Mapping mobility – pathways, institutions and structural effects of youth mobility

Deliverable N° 6.7 – Final Public Project Report

Contractual delivery date:
30.04.2018

Actual delivery date:
30.04.2018

Responsible partner:
P1: Université du Luxembourg
<table>
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<th>Deliverable number</th>
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<tr>
<td>Deliverable title</td>
<td>Final Public Project Report</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nature</td>
<td>Report</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dissemination level</td>
<td>Public</td>
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<td>Work package number</td>
<td>WP6</td>
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<td>Work package leader</td>
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<tr>
<td>Editors</td>
<td>Sahizer Samuk, Birte Nienaber, Jutta Bissinger, Volha Vysotskaya</td>
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<td>Keywords</td>
<td>Youth, Mobility, Europe, marco level, meso level, micro level, agency, Luxembourg, Germany, Hungary, Romania, Spain, Norway, higher education, volunteering, employment, vocational education and training, pupils’ exchange, entrepreneurship, good practices, policy recommendations</td>
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The research leading to these results has received funding from the European Union’s Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme under grant agreement No 649263.

The author is solely responsible for its content, it does not represent the opinion of the European Commission and the Commission is not responsible for any use that might be made of data appearing therein.

Sketchnotes and visualisations have been provided by an illustration artist at Visuality, Belgium.

Infographics were provided by a visualsation designer at HUMAN MADE, Luxembourg.
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<tr>
<td>ACEL</td>
<td>Association des Cercles d'Étudiants Luxembourgeois (The Association of Luxembourgish Student Circles)</td>
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<tr>
<td>ACTOR</td>
<td>Asociația Culturală pentru Teatru și Origami din România (Cultural Association for Theatre and Origami in Romania)</td>
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<td>AIFS</td>
<td>American Institute for Foreign Study</td>
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<td>ANPCDEFP</td>
<td>National Agency for Community Programs in the field of Education and Professional Training</td>
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<tr>
<td>BMZ</td>
<td>German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development</td>
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<td>CEDES</td>
<td>Centre for Economic and Statistical Documentation</td>
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<tr>
<td>CEEPUS</td>
<td>Central European Exchange Programme for University Studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COSME</td>
<td>Europe’s program for small and medium-sized enterprises</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DAAD</td>
<td>German Academic Exchange Service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DG GROWTH</td>
<td>Internal Market Industry, Entrepreneurship and SMEs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EaSI</td>
<td>Employment and Social Innovation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECTS</td>
<td>European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System</td>
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<tr>
<td>ECVET</td>
<td>European Credit system for Vocational Educational and Training</td>
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<td>EF</td>
<td>Education First</td>
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<td>EFTA</td>
<td>European Free Trade Area</td>
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<td>EHEA</td>
<td>European Higher Education Area</td>
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<td>EM</td>
<td>Employment</td>
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<tr>
<td>EN</td>
<td>Entrepreneurship</td>
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<tr>
<td>EPA</td>
<td>Encuesta de Población Activa (Active Population Survey)</td>
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<tr>
<td>ERASMOBILITY</td>
<td>Erasmus Mobility: A free online platform where vocational training centres, vocational training consortia and teachers help each other to find work placements in European countries</td>
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<tr>
<td>ESF</td>
<td>European Social Fund</td>
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<td>EU</td>
<td>European Union</td>
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<tr>
<td>EURAXESS</td>
<td>Researchers in Motion is a unique pan-European initiative delivering information and support services to professional researchers</td>
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<td>EURES</td>
<td>European Employment Services</td>
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<td>Eurostat</td>
<td>European Community Statistical Office</td>
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<td>EuroVIP</td>
<td>European Volunteer Inclusion Programme</td>
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<td>EVS</td>
<td>European Voluntary Service</td>
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<tr>
<td>Abbreviation</td>
<td>Full Form</td>
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<tr>
<td>GESIS</td>
<td>Gesellschaft Sozialwissenschaftlicher Infrastruktureinrichtungen e.V. (German Social Science Infrastructure Services)</td>
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<tr>
<td>HE</td>
<td>Higher Education</td>
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<td>HEI</td>
<td>Higher Education Institutions</td>
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<td>HUB</td>
<td>Ultimate Romanian Language Learning Portal</td>
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<tr>
<td>IdA</td>
<td>Integration durch Austausch (Integration through Exchange)</td>
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<tr>
<td>INJUVE</td>
<td>Instituto de la Juventud (Institute of Youth)</td>
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<tr>
<td>IVET</td>
<td>Initial Vocational Education and Training</td>
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<tr>
<td>KA</td>
<td>Key Action</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lånekassen</td>
<td>The Norwegian State Educational Loan Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MECD</td>
<td>Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MobiProEU</td>
<td>A project that focuses on Promotion of vocational mobility of young people from Europe interested in vocational training</td>
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<tr>
<td>MOOCs</td>
<td>Massive Open Online Courses</td>
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<tr>
<td>MSME</td>
<td>Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises</td>
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<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-governmental organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>OLS</td>
<td>Online Linguistic Support</td>
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<tr>
<td>PE</td>
<td>Pupil’s Exchange</td>
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<td>PES</td>
<td>National Public Employment Services</td>
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<td>POISES</td>
<td>ONCE Foundation Entrepreneurship Helps</td>
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<td>R&amp;D activities</td>
<td>Research and Development Activities</td>
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<td>SEPIE</td>
<td>Spanish Service for the Internationalisation of Education</td>
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<td>SEVE</td>
<td>Service des Études et de la Vie Étudiante (Office for Student Affairs)</td>
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<tr>
<td>SIU</td>
<td>Norwegian Centre for International Cooperation in Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMEs</td>
<td>Small and medium-sized enterprises</td>
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<tr>
<td>SoVol</td>
<td>Social Volunteering</td>
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<td>TLN mobility</td>
<td>Transnational Learning Network - The ESF Learning Network on Transnational Mobility Measures for Disadvantaged Youth and Young</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UN</td>
<td>United Nations</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNDESA</td>
<td>United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USB</td>
<td>Universal Serial Bus</td>
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<tr>
<td>VET</td>
<td>Vocational Education and Training</td>
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<tr>
<td>VOLUM Federation</td>
<td>The Romanian Federation of Organisations supporting the development of the voluntary sector</td>
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<td>VW</td>
<td>Voluntary Work</td>
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<td>YEAR</td>
<td>Young Entrepreneurs Association from Romania</td>
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Short Executive Summary

This report is a synthesis of the main results of the H2020 project MOVE – *Mapping mobility, institutions and structural effects of youth mobility in Europe*. Over three years the project MOVE has provided a research-informed contribution to a systematic analysis of intra-European mobility. The project departed its work by differentiating six mobility types that have diverse institutional frameworks, age specific constraints and scopes of action. The project has thus analysed and reconstructed mobility patterns that lie across different types of mobility, which are:

- student mobility for higher education,
- international volunteering,
- employment mobility,
- mobility for vocational and educational training,
- pupil’s exchange,
- entrepreneurship mobility.

These identified six mobility types have been investigated in the following six European countries:

- Germany,
- Hungary,
- Luxembourg,
- Norway,
- Romania,
- Spain.

In the following report, the overall MOVE results are discussed being systematised and contributing to the research field of youth mobility in Europe. In doing so, the conducted project contests and complements research done in the fields of youth, mobility and agency. In the theoretical part, the project has scrutinised a variety of definitions and clarifications regarding macro-, meso- and micro- level ranging from the discussion and differentiation of the concepts of “mobility” and “migration”, on to the challenging conceptualisation of “youth”, “agency”, “pull- and push- factors”, “brain drain/brain gain” and “transnationalism”.

The further empirical investigation were based on these specified definitions and terminology. As a part of the results, the project has identified factors hindering and promoting satisfying situations for the young people. The macro-level covers country characteristics and national specific frames for youth mobility; the meso-level looks at the social networks and
transnational activities of young mobile people (although it cannot be solely considered as a meso-level analysis). In addition to the examination of these levels, concatenation of mobilities, aspects of mobility and gender or disability are also considered. The discussions emphasise to what extent the gender aspect is considered by the EU youth mobility policies, and how impairments and mobility intersect further topics for research and discussion.

Regarding the intra-European mobility the following points have been found to be crucial:

- Lack of language skills and financial barriers present major obstacles to mobility.
- Peer and family support, both financially and psychologically, can be crucial during the mobility experience.
- Information on mobility programmes, language, culture and other practical issues related to the mobility type and its contents are required by young people before mobility occurs and during the different phases of mobility (initiation, adaptation and finalisation) in order to guide the young people.
- Mobility may occur as a result of a personal choice, collective decision making (family, peers) or institutionally (firm, company, school etc.) but the youth mobility experience must give young people some autonomy, and the organisations involved in mobility programmes must be transparent in their functioning.

The project results have a policy-oriented and evidence-based output and realises two objectives. First, the developed results pave the pathway to the formulation of the examples of good practices in the selected countries. The identified good practices in specified countries include instances of private and public, international and national, newly established and well-established ones. The identified good practices, including projects and programmes, give young people orientation, provide information on funding, but also create opportunities for young people via volunteering, funding businesses and innovation. Second, the discussed results lead to the formulation of policy recommendations for the improvement of mobility of young people in Europe. The recommendations are based on evidence found in MOVE and aim at the improvement on the EU as well as national level (in the specified countries).
1. Introduction

Mobility is one of the buzzwords of the 21st century. “Geographical mobility” is used for intra-European international movement (Geisen 2010) that the EU tries to enhance in quantity and quality. However, researchers and policy-makers are lacking of evidence-based and research-informed information.

The main research question of the H2020 project MOVE is therefore: how can the mobility of young people be “good” both for socio-economic development and for the individual development of young people, and what factors foster or hinder this beneficial mobility? The overall ambition of MOVE is to provide a research-informed contribution towards improving the conditions of youth mobility within the EU and reducing the negative impacts of mobility by identifying good practices, thus fostering sustainable development and well-being for young people.

MOVE goes beyond specific mobility programmes and addresses the challenges young people aged between 18 and 29 face in the context of the intra-European mobility. Young people who (1) have experienced or have been affected by intra-European mobility, or those who (2) are considering moving to another European country, and even young people who (3) have never been abroad are aimed by the project. MOVE incorporates different aspects of social inequality such as migration and socio-economic background, gender, education, impairments and disabilities.

The project investigates different patterns of young people, involving qualitative and quantitative data collected and analysed in collaboration among nine institutions from six countries: Germany, Hungary, Luxembourg, Norway, Romania and Spain. MOVE focuses on the following six types of mobility:

- student mobility for higher education,
- international volunteering,
- employment mobility,
- mobility for vocational education and training,
- pupil’s exchange,
- entrepreneurship mobility.

This final report provides analyses based on an integrative multi-level approach. The results of the project contribute to research on youth mobility, targeting the factors that hinder or foster mobility as well as the positive and negative effects of mobility from a macro-perspective (the country characteristic), a meso-perspective (the effects of institutions, social networks, including families and peers) and a micro-perspective (agency of young people within a temporal and relational context).

The report is organised in these following sections: the first section discusses the prevalence of youth mobility for young people and policy makers; the second one provides an overview of
central concepts in the project and details the heuristic model that has been developed with the central indicators used in the project analysis. The third section summarises methodologies adopted in the project. The fourth section presents the multi-level and transdisciplinary research results at a macro-, meso- and micro level, with these levels demarcated purely for practical and analytical purposes. Multiple areas are examined: country characteristics, factors affecting youth mobility, transnational links, agency, concatenation of mobilities, gender inequalities and disability. The fifth section describes the legal, institutional and organisational frameworks for the mobility types that have been central to our project. The sixth section formulates good practices regarding all mobility types analysed, based on the results of the national conferences organised in each country and the specific recommendations from consortium partners as well as desk-based research. Later, we present the policy recommendations derived from the integrated research results on both country characteristics and mobility types (at an EU, national and individual level depending on the mobility type). The report concludes by summarising our results in response to the MOVE research question and setting the stage for further research regarding youth mobility studies and how future research aspects can be adjusted to the dynamism and creativity of youth mobility.

2. The Prevalence of Youth Mobility for Young People and Policymakers

Since the removal of its borders, the EU has taken measures to promote mobility seeking in particular to “develop [...] scope for youth mobility, creat[e] information about mobility programs, simplify procedures, provid[e] funding sources for mobility, enhanc[e] the application of the European Charter for Mobility principles, and increas[e] knowledge of youth mobility”\(^1\).

For the EU institutions, youth mobility presents a tool for the EU common identity (Papatsiba 2006, Sigalas 2010), democratisation and social cohesion within a common European culture and a solution to unemployment (European Commission 2004), as well as for a more dynamic and sustainable labour market (Arpaia et al. 2014), further engaging young people in circular migration/mobility rather than causing a “brain drain” (Vertovec 2007). Mobility is seen by national and supranational authorities as an instrument to counteract youth unemployment in EU member states, at a national and regional level (Maza and Villaverde 2004; European Parliament 2007).

At the same time, mobility may reveal social inequalities, especially with regard to the right to move. “Only 18% of Europeans have moved outside their region, while only 4% have moved to another Member State and 3% outside the Union” (Eurofound 2011, 4).

In 2017, in the “Investing in Europe’s Youth” Communication (European Commission 2016), the EU Commission called for a “renewed effort to support young people”\(^2\) by providing better opportunities to access employment, better opportunities through education and training as well as better opportunities for solidarity, learning mobility and participation “that should also be realised by various youth mobility programmes. Furthermore, the EU Youth Strategy 2010-2018 supports youth through the development of instruments of non-formal learning, participation, voluntary activities, youth work, mobility and information and to ensure that youth issues are taken into account in other fields as employment, education, well-being and health” (European Commission 2010).

The Europe 2020 strategy sees the younger generation as a driving force for smart, sustainable and economic growth, since young people are most likely to take the risk moving abroad for education- or work-related reasons, or to contribute to social and economic development with innovative business strategies (Eurofound 2011, 6). Europe 2020 flagship initiatives such as Youth on the Move, “Agenda for new skills and jobs”, and the “European platform against poverty” set youth and youth mobility at the core of sustainable future development.

Mobility initiatives and EU strategies such as “Erasmus+ Inclusion and Diversity Strategy in the field of youth”\(^2\) draw particular attention to inclusivity regarding “disabilities, health problems, educational difficulties, cultural differences, economic obstacles, social obstacles, and geographic obstacles” (Cairns 2015, 3). Thus, while the EU institutions aim to increase the quality and quantity of youth mobility, the MOVE results contribute by emphasising the quality\(^3\) of youth mobility that encompasses various mobility types, and by understanding what kind of policy suggestions can follow our research findings.

There have been many other initiatives, such as Move2Learn and Learn2Move launched by the European Commission (2017a) on the occasion of the 30\(^{th}\) anniversary of the Erasmus programme for education, training, youth and sport. “The parliament went further advocating an initiative granting every European citizen a free interrail pass when turning 18” (ibid.). Twinning projects also help pupils and teachers become mobile (ibid.). Resolutions, recommendations and suggestions also underline youth mobility and volunteering as a part of the EU youth strategy\(^4\). The European Solidarity Corps, the new name for the European Voluntary Service was also recently mentioned in many EU policy documents\(^5\).

\(^2\) Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions Investing in Europe’s youth

\(^3\) What is meant here by quality is related not to the numbers of young people that become mobile, but to the benefits of the mobility experience that enhance young people’s skills, increase their compatibility with structures that they want to be part of and align their mobility with their plans and their vision of where they see themselves in future.


3. MOVE Project: Theoretical Background

Within our theoretical background, macro, meso and micro theories have been used as explanatory tools. As underlined by Massey et al. (1993) and O’Reilly (2012), there is not one single explanatory theory of migration; the same can be said about “mobility”. Although mobility seems an all-encompassing term, replacing migration and all its negative connotations, it is still difficult to understand why mobility and migration are still used interchangeably. Neither migration nor mobility can be explored via one theoretical perspective. On the other hand, distinguishing between macro-, meso- and micro aspects serves an analytical purpose, in which the different conceptual frameworks reveal themselves and lay the groundwork on which the results are investigated and integrated. It must be underlined that agency is a crucial concept, wherein the complex and multifaceted nature of mobility is explicated within the MOVE project.

3.1 Concepts being Investigated: Migration, Mobility and Brain Drain

Migration and mobility are different terms: “migration” refers to those subject to immigration laws and regulations, while “mobility” involves and implies greater freedom. “Migration signifies problematic mobility” (Anderson 2017, 1532). Immigrants have to confront the barriers set by nation states, and rules and regulations regarding visas, while those who are mobile are seemingly in a more privileged position.

“Mobility is a term that can be used cross-border to replace ‘migration’ and help us explain and understand cross-border human movements. The advantages that come with using ‘mobility’ are two-fold. First, ‘mobility’ accommodates human movement beyond the limited definition of ‘migration’, which is based on a twelve-month residence in a country that is foreign to the home country of the mover. Second, ‘mobility’ is a dynamic term that emphasizes the changing, floating, fluid nature of this

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6 This so-called “privileged” position might change with Brexit, which might have long term effects on how often people become mobile and how often they might benefit from mobility opportunities within the EU.
phenomenon and captures the regular as well as irregular moves of people on the ground regardless of time and destination.” (Cohen and Sirkeci 2011, 7)

These terms encompass various meanings and policies having differing implications and are distinguished by the agents in the respective move (those who are mobile and those who are immigrants are two distinct legal categories). However, these terms are not mutually exclusive and the divergence between these terms does not mean that mobility cannot turn into migration as a result of a change in policies or legislation. Quantitatively, mobility corresponds with a shorter time frame and a more flexible framework. In most countries, one year is the lower time limit for migration. At the same time, Regulation (EC) No 862/2007 of 11 July 2017 also sets the one-year limitation.

The mobility patterns of young people originate in a perspective on the transition of young people into adulthood (e.g. Frändberg 2014) during the mobility experience. Furthermore, mobility is being incorporated in the life trajectories of young people, since “aspirations and imaginaries of transnational mobility thus increasingly shape ideas of transition to adulthood for both mobile and immobile youth that cut across regional and class divides” (Robertson, Harris, and Baldassar 2018, 204). While EU policies, programmes and initiatives encourage youth mobility, some problems related to mobility still remain: for instance, 77 percent of young people between 15 and 34 would not move in order to find employment (Somnard 2018). Moreover, mobility can still be an opportunity for the privileged few. The MOVE research results thus help to demonstrate the strengths and weaknesses of mobility, in theory and in practice, regarding European youth policies.

3.2 Brain drain: A controversial concept

In our work, we have utilised theories such as pull- and push- factors considered within macro theories (Lee 1966; Todaro 1980; Massey et al. 1993) and the centre-periphery approach (Wallerstein 1974). These concepts have been useful for the analysis of the macro-economic conditions and for the interpretation of the results.

Our deliverable on MOVE Report D5.2 (2017), where we summarised all of our results, made it clear that the brain drain is a controversial concept and thus must be discussed with caution. Even though the brain drain, as a concept, (Docquier and Rapoport 2012; Dodani and Laporte 2005) is still being utilised and is still a reality not only for socio-economic reasons but also for culturally embedded reasons (Kontuly, Smith, and Heaton 1995) emanating from the developmental changes in the home countries of the mobiles (de Haas 2010). Moreover, this term does not explain current international knowledge flows (Clemens 2016; Rizvi 2006). Alternatively, other terms have been suggested to describe the more complex phenomena of young skilled people’s movement, such as “brain circulation” or “brain waste/brain loss” (through overeducation or inadequate employment; Robertson 2006; Tung and Lazarova 2006; Lianos 2007; Varma and Kapur 2013).

MOVE uses the brain drain as a concept that might become a reality, without ignoring the agentic action of the young people who choose to become mobile. Aside from the liberal
choices and perspectives on mobility in which everyone makes their own decisions and life choices, the ethical perspective must be considered: the large scale brain drain, a global division of labour for jobs such as doctors, nurses and IT experts, has produced multiple channels of movement, mobility and migration (Oberman 2013). On the other hand, brain transfer does not always result in a brain drain: most of the time, those who are unable to find employment in their professions in the destination country find unskilled work (Liebert 2009). “Deskillingisation” is defined as not being able to use one’s skills and having to work in jobs that require lower skills than one possesses. Hence, this situation is sometimes also called “brain waste”. At the same time, transfer of skills and knowledge (innovation) is made possible by mobility, through channels that enable people to become mobile for work, study, training, volunteering, exchange for younger people, or other purposes, such as entrepreneurship.

“Brain drain” is used in a critical but also reflexive manner (Muller 2017; Brock and Blake 2017; du Toit 2017). Brain drain is defined as “the loss suffered by a country as a result of emigration of (highly) qualified persons.” In addition to these theoretical approaches and terms, “human capital” (Becker 1994) is also applied to elaborate on how different countries within the EU are able to take advantage of this human capital (some as keepers of human capital, others as educators of human capital and still others as producers of human capital). These differences between countries will be explained within the MOVE results below, involving further details regarding country characteristics.

3.3 Converging and Diverging Definitions: Youth and Youth Transitions

![Image of youth diversity and challenges]

This chapter outlines definitions of youth that point at the complexity of the conceptualisation of this term. Although youth is defined less with regard to a set age (King et al., 9), with national youth policies often avoiding a strict youth age definition due to the complex nature of this transitional period (Siruala 2006, 9), youth is often defined for statistical purposes by age category, although no official definition exists. International organisations and nation states

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7 The brain drain definition as it is on the webpage of the EU institutions on the page of Migration and Home affairs retrieved from https://ec.europa.eu/home-affairs/content/brain-drain_en, last access on 11 April 2018.
8 Human capital is used here as investment in education, work place training, healthcare and research for information on prices and incomes rather than capital based on material grounds. Unlike financial and physical assets, human capital in this case is inseparable from human beings.
define this phase of life differently. Several UN entities apply different age definitions: e.g. UN Secretariat: 15-24 and UN Habitat 15-32 (Perovic 2016, 3; Fassmann, Gruber and Nemeth 2018, 14). Nor do EU member states apply a common definition. However, the MOVE definition is close to the definition applied by the EU in its strategic framework, where young people are defined as between 15-29 years of age. MOVE has chosen the 18-29 age range in order to ease the process of consent for surveys and semi-structured interviews. 15-29 has been used for the analysis of macro database used in the MOVE project.

Frequently, youth - as a phase of life - is very often defined in youth policies and politics as the **transitional period from dependent childhood to independent adulthood** (definition, *inter alia*, of the United Nations, Eurostat⁹, Youth Partnership between the European Commission and the Council of Europe in the field of youth). Nevertheless, with the lifestyle of young people becoming less standardised and the period of youth tending to begin earlier and end later in recent decades (Perovic 2016, 2-3), the term is even more difficult to define. Many changes can take place during this transition period, with more options available, such as educational programmes, the possibility of combining work and studies, and moving abroad more easily (Siruula 2006, 8).

Some scholars have suggested going beyond the concept “youth as a transition process” (e.g. Wyn and Woodman 2006). Transition processes may sound linear and the transition into adulthood might not be the same for every individual young person; as such, multi-layered, complex youth transition processes have also been examined by other scholars (e.g. Gordon et al. 2008). In these processes, certain turning points in the biographies of young people are highlighted (Sennett 1998; Shanahan and Porfeli 2007), turning points such as changing from unemployment to employment, the transition from higher education to work or from living at home to living independently (King et al. 2016, 12). But non-linear changes can take place at the same time: young people might first be integrated into the labour market but might later decide to become mobile for study or training purposes, or to enhance other social or cultural skills that might be useful for future job opportunities. Arnett draws the attention to the fact that transformative changes take place when one is young: “for most young people in industrialised countries, the years from late teens through the twenties are years of profound change and importance” (Arnett 2000, 469). He underlines that within this period, young people pursue educational qualifications and training possibilities and undergo a tremendous change. That is why it has been important in MOVE to investigate youth transition processes regarding youth mobility in relation to the life cycle.

Three core challenges can be identified within the youth life cycle: qualification, meaning developing the social and professional capacity to act; independence, meaning taking responsibility and positioning oneself, and thus, a personal balance between one’s own freedom and social belonging (Deutscher Bundestag 2017, 49). However, young people tackle these challenges differently due to different starting conditions: the opportunities to gain

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⁹ Statistical Office of the European Communities
qualifications, independence and self-positioning are characterised by social inequality due to regional and socio-spatial disparities (Deutscher Bundestag 2017, 50).

Hence, the growth conditions for young people can vary from one state/country to another. Not only may the starting positions differ, but the youth policies will be characterized by the political and social culture of the respective country (Deutscher Bundestag, 21). The conceptualisation of youth may also be influenced by gender, class and ethnicity (King et al. 2016, 9). Difficult social conditions and poverty can make this transition period harder; an insecure labour market can prolong the period. The heterogeneity of backgrounds often implies inequality and that some young people are at special risk, whereas young people from a higher social class often have more opportunities (Siru 2006, 8).

On the one hand, youth policy measures are shaped by regional and national circumstances and different policy implementations. On the other hand, the youth lifestyle is less and less limited to their local living environment, due to globalisation. Increasingly, Europe and the “whole world” are becoming, virtually and physically, an extended living space (Deutscher Bundestag, 21). At the same time, young people do not represent a homogenous group, since they have varying interests and needs. This aspect can be challenging, since youth policies should take into account the diversity of youth groups (Siru 2006, 10).

As the transition from childhood to adulthood is a critical period, the legal and political framework is highly significant: young people need support, for educational and work-related opportunities, and thus should be respected as a unique group (Sener 2017, 2). For some young people, it is particularly difficult to achieve economic independence, with young people often affected by poor employment conditions (e.g. lower wages and short-term contracts); for this reason it is important for policy strategies to address youth directly (Deutscher Bundestag 2017, 51).

3.4 Social Networks, Life Course and Transnationalism in a Nutshell
The mesosystem contains the relationship between the Microsystems surrounding the young people’s id, ego and superego (Bronfenbrenner 1977). Networks, community dynamics and family ties are crucial in defining identity, and play a major role in providing meaning to young people’s youth transition processes (ibid.). Concerning youth mobility and how social networks function in cross-border or international contexts, regarding young people’s interaction with their social environment at home and in the host country, transnational links are almost always present (Glick-Schiller, Basch, and Szanton-Blanc 1992).

Based on life course theory (Elder 1995), young people act according to the stage in life they find themselves. Depending on the context, life decisions (concerning education, work, marriage, having children etc.) are being transformed and postponed, in some cases, depending on the opportunities related to their stage in life, the country they live in and what cultural and socio-economic context surrounds them (Bynner 2005). Equally, the country context and characteristics can affect their decisions (ibid.). The life course perspective includes gender-related considerations regarding mobility. It approaches life courses when gender roles play an important role and how these can then effect mobility decisions (Fassman, Gruber, and Nemeth 2018, 25).

To understand the complexity of the mobility of young people, meso-level factors such as “social capital” or “networks” must also be included in the model. Social capital in the life of a young person is comprised of “personal relationships, family and household patterns, friendship and community ties, and mutual help in economic and social matters” (Castles and Miller 2009, 28). Networks or social capital can function as a promoter of youth mobility but can also hinder mobility, under certain circumstances (Axhausen 2008; Green and White 2007; Boyd 1989; Haug 2008; Glick-Schiller, Darieva, and Gruner-Domic 2011). Networks or social capital often have a bridging function in the mobility context (Coffé and Geys 2007; Ryan et al. 2008), fostering access to information, methods and strategies for becoming mobile. However, close ties to family members, friends or colleagues in the country of origin can also hinder mobility if, for example, the emotional cost of moving away becomes too high (Evergeti and Zontini 2006). Hence, social capital and network play an ambivalent role in mobility, with the extent and character of the social capital and the personal and social function of this causing specific outcomes for young people’s international movement.

Transnationalism may be defined as a social process in which migrants act in social spheres that transcend the boundaries of nation states (Vertovec 2009). Regarding the interaction of young people with their social environment at home and in the host country, transnational links are almost always present (Glick-Schiller, Basch, and Szanton-Blanc 1992).

Scholars view movement processes through the prism of transnational relations and the simultaneous embedding of people in multiple realms, with the emphasis on social, economic and cultural ties shaping migrants’ movements, practices and decisions (Levitt and Schiller 2004). Based on the results of transnational studies, it can be said that mobility creates social structures that cannot be categorised by nation-state units and which are formed through mobility and intensive mutual exchange relationships (Levitt and Schiller 2004; Vertovec 2009).
In taking this transnational phenomenon into account, MOVE attempts to avoid any kind of methodological nationalism.

In contrast, Portes (1998) stresses that when social capital requires too much similarity, it runs the risk of being exclusive, and may have negative effects on individual migrants or mobile people, as this situation might lead to the isolation of a group (since social capital may imply being with those who are alike). Therefore, even though a mobility type might be promoting socialisation and togetherness, the conditions of this mobility might leave no room for agency, which leads us to analyse the interviews to observe individual nuances among young people. MOVE focusses on the agency of young people, and the upcoming section based on agency and how we utilise this concept is therefore a crucial part of our theoretical and empirical background.

3.5 Examining Agency

Macro level approaches may be incomplete if they do not integrate meso- and micro explanations (Coleman 1990; Castles and Miller 2009). Castles and Miller (2009) underline that the macro, meso and micro levels are not mutually exclusive and the abstract lines separating them cannot demarcate starkly, but all three should be taken into account when migration and mobility are examined. Among our hypotheses regarding the micro level, one of our main sensitising concepts within the project is “agency”, which provides the tools to analyse our interviews and survey results, as the young people’s agency and agentic behaviour as an important reason behind mobility has been one of the main ideas behind the entire research project (MOVE Report D2.3 2016).

Emirbayer and Mische (1998) define agency as the “temporally embedded process of social engagement, informed by the past (in its habitual aspect), oriented toward the future (as a capacity to imagine alternative possibilities) and ‘acted out’ in the present (as a capacity to contextualize past habits and future projects with the contingencies of the moment)” (Emirbayer and Mische 1998, 963).

Emirbayer and Mische’s (1998) understanding of a chordal triad of agency and the categorisation of different acts of the social actor in varying circumstances within this chordal triad, provides one of the theoretical lenses for the project which gave an understanding of the extent to which agentic behaviour is significant when decisions are taken by young people (on being mobile, on other decisions such as finding work, staying somewhere, moving further to
another place, and so on). This triad involves three agency aspects: iterative (bringing situations from the past, patterns of thought and action), projective (orientations, values and aspirations), and practical/evaluative (constraints and possibilities of the actual situation, including material, social, conceptual resources and structural and institutional dimensions).

In line with the internal dynamics regarding youth mobility, the ecological perspective must be considered (Biesta and Tedder 2007), in which the agents act and respond in diverse circumstances and contexts, a stable way of acting in relational and temporal ways with the structure. “Conjuncturally specific internal structures involve some kind of knowledge (on the part of the agent) of networks, roles, and power relations: they entail understanding how proximate others might behave, what they have got, how they seem to interpret the world around them, and then acting on the basis of what is understood about all these things at a given time” (O’Reilly 2012, 27). This dynamic approach to agency will reveal itself in more detail through analytical examination of the interviews: new responses to structure by social actors and new relations with/in the structure will create novel circumstances and patterns.

Moreover, transitions through mobility are investigated in MOVE: “taking a closer look at these transitions from one position to another allows us to examine the socially structured sense and forms of agency bounded by institutional norms and practices” (Aaltonen 2013, 379). Biesta and Tedder thus suggest adding the relational and situational perspectives: “what was learnt from the past can be utilized in the present (pragmatic-evaluative) dimension” (Biesta and Tedder 2007, 135). To think of agency as achievement rather than as a “power” also helps to acknowledge that the achievement of agency, depends on the availability of economic, cultural and social resources within a particular ecology.” In contrast, Bourdieu (1984) underlines that “agents keep a doxic relation to the world, a pre-reflexive orientation, a practical sense of what is objectively possible, or an unconscious awareness of the horizon of possibilities” (O’Reilly 2012, 20). From the MOVE theoretical approach it can thus be seen that these theories apply to both meso and micro, and it is hard to separate them except for practical research related purposes as implemented in this report.

Relational and temporal aspects of agentic action have been included in our theoretical framework in order to better explore agentic behaviour in mobilities. According to Biesta and Tedder “actors critically shape their responses to problematic situations” (Biesta and Tedder 2007, 3). This approach suggests that actors are constantly engaged in framing contexts in a reflective manner, thus contributing to re-shaping these structures. This idea is in line with Emirbayer and Mische (1998), where social actors define and change the social and institutional rules as they act and interact with structural constraints or structure enabling factors. To quote Emirbayer and Mische: “we might therefore, speak of double constitution of agency and structure: temporal-relational contexts support particular agentic orientations, which in turn constitute different structuring relationships of actors towards their environments” (Emirbayer and Mische 1998, 1004).

In summary, our research adopted these perspectives: “1) achievement of agency is situated within temporality, 2) although we might assume that everybody has – on a very basic level agency as everybody is acting – we assume from a pragmatic point of view that agency is not
something inherent to a person but has to be achieved within specific contexts, 3) agency is socio-ecological” (MOVE Report D2.3 2016, 105).

3.6 The Heuristic Model and Explanation

Combining micro, meso and macro levels, a heuristic model was developed, adopting the temporal and transactional aspects of mobility, the fields, networks and agency in young people as defined above, primarily in order to understand young people’s mobility and the interlinkage of agency and structure regarding youth mobility over time. The quantitative and qualitative results of this heuristic model, providing an overview of the combination of theoretical approaches demonstrate that agents respond to situations in diverse ways, across diverse youth mobility types, when constrained by mobility rules, regulations and structures: they adapt, reject, change or return. Although there have been cases where the mobility experience was not considered as a success, mobility agents (i.e. young people) integrate this experience into the transition into adulthood, evaluating and learning from their mobility process, reflecting during and after this process on increased independence, decreasing dependence on families, changing social and economic conditions, becoming more mobile than expected, and so on. This aspect gains more importance when the socio-ecological perspective of agency adopted by the MOVE project is contemplated:

“The socio-ecological perspective thus helps to draw attention to the achievement of agency in context, and the contexts themselves. Social networks, social relationships, institutions and organisations, material conditions etc. can then be analyzed as fostering and hindering factors for the achievement of agency and the change in agentic orientations” (MOVE Report D2.3 2016, 100).

This theoretical orientation also goes beyond the view that agency is solely comprised of decision-making by oneself (MOVE Report D2.3 2016, 100). In Bronfenbrenner’s ecological systems theory (1995), the process, the person, the context and the time matter in the development of self and agency. In Bronfenbrenner, there are four systems: macro, exo, meso and micro. In our heuristic model, the exo system\(^{10}\) is substituted by the policy and politics of mobility. This heuristic model is predominantly influenced by James Coleman’s (1990) theory of connections between macro, meso and micro, which shows the relationship between how macro affects micro and how an individual’s behaviour can change via institutional changes, regulations, laws and socio-economic conditions is.

\(^{10}\)An exo-system is an extension of the mesosystem embracing other specific social structures, both formal and informal, that do not themselves contain the developing person but impinge upon or encompass the immediate settings in which that person is found, and thereby influence, delimit, or even determine what goes on there. These structures include the major institutions of the society, both deliberately structured and spontaneously evolving, as they operate at a concrete local level. They encompass, among other structures, the world of work, the neighborhood, the mass media, agencies of government (local, state, and national), the distribution of goods and services, communication and transportation facilities, and informal social networks.” (Bronfenbrenner 1977, 515)
Like Coleman, Bronfenbrenner also relates different spheres of the social world with the action of the person/structure. However, unlike Coleman, Bronfenbrenner does not explicitly assume a path dependence from the structure to the actor and from the actor’s actions back to the structure. Rather, Bronfenbrenner assumes a simultaneous presence and interrelatedness of structure and actions, without taking into account a specific, temporal, life course interdependency of structure and action. Thus, Bronfenbrenner’s approach agrees with the interrelatedness of the different aggregate levels (macro, meso and micro) but his assumptions clash with our time dependent, life course approach.

**Figure 1 Heuristic and dynamic model structuring MOVE’s analytical perspectives on international mobility of young people over time**

![Diagram: Heuristic and dynamic model structuring MOVE’s analytical perspectives on international mobility of young people over time](source-image)

**Source:** MOVE Report D2.3 2016, 98

The MOVE model assumes that macro factors such as regional, national and supranational labour market characteristics, education, welfare, living conditions and demographic developments have an impact (or interact) on the meso level, including the politics and policies of mobility, the socio-economic background of young people, the institutional framework regarding mobility (e.g. information, network and support), family support (e.g. capital endowment), social relationships and networks (peers, friends, associations, organisations, information flows). Meso level factors, in turn, impact individuals (i.e. their perceptions, interpretations, decisions and behaviours). Castles and Miller (2009, 29) underline that the meso structures are composed of “groups and institutions that take on the role of mediating between migrants and political and economic institutions”.

![MOVE logo](source-image)
While Coleman (1990) put the family within the micro structures, we have placed family and peers in the meso level in our model. Since we are discussing mobility rather than migration, the “mobility industry” would also fall within meso level structures such as youth agencies, agencies that enable young people to become mobile, intermediary groups and organisations.

Young mobile people make choices based on their experiences, the iterational, projective and practical-evaluative dimensions of their agency (Emirbayer and Mische 1998) and thus they become mobile (or remain immobile) over time. As such, agency is seen as not entirely determined by macro and meso constraints (and thus over-deterministic), although agents are in daily contact with their peers, families, institutions and broader social, cultural and economic surroundings, and are affected by them. But the agent is not completely inactive before action: s/he feels, interprets the situation, thinks, iterates, projects, evaluates practically and takes decisions prior to acting.

This model captures the multi-faceted and multi-level analysis of the results. This model has been central in interpreting the MOVE findings, triangulating the macro, meso and micro findings. Throughout the research analysis period, the model proved invaluable for orienting the data collection and interpreting the information gathered. Since it was intended as a heuristic rather than deterministic model, it facilitated adjustment to the theoretical approach.

4. Methodology of the MOVE Project

In order to be able to analyse mobility patterns of young people on different levels (micro, meso and macro), MOVE developed a multiple case design, adopting qualitative and quantitative methods.

At first, secondary macro data provided by Eurostat (in particular, micro-data-sets from the European Labour Force Survey\textsuperscript{11}), the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), the United Nations and the World Bank were merged into a macro data file, ‘MOVE-SUF’ (MOVE Report D2.4 2016). After the conclusion of the MOVE project, the (secondary data) MOVE-SUF will be deposited in the GESIS data repository in Cologne (Germany), at the Leibniz...
Institute for Social Sciences. The (secondary data) MOVE-SUF\textsuperscript{12} capturing macro-data from 2004 to 2013 was established with data for all 28 EU countries and 3 EFTA countries.\textsuperscript{13} The (secondary data) MOVE-SUF comprises indicators from state, economic, and societal sectors (including mobility indicators for youth between 15 and 29). The macro-data was analysed primarily using cluster analysis and causal modelling with panel analysis, to identify socio-economic causes and effects of intra-European youth mobility on a macro level. As such, separate regression models were performed, with mobility as a dependent and independent variable. Additionally, a macro-country typology was developed based on descriptive analyses of the mobility indicators included (see MOVE Report D2.4 2016 for a detailed description).

The qualitative case studies, the second part of empirical analysis, focussed on the micro-level and examined six types of youth mobility: student mobility for higher education, volunteering mobility, employment mobility, mobility during vocational education and training, pupil’s exchanges and entrepreneurship mobility. In every consortium country two types of mobility were examined (see Figure 2 below for the distribution of mobility types across consortium countries). These mobility pairings were chosen according to the prominence of mobility types within consortium countries (for example, high student mobility rates in Luxembourg, but low in Hungary). This made it possible to make comparisons on both the country and mobility type level. The aim was to analyse the different national institutional settings and socio-economic situations, and how these might affect the mobility patterns of young people. The interviews also provided feedback at the meso and macro level.

\textsuperscript{12} The user manual regarding this database is published on and retrieved from \url{www.move-project.eu/publications} last access on 21 April 2018.

\textsuperscript{13} European Free Trade Association: Switzerland, Iceland and Norway.
Interviews sampling took the following form (MOVE Report D3.5 2017, 15-16):

- Age of participants: 18 - 29,
- Gender: balanced sample,
• Timeframe for the interview: during or after mobility (with a maximum of one year after “concluding” a mobility),
• Language: the interviews were conducted in the language interviewees preferred, provided that both researchers and respondents spoke this well enough to feel comfortable during the interview and could express themselves freely.
• Direction: mobility directionality (“incoming”/“outgoing”). Partners focussed not on one movement direction alone, but additionally, to have at least two respondents coming from the other “direction”.

Table 1: Overview of interviews collected in MOVE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field</th>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Youth</th>
<th>Expert</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Higher education</td>
<td>Luxembourg</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International volunteering</td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Romania</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment</td>
<td>Luxembourg</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational education and training</td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pupil’s exchange</td>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entrepreneurship</td>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Romania</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>206</strong></td>
<td><strong>40</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: MOVE Report D3.5 2017, 16

The findings of the pilot semi-structured interviews supported the development of the survey questionnaire. Two surveys based on the same questionnaire – a “panel survey” and a “snowball survey” – were carried out. The “panel survey”\(^{14}\) aimed at mobile and non-mobile respondents and representativity of this sample. The “snowball survey” was distributed among points of contact in the consortium countries (such as universities or employment agencies) in order to sample as many mobile participants as possible.

\(^{14}\) Subcontracted on the basis of best value for money to GfK (Art. 13 AMGA) after two open calls (published January 4 and March 11, 2016).
Sampling for the “panel survey” involved mobile and non-mobile people between 18 and 29, holding at least one nationality from consortium countries or who had obtained a secondary school certificate/diploma in any of the six participating countries (MOVE Report D4.7 2017, 17-20). Sampling for the “snowball survey” involved as young people between 18 and 29 but aimed only at currently mobile people or people with realised mobility experience. In both surveys, the mobiles were defined as those young people with an experience abroad of a length of a minimum of two weeks and with a purpose different than to go for holiday and/or to visits the family. Both surveys were available in French, German, Luxembourgish, Norwegian (Nynorsk and Bokmål), Romanian and Spanish (ibid.). The datasets based on both surveys will be accessible one year after completion of the project at GESIS at the Leibnitz Institute for Social Sciences in Cologne (Germany) (MOVE Report D4.7 2017, 18). Answers from 8,706 mobile and non-mobile youth were collected (5,499 respondents for the panel survey and 3,207 for the snowball survey)\(^5\).

The surveys focussed on the young people’s decisions to become mobile or to stay non-mobile by including personal, professional and socio-economic dimensions (such as the motivations for and obstacles to mobility, knowledge and usage of mobility programmes and funding schemes). As such, MOVE also analysed the meso-level, highlighting how mobility decisions are influenced by families, peers, social networks, etc. Similar questions were also asked in the interviews (mobility motivations and obstacles before and during mobility, use of youth mobility programmes, mobility facilitating factors in the host country, evaluation of mobility experiences etc.).

All partners involved in MOVE with an institutional ethical panel received the respective panel approval. Those without institutional ethical approval procedures signed the MOVE declaration of Ethics and Data Protection Compliance and by this apply to the standards of the ethical panel of the University of Luxembourg (MOVE Report D3.2 2015). The qualitative and quantitative data was fully anonymised and does not allow to trace back the interviewed individuals.

\(^5\) The division by countries is as follows: Germany 961, Hungary 980, Luxembourg 739, Norway 877, Romania 976, Spain 966; for the snowball: Germany 1,124, Hungary 157, Luxembourg 231, Norway 176, Romania 354, Spain 1,165.
5. MOVE Research Results

While the previous sections of this report have summarised the theoretical background, heuristic model and methodology, this part focuses on the research results, thus contributing to an original empirical debate on youth mobility studies. Here, macro data analysis is first summarised, then the focus turns to the meso results such as transnational links, obstacles to mobility, information sources, effects of peers and family on the decision making for mobility, and organisations and their influence on the mobility experiences of young people; finally, micro explanations on agency and agentic action are addressed.

First, at the macro level, participating countries were categorised according to mobility utilisers (those that make use of human capital), mobility fallers (those that educate youth but cannot retain them), mobility promoters (those prone to losing their skilled workforce) and mobility beneficiaries (those that make use of and integrate the highly skilled into their economic and societal structures) (MOVE Report D2.4 2016).

We have seen obstacles to and motivations for mobility at the meso-level. We then looked at mobility patterns at the micro level, with MOVE elaborating on the patterns found in the interviews. In order to detail our interview results, MOVE factors in a concatenation of
mobilities (once a young person becomes mobile, there is a higher possibility that s/he will add more mobilities to one experience; up to five mobilities have been observed), with gender and impairment as special topics to be considered.

5.1 Overall Perspective Regarding Country Characteristics

At the country level, our macro-analysis focussed on the body of national states constituting the European Union and EFTA (European Free Trade Area). Although mobility is determined by personal conditions, agency, and decisions, MOVE conducted additional analysis on an aggregated level, with structural, national, and other socio-economic macro-conditions analysed on the basis of a macro-data work file, compiled and published as MOVE-SUF (MOVE Report D2.4 2016). MOVE-SUF was set up as a unique database, with data from UNESA (United Nations Department of Social and Economic Affairs), Eurostat, OECD (Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development), UN (United Nations), and World Bank for 31 countries (EU-28 and 3 EFTA countries) and covers a period of 10 years (2004-2013). The macro-economic perspective of (inter)national developments served as a basis for the micro- and meso-level analyses of MOVE (MOVE Report D2.4 2016, 11-12).

As a first step towards detecting country patterns for European youth mobility, two clusters were identified that confirm the centre-periphery model (Wallerstein 1974; MOVE Report D2.4 2016, 64-66): 1) the centre/receiving countries (such as Germany, France, Netherlands) and 2) the periphery/sending countries (such as Romania, Hungary, Poland) – plus Luxembourg and Norway, as outliers. These clusters were in accordance with the social and economic development of the states involved, and remained stable over time, except for Spain which, due to the economic crisis, moved from the centre to the periphery. Furthermore, the socio-economic differences between the clusters decreased, meaning that the states involved generally became more homogenous. However, a comparison of mobility indicators for both clusters revealed that the centre/receiving countries had higher incoming youth mobility ratios and the difference from periphery/sending countries was growing, especially for long-term immigration, reflecting better living conditions in the centre/receiving countries and the brain drain (Docquier and Rapoport 2012; Dodani and Laporte 2005). Overall, through the different forms of increasing mobility flows, it can be seen that the EU and its member states facilitate
real freedom of movement and enable a free choice of residence within the common economic area.¹⁶

The clusters revealed that only some European countries benefit from long-term incoming mobility, leading to higher economic value creation, while others lose human capital, especially when highly qualified youth move abroad. Additionally, national economies profit from returning young people who have gained competences abroad. However, the one-dimensional centre-periphery-model did not capture the full complexity of the ambivalent character of youth mobility. Thus, a country typology was developed for MOVE to focus on the mobility-based creation and exploitation of human capital. This typology can be understood as macro-equivalent to the MOVE mobility patterns on micro-level and thus forms part of a coherent MOVE strategy for differentiated and systematic research on youth mobility in Europe (MOVE Report D5.2 2017, 37).

The country typology focussed on two dimensions:

1) Mobility episodes that mainly deploy or make use of human capital of youth through long-term incoming youth mobility, outgoing student mobility, or returning mobility (MOVE Report D2.4 2016, 141)

2) Mobility episodes that mainly create (but do not use) human capital in the hosting countries, in the form of short-term incoming youth or student mobility. These mobility forms beneficial primarily for the country of origin (MOVE Report D2.4 2016, 141)

A combination of both dimensions resulted in a unique typology of country patterns that indicated whether and to what extent a country would benefit from youth mobility flows in Europe.

¹⁶ For further information on the cluster analysis see: Manafi et al. 2017.
Table 2: Typology of country patterns on youth mobility

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Typology of country patterns on youth</th>
<th>Human capital creation (by attracting short term incoming- and students’ mobility)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>less</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Human capital deploying or exploiting</strong></td>
<td>Mobility Promoter: Finland, Hungary, Malta, Italy, Poland, Romania, Slovenia, Bulgaria ↓, Slovakia ↓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>more</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mobility Beneficiaries: Croatia, Estonia, France → →, Greece ↑ ↑, Latvia, Portugal ↑ ↑, Spain ↑ ↑</td>
<td>Mobility Utiliser: Austria, Cyprus, Denmark, Germany, Ireland, Luxembourg, Norway, UK</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** MOVE Report D5.2 2017, 39

**Promoters**

*Mobility promoters:* countries in this subgroup, mainly from Eastern Europe, show a low rate of both human capital creation (by hosting mostly foreign short-term mobile youth) and human capital deployment (by sending youth for long-term studying abroad). If young people from these countries go abroad, they do so because there was no favourable economic situation in their own countries (MOVE Report D2.4 2016, 141; for mobility ratios ibid., 22-34).

**Fallers**

*Mobility fallers:* this comparably small group of countries combines a low rate of incoming long-term mobilities and returning mobilities with a high rate of short-term incoming mobility. Thus,

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17 The typology is based on macro data deriving from the MOVE-SUF (MOVE Report D2.4 2016) from 2009-2014. The countries were allocated to one of the four types, depending on the median scores of each included mobility indicator. The indicators refer to intra-EU-mobility flows only for youth aged 15-29: short-term incoming youth mobility (up to 3 years), long-term youth mobility (more than 3 years), incoming student mobility, outgoing-student mobility, finished-returning mobility (MOVE Report D2.4 2016, 22-34). Nevertheless, some countries could not be allocated to one type unambiguously or showed a changing characteristic towards a different type (marked with arrows).
these countries (e.g. Netherlands, Belgium) spend more on resources for educating foreign students, but do not profit commensurately from created human capital. Viewed from a national economic perspective, this type benefits least among all four-country types: ongoing development could possibly lead to a continuous downturn. It should be noted that no consortium member was designated as a mobility faller (MOVE Report D2.4 2016, 142).

**Beneficiaries**

*Mobility beneficiaries*: countries of this type are less involved in creating human capital by hosting foreign short-term mobile youth, but rather, are involved in deploying long-term mobility and education from other countries with high returning and outgoing student mobility rates. These countries thus benefit most from youth mobility flows within Europe. Countries such as Greece and Spain, used to benefit, but tend more and more to move towards being mobility fallers, due to the visible decrease in long-term incoming mobility over recent years. Spain, having low incoming/outgoing student mobility ratios but high long-term incoming mobility, is a mobility beneficiary from a consortium country, but, due to economic crises, Spain has more recently shown a tendency towards being a mobility promoter (MOVE Report D2.4 2016, 142).

**Utilisers**

*Mobility utilisers*: these countries, re-characterised by a balanced proportion of long-term incoming and short-term incoming youth, as well as a comparable high ratio of incoming and outgoing student mobility and returning mobility. Most belong to the prospering centre/receiving cluster, to some extent simply utilising youth mobility for human capital creation for other countries, having also received high levels of short-term incoming youth, including students. Mobility utilisers from consortium countries include Germany, Luxembourg and Norway, with high outgoing/incoming student mobility ratios while also having short/long-term incoming and returning mobility ratios (MOVE Report D2.4 2016, 142).
The differentiation between countries shows that human capital – created by youth mobility flows – is created, deployed and exploited economically by the respective EU member states in a very unequal way (MOVE Report D5.2 2017, 40).

MOVE’s macro analyses are crucial in demonstrating that, regardless of their wishes, young people go abroad also because they are not able to find the best opportunities in their home countries. But the idea that most movers are moving away from an undesirable situation has been challenged. Sirkeci and Cohen, for instance, draw attention to those who do not move away: “not everyone perceived conflict as an environment of human insecurity and not everyone is able and capable of moving in terms of social, human and financial capital” (Sirkeci and Cohen 2016, 384).

Thus, the country types represent mobility patterns on a macro-level and thereby depict a framework for individual mobility decisions and experiences as well as agentic behaviour towards youth-mobility on micro-level. Amongst others, a combination of micro- and macro-levels was followed up through a triangulation approach, combining the country typology with individual reasons, motivations and barriers for becoming mobile (MOVE Report D5.2 2017, 40).
5.2 Meso and Macro Level Factors Affecting Youth Mobility

The research results and interviews – combining macro, meso and micro levels – demonstrate that the mobility experience is influenced by socio-economic background, policies and politics of mobility, capital endowment (via family support) and social relationships and networks. The MOVE research reveals that young people listen to and are supported by their peers and families to a great extent. Families and peers are influential in decisions, and they are also, in some cases, the impediments to fulfilling the mobility experience. They play a crucial role, in a material, psychological and informative way (see below, valid for all mobile participants).

Our survey shows that those who decided to become mobile were mostly informed by search engines (48.5%), secondly by friends (35.7%) and by teachers (32.1%) (see the infographic below).
There are significant differences between mobiles and non-mobiles, regarding obstacles to mobility. Again, in this question, up to three options could have been chosen by the respondents. Amongst mobiles, 32.4% indicated that a lack of sufficient language skills is an impediment to their mobility expectations, whilst 42.7% of non-mobiles indicated that a lack of sufficient language skills is a barrier to mobility. A lack of financial resources to move abroad also shows itself as a great barrier to mobility - for mobiles, 21.8% had financial obstacles to moving abroad, whilst 35.6% of non-mobiles had financial barriers to moving abroad. Another important issue concerns the recognition of qualifications: 14.5% of mobiles and 9.8% of non-mobiles indicated that recognition of qualifications could be a barrier to traveling abroad.

Motivation to learn languages is a reason to become mobile, but is also an end product of mobility. It has been proven that mobility contributes to enhancing language skills (Skardeus 2010; Altbach and Knight 2007). Learning a language is also used by young people as a strategy for achieving agency, since speaking the language renders them less vulnerable to external problems: they better understand and perceive the context.

Table 3: Obstacles to Mobility\(^\text{18}\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Obstacles to Mobility</th>
<th>Travel abroad (&gt; 2 weeks)</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Status</td>
<td>Mobile</td>
<td>Non-mobile</td>
<td>All</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of sufficient language skills</td>
<td>597</td>
<td>32.4</td>
<td>1562</td>
<td>42.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of support or information</td>
<td>435</td>
<td>23.6</td>
<td>822</td>
<td>22.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficulties registering for education/training</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>311</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^{18}\) This was a multiple response question in which respondents could mark up to 3 answers. ‘Freq’ shows the number of responses and ‘%’ shows the percentage of the total of respondents who marked that answer.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Obstacles or differences in recognition of qualifications</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>% 1</th>
<th>% 2</th>
<th>% 3</th>
<th>% 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Difficulties finding a job abroad</td>
<td>314</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>605</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficulties obtaining a work permit abroad</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>299</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>8.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A worse welfare system (pensions/healthcare)</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>339</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>10.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My partner is not willing to move</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>450</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>11.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychological well-being (fear of suffering from stress/loneliness/sadness)</td>
<td>326</td>
<td>17.7</td>
<td>683</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>18.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial commitments in my current place of residency (e.g. bank loans or owning a property)</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>396</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>10.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of financial resources to move abroad</td>
<td>402</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>1300</td>
<td>35.6</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I did not experience any barrier or difficulty</td>
<td>380</td>
<td>20.6</td>
<td>649</td>
<td>17.7</td>
<td>18.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** MOVE Data, from MOVE Report D4.7 (2017), N: 5,499 mobiles and non-mobiles.

Since financial barriers form one of the most important impediments to mobility, MOVE Report D4.7 (2017) assesses how important the different financing sources were (ranging from 1 = non-existent to 5 = very important). The first financing source for young people is family assistance, the second is private funds and savings, the third is national study grants, the fourth is funds gained via working full time or part time, the fifth is European mobility programmes, the sixth is loans, the seventh is business programmes funded by the employer and the eighth is other grants and awards (see below). As such, (in line with the results of previous studies) family and private funds remain important for enabling youth mobility.
Financing is integrated into the European Youth Mobility Public Policies analysed at the meso level, with the aim of examining the double axis of identity affinity - the “local-regional-national” and the “cosmopolitan-European” - among mobile and non-mobile youth. Mobility with a European programme has a positive impact on European identity. However, if the mobility financing occurs mainly through a European programme (where youth are more dependent on this funding source), the model predicts a lower degree of European identification (perhaps related to directly experiencing EU bureaucracy and delays in receiving money). (MOVE Report D.4.7 2017, 71, 82).
5.3 Transnational Links and Becoming a Participant in Political and Cultural Activities

In relation to transnationality, bonding and remaining committed to the home country, it is worth noting that mobile respondents maintain more contact with contacts in their country of origin than those in their country of residence; a little less than half maintained weekly contact with friends from the country of their mobility experience. According to the survey results, mobile respondents whose average length of stay abroad was 8.7 months also maintained more regular contact with family and friends than non-mobiles.

Young respondents with mobility experiences were generally well-informed about news from their country of origin, their country of residence and the international stage. Their preferred means of staying informed, giving priority to the internet and social networks over traditional forms of media, revealed the generational shift in media consumption habits.
Regarding **civic and political participation** (both in person and virtually), mobile youth participated more as participants or followers through social networks, rather than playing an active role, both in the country of origin and in the destination country. Active participation was greater only in youth and student associations and recreational sports associations. Respondents without international mobility participated less in every area except political parties and trade unions, both in person and virtually (although the differences are minimal).

Respondents with mobility experience were also more involved in transnational political activities related to their country of origin and the host country (participation in both groups is relatively low, as is usual in these types of activities). Signature of petitions related to the country of origin ranks first (15.6%), followed by the purchase of products of the home-country for ethical, political, environmental reasons (9.7%). In general, the highest levels of participation in the host country occur in activities related to social events, such as demonstrations and meetings or the purchase of products.

The participation of young people without mobility ranks higher in all activities related to internal rather than global affairs (gender, ecology, human rights). Non-mobile respondents again participate significantly more than mobiles in their place of residence and in global affairs. As for formal electoral participation, general or presidential elections show the highest participation rates, slightly higher in those surveyed with mobility, followed by local and regional elections.

The degree of involvement in **cultural activities** in relation to the country of origin tends to be greater than in political and social activities. The group of young people with mobility shows more active participation in activities related to the host country compared to the activities in the home country, with the exception of supporting sports teams in the country of origin.

Looking at the simultaneous nature of transnationality (MOVE Report D4.7 2017), the dimensions that most consistently correlate with each other are those grouped in the index as relative to the country of destination, means that those who participate in any of the areas considered in the host country (social, economic, cultural, political, media) probably do so in all other areas.

One possible explanation for this is that transnational engagement is an indicator, not only for the young people’s activity level, but also of good general integration. As such, participation in one activity type at the destination implies a greater ability to access other activity types at the destination.

Among the different activity types (social, economic, cultural, political, media) at the countries of origin and of destination, the relationship is weaker: home and destination activities that present a higher correlation are media activities (staying informed) between the origin and host country, and political activities in the home country correlated with economic activities at the destination.
5.4 Agency in Youth Mobility, from a Temporal and Relational Perspective

Based on the analyses provided in MOVE Report D3.5 (2017) we were able to create an analytical overview of the individual structural relationship, from a temporal and relational perspective. Our qualitative results show that young people themselves decide to become mobile regardless of the effects of pull and push factors within the structures that surround them and respond to obstacles to mobility. Through analysing youth mobilities, six patterns came to the fore after all interviews were examined according to the emerging themes in a thematic analysis that showed a specificity of youth mobility in Europe, across six mobility fields, focussed on agency in a temporal and relational context.

The first relates to peers as mobility incubators: it shows that peer relationships can be very determinative, in terms of mobility possibilities. Although this is a meso level variable, its intense interaction with social agency requires consideration of the relational and temporal aspects of agentic action. Depending on the attitude of peers, mobility can be created, initiated and/or hampered. Peers are mobility incubators and their role should not be underestimated. This concurs with previous findings asserting that decisions are influenced by peers and family (Cairns et al. 2013).

I: “[...] Are there any other supporting, yes, conditions, circumstances that play a role? B: Hmm, yes. Perhaps, that (...) quite a few of my friends were away anyway. (I.: Uh-huh) And I thought like, so, like, you know: ‘Then I’ll leave too,’ (Laughs) like that. (Yes) So I did not actually have an incentive to stay at home all then, (I: Hmm.) And, yes, I would definitely say that, (...) so, too.” I: “What did they do?” B: “Um many were Au Pair, (I.: Mmm) some went like backpacking in Australia so, (I.: Mmm) (...) yes. (...) No one else did voluntary service, I think.” (vwyGE01)

I: “Yes and there was also a friend, who had already studied [there]. She was already there and I lived with her, she was also Luxembourgish. By the way, I wouldn’t FOR SURE go alone to [town A, Belgium].” (heyLU05)

The second pattern is learning something via mobility, which underlines the agentic perspective for young people. The learning process and the possibility of “doing something else” (rather than formal learning) increases in importance for the young people. An interviewee from Luxembourg said that they “wanted to do something different” before they came to Luxembourg; this type of sentiment - the wish to have new experiences, feel challenged and broaden one’s horizons - can be observed in most youth contexts. The same “wanting something different” as compared to Luxembourg was also evident in an interview of a young person leaving Luxembourg for Germany. Images of what one can achieve are engrained in the mobility experience. Before mobility becomes an end in itself, it becomes a means not only to gain professional or academic skills or employment but also simply to learn something new. New experiences are therefore framed as learning experiences.

I: “In terms of school, I felt that I had really learned in Romania and this gave me trust in myself and trust in Romania, but on the other hand I realised that what you learn in
another country is not only in school, but also the cultural side, which is much more important... and you see so many different points of view and that is why I said I want to spend some more time here, at least to learn more, to get to know these different cultures, to see what this is all about.”(enyRO03)

The third pattern is institutionalised work and education factors. Regional, national and cross-national enabling patterns reveal that not only contexts such as family, peers and networks function in enabling youth mobility. Peer and family relations are also interwoven with institutional forms, such as education and work. This is why youth mobility cannot take place separately from socially distinct regimes and manifestations of institutional forms (such as European labour regimes, school curricula, educational institutions, etc.). In this sense, the effects of the legal, institutional and organisational framework may be observed, as in the exemplary quote below, in which the country mentioned is Hungary:

I: “Y: The classrooms are so outdated I can’t imagine how the seminars take place... There was a lot of theoretical curriculum. The situation in Germany is the opposite. There were more seminars than theoretical knowledge. I learnt things that were not down-to-earth and I won’t use in life. There were no projectors, technical tools were not available in every classroom. Classrooms were not well-equipped. Where I was, there were multifunctional projectors, air-conditioning, drapers – everything was provided, you just had to grab your USB, we also had internet access, which was essential.” (heyHU19)

Organisational membership (and/or organisational support) is the core and crux of mobility and it constitutes the fourth mobility pattern. Organisational membership in some cases is a must for young people. What is also observed in the case of voluntary work is that, in some cases, young people who move in the name of an organisation or with the help of an organisation then discover that they must perform tasks that were beyond their job description. This is certainly discouraging and disappointing for young people and their future outlook.

I: “And you had said that he actually wanted to go out without an organisation but then he had to [find one]. How come?” Y: “I don’t know the details. But like, it’s about insurance and finances and such things. But they were organisational things, which would have become much more complicated if you had done it without a supporting organisation.” (vwyGE03)

Youth practices and patterns as the fifth pattern show that mobile young people associate their mobility experience with “going out”, meaning moving out of macro and meso structures. From a relational perspective, it is seen that within the age group examined (18 - 29), “doing youth” (experiencing youth) and developing coping strategies occur within their mobility experiences. Young mobiles mention the search for freedom, the wish to get out of the structures that bind them, the wish to find one’s own way and explore new ways of being; “going out” to them is a means of transition into adulthood, of taking care of oneself, of being and becoming independent.
I: “I actually did not expect to survive that long alone, but so far, I am doing well, I am alive, I did not lose weight, so it is nice (laughter) yes so far I think I will stay. I moved. I emancipated 3000 kilometres from my parents’ place. It is quite a big job. It makes me proud of myself; I actually could achieve that on my own. Therefore, for me it was a big experiment, I wanted to do that, I could do it, I did, and I have succeeded at some point.” (emyNO14)

The intention is to get out of the system within which they feel constrained. This demonstrates how youth associates mobility and leaving home with the wish to “break out”. Nevertheless, it is more a process of “moving in” than “moving out”; in becoming mobile, their experiences introduce them to bureaucratic structures and procedures, new everyday practices, societal norms and working practices. Youth mobility should not be viewed as a tool for breaking out, but rather as an initiation, an entry into societal contexts (education, work and family). Thus, the sixth pattern is a revolving door dilemma involving moving across geographical boundaries by social media and telecommunications that themselves are a hindrance to breaking away from family ties, friends, relations and less formal networks (in education and employment).

I: “So for me it was the first time that I really was separated by my family, (.) and my parents didn’t really get along with that at the beginning. So, they/ they/ they wanted to / they wanted a lot, umm, hear, more or less. (.) So / we agreed on: okay, talking on the phone once a week, skyping or something like that. And that (I: Mhm.) was even too much for me. I just real/ really wanted to be there. I wanted to concentrate myself on being there and not have that much connection to home.” (vwyGE03)

The responses given by youth to the difficult circumstances in which they find themselves are related to how they relate their agentic actions to their surroundings and the social conditions that surround them (Evans 2002, 2007). In this, some of our own categories were developed by analysing the qualitative interview results (adapt to the situation, reject the situation and challenge the key persons who are responsible, as indicated in MOVE Report D3.5 2017). Even when the situation is not ideal, young people feel the necessity and pressure to adapt to the conditions, to bear with them until the pre-established end of their mobility: otherwise, rejecting the situation, questioning processes or criticising procedures may lead to facing even greater difficulties, since doing so may lead to a premature return to the home country, with all the social and economic consequences this entails.

The patterns reflect the constellations of youth agency with regards to mobility. Learning through mobility, youth practices and the intention to get out of the system (the revolving door dilemma) have a lasting effect on young people’s mobility experiences and tendency to be mobile, or not. The system reimposes itself through institutionalised work and education, and the requirement of organisational membership to become mobile. Rigid structural organisations and incompatibilities – young people are exposed to may prevent agentic action from taking place.

At the meso level, we see peers as mobility incubators and support structures; conversely, they may act to impede full and satisfactory mobility experiences if there is the “compatriot peer effect” (Skrobanek, Pavlova, Ardic, forthcoming publication) where relations with peers from
the same country of origin prevent the mobile young from embracing the new culture, new relations, and new opportunities. Pupils travelling together as a group of compatriots (either through class mobility or as a compatriot peer group travelling with the same exchange organisation) tend to stick together with peers from their country of origin instead of building intercultural relations with non-compatriot peers in the destination country. Those who acknowledge this “compatriot peer effect” benefit more from the mobility experience compared to the ones who stick together with their compatriot peer group.

Existing systemic structural factors directly affect how young people change, transform and adapt to these outer limitations, which are somehow grander or more overbearing than their agentic actions. However, we cannot infer that agentic action is impossible, nor that young people lack the relationship aspect of agentic action, since there are external limits to their mobility trajectories. On the contrary, they are aware of the circumstances and act within relationships and within circumstances.

5.5 Concatenation of Mobilities

Within our interviews, in addition to the organisational fields indicated above, we also observed other patterns that became visible as a part of EU mobility programmes. One of the most important is related to the Erasmus+ programmes, which form a state of mind for young people, enabling and motivating them to be more mobile in the future. However, a direct link between Erasmus + and concatenation of mobilities does not always directly reveal itself. Most of the time, young people place themselves in an international environment, meet new people and, at the later stage in their mobility, arrange visits with each other, an element that occurred as a result of the interviews. Equally, with a fresh interest in a new foreign country developed through new acquaintances, young people then wish to visit this country, and one mobility leads to others, with shorter mobility patterns.

As observed in all the interviews and also in examining EU mobility policies, social inclusion is possible after a single mobility, while proven to increase the probability of gaining professional and/or academic skills and learning new languages. As Cuzzocrea asks: “circulation of mobility for young people ‘til when? Where does mobility stop?” However, another question comes to the minds of researchers and the public: For how long is this circulation going to continue for young people? Is it stabilising or destabilising? Whilst many young people are mobile for longer periods, adding one mobility after another to their experiences, for others non-mobility remains, with the financial, informational and educational barriers set out in this report.

Our interviews have also revealed mobility causing more mobility for those who live a mobile lifestyle, not only for reasons such as attraction to a labour market or finding jobs or increasing employability. Cultural enrichment is a part of this journey for young people. For example (from MOVE Report D3.4 2017, 236):

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19The final MOVE conference 08.03.2018, speech of Cuzzocrea.
“Y: Well, when I (.) went to high school, we also received exchange students. But it was only a few weeks long programme, not an educational programme. BUT I really liked it. Then we also went abroad to visit them, in the next year. It was also a few day’s long thing. BUT (.) then it (.) came up in me that I want to go abroad as well to see how is like. Well NOW (.)I decided to go abroad, because even at home (.), I don’t know the reason of it, but I REALLY SEARCH FOR (.) the companionship of foreign people. There’s that tandem programme. It’s that the exchange students who come to our country get a local partner, and in a certain level we are responsible for them. At the beginning I received a French girl. And I had to go to the airport for her, I had to take her to the town. I showed her the whole town.”
I: “Did you say mentor?”
Y: “Yes, I was a mentor. After it, we met a few times. And I REALLY liked it. (.) How they live, that ...and BECAUSE OF THIS I decided that I want to go abroad as well. “191 (heyHU14, l. 2-12)

Besides these short visits, young people also adopt a state of mind where internationalisation becomes a way of living (Nienaber, Vysotskaya, and Kmiotek-Meier 2017), a way to become independent. As such, they prefer mostly internationalised environments. If also supported by their families in their decisions, they are more certain of their mobility paths. Those who move constantly until they achieve social inclusion form part of a deeper and broader theme for discussion; for them, mobility is a necessity until they find their place (sometimes is considered as employment, or meaningful engagement with the social, cultural and economic life of the host country).

5.6 Gender Inequalities and Imbalances Regarding Mobility

Gender has been one of the important topics under MOVE. MOVE researchers acknowledge that women are not only dependents, and gendered mobilities still exist when considering mobility experiences. Many authors have written on the migration and mobility of females, depicting the feminisation of migration, meaning that the percentages of women who immigrate have become higher than the percentages of their emigrating male counterparts (Castles and Miller 1998), with women rather than men becoming first movers (Piper 2006); others have written on the transformative aspects of mobility on gender and the effects of
Gender roles on the decision become mobile (Morokvasic 1984; Ahl 2006; Kofman 2012; Green 2012; Grassi 2014).

Gender mainstreaming is largely neglected in mobility-related policies. Most mobility programmes do not have quotas to preserve a gender balance. Where there is a gender imbalance, some quotas might be required. Although one aim of EU mobility policies is to achieve social inclusion, the ways of attaining this goal must be well thought out, and policies aiming at social inclusion can then be designed.

Social inclusion defined within the Erasmus+ programmes, for instance, includes a very broad definition, as social inclusion via mobility, as well as enhancing the quality of mobility, has become an important aim (Cairns 2015). This broad definition (European Commission 2014, 6) encapsulates “disability, health problems, educational difficulties, cultural differences, economic obstacles, social obstacles, geographical obstacles”. On the other hand, quality of mobility involves learning via mobility in diverse and multicultural environments, which stimulates creativity, utilises the “free movement of knowledge”, ensures the efficient use of EU youth mobility programmes and benefits from these programmes with the fewest administrative burdens, making sure that young people have points of contact for obtaining information (Council Recommendation of 28 June 2011, 2011/C 199/01). In this report, we thus consider social inclusion regarding educational difficulties, economic obstacles, social obstacles, and geographical obstacles. Regarding gender, we have not found institutional discrimination. Nevertheless, some societal barriers and a lack of concern about the homogenisation of numbers in terms of how many men/women attend these programmes seem to escape the attentions of both policymakers and policy practitioners.

Regarding gender, we have found, firstly, that societal perceptions still overwhelm individual decisions to become mobile, such as those gender roles primarily set and perceived within society. Secondly, we have discovered that different mobility types have different institutional gender attributes: sectors might be male-dominated, for instance, an obstacle to social mobility for women within that specific sector. For instance, those working in journalism in a specific country might observe that the media and press are dominated by male workers, and might then choose to work in another country; not having access to social mobility in one country can be a reason to move to another country with more gender equality.

In relation to gender and entrepreneurship, we found mixed results regarding our interviews. Although in some cases, decisions to migrate and become mobile can put the work-life-career of a woman at risk, there are certain solidarities and networks developed within the country of destination with co-nationals and other international community members residing in the same place of destination. In some cases, women choose to negotiate with their partners, if the decision to stay in one place is primarily made by the male partner. On the other hand, in some interviews, we see cases where family life and entrepreneurship are two topics that are difficult to reconcile for women.

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20 See the policy recommendations at the end of the document for a full picture of the mobility related policy suggestions.
These results reveal that the context matters regarding gender, as well as the individual responses to dealing with the inequalities that emanate from everyday practices of gendered trajectories. As already observed, young people implement their own strategies for achieving agency even in these gendered settings.

5.7 Disabilities and Mobility: Social Inclusion via Mobility?

In 2010, the EU Commission adopted a new 2010-2020 disability strategy “to break down the barriers that prevent persons with disabilities from participating in society on an equal basis” (European Commission 2010). Even so, cross-border and international mobility is even more challenging to people with disabilities. “Social determinants of migrants’ health relate to factors that influence the migration process, reasons for migrating, and the mode of travel, length of stay and the migrants’ language skills, race, legal status” (Davies et al. 2009, 4). It is difficult for organisations to reach out to disabled young people wishing to become mobile. As a result, the mobility of people with disabilities remains invisible to scrutiny: “migration theory grows without the disabled person, disability studies without the migrant, and practice without the disabled migrant “(Pisani and Grech 2015, 421).

The MOVE research team aimed at direct outreach to people with disabilities, though it proved challenging to establish this connection through associations and formal contacts. However, this hardship demonstrates that more must be done in this realm, as the barriers to mobility for those with impairments may be greater. Nevertheless, within the qualitative results, MOVE conducted some interviews with people with impairments. The respondents revealed how “accessibility, participation, [and] equality” (European Commission 2010) need to be improved at every level for everyone.
Our Romanian team reached out to the ACTOR Association\textsuperscript{21} (who is also a member of the Romanian National Experts Committee), and they provided our consortium team with contact information for several potential respondents. They were all invited to participate in the study, but only one could be reached, and the interview was conducted via Skype. The Romanian division of the MOVE team summarises their results as such: one conclusion of the interview was that the lack of information and support for persons with disabilities during their mobility stage could jeopardise their health, and in the end could have negative impacts on how they experience the mobility program.

This interview is also related to the gender aspect; the person interviewed expressed the opinion that her sex is perceived as much less than that of the males:

"There was another colleague in Romania who was also disabled, in fact, they could not decide whether or not to approve him or me and they would ask to approve both, and it was how I was accepted. He stayed there until the end. Being a boy... you know how the boys are... no matter what, they resist better and want to finish (their jobs). But neither for him, the situation was pink, and he had to endure and endure, but I, besides receiving the negative answer, I had also health problems" (vwyRO17).

This interviewee’s background reveals that she did not finish her volunteering assignment (due to health issues and negative reactions from those in the environment abroad), while the boy referred to did finish, despite difficulties. She interestingly states that he is more determined “being a boy, he endures better”.

This interview is also important in demonstrating the effect of unequal conditions both in theory and from young people’s perspectives. “A young woman suffering from a physical disability had to deal with a lack of awareness and empathy regarding her special needs. Additionally, the contractual stipulations were entirely broken, resulting in the interruption of the mobility programme and the volunteer’s return home” (MOVE Report D3.4 2017, 292).

Regarding voluntary work, it was revealed that some young people had been in a questionable situation regarding their expectations of volunteering to help disabled people:

"The interview I had on Skype insisted a lot on the fact that I would be working with disabled people, that I had to develop some programmes for them, that it was going to be interactive and so on. In fact, when I arrived there, there was no contact with any disabled person, nothing of what was mentioned in the contract [...] and if you asked for something, they always found excuses." (vwyRO17)

These examples show that total autonomy given to those responsible for these volunteering organisations can sometimes be overwhelming; the mobile young people who volunteer face struggles regarding structural fallacies and constrictions.

\textsuperscript{21} The most responsive institutions were ACTOR (Asociația Culturală pentru Teatru și Origami din România (Cultural Association for Theatre and Origami in Romania) and ANPCDEFP (National Agency for Community Programmes in the field of Education and Professional Training).
Our third and final finding regarding people with disabilities and impairments is within the context of higher education mobility in Luxembourg (MOVE Report D3.4 2017, 143-4). In the context of Luxembourg outgoing higher education mobility, there is no database at the university or at CEDES (Centre for Economic and Statistical Documentation) regarding people with disabilities. Our researcher at the University of Luxembourg noticed that there is a possibility for people to avoid “mobility” if they are chronically ill (also sometimes, even if they have no illness or disabilities). However, the reasons why those with impairments use this as a strategy to avoid going abroad can be discussed and researched at another level. Last but not least, some organisations contacted in Luxembourg did not reply. Reasons to avoid being mobile might depend on the institutionalisation of mobility for disabled people or not knowing mobility conditions abroad for those needing more support than others. Consciousness regarding the mobility of the impaired should be drawn to the attention of policymakers and practitioners in each case.

6. Organisational, Legal and Institutional Mobility Frameworks and Good Practices

Analysing the different forms of mobility separate has been central to the MOVE project, which follows six mobility types – two in each of the six case study countries. The following section elaborates on the heterogeneous national conditions that frame these types in the selected countries. Legal institutions and organisational frameworks were evaluated with the aim of

22 Mobility in Luxembourg regarding higher education is a kind of forced mobility in that all higher education students are obliged to spend a semester abroad.
providing an up-to-date framework for the six mobility types in the six respective countries in the case study, thus delineating the conditions under which a particular mobility type is realised in a given country. These frameworks thus support an understanding of the interplay and influence of legal and socio-economic conditions for youth mobility in the case study countries.

6.1 Framework conditions at the EU Level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Framework Condition</th>
<th>EU Level</th>
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</table>
| Student mobility for higher education    | • The **Bologna Process**, launched with the 1999 Bologna Declaration, defines the **European Higher Education Area (EHEA)** and is currently implemented in 48 countries. Main goals include increasing staff and student mobility and facilitating employability.\(^\text{23}\)  
  • Higher educational mobility is well-established among EU-programmes fostering youth mobility: 33% of all ERASMUS+ funds for 2014 to 2020 are planned for higher education (DAAD 2017).  
  • The most well-known policy tool is promoting credit mobility – enabling short stays (of 3 to 12 months) at another university.  
  • Participants are offered scholarships and joint Masters’ and PhD support at higher education institutions (HEI) globally.  
  • The Erasmus+ Master Degree Loan, offering loans to students, is new, with few participating countries thus far (only Spain, France, the UK and Turkey offer the loan for outgoing students; and only Luxembourg and Cyprus participate for incoming students). |
| International Volunteering              | • Regulation No. 375/2014 established the European Voluntary Humanitarian Aid Corps, which aims to provide “opportunities for volunteers to jointly contribute to humanitarian aid operations” and “reinforcing active European citizenship,” by |

- The European Solidarity Corps, which replaces the European Voluntary Service from 2018, combines volunteering, building on the European Voluntary Service, and occupational activities, offering job, traineeship and apprenticeship opportunities.  
- The EU aims to encourage young people to participate in volunteering activities. According to the Flash Eurobarometer survey published in 2015, 25% of EU young people (from 15 to 30) were involved in voluntary activities. But this figure varies among the member states.

### Employment mobility
- The European Employment Committee recommends the implementation of the Youth Guarantee programme (whereby young people are offered quality employment, continued education, apprenticeship or traineeship within 4 months of becoming unemployed or leaving formal education).
- The European network of public employment services aims to connect national public employment services (PES). EURES (European Employment Services - the European Job Mobility Portal) aims to facilitate the free movement of workers. National PES, trade unions and private employment organisations cooperate to offer a network of advisors.
- The main tool to promote employment and social inclusion within the EU is the European Social Fund (ESF).

### Vocational Education and Training (VET)
- With participation rates of 3.1% according to the European Commission (2017b, 7), vocational education and training (VET) represents one of the least common mobility fields. As such, the EU 2020 target aims to increase mobility within VET to at least 6%.
- VET mobility is confronted with a broad range of institutional and structural obstacles, with national VET systems differing greatly. The largest divide is between school-based programmes (e.g. Spain and France) and dual system programmes (e.g. Austria and Germany). Within the dual system – combining work and school –, the mobility periods have to fit into these rotational sessions and thus are often shorter. In contrast,

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school-based systems incorporate an internship at the end of schooling, although going abroad can be costly.

- The European Credit System for Vocational Education and Training (ECVET) aims to harmonise the various national VET systems.
- ERASMUS+ offers VET students funding possibilities.

| Pupil’s exchange | Every EU member state is responsible for the content and organisation of its education and training system.  
|                  | Exchanges may be organised by schools, governments, intergovernmental organisations, NGOs, associations, and also by travel agencies or other commercial organisations.  
|                  | Opportunities to go abroad during school differ widely across EU countries, with the relevant EU legislation not yet implemented universally school enrolment procedures may vary and accreditation processes may differ.  
|                  | EU initiatives aim to increase the mobility of pupils and teachers and to develop school partnerships across the EU (from 2014 to 2020, through Erasmus+, previously known as Comenius, under the Socrates programme) |

| Entrepreneurship | The European Commission’s 2020 Entrepreneurship Action Plan aims to ease the creation of new businesses and support existing entrepreneurs better by improving the environment and removing administrative barriers.  
|                  | Erasmus+ for entrepreneurs supports mobility in this field and enables exchanges with experienced entrepreneurs from other countries.  
|                  | The Mobilities project for professionals and qualified employees of Micro, Small, and Medium Enterprises (MobiliseSME) aims to establish a European mobility scheme for MSME-employees. |

6.2 Framework conditions on country level

6.2.1 Germany

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Framework conditions</th>
<th>Germany</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General</td>
<td>Since youth mobility occurs largely within regular education, most mobility is embedded in the respective educational sectors and organisations.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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29 Erasmus for Young Entrepreneurs, [https://www.erasmus-entrepreneurs.eu](https://www.erasmus-entrepreneurs.eu) last access on 16 April 2018.
Germany is seen as a European forerunner regarding VET youth mobility, with over 4% VET mobility, according to the BMBF educational report (2015, 144). Germany is aiming for 10% - whereas the Lisbon strategy for 2020 (European Council and European Commission 2012) only aims at a 6% VET mobility rate in EU countries.

- The popularity of youth mobility depends on the mobility type (with VET mobility still less common, for example) and the socio-economic background is still decisive.
- Mobility for employment purposes is largely regulated by European law (through the free movement of workers), while the legislation framing mobility for volunteering purposes differs depending on the programme; for example, the nationally funded International Youth Voluntary Service is based on German law, whilst EVS as Erasmus+ funded mobility is based on EU law.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vocational Education and Training (VET)</th>
<th>The German VET system has a longstanding tradition characterised by standardised procedures, a tight syllabus and controlled learning content under cooperative regulation by the state and economic sector.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The dual system serves as a role model in Europe and worldwide.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VET mobilities are largely dominated by organised group mobilities (of 4 weeks on average) within the tight syllabus of the German VET system. Individual mobilities are the exception.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1/3 of VET mobility is considered as “hidden mobility”, organised by companies or private organisations, and therefore difficult to measure.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VET mobility is facilitated by a nationwide network, Berufsbildung ohne Grenzen (“Training Without Borders”) that is unique in Europe.31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>International volunteering</th>
<th>Volunteering in Germany is highly organised (with expense allowances, insurance, pension accrual, etc.).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The German Youth Voluntary Services based on German law, includes national programmes such as the Bundesfreiwilligendienst (“Federal Voluntary Service”), a Voluntary Social Year and a Voluntary Ecological Year.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>International volunteering is promoted by the national Weltwärts (“Towards the World”) programme and by the European Voluntary Service at an EU level.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

31 Please see Berufsbildung ohne Grenzen [http://www.berufsbildung-ohne-grenzen.de/] lastt access on 16 April 2018.
### 6.2.2 Hungary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Framework conditions</th>
<th>Hungary</th>
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</table>
| **General**          | • Migration among young Hungarians increased significantly from 2003 to 2013, especially during the economic crisis that affected skilled young people, whose difficulties in finding employment, decrease in real wages and reforms in higher education were all factors that boosted the potential to emigrate.  
  • To reduce the negative effects of brain-drain, the state has developed tight policies to restrict mobility: students with state scholarships must sign a contract in which they agree to be employed in Hungary for twice as long as the duration of the degree in the 20 years following graduation. |
| **Pupils’ exchange** | • In Hungary, administrative and legal obstacles are still considered important by the youth to be able to take part in a mobility programme. Long term mobility is particularly crucial, as it affects the legal status of the person in the home institution, because of governmental regulations.  
  • The accreditation of subjects has been identified as a legal obstacle: it is not granted or supported by exchange pupil organisations. Solving this problem is left to the pupils themselves. To avoid repeating a school year, Hungarian pupils take part in short-term mobility programmes or take an additional exam during summer. |
| **Higher Education** | • Although the number of Hungarian students studying abroad is growing steadily, it still lags behind the average growth rate of students studying abroad.²²  
  • Besides Erasmus+, other international programmes include Campus Mundi³³ and the Central European Exchange Programme for University Studies (CEEPUS).  
  • Programmes at a national level: Stipendium Hungaricum is a scholarship programme launched in 2013 by the Hungarian government as part of the “opening towards East and South” |

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³³ The Tempus Public Foundation launched a programme called Campus Mundi, what supports the students with outstanding academic profile to go abroad, not only to the EU, but to the rest of the world too. This project is important because the majority of the university students can implement mobility activity only with the support of Erasmus+ programme. The Campus Mundi offers another opportunity and can provide more options to go abroad. It is a special programme for the Hungarian students.
foreign policy; incoming students are supported with visa fees, housing allowances and paid training costs.

- The Tempus Foundation\textsuperscript{34} is the supervisory organisation for educational institutions, managing all mobility programmes at the national level.
- The Hungarian Education Governmental Decree was amended in the autumn of 2015, and a so-called ‘mobility window’ established in the curriculum. Starting with the 2019/2020 academic year, mobility conditions (amount of credits, duration etc.) shall be determined by the universities.

6.2.3 Luxembourg

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Framework conditions</th>
<th>Luxembourg</th>
</tr>
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</table>
| General              | • Mobility in Luxembourg is characterised by the high number of non-Luxembourgish workers (70% are immigrants or cross-border workers\textsuperscript{35}), as well as cross-border commuters and a high number of outgoing students.  
• The secondary and tertiary education system in Luxembourg includes stays abroad in their curriculum.  
• VET cooperation with the neighbouring countries takes different forms. In Luxembourg, a legal framework governs the apprenticeship of an apprentice who completes his schooling abroad. Each year, 40-50 cross-border training contracts are signed in Luxembourg. For example, the Trier and Luxembourg Chambers of Crafts signed an agreement to support cross-border apprenticeship training.\textsuperscript{36} |
| Employment           | • Foreign labour forms the majority of the labour market in Luxembourg. EU nationals and other nationals together form more than half of the salaried workers.  
• The Luxembourgish job market offers twice as many jobs as the national active population, and thus the excess job openings must be filled by outside job seekers. At the same time, the number of posts held by cross-border employees residing in one of the neighbouring countries (Germany, |

\textsuperscript{34} Please see www.tka.hu accessed on 16 April 2018. This webpage gives information on mobility programs regarding Hungary.  
\textsuperscript{35} For a job market overview, see http://www.luxembourg.public.lu/en/travailler/marche-emploi/index.html, last access on 16 April 2018.  
\textsuperscript{36} http://www.grossregion.net/Buerger/Berufsbildung/Grenzueberschreitende-Berufsbildung/Berufliche-Erstausbildung last access on 16 April 2018.
Belgium and France) has been increasing steadily since 1985.\textsuperscript{37}

- Luxembourg’s labour market is known for its international and multicultural working environment, its exceptional amount of foreign and multilingual workers and the predominance of the service sector (especially the financial sector).

### Higher Education

- National and institutional levels overlap in Luxembourg, as the country has only one public university and one information centre in charge of outgoing degree mobility.
- Luxembourg’s first public university was founded in 2003 and therefore the situation differs from other EU countries. Before 2003, Luxembourgish youth had to study abroad to obtain a university degree.
- The Luxembourg outgoing mobility quota (for both degree and credit mobility) is over 95%.
- The University of Luxembourg introduced an obligatory stay abroad for undergraduate students.
- 76% of all outbound mobility from Luxembourg was financially supported by the Erasmus+ programme.
- The allocation of student allowances has been changed several times since 2000, with the result that cross-border workers and their children, no longer eligible for these scholarships, were adversely affected. Then, due to the EU Law of 19 July 2013, the law had to be amended. Nowadays, students can receive 2000 EUR per year, instead of 6500 EUR, which previously was the amount for all students. However, students can receive additional financial support for studying abroad (up to 2000 EUR) and socially disadvantaged youth can receive up to 3000 EUR additionally.

### 6.2.4 Norway

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Framework conditions</th>
<th>Norway</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- The Norwegian government has a strong political will to participate in most European networks and frameworks (such as the Bologna process).</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Norwegian national regulations have gradually been replaced by European standards.</td>
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• The internationalisation of education has a high political priority in the country, with strong political support for youth and staff mobility at all levels of education.
• Norway also participates in the Nordplus programme, financed by the Nordic Council of Ministers, which provides financial support “in the area of lifelong learning” in the Nordic and Baltic region\(^38\).

**Employment**

• In 1992, Norway signed the European Economic Area agreement, thus becoming more closely linked with the EU, including in the field of employment.
• Since the enlargement of the EU in 2004, Norway has attracted labour migrants from new EU member states; becoming the Nordic country attracting the most mobile workers.
• Since trade unions have a powerful influence in Norway, they have reached agreements with employers’ federations to strengthen labour market regulation over the last few years through collective agreements in order to guarantee the rights of employees (mobile or non-mobile) and to combat social dumping.\(^39\)
• The recent economic slowdown in Norway has been accompanied by gradually rising unemployment rates. At the same time, a decline in labour immigration, primarily from the EU member states, has been observed.

**Pupil’s exchange**

• In Norway a clear policy exists that allows pupils to spend a year abroad. There is a range of regulations on granting education support in the Norwegian legal system and national, regional and local agencies provide legislative information.
• The stay abroad is mostly financed through the State Educational Loan Fund (Lånekassen). Financial support from this loan alone usually does not cover all costs; exchanges through private organisations in particular can be very costly.
• The popularity of pupil mobility among young Norwegians varies across Norwegian municipalities. One reason may be that the unequal distribution of information regarding mobility opportunities; also, pupils in rural areas may experience reluctance by school administrations to welcome

\(^{38}\) Nordic and Baltic educational cooperation starts with Nordplus! Available at http://www.nordplussonline.org/ last access on 16 April 2018.

exchange organisations, through fear of losing students.
• Pupils can go abroad either through an exchange organisation or under the framework of a cooperation programme between schools or municipalities in host and sending countries. Other possibilities to go abroad do exist, but are rare. The selected exchange organisation or programme defines where the pupils can go, based on cooperation and funding agreements.

6.2.5 Romania

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Framework conditions</th>
<th>Romania</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General</td>
<td>• Although Romania became an EU member in 2007, the free movement of workers was partly restricted by some existing member states (Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Luxembourg, Malta, Netherlands, Spain, and the United Kingdom) as they feared the impact on the labour market. A seven-year transition period was implemented, until end of 2013, with these restrictions fully lifted on 1 January 2014.(^{40}) • In order to enter the EU, large changes in national legislation have taken place, to adjust them to EU law (including in immigration and the Bologna reform in the field of higher education). • Concerning migration flows, Romania tends to occupy a dual position as the country sending most workers to the existing Member States and as the country receiving most workers mostly from Asia and former Soviet Union. • Labour mobility is the most common mobility type for Romanian youth. Various bilateral agreements have been established (such as for seasonal workers in Germany and Spain or for the trainee exchanges in France and Switzerland).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entrepreneurship</td>
<td>• In Romania, the number of people intending to start a business has increased; while entrepreneurship is not a major mobility type, it is becoming more attractive for youth. • The Romanian Strategy supporting the Development of SME’s (Small and medium enterprises) aims to encourage entrepreneurial spirit and to sustain SMEs. The priorities are to improve the legal framework, to promote vocational</td>
</tr>
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\(^{40}\) For more information on the temporary restrictions to limit the free movement of workers see the article by Dhéret and Ghimis (2016:4). During the 2004 EU enlargement, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Slovakia and Slovenia were also subject to restrictions; Cyprus and Malta were excluded. At that time, Ireland, Sweden and the UK did not implement the restrictions.
education and entrepreneurial culture, to facilitate the access to finance, to stimulate R&D activities and to encourage public-private partnerships.

- The Ministry of Business Environment, Commerce and Entrepreneurship is the National Contact Point for the EU COSME programme (Europe’s programme for small and medium sized enterprises), which encourages entrepreneurship by supporting projects such as Start-up Nation Romania (encouraging female entrepreneurship) and Romanian HUB.
- The Romanian Chamber of Industry and Commerce supports cooperation among Romanian and foreign enterprises (e.g. in cooperation with the Chamber of Commerce in Italy and the Netherlands).
- Erasmus for Entrepreneurs is one of the main Programmes in Romania to encourage youth entrepreneur mobility.
- The Young Entrepreneurs Association from Romania (YEAR) providing consultancy and offering training, is the only employer organisation in Romania that represents the interests of Romanian young entrepreneurs at a national level.\(^{41}\)

| International volunteering | • Law 78/2014,\(^{42}\) replacing that of 2001, updates the legislation on volunteering to comply with EU standards. The key topics reflect the official recognition of volunteering and its importance within society in promoting the values of active citizenship and social responsibility, with an official volunteering certificate with unique identification elements now being issued.
• Various Romanian ministries are involved in the voluntary sector (Ministry of National Education, the Ministry of Environment, The Ministry of Labour and Social Justice, the Ministry of Health and the Ministry of Youth and Sports). The National Agency for Community Programmes in the Field of Education and Vocational Training (ANPCDEFP) is responsible for youth exchanges.
• Pro Vobis was founded in 1992 as a social service provider. Pro Vobis has added new activities over the years, and has |

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\(^{41}\) YEAR – Young Entrepreneurs Association from Romania, available at [https://jeune-europe.org/romania/](https://jeune-europe.org/romania/) last access on 16 April 2018.

\(^{42}\) Law no 78/2014 on the Regulation of Volunteering Activity in Romania, published in the Official Monitor of Romania, Part I, No. 469 of 26 June 2014.
been known since 2010 as The National Volunteering Resource Centre. The Romanian Federation of Organisations supporting the development of the voluntary sector (VOLUM Federation), founded in 2010, is a full member of the European Volunteer Centre. With around 80 members (NGOs), its main mission is to create the volunteer infrastructure and to influence public policy decisions.

### 6.2.6 Spain

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Framework conditions</th>
<th>Spain</th>
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</table>
| **General**          | • Due to the economic crisis, 2009 marked the first year of recession, after 15 years of above average growth. Before 2009, Spain was characterised by high immigration rates, with public discourse focusing on the integration of immigrants. This changed in 2008, with the high youth unemployment rate (39.5% in July 2017 according to EPA 2017). As such, employment related youth mobility increased, while mobility related to tertiary education decreased, due to financial difficulties.  
• At the national level, the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sport (MECD) centralises the information related to student mobility (school, university, vocational training) and provides statistical data.  
• The Spanish Service for the Internationalisation of Education (SEPIE) coordinates Erasmus+ funds in the field of education and training and the Institute of Youth (INJUVE). |
| **Vocational Education and Training (VET)** | • With the VET mobility rate ranking at 2% in Spain, it is remains much lower than the other mobility fields.  
• Dual VET remains marginal, with VET students generally completing school-based training alone, which finishes with a mandatory 3-month “practice period”, usually involving mobility. Apprentices are required to organise their stay individually. Difficulties include insufficient staff support from the trainee school and the financial burden (insufficiency of Erasmus+ funding).  
• Legislative changes have been made to transform the system into a dual VET with stronger connections to companies. |

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44 http://federatiavolum.ro/ last access on 16 April 2018.
| Entrepreneurship | • Entrepreneurial activities are heavily localised in a few geographic areas with business incubators, such as Barcelona, Madrid, or Valencia.
• The role of mobility organisations in supporting entrepreneurship mobility is still minor, and often unknown by young people.
• With regard to entrepreneurship mobility, the experience often occurs outside a specific mobility programme, as the stay abroad is often initially unrelated to entrepreneurship. As such, young people mainly seek funding possibilities in the hosting country.
• The EU’s Erasmus+ programme for entrepreneurs was evaluated by Spanish participants as very useful and as a good way to learn business know-how.
• The last big change occurred in 2013, with Law 14/2013\textsuperscript{45} to support entrepreneurs and internationalisation. This legislation aims to support international investments for creating business in Spain. |

7. Identification of Good Practices for Youth Mobility

While good practices may mean that they are “good” within that specific context, this does not mean they are always transferable. What do good practices consist of?

“Best and good practices are structured information (ranging from analytical reports to narratives) about successful experiences in local contexts, concerning issues generally acknowledged as relevant, evaluated according to a set of criteria. They aim to spread knowledge and information and are selected, codified, diffused and used in many ways depending on the institutional, economic, cultural and political situations.” (Vettoretto 2009, 1069).

The identification of good practices forms an inclusive part of the MOVE qualitative research and has been explored on different levels in interviews as well as via desk research. An inductive approach was adopted in interviews both with youth and with experts, to look at the interviewee’s reflections on what works (and what does not) in youth mobility. While a selection of good practices is provided per mobility type in this section, the following issues need to be taken into account when discussing good practices.

Good practices must be contextualised: they have proved successful when embedded in a certain mobility type and national context. However, their adaptability to other countries and types must take account of and adapt to the new context, which in turn will affect the success thereof.

As the interviews have shown, individual assessments of mobility practices and programmes are multi-levelled and involve positive and negative aspects. As such, the good practices
presented should not be seen as “easy answers” but as food of thought for further quality development.

These good practices are divided into the six mobility types and follow the country logic suggested in the research design (in the methodology section, above). While some involve a group of member states or are active at an EU level, good practices are mostly national, prioritised and verbalised in particular by consortium members who have been responsible for research on their respective case studies.

7.1 Good Practices in Higher Education: Hungary and Luxembourg

- Stipendium Hungaricum is a Scholarship Programme launched by the Hungarian government. Incoming students studying at the Bachelor, Master and PhD level have equal opportunities for obtaining a scholarship that provides a visa and housing allowance, and also covers training costs.46

- The Tempus Foundation is a supervisory organisation for educational institutions that manages all mobility programmes at a national level - a one-stopshop organisation where Erasmus, CEEPUS and other scholarships are administratively handled. Higher educational institutions are connected to the European Commission via Tempus Foundation. This organisation also provides students with information on mobility opportunities, lowering administrative burdens, and they also mentor foreign students.47

- In Luxembourg, ACEL (Association des Cercles d’Étudiants Luxembourgeois, ASBL) is a semi-professional umbrella network open to all Luxembourgish students in many European cities. On the one hand, students get practical information regarding academic life and living conditions in the respective city. On the other hand, since ACEL has a connection to Luxemburgish politicians, the network may be seen as a career booster.48

- Mobility dating is an informal event organised by the SEVE Mobility Team of the University of Luxembourg to help students organizing their semester abroad to meet other students who have already studied abroad and those who are coming from other

46 For more information please see: Stipendium Hungaricum Scholarship Programme http://studyinhungary.hu/study-in-hungary/menu/stipendium-hungaricum-scholarship-programme last access on 20 April 2018.
48 Luxembourgish student portal retrieved from https://acel.lu last access on 20 April 2018.
countries for their exchange period at the University of Luxembourg. In this way, previously mobile students can share their experiences.49

7.2 Good Practices in Volunteering: Romania and Germany

- The European Volunteer Inclusion Programme (EuroVIP) project was co-funded by the Erasmus+ programme under the Key Action50 2 (KA) Strategic Partnership. This programme aims to enhance the skills and competences of young adults (17 to 30 years old), 180 young people from France, Germany, Romania and the UK. This programme helps them define their professional pathway and receive personalised support in line with Portfolio for volunteering experiences.51
- For Social Volunteering (SoVol) capacity building in the social sector through the Development of Volunteer Programmes at Social Institutions in the Central Eastern European region is the main aim in the area of volunteering. They collaborate with local institutions and focus on tailor-made voluntary strategies and various trainings when needed. The project aims to prepare a practical methodology for social institutions on how to involve volunteers effectively into their institution.52
- In Germany, kulturweit is the International Cultural Volunteer Service of the German Commission for UNESCO, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation, offering young people (18-26) a primary place of residence in Germany and the opportunity to spend six or twelve months in a foreign culture and education. All volunteers are financially supported, and provided seminars.53
- Weltwärts was established in 2008 by the German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development (BMZ). The programme concentrates on intercultural learning and gives young people (18 to 28) the opportunity to take part in development projects. So far, more than 34,000 young people have taken part from Germany, and, since 2013, it is also possible for young people from the partner countries to volunteer in Germany. Around 1,400 had taken part in volunteering in Germany by the end of 2017.54

49 Mobility dating for future exchange students retrieved from https://wwwen.uni.lu/international/a_la_une/mobility_dating_for_future_exchange_students last access on 20 April 2018.
50 "Key Actions (also referred to as Actions) is the collective name for activities and projects that can be funded under Erasmus+" retrieved from https://www.erasmusplus.org.uk/what-are-the-key-actions last access on 20 April 2018. There are three key actions: 1) mobility 2) cooperation for innovation and exchange of good practices 3) support for policy reform.
51 European Volunteer inclusion programme retrieved from http://www.eurovip-erasmusplus.eu last access on 20 April 2018.
52 Social Volunteering retrieved from http://www.provbis.ro/sovolen/ last access on 20 April 2018.
53 Kulturweit involve retrieved from https://www.kulturweit.de/en last access on 20 April 2018.
54 An overview of Weltwärts retrieved from https://www.weltwaerts.de/en/ last access on 20 April 2018.
7.3 Good Practices in Employment: Norway and Luxembourg

- **Framtidsfylket** is a cooperation project between companies and the Sogn og Fjordane governance body. Established as a website in 2008, it is designed to advertise the country as an attractive place for young educated people. In 2010, it became a company, owned by 25 private companies. Economic support for arranging job fairs in the major cities comes from the national governance body. This annual job fair is a good arena for young educated people to make contact with companies.\(^{55}\)

- In Luxembourg, the **LuxInnovation**\(^{56}\) Trusted Partner for Business provides a portal for information on establishing business and investing in Luxembourg. This initiative is subdivided into four main clusters: automobility, bio-health, creative industries and eco-innovation. This webpage also gives information on how to get funding and accelerate one’s business.

- **anelo.lu** is an online portal directly addressing young people, supporting them in their transition to work. The website is in Luxemburgish, French and German and offers advice and information regarding job applications, job interviews and the different job opportunities.\(^{57}\)

- On a pan-European level, **EURAXESS** supports the mobility of researchers. EURAXESS has more than 500 service centres helping researchers in 40 European countries.\(^{58}\) In Luxembourg, for instance, the EURAXESS service centre is situated at the University of Luxembourg. In order to appeal to the greatest audience of researchers and job applicants, all information is provided in English. EURAXESS collaborates with the private sector in order to attract more researchers and to announce more jobs related to private sector for researchers. Their brochures give information on how to find jobs, housing and other related important preparations for living and working in Luxembourg.

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\(^{55}\) Annual job fair and many other career opportunities in Norway retrieved from [https://www.framtidsfylket.no](https://www.framtidsfylket.no) last access on 24 April 2018.

\(^{56}\) Luxinnovation retrieved from [https://www.luxinnovation.lu/](https://www.luxinnovation.lu/) last access on 20 April 2018.

\(^{57}\) Mobility related information retrieved from [https://www.anelo.lu/?q=de](https://www.anelo.lu/?q=de) last access on 25 April 2018.

\(^{58}\) Useful information about euraxess retrieved from [https://euraxess.ec.europa.eu/useful-information/about-euraxess](https://euraxess.ec.europa.eu/useful-information/about-euraxess) last access on 26 April 2018.
7.4 Good Practices in Vocational Education and Training: Germany and Spain

- In Germany, *Berufsbildung ohne Grenzen (Training without borders)* is a nationwide inter-departmental advice network promoted by the Federal Ministry for Economic Affairs and Energy. The professional advisors are associated with courts and VET schools, for instance, and provide support to apprentices, training companies and teachers. They advertise the Erasmus+ programme and acquire participants, help with application issues and even sometimes accompany VET students as contact persons on site during the mobility. They design customised, effective group mobilities (with VET mobility arranged for a group) that fit into the tight syllabus of the German VET system. Thus, the design of this network lowers access barriers, promotes sustainability as well as quality development through professional exchange, and provides a nationwide support in the area of VET mobility.\(^59\)

- **MobiPro-EU**: This programme, funded by the German federal government, was designed to tackle two goals: 1) the youth unemployment in Europe 2) the skills shortage in Germany. It offers apprenticeship opportunities in Germany for young people from other EU countries. Thus, the programme promotes the harmonisation of different labour markets in Europe. It may serve as an example for other European countries looking for ways to overcome a skills shortage.\(^60\)

- **IdA – Integration durch Austausch** (“Integration through Exchange“): this ESF-funded initiative offers assisted transnational traineeships to young Germans with difficulties entering the training market. The mobilities are designed for 2-6 months, including a pre-operational period as well as follow-up activities in Germany. As such, the programme tackles unequal access and reduces the burdens for disadvantaged youth in going abroad. This an ongoing project, with similar projects being implemented in other EU countries as a result of a transnational learning network named “TLN mobility”, a partnership between 11 Member States and regions in Europe.\(^61\)

- The *Mobility Scoreboard* database is a tool for assisting policy making through monitoring of the progress made by European countries in promoting and removing obstacles to learning mobility. It was established following the 2011 Youth on the Move


\(^{60}\) Skills shortage refers to the cases where the skills sought for a specific sector of the labour market cannot met by the national labour force; Job of My life website retrieved from [http://www.thejobofmylife.de/en/home.html](http://www.thejobofmylife.de/en/home.html), last access on 20 April 2018.

\(^{61}\) TLN Mobility, addressing the youth unemployment in Europe retrieved from [http://www.esf.de/portal/EN/Funding-period-2014-2020/TLN-Mobility/content.html](http://www.esf.de/portal/EN/Funding-period-2014-2020/TLN-Mobility/content.html) last access on 26 April 2018.
Recommendation of the EU Council. The database provides detailed country information on IVET learner mobility conditions in Europe, analysing weaknesses and shortcomings, identifying good practices and suggesting reforms. This scoreboard addresses ten key action areas: information and guidance on opportunities, motivating learners for mobility, preparing learners for mobility, removing obstacles to mobility, portability of grants and loans, ensuring mobility quality, recognition of learning outcomes, support to disadvantaged learners, partnerships and funding, and involving multipliers.\textsuperscript{62}

- **ERASMOBILITY (KA 2 PROJECT 2016-1-ES01-KA202-24973)** is a free online platform where vocational training centres, vocational training consortia and teachers help each other to find work placements in European countries. **ERASMOBILITY** is a meeting point, a tool to facilitate meetings amongst vocational training centres throughout Europe that are seeking to organise exchange practices. With 500 vocational training centres in the platform, the philosophy of **ERASMOBILITY** follows the principle of reciprocity, fostering the exchange of learners between vocational training centres to enable mobility. All vocational training centres have access to a wide variety of local companies, allowing the centres to select the companies that best suit and understand students from other EU countries. It offers students the opportunity to share experiences through workshops or formative activities with students doing the same training in the selected country. For companies, **ERASMOBILITY** helps to reduce the bureaucracy workload.\textsuperscript{63}

### 7.5 Good Practices in Pupil’s Exchange: Hungary and Norway

- Hungarian bilingual high school pupils have an education involving a language other than Hungarian; short-term trips and exchanges (from three weeks to one month long) are included within the curriculum, mostly organised to countries where the national language is the same as the foreign language learn in school. In some cases, when the institution has connections with partner schools, pupils often participate in these programmes several times during their high school years. The curriculum of these bilingual schools motivates pupils to become mobile and thus, after graduation, it is easier to study or work in a country where they have learnt the language.


• The Norwegian State Educational Scheme (Lånekassen)\textsuperscript{64} and Norwegian legislation (Lovdata) play important roles: a clear policy enables pupils in the upper secondary school, particularly in their second year, to go abroad and receive a loan/scholarship to do so. Support is given to pupil exchanges organised by exchange programmes between schools or approved exchange organisations. Within this framework, the Norwegian Centre for International Cooperation in Education (SIU) is responsible for the approval of exchange organisations.\textsuperscript{65}

• The Nordic Agreement on Co-operation on Upper Secondary School Education is another good practice programme, granting recognition of any period of secondary school undertaken by a pupil from Norway, Sweden, Denmark or Iceland in one of those countries\textsuperscript{66}. Through this agreement, the Nordplus Junior programme was established, addressing the Nordic and Baltic region. Nordplus Junior encourages mobility for classes or pupils in elementary schools and in youth training programmes, mobility for individual pupils, kindergarten teachers and other pre-school educators and for primary and secondary school teachers, and networking and development projects. Nordplus Junior supports activities within the areas of mobility, projects and networks. The programme promotes individual pupil and class exchanges that enable multiple groups of classes from at least two participating Nordplus countries to work together. These exchanges can range from one week (five working days and two travel days) to three weeks (Nordplus Handbook 2018:19). Such mobility opportunities offered at a young age can lead to beneficial experiences for all pupils (despite the economic situation of the family or other exclusionary factors) and schools; schools in rural areas also can benefit from internationalisation/mobility despite geographical, demographic or economic factors.\textsuperscript{67}

7.6 Good Practices in Entrepreneurship: Spain and Romania

• Hispanic Startups are good practice programmes for entrepreneurship, designed for young Hispanic entrepreneurs working mainly in the technological sector in Berlin, but

\textsuperscript{64} The Norwegian State Educational Scheme retrieved from https://www.lanekassen.no/Languages/ last accessed on 26\textsuperscript{th} of April 2018.

\textsuperscript{65} Norwegian centre for international cooperation on education https://eeagrants.org/Partnerships/Donor-programme-partners/Norwegian-Centre-for-International-Cooperation-in-Education-SIU last accessed on 25th of April 2018.


\textsuperscript{67} Nordic and Baltic Educational cooperation starts with Nordplus retrieved from http://www.nordplusonline.org last accessed on 26\textsuperscript{th} of April 2018.
interested persons from other Spanish speaking countries can also participate. This is a good practice because it is implemented by the embassies, and thus anyone can easily access details of the programme through the embassy. Any country with an expatriate population can create these networks.68

- ONCE Foundation Entrepreneurship Helps (POISES) is a good practice because it is designed for people with impairments (equal to or higher than 30%). This programme provides employed or unemployed people with financial help for social enterprises. Grants vary between Spanish regions, with individual grants varying based on applicants’ socio-occupational situation, cooperation with other people with disability and the sectors that are growing69.

- The European Enterprise Promotion Awards reward was established in 2014 by the European Commission’s DG GROWTH. It rewards those who promote entrepreneurship and small businesses at national, regional and local level. All EU countries and Iceland, Serbia, and Turkey can take part. This project has four objectives: identifying and recognising successful activities, showcasing examples of best entrepreneurship policies and practices, creating a greater awareness of the role entrepreneurs play in society and encouraging and inspiring potential entrepreneurs.70 This initiative is important on a national level, in Romania, for instance, where entrepreneurship is still less developed. This project is an example of good practice because it encourages and inspires potential entrepreneurs and opens up an opportunity for disseminating the best entrepreneurship policies and practices.

- MobiliseSME is another good EU programme supported by the Employment and Social Innovation (EaSI) programme, implemented between 2016 to 2017. With this program, employees from Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises (MSMEs) are able to gain knowledge about markets, technologies, methods and products of similar industries in other EU countries, as well as improve their language skills. Participants became more aware of the added value of a European Single Market and of the underlying European vision, resulting in increased competitiveness among participating companies. This project is an example of good practice because it opens up new business opportunities to foreign partners in sub-contracting, imports/exports, distribution, market awareness and joint ventures.71

Good practices in youth mobility are a central part of MOVE final public report. In this section we have underlined the good practices which have emerged as a result of our fieldwork, interviews with young people, and also as a result of desk-based research on the legal, institutional and organisational framework. The next section will detail the policy recommendations of the MOVE project.

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69 Information available in Spanish at https://fse.cepes.es last accessed on 24th of April 2018.
71 For more information, see: http://mobilisesme.eu/index.php/en/home/ last accessed on 23rd of April 2018.
8. Policy Recommendations

8.1 General Recommendations at an EU level

The EU’s post-2020 Multiannual Financial Framework (2021-2027) is currently still under discussion. The recommendations at an EU level aim to primarily address the European Commission, including the various Directorate Generals (including for Budgeting, Education, Youth, Sport and Culture and Employment, Social Affairs and Inclusion). The MOVE consortium supports the idea that the European Commission should increase the budget for Erasmus+ in the new financial period (COM 2018 98:8). Nevertheless, the focus should remain on improving the quality of the mobility programmes, not only the quantity.

As such, MOVE suggests improving cooperation between different EU funds, especially between Erasmus+ and the European Social Fund, since the ESF promotes employment and social inclusion.

These policy suggestions are for policy-makers at the local, national and international level and young people who aspire to become mobile. These suggestions can also be adopted by those who implement youth mobility policies.
Another suggestion is to **increase funding options for 15- to 17 year olds** where future higher educational opportunities still exist for younger people, and to increase mobility options for those without plans to study at university. As research has shown, the chances are higher that young people will become mobile again after their first mobility experience. Besides students, young people need to become more aware of mobility opportunities. The different mobility programmes should **better advocate the possibilities** via youth ambassadors and campaigns on social media channels (via youth to youth vlogs and blogs). The experiences of young mobile people should be shared on a wider level and youth agencies should especially support experienced and mobile young people becoming involved in presenting their mobility experience to other young people (online and during events).

A **new remuneration formula to calculate scholarship amounts**\(^{74}\) should take into account a more differentiated perspective **regarding the socio-economic situation of individual applicants** and considering **differing regional inequalities**. Young people from different EU member states do not have the same start in life; **child allowances differ greatly** within member states, for example. When discussing a new formula for Erasmus+, these differences should also be considered.

To **address young people with disadvantages** and a lower socio-economic background, mobility programmes need to be better promoted in their respective environments (youth centres, training schools, etc.). **During the application process, they should receive support** so that this process will no longer be perceived as an obstacle. Young people who have already participated in the programmes could support themselves; otherwise, the respective national agencies should offer special advice sessions to address vulnerable youth.

The language barrier is also a major obstacle; the fear associated with this should be reduced by **lowering the level of pre-existing language skills as a selection criterion**, and instead offering intensive language courses at the beginning of the stay abroad.

Since the different programmes reveal diverse gender ratios, it would be important to promote gender equality, especially in programmes with a gender imbalance (for example, promote volunteering among men and promote entrepreneurship among women). Initially, obstacles to gender equality must be identified in more detail; mentoring and special sub-programmes should then be introduced to be able to achieve a more gender equality.

Besides barriers to youth mobility being especially high for young people with disabilities, their particular situation needs to be taken into account, and thus better supported, both before and during their stay.

Additionally, mobility often takes place privately, such as by accepting a job offer in a different country, as global firms in particular tend to recruit more on an international level. As such, it

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73 These are insights from the Final MOVE conference on 07.03.2018.
74 This recommendation would be for the EU Commission, national ministries of higher education and also for associations and foundations that provide students with funding for studying abroad.
may be helpful to foster private-public partnerships and to include the private sector in the funding of mobility programmes (especially for VET and employment), as they have a vested interest in fostering mobility.

Despite the controversial debate around the term “brain drain”, our macro analysis (WP2) results confirm that the phenomenon persists in the context of European youth mobility. We found asymmetric patterns of human capital movements across different EU countries. This leads to the following recommendations:

- Separate strategies are needed: support should be adapted to the needs of specific country types (e.g. fostering incoming mobility and return mobility for promoter countries). Equal financial support for every situation regardless of the socio-economic context is counter-productive, exacerbating inequalities.

- Furthermore, promoter countries can be supported by increasing student exchanges as well as students’ access to education programmes abroad (through financial aid, better information, increased cooperation with higher education institutions and enhancing diploma recognition) and by returnee programmes.

- Providing labour market integration upon return is a prerequisite to tackling the brain drain.

- “Mobility faller countries” would benefit from financial compensation for their disproportional investment in human capital, creating mobility flows.

8.2 Recommendations Regarding the Different Mobility Types

Based on the macro analysis, the interviews and the survey, MOVE confirms that Erasmus+ is a successful instrument to increase youth mobility as it offers different mobility opportunities. However, at the individual and country levels, the experience is evaluated differently. For one thing, awareness of the programme varies and the six mobility types are perceived differently, especially by the respective countries of origin and the chosen hosting countries. As such, specific recommendations are given regarding the six mobility types examined within the MOVE project.

8.2.1 Higher Education

The Erasmus+ programme for higher education is until now the most popular mobility programme, with the EU spending most of its educational budget on Erasmus+ higher education. The programme has existed since 1987; due to the Bologna process, recognition of ECTS from abroad has become easier. To date, the programme has made it possible for over three million European students to spend an exchange semester at another higher education institution (i.e. credit mobility). The European Commission states that studying abroad “has been shown to have a positive effect on later job prospects. It is also a chance to improve
language skills, gain self-confidence and independence and immerse yourself in a new culture” (European Commission).  

- **MOVE** notes that there are differences in knowledge of foreign languages between students from different EU countries. As such, MOVE suggests that young students with insufficient foreign languages skills should be offered intensive language courses in advance by the sending organisation in order to minimise the greatest barrier to mobility. Online Linguistic Support (OLS) is a good tool, but intensive language courses before mobility could help more as (inter-)cultural competencies are taught more in a face-to-face setting than online.

- **Offering university courses in English to attract foreign students**: Universities that offer English courses are more attractive for international students, as English is by far the most widely spoken foreign language in the EU (Eurostat 2015). These courses could be especially important for countries that are not yet that attractive as hosting universities and where only a small minority of foreigners know their language (such as Hungary in our case study).

- **Providing equal opportunities by adjusting financial instruments**: the MOVE analyses reveal that young mobile people who have financed their stay abroad with Erasmus+ funds alone are less satisfied with the programme due to their financial uncertainty. Most respondents additionally financed their stay with private support (from family or individual funds). To be able to reach students with a disadvantaged socioeconomic background, the financial support should be either adjusted to their personal economic situation, or the possibility of obtaining a student loan should be simplified. As such, the new Erasmus+ possibility for students to obtain a loan to pursue their Master’s degree abroad is one option. However, more countries should participate. So far, only Spain, France, the UK and Turkey offer the loan for outgoing students, and only Luxembourg and Cyprus participate in the new scheme for incoming students. Conversely, these loans make the students even more indebted in the long term, and thus loan repayments must also be made easier, without implying excessive future burdens for young people.

- **The European Higher Education Area (EHEA) needs to be fully implemented**, since national curricula still differ to some extent, and students in our study reported problems with credits from another university being recognised.

- Another difficulty for some students is combining different schedules, as the start dates of semester are not coherent and enrolment periods differ. As such, the best way would be to standardise the organisation of the academic year. Otherwise, the hosting and sending universities need to acknowledge these differences.

- Non-national mobile young people often experience more difficulties obtaining access to national funding programmes than local students (e.g. in Norway). It should be made easier for foreign students who are full-degree students to access national funding mechanisms.

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75 Erasmus+ Opportunities for Individuals, last access on 25 April 2018 https://ec.europa.eu/programmes/erasmus-plus/opportunities/overview_en
8.2.2 Volunteering

Voluntary activity (especially long-term voluntary service) gives youth a special opportunity, since participants are able to acquire detailed information about the new country through work experiences, and personal development. Voluntary work promotes the value of active citizenship and social responsibility. Due to the international connections created, the experience often increases the wish to become mobile again (MOVE Report D5.2, 32).

• Voluntary activities supported by Erasmus+ also offer the option of going abroad beyond Europe, but many young people are not aware of it. These options must therefore be better advocated via youth ambassadors and campaigns on social media channels.

• Especially for long-term voluntary activities, the experience depends highly on the hosting organisation. Therefore, continuous monitoring of the participating organisations (whether on the EU or national level), as well as offering advice and pedagogical support to volunteers within their service, is important for young people, so that the experience will be evaluated positively. Monitoring is also necessary for volunteers not to be exploited as a “cheap labour force”, with those organisations not fulfilling the requirements being placed under stricter control and more easily excluded.

• As the new European Solidarity Corps programme is still being discussed, it is confusing for young people currently interested in taking part in a voluntary activity. Young people should be informed about the new programme on different media channels, and the transition should be clear and precise. As the European Solidarity Corps also offers the option of volunteering in the country of residency, this should also be pointed out. This offers potential in countries where volunteering is unpopular in society and for young people who initially may not want to go abroad; after their volunteering experience, they might be more interested. Therefore, this new programme should be widely promoted and should offer easy access and simple registration procedures.

8.2.3 Employment

Regarding employment, participants in the MOVE case studies decided mainly to search individually for a job abroad without taking part in any special funding programmes. However, Erasmus+ does support traineeships abroad. This support is available for higher education students and recent graduates, as well as vocational education and training students, apprentices and recent graduates (COM 2018b), but many young people are unaware of this.

• The main difficulty for young people after graduation from university is entering the labour market and securing a preliminary work contract. As such, young people should be supported in this process, and existing programmes (including the Erasmus+ traineeship programme) should be better promoted.

• The MOVE survey showed that non-mobiles would consider being mobile to improve their working conditions as much as the mobile young people improved theirs. Currently
unemployed non-mobiles should be encouraged to apply for jobs abroad (i.e. the EURES service needs to be better disseminated among young people).

- **Digitalisation of the job application processes** would make it easier for people to apply for jobs in another country. As this is already common in the business sector – especially in international companies – good practices could be taken from them to fully digitalise the application process in other areas. Offering interviews via Skype or other providers makes the process easier for applicants from other countries.
- Another important need is closer cooperation among employment agencies, employers, educational institutions and youth centres.

### 8.2.4 Vocational Education and Training

Erasmus+ supports young people currently enrolled in vocational education and training (VET) by offering financial support for work placements or study periods abroad. It is also available for company-based apprentices and recent VET graduates. If traineeships last more than 19 days, language training is offered by the Online Linguistic Support (OLS).

- Improve the European Credit system for Vocational Education and Training (ECVET) further to reduce VET differences and adopt good practices from other countries: VET completion does not always give young people the opportunity to go abroad. On the EU-level, the ECVET should ensure that young people can include a short-term stay abroad in their VET and a unified certificate issued by companies should be introduced. The administrative burden should also be reduced.
- **Reduce language barriers**: language barriers are often higher where the education level differs (e.g. no tertiary education), and vocabularies often depend on the VET area. As such, OLS access should be made available earlier, so that young people can improve their language skills beforehand. Professional foreign language learning should be offered in schools, and national institutions responsible for VET could compile specific vocabulary lists.
- In order to increase the mobility of apprentices, there is a need to promote mobility among young people, companies, training institutions and teachers via different channels.
- **Increase cooperation with organisations** that organise VET exchanges by offering free services to young people and publicising their events in training schools and companies.
- Support the set-up of agreements between companies from different member states to make exchanges more accessible and to recognise trainee programmes in both countries. A public body (on EU or national level) to monitor working conditions should be included.
- **Create an online exchange platform** where mobility-experienced peers (role models) can inform youth interested in mobility or encourage mobility participation.
- The Erasmus+ funding is often insufficient; payments may even be delayed until return home: payment must be received earlier and funding must be better adapted to the actual costs.
8.2.5 Pupil’s Exchange

Erasmus+ supports youth exchanges of up to 21 days. Longer pupil’s mobility is not directly supported by Erasmus+ and is more challenging, due to rising institutional barriers; in some countries, long mobility affects the legal status of the pupil in their home institution. To spend one high school year abroad is popular in some EU member states; exchanges organised by private organisations prove expensive, thus depending on parents’ financial abilities and highly selective.

• For most pupils, the exchange is their first mobility experience. Studies show that a high school exchange can foster openness towards future mobility, and thus schools should be encouraged to participate in Erasmus+ short-term exchange programmes, with schools from twin cities, for instance.

• The non-academic curricula during the exchange should include didactic measures and should be assisted by educators as well as intercultural trainers. During such activities, young people become familiar with new cultures, traditions, and languages. If participants perceive these activities as successful, their interest in future mobilities is fostered from an early age.

• Reduce the bureaucratic burden for school teachers: Erasmus+ proves a complicated bureaucratic procedure for previously uninvolved teachers; the application process should be simplified for such short-term school exchanges.

• Pupil’s mobility is often costly, and pupils with a lower socio-economic status have difficulties affording it. MOVE therefore suggests diversifying the funding scheme based on social-economic status by offering disadvantaged pupils more opportunities to increase their future options from an early age.

• To take part in long-term exchange programmes, pupils are often dependent on the financial abilities of their parents. An exchange is often organised by private organisations (such as AIFS, the American Institute for Foreign Study, or EF, Education First). MOVE suggests adding a new programme to offer long-term school exchanges at the EU level either under Erasmus+ or within other funding schemes. Here, the approval of curricula and the recognition of grades are important.

8.2.6 Entrepreneurship

“Erasmus for Young Entrepreneurs” is an international exchange programme which gives new or aspiring entrepreneurs the chance to learn from experienced entrepreneurs running small businesses in other Participating Countries” (COM 2018c).76

• Erasmus for Young Entrepreneurs is not well known; this programme should be better promoted among young people.

76 Erasmus for Young Entrepreneurs Programme last access on 25 April 2018
• **Reduce the bureaucratic hurdles for foreign nationals** (especially EU residents) who are interested in starting a business in a foreign country, by offering special services (such as information in English and advisors helping throughout the process).

• **Better promote other EU programmes** that help young entrepreneurs (such as COSME).

• **Create an EU-wide start-up platform** offering a better exchange between entrepreneurs.

• **An EU-wide crowd-funding platform could be established**, making it easier for **small-scale creative projects** to access funding. Until now, the most well-known platforms have originated in the United States, but the creation of an EU platform could be beneficial, making it easier to promote business from the outset across the entire EU market.

• **Offering a sub-programme directly addressing women** to enhance their entrepreneurial skills, as they are still underrepresented. The programme should offer support structures, especially addressing women with children.

• **Within the EU member states**, there are focal variances in the procedure of setting up a business. In particular, **small start-ups should be supported** and the **bureaucratic burden minimised**.

• **Offering more multi-language training** (also online MOOCs – Massive Open Online Courses77) on how to become a successful entrepreneur, making entrepreneurship more attractive for young people who do not have the necessary business experience.

9. Conclusion and Outlook for the Future

The MOVE project aims to study how can the mobility of young people be “good” both for socio-economic development and for the individual development of young people, and what factors foster or hinder this beneficial mobility. By analysing youth mobility with regard to six mobility types, and with regard to the length of the stay abroad, MOVE contributed to the research field on youth mobility, since this has not previously been done to this extent. The project, analysing the patterns of young people’s mobility at different levels and from various perspectives, adopted a multi-level analysis. The macro-data analyses provided research results on overall European mobility flows with a specific focus on project’s participating countries and their characteristics as mobility utiliser, mobility promoter, mobility faller and mobility beneficiaries. The combination of qualitative interviews and surveys has provided deeper insights into the backgrounds and experiences of individuals, their engagement with their environment, their social capital and chains of subsequent mobilities. Quantitative and qualitative results analysed in mixed methods design demonstrate that mobility can benefit young people. However, not everyone can become mobile and not every young person is devoid of barriers regarding macro, meso and micro contexts. These contexts are all interrelated and influence young people’s decisions: country characteristics, legal, institutional and organisational frameworks, cultural, familial and other social ties as well as the agentic behaviour and individual characteristics of the young people.

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77 Massive Open Online Courses are online courses offering open access via the internet, usually free of charge.
MOVE research revealed that obtaining accurate and reliable information is the first way to become mobile, with search engines, friends and teachers often being primary information sources. Employment-related online channels are also important for youth mobility, but they should be advertised better and integrated into national institutions related to finding employment. Peers and family members may be supporters of mobility, both psychologically and financially before and during the mobility period. However, they might also prevent youth from gaining new experiences. 91.3% of MOVE interviewees stated that it was their decision to become mobile in the first place (MOVE Report D4.7 2017, 12). As such, it is the individuals themselves that make the decision to become mobile.

The report focusses – amongst others – on the legal, institutional and organisational framework of the countries under investigation – Hungary, Germany, Luxembourg, Norway, Romania and Spain – by examining specific mobility types (higher education, volunteering, employment, vocational education and training, pupils’ exchange and entrepreneurship) that seem to be prominent examples within each country, and examining them as mobility couples by comparison of one mobility type between two countries. Thereafter, examples of good practices regarding the different mobility types are showing the diversity of possibilities to enhance the quality of youth mobility and to decrease barriers leading then to policy recommendations.

Since national settings and conditions differ, further policy actions need to take into account the different conditions. Student mobility within higher education is more common than mobility in the framework of VET. Regarding pupil’s mobility - especially favoured in Norway - the six countries showed different results. As such, institutional barriers need to be minimised. Regarding employment and entrepreneurship, the survey showed that young people mostly become mobile individually, without any particular programme support. These outcomes illustrate the importance of differentiating between youth mobility types.

MOVE included cross-country analysis, but broader analysis between even more countries is the subject of future research and investigation. Cross-country and cross-mobility research would be valuable where more countries and more mobility types are covered. Alternatively, all six mobility types within these six (or more) countries could be analysed, in addition to the mobility couples studied in-depth in our project. Another idea for research would be follow-up studies investigating which conditions change in the lives of young people five, ten or fifteen years after mobility – do these young people keep mobility as a lifestyle, or do they settle down when they feel socially included within the country where the first, second or third mobility was experienced? How many mobilities are needed (or wanted) before a young person settles?

Statistics and data sets on youth mobility on when young mobile people leave and return home should also be improved on EU, national and even regional or local level. This type of data is scarce across all European countries and could greatly complement and facilitate future research on youth mobility in Europe. However, this is difficult to achieve, since some young people stay registered in their home country during their mobility, and national statistics offices are less interested in recording outgoing mobility.
Future research on mobility and youth should focus more on the hidden barriers to mobility. There should be an increased number of research projects focusing on the importance of social inclusion of young mobile people, youth mobility policies and enhancing solidarity within the EU. Which youth policies can be enhanced with gender equality and gender mainstreaming? What kind of mobility from EU programmes is most efficient, and can serve as the topic of a new research project? What can the EU learn from mobility programmes outside those promoted only by the EU? Hence, an in-depth study on creative mobilities would give more ideas to the relevant policymakers. Future interesting research themes are also:

- Which type of mobilities lead to a brain drain more than others and which types lead more to circular mobility or the concatenation of mobilities?
- When do the conditions within which circular mobility takes place come to an end and when does settlement start for a young person?
- How can young people with more disadvantaged backgrounds be reached to become mobile?
- How can rural places be made more attractive as host destinations?

During its conferences, the MOVE project attracted the attention of diverse organisations and representations that are active in the field of youth mobility and interested in the project results. To ensure the sustainability of MOVE after the end of the project, several initiatives are planned: the MOVE consortium plans to establish cooperation with Eurodesk in Germany (a member of the policy advisory board of the MOVE project) to link the two websites. In addition, common and individual publications will be published by the MOVE project, including the forthcoming common publication of *Migration Letters*, which includes all consortium institutions within six articles submitted and accepted by this journal, one of the leading journals in migration and mobility field.
References


MOVE Report D3.4. 2017. *Six internal reports from the countries with the focus on two types of mobility*.


