
Cooperation for European citizenship among young people

Desk research



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Preface

This publication includes the youth desk research of 8 EU cities - Satu Mare, Valencia, Rome, Nicosia, Rogaska Slatina, Czestochowa, Siauliai, Nyíregyháza – in the following categories:

1. Demography
2. Migration
3. Labour Market
4. Culture
5. Public life
6. EU Citizenship

From each area, we have tried to present the most data possible.

Out of demographic indicators we can get to know, what is the city's age composition, the size of each household, comparing all these to national and EU data.

At migration, we can get a picture about the migration willingness and intention which is very important data on the basis of today's events.

In the case of the labour market, we can read about employment, labour market situation, those helping in job placement, the chances of job placement and about the chances of change, among other data.

In the case of culture, we write about the characteristics of Internet usage, about Internet usage habits, physical activity, cultural activities, cultural habits and finally, about a leisure time scale.

In public life, we studied electoral willingness and activity on social media sites, among others.

In the EU citizenship section we can get to know, what the EU means to young people, as well as what kind of problems young people see in the EU and in Hungary.

Our publication is meant to facilitate the work of youth professionals and youth workers dealing with young people.

In our network project, the main goal is to make young people become active European citizens; it is especially highlighted in a situation when young people turn away from Europe, become sceptical just because they have no information about what potential exist in Europe. The project offers young

people an alternative to do for themselves and for their environment by staying on site. In the program, we are looking for the answers to such questions which interest young people and also which affect them: unemployment, inactivity, cultural habits, etc. Our goal is to get more young people involved and make them active. In the second half of this project, the youth research was completed with the help of two excellent researchers; the youth research of 7 cities was carried out by Anna Fazekas, while the youth research of the city of Rome was carried out by Dott. Roberto Aceti.

Our volume involves the results, to which I wish a good studying and reading.

Gábor Dombóvári

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Nyíregyháza



The situation of young people in Nyíregyháza and in Hungary

The situation of youth in the region of Nyíregyháza is presented primarily with the help of the county data of the latest (2012) youth research in Hungary carried out in every four years (examining the age group of 15-29). The reason is that over the last 10 years, there has been no comprehensive youth research in Nyíregyháza. However, some thematic, local studies and the results of two local focus groups have been used. National and regional background information is provided by the data of the Central Bureau of Statistics, while international comparisons are based on Eurostat and Eurobarometer studies.

I. Demographics

Nyíregyháza is one of the big cities of the Northern Great Plains; the county town of Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg County; its total population is 119 thousand people (CSO 2011). Hungary's population is 9877 million people (CSO 2014). A year earlier, the population decline per year was over 30 thousand people. In 2013, the actual rate of decline was 31 thousand people. In Hungary, similar to the EU average, the women are in majority compared to the male population (Eurostat, 2013). There are 110 women for 100 men; at EU level, the difference between the ratios of the two sexes is slightly less; an average of 105 women for 100 men. In Nyíregyháza, this difference is even more heightened: there are 116 women for 100 men (CSO 2011). The most balanced sex ratios characterize mainly young people; over 40 years of age, the difference grows continuously.

Age groups composition shows that the aging processes in Hungary outweigh throughout the EU (Eurostat, 2013). In Hungary, there are 12 elderly for 10 young people; considering the average of the EU's 28 Member States, there are 11 elderly for 10 young people. On EU average, dependency rate is 52%, in Hungary 45%. With respect age composition, there is not marked difference neither in the EU, nor in the Hungarian comparison (Table 1). In Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg County, aging tendencies are less perceptible (CSO 2014). The aging index is only 87, i.e. child population is higher than the rate of elderly population. This is also supported by the dependency ratio, which is around the national average, 44%.

Table 1: Age group composition in the European Union, Hungary, Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg County and in Nyíregyháza (in percentage)

	EU28	Hungary	Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg County	Nyíregyháza
Under 14 years	16	14	17	15
15-24 years	11	12	13	14
25-49 years	35	36	35	36
50-64 years	20	21	21	21
65-79 years	13	13	11	11
Over 80 years	5	4	3	3
	Eurostat 2013	CSO 2011		

One-fifth (21%) of the population of Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg County live in the county seat, one-third (33%) is in another city, while nearly half (46%) of it live in villages (CSO 2011). As regards age group, we can find almost the same proportions by examining the certain settlement types (Table 2). There is not sharp difference between the age structure of the county seat and that of the villages. 29% of the population of Nyíregyháza is made up of those under the age of 24 years; 57% is made up of those between the ages of 25-64, i.e. the active age group and elderly people make up its 14%.

Table 2: Age-group composition by type of settlement, Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg County (in percentages)¹

	Nyíregyháza	Other city	Township
Under 14 years	15	17	19
15-24 years	14	13	13
25-49 years	36	36	34

¹ Source: CSO (2011)

50-64 years	21	21	20
65-79 years	11	10	11
Over 80 years	3	3	4

According to the report of CSO in 2013, Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg County's population continued to decline; there were 6500 deaths per 5600 live births. The overall birth rate has improved, mortality decreased, so the rate of natural decreases is slower than the national average. The number of marriages declined steadily since 2002, and since 2010, slow growth has started in this regard. In 2013, 1870 marriages were made, at the same time, there were 1020 divorces in the county (CSO 2014).

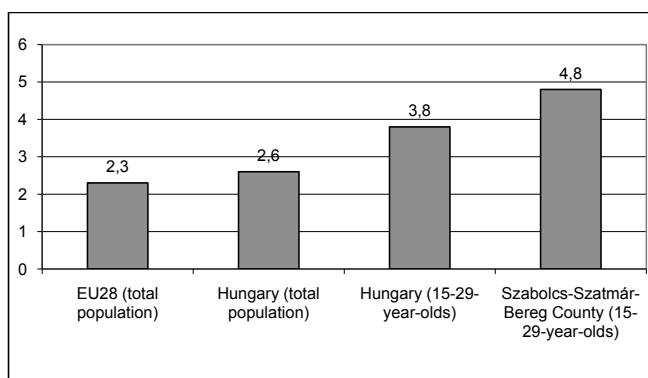
According to the data of Magyar Ifjúság (Hungarian Youth) 2012, the vast majority of the 15-29 age group is unmarried (89%); only the tenth of them is already married. According to the statistics of the CSO (2014), the postponement of the date of family start and stable relationships is indicated by the fact that by looking at the population of 15 years or older, the proportion of married people is four times higher (43%). A quarter of this age group (23%) has previously been married, and currently is a widow or divorced.

The national fertility rate in 2013 was 1.34, which was below the EU average, where all of the 28 Member States are the same 1.58 (Eurostat, 2013). The arrival of the first child, inter alia, due to the global phenomenon of post-adolescence, can be put in the second half of the twenties of young people. In the Union, the start of having children can be put at the age of 30, in Hungary, at the age of 29. 15% of 15-29 year olds already have a child, and in majority, they undertook 1-2 children (Magyar Ifjúság 2012). In the Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg region, however, starting families is more frequent among young people: 70% of them have no children yet, and the average number of children is also higher (2.4). Currently, only a fifth of childless young people are planning to have children in the near future. Overall, young people today are thinking in families with 1-2 children, nationally and in the region of Szabolcs as well.

As regards the size of household of young people living in Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg County, we can experience deviation from the national and the EU average (Figure 1). The families of young people consist an average of 3.8 people nationwide, of which only half of them has employment status

(Magyar Ifjúság 2012). This means that for each earner there are 2 inactive people per family. In Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg County this ratio is even higher. The average family size is close to 5 persons, of whom only every third person has some kind of employment activity.

Figure 1: Household size in the European Union, Hungary, Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg County (in person)²



The explanation of the average family size of the young generation is partly the phenomenon of post-adolescence, according to that the current younger generation can be independent (existentially) from their parents much later (in the second half of their twenties, in their early thirties), than a few decades ago (all these confirmed by the experience of focus groups). 73% of Hungarian young people live with their parents; only 14% of them can sustain their own households (Magyar Ifjúság 2012).

In Szabolcs County, we can encounter similar rates: 68% of young people live in the same household with their parents; only 15% of them have their own flats or houses. Financial independence similarly affects fewer people; the ratio of those living on separate incomes is nationally 18%, in Szabolcs County, it is 12%.

² Source: CSO (2011).

Source: Eurostat (2013); Magyar Ifjúság 2012.

II. Migration

In Hungary in 2013, the rate of internal migration was over 450 thousand people (CSO, 2014). Out of this, 192 thousand people left their residence finally; the move was mainly directed towards the capital and rather the village residents left their former settlements. Since 2007, we can experience steady decline in the numbers of the domestic permanent migration; then, the highest rate measured from 1990 was 255 thousand people on an annual level. The number of those moving temporarily shows an increase since 2010; in 2012, more than 286 thousand people left their former place of residence temporarily and moved to another town in Hungary. According to the latest data in 2013, 262 thousand people were temporary domestic migrants. As a result, the population of the capital has increased; the decline can be experienced especially in the number of population of the townships.

According to the CSO data, in 2014, 140 thousand foreign citizens were staying in Hungary. The majority of them (72%, i.e. 101 thousand people) came from Europe, mostly Romanian or German citizens, but Slovaks also arrived in a significant number. In Asia there are also significant emitting countries; nearly 29 thousand migrants arrived from this continent to Hungary, mainly Chinese. In addition, migrants arrive from America, mainly from the USA, but also from Africa. According to the immigration data measured since 1995, the proportion of foreign migrants in Hungary was the highest in 2011 (207 thousand people). Most of them were Romanian, German, Serbian and Ukrainian citizen.

In 2013, nearly 19 thousand asylum seekers were registered in Hungary; and almost all of them entered into the country as a result of illegal border crossing (CSO 2014). Most of them were Kosovo, Pakistani, Afghan, Algerian and Syrian citizens. In the previous years, only a fraction of refugees arrived in Hungary: in 2012 only 2100; in 2011, 1700 people. The international migration balance to a thousand people is 0.7, while in the European Union, it is 3.3.

According to the 2011 census, in Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg County, 42 thousand people belonging to ethnic minorities were registered: this is 8 percent of the country's population (CSO, 2011). Of these, the largest group is made up of the Roma population, nearly 90 percent of the total national population they provide. 15 per cent of the population of Nyíregyháza (18 thousand

people) belong to an ethnic minority. Within this, the largest group is made up of Roma people; however, the proportion of Ukrainian, German, Romanian, Slovak, as well as Russian nationalities is still significant. The significant minority role of Roma people is not negligible; in their case, the combined effect of poverty, health conditions and discrimination prevails (Fónai et al., 2007).

The results of Eurobarometer (2014a) show that in the EU, the citizens basically evaluate positively (52% of them) the immigrants from the member states. However, against those arriving from outside the EU, there is a higher degree of negative feelings (57%). In Hungary, both the immigrants arriving from the EU (49%) and those arriving from outside the EU (67%) are hosted with rather negative feelings. The antipathy towards other nationalities characteristic of one part of Hungarians is supported by the data of the Hungarian youth research (Table 3). More than half of 15-29-year-old Hungarian youth prefer making contact with Hungarians than with those belonging to other nations (Magyar Ifjúság 2012). However, more than the third of them agrees on the view that Hungarians should not mix with other nations. Nearly the same percentage believes that in Hungary only Hungarians should live. In Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg County we can meet to a similar extent as the national rates with such discrimination and xenophobia.

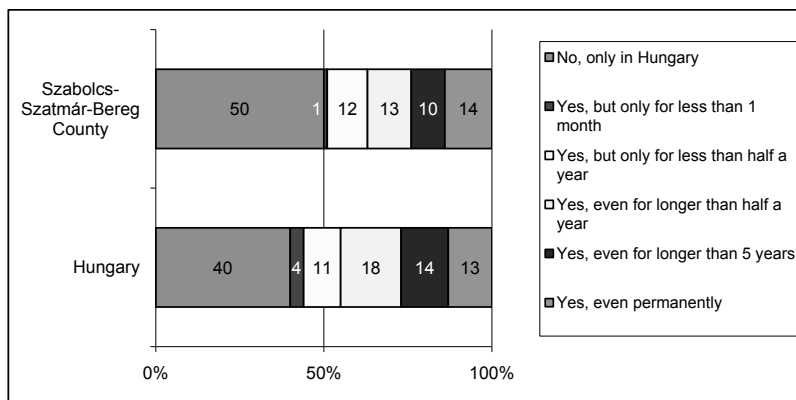
Table 3: Openness towards nationalities among Hungarian youth and youth of Szabolcs Szatmár Bereg County (the proportion of those who agreed with the statement; percentage proportion)³

	Hungary	Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg County
It would be better if non-Hungarians moved from Hungary.	38	37
The Hungarians should not mix with others.	37	40
In general, I prefer making contact with Hungarians than with people coming from other countries.	52	56

³ Source: Magyar Ifjúság 2012

40 % of Hungarian youth consider it to be unimaginable to leave his/her home because of work or studies (Magyar Ifjúság 2012). At the same time, for a prolonged period, for at least five years, 27% of the age group would move to another country if it were an option (Figure 2). In the Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg region, half of the young people believe that they can only imagine their future in Hungary. In parallel, the ratio of those possibly moving abroad for a longer period is lower in this county. 24% of them would leave the country for a period of at least five years, if it were possible to do so. Based on the focus groups, this is partly due to the better living conditions, partly the local hopelessness.

Figure 2: Migration willingness among Hungarian youth and the youth of Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg County (“If you had the opportunity to study or work abroad, would you be willing to leave the country for a longer or shorter period?”; percentage distribution)⁴



The vast majority of those with migration potential are actually planning to emigrate. One tenth of them would leave Hungary because of studying; two third of them because of working (Table 4). It seems that existential aspects have a dominant weight not only among those having specific migration plans but in terms of the age group as a whole. Two-thirds of 15-29 year-olds would emigrate because of subsistence reasons. In Szabolcs County, although the

⁴ Source: Magyar Ifjúság 2012

migration propensity is slightly lower than the national average - as has been seen before - the ratio of those planning actual emigration is higher. Nearly 90% of them are actually planning to leave the country because of the continuation of studies or work. To the latter, three quarter of those with migration intentions can see a great chance. As for the reasons of emigration intentions and decision, mainly livelihood problems were mentioned.

Table 4: Migration intention among Hungarian youth and the youth of Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg County (percentage distribution)⁵

	Hungary	Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg County
Planning to study abroad in the future	11	13
Planning to take a job abroad in the future	63	74
Willing to leave the country in hope of better living	66	73
Probably in the near future is moving to another town	19	27
Probably in the near future is moving to another country	21	18
Would move finally from their own towns	23	32
Would never move finally from their own towns	38	34

Based on the morals of the focus groups, however, only a few can see any chance for specific migration in the near future. Moving to another town is held probable by one fifth of the country's youth; just as migration abroad within a few years is held probable by only one-fifth of them. In Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg County, one-fifth of the youth generation moves abroad summing up the happenings of the near future. However, more people move

⁵ Source: Magyar Ifjúság 2012.

to another Hungarian township than the national average according to plan. Three young people from Szabolcs County out of ten will probably leave their residence in a few years because of moving to another township. Final migration from the current place of residence is made probable by a quarter of Hungarian youngsters, while by one-third of young people from Szabolcs County. However, nearly 40% of Hungarian young people, while one-third of young people from Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg County are completely averse from all forms of migration.

III. Labour market

According to Eurostat 2013 data, 68% of the European Union's working-age population (25-64-year-olds) is employed; among men this proportion is higher than among women (Table 5). In terms of employment, Hungary remains 5% below the EU average and men are also in a better position in this respect. Atypical forms of employment such as part-time jobs and fixed-term contracts are less common in Hungary. While the latter is owned by an average of 14% of the working population in the EU countries, in Hungary, this ratio is 11%. Part-time employment is nearly three times more common in the EU as a whole as among Hungarian employees. However, employment is strongly dependent on education. In the Union, there are one and a half times more graduate employees than employees with the lowest level of education.⁶ In Hungary, the role of education in this respect is even stronger: someone who is a graduate twice as likely to get a job as someone who is not graduated from high school, and wants to find a job. Comparison of the median gross hour wages recorded in the EU member states shows that in Hungary this amount (2,65 EUR, 3,44 PPS) occurs similarly to Slovak, Latvian and Lithuanian wages (Eurostat, 2010). Hungary is essentially ranked among the low-income countries, whether the actual wages or the purchasing power is taken as the basis.

⁶ The qualification levels are determined based on the International Standard Classification of Education. The level 0-2 belongs to this, which covers from pre-school education to the lower level of secondary education; in the second category, there is the level 3-4, which includes higher levels of secondary education and the post-secondary (non-tertiary) education and finally level 5-6, fall into a category into which the first and second levels of higher education graduates can be classified.

Table 5: Labour Market Situation in the EU and in Hungary (percentage distribution)⁷

	EU28	Hungary
Ratio of the employed	68	63
Ratio of the employed among men	74	70
Ratio of the employed among women	63	64
Proportion of part-time contracts	20	7
Proportion of fixed-term employment contracts	14	11
Ratio of employed among low-skilled people	51	38
Proportion of employed among those with secondary education	69	65
Proportion of employed among graduates	82	79
Proportion of unemployed in the 15-24 age group	24	27
Proportion of unemployed in the 25-74 age group	10	10
Proportion of unemployed among the low-skilled	18	22
Proportion of unemployed among those with secondary education	9	9
Proportion of unemployed among graduates	6	4
The proportion of employees living under the poverty line	9	7
Poverty rate	17	14
Poverty rate among families with at least three children	27	34

⁷ Source: Eurostat (2013).

Poverty rate among single-parent households	32	34
Poverty rate among single households	25	14
Poverty rate among one-person households over 65 years	21	6
Poverty rate among the low-skilled	24	27
Poverty rate among those with secondary education	15	10
Poverty rate among graduates	8	2

Unemployment affects the age group from 15 to 25 years the most severely. At the EU level, one quarter of the young age group is fighting with unemployment and this proportion is similar in Hungary (Eurostat, 2013). Among the population of 25-74 years, unemployment rate is much lower; at EU and Hungarian standards, it was around 10% in 2013. As in connection with employment, we could see the relevant role of education, so this factor is understandably unavoidable in the case of unemployment as well. Those with higher educational degree are threatened by unemployment in a lower degree. Examining the unemployment rates among the groups with certain qualifications, in Hungary we can note greater degrees of differences in opportunities than the EU average.

The poverty rate in the EU is 17%, in Hungary, it is 14% (Eurostat, 2013). However, employment is not a guarantee of material well-being. Viewing the Union's 28 Member States, the tenth of the labour market's active participants live below the poverty line. In Hungary, almost the same rate can be recorded, at the same time; we have to mention that there is no difference between the comparisons of the two sexes. Poverty mainly affects the large or single-parent families, furthermore the single and elderly (single occupancy) households. In Hungary, the single-parent families and the families with more children are the most vulnerable; they make up the 70% of those living below the poverty line. Obtaining higher degree of education can mean the outbreak from deprivation and from financial problems, as among those with secondary and tertiary education, the rate of those living in poverty is much lower.

The regional data of Magyar Ifjúság 2012 summarize the hard labour market situation of the young people of Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg County (Table 6). More than half of the 15-29 year-old young people of Szatmár have already had paid workplace, by the age of 19 at the first time on average. However, the duration of employment longer than 3 months characterizes much less people, and can be placed to later; they received such opportunities after 20 years of age. However, it should be added that in their cases, it had been preceded by a prolonged period of unemployment. On average, they were waiting more than 11 months after the school years to find a job. According to this, finding a job in this region is difficult, as this period was much less nationally, nearly the half of it (6 months on average). The vast majority of young people of Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg County work as an employee, as the majority of young people in Hungary as well. A small minority of them lives from odd jobs; among them, self-activity does not seem to be common. Compared to national data, the physical circles of activities are dominant; in the Szabolcs region it is even truer. A quarter of young people in Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg County has intellectual kind of occupation but the number of youth in senior position is insignificant.

Table 6: The labour market situation of young people between the ages of 15-29-year-olds in Hungary and in Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg County (percentage distribution)⁸

	Hungary	Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg County
The proportion of people with paid work	60	55
The proportion of people having ideal jobs	6	5
The proportion of employees with part-time employment contracts	63	46
The proportion of employees with fixed-term employment contracts	24	46

⁸ Source: Magyar Ifjúság 2012.

The proportion of employees with agency contract	9	4
The proportion of employees issuing an invoice	1	0
The proportion of undeclared employees	4	4
Proportion of self-employed workers and owners	4	3
Proportion of farmer workers	1	2
Proportion of employees	90	82
Proportion of casual workers	3	7
Proportion of manual workers	66	75
Proportion of white collar workers	32	24
Proportion of those in senior position	2	1
Proportion of part-time employees	15	14
The proportion of employees working in their places of residence	58	60
The proportion of employees working not in their places of residence but in Hungary	39	39
Proportion of those working abroad	3	1
Proportion of those commuting daily due to their workplaces	84	79
Proportion of those commuting weekly due to their workplaces	6	2
Proportion of those commuting in every two weeks or rarely due to their workplaces	10	19
The proportion of those who have been unemployed	27	43

It is interesting figures that while in Hungary, working contracts for an indefinite term dominate among young people; among young people living

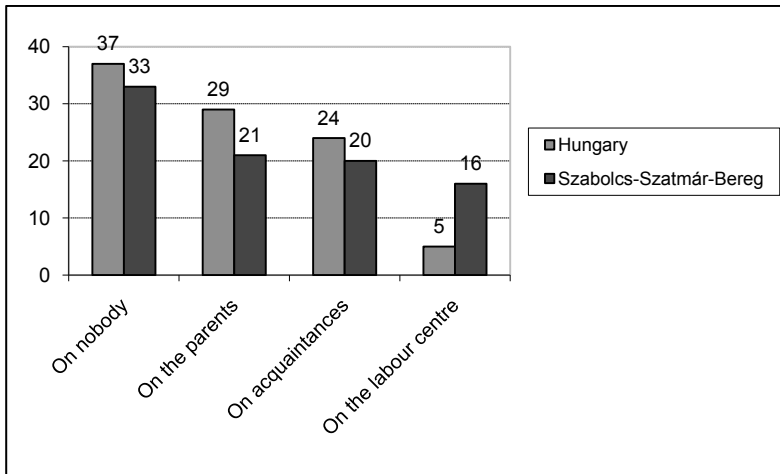
in Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg County, the proportion of those with fixed-term contracts and those with indefinite-term contracts is the same (Table 6). However, the part-time employment in this age group and in this region is characterized by small numbers, which data reflect the specificities of the employment of recent graduates.

The harder welfare of young people in Szabolcs County is indicated by the fact that the average salary (70 thousand HUF) is well below the national average (89 thousand HUF). A young person from Szabolcs County earns at least 20 thousand forints less compared to the national average wage. Most of them work in their residence but a significant group of them got a job far away from it, thereby has to commute (Table 6). Among them, the number of daily commuters is the greatest; eight people out of ten commute daily due to their work.

Only a few percent of currently employed young people feels that they have ideal jobs (Table 6). Those who do not feel so are rather more hopeful (3.4⁹), they hope that they will find the suitable workplace. According to the data of Magyar Ifjúság 2012, the selection criteria of job choice are determined by good salary and stable job, however, good working conditions also have a strong aspect in this regard. To find a job, Hungarian young people receive the greatest help from themselves; they cannot count on anyone's help, this is also true in the area of Szabolcs (Figure 3). Based on the lessons learned from the focus, the parents and acquaintances could provide relevant help, what is more, in Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg County; the labour centre also plays an important role in job placement.

9 The respondents can evaluate on a five-grade attitude scale, to what extent they trust in the possibility that they will have a workplace approaching to the ideal: 1= certainly not, 5= certainly yes.

Figure 3: People providing assistance in finding a job (“When last time you managed to find a job at your recent/current place of work, who you received the greatest assistance from?”; percentage distribution)¹⁰



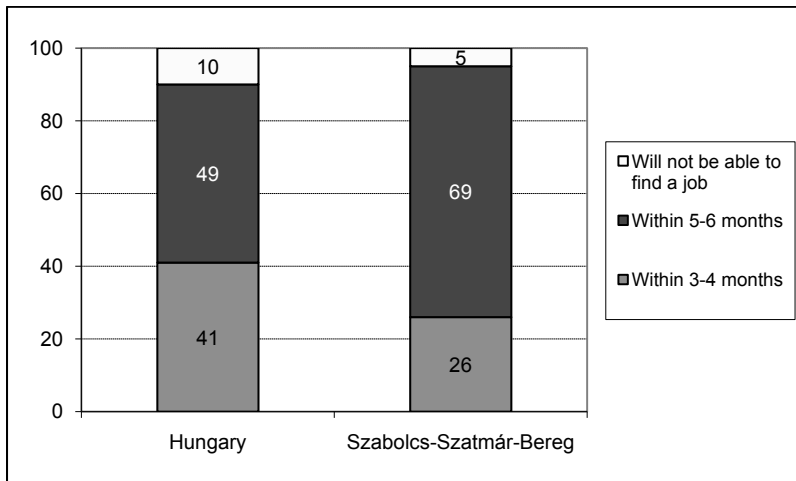
The results of the latest youth research in Hungary shows that those young people who haven't had long-term jobs before, they put the acquisition of these after the age of 23 (Magyar Ifjúság 2012). Furthermore, every second young person hopes that after graduation it will happen within a few months (the national rate is 60%). However, it suggests a kind of scepticism that young people in Szabolcs County (1.6¹¹) give a small reality- even lower than the national average (2.1) - to the possibility of finding a job in the place of residence. Unemployment in the region of Szabolcs severely affects the young generation. Here, the percentage of those who have been unemployed for longer or shorter periods is 16% higher than the national average (Table 6). In addition, young people in Szabolcs County were unemployed with an average of two months longer (11 months on average) than the Hungarian youth overall (9 months on average). Among the unemployed youth of Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg County, pessimism is stronger than the national results

¹⁰ Source: Magyar Ifjúság 2012.

¹¹ The respondents can evaluate on a five-grade attitude scale, what their employment chances are in their own settlement/towns: 1 = very unfavourable; 5 = very favourable.

(Figure 4). The majority of them take into account at least five months of unemployment period until the next employment, and compared to the national data, the number of young people in hope for more rapid job procurement is less.

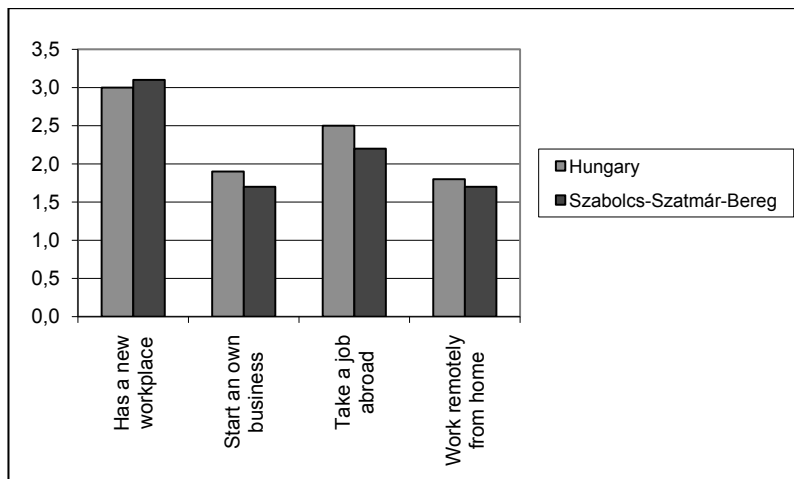
Figure 4: Opportunities of finding a job (“Within how much time do you think you will find a job?”)¹²



After drawing up the hard labour marker situation of the region’s young people it is perhaps not surprising that young people here see little chance to start their own business, at the same time, the change of workplace does not seem to be realistic in the near future either (Figure 5). However, young people in Szabolcs are more likely to expect the latter. Telework, as a form of atypical employment, does not seem to be implemented either, as working abroad is hardly imaginable for them as well.

¹² Source: Magyar Ifjúság 2012.

Figure 5: The chances for labour market situation changes (“How much do you think it is likely that the following statements will be true about you in a few years?”; 1= not at all, 5= fully considers likely)¹³



According to the report of CSO created in the last quarter of, 48% of the working-age population of Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg County was present at the labour market as employed, while the ratio of unemployed was around 14%. However, compared to the previous periods, both data shows an improvement, the overall unemployment is higher than the national average, while employment remained below it. The average monthly net income of full-time employees (110 thousand HUF), is only 73% of the national average. A significant difference can be viewed as regards the pay gap of blue-collar and white-collar workers: on average, a white-collar worker earns nearly twice (151 thousand HUF) as a blue-collar worker (84 thousand HUF) does. In addition, the wage disparities experienced in the competitive and public sector are significant as well; the former earn about one-third more than the ones working in the budget.

Half of the registered Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg County job seekers (45 thousand people) is unemployed for 6 months; a further one third is more than a

¹³ Source: Magyar Ifjúság 2012.

year unemployed (CSO, 2013). Most of them have primary school education but many of them are skilled workers or high school graduates, however the number of graduate job seekers is insignificant. The CSO report shows that the entrants under the age of 25 make up a quarter of unemployed people; their ratio shows a decrease. The number of vacancies was nearly tripled compared to the previous year's data, while the number of applicants for the certain positions declined. The improvement in the labour market situation is also due to the measures promoting employment and to public employment.

IV. Culture

International studies support that regular sport and diverse cultural consumption characterizes a smaller number of groups (Eurobarometer, 2013a¹⁴, 2013b, 2014b). Meanwhile, use of the Internet is increasingly integrated into the everyday life and the various activities carried out there often cover all the free time. It becomes the space for not only everyday communication but for keeping contact (often substituting) personal encounters, information gathering, shopping and business activities.

The vast majority of the population within the EU has Internet access at home according to the Eurostat (2014) data (Table 7). The proportion of households with broadband Internet is just shortly below. The proportion of frequent Internet users (nearly every day) within Internet users is very high, while throughout the entire European Union, every fifth person does not use Internet either at home, at the workplace or in any other places.

14 Compared to the data of the 2007 Eurobarometer survey with similar tematics, we can record neative trend sin almost every element of cultural consumption.

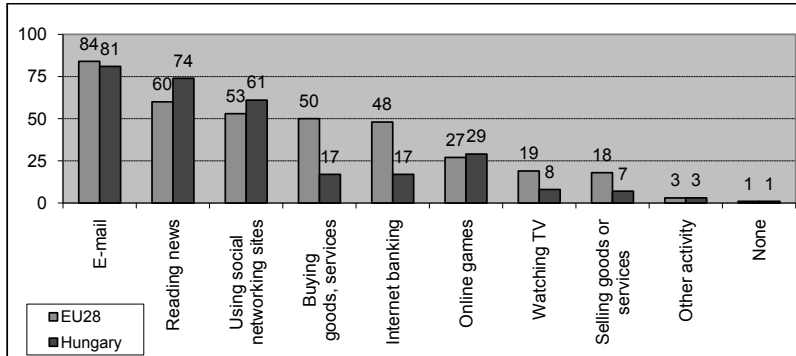
Table 7: Characteristics of Internet users in the European Union and in Hungary (16-74-year-olds; percentage distribution)¹⁵

	EU28	Hungary
The proportion of households with home Internet access	81	75
From this, the proportion of households with broadband Internet access	78	74
Proportion of frequent (almost every day) Internet users	65	66
Proportion of frequent (at least weekly) Internet users	75	75
The proportion of those not using the Internet at all	18	22

According to a 2013 Eurobarometer (2013b) report, within the EU, the most people use the Internet for e-mailing; reading news, social networking, as well as they use the web at banking and shopping transactions (Figure 6). For Hungary, the emails and the news also occupy a central place, such as keeping contact. In fact, it seems that for Hungarians to obtain information, the web has a prominent role in a European comparison as well. While instead of the banking and online shopping activities widespread in the Union, online games are given a more prominent role.

¹⁵ Source: Eurostat (2014).

Figure 6: Internet usage patterns (“Which of the following activities do you carry out online?”; percentage distribution)¹⁶



Other features of free time show less outstanding activity (Eurobarometer, 2014b), all of these is reinforced by the focus group discussions. Although the proportion of those doing sport actively is the double in Hungary than in the Union as a whole, yet as many are those among Hungarians and EU citizens who are not engaged in any sports (Table 8). Other physical activities are performed by somewhat more people but the group of those performing regular exercises is still small-scale. Such passivity is especially more common among those over 55, among women and among those with inactive status. The motivation of those doing sports regularly is provided by being fit, healthy lifestyle and the desire for relaxation. While on the other hand, the lack of time and low level of motivation rise as objections.

¹⁶ Source: Eurobarometer (2013b).

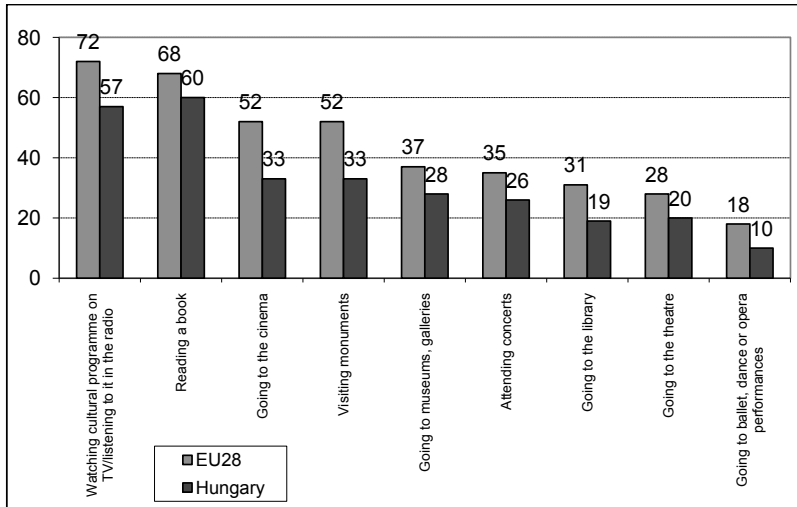
Table 8: Physical activity in the European Union and Hungary (percentage)¹⁷

	EU28	Hungary
The proportion of those doing sports regularly	8	15
The proportion of those not doing sports at all	42	44
The proportion of those regularly carrying out other physical recreation	15	21
The proportion of those not carrying out other physical recreation at all	30	28

In the field of cultural consumption, significant differences can be diagnosed in the comparison of Hungarian and European Union data (Eurobarometer, 2013a). In Hungary, not only the exercise of certain cultural activities and the visiting of certain cultural places lag behind the EU average but overall the proportion of those characterized by low cultural consumption is also higher. On average, the ratio of those choosing activities offering cultural relaxation is by 10-20 percentage points lower among Hungarian population than as a whole for the EU (Figure 7). As a result, it is not surprising that according to the Eurobarometer typology, those with low cultural consumption are in majority in Hungary (54%), more than one and a half times more than in the EU as a whole (34%). While the ratio of those who are active, counting as a high proportion consumer in the field of cultural activities is half compared to the EU average (18%), (in Hungary, 7%). Low level of consumption is especially common among those over 40, those with low education and those with financial problems. However, as a reason, not the high prices appear as a primary concern but the lack of time and interest is formulated.

¹⁷ Source: Eurobarometer (2014b).

Figure 7: The exercise of cultural activities (The proportion of those who carried out the activity at least once in the last 12 months, percentage distribution)¹⁸



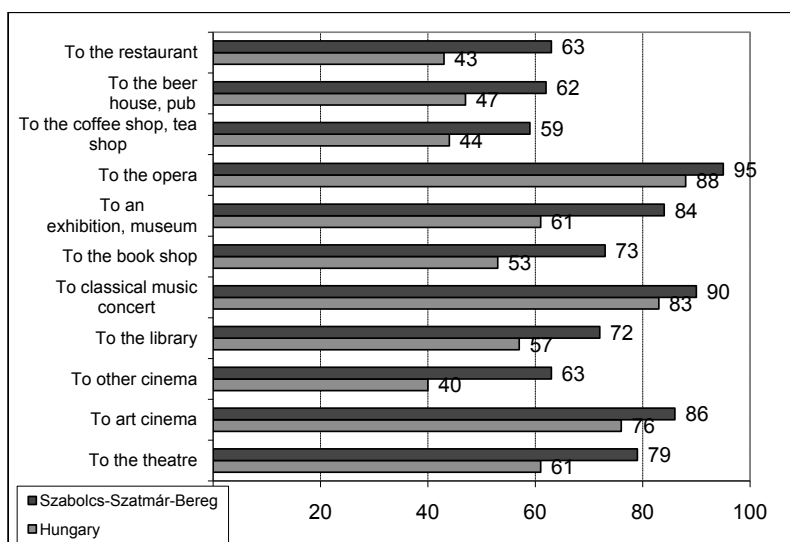
The communities and organizations related to free time do not prove to be attractive either among Hungarian young people (Eurobarometer, 2011). On organized events related to sport, cultural activities and programs for youth, only 32 percent of Hungarian young people participated; within the EU, this figure is one and a half times higher (46 percent). Creative cultural activity, either independently or as a part of an organization, was carried out by only one-fifth of Hungarians (21%); the EU average is twice higher (38%). In this regard, young people seem to be more active while the older generations tend to be more inactive (Eurobarometer, 2013a).

The results of Magyar Ifjúság 2012 show that viewing the cultural consumption of 15-29-year-old young people of Szabolcs County, a further downward participation (lower than the national average) can be identified. Compared to the cultural consumption habits of Hungarian youth, the activity in Szabolcs is 10-20-25 percent lower (Figure 8). In particular, only a few can reach the

¹⁸ Source: Eurobarometer (2013a).

spaces of high culture; the visits of the artist cinemas, exhibitions, concerts and operas is the privilege of only a fraction of young people in Szabolcs County. At the same time, to the cinema, and at the restaurant, more than one and a half times fewer young people from Szabolcs attended in one year on, as it can be measured nationally. Simultaneously, it is understandable that locations of entertainment beyond home are less visited (Szabó-Nagy, 2015). The majority of young people in the county spend their free time at home (87 percent), at the weekend as well (83 percent). However, at some of them, the time spent at friends and relatives is also relevant; the former is less, the latter is more meaningful compared to the national average.

Figure 8: Cultural consumption (Proportion of those who did not visit at all the cultural spaces in the year preceding the survey, percentage distribution)¹⁹



The range of leisure-time activities is relatively narrow (Szabó-Nagy, 2015). Television is the most popular form of entertainment (chosen by 45 percent on weekdays, 49 percent at the weekends); the Internet offers alternatives

¹⁹ Source: Magyar Ifjúság 2012.

to less compared to the national data. It can also be seen that the time spent with playing sports, reading and with friends is less popular among young people from Szabolcs. Regular sport, apart from this, is part of the lives of every third Hungarian young person (36%) and every third young people from Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg County (32%) (Magyar Ifjúság 2012). Most of them have chosen such form of recreation because of being fit, healthy lifestyle and well-being. The majority of young people in this county also have a stable group of friends, meeting regularly but among the specific activities we could see that the free time spent with them is less typical. At the same time, the results of a survey examining social relationships in Nyíregyháza summarize the strong relationship situation of young people (Husztai, 2009). The opportunities offered by social relationships can be exploited especially by young people, the well-of and the educated the most; they are considered to be really relationship-strong.

The research data of Magyar Ifjúság 2012 gave opportunities to time use studies and to the control of focus group discussions, which support those described previously: television plays an important role in the lives of young people in Szabolcs County. On weekdays, they spend an average of two and a half hours, at the weekend, more than five hours in front of the television, while an average of half-one hour remains to reading (Table 9). The amount of cultural capital is indicated by the number of books found in the family (an average of 95 pieces). This is almost the half of the national average among young people from Szabolcs (an average of 175 pieces). This can explain partly the lower role of reading among the free time preferences of young people from Szabolcs. In addition to the television, the importance of music is outstanding as well; on weekdays, young people from Szabolcs spend one and a half hours, while at the weekend, nearly three hours with listening to music. The time spent in front of the computer is not negligible either (on weekdays, one and a half hours, at the weekend nearly three hours) but about 10 percentage points less than the national average. This may be due to the fact that only the half of the age group (56 percent) has home Internet access.

Table 9: Leisure time scales (Time spent on the activities on weekdays and at the weekend; in minutes)²⁰

		Hungary	Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg
Reading books	On weekdays	36	27
	At the weekend	55	40
Reading newspapers	On weekdays	17	14
	At the weekend	21	16
Watching TV	On weekdays	120	162
	At the weekend	210	316
Watching DVD/film	On weekdays	32	29
	At the weekend	69	59
Using the Internet	On weekdays	112	99
	At the weekend	187	171
Listening to the radio	On weekdays	59	47
	At the weekend	67	60
Listening to music	On weekdays	94	103
	At the weekend	128	175

The slightly smaller role of using the Internet is also supported by the proportion of young people registered at community sites (Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg: 61 percent; Hungary: 71 percent). It is interesting, however, that while fewer people were registered than the national average, the majority of the members of the most popular social networking site (Facebook) is a daily visitor (63

²⁰ Source: Magyar Ifjúság 2012.

per cent nationally, Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg County, 69 percent). In addition, the number of friends collected on the social networking site (555 people) is nearly one and a half times more than the national average (390 people), at the same time, the proportion of active communication partners among them is only 10 percent. The time spent on social networking sites is mainly devoted to cultivating relationships: they mostly visit these sites due to the communication with friends and family members and making new acquaintances.

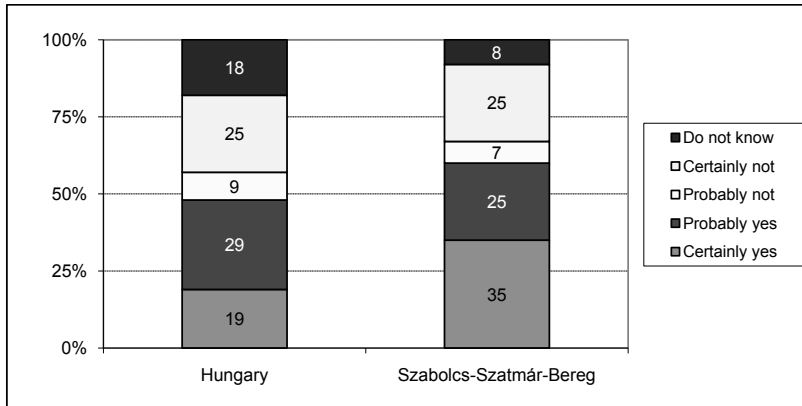
V. Public life

The 2013 youth Eurobarometer (2013c) shows that the majority (56%) of 15 to 30-year-olds living in the Union (56%) participated in the last national elections. Only one-fifth (21%) of them did not vote, another quarter (25%) were not eligible to vote because of the age. Compared to this, young people in Hungary are more passive; only 39% of them participated in the elections. 35 percent of young people in Hungary did not go out to vote, and another quarter did not vote because they have not reached the age of 18.

The data reveals the distance from political life and the political elite, according to which the vast majority of Hungarian young people (90%) refuses to start as a candidate in elections (Eurobarometer, 2013c). The proportion of those young people considering this statement to be clearly false is 76%. Within the EU, the rejection is lower: only 79 per cent of the age group said that they would not start as a candidate in elections. In their case, the rate of those sure to reject is 49 per cent.

According to the results of Magyar Ifjúság 2012, among young people from Szabolcs, there is a higher propensity to vote than as we experience among Hungarian young people (Figure 9). A third of them would definitely go to vote in the next election, a further quarter of them would probably do so. Nationally, only a fifth of young people would definitely vote; nearly one-third is uncertain but considers participation to be more likely.

Figure 9: Young people's willingness to vote in Hungary and in Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg County ("If this Sunday there would be a parliamentary election, (and you would be eligible to vote), would you go to vote?"; percentage distribution)²¹



Based on the focus, passivity and apolitical nature can be explained by the fact that young people are overall mistrustful as regards politics; and they rather view the activities of the political elite with scepticism. Both on the local (2.3²²), both on the national (2.2) politics they have the view that they give very little to the words of young people. In Szabolcs, this negative judgement is even stronger; here young people feel even less that the politicians listen to their opinions (1.8 is the average of the opinions in the case of local and national politicians as well).

In the field of participation in public-political events and actions, a low level of activity can be registered among Hungarian young people, as also among the young people of Szabolcs County (Magyar Ifjúság 2012). Nationally, 12 percent of 15-29 year-olds, in Szabolcs County, 18 percent was already a participant this kind of event, action. However, nationally 14 percent would participate in this in the future; among young people in Szabolcs County this percentage is higher, 23 percent. The most common activities were of

²¹ Source: Magyar Ifjúság 2012.

²² The respondents could evaluate on a five-grade attitude scale, to what extent the local or national politicians are interested in the opinions of young people: 1 = not at all, 5 = fully.

collecting signatures, signing various initiatives and visiting of the demonstrations.

Another slice of public activity is provided by the contact with organizations, the membership in them, as well as participation in community life. Eurobarometer (2013c) reports that the majority of European youngsters (56%) participated in some organizational activities in the year preceding the query. However, 44 percent of the age group mentioned none of these items. Hungary is characterized by more inactive participation in this field as well: only 37 percent of young people were actively involved in an organization's life. Both in EU comparison and in Hungary, the most popular organizations are those connected to sport events and sports, as well as youth recreational communities and organizations for community building. In contrast, the specific cultural, charitable, sensitizing towards global problems and legal-political communities are less popular. Magyar Ifjúság 2012 found that every fifth young person (21%) has a relationship with some organizations; in Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg County, this kind of activity is slightly lower (18 percent). The most popular communities are those targeting sport, recreation and students, both nationally and at county level. The previously quoted survey, examining the social capital of people living in Nyíregyháza, affected organizational membership as well (Huszi, 2009). The results showed that 75 percent of people living in Nyíregyháza do not maintain relations with any organizations. To the most active age group in this respect are not young people, but the middle-aged.

The latter scenes of public activity are mainly linked to the Internet, and in part, the social networking sites create these (Magyar Ifjúság 2012). Due to the high Internet usage it is not surprising that the public news-related activity is high among young people. Overall, the fifth of Hungarian youth (18 percent) shows strong activity on these surfaces through regular posts and comments. However, 14 percent of them did not do such things, despite being a registered member of the community sites. The ratio of the latter in Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg County is smaller; only 6 percentage of them shows inactivity (the proportion of active regular users is 13 percent).

Nationally, nearly three-quarters of the age group share public content in their profile or comments on news in this theme (Table 10). In Szabolcs County, similar rates can be experienced; so it seems this in this area, a similar activity as the national results can be felt. However, a higher degree of public life

affects a much smaller group, both nationally, both in the Szabolcs region. About comments in forums, only one third of young people reported and they did so less frequently than monthly. The situation is similar in Szabolcs County as well; however, young people show passivity in a higher proportion in this area. Similar results can be seen in the field of blogging; however, the frequency of the management of such sites among young people is even smaller than using forums.

Table 10: The degree of activity on social networks in Hungary and in Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg County (percentage distribution)²³

	Hungary	Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg County
The proportion of those sharing public life content on social networking sites	74	79
The proportion of those commenting on public life content on social networking sites	72	79
The proportion of those using forums with some level of frequency	33	26
The proportion of those managing blogs with some frequency	16	5

VI. EU citizenship

The majority of Hungarians (52 percent) learned from the TV about news and measures concerning the Union (Eurobarometer, 2014a). However, Internet news portals, the radio and conversations with the acquaintances function as informants, too (22-22 percent). The citizens of the Member States collect information from the television (51 percent), from daily newspapers (26 percent) and from the web (24 percent) overall. The majority of Hungarians (56 percent) speaks about European political matters only occasionally; at one

²³ Source: Magyar Ifjúság 2012 database.

third of them (36 percent) it is not mentioned at all. Similar rates can be found at EU level; only at two-thirds of citizens (63 percent) comes into play the EU policy more or less often.

According to their own impressions, every second EU citizen understands the operation of the Union; in the case of Hungary, we can meet with similar belief (52-52 percent). The Eurobarometer (2014a) also examined the knowledge of EU citizens: the respondents had to judge the rightness of three statements²⁴ concerning EU operation. The results show that at EU level, only one third of citizens (36 percent) proves to be informed (judged the rightness of all three statements correctly). In Hungary, the figure is nearly 10 percentage points' higher (43 percent provided correct answers to all three questions). After this, it is not surprising that two-thirds of citizens (Hungary: 66, EU28: 68 percent) would like to receive further information on functioning and on the institutional system of the EU.

The Union, for its citizens, primarily indicates the freedom of cross-border movements, while its meaning is also closely related to the Euro, as well as with the concepts of cultural diversity and peace (Eurobarometer, 2014a). On the other hand, some of the citizens combine the bureaucratic nature and the material losses with the EU (Table 11). For example, the social protection is identified with the EU by only a few. In Hungary as well, the primary meaning of the EU is the free movement of citizens and labour but cultural diversity and peace are also important features. They associate the least to the loss of cultural identity when hearing about the EU.

24 The three statements were the following: 1. The Union has 28 Member States; 2. Representatives of the European Parliament are directly elected by the citizens of the Member States; 3. Switzerland is an EU Member State.

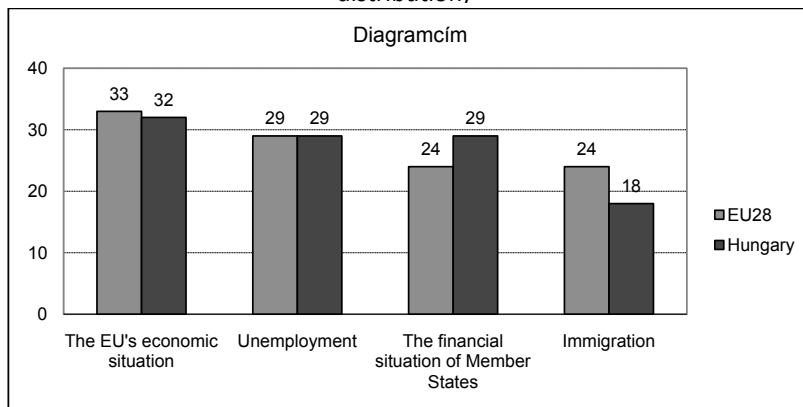
Table 11: Meaning of the EU for its citizens across the Union and in Hungary (“What does the EU mean for you personally?”; percentage distribution)²⁵

	EU28	Hungary
Peace	29	21
Economic well-being	15	15
Democracy	22	17
Social protection	9	13
Free movement	50	39
Cultural diversity	28	25
Strong global position	25	17
Euro	39	16
Unemployment	17	18
Bureaucracy	26	15
Material loss	25	11
Loss of cultural identity	13	6
More crime	15	14
Lack of control at the external borders	20	12
Other	2	3
Did not answer	3	5

Better quality of life is detected only 49 percent of citizens within the EU; this is also true for Hungary (Eurobarometer, 2014). With the statement that the EU protects its citizens, 60 percent of Hungarians agree; this figure is 57 percent at the EU level. As the most important problem concerning the EU, the citizens consider the economic situation, unemployment; immigration and financial situation (Figure 10). In Hungary, also the economic situation of the EU member states as well as unemployment is in the front in terms of problems, immigration, however, seems to be a difficulty to a smaller extent in these grounds.

²⁵ Source: Eurobarometer (2014a).

Figure 10: The EU's most important problems in the views of all the member states and Hungary ("What do you think are the two most important matters with which the EU is currently facing?"; percentage distribution)²⁶



Hungarian youth overall (4.3²⁷), such as those living in Szabolcs-Szatmár-Bereg County (4.4) are thinking more in mankind than in nation (Magyar Ifjúság 2012). However, they summarize accession to the Union more adversely. 37 percent of young Hungarians feel membership to be detrimental to the country (25 percent evaluates it as beneficial); in Szabolcs, this proportion is 44 percent (26 percent feels it to be beneficial). Viewing their own lives, the positive attitude is not noticeable either; the largest group is made up of those experiencing accession negatively on national (32 percent; 25 percent feels it to be beneficial) and on county level (41 percent; 23 percent evaluates it as beneficial). Viewing their own lives, positive attitude is not noticeable either; the largest group is made up of those experiencing the accession negatively on national (32 percent; 25 percent feels it to be beneficial) and on county level (41 percent; 23 percent evaluates it as beneficial). Viewing the EU as a whole, the largest group of citizens is made up of the pessimists (Eurobarometer, 2014). 39 percent believes that in the EU, things

²⁶ Source: Eurobarometer (2014a).

²⁷ The respondents had to mark on a seven-grade attitude scale if they consider themselves to think in nation (Value1) or in mankind (Value7).

are currently going to the wrong direction, and only a quarter (25 percent) see the given situation positively. In Hungary, the uncertain provide the largest group (37 percent), while the proportion of those with optimistic views (32 percent) is higher than the proportion of those viewing the EU's current situation negatively (24 percent). For the future, however, optimism is clearer: within the EU, 56 percent of citizens are optimistic (the proportion of pessimists is 37 percent), while in Hungary, 55 percent (the proportion of pessimists is 40 percent).

The majority of the citizens of the EU Member States consider that the word of the EU counts in the world (Hungary and EU28: 70-70 percent). However, few people provide trust; 37 percent of all citizens clearly trust the EU; in Hungary, this proportion is higher, 48 percent. 67 percent of Hungarians consider themselves to be EU citizens (EU28: 63 per cent); 57 percent declare themselves to be Hungarians and Europeans at the same time. However, some of the Hungarians feel only their own national identities to be decisive. The proportion of those who cannot identify with their Europism is 38 percent within the EU, while 39 percent in Hungary.

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Satu Mare



The situation of young people in Satu Mare and in Romania

The presentation of the youth of Satu Mare, because of the representativeness of national youth surveys on county level, and because of the lack of local comprehensive youth research, has only been possible with a gap. So basically the data of the most recent (2014) national and Transylvanian youth research are presented, supplemented with two focus group studies. In addition to the Romanian youth, features and habits of the young Transylvanian Hungarian youth are also part of the analysis, thanks to the fact that in the region and specifically in Satu Mare, we can speak about a considerable size (35-40 percent) of minority. While the pattern of the national survey is provided by young people between the ages of 14-35, the Transylvanian studies examined young people between 18-35 years of age. The European contextual placement was made possible by Eurobarometer and Eurostat databases and reports.

I. Demography

Satu Mare's population is 95 thousand people; the town is the county seat of Satu Mare County; it belongs to the region of the Partium, which is the part of Transylvania in the broad sense (RPL, 2011). The total population of Romania according to the Eurostat data at the beginning of the year 2014 is 19.9 million people. The population is decreasing every year since 1992; in 2011, more than 55 thousand was the natural decrease (INS, 2012). Satu Mare County has a population of 363 040 people, of whom nearly one in three residents lives in Satu Mare: the population there is 110 930 people (INS, 2012). Satu Mare County's population, in line with the national trends, is slowly but steadily declining since 1992. In 2010, its population was 1000 persons higher than at the 2011 census. The majority of people of Satu Mare County live in townships (55 percent), fewer than half of them are considered to be city dwellers. The sex ratio is similar to the EU and the national average (in both cases, there are 105 women per 100 men); there are 106 women for every 100 men.

In Romania, the aging index is 100, which means that the number of children is the same as the number of elderly people (Eurostat, 2013). The aging processes typical in Europe can be less felt here; within the Union, the value of

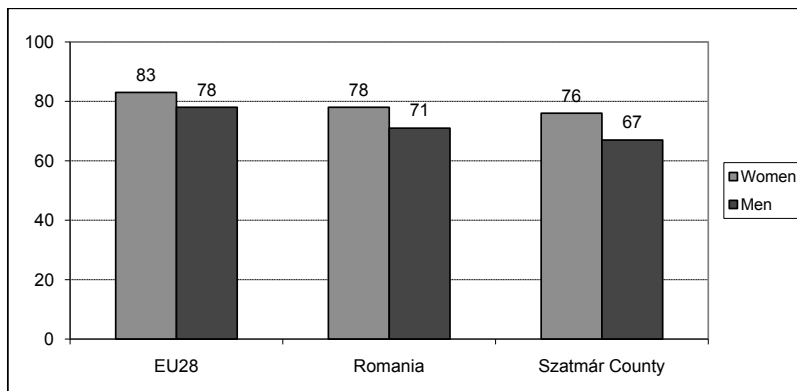
the same metric is 113. The dependency rate remained below 50 percent (47 percent), which is 5 percentage points lower than the EU average (Eurostat, 2013). According to this, the number of active-aged is more than twice as many as the number of dependents (i.e. the children and the elderly). In Satu Mare County, the age-group composition occurs both according to the EU, both to the Romanian proportions, without showing marked rate differences (Table 1). As the previous data, the comparison of age groups also confirms that aging cannot be observed. Moreover, in Satu Mare County, children represent a higher, while elderly people a lower ratio than the national average.

Table 1: Age group composition in the European Union, Romania and in Szatmár County (in percentage)

	EU28	Romania	Szatmár County
Under 14 years	16	16	16
15-24 years	11	12	14
25-49 years	35	36	39
50-64 years	20	20	19
65-79 years	13	12	10
Over 80 years	5	4	2
	Eurostat 2013	INS 2012	

In the EU Member States in 2012, the average life expectancy at birth was around 80 years of age (Eurostat, 2012) (Figure 1). For women, this is 5 years higher than for men. In Romania, the life expectancy was below the values of the EU, and the gender gap is even higher, seven years. Satu Mare County, from this perspective, has even worse indicators (INS, 2012). The life expectancy at birth for women is with two more years, for men, with four more years lower. The difference experienced in the comparison of genders is also higher, 9 years.

Figure 1: Life expectancy at birth in the EU, Romania and Satu Mare County (years)²⁸



The Romanian young people get married around the age of 30 on average, for women (on average 29 years of age) it can be placed two years earlier than for men (on average 31 years of age) (INS, 2012). In Satu Mare County, young people get married sooner; men on average at 30 years of age, while women on average at 26 years of age. In urban-rural comparison a few years of difference can be observed. While at the national level, rural young people get married 1-1.5 years earlier, the people living in the townships of Satu Mare County 1.5-2 years earlier than the townspeople. In 2011, nearly 106 thousand marriages were registered in Romania, while the number of divorces nationwide was 36 thousand (INS, 2012). About 60 percent of divorces affected families without children.

At EU level, the time of the first childbearing comes on average of around 30 years of age. In Romania sooner, young people undertake their first child at 27 years of age on average (Eurostat, 2012). The average household size in the EU is 2.3; in Romania, this ratio is higher, 2.9. Fertility coefficient in Romania is 1.53, which is close to the EU value (1.58). However, as with the European trends, these values are overall lower than the representative fertility level (2.1). In Satu Mare County in 2011, there were 36 live births per 1000 women, nationally 37 is the same value (INS, 2012). The most intense period

²⁸ Source: Eurostat (2012), INS (2012).

in terms of fertility counts the period of 20-34 years, but the 25-29 age groups prove to be the most fertile (71 live births per 1000 women) on national and county levels. The reason for this is the tendency which derives from the peculiarities of prolonged young age affecting young people. The acquisition of the qualification, job finding and making existence is delayed; by the second half of their twenties it becomes more observable that they become independent, they detach from their parents and start their own family formation.

The phenomenon of post-adolescence is also observable in the inclination of the Romanian young people to start a family and to have children. After the regime change, the fertility rate fell sharply, later and less people assumed children. The delayed and decreasing number of assuming children is confirmed by the focus groups as well. The results of the 2008 national youth research also confirm these trends: young people put forward the acquisition of qualifications, job placement and the existential stability than family formation (Bush, 2011). The financial independence and home purchases are given priority against marriage and childbearing. However, the economic situation in Romania and the financial opportunities for youth largely give free space for this. In Romania, in the lives of 86 percent of young people, family can be defined as the primary value (Mitulescu, 2011). For the majority, the family (58 percent) and marriage (58 percent) are also essential for the fulfilment of life (Bush, 2011). In this regard, members of both sexes have similar thoughts, not any difference can be experienced between men and women in the value system in this sense. However, with age, marriage becomes more important (especially over 30 years), just as having children (especially above 25 years of age). However, in addition to the traditional values, awareness concerning the importance of financial stability also has prominent role. Romanian young people place the time of family formation for the second half of their twenties; women for the age of 22-25 years old, men for 26-29 years of age (Bush, 2011). The planned number of children for the majority (58 percent) is two; only one in four (23 percent) young people would like to have one child, while more than three children, every tenth young people (8 percent). The proportion of those who do not want to become parents at all is insignificant; it makes up only 3 percent of Romanian young people.

In terms of the percentage of married we can see that the institutionalization of relationships can be placed at the second half of the twenties of young people (Table 2). Similarly, childbearing becomes more widespread above 25

or even 30 years of age. However, for young Hungarians living in minority, following the traditions is more typical. Both the inclination to have children (they assume more children and sooner than the Romanian youngsters) both the spirit for marriage is higher, and they are more adhered to traditional gender roles (Bush, 2011).

Table 2: The proportion of married couples and young people with children among Romanian and Transylvanian Hungarian youth (percentage distribution)²⁹

	Romanian youth	Transylvanian Hungarian youth
Proportion of married among people under the age of 24	13	14
Proportion of people having children among those under the age of 24	11	8
Proportion of married among those aged 25-29	47	61
Proportion of people having children among those aged 25-29	42	35
Proportion of married among those aged 30-35	76	81
Proportion of people having children among those aged 30-35	37	71

The results of a research reconvened in 2013, examining Transylvanian Hungarian youth would further support the previously observed trends and differences (Barna-Kiss, 2013). While family formation is shifted to an increasingly later age, the rate of parents decreased, the number of planned children increased compared to the 2011 data.

²⁹ Source: Mitulescu (2011).

II. Migration

In 2011, 18 thousand people left Romania; most of them were under 40 years of age and were predominantly women (INS, 2012). In the same year, nearly 16 thousand immigrants arrived in the country; two thirds of them men, and most of them were between the ages of 18 and 40. More than half of the immigrants came from Moldova; further major emitting countries count Italy, the USA, Germany, Turkey and China.

International migration hardly affected Satu Mare County (total population of 363 thousand people); the number of immigrants was 87 people, while the number of those who left the country was 296 people (INS, 2012). However, migration within the country has been more marked. 4873 people moved out of the county to another area, but to Szatmár only 4733 people, hence the county's population declined. In particular, the population of the cities showed a decrease and instead, the population of smaller settlements increased, this process is typical not just of this county but of the entire Romania as well (a total of 325 thousand people moved to another settlement in Romania from their previous places of residence).

In terms of minority composition, those with Hungarian nationality make up the largest group on county and municipal level as well. 59 percent of residents in Satu Mare are Romanian, 35 percent is Hungarian, 4 percent of the population is Roma and 2 percent is German and Ukrainian (RPL, 2011). In Satu Mare (total population is of 95 thousand people), 59 percent is Romanian, 38 percent is Hungarian, 1 percent is Roma and 1 percent is German in terms of nationality. In terms of mother tongue, the proportion of Hungarians is 40 percent.

The inter-ethnic relations are considered to be involving rather conflicts by Romanian young people. The relationship between Romanians and Hungarians in Romania is believed by only one-fifth of young people to be based on cooperation (Figure 2). Based on the opinions of young people, the relationship of Hungarians in Romania and Roma people is more characterized by neutrality at the national level (Figure 3). However, in the eyes of Transylvanian Hungarians, these ethnic relations involve stronger conflicts than for Romania as a whole; this view is supported by the results of the focus group. As the strongest conflict, they see the conflict between the young Romanians and Romanian and Roma ethnic minorities: 41 percent consider the relationship

to involve conflicts, 33 percent as being indifferent, only 12 percent believe it to be cooperative (Tineret 2014).

Figure 2: The perception of the relationship of Romanians and Hungarians in Romania (percentage distribution)³⁰

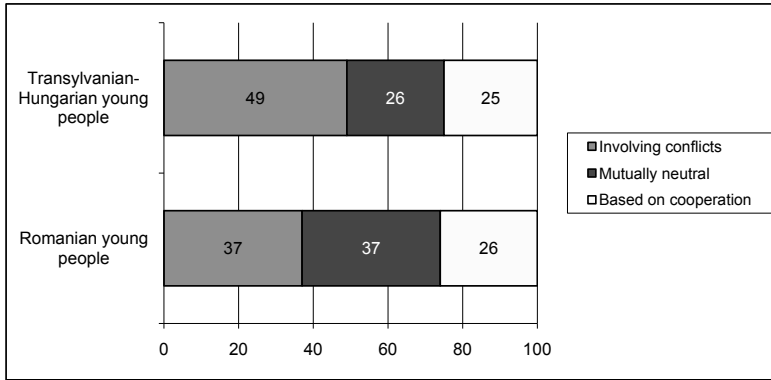
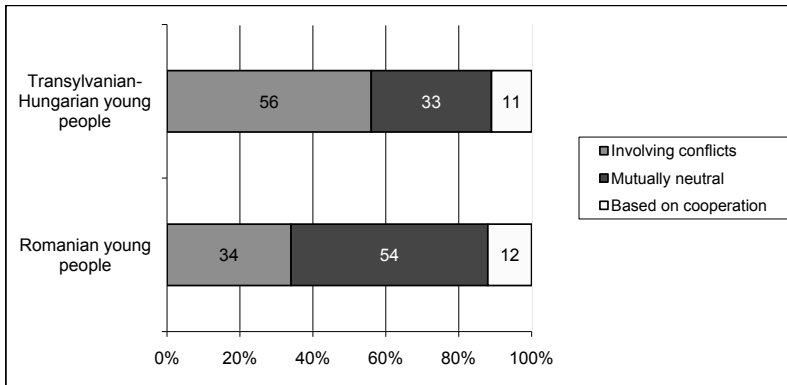


Figure 3: The perception of the relationship of Romanian-Hungarian and people with Roma nationality (percentage distribution)³¹



30 Source: Tineret 2014; Barna-Kiss (2013).

31 Source: Tineret 2014; Barna-Kiss (2013).

The majority of Romanians (59 percent; EU28: 52 percent) have a positive view of immigration concerning those coming from the Member States within the EU (Eurobarometer, 2014a). However, migration from outside the EU countries believed to be less positive (47 percent) despite, it is less negatively evaluated than in the EU as a whole. Only 35 percent of citizens of the 28 Member States evaluate positively, while 57 percent negatively the immigration of those coming from non-EU countries.

Openness of EU citizens to other Member States can mainly be called weak; 64 percent can be characterized with low level of acceptance (Eurobarometer, 2014a). 21 percent show a moderate and only 15 percent a high level of openness in respect of citizens of other Member States. Romania shows even stronger reticence; 72 percent of the Romanians can be classified in the least open category, 19 percent is moderately open, only 9 percent shows strong openness towards other EU citizens.

Another aspect of migration is provided by emigration, of which we can get a picture partly through the existing migration structures, partly through the migration potential inherent of young people. In recent years, due to the continuation of studies, an insignificant proportion of Romanian young people visited another country, but the rate of emigration due to employment is more significant (Table 3). In this respect, we see greater activity particularly among young Hungarians in Transylvania. However, if the question is extended from the individuals to the family and kinship environment, we may find that in the immediate vicinity of the majority of Romanian young people there is an individual who has worked abroad in the past few years. In this respect, however, it appears that those living in Transylvania are slightly less affected by migration to this end, while the proportion of young Hungarians in Transylvania is higher than that of Romanian young people in Transylvania.

Table 3: Migration features and potential among Romanian and Transylvanian young people (percentage distribution)

	Romanian young people	Transylvanian-Romanian young people	Transylvanian-Hungarian young people
Has worked abroad	15	15	24
Has studied abroad	4	2	9
Somebody from his/her family has worked abroad	58	39	49
Planning to study abroad	13	17	13
Planning to settle down abroad	15	13	14
Planning to get a temporary work abroad	38	30	43
	TINERET 2014	Angelesco (2011)	Barna-Kiss (2013)

As for the potential of migration, it seems that the largest group of young people are planning to emigrate due to temporary work (Table 3). Among the Transylvanian Hungarians one and a half times more is the number of those who intend to work abroad for more or less time than among Romanian young people. The most popular target countries are the German-speaking areas (52 percent) and the UK (29 percent), as well as Hungary (27 percent) and the US (10 percent) (Barna-Kiss, 2013). The proportion of foreign visits due to studies is not outstanding in Transylvania, not among Hungarians living there (Table 3). As the foreign establishment potential is nearly identical in terms of the three samples: about one in seven young people is planning to

start a new life abroad. In the case of Hungarian Transylvanian young people, the destination of resettlement is mainly Hungary (Barna-Kiss, 2013).

Nearly a quarter of Romanian young people would emigrate for financial reasons: 12 percent would be looking for a better paying job due to lack of money; 11 percent want to be collecting for a home purchase (Tineret 2014). Another 7 percent would like to start a new life abroad; 11 percent of them would live in other countries because of cultural curiosity. 10 percent of those wishing to emigrate because of work or establishment wanted to move already in the year of the query. 18 percent indicated a 2-3-year interval, a further 10 percent think about living abroad not in the near future, but at least in 4-5 years' time.

III. Labour market

The EU employment rate (in terms of the age group of 25-64 years) is 68 percent; in Romania, this figure is somewhat lower, 64 percent (Table 4). In terms of employment, both in the EU and in Romanian relations men are in a much better position than women. There is a clear correlation between the level of education and employment. Most likely the graduates can find a job, but those with secondary qualifications are also in a relatively good position³² But the low-skilled workers are in disadvantage; only every second person with such qualifications found a job.

Part-time jobs are less common in Romania than in the EU; half is the amount of this type of atypical employment in Romania than in the EU as a whole (Table 4). According to Eurostat (2013) data, Europe is dominated by open-ended employment contracts; only 14 percent of all employees were employed by fixed-term contracts. Romania is also characterized by this trend; the number of fixed-term contracts is minimal. Based on the comparison of the median gross hourly wages, in Romania, one of the lowest average wages can be registered (Eurostat, 2010). In Romania, the median gross hourly wage is 2.0

32 The qualification levels are based on the International Standard Classification of Education. To the first, belongs the level 0-2, which covers from pre-school education to the lower level of secondary education; in the second category, there is the level 3-4, which includes higher levels of secondary education and the post-secondary (non-tertiary) education and finally level 5-6, fall into a category into which the first and second levels of higher education graduates can be classified.

euros (this corresponds to 3.8 PPS); only in Bulgaria this value is lower (1.5 euros, 3.4 PPS), the EU27 average is 11.9 euros (11.6 PPS).

Table 4: Labour market situation in the European Union and in Romania (percentage distribution³³)

	EU28	Romania
Ratio of the employed	68	64
Ratio of the employed among men	74	72
Ratio of the employed among women	63	56
Proportion of part-time contracts	20	10
Proportion of fixed-term employment contracts	14	2
Ratio of employed among low-skilled people	51	53
Proportion of employed among those with secondary education	69	64
Proportion of employed among graduates	82	82
Proportion of unemployed in the 15-24 age group	24	24
Proportion of unemployed in the 25-74 age group	10	6
Proportion of unemployed among the low-skilled	18	7
Proportion of unemployed among those with secondary education	9	7
Proportion of unemployed among graduates	6	5
The proportion of employees living under the poverty line	9	18
Poverty rate	17	22
Poverty rate among families with at least three children	27	61

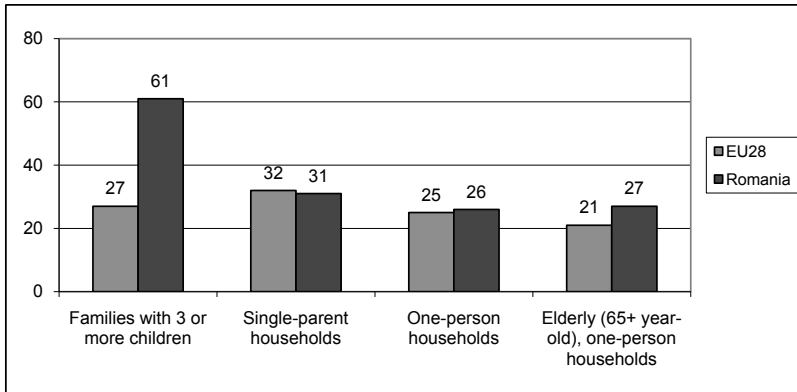
³³ Source: Eurostat (2013).

Poverty rate among single-parent households	32	31
Poverty rate among single households	25	26
Poverty rate among one-person households over 65 years	21	27
Poverty rate among the low-skilled	24	35
Poverty rate among those with secondary education	15	15
Poverty rate among graduates	8	2

The unemployment figures summarize the difficult situation of young workers both in the EU and in Romania (Table 4). For the latter, every fourth individuals among 15-24 year olds are unemployed, while in the 25-74 age group, this figure is only 6 percent. The role of education is significant: in the worst situation are those with low and medium level of education, while the graduates are in the best position. However, the unemployment figures registered depending on the level of education show a much smaller gap in Romania than by examining the whole Union.

Poverty figures, however, show significant differences in the comparison of Romania and the EU (Table 4). Poverty affects one in five people in Romania, but it is also an important figure that the proportion of people living below the poverty line is high among the employed as well. For Romania, this is twice as the EU average, and men are more affected (20 percent) than women (15 percent). However, the importance of education is higher in the case of poverty than it was in the case of unemployment. While among the graduates, poverty is marginal, among those with low level of education, one in three people are exposed to material deprivation. Furthermore, it is relevant data that poverty threatens mainly the large families; 61 percent of families with 3 or more children live below the poverty line (EU28: 27 percent) (Figure 4). However, the single-parent, one-person and the elderly, one-person households are also considered vulnerable in this respect.

Figure 4: Poverty rate for each household type in the European Union and in Romania (percentage distribution) ³⁴



Only 35 percent of Romanian young people feel that the monthly income of their families is sufficient for a decent living, together with the fact that they have to resign from the more expensive goods (Tineret 2014). 18 percent can afford more expensive products, but they are forced to saving in other areas. But 29 percent of them is clearly short of money; they can only get the basic needs from the monthly budget. To the current difficult financial situation contributes the limited nature of employment opportunities; 93 percent of young people feel that finding a job in their residence means a problem. At the same time, it does not help in their situation that fifth of young people (20 percent; Transylvania Romanian young people: 19 percent; Transylvanian Hungarian young people: 12 percent) believes the knowledge obtained within the school system would be appropriate to the labour market demand in Romania (Tineret 2014; Dalu , 2011).

17 percent of Romanian young people are studying currently; 83 percent finished school and so is employed or unemployed / job-seeker as well as having inactive status (Veres, 2011). 20 percent of young people who finished school have primary education; 13 percent have profession, 35 percent acquired intermediate, 32 percent a higher education degree. For the Transylvanian Hungarian youth, the proportion of those having primary education is higher

³⁴ Source: Eurostat (2013).

(25 percent), while the proportion higher education graduates is lower (24 percent) than among young people in Romania. The data reveal that young people with Hungarian nationality leave the school system as soon as possible are trying to become independent as soon as possible, and becoming stable existentially (Dalu, 2011); it often leads to migration intention based on the focus group research.

Most of the Transylvanian Romanian young people are working as an employee, tenth of them works as a homemaker or heavy manual, a further 16 percent have more jobs at the same time (Table 5). In management positions or as an entrepreneur 4 percent works; 5 percent of them can currently be registered as a job seeker. Among Transylvanian Hungarian young people, there are a higher proportion of young people having employee status, a fewer ratio of those having several jobs and underemployed, while unemployment is 8 percent among them.

Table 5: Employment structure among young people in Transylvania (percentage distribution)³⁵

	Transylvanian-Romanian young people	Transylvanian-Hungarian young people
Employees	45	54
Under-employed (farmers, housewives, labourers)	16	11
Unemployed / job seekers	5	8
Self-employed, private entrepreneurs	4	7
Having second jobs	16	9

Unemployment from generational point of view affects the Romanian young people at 25-29 years of age the most; among the Transylvanian Hungarian

³⁵ Source: Dalu (2011).

young people, it is the most common over the age of 30 (Veres, 2011). 12 percent of Romanian young people lost their jobs in 2014; 24 percent were looking for better paying jobs (Tineret 2014). Two-thirds of the young generation feel their current job to be stable, but with career advancement opportunities only every second young person counts (Figure 5). Good salary only has every second young person, according to them; 15 percent is working in a senior position. Based on these considerations, among Transylvanian young people, those with Hungarian nationality are in a better situation: they feel their jobs to be stable; there is a higher proportion of workers in management positions.

Figure 5: Workplace features among Romanian and Transylvanian young people (percentage distribution)³⁶

	Romanian young people	Transylvanian-Romanian young people	Transylvanian-Hungarian young people
Have a stable job	63	66	70
There is the possibility of career advancement in the workplace	50	48	50
Have good salary	47	47	45
Work in management position	15	16	21

In the lives of Romanian young people in terms of future plans, they include finding a better job (22 percent) and starting their own business (34 percent) (Tineret 2014). The field of commerce (28 percent) and agriculture (17 percent) prove to be the most attractive in starting a business. However, the age group feels the lack of skills the most in business (27 percent) and in management (23 percent), which are essential for independence. However, the Romanian youth feel their strength in their computer knowledge (71

³⁶ Source: Tineret 2014; Veres (2011).

percent), communication skills (70 percent), and the written-drafting skills (66 percent).

IV. Culture

In Romania, nearly two-thirds of young people (61 percent) has at least three hours of free time a day on weekdays (Tineret 2014). At the weekend, two-thirds (63 percent) of young people has more than 5 hours of free time, a further quarter (23 percent) can spend 3-4 hours freely on relaxation beyond their everyday work, school and other duties. It can be summarized as international trends that the leisure time and recreation are placed in increasingly mediated environment, while traditional forms of recreation tend to be taken a back seat (Eurobarometer 2013a³⁷, 2013b, 2014b). The computer and Internet use-dominated leisure time is associated with the loss of popularity of the physically and mentally active forms of recreation. While the time spent on the Web and in certain virtual communities increases, the time spent on sports and cultural recreation is reduced.

The proliferation of the Internet, in addition to the workplace and school access is due to the Internet use at home, as well. At EU level, we can talk about almost complete coverage; eight out of ten EU citizens have internet at home (Table 6). In Romania, six in ten can say the same thing in their own households. This mostly means broadband Internet access, both in the EU and in Romania. Two-thirds of EU citizens are frequent Internet users; three-quarters use the Web for at least once a week. In Romania, in part because of the limited availability, the usage patterns are different. A third of Romanians count to be frequent Internet users; the rate of those not using the Internet at all is two times higher than in the EU as a whole.

³⁷ We can also record negative trends compared to the data of the Eurobarometer analysis with similar theme in 2007 in almost every element of cultural consumption.

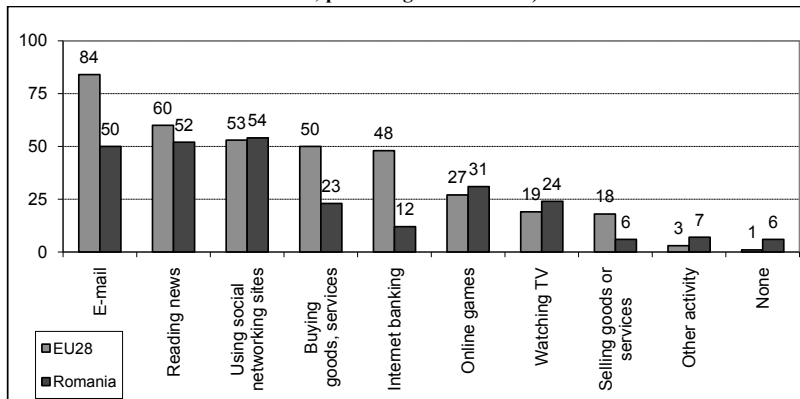
Table 6. Characteristics of Internet users in the European Union and in Romania (16-74 year olds; percentage distribution)³⁸

	EU28	Romania
The proportion of households with home Internet access	81	61
From this, the proportion of households with broadband Internet access	78	58
Proportion of frequent (almost every day) Internet users	65	32
Proportion of frequent (at least weekly) Internet users	75	48
The proportion of those not using the Internet at all	18	39

The majority of Internet users devote most of the time on the web on e-mailing, reading the news, visiting social networking sites, shopping and banking (Figure 6). In Romania, spending time on the social networking sites is the most typical, but reading the news and emailing also count to be frequent activities. However, online banking, shopping and selling are much less common than in the EU in general.

³⁸ Source: Eurostat (2014).

Figure 6: Internet usage patterns (“Which of the following activities do you carry out online?”; percentage distribution)³⁹



75 percent of Romanian young people use the Internet every day; in their case, keeping contact (57 percent), obtaining information (50 percent) and searching for media content (45 percent) are the most common everyday activities in the online space (Tineret 2014). The least common activities count to be online shopping / selling (45 percent never use the Internet for this), or visiting official sites (66 percent never use the Internet for this).

In parallel with Internet using habits, the decline of active recreation is obvious. The rate of those doing sport regularly is marginal within the EU and in Romania (Table 7). However, the proportion of those who are not engaged in any sporting activity in Romania is almost one and a half times higher than in the EU. Other types of physical activities do not show significant popularity either; few people are engaged in such activities regularly. But the percentage of those who do not even carry out such exercise in the EU is 30 percent; in Romania the figure is somewhat higher. The majority of those choosing sport is moving regularly for the purpose of physical fitness, well-being and recreation (Eurobarometer, 2014). The lack of physical activity, most of the time, is justified by the lack of time and, on the basis of focus groups, lack of motivation also occurs as a reason. 34 percent of Romanian young people carry out physical activity at least 2-3 times per week, while 35 percent does

³⁹ Source: Eurobarometer (2013b).

not devote time for it (Tineret 2014). The majority is going for hiking (67 percent) at least a few times a month with the family and friends; one-third (32 percent), however, do not actively spend time in nature.

Table 7: Physical activity in the European Union and in Romania (percentage)⁴⁰

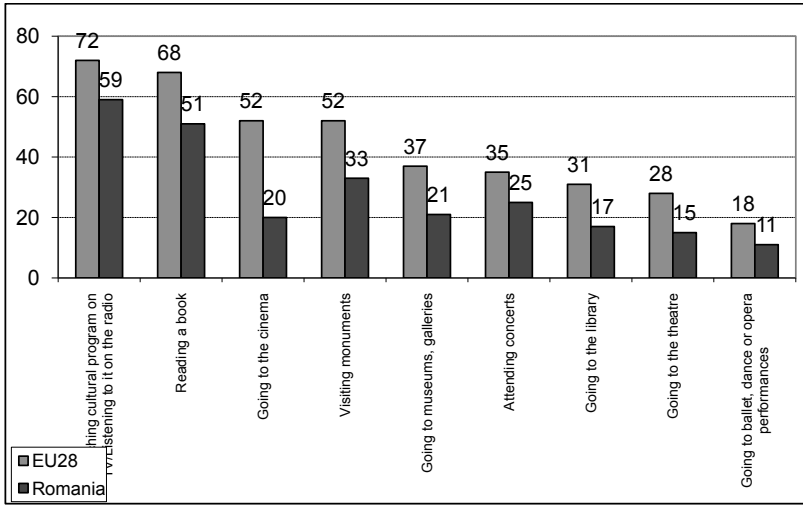
	EU28	Romania
The proportion of those doing sports regularly	8	6
The proportion of those not doing sports at all	42	60
The proportion of those regularly carrying out other physical recreation	15	14
The proportion of those not carrying out other physical recreation at all	30	36

Comparison of cultural consumption habits shows a 15-20-25 percentage backlog of Romanians from the EU average (Figure 7). Attendance at certain cultural spaces is low; based on focus groups; it is especially true concerning recreational forms of high culture (theatre, ballet, opera, and museums). However, it should be added that more accessible forms of activity, such as the cinema or library visits also mean relaxation for few people in Romania. According to a typology published in a 2013 Eurobarometer (2013a) report, a small proportion of the Romanian population can be classified in the category of high cultural consumption (7 percent; EU28: 18 percent). As we have seen in the previous data, not surprisingly, also based on the typology, the majority of Romanians (55 percent) can be characterized by low level of cultural consumption. Within the EU, every third individual (34 percent) is characterized by the low level of cultural consumption behaviour. First of all, people older than the 40 years of age, people with low educational qualifications and those with financial problems fall into the category of low consumers. But interestingly, not the high prices, but the lack of interest, lack of time, and in the case

⁴⁰ Source: Eurobarometer (2014).

of Romania, the low quality of cultural facilities and programs discourages the frequent visit of some cultural spaces (Eurobarometer, 2013a).

Figure 7: The exercise of cultural activities (The proportion of those who carried out the activity at least once in the last 12 months, percentage distribution)⁴¹



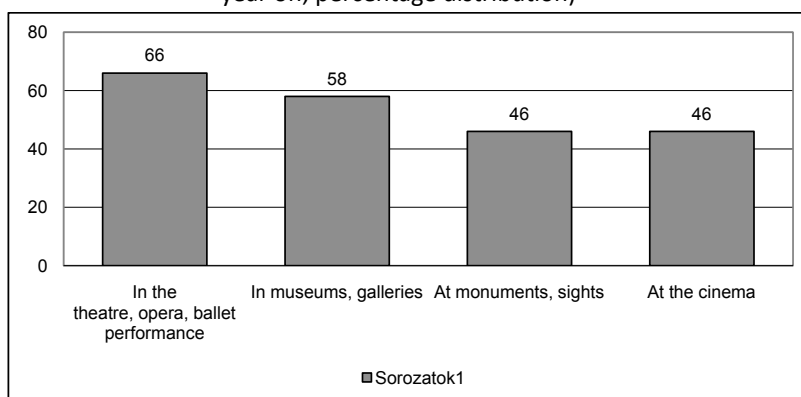
The majority of Romanian young people (75 percent watching TV daily) spend their free time in front of the television; only a few (8-9 percent) spend time on reading newspapers or books⁴² on a daily basis (Tineret 2014). Among cultural spaces, the most visited ones count to be the pop concerts, 53 percent of Romanian young people attends such occasions in a greater or lesser extent. A few people get into the spaces of high culture from Romanian young people; it is especially true for the theatre, opera and ballet performances (Figure 8). 69 percent of young people visit cafés at least a few times a month; the nightclubs are less visited venues; 42 percent do not

41 Source: Eurobarometer (2013a).

42 It occurs as an ethnic difference that the Romanian young people prefer reading on a monthly basis, while the Hungarian read daily newspapers rather (Barna, 2011). These consumption patterns are basically related to the supply of newspapers, so it can be seen that the language is a determinant of cultural consumption characteristics as well. See, also: Székely (2014).

go to places like this at all. In the field of cultural consumption, ethnic differences can be less experienced among the Transylvanian-Romanian and the Hungarian youth, rather the residential conditions and possibilities of the settlement set limits on the forms of recreation (Barna, 2011). However, from the age characteristics follow a lifestyle change due to family formation and employment. From the data, it appears that Internet use does not work to the detriment of cultural consumption in the everyday life of Romanian young people, but rather these two forms of activities are associated with each other. Consequently, the respective inequalities in terms of Internet access (such as the lack of home Internet connection) deepen the existing social and cultural differences.

Figure 8: Cultural spaces attendance among Romanian young people (Proportion of those who did not attend the given cultural spaces at all one year on; percentage distribution)⁴³



A further characteristic of the active recreation is that to what extent we live it as a social experience. The possibilities offered by organizations prove to be attractive only for a few (Eurobarometer, 2011). Sport-related, cultural events or events for young people taking place within an organized framework are visited by only one-third (35 percent EU27: 46 percent) of Romanian young people. Creative cultural activities alone or as a member of the group only 26

⁴³ Source: Tineret 2014

percent of the total Romanian population (EU28: 38 percent) conducted one year on (Eurobarometer, 2013a). Out of the Romanian young people only a few are involved in the life of sport-, youth- related or cultural clubs run by an NGO (Tineret 2014). The majority never attends such communities: 68 percent has never joined to sports clubs, 76 percent to youth clubs and 74 percent to cultural clubs.

V. Public life

One of the measurers of the public activity is political life, the interests towards the ongoing debates and processes, the degree of participation in the elections. The majority of young people in the EU (56 percent) participated in the latest national elections (Eurobarometer, 2013c). One in five (21 percent) did not vote, another quarter (23 percent) were not entitled to do so because of their young age. In Romania, young people are active in a similar rate than the EU average. 63 percent voted, 20 percent missed the last election (17 percent could not vote because they did not reach the age required to vote). The vast majority of Romanian young people (61 percent; a further 14 percent would more likely not do so) absolutely refuse to ever start as a candidate in political elections; only 24 per cent gives some level of reality to this. Young people living in the Union feel similarly on this issue overall: 49 percent (an additional 30 percent would probably not do that) completely excludes the possibility of starting as a candidate in an election, 19 percent, however, can imagine this to take place for some time in his life.

The Romanian youth (62 percent of university students; 42 percent of high school students) can be characterized by having distrust against politics, rejecting conservative values and passivity the most (Sólyom, 2011). However, the view giving trust to political institutions, being active in political actions, as well as conservative attitudes are also dominant especially among high school youth (37 percent; 19 percent among university students). A fifth of Romanian young people, however, accept the general moral values, initiator in the field of political actions and their trust placed in politics is assessed as moderate (19 percent of university students, 21 percent of high school students).

Less people is characterized by a strong interest in local and national political matters (local: 8 percent, national: 10 percent); every second Romanian

young person (local: 47 percent, national: 45 percent) shows no interest in this kind of events (Tineret 2014). However, among Transylvanian-Hungarians, a lower level of passivity can be experienced (Barna-Kiss, 2013). Towards the affairs of their own townships, 15 percent shows strong interest, while the rate of those showing clear disinterest towards this is 21 percent. At the national policy there is a somewhat lower level of interest: the rate of those highly interested is 8 percent, the one of those not interested at all is 27 percent. With this somewhat contradicts that only 13 percent of the Transylvanian Hungarian youth feel that politics plays an important role in their everyday lives. 12 percent of Romanian young people are visiting blogs with public-political themes, community forums; however, the vast majority (70 percent) do not visit these surfaces (Tineret, 2014).

One explanation for the lack of interest towards the political institutional system may be that the majority of Romanian youth is highly distrustful towards this (Tineret, 2014). This is especially true of the political parties (85 percent), the government (83 percent), the parliament (79 percent), the presidency (71 percent), but they do not really vote trust for non-governmental organizations, either (64 percent). However, military organizations, the education system and the churches (43-43 percent shows trust) were able to preserve authenticity the most. In line with this data it is not surprising that only a third of Romanian young people are satisfied to some extent with local politics (24 percent is fully dissatisfied). Towards the national political processes there is a much higher dissatisfaction (45 percent); the rate of the more satisfied is only 13 percent.

Based on the focus groups, the reason for political inactivity can be, on the other hand, the sense of the lack of influence, which is very strong among Romanian young people (Tineret, 2014). Into the local political affairs, 49 percent of Romanian young people feel that they hardly have any say. In the area of national affairs even fewer feel the power of their own words: 57 percent feel that they have a little say in the national political process. The Transylvanian-Hungarian young people also feel the same: 56 percent in local affairs, 71 percent in the field of national policy feel having little influence (Barna-Kiss, 2013). This kind of disillusionment, however, can only partially be perceived on the willingness of election. In the year of polling, 70 percent of Romanian young people took part in the elections (Tineret, 2014). However, they feel the referendum to be less decisive; it is more likely to

prevail here the sense of low self-suggestibility, as only 47 percent of young people participated in it. The political actions, such as collecting signatures and attendance at meetings are attractive for even less people; 13 percent were active in these events. Among the Transylvanian-Hungarian youth there is high interest of attendance; probably 71 percent would vote in the coming election (Barna-Kiss, 2013). However, according to only 33 percent there is a political party in the current palette, which represents their interests.

In addition to the political life, interest in public affairs and participation in the life of communities also exemplifies the rate of interest and activity (Eurobarometer, 2013c). In Romania, the organizational activity of the youth is almost one and a half times lower than the EU average. 60 percent of Romanian young people did not take part in the activities of any organizations; in the Union, this figure is 44 percent. Both in the EU and in Romania, the most popular organizations can be connected to sport, youth, culture and community development.

Only 4 percent of young people in Romania have civil association membership (Tineret, 2014). However, the voluntary activities were able to mobilize one in five (20 percent) Romanian young people. In the dissemination of volunteering, the Romanian youth believe information has a crucial role (dissemination of information: 39 percent; description of benefits: 24 percent). One of the reasons of the low participation and activity can be the fact that only 13 percent of Romanian young people know non-governmental organizations and communities in their own environment. 22 percent are planning to be members of non-governmental organizations; the most popular prove to be those connected to education and training, humanitarian assistance, volunteering, environmental awareness, sports and culture.

The majority of volunteers in Satu Mare County are under 24 years old, female, student, religious and urban residents (Szilvaország, 2014). A quarter (23 percent) began volunteering activities a year ago, an additional 49 percent for 1-5 years. Most of them live an intense social life, especially keep in touch with friends regularly (73 percent of them takes time for them at least once a week), but besides friends, they also keep in touch with relatives and colleagues regularly. Among the volunteers from Satu Mare it is common that they were members of a community in childhood (e.g. camps, bands, scouts). It is typical that beyond personal (friends, family) relationships, social relationships are also very important to them; this approach is over-represented

especially among frequent volunteers. Volunteers are constantly involved in the organization's activities; most of them are regular (51 percent) or an occasional helper (39 percent). However, the volunteers of Satu Mare County form a very homogeneous medium; they believe that the majority of their peers come from similar socio-economic environment.

In particular, those carrying out volunteer activities in Satu Mare County are also involved in actions mostly political in nature (Szilvaország, 2014). 70 percent had worked in a political party, 57 percent had been in contact with politicians and 51 percent had worn or placed on political insignia. Among the Satu Mare County volunteers, the recreational-leisure organizations are the most popular (64 percent); this can be explained by the age composition of the volunteers as well. In addition, organizations with cultural (34 percent), educational (37 percent), and social (27 percent) profiles are popular as well, while the least popular of all are those engaged in public safety and law (7 percent), research (7 percent) and health (11 percent). In terms of activity-participation forms, activities in organizing and fund raising dominate. The motivation for volunteers to participate is primarily given by the feeling of utility, contact keeping and entertainment. In addition, experience and self-realization also has a significant role, such as the assistance is a relevant motivating factor.

VI. EU Citizenship

It can be mentioned as a general phenomenon that on the news affecting the EU and its operation, citizens are mainly informed from the press (Eurobarometer, 2014a). In Romania, with the vast majority of such news, young people encounter in the television (59 percent), but the amount of information gathered from the radio (20 percent) and from the occasions of discussions with friends (19 percent) is relevant as well. For the EU as a whole, as the main news sources can be regarded the television (51 percent), the Internet (24 percent) and the newspapers (26 percent). EU affairs, however, cannot be called for frequent conversation topics in the everyday life of citizens. The largest group of citizens (50 percent) is made up of those who are only occasionally talking about European policy with friends and with colleagues. Third of them (36 percent) do not engage in discussion of these topics, and for only 13 percent is the EU policy a frequent topic of conversation.

In Romania, there is a smaller degree of public and political interest in this sense: in the circle of friends and work environment of 51 percent of the Romanians, this topic never comes up. 41 percent occasionally, while only 6 percent often speak about European public affairs in the circle of friends and in work environment.

With the operation of the EU, according to their own admission, the majority of Romanians (62 percent; for the EU as a whole, this figure is 52 percent) are aware of. However, with regard to the actual knowledge, gaps can be registered. In Romania - similar to the EU average (36 percent) - 34 percent is the proportion of those who gave correct answers to questions concerning the functioning of the Union⁴⁴, on the occasion of the Eurobarometer (2014a) studies. So the finding is not surprising that the vast majority of Romanians, 75 percent would consider it to be useful if they could get more information about the EU, its structure, etc. Also for the EU as a whole, a lot of people would welcome information; 68 percent would wish to receive such information.

Few of the Transylvanian-Hungarian young people are interested in European public affairs and politics (Barna-Kiss, 2013). 33 percent only shows some interest in the subject, while 30 percent are not interested at all in the political affairs of the continent.

In Romania, the meaning of the EU is primarily linked with cross-border freedom of movement, democracy, the euro, peace and economic prosperity (Table 8). While the citizens associate the EU the least with unemployment, the lack of border control and the loss of cultural identity when hearing the name. Similar trends can be recorded within the EU; most of them identify the EU with the freedom of movement over countries, the euro, peace and cultural diversity.

44 The three statements were the following: 1. The Union has 28 Member States; 2. Representatives of the European Parliament are directly elected by the citizens of the Member States; 3. Switzerland is an EU Member State.

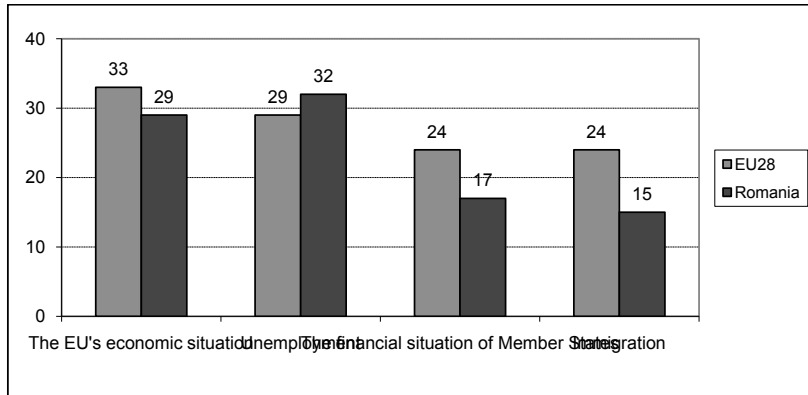
Table 8: Meaning of the EU for its citizens across the Union and in Romania (“What does the EU mean for you personally?”; percentage distribution)⁴⁵

	EU28	Romania
Peace	29	23
Economic well-being	15	22
Democracy	22	29
Social protection	9	14
Free movement	50	53
Cultural diversity	28	17
Strong global position	25	13
Euro	39	25
Unemployment	17	9
Bureaucracy	26	12
Material loss	25	12
Loss of cultural identity	13	10
More crime	15	12
Lack of control at the external borders	20	9
Other	2	1
Did not answer	3	5

Almost half of EU citizens (49 percent) feel that with their country’s EU membership there is a better quality of life; in Romania, however, people feel more positive about it; 69 percent felt so (Eurobarometer, 2014a). By stating that the EU protects its citizens, the majority agree: for the EU as a whole, 57 percent of citizens, while 60 percent in Romania. As the most significant problems within the EU, the citizens of the Member States consider the financial situation of the various countries and that of the EU, the unemployment and migration (Figure 9). In Romania, the citizens also feel these four difficulties to be the most striking and the ones needed to be resolved.

⁴⁵ Source: Eurobarometer (2014a).

Figure 9: The EU's most important problems in the views of the residents of all the Member States and Romania ("What do you think are the two most important matters with which the EU is currently facing?"; percentage distribution)⁴⁶



A number of European citizens are sceptical of the EU operation; 39 percent believes that things are going in the wrong direction (Eurobarometer, 2014a). Only a quarter (25 percent) evaluates the existing processes positively; in Romania, by contrast, positive attitude is the dominant. 55 percent of Romanians consider the current functioning and measures of the Union to be good, while only 16 percent is a pessimistic in this regard. This difference between the Romanian and EU opinions can be felt in evaluating the future, as well. The Romanians have a more positive outlook: 74 percent are optimistic about the future. In the EU as a whole, the rate of optimists is less; 56 percent. The Romanians have strong confidence (60 percent clearly have confidence) in the direction of the EU, while globally, only one-third of the citizens (37 percent) have confidence in the EU. However, for both the EU as a whole and for Romania, the vast majority (the former: 69 percent, the latter: 70 percent) believes that the EU's words are strong, i.e. matter in the world.

58 percent of the Romanians identify themselves with the Romanian and European identity, as well (EU28: 57 percent); 39 percent, however, only identify with their own nationality and do not declare themselves to be

⁴⁶ Source: Eurobarometer (2014a).

Europeans (EU28: 38 percent) (Eurobarometer, 2014a). In the EU Member States, only two-thirds of citizens (63 percent) feel themselves to be EU citizens; in Romania, 68 percent feel the same way. The majority of Romanian young people in (65 percent) is proud to be a European citizen; only three in ten (31 percent) claim that they do not feel pride for this reason (Tineret 2014).

38 percent of Romanian young people (EU28: 28 percent) believed before the 2014 European Parliament elections that they would definitely take part in it (Eurobarometer, 2013c). 29 percent considered voting more likely than to skip it (EU28: 36 percent). The certain voters are over-represented mainly among women and the 20-30 year olds. Those wishing to participate in the elections are mainly motivated by democratic values and by the importance of the elections. While the reasons of those wishing to skip the voting based on focus groups are primarily the worthless nature of individual votes (“my vote does not change anything”), disinterest towards the elections (“EP does not sufficiently deal with problems that concern me”) and lack of information.

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Czestochowa



The situation of young people in Czestochowa and in Poland

The presentation of the situation of the Polish young people is particularly based on the results of a youth research, *Młodzież 2013*, with national coverage made a few years ago, based on the responses of high school students. In addition, the latest national and local data of the national statistics agency, the *Główny Urząd Statystyczny*, was processed. As well as further thematic and youth-specific studies provided help for us in the work. The presentations of the European context, as well as the comparisons were made available by the *Eurobarometer* reports and the socio-demographic data table of *Eurostat*.

I. Demography

Poland's population in 2015 was 38.484 million, which represents a decline of nearly 10 thousand compared to data recorded at the beginning of the year 2014 (GUS, 2015, DYP 2015). The Silesian Voivodship's total population is 4.586 million people, while the population of Czestochowa is 230 thousand people (SYSV 2015). Viewing the ratio of the sexes we can talk about clear women majority: nationwide, there is 107 women for every 100 men (in the EU this ratio is 105), in Czestochowa, it is 113. 34 percent of EU citizens are considered to be dependent based on the age (under 14 years of age and over 65 years of age); this figure is 33 percent in Poland, while 31 percent in Czestochowa (Table 1). According to this, the Polish dependency ratio is 45, which is a true value for Czestochowa as well. In contrast, the elderly age dependency ratio has shown a difference: it is 22 percent nationwide, but 26 percent for Czestochowa. In Poland, the life expectancy is 77 years, which is lower than the EU average; in the comparison of the 28 Member States, we speak about 81 year (Eurostat, 2013). As for the average life span, women are in a better position: among them, the value is 81 years and it is 73 years for men (EU28: women - 83 years, men - 78 years). Nationwide, stagnating natural population change can be diagnosed, while in Silesia and Czestochowa, a decline is measurable (Eurostat, 2014; SYSV 2015). The rate of natural population growth is -1.11 for Silesia, while for Czestochowa, it is -4.12.

Table 1: Age group composition in the European Union and Poland
(percentage distribution)

	EU28	Poland	Czestochowa
Under 14 years	16	15	13
15-24 years	11	10	10
25-49 years	35	38	35
50-64 years	20	19	24
Over 65 years	18	18	18

(Source: Eurostat, 2014; SYSV 2015)

The proportion of marriages and divorces occur differently in terms of the national and regional data (SYSV 2015, DYP 2015). While in Czestochowa, for two marriages there is a divorce, in Silesia, the frequency of divorces is less; three marriages are facing one divorce; at the national level there is an even bigger difference: three and a half times more marriages were held in 2014 than the number of divorces fixed. In Poland, the fertility rate is 1.29, which is lower than the EU average (1.55) (Eurostat, 2013). The arrival of the first child can be placed on average at the age of 29 among women in Poland; in the EU as a whole, the childbearing period develops broadly similarly (on average, women give birth to their first child at the age of 30). The average household size in the EU is 2.3; the average household size noted among the Polish population is slightly higher (2.7) (Eurostat, 2014).

Among Polish young people, starting a family is formulated as an important goal: 48 percent of high school students are planning to get married and have children (Młodzież 2013). For girls, this figure is even higher, 54 percent, while it is 41 percent for boys. The vast majority of secondary school students live with their parents (94%), the largest proportion with both parents (77%). Most of the young people can count on their mothers in troubled periods (60%), while the role of fathers is also significant (28%). The Polish youth give to their parents' opinion: for 47 percent, the recognition of their mothers is important; 33 percent mainly want to meet her father's expectations. For the Polish high school age group it can be said that they mostly like discussing their concerns and their plans with their mothers. Questions concerning their studies often come into play: 60 of young people discuss it with their

mothers, while 25 percent regularly talk about this subject with their fathers. About their ideas for the future, 48 percent of students often talk about with their mother, while 24 percent with their father. The personal problems, by contrast, are much less regular topics of conversation in the family. By their own admission, just 25 percent of young people regularly turned to his mother, and only 6 percent to his father in these issues.

II. Migration

In Poland, 420 thousand people were affected by interior migration and immigration in 2014, which figure represents a decrease compared to the 2013 measurement, because at that time, 440 thousand people streamed into the country or moved within the country (DYP 2015). Most of them have moved from cities (247 thousand), but four in ten arrived from villages (161 thousand people) in a new place of residence. To the country, a total of 12 thousand people came from abroad in 2014. In terms of inflows and internal migration it can be said that the majority, 54 percent (227 thousand people) settled in cities, while in villages (193 thousand people), 46 percent. Three quarters (nine thousand) of migrants coming from abroad, chose a city as a residence, and only a quarter (three thousand) was looking for a home in rural environment. In migration in Poland, 436 thousand people were affected in 2014, which is by nearly 20 thousand lower number than in the previous year (459 thousand people). Of which 408 thousand people changed their place of residence within the country. Among them, the ratio of those moving to urban areas was outstanding; 218 thousand people (i.e. every second people) settled in Polish cities. The number of those moving to villages was 190 thousand, and 28 thousand people have left the country. Three-quarters of the latter (21 thousand people) lived in urban settings prior to emigration, while a quarter were rural residents (seven thousand). Comparing the results of the 2014 statistics it can be seen that the migration balance shows a negative difference. 16 thousand more people left the country than those who settled in the country and in terms of international migration. Overall, we can say that based on the total population of Polish towns, a significant decrease can be posted: the number of urban dwellers decreased by 41 thousand, while the number of villages, by contrast, has increased: 25 thousand more people lived in townships in 2014 than before. Half of those affected by emigration

and internal migration is under the age of 29: 21 percent is the proportion of children (0-14 years), while the youth age group (15-29 years) amounted to 30 percent from all of this.

In the Silesian, nearly 42 thousand people were involved in the local establishment, while in emigration, more than 45 thousand people (SYSV 2015). In terms of internal migration, 20 percent of those who settled in were under 14 years of age, while 30 percent was between the ages of 15-29. The generational proportions of emigration were similar to this: 19 percent of them were children and the youth age group made up 29 percent of them. The number of those who emigrated abroad from Silesian Voivodina was 5147 people, while the number of those from abroad who settled here was 1616 people. It becomes clear that the migration balance shows a decrease; the number of population in the Voivodship declined in 2014 with more than 3.5 thousand people.

Czestochowa's population number also shows a decline: the population reduced by more than 800 people in 2014 (SYSV 2015). The number of arrivals in the city was 1336, while the number of people leaving it was 2155. The majority (53%) of those settled down here arrived from villages. The largest proportion of those who moved from the city is made up by those who established in villages (51%). The number of those arrived from across the border was 132 in 2014, but almost the double of this left the city because of emigration abroad (228 people).

The largest group of migrants arriving in the country move there from Ukraine (27%), also from Belarus, Germany (7-7%), Russia, China (5-5%), but from Bulgaria and Vietnam (4-4%) they also come in a significant number (NSP 2011). As for the main motivation of immigration can be regarded the mobility due to family reasons (36%), employment (26%), as well as learning and training (10%). Among those leaving the country, the most popular destinations are Great Britain, Germany, the US and Ireland can be designated (NSP 2011; Polakowski, 2012). The main cause of emigration is considered to be relocation due to job opportunities: 71 percent of Polish people leaving the country designated this as a reason (NSP 2011). In addition, however, the family situation (16%) and participation in training and education (7%) also resulted in emigration for many. Among those who leave the country the most active age group is considered to be those of 20-39 years, but among them the 25-34 age group is extremely mobile (NSP 2011; Polakowski, 2012).

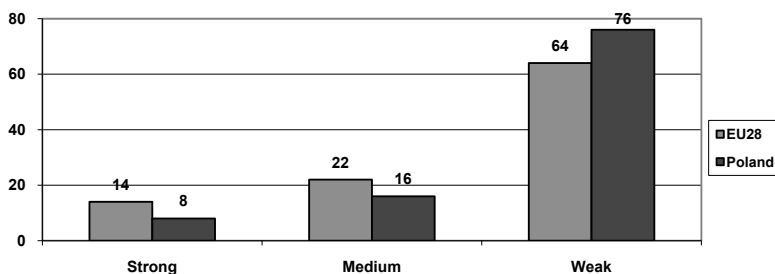
98 percent of Poland's population has a place of birth in Poland (NSP 2011). On the basis of nationality, almost one hundred percent of the population is Polish: only 63 thousand people are considered to be foreign citizens. Among them, the largest group is made up of Ukrainian nationality (15 thousand), but the German (six thousand), Belarus and the Russian (5-5 thousand) nationalities also make up a significant minority. 92 percent of Poland's population declare themselves only as Polish in terms of ethnicity; 2.2 percent is partly as Polish, partly as belonging to other ethnic groups, 1.4 percent only identify themselves to belong to other ethnicity. Nearly 4 percent of the population is therefore considered to be partially or completely minority in terms of ethnic group, which means nearly 1.4 million people. Among them, the largest minority is made up of the Silesians (415 thousand people), followed by the Kashubian (212 thousand), the Germans (52 thousand), Ukrainians (20 thousand), the Belarusians (15 thousand), as well as the Americans (10 thousand people).

82 percent of people living in the Silesian Voivodship are considered to be Polish on the basis of ethnicity; but 9 percent declare themselves to be members of other ethnic groups as well; 8 percent, however, do not declare themselves to be Polish, i.e. have some kind of minority identity in ethnic terms (NSP 2011). In the Voivodship has the highest proportion of Silesians; 85 percent of Silesians in Poland live here. In addition, the Germans (24 percent of all German nationals), the French (13 percent of all French nationals) and the British (12 percent of all British nationals) also represent themselves in a significant proportion in the Silesian Voivodship.

The Polish basically evaluate positively the migrants from other EU Member States: 60 percent is positive about the immigration issue, while in another 28 percent there are rather negative feelings on this issue (EU28: 55 percent has positive and 38 percent has negative opinions) (Eurobarometer, 2015a). However, if they have to evaluate the establishment of those arriving from outside the EU in Poland, Polish people become much more reserved: only a quarter (26%, EU28: 34%) shows openness in this area; in nearly two-thirds, rather negative emotions are formulated towards this (62%, EU28: 59%). It is, therefore, not surprising that if we examine the openness of the country's population overall, we get a less open, rather closed image (Figure 1). Only 24 percent of the Polish (EU28: 36%) can be characterized as being at least moderately open towards those coming from the EU countries, while

for three-quarter of them (76%, EU28: 64%) is only slightly characterized by acceptance and openness.

Figure 1. The rate of openness towards arrivals from other EU Member States in the European Union and in Poland (percentage distribution)



(Source: Eurobarometer, 2015a)

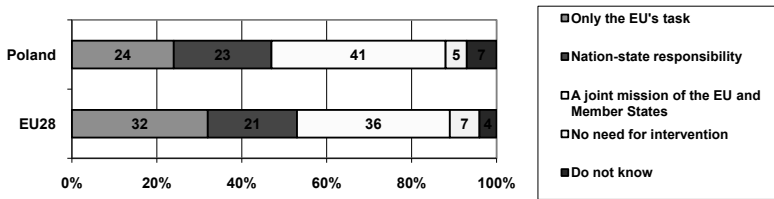
One third of Polish high school students (32%) believe that the Polish are worth more than citizens of other countries; it is mainly true for the boys and those young people characterized by right-wing political identity (Młodziej 2013). A further third of them (33%) feel that there is no difference in value between the Polish and citizens of other nations, and only 13 percent thinks the Poles being less valuable to others.

The majority of Polish citizens were not in contact with another EU country nationals recently (12 months prior to polling) (Eurobarometer, 2015a). Only 13 percent repeatedly came into contact with foreign EU nationals; a further 20 percent only 1-2 times. In the EU as a whole, networking with respect to nationals of other EU countries is much more common: it is a characteristic of every second citizen (51%); three out of five of whom are often in contact with other EU Member State nationals.

As for the management of illegal immigration, there are divided opinions within the European Union and in Poland (Eurobarometer, 2015). At the Union, the most dominant opinion is that a common solution to the EU and Member States is needed on this issue; but nearly the same number believes that only the EU has a role and responsibility in this (Figure 2). In Poland, also the co-operation of the EU and the nation-state level is the most common position; four in ten are in this opinion. Compared to the results of the EU,

only a quarter of Poles feel the exclusive responsibility of the EU, as there are almost as many people who have the opposite view and consider the national level intervention to be expedient. Regarding the specific assistance, opinions remain divided: only half of Poles (50%) believe that the country should help the refugees; at the EU level this ratio is higher, 65 percent.

Figure 2: Opinion on the management of illegal immigration situation in the European Union and in Poland (percentage distribution)



(Source: Eurobarometer, 2015a)

III. Labour market

A quarter of Poles (24%) feel that before the autumn of 2015, one year on the economic situation improved in the country, while one-fifth (20%) experienced negative changes (Eurobarometer, 2015a). The largest group (45%) is made up of those who say that no substantial change happened in the economic situation of Poland recently. As for the labour market, the ratio of those experiencing the recent changes positively (19%) and negatively (21%) is almost the same; while half of Poles (49%) did not diagnose changes in this area. Looking at the financial situation of households, most of them declared satisfaction: 65 percent of Poles evaluate the current situation of families to be in good condition; only three in ten (29%) feel pessimistic from this point of view.

Two-thirds of Polish are employed, but women are underrepresented in employment compared to men (Eurostat, 2014 to 2015) (Table 2). While the proportion of men active in the labour market in Poland is similar to EU data, the female employment rate remains below the EU average. The part-time contracts are less widespread in Poland than in the EU as a whole, where

every fifth employed is working part-time. By contrast, fixed-term contracts are more common in Poland: the proportion of such contracts is twice as many as in the EU. In connection with the employment it can be clearly seen that employment opportunities are strongly influenced by educational attainment⁴⁷. In Poland, the one who is a graduate is twice as likely to find a job as someone who has only primary education. In addition, however, it is important to stress that those with primary education have less chances of employment than the EU average. While viewing the 28 Member States of the Union, every second person with primary education can find a job, only four in ten is that lucky in Poland.

Table 2: Labour market situation in the European Union and in Poland (percentage distribution)

	EU28	Poland
Ratio of the employed	69	67
Ratio of the employed among men	75	74
Ratio of the employed among women	64	59
Proportion of part-time contracts	20	8
Proportion of fixed-term employment contracts	14	28
Ratio of employed among low-skilled people	52	38
Proportion of employed among those with secondary education	70	64
Proportion of employed among graduates	82	84

47 The level 0-2 belongs to this, which covers from pre-school education to the lower level of secondary education; in the second category, there is the level 3-4, which includes higher levels of secondary education and the post-secondary (non-tertiary) education and finally level 5-6, fall into a category into which the first and second levels of higher education graduates can be classified.

Proportion of people living in jobless households (under 60 years of age)	11	7
Proportion of unemployed in the 15-24 age group	23	21
Proportion of unemployed among the low-skilled	17	18
Proportion of unemployed among those with secondary education	8	9
Proportion of unemployed among graduates	6	4
The proportion of employees living under the poverty line	10	11
Poverty rate among the low-skilled	25	28
Poverty rate among those with secondary education	15	16
Poverty rate among graduates	8	4

(Source: Eurostat, 2014-2015)

In Poland, 7 percent is the rate of those among 60 years of age living in jobless households (Eurostat, 2014-2015). This rate is higher in the EU, 11 percent. The youth unemployment affects the fifth of the 15-24 age groups in Poland; in the EU this proportion is slightly higher, almost one in four young people are unemployed. However, in parallel with the previous ones, the level of education, not surprisingly, affects unemployment. It is four times more likely that person with primary school education becomes jobless than a graduate in Poland, while on the EU level, this difference is less, only three times.

The poverty gap in Poland is 23 percent; in the EU the figure is about the same, 25 percent (Eurostat, 2014-2015). The rate of those living below the poverty line and having income is almost the same in Poland and in the Union; every tenth citizen is involved in this matter. With regard to financial difficulties, the effect of education can also be measured. While among those with lower education, 28 percent is the proportion of people living below the poverty line, among the graduates, this rate is only 4 percent nationally.

In the EU, minor differences can be seen in this area, too, examining the effect of education: it is three times more likely to live below the poverty line for those with income, but in the possession of primary education than those who are graduates.

Nearly two-thirds of Poles (61%, EU28: 58%) is satisfied with the current working conditions, and only one-fifth (22%, EU28: 25%) see it gloomily (Eurobarometer, 2015a). The majority of Polish workers consider their labour-market position (61%, EU28: 60%) unchanged one year on. In contrast, one-fifth (20%, EU28: 22%) noticed positive changes, while one in ten (10%, EU28: 8%) perceived deterioration. The national labour market conditions are considered to be good by only a plenty of thirds of Poles (38%); 57 percent evaluates the opportunities to be bad (Eurobarometer, 2014). Regarding salaries and working conditions, a difference can be experienced between the public and private sector posts; 60 percent of Poles believes the private sector clearly offers better opportunities compared with the posts in the public sector (Eurobarometer, 2015a).

In terms of education, the Polish data can be positively assessed: only 6 percent of the 25-34 age group is affected by school-leaving after elementary education (Eurostat, 2014). In the EU, the figure is much higher, nearly three times more; 17 percent of the age group mentioned is affected. By 2020, 52 percent of Poles (EU28: 50%) considers it to be realistic forecast that the school dropout rate of young people without qualifications will be reduced to less than 10 percent in the EU (Eurobarometer, 2015a).

In terms of employment, in the most difficult situation are those living in small rural towns and villages (Polakowski, 2012). In their case, the lower level of education is often combined with worse prospects in terms of job placement and perspectives. The vast majority of young Poles are basically optimistic in terms of job prospects: 72 percent believes they will be able to find a job after graduation; in the EU this figure is 74 percent (Eurobarometer, 2015b). On the contrary, there is the image that claims that only a fifth of the Polish young people are not at all concerned with job placement (Table 3). Most of them highlighted the difficulty of obtaining long-term, stable jobs, but the concern because of moving out is also in the front row. Least of them worry about low salary and the lack of right skills needed in the position, but more than a seventh of them are concerned with it.

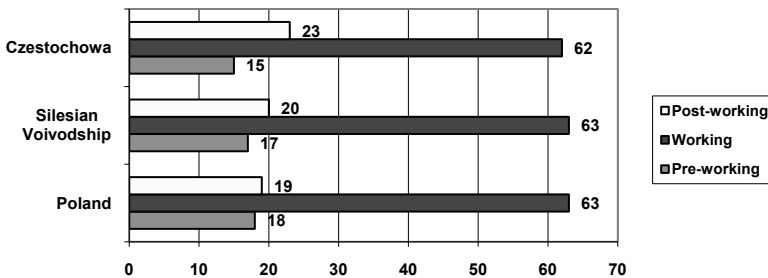
Table 3: Job finding difficulties for young people in the European Union and in Poland (percentage distribution)

	EU28	Poland
Cannot find a long-term, stable job	31	27
Have to move because of the appropriate job	16	20
Do not have adequate qualifications and knowledge to fill in the position	13	13
Low salary	12	14
Not worry about finding a job	19	19

(Source: Eurobarometer, 2015b)

One fifth of the country's population is made up of those before employment, while nearly two-thirds of them count to be active in terms of employment; however, a fourth of them is inactive (SYSV 2015) (Figure 3). In Czeszochowa, 38 percent of the population made up of people who are inactive, but 62 percent is currently engaged in employment.

Figure 3: Distribution by labour market activity in Poland, in the Silesian Voivodship and in Czeszochowa (percentage distribution)



(Source: SYSV 2015)

In the Silesian Voivodship in 2014, a total of 176 thousand people were registered as jobseekers (SYSV 2015). The majority (53%) were women; 55

percent had been unemployed for at least 12 months. 14 percent of the unemployed in the Voivodship are under 24 years, a further 28 percent is between the ages of 25-34, so almost every second jobseeker is a youngster. In Czestochowa, slightly more than 12 thousand unemployed were registered in 2014; the local unemployment rate is 11 percent. Half of the job seekers are women (50%), a third is under 34 years of age. 8 percent of all registered unemployed are under 24 years, and 25 percent is between the ages of 25-34; according to this, youth unemployment rate in Czestochowa remains below the rate of the one in the Silesian Voivodship.

Among the Polish workers under 24 years, the rate of those with employment contract for an indefinite duration is lower than among those between 25 and 34 years (Polakowski, 2012) (Table 4). In contrast, the fixed-term contracts are more common among younger people. In self-employment, also the older people are over-represented. In terms of people below 24 years, among men, open-ended contract jobs are more typical, while women prefer fixed-term contracts. However, we can see just the opposite proportions among the 25-34-year-olds. However, in both age groups, we can experience the predominance of men in self-employment.

Table 4: Characteristics of employment among 15-34-year-olds in Poland in 2011 (percentage distribution)

	Under 24 year-olds		25-34 year-olds	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
Employed with a contract of indefinite duration	29	23	52	58
Employed with a fixed-term contract	40	48	24	23
Self-employed	8	3	13	8

(Source: Polakowski, 2012)

IV. Culture

With respect to cultural activities, going to the cinema or visiting a concert visit proves to be the most popular leisure time activities among young people (Eurobarometer, 2015b) (Table 5). Besides, visiting various tourist attractions is also a leisure alternative for many. While visiting theatres and concerts are more popular among teenagers, the cultural-art- and historical attractions among young people in their twenties are more popular. About these two leisure activities it can equally be said that in the lives of young Poles they are present in a somewhat lower extent than the EU average. Various art performances are visited by a lower proportion of young people with in their spare time. Amateur artistic activities are carried out regularly by only three in ten. These two cultural forms of free time are popular especially among teens. Overall, it can be said that the 15-19 age group count to be the most active in terms of cultural consumption. In addition, the attendance at the certain spaces is over-represented among those with higher levels of education, as well as among students. It is also important, however, to point out that one tenth of the 15-29 age group do not carry out cultural activities in their free time: in the EU as a whole, for 11 percent of young people, while in Poland, for 13 percent this statement is true.

Table 5: Participation of 15-29-year-olds in cultural activities in the European Union and in Poland (percentage distribution)

	EU28	Poland
Attending the cinema or concerts	80	74
Visiting monuments museums or exhibitions	63	59
Attending theatre, dance or classical music performances	38	37
Carrying out creative activities as a hobby	30	30
None	11	13

(Source: Eurobarometer, 2015b)

The vast majority of the Polish secondary school students are eager to spend time with friends, while playing sports and visiting clubs also count to be

popular activities (Młodziej 2013) (Table 6). The list of the favourite leisure activities, however, is not without media-tools either. A quarter of teenagers prefer using the web in their free time, one-fifth watch TV and nearly the same number play computer games or choose social media surfaces. In contrast, with the exception of reading, we can say that cultural activities (arts activities or concerts) are pushed into the background, and a quarter of the age group spends most of their remaining free hours with no activity. In terms of high school age groups, among girls, the activities spent with friends, visiting places of entertainment, reading, watching television, visiting the social networking sites prove to be more popular, as in the case of “doing nothing”, they are also over-represented. The boys, by contrast, tend to prefer sports and computer games.

Table 6: Distribution of free time activities by type of settlement among Polish secondary school students (percentage distribution)

	Poland	Villages	Towns with max. 20 thousand inhabitants	Towns with max. 20-100 thousand inhabitants	Towns with max. 100-500 thousand inhabitants	Towns with more than 500 thousand inhabitants
Spending time with friends	88	89	87	87	90	80
Sports	30	27	27	31	31	44
Visiting discos, clubs	29	35	29	24	21	17
Surfing the web	23	24	24	20	23	18
Watching television	20	23	22	17	19	9
Reading	20	18	27	20	22	21
Using social media platforms	18	20	15	17	16	9

Playing with computer games	17	12	19	20	21	31
Performing arts activities	10	8	5	16	12	15
Attending concerts	6	4	9	9	4	9
Pastime without concrete action	24	22	29	25	27	28
Other activities	6	7	5	4	6	10

(Source: Młodzież 2013)

Comparing the national results and the results of the towns with larger population, it appears that among high school young people of towns with the size of Czestochowa (100-500 thousand inhabitants), the number of high school youth choosing sports, a variety of art activities, and computer games is higher than in the case of those living in lower population settlements (Młodziej 2013). Simultaneously, it is also obvious that the clubs and social media tools are less popular recreational alternatives to high school students living in towns with larger population than among those living in small towns.

In the era of information society, we spend a significant part of our free time in mediated environment. For this reason, it is not surprising data that 80 percent of EU citizens count to be high media consumers and only 15 percent are considered to be a low-level consumer from this perspective (Eurobarometer, 2015a). In Poland, the proportion of low-level media consumers is somewhat higher (20%), but the vast majority (76%) use the media-tools to an outstanding degree. Two thirds of EU citizens (63%), while half of Poles (53%) use the Internet daily and only one-fifth of the population (EU28: 17%, Poland: 18%), who do not visit websites or use online interfaces at all. Among the Polish, the most popular online activities count reading the news, e-mail correspondence, visiting the different surfaces of social media, as well as the banking.

The Polish teenagers use the Internet an average of three hours per day, the boys (3.2 hours) slightly more than girls (2.9 hours) (Młodziej 2013). Three in ten people spend more than the average time in front of the screen. The inhabitants of small towns with 20-100 thousand people spend the most time in the online space, an average of 3.4 hours, while high school students living in Czestochowa-sized cities use the Internet an average of 3.2 hours per day. At fifth of Polish high school students, the extent of Internet use in the

family is a common problem; this is especially true for boys. Sixth of them use the online spaces at the expense of time spent studying or relaxing. The Internet-related problems are over-represented among young people staying for a longer time in the online space.

In a study carried out in 2015, they were interested in the opinion of adults who have children or grandchildren at the ages of 6 and 19 (DMI, 2015). Based on their answers it can be said that 86 percent of Polish 6-19 year olds use the Internet; in 2004, this ratio was 58 percent. Already 81 percent of 6-12 year olds know the online space, and over the age of 13, there is almost no young person, who does not use the Internet (95%). Based on the parents', grandparents' opinion it can be said that the Polish children and adolescents use the Internet 15 hours per week on average; one-third (36%) even spend more time in front of the screen. Based on the opinion of family members, the youngest age group (6-12 years) spend an average of 11 hours, while the oldest (16-19 years) 21 hours of time in the online space.

The amount of using the Internet counts mostly tolerable for kids between 6-12 years based on the opinion of adults (DMI, 2015). In contrast, the age group of 16 to 19 is characterized by excessive Internet use the most. 43 percent of the family members believe that their child or grandchild spends too much time in front of the screen; in their case, the children use the Internet an average of 22 hours a week. While those children, teenagers, whose parents do not complain about them (49 percent of the respondent adults believed that their child, grandchild spends an acceptable amount of or little time with using the Internet) because of the frequency of Internet use, spend an average of 8 hours a week. 65 percent of Polish parents, grandparents would reduce the time the child spends on the Internet - this is especially true for 6-12 year olds. The vast majority of parents, grandparents believe that they are aware of what portals young people are visiting, what they are using the Internet for. However, it is important to note that by the age, the parents lose from this control: while 90 percent of the 6-12-year-olds' parents, grandparents believe, only 77 percent of 16-19 year-olds can say that they know their child's, grandchild's surfing habits. Most of them are worried about the dangers of the online space: 74 percent of adult respondents feel that the Internet itself has lots of potential safety risks. Most parents, grandparents emphasize the difficulties of building relationships and uncertainties, as well as the accessibility of harmful content for youngsters and children.

V. Public life

In general, within the European Union, it can be said that only a part of the citizens show interest in politics (Eurobarometer, 2015a). 17 percent of young people is not at all interested in politics, 19 percent shows low-interest, while to the most active, only 18 percent of the 15-29 age group can be considered. In Poland, 36 percent of the population can be considered to be not or little interested in politics; and only on 15 percent can be said that there is a high level of interest in this direction. The majority of Poles (81%), although rarely, are talking about issues affecting the country in their own family or work environment. Only one-fifth of families (18%, EU28: 22%) fails to mention such issues. In contrast, the local residential affairs are the topic of conversation for only three-quarters of Poles (74%, EU28: 74%) within their immediate environment. In the political processes affecting the EU, even fewer are interested: among the Poles, three in ten (31%, EU28: 33%) do not talk about this topic with their family or with their friends, colleagues. 43 percent of the Polish high school students, to a greater or lesser regularly, follow political news, are interested in politics to some extent (Młodziej 2013). For 24 percent, only the highlighted events arouse their interest, however, 31 percent shows total passivity in this area. Openness to political affairs characterizes mainly the boys: 52 percent follows this kind of events more or less; among girls, the figure is only 35 percent. In political matters, the Polish students talk rather with their fathers: 37 percent, however, do not talk about these issues with their fathers, and with their mothers, even more, 44 percent.

On the political news of the certain countries, the citizens are mainly informed from the television (81%), from the printed press and from the radio (41-41%) (Eurobarometer, 2015a). In contrast, for the Poles, the main sources of information are the television (75%), the radio (44%) and the web (41%). With the functioning of democracy, 52 percent of EU citizens are satisfied, while the corresponding figure among Poles is higher, 62 percent. However, among the Polish high school students, completely different ratios can be experienced: only 16 percent of students feel comfortable with the democratic operation (Młodziej 2013). The democratic system itself is only considered by 29 percent of students to be a desirable form of government; 24 percent would take a different system to be acceptable. In 1998, young people's faith in democracy was higher: then, 38 percent of high school stu-

dents found this as the best form of government. The distrust of democracy is especially a characteristic of those interested in politics, and preferring other form of government.

A few trusts in local politicians: only 42 percent of EU citizens show trust in them; this figure is slightly lower in Poland, only 37 percent (Eurobarometer, 2015a). In contrast, about every second Polish citizen (51%, EU28: 49%) can be said that they show distrust towards the political actors of their towns. The Polish secondary school students, however, are much more sceptical towards politicians: according to the vast majority, politicians consider only their own interests in mind (92%), do not deal with the opinion of citizens (84%) (Młodziej 2013). Simultaneously, only a tenth (9%) believe that the actions of political actors are guided by the common good.

The vast majority of Poles are tied to their country (95%, EU28: 92%), and the town as well (92%, EU28: 89%) (Eurobarometer, 2015). Half of the Polish citizens believes that the people of the country are aware of the country's political process, however, 45 percent (EU28: 41%) think it's more of the shortcomings of the population (EU28: 58%). At the head of the rankings of problems affecting their own country stand unemployment (37%), inflation (21%), the issue of social security and pensions (20-20%). The Polish secondary school students are dissatisfied with the country's current status: only 5 percent of the students believe that the government would go in the right direction, by contrast, 75 percent evaluate all of this clearly negatively (Młodziej 2013). The most pessimistic count the financially precarious and the inhabitants of villages and small settlements. Among the inhabitants of the municipalities of similar size as Czestochowa, dissatisfaction in this direction is outstanding: 76 percent of students living in the towns with 100-500 thousand inhabitants feels distrust regarding the country's current governance. In 1998, 46 percent were still hopeful and only 26 percent sceptical about the right way in terms of political processes in the country.

In addition to the public-policy interest, another segment of the public activity is provided by the organizational and civic relations. A quarter of young people living in the EU (25%) carried out voluntary activities a year on prior to the query; in Poland this figure is lower, 20 percent (Eurobarometer, 2015a). Among volunteer activities, participation in those actions primarily linked to the locality count to be popular: 71 percent of young Poles was doing voluntary activity for the organization or aim working at the township

(EU28: 66%). Those living in major cities, especially contributed to projects nationwide, but basically the 15-19 age group, the educated, and young people living in villages are considered the most active in voluntary activities. In Poland, mainly the charitable and humanitarian organizations are the most popular (70%, EU28: 44%), as well as organizations linked to education, training and sports (23%, EU28: 40%) rise the interest of young people the most. In international volunteering only 4 percent of young Poles took part in the twelve months previous the query (EU28: 6%), while in international youth project five percent (EU28: 7%), which in terms of the EU's 28 Member States is the lowest value. This type of activity is the characteristic of mainly the students and the 15-19 age groups.

In NGO activities, one year on prior to the query, only a few of them participated: 67 percent of young Poles did not perform any such activity (EU28: 51%) (Eurobarometer, 2015a). If they did so, it was done mainly under an organization related to sport (13%) or some kind of youth-related recreation and cultural (9-9%) activity. In the area of organizational activity, boys / men and 15-19 year-olds, students and highly educated people are considered to be extremely active. Among the Polish secondary school students, association membership is considered to be outstanding compared to the entire youth age (Młodziej 2013). 32 percent of the students are members of a Polish NGO; the figure in 1998 was only 25 percent. The boys are over-represented in this field: 41 percent have some kind of NGO membership, while for girls the figure is 24 percent. . In both sexes, especially organizations related to sports (girls: 8%, boys: 23%) and cultural events (girls: 8%, boys: 9%), are the most popular.

VI. EU Citizenship

On matters affecting the Union's institutions, citizens collect information primarily from the television (Eurobarometer, 2015a). In Poland, four in ten (41%) are informed on the news about the functioning of the EU from these sources. Viewing the 28 Member States together, the percentage is higher: for every two citizens (49%) the television is the primary source of news in the field. In Poland, in addition, the news sites (23%) and the radio receive prominent role as well. At EU level, the news sites (24%) and newspapers (25%) appear to be significant in relation to obtaining information

concerning the Union. The EU affairs count to be frequent conversational topics in the homes and in the immediate vicinity of only a few (EU28: 51%, Poland: 54%). The third of EU citizens (33%) is not at all talking about such issues with family, friends or at the working community. This proportion is about the same in Poland (31%).

42 percent of Poles believes that the country's population is well informed regarding the affairs of the Union (EU28: 31%), while 49 percent is just on the opposite view (EU28: 65%) is (Eurobarometer, 2015a). The majority of citizens (55%) are aware of the functioning of the Union. For Poland, this statement is especially true: seven out of ten (70%) believe on the basis of own admission, they have knowledge of the EU institutional system and its structure. With the rights valid in the Union, fewer citizens are aware of: at the EU level, only five in ten (49%), while at the national level, six out of ten (59%) consider themselves to be competent in this field. By contrast, to the EU-knowledge questions⁴⁸ raised on the occasions of the Eurobarometer studies, only a fraction of the citizens could give the correct answer: at the EU and national level this rate is 35 percent. It is, therefore, not surprising that two-thirds of EU citizens (EU 28: 65%, Poland: 62%) would like to gather more information on the functioning and current affairs of the Union.

The majority of the population of the Union's 28 Member States declare themselves to be EU citizens, but this does not apply to everyone (Eurobarometer, 2015a). At EU level, only 64 percent of citizens, while in Poland 71 percent of the population feel ownership in addition to their own national identity, of the European Union identity. When hearing about the EU, most citizens associate to the freedom of movement, but it can also be connected to the common currency, the Euro, as well as to cultural diversity and peace for many people in the EU (Table 7). Simultaneously, however, the financial losses and the weakening or the absence of border controls can for many people be identified with the EU. A similar picture can be drawn up of the opinion of the Polish nationals, but the accents are modified somewhat in their case. Free cross-border movement with the operation of the EU is the most typical point of identification, but stronger position represented in the world, peace, cultural diversity and the Euro also play a prominent role. In

48 The three statements, the accuracy of which the respondents had to decide was as follows: 1. The Union has 28 Member States; 2. Representatives of the European Parliament are directly elected by the citizens of the Member States; 3. Switzerland is an EU Member State.

contrast, the Poles identify the unemployment, the loss of cultural identity, rising crime, the economic deficit or weakening of border controls to a less extent with the EU, as in all of the 28 Member States can be experienced.

Table 7: Meaning of the EU for its citizens across the Union and in Poland (“What does the EU mean for you personally?”; percentage distribution)

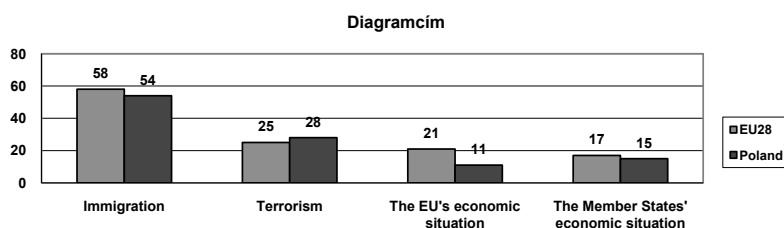
	EU28	Poland
Peace	27	21
Economic well-being	14	13
Democracy	22	20
Social protection	9	9
Free movement	49	49
Cultural diversity	28	21
Strong global position	22	24
Euro	37	21
Unemployment	14	5
Bureaucracy	24	16
Material loss	25	10
Loss of cultural identity	14	9
More crime	16	6
Lack of control at the external borders	24	10
Other	3	1

(Source: Eurobarometer, 2015a)

The majority of EU citizens believes that the EU’s words count in the world (Eurobarometer, 2015a). Viewing the overall 28 Member States, 68 percent of the population, while in Poland, 77 percent agree that the EU has a relevant role in the world. According to the citizens, the EU’s biggest merit can be considered the peace between Member States (EU28: 56%, Poland: 51%) and people and free movement of capital (EU28: 55%, Poland: 62%).

In contrast, the most significant problems in the EU are mainly immigration, terrorism and the Union and the economic difficulties of the situation of Member States according to the citizens (Figure 4). In Poland, more than half of the population feels immigration, nearly a third terrorism as two of the most pressing problems in the EU.

Figure 4: The EU's most important problems in the views of all the member states and Poland ("What do you think are the two most important matters with which the EU is currently facing?"; percentage distribution)



(Source: Eurobarometer, 2015a)

In the Union's institutional system, only one part of the citizens trust unconditionally (Eurobarometer, 2015a). At EU level, 32 percent of the population trust the EU, while 55 percent relates to this issue on the contrary. Poland prevails a more neutral attitude: the rate of those feeling trust towards the EU is 37 percent, as the rate of those with distrust is nearly the same, 39 percent. A quarter of Polish secondary school students (24%) believe that EU membership threatens the sovereignty of Poland, while the majority, 53 percent, do not agree with it (Młodziej 2013).

The majority of Polish citizens thinks neutral overall in connection with the operation of the Union (Eurobarometer, 2015a). Three in ten (30%) feel that the EU's current processes are going in the right direction and the same percentage (30%) are those who believe the operation moving in the wrong direction. In the EU as a whole, this issue prevails a more positive attitude: according to 45 percent, cases are going in the right direction in the EU, only a quarter (26%) believes that to the contrary, they are just moving towards a wrong direction in the current processes. Looking at the future, by contrast, is characterized by optimism at EU and national level. Although, in the case

of Poland it is much more marked: 70 percent of those who live here see the future positively and only 21 percent prove to be pessimistic. In the EU as a whole, optimists make up a smaller group, 53 percent of citizens are optimistic about matters affecting the future of the EU, while 41 percent are looking at the upcoming years gloomily.

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Nicosia



The situation of young people in Nicosia and in Cyprus

The basis of the presentation of Cypriot young people is provided, in part, by the data of *Eurobarometer* studies and, in part, by a nationwide youth survey carried out in 2009 (*Youth in Cyprus*). We have collected the national socio-demographic background information from the database can be found on the website of the Cypriot statistical office (CIF, 2014, DR, 2013). The EU comparison and the glancing out were made possible by the *Eurostat* database as well as by the thematic reports of the *Eurobarometer* studies.

I. Demography

Cyprus is the third-smallest member state of the Union; its total population is 858 thousand people (Eurostat 2014). The sex ratio is almost the same, but the women are in majority: for 100 men there are 106 women. The dependency rate is 43 percent in the country, which means that the ratio of children (younger than 14 years old) and the elderly (older than 65 years old) make up less than half of the working-age population (Table 1). The old-age dependency rate is 20 percent; the value of the aging index is 85 (EU28: 113), according to which the proportion of children in the total population is higher than those of the elderly (Eurostat, 2013). The average life expectancy at birth is 85 years for women; for men, this is five years less, only 80 years. In the EU, we can encounter with a lower average age: the men's average life expectancy at birth is 77 years and for women, it is 83 years.

Table 1: Age group composition in the European Union, in Cyprus
(percentage distribution)

	EU28	Cyprus
Under 14 year olds	16	16
15-24 year olds	11	14
25-49 year olds	35	38
50-64 year olds	20	18
65-79 year olds	13	11
Over 80 year olds	5	3

(Source: Eurostat, 2014)

In Cyprus, the total fertility rate is 1.3, the EU average is higher, 1.6 (Eurostat, 2013). The average household size is of 2.8; in the EU, this figure is somewhat lower: 2.3. In 2012, for 1000 people came 6.7 marriages, while 2.4 divorces. According to this, only a third of Cypriot marriages end in divorce (36 percent). Two-thirds of young people consider marriage to be outdated (YIC, 2009). 67 percent of Turkish Cypriot young people, while 69 percent of Greek Cypriot young people consider the institution of marriage to be obsolete. In contrast, the spread and acceptance of cohabitation is much more pronounced. Only one-fifth (20 percent) of young people living in the Turkish Cyprus, while a quarter (24 percent) of the Greek Cypriot youth believe that childbearing can only be imagined in marriage.

When the first child arrives, Cypriot young people are an average of 31-year-olds; the EU average age in this case is almost the same: 30 years (Eurostat, 2013). As a result of the late parental detachment and late self-existence building of young people, can be placed at their late twenties and early thirties, the family formation was also significantly delayed in recent decades (the phenomenon of post-adolescence). Among the Turkish Cypriot young people it is a strongly agreed view that parents should support their children even after marriage (58 percent believe so) (YIC, 2009). In contrast, among the Greek Cypriot youth there is a higher degree of desire for independence: only one-third (34 percent) agree that parents should support their children even after their marriage.

The detachment of Cypriot young people from their parents' house is influenced by many factors (YIC, 2009) (Table 2). While in the case of the Turkish Cypriots, the adaptation to the lifestyle of the age group and convenience play a major role, convenience dominates among the Greek Cypriot youth. In addition, however, the later independence of the Cypriot young people is determined by the material constraints as well: a tenth of them cannot afford to maintain an independent household; a further tenth of them is struggling with a specific lack of funds.

Table 2: Reasons for the delay of the detachment from parents among the Turkish and Greek Cypriot youth (percentage distribution)

	Turkish Cypriot young people	Greek Cypriot young people
Having no money	14	10
This is comfortable, so there is no responsibility	4	3
Saving for later	3	6
Adapts to the lifestyle characteristic of youth overall	26	8
Cannot afford	11	10
It is good for him/her	23	21

(Source: YIC, 2009)

II. Migration

Cyprus's population began to decline in the last few years (CIF, 2014). In 2012, the one year earlier population declined with 629 people, in 2013, with a further 12,078 people. The number of immigrants coming to Cyprus in 2013 was 13,149 people, while in 2012: 17,476 people. Before that, in 2007, a significant increase was experienced; following to that, 19-20 thousands

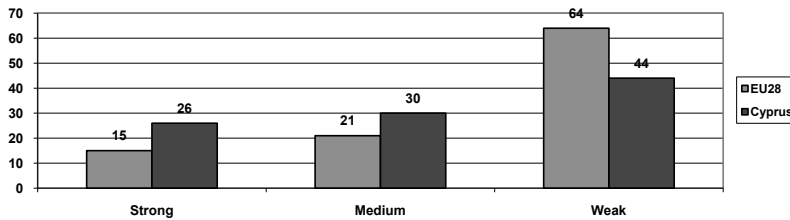
of people arrived in the country annually (DR 2013). In addition, a further nearly ten thousand (9831) people arrived in Cyprus in 2013, for a less than one year period (2012 11 825 people). In emigration, in 2012 and in 2013 a marked uptick was experienced. While in 2012, only 4-5 thousand people per year left the country, in 2012, 18.105 people, and in 2013 even more, 25.227 people did the same.

Nicosia's population is 334 thousand people, which means 123 thousand households; this makes up the 39 percent of all households in Cyprus (CIF, 2014). Three quarters (76 percent) of the 123 thousands households in Nicosia can be found in big cities as well as in small towns; only a quarter (24 percent) of them live in villages. Nicosia's population has been increasing since 2006; in the past few years, it means a 16-17 thousand population growth in the settlement (DR 2013).

80 percent of the Cypriot population is given by Cypriot citizens (COP 2011). The largest minority group is made up of the citizens of other countries of the European Union. Within this, the proportion of Greeks is the highest: 4 percent of the total population. In addition to the Greeks, the most citizens of other nationalities come from the United Kingdom (3 percent), Romania (3 percent) and Bulgaria (2 percent). The proportion of citizens from outside the EU, settled down in Cyprus is 8 percent of the total population. Among them, the proportion of the Philippine, Russian, Sri Lankans and Vietnamese citizens is the largest. However, the proportion of these nationalities is low in the total population of Cyprus: they make up of 1-1 percent. Most residents with other nationalities can be classified in the 20-44 age groups; their ratio within the overall minority is 32 percent.

The majority of European Union citizens show low levels of openness to other EU-country nationals (Eurobarometer, 2014) (Figure 1). Only a third of them prove to be at least moderately tolerant and only 15 percent of them is totally accepting towards other EU countries. In Cyprus, citizens are more open: 56 percent is at least moderately tolerant towards other EU Member States and their citizens, and one quarter particularly shows strong openness towards them.

Figure 1: The degree of openness to other EU member countries in the European Union and in Cyprus (percentage distribution)



(Source: Eurobarometer, 2014a)

The attitude towards immigrants shows a much more nuanced picture, depending upon whether we are talking about a migrant arriving from a EU Member State or from outside the EU (Eurobarometer, 2014). In the EU as a whole there is a greater degree of tolerance towards immigrants from other EU countries than towards those arriving from other countries. In terms of EU nationals, 52 percent of them view migrants positively (41 percent of them is rather negative), if they come from the EU. Only 35 percent receives positively those arriving from other issuing countries (57 percent views this issue negatively). In Cyprus, acceptance towards immigrants can be experienced to an even less extent. Those arriving from inside the EU are received positively by four people out of ten (41 percent) (58 percent receives them negatively); and only a quarter (23 percent) of Cypriot citizens receive positively those arriving from other countries (however, 75 percent shows rather hostility towards them).

III. Labour market

69 percent of the EU working-age population (15-64 years) is employed; this ratio is lower among women than among men (Eurostat, 2014) (Table 3). In Cyprus, nearly identical rates can be found; two out of three of the working age population have a job. The proliferation of part-time jobs in Cyprus is less common: here, only every seventh, while in the Union, every fifth worker is employed in this form. However, the fixed-term contracts are more frequent; every fifth job was loaded on this condition.

The employment rate is clearly determined by educational attainment, as job seekers with higher educational qualifications⁴⁹ are more likely to find a job than those with lower education (Eurostat, 2014). In Cyprus, this difference is one and a half times more: among people with low level of education the rate of employment is 55 percent, while among those with post-secondary school education it is 77 percent already; the rate of employment, however, it is overall lower than in the EU as a whole.

As regards unemployment, we can encounter a rate slightly lower than the EU average (Eurostat, 2013) (Table 3). However, youth unemployment, compared to the data measured throughout the EU, is more serious; one and a half time more. In addition to the young people, those with low educational qualifications are threatened by joblessness the most. In Cyprus, one in five people among them is a job seeker; among university graduates, however, only one in ten Cypriots.

Table 3: Labour market situation in the European Union and in Cyprus (percentage distribution)

	EU28	Cyprus
Ratio of the employed	69	68
Ratio of the employed among men	75	72
Ratio of the employed among women	64	64
Proportion of part-time contracts	21	14
Proportion of fixed-term employment contracts	14	19
Ratio of employed among low-skilled people	52	55
Proportion of employed among those with secondary education	70	65
Proportion of employed among graduates	82	77

49 The level 0-2 belongs to this, which covers from pre-school education to the lower level of secondary education; in the second category, there is the level 3-4, which includes higher levels of secondary education and the post-secondary (non-tertiary) education and finally level 5-6, fall into a category into which the first and second levels of higher education graduates can be classified.

Proportion of people living in jobless households (under 60 years of age)	11	8
Proportion of unemployed in the 15-24 age group	22	36
Proportion of unemployed in the 25-74 age group	9	14
Proportion of unemployed among the low-skilled	17	19
Proportion of unemployed among those with secondary education	8	16
Proportion of unemployed among graduates	6	11
The proportion of employees living under the poverty line	17	15
The proportion of those living under the poverty line among 18-year-olds	20	16
The proportion of those living under the poverty line among 18-24-year-olds	23	16
Poverty rate among families with at least three children	27	17
Poverty rate among single-parent households	32	23
Poverty rate among single households	25	27
Poverty rate among one-person households over 65 years	21	40
Poverty rate among the low-skilled	24	25
Poverty rate among those with secondary education	15	15
Poverty rate among graduates	8	6

(Source: Eurostat, 2013-2014)

The majority of Cypriot workers (54 percent) are satisfied with the working conditions, four in ten, however, feel negatively in this area (EU28: satisfied

- 53 percent, not satisfied: 43 percent) (Eurobarometer, 2014c). In the past five years, only a tenth of employees (9 percent) experienced an improvement in working conditions, three quarters (75 percent) experienced deterioration rather.

Young people living in the EU are basically optimistic in terms of their employment opportunities (Eurobarometer, 2015b). Three-quarters (74 percent) trust in that they can easily find a job after finishing their studies. Young people in Cyprus are more pessimistic; only five out of ten (49 percent) trust in it, and instead of the strong belief (13 percent is very confident; absolutely 18 percent has no confidence in this at all) they are rather characterized by uncertainty. Among the barriers against finding a job, the acquisition of a long-term, stable workplace is considered to be the most significant (Table 4). In addition, low salaries and the migration in order to obtain the job mean the primary problems. We can encounter with a similar sequence if we compare the Cypriot data with the overall results of the EU's 28 Member States. However, two significant differences are worth highlighting. On the one hand, young people in Cyprus in terms of their positioning hardly feel insufficient qualifications to be problematic, while in the EU as a whole it has a stronger presence. The other difference is that among the young people in Cyprus, experiencing anxiety because of finding a job is more typical than in the EU as a whole, where five out of ten do not feel significant obstacles prior to their job placement.

Table 4: Job finding difficulties for young people in the European Union and in Cyprus (percentage distribution)

	EU28	Cyprus
Cannot find a long-term, stable job	31	37
Have to move because of the appropriate job	16	24
Do not have adequate qualifications and knowledge to fill in the position	13	3
Low salary	12	26
Other difficulty	8	2
Not worry about finding a job	19	8

(Source: Eurobarometer, 2015b)

The Cypriot young people basically see the most necessary resources in the appropriate qualification and in the social capital in connection with finding a job (YIC, 2009) (Table 5). While Turkish Cypriot youth see marketability more in the primary education (graduation, profession) than in the acquisition of university or additional qualifications; among the Greek Cypriot youth, it is not divided such sharply. In addition, however, Greek Cypriots attach more importance to nepotism, i.e. to personal acquaintance than the Turkish Cypriots. In contrast to these resources, however, the individual, personal skills, qualities are much less authoritative in the procurement of young people, according to Cypriot young people. According to them, the jobseekers' intelligence, technical skills, personality or appearance hardly play a role in the labour market.

Table 5: The most necessary features, resources in the job market according to Turkish and Greek Cypriot young people, (percentage distribution)

	Turkish Cypriot young people	Greek Cypriot young people
Appropriate primary (profession, graduation) qualification	47	31
Relationships	16	29
Appropriate secondary qualification (tertiary)	9	24
Technical skills	7	6
Personality	6	5
Emotional intelligence	6	4
Good look	4	4
Intelligence	4	3
Luck	3	3

(Source: YIC, 2009)

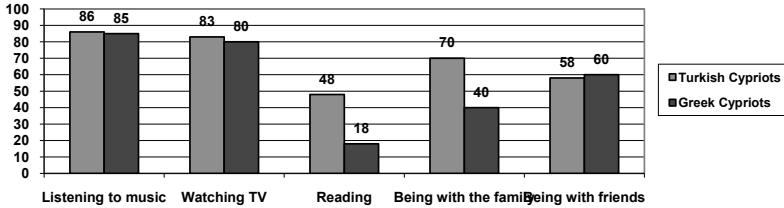
The proportion of people living below the poverty line in Cyprus is 15 percent (Eurostat, 2013) (Table 3). Young people are not highly affected by the poverty risk, while among the elderly, those in need are over-represented. Among the elderly people over 65, those living below the poverty line are over-represented (20 percent). In this respect, the single households and the lone parents are in the most difficult situation. In addition, the effect of educational attainment cannot be circumvented either, as among Cypriots with lower education, the ratio of indigent people is four times higher than among those with higher education degree. The relative median poverty gap in 2013 in Cyprus was below the EU average (24 percent). This rate is 18 percent, which means that this is the gap between the average incomes of people living below the poverty line and that of the poverty line.

IV. Culture

Half of Cypriot young people (50 percent) have 2-4 hours of free time a day (YIC, 2009). Four people in ten (37 percent) can use more than five hours a day freely after completing their obligations; while the other (13 percent) can devote up to an hour a day to relaxation.

Among young people in Cyprus, to the most common leisure time activities count the television and music (YIC, 2009) (Figure 2). While with friends, both the Turkish and the Greek Cypriot young people spend time with pleasure, the free time spent with the family is not so equally popular. Among Turkish Cypriot young people, the number of those who have leisure time with their families in their daily free time is twice than among the Greek Cypriot youth. Reading is especially popular among the Turkish Cypriot youth; the proportion of Turkish Cypriots reading daily in their free time is more than twice as that of Greek Cypriots.

Figure 2: The most common leisure time activities among Turkish and Greek Cypriot youth carried out daily (percentage distribution)



(Source: YIC, 2009)

Nearly two-thirds of young people in Cyprus (Turkish Cypriots: 63 percent, Greek Cypriots: 60 percent) visits cafés several times a week (YIC, 2009). Nightclubs/pleasure grounds are visited by the majority at least several times a month: among the Turkish Cypriot youth it is a less popular activity (48 percent) than among Greek Cypriots (60 percent). The majority of Turkish Cypriots attend music or other art courses more or less regularly, but 45 percent of them do not perform this type of activity at all. The Greek Cypriot youth are less active in this field: 70 percent do not participate in any music or other art education.

The majority of people living in the EU counts a moderate level consumer of culture; only one-fifth (18 percent) is considered to have extremely high activity in this area (Eurobarometer, 2013). In contrast, one third of EU citizens (34 percent) count to be a low level of consumer, visiting cultural spaces rarely. Considering Cyprus, the displacement of this kind of activities is more typical. Only 6 percent of Cypriots counts to be a high level of consumer, but the majority show low activity and interest in this area (54 percent). The more frequent and higher level of cultural consumption characterizes mainly young people (aged 15-24) and the well-educated, as well as their group is over-represented among those living without money worries. As a reason for the low level of cultural interest and consumption, citizens marked the lack of time and interest.

One year on, the tenth of the Union's youth never went to the cinema, concerts, attended theatre performances, never visited a monument or exhibitions, art performances, as well as did not participate in any activities as hobbies at all (Eurobarometer, 2015b) (Table 6).

Among cultural activities, the most preferred and available form of entertainment for most people count going the cinema and attending concerts. In addition, visiting of a variety of sights and exhibitions is also attractive to many people. While creative hobbies on a regular basis only have three out of ten young people in the EU. In Cyprus, we can meet with an even lower activity. One in five young people did not participate in any cultural activity within one year. Among 15-30 year-old Cypriots, the most common forms of cultural entertainment are given by to movies, concerts, as well as various attractions and exhibitions. Theatre, dance and classical music performances were visited by only 43 percent of Cypriot young people, only one in seven young people have hobbies.

Table 6: Participation of 15-30-year-olds in cultural activities in the European Union and in Cyprus (percentage distribution)

	EU28	Cyprus
Attending the cinema or concerts	80	64
Visiting monuments museums or exhibitions	63	61
Attending theatre, dance or classical music performances	38	43
Carrying out creative activities as a hobby	30	15
None	11	18

(Source: Eurobarometer, 2015b)

When examining the recreational activities, the media meaning the particular social space for today's Y and Z generations, especially the online world expansion cannot be ignored. Young people spend a significant part of their free time in front of the TV or computer screen. The Cypriot young people spend an average of three hours daily in front of the TV (YIC, 2009). 93 percent of 16-24 year-old young people in the EU use the Internet regularly (Eurostat, 2014). Among school students, the figure is even higher, 97 percent. In Cyprus, 97 percent of young people (16-24) are regular visitors of the online interfaces. 63 percent of young people in the EU, while 61 percent of young people in Cyprus use the Internet on a daily basis (Eurobarometer, 2015a). However, nearly a quarter (23 percent) of the Cypriot citizens does not use

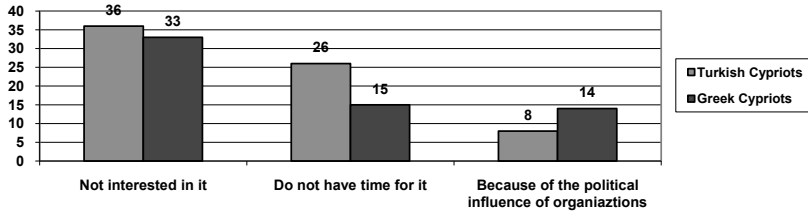
the Internet at all; this is a characteristic of every fifth citizens in the Union (18 percent). To the most active Internet users count to be young people between the ages of 15-24, those with higher education (especially tertiary) and those with active-status in the labour market (especially the intellectuals and entrepreneurs) as well as learners/ students. As the most common online activities, visiting of portals and mailing sites linked to contact keeping can be viewed, while online games are also popular among users. By regular Internet use for cultural purposes only less characterized: the fifth of Cypriots (21 percent) perform this type of activity several times a week, but one-third (31 percent) do not use the online surfaces for cultural consumption purposes at all (Eurobarometer, 2013).

V. Public life

The majority of Cypriot young people do not feel that the words of their age group would be represented in daily politics (YIC, 2009). 60 percent of young Turkish Cypriots, 53 percent of young Greek Cypriots are sceptical in this regard. Nearly two-thirds of young people in Cyprus (Turkish Cypriots: 64 percent, Greek Cypriots: 62 percent) do not feel that they would influence the affairs of their residence. According to 58 percent of the Turkish Cypriot youth, they do not have any say on national political affairs. The Greek Cypriot youth are even more pessimistic: 70 percent think likewise.

One year on, only a third of young people in Cyprus (36 percent) participated in some activities of an organization; in the Union, this figure is one-third higher, 49 percent (Eurobarometer, 2015b). Among Cypriot young people, the most popular organizations are those connected to sports (15 percent), and to youth programs and services (8 percent). The organizations with political profile can reach the less young people. In the operation of such an organization, only an insignificant proportion of young people assisted (Cyprus: 3 percent, EU28: 5 percent). The lack of contact with civilians can be traced back to multiple causes (YIC, 2009) (Figure 3). First, the third of Cypriot young people do not show interest towards this kind of organizations, on the other hand, the lack of time due to their occupations seems to be a significant explanation. In addition, however, young people view the non-governmental organizations' infection with politics as distanced; this is especially true of the Greek Cypriots.

Figure 3: Reasons for the lack of association membership among Turkish and Greek Cypriot youth (percentage distribution)



(Source: YIC, 2009)

In the field of volunteering activity, today's young people do not show significant activity either. Recently, only 30 percent of young people in Cyprus took part in voluntary work (Eurobarometer, 2015b). In the EU, slightly less, only one in four young people (25 percent) worked as volunteers in the year preceding the query. Primarily, voluntary activities on the local level are popular among young people (Cyprus: 51 percent, EU28: 66 percent). However, nationwide volunteering for the Cypriots has almost equal importance (46 percent), but in the EU as a whole it is much less common (27 percent) than such form of local assistance. In terms of voluntary work, the most frequently chosen areas count the participation in the work of charitable and humanitarian organizations, and assistance of this kind, both in Cyprus (71 percent), both in the EU in general (44 percent). In addition, Cypriot young people are happy to volunteer on the occasions of activities can be connected to education, training or sport (18 percent), as well as on animal protection-related activities (15 percent). Most of the volunteers do not receive a certificate honouring the work carried out: only 44 percent of Cypriots received a certificate of this kind; but it is even higher than the EU average (EU28: 27 percent).

VI. EU citizenship

The Cypriots primarily (49 percent) collect information about the EU from the television (Eurobarometer, 2014). In addition, however, the online surfaces also mean source information for many people in this area (25 percent). It must be highlighted that while in the EU as a whole, there is a clear media surface dominance (TV: 51, daily newspapers: 26, web 24 percent) in the

field of civic information gathering on EU matters, for the Cypriots, conversations with acquaintances also play a significant role in this (26 percent). Nevertheless, only one in five Cypriots (17 percent) talk regularly about the EU with friends, at work or with the family (EU28: 13 percent). Four out of ten Cypriots (42 percent) does not even talk to anyone about the affairs of the Union (EU28: 36 percent).

Half of the Union's citizens believe that they are aware of the operation of the EU (52 percent); Cypriots are more confident; six out of ten characterize their knowledge similarly (Eurobarometer, 2014). However, given the specific knowledge⁵⁰, much less has proved to be really informed⁵¹ about issues affecting the EU. Only one third of EU citizens (36 percent), while almost half (45 percent) of Cypriots is considered to be proficient in the Union's affairs. By their own admission, 54 percent of Cypriots know the rights valid in the Union (EU28: 47 per cent); mainly young people, students and those with higher level of education believed to have a solid knowledge of citizens' rights in force in the EU. Despite, the vast majority of Cypriots (88 percent) would like to further enrich their knowledge regarding the operation of the Union. In the EU as a whole, the proportion of those citizens who feel the same is less: seven out of ten (68 percent) would like to receive more information about the EU. All throughout the Union and also in Cyprus, mainly young people, students, as well as those with higher level of education have demanded for this type of information.

For EU citizens, the EU mainly can be identified with free movement (Eurobarometer, 2014) (Table 7). In addition, however, the Union is mostly identified with the official currency, the Euro, as well as with cultural diversity, and with the concepts of democracy, peace and bureaucracy as the operating characteristics. However, for some of the citizens, the EU means material losses and the lack of border checks. For the Cypriots, in addition to the fact that the free movement, the Euro, and the cultural diversity is dominant in connection with the EU, for many people, the EU as a concept reminds them of unemployment, loss of cultural identity and higher crime statistics.

50 The latest Eurobarometer (2014) study measured awareness concerning the Union through three statements. The three statements, the accuracy of which the respondents had to decide was as follows: 1. The Union has 28 Member States; 2. Representatives of the European Parliament are directly elected by the citizens of the Member States; 3. Switzerland is an EU Member State.
51 We consider those respondents to be well-informed who provided good answers for all the three statements

Table 7: Meaning of the EU for its citizens across the Union and in Cyprus (“What does the EU mean for you personally?”; percentage distribution)

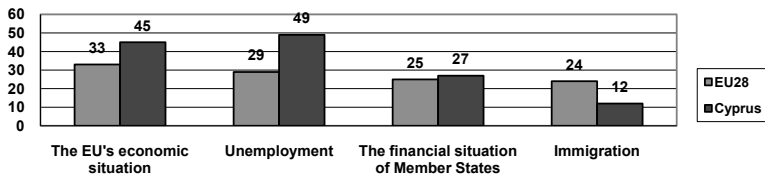
	EU28	Cyprus
Peace	29	26
Economic well-being	15	8
Democracy	22	17
Social protection	9	14
Free movement	50	51
Cultural diversity	28	30
Strong global position	25	18
Euro	39	40
Unemployment	17	45
Bureaucracy	26	15
Material loss	25	21
Loss of cultural identity	13	28
More crime	15	25
Lack of control at the external borders	20	20
Other	2	2
Did not answer	3	2

(Source: Eurobarometer, 2014a)

The majority of Cypriots (64 percent) believes that membership in the Union does not mean a better quality of life for them (Eurobarometer, 2014). In the EU as a whole, there is rather more positive opinion in this field because only 42 percent of citizens do not agree with the view that the quality of life improved in their homeland as EU Member State. The protection of citizens is also assessed more negatively by Cypriots than the EU average. 47 percent believes that the Union is able to protect its citizens, but 50 percent do not consider it to be real. In the 28 Member States as a whole, 57 percent feel the protection of citizens to be secured and only 37 percent is sceptical in this area.

The detection of the most pressing issues affecting the EU is formed likewise for all of the 28 Member States and for Cyprus as well (Eurobarometer, 2014) (Figure 4). According to this, the economic situation of the Union, unemployment, the financial difficulties occurring at the level of Member States as well as immigration is considered to be a major problem for EU citizens. For Cypriots, especially unemployment and financial difficulties characteristics of the EU prove to be pronounced problems. In contrast, far fewer people feel immigration as a worrying problem compared to those experienced in the EU as a whole.

Figure 4: The EU's most important problems in the views of all the member states and Cyprus ("What do you think are the two most important matters with which the EU is currently facing?"; percentage distribution)



(Source: Eurobarometer, 2014a)

EU citizens are mostly sceptical regarding how the EU works: four in ten (39 percent) feel that things are not going in the right direction (Eurobarometer, 2014). Only 25 percent believe that the way is correct by which the EU is currently on track. Cyprus also holds similar attitude on this issue: the citizens are mostly sceptical (43 percent), and only one-fifth (21 percent) are optimistic about the current operational path of the EU. Compared to this, it is not surprising that 68 percent of Cypriots are rather distrustful in the EU. The corresponding figure for the EU as a whole is nearly twenty percentage points lower, 50 percent, and it can be concluded that, overall, EU citizens are more confident than Cypriots. It can be put into parallel with the fact that the Cypriots do not seem to be optimistic as regards the EU's future either: 54 percent is pessimistic in this respect (the ratio of optimists is 40 percent). In the EU as a whole, more optimistic attitude dominates: 56 percent of citizens see a positive vision for the EU (37 percent is the ratio of pessimists).

Cypriots give little credibility to the powers of the Union: only every second Cypriots (54 percent) believe that the EU has voice in the world, but in terms of the citizens of the EU's 28 Member States, seven out of ten (69 percent) feel about this way (Eurobarometer, 2014). A lower rate of Cypriots sees the influence of their own countries within the EU. Only 17 percent believe that the EU is giving voice to the Cypriots, as only 17 percent feel the voices of individuals to be authoritative in the EU. Across the EU, in both dimensions, twice as many people (40-40 percent) vote confidence to their influence in the internal affairs, either on national or on individual level. Only every second Cypriots consider themselves to be EU citizens (51 percent) (EU28: 63 percent). First of all, the young people, members of Generation Y, as well as those with higher levels of education can identify with their EU nationality in addition to their own national identity.

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Rogaška Slatina



The situation of young people in Slovenia (Rogaška Slatina)

When presenting the situation of the Slovenian youth, we primarily relied on a carried out in 2013, based on a national sample examining 16-27 year-old young people: *Slovenian Youth 2013 (Mladina 2013)*. However, certain themes have been supplemented by the results of the *Eurobarometer* reports, with its youth-specific data, in parallel, allowing a comparison with the European Union. In addition, chapters discussing demographics, migration and the issues of the labour market situation were supplemented by the latest data of *Eurostat* and the *Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia* (SURS).

I. Demography

Slovenia's population in 2015 was 2,063,077 people; the sex ratio was formed in the same way (SURS, 2015). A quarter of the population live in townships with a population of over 50 thousand people (it means 4 townships: Ljubljana, Maribor, Kranj, Koper), while 15 percent are the inhabitants of especially little towns (in townships with a population of less than 5,000, representing 110 townships). Based on the average age of the population, the youngest township counts Gorenja vas - Poljane (37.8 years), while the oldest is Kostel (49.8 years). In terms of gender distribution, largest proportion of women is found in Murska Sobota (to 100 men there are 110 women), while the typical male predominance is the characteristic of Šentrupert (to 100 men there are 67 women). According to the population density data, there are 101.8 inhabitants per square kilometre in Slovenia; by contrast, Rogaška Slatina counts to be a much more densely populated town (153.8 people per square kilometre). In terms of the total population, we talk about a township with nearly 11 thousand people where the proportion of men and women shows no difference (50-50%).

In 2014, the natural population change in Slovenia was positive: for 21 thousand live births there were 19 thousand deaths (SURS, 2014). In Savinjska region, there is also a positive balance of natural population change: 2.7 thousand live births and 2.4 thousand deaths were registered. For Rogaška Slatina, 107 live births and 101 deaths were recorded in 2014.

Based on the distribution of age groups there is no essential difference between the results of national and city-level data (SURS, 2015) (Table 1). The

proportion of children is 15-15 percent, while the proportion of those aged 65+ makes up nearly one-fifth of the population. Out of the comparison of these two values it is apparent that the elderly and youth dependency ratio shows differences. While the old-age dependency ratio of 27 in Slovenia, and 24 in Rogaška Slatina, the youth dependency ratio is 22 percent both in Slovenia and in the case of Rogaška Slatina. The total dependency ratio in the country is 49, while at township level it is 46 percent.

Table 1: Age group composition in the European Union, in Slovenia and in Rogaška Slatina (in percentage)

	EU28	Slovenia	Rogaška Slatina
Under 14 years	16	15	15
15-24 years	11	10	10
25-49 years	35	35	36
50-64 years	20	22	22
Over 65 years	18	18	17

(Source: Eurostat, 2014; SURS, 2015)

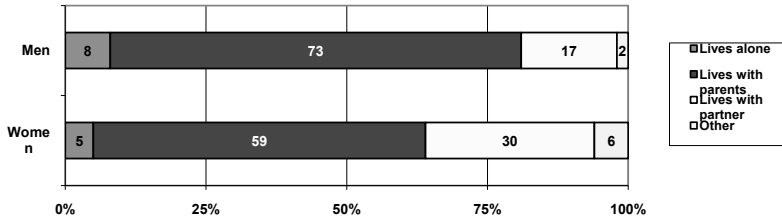
820 541 households can be counted in Slovenia, a third of which are one-person households (SURS, 2015). The average household size is 2.47 nationally; in Savinjska region, the number of households is 124 881, while in Rogaška Slatina is 4402. Based on the number of families we can say that in Slovenia there are 576 177 families, more than a half of which raise one child (53%), while a further thirds of them raise two children (36%). Every third family has a child less than 18 years. The average number of children is 1.56; in the case of married couples, this value is 1.68, among couples who are not married it is 1.60, while for same-sex couples it is 1.18. In Savinjska region, 72 366 families were counted in 2015, of which three-quarters (74%) have children; the average number of children was 1.54. In Rogaška Slatina 3105 families can be counted, 76 percent of which raise children, the average number of children was 1.58.

The proportion of married young people at national and at regional level is similar: 7 percent of the Slovenian youth aged 15-29 are married, while in Savinjska region, this figure is 9 percent (SURS, 2015). While in the 15-

19 year old age group the number of marriages is still insignificant, among 20-24-year-olds their proportion can be measured (4% in Slovenia, in Savinjska region, 4%). Among the ones between 25 and 29 year olds, the proportion of married youth is much more common: 16 percent in Slovenia, in Savinjska region, is 13%. In terms of Rogaška Slatina we can say that 45 percent of the population older than 15 years is married.

Based on the 2013 national youth survey data, the average household size of 16-27 year-olds is 3.4 (SY 2013). The majority of young people, 86 percent, live with their parents. Only 2 percent leads self-employed households, and 8 percent live independently with their couple. Late detachment from parents, the late financial independence (post-adolescence) explains that most young people share a common household with their parents in Slovenia. Most of them still live with their parents because of job-seeking difficulties; to which state the parents try to adapt. In Slovenia, therefore, multigenerational households are quite widespread, such as homes with a high number of rooms as well. In 2000, 71 percent of 24-27 year olds worked in a full-time job, in 2013; however, this proportion was only 41 percent (SY 2013). In contrast, the proportion of students has grown significantly between the two study periods. In 2000, only 8 percent of 24-27 year olds, in 2013, however, 43 percent were students. It is therefore not surprising that the 24-27 age groups are characterized by living in common households with the parents, especially for men (Figure 1). Among the 16-27 year olds, those who work (whether with fixed or indefinite term contracts), would move in a higher proportion from home, should they have the possibility, than their student peers. 76-78 percent of the former, while only 67 percent of the latter would do so. It can be said about the unemployed young people that three quarters of them would welcome an independent household, if they would have the possibility, but for 17 percent, the parents' household seem to be the most appropriate.

Figure 1: The proportion of young people living in a common household with the parents, as well as those moved away from there among the 24-27 year-olds (percentage)



(Source: SY 2013)

The relationship between the youth and their parents is basically characterized to be good; most of them (59%) evaluate it in a way that there are only occasional disagreements in the family (SY 2013). Only 6 percent of the Slovenian youth's view their relationship with their parents of having conflicts, while 34 percent would evaluate it to be completely without problems. These rates do not show a difference even if only the views of those young people who live with their parents are taken into account. About the Slovenian youth it can be basically said that the majority (63%) makes self-decision on important issues regarding life. In addition, however, third of 16-27-year-olds jointly make a decision with their parents, and only in the case of one percent of the age group is the exclusive dominance of the parents can be observed in decision making. The majority of youth relies on their parents' (mother 47%, father 25%) decision in problematic situations, but the siblings also have a relevant role in this respect (9%). However, the tenth of the generation does not ask for the opinion of anyone and does not rely on the insights of others in his/her decisions.

Most of the Slovenian youth (61%) imagine their future in a self-employed household and in marriage (SY 2013). It is important to note, however, that a quarter of young people (24%) prefer a relationship without marriage, while two percent indicated complete seclusion from relationships. Seeing the particularities of their generation's lifestyle, 16-27 year-old youth schedule the time of marriage to their late twenties and early thirties. The girls are considered to be mature for this at the age of 29 on average, whereas for boys,

young people place the ideal age to start a family at 31 years.

II. Migration

To Slovenia in 2014, almost 14 thousand people immigrated from abroad (SURS, 2014). 11 percent of these were made up of the arrivals in the region Savinjska, while in Rogaška Slatina, 100 people arrived from other countries in the year 2014. The rate of emigration was greater than immigration nationally and regionally. The foreign migration difference nationally was nearly a half thousand people, while at the regional level, nearly two hundred people. In contrast, Rogaška Slatina's foreign migration balance shows a positive result (Table 2).

Table 2: In country and foreign migration in Slovenia, Savinjska region and Rogaška Slatina in 2014 (persons)

	Slovenia	Savinjska	Rogaška Slatina
The number of immigrants arriving from abroad	13846	1524	100
The number of migrants from the country to abroad	14336	1696	70
Foreign migration balance	-490	-172	30
The number of those affected by internal immigration	-	5527	421
The number of those affected by internal migration	-	5833	413
Internal migration balance	-	-306	8
Migration balance (domestic and foreign together)	-490	-478	38
Number of total population change (Including migratory and demographic population movements)	1789	-215	44

(Source: SURS, 2014)

The balance of population movements associated with migration within the country indicates a negative change regionally, while for Rogaška Slatina this value has a positive balance (SURS, 2014). This means that while from the region, slightly more than three hundred people moved to other regions, more people came to Rogaška Slatina than those who left it in 2014. If the numbers of domestic and foreign migration are collectively treated, it can be seen that the national and regional balance shows negative difference, while in Rogaška Slatina a positive difference was recorded in contrast. This means that the domestic mobility and foreign migration together, the country and the region Savinjska also lost from the number of population, while Rogaška Slatina recorded a positive balance in this respect. If the population change associated with migration and demographic processes are treated together, we get a much more varied picture with respect of the three territorial levels. While the country's population is increasing with nearly two thousand people, the population of the region Savinjska recorded a decrease of approximately two hundred people, while Rogaška Slatina's population increased by 44 people with respect of the total population change.

In 2015, 5 percent of the total population of Slovenia was made up by foreign citizens; this means a total of 106 486 people (SURS, 2015). From the national data it is evident that the number of Slovenian citizens decreased, while the number of foreigners increased compared to the previous year's data. Among foreign nationals, the proportion of youth is considered to be significant; nearly one-third is under 29 years (30%). The proportion of young people of other nationalities (by nationality) gives 5 percent of the Slovenian population under 29 years, so they are not over-represented among the youth.

In Slovenia, the largest minority is made up of the citizens of Bosnia and Herzegovina (44 885 people), but also a large number of those with foreign citizenship are from Kosovo (12 071 people) and Macedonian (10 105 people), Serbian (9730 people) and Croatian (8805 people) (SURS, 2015). Among those under 29 years having foreign citizenship, these nationalities are the most common, but clearly among those with citizenship of Kosovo there is the highest proportion of young people (50%). In contrast, the proportion of young people under the age of 29 (17%) is the lowest among those with Croatian nationality.

In the Savinjska region, 12 424 foreign nationals live, this proportion means the tenth of foreigners living in Slovenia (11%) (SURS, 2015). 82 percent of

the other nationalities living in the region is given by the citizens of the successor states of the former Yugoslavia. 13 percent is an EU country citizen, 5 percent is the citizen of other countries. In Rogaška Slatina, 693 foreign nationals were registered in 2015; this figure makes up of 6-6 percent of both those living in Slovenia and those in Savinjska region having foreign nationality.

The prejudice and hostility of Slovenian young people towards other nationalities can be grasped against the Roma the most (SY 2013) (Table 3). While the greatest degree of openness can be experienced towards those from other parts of Slovenia, and towards Western European and US citizens. Basically, towards the Balkan peoples also acceptance can be experienced, but in more moderate form than the former. Examining the impact of socio-demographic characteristics it can be observed that the financial background and education have an influence on the degree of prejudice. Based on these, it can be said among young people with higher education educated as well as those with better economic status there is a higher degree of acceptance.

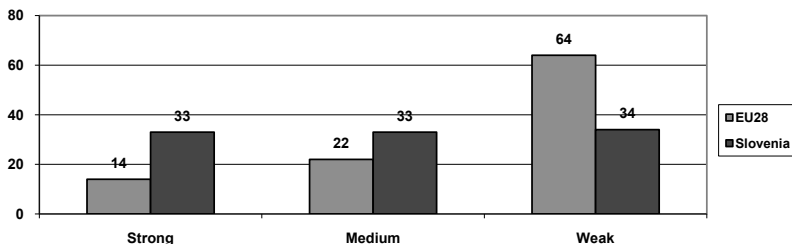
Table 3: The assessment of the neighbourly relations with those with the following nationalities (The attitude examination of a hypothetical situation based on the Bogardus-scale; Averages: 1=would be very bad, 5 = would be very good)

Roma family	2,38
Family arriving from other parts of Slovenia	3,72
Family arriving from a Balkan country (Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina etc.)	3,19
Family arriving from a Western-European country	3,73
Family arriving from the US	3,68

(Source: SY 2013)

The Slovenian nationals essentially relate with much larger acceptance and openness towards arrivals from other EU countries than the EU average (Eurobarometer, 2015a) (Figure 2). Two-thirds can be characterized by at least moderate openness, while in the EU; this ratio is only one-third.

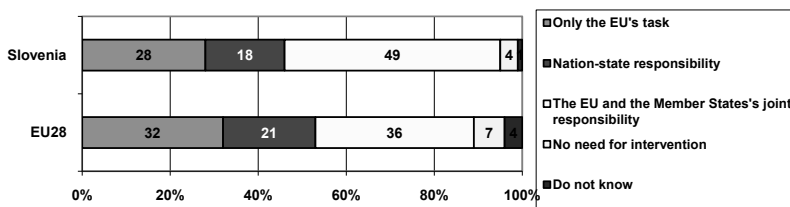
Figure 2: The degree of openness to arrivals from other EU member countries in the European Union and in Slovenia (percentage distribution)



(Source: Eurobarometer, 2015a)

Considering the judgement of illegal immigration, the most dominant view is that the issue can be solved with joint strategies of the national and the EU levels (Eurobarometer, 2015a) (Figure 3). According to every second Slovenian citizen, the countries and the Union alike have a responsibility to address the situation; in the Union, the rate of those having the same view is only 36 percent; among them, the intervention at the EU level is more popular than among Slovenians.

Figure 3: Opinion formed about the management of illegal immigration situation in the European Union and in Slovenia (percentage)



(Source: Eurobarometer, 2015a)

Following the results of a youth survey conducted in 2013 it can be said that one in four Slovenian young people is concerned with the idea of mobility within the country (SY 2013). Among the women 30, while among men 22 percent is the proportion of those who would move to other Slovenian township. In terms of education, higher education graduates are the most mobile

(27%), while those with primary qualification are the least (24%). Most are motivated by improving the living conditions (39%), but the more favourable employment opportunities have a significant role to play in this matter (22%). Moving house because of the relatives counts as a reason to 7 percent of young people, while openness to cultural diversity is a reason for 9 percent.

In 2014, 16 percent of those migrating abroad (2227 people) were under 20 years, while 39 percent (5619 people) under the age of 30 (SURs, 2014). A third of young people in Slovenia (32%) were concerned with moving abroad in 2013, but four-tenth (42%) were completely aloof from it (SY 2013). The most popular destination countries were counted to be the United States (17%), Austria (17%), Germany (11%), the United Kingdom (7%), Australia (7%), and Canada (4%). Geographically, the youth of the northern regions preferred Austria, while the young people of the southern region would move to other EU countries and the US with more pleasure. As the willingness to domestic migration, the potential for emigration is mainly explained by the existential reasons. The majority (53%) of young people planning emigration would leave Slovenia in the hope of better living conditions, while a fifth of them are motivated by getting a job easier (22%). In contrast, moving abroad due to other causes means much less motivation: the experience of cultural diversity (7%) or the desire for a better standard of education (6%) mean a driving force for only a few to emigration. Emigration due to economic reasons is the most significant among men (85% > women: 71%), among youth from 24 to 27 years of age (82% > 16-19 year-olds: 69%; 20 to 23 year-olds: 77%) and among those living in townships with a population of more than ten thousand people (81% > less populous townships than 10 thousand people: 76%).

III. Labour market

Three-quarters of the Slovenian population is employed, while the proportion of people living in jobless households is 9 percentages (Eurostat, 2014-2015) (Table 4). In this respect, it can be said that the Slovenian employment creates a better labour market situation than the EU average. The employment rate of men is better than that of women: eight percentage points higher is the proportion of workers among men than among women. Part-time employment affects only a tenth of Slovenian workers, while one in five labour contracts

in the EU are created under these conditions. Fixed-term employment conditions make up 17 percent of all employment in Slovenia; in the Union, this figure is 14 percent.

Table 4: Labour Market Situation in the EU and in Slovenia (percentage distribution)

	EU28	Slovenia
Ratio of the employed	69	75
Ratio of the employed among men	75	72
Ratio of the employed among women	64	64
Proportion of part-time contracts	20	11
Proportion of fixed-term employment contracts	14	17
Ratio of employed among low-skilled people	52	47
Proportion of employed among those with secondary education	70	66
Proportion of employed among graduates	82	82
Proportion of people living in jobless households (under 60 years of age)	11	9
Proportion of unemployed in the 15-24 age group	23	15
Proportion of unemployed among the low-skilled	17	16
Proportion of unemployed among those with secondary education	8	10
Proportion of unemployed among graduates	6	6
The proportion of employees living under the poverty line	10	6
Poverty rate among the low-skilled	25	28
Poverty rate among those with secondary education	15	14
Poverty rate among graduates	8	5

(Source: Eurostat, 2014-2015)

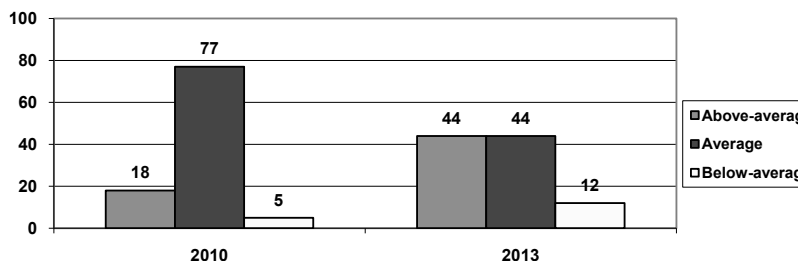
With regard to employment, there is a clear correlation with the level of education (Eurostat, 2014-2015). A graduate has nearly twice the chance of employment as someone having a basic qualification, but an individual acquired secondary education is able to find a job and one and a half times better than someone with a low educational level.⁵² The correlation of unemployment and education shows that among those with higher levels of education, unemployed are under-represented compared to the national average. Nearly three times more likely to be unemployed someone with a basic qualification than as a graduate.

In Slovenia, the proportion of people living below the poverty threshold is 6 percent, while the poverty gap is 22 percent (both values are below the EU average, so in this respect, Slovenia has favourable indicators) (Eurostat, 2014-2015). In relation with the previous it is not surprising that education also influences the presence or absence of financial difficulties. Those with low educational levels, nearly six times more likely to struggle with financial problems and deprivation than graduates, and twice as likely as those with secondary education.

Only one in ten young people assess the financial situation of their families to be below average, while four in ten to be above-average (SY 2013) (Figure 4). This is a significant improvement over the subjective judgment the standard of living compared to 2010. Then, only the fifth of the generation considered the economic situation of their family to be above-average; most of them (eight in ten) assessed it as average. About the future economic situation of the country, 44 percent of young people have a negative view, that is, envision deterioration in relation to the next ten years.

52 The level 0-2 belongs to this, which covers from pre-school education to the lower level of secondary education; in the second category, there is the level 3-4, which includes higher levels of secondary education and the post-secondary (non-tertiary) education and finally level 5-6, fall into a category into which the first and second levels of higher education graduates can be classified.

Figure 4: Assessing the financial situation of young people's own families in 2010 and in 2013 (percentage)



(Source: SY 2013)

61 percent of Slovenian young people (15-30 year olds) is hopeful regarding their employment opportunities after the completion of their studies (Eurobarometer, 2015b). Viewing the EU as a whole, young people of the 28 Member States prove to be more optimistic: 74 percent see positive employment prospects. Nearly a fifth of the Slovenian young people do not show concern about the difficulties in getting a job (Table 5). Most of them consider obtaining a long-term job to be a hardship, but most are worried about moving house due to employment and about the chance of low payment. A tenth of young people have fears that their knowledge and competence will be considered incomplete in the labour market.

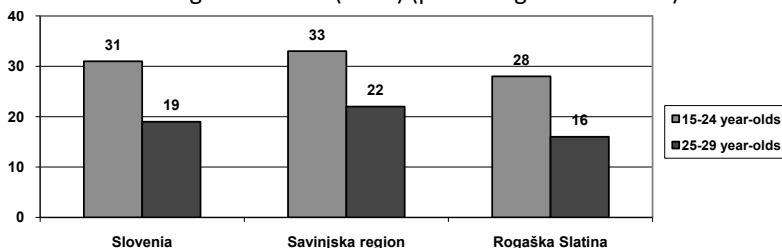
Table 5: Job finding difficulties for young people in the European Union and in Slovenia (percentage distribution)

	EU28	Slovenia
Cannot find a long-term, stable job	31	36
Have to move because of the appropriate job	16	15
Do not have adequate qualifications and knowledge to fill in the position	13	9
Low salary	12	13
Not worry about finding a job	19	17

(Source: Eurobarometer, 2015b)

In 2014, the number of workers with salaries were 703 thousand people nationwide, 12 percent of this live in Savinjska region (85.5 thousand), and 0.5 percent in Rogaška Slatina (3.8 thousand) (SURS, 2013-2014). The youth unemployment rate can be considered high: between 2007 and 2012, this figure significantly increased both in Slovenia and in the EU as a whole (SY 2013). 31 percent of Slovenian young people aged 15-24, while 19 percent of 25-29 year-olds were job seekers in 2013 (SURS, 2013-2014) (Figure 5). In Rogaška Slatina, this ratio is slightly lower, but still, one in three young people aged 15-24 years are affected by unemployment.

Figure 5: Youth unemployment in Slovenia (2013), Savinjska region (2014) and Rogaška Slatina (2013) (percentage distribution)



(Source: SURS, 2013-2014)

6 percent of the economically active 16-27-year-old Slovenian young people work full-time, 6 percent in part-time, 3 percent are self-employed and 26 percent are unemployed (SY 2013). Full-time employment is more common among men (70%; women: 55%), while joblessness is more typical of women (33%; men: 22%). In 2000, this distribution favoured even more to full-time employment (79%), while at the same time, the rate of unemployed also shows a change; it was even lower then (14%; part-time work: 3%, self-employed were: 5%). If those having student jobs are included, then the 49 percent of men and 70 percent of women were considered to be employed in terms of the 16-27 age groups in 2013. 47 percent of the age group had fixed-term contracts as regards the recent past. However, the vast majority of the age group were considered to be students: 62 percent of men and 74 percent of women were still learners or students.

Among Slovenian young people, women's average earnings are 342 euros, while the men's is 424 euros (SY 2013). It can be said that there is a significant income gap when comparing the average income of the two sexes. National comparison self-employed earn the most (on average 905 euros), as well as those with permanent contracts (an average of 880 euros). Youth employed with definite employment contract have somewhat less income per month (856 euros on average), while young people having student jobs can manage with much less in their monthly periods (401 euros on average). Young people not taking getting a job can obviously count with the lowest amount of income in a monthly breakdown (285 euros on average).

In terms of employment beyond student work, 45 percent of young people say they work in the position /profession appropriate to their education (SY 2013). 16 percent carry out a job partly appropriate to their education, but 31 percent did not find a job in their profession at all (and 8 percent do not have qualifications yet). The vast majority of young people would do a lot in order to obtain a good job, but the illegal devices mean alternatives for only a few (Table 6). Most of them would be situated in the private sector (45%), but the public sector is also attractive to many (33%). Only a tenth of youth (9%) are interested in opportunities offered by the civil sector, while the international job opportunities are included in the ideas of only the eighth (12%) of the age group.

Table 6: The agreeing rate with steps taken to obtain a job among Slovenian young people aged 16-27 (percentage)

Learning, acquiring knowledge	88
Temporary employment	79
Undertaking telework	66
Lower salary or lower position	47
Acceptance of an unlawful job	24
Undertaking a life-threatening job	11
Breaking moral rules	4

(Source: SY 2013)

The Slovenian youth believe, in getting the job, relationships matter the most; every second young people (46%) rated it as the most significant (SY 2013). The level of education or training considered to be the most relevant by a quarter of them (25%), while the personal skills and luck, tenth and tenth of them (11-11%) considered to have major importance. In addition, 7 percent believed that the political relations are the most authoritative with respect to labour market success. When getting a job, the most important aspect count to be payment (49%) as well as job satisfaction and fulfilment (29%) among young people. While job security (15%) and sympathy with colleagues (7%) seem to be the least relevant in this respect.

IV. Culture

Today, we spend a significant part of our leisure time in mediated environment, so it is not surprising that the EU citizens' media consumption is very high (Eurobarometer, 2015a). Only 15 percent of citizens count to be low media consumers, although 46 percent explicitly spends a lot of time in the vicinity of media devices (overall 80 percent count to be high level media consumers). In Slovenia, the situation is similar: 43 percent of citizens are characterized by very high media consumption, 41 percent is by high level and only 15 percent were classified into the category of low consumers.

The use of the Internet as an indispensable instrument is indicated by the fact that two-thirds of EU citizens (63%) use the Internet every day (Eurobarometer, 2015c). In contrast, it can be said that nearly a fifth of EU citizens (18%) do not use the Internet at all. In Slovenia similar rates can be found in the field of Internet use. 61 percent of the population counts to be a daily user on the net, but 19 percent does not use the Internet at all. The most often, Slovenes use the Internet for online communication (e-mail and social media) and for following the news, but online banking is also a widely used form of the web activities.

In terms of the cultural consumption of youth living in the Union it can be concluded that the 15-19 age group, higher school graduates and students appear to be the most open towards cultural activities (Eurobarometer, 2015b) (Table 7). A tenth of 15-30-year-olds do not carry out cultural activities in their free time (of those listed). As the most popular cultural spaces, the cinemas and concerts are considered, but the sights and exhibitions are also

frequently visited venues among the youth. However, art performances can reach only four in ten young EU citizens. Hobbies of creative, artistic nature only three in ten young people have. Among Slovenian young people, especially cinemas and concerts count to be the most attractive cultural activities. However, the various historical monuments, museums, exhibitions represent a form of recreation to less than the EU average, as only a fifth of them have a creative hobby.

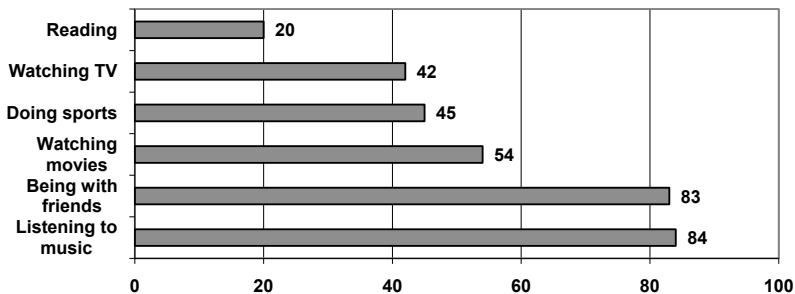
Table 7: Participation of 15-30-year-olds in cultural activities in the European Union and in Slovenia (percentage)

	EU28	Slovenia
Attending the cinema or concerts	80	81
Visiting monuments museums or exhibitions	63	54
Attending theatre, dance or classical music performances	38	40
Carrying out creative activities as a hobby	30	20
None	11	10

(Source: Eurobarometer, 2015b)

To the Slovenian 16-27 year-olds most popular leisure time activities count listening to music and spending time with friends (SY 2013) (Figure 6). Eight out of ten young people often do these two activities in their spare time. The movies and sports are parts of the life of less people on a regular basis. Only 4-5 young people out of ten often watch movies, and the same number have those who can devote time to physical activity in their leisure hours. Watching TV is a regular free time activity of four tenth of young people, while reading is only to half as many young people, only to the fifth of them. Among young people in their twenties reading, watching movies, friends and music play an important role. Among women, listening to music and reading count to be especially popular forms of recreation, while men prefer sport.

The most common leisure time activities among Slovenian youth
(16-27 year-olds, percentage distribution)



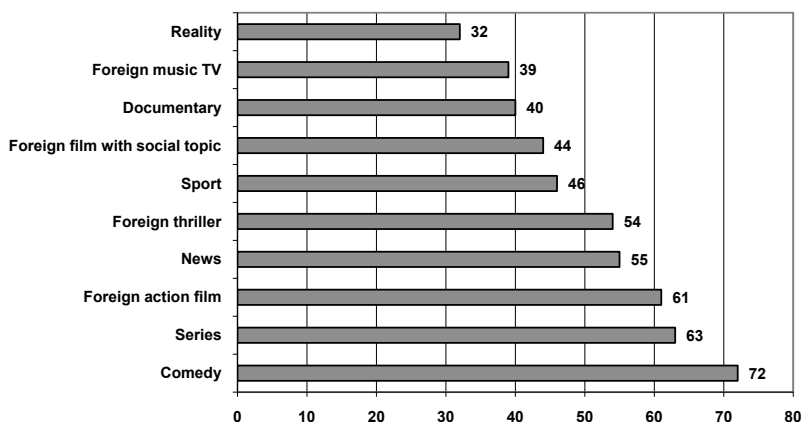
(Source: SY 2013)

The Slovenian youth spend an average of 6 euros per month for films, while 4 euros on books (SY 2013). Among those in the second half of their twenties, there is a higher monthly expenditure of this kind on culture. Reading, as mentioned above, is a more popular form of recreation among women than among men: twice as many women (28%) read regularly than men (14%). Most regular readers among can be found among young people with higher education (25%) and secondary school graduates (24%) (those with primary education: 14%) and 25-27 year olds (25%; 20-23 year olds: 21%; 16-19-year-olds: 15%). In addition to socio-demographic variables have already been mentioned, the type of settlement also shows a significant correlation with the ratio of the frequent readers. Young people living in big cities (Ljubljana, Maribor) twice as likely to read regularly (36%) than inhabitants of smaller towns (towns with the population of more than 10 thousand people: 19%; towns with the population of less than 10 thousand people: 18%).

As in the EU comparison has been seen already, media devices have a considerable weight in free time. The Slovenian youth spend an average of 4 hours a day online, in front of the computer screen (SY 2013). 45 percent use the web more than 4 hours a day. In 2010, the time spent on the Internet among the 16-27-year-olds had an average of only 2.4 hours on a daily basis. Young people basically use the Internet for several of its functions; most of them spend time on the Internet due to communication, information gathering and search for media contents; many of them also carries out these activities simulta-

neously (multitasking). Communication with friends (86%), visiting social networking sites (85%), e-mailing (84%), and the collection of information (84%) are the most popular online activities. But the majority of Slovenian young people watch videos or listen to music (82%), read the news (76%) or download a variety of contents (73%) in the online space.

Figure 7: The most popular programmes or film types among Slovenian youth (rate of viewers watching that programme at least once a week; 16-27 year olds; percentage distribution)



(Source: SY 2013)

V. Public life

The majority of Slovenian youth collect information on political issues from the Internet (82%) and from television (71%) (SY 2013). In the area of on-line information gathering, the most open prove to be the children of the highly educated (90%), metropolitan (87%) and higher educated parents (in case of the father higher education: 88%, in case of the mother with higher education: 86%). The radio (33%) and newspapers (32%) as a source of information reaches a much smaller role among the Slovenian youth. However, with their immediate environment, only a fraction of the 16-27 year olds talks

about political issues: from the friends 30 percent, and from the families, 26 percent of the age group are collecting information on political matters. Basically, the activity of young people in public life, openness to policy in Slovenia can be considered to have low intensity, but as generational characteristics, these are present almost everywhere. Only 5 percent of the Slovenian youth have strong interest in national political affairs. However, 16 percent are concerned with issues concerning the Union. Openness towards the political processes is a characteristic of mostly educated young people, in the second half of their twenties, living in big cities. 62 percent of young people watch political debates on television; this is especially true of the 24-27 year olds. The parents of almost a quarter (23%) of 16-27-year-olds show no interest in political issues. However, the higher level of education is coupled with greater openness here as well. 17 percent of EU citizens do not show any political interest; in Slovenia, this figure is 19 percent (Eurobarometer, 2015a). While two-thirds of EU citizens (64%) are characterized by at least a moderate degree of openness in this direction, this figure is seven-tenths for Slovenians (69%).

Policy-related activity can be said about only 10 percent of the 16-25-year-olds, while 28 percent have a civil relationship (SY 2013). 17 percent of 18-27 year olds have never participated in elections, even though they were entitled to do so, on the basis of age. Among those with primary education, 35 percent is the proportion of those who have never voted, while among young people completed secondary and higher education, only 12-12 percent. In a prospective election, the rate of those who would remain at home is even higher rate: 42 percent of 18-27 year olds would not participate. It is important to note that a further quarter (26%) would vote, but has uncertainty regarding the choice of the party.

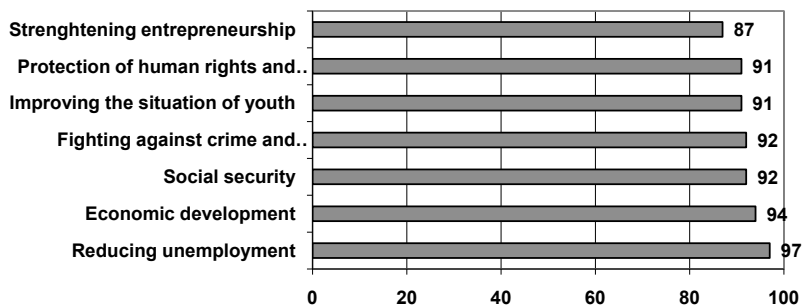
60 percent of the Slovenian youth was dissatisfied with the system of democracy functioning in Slovenia, and only 8 percent has been satisfied (SY 2013). In 2000, there was a much greater acceptance among young people: 21 percent were dissatisfied, 23 percent were strongly satisfied. One in two young people believe that politicians do not represent the interests of young people properly. Half of the young people (51%) are not confident in the field that their age group has influence on political processes and decision-making at the national level. In matters affecting the municipal level, young people prove to be more optimistic, but 41 percent is pessimistic also in this issue;

they think that the advocacy of young people does not have real power to enforce in local politics. Trust of the Slovenian youth towards civilians is stronger than the faith invested in political actors. While 45 percent trust the actors of civil life, in the local politicians, only 34 percent. Regarding the national policy, scepticism is even stronger: 13 percent of young people is hopeful towards the government, 12 percent towards the parliament, while only 8 percent towards the parties.

The electoral willingness shows a strong correlation with attitude to political issues and confidence in politics (SY 2013). The proportion of young people who are voting is the highest among those who are more satisfied with democracy and youth advocacy, having more trust in generational advocacy and having more confidence in political actors. In contrast, distrust in politics and disillusionment regarding the efficiency of advocacy strengthens the absence of young people. So those who are not likely to participate in a possible election, feel democratic functioning to be much more problematic, and much less believe that the words of their age group would matter in public life and in politics than those who are considered to be active in this field.

According to the Slovenian youth, unemployment (72%) and uncertainty in the labour market (71%) are the most pressing problems in the country (SY 2013). In addition, however, they feel the spread of illegal practices (57%) and poverty (50%) as special hardship. It is, therefore, not surprising that the actions of politicians are mainly expected in those areas the most (Figure 8). They believe that economic development, social security, and fighting against unemployment, crime and corruption need the most attention. In addition, however, they are pressing the birth of political solutions for improving the situation of youth, in terms of the effective protection of human rights. Furthermore, the realization of government intervention aimed at the strengthening of entrepreneurship is also being prioritized.

Figure 8: The list of areas suspected to need the most urgent intervention by the government in 2013 based on young people's opinion (percentage distribution)



(Source: SY 2013)

29 percent of the Slovenian youth were involved in voluntary activity one year on (EU28: 25%) (Eurobarometer, 2015b). The activities related to the locality attracted them the most (67%), but some of them (23%) also conducted national volunteer work as well, while only a few people were attracted at international levels (4%). The most often chosen volunteer works among the young people are the activities connected to charitable and humanitarian purposes (45%), but also to education, training or sports-based activities (37%) are very popular among them, such as those in connection with culture and education as well (29%). However, the least could be moved by the political-profile actions (3%), but in the rankings, organizations related to religion (9%), environment (9%), animal welfare (10%) and protection of human rights (10%) were not really popular among young people in Slovenia, either.

In the activities of non-governmental organizations, every second (50%) young people in Slovenia participated viewing a one-year interval (Eurobarometer, 2015b). This is the same as the EU average (51%). Among Slovenian youth, the most popular organizations are related to sports (26%), youth and culture (7-7%). In contrast, organizations struggling for the protection of human rights, political and environmental organizations were visited the least; the reduced amount of interest towards them we already experienced in the case of voluntary activities. In terms of the civil activity of young people, to the most open prove to be men and members of the 15-19 age group, as

well as those with higher level of education and students. In international voluntary activity, 9 percent of the Slovenian youth participated; this ratio at EU level is 6 percent. However, international youth projects prove to be more popular in this matter: among Slovenian youth, the rate of participants is 14 percent, which counts to be the second largest ratio in the comparison of the EU's 28 Member States (EU28: 7%). This kind of activity particularly moves the 15-19 age group and students.

VI. EU citizenship

The Union's citizens collect information about the EU mainly from television (49%) (Eurobarometer, 2015a). However, the dailies (25%) and the web news portals (24%) also have a major role in this kind of information flow. In Slovenia, the primacy of television is also clear in this area (34%), but its role is much smaller, so more sources of information can be mentioned for the Slovenes. The news websites, radio and the official sites (21-21%) also represent the primary channels for gathering information on EU affairs for many people. The EU's political and economic processes are a frequent topic of conversation in only a few households (EU28: 15%, Slovenia: 11%), rather the rarer, occasional conversations in this topic are the most widespread in the EU (51%) and in Slovenia (59%). However, it is important to note that one third of people living in the EU (33%) are not at all concerned with this theme; in their family, friend and workplace communities, this may not be a topic of conversation. This rate is similar for the Slovenian population: three in ten residents (30%) of the Slovenian population is not at all talking about political processes associated with the EU in their direct environment.

The majority of EU citizens (55%) are aware of the EU operation, and the same can be said about the Slovenians as well (61%) (Eurobarometer, 2015a). The data of the latest Eurobarometer report showed, however, that with the information about the structure of EU, only a small minority of citizens is aware of. Only a third (35%) of those living in the Union have stable knowledge⁵³; in Slovenia, however, half of the population (49%). It is not surprising based on this that the rate of people having knowledge regarding the current

53 The three statements, the accuracy of which the respondents had to decide was as follows: 1. The Union has 28 Member States; 2. Representatives of the European Parliament are directly elected by the citizens of the Member States; 3. Switzerland is an EU Member State.

rights of people with the EU is higher in Slovenia (60%) than in the EU as a whole (49%). With this, it somewhat conflicting, but data indicating openness and greater interest is that 70 percent of Slovenians would like to receive further information on EU affairs and operations; this figure is 65 percent in the EU.

The EU citizens mainly identify the EU with the freedom of movement and the official currency, i.e. the Euro (Eurobarometer, 2015a) (Table 8). However, peace, democracy, a stronger position outlined in the world and cultural diversity is synonymous for many with the EU. In contrast, however, in the heads of a portion of citizens, the EU is coupled with rather negative feelings: for example, the moderation in the monitoring of borders, bureaucracy and material loss. While overall, the Union the citizens belonging to that community, living in the 28 Member States can identify social protection with the EU the least. In Slovenia, we get essentially the same picture in this issue: first of all, Slovenes associate to freedom of movement, the Euro, as well as peace and cultural diversity when hearing about the EU. But for many, the bureaucracy, the weakening of border protection, financial loss and crime appears if they come across the name of the Union. Social protection in the case of Slovenes was put at the bottom of the rankings in this respect.

Table 8: Meaning of the EU for its citizens across the Union and in Slovenia (“What does the EU mean for you personally?”; percentage distribution)

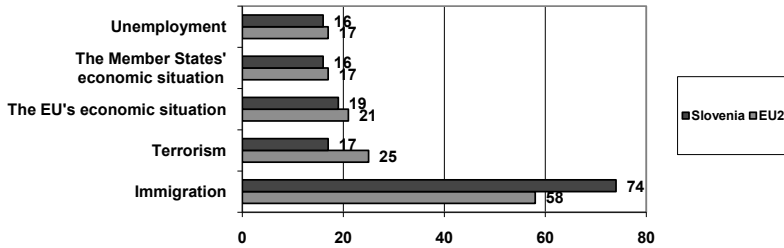
	EU28	Slovenia
Peace	27	28
Economic well-being	14	13
Democracy	22	14
Social protection	9	8
Free movement	49	49
Cultural diversity	28	24
Strong global position	22	16
Euro	37	41
Unemployment	14	17

Bureaucracy	24	26
Material loss	25	22
Loss of cultural identity	14	16
More crime	16	21
Lack of control at the external borders	24	22
Other	3	4

(Source: Eurobarometer, 2015a)

As regards the current functioning of the EU, slightly less than half of the citizens proves to be satisfied (45%), while a quarter (26%) believe that the processes are moving in the wrong direction in the EU (Eurobarometer, 2015a). The rate of optimists is similar in Slovenia (45%), but the rate of those with negative opinions is higher: one in three (36%), Slovenian residents feel that the current EU operations do not show the right direction. The majority of people living in the EU (68%) believe that the EU has words worldwide, as in Slovenia this attitude proves to be the most widespread (59%). Roughly half the citizens see the future of the Union positively (53%), while four in ten see it in a pessimistic way (41%). In Slovenia, 53 percent of the population clearly prove to be optimistic, however, 45 percent predicts a negative vision. 64 percent of the EU population declare themselves as EU citizens, while in Slovenia; the proportion of those having EU identities is even higher, as 75 percent of the population feel themselves to be EU citizens (Eurobarometer, 2015a). The majority of citizens do not show strong confidence regarding the EU's institutional system: only one third (32%) are thinking positively in this area, while 55 percent are characterized by mistrust. In Slovenia, there is an even higher degree of mistrust: only 30 percent of the population trust the EU, while 61 percent have just the opposite view. EU citizens feel particularly immigration as the EU's most pressing problem (Figure 9). In addition, however, terrorism, instability in the economic situation at the EU and Member State level and unemployment appear to be major problem in their eyes. In the eyes of the Slovenian population, this problem map occurs similarly; rankings of the difficulties affecting the EU are weighted in approximately the same way.

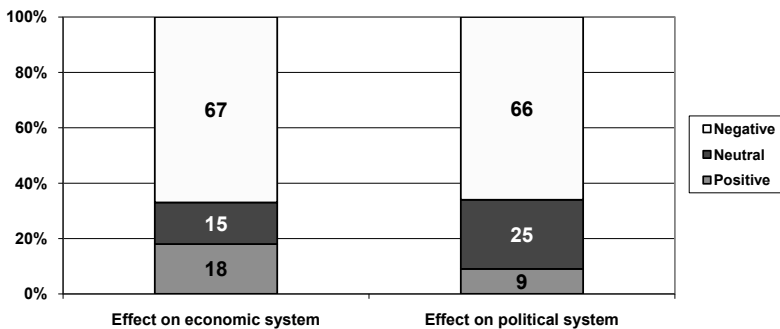
Figure 9: The EU's most important problems in the views of all the member states and the citizens of Slovenia ("What do you think are the two most important matters with which the EU is currently facing?"; percentage distribution)



(Source: Eurobarometer, 2015a)

The Slovenian youth basically perceive the EU accession negatively (SY 2013) (Figure 10). Both from economic and political point of view, two-thirds of young people have a pessimistic view concerning the consequences of EU membership. While in terms of political effects, just a tenth of 16-27-year-olds have positive views, so that see some progress, the rate of those assessing the influence of accession on economic processes positively is the twice of this, so close to one-fifth of the young people have this view.

Figure 10: The judgement of EU accession according to the Slovenian youth (percentage distribution)



(Source: SY 2013)

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Siauliai



The situation of young people in Siauliai and in Lithuania

The presentation of the situation of young people living in Lithuania happens through the most recent data (2012) of a national representative youth research (14-29 years). The more thorough understanding of the individual topics and the young people's preferences and situation is made possible by the comparison of the research results at national and EU level as well as the supplementation with these. In connection with the former, we relied on the Eurostat database, as well as on the thematic data and the standard Eurobarometer studies completed twice a year. For the national data, the Lithuanian statistics office, the Official Statistics Portal (hereinafter: OSP) data mean the starting point.

I. Demography

Lithuania's population according to the latest weighing is 2.908.227 (OSP, 2015). The proportion of the population living in cities is twice as high as the proportion of people living in rural, smaller communities. 67 percent of Lithuanians are urban residents, but 33 percent live in rural areas (OSP, 2014). The population of Siauliai County is 283 thousand people, nearly 10 percent of the total population, while in the city of Siauliai nearly 105 thousand people live.

The total population is decreased with an average of 10-11 thousand people a year; in Siauliai County, the population decreased with 1622 people in 2013 (OSP, 2013). The proportion of women is higher than that of the men; there are 117 women to every hundred men (Eurostat, 2014). The average life expectancy at birth is 69 years for men, 80 years for women. Both values remain below the EU average; the average life expectancy at birth is eight years lower for men (EU28: 77 years) 3 years lower for women (EU28: 83 years) than in the EU as a whole. Among the Lithuanian city residents this ratio is higher than among the ones living in rural areas. City women are in the best situation; in their case, the life expectancy at birth is an average of 81 years; in the worst situation are the men in small towns and villages; in their case, the average is only 67 years.

In Lithuania, 50 percent is the dependency ratio; the old-age dependency ratio is 28 percent, these values are nearly the same as the EU average (EU28

dependency ratio: 52 percent, old age dependency ratio: 28 percent). The aging index is 127, which value means that there are 128 elderly people for 100 active-age people. This latter value is higher than the EU average; in terms of the EU's 28 Member States, the aging index value is 113 (Eurostat, 2013). The proportion of each age group is similar to the EU average; those under 25 years make up the 28 percent of the total population in Lithuania; in the Union, this ratio is 27 percent (Table 1) (Eurostat, 2014).

Table 1: Age group composition in the European Union, in Lithuania (percentage distribution)

	EU28	Lithuania
Under 14 year olds	16	15
15-24 year olds	11	13
25-49 year olds	35	33
50-64 year olds	20	21
65-79 year olds	13	13
Over 80 year olds	5	5

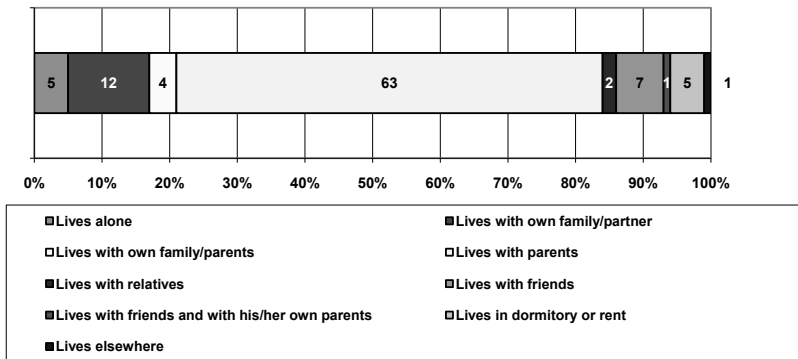
(Source: Eurostat, 2014)

If we narrow the category of young people to the youth age group, that is, between 14 and 29 year-olds are taken into consideration, we can say that this age group makes up one-fifth (21 percent) of the total Lithuanian population (Juanimo, 2013). Compared to 2004, the number of youth age group has decreased significantly: in 2004, 775 thousand young people between the ages of 14 and 29 were registered, but in 2013 already 144 thousand less, that is, only 631 thousand young people were counted in Lithuania. Among young people, unlike the national data, the percentage of men is higher: to 1000 men, there are 951 women. The proportion of young people is twice as high in cities as in smaller settlements; the same has been experienced for the total population. The most over-represented region by young people is the region of Rietavo, here their ratio is 24 percent, and the most under-represented region is Visagino; only 18 percent of residents are between the ages of 14-29. The average household size in Lithuania is equal to the EU average, i.e. 2.3

(Eurostat, 2013). The total fertility rate is 1.6, which is also the same as the EU average. In small towns and villages, this ratio is higher, but 1.9 in the cities remain below the national average, which is only 1.5 (OSP, 2013). In terms of marital status, we can say about Lithuanians that more than a quarter (28 percent) is single, half (49 percent) of them is married (Census, 2011). A tenth of Lithuanians (11 percent) is divorced; a further tenth is widow (12 percent).

Among young Lithuanians it can also be experienced that independent family formation is getting delayed, so it is not surprising that nearly two-thirds of young people live with their parents (Juanimo, 2013) (Figure 1). 12 percent of the 14-29 age group lives in the same household with their own families, as well as with partners. 88 percent of the 15-19 year-olds is dependent; among 20-24 year olds, this proportion is much lower, but still significant: 42 percent. For young people between 25-29 years of age, the vast majority is independent, but one in ten young people (12 percent) in this age group share a common pot with their parents. The women’s average age is 27, for men, the average age is 29 when they enter into marriage for the first time. In 2004, these averages were lower; for women 25, for men 27 years was the time of first marriage.

Figure 1: Forms of coexistence among people aged 14-29 (percentage distribution)



(Source: Juanimo, 2013)

The arrival of their first child can be placed after the age of 27 years (Juanimo, 2013) (the EU average is of 30 years (Eurostat, 2013)). The same value in 2004 was 25, so young people assumed children an average of two years earlier (Juanimo, 2013). Looking at the 14-29 age group, 68 percent of women, 54 percent of men are married. Among women under 18 years of age, 4 percent is the ratio of married; in 2004, the figure was 12 percent. In the age group, one in six men (15 percent) and one in four women (23 percent), however, has become divorced in the course of his/her life so far. The total population for Lithuania shows that every second marriage ends in divorce (Eurostat, 2013). While 6.9 marriages came for one thousand inhabitants in 2013, for the same number of inhabitants, the number of divorces was 3.4.

The largest group of young Lithuanians (45 percent) are those who believe that marriage is essential to a full life, but before that, cohabitation is a must experience for young people (Juanimo, 2013). 26 percent say that the only legitimate way to live together is in marriage, 14 percent, however, totally rejects marriage. However, 5 percent believe the marriage becomes current with pregnancy the most. Half (46 percent) of the young age group live sexual life. The time of the first sexual relationship for the majority came at the age of 17-18; 51 percent of women, 65 percent men had the first such experience before the age of 18.

II. Migration

As regards the recent past, two years with significant population movements deserve to be highlighted. In 2005, nearly 111 thousand people left their residence at that time, and in 2010, nearly 133 thousand people (OSP, 2005-2014). Every year, the average migration ranged from 80-100 thousand people; in 2014, 98 thousand people left their current residence. However, the rate of arrivals to the country was not extremely high (an average of 60 + 80 thousand), so the migration balance was constantly negative. In 2005, 51 thousand, in 2010, 78 thousand, (in 2011 this figure is quite high: 38 thousand) and in 2014, by 12 thousand more people migrated out than those who arrived in Lithuania.

In Siauliai County, the year 2010 proves to be the most outstanding from aspects of migration (OSP, 2005-2014). Then, 18 thousand people left their former residences in Lithuania with either moving to other settlements or by

emigration, while 6 thousand migrants arrived in Lithuania. In Siauliai County, the migration balance based on the most recent data is negative; in 2014 a total of 12 thousand people migrated abroad or to another settlement, and 9 thousand came to Lithuania, so the migration balance was -3 thousand. In the last 10 years, 10-14 thousand people left their residence at that time, while 6-9 thousand migrants arrived in the country.

By examining international migration it can be said that in 2014 a total of 37 thousand people left Lithuania; this is one third of all migrants (OSP, 2014). Meanwhile, 24 thousand people arrived in the country, so the difference is 13 thousand people. In Siauliai County there is also a negative balance of international migration; in 2014, five thousand people left the county and migrated abroad, while three thousand people settled down here in 2014. In terms of international migration, among immigrants men are in the majority (13 thousand, women: 11 thousand); in terms of emigration there is no such difference between the sexes. The largest group of emigrants is provided by young people aged 20-29, 13 thousand people, which represents more than a third of all immigrants (13 thousand people). Among the immigrants, also young adults are over-represented; 25-34-year-olds make up 40 percent of all foreign immigrants (9 thousand people). The vast majority of immigrants are Lithuanian citizens (94 percent), the rest are mostly migrants with Belarusian, Russian or Ukrainian nationalities. The majority of emigrants are Lithuanian as well (81 percent), but among them, the rate of Russians, Ukrainians and Belarusians is also prominent.

99 percent of the total population of Lithuania has one nationality; among them, the largest minority is given by Russia, but the proportion of Belarusian, Ukrainian and Polish nationalities is also significant (Census, 2011). The Lithuanians are basically open to migrants from other countries of the EU; 59 percent have positive attitude towards them, only a third (36 percent) showed negative feelings (Eurobarometer, 2014b). Within the Union, we can experience similar proportions: 52 percent of European citizens show positive attitudes, while 41 percent of them are negative. However, we can notice a change in attitude, if sentiments against arrivals from outside the EU are considered. Both in the EU as a whole (57 percent) and in Lithuania (61 percent), the majority summarize non-EU citizen immigrants with negative feelings. In contrast, the open-minded citizens make up 35 percent in the EU; while their ratio is 32 percent in Lithuania.

In domestic migration in 2014 more than 61 thousand people were affected; usually about 50-60 thousand people a year move from their places of residence to another settlement in Lithuania (OSP, 2014). Of them, 37 thousand, that is, six out of ten selected urban environments as their place of establishment and only 24 thousand people moved to the countryside. The majority (55 percent) of people moving out from big cities settled down in villages, in rural environment. In contrast, the vast majority of the former rural residents (86 percent) chose a larger town, or city as place of residence.

In 2011, 7 percent of the population has already lived abroad (Census, 2011). The countries chosen the most often as the headquarters of their establishment were Russia (40 percent), Belarus (12 percent), the UK (10 percent), Ireland (5 percent) and Ukraine (5 percent). Since 1990, the majority (58 percent) of those emigrated from Lithuania are motivated by the desire for better working conditions; while one in ten migrants are encouraged by the learning experience.

As we could see earlier, almost every second young emigrants, a total of 19 thousand young people left Lithuania for a shorter or longer period in 2012 (Juanimo, 2013). Most of them are between 20 and 29 years, accounting for 84 percent, and only 16 percent of emigrants are between the ages of 14 and 19. In 2004, however, the proportion of younger people was higher; then the 14-18 year olds made up of the third of all emigrants (35 percent). However, it is important to note that among young people emigrating earlier, almost five times higher the proportion (9 percent) of those who have returned to the country, than in 2004 (2 percent).

Young people are primarily motivated by better conditions for employment to stay abroad for a long-term or a shorter period (Juanimo, 2013). The overwhelming majority would emigrate in the hope of higher salary, but the difficulties of getting jobs, worse working conditions and career opportunities are also relevant aspects to many (Table 2). In addition-although fewer people, but – they are taking into account the improved social services and work experience as well. For one seventh of young people language learning, for nearly one tenth the traveling means the motivation. Among people older than 18 mainly the higher earning potential provides the main reason for emigration, while the tight schedule of prospects and employment opportunities is also an important factor for them.

Table 2: Migration motives among Lithuanian youth (percentage distribution)

Higher salary	76
Have difficulties in finding a job	40
Better working conditions	24
Better career opportunities	23
Language learning	14
Social guarantees	12
Traveling	8
Work experience	5
Family members have emigrated	4
Marry with a foreigner	1

(Source: Juanimo, 2013)

III. Labour market

In 2014, the rate of employment was 69 percent in the EU; among men (75 percent), this figure was 11 percent higher than among women (64 percent) (Eurostat, 2014). In Lithuania, 72 percent of the active age group were employed, but here the gender gap is barely perceptible. 73% of Lithuanian active-age men, while 71 percent of women was employed in 2014. In the area of employment, clearly those with higher level of education are in a better position (Table 3). Among those with low level of education⁵⁴ half is the number of active employees than among tertiary graduates. Looking at the Union, the registered employment rate among people with low and medium-level

⁵⁴ The qualification levels are based on the International Standard Classification of Education. To the first, belongs the level 0-2, which covers from pre-school education to the lower level of secondary education; in the second category, there is the level 3-4, which includes higher levels of secondary education and the post-secondary (non-tertiary) education and finally level 5-6, fall into a category into which the first and second levels of higher education graduates can be classified.

qualifications is higher than in Lithuania, while among tertiary graduates just the opposite is true.

Table 3: Labour market situation in the European Union and in Lithuania (percentage distribution)

	EU28	Lithuania
Ratio of the employed	69	72
Ratio of the employed among men	75	73
Ratio of the employed among women	64	71
Proportion of part-time contracts	21	9
Proportion of fixed-term employment contracts	14	3
Ratio of employed among low-skilled people	52	42
Proportion of employed among those with secondary education	70	66
Proportion of employed among graduates	82	88
Proportion of people living in jobless households (under 60 years of age)	11	11
Proportion of unemployed in the 15-24 age group	22	19
Proportion of unemployed in the 25-74 age group	9	10
Proportion of unemployed among the low-skilled	17	29
Proportion of unemployed among those with secondary education	8	13
Proportion of unemployed among graduates	6	4
The proportion of employees living under the poverty line	17	21

The proportion of those living under the poverty line among 18-year-olds	20	27
The proportion of those living under the poverty line among 18-24-year-olds	23	19
Poverty rate among families with at least three children	27	45
Poverty rate among single-parent households	32	43
Poverty rate among single households	25	34
Poverty rate among one-person households over 65 years	21	34
Poverty rate among the low-skilled	24	33
Poverty rate among those with secondary education	15	20
Poverty rate among graduates	8	7

(Source: Eurostat, 2013-2014)

The atypical forms of employment are less widespread in Lithuania than in the whole EU (Eurostat, 2014). Only a tenth of the total number of employees are employed part-time; in the EU, this proportion is twice as high. The fixed-term contracts are hardly widespread in Lithuania; only 3 percent of employees are employed in such form; in the EU, this figure is four times higher.

Looking at the wages we can see that the Lithuanian minimum wage is only 40 percent of the EU average (Eurostat, 2015). In Lithuania 300 euros, while in the EU, 757 euros is the minimum wage, thus Lithuania rather increases the group of tails-enders in this respect than it would be classified in the mid-range. The fifth of Lithuanian workers (19 percent) lives below the minimum wage (OSP, 2014). In 2014, the average net wage was EUR 554 in Lithuania, which means a higher average (EUR 578) in the public sector than in the private sector (EUR 541). Two thirds of employees (67 percent) work in the market sector, and only a third of them (33 percent) work in the public sector. The average salary (388 euros) of workers under 20 years of age is only 54 percent of the average earnings of the total number of employees (724 euros). However, the average salary of 20-29-year-olds (699 euros) does not show

such a degree of difference; there is only a few percentages gap.

The proportion of people living below the poverty line is higher than the EU average (Eurostat, 2013). Poverty mainly affects children, single-parent families, single families or families with more than three children. However, as we have seen in employment, education also has a strong role in the level of exposure to poverty. Among people with low level of education there is a five times greater chance of poverty and deprivation, than among tertiary graduates. It is important to note, however, that secondary education does not mean enough stability either, since among them, the poverty rate is still high, 20 percent. The relative median poverty gap in Lithuania is similar to the EU average (24 percent), 25 percent, which shows the difference between the poverty line and the average income of people living below it.

57 percent of Lithuanian households said that they could not handle an unexpected expense (OSP, 2013). In Siauliai County, this figure is 54 percent. A tenth of people living there have credit or utility debt (national rate: 14 percent); 18 percent is unable to heat their homes. In the latter is only two-thirds of the national average (29 percent). The rate of youth exposed to the risk of poverty is high in Lithuania. Among the under-18s 27 percent, among 18-24 year olds, 19 percent is this rate (OSP, 2013). However, if social benefits are not taken into account, among the children 41, in the 18-24 age groups, 31 percent is the rate of those who are threatened by poverty. Not only the age, but the place of residence has an important role as well: among urban residents is the lowest rate of young people exposed to the risk of poverty, 12 percent. Among the young people living in other cities, this proportion is 20 percent, while among those living in villages, it is 32 percent.

The vast majority 14-19 year-olds share a common pot with their parents; it is less common among older people, but also among the 25-29-year-olds, one in ten young people has dependent status (Juanimo, 2013) (Table 4). The rate of young people living from wages among 20-24-year olds is more significant, however, is not typical for everyone among those aged 25-29; only two-thirds of the age group is employed. The people living in cities are more likely to be characterized by self-reliance, while among those living in villages there is stronger parental dependence.

Table 4: Forms of living among Lithuanian youth (percentage distribution)

	14-19 year olds	20-24 year olds	25-29 year olds
From wages	2	37	67
Have a regular income from an own possession	0	1	2
Have social benefits	5	12	14
From scholarship	3	4	1
Dependent	88	42	12
Other	0	2	3

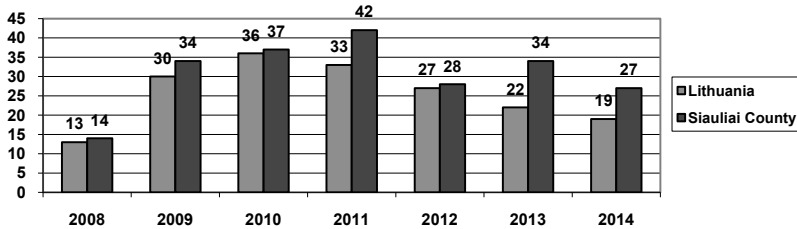
(Source: Juanimo, 2013)

The indicators concerning unemployment in Lithuania are similar to the EU results. One in ten families has at least one unemployed (Eurostat, 2013). In this respect, the most vulnerable age group is that of the 15-24 year olds; among them, the unemployment rate is twice as the national average (Eurostat, 2014). The effect of educational attainment is also significant for unemployment: more than seven times more likely to have no job or jobless status among those with low level of education than among tertiary graduates.

The registered unemployment rate is 10 percent on a national level; in Siauliai County, it is also 10 percent (OSP, 2014). The region most affected by unemployment is Alytus County (14 percent), while the least affected is Vilnius County (8 percent). Unemployment exists in every second (46 percent) Lithuanian job seeker's life for a long time, at least for one year. For a further third (32 percent) of them the job search is taking place for at least three months.

Looking at the recent past, in the period 2009-2011, youth unemployment showed a significant increase in Lithuania (OSP, 2008-2014). In Siauliai County, salience can be seen in these years, adding that in this county, decline started more slowly, and only by 2014 the decline in youth unemployment rate deterioration is reflected (Figure 2).

Figure 2: The unemployment rate for 15-29 year olds in Lithuania and in Sialiai County (percentage distribution)



(Source: OSP, 2008-2014)

The Lithuanian young people basically have a trust in that at the end of their studies they find a suitable job for themselves. 71 percent see a positive outlook in this area, only 27 percent is distrustful in terms of easy job placement (Eurobarometer, 2015b). However, as the most significant hardship affecting job selection, low salary and lack of proper training is detected by young people (Table 5). But they are afraid of finding a stable and long-term job, as well. However, one in five young people do not show concern and see his/her opportunities positively. In EU comparison, finding the predictable, stable job occurs as the most dominant problem during getting the right job.

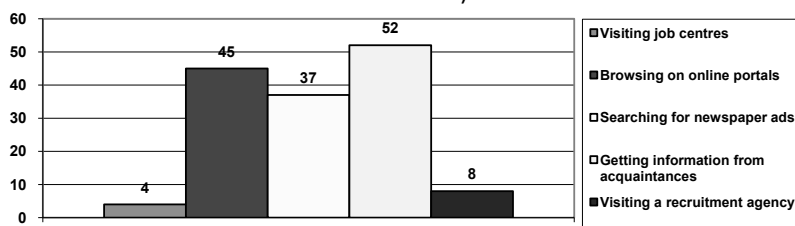
Table 4: Job finding difficulties for young people in the European Union and in Lithuania (percentage distribution)

	EU28	Lithuania
Cannot find a long-term, stable job	31	15
Have to move because of the appropriate job	16	11
Do not have adequate qualifications and knowledge to fill in the position	13	25
Low salary	12	22
Other difficulty	8	7
Not worry about finding a job	19	18

(Source: Eurobarometer, 2015b)

According to 52 percent of young Lithuanians, the personal encounter has key importance when getting a job, and for 56 percent, the work experience is of great importance during the application (Juanimo, 2013). A fifth (19 percent) of currently unemployed young people are not working because they did not receive adequate salary; and nearly one third (27 percent) could not find the right job yet. In job search, young Lithuanians mainly trust in the power of social capital, but the online job-posting portals have considered to be proven in their case, just as browsing the newspaper ads also counts a preferred job search technique (Figure 3). To the least effective and least popular forms prove to be the employment centres and professional agencies. However, most young people are not characterized by using one method only, as they are trying to be informed in many ways about job vacancies.

Figure 3: Job search techniques among the Lithuanian youth (percentage distribution)



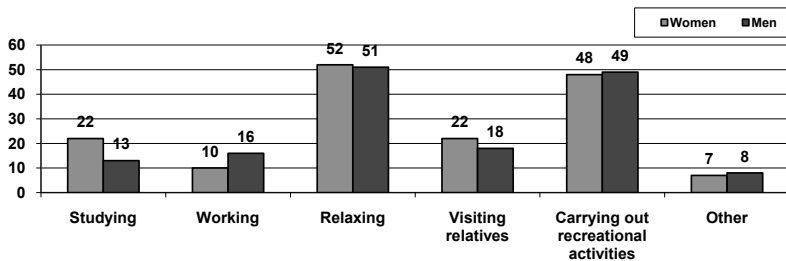
(Source: Juanimo, 2013)

Most of the citizens of the Union are satisfied with their current job (53 percent), 43 percent, however, evaluate pessimistically the present working conditions (Eurobarometer, 2014d). In Lithuania, 41 percent of workers have negative opinion on their current job, but every second Lithuanians (50 percent) are satisfied in this regard. The satisfied are over-represented among the youth, high school graduates, those with employment-status and those who are currently active in employment terms.

IV. Culture

The largest group of young Lithuanians is made up of those who have a weekly 3-5 hours of free time (29 percent) (Juanimo, 2013). 26 percent have less than this; 24 percent have 5-10 hours of free time, and 17 percent can manage more than 10 hours freely. One in two young people basically spend their free time with relaxation, but the same percentage prefers the diversity of recreational activities, activities for relaxation and for renewing. (Figure 4). However, among women it is more common to spend free time with studying, while for men, free time spent with working is more typical. In addition, visiting relatives as a leisure activity is also common; it is a form of free time characteristic of every fifth young Lithuanians.

Figure 4: Ways to use free time among the Lithuanian youth (percentage distribution)



(Source: Juanimo, 2013)

Among Lithuanian youth, the most popular leisure time activity counts pastime with friends (Table 6) (Juanimo, 2013). To their friends, 14-18 year olds can devote the most time (50 percent, 19-23 year-olds: 38 percent, 24-29 year-olds: 25 percent). In addition, watching television, shopping, walking, lazing and computing are also popular activities among them. One in two young people pay homage to their hobby in their spare time; this activity is the most common among 14-18 year olds (70 percent, 19-23 year-olds: 59 percent, 24-29 year-olds: 42 percent). Reading is a preferred leisure activity of only a third of young people; only a quarter of them attend cultural programs. Both count to be more frequent activities among women than among men. In their spare time, 45 percent of women tend to read regularly; among

men the figure is 25 percent (the rate of those who never read among women, 8 percent, among men: 26 percent). Meanwhile, computer use is more common among men (60 percent, among women: 46 percent), just as watching TV. Three in ten young people visit night clubs, especially from the 19-23 age group. Less than a third of young people visit youth clubs on a regular basis, and this activity is more common among women. 14 percent of the age group visit some community organizations in their spare time.

Table 6: Leisure time activities among Lithuanian youth (percentage distribution)

Being with friends	82
Watching TV	68
Shopping	68
Walking, lazing	60
Using the computer	52
Hobby	50
Reading	35
Visiting nightlife scenes (pubs, discos, etc.)	28
Going to a youth club	28
Attending cultural programs	23
Visiting some community organization	14

(Source: Juanimo, 2013)

Reading books is more common activity in the lives of urban youth (25 percent) than among those living in villages (21 percent) (Juanimo, 2013). However, watching television is a more attractive free time activity to young people living in rural areas. The proportion of frequent television viewers is 22 percent among young people living in cities, while 26 percent among youth living in villages).

In Lithuania, 104 museums are operating, of which the annual number of visitors was 3.8 million in 2014 (OSP, 2014). After the decrease in 2009 (2.8 million in 2008: 3.1 million in 2009), a continuous increase can be observed

in this regard. The country operates a total of 632 cultural centres, of which 67 in Siauliai County, which means an institution's number proportional to the population of (approx. 10 percent).

One year prior to the survey, the vast majority of young Lithuanians attended a concert or watched a movie at the cinema (Eurobarometer, 2015b) (Table 7). Three-quarters of the age group visited some monument, museum or exhibition; in the Union, this ratio is lower, there only two out of three young people have the same characteristic. Visiting of the theatre or dance-, opera-, and classical music performances characterizes less: in Lithuania only five out of ten young people visited the above mentioned places one year on in the pre-polling period. Hobby-like activities were carried out by 31 percent, while slightly less than one tenth of them did not take part in any of the activities listed.

Table 7: Participation of 15-30-year-olds in cultural activities in the European Union and in Lithuania (percentage)

	EU28	Lithuania
Going to the cinema or to a concert	80	82
Visiting a monument, museum or exhibition	63	74
Attending a theatre-, dance- or or classical music performance	38	50
Carrying out hobby-like creative activity	30	31
None	11	8

(Source: Eurobarometer, 2015b)

Following a 2013 Eurobarometer (2013a) research, a typology measuring cultural consumption can be set up. In Lithuania, the majority can be classified among medium- consumers from cultural perspective. 22 percent of Lithuanians are high consumers; the equivalent figure is only 18 percent in the EU. In parallel, the group of those counts to be low consumers from cultural aspects is lower than the EU average (34 percent), only 23 percent. Among the high-level consumers, the youth, the educated and those living without money worries are over-represented. Among those visiting cultural

spaces a little / hardly / not at all (i.e. low consumers), disinterest or lack of time is a primary explanation, however, resignation due to high prices also play a role in the low consumption.

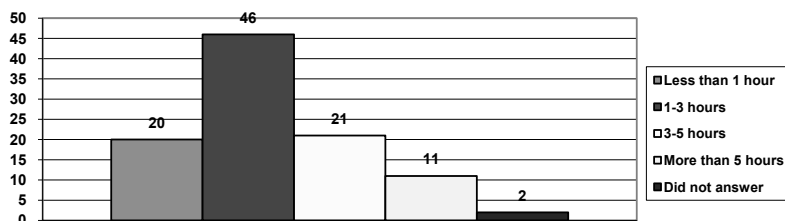
A further slice of the leisure activities is made up of physical activity and exercise. 54 percent of Lithuanians do sports with some regularity (EU28: 58 percent) (Eurobarometer, 2014c). A physically active leisure time characterizes especially young people, men and those active in terms of employment, as well as the students the most. Other physical activity is carried out regularly by one-fifth of Lithuanians (18 percent, EU28: 15 percent). 14 percent of Lithuanians are members of sport clubs or health centres; this is slightly more than half of the EU average (24 percent). Mainly health, fitness and recreation motivate Lithuanians to exercise. As for the de-emphasizing of the preservation of physical fitness, mainly the lack of time is mentioned by the Lithuanians, but also high prices make such leisure activities to be limited for them.

71 percent of the Lithuanian youth do sports in their spare time with some regularity (Juanimo, 2013). With most people doing sports frequently (several times a week), we can meet among young people aged 14-18: two-thirds of this age group do sports regularly (63 percent); 19-23 year olds are slightly less active (47 percent). The least active age group is of 24-29 year olds; only one-third of this age-group do sports regularly (39 percent) and the highest rate of those not doing sports at all is among them (41 percent among; among 19-23 year-olds: 32 percent, among 14-18 year-olds: 18 percent). Men are more active in this area: at least 61 percent do sports several times a week; among women, the corresponding figure is only 42 percent. In Lithuania, the most popular sports are basketball and football.

In the information, a significant portion of our free time is spent in front of computers, in the online space. In 2014, 56 percent of Lithuanians use the Internet on a daily basis, in the EU this ratio is 63 percent (Eurobarometer, 2015a). Compared to 2013, we could experience growth: the proportion of Internet users on a daily basis was 52 percent in Lithuania (EU28: 54), (Eurobarometer, 2013b). The rate of those not using the Internet at all also showed a decrease: in 2013, this rate was 34 percent in Lithuania; in 2014, it declined with five percentage points (29 percent). In the EU, a higher level of “coverage” can be experienced: while in 2013, 28 percent, in 2014 only 18 percent of EU citizens did not use the Internet at all.

The computer and Internet usage can be measured among Lithuanian young people net users shows a dramatic increase in recent years (Juanimo, 2013). While PC in 2004 was used by 44 percent of 16-24 year olds, 28 percent of 25-34 year-olds, whereas in 2012, already 90 percent of 16-24 year olds and 72 percent of 25-34 year-olds. In the field of Internet usage, the change is similar: in 2004 only 20 percent of the Lithuanian youth visited more or less regularly the online space, in 2012, 90 percent of 16-24 year olds, 72 percent of 25-34 year olds did so. Most of the Lithuanian young people spend 1-3 hours a day with using the Internet; tenth of them devote more than five hours a day to this activity (Figure 5). From socio-demographic point of view, men and townspeople are the most common Internet users.

Figure 5: The Lithuanian young people's use of Internet on a daily basis (percentage)



(Source: Juanimo, 2013)

The Lithuanian youth primarily use the Internet for online correspondence, communication, orientation and information gathering (Juanimo, 2013) (Table 8). Nearly two-thirds listening to the radio or watching a TV show on online interface. One in two young people use the Internet for online banking, as well. Least of them is affected by visiting and maintaining their own websites and blogs, as well as the online assistance of personal matters. However, in addition to this, online shopping is increasingly prevalent among these age groups: 33 percent of 16-24 year olds and 39 percent of 25-34 year olds have already bought a service, product through online interface in 2012. The same ratio in 2004 was a total of 2-2 percent, and for the past few years, from 2011 it has increased dramatically. Primarily second-hand products, goods, or tickets are the most commonly purchased products.

Table 8: The aims of Internet usage among Lithuanian youth objective (percentage distribution)

E-mailing	90
Reading the news	87
Chatting, blogging, reading forums	85
Searching for information	84
Online phoning	79
Playing online games	73
Uploading own content	67
Listening to online radio or Watching online TV	60
Banking	60
Using online services	50
Online learning or completing a course	30
Job search	28
Searching for travel or accommodation, reservation	21
Health registration	13
Maintaining own website or blog	10

(Source: Juanimo, 2013)

V. Public life

The Lithuanian youth's citizenship activity is essentially characterized by a low level of interest and participation (Juanimo, 2013). Two-thirds of 14-29 year olds (63 percent) shows low level of activity in this area; 27 percent is interested in politics on average and participate in such events. Only 7 percent shows high activity in terms of citizenship participation. To the most passive prove to be the youngest: 87 percent of 14-18 year olds can be characterized by low citizenship activity, and only 1 percent shows high activity. Among the 19-23 year olds, there is a slightly higher degree of interest: only

62 percent are hardly interested in political affairs, their civic activity is low and 8 percent can be classified into the high-level category. In the area of policy and public affairs of this nature, the 24-29-year-olds seem to be the most susceptible; only 44 percent can be classified in the category of low activity, while 13 percent show high activity.

The low-interest towards politics is supported by small-scale relationship with such organizations. In 2014, in the activities of the organizations with political profile only 6 percent of Lithuanian young people aged 15-30 years took part (Eurobarometer, 2015b). In the EU, the corresponding figure was 5 percent.

Other organizational connection type is less characteristic for this age group. From young people living in the EU, only every second took part in activities of non-governmental organizations one year on pre-polling (49 percent) (Eurobarometer, 2015b). In Lithuania the figure is even lower: only 38 percent of young people were involved in some form of NGO activities. In the Union as a whole, the most popular non-governmental organizations count those connected with sport (29 percent), youth (16 percent), local communities (11 percent), and culture (10 percent). The preference list is formed similarly in Lithuania, as well. The youngsters choose organizations related to sport (20 percent), youth (8 percent) and local communities (7 percent) the most often.

Among young Lithuanians, only 9 percent is the non-governmental association membership (Juanimo, 2013). 84 percent of the age group are not members of any organization. However, they believe that the civil activity can be increased in several ways. The interesting participants, the well-functioning organizational structure, networking opportunities and the expansion of knowledge prove to be the most motivational aspects (Table 9).

Table 9: Factors strengthening the civil organizational activity among Lithuanian young people (percentage distribution)

The opportunity to meet interesting people	92
Good organizational ideas	91
Well-functioning form of organization	90
Possibilities to acquire knowledge, skills	89
Increasing self-confidence	89
Making friends	87
Keeping contact with the leaders	87

(Source: Juanimo, 2013)

The majority of young people in the EU did not take part in voluntary activities in the year preceding the query in 2014 (Eurobarometer, 2015b). Only 25 percent of 15-30 year olds carried out some voluntary work; in Lithuania, this figure is about the same, 23 percent. Most of them participated in the work of local organizations in this form: in the EU their ratio is 66 percent, while 52 percent in Lithuania. While the operation of the national organizations was supported by 27 percent of young people living in Union, in Lithuania, 38 percent helped as a volunteer. To the most popular area count the charitable and humanitarian organizations both in the EU (44 percent) and in Lithuania (30 percent). However, organizations connected to education, training and sport were chosen by many (EU28: 40 percent, Lithuania: 30 percent). Nearly one third of young people engaged in volunteer activities received some confirmation of this: 27 percent of young people in the EU, in Lithuania, 31 percent.

47 percent of young people have never carried out voluntary activity in Lithuania (47 percent), only 51 percent conducted or had done volunteer activities previously in 2012 (Juanimo, 2013). The proportion of participants is higher among women (54 percent) than among men (50 percent). In 2012, the proportion of young people currently participating in voluntary activity was 20 percent in Lithuania. To the most active in this area proved to be the 14-18 year olds (22 percent) and to the least active, the 24-29 year olds (18 percent; among the 19-23-year-olds, the figure is 20 percent).

VI. EU Citizenship

The majority of EU citizens (51 percent) get information from the television about the affairs of the Union, one quarter (26 percent) from the daily newspapers, a further quarter (24 percent) from the web (Eurobarometer, 2014b). In Lithuania, the television is in the lead in this respect (47 percent), while the online spaces (25 percent) and the radio (22 percent) is also an important source of news for them, if they would like to get information on the Union. Basically, the European Union and the political processes associated with is rarely a topic of conversation in the family. One in two EU citizens (50 percent) is only occasionally talking about the Union with friends and the family; in Lithuania, somewhat more people do so (58 percent). However, 36 percent of EU citizens and 31 percent of Lithuanians show a complete seclusion towards this topic. Only one in ten EU citizens (13 percent) often talk about this, as in Lithuania there are in the same proportion of those strongly interested in EU affairs (11 percent). The high level of interest and the information tracking are basically characteristics of young people and the more educated.

Half of EU citizens (52 percent) believe that s/he understands the functioning of the Union, nearly the same number (47 percent) concluded that they have knowledge of their rights as an EU citizen (Eurobarometer, 2014b). However, the knowledge of only 36 percent⁵⁵ of proved to be entirely correct in the Eurobarometer study done in the second half of 2014. It is therefore not surprising that 68 percent of those living in EU Member States is longing for further information regarding its operation. Two-thirds of citizens in Lithuania (66 percent) believe that they are aware of the functioning of the EU; 59 percent feel at ease in the rights of EU citizens. Meanwhile, even fewer have knowledge on the functioning of the EU: 41 percent gave totally correct answers to the questions. However, 70 percent of Lithuanians would welcome further information as regards EU affairs and its structure. The awareness and the demand for it is basically a characteristic of the younger age group (15-24 years), as well as of the citizens currently having student status or higher qualifications.

55 The three statements, the accuracy of which the respondents had to decide was as follows: 1. The Union has 28 Member States; 2. Representatives of the European Parliament are directly elected by the citizens of the Member States; 3. Switzerland is an EU Member State.

Those living in the EU, identify the EU especially with free movement, but peace, cultural diversity, democratic conditions, the euro and the bureaucracy come to the minds of many when hearing about the EU (Table 10) (Eurobarometer, 2014b). However, financial loss and lower level checks due to free movement are elements appearing at many people in the EU as a whole. In Lithuania, the attitudes are similar to the ones regarding the Union: basically, free movement is the most prominent element of the picture developed of the Union. In addition, cultural diversity, peace, economic prosperity, democracy and the euro are also integral parts of belonging to the EU for many people.

Table 10: Meaning of the EU for its citizens across the Union and in Lithuania (“What does the EU mean for you personally?”; percentage distribution)

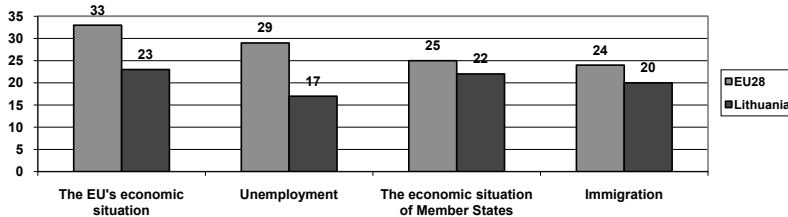
	EU28	Lithuania
Peace	29	29
Economic well-being	15	22
Democracy	22	23
Social protection	9	16
Free movement	50	69
Cultural diversity	28	30
Strong global position	25	19
Euro	39	26
Unemployment	17	6
Bureaucracy	26	13
Material loss	25	16
Loss of cultural identity	13	10
More crime	15	6
Lack of control at the external borders	20	8
Other	2	0
Did not answer	3	2

(Source: Eurobarometer, 2014b)

49 percent of those living in the Union agrees that EU membership means better quality of life for them (42 percent disagrees with this) in Lithuania, the figure is 71 percent (20 percent does not agree with this statement) (Eurobarometer, 2014b). 57 percent of those living in the EU Member States considers that the EU can defend its citizens (33 percent disagrees); in Lithuania, 78 percent thinks the same (13 percent disagrees).

As the Union’s biggest problems - both for the EU as a whole, both in terms of Lithuania - the economic situation, unemployment, financial instability of the Member States and the immigration are observed by the citizens (Eurobarometer, 2014b) (Figure 6). Only a quarter of EU citizens (25 percent) believe that things are going in the right direction in the EU, while four in ten (39 percent) feel that the situation is going wrong. In Lithuania, people are more optimistic: 50 percent is satisfied with the current arrangements and operation; only 13 percent said very clearly that they consider the fate and affairs of the EU are moving in the wrong direction. Accordingly, it is not surprising that among the Lithuanians, there is a stronger degree of trust invested in the EU: 59 percent trust the EU, only 25 shows mistrust. In the EU as a whole there is not such a positive attitude: 37 percent shows trust towards the EU, but the majority (50 percent) is distrustful. The citizens see the future of the Union in a fundamentally positive way in Lithuania (73 percent), as well as throughout the EU (56 percent). In Lithuania, 22 percent of citizens, in the EU, 37 percent have a pessimistic perspective for the future.

Figure 6: The EU’s most important problems in the views of all the member states and Lithuania (“What do you think are the two most important matters with which the EU is currently facing?”; percentage distribution)



(Source: Eurobarometer, 2014b)

In the Union's power, citizens basically have trust: in the EU, 69 percent, in Lithuania, 78 percent is the proportion of those who believe that the EU's words matter in the world (Eurobarometer, 2014b). More subtle is the case when a country's own position in the EU is to be evaluated. Across the EU, only 40 percent, in Lithuania it is higher, 56 percent is the proportion of those who believe that the words of their own country matter in the EU. On an individual level, citizens are even more sceptical. The proportion of those who believe that the words of their own country matter in the EU is 29 percent in Lithuania; in the EU as a whole it is 40 percent.

Basically, among young people and the educated citizens is higher the proportion of those who can identify with EU citizenship (Eurobarometer, 2014b). Across the EU, almost two-thirds of citizens (63 percent), in Lithuania, three-quarters (71 percent) feel themselves to be EU citizens.

Following the introduction of the Euro, as the results of a Eurobarometer study in 2015, we can conclude that 60 percent of Lithuanians expect positive effects from the introduction of the Euro; only 24 percent is sceptical in this area (Eurobarometer, 2015c). Basically, the younger age group (67 percent), the educated (65 percent) and students (73 percent) see this change as having positive effects from their country's point of view. Change in the country's currency is associated with positive consequences by 63 percent of Lithuanians; in 2014 this proportion was only 44 percent. However, in 2014 (Eurobarometer, 2014a) more proved to be negative in this area; then 48 percent believed that concerning the country, introducing the Euro will have rather negative consequences; in 2015, this proportion was only 20 percent. As it could be experienced previously, basically the youth proved to be optimistic in this field, as well.

The individual-level effects of introducing the Euro are assessed similarly by the Lithuanians. Positive consequences experienced in the lives of individuals were made probable by 54 percent of Lithuanians (only 37 percent thought so in 2014) (Eurobarometer, 2014a, 2015c). In this field, also the youth proved to be more optimistic: 62 percent realized positive consequences in their own lives due to the introduction of the Euro. However, inflation growth after the currency change is inevitable by the opinion of the majority: 58 percent of Lithuanians is afraid of it; among 15-24 year olds the percentage is higher; 63 percent realizes this happening.

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Valencia



The situation of young people in Valencia and in Spain

For the presentation of Spanish young people, the latest data of the national statistics centre, the Instituto Nacional de Estadística, as well as the results of a comprehensive 2013 National Youth Research report were used (Orti Sanmartín, 2013). These are supplemented by the processing of a number of thematic reports (eg. Migration and youth unemployment), and in the interests of the country and of the situation of young people can be placed in it, we extended the analysis with EU data as well.

I. Demography

The population of Spain exceeds the 46.5 million (Eurostat, 2014). Valencia's population makes up slightly more than 5 percent of the total population (2,548,898 people) (INE, 2014). The sex ratio is relatively balanced in the country; there are 100 men to 103 women (Eurostat, 2014). The dependency rate is 50 percent, which means that for two people with active age, there is one person (child or elderly) with dependent status. The old-age dependency ratio is 27 percent. The aging index is, however, 119, while the EU average is 113, which means that in terms of total population the proportion of children is lower than that of the elderly (Eurostat, 2013). The rate of those under 14-year-olds is below 15 percent, while the ratio of those between 15-24 years is 10 per cent, however, those over 65, make-up of 18 percent of the total population (Eurostat, 2014) (Table 1). The average life expectancy at birth for women is six years lower than that of men: among women it is 86 years, while it is 80 years among men (Eurostat, 2012). However, it can be said that in the case of both sexes, this indicator has a higher value than the EU average, which is 83 for women and for men it is 77 years.

Table 1: Age group composition in the European Union and in Spain
(percentage distribution)

	EU28	Spain
Under 14 years	16	15
15-24 years	11	10
25-49 years	35	38
50-64 years	20	19
65-79 years	13	12
Over 80 years	5	6

(Source: Eurostat, 2014)

Raw population change shows a decline; the value of it is -4.6 per 1000 inhabitants, while the natural population change records an increase but in a low rate: its value is 0.8 per 1000 inhabitants (Eurostat, 2013). The average Spanish household size is 2.7, which is slightly higher than the EU average (2.3). The total fertility rate is 1.3 in Spain, but this is lower than the EU average (1.6). The number of marriages in 2012 was 3.5 per 1000 capita, while the number of divorces was 2.2. This means that two out of three marriages end in divorce in Spain (Eurostat, 2012).

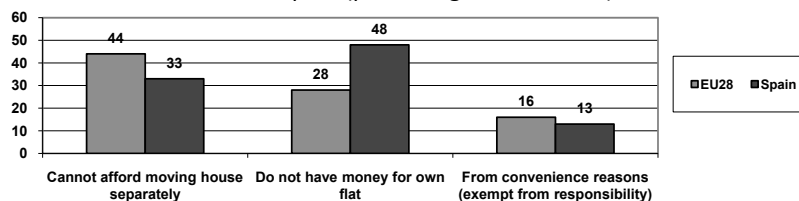
The lifestyle characteristic typical of the young generation, the post-adolescence, can be detected among Spanish young people as well. The prolonged autonomy, the late family formation is all examples of this generation attribute. The Spanish women have their first child at the age of 32 on average, which is two years more than the average age measured in the Union (Eurostat, 2013). The Spanish young people move out of the parental home at the average age of 22, but the majority still share a common household with the parents above the age of 20 as well (Orti Sanmartín, 2013). While the vast majority of young people under 24 live with their parents, only a fraction of young people between the ages of 25-34 do not lead an independent household. 11 percent of young people between the ages of 18-20, while 24 percent of 21-24 year olds live separately from their parents.

18-24 year-old women living in the EU are overall more independent than men: 71 percent is the ratio of those living under the same roof as the parents,

while among men it is 82 percent (Orti Sanmartín, 2013). The Spanish youth show lower levels of independence, and there is no significant difference between the two sexes. 12 percent of men, while 15 percent of women lead an own household, separate from their parents. Among 25-34-year-olds, many more have their own household: among EU citizens, 80 percent of women and 68 percent of men. As we can see, the gap is greater here between the independence of the two sexes; this is similar among Spanish young people. While less than a third of girls between 25-34 years of age (30 percent) live still with their parents, this figure is two fifths for men (41 percent).

Young people living in the EU label mainly cost reasons as a reason for staying in the parental home (Orti Sanmartín, 2013) (Figure 1). And only 16 percent believe that it is a more convenient solution, and thereby push out the establishment of an independent and responsible life. The Spanish young people believe the same, but in their case, the actual lack of money is an obstacle to moving house. In addition, however, 13 percent chose delaying independence for convenience reasons.

Figure 1: Reasons for staying in the parental home in the European Union and in Spain (percentage distribution)



(Source: Sanmartín Orti, 2013)

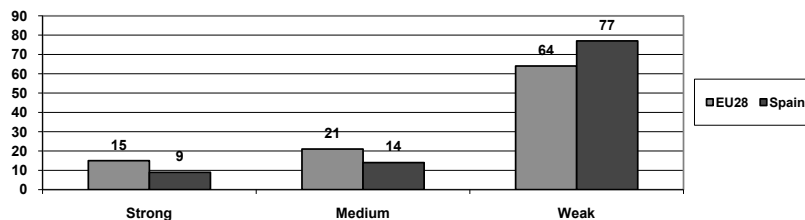
II. Migration

Immigration in Spain in 2008 showed a salient value (599 thousand); since then, through a slow decline, in 2013, less than half of them arrived in the country (281 thousand) (INE, 2013). In Valencia in 2008, 28 thousand people arrived, while in 2013, only 13 thousand people. The vast majority of immigrants are Spanish, but they arrive in significant numbers from other

EU Member States, South America, Asia and from Africa as well. In recent years, emigration is steadily growing: in 2008, 288 thousand people, in 2013, already 532 thousand people left Spain (even in 2012, 447 thousand people migrated out of the country). From Valencia in 2008, 22 thousand, in 2013, 34 thousand people moved abroad. From the target destinations, the most popular count other Member States of the EU and South America, and they are followed by those emigrating in smaller numbers into Asia and Africa.

The Spanish are basically more open towards immigrants than dismissive (Eurobarometer, 2014). Two-thirds of Spanish (64 percent) receive positively those coming from other EU Member States (EU28: 52 percent); only 27 percent have a negative attitude towards them (EU28: 41 percent). Overall, towards other EU Member States, only a fraction of citizens show openness; this is especially true for Spanish (Figure 2).

Figure 2: The rate of openness towards those arriving from the other EU Member States in the European Union and in Spain (percentage distribution)



(Source: Eurobarometer, 2014a)

Towards non-EU Member States arrivals, negative attitude is somewhat stronger: 48 percent of Spanish accept them with pleasure in their country, but 42 percent of them show aloofness towards them (Eurobarometer, 2014). In the EU, hostility towards immigrants is more pronounced: 57 percent of Member State citizens have negative perceptions of immigrants from outside the EU.

The rate of domestic migration is decreasing in recent years: nationally, 467 thousand people moved to other residence within the country in 2013; while in 2008, this figure was 525 thousand (INE, 2013). From Valencia in 2013, 20 thousand people moved to different settlements of Spain, while in Valencia,

19 thousand people arrived in the same year (2008: 25 thousand). The data reveals that while the internal migration appears to decrease, international migration shows significant increase.

Every second Spanish emigrant (51 percent) is between the ages of 15-29; the proportion of young people who leave Valencia is even more outstanding; young people make up of 70 per cent of all the emigrants (INE, 2013). However, the most overrepresented group is made up of 25-29 year olds who cover 60 percent of all country-leavers.

7 percent of young people between 18-34 years were studying abroad in institutions offering secondary or post-secondary trainings in 2014 (SIMS, 2015). The most preferred destination countries count the United Kingdom (14 percent), Italy (13 percent), France and Germany (10-10 percent). The vast majority (62 percent) spent at least half a year in another country for reasons of study. For language learning purposes, 12 percent of Spanish young people left the country. In particular, young people visited the United Kingdom (47 percent), Ireland (18 percent) and the US (11 percent) for this purpose. Two-thirds (66 percent) spent a short time abroad; they were staying abroad for just 2-12 weeks.

For the purpose of carrying out other education or training, 4 percent of the age group travelled abroad in 2014 (SIMS, 2015). Eight out of ten (79 percent) chose some EU Member States as a destination, and the majority (59 percent) spent a more than two weeks period for this purpose abroad. In connection with volunteer activities, only 2 percent of the 18-34-old age groups went for a shorter or longer period of time to another country. Among the young participants were twice as many men as women. Basically, participation in voluntary programs meant a shorter stay, since 52 percent of volunteers spent a 2-12 week period abroad. Young people selected other EU countries (42 percent) America (27 percent) and Africa (18 percent) as the most common destinations.

III. Labour market

60 percent of working-age population are employed in Spain; this ratio is by 9 percentage points lower than the EU average (69 per cent) (Eurostat, 2014). Joblessness mainly affects women: among them, the rate of employment is

only 55 percent; for men, this figure is 65 percent (Table 2). The employment chances are influenced by education⁵⁶ as well: those who have a higher education degree are more likely to find a job, than those having primary or secondary education. From the atypical forms of employment, part-time contracts are less common than in the EU as a whole, however, the fixed-term contracts are more common than the EU average.

Table 2: Labour market situation in the European Union and in Spain (percentage distribution)

	EU28	Spain
Ratio of the employed	69	60
Ratio of the employed among men	75	65
Ratio of the employed among women	64	55
Proportion of part-time contracts	21	16
Proportion of fixed-term employment contracts	14	24
Ratio of employed among low-skilled people	52	48
Proportion of employed among those with secondary education	70	59
Proportion of employed among graduates	82	75
Proportion of people living in jobless households (under 60 years of age)	11	16
Proportion of unemployed in the 15-24 age group	22	53
Proportion of unemployed in the 25-74 age group	9	22

⁵⁶ The level 0-2 belongs to this, which covers from pre-school education to the lower level of secondary education; in the second category, there is the level 3-4, which includes higher levels of secondary education and the post-secondary (non-tertiary) education and finally level 5-6, fall into a category into which the first and second levels of higher education graduates can be classified.

Proportion of unemployed among the low-skilled	17	31
Proportion of unemployed among those with secondary education	8	22
Proportion of unemployed among graduates	6	14
The proportion of employees living under the poverty line	17	20
The proportion of those living under the poverty line among 18-year-olds	20	28
The proportion of those living under the poverty line among 18-24-year-olds	23	28
Poverty rate among families with at least three children	27	39
Poverty rate among single-parent households	32	38
Poverty rate among single households	25	19
Poverty rate among one-person households over 65 years	21	10
Poverty rate among the low-skilled	24	24
Poverty rate among those with secondary education	15	18
Poverty rate among graduates	8	9

(Source: Eurostat, 2013-14)

Young people living in the EU basically count optimistic, when they are asked about chances of employment after graduation (Eurobarometer, 2015b). Three-quarters (74 percent) of the 15-30 age group currently studying is confident that they will be able to find a job after the attainment of qualification. In Spain, young people are more pessimistic: only 37 percent hope for quick employment. One in five Spanish young people see their possibilities after the graduation to be hopeless.

Among the difficulties in finding a job, finding a long-term and stable workplace tends to be the most significant among young people (Eurobarometer,

2015b) (Table 3). However, in addition to this, moving house, lack of appropriate qualifications or skills is a cause for concern for many people. However, fifths of young people in the EU is not at all confronted with employment difficulties, however, among Spanish young people many of them are afraid of this; only one tenth are not worried about getting the job.

Table 3: Job finding difficulties for young people in the European Union and in Spain (percentage distribution)

	EU28	Spain
Cannot find a long-term, stable job	31	43
Have to move because of the appropriate job	16	18
Do not have adequate qualifications and knowledge to fill in the position	13	11
Low salary	12	10
Other difficulty	8	7
Not worry about finding a job	19	11

(Source: Eurobarometer, 2015b)

The majority of Spanish young people between the ages of 16-34 work in the private sector (79 percent) (Orti Sanmartín, 2013). In the public sector, only one in ten young people found a job (12 percent); only 9 percent of them are entrepreneurs or act as an independent. The largest group of Spanish youth are those who make a living from a regular income (Table 4). However, with increasing age, this will become even more widespread, while the role of odd jobs and scholarships in sources of income will be reduced. Odd jobs are more typical of 15-24-year-olds than young people aged 25-29. In their case, the long-term and permanent jobs are more common.

Table 4: Sources of income distribution among 15-29 year old Spanish youth (percentage distribution)

	15-19-year-olds	20-24-year-olds	25-29-year-olds
Income from regular work	48	64	79
Income from casual work	13	16	6
Scholarship	25	12	4
Unemployment benefits	6	5	10
Other benefits, care	2	2	2
Savings, investment	8	4	2

(Source: Sanmartín Ortí, 2013)

Seeing the breakdown of revenue sources it is not surprising that only a few have their own flats among teenagers (Orti Sanmartín, 2013) (Table 5). Overall, every second Spanish young person (18-34 year olds) live in rented accommodation; four in ten in their own apartments, but repayment is still being paid; but further 5 percent in full possession of the purchased home ownership. Among people older than 25, having an own flat is more common than among younger people. For the latter, rentals are more common, thanks to the more unbalanced revenue sources, the prevalence of casual jobs, as well as to the constant lack of jobs.

Table 5: Housing characteristics among 18-34 year old Spanish youth (percentage distribution)

	18-34-year-olds	18-19-year-olds	20-24-year-olds	25-29-year-olds	30-34-year-olds
Lives in their own flat (without having loan or mortgage)	5	11	9	4	5
Lives in their own flat, but pays the instalments	41	11	15	31	54
Lives in a property acquired as gift or by inheritance	4	11	4	2	5
Lives in lodgings	46	67	71	57	33
Lives in a flat obtained with help of the workplace	3	0	1	5	2
Lives in other place	1	0	1	1	1

(Source: Sanmartín Ortí, 2013)

The majority of EU workers (53 percent) are satisfied with their current working conditions, in Spain; however, employees consider their working conditions much more negatively (Eurobarometer, 2014c). 76 percent of Spanish people are unhappy with the current conditions of their workplaces (salary, work environment, colleagues, boss etc.); especially the elderly, the currently unemployed and people with lower education have bad experience there.

The proportion of people living in jobless households in Spain is 16 percent (EU28: 11 percent) (Eurostat, 2013). Education - as we have seen in the case of employment data – has a significant impact on the labour market status. Among those with low level of education, there is a twice greater chance of unemployment than in the case of higher education graduates (Eurostat, 2014). Unemployment is higher among young people than in the case of older people, both in the EU and in Spain. However, the Spanish data is particularly prominent: every second young people between the ages of 15 and

24 are unemployed; in the Union, only one in five (Table 2). This extremely high youth unemployment has a number of reasons. On the one hand, we can mention early school leaving, the rate of which is around 30 percent since 1996 in Spain (García, 2011). It is closely linked to an imbalance in the area of education: the proportion of the low-skilled or the unskilled is high, while the ratio of those with secondary and tertiary education is low. In addition, the segmentation of the labour market also has a great impact on the high unemployment rate, as temporary, fixed-term employment contracts are applied most frequently for young people. In addition, measures concerning work operate with low efficiency; they are not able to address the entire layer concerned. However, as an effect of labour market opportunities and those summarized above, a further aspect also promotes the survival of the outstanding value of youth unemployment rate, and that is the attitude. The young jobseekers or recent graduates become less motivated, while immigrants arriving in the country, augmenting the working age (mainly 25-64 years) population make access to employment even more difficult for young (15-24 years) employees.

The proportion of people living below the poverty line in 2013 was 20 percent (EU28: 17 percent) (Eurostat, 2013). In terms of poverty, the age groups in the most difficult position count the under 18 and 18-24-year-olds (Table 2). In the composition households, among single-parent as well as among families with three or more children, the destitute are over-represented. Single parents or large families are twice as likely to live under the poverty line as single occupancy households. The role of education acquired is significant here as well: among those with low level of education, people living below the poverty line are nearly three times over-represented than among higher education graduates. The rate of poverty gap measured in Spain is larger than the EU average. The difference between the poverty line and the average income of people living under it is 31 percent; this figure was 24 percent in the EU in 2013.

IV. Culture

Leisure time activities of Spanish young people are primarily determined by the computer and by the consumption of various media content (music, television) (Sanmartín Orti, 2013) (Table 6). In addition, however, the role of

friends is also significant among them, as the reading is being prioritized as well. In the field of active leisure time, sports prove to be the most popular, but hiking and traveling count as a popular pastime of 4-5 Spanish youngsters out of ten. In addition, visiting places of entertainment – measured to the generational characteristics – is a popular leisure time activity for many people. The attendance of cultural spaces is much less important preferred activity than, say, the use of computers or watching television.

Table 6: The 15-29 year-old Spanish youth's most popular leisure time activities (What do they do in their free time?; percentage distribution)

Computing	93
Spending time with friends	86
Listening to music (not radio)	84
Watching TV	81
Relaxing	74
Reading newspapers, magazines	65
Listening to the radio	64
Reading a book	63
Doing sports	62
Going to the cinema	58
Playing with computer games	58
Travelling	48
Drinking	48
Partying, dancing	44
Hiking	40
Attending concerts	35
Attending sport events	30
Visiting a museum or exhibition	26
Going to the theatre	23
Attending conferences, seminars	20

(Source: Sanmartín Ortí, 2013)

For the research of the cultural consumption of the total Spanish population, a 2013 Eurobarometer report provided help. According to this, the Spanish show a similar interest towards the use of cultural spaces and services than the EU average (Eurobarometer, 2013). 37 percent of Spanish people can be characterized by low cultural consumption (EU28: 34 percent), and only one in five Spanish shows high interest in culture, thus characterized by a high consumption culture (EU28: 18 percent). A higher degree of cultural interest and consumption is mainly the characteristic of young people and the more educated and also among them, those living without money worries are over-represented. The low cultural consumption is mainly explained by low-interest and lack of time, but it also is limited by the high prices.

In terms of EU comparisons, among Spanish youth, cinema and concert visits are popular; the vast majority likes to spend his free time in such spaces (Eurobarometer, 2015b) (Table 7). In addition, visiting of a variety of sights, museums, exhibitions also meant leisure alternatives for a lot one year on. However, visit of cultural performances has been less preferred or available leisure time programs; only four out of ten young people came to such spaces. As a hobby, only one in three young Spanish people is doing some kind of creative activity. However, overall, we can say that the attendance at cultural spaces is more common among Spanish youth than the EU average.

Table 7: Participation of 15-30-year-olds in cultural activities in the European Union and in Spain (percentage distribution)

	EU28	Spain
Going to the cinema or to concerts	80	83
Visiting sights, museums or exhibitions	63	69
Attending theatre, dance or classical music performances	38	42
Carrying out a creative activity as a hobby	30	32
None	11	10

(Source: Eurobarometer, 2015b)

For the measurement of cultural consumption today, it is not sufficient taking into account the traditional spaces, since in the era of the information society in the lives of everyone - especially in those of the young generations - online space plays a big role, and we have seen this to be reflected in the leisure time order of preference of Spanish youth.

59 percent of Spanish people are daily visitors on the Internet, while 28 percent do not use the Internet at all (Eurobarometer, 2015). The activity of the Spanish shows an overall lower level than in the EU as a whole. 63 percent of EU citizens use the web every day, and only 18 percent do not visit online surfaces at all. The daily rate of Internet users in 2014 was among young people (aged 15-24), the highest level in the EU 92 per cent, while older people under the age of 55 is the lowest, only 33 percent (Eurobarometer, 2015). The rate of daily Internet users in 2014 was the highest among young people (aged 15-24), 92 percent at EU level, while among people older than 55, it was the lowest, only 33 percent (Eurobarometer, 2015). The Internet use for cultural purposes is a frequent activity among 26 percent of the Spanish (more than once a week); at the EU average, this ratio is 22 percent (Eurobarometer, 2013).

Most young people use social media for contact purposes, being communication with the distant acquaintances or information sharing (Orti Sanmartín, 2013) (Table 8). In addition, they mean an important landmark, and also an interface for young people, as for many people, these websites are considered to be essential tools not just for general information gathering, but even for search of professional information. The use of these social networking sites basically serves entertainment as well: whether games or videos, etc. The online activity is significantly influenced by the age, as well as by the psychosocial life situation. This can be read out from the preferences of Spanish young people: while making friends and having fun especially characterize the younger (15-19 years), caring for long existing relationships, and professional information gathering mean an online activity on social networking sites rather for those who are older (24-29 year olds).

Table 8: The purpose of using social networking sites among young Spanish young people (What do you think most young people use online social networks for?; percentage distribution)

	15-29-year-olds	15-19-year-olds	20-24-year-olds	25-29-year-olds
Keeping contact with rarely seen acquaintances	74	68	74	78
Having access to and sharing photos, videos	52	54	51	50
Browsing	38	37	40	39
Entertainment	27	31	28	23
Collecting information	23	26	22	20
Making friends	18	26	18	14
Keeping contact	9	11	8	8
Professional information gathering	8	5	7	12
Communication	8	8	9	8
Searching for interesting things	5	5	6	5
Keeping pace	2	3	3	1
Searching for a couple	2	2	3	2

(Source: Sanmartín Ortí, 2013)

A further aspect of free time is provided by physical activity. Apparently, among the Spanish, the proportion of those doing sports in a greater or lesser extent is similar to the EU average (Eurobarometer, 2014b). 42 percent of EU citizens do not do sports at all; among the Spanish, the figure is 44 percent. However, it is important to note that those doing sports more actively are over-represented among Spanish people compared to the EU average: the Spanish do sport regularly twice the proportion as (15 percent) all EU citizens (8 percent). The activity in sports is a characteristic of especially young people, students and men. Among 15-24-year-old Spanish males the rate of those actively doing sport is 81 percent; this ratio among women of the same age is much lower, only 56 percent.

Physical activity beyond sport characterizes also less: only 11 percent of the Spanish are engaged in such activities in their free time (EU28: 15 percent) (Eurobarometer, 2014b). Only every fifth Spanish person is a member of sport clubs or health centres (20 percent); in the EU, this figure is 24 percent. They are primarily motivated by being fit and health promotion, while others mainly justify their lack of membership by the lack of time and motivation.

V. Public life

Among the Spanish youth, lower level of organizational activity can be experienced than the EU average (Eurobarometer, 2015b). Only 41 percent of 15-30-year-olds attended an organization's activities one year on; in the Union as a whole, this figure is 49 percent. The most popular non-governmental organizations among Spanish youth can be linked to sport (20 percent), youth (14 percent) and culture (12 percent), just as in the Union as a whole. From this perspective, the least popular area counts politics: a total of 4 percent of Spanish youth took part in the activities of policy-related organizations (EU28: 5 percent). In the field of organizational relationships, older people show higher activity: 4 percent of the 15-19 age group, 8 percent of the 20-24-year-olds while 10 percent of 25-29-year-olds have some relationship with non-governmental organizations, associations or political parties (Orti Sanmartín, 2013).

Only two out of ten Spanish youngsters are engaged in voluntary activities (22 percent), but it is not a significant difference from what is experienced in the EU; there, just one in four (25 percent) 15 to 30 year-old young people

did voluntary activity in recent years (in the year preceding the query) (Eurobarometer, 2015b). The local support is outstanding among Spanish young people: 72 percent of volunteers acted for local communities and for local goals (EU28: 66 percent). The nationwide volunteer work characterize slightly less people, but compared to the EU average (27 percent), one and a half times more people worked in these areas among Spanish young people (39 percent). In terms of volunteer work, activities can be connected to education / training / sports (46 percent), charitable and humanitarian (41 percent) and protection of human rights-related activities (19 percent) proved to be the most popular among Spanish youth. It is important to note that while in the EU as a whole, three out of ten young people (27 percent), in Spain, only two out of ten (18 percent) receive a certificate of voluntary participation.

In the field of political campaigns, highly differentiated activity can be encountered along the various forms of participation (Orti Sanmartín, 2013) (Table 9). Participation in the elections is the part of only every second Spanish person's public activity. In addition, participation in the strikes or authorized demonstrations, making petitions proves to be the most common form of participation. The relationship levels meaning more specific and deeper support are less popular among young people: for example, participation in collaboration of financial support is almost negligible for them.

Table 9: Participation in political actions among Spanish youth (percentage distribution)

Participation in elections	55
Participation in strikes	27
Creation and signing of petitions	26
Participation in authorized demonstrations	22
Cooperation with organizations	13
Boycott	12
Participation in campaign	12
Shopping for political reasons	11
Keeping contact with politicians, authorities	10
Sending political messages by e-mail or by phone	8
Participation in illegal demonstrations	6
Participation on online forums in political discussions	6
Policy-oriented cooperation	6
Financial assistance	5

(Source: Sanmartín Ortí, 2013)

In the lives of Spanish young people, a further specific aspect of the measurement of public activity is provided by the participation in the 2011 nationwide demonstrations (Orti Sanmartín, 2013). Following the post-2008 crisis period, in response to government measures, series of protests began on the May 15, 2011. The 15M, i.e. the Movement of Outraged (Movimiento de los Indignados) inspired huge crowds, including young people. The vast majority of Spanish young people learned at the time about the rallies, the movement, however, demonstrations connected to this proved to be particularly attractive to people who are older (20-29 years old) (Table 10). 45 percent of those aged 20-24, while 49 percent of 25-29-year-olds were interested in the events and followed them also. Among 15-19-year-olds, this figure was only 34 percent, and the proportion of those not interested in the subject at all is the highest among them.

Table 10: Attitude towards and participation in the 15-M Movement among Spanish youth (percentage distribution)

	15-29-year-olds	15-19-year-olds	20-24-year-olds	25-29-year-olds
Was very interested in the events	12	8	12	15
Was fairly interested	32	26	33	34
Was little interested	33	36	33	31
Was not interested in the events at all	18	23	17	15
Has not heard about it so far	5	7	5	5
At least once participated in the demonstrations	18	15	17	20

(Source: Sanmartín Ortí, 2013)

VI. EU Citizenship

A significant number of Spanish people (49 percent) collect information primarily from television on cases, disputes concerning the functioning of the Union (Eurobarometer, 2014). In addition, the online surfaces (25 percent) and the radio (21 percent) also count a secure source of information. Among EU citizens, the preference of media providing information concerning the Union is almost similar: television (51 percent), newspapers (26 percent) and

the web (24 percent) are considered to be the primary provider of information among them. About one in two (47 percent) Spanish citizens it can be said that they are not talking about public affairs of the EU in their environment at all. Only in four in ten (39 percent) arises this subject occasionally, and only 14 percent are engaged in regular conversations, debates on issues affecting the EU. At EU level, a slightly lower level of passivity or reticence can be experienced in this field. Viewing the 28 Member States together, 36 percent of the citizens not at all, 50 percent occasionally, and only 13 percent talks regularly about the EU's political affairs with family, friends or colleagues.

42 percent of Spanish people believe that they are aware of the functioning of the EU; for the EU as a whole this figure is 52 percent (Eurobarometer, 2014). By their own admission, 45 percent of Spanish people are aware of EU citizens' rights; the corresponding figure for the whole of the 28 Member States is almost the same, 47 percent. However, on the basis of the questions of a Eurobarometer study⁵⁷ carried out in the second half of 2014, a small percentage of citizens have secure knowledge about the EU. In Spain, the rate of those giving correct responses to all the questions concerning the EU was 26 percent; so one in four Spanish are familiar with the operation of the EU. For all of the 28 Member States, the corresponding figure is slightly higher, 36 percent. It is, therefore, not surprising that more than two-thirds of the EU's citizens would require more information on the functioning and structure of the Union: in the EU as a whole, their rate is 68 percent, in Spain it is 70 percent. This ratio is the highest among Spanish young people (aged 15-24); 81 percent, while among students (80 percent) and among educated young people (those who left school after the age of 20; their rate is 78 percent) we can also experience more interest.

EU citizens primarily identify the creation of the EU and its organization with free movement (Eurobarometer, 2014) (Table 11). In addition, however, the Euro as the official currency, peace, cultural diversity and bureaucracy is synonymous with the Union for many people. However, for one in four EU citizens it means material loss; while for one in five, the lack of cross-border checking also raises when hearing about the EU. In Spain, essentially the free movement of individuals means the primary association, but this is closely

57 The three statements, the accuracy of which the respondents had to decide was as follows: 1. The Union has 28 Member States; 2. Representatives of the European Parliament are directly elected by the citizens of the Member States; 3. Switzerland is an EU Member State.

followed by the Euro. Furthermore, many people identify cultural diversity, as well as the bureaucratic system and the stronger position experienced in the world with the EU. Considering the negative pole: the financial losses are noted by every fifth, while the lack of cross-border checks by one in ten Spanish people in parallel with the EU.

Table 11: Meaning of the EU for its citizens across the Union and in Spain (“What does the EU mean for you personally?”; percentage distribution)

	EU28	Spain
Peace	29	16
Economic well-being	15	16
Democracy	22	17
Social protection	9	8
Free movement	50	44
Cultural diversity	28	23
Strong global position	25	19
Euro	39	40
Unemployment	17	14
Bureaucracy	26	20
Material loss	25	19
Loss of cultural identity	13	6
More crime	15	4
Lack of control at the external borders	20	10
Other	2	3
Did not answer	3	5

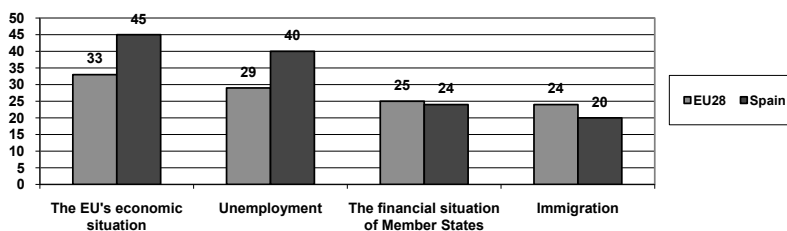
(Source: Eurobarometer, 2014a)

The Spanish are more pessimistic than the average EU citizen, as only 34 percent believe that the Union grants a better quality of life for them in than

before the accession (56 percent disagree with this); the ratio among the EU citizens is 49 percent (the rate of those who disagree is 42 percent) (Eurobarometer, 2014a). 47 percent of Spanish people feel the protection afforded to citizens secured (42 percent do not agree with this statement). However, if we consider the joint opinion of the citizens of the 28 Member States, the same figure is 57 percent; only 33 percent is mistrustful in this area compared with the EU.

As the most important problem affecting the Union, the same is formulated among Spanish people as in the EU as a whole (Eurobarometer, 2014) (Figure 3). Basically they feel the economic situation in the EU to be problematic, but while only a third of citizens in the 28 Member States believe so, in Spain, every second citizen. The unemployment is the second most important issue; it is followed by difficulties affecting the financial situation of the Member States and the immigration is articulated also as a problem.

Figure 3: The EU's most important problems in the views of all the member states and Spain ("What do you think are the two most important matters with which the EU is currently facing?"; percentage distribution)



(Source: Eurobarometer, 2014a)

Only a quarter of EU citizens (25 percent) says that the political and economic processes taking place in the EU are progressing in the right direction (Eurobarometer, 2014a). This ratio is similar in Spain, 23 percent, while 44 percent of the citizens clearly perceive wrong trends regarding the functioning of the EU (this ratio in the EU as a whole is 39 percent). The trust towards the EU compared to this does not appear to be strong: only 37 percent of EU citizens' trust in the EU; among the Spanish this figure is even lower, 30 percent. In contrast, for the future of the Union, the majority seems to be op-

timistic: examining the 28 Member States as a whole, 56 percent of citizens have confidence in the future in this area; among the Spanish, this figure is about the same, 53 percent. For the former, the proportion of pessimists is 37 percent; in Spain, it is 40 percent.

The majority of citizens believes that the voice of their country is heard in the EU to a less extent (Eurobarometer, 2014a). Across the EU, 40 percent of the citizens, in Spain, only 34 percent believes that the interests of their own countries count in the Union. Looking at the level of the individuals, we can get an even more pessimistic picture of the situation in Spain: only 26 percent is the proportion of those who believe that their own words and opinion would win recognition in the EU (66 percent say there is no chance to this; EU28: 53 percent). In contrast, however, to the EU is attached considerable power: the vast majority of citizens (EU28: 69 percent, Spain: 68 percent) said that the word of the EU counts in the world.

Nearly two-thirds of the people living in EU countries (63 percent) consider themselves to be EU citizens; among Spanish, the rate of those believing this is even higher than the EU average; 71 percent can identify with the EU nationality (Eurobarometer, 2014a). Among the younger age group (15-24 years), the more educated and those with current student-status this rate has the highest value, while the elderly (55 years and older), those with low educational level, as well as the inactive feel their EU citizenship to be their own to the less extent.



Rome



The situation of young people in Rome and in Italy

Cap. I Immigration

Italy, for much of its history from the unit on, it was a country of emigration and it is estimated that between 1876 and 1976 left over 24 million people.⁵⁸

Throughout this period, the phenomenon of immigration was instead almost non-existent, if we except migrations due to the consequences of World War II, as the Istrian exodus or the return of Italians from ex-colonies of Africa. These phenomena, however, had an episodic character and did not present substantial problems of integration in terms of social or cultural. In 1973, Italy was the first time a slight positive migration balance (101 inputs every 100 expatriates), a feature that would become a constant, amplifying in the years ahead. It should be noted, however, that in this period the inputs were still largely made up of Italian immigrants who come within the country, rather than by foreigners.

In 1981, the first census of foreigners in Italy, made by ISTAT,⁵⁹ calculated the presence of 321,000 foreigners, of which about a third „stable” and the remaining „temporary”. A year later, in 1982, was proposed for the first time a program of regularization of undocumented immigrants, while in 1986 was passed the first law on the subject (L 943 of 30.12.1986) with whom it had the objective to ensure that non-EU workers the same rights as Italian workers. In 1991 the number of foreign residents was virtually doubled to 625,000 units.

In the nineties, net migration has continued to grow and, since 1993 (the year in which for the first time the natural balance⁶⁰ turned negative), has become the only responsible for the growth of the Italian population. A recent study by the Italian Government⁶¹ shows that, if 2000-2013 born Italians are decreasing (-0.1%) foreigners born in Italy in the same period increased by 10%.

58 “Un secolo di emigrazione italiana 1876-1976”, Roma, Cser, 1978

59 The Italian National Institute of Statistics is the main producer of official statistics in Italy

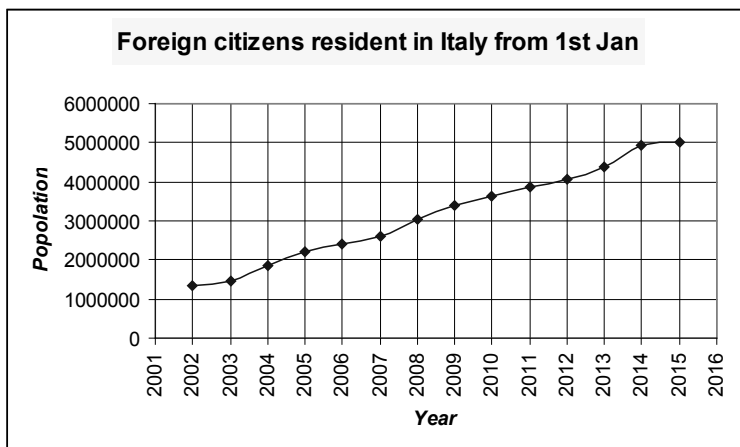
60 is the difference between the number of live births and the dead in a given period of time (usually a year) on a given territory.

61 IV Rapporto annuale immigrati 2014, Ministero Del Lavoro, 2014

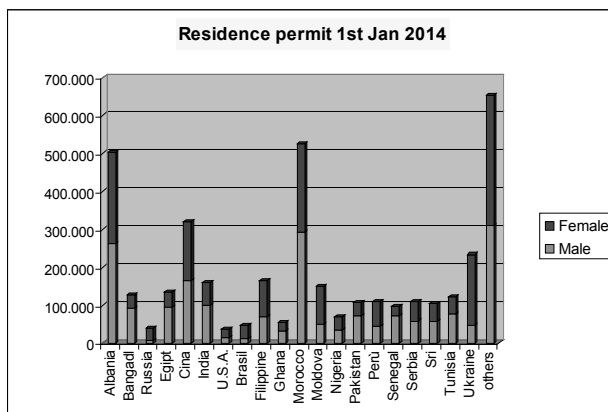
The first „mass immigration” in Italy came from Albania in 1991 (due to the collapse of the communist bloc). In 1998 were instituted the first „temporary detention centres” for those foreigners „subjected to expulsion orders.”

At the date of 1 January 2015, they were legally resident in Italy 5,014,437 foreign nationals, 8.2% of the total resident population, an increase over the previous year, to 92,352 units. Data on foreign citizens legally resident foreigners do not include naturalized Italian and foreign citizens illegally resident.

Foreign citizens resident in Italy from 1st Jan	
Year	Population
2002	1.341.209
2003	1.464.663
2003	1,854,748
2005	2.210.478
2006	2.419.483
2007	2.592.950
2008	3.023.317
2009	3.402.435
2010	3.648.128
2011	3.879.224
2012	4.052.081
2013	4.387.721
2014	4.922.085
2015	5.014.427



Source: ISTAT, a Gentle Giant NGO elaboration



Source: Istat. A Gentle Giant NGO elaboration

Residence permit 1st Jan 2014 (Istat)			
	Male	Female	Total
Albania	262.569	239.997	502.566
Bangladesh	91.608	36.25	127.861
Russia	7.079	32.235	39.314
Egipt	95.326	39.958	135.284
Cina	163.816	156.978	320.794
India	99.861	60.435	160.296
U.S.A.	14.742	22.041	36.783
Brasil	12.262	34.261	46.523
Filippine	70.529	95.254	165.783
Ghana	33.476	21.131	54.607
Morocco	293.125	231.650	524.775
Moldova	49.429	100.592	150.021
Nigeria	34.474	35.651	70.125
Pakistan	72.134	34.351	106.485
Perù	44.435	66.117	110.552
Senegal	71.895	25.886	97.781
Serbia	58.614	50.860	109.474
Sri Lanka	57.606	46.799	104.405
Tunisia	77.738	44.616	22.354
Ukraine	46.966	186.760	233.726
others	310.891	342.346	653.237
World	1.968.575	1.906.151	3.874.726

Cap. II Demography

With 60,795,612 inhabitants⁶², Italy is the fourth country in the European Union by population (after Germany, France and the United Kingdom); its population density is 203 inhabitants per square kilometer (source UN 2012), higher than the EU average and the eighth country in Europe (also including Monaco, San Marino and Vatican).

Regarding the phenomenon of immigration, however, the number of regular immigrants or foreign residents in Italy increased considerably since the early nineties and, according to ISTAT data, at 1 January 2014 had approximately 5.000,000 units, 8.5% (in 2011 was 7, 5%) of the population; The largest communities are one Romanian, with 997,000 units, Albanian, 502 000, and the Moroccan, 524 000. To these data should be added illegal aliens, about 560,000 according to a 2010 report on immigration.

Rome is the most populated city in Italy with 2874038 inhabitants.⁶³

Foreign citizens legally resident 1st Jan 2015			
Country of Citizenship	2005	Var % 2005-2015	2015
Romania	248 849	355	1 131 839
Albania	316 659	55	490 483
Marocco	294 945	52	449 058
Cina	111 712	138	265 820
Ucraina	93 441	142	226 060
Filippine	82 625	104	168 238
India	37 971	289	147 815
Moldavia	54 288	171	147 388
Bangladesh	35 785	222	115 301
Perù	53 378	105	109 668

62 ISTAT, censimento 2014

63 ibid

Egitto	52 865	96	103 713
Sri Lanka	45 572	121	100 558
Polonia	50 794	94	98 694
Pakistan	35 509	171	96 207
Tunisia	78 230	23	96 012
Senegal	53 941	74	94 030
Ecuador	53 220	72	91 259
Macedonia	58 460	33	77 703
Nigeria	31 647	125	71 158
Bulgaria	15 374	268	56 576
Ghana	32 754	54	50 414

Analyzing the countries of origin of foreign nationals legally resident, we notice that in recent years there has been a strong increase in flows from Eastern Europe, which have exceeded those relating to the countries of North Africa, very strong until the nineties. This is due in particular to the rapid increase of the Romanian community in Italy, which, in particular in 2007, has approximately doubled from 342,000 to 625,000 people and thus representing the largest foreign community in Italy. This is due, probably, from the entrance of Romania in the European Union, which facilitated the flow, and affinity language. According to Istat, at 1 January 2015 1,131,839 Romanian citizens⁶⁴ residing in Italy, making up 22.6% of the foreign population in Italy and about 1.7% of the total population residing in Italy⁶⁵; this means that reside in Italy for almost 45% of the approximately 2.5 million citizens of Romania expatriates, residents in the European Union⁶⁶.

Alongside the Romanians the main foreign communities in Italy are Albanian (9.8% of the foreign population), Moroccan (9.0%), China (5.3%) and Ukraine (4.5%). 1 January 2015, just under 30% of foreign residents are

64 "CittadiniStranieri. Popolazione residente e bilancio demografico al 31 dicembre 2014", ISTAT, 2015

65 ISTAT, censimento 2014

66 "L'integrazione dei romeni in Italia tra famiglia e lavoro." Centro Studi e Ricerche IDOS, 2013

nationals of a country of the European Union, and more than 50% are citizens of a European country. Citizens of African countries are about 20% of the total, as well as citizens of Asian countries⁶⁷.

A Separate mention for the gypsy community on the Italian territory, divided between Romani (more common in the Center-South and with greater propensity to sedentary) and to a lesser extent Sinti (especially in the North, but with a strong tendency to nomadism). Rough estimates reported 120,000 units, of which about 70,000 Italian nationals.

The distribution of foreign citizens on the Italian territory is highly uneven: in the north-west resides the 34.4% of foreigners, in the Northeast 25.0%, 25.4% in the Centre and in the South and the islands 15, 2%⁶⁸. In 2010, however, as early as 2009, the increase of the foreign population has been more consistent in the South than in the Centre-North⁶⁹. According to a report by the Government, from 2000 to 2013 born Italians are slightly down.

The Italian municipalities with more foreign nationals, 1 January 2015, are in the order⁷⁰:

Roma (363.563)

- Milano (248.304)
- Torino (137.963)
- Bologna (57.979)
- Firenze (57.900)
- Genova (56.262)
- Napoli (48.565)
- Verona (37.578)
- Brescia (36.472)
- Prato (34.171)
- Padova (33.268)
- Venezia (33.111)
- Reggio nell'Emilia (30.050)

According to the latest statistical dossier presented by Caritas and Fondazione Migrantes in October 2011, at 31/12/2010 Christians were the first

67 ISTAT, censimento 2014

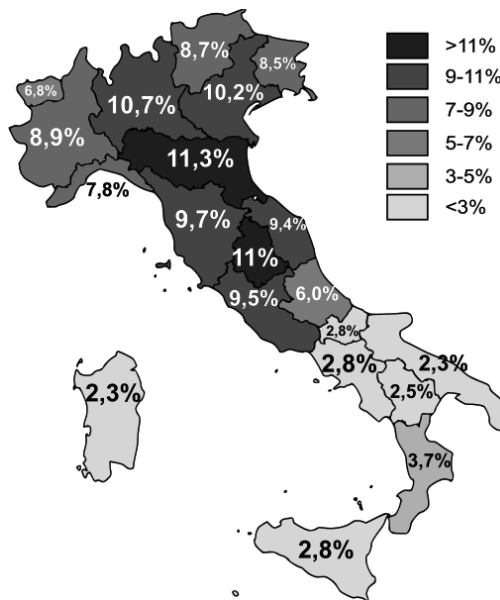
68 ISTAT, censimento 2014

69 ISTAT, censimento 2012

70 ISTAT, censimento 2014

foreign community in Italy, followed by Muslims. The 4,570,317 immigrants census in Italy at that time were in fact divided as follows⁷¹:

- Christians: 2.465.000, of which:
 - Orthodox: 1.405.000
 - Catholics: 876.000
 - Protestants: 204.000
 - others: 33.000
- Muslims: 1.500.000
- Atheists / Not Religious: 196.000
- Hindus: 120.000
- Buddhists: 89.000
- Animists: 46.000
- Jews: 7.000
- others: 144.000



Italy, foreign residents as a percentage of the total population

71 Fondazione Migrantes, urlconsultadatwww.dossierimmigrazione.it/docnews/file/pres2011-religioni.pdf

Cap. III Illegal Immigration

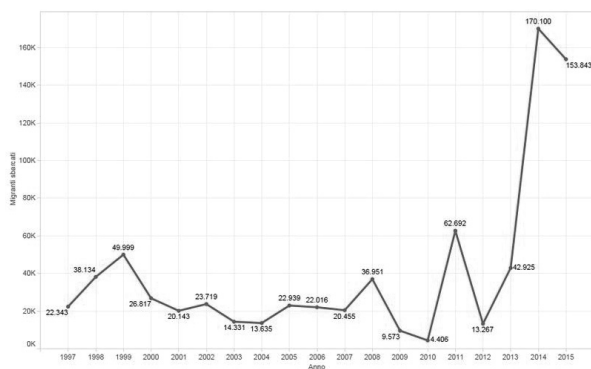
The data of official statistics based on residence, of course, does not include the many foreigners staying illegally in Italy. The Foundation ISMU-initiatives and studies on multi-ethnicity estimate the presence of illegal immigrants on the Italian territory on 1 January 2014 in 300,000 (6% of the foreign population), at historic lows as a result of the most recent amnesty and the economic crisis⁷² (the same foundation estimated 500,000 illegal immigrants in 2003 and 326,000 in 2012)⁷³.

At the moment, 2015, is one of the few recent official data we have on this sector. However, we have reason to believe that the number is much higher than 300,000 units calculated.

In Italy irregular migration is fueled mainly by the *overstayers*, all those foreigners who entered the country on a regular basis, remain after the expiry of the visa or permission to stay: a phenomenon that has reached - according to official data of the Ministry of Interior released in 2006 - 60% of the total number of illegal immigrants in 2005 (63% in the first half of 2006). Another approximately 25% of illegal immigrants come illegally from other Schengen countries, taking advantage of the abolition of internal border controls (24% in the first six months of 2006). Only 15% of illegal immigration comes from the Mediterranean routes. Actually we do not have update data on this front. But if we see the chart below we can readily understand that the 2006 data should be totally revised and corrected upward.

72 "Sbarchi, richiedenti asilo e presenze irregolari" ISMU, February 2015.

73 "Stima delle presenze irregolari. Vari anni" ISMU.



Source: Ministero dell'Interno, March 2015

A disembark on Italian shores illegally crossing maritime boundaries are both irregular economic migrants and asylum seekers⁷⁴.

In 2014 disembarked on Italian shores 170,100 migrants⁷⁵ (out of a total of 220,194 who have arrived illegally in the European Union through the Mediterranean in 2014)⁷⁶, an increase of 296% compared to 2013 (42,925 landed) and also compared with the previous peak 2011 (62,292 landed).

141,484 of disembarked in Italy in 2014 had departed from the coast of Libya, 15,283 from the coasts of Egypt and 10,340 from the coast of Turkey. The main countries of citizenship of landed were Syria (42,323), Eritrea (34,329), Mali (9908), Nigeria (9,000), Gambia (8691), Somalia (5756) and Egypt (4095)⁷⁷.

The increase in landings is due both to the greater number of refugees from Syria in particular because of the Syrian civil war, to the greater facility and urgency of leave from the Libyan coast because of the anarchy created by the civil war in Libya. More generally, the countries most affected were those

74 "Irregular immigration in the EU: Facts and Figures" European Parliament, April 2015.

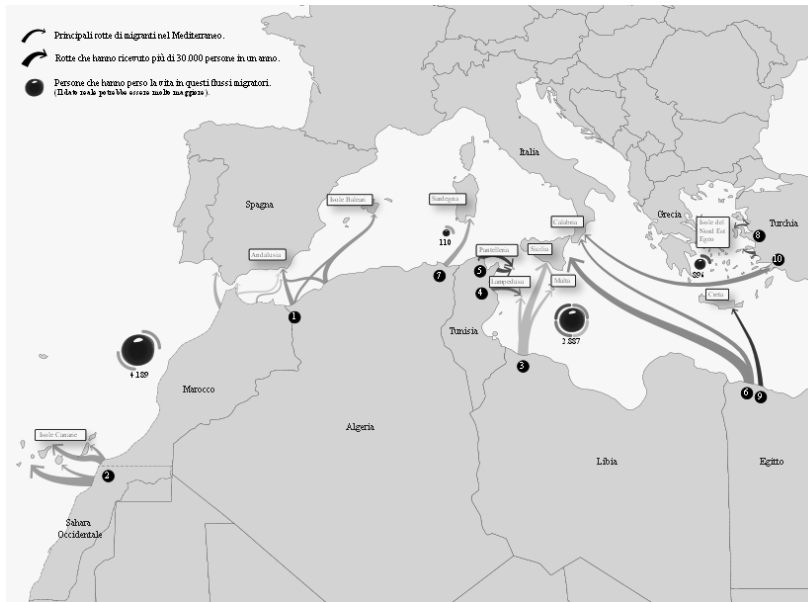
75 "Sbarchi anno 2014" ISMU 2015

76 "Annual Risk Analysis 2015" Frontex, 27 April 2015, p. 59

77 "Analisi: Paolo Gentiloni" PagellaPolitica, 22 February 2015

ones who having undergone the movements of the „Arab Spring”, supported by the EU, it had the only effect the destabilization of all the countries involved (Egypt, Syria, Libya, Tunisia in particular). Many of the disembarked were seeking asylum, particularly Syrians and Eritreans, whose asylum applications examined in Europe in 2014 were accepted positively by 95% and 89% of cases, respectively⁷⁸.

However, only very few Syrians and Eritreans have applied for asylum in Italy (500 and 480, respectively)⁷⁹, while most of them continued to northern Europe (Germany and Sweden in particular) despite the Dublin Regulation provides that asylum seekers should apply for asylum in the first country of arrival.



78 “Sea Arrivals to Italy” UNHCR

“Asylum applicants and first instance decisions on asylum applications: 2014”, Eurostat, March 2015

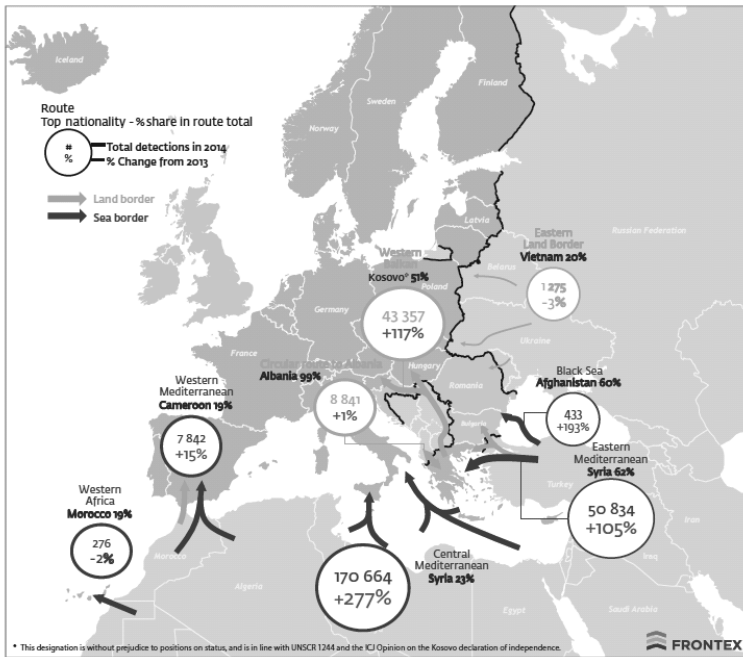
79 “Forse non sapeviche...” UNHCR

The migration routes are about ten. Central Mediterranean routes are four. The most traveled start from the west coast of Libya between Tripoli and Zuara, pointing towards Lampedusa, Sicily and Malta. Parallel to this, two other routes connecting the Tunisian coast, between Sousse and Monastir, in Lampedusa, and the north coast between Bizerte and Cap Bon in Pantelleria.

From Egypt instead depart some fishing vessels arriving in eastern Sicily and in Calabria. Lastly, since 2006, a new route linking Algeria and Sardinia, starting from the coast near the city of Annaba. In the late nineties and early two thousand, thousands of Kurdish refugees sailed directly from the Turkish coast to the Calabria. A route that still in 2007 brought a thousand people on the coasts of Locri. On the route that in the nineties linking Albania to Puglia however, they have never traveled migrants.

To underline finally the route from Turkey, more precisely from Mersin, he left for Italy. This route will make use of large boats to bring mostly Syrians fleeing the civil war⁸⁰.

80 “AnnualRiskAnalys”Frontex 2015



Detections of illegal border-crossing in 2014 with percentage change on 2013, by route

The illustration elaborate by Frontex clearly shows how big the problem of immigration in Italy especially from last year (2014). The percentage change is twice that of Germany and the number of displaced detainees is four times higher.

To tackle this phenomena, Italy in 2013 start with a naval operation called “Mare Nostrum”.

It was a year-long naval and air operation commenced by the Italian government on October 18, 2013 to tackle the increased immigration to Europe during the second half of 2013 and migratory ship wreckages off Lampedusa. During the operation at least 150,000 migrants, mainly from Africa and the

Middle East, arrived safely to Europe⁸¹. The European Commission provided financial support for the operation with €1.8 million from the External Borders Fund. Mare Nostrum was operated by the Italian Navy and saw ships operating near the coast of Libya. The only state with which Italy has helped the operation was Slovenia. Despite having only 44 km of the sea Slovenia has sent a ship.

The operation's search and rescue component is claimed by advocacy groups like the "European Council on Refugees and Exiles" to have saved thousands of lives, but the operation was politically unpopular and extremely costly for just one EU state⁸². The Italian government had requested additional funds in order to continue the operation, from the other EU member states, but they did not offer the requested support.

The operation ended on 31 October 2014 and was superseded by Frontex's *Operation Triton*, which operates a smaller search and rescue capability. Unlike Mare Nostrum, Operation Triton focused on border protection rather than search and rescue, and operates closer to the Italian coast.

Operation Triton provides for voluntary contributions by 15 of 28 EU Member States. The member states currently contribute voluntarily to the Triton operation are: Iceland, Finland, Norway, Sweden, Germany, Netherlands, France, Spain, Portugal, Italy, Austria, Switzerland, Romania, Poland, Lithuania and Malta.

The termination of Mare Nostrum has been criticized as a cause of the increased death rate among migrants to Europe in the Mediterranean, which increased tenfold between 2014 and 2015⁸³. Two major migrant shipwreck disasters which together killed more than 1000 people within the span of a week in April 2015 led to calls to renew the operation⁸⁴.

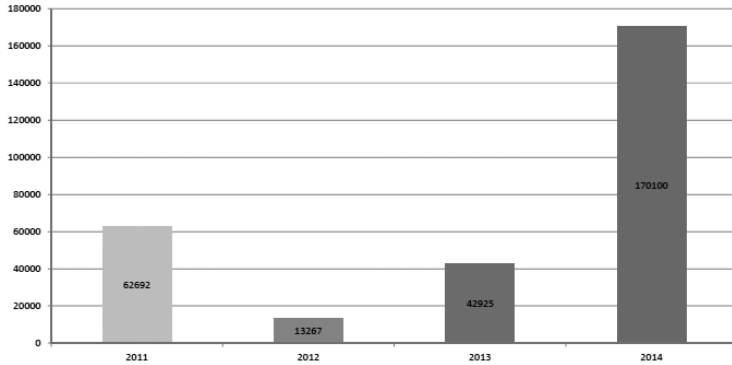
81 "IOM Applauds Italy's Life-Saving Mare Nostrum Operation: "Not a Migrant Pull Factor"". International Organization for Migration. 31 October 2014.

82 "Italy in talks with EU to share responsibility for boat migrants". Reuters. 8 Jul 2014.

83 "The worst yet?". The Economist. 19 April 2015.

84 "700 migrants feared dead in Mediterranean shipwreck" Kingsley, Patrick; Bonomolo, Alessandra; Kirchaessner, Stephanie. The Guardian 19 April 2015

TREND DEGLI ARRIVI DEI MIGRANTI SULLE COSTE ITALIANE
ANNI: 2011 - 2012 - 2013 - 2014

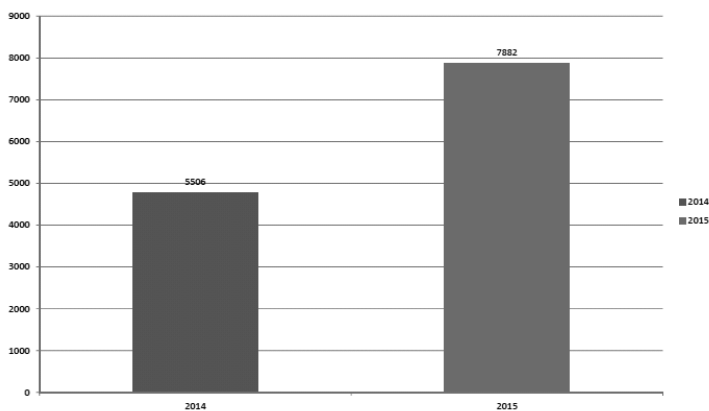


A Gentle Giant NGO elaboration

The second graph below (taken from the Ministry of Interior, published in March 2015) compares the situation of the disembarkations in Italy for the period from January 1, 2015 to February 28, 2015 with the same period of the previous year but. In addition to the number of immigrants increased, is greater the number of disembarkations in 2015, 69 compared to 46 last year.

Immigrants disembarked in Italy from 01/01/2015 to 28/02/2015. Comparison with the previous year

Il grafico illustra la situazione relativa agli eventi di sbarco registrati in ambito nazionale a decorrere dal 1° gennaio 2015 fino al 28 febbraio 2015 (n.69 eventi di sbarco), comparati con i dati riferiti allo stesso periodo dell'anno 2014 (n.46 eventi)

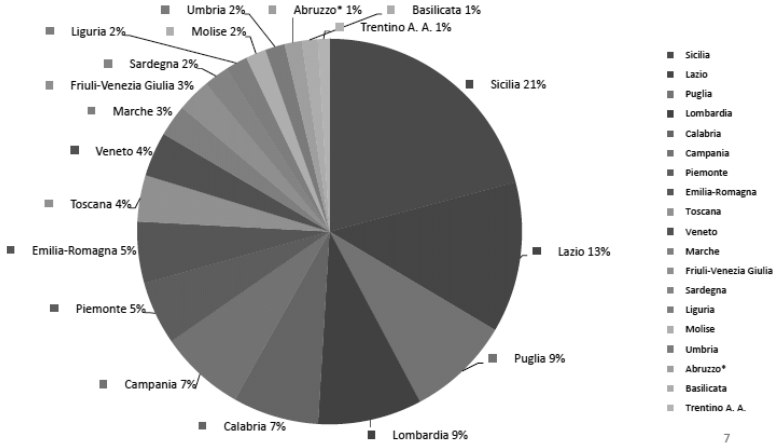


Interesting to note the distribution of immigrants in the Italian regions in 2015. Compared to previous years is looking for a better balance in the division, Sicily in 2013 had a 55%, followed by Puglia (20%) and Calabria (14%). The biggest problem today is represented by the reception centers (or detention centre) that are full and many regions can not absorb immigrants. Those which, however, they do not want to host them (going against the directives of the Italian Government).

FEBBRAIO 2015

Distribuzione generale dei migranti nelle strutture temporanee, nei CARA e nello SPRAR

TOTALE: 67128



7

Cap. IV Acquisition of Italian citizenship

In 1992 the acquisition of Italian citizenship amounted to 4,204, of which nearly 3,700 by marriage and just 524 by naturalization. In 2010, the acquisitions recorded for these two reasons have been over 40,000. The prevailing mode of acquisition was naturalization (21,600) that has passed (for the first time in 2009) that for marriage reason.

Acquisitions of citizenship according to typology and the main countries of citizenship - Years 1992, 2010

Tavola 2.4 Acquisizioni di cittadinanza secondo la tipologia e principali paesi di cittadinanza - Anni 1992, 2010 (valori assoluti, percentuali e per mille stranieri residenti)

PAESI DI PRECEDENTE CITTADINANZA	Matrimonio (%)	Naturalizzazione (%)	Totale (v.a.)	PAESI DI PRECEDENTE CITTADINANZA	Matrimonio (%)	Naturalizzazione (%)	Totale (v.a.)	Tasso di naturalizzazione (%)
Svizzera	99,1	0,9	351	Marocco	30,7	69,3	6.952	10,9
Argentina	95,7	4,3	346	Albania	20,7	79,3	5.628	9,4
Polonia	91,7	8,3	229	Romania	53,6	46,4	2.929	1,5
Ex-Jugoslavia	91,2	8,8	205	Perù	42,8	57,2	1.377	8,5
Egitto	91,7	8,3	145	Brasile	92,2	7,8	1.313	2,3
Vietnam	8,3	91,7	144	Tunisia	30,7	69,3	1.215	8,0
Filippine	94,4	5,6	142	Ucraina	95,3	4,7	1.033	0,3
Brasile	97,8	2,2	138	Polonia	67,5	32,5	974	3,0
Ex-Urss	100,0	-	138	Egitto	37,4	62,6	912	6,6
Romania	83,0	17,0	135	Russia	86,5	13,5	861	4,1
Altri paesi	87,0	13,0	2.231	Altri paesi	51,8	48,2	17.029	4,3
Totale	87,5	12,5	4.204	Totale	46,2	53,8	40.223	4,9
<i>Primi 10 paesi</i>	<i>88,2</i>	<i>11,8</i>	<i>1.973</i>	<i>Primi 10 paesi</i>	<i>42,1</i>	<i>57,9</i>	<i>23.194</i>	<i>5,4</i>

Fonte: Ministero dell'Interno

The acquisition of citizenship through marriage is prevalent for immigrants from Ukraine, Brazil and Russia, while the naturalization prevail in the Mediterranean countries (Morocco, Albania, Tunisia and Egypt). Also significant is the number of acquisitions of citizenship transmission from parents to their children and those affecting those born in Italy at the age of age. Considering the set of requirements capture, in 2010 they became 65,938 Italian nationals.

In general, there is a strong tendency to reconstruct the family in Italy previously formed in the country of origin, which often are already born children. The propensity to form a family with the wedding in Italy is generally limited, despite the gradual increase in marriages with at least one foreign spouse celebrated in our country; In 2010, more than 25,000 marriages (11.5% of all celebrations). The phenomenon has been affected by a rapid increase until 2008: in 1992 this type of marriage accounted for just over 3% of the total number of marriages, while in 2008 there was a peak of nearly 37,000 celebrations (15%), followed by a sharp decline in 2009-2010.

The tendency to expand the size of the family choosing to have children in Italy is significant and constantly growing. The most consistent part of the second generation is represented by just born in Italy to foreign parents pairs: in 2010 there were over 78,000, accounting for 13.9% of total births. If these

are added also the Italian born to a mixed family graze the 105,000 born to at least one foreign parent, almost a fifth of the total. In about twenty years - 1992 to 2010 - the proportion of births with at least one foreign parent rose from just over 2% in 1992 to 18.6% in 2010.

Cap. V Education⁸⁵

Since the early nineties to the present, the presence of students with foreign citizenship in schools has grown steadily: in the school year 1994/1995 were enrolled a total of fewer than 44,000 students, less than 6 students per thousand; in 2010/2011 it comes to almost 711,000, ie 79 thousand. The highest incidence is found in primary schools: in the school year 2010/2011 over 90 members on 1000 were foreigners. The numbers are reduced in secondary schools of the second degree, where, however, in recent years, the increase was greater than the other educational levels. Nearly 42% of foreign children living in families in material deprivation (due to poverty condition), compared to 15% of the families of Italian citizens: of course, this weakens the ability of families to provide adequate support to their development.

No coincidence that the school career of foreign students encounter more difficulties on average than their Italian peers and the gap in the rates of repeating is more pronounced in secondary schools of First Instance (middle school), where, in the school year 2010/2011, more than 9 students on 100 are repeating (the corresponding figure for Italian students is 4 out of 100). Furthermore, while only 8.5% of Italian students attended a one-year course at an age greater than the theoretical one, and repeat a deferred registrations mean that the percentage of foreign students in delay is as close to 48%.

In secondary schools of second grade, more than 68% attend a class at a later age than theoretical, against 23.2% of Italians pupils. Also different is the choice of the type of school: in fact, if the Italians tend to favor high schools (36.6%), foreigners prefer vocational schools (nearly 40%) and technicians (about 37%), or types school awarding a diploma more oriented to enter the world of work rather than the continuation of the studies.

85 ISTAT elaboration on Ministry of Education, University and Research
“Twenty years of economy and society” Annual Report 2012, Chapter 2, ISTAT

Finally, it should be pointed out that the incidence of NEET (Not in Education, Employment or Training), that is young people between 15 and 29 who are not receiving an education and do not have a job (or other similar activities), it is for foreign students even more pronounced than for Italians: 32.8% against 21.5% in 2011.

Further study will be dedicated to NEET in the next chapter.

Cap. VI Immigrants in Italy: Jobs situations⁸⁶

In Italy increases the foreign employees: nearly 2.4 million in 2013, 22,000 more than in 2012 (+14,378 from EU and +7,497 from non-EU), compared with a significant reduction of the Italian occupation, decreased by 500,000 units.

In six years, from 2007 to 2013, while employed Italians fell by more than 1.6 million, the foreign employment increased by 853,000 units in the same period and their impact in the Italian labor market has grown, reaching, in 2013, 10.5% of the total workforce, with peaks of 19.7% in construction and 13.6% in agriculture. And with significant growth in care services sector, where 80% of the total employed labour force is immigrant. Although affected by the crisis in the current economic environment, the employment rate of foreigners is therefore higher compared to the Italians workers (58.1% vs 55.3%), inverse ratio than in France (55.3% vs 64, 8%), the UK (67.2% vs 71.1%), Germany (60.7% vs 74.8%) and Spain (53.2% vs. 55.2%).

The report shows significant data with regard to the age groups below 30 years: always between 2007 and 2013, on the one hand we see the vertiginous drop in employment of Italian under 30 (1,162,000 of employed less) from the other side we are seeing a growth of young foreign employees (increasing by 63,000 units).

Foreigners, however, continue to be relegated to positions of low profile, performing mainly unskilled manual work: in fact, with the same high level of education (graduate and postgraduate), the proportion of foreign workers employed in low-level tasks reaches 22.6% of the total compared with 0.4%

86 All the data in this chapter were taken from the “Fourth Annual Report - Immigrants in the labor market in Italy” promoted by the Ministry of Labour and prepared by the Directorate General of Immigration and Integration Policies in collaboration with INPS, INAIL, Unioncamere and Tolomeo studies.

of the Italian (with the latter for 83.4% employed as managers, professionals and technical intellectuals versus 34.9% of foreign graduates).

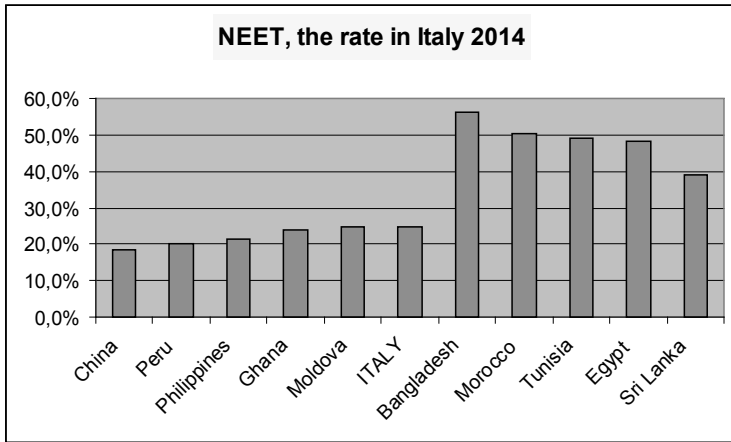
Good part of hiring for non Italians employees is concentrate in the North with more than 54% of the total labor relations activated, following the Centre with 24.5% and the South with 21.3%. In 2013 there are approximately 500,000 foreign nationals seeking employment (147,376 EU and 345,564 non-EU), which share in the last year increased by more than 110,000 units (+80,911 +29,359 immigrants and Community).

Always in 2013 claim to have had contact with the public employment services 296,000 foreign workers, of which 88,000 from UE and 206,000 from non-EU origin. Increases however also the foreign population inactive that has reached 1,275,343 (+77,000 units between 2012 and 2013), affecting mainly the non-EU member (+52,000).

Who are these foreigners, where they come from? Nearly 30% of foreign residents in Italy is a national of a country of the European Union (a figure that meets over 40% of labor demand in favor of foreigners). The largest community is Romanian, with nearly one million people. Among the community of non-EU origin, residing in Italy on 1 January 2013, prevail citizens of Morocco (513,374), followed by Albania (497,761), China (304,768), Ukraine (224,588), the Philippines (158,308), India (150,462), Moldova (149,231), Egypt (123,529), Tunisia (121 483), Bangladesh (113,811).

Interesting is the analysis of the dynamics and characteristics of different immigrant communities. Among EU citizens from Eastern Europe, for example, there is a high proportion of women workers (employed particularly in domestic service) and, in general, higher rates of employment and lower unemployment rates, compared to third country nationals (non UE). Few family reunions and a large number of „lonely” persons.

In the case of non-EU citizens prevails the male component of the workforce, with a high percentage of family reunification and a good number of inactive among women and young people aged 15 to 29 years (called NEET). Observing the NEET, the rate in the Italian component, equal to 24.7 percentage points, is lower than that detected for Bangladesh (56.3%), Morocco (50.5%), Tunisia (49.3%), Egypt (48.4%), Sri Lanka (39.1%). While below the average (26%), are placed Moldova (24.6%), Ghana (24%), the Philippines (21.2%), Peru (20.1%), Republic of China (18 , 5%).



The share of young women under 30 without jobs and outside of any path of education and / or training in the Bengali community, Indian, Sri Lankan, Pakistani, for example, is very high, far more than is observed in the case of Italian or of individuals belonging to other non-EU citizenship. The phenomenon of NEET particularly widespread among young women from No-EU.

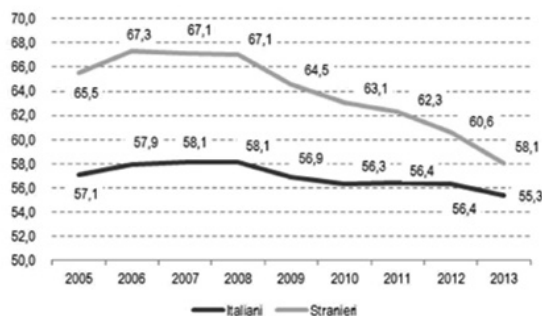
NEET %						
		2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Italy	male	19.3%	20.0%	21.7%	24.5%	24.8%
	female	24.7%	25.1%	25.8%	27.5%	27.7%
Rome	male	16.4%	20.1%	20.2%	20.9%	23.3%
	female	20.9%	22.9%	22.9%	25.8%	25.4%

Source ISTAT - a Gentle Giant NGO data elaboration

The last five years the push of migration and population growth have been so significant as to cause a strong growth of the population of working age; However, this expansion seems to be going faster than the ability of the economy to absorb foreign labor-productive, generating, thus, an imbalance of the delicate balance of social and employment data which describe the dynamics on time.

If in general the number of occupied countries and EU recorded between 2012 and 2013, a slight increase of about 22,000 units - in the face of a slump in employment equal to -500mila native people - the employment rate, although higher than the Italians, for the past few years it indicates a worsening trend; since 2008 it has lost 5 percentage points to the current 58.1%. As you'll see, administrative data confirm the difficulties that foreign workers are meeting in the Italian labor market. The lowering of assumptions aimed at citizens and non-EU in 2013 is significant and continues the trend of previous years (-6.9% compared to 2012). The decline in demand for labor affects all geographical areas and all sectors of economic activity with the exception of Agriculture, only sector that showed an increase of activations. However, if you observe the trends over a period of time greater, we see that the presence of migrant citizens in the Italian labor market has become increasingly important. Starting in the 2000s, foreigners have absorbed much of the employment growth until 2007 and offset the fall of the Italian occupation during the economic crisis of recent years. Since 2007 (the year of the highest employment growth) in 2013, compared with a decline of more than 1.6 million Italians (of which 1,162,000 under 30 years), the employment of foreigners has increased by 853mila units.

The jobs we are talking about is an occupation of crushed low qualifications: the unqualified manual worker constitutes the main form of occupational status of the foreign workforce.



Fonte: elaborazioni Staff SSRMdL di Italia Lavoro su microdati RCFL - ISTAT

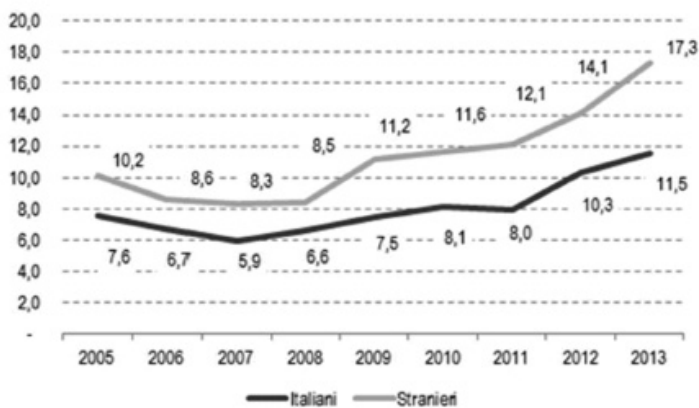
Employment rate of population aged 15-64 by nationality 2005-2013

In addition, with the same education level “high” (ie graduate and postgraduate), the proportion of foreign workers employed in low-level jobs is 22.6% of the total, compared with 0.4% of Italian and yet the latter for 83.4% serve as managers, professionals and technical intellectuals opposed to only 34.9% of foreign graduates. The impact of the economic crisis on the age group below 30 years has been significant. In the long term (2007-2013), the occupation of the Italian under 30 has declined drastically (-1.162 million jobs) compared to a growth of young foreigners (about +63,000).

The unemployment rate of immigrants in 2013 was up 17.3%, six points higher than the Italian (11.3%), while employment in 2014 was equal to 58.5% for immigrants and 55.4% for Italians⁸⁷. Families of foreign citizens, although boasting a high participation in the labor market, are more susceptible to unemployment risk. In 2013, the cores consist only foreign nationals with at least one member affected by the loss of employment for dismissal, termination of the employer or to the expiry of fixed-term contracts, are 24% of the total compared with 14.6% of the corresponding families of only Italian.

The graph opposite shows the development of employment rates for citizenship between 2005 to 2013. As can be seen from the values for the time series available, the last two years the distance between the different components of the workforce has progressively reduced. The rate of employment of foreign workers, while maintaining the best performance compared to the Italian counterpart, has undergone a steady decline, more than it has lost the employment rate of Italian.

87 Il Sole 24 Orejournal, 9 Giugno 2015, datiFondazioneMoresca.



Fonte: elaborazioni Staff SSRmDL di Italia Lavoro su microdati RCFL - ISTAT

Unemployment rate the population over 15 years for citizenship 2005-2013

If in 2012 the employment indicator has registered for foreigners a rate of 60.6% (4.2% points higher than the employment rate of Italian citizens), in 2013 the value stood at 58.1% and thus only 2.8 points higher than the 55.3% of Italians. This decrease in the rate, despite the increase in number of employees, is also explained because of rapid population growth and therefore of foreign population. In parallel, as shown in figure, it has increased the unemployment rate reaching the last year, to 17.3% compared to 11.5% of the workforce of Italian nationality. Aggregate data, however, does not allow you to bring out the clear differences that exist between the different communities, in particular of non-EU nationals. The data, never as in this case, throw light on social behavior and in particular on the gender condition.

Cap. VII Security

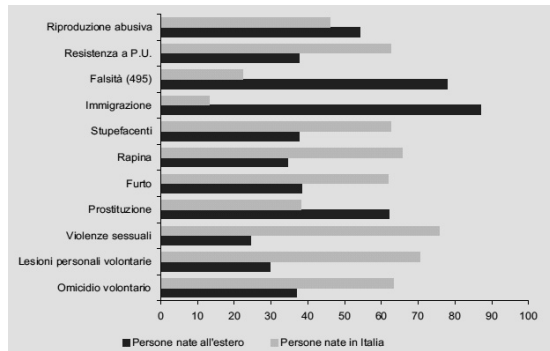
The proportion of foreigners, people aged 18 and over born abroad, authors of the crimes has been increasing since the early nineties, while before that the phenomenon was negligible. While in 1990 foreigners were equal to

2.5% of the defendants, in 2,009 foreigners account for 24% of all defendants. Looking at the nationalities of foreigners who commit crimes, shows that many communities do not contribute to the phenomenon if not negligible extent. In fact, in 2009 the top 10 communities account for 68.2% of total foreign defendants (compared to 71.8% in 1992) and the first three nationalities (Romania, Morocco and Albania) represent 38.1% (compared to 47.1% in 1992). Foreigners represent the 32.6% of the total convicted, 36.7% of inmates in prisons and 45% of the total entered in jail. The relationship between the different impacts is constant over the years and appears due to multiple factors, related to the decreased ability of defence during the trial process, the type of offences committed (which provides a greater extent the jail) and lower-capacity possibilities access to alternative measures to prison before and after the conviction does not meet the requirements for them to ask. This last element is confirmed by the increased presence of foreign detainees who are available to the courts (48%) than Italians in the same situation (39%).

The percentage of illegal foreigners who commit crimes on the total number of foreigners increases by passing offences expressive character to those instrumental: in fact, the percentage of foreigners is relatively low for the crimes against the family (49%, but the complaints may be lower than the real data), salt progressively for the injuries (62%), for the murders (69%), for theft (76%, with shares of 83% for theft with dexterity and 85% for those in housing) and it reaches the maximum for traffic violations and trafficking of narcotics. In addition, part of the foreign defendants is for crimes related to the condition of illegal immigrant in 2009 24,771 people (17.7% of the defendants who were born abroad) have their own illegal immigration as the most serious offense committed, while 4,042 individuals (2.9% of total) is charged with false statement or representation to the Public Official of identity or their personal qualities or other. Therefore, a total of 28,813 foreign-born citizens (20.6% of the total, report one in five) are recognized to the irregularity of their presence on the Italian territory. Women born abroad are not very present in the crime, even less of the women born in Italy: in 2009 they represent 11.5% of the total foreign-born defendants, against a value equal to 17% of women born charged in Italy compared to the total of the defendants born in Italy in the same year. As already noted, foreigners are recognized mainly for theft, breach of the rules on drugs and injuries, that is, for crimes that impact most on the perception of crime, as well as crimes related to their status as

irregular (such as immigration and false claims or statements to the Public official of identity or qualities or other).

Despite these dossiers tend to show that the number of crimes committed by foreigners is less than those committed by the Italians, we have to make some considerations.



Crime by type and nationality of legal age, 2009

- 1 We must take into account the proportion between the number of Italian residents (60,795,612) and the number of foreigners who regularly stood at 5,073,000 with the number of inmates in prison. According to the latest data from the Ministry of Justice as at 31 May 2015 the prison inmates are 53,283 of which 17,374 foreigners. This means that among 0.0591% of Italians commits crime while foreigners are 0,34%. The result is clear, the foreigner commits a crime in Italy four times as much as an Italian citizen.
- 2 The data available are those relating to foreign census in Italy and does not take into account the number of irregular (non-regular) present on the territory, so the number is expected to rise.
- 3 Many foreigners and illegal immigrants are not even incriminated but only reported because of the chronic lack of personnel and equipment from the Italian police.
- 4 Crimes such as domestic violence or violence against women are rarely reported by foreign nationals (for cultural heritage and for fear of showing irregularities).
- 5 Many crimes are bureaucracy (visa, residence permits, etc.).

Are 101,480 immigrants disembarked on our shores since the beginning of the year until today. The figure emerged during the press conference following the National Committee of order and public security, chaired by Minister Alfano at the Interior Ministry.

In the last twelve months (between August 1, 2013 and July 31, 2014) migrants disembarked were around 116,944 (of which 62,982 rescue as part of Mare Nostrum): 83% arrived in Sicily, 8% in Puglia, 6% Calabria, 3% in Campania, 0.9% in Liguria, 0.3% in Sardinia.

539 trafficker of people were arrested from May 1, 2013 to May 2015. Also in the last twelve months, applications for international protection under consideration were 35,424, of which 24,435 (68.9%, more than two out of three) with the recognition of a form of protection: refugee status for 3784 (only 3% of applicants), subsidiary protection for 8,143, 12,508 for humanitarian reasons.

The requests rejected were 9,691. Untill 31 July - between temporary structures, government centers and Sprar - were welcome in our country 53,243 migrants (28% in Sicily, 13% in Lazio, 11% in Puglia, 8% in Calabria, 7 % in Lombardia). The repatriations were appreciatively 10.000

And it means that in Italy around 50,000 people entered actually are illegal.

Regione di detenzione	Numero Istituti	Capienza Regolamentare (*)	Detenuti Presenti		di cui Stranieri	Detenuti presenti in semilibertà (**)	
			Totale	Donne		Totale	Stranieri
ABRUZZO	8	1.568	1.758	73	203	14	1
BASILICATA	3	470	442	12	63	4	0
CALABRIA	12	2.661	2.376	52	333	20	0
CAMPANIA	17	6.062	7.188	331	886	196	4
EMILIA ROMAGNA	11	2.803	2.821	128	1.279	35	6
FRIULI VENEZIA GIULIA	5	484	632	23	259	13	1
LAZIO	14	5.274	5.783	391	2.583	50	4
LIGURIA	7	1.166	1.384	64	740	22	6
LOMBARDIA	19	6.064	7.559	385	3.379	58	15
MARCHE	7	811	932	26	391	12	2
MOLISE	3	269	293	0	33	0	0
PIEMONTE	13	3.840	3.652	124	1.537	37	11
PUGLIA	11	2.376	3.251	174	509	74	2
SARDEGNA	10	2.638	1.950	38	509	20	1
SICILIA	23	5.795	5.852	131	1.163	82	0
TOSCANA	18	3.432	3.277	133	1.491	87	20
TRENTINO ALTO ADIGE	2	509	327	11	232	5	3
UMBRIA	4	1.324	1.298	34	373	6	0
VALLE D'AOSTA	1	180	151	0	92	2	0
VENETO	10	1.701	2.357	132	1.319	33	7
Totale nazionale	198	49.427	53.283	2.262	17.374	770	83

Inmates in Italian prisons at 31 May 2015. Source: Ministry of Justice

Cap. VIII Roma and Ardea

With 2.874.038⁸⁸ inhabitants Rome is the most populous municipality in Italy and the fourth European Union (after London, Berlino and Madrid), while 1 287.36 km² is the largest municipality in Italy and among the major European capitals breadth of the territory. Ardea is the 14th most populous municipality in the Lazio Region and 6th in the Province of Rome⁸⁹.

Foreign residents to 1 January 2015 (ratio %)			
Italy/Lazio	Italy/ Rome	Lazio/ Rome	Lazio/ Ardea
12,52%	7,18%	57,39%	0,95%

Foreign residents to 1 January 2015	
Italy	4.922.085
Lazio	616.406
Provincia Roma	508.241
Roma	353.785
Ardea	5.903

Foreign residents in the Lazio provinces			
	2012	2013	2014
Viterbo	23.991	26.399	29.590
Rieti	9.963	11.129	12.822
Roma	344.244	383.464	508.241
Latina	31.253	35.945	42.821
Frosinone	18.973	20.607	22.932

Source Istat 2015 – a Gentle Giant NGO elaboration

⁸⁸ ISTAT, 2015

⁸⁹ ibid

Foreign residents to January 1, 2015 by age group				
age	Italia	Lazio	Roma	Ardea
under 18	1.087.016	113.263	90.867	1.183
18-25	430.069	51.645	41.404	439
25-35	1.115.872	151.201	125.262	1.256
35-45	1.103.687	143.901	119.708	1.639
45-55	719.199	94.943	79.391	941
55-65	333.046	45.999	39.197	325
above 65	133.196	15.454	12.412	120

Source Istat 2015 – a Gentle Giant NGO elaboration

Foreign residents to January 1, 2015 by age group (ratio %)			
age	Italia/Lazio	Lazio/Roma	Lazio/Ardea
under 18	10,4%	80,2%	1,0%
18-25	12,0%	80,2%	0,8%
25-35	13,5%	82,8%	0,8%
35-45	13,0%	83,2%	1,1%
45-55	13,2%	83,6%	1,0%
55-65	13,8%	86,7%	0,7%
above 65	11,6%	80,3%	0,8%

Source Istat 2015 – a Gentle Giant NGO elaboration

Rome is the Italian city with the highest number of foreign residents: to January 1, 2015 are in total 353 785, from 180 different states (including six citizens of Vatican), more than 7% of the total foreign population in Italy. The largest communities are those from:

- Romania 88.404 (76,431 in 2013) 24% of the total
- Philippines 40.463 (42.297 in 2013) 11% of the total
- Bangladesh 28.473 - 7.8% of the total
- China 16.079 - 4.4% of the total
- Peru 14.271 - 3.9% of the total

In parallel, from 2000 to 1 January 2015, Italians were down by 5.2% (138.000 persons less). The demographic balance in the city, however, is positive (+ 2% or 56.000 persons), because of the large presence of foreigners in the territory. Only in the 2012 6.398 babies born to foreign parents (1 every 4 births). The consistency was foreign even higher if there had been 2.565 acquisitions of citizenship and 8.259 transfers abroad or in other Italian municipalities.

The capital is also the place of arrival of many unaccompanied minors (2.224). Are many, many more children living with their families.

Of these, 75.338 are enrolled in the Lazio' schools (including 4 of 10 born in Italy, with an incidence of about 10% of total subscribers), 59.147 in the Province of Rome, 37.905 in Rome Capital (of which 1/3 in the elementary and 1/4 in the middle schools), with an incidence of 10% on total enrolment. The only Romanians students are around 22.424 units.

Concerning employment, the unemployment rate of immigrants in Rome is below the national average Italian. In 2012 was 8.6% compared 12.1% in Italy⁹⁰.

Despite the crisis continues to be a high number of foreign workers⁹¹.

53% is added in lower-skilled occupations, with precarious relations and under-use of skills. Continues to be the high number of accidents: only in Rome there were 4.050 cases of injuries⁹².

In Ardea there are 5903 foreign residents (2895 males and 3008 females) out of a population that last year there were 48,305 presences with an figure that rises to nearly 13% of the total. These are the official data, by contrast, there are at least 1500 illegal foreigners, who are not in any population register. Children born to foreign parents in 2014 were 78 (exactly half male and half female), one less than the previous year but four more than in 2012. The oldest foreign is a woman born in 1922.

90 "Osservatorio romano sulle migrazioni 2014" Caritas, 2014

91 ibid

92 ibid

The largest community (as well as to the nearby town of Pomezia) is the Romanian with 2,694 people (1,289 males and 1,405 females). This community accounts for almost half of the total number of foreigners in Ardea. Their migration has begun when Romania still was not part of the European Union are also many Poles, 438 in 182 men and 256 women and Bulgarians (430 persons: 219 males and 211 females). With regard to non-European populations, numerous is the community from India (320 people: 204 men and 116 women) and Morocco (234 persons: 160 males and 74 females). Good is also the presence of Macedonians, Bosnians, Moldavians and, coupled with the Romanians, Poles and Bulgarians means that Eastern Europe is strongly rooted in the territory ardeatino. In the town of Ardea there are a total of 104 foreign states plus 7 persons stateless.

Cap. IX Emigration

Italy has been interested by the phenomenon of migration especially in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. The phenomenon has involved first the north (Piemonte, Veneto and Friuli in particular) and, after 1880, also the South. In particular, from the ports of the Mediterranean they left many ships with thousands of Italians to the Americas in search of a better future. Between 1860 and 1885 were recorded over 10 million departures from Italy. In the space of little more than a century, a number almost equivalent to the population that there was at the time of the unification of Italy (23 million in the first census Italian) moved in almost all countries of the Western world and in part North Africa. It was an exodus that touched all Italian regions. Between 1876 and 1900 mainly interested in the northern regions, three regions which provided alone about 47% of the entire contingent of migration: the Veneto (17.9%), the Friuli-Venezia Giulia (16.1%) and Piemonte (13.5%)⁹³. In the two decades following the primacy of migration came to the southern regions, with nearly three million people only emigrated from Calabria, Campania, Puglia and Sicily, and almost nine million from Italy.

We can distinguish the Italian emigration in two major periods: the one of the great migration from the late nineteenth century and the thirties of the twentieth

93 "Un secolo di emigrazione italiana 1876-1976" Gianfausto Rosoli, , Roma, CSER, 1978

century (where emigration was predominant American) and the one of the European emigration, which began in since the fifties.

The *great migration* has had as a point of origin of the widespread poverty of large parts of Italy and the desire for redemption of entire sections of the population, whose departure meant for the state and Italian society a strong lightening „population pressure” . It had as destinations mainly South America and North America (especially Argentina, the US and Brazil, countries with large expanses of land and untapped labor requirements) and, in Europe (in particular France). It had ways and different forms depending on the country of destination. It is estimated that only in the first period left some 14 million people⁹⁴ (with a peak in 1913 of more than 870.000 departures), compared with an Italian population which in 1900 came to about 33 million and a half people.

The *European emigration* of the second half of the twentieth century, however, were destined mainly European countries in growth such as France, Switzerland, Belgium and Germany, and was considered by many at the time of departure, such as temporary emigration - often only a few months - in which to work and earning to build, then, a better future in Italy. This phenomenon occurred, however, especially since the 1970s, a time when many Italians repatriated.

In the early 2000s has slowed the flow of emigration from Italy in the world, currently characterized by a quarter by professionals often graduates (the so-called „*brain drain*”). However, as a result of the effects of the severe economic crisis of 2007-2008, since the end of the decade to date (2013), it has started again one time, a consistent flow of expatriates from Italy to northern Europe (especially Germany where they arrived only in 2012 , over 35,000 Italian) but also to other countries such as Canada, Australia, the US and south American countries.

It is a flow that, according to data from AIRE of 2012, is around 78,000 people, an increase of about 20,000 compared to 2011, although it is estimated that the actual number of people who have emigrated to be significantly higher (between twice and three times) as many countrymen cancel their residence in Italy much later than their actual departure. Approximately 94 thousand Italian citizens have emigrated abroad in 2013, 21 percent more than in 2012. The data is the highest in the last 10 years. The main destinations for these

94 Ibid

people were the United Kingdom, Germany, Switzerland and France⁹⁵. The phenomenon of so-called „New Emigration” caused by the severe economic crisis, however, concerns all the countries of southern Europe, such as Spain, Portugal and Greece (in addition Ireland) that record similar, if not more, emigration trend in recent years.

It is widely believed that if the lack of further structural will not change in the economic and social policies, these flows are expected to increase considerably. Regarding Italy it is also significant that these flows not only involve more regions of southern Italian, but also those of the north (as Lombardy and Emilia-Romagna).

Principali comunità di oriundi italiani nel mondo	
Brasile	27 200 000
Argentina	19 700 000
Stati Uniti	17 250 000
Francia	4 000 000
Colombia	2 000 000
Canada	1 445 335
Perù	1 400 000
Uruguay	1 200 000
Venezuela	1 000 000
Australia	916 000
Messico	850 000
Germania	700 000
Svizzera	527 817
RegnoUnito	500 000
Belgio	290 000
Cile	150 000
Paraguay	100 000

Italian citizens residing abroad. Census AIRE 31.12.2012

95 www.ilpost.it/2014/12/09/migrazioni-italia-istat

The people who leave are for most men, both in 2013 (56.3%) than in 2012 (56.2%), not married in 60% of cases and 34.3% in the conjugates. The age group most represented is that of 18-34 years (36.2%), followed by that of 35-49 years (26.8%), as proof of what evidently the economic recession and unemployment are the real causes that push to go. Minors are 18.8% and 12.1% of them have less than 10 years.

The UK, with 12,933 new members al'Aire (Registry of Italians Residing Abroad) at the beginning of 2014, is the first country to which you are directed to recent Italian immigrants, an increase of 71.5% compared to previous year. Followed by Germany (11,731, + 11.5%), Switzerland (10,300, + 15.7%) and France (8,402, + 19.0%). Surprisingly, it is a region of North, Lombardy (considered one of the richest in Italy), the one that suffered the greatest „bleeding”, with 16,418 departures, followed by Veneto (8743) and Lazio (8211)⁹⁶.

Regions	Emigrants	Population	Emigrants per 1000 people
Trentino Alto-Adige	1889	1053354	1.08
Friuli Venezia Giulia	2191	1227495	1.08
Lombardia	16325	9984589	1.06
Liguria	2548	1587294	1.06
Calabria	2968	1978133	1.05
Veneto	7367	4927401	1.05
Molise	467	313757	1.05
Valle d'Aosta	187	128475	1.05
Abruzzo	1853	1332689	1.04
Sicilia	7044	5088793	1.04
Piemonte	5969	4432252	1.03
Sardegna	2229	1661738	1.03

⁹⁶ “IX Rapporto Italiani nel Mondo 2014” Fondazione Migrantes, 2014

Lazio	7861	5878145	1.03
Marche	2046	1550858	1.03
Emilia-Romagna	5806	4448488	1.03
Umbria	1098	896288	1.02
Basilicata	634	577081	1.01
Puglia	4258	4085803	1.00
Campania	5784	5868533	1.00
Toscana	3571	3750213	1.00

Source: Istat 2013

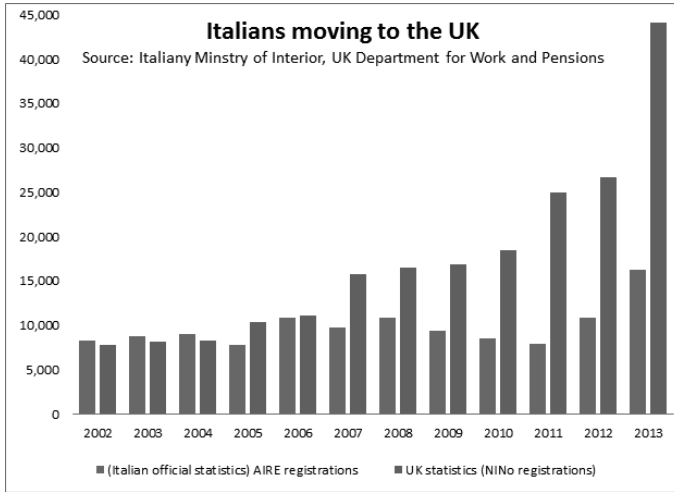
As you can see emigration from certain regions affects rates 80% higher than those from which people emigrate less. Worth noting, the level of education of migrants according to data provided by Istat. The percentage of graduates stood at 30.6% with good representation from those who have a diploma and to those who have completed middle school. This last data shows homogeneity and illustrates that, who starting, are a little all of population with different level of education.

CAP. X Emigration - Examples of official data from other countries

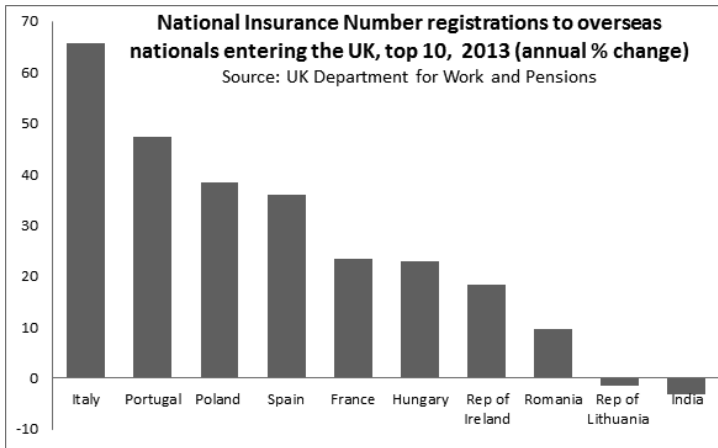
As mentioned earlier, data published by AIRE are not real data: it is estimated that the actual number of people who have emigrated to be significantly higher (between twice and three times) as many countrymen cancel their residence in Italy much later than their actual departure. Striking example is represented by Italian immigrants in the UK.

The official number of Italians who have officially transferred to the UK in 2013 and , about 16 thousand people. Few, however, are recorded in the AIRE (the register of Italians living abroad) for misinformation or more frequently to avoid losing important services and rights in Italy (including health services). But the Italians who move abroad are not invisible to statistics. They are in fact among those requiring the national insurance number needed to work in the UK.

According to the British statistics, the number of Italians registered in 2013 was more than 44 thousand people (to the AIRE were 16 thousand), the third group after the Poles and Spaniards.



Regardless of the source of the statistics, the number of Italians who move abroad growing rapidly. The number of british registrations in 2013 was 66% higher than the year before, the fastest increase among all major nationalities who coming to England.



The Italian emigration are mainly composed of young people. Over 80% of registered in the UK last year was under 34. Less than 42% had between 18 and 24 years, in percentage growth of about 30% in the period before the crisis in 2008.

The loss of young - and often graduated - is a tragedy for a country like Italy where the proportion of over-65s is the third most highest in the world after Japan and Germany and where the proportion of graduates is the second more low among OECD⁹⁷ countries after Turkey.

Something similar to the English situation can be made to the Netherlands. According to the Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek the number of Italians who move to the Netherlands has increased since 2004 and reached levels not seen in almost 20 years. In 2012 Italians accounted for 4.2% of the population, 4.4% the following year.

97 www.oecd.org

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