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MOVE

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

The first MOVE policy brief focuses on recommendations drawn out of the secondary macro analysis on European youth mobility as well as on fostering and hindering factors for youth mobility revealed by the qualitative case studies of different mobility types.

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INTRODUCTION

MOVE studies youth mobility in Europe via a multi-methods approach, looking at how to improve the conditions of mobility and how to reduce negative impacts. The main research questions are: How can mobility be good both for the socio-economic and individual development of young people? What are the factors that foster/hinder such beneficial mobility?

This first policy brief is based on selected results from the secondary macro-data analysis and on first insights from the case study analysis. In regard of the macro data analysis, two major problems are tackled; firstly, the overall insufficient data availability; and secondly, the unequal benefits of mobility for member states due to regional and country specific differences. The qualitative analysis sheds light on the great variety in the young people’s scopes and needs in the context of very different mobility fields. Especially the question of supportive and hindering factors towards an individually satisfying mobility experience will be focused in this policy brief.

Our analyses hint to the fact that more differentiated responses of mobility programmes to the respective economic situations of member states (with respect to the quantitative findings of the secondary data analysis) and to different individual needs and scopes of young people (with respect to
the qualitative findings) are needed. Since the insights of both research approaches will be connected later within the life of the project, the findings and recommendations in the following are presented separately. A comprehensive connection of all results will be the topic of a second Policy Brief.

**Evidence and Analysis**

The following is based on selected results that have emerged until today from the project. Currently, theorisations based on the analyses are ongoing and will deepen the understanding of youth mobility and the factors influencing it. The understandings from the qualitative analyses, triangulated with those from the macro-data analysis and the quantitative survey will then provide the starting point for the next Policy Brief.

1. **Quality and availability of youth mobility macro data for Europe**

To analyse European youth mobility on a macro level, a secondary analysis for all EU28/EFTA countries for the past decade (2004-2013) was conducted. The analysis was based on a unique set of compiled macro-data and accompanying results answering the MOVE research question with the focus on the relationship between socio-economic macro factors and European youth mobility.

The research revealed a massive lack of reliable and accessible youth mobility data in the partner countries and overall Europe:

- Open access migration data deriving from Eurostat is only available for the total population; no data for youth migration is available open access via Eurostat, although such data are regularly requested by EU member states.
- The only accessible mobility data are that for students’ mobility but this only refers to a well-educated sub-group of European youth and excludes other types of mobility that are driven by economic constraints and difficulties. Also, the available students’ mobility data is comparably old (upon March 2016, latest available data was for 2012).

Thus, in order to provide a unique database, an overall scientific use file (MOVE-SUF) was created on European youth mobility using aggregated data deriving from different European datasets (“European Labor Force Survey” [EU-LFS] yearly files, related socio-economic indicators from Eurostat and OECD). However, when working with the EU-LFS files, numerous challenges had to be faced:

- missing data,
- limited reliability for some countries,
- difficult and lengthy access process via Eurostat, and
- the lack of a reliable outgoing youth mobility indicator. The included finished outgoing/returning indicator has only limited explanatory power. Comparable outgoing youth mobility indicators with the same quality as the incoming-mobility indicators would have enriched the quality of the output.

2. **Centre-periphery model**

As a first step to detecting country patterns for European youth mobility, cluster analyses were conducted. Considering rationalities on an individual level, the centre-periphery model (Wallerstein) could be confirmed using socio-economic macro-indicators. The analyses revealed two main clusters (Fig. 1): 1) centre-receiving countries and 2) periphery-sending countries plus Luxembourg.
and Norway in a third cluster as outliers. The clusters are in accordance with the social and economic development of the included states (Fig.1) and are stable over time (2005-2013); except Spain which, due to the economic crisis, changed from the centre to the periphery. Furthermore, the socio-economic differences between the clusters decreased during the observed period, which means that the included states became more homogenous in general. However, the comparison of the mobility indicators for both clusters reveals that centre-receiving countries have higher incoming youth mobility ratios and the difference to the periphery is growing during the observed period, especially for the long-term immigration, reflecting the better living conditions in the centre-receiving countries and the brain drain issue. Centre-receiving countries have also higher ratios of incoming students; whereas this difference is getting smaller over time. The results corroborate the country clusters on the basis of economic, social, and state-related macro-indicators with the depicted macro-data on youth mobility within Europe. All in all, by different forms of increasing mobility flows, it can be seen that the EU as well as their member states facilitate a real freedom of movement and enable a free choice of residence within the common economic area.

Fig.1: Country clusters

3. Mobility macro typology for EU/EFTA countries

The macro-results revealed that only some European countries benefit from long-term incoming mobility leading to higher economic value creation; whereas others lose human capital, especially when highly qualified youth move abroad (“brain drain”). Additionally, national economies profit from returning young people who gained competences abroad. However, the before presented one-dimensional centre-periphery-model does not cover the full complexity of the phenomenon. Thus, a country typology focusing on the mobility-based creation and exploitation of human capital was developed as a surplus, capturing the ambivalent character of European youth mobility and its complexity. In contrast to the centre-periphery model (based on individual rationalities), the typology is focused on collective rationalities of national states on two dimensions:
• mobility episodes which mainly deploy or exploit human capital of youth through long-term incoming youth mobility, outgoing students’ mobility or returning youth mobility, and
• mobility episodes that to a vast extent create human capital in the hosting countries (but not using it) in form of short-term incoming youth mobility or incoming students’ mobility. These forms of mobility are beneficial mainly for the young peoples’ countries of origin.

A combination of both dimensions resulted in a unique typology of country patterns. It indicates whether, and to what extent a country is supposed to benefit from youth mobility flows in Europe. Therefore, each country was rated on two dimensions as being either more or less human capital creating and as either more or less human capital deploying or exploiting (see Tab.1 & Fig.2). The typology was based on descriptive analyses of aggregated youth mobility macro-indicators included in the MOVE-SUF: 1) general youth mobility ratios (short-term incoming, outgoing/returning) and 2) students’ mobility ratios (incoming, outgoing). To capture more recent developments (e.g. economic crisis), the four panel-table is based on data from 2009-2012/13 only. All EU/EFTA countries were allocated to one of the four types, depending on the median scores of each included mobility indicator. In case of a changing median over time, more recent values were decisive. Despite, still some countries could not be allocated to one type unambiguously or showed a changing characteristic towards a different type (e.g. Spain, Slovakia, Bulgaria, Portugal).

Mobility promoters: The countries of this subgroup, mainly from Eastern Europe, show a low rate of both, human capital creation by hosting foreign short-term mobile youth and human capital deployment or exploitation by sending youth for long-term studying abroad. If young people from these countries go abroad they do so because they would not find a favourable economic situation in their home country. Those countries are at risk to face a continuous brain drain.

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 episodes. Thus, these countries (e.g. the Netherlands and Belgium) spend more resources for the education of foreign students but do not appropriately profit from the created human capital. Seen from a national economic perspective, this type is worse off among all four country types: An ongoing development could possibly lead into a continuous downturn.

Mobility beneficiaries: Countries of this type are less involved in creating human capital by hosting foreign short-term mobile youth, but rather deploying long-term mobility and education from other countries with high rates of returning and outgoing students’ mobility. Thus, those countries benefit most from youth mobility flows within Europe. For some of the cases in this pad, e.g. Spain and Greece, it can be stated that they used to benefit but more and more tend to move to the mobility fallers nowadays, which is due to a visible decrease in long-term incoming mobility over the last years.

Mobility utilisers: For these countries (e.g. Germany and Norway), a balanced proportion of long-term incoming and short-term incoming youth, as well as a comparable high ratio of in- and outgoing students’ mobility and returning mobility, is characteristic. Most of the countries belong to the prospering central-receiving cluster and to some extent they simply utilise youth mobility for human capital deployment and exploitation. However, they also contribute to human capital creation for other countries, having also received high levels of short-term incoming youth including students’ mobility.

The country typology, proves that a one-dimensional perspective along the opposite poles of periphery and centre is insufficient for depicting the complexity of efforts and outcomes of youth mobility in the EU.

The allocation of the countries can be seen as a consequence of the financial and economic crisis. Against this backdrop, human capital created by youth mobility can be interpreted as a collective good which is created, deployed, and exploited economically by the respective EU member states in a very unequal way.
4. **Influencing factors and actors: first qualitative findings**

The following sections are based on the first findings from the qualitative research conducted in MOVE (WP3).

The qualitative study comprises the analyses of six different types of mobility (student mobility, cross-border volunteering, employment mobility, mobility in vocational training, pupil’s exchange and entrepreneurship mobility), based on qualitative interviews with young mobile people and experts from the six participating countries (Germany, Hungary, Luxembourg, Norway, Romania, Spain). Each mobility type has been subject to a sound tandem analysis of two partners from two countries. Thus, the results are closely linked to the respective national contexts of the selected countries.

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**Tab.1: Mobility typology of EU/EFTA-countries**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Typology of country patterns on youth mobility</th>
<th>Human capital creating by attracting short-term incoming/incoming student mobility</th>
<th>Less</th>
<th>More</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Human capital deploying or exploiting by attracting long-term youth mobility or having a high ratio of returning mobility and/or outgoing students’ mobility (using human capital from other EU-countries)</td>
<td><strong>Mobility Promoter</strong>&lt;br&gt;Poland, Romania, Slovenia, Finland, Bulgaria*, Slovakia*, Hungary, Malta, Italy*</td>
<td>Less</td>
<td>Mobility Faller&lt;br&gt;Czech Republic, Netherlands, Belgium, Sweden*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More <strong>Mobility Beneficiaries</strong>&lt;br&gt;Latvia, France*, Estonia, Greece*, Spain*, Portugal*, Croatia</td>
<td>More Mobility Utiliser&lt;br&gt;Ireland, Norway, Germany, Cyprus, Denmark, UK, Luxembourg, Austria</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indefinite countries due to lacking data: Lithuania, Iceland, Switzerland</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*The assignment of the country is not unambiguous; the country shows also characteristics of the neighbouring types.*

**Fig.2: Mobility typology of EU/EFTA-countries**

![Mobility typology of EU/EFTA-countries](image-url)
Higher education mobility student mobility

For researching student mobility within the frame of higher education, Luxembourg and Hungary were selected. Both countries are strongly contrasting: While Luxembourg has almost 100% of outgoing student mobility (degree and credit mobility together), in Hungary, the number of mobile students is much lower than 20%, and has one of the lowest rates within the EU. Furthermore, in Luxembourg all undergraduates of the University of Luxembourg have to spend a semester abroad. Thus, the bilateral agreements (mostly ERASMUS+) are numerous and the stay abroad is organized on a routinized basis, while in Hungary it is much more individualized. In Luxembourg, studying abroad is seen as tradition (due to late foundation of the country’s first public university). In Hungary, however, student mobility has become more and more a “social obligation” for those from higher socio-economic backgrounds.

From the Luxembourgish case, we learn how institutional support and pre-established structures facilitate student mobility and the initial transition period: e.g. bilateral agreements, information or student services offices, administrative support – including competent university staff, but also established networks abroad. Further important supportive factors are linguistic skills, leading to language confidence in regard to mobility, emphasised by students from both countries.

Both for Luxembourg and Hungary, permanent relationships (social networks, including family ties) can be identified on the one hand as a positive factor for mobility, as they provide emotional as well as instrumental support. We also find in the Luxembourgish data that personal networks foster mobility and good mobility experiences when friends have the possibility to go abroad together, or if they have the possibility to connect to the networks abroad (strong and spread Luxembourgish student associations in many European locations with a university). On the other hand, tight social ties at home can be an obstructive factor of mobility, as they hold young people back home. However, technological development offers various communication channels which eases the move abroad and its obstructive effect by enabling continuous communication throughout the stay abroad.

A hindering factor in regard of mobility experiences is the lacking of financial support as the Erasmus+ scholarship is very seldom enough to cover the stay abroad entirely. Furthermore, in regard of degree mobility, the process of recognizing foreign diplomas on the labour market within the EHEA has not been finalized yet and the issue of knowledge transfer from abroad is problematic, as diploma (or exams) from abroad are not always equally recognised in the home country as the domestic ones (or they require additional training / courses).

Voluntary work mobility

Voluntary work mobility was analysed for Germany and Romania. The two countries were chosen on the basis of dissimilar historic, economic and cultural aspects with regard to voluntary mobility. While Germany has a well-established, institutionalised national scheme for youth volunteering, Romania introduced the practice of voluntary services after the fall of communism and voluntary work mobility is still being shaped by national organisations, NGOs and media for promoting it among nationals.

The German case analysis shows that young people are more familiar with the specifics of this mobility which safeguards them from unexpected events and allows them to be better informed for their own mobility. To some young Romanians, this is usually the first mobility programme of this type, and since this mobility type has been evolving only recently, young people have fewer personal connections to people who were or are involved in it. Case analysis shows that several young Romanian volunteers felt encouraged after the first experience to engage in further volunteering activities, also in countries further afield, including challenging conditions.

One of the particularities of voluntary work mobility lies in the rationale of why young people choose it. To some young people, it results from a wish to take a break from former and formal contexts, and from an interest in new experiences, in exploring a new environment, and from a
professional motivation. To others, both in Germany and Romania, this mobility allows young people to prepare to make a gradual transition from school to work, or from school to further studies as it allows them to gain some time in preparing the next steps.

This mobility type contributes to self-reflection and impacts on a social and personal level. The results of the analysis point at another particularity of voluntary work mobility among young people, i.e. its benefits of enriching and diversifying the views on the complexity of the world young people are surrounded by, developing a wish to become altruistic and desire to contribute with their work.

The case studies analysed show that for voluntary work mobility personal networks are a strong fostering factor to popularise voluntary work mobility. For the Romanian case studies, the European Voluntary Service provided an effective framework for both outgoing and incoming mobility. Both, in Germany and Romania, cohorts of young people become engaged in voluntary service abroad following others’ examples, and the risk of being (geographically) detached from the peers is seen as a pull factor to become engaged in the same activity abroad. Peers also provide exchange, guidance and support throughout voluntary work mobility.

Low financial support and lack of financing are strong hindering factors for voluntary work mobility. Results indicate that young people need to be aware of where to get funding, have to know the financing landscape in the field. In order to allow to realise mobility, they need to know various organisations that could provide an appropriate financing structure, look for sponsors from their personal networks, ask for support from the family or rely on personal savings.

**Employment mobility**

The two selected countries for employment related mobility were Norway and Luxembourg. Both countries have similarities (multilingualism, strong economies) but also differences (Norway is not part of the EU; Luxembourg has a very high share of commuters, and immigrants making part of the labour force). We researched mostly incoming mobility to the two countries which entails “coming for a concrete job” and “coming to search for a job”. While those who come for a concrete job have the requested language capacity this is not always the case in those who come and search for a job and often need to improve their language capacities first in order to become employed.

Similar to previous findings within migration research, the socio-economic situation in the home and host country play a major role. Limited opportunities on the labour market and low salaries are main driving forces to leave one’s country. For some young people – especially in the Luxembourgish case – the multi-lingual environment is an attractor, and working in Luxembourg is also seen from the mobile young as an attractor to develop one’s skills to increase the personal competitiveness internationally. In the Norwegian case, young mobile often name the positive image of the Scandinavian life style in comparison to the country the young mobile come from or in comparison to other European countries. This seems to have an impact on young people’s decision to be mobile and to choose the destination country. Norwegian nature, life style, social conditions in the country, culture and work opportunities are the main reasons mentioned by the young mobile in refer to their decision to move to Norway.

The awareness of cultural differences entails personal development and changes within the social relationships. For Luxembourg, however, it became also evident that some young people also critically describe their personal networks and life in the receiving country as a life in bubbles, be it between Luxembourgish and the emigrants, or between the different national groups due to the high share of foreign employees and workers.

Unlike other mobility types, employment mobility is individual. The young people in our sample do not seek for support from organizations, or companies; nor are they aware of employment mobility programs within the EU. As a result, the lack of information and awareness about employment mobility programs, particularly among young workers could be seen as hindrances to mobility as people can only count on personal resources. That is why personal networks are essential to young
working people in overcoming bureaucratic barriers and in supporting, both financially and emo-
tionally young people throughout employment mobility.

We also identified experiences of unequal treatment at the intersection of “being young” and “being 
a job starter” while accessing positions in the labour market with regard to respect, acknowledge-
ment and protection. Young mobiles often have to enter the labour market in the foreign country 
from the bottom despite their qualifications and skills. Young people who enter the labour market 
for the first time, are often underpaid or not paid at all, or are placed into jobs to perform excessive 
tasks that do not match their job qualifications. As a result, young people are “de-skilled” in regard 
of their qualifications in order to be able to start a job, make several loops of internships, complete 
traineeships before becoming officially employed; others need to work for free at organisations to 
gain experience that is necessary for a job and, in parallel, perform menial jobs to pay for their 
housing, food, etc.

At the same time, working abroad is also connected for most of our interviewees with getting more 
autonomy and independence, giving the mobility the meaning of liberation from too narrow person-
al ties. Our case studies show that employment mobility becomes a turning point and marks a 
transition to adulthood. During this stage, young people learn to be responsible for themselves, 
and acquire essential skills of finding solutions in unknown situations.

VET mobility

For researching mobility within the frame of vocational and educational training (VET), two coun-
tries were selected for a closer analysis: Spain and Germany. These countries represent two op-
posite poles of economic conditions of young people and of VET-related regulations in Europe.

Mobility in the context of vocational education and training represents one of the youngest fields 
with comparably low participation rates. Correspondingly, there is little research exclusively dona-
ted to this field. Mobilities during a vocational training vary greatly due to the different implementa-
tion practices of mobility programmes in Germany and Spain, and so do the reflections of German 
and Spanish apprentices on their mobility experiences.

German mobilities are largely dominated by “all-inclusive”, group mobilities of four weeks in aver-
age, framed by comparably rigid regulations of the German VET system (e.g. the tight time frame 
due to dual training in school and at the work place) and facilitated by a nationwide net of profes-
sional advisors that is unique in Europe. While German apprentices highly value this convenient 
way of going abroad, results also reveal that it limits the young people’s scopes of action.

In contrast, Spanish mobilities are largely organised on an individual level and usually last three 
months as they take place within the obligatory “practice period” at the end of their school-based 
training abroad. The Erasmus+ funding is not sufficient to cover all costs of these extended stays 
(while payments are often delayed until the return from the mobility). As a result, mobility is a mat-
ter of money for Spanish youth, making them dependent on family or other support. Moreover, 
counseling is mainly private and has to be paid individually. Spanish youth complain about a lack 
of counsellings within Erasmus+ mobilities and of insufficient support. Administration and bureau-
cracy are barriers. For example, in order to reduce their effort, some public mobility advisors at 
Spanish VET schools adapt the number of participants not to the programme limits but to their co-
ordinating capacities.

The embeddedness in the autochthonous peer group and short stays abroad of German group 
mobiles, as well as the full-day working schedules of Spanish VET students leave little room for intercultural encounters in the destination country.

The selection of participants is largely based on school performance and foreign language profi-
ciency which excludes young people who struggle in school and training, but who might receive 
enormous profit from becoming mobile.
All in all, there is still little awareness of mobility options during apprenticeships.

**Pupil's mobility**

Findings about pupil's mobility are based on the mobility case study in two countries: Norway and Hungary. Norway, even though not an EU member, has participated in several EU exchange programmes to provide its pupils and students mobility options during education (e.g. Comenius, Leonardo, Erasmus+, etc.)

In both cases, short-term group mobility is seen as the most effective way to develop language skills (language skills are often seen as very important and they influence the choice of countries), foster the recognition of foreign cultures, and reduce the risk of disengagement (e.g. from family context or other contexts).

Moreover, longer pupil's mobility is more challenging due to rising institutional barriers. E.g., in the Hungarian context, such an exchange affects the legal status of the pupil in the home institution because of governmental regulation (they are not permitted to stay abroad for a longer period during the native studies). The pupil has got two different options in this case: either the status is suspended until the return to school in the home country or the pupil completes the education as a private student, which is a complex procedure. In Norway, there is a stronger support and encouragement of pupil's mobility: more information is provided in schools, and schools work with companies assisting individual pupil's mobility.

Therefore, institutions play a significant role in the management of paperwork. Administrative burdens are typical, and so are bureaucratic hindrances, additional to the difficulty in accessing exchange programmes (structural inequality). As a result, young people rely on assistance from relatives (financial and emotional support), personal savings earned before the departure, and on institutions for bureaucratic support.

All in all, the results from the analysis of pupil’s exchange in Norway and Hungary are pointing to the fact that from the perspective of the young mobile, relations to young people of same nationality help dealing with negative outcomes of mobility, e.g. homesickness, feelings of alienation, cultural disturbances, insecurity, language barriers and other challenges. On the other hand, the young mobiles reflect on social relations with young people of the same nationality as a kind of hindering factor for intercultural learning and understanding. Mobile pupils often describe that they stick together with pupils of the same nationality, continue with their cultural praxis and thus create – mostly unintended – a kind of ‘diaspora’ in the context of pupil’s mobility.

**Entrepreneurship**

For the case study on entrepreneurship, two countries were selected: Spain and Romania. Both, for Spain and for Romania, the case studies referred to outgoing entrepreneurship-related mobility. In the case of Romania, some of the international mobilities aimed at enhancing the young persons’ business oriented expertise for applying the acquired knowledge and experience in the home environment; in some other cases, the mobility was directed towards setting up a business abroad, or having an entrepreneurial activity abroad, as a result of a competition, a grant, etc., and then returning to the home environment to consolidate/develop a business. Some of the young entrepreneurs interviewed also had set up a business operating on an international level.

Regarding particularities of youth entrepreneurship, first results show that young entrepreneurs believe that creating a business is a milestone in their curriculum that adds very valuable competences and enriches their expertise and competences for doing a business.

The results also point to the differences between Spain and Romania regarding the entrepreneurial environment, in terms of returning to the home country or staying aboard.
In the case of Romanian entrepreneurs, the analysis has revealed that mobility for entrepreneurship purposes has often been triggered by the young people’s interest in professional development and in exploring new business opportunities. In some of the cases, the entrepreneurship idea of the Romanian respondents was inspired by a concatenation of other mobility types, such as for study, volunteering, e.g. in an NGO environment, or work experience as employee. Several of the interviewees have been inspired by peers or mentors. Most of the Romanian respondents highlight the importance of specific personal qualities, such as courage, perseverance, ambition, availability for risk-taking and resilience.

The results of entrepreneurship mobility in the case of Spain reveal that Spanish entrepreneurs do not usually consider returning home to create or continue business due to a difficult socio-economic entrepreneurial atmosphere in comparison to other countries in Europe. Data collected for the case study in Spain point to the gender aspect: for some women entrepreneurship is not something they can or want to keep for a long time due to the difficulty to reconcile it with family life, and to the impossibility and unwillingness to keep up such a working rhythm for a long period of time. Educational background also plays a role in succeeding throughout entrepreneurship mobility. Results for the case study show that people without business education and/or background are not aware of its complexity besides the bureaucratic context (lack of knowledge/information about the administrative process and costs, e.g. health insurance), which leads to higher failure costs and taxes.

Findings also point to some commonalities across both countries and lead us to generalizable conclusions regarding the entrepreneurship mobility type. First, in both countries, and for entrepreneurship mobility in general, funding resources are a prerequisite of entrepreneurial activity. Results of the case study analysis show that young people experience a lack of availability of financial resources, equity and debt capital and, as a result, they develop their own strategies for overcoming this barrier. Some young entrepreneurs received an initial financial support from friends or family, while a minority of the respondents used their personal savings to set up the business. Second, young entrepreneurs who have set up / want to set up their business in another country consider that knowing the language of the host country and awareness of intercultural aspects are facilitating factors.

All in all, entrepreneurship related mobility is often linked to other mobility types and/or is the result of a concatenation of mobilities.

### Policy Implications and Recommendations

1. **Enhancing the Quality and availability of youth mobility macro data for Europe**

   When considering the fundamental regional differences in the EU regarding the dispersion of socio-economic macro factors, an analysis of youth mobility should not only focus on the national level.

   - Thus, youth mobility data on regional level (Eurostat NUTS 2 or NUTS 3) should be provided.

   Only some of the MOVE-partners (Germany, Luxembourg, and Norway) were able to gather additional data from the national statistics offices on youth migration based on registration data. However, the access was difficult, and generated additional expenses.

   - The accessibility of comparable migration data for all European countries would facilitate further mobility research tremendously.
Overall, a reliable open access secondary data base for youth mobility data in Europe is needed. Data requirements for accessible macro data on youth mobility would be:

- More recent macro datasets
- Valid information on incoming and outgoing youth mobility ratios per country
- Capturing reasons and length of mobility
- Information on country of origin and country of destination
- Regional mobility data (NUTS 2 or 3)
- Datasets should be accessible more easily

2. Develop purposeful European strategies for different mobility types and country patterns

Separate European strategies are needed for the different country patterns to meet the individual interests of the member states. Thus, financial support (e.g. Erasmus) should not be provided equally for all EU-countries but should be adapted to the special needs of each country (e.g. fostering incoming students’ mobility vs. fostering outgoing mobility in general).

The centre-periphery model highlights the effect that due to the internationalisation of studies and the implementation of the Bologna reform, the periphery-sending countries appear as attractive receiving countries for incoming students’ mobility, and additional specific support for the periphery turns out as promising. Furthermore, especially the periphery-sending states should be supported in deploying human capital created by mobility episodes – e.g. by funding trainee programmes for returning young people to their home countries. Otherwise, youth mobility also bears the risk to promote a quite asymmetric economic autocatalytic development towards even increasing national disparities and inequality among the EU member states.

For the mobility promoters (e.g. Romania and Hungary) the support and financial aid for students’ exchanges should increase as well as the students’ accessibility to education programmes abroad, in order to increase outgoing students’ mobility. This could be fostered by providing better information, by increasing the cooperation with new EU research and higher education institutions, and by improving the processes of diploma recognition. For increasing the incoming student mobility, possible policy measures would be: developing international studying programmes/courses in universities, promoting existing international programmes across Europe and in third countries, and providing adequate accommodation and administrative support for incoming students.

For the mobility utilisers (e.g. Germany, Norway and Luxembourg) multiple incoming mobility types and stages need to be encouraged through providing integration options into the labour market upon return from study mobility. However, this measure could be in a tense relationship to those for the mobility promoters.

3. Lowering structural barriers, providing purposeful and individualised support

Recommendations concerning higher education mobility: student mobility

Taking the results from both country cases together the following actions could be identified as supportive for student mobility: As student mobility within Europe has mostly short-term character, i.e. students spend only one or two semesters at an institution abroad, a well-developed institutional support structure is very important. This includes enough and competent staff providing information within a reasonable timeframe, both at sending and receiving institutions. Pre-established and transparent procedures make the step towards a realised mobility easier, both for students and institutions.

As not in every country students are supported via state allowances, it is crucial to increase numbers of scholarships to provide the opportunity of mobility for a higher number of students. At the
same time, the amount of the mobility scholarship (Erasmus+) should be adjusted – in particular, for students coming from less wealthy countries, who would like to head for a more expensive destination. Hereto, a good suggestion may be an update of country groups in regard to the amount of scholarship provided (e.g. Luxembourg is in the second group while being one of the most expensive destination countries in Europe).

Also, within student mobility, sufficient language skills can ease the stay abroad. More emphasis should be put on language learning prior and also during the stay. Better language training could occur through (1) better integration of foreign students at the hosting institutions and (2) more vivid exchange with native students, enabling also cultural exchange. At this time, exchange students have more contacts among the own national group than with native students.

While the most efforts are put on credit students (e.g. Erasmus exchange), institutions should not forget about foreign degree students, who need different support than native regular students.

Further steps should be also taken to enable easy and swift recognition of foreign European (EHEA) diploma and credits (ECTS) in other European countries.

**Recommendations concerning voluntary work mobility**

Based on the analysis of the case study done in Germany and Romania, the following recommendations regard primarily improving institutional frameworks for facilitating voluntary work mobility in Europe.

One of the strongest hindrances for voluntary work mobility is not only the lack of financial support, but more importantly, information on accessing it. We therefore recommend formulating the voluntary work mobility as a non-profit type by emphasising its output (promotes the values of active citizenship and social responsibility and stimulates personal and professional development) and at the same time strengthening social and financial support of young volunteers by making information on possible funding structures transparent and accessible.

**Recommendations about employment mobility**

As we have explained in the findings section, unlike other mobility types, employment mobility is highly individualised and includes people who come for a concrete job and others who come and search for a job.

Despite existing programmes, young people are not aware of them and seldom seek for support from organisations and institutions to become mobile with the purpose of work. We therefore recommend to increase the popularisation of existing programs for job starters among young people who are about to graduate through a closer collaboration between employment services, companies, and educational institutions and youth centres.

There is a high need to support young people to enter the labour market after the completion of studies. Currently, the lack of working experience is considered as one of the main obstacle for young people to become employed for the first time. In the case of Luxembourg, we have seen some companies developing special programs for young job “entrants”. It is particularly relevant in the context of employment mobility, and such support could boost international competences and increase young peoples’ skills for their future. This measure could decrease unequal and discriminatory treatment of young people at work and diminish de-skilling of young people who accept work below their qualifications in order to gain working experience.

As employment mobility is by and large regarded as individualised, support throughout this process could be helpful in dealing with bureaucratic challenges. For that, it is suggested to create welcoming centres/information platforms particularly for young workers in the countries of arrival. Access
to information on society, its composition, institutions, helpful information on housing, banking etc. could significantly diminish stress related to the new place, and unfamiliar environment.

**Recommendations about VET mobility**

As described before, VET Mobilities vary greatly due to the different implementation practices of mobility programmes, therefore many recommendations have to be country-specific.

In general, there is a need to heavily promote VET as a mobility field amongst young people, companies, teachers and parents, in order to increase the mobility rates of apprentices. The installation of nation-wide networks of mobility advisors and promotion of institutional networks, using Germany as good practice, can be seen as promising steps in this direction. In Germany, these networks and structures need to be put on a more sustainable footing.

With respect to their labour market inclusion powers, mobility programmes promote the “integration of the integrated” due to current implementation practices. In order to allow also low-qualified and socially deprived youth to profit from mobility, specific programmes such as “Integration through exchange” need to be re-established and extended. In Spain, the high financial burdens of mobility for individuals lead to a deepening of the social divide which should be addressed e.g. by the adaptation of funding to the real costs (depending on the length of mobilities) as well as timely transfer of funds to the VET students before the mobility.

In Germany, there is a need to create more latitudes for young people, e.g. through promotion of, and flexible support for, self-organised mobilities.

For both of the analysed countries, latitudes for encounters with “natives” and other travellers should be created, as well as interchange possibilities between youth interested in mobility and mobility-experienced peers (role models) to increase knowledge about and encouragement in the participation in mobility.

Language proficiency is a key prerequisite for the participation on mobility programmes. This should be addressed by a reduction of language barriers in mobility programmes and, on more general terms, the improvement of practical foreign language learning in school.

**Recommendations about pupil’s mobility**

For most pupils, pupil’s mobility is their first mobility. That is why support and assistance is deemed crucial in developing a mobility culture among young people. A better organisation of procedures both in educational institutions as well as in receiving families are recommended. Measures that are more didactic should target non-academic curricula: social meetings where young people become familiar with new cultures, traditions, and languages. Such activities contribute to the formation of mobility experience and foster future mobilities.

Pupil’s mobility is often costly and pupils of lower socio-economic status have difficulties to afford it. It is therefore suggested to diversify the funding scheme based on social status. Another possible measure would be introducing more opportunities for scholarships for disadvantaged pupils to increase their possibilities for future through education.

That would particularly increase interest towards pupil’s mobility from countries with lower economic standards.

Further recommendations concern administrative aspects: despite the fact that most pupils enrol on exchange via organisations, there is still a lack of information on the process. Therefore, it is recommended to specify information regarding exchange programmes and their access. That also regards approval of curricula, equivalency of grades and a more facilitated accreditation of credits earned abroad during the mobility.
Recommendations about entrepreneurship mobility

As the results from Romania and Spain have indicated, entrepreneurship mobility is fragile and sensitive to socio-economic changes both in the sending and in the receiving countries. As a result, to support the interest towards entrepreneurial mobility an increased offer of trainings about business creation is recommended.

Following this, it is suggested to broaden and diversify the possibilities for funding and to enhance the transparency of information about access to financial resources. The latter regards entrepreneurial funds, as well as mobility grants that include relocation costs, arranging living in the destination country, etc.

The programme “ERASMUS for Young Entrepreneurs” has been effective for some of the Romanian respondents in terms of providing the necessary funding for international mobilities relevant for the young people’s entrepreneurial interests. Some respondents emphasised that the programme needs to be better advertised and monitored by both national and European authorities. Therefore, we recommend to harmonise entrepreneurship related legislation in EU countries, so as to encourage youth entrepreneurial activities and international mobility for this purpose.

Entrepreneurial mobility has a strong gender bias. We, therefore, recommend supporting women’s entrepreneurship through the creation of support structures and programmes for women entrepreneurs, especially with families.

Entrepreneurial mobility is hindered because of excessive bureaucratic procedures with regard to the needed documents for setting up business. The process is even more complex due to new languages in the destination countries. Online procedures and information on taxes, insurances, etc., in several languages on social media could therefore relieve the hindering barrier.

The overall ambition of MOVE is to provide a research-informed contribution towards improving the conditions of the mobility of young people in Europe and a reduction of the negative impacts of mobility through the identification of ways of good practice, thus fostering sustainable development and wellbeing.

The main research question is: How can the mobility of young people be ‘good’ both for socio-economic development and for individual development of young people, and what are the factors that foster/hinder such beneficial mobility?

Based on an interdisciplinary and multilevel research approach the main objectives of MOVE are to:

1. carry out a comprehensive analysis of the phenomenon of mobility of young people in the EU;
2. generate systematic data about young people’s mobility patterns in Europe based on case studies, a mobility survey and on secondary data analysis;
3. provide a quantitative integrated database on European youth mobility;
4. offer a data based theoretical framework in which mobility can be reflected, thus contributing to the scientific and political debates;
5. explore factors that foster and factors that hinder good practice based on an integrative approach with qualitative and quantitative evidence;
6. provide evidence-based knowledge and recommendations for policy makers through the development of good-practice models to
   a. make research-informed recommendations for interventions to facilitate and improve the institutional, legal and programmatic frames of mobility with regard to different forms and types of mobility as well as to the conditions / constrains of mobility for young people in Europe
   b. give consultation and expertise to those countries facing significant challenges related to geographical mobility of young workers.

**Overall Approach and Methodology**

MOVE is based on a multi-level and transdisciplinary research design. On the micro level, the young people and cross-border movements, the fostering and hindering factors are the main focus. On the meso level, the organisational field of the respective type of mobility within the given national and international legal regulations is taken into consideration. Finally, on the macro-level, the social and economic data on a national and regional level will be brought together and analysed in regard of the mobility situation of young people.

The research project MOVE consists of 6 work packages, that include beside the management package (WP 1), secondary data analysis (WP 2), six case studies on different forms of mobility (WP 3), a survey on the situated practices, experiences and influencing factors of mobility based on a double stage sampling including a panel (n=5,499) and a snowball sampling (n=3,207) amongst mobile and non-mobile youth (WP 4), the triangulation of the qualitative and quantitative analysis (WP 5), and a work package (WP 6) for communication, dissemination & exploitation.

The case studies are based on six relevant types of youth mobility in Europe, as described above in this Policy Brief:

1. student mobility for higher education
2. cross-border volunteering
3. employment mobility
4. mobility for a vocational training
5. pupil’s exchange
6. entrepreneurship mobility.
7. The focus on these six types of mobility enables us to research on the various facets of mobility beyond the structure of specific programs of youth mobility.
# Project Identity

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<tr>
<th><strong>Project Name</strong></th>
<th>Mapping mobility – pathways, institutions and structural effects of youth mobility in Europe (MOVE)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Coordinator</strong></td>
<td>Prof. Dr. Ute Karl, UNIVERSITE DU LUXEMBOURG, Luxembourg <a href="mailto:ute.karl@uni.lu">ute.karl@uni.lu</a> (until 15.03.2017); Assoc. Prof. Dr. Birte Nienaber, UNIVERSITE DU LUXEMBOURG, Luxembourg, <a href="mailto:birte.nienaber@uni.lu">birte.nienaber@uni.lu</a> (since 15.03.2017)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Consortium</strong></td>
<td>ACADEMIA DE STUDII ECONOMICE DIN BUCURESTI – ASE Bucuresti – Bucuresti, Romania</td>
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<td>AGENCE EUROPEENNE POUR L'INFORMATION ET LE CONSEIL DES JEUNES ASBL – ERYICA – Luxembourg, Luxembourg</td>
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<td>MISKOLCI EGYETEM – UNI MISKOLC – Miskolc, Hungary</td>
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<td>STIFTUNG UNIVERSITAT HILDESHEIM – UH – Hildesheim, Germany</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Duration</strong></td>
<td>May 2015 – April 2018 (36 months)</td>
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<td><strong>Budget</strong></td>
<td>EU contribution: 2,499,912.00 €</td>
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<td><strong>Website</strong></td>
<td><a href="http://move-project.eu/">http://move-project.eu/</a></td>
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