Snapchat, YouTube, email campaigns, newsletters, blog, podcast, Youth for Europe website and government social media is recommended in the short-term; the use of a mobile application is recommended in the mid-term and the use of Pinterest is recommended in the long-term for youth volunteering engagement. In terms of the non-digital communication channels, the use of partner network and universities is recommended in the short-term; the use of volunteering partners and radio is recommended in the mid-term and the use of events is recommended in the long-term in Luxembourg.

In Slovakia, in terms of the digital communication channels, the use of Facebook, Instagram, LinkedIn, YouTube, Pinterest, email campaigns, newsletters, blog, podcast and Youth for Europe website is recommended in the short-term; the use of a mobile application and Snapchat is recommended in the mid-term and the use of government websites and digital newspapers is recommended in the long-term

for youth education engagement. In terms of the non-digital communication channels, the use of partner network, schools, universities and education partners is recommended in the short-term; the use of youth ambassadors is recommended in the mid-term and the use of events is recommended in the long-term in Slovakia.

In Spain, in terms of the digital communication channels, the use of Facebook, Instagram, LinkedIn, YouTube, email campaigns, newsletters, blog and Youth for Europe website is recommended in the short-term; the use of a mobile application, Pinterest, TikTok, Twitter and influencers is recommended in the mid-term and the use of government websites and digital newspapers is recommended in the long-term for youth employment engagement. In terms of the non-digital communication channels, the use of partner network and universities is recommended in the short-term; the use of employment partners and leaflets is recommended in the mid-term and the use of events and television is recommended in the long-term in Spain.

The results of the research have effectively provided answers to the three research questions and fulfilled the three research objectives stated in the Introduction section of the thesis. Nevertheless, this research exhibits several limitations, which are summarised in Table 27 below:

Research Limitations
<b>1. Missing data</b> <p>As this thesis is based primarily on the quantitative data analysis, it is dependent on data availability from existing databases and public sources. Consequently, this research exhibits figures with missing data due to the unavailability of certain data points from the original sources, such as Eurostat.</p>
<b>2. Focus only on male and female genders</b> <p>The scope of this research is narrowed down to young women to align with the values and strategic policy development focus of NWFE. Data for young women is compared against data for young men due to the availability of similar quantitative data for both genders. Nonetheless, this presents a limitation for this research, as the trends exhibited by other genders and gender identities are not considered.</p>
<b>3. Different age groups</b> <p>Even though the focus age group for this research is young individuals aged 15-24 years, according to the UN's definition of youth, the data presented in this thesis deviates from the selected age group. This limitation is justified by the lack of available quantitative data for this standardised age group.</p>
<b>4. Focus only on the six selected countries</b> <p>The scope of this research is limited to the six selected countries – Finland, France, Italy, Luxembourg, Slovakia and Spain. Although this allows for a more targeted, in-depth analysis, as opposed to a broad examination, this limits the relevance of this thesis to the selected countries.</p>
<b>5. Emphasis on communication channels, as opposed to the content</b> <p>The focus of this research is limited to the types of communication channels, as opposed to the content shared through them. This thesis partially attempts to provide recommendations related to content in section 9, however, this is not explored in detail in this work.</p>
<b>6. Analysis of only four focus areas</b> <p>The scope of this research is limited to youth education, volunteering, exchange and employment to allow for a more targeted analysis. Nonetheless, this presents a limitation, as other areas of youth engagement are not examined in this thesis.</p>

## 7. Recommendation based only on a priority focus area

Recommendations on communication channels are based on the priority focus area selected for each country in section 6, which allows for a more targeted approach. Notwithstanding, while being potentially applicable, the recommendations do not cover the three remaining focus areas for each country.

## 8. Current scope of Youth for Europe

Whereas the long-term objectives of Youth for Europe are oriented towards positively impacting youth on a European level, the organisation is at the start of its growth and does not currently provide extensive number of opportunities in all areas of youth engagement. This makes some of the recommendations provided in this thesis potentially less viable in the short-term and more relevant for when Youth for Europe reaches its maturity. Nevertheless, majority of the recommendations can be helpful in growing the organisation and expanding its network.

*Table 27. Overview of the identified limitations of this research.*

In terms of the further research, future studies in this field can focus on other European countries and focus areas not included in this thesis. The specifics of communication of other genders can be explored to encourage more targeted communication strategies. Furthermore, future research works can determine the impact of factors different to gender on the communication ways, e.g. socioeconomic backgrounds, ethnicity, sexual orientation, geographic region. Similar studies can further contribute to the field by leveraging the qualitative data, e.g. surveys, as opposed to the quantitative data. Finally, while this study focused primarily on the communication tools per se, future research can develop content propositions based on the cultural factors and examine the significance of the local and foreign language use in youth communication in different countries.

## 11. Declaration of Conflicting Interests

The author reported no potential conflicts of interests associated with this research.

## 12. Acknowledgments

The author thanks the supervisor Josefina Bengoechea for her continuous support and advice throughout this research, as well as the Board of Directors of NWFE for making this project a possibility and giving it a potential for the future. The author also thanks European Business University of Luxembourg and its staff for all their guidance and assistance along the way. Finally, the author is grateful for the support and motivation provided by her family during this research project.

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## 14. Appendices

### 14.1 Appendix A

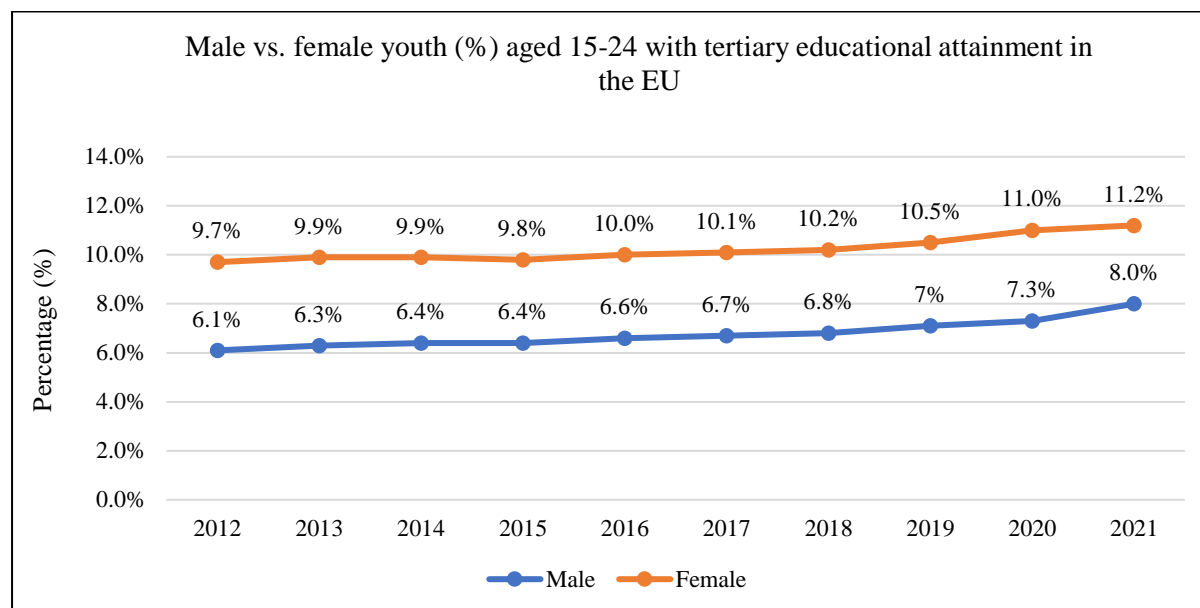


Figure A.1. Percentage of male vs. female young people aged 15-24 with tertiary educational attainment level in the EU for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Young people by educational attainment level, sex and age" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_DEMO\\_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth\\_educ](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_DEMO_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth_educ)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

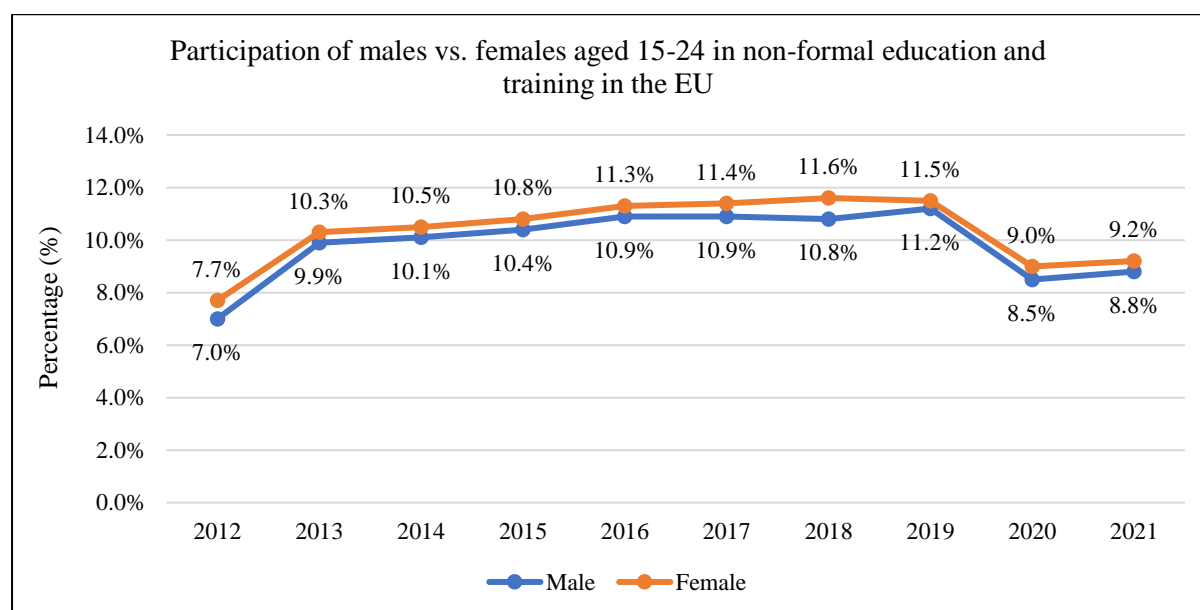


Figure A.2. Participation rate (%) of male vs. female young people aged 15-24 in non-formal education and training in the EU for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Participation rate in non-formal education and training (last 4 weeks) by sex and age" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_EDUC\\_060/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_EDUC_060/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.



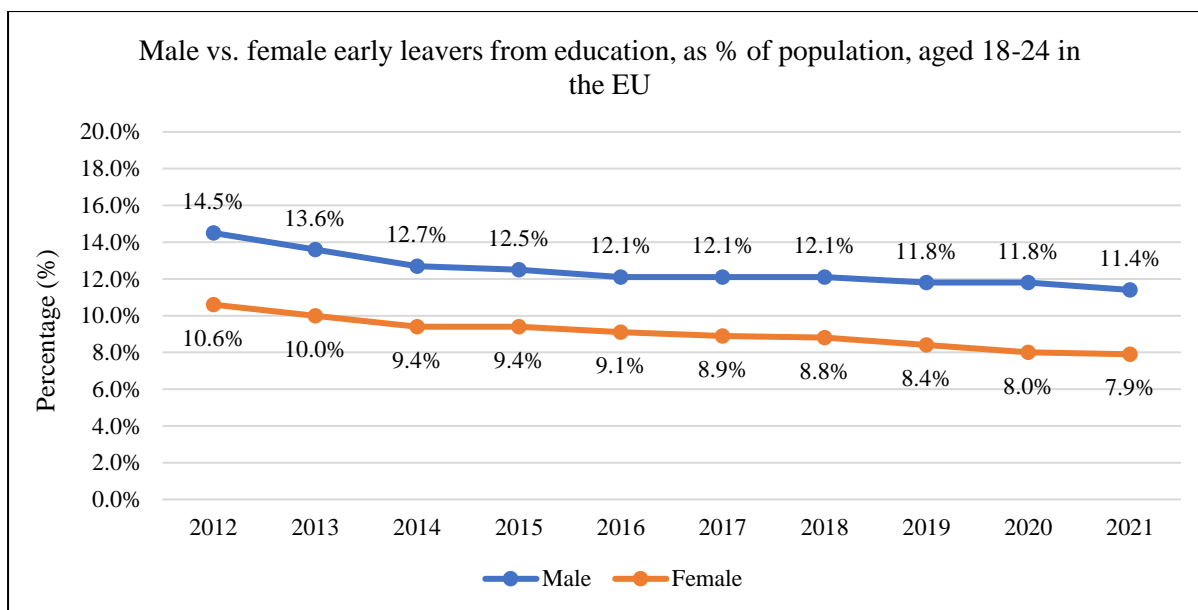


Figure A.3. Percentage of male vs. female early leavers from education and training aged 18-24 of total population in the EU for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Early leavers from education and training by sex and labour status" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/edat\\_lfse\\_14/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/edat_lfse_14/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

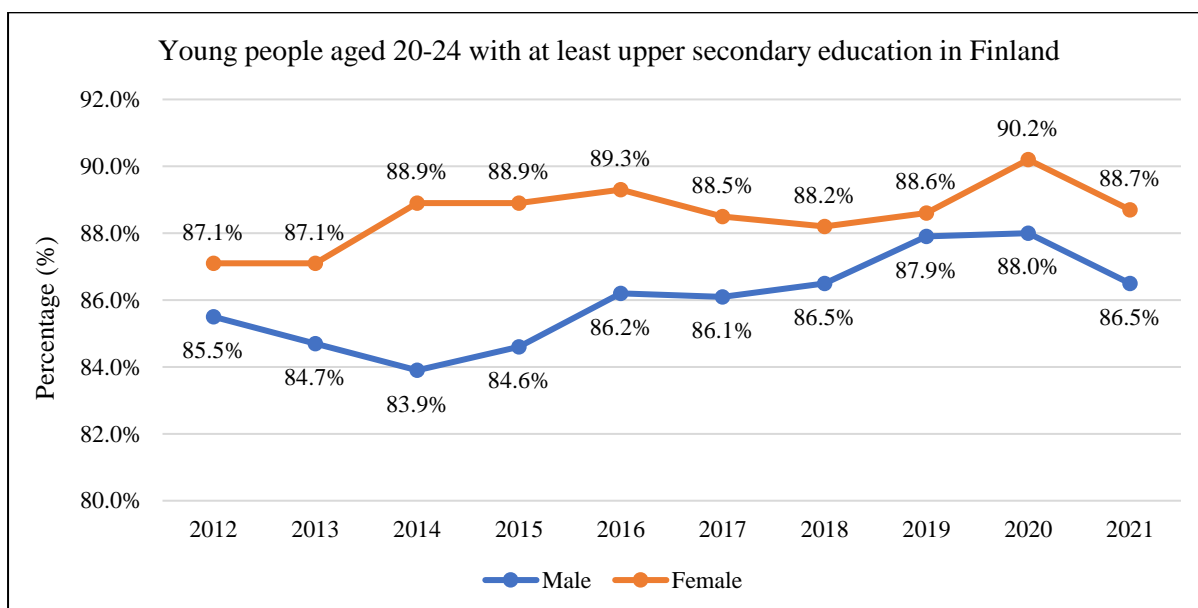
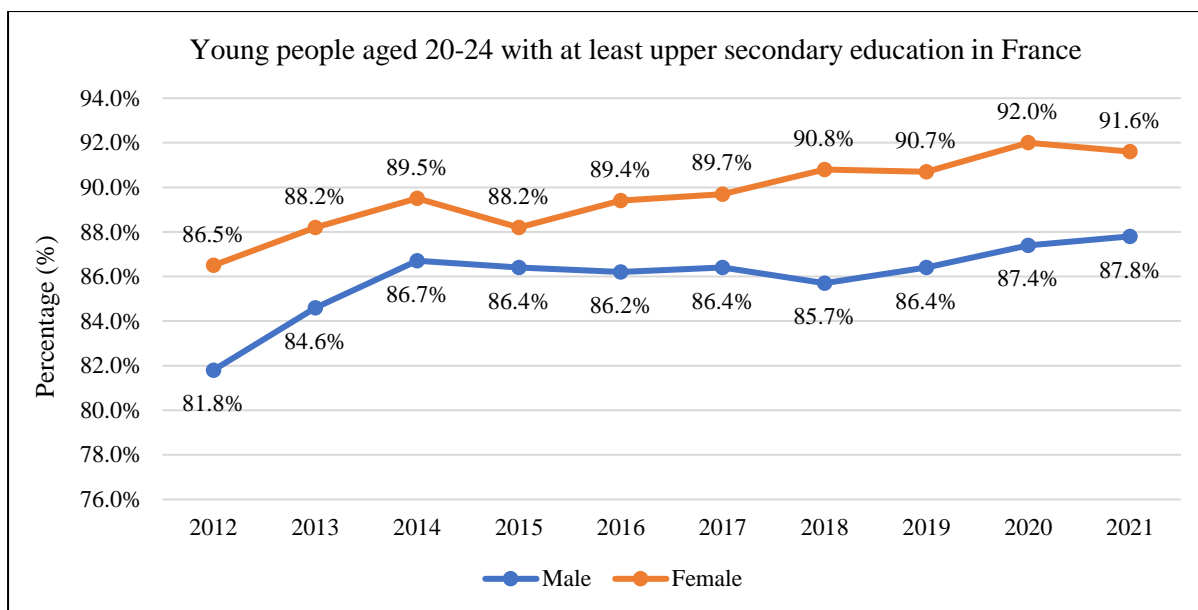


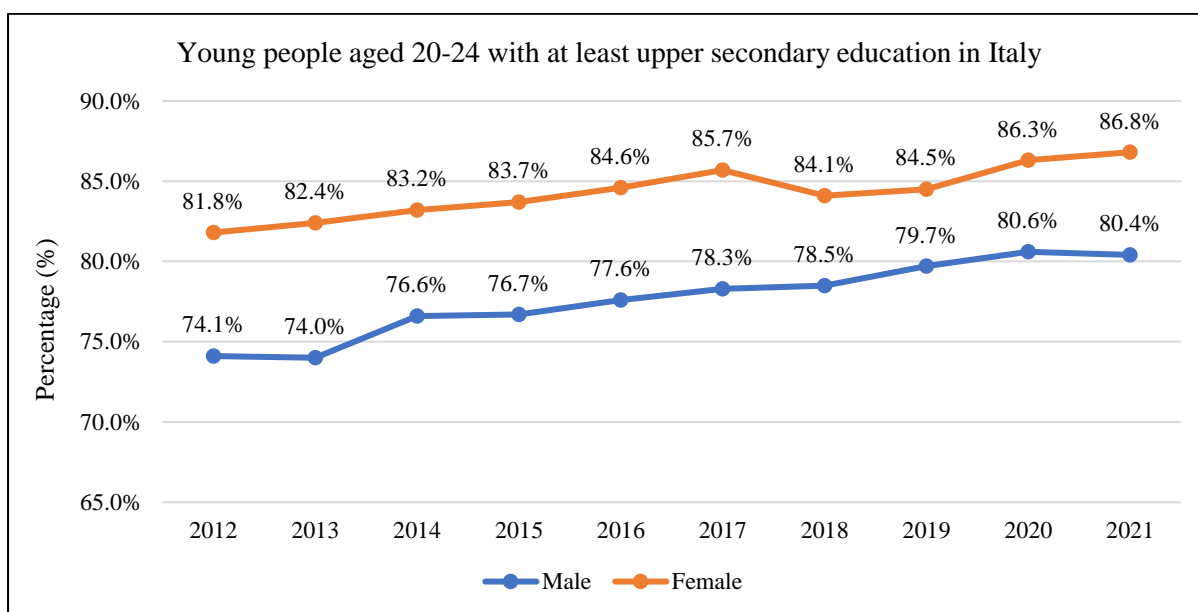
Figure A.4. Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary education in Finland for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Young people aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary educational attainment level by sex" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_EDUC\\_030/default/table?lang=en&category=educ.educ\\_outc.edat.edat1](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_EDUC_030/default/table?lang=en&category=educ.educ_outc.edat.edat1)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.



*Figure A.5. Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary education in France for years 2012-2021.*

Note: Data adapted from: "Young people aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary educational attainment level by sex" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_EDUC\\_030/default/table?lang=en&category=educ.educ\\_outc.edat.edat1](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_EDUC_030/default/table?lang=en&category=educ.educ_outc.edat.edat1)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.



*Figure A.6. Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary education in Italy for years 2012-2021.*

Note: Data adapted from: "Young people aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary educational attainment level by sex" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_EDUC\\_030/default/table?lang=en&category=educ.educ\\_outc.edat.edat1](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_EDUC_030/default/table?lang=en&category=educ.educ_outc.edat.edat1)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

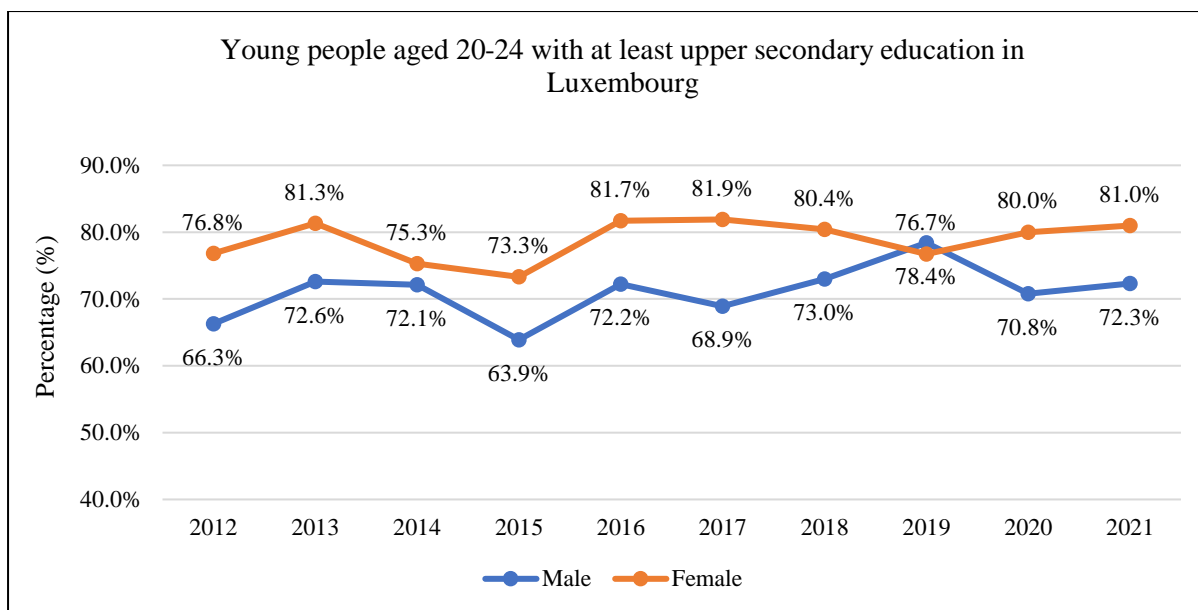


Figure A.7. Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary education in Luxembourg for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Young people aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary educational attainment level by sex" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_EDUC\\_030/default/table?lang=en&category=educ.educ\\_outc.edat.edat1](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_EDUC_030/default/table?lang=en&category=educ.educ_outc.edat.edat1)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

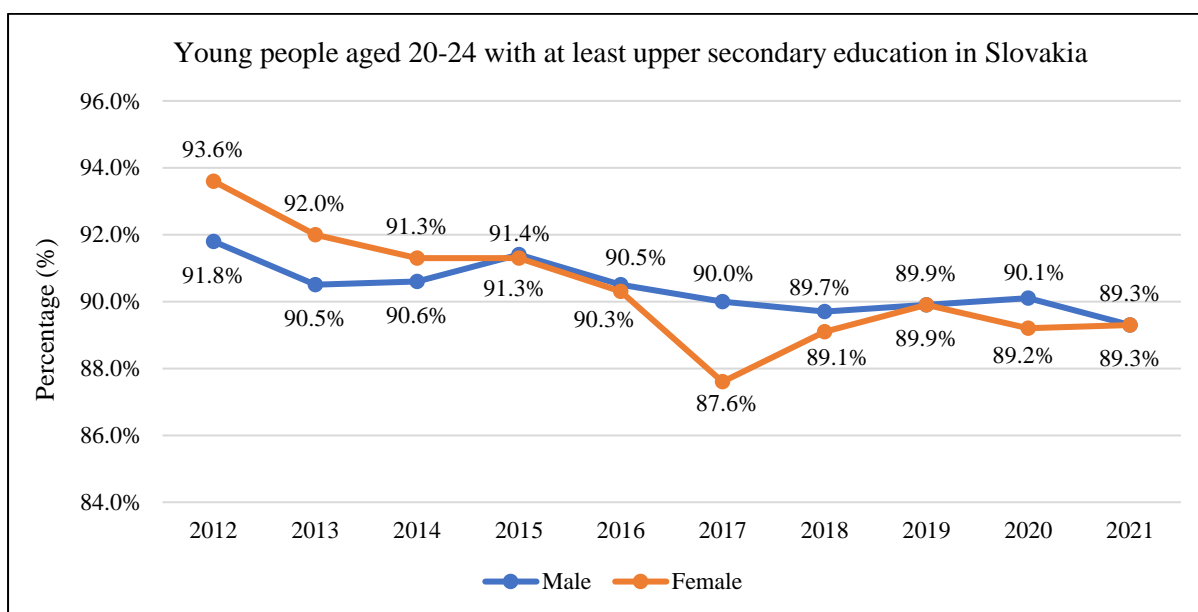


Figure A.8. Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary education in Slovakia for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Young people aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary educational attainment level by sex" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_EDUC\\_030/default/table?lang=en&category=educ.educ\\_outc.edat.edat1](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_EDUC_030/default/table?lang=en&category=educ.educ_outc.edat.edat1)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

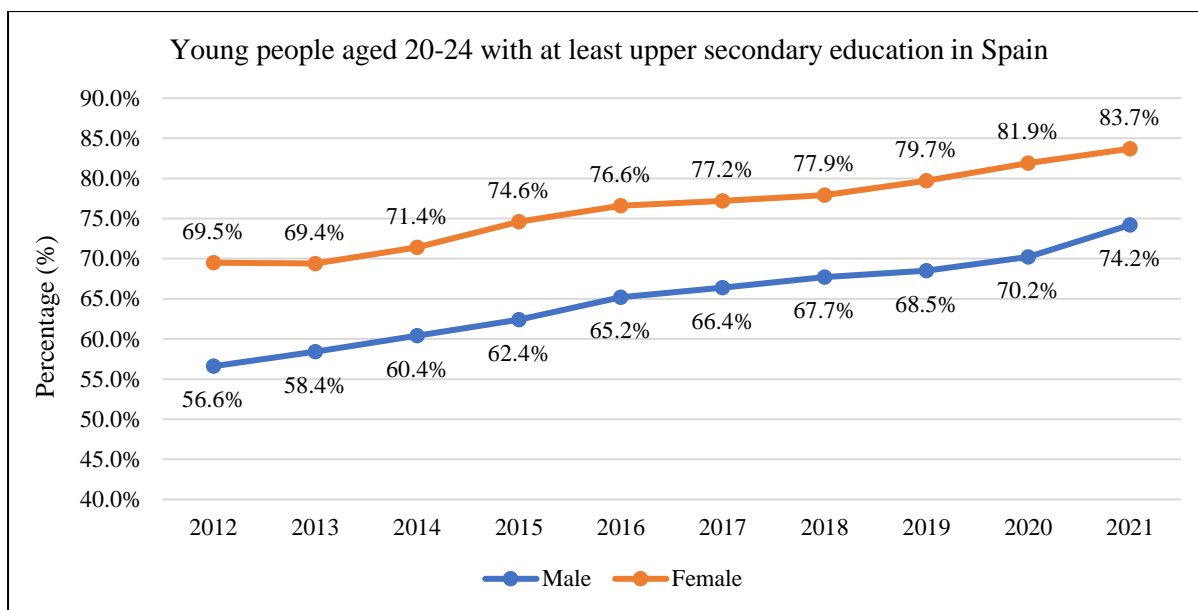


Figure A.9. Percentage of male vs. female youth aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary education in Spain for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Young people aged 20-24 with at least upper secondary educational attainment level by sex" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_EDUC\\_030/default/table?lang=en&category=educ.educ\\_outc.edat.edat1](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_EDUC_030/default/table?lang=en&category=educ.educ_outc.edat.edat1)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

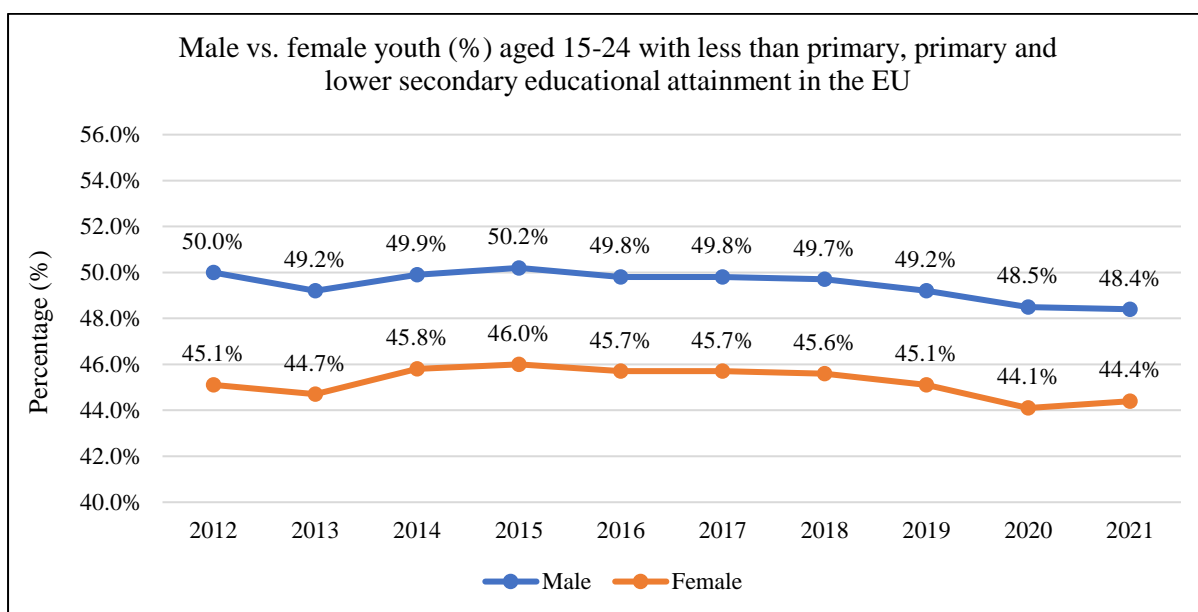


Figure A.10. Percentage of male vs. female young people aged 15-24 with less than primary, primary and lower secondary education attainment level in the EU for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Young people by educational attainment level, sex and age" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_DEMO\\_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth\\_educ](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_DEMO_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth_educ)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

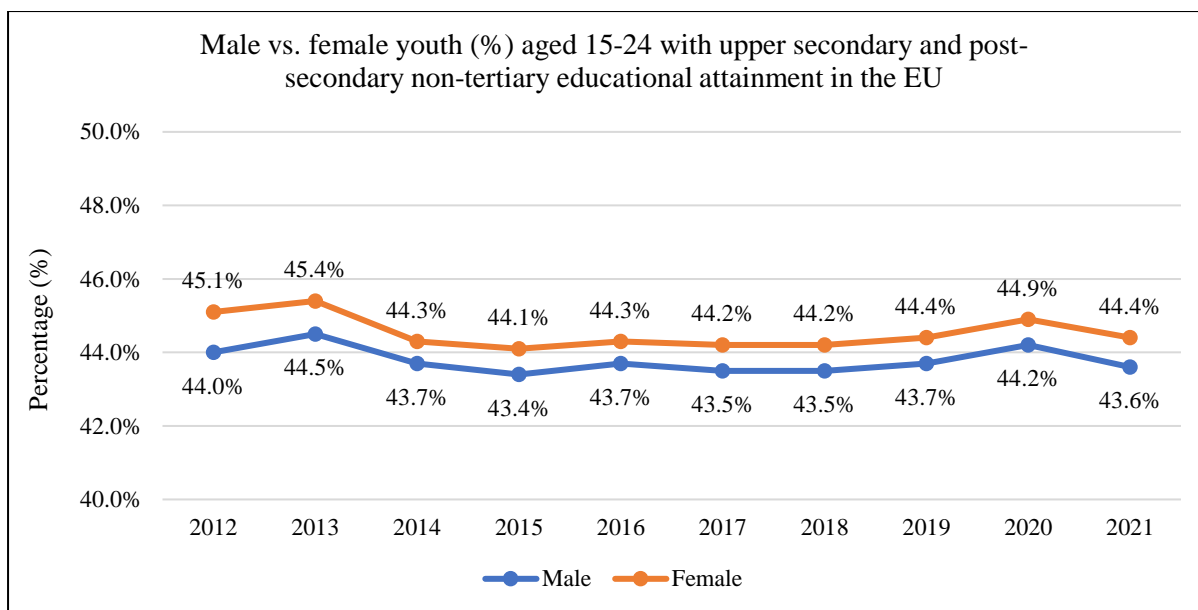


Figure A.11. Percentage of male vs. female young people aged 15-24 with upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education attainment level in the EU for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Young people by educational attainment level, sex and age" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_DEMO\\_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth\\_educ](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_DEMO_040/default/table?lang=en&category=yth.yth_educ)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

## 14.2 Appendix B

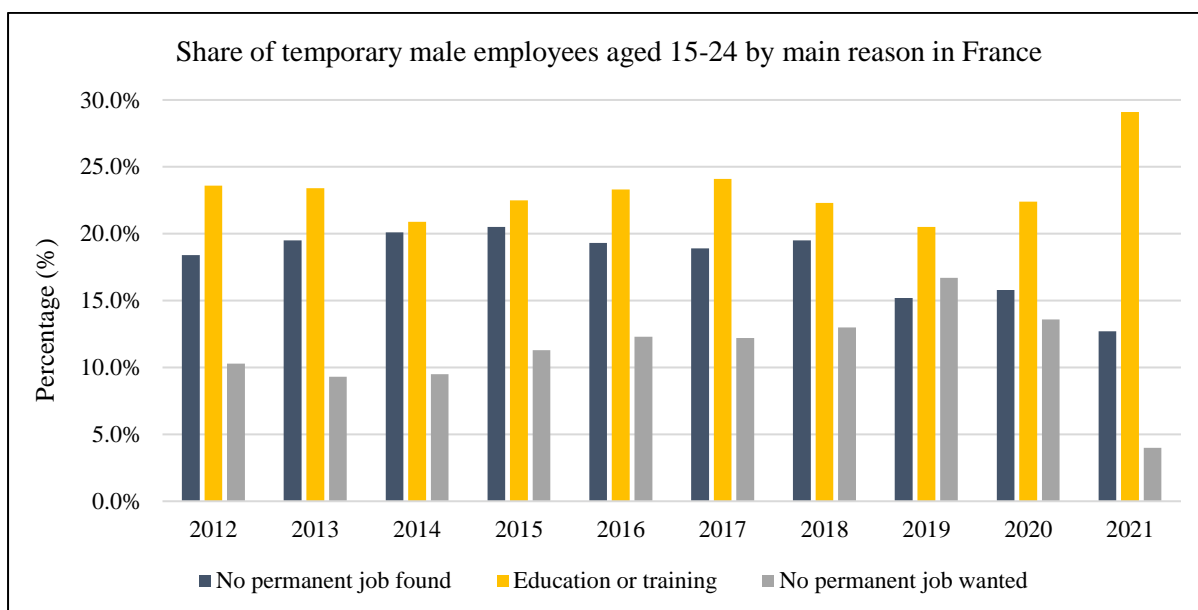


Figure A.12. Share of temporary male employees aged 15-24 by main reason for temporary employment in France for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Temporary employees by sex, age and main reason" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/LFSA\\_ETGAR/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/LFSA_ETGAR/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

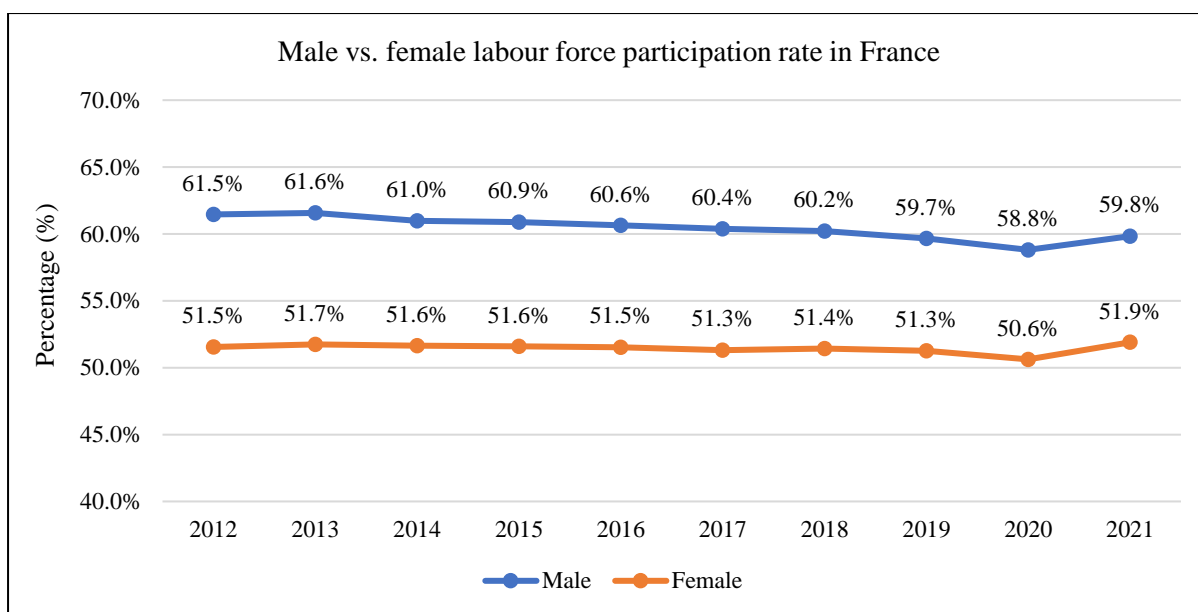


Figure A.13. Male vs. female labour force participation rate in France for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from:

- “Labour force participation rate, female (% of female population ages 15+) (modelled ILO estimate) - France” by The World Bank, 2022, (<https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SL.TLF.CACT.FE.ZS?end=2021&locations=FR&start=1990&view=chart>). (The World Bank, 2022). Copyright 2022 by The World Bank.
- “Labour force participation rate, male (% of male population ages 15+) (national estimate) - France” by The World Bank, 2022, (<https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SL.TLF.CACT.MA.NE.ZS?locations=FR>). (The World Bank, 2022). Copyright 2022 by The World Bank.

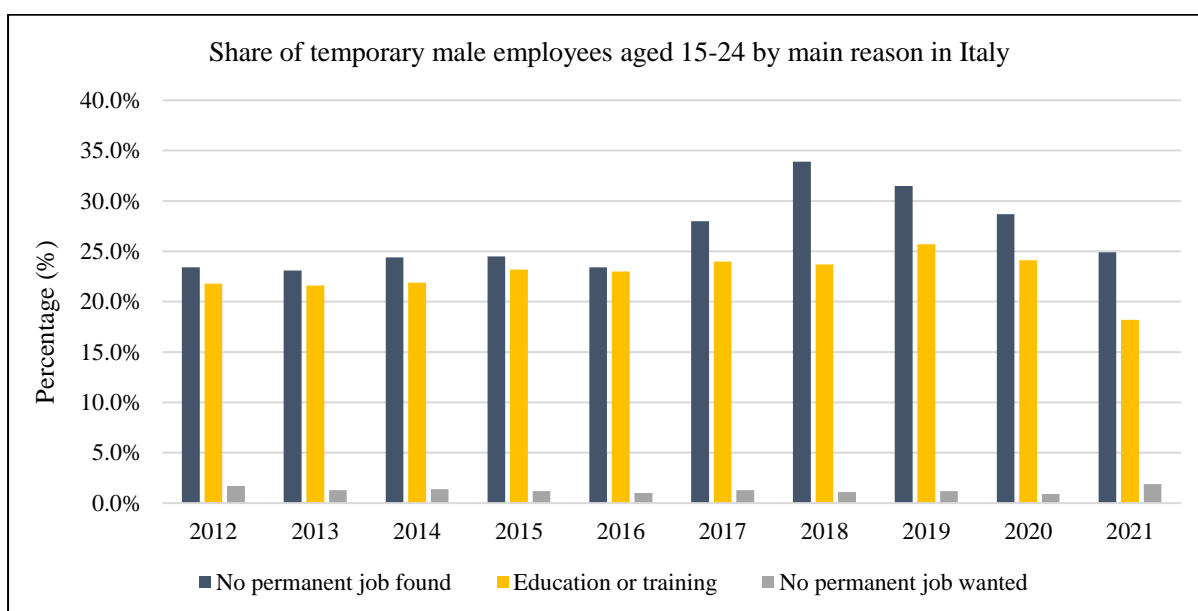


Figure A.14. Share of temporary male employees aged 15-24 by main reason for temporary employment in Italy for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: “Temporary employees by sex, age and main reason” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/LFSA\\_ETGAR/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/LFSA_ETGAR/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

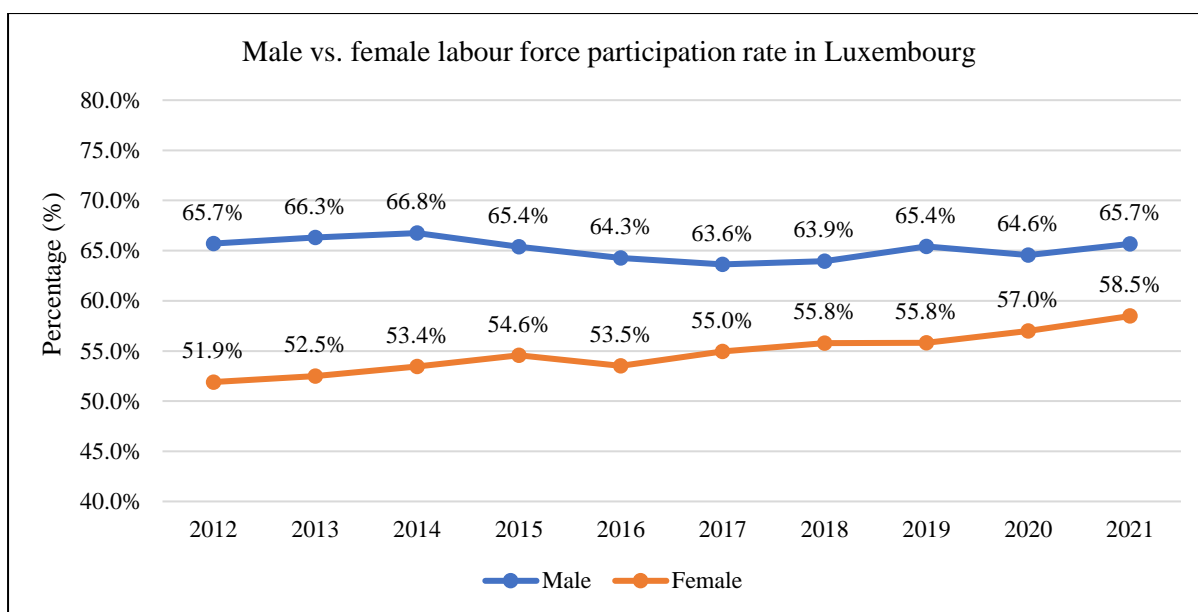


Figure A.15. Male vs. female labour force participation rate in Luxembourg for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from:

- “Labour force participation rate, female (% of female population ages 15+) (modelled ILO estimate) - Luxembourg” by The World Bank, 2022, (<https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SL.TLF.CACT.FE.ZS?locations=LU>). (The World Bank, 2022). Copyright 2022 by The World Bank.
- “Labour force participation rate, male (% of male population ages 15+) (national estimate) - Luxembourg” by The World Bank, 2022, (<https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SL.TLF.CACT.MA.NE.ZS?locations=LU>). (The World Bank, 2022). Copyright 2022 by The World Bank.

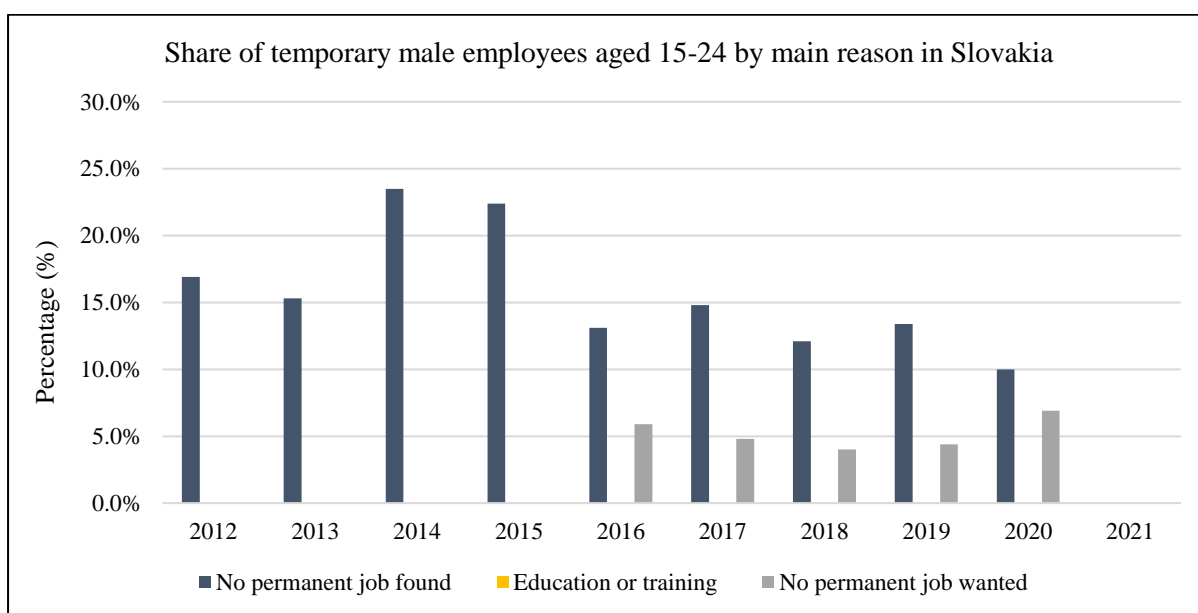


Figure A.16. Share of temporary male employees aged 15-24 by main reason for temporary employment in Slovakia for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: “Temporary employees by sex, age and main reason” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/LFSA\\_ETGAR/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/LFSA_ETGAR/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

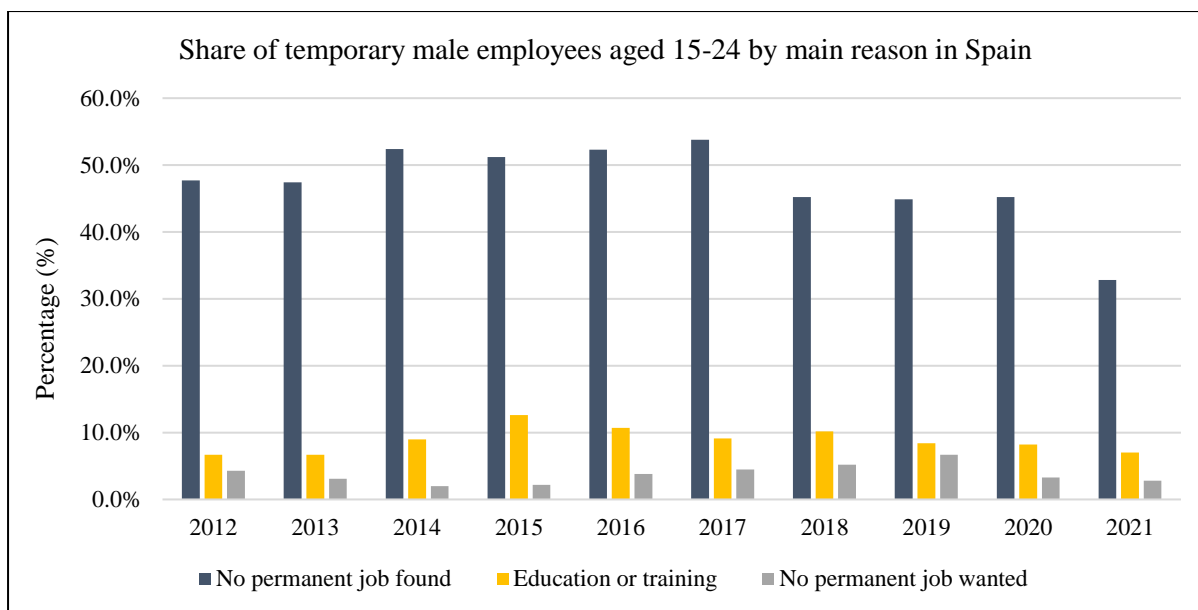


Figure A.17. Share of temporary male employees aged 15-24 by main reason for temporary employment in Spain for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Temporary employees by sex, age and main reason" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/LFSA\\_ETGAR/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/LFSA_ETGAR/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

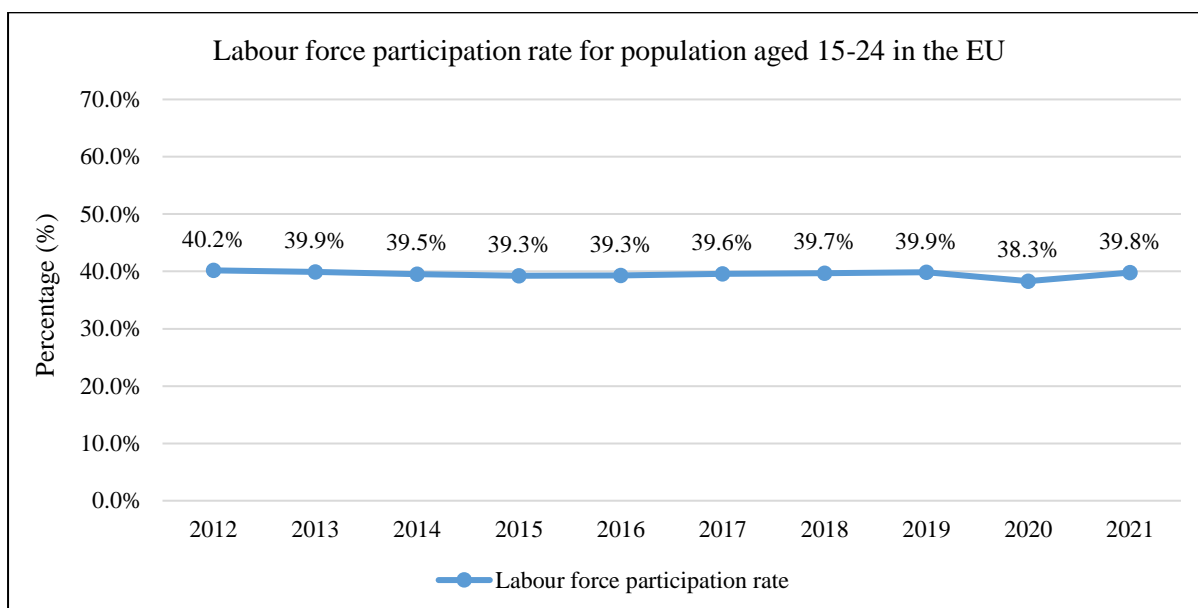
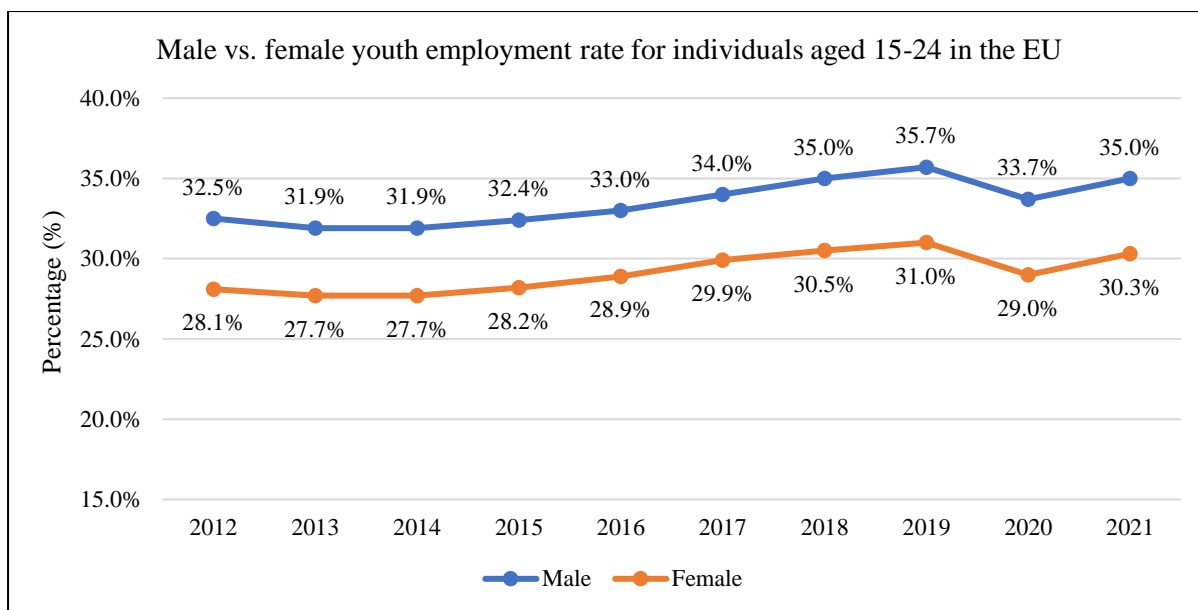


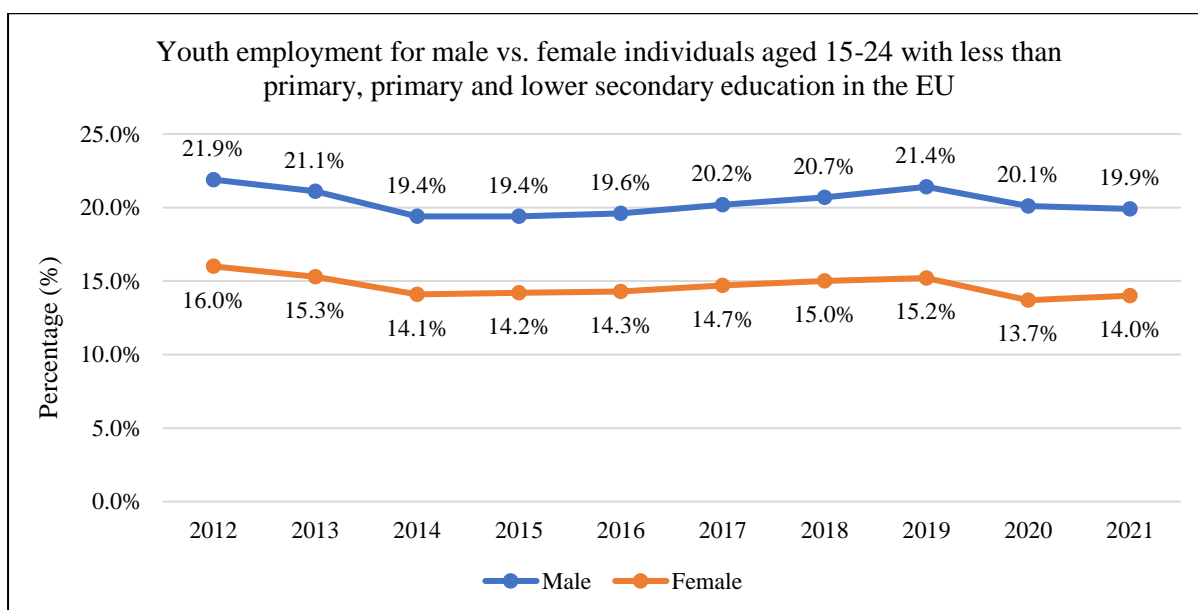
Figure A.18. Labour force participation rate for population aged 15-24 in the EU for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Labour force participation rate" by OECD, 2022, (<https://data.oecd.org/emp/labour-force-participation-rate.htm>). (OECD, 2022). Copyright 2022 by OECD.





*Figure A.19. Youth employment rate for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 in the EU for years 2012-2021.*  
*Note: Data adapted from: “Youth employment rate by sex, age and country of birth” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_EMPL\\_020/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_EMPL_020/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.*



*Figure A.20. Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with less than primary, primary and lower secondary education in the EU for years 2012-2021.*  
*Note: Data adapted from: “Youth employment by sex, age and educational attainment level” by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth\\_empl\\_010/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth_empl_010/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.*

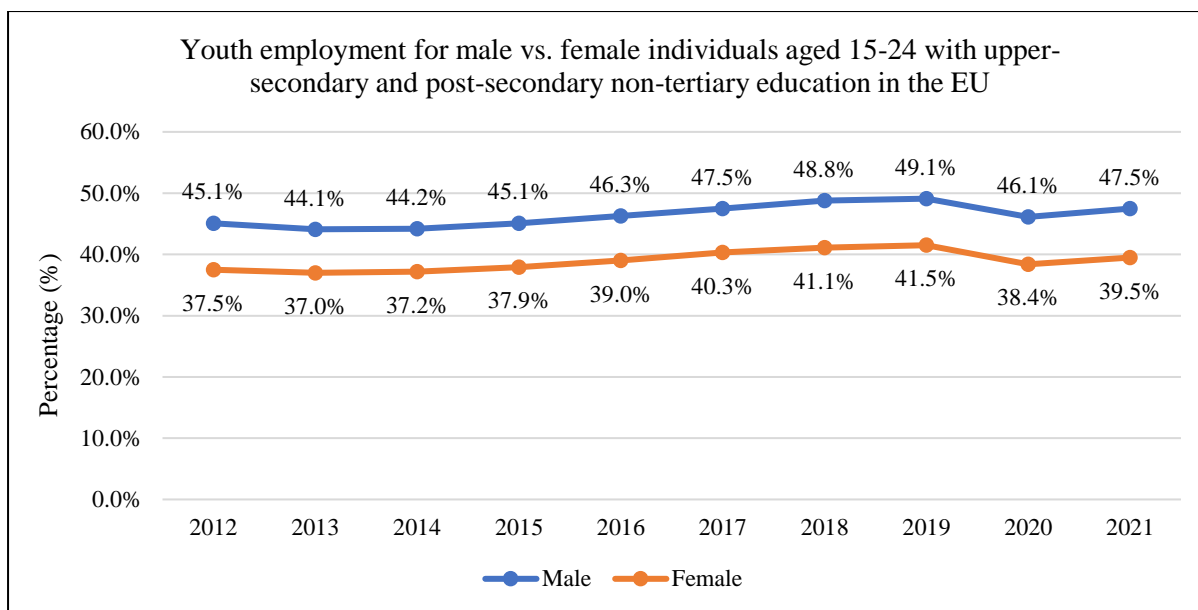


Figure A.21. Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with upper-secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education in the EU for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Youth employment by sex, age and educational attainment level" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth\\_empl\\_010/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth_empl_010/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

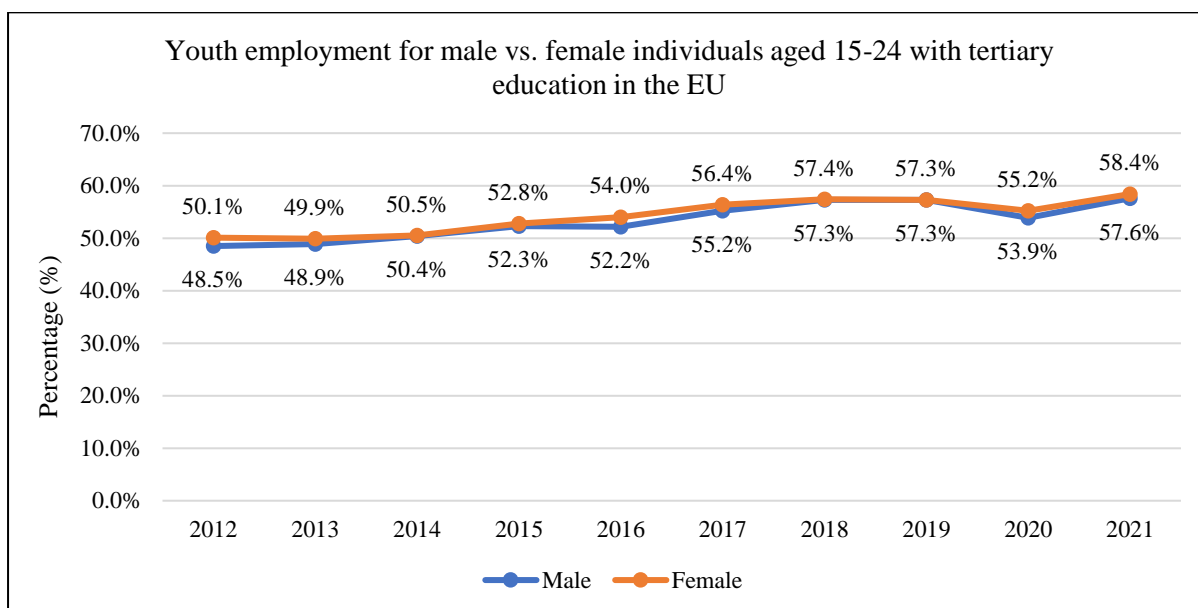
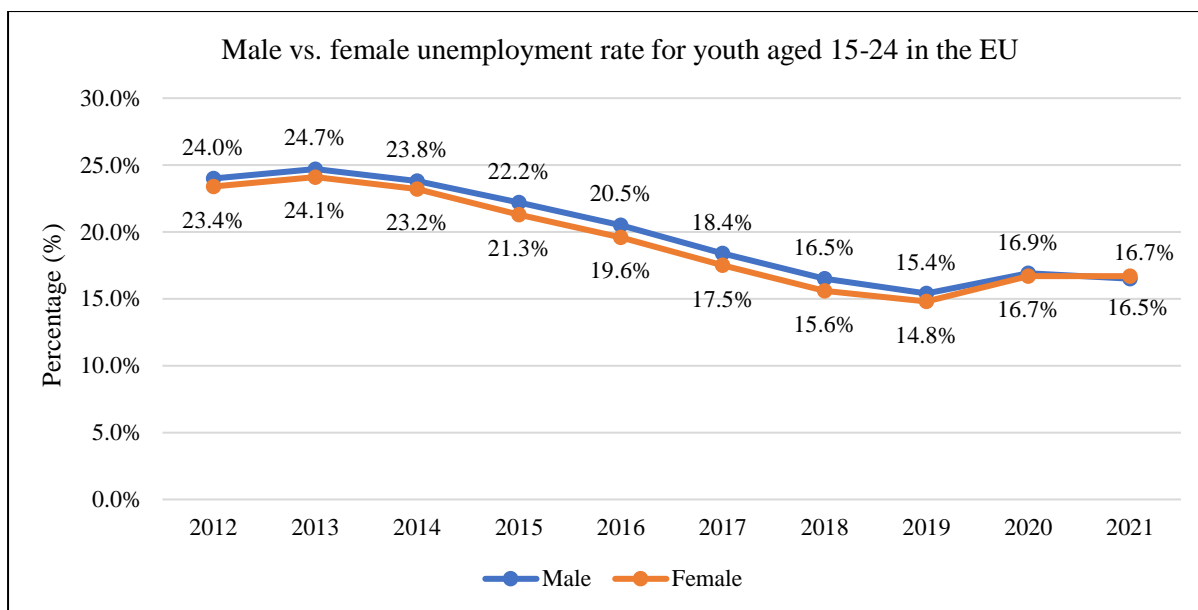


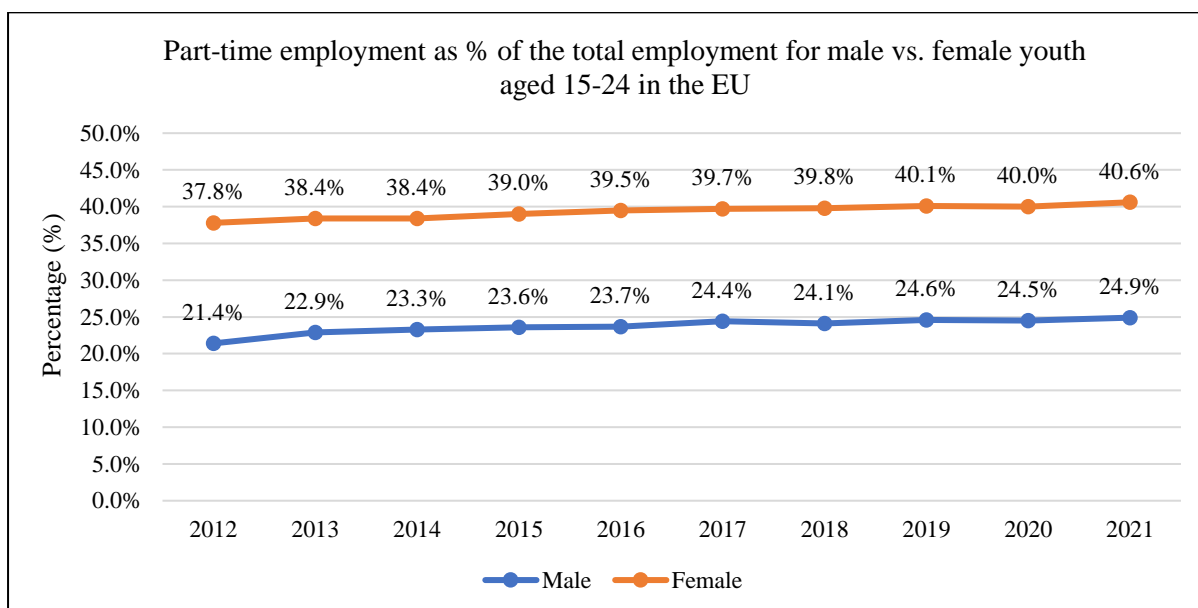
Figure A.22. Youth employment for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 with tertiary education in the EU for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Youth employment by sex, age and educational attainment level" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth\\_empl\\_010/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/yth_empl_010/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.



*Figure A.23. Youth unemployment rate for male vs. female individuals aged 15-24 in the EU for years 2012-2021.*

*Note: Data adapted from: "Youth unemployment rate by sex, age and country of birth" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_EMPL\\_100/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_EMPL_100/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.*



*Figure A.24. Part-time employment as % of the total employment for male vs. female youth aged 15-24 in the EU for years 2012-2021.*

*Note: Data adapted from: "Part-time employment as percentage of the total employment for young people by sex, age and country of birth" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH\\_EMPL\\_060/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/YTH_EMPL_060/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.*

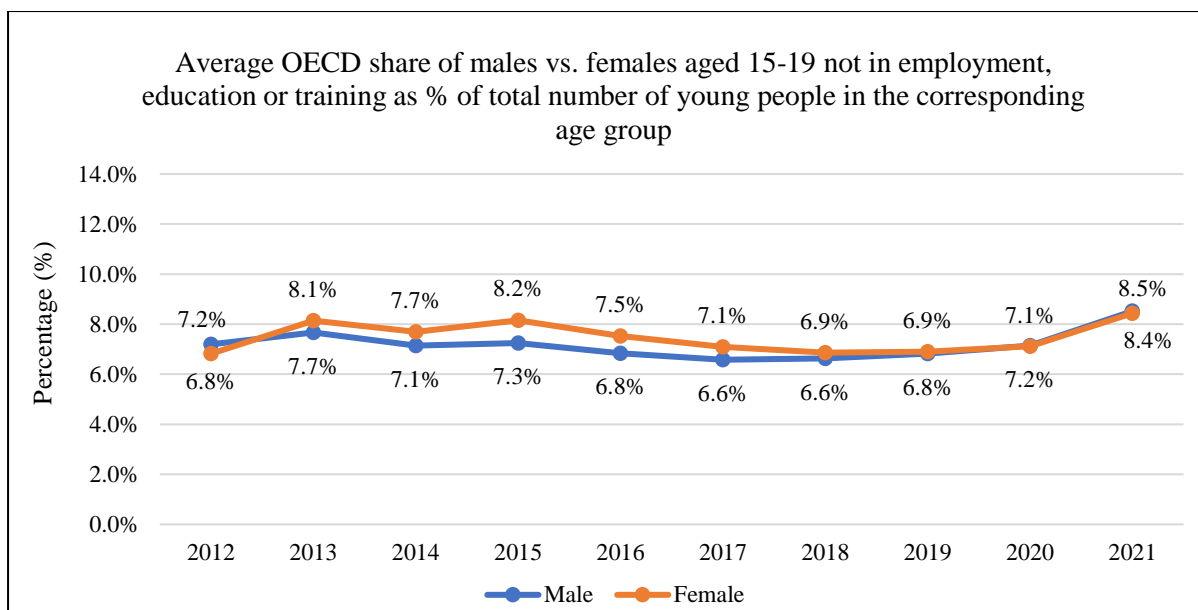


Figure A.25. Average OECD share of male vs. female individuals aged 15-19 not in employment, education or training as % of total number of young people in the corresponding age group for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Youth not in employment, education or training (NEET)" by OECD, 2022, (<https://data.oecd.org/youthinac/youth-not-in-employment-education-or-training-neet.htm>). (OECD, 2022). Copyright 2022 by OECD.

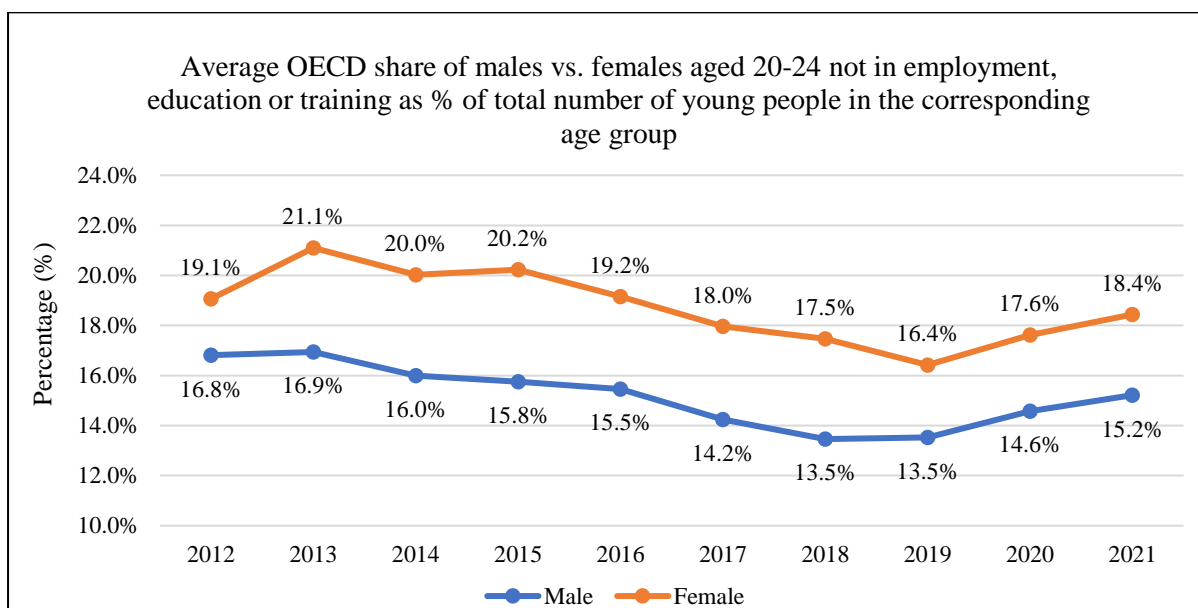


Figure A.26. Average OECD share of male vs. female individuals aged 20-24 not in employment, education or training as % of total number of young people in the corresponding age group for years 2012-2021.

Note: Data adapted from: "Youth not in employment, education or training (NEET)" by OECD, 2022, (<https://data.oecd.org/youthinac/youth-not-in-employment-education-or-training-neet.htm>). (OECD, 2022). Copyright 2022 by OECD.

## 14.3 Appendix C

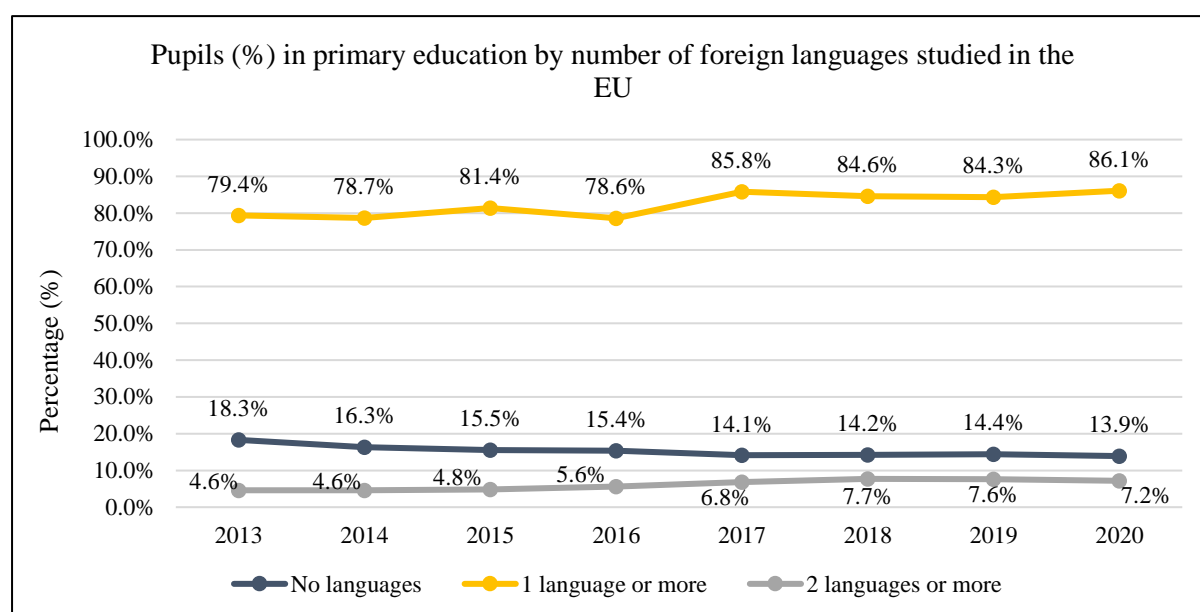


Figure A.27. Share of students in primary education by number of languages studied in the EU for years 2013-2020.

Note: Data adapted from: "Pupils by education level and number of modern foreign languages studied – absolute numbers and % of pupils by number of languages studied" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC\\_UOE\\_LANG02\\$DV\\_1125/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC_UOE_LANG02$DV_1125/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

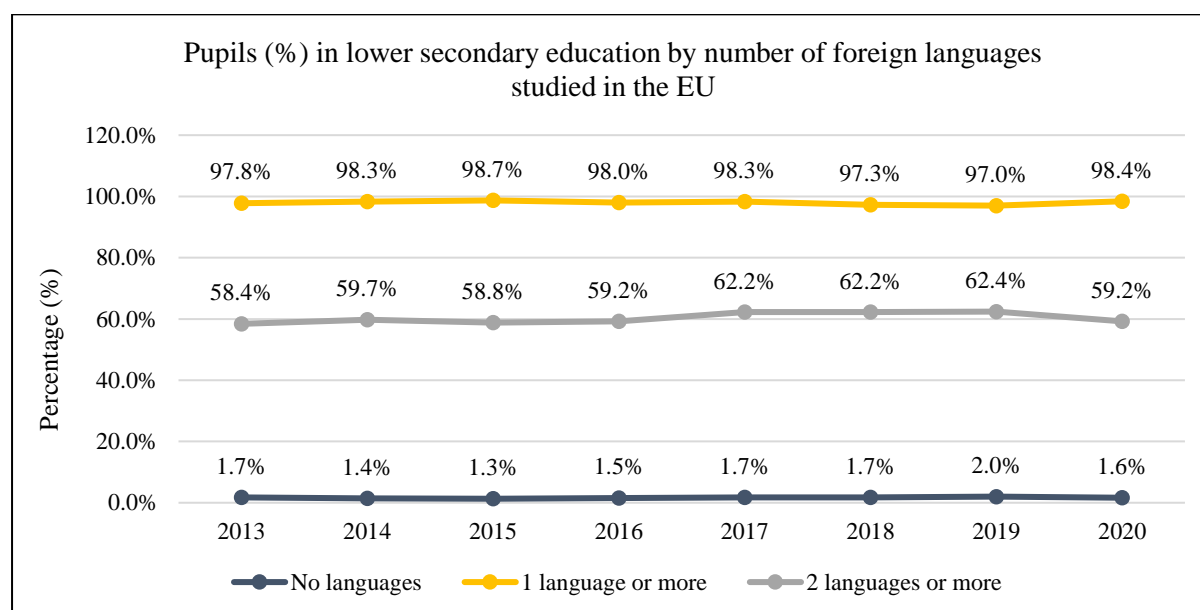


Figure A.28. Share of students in lower secondary education by number of languages studied in the EU for years 2013-2020.

Note: Data adapted from: "Pupils by education level and number of modern foreign languages studied – absolute numbers and % of pupils by number of languages studied" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC\\_UOE\\_LANG02\\$DV\\_1125/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC_UOE_LANG02$DV_1125/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022). Copyright 2022 by Eurostat.

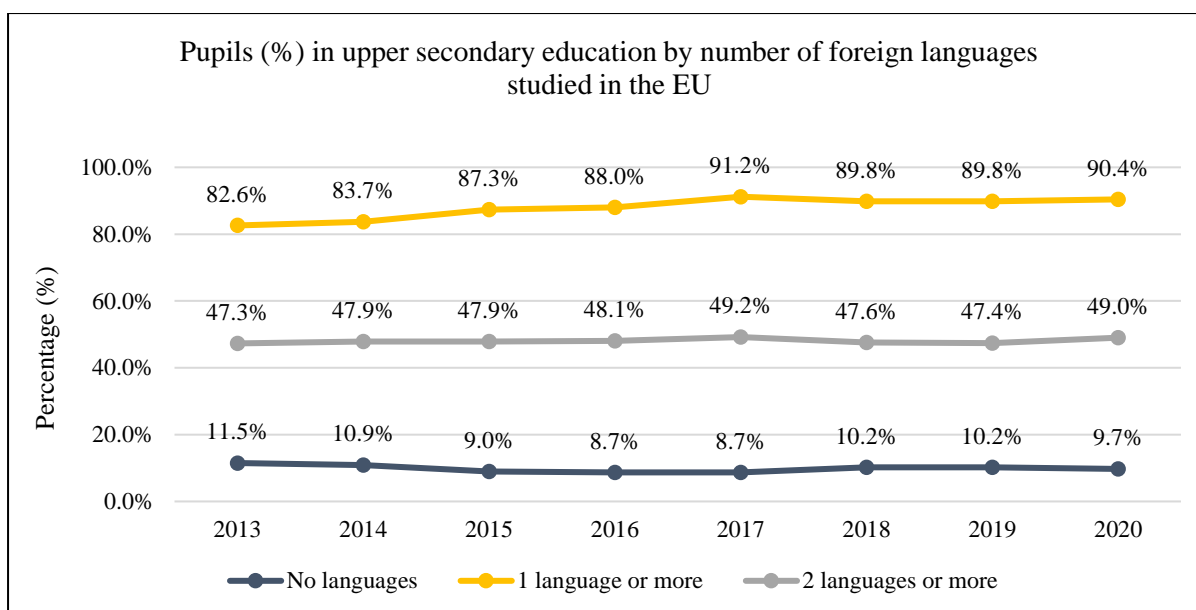


Figure A.29. Share of students in upper secondary education by number of languages studied in the EU for years 2013-2020.

Note: Data adapted from: "Pupils by education level and number of modern foreign languages studied – absolute numbers and % of pupils by number of languages studied" by Eurostat, 2022, ([https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC\\_UOE\\_LANG02\\$DV\\_1125/default/table?lang=en](https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/EDUC_UOE_LANG02$DV_1125/default/table?lang=en)). (Eurostat, 2022).

## 14.4 Appendix D

Communication Channel	Advantages	Disadvantages
<b>LinkedIn</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• High visibility due to reposts and notifications of activity of other users, e.g. comments, likes</li> <li>• Professional interaction, which reduces the risk of offensive content</li> <li>• Opportunity to quickly scale up networks, connect with partners and create groups</li> <li>• Possibility to target youth interested in employment, education and other professional opportunities</li> <li>• Ability to write personalised posts, promote articles and embed links</li> <li>• No cost for basic account creation</li> <li>• Easy to navigate</li> <li>• Capacity to use visual content, such as photos and videos</li> <li>• Operational mobile and web application versions</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Demand for high-quality content (i.e. criteria might differ from Facebook and Instagram) and continuous content creation to ensure activity, which requires resources</li> <li>• Inability to target individuals, who are not actively looking for employment or other types of professional engagement, especially youth</li> <li>• Fees for premium account creation</li> <li>• Data privacy considerations for youth engagement analysis</li> <li>• Limited characters per post</li> <li>• Need for large network expansion to achieve high visibility</li> </ul>
<b>Pinterest</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• High traffic for websites and blogs</li> <li>• Search engine optimisation due to keywords</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need for a different type of content (i.e. professional visual), as opposed to Facebook, Instagram and other social media</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Less competition compared to other social media platforms</li> <li>• Ability to 'pin' links to youth opportunities on the websites, as well as mobile applications</li> <li>• Highly female audience, which allows to successfully target young women</li> <li>• Opportunity to increase youth's interest in the topic by creating visually appealing content</li> <li>• Potential to target specific gender and age groups</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Limitation to visual content, which requires additional resources</li> <li>• Risk of not having effective engagement, as the topic of youth opportunities is not popular on Pinterest</li> <li>• Data privacy considerations for youth engagement analysis</li> <li>• High cost of scheduling systems for Pinterest</li> </ul>
<b>Snapchat</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ability to share fun, visual content using stories</li> <li>• Possibility of direct communication with targeted users</li> <li>• Potential to increase brand awareness</li> <li>• Highly young audience, which is beneficial for targeting young women</li> <li>• Easy to navigate</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Limited time for content availability, i.e. 24 hours</li> <li>• Need for continuous content creation due to limited availability time, which requires additional resources</li> <li>• Demand for only photo and video content, which differs to other social media platforms</li> <li>• Inability to repost and share, which limits visibility</li> <li>• Limited duration for video content, i.e. 10 seconds</li> <li>• High cost of paid advertising</li> </ul>
<b>TikTok</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Potential to improve brand awareness</li> <li>• Opportunity to partner with influencers</li> <li>• Ability to increase visibility through hashtag use</li> <li>• No cost for account creation</li> <li>• Easy to navigate</li> <li>• Possibility of targeting specific audience, e.g. young women</li> <li>• Variation in user engagement types, e.g. challenges</li> <li>• Personalised content that supports developing relationships with youth</li> <li>• Highly young audience, which is beneficial for targeting young women</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ability to post only video content, which requires extensive resources</li> <li>• High cost of paid advertising, as well as influencer marketing</li> <li>• Need to create interesting, engaging and visually appealing video content, which is not always the best format for the topic of youth opportunities</li> <li>• Data privacy considerations for youth engagement analysis</li> <li>• Limited duration for video content, i.e. 30 seconds</li> </ul>
<b>Email marketing</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Low costs due to the possibility of sending emails to mass audience</li> <li>• Ability to track user engagement with email campaigns</li> <li>• High efficiency due to automated processes and scheduling</li> <li>• Opportunity to personalise content and build relationships with youth</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Risk of emails ending up in the spam folders or not reaching recipients due to technical issues</li> <li>• Need for adaptable format to ensure compatibility with different devices</li> <li>• Demand for interesting and relevant content, which requires additional resources</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Easy to use</li> <li>• Potential to increase visibility of the website through embedded links</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Inability to reach users if they do not open the email or unsubscribe</li> <li>• Possibility of overwhelming youth with too much content</li> </ul>
<b>Government websites and social media channels</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Potential for high visibility and exposure</li> <li>• Support from the governmental structures</li> <li>• Increased trust and credibility</li> <li>• Ability to integrate content and create joint posts on platforms like Facebook and Instagram</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lack of trust in public authorities in certain countries</li> <li>• Need to form partnerships with the relevant public agents, e.g. responsible ministries</li> <li>• Insufficient visibility of the governmental promotion channels in the first place</li> </ul>
<b>Mobile application</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Opportunity to increase and personalise engagement with youth</li> <li>• High visibility into the data on user activity</li> <li>• Ability to send notifications and quickly inform youth on new opportunities</li> <li>• Possibility to target specific segments of youth according to their interests and preferences</li> <li>• Easy to navigate</li> <li>• Capacity to support youth in any issues faced</li> <li>• High efficiency due to simplified processes and automation</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• High cost of developing an application</li> <li>• Need for additional resources (e.g. a team of IT developers) to build and maintain an application</li> <li>• Risk of technical bugs, service interruptions and application shutdown</li> <li>• Data privacy considerations for user information and youth engagement analysis</li> <li>• Requirement for regular updates and maintenance</li> <li>• Further costs related to promoting the application on AppStore and other platforms</li> </ul>
<b>Partner network</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Opportunity to gain expertise in relevant focus areas, depending on the selected country</li> <li>• Potential to increase visibility and brand awareness</li> <li>• Possibility of offering more high-quality opportunities for youth</li> <li>• Mutual advantage in partner promotional campaigns</li> <li>• Expansion of the support network</li> <li>• Ability to share data on youth for better targeting and deeper insights into the topic</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need to evaluate potential partners and ensure alignment of values and goals</li> <li>• Risks related to partner reliability</li> <li>• Demand for further resources to set up new partnerships and maintain partner engagement</li> <li>• Potential lack of response from targeted partners</li> </ul>
<b>Universities, schools and other educational institutions</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Opportunity to target youth, specifically young women in tertiary education</li> <li>• Potential to increase brand awareness and exposure</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need to evaluate potential universities and institutions for partnerships and ensure alignment of values and goals</li> <li>• Potential to target only young people in education and not youth NEET</li> </ul>



	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Possibility of personalised engagement, which contributes to the formation of trusting relationships with youth</li> <li>• Access to university's resources and data on young people</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Demand for further resources to set up new partnerships with universities and institutions and maintain partner engagement</li> <li>• Data privacy considerations for youth engagement analysis</li> </ul>
<b>Events and fairs</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Face-to-face interaction with youth, which supports trusting relationships</li> <li>• Potential for improved brand awareness and exposure</li> <li>• Opportunity to create personalised content and activities for youth</li> <li>• Ability to target specific audience, such as young women</li> <li>• Possibility to invite partner organisations and further increase networks</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need for prior advertising to ensure sufficient turnout at the event</li> <li>• High costs associated with organisation of events and fairs</li> <li>• Requirement for significant resources and time to prepare and manage the events</li> <li>• Limited attendance due to specific locations of the event</li> </ul>
<b>Television</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Opportunity to target specific groups and reach wider audience simultaneously</li> <li>• Potential to increase brand awareness quickly</li> <li>• Capacity to generate interesting video and audio content</li> <li>• Possibility for personalised communication with the audience</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• High costs associated with television advertising</li> <li>• Need for continuous content to ensure that audience remembers the brand</li> <li>• Extensive resources required to generate quality content for television marketing</li> <li>• Lack of youth engagement with television in certain countries</li> </ul>
<b>Leaflets and brochures</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Low costs associated with distribution</li> <li>• Possibility to create interesting and visually appealing content to attract youth</li> <li>• Ability to target specific audience, such as young women</li> <li>• Opportunity to distribute leaflets through partner universities and institutions</li> <li>• Potential to direct youth to other communication channels, such as social media and websites, through links and QR codes on leaflets</li> <li>• Easy to use</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need to actively distribute leaflets and brochures to avoid them not reaching target audience or being thrown away</li> <li>• High costs associated with printing</li> <li>• Requirement for additional resources to create content and design for leaflets</li> <li>• High waste generation associated with leaflets</li> <li>• Risk of having uninteresting or irrelevant content, which would cause lack of engagement from the target audience</li> </ul>
<b>Youth ambassadors and influencers</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ability to target specific audience, such as young women</li> <li>• Potential to create trusting relationships with youth</li> <li>• Opportunity for both face-to-face and online interaction with young people</li> <li>• Possibility to increase brand awareness</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need to evaluate and select ambassadors and influencers with suitable profiles and values</li> <li>• Inability to conduct in-detail analysis of youth engagement</li> <li>• Risk of relying on ambassadors and influencers to promote information and generate creative content</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Personalised content</li> <li>• Capacity to use various communication channels for influencer marketing</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Requirement for additional resources to recruit, contact and manage ambassador and influencer engagement</li> </ul>
<b>Podcast</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Opportunity to provide youth with relevant information and details on specific topics</li> <li>• Potential to increase brand awareness</li> <li>• Easy to access from anywhere and anytime</li> <li>• Low costs associated with audio equipment</li> <li>• Ability to interview guests to drive the interest of youth in the topics</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Need for continuous content creation, which requires additional resources</li> <li>• Significant amount of time required to develop and record a podcast</li> <li>• Potential lack of interest if the podcast is not relevant</li> <li>• Demand for podcasts is mainly driven by older age groups, as opposed to youth</li> <li>• Requirement to advertise the podcast through other communication channels to ensure visibility</li> </ul>
<b>Radio</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ability to target specific groups, while reaching mass audience simultaneously</li> <li>• Opportunity to personalise content, e.g. conduct interviews, invite youth ambassadors, create short ads</li> <li>• Possibility of frequent content delivery</li> <li>• Lower costs than for television and newspaper advertising</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lack of visual support for the content</li> <li>• Need to deliver content in a succinct form to avoid overwhelming the audience</li> <li>• Risk of attention loss when listening to radio</li> <li>• Costs of buying a slot in the radio programme</li> <li>• Inability to analyse the audience in terms of age, gender, etc.</li> </ul>
<b>Digital newspapers</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ability to target specific audience by collaborating with selected newspapers</li> <li>• Potential for higher visibility of digital versions, as opposed to printed</li> <li>• Access to existing network of readers</li> <li>• Operational mobile and web application versions</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Decreasing popularity of newspapers among consumers, particularly youth</li> <li>• High cost of advertising</li> <li>• Ability to target only subscribed readers for paid newspapers</li> <li>• Need to create and prepare suitable content, including for general promotion, such as interviews, which requires additional resources</li> </ul>

*Table A.1. Advantages and disadvantages of the recommended communication channels.*

*Note: Data adapted from:*

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