NATIONAL REPORT on
THE SITUATION OF YOUNG PEOPLE
IN LUXEMBOURG
ABRIDGED VERSION
National report on the situation of young people in Luxembourg

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What does it mean to be a young person in Luxembourg in 2010? What does it mean to be young and above all to grow up in a world marked by the globalisation of the economy, but also of cultures, in a Europe in which integration is encouraged more and more, but also in a country that has the imprint of numerous cultural influences? These are just some of the questions that the report on young people in Luxembourg endeavours to answer.

By adopting the Youth Act of 4 July 2008, the Chamber of Deputies entrusted the government with the task of producing a national report on the situation of young people in Luxembourg. The Ministry of Family and Integration requested the youth research centre CESIE (“Centre d’études sur la situation des jeunes”) at the University of Luxembourg to produce a report describing and analysing the living conditions of young people in Luxembourg. While there may have been similar analyses carried out in the past, none has ever gone as far as the current report. It is the result therefore of in-depth work based on the current existing data concerning young people and offers a broad view on the living conditions of young people in Luxembourg.

However, the report is not only a description produced by the University of Luxembourg. Insofar as the Youth Act stipulates that youth policy be founded on an in-depth knowledge of young people, this report will serve as an aid to orientate the decisions to be made concerning youth policy during the years to come. It is for this reason that the first part of the report is a government declaration on the youth policy to be implemented over the next few years. This declaration explains, in the first instance, where youth policy is currently situated in Luxembourg and puts forward, in the second instance, the political priorities to be developed in the future, drawing on the analytical work carried out by the University of Luxembourg.

This analysis led by the University of Luxembourg reveals that, on the whole, young people in Luxembourg successfully find their place within society. A proportion of these young people experience difficulties, however, in relation to education, entrance into the labour market and related areas. These difficulties are experienced by certain categories of young people more than others, namely young people with an immigration background and young people coming from more modest social strata.

In order to respond to these difficulties, to give all young people the best possible chance of finding their place within society, the government will develop a Youth Pact encompassing all youth-related endeavours. Before this Pact is adopted in the form of a plan of action, as provided for by the Youth Act, there will be an extensive phase of consultation with civil society. The government declaration also hopes therefore to be a set of proposals that will make it possible to initiate a discussion involving all those who feel concerned with the future of young people in Luxembourg.

I hope you enjoy reading this abridged version of the report on the situation of young people in Luxembourg, which represents a unique source of information for anyone wishing to gain a better understanding of how young people live in this country and of how to better act for and towards young people.

Marie-Josée Jacobs
Minister of Family and Integration
GOVERNMENT DECLARATION
1. LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK

The national report on the situation of young people is divided into two parts. It comprises a government declaration on youth policy and a descriptive section detailing the reality of living in Luxembourg as a young person. The structure of this report is the result of a particular institutional interaction between the Luxembourg government and the University of Luxembourg, made possible by the Youth Act of 4 July 2008 and the existence of the cooperation agreement establishing the youth research centre CESIJE (“Centre d’études sur la situation des jeunes”) within the University of Luxembourg. This institutional design corresponds with the dual political intention of evidence-based policymaking and policy-relevant research. On the one hand, the government wishes to base its cross-sectoral and global youth policy on a better understanding of the situation of young people, in accordance with European policy and the legal obligations related to the Youth Act. On the other hand, with due respect to the autonomy of scientific research, the government wants the university to produce findings relevant to the shaping of the future of our country, assisted in this case by a structured dialogue at various levels. The division of the report into two distinct parts reflects the presence of these two actors and the fact that there is no amalgamation of them and that they shall maintain their respective specificities.

The government declaration addresses the priorities to be developed in the future national plan of action as provided for in article 15 (2) of the Youth Act. It makes reference to the results specified in the second, descriptive part of the national report. This second part is the result of an assignment given to the CESIJE by the government within the context of the cooperation agreement between the university and the government. The aim of this assignment was to produce a detailed report on the living conditions of young people in Luxembourg. The focus was, therefore, more on describing the situation of young people than on evaluating the public policies implemented in relation to them. Indeed, as this national report is the first of its kind to be developed within the context of the Youth Act, and as a national plan of action will be developed subsequent to it, it seemed more appropriate to highlight the living conditions of young people than to focus on an external appraisal of the public policies. Similarly, various laws and various political programmes relating to young people have recently come into force in a number of fields, and it seemed more interesting to wait until they have their effects before evaluating them. As the foundations have now been laid and since a national report is drafted every five years, the perspective of such a report can be changed as part of a subsequent study cycle.

The national plan of action, which is cross-sectoral in accordance with article 2 (3) of the Youth Act, that is to say, taking into account all the aspects of government policy that concern the living conditions of young people, constitutes the next step in the process established by the Youth Act. The national plan of action will be developed by the government, taking into account the opinions of young people and their organisations. The instruments that make this consultation possible are provided for by law, namely through the National Assembly of Young People (“Assemblée nationale des jeunes”) (article 14) and the Higher Youth Council (“Conseil supérieur de la jeunesse”) (article 12).

The role of the work carried out by the CESIJE is, therefore, to provide supplementary information upon which decisions can be made as to which policies should be implemented. This is an important remit. It has
Certainly become commonplace to say that we are living in a world of increasing complexity. But taking this into account when formulating and implementing public policies is rather difficult. Identifying, at an early stage, the difficult situations with which young people today are faced, pinpointing the social phenomena that lead to these problems, raising awareness of the subjective experiences of young people in order to take these into account in public policies, and, finally, recognising that a younger generation that is able to develop freely constitutes an important resource in shaping the future, such are the major challenges faced by all policy makers who address young people. Referring to concrete findings rather than relying on appearances and ideologies in such a situation seems to be a well-considered and responsible choice in keeping with the standards of our democratic societies. Youth-related research, therefore, becomes a crucial factor because of the answers it can provide in relation to these questions. While acknowledging the importance and relevance of research in a knowledge-based society, it is also important to recognise its limits. The government cannot offload its political responsibilities, nor can the researcher wish to assume the role of a political actor. Research, therefore, does not form the unique foundation upon which the government formulates its youth-related policies. It is important not to confuse information with decision making. The descriptive part of the national report on the situation of young people in Luxembourg is not determining in nature, but is an information resource with which good political decisions can be made in a transparent and considered manner. These decisions are determined by the institutional and political workings of the country. They result from democratic process and debate within the framework of the rule of law and the institutions of the State.

This national report on the situation of young people is thus a document with two voices. It is both the fruit of the work carried out by researchers at the CESIJE as well as the first critical and reflexive reaction from the government. It is not an end in itself, but is an initial stage in the debate of orientation and consultation in preparation for the democratic, participatory, synergetic and evidence-based elaboration of a plan of action that will guide the government’s cross-sectoral youth policy over the next five years.

2. YOUTH POLICY, BASED ON EVIDENCE

Before turning to the contents of the government declaration on youth policy, it is useful to recreate the framework within which this declaration takes place. This framework consists of three elements. Firstly, there is a legislative framework in the form of the Youth Act of 4 July 2008. There is then a European political framework and finally a scientific framework through which research and knowledge are taken into account when youth policies are formulated. This debate takes place in Luxembourg and in Europe on the basis of the concept of evidence-based policymaking.

The legal basis for the national report on the situation of young people in Luxembourg is the Youth Act of 4 July 2008. In general, the aforementioned Act sets out in article 2 (3) the principle of a youth policy designed as a “cross-sectoral policy, based on evidence of the situation of young people and on active consultation with young people on the issues concerning them [translated from French]”. In accordance with the law, youth policy is, therefore, characterised by the following three features: cross-sectorality, references to evidence and the participation of young people. In relation to the implementation of this ambitious vision in particular, article 15 (1) of the Act requires the minister responsible for youth, in this case the Minister of Family and Integration, to present a national report on the situation of young people in Luxembourg to the Chamber of Deputies.

1 Pursuant to the Grand-Ducal decree of 27 July 2009 establishing the Ministries, the Minister of Family and Integration coordinates the government’s actions relating to young people in accordance with article 2 (3) of the Youth Act, which stipulates the cross-sectoral character of the youth policy.
every five years. Article 13, which brings into being the youth observatory, complements the reference to evidence contained in article 15 (1).

Facing the challenges of an increasingly complex world and with a view to the future, a youth policy based on evidence makes a lasting contribution to establishing social integration and the economic competitiveness of our country.

This knowledge comes from exchanges between decision makers, professionals working in the field, and researchers. To this end, the Act provides for the creation of an observatory that can be understood as a forum for cooperation between the different public actors and whose mission it is to “prepare, coordinate and initiate surveys, notices, analyses, studies and reports on the various aspects of the situation of young people in Luxembourg [translated from French]”. Orientation and coordination are the main missions of the observatory. The observatory is not an administrative service, as it is not equipped with its own financial resources.

At an operational level, the Minister of Family and Integration, responsible for elaborating the government's youth policy, and acting on behalf of the government, signed a cooperation agreement with the University of Luxembourg in 2007. This agreement establishes cooperation within the context of implementing a youth policy based on a better understanding of the situation of young people. Its primary objective is to “set up and run the youth research centre CESIJE (“Centre d’études sur la situation des jeunes”) within the University of Luxembourg [translated from French]”.

This research centre is jointly funded by the State and the University of Luxembourg. The cooperation agreement provides for a steering committee based on equal representation by both the State and the University of Luxembourg. A forum for interaction and ongoing dialogue between the worlds of politics and administration on the one hand, and the academic world on the other, has thus been established to address issues concerning young people. The steering committee adopts the research centre’s work plan and budget. Research groups work under its authority. The descriptive part of the national report on the situation of young people in Luxembourg was elaborated in this context by a group of CESIJE researchers.

This working method constitutes an interesting model of cooperation with the academic world in view of pursuing a policy in the interests of the young people of our country, in compliance with the European standard established in this area. Underlying this is the concept of “structured dialogue” bringing together the various actors in the youth field. These are the State, being responsible for elaborating and implementing youth policy, the university, being the producer of studies and research, and civil society, namely youth organisations, professionals from the field, and young people themselves. The structured dialogue takes place within this triangle and leads, through exchanges and with the assistance of experts at the three apexes of the triangle, to jointly produced and shared expertise. The expertise resulting from this knowledge co-production makes it possible to formulate youth policies “based on evidence”. Structured dialogue thus becomes an additional factor of democratic legitimisation of youth policy.

This model was developed over the last two decades. Let us recall the most important historical stages. Following the publication of a European Commission white paper entitled ‘A new impetus for European youth’ in 2001, EU youth ministers established a European youth policy based on the principles of the open method of coordination in 2002. This method proceeds on the basis of common objectives that the EU Member States implement. One of the four priorities, which comprises four common objectives, was to achieve “a better understanding of the world of young people [translated from French]”2. One of these four common objectives was that of “facilitating and promoting exchange, dialogue and the creation of networks to ensure the visibility of knowledge in the youth field and to anticipate future needs [translated from French]”2. These objectives were adopted in 2004. The concept of structured dialogue must therefore be an integral part of a youth policy based on evidence. In June 2005, while holding the presidency of the Council of the European Union, the

Luxembourg government helped to clarify this notion by organising an international conference entitled ‘Dialogues and networks’\(^3\) in cooperation with the CESIJE and the University of Luxembourg. This notion has been taken up again in the new European youth policy cycle that has been launched recently and which will cover the period of 2010-2018\(^4\), thus replacing the framework of political cooperation from the first decade of the millennium. This new framework explicitly includes evidenced-based youth policy in the section addressing the means used to implement youth policy\(^5\).

This report, then, lies clearly within the scope of national youth policy as adopted by the legislator, and also corresponds with the objectives and working methods proposed by European youth policy.

There is a certain history of youth-related surveys in Luxembourg. An initial survey among young people in Luxembourg was commissioned by the Minister of National Education, Pierre Frieden, and carried out by Professor Ernest Ludovicy in 1958. The survey covered issues such as the money that young people had at their disposal, their leisure activities, their relationship with radio and television, youth movements, sporting activities, politics, family, school work, moral and religious attitudes, juvenile delinquency etc.\(^6\) At the time, the author gave a convincing account of the problems relating to surveys of this kind\(^7\).

A second attempt was made in 1985 by the National Youth Board (“Service national de la jeunesse”) within the context of the International Year of Youth\(^8\). The survey was based on a representative sample of young people and made reference to international studies carried out by the OECD and the European Commission, notably picking up on and expanding certain aspects of the study, ‘Nos élèves devant la drogue’\(^9\).

In 2001, Luxembourg participated in a study initiated by the European Commission and coordinated by the IARD Institute in Milan\(^10\). Luxembourg’s youth policy, described and analysed in a national report\(^11\) drawn up by the CESIJE, was the subject of an evaluation procedure made available to the Member States by the...
Council of Europe. The Council of Europe’s evaluation had a significant political impact. The analysis of the living conditions of young people in Luxembourg led to a second set of guidelines on youth policy adopted in 2004, a precursor to the current Youth Act.

Currently, comparative studies, such as PISA, PIRLS and ICCS from the field of education, are becoming increasingly important within the international context. In the field of youth, various European reports have recently been published. In 2009, Eurostat published a statistical portrait of youth in Europe\(^\text{12}\). Several Eurobarometer surveys have focused on youth. The European Commission presented a first European report on young people\(^\text{13}\). It comprises a compilation of data relating to the situation of young people in Europe. A European report of this kind is due to be carried out at regular intervals.

The European Commission has also started working on a collection of indicators relating to youth policy and has produced an overview of European research concerning young people\(^\text{14}\). All of these studies see youth not as a problem, but as one of our primary resources and a true potential for the future of Europe.

In addition to cooperation at the European level, an agreement has also recently been established between the BENELUX countries\(^\text{15}\). This agreement is based on an observed parallelism between the countries’ national youth policies and emphasises three aspects in particular: the impact that youth policy needs to have on the day-to-day lives of young people; an understanding of their situation; and a concern to listen to their voices and their points of view, which should serve as the starting point for political action\(^\text{16}\).

This succinct description of research and cooperation at the European and international levels demonstrates that the youth report meets the current needs and that the international field is developing at a rapid pace, in turn influencing the structure and content of future reports on the situation of young people.

In this sense, the report on youth in Luxembourg in fact represents the culmination of a medium-term effort and evolution covering nearly two decades. The process integrates three distinctive features: continuity and the effects of youth policy across several legislative periods; the establishment of national policy within the framework of European policies implemented by the European Union and the Council of Europe; and lasting interaction between politics and research as has been the case since the 1990s in the form of the cooperation with the CESIJE (formerly a non-profit organisation) and, starting in 2007, the specific partnership with the University of Luxembourg.

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16 According to the memorandum, “youth policy must have a tangible effect on the day-to-day lives of children and young people. The concrete living environment of children and young people forms the basis for formulating the objectives and implementing the measures and actions of our youth policy. The active involvement of young people and children is essential to its success. When defining this policy, it is important that the life circumstances and the ideas of the young people themselves be taken into account. [translated from French].”
PART II

THE FUTURE PRIORITIES OF YOUTH POLICY

3. THE BASIC CONCEPTS OF YOUTH POLICY

The content of the present chapter aims to define the future priorities of youth policy. Firstly, they are based on the general objectives as stipulated in the first article of the Youth Act of 4 July 2008. These objectives reflect, in a way, the national and democratic consensus on the subject, and, in this sense, represent the mandate given to the government. Secondly, the future priorities are a response to the descriptive findings of the scientists put forward in the second part of the report. They give a partial picture of the contextual and situational conditions in which the government is called upon to act. Finally, the future priorities will lead to concrete actions put in place for the benefit of young people, encompassed by the context of a national plan of action for youth. In accordance with their intermediate nature, these political reflections will thus go beyond simple observations or general objectives, albeit without leading to concrete measures. In order to develop a national plan of action for youth policy, the Act advocates a communicative and interactive approach, which, in particular, takes into account the principles of cross-sectorality and participation. In this process, policy will determine the direction in which to go and will be guided by the government. The opinions of the beneficiaries and the co-actors involved in youth policy are heard under the aegis of the Inter-ministerial Committee for Youth Affairs (“Comité interministériel à la jeunesse”) and via the Higher Youth Council (“Conseil supérieur de la jeunesse”) and the National Assembly of Young People (“Assemblée nationale des jeunes”). As a preliminary reflection, we shall start by attempting to define youth in general and by examining its characteristics in contemporary societies, in order to reach three premises relating to youth policy that will help to orientate and structure our subsequent debates.

The age of youth represents a distinct period in the life of a man or a woman, situated between childhood and adulthood. Being a stage in the life course, the period of youth is substantially influenced by the preceding period, namely childhood, whose institutional context is above all the family. Consequently, child and family policies play an important role for youth policy, and it would seem appropriate to regard these three areas not as compartmentalised, but as interdependent in terms of the impacts they have. As a social group in transition between childhood and adulthood, youth is an ambiguous category. Its definition cannot therefore be limited to a specific age. The beginning of youth is marked by an individual reaching physical maturity, its end by the subject reaching social maturity. Various transitions characterise the period of youth, such as the transition from school to the labour market, from the family of origin to one’s own family, and from the parents’ home to one’s own home.

In contemporary societies, three significant changes characterise the period of youth:
– the desynchronisation of the various moments of the transition;
– the extension of the duration of youth;
– the destandardisation, or even the individualisation of the transitional figures.
The descriptive part of this report clearly depicts the evolution of this very concept of youth in modern-day societies. The observations on the desynchronisation of thresholds, the extension of the duration of youth, and the destandardisation of transitions have been recurrent in the discourse concerning young people. Nevertheless, there is a much more open question concerning the conclusions to be drawn from the observation of this evolution. Today's young adults often make decisions concerning their careers and their private lives autonomously, sometimes moving into areas with which neither their parents nor their teachers are familiar. While benefiting from the support of the adult generation, they therefore have to develop relatively complex strategies in order to meet the new demands of increasingly individualised ways of life. Youth policy is thus faced with contradictory demands: the need to educate young people, and granting them a maximum degree of autonomy. In facing this paradox, we can make out the central ideas between which youth policy navigates: integration and participation in society, with a view towards a lasting social, cultural, economic and ecological development. These are two sides of the same concept, namely that of citizenship. Being a fully-fledged citizen entails the assumption that one has the means to participate in society, among which, an education and vocational training allowing integration into the labour market, and the financial means to guarantee financial autonomy, thus giving access to housing and enabling one to start a family. But being a citizen also means not only having the opportunity to become part of society by successfully going through the transitions to adulthood, but also, in return, having the means to work towards changing that same society. In other words, citizenship is about having the means to put oneself in accordance with society, but also the means to ensure that society is in accordance with oneself. A very similar two-way process presents itself at the systemic level, with youth policy contributing to social reproduction while still considering young people as agents of change and innovation.

From these considerations emerge the three premises of youth policy that counterbalance each other. The first premise is based on an intergenerational logic. Adult generations bear a responsibility to integrate the younger generations into society. Youth policy is the institutional and collective way in which adult generations fulfil their obligations, by creating a framework and favourable conditions for the harmonious fulfilment of the younger generation. Youth policy is therefore a policy that must accompany young people through these transitions, facilitate them, and must propose measures that allow adolescents to successfully see through their passage to adulthood.

This first principle is put into perspective by the second. Allowing young people to integrate and find their place in society does not mean obliging them to conform to a predefined norm. Youth policy must here be marked by an intergenerational respect that enables everyone to find their place in society. It cannot be a case of the younger generation undergoing a process of mental colonisation carried out by the generations that precede it. Youth policy will, therefore, place the concept of participation at its centre. It is a question of the social and political participation of individuals and the means placed at their disposal for them to assume their role in society, to influence their environment, and play a part in the future of our society.

Intergenerational responsibility must not be allowed to conceal intragenerational inequalities. The members of a generation are characterised by their cultures and nationalities (cf. section on the demographics of Luxembourg), their social backgrounds, and gender (cf. disparities between boys and girls, young women and young men in relation to the public policies directed at them). These differences can constitute many sources of inequality in relation to youth policies. According to the third premise, these sources of inequality must be taken into account in order to allow everyone to receive the maximum benefit from the measures implemented by the government. Youth policy will be a voluntaristic, one could almost say a compensatory, policy that explicitly references the principle of equal opportunities.
4. POLICY ORIENTATIONS: A PACT FOR YOUNG PEOPLE

Priorities and a plan of action
The general observation based on the facts in this report is not entirely new, but as presented here, with daunting clarity, it does give cause for concern.

The research shows the essential role played by the family environment (cf. section on the risk of poverty for children, young people and their families). Children and young people often inherit their socio-economic status from their family of origin. The majority of young people who find themselves without qualifications, without work or without shelter are indeed those whose parents possess only limited income.

The integration of young people, their social success, is not necessarily or solely based on their personal preferences or skills, but very often hinges on their family background and their socio-economic origins. This leads to the conclusion that among the young people who are abandoned, poorly qualified and without hope of securing a well-paid job, there would be many who could be more successful in life. Indeed, the labour market in Luxembourg demands a high level of qualification given the predominance of the service industry and the fact that, at the same time, Luxembourg, as with all European countries, exhibits a negative demographic balance. A young person with no qualifications living on the margins of society will thus cost the community a lot of money instead of contributing to the generation of economic wealth. In short, Luxembourg cannot afford not to qualify its young people and has to ensure their successful social integration.

And yet the figures for Luxembourg presented here are hardly reassuring. Although the country has one of the highest levels of immigration in Europe, it is young people with an immigrant background who have the most difficulty in finding their place within Luxembourgish society. Analyses of the figures relating to academic success presented in this report (cf. section on education) demonstrate that the educational system highlights the inequalities that affect Luxembourg society. The teaching of several languages makes it even harder to achieve success. Young people of immigrant background, especially those of Portuguese origin, generally leave the school system less qualified than their Luxembourgish counterparts. This is also the case for young people of immigrant background from the former Yugoslavia. For social background as well, this inequality of opportunities exists, with the level of education of the parents playing a role in the level of education of their children.

Similarly, gender has an influence on a young person's educational orientation and their educational success. The research clearly shows that girls often achieve better results at school and have proportionally higher representation in the educational programmes leading to higher education. However, it should also be noted that girls and young women have greater difficulty in gaining access to the labour market.

The question of leaving school early (cf. section on school dropouts) continues to be one of the key issues concerning formal education, insofar as young people who leave the education system without a qualification are very ill-equipped to successfully make the transitions to adulthood and, above all, to the labour market (cf. section on the transition to the labour market).

As this observation is not new, each government ministry has attempted to implement the means at its disposal to overcome this situation. The effort of the national education system in relation to the educational reform, and of the Ministry of Family and Integration with the voluntary orientation service (“Service volontaire d’orientation”) as well as with projects realised for example in collaboration with youth centres, demonstrate that concrete measures have been taken. And yet consultations with experts conducted within the scope of the youth report confirmed that all of these measures continue to be too sector-specific, often remaining partial precisely because they do not take into account all aspects of a young person's life. Would family support perhaps have been more effective than school support in relation to a pupil’s educational performance, and, above all, would not a combination of the two have been the perfect solution? The experts’ response was unequivocal: there is insufficient dialogue between the various actors and communication is based on individual expertise,
with everybody feeling obliged to come up with a sector-specific response to the problem. However, cross-sectoral cooperation between the various actors and concerted actions are needed in order to take into account all aspects of a young person's life. Cross-sectoral projects that are tested on a small scale deserve to be studied with a view to expanding them.

It should also be noted, however, that regular and close consultations have been taking place between the Ministry of National Education and Vocational Training and the Ministry of Family and Integration since the summer of 2009, together with representatives of the Association of Luxembourg Towns and Municipalities (“Syndicat des villes et communes luxembourgeoises” - Syvicol), with the clear aim of better defining the areas of cooperation between the institutions under the responsibility of both ministries.

Important work has been initiated elsewhere, such as the reform of primary and of secondary education, the socio-educational care services for children (maisons-relais), and the implementation of laws concerning child welfare and social aid as well as a plan of action for the mental health of young people. It is, therefore, a propitious time at which to create the necessary structures for institutionalised dialogue leading to consistent action of the various networks. It should not be forgotten that it is always the same family and the same young person who interact with the various social actors.

A plan of action for young people should, therefore, constitute a “pact for young people”, the first priority of which would not be to create new measures, but rather to facilitate the establishment of concerted action on the part of the various actors with regard to a population of young people threatened by exclusion. This kind of approach must not be limited to public actors, but should clearly include actors from civil society and should consider the role they play as interlocutors, making it possible to understand the perspective of those concerned. Similarly, there is good reason to rethink the dialogue with those concerned, the families and the young people. Have the viewpoints of and the realities experienced by families and young people at risk of exclusion truly been understood and integrated into the development of the measures? A system of scientific evaluation of the concerted measures implemented should then constitute the second priority, which leads all the participants to an increased effectiveness.

The situation described in this report also shows that the problems encountered by young people are often the result of difficult past situations. In other words, it is difficult for young adults to make up for any deficits that may have been accumulated during childhood. A third priority, therefore, has to be to develop prevention and family support measures. Some initial encouraging steps have already been taken in terms of the cooperation between the structures for socio-educational childcare and primary education, and these are projects that need to be institutionalised while maintaining the specific identities of those involved. For example, work with families could be enriched by including the points of view of the teachers and educators, and it is the complementary nature of the various disciplines that will make this successful. Similarly, the new measures provided for in the Child and Family Welfare Act need to be developed as a complement to the measures proposed and implemented by the new commissions on educational inclusion and primary education.

This reflection leads us to the fourth priority. The concrete measures need to be developed as close to the people they concern as possible, almost “tailor-made”. It is, therefore, a question of supporting the cooperation between the various actors at the municipal and local level. The resulting measures must assist the local actors in this endeavour.

The youth of today must find their way in the world of today. Measures then need to be developed that benefit young people directly in their current situations. As its fifth priority and according to a participatory approach, the government intends to propose, within the framework of a plan of action, some key areas of activity to the various actors involved, within which, in the first instance, it intends to develop concerted concrete measures. The Youth Act of 4 July 2008 defined the structures necessary for such a dialogue. It will be useful to broaden the discussions on the basis of the cross-sectoral and inter-sectoral nature of the various areas of activity proposed. The concrete measures elaborated in this plan of action will be developed according to the priorities specified in this document. According to future discussions, other areas of activity can be added in the future.
Towards a plan of action

Having established the present document, the government will draw on the different authorities of the structured dialogue provided for in the Youth Act of 4 July in order to develop a plan of action, in consultation with all those concerned, which will allow everyone to play their part and make their specific contribution. The areas of activity developed here, therefore, are proposals that do not claim to be either exhaustive or final, but rather that aim to make swift progress in the debate that will lead to the adoption of the plan of action as provided for in the Youth Act.

Taking into account the aforementioned political priorities and the need for action suggested by the research report, the plan of action aims to develop a range of concrete and targeted measures, with specific time frames, and that can be evaluated using available means and possibilities.

In addition to the traditional sector of youth policy, which has undergone sustainable development over the past decade and that will continue to be developed, it is the explicit aim of this plan of action to bring together all the actors in a concerted endeavour in order to achieve better coordination between and efficiency of the activities relating to a target group of youth threatened by exclusion.

First area of activity: “Successfully managing the transition from school to the working world”

It should not be forgotten that the first priority is not to develop new measures, but to achieve better results with regard to a target population that struggles to find its place in society. New measures such as the Voluntary Orientation Service (“Service volontaire d’orientation”) demonstrate that non-formal education methods that integrate the young person’s point of view can deliver surprising results. Increased cooperation involving the various actors concerned with this issue could thus result in the development of new, youth-specific approaches towards young people.

Second area of activity: “Successfully managing the start to adulthood”

Many young people currently struggle to get their adult life started. In more fortunate cases, one fixed-term employment contract (“contrat à durée déterminée”) is immediately followed by another, but even for young people in executive positions this situation hinders access to housing and makes bank loans impossible. In relation to reconciling family and working life, the social housing agency (“agence immobilière sociale”) is, among others, one example of an attempt to overcome this situation. But here too, a targeted effort between municipal actors, the Ministry of Housing, and social welfare actors could open up new avenues to assist young people in search of autonomy.

Third area of activity: “The well-being of young people”

Within the context of their preventative task, policies relating to the well-being of youth make it possible to raise awareness of issues of nutrition, mental health, sexual health, emotional well-being, drug use and use of information and communication technologies of young people. The influence that the media have on young people is, indeed, an important issue. Developing the necessary critical skills to be able to responsibly consume information therefore deserves particular attention. An effective approach towards young people is developed in numerous projects that favour increased participation by young people themselves (for example “responsible young drivers”, peer mediation).

In view of the numerous measures and initiatives, it is useful to take stock of what has already been implemented in order to better target a public that is often the hardest to reach. Considering the differing lifestyles of young people, an exchange of good practices between the actors involved would be a first step towards developing a common vision and towards integrating new actors in order to develop stronger and more targeted partnerships. The concept of an environment favourable to the health of young people needs to be considered and further developed, in particular within the framework of the plan of action regarding young people’s mental health.
Fourth area of activity: “Young people as resource”
A proactive attitude and a motivated approach on the part of the young person are crucial factors for the success of quite a number of public policy measures relating to youth, for example in the fields of formal education and the labour market. With the development of these two aspects, which are characteristic objectives of non-formal education, an important issue in the future plan of action will be questioning the manner in which elements of non-formal education can be introduced into other areas affecting young people. Developing the quality of work with young people and the coordination of continuous vocational training for professionals will play an important role in this respect.

The results of the research highlight a tendency towards cultural segmentation with regards to the leisure activities of young people (cf. sections on leisure activities and participation in associations). The question of the participation of young people here echoes that of integration and social cohesion. At the local level, in particular in youth centres (“maisons de jeunes”) and youth organisations, it is a question of being open to the many young people coming from other cultural communities and encouraging contact and the creation of social links between them. To this end, there needs to be collaboration between the various actors at the local level.

Fifth area of activity: “Analysing the effectiveness of the measures”
As part of the elaboration of this report, the University of Luxembourg was asked to make recommendations at the end of each section on how to make data gathering more efficient. Indeed, as the research work progressed, the sometimes poor state of the available data became apparent. The data is currently collected and put together according to very diverse criteria, which makes it difficult to produce a coherent image of the situation of young people. Indeed, we are faced with a multitude of data, the state of which makes coherent comparison very difficult. The Youth Act of 4 July 2008 provides for a youth observatory, the purpose of which is, in particular, to prepare, coordinate and initiate surveys, notices, analyses, studies, and reports on the various aspects of the situation of young people in Luxembourg (article 15 of the Youth Act of 4 July 2008), and to:

- ensure the quality, comparability and relevance of the knowledge in the field of youth using suitable methods and tools,
- facilitate and promote exchange, dialogue and the creation of networks to ensure the visibility of knowledge in the youth field and anticipate future needs (cf. comments on the articles of the Youth Act of 4 July).

The observatory will, therefore, be charged with developing a vision of how to share and organise data in order to facilitate the efficient assessment of the measures.

With regard to the question of the integration of young people from foreign communities, research must also deliver additional information, in particular concerning paths to successful integration, so as to identify good practice for the integration of young people with an immigrant background. Indeed, the risks related to the cultural withdrawal of young immigrants are put forward much more frequently than individual trajectories that reflect a successful integration, with the development processes of multiculturalism needing to be examined in greater depth and then put into practice, as part of youth-related work.
The following section summarises the main findings of the full report. A comprehensive description of the theoretical concepts, the analytical methods and the underlying data can be found in the full report.
KEY ASPECTS
OF THE CURRENT LIFE SITUATION
OF YOUNG PEOPLE IN LUXEMBOURG

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Organisation and objectives

The creation of the Luxembourg youth report dates back to the Youth Act of 4 July 2008, which introduced a legal framework for the preparation of such a report on a national scale. Pursuant to the Youth Act, the minister responsible for youth policy is required to present a report on the situation of young people in Luxembourg to the Chamber of Deputies every five years. The report and its contents were developed by an interdisciplinary research team from the youth research centre CESLJE ("Centre d’études sur la situation des jeunes"), under the scientific supervision of a professor from the research unit INSIDE (Integrative Research Unit: Social and Individual Development) at the University of Luxembourg.

The youth report is conceived to be a general report providing as comprehensive a description as possible of the current life situation, day-to-day contexts and problems of young people aged between 12 and 29 living in Luxembourg. This report does not aim to present or evaluate the various youth policy measures and offers provided by youth work and youth welfare services.

In addition to its purpose of providing as comprehensive an account as possible of the current life situation of young people, the report has a further practical research-related objective. With a view to establishing regular and long-term reporting, topics and issues relevant to youth for which there is (currently) no available data or research should be revealed and suggestions for the sustainable foundation of youth-related reporting in Luxembourg should be made.

The youth report is essentially a scientific report that compiles and analyses the current scientific knowledge of and research on young people in Luxembourg, within a theoretical perspective and conception.

Underlying data and data sources

In preparing this youth report, no primary data was collected. Instead, the report is to be understood as more of a systematic compilation of existing knowledge concerning the current situation of young people in Luxembourg. In elaborating the various topical chapters of the report, data and information available in many and diverse forms were drawn upon: national and international published studies, official databases or statistics, working papers and reports, and documentation and working statistics of institutions.
Methodology
A key element of reporting in Luxembourg is the systematic involvement of experts from the practical fields of child and youth welfare services, social work, and youth work, but also from schools, healthcare, youth associations, youth career advice etc.; of experts from an array of political and administrative fields of activity (family, childhood, education, immigration etc.); and of scientists from various disciplines (sociology, psychology, social educational science etc.). Throughout the entire period of reporting, an ongoing dialogue was organised between the scientific, practical and political experts and the project group. The aim was to complement the underlying studies, data reports and secondary analyses by making the expertise and practical knowledge present in Luxembourg available for the report and by allowing these to flow into the elaboration of the content. Methodologically, this achieves the interweaving of quantitative data processing and secondary analysis on the one hand, and qualitative scientific methods (expert interviews, focus groups, discourse analysis) on the other. The youth report for Luxembourg is therefore above all characterised by this innovative underlying methodology, which distinguishes it from youth-related reporting in other countries. Figure 1 is a diagram of the participatory model of youth-related reporting in Luxembourg.

The Luxembourg youth report is not conceived as a mere compilation of data, but has also developed its own profile in terms of its contents and conceptual outlook. The youth report is therefore based on an array of theoretical concepts that are first and foremost drawn from international and national social scientific youth research. The essential concepts are, on the one hand, the concept of individualisation, which has been applied internationally as a pivotal concept in youth research since the 1980s. It describes the fundamental tendency towards disengagement and release of young people from their local environments, families and traditions as well as the decreasing importance of these to the development, life journeys and careers of young people (Beck, 1986; Giddens, 1984). On the other hand, the concept of life situations or social inequality also has an important role to play in our analysis. Our own youth studies in Luxembourg (Meyers & Willems, 2008), as well as international comparative studies on the level of education and educational success (e.g. PISA), have highlighted the fact that social background and family resources continue to have a great relevance for the life situation and life opportunities of young people in Luxembourg.
An essential aspect of the youth report was the endeavour to focus on young people themselves (rather than on specific institutions) and to analyse the key life situations from this perspective. Corresponding with this theoretical outlook, we analysed the data throughout all topical sections according to central variables (age, gender, nationality, social background) in order to make it possible to draw comparisons between the topical sections.
Youth within the context of demographic change
Like many (post)modern societies, Luxembourg is characterised by a demographic change that has various consequences for the societal significance and the life situation of young people. The population of Luxembourg is equally characterised by a major change in the age structure during the last century (see Figure 2).

**Figure 2:** Comparison of age brackets 1910, 1960, 2009 and 2060

While the under 30s still comprised the largest proportion of the overall population (58.1%) and the over 65s only constituted a minority (5.8%) at the beginning of the last century, this ratio has been reversed over past decades. Already by 2009, the under 30s represent a mere 36.7% of the population. The estimates for...
2060 suggest that the proportion of older people will continue to rise while that of younger people will continue to decrease. This trend towards the ageing of society has not only significant consequences for the ability to finance pension, care and health insurance, but moreover for society as a whole because changing intergenerational structures call the fundamental principles of institutionalised practices in many areas into question (careers, politics and democracy, innovation etc.).

Compared internationally, the process of the ageing of society is less pronounced in Luxembourg than, for example, in Germany. This can partially be attributed to the comparatively high level of immigration in Luxembourg. The structure of the resident population of non-Luxembourg nationality is characterised by high proportions in the young and especially middle age brackets, while the older cohorts currently only represent a small proportion (see Figure 3).

**Figure 3.:** Age pyramid by nationality

Source: STATEC population estimate of 01.01.2009 [data file b1150 of 24.04.2009]; n = 493,500; Explanation: as a percentage of the overall population

The heterogeneous structure of the youth population

The youth report focuses on a very broad group of young people aged between 12 and 29. At 1st January 2009, there were 114,097 young people in this age range living in Luxembourg (RGPP, 01.01.2009). Of the 12 to 29-year-olds, 47% are not holders of Luxembourg nationality. However, this group of adolescents and young adults holding a foreign nationality is very heterogeneously composed (see Table 1).
Table 1: Nationality of the 12 to 29-year-olds

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>12 to 29-year-olds</th>
<th>in %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Luxembourgish</td>
<td>60,444</td>
<td>53.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portuguese</td>
<td>22,821</td>
<td>20.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>7,230</td>
<td>6.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Former Yugoslav</td>
<td>3,651</td>
<td>3.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italian</td>
<td>3,399</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgian</td>
<td>3,032</td>
<td>2.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>German</td>
<td>1,993</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other EU</td>
<td>6,611</td>
<td>5.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>4,916</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>114,097</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: RGPP database (data of 01.01.2009)

As a result of the migratory movements of the past years and decades, young people with Portuguese nationality represent the largest group of young people of foreign nationality. One in five youths in Luxembourg is a bearer of Portuguese nationality, followed by a much smaller percentage of young people from neighbouring countries (France, Belgium and Germany). However, there is also a comparatively high number of young people from the former Yugoslav countries and Italy.

Young people’s social background

As is the case in other countries, the families in which children and young people are raised in Luxembourg differ, sometimes greatly, according to social, cultural and economic factors. While some families are well equipped, disposing of a high level of cultural (education) or material (financial income) resources, other families dispose of, in some cases, considerably fewer resources. At the same time, these resources constitute important starting conditions for young people and can represent opportunities as well as risks in their further development. Families from lower social classes have less financial, cultural and social capital at their disposal and are therefore unable to offer their children the same initial chances as families from higher social classes. This is why social background is significant for the description and analysis of the different life situations of young people for this youth report. Underprivileged groups, which often find themselves at the lowest socio-economic level, are primarily those with a low level of education and a low professional position, including a large number of inhabitants of Portuguese nationality. In contrast, the privileged groups are those with a high level of education and higher professional positions, including many inhabitants with Luxembourg nationality or from the EU-15-states.

As can be observed in many domains, the social inequality of the families of origin tends to be replicated with the children and young people, and social background is an important concept when it comes to describing the different life situations of young people.
1. THE BROADENING OF EDUCATION AND LEARNING PROCESSES

Childhood and adolescence are considered to be the biographical periods during which the primary educational experiences occur. Today, education, in a broad sense, plays a pivotal role in nearly all societal domains and comprises more than solely learning in specialised institutions. Current discussions are characterised by the expansion of educational tasks beyond their institutional anchoring (non-formal education and informal learning) and by the extension of education further into the life course (cf. “lifelong learning” concept). On the one hand, education is, besides schooling, increasingly anchored in non-formal educational fields (such as youth work, youth welfare services and vocational training). On the other hand, it is expanding into individuals’ whole lifespan and is therefore becoming an issue for all age brackets. The present youth report is based on a broadened notion of education comprising three kinds or concepts of education: (a) The concept of “formal education” encompasses the educational processes organised in specialised, institutionalised education and training establishments (schools and universities) that lead to recognised final certificates. Formal education is compulsory, systematically organised and recognised by society. (b) The concept of “non-formal education” relates to educational offers provided outside of the main formal education institutions, which do not necessarily lead to the acquisition of a recognised certificate. Non-formal education includes institutionalised advanced training in public and private institutions, but also all forms of organised youth work and youth welfare services that define or presume educational tasks in their objectives. (c) The concept of “informal education” or “informal learning” is not structured in terms of learning objectives and content, and need not be intended either by the learner or by anybody else. The locations, settings and contents of informal education and learning processes do not have a curricular structure and are not institutionalised (Ajello & Belardi, 2005). Informal learning is rather seen as a kind of side effect of day-to-day life and does not follow a specific curriculum. Under certain circumstances, learners may not even consciously realise that they are acquiring or expanding their knowledge.

There are a multitude of points of intersection and interaction between formal and non-formal education, and informal education processes and learning processes. In recent years and decades, the fields of pedagogy and educational science have developed a new consciousness of the significance of informal education and learning processes within formal educational institutions (e.g. in the shape of project-oriented learning, “peer tutoring”, group assignments etc.); at the same time, through a new opening up of the schools, links to
non-formal and non-school-based educational work (school-based social work, cooperation with other providers of youth education e.g. youth work, prevention work etc.) is sought.

Table 2: Overview of differential educational settings and educational processes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational settings and venues</th>
<th>Fully-institutionalised settings (school, university etc.)</th>
<th>Semi-institutionalised settings (associations, clubs, youth centres, vocational training centres etc.)</th>
<th>Non-institutionalised (informal) settings (family, leisure, peer groups, media etc.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Educational processes</td>
<td>- School lessons</td>
<td>- Vocational training</td>
<td>/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- University lectures</td>
<td>- Continuing education and training in youth work (&quot;animateur&quot;, &quot;aide-animateur&quot; etc.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Apprenticeships</td>
<td>- Public and municipal music schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Supplementary school-based tuition (&quot;cours d'appui&quot;)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fully-formalised processes</td>
<td>- School project work (&quot;projet d'établissement&quot;)</td>
<td>- Paid private tuition</td>
<td>- Help with homework from parents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Arts and crafts in childcare services (&quot;maisons relais pour enfants&quot;)</td>
<td>- Theatre projects</td>
<td>- Visiting museums</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- School-based social work</td>
<td>- Club training sessions</td>
<td>- Attending concerts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- School excursions</td>
<td>- Project work (&quot;service volontaire&quot;)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Childcare in a daycare centre (&quot;crèche&quot;)</td>
<td>- Private music schools</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Peer-to-peer tutoring</td>
<td>- Youth information service</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Youth parliament</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semi-formalised processes</td>
<td>- Peer-group contacts and friendships at school</td>
<td>- Contacts and friendships with young people in associations and clubs</td>
<td>- Everyday communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Playing in the school yard</td>
<td>- Contacts at youth centres</td>
<td>- Leisure activities, activities with peer groups and in the family</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Informal contacts between teachers and pupils</td>
<td></td>
<td>- Media use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-formalised processes</td>
<td>- Help with homework from parents</td>
<td></td>
<td>- Play activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Visiting museums</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Attending concerts</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors’ diagram

**Differential participation, successes and problems of young people in formal education settings**

The existing data relating to participation in education and the educational success of young people in schools demonstrate that, in addition to gender, nationality and social background of young people are decisive explanatory factors for the different educational paths of young people within Luxembourg’s education system.

At 36.9%, the proportion of girls in general secondary education (“enseignement secondaire” - ES) is considerably higher than that of boys (29.8%) (2008/2009 academic year). Vice versa, 70.2% of boys, in contrast to 63.1% of girls, attend technical secondary education (“enseignement secondaire technique” - EST). Because of the higher levels of participation of girls in the comparatively higher schooling path, they are in a more favourable position than boys as far as their opportunities to obtain higher educational qualifications are concerned. Thus, the proportion of successful secondary educational qualifications is also on average higher among girls
than among boys. In addition, girls are less likely than boys to leave school without a qualification and are more often enrolled in tertiary education (university).

In the discourse on education, immigration background is, in addition to gender, discussed as an important factor in educational participation. On average, young people of Luxembourg nationality are much more likely to be guided towards general secondary education than pupils of Portuguese or former Yugoslav nationality or from other non-EU states. Furthermore, pupils of Portuguese and former Yugoslav nationality are more frequently guided towards lower classed and less demanding educational paths, such as the “régime préparatoire” or the “cycle inférieur” of the technical secondary education (EST). Likewise, young people from other non-EU states are more likely to be found in the “régime préparatoire” or in a “classe d’accueil”. In line with the unequal distribution across educational paths, inequalities also arise in relation to the rates of completion by nationality (see Table 3): While the rates of completion in the general secondary education (ES) for young people from Luxembourgish families or from other EU countries (excluding Portugal) lie well over 40%, the rates of completion in the general secondary education (ES) for young people of Portuguese nationality and former Yugoslav nationality are well below 20%.

Table 3: Completion rates in general secondary education (ES) and technical secondary education (EST) by nationality in the 2007/2008 school year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>Luxembourgish</th>
<th>Portuguese</th>
<th>Former Yugoslav</th>
<th>Other EU</th>
<th>Other non-EU</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ES</td>
<td>46.5%</td>
<td>14.4%</td>
<td>17.6%</td>
<td>42.9%</td>
<td>51.9%</td>
<td>42.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EST</td>
<td>53.5%</td>
<td>85.6%</td>
<td>82.4%</td>
<td>57.1%</td>
<td>48.1%</td>
<td>58.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Pupil database of the Luxembourg Ministry of National Education and Vocational Training ("Ministère de l’éducation nationale et de la formation professionnelle" - MENFP) "Promotion 2007/2008"; (n = 2,902); the sample size is based on the number of achieved secondary education qualifications. Many results of the achieved qualifications in the "régime professionnel" (included in technical secondary education (EST) proportions) were still unknown at the time of receiving the database and were included here as missing values.

Alongside unequal participation in education and unequal completion rates, data relating to early school leaving represents an important basis for the evaluation of participation in education and is also discussed as an indicator for problems and difficulties in the international discourse. A proportion that is not to be underestimated of young people in Luxembourg leave school early (11.2%; Unsen & Barthelemy, 2009, p. 7). Pupils who leave school before the end of their compulsory full-time education and without a school qualification are considered to be early school leavers. The effects of early school leaving are twofold: Firstly, the young people themselves are certainly affected because dropping out of the school system is, in most cases, associated with an insufficient school qualification or, at least, associated with a low level of education, which considerably reduces their chances in the labour market and thus hinders their integration into society. Secondly, early school leaving is linked to economic consequences for society (Unsen & Barthelemy, 2008, 2009), as early school leavers have more difficulties in gaining access to employment in our tertiary-sector dominated economy.

The societal significance of participation in education can currently be seen in two trends (Becker & Lauterbach, 2004). On the one hand, we are experiencing a new expansion of education and a euphoria for education. Today, education is considered to be a key concept and an answer to many societal issues (poverty,
inequality, political participation etc.) and is therefore more comprehensively embedded than ever in our life course – characteristic of this is currently the development of perspectives within education relating to early childhood as well as to the entire life course (“lifelong learning”). On the other hand, research shows us that social inequalities still exist in terms of education opportunities and that there has been no significant change in Luxembourg (as in many other European countries) in terms of the tendencies towards segmentation in the education system (cf. PISA study 2006, PIRLS study 2006 and Leselux study 2008).

**Education and learning processes in non-formal education environments**

Non-formal education occurs in different places and in different institutional settings. In Luxembourg, preschool and extra-curricular childcare services (e.g. “maisons relais pour enfants”) have, in recent years, become increasingly important as educational offers for children and adolescents. Also, other measures such as the childcare service voucher (“chèque-service accueil”) are intended to contribute to the promotion of education.

In addition, actors involved in youth work are considered providers of education specifically for adolescents. Learning and education processes are pivotal elements of youth work and are deeply embedded in its self-conception. Key fundamental concepts of non-formal education in the context of youth work are, in the first place, participatory and active learning and participation (cf. Bodeving, 2009, p. 750). Learning takes place in a voluntary context and builds on the interests and intrinsic motives of young people. This gives them the possibility to perceive and experience themselves as self-determined, successful and self-efficient individuals. In addition, they have the opportunity to recognise and identify their own resources and potentials, which develop and are generated within the context of non-formal education and youth work. Here, social interactions between the individuals and groups play an important role. Youth work is only conceivable within the framework of collective experiences of groups and cooperative activities.

In Luxembourg, non-formal educational offers are above all organised by the National Youth Board (“Service national de la jeunesse” - SNJ) as a national administration, but also by the Youth Information Service (“Centre information jeunes” - CIJ), youth centres and youth work associations. The formal education institutions are also increasingly opening up to social and pedagogic offers, which traditionally tend to be offered and take place outside of schools. School therefore becomes a place where conventional spheres of activity such as teaching are increasingly occurring in cooperation with pedagogic and social youth work as well as leisure.

**Young people’s informal education and informal learning**

The settings in which informal education or informal learning take place are diverse: within the family, among leisure or peer groups, at work, at school or when using media. The contents of informal education and learning processes are strongly dependent on context, as they can in principle comprise all possible kinds of knowledge. In part, very specific problem- or solution-oriented skills are thus imparted in informal learning situations. This can be youth-, peer group- or scene-specific knowledge (e.g. knowledge about music and cultural movements, media or technology) but also physical-motoric skills (e.g. mountain biking or skateboarding techniques), natural science-based knowledge (e.g. in the ecology movement) or theoretical democratic skills (in political organisations, human rights movements), to name but a few. All these skills are inevitably linked to the young person’s leisure motives and personal interests.

At the opposite end of this dimension, transversal skills are to be found. These are rather general skills such as social and communication skills, moral development, self-responsibility, the assumption of responsibility for others, decision-making skills, self-determination, individualisation and the processing of information.
Taking up gainful employment is considered to be an important step in young people's personal development and identity formation, and is an important basis for securing one's livelihood, participating in society and positioning oneself in society. For young people in modern societies, entrance into the working world is one of the key developmental tasks on their way to autonomy and independence. Generally speaking, the initial placement in the labour market is the most difficult and, in some cases, also the most far-reaching step in a professional career. Moreover, entrance into the working world is nowadays more complex and multilevelled than in past decades. Because of the pluralisation of education and work possibilities, young people today no longer experience the entrance into the working world as a collective transition. Age can vary between 15 and 30. This transition can include periods of apprenticeship, of short-term employment, of maternity as well as parenting and childcare, of individual orientation, of unemployment, and of participation in employment-related measures (Dietrich & Abraham, 2005).

Young people today are faced with a quite paradoxical situation in the labour market: Although young people are on average at present better qualified than older employees, their chances to secure a position corresponding with their qualifications have lowered in comparison to earlier generations (Hadjar & Becker, 2006a). This is above all attributable to the development debated under the notion of “expansion of education”, according to which an inflation of higher formal qualifications tends to lead to the devaluation of qualifications (in the face of rising qualification expectations).

In nearly all European societies, young people in transition to the working world have in recent decades found themselves faced with difficulties and uncertainties. Compared internationally, the development in Luxembourg was relatively insignificant for a long time. Up to the end of the 1990s, only a consistently small minority of young people were affected by youth unemployment problems. While the transition into the working world proceeded without great difficulties for the majority of young people, there is also, in recent years, an increasing number of signs in Luxembourg of problems that concern a larger number of young people. Over the course of the current economic and financial crisis in particular, the problems of the transition into the working world of young people are also being discussed in Luxembourg (Hansen, 2009).

Altered transitions from the education system into the labour market

The extent to which young people succeed in making a swift entry into a career is very much determined by their various resources and their individual development. A fact demonstrated in numerous international publications (Galland, 2007; Hurrelmann, 2007), which is confirmed in the case of Luxembourg, is the lengthening of the schooling period and the associated later entrance into employment. The length of the transition itself can also vary between young people. Kuepie (2003) emphasises that, in Luxembourg, it is above all the well educated that achieve a swifter career entry, while young people with a lower level of education experience more difficulties.

Furthermore, the transition into the working world is substantially quicker for young people of Luxembourg nationality (only 15.2% needing longer than a year upon leaving school) than for young people of foreign nationality (24.6% needing longer than a year). Apparently, the socio-economic resources of the family of origin also play a role. Career entry is the most difficult for young people whose fathers have a lower professional status.

Social mobility and the reproduction of social inequality

Formal education qualifications are an important prerequisite for a successful professional integration and determine to a great extent the professional position. As such, 85% of young people without a diploma are manual workers, while 81% of young people with a university diploma belong to a higher professional status group. A substantial discrepancy is clear when differentiating between employees of Luxembourg nationality
and employees of non-Luxembourg nationality. Of the young people aged 29 to 35-years-old who are in gainful employment, the proportion of manual workers among Luxembourg nationals is much lower than among employees of other nationalities. This reflects the on average lower level of qualification of young people who do not hold Luxembourg nationality.

Young people's professional positioning is above all determined by their individual qualifications and educational achievements, both of which depend considerably on social background. Studies demonstrate the high importance in Luxembourg of the parents' socio-economic resources (professional position, education) and the pronounced reproduction of the parents' status for children and adolescents (e.g. Burton et al., 2007; Reinstadler, Hausmann & Ray, 2007). Young people whose father belongs to a high professional status group are considerably more likely to attain a high professional status than young people whose father is, for example, a manual worker.

Young people on the margins of the labour market: insecure employment and unemployment

Alongside permanent full-time employment, which is still the norm in Luxembourg (Ministère du Travail et de l'Emploi, 2007, p. 3), an array of other kinds of employment have become increasingly important, all of which can definitely be conceived of under the notion of precarity (cf. Paugam, 2000). These include, in particular, part-time work and fixed-term employment.

As has been the case in many European countries in recent years and decades, an increase in fixed-term employment has been observed. In Luxembourg as well, career entrants in particular are today more frequently being offered a fixed-term employment contract than was the case a couple of decades ago. Compared with other European countries, however, the proportion of these is still comparatively low in Luxembourg: In 2007, the average proportion of these account for nearly 40% of 15 to 24-year-olds in the EU-27 countries, while nearly 25% for that age bracket were affected in Luxembourg (Commission of the European Communities, 2009, p. 34).

Young people who are entirely excluded from the regular labour market and who find themselves in unemployment are considered to be a particular problem group.

Figure 4 depicts the development of youth unemployment in recent years. It shows that youth unemployment in Luxembourg was still relatively low in comparison to other countries in Europe in the 1990s, before rising considerably in the past decade. While for a long time youth unemployment only affected a small group of young people in Luxembourg, it now affects a comparatively large group.

The unemployment rate for 15 to 24-year-olds in Luxembourg in 2008 was 17.3%. This rate puts Luxembourg above the European average of 15.4%. Compared to the older population (25 years and older), it shows that the unemployment rate of the younger population in Luxembourg and in all other European countries is sometimes considerably higher than that of the older population, and that unemployment thus poses a particular risk to young people. In Luxembourg, unemployment is a youth-specific risk, especially for unqualified and low qualified young people.
As in other European countries, there is a strong correlation between the level of education and that of unemployment in Luxembourg. Young people who finished school without a diploma are more frequently unemployed (unemployment rate: 17.4%) than other youths. In contrast, the unemployment rate among young people with post-secondary or university diplomas is the lowest with a proportion of 5%. The unqualified and low qualified continue to be more often affected by long-term unemployment: Of all long-term unemployed, 43.5% have a low educational qualification, though only 7.3% have a high educational qualification. The risk of unemployment also relates to nationality. Some immigrant groups, especially those with Portuguese or former Yugoslav nationality, are disproportionately affected by unemployment.

In response to these transitional problems, a series of assistance and support measures were developed to offer support to problem groups with their transition. In Luxembourg, there is a variety of support and career integration measures to specifically address underprivileged young people and problem groups.

In response to the economic and financial crisis in the autumn of 2009, there was a high awareness of the school and university graduates who were about to push into the labour market. The evolution of the economic and financial crisis and the worsening situation in the labour market seems to also affect the situation of young people, although not yet to the extent feared by some.
Children and young people in Luxembourg grow up in a context of cultural and linguistic diversity. In the young generation of 12 to 29-year-olds, close to half of young people are of foreign nationality and considerably more than half of them live in families with an immigration background. This diversity is especially evident in the day-to-day lives of young people. Young people today encounter ever more frequently peers of other cultural, ethnic and national origins in their everyday lives. Such encounters are taken for granted at school, in the neighbourhood and during leisure time. For young people, plurality has become normality in everyday life. On the one hand, this multiplicity confronts society with major integration challenges, but, on the other hand, there exist a variety of potentials and opportunities that need to be exploited. Especially in the light of the political objective of establishing equality of opportunities and equal starting conditions for young people of different origin, this question is of particular importance for the youth report.

In line with Esser (1980), the youth report is based on a differentiated model of stages of integration that progresses from cognitive integration (knowledge and awareness of the new environment, especially language proficiency) to structural integration (particularly professional integration), social integration (through inter-ethnic contacts) and through to integration on the level of identity (emotional assimilation, identity shift). At the same time, it must be considered that migration itself is changing and confronting the host society with major problems. In addition to the permanent, one-off relocation of a person’s life centre (the type of migration that the majority of conventional integration approaches explicitly address), temporary, repeated, and bi- and multi-local forms of migration (transmigration, transnationality, cross-border commuters) are coming increasingly to the fore (Pries, 2007). These are also and especially of importance to Luxembourg.

**Luxembourg as a country of immigration**

Luxembourg society is characterised by a high level of immigration, which had already begun at the end of the 19th century and continues to this day. In addition to the traditional labour immigrants (primarily from Italy and Portugal), an increasing number of highly qualified immigrants from other European states and from Luxembourg’s neighbouring countries have come to Luxembourg in the last few decades. Neither in terms of nationality and cultural origin, nor in terms of professional qualifications, social anchoring or social positions could migrants in Luxembourg be described as a homogeneous group. Immigrants of Portuguese nationality, the largest group of migrants by number, are, in comparison to the population of Luxembourgish nationality and other migrant groups, on average considerably less qualified and accordingly often employed in sectors with low qualification requirements. This extends to income, which is considerably lower for employees of Portuguese nationality than for other nationality groups (Hartmann-Hirsch, 2007, p. 35 ff.).

Migratory movements have resulted in a diversity of nationalities within the overall population and above all among the young population. Part II described the heterogeneous nationality structure and the high proportion of immigrants in the young generation (47% of 12 to 29-year-olds are not of Luxembourg nationality). At the same time, the number of immigrants has risen steadily in recent years. In 2008, a total of 6,621 immigrants aged between 12 and 29 came to the country. Table 4 shows the proportions of different nationality groups by emigration and immigration.
Table 4.: Immigration and emigration of 12 to 29-year-olds in 2008 according to nationality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>Immigration</th>
<th>in %</th>
<th>Emigration</th>
<th>in %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Portuguese</td>
<td>1,649</td>
<td>24.9%</td>
<td>668</td>
<td>21.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>1,530</td>
<td>23.1%</td>
<td>644</td>
<td>20.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgian</td>
<td>344</td>
<td>5.2%</td>
<td>468</td>
<td>15.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>German</td>
<td>294</td>
<td>4.4%</td>
<td>229</td>
<td>7.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luxembourgish</td>
<td>288</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italian</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>3.9%</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polish</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Romanian</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other EU</td>
<td>776</td>
<td>11.7%</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>10.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-EU</td>
<td>1,151</td>
<td>17.4%</td>
<td>387</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6,621</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>3,089</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: STATEC migration database (2008)

Young people of Portuguese and French nationality form the, proportionally speaking, largest group of migrants. The heterogeneously composed group of young immigrants with a non-EU nationality is also of importance. This includes a total of 1,151 young people corresponding to a proportion of 17.4%. The table emphasises that immigration is by no means a finished process, but that a large number of young people are still immigrating to Luxembourg every year with all the consequences this has for their societal integration and participation.

Segmentation and social inequality

Within the key societal systems of education and employment, strong segmentation tendencies exist between the different immigrant groups and young people of Luxembourg nationality. Young people of Portuguese and former Yugoslav nationality show a distinctly lower participation in education than other nationality groups, which clearly leads to a form of disadvantage in the labour market. The high qualification expectations within the labour market on the one hand, and the comparatively low qualifications of these nationality groups on the other hand, considerably hinder their professional integration and positioning within the labour market. As positions in society and social status are conferred by education and employment, having a foreign nationality or an immigration background represents, for many young people, a higher risk concerning their social positioning and societal integration.

The large group of immigrant young people of Portuguese nationality in particular (but also young people of former Yugoslav and Cape Verde nationality) originate in higher proportions from families of origin with comparatively low socio-economic resources, which sometimes also tend to be reproduced for the younger generation. In contrast, other young people with foreign nationality with a comparatively high endowment in resources (especially young people from northern European countries and of French, German or Belgian nationality) are predominantly successful in education and in the labour market.

Alongside the structural dimensions of integration (education, employment), issues of social integration and societal participation are also of importance. Concerning political participation, young people who are
not of Luxembourg nationality are considerably limited in their possibilities for political participation. They are excluded from participation in legislative elections and only have the possibility to vote in municipal elections given certain prerequisites. Therefore, a substantial part of the youth are not eligible to vote, not only because of their age (minors) but also because of their nationality, which is why, to some extent, one could speak of a “double marginalisation” of young people of non-Luxembourg nationality. Other forms of political participation and societal engagement beyond conventional politics and party politics would therefore appear all the more important. But here as well, young people of non-Luxembourg nationality are comparatively less involved. Thus, the example of the data relating to engagement with associations (clubs, societies,...) demonstrates that young people without Luxembourg nationality are integrated and engaged to a substantially lesser extent in society (see Figure 5).

**Figure 5:** Association membership among 12 to 25-year-olds according to nationality

![Association membership among 12 to 25-year-olds according to nationality](image)

*Source: Municipal youth plan (PCJ) of the city of Luxembourg, 2004; n = 876*

In contrast to these offers from associations, offers of open youth work (youth centres) are more heavily used by young people without Luxembourg nationality than young people of Luxembourg nationality. The offers in the leisure domain seem to only partially develop their associated and expected integrative effects. Segmentation tendencies in the education system and the labour market do not dissipate in leisure time but are, as many indications imply, to some extent reproduced here.

The sense of belonging to the host country is seen as the final stage on the way to a successful societal integration into the host society. Thus, young people from immigrant families, in comparison to the local population, have to perform to a higher level in order to integrate the different cultures into their lives (Liegle, 1998). In the youth study for the City of Luxembourg, Meyers and Willems (2008, p. 119 ff.) treated issues of young people’s national identity and came to the conclusion that a substantial proportion of young people of foreign nationality have developed a strong sense of belonging to Luxembourg as host country, which can be interpreted as an indication of an at least partial rapprochement and identification with Luxembourg.
Opportunities and potentials of ethnic and cultural diversity
Growing up and living together in a plural and heterogeneous society, in which ethnic and cultural diversity belong to everyday life, brings with it numerous opportunities and potentials both for the native as for the immigrant population. This perspective is without a doubt less widespread in discussions on immigration and integration, and has, up to now, hardly been considered in mainstream interpretations and outlooks on the subject. Research as well as public discourse focus more on the deficits, problems and risks related to the co-habitation of natives and immigrants. This is one of the reasons why the accusation is often levelled at integration research that it focuses more on conflict and disintegration problems instead of analysing the inconspicuous but successful normal processes of integration (Bade, 2006, p. 40). For Luxembourg in particular, there is a series of reasons that support centring the debate more on the opportunities and potentials associated with immigration than has been the case up until now (e.g. with a view to demographic rebalancing, the workforce and creative potential).

The available data suggests that a large majority of the young generation in Luxembourg see the diversity of nationalities as a positive thing and that the Luxembourgish youth are, in comparison to the older population, characterised by a stronger inter-cultural openness. So far, however, there has been hardly any systematic research in Luxembourg focusing on the successful integration of immigrants and on the potentials of immigration. Issues relating to the factors leading to the successful educational and professional careers of immigrant youth have, up until know, received as little attention in research as, for example, the prerequisites for the socio-political engagement of immigrants in civil society.

4. POVERTY AND THE RISK OF POVERTY FOR CHILDREN AND YOUNG PEOPLE

There has recently been an increased focus on the phenomenon of poverty in international, European and national discussions. This is partly due to the observed rise in poverty and income inequality in the Western world in recent years. The OECD (2008) stated that there has been a further increase in the statistically documented financial poverty and inequality in the majority of its member countries, including Luxembourg. The current situation is primarily characterised by a displacement of poverty onto the younger generations: Poverty today is no longer as much a problem for older people, but rather for children, young people and their families. The causes of this “new poverty” are multifarious: apart from structural change and globalisation, decreasing social benefits, the erosion of informal subsistence systems and segregation in cities can also be referred to (cf. Häußermann, Kronauer & Siebel, 2004). In the discussion about the phenomenon of poverty, the definition of poverty plays an important role. Apart from the concepts of “absolute” or “relative” poverty, there are also different methods of calculating the risk of poverty (conventionally, this is evaluated at 60% of the national median income) (cf. Wolff, 2009; Guio, 2005). Growing up in poverty presents children and young people with problems ranging from psychosocial and health aspects to exclusion from participation (cf. Knauer & Sturzenhecker, 2005; Hurrelmann, 2000; Köttgen, 2000). Studies have also shown that there is a relationship between poverty during childhood or youth and poverty during adulthood, and that poverty is in certain respects “hereditary” (cf. Paugam, 2005).

An increased risk of poverty for children and young people?
In Luxembourg in particular, the debate on poverty raises questions about the definition of poverty: notably, whether the statistically documented poverty in the EU country with the highest per capita income is comparable with that of other European countries. The situation is more difficult to assess in Luxembourg than in the
neighbouring countries because of the overall high living standard of the population. STATEC therefore advocates expanding the assessment of poverty based purely on income to include an array of objective and subjective indicators that allow the better measurement of prosperity and the distribution of wealth in Luxembourg (Allegrezza, 2007, p. 28).

However, the rise in the risk of poverty for children and young people is discussed as part of the debate in Luxembourg (Gillen, 2008, p. 10; Urbé, 2008, p. 85), and is spoken about in relation to unemployment, youth unemployment and housing shortage. Fundamentally, poverty in Luxembourg is alleviated by the social security system. One of the most important social transfers to reduce poverty is the “revenu minimum garanti” (RMG), i.e. the guaranteed minimum income. Young people under the age of 25 are, however, only entitled to this measure in exceptional circumstances. Two measures introduced recently specifically for families with children and adolescents are worth mentioning: the “maisons relais pour enfants” (extracurricular childcare services) and the “chèque-service accueil” (childcare service voucher), which were primarily introduced to combat poverty (but are not taken into account when calculating the risk of poverty).

Since 1995, the risk-of-poverty rate for the overall population has been fluctuating between 11 and 13.5% (Langers, Osier, Schockmel & Zahlen, 2009), and is thus below the average for the EU-27 countries. Worth noting here is the important contribution of state social transfers to the alleviation of the phenomenon of poverty: excluding social transfers, 24% of the population would be considered poor.

**Figure 6.** Luxembourg residents at risk of poverty between 2003 and 2008 according to age groups

Some children and young people (above all minors) are, in comparison to the older population, far more concerned by the risk of poverty. This tendency has continued to worsen in recent years (see Figure 6). The fact that an EU study included Luxembourg as a country in which child poverty poses a problem (European Commission, 2008) invites reflection. Explanations can be found in the interactions between the population structure, the low risk of poverty for pensioners, and the differences in poverty risk according to nationality and family structure. The households and persons concerned by poverty have not fundamentally changed structurally in the past few years. Those who are most frequently concerned by poverty continue to be above all single parents, families with children, persons of non-Luxembourg nationality, young people under the age of 25, people who are not working full-time, and those with low qualifications (cf. Frising et al., 2008; Langers et al., 2009).
However, non-monetary indicators are increasingly used in addition to monetary indicators to describe and identify poverty. For example, a recent Eurobarometer survey on poverty in Europe (European Commission, 2009a) showed that only 5% of all the Luxembourg households questioned stated having difficulties to cover all the necessary expenses at the end of the month, even though 55% of all Luxembourgers are of the opinion that poverty is a widespread problem in their country. Langers et al. (2009) likewise highlighted the following interesting fact: While the risk-of-poverty rate in Luxembourg was at approximately 13% of the population in 2007, the measured subjective poverty was only at 7%. Similarly, in measurements of material hardship, in Luxembourg, only 3% of the overall population say that they are concerned by material hardship (Wolff, 2009). In addition to the objective criteria, alternative indicators should therefore always be incorporated into the discussion on poverty.

**Poverty during childhood and adolescence: problem and risk groups**

Young people growing up in poor circumstances deal less well with the challenges of the phase of transition to adulthood than young people with sufficient social and material resources. Therefore, they belong more frequently to problem and risk groups. Children and young people who live in a poor family have a higher risk of also living in poverty as adults (Reinstadler, 2007). To some extent, this can be explained by the fact that children and young people from socially disadvantaged families have a higher risk of completing a lower level of education or even dropping out of school (cf. Unsen & Barthelemy, 2009; Burton et al., 2007). This then reduces their opportunities in the labour market and increases their risk of poverty. Often, those concerned are children and young people with an immigration background. Other risk groups among young people are those who are in a disadvantaged position in the labour market. In particular, these risk groups include low-income workers, the working poor or the unemployed. Young people are more likely to find themselves in these categories because they still need to complete their integration into the labour market and their income is probably at its lowest at the start of their career (cf. Frising et al., 2007, 2008). In a comparably expensive and consumption-orientated country, a low income can lead to excessive debt and homelessness for some households. In Luxembourg, the RMG should protect its residents from slipping into poverty, but the recipients of RMG also belong to those with an increased risk of poverty. Among these, children are over-represented, while young people are under-represented because they themselves are only entitled to these measures in exceptional circumstances. Groups that have to be considered particularly at danger of poverty include refugees, the stateless, asylum seekers and illegal immigrants.

### 5. Health and Well-being during Adolescence

The issues of health and of health behaviour of children and young people were given relatively little attention in social science research as well as in social reporting in many countries up until a few years ago. Apart from the attention given to at-risk problem groups, there was, for a long time, little interest in the fundamental issue of young people’s health situation. The societal and political significance of this topic stems from the broadened definition of health given by the WHO. It not only takes into account physical, but also social, mental and emotional dimensions of health and also gives an all-encompassing importance to the concept of subjective well-being within the context of a person’s specific environment and life situation. Health is here seen as a process in which health and well-being are determined by the overcoming of strains and developmental tasks through drawing on resources. In this process, youth are seen as self-determining actors and as active modelers of their way of life, who have their own behavioural patterns, values and conceptions. The physical, family,
social, political and, last but not least, governmental environments are therefore major determinants of the current and future health of young people (BMFSFJ, 2009).

**Subjective well-being and mental health**

The analysis of the subjective well-being and the self-perceived state of health allows initial statements concerning the state of health of young people in Luxembourg to be made. In addition to objective medical diagnosis (by a doctor), these give insights into whether young people subjectively feel ill and afflicted.

On the whole, Luxembourg’s young people assess their state of health as being consistently good. However, older adolescents, girls, young people in lower educational paths and those with lower family affluence generally rate their state of health less positively (see Figure 7).

**Figure 7.:** Subjective perception of the state of health according to gender and family affluence (13 to 18-year-olds)

![Chart showing subjective health perception](chart.png)

Source: National HBSC data 2005/2006; n Total = 6,589, n Gender = 6,589, n FAS = 6,272

In addition to subjective well-being, this youth report also focuses on the mental health of young people. Mental health problems often arise during childhood and adolescence, inevitably having consequences for individual well-being and frequently being linked to strains inflicted both by and on the social environment. Children and young people's diseases have tended to evolve from acute to chronic, and from primarily somatic to mental, psychosomatic and behavioural disorders. There is only limited data available in the field of psychosomatic and behavioural disorders. One aspect of the mental health of young people is self-harming behaviour, of which completed suicides are only a part. Mortality rates for Luxembourg show that death through suicide is not a youth-specific phenomenon, even though it first occurs within the 10 to 14 age bracket, and is still found remarkably often during adolescence even though the highest suicide rates tend to occur within the older age brackets.

**Physical health**

A comprehensive description of the health of young people also entails the important issue of physical health. Even though somatic illnesses are more rare during adolescence than during adulthood, they are nevertheless of importance as they can have a sustained negative impact on the development of the adolescent (Bergmann et al., 2008). According to estimates, nearly one in ten young people suffer from a chronic illness (Bös et al., 2006). The phase of youth is furthermore a period of changes in which young people often develop lifelong

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1 The HBSC study (*Health Behaviour in School-aged Children*) developed its own indicator, the Family Affluence Scale (FAS), to illustrate the affluence of young people's families. This is made up of different variables, namely car ownership, having one’s own bedroom, one’s own computer and the number of holidays taken together (cf. Currie et al., 2008).
habits concerning their health behaviour. These impact on health in the short as well as the long term. Thus, not only should the situation of young people with an illness be considered, but the factors that adversely affect health before a verifiable, manifest illness develops should also be identified (Bös et al., 2006).

In particular, risk factors such as a lack of physical activity, excess weight and motoric deficits are increasingly focused upon in relation to the physical health of young people (Bös et al., 2006). Data for Luxembourg shows that problems of posture and mobility, as well as cardiovascular problems and back pains are increasingly a problem for children and young people. According to the results of a study, 8.8% of children and young people in Luxembourg suffer from a disorder affecting the locomotor system. For girls in particular, the results show that, with increasing age, they suffer more frequently from complaints of the locomotor system.

The study prepared by Bös et al. (2006) found that 13.2% of all pupils examined were overweight, and that 6.5% were even classified as obese. The proportion of normal-weight pupils was 80.3%. Thus, it was revealed that the problem of excess weight already starts at primary school age and tends to increase with increasing age; and that boys tend to be more likely overweight than girls, and that young people from the lower education path have a stronger tendency to be affected by excess weight than young people from the middle and upper education paths. A comparison of body weight and subjective perception suggests that in Luxembourg a lot of young people are unsatisfied with their body weight, even though their Body Mass Index (BMI) is within normal range.

Mortality during childhood and adolescence is very low in comparison to other life phases in modern-day societies. Rolland-Portal, Wagener, Mossong and Hansen-Koenig (2003) point towards the fact that, in Luxembourg, the crude mortality rate among children, adolescents and young adults has substantially decreased since the beginning of the 20th century. The most frequent cause of death among young people and young adults of between 15 and 29 years of age is transport accidents. Even though there has been a distinct decrease in the standardised mortality rate relating to fatal transport accidents for 15 to 29-year-olds in Luxembourg in recent years, this rate for Luxembourg is nevertheless distinctly higher than the average within the EUR-A reference group.²

It can also be stated that, on the whole, boys are more frequently victims and perpetrators of "violence against persons" and of violence in leisure time, while, in contrast, girls are more frequently victims of sexual harassment and abuse.

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² EUR-A comprises the following countries: EU-15 as well as Andorra, Croatia, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Iceland, Israel, Malta, Monaco, San Marino, Slovenia, Switzerland and Norway.
Aspects of young people’s health-related behaviour
A balanced diet and sufficient physical activity are especially important for the health and well-being of young people. A healthy lifestyle creates the optimum conditions for health, for growth and for intellectual development (Richter, 2005, based on Maes, Vereecken & Johnston, 2001). In this context, it is especially important that more attention is paid to the eating habits and activity behaviour of children and young people, and that a healthy lifestyle including healthy nutrition and sufficient physical activity is promoted during childhood and adolescence. The Bös et al. (2006) study examined the eating habits of children and young people in Luxembourg on the basis of their fruit and vegetable consumption. 22.5% of 14-year-olds and 22.9% of 18-year-olds eat fruit and vegetables less than once a day. The study also shows differences according to gender and levels of education: Girls eat more healthily than boys and pupils in the lower education path have the least healthy eating habits. On top of this, the study by Bös et al. (2006) was also able to establish that only about a quarter of young people in Luxembourg meet the minimum recommendation of at least 60 minutes of physical exercise a day. In this respect, boys are in comparison distinctly more active than girls and pupils from the higher education paths engage in more physical exercise than pupils in the lower education path (Bös et al., 2006).

In relation to the spread of AIDS as one of the major health problems, the risks of unprotected sexual intercourse are, in particular, discussed as one of the primary means of transmission in the health debate. The national HBSC data for 2005/2006 shows that more than two-thirds of young people, i.e. the large majority, use a condom during sexual intercourse. Younger adolescents as well as adolescents from more affluent backgrounds in particular more frequently use a condom.

For some adolescents and young adults, experimenting with and consuming psychoactive substances is a part of the youth-specific developmental process. In relation to the consumption of alcohol, the results for Luxembourg show that, already at the age of 13, a proportion of young people state to be drinking alcohol on a regular basis. Among the 18-year-olds, just under 40% of young people come into contact with alcohol at least once a week (Bös et al., 2006). In particular, it is the male adolescents who state that they drink alcohol more frequently.

Tobacco consumption has distinctly decreased over the course of recent years. Since 2002, the proportion of 15 to 17-year-old smokers has decreased by more than half (2002: 36%; 2008: 15%). The proportion of 18 to 24-year-olds smoking has likewise decreased (2002: 47%; 2008: 36%) (Prost-Heinisch, 2009b).

In addition to alcohol and tobacco, some young people also consume illegal substances. The term illegal drugs encompasses a series of different substances, which can to some extent cause and even exacerbate very different patterns of problems and addictions. Cannabis is the most consumed illegal drug, both in Luxembourg and internationally, followed by amphetamines. Consumption of cocaine and opiates is less pronounced. Increases in the consumption of illegal drugs in the last 10 years can, in part, be attributed to amphetamine-type substances (UNODC, 2009). Apart from minor variations, the rates of prevalence of illegal drug consumption in Luxembourg are similar to those at the European and global level (Origer, 2009). At the age of 14, just over 15% of young people have tried cannabis at least once. Among 18-year-olds, there are already around 44% of young people who have tried cannabis at least once. The consumption and trying of other substances, such as ecstasy, cocaine, LSD and mushrooms, only concerns a very small group, but this can have many consequences in relation to the patterns of problems and addictions, in particular for the mental but also the physical state of health of young people.
Well-being within the social context: resources and risk factors

The respective socialisation contexts of young people and young adults determine the possibilities and courses for the development of their health-related behavioural and coping strategies (BMFSFJ, 2009). Immediate conditions of life, learning, living and working, the social contexts and the societal environment have a decisive influence on the well-being and health of young people. Confictual day-to-day experiences, problematic developmental tasks, physical stress and life crises are just some of the strains that children and young people encounter in the course of becoming an adult. In meeting these strains, young people also have, in addition to their personal capacities, different social, cultural and infrastructural resources at their disposal.

The recurring theme throughout the examined empirical data is that, in relation to subjective well-being, as well as in relation to health-related behaviour and actual illnesses, children and young people from lower social backgrounds are exposed to greater strains and higher risks. Social background is therefore a decisive factor for the health-related development of children and young people. In the overall picture of family dynamics, socio-economic factors, but also family structures and the quality of relationship with the primary attachment figures (in general, the parents) can be important variables for the development of social and emotional skills in children and young people.

In addition to the family context, the influence of the wider social environment, especially that of circles of friends and peer groups, increases as young people grow older. Peers become an important social fabric for young people and thus heavily influence their well-being. Other factors of influence for the well-being and health of young people include the circumstances they encounter and the experiences they have at school. Self-confidence and socio-emotional development, as well as health-related behaviour and life satisfaction are decisively marked by the school environment. For those young people and young adults who have already based themselves in the working world, the work environment also becomes a substantial influence on their well-being and health.

6. YOUNG PEOPLE AS ACTORS IN SOCIETY AND POLITICS

In the context of this report, participation and voluntary engagement are understood as being the comprehensive participation of young people in societal and political processes. These relate to the individual lifeworlds of families and work, as well as to the engagement in school, the local community, politics and voluntary organisations. Only such an all-encompassing conception makes it possible to take into account the full potential of engagement of the young generation and their contribution to the shaping of society and democracy. In this context, children and young people are seen as competent and responsible citizens having the ability to act (Hurrelmann, 2001; Roth & Olk, 2007; Qvortrup, Corsaro & Honig, 2009). Their fundamental rights include being informed, listened to and involved in decisions that concern them and their environment. The various resources, skills and activities of young people are essential factors of innovation for society and, simultaneously, a basis for a healthy democracy. Not least because of their uncomplicated approach towards new bodies of knowledge and action, children and young people are also to be seen as privileged and competent actors in dealing with new societal challenges and in the development of innovative solution paths. A multifaceted offer for participation in line with the interests of young people, which recognises societal benefits of informal forms of participation as well as the formal offers, contributes to the broadening of the understanding of participation.
Conditions for the participation of young people

Participation and social engagement are linked to a series of conditions. In particular, these include, at the individual level, value orientations, attitudes towards politics and democracy, as well as interest in politics and society; at the structural level, the possibilities for action offered and resources are of importance.

As shown by data from the ESS 2004, at a proportion of 29.6%, nearly one in three young people are either quite or very interested in political issues, and the majority are hardly or not at all interested in politics. Young males are more interested in politics than young females, and young people of Luxembourg nationality are, in some cases, substantially more interested in politics than migrant youth. Other studies for Luxembourg also show these differences (e.g. Boulton, Heinen & Willems, 2007).

Figure 8: Interest in politics among 15 to 29-year olds according to gender and nationality

Source: ESS database 2004; n (unweighted) Lux. = 279, Port. = 72, Other = 62; F = 203, M = 210; percentages are based on weighted figures

Alongside the interest, motivation and ability of young people to appropriately get involved in and shape society, successful participation also requires the necessary resources and structures.

Figure 9 presents the key structural influences on the participation behaviour of young people: on the one hand, aspects of a comprehensive culture of participation in the different areas of society (school, work, family, circle of friends, local community); on the other hand, aspects of a transparent and responsive politics (e.g. prompt and transparent decision-making processes, recognition).
However, successful participation does not only require a solid structural basis, but also depends on the individual possibilities that each young person has at their disposal. Within political participation research, these capacities, or so-called “participation resources”, are seen as a key prerequisite for social, societal and political participation (Verba, Lehmann & Brady, 1995).

**Participation in different areas of life**
The participation and engagement of young people takes place in many areas of society. At the centre stands the lived participation in everyday life, as expressed by the way in which children and young people communicate with each other and with adults, represent their individual or their shared interests, negotiate positions, become engaged and shape their life world. In recent years, new forms of societal participation for children and young people have been developed at the municipal level in particular, but there are also various participation possibilities in schools, youth work and clubs.

Children and young people have their first formative experience of the extent to which their voiced opinions are respected and their interests are considered through, in particular, the possibilities of having a say in and effecting family decision-making processes. Young people in Luxembourg (according to, among other things, gender, age, education levels) are often, though to varying degrees, involved in family decisions and family activities. The development away from an authoritarian, order-based household to a modern, negotiation household based on dialogue and participation (Ecarius, 2002) is thus also discernible in Luxembourg.

In addition to this, the leisure domain offers a high potential for the participation of young people. Alongside these self-organised leisure forms (youth cultures, scenes and cliques), clubs and associations in particular count as important fields of action. They offer favourable opportunity structures for learning and practising democratic forms of coexistence based on participation. In this respect, it is not so much clubs of a social, political or ecological focus within which young people engage, but rather it is clubs with a leisure-orientated focus (sport, youth club, music societies etc.) that are of a high importance (see Boulten et al., 2007; Boll & Faber, 2009; Meyers & Willems, 2008).
The political participation of young people and participation offers in Luxembourg

The issue of political commitment and political participation of young people in the narrower sense will be focused on in the following section. In the last two decades, not only interest in politics, but also the willingness of the younger generation to participate in politics has declined markedly throughout all of Europe (Gille & Krüger, 2000a). Political parties and organisations as well as trade unions and political youth associations are all faced with a lack of successors. However, the regressive development of membership numbers can only, under certain conditions, be taken as evidence of a general decline in the willingness of the younger generation to get involved. This development stems, in part, from the fact that numerous new organisations (i.e. citizens’ action groups, ecological, peace and women’s groups) have been created within the context of the new social movements since the 1970s and compete with the established political organisations for members. At the same time, a differentiation and broadening of the forms of political participation can be observed.

Conventional forms of political participation (party orientated, formal and constitutional forms of participation), such as voting in elections or party membership, represent an important aspect in describing the political participation of Luxembourgish young people. The participation in political elections is compulsory for everyone who is eligible to vote in Luxembourg. Thus, in contrast to most other European countries, voter turnout cannot be taken as an indicator of political participation for Luxembourg. There is currently only little data concerning the taking up of an elected mandate. A municipal survey indicates that only in one in five municipalities surveyed did the municipal councils include young members. As well, data concerning party membership indicates that only a comparatively small proportion of young people are politically committed. The results of the European Social Survey (ESS 2004) demonstrate that, with a proportion of 2.1% of those surveyed, few Luxembourgish young people are members of a party.

At the same time, with the waning interest of young people for conventional forms of participation, the willingness for ad hoc collaboration in informal groups and for the participation in direct political actions has substantially increased in all developed democracies (Dalton, 2002, 2004; Inglehart, 1998). Conventional and unconventional forms of participation are not mutually exclusive, but rather increasingly complement each other (Hadjar & Becker, 2007). These offer young people in particular the opportunity to contribute adequately outside the realms of parties and political elections, and to voice their political opinions. Several sources of data for Luxembourg point towards this increase of importance (e.g. taking part in demonstrations, petitions etc.) (Boultgen et al., 2007, ESS 2004 database).

On the whole, the underlying data concerning participation make clear that young people with a higher level of education and of a higher social status more frequently become engaged than young people with a lower level of education. Boys more frequently participate than girls. It is particularly noticeable that young people with an immigration background in Luxembourg are faced with difficulties and obstacles that impact on their societal and political participation.

In Luxembourg, various different offers exist for young people to participate at a national as well as at a local level. These include the “Assemblée nationale des jeunes” (National Assembly of Young People), the youth convention, the municipal youth plan, the youth commissions and youth or children’s municipal councils. The results of a municipal survey (Figure 10) highlight what offers young people have to be heard and to have an effect in their municipalities.
In 64.8% of the municipalities that took part in the survey, a youth commission represents the interests of the young people. Additionally, it was stated that in 46.6% of municipalities the possibility exists for young people to directly address the municipal council or the relevant deputy mayor if they wished to represent their interests within the municipal context. In 23.9% of the municipalities, youth-specific participation projects were realised. In most cases, these related to school playground design, the furnishing and/or renovating of the youth centre, the design of sport and leisure facilities (beach volleyball field, adventure playground or football pitch), the organisation and co-planning of festivities and activities, or participation in the development of a municipal youth plan.
Alongside the objective of providing a comprehensive description of the situation of young people in Luxembourg, it is also the task of this report to draw on this experience to show conceptual, research-orientated and organisational lines of development and future perspectives for youth reporting in Luxembourg. Thus, some aspects shall be presented here that have arisen from the discussions on the content, from the research and analysis of data, and as well from the resources and structures available during work on the present Luxembourgish youth report.

- The integration of child and youth reporting: This is not only due to an increased sensitisation for childhood-related issues, but also recognises the fact that much has changed in the social situation and in the societal perception and structuring of the childhood phase. The changes in forms of family life, the increasing significance of care and education work outside of the family, the call for preschool education work for infants, and the strengthened societal rights and participation tasks of children make clear that many learning and development processes, but also many problems and conflicts, in relation to young people can only be adequately understood and represented if the perspective taken is broadened to include childhood. These are the reasons why the systematic integration of child and youth reporting is an urgent need.

- The ongoing, systematic description and analysis of offers, services and effects of child and youth welfare.

- The integration of transnational aspects and the Greater Region.

- The sustainable development of a solid basis of data (systematic documentation and archiving of data and data reports, harmonisation of statistics and a focused research promotion).

- The development of a reliable indicator system for reporting. This requires specific development work, which should preferably be completed before the next reporting period in 2015.

- The further development of the participatory method (dialogue between research, politics and practice) as a principle of gaining knowledge in child and youth reporting. An issue that would also need discussing in this context is whether and, if so, how this participatory method could be expanded through the involvement of children and young people themselves.

- The promotion of research, above all in relation to the development of a representative child and youth survey, of longitudinal studies of the paths of transition processes, of research on integration and participation of young immigrants, and of evaluation concerning child and youth welfare.
SYNOPSIS: OPPORTUNITIES AND RISKS OF GROWING UP

Young people have differing resources at their disposal in relation to their societal opportunities, development possibilities and integration possibilities. Gender, nationality and social background are important factors explaining the differences between different groups of young people. The individual chapters made clear that the behavioural patterns and life situations of young people vary greatly according to these factors. In addition, the broad range of topics of the present report allowed the identification of youth problem groups, who, in relation to a successful integration and participation in society, find themselves subject to problem and risk conditions in all domains of life, some of which exacerbate each other.

Gender-specific differentiations

Gender continues to be seen as a key concept explaining the differentiated behavioural patterns and life situations of young people, and can be linked to specific risks and opportunities for young people. For Luxembourg, it was possible to demonstrate that, to a certain degree, girls come through the formal education system much more successfully than boys and also achieve comparatively higher qualifications. It seems that the long-discussed education deficit of girls is being redressed, and that it is now above all boys who are increasingly the ones losing out in education. Also, girls are initially more successful in the transition to the labour market than boys. With increasing age, the employment rates of young women are, however, comparatively lower (which can primarily be attributed to the more frequent assumption of parental duties). For a proportion of young women, this means a (at least temporary) departure from work, which can also often result in a disruption of the career path. Even though girls in some ways have an “education advantage” and invest more into higher qualifications, they cannot translate this to the same extent to their professional careers. From a national economic perspective, a part of the education potential is not being adequately used.

The increased risk of poverty for young, single mothers highlights the particular risk status of young women in relation to founding a family and assuming parental duties. Gender-specific differences can also be noted in relation to health. While boys show a markedly increased health-related risk-behaviour (suicide, violence, drugs), girls are more sensitive with respect to their health and have a more critical relation to themselves, their own bodies, as well as their social environment. Following this, they therefore show a more pronounced subjective health deficit in comparison to boys.
Immigration and ethnic origin as risk factors

In terms of participation in education alone, the pledge of equal opportunities made by the Luxembourgish school system cannot be fulfilled for a large number of young people. Young people with foreign nationality (above all of Portuguese and former Yugoslav nationality) are especially disadvantaged. They achieve comparatively lower educational qualifications and also show higher drop-out rates. The disadvantage of different immigrant groups in education also continues, to some extent, in relation to gainful employment. An above-average proportion of young people of foreign nationality and with lower qualifications is unemployed and more likely to be employed in areas with low qualification requirements. For these immigrant groups, there therefore exist significant integration deficits especially within the socio-functional systems of education and the labour market. Correspondingly, they have a higher risk of poverty. Other immigrant groups (from the neighbouring countries and from other EU states) are more successfully integrated and occupy higher career positions. The segmentation according to nationality in the education system and the labour market is, to some extent, replicated in leisure. In terms of their social integration and participation in politics and society, there are marked segmentation tendencies between young people of Luxembourg nationality and those of foreign nationalities. Evidently, young people from an immigration background are especially likely to encounter difficulties and obstacles that impact on their societal and political participation.

Unequal starting conditions: the social backgrounds of children and young people

To a certain extent, a young person’s starting conditions are determined by the family. The economic, cultural and social resources that are transmitted through the family are formative for young people and substantially influence the conditions of growing up. Here too, the youth report can identify a strong relationship between the background of young people and their participation in and ambitions relating to education. Young people originating from privileged socio-economic milieus are more successful at school and also have better chances in the labour market in comparison to young people from disadvantaged socio-economic milieus. Growing up in a poor family is linked, in particular, to risks for young people, but their subjective well-being is also strongly influenced by the socio-economic background of the family. In addition, the political and societal participation of young people differs markedly in relation to the social background.

Education is a key social determinant for the future of young people. Participation and success in education are still decisively influenced by the social background of young people, i.e. the social status of the parents (above all their level of education). In particular, young people from disadvantaged social milieus (including a lot of young people from an immigration background) are confronted by markedly higher risks and problematic conditions in the area of education. An above-average proportion of them count among the group of those losing out in education, those who have to resit a class, and those who drop out of school, and achieve comparatively lower qualifications.

These deficits in the area of education also appear to continue for social participation and integration. In comparison to other groups, they show less willingness for societal or political commitment. They also show a far higher willingness to take risks, which identifies them as a problem group at risk from drugs, violence and criminal behaviour.
CHALLENGES

In conclusion, three points shall be outlined that have arisen throughout all of the topical sections as key elements in describing the life situation of young people in Luxembourg and which, at the same time, represent key challenges for society and politics:

a. The existence of unequal education opportunities, the consequences for those losing out in education, and the follow-up costs for society:

In view of the political objective of achieving equal opportunities for all young people, the existence of unequal education opportunities continues to be a key challenge that no democratic society can evade. It has substantial consequences for those losing out in education, with a considerable limitation of their freedom of action, their self-determination opportunities, and their chances of, firstly, achieving a better social position and a higher status, and, secondly, of consumption and of all-encompassing participation in society. Furthermore, the higher proportions of young people losing out in education create accordingly high follow-up costs for society: on the one hand, as a result of a lower gross domestic product; on the other hand, through higher social welfare benefits for the alleviation of poverty and the prevention of social exclusion.

b. The challenge of integrating young immigrants into the economy, the society and the democracy of the Grand Duchy:

In recent decades, the integration of immigrants in Luxembourg took place relatively straightforwardly through an economic integration into the labour market. Today, faced with the diversification of the immigrant groups, different expectations and outlooks among the second and third generations of immigrants, as well as the uncertain economic outlook, the issue of integration is of fundamental significance for Luxembourg society. This issue comprises not only social participation and the creation of common linguistic and cultural foundations, or the recognition of different cultural resources and traditions, but also the legal and political equalisation of immigrants, without which an active and sustainable democratic culture of shaping and taking responsibility for society together is inconceivable in the future.

c. The recognition and fostering of young people’s participation potentials:

The youth report has demonstrated in particular the considerable commitment of young people in Luxembourg in social, cultural, sports-related and socio-political contexts. On the one hand, this represents a major potential for the sustainable and dynamic development of society, but, on the other hand, it is also a major challenge because this commitment should be perceived more clearly, acknowledged and better harnessed for the development of society. Especially in an ethno-culturally heterogeneous society, participation in all areas of society is a promising strategy to generate solidarity, democratic awareness and social cohesion.
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National report on the situation of young people in Luxembourg, *Abridged Version*

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The present abridged version summarises the key findings of the full report “National report on the situation of young people in Luxembourg”.

The legal basis of the report is article 15(1) of the Youth Act of 4 July 2008, which stipulates that the minister responsible for youth policy present a report to the Chamber of Deputies every five years. The report consists of two parts: a scientific analysis and description of the situation of young people living in Luxembourg as prepared by the youth research centre CESJE (“Centre d'études sur la situation des jeunes”) of the research unit INSIDE (Integrative Research Unit: Social and Individual Development) at the University of Luxembourg and a government declaration outlining the future priorities of youth policy in Luxembourg. The full report therefore constitutes a scientific basis for the development of the Luxembourg government’s youth policy and for the introduction of youth-related measures.

The abridged version gives an overview of the key findings concerning the areas of education, employment, integration, poverty, well-being and participation, and describes the prospects and challenges arising from the results of the full report. The present abridged version is aimed at all readers interested in a concise overview of the current situation of young people in Luxembourg.

La présente version abrégée constitue un résumé des principaux résultats du rapport consolidé « Rapport national sur la situation de la jeunesse au Luxembourg ».

Ce rapport trouve sa base légale dans l'article 15 (1) de la loi sur la jeunesse du 4 juillet 2008, selon lequel le ministre ayant dans ses attributions la jeunesse adresse tous les cinq ans un rapport à la Chambre des Députés. Le rapport est composé de deux parties: une vue scientifique sur la situation des jeunes vivant au Luxembourg réalisée par le CESJE (Centre d'études sur la situation des jeunes) de l'unité de recherche INSIDE (Integrative Research Unit: Social and Individual Development) auprès de l'Université du Luxembourg et un avis du gouvernement y relatif, définissant les priorités futures de la politique de la jeunesse luxembourgeoise. Cette publication constitue ainsi une base scientifique pour la politique de la jeunesse du gouvernement luxembourgeois et les mesures à mettre en place en faveur des jeunes.

La version abrégée donne un aperçu général des principaux résultats concernant les sujets de l’éducation, de l’emploi, de l'intégration, de la pauvreté, du bien-être et de la participation et décrit les perspectives et les défis qui découlent de l'étude globale. La présente version abrégée s’adresse à tous les lecteurs qui sont intéressés par un aperçu succinct sur la situation actuelle de la jeunesse au Luxembourg.