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National Report

**on young people
in Luxembourg**

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**on young people
in Luxembourg**

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*Youth is not a time of life;
it is a state of mind.
Samuel Johnson*

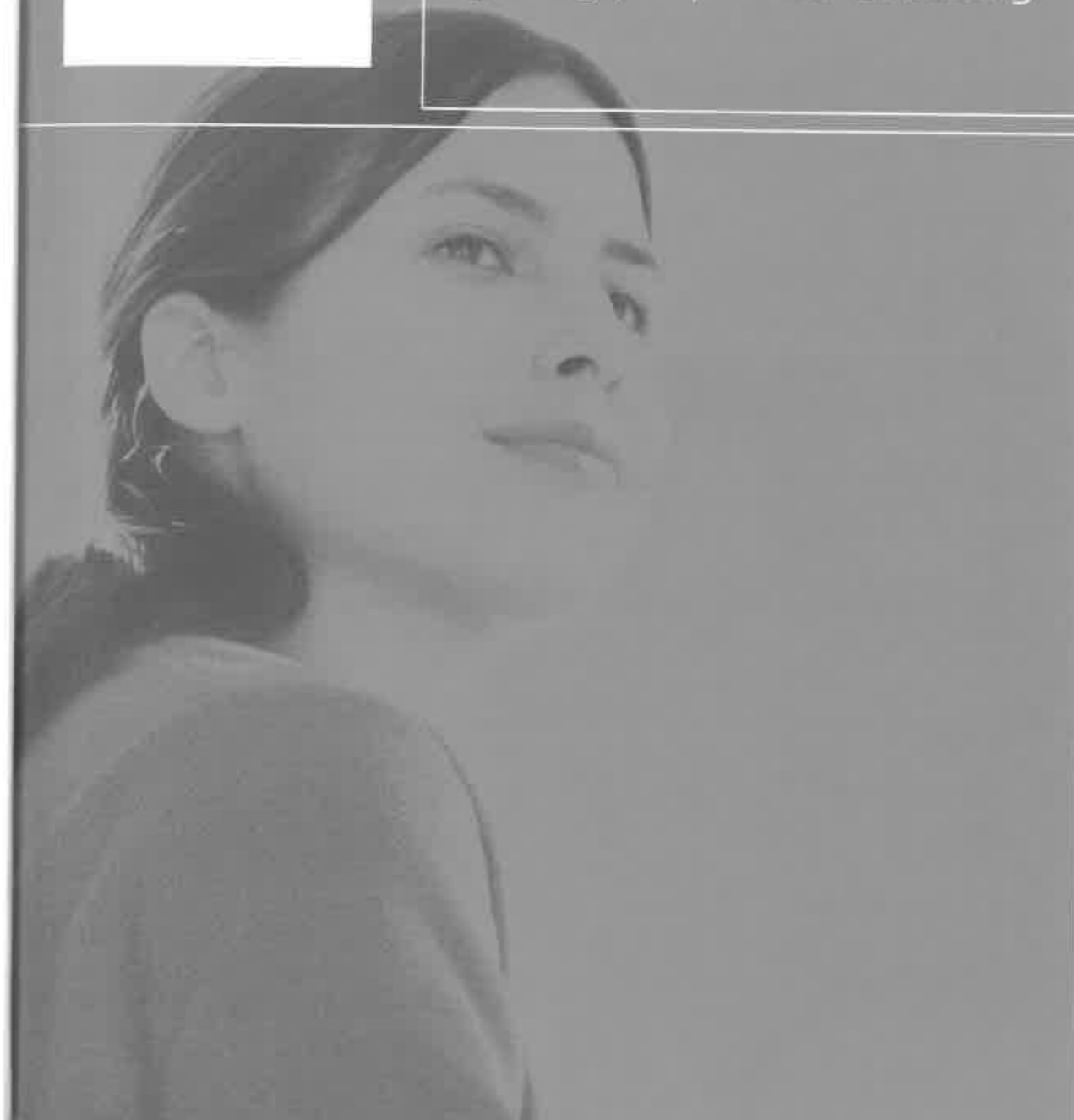


report

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National Report on young people in Luxembourg

CESIJE ASBL
Centre d'Études sur la Situation
des Jeunes en Europe
LUXEMBOURG

National Reporton young peopleⁱⁿ Luxembourg

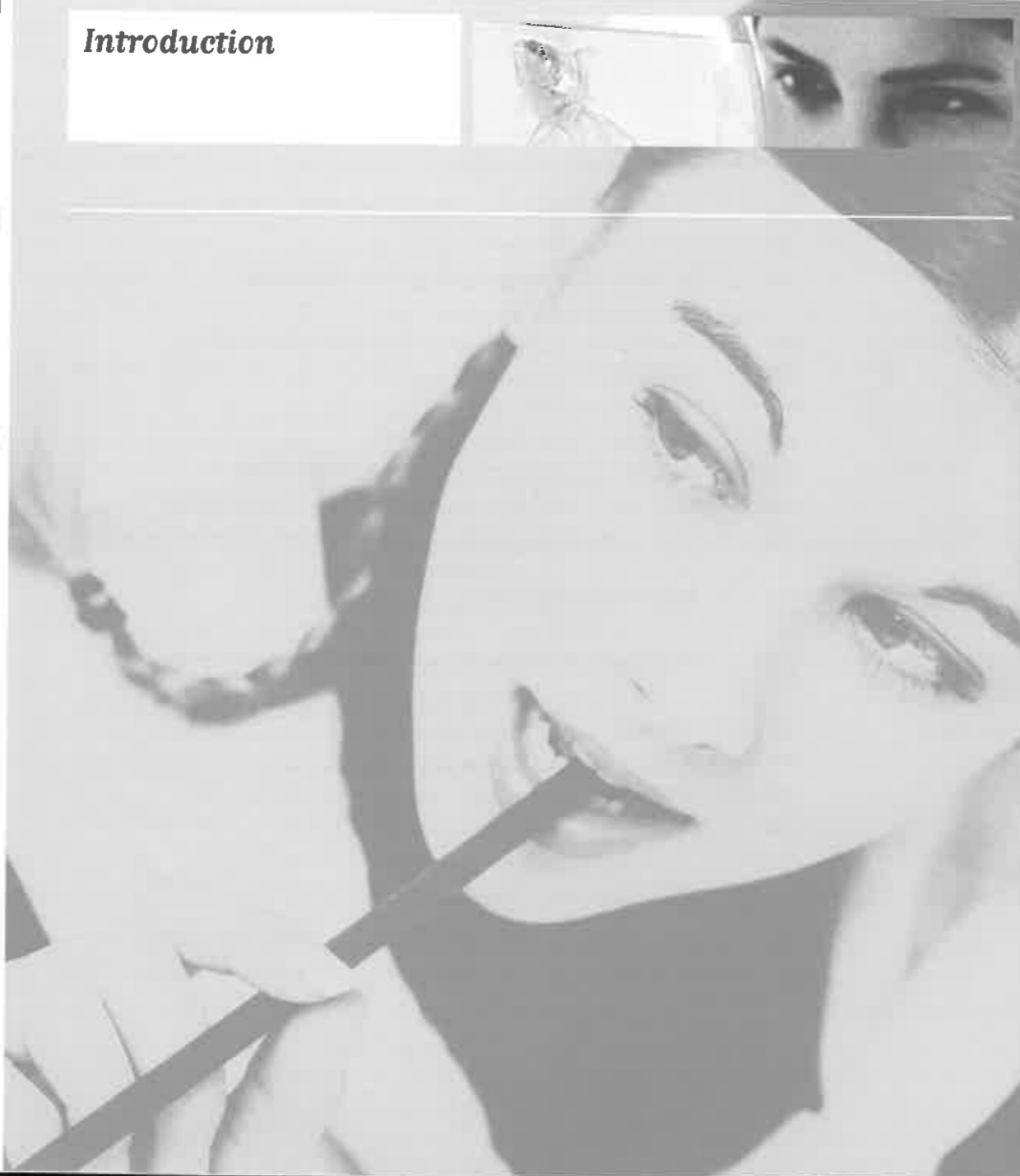
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Introduction



Foreword



At the informal meeting of ministers responsible for young people in the member states of the Council of Europe held in Luxembourg on 3 and 4 May 1995, Finland put forward the idea of carrying out, country by country, a set of studies into national youth policies.

Luxembourg was quick to sign up on the list of countries which agreed to take part in this process.

Mr Georges WIRTGEN, Honorary Director of the "Institut Supérieur d'Études et de Recherches Pédagogiques" (ISERP) (Institute for Teaching Studies and Research), and Mr Hendrik OTTEN of the "Institut für angewandte Kommunikationsforschung in der außerschulischen Bildung e.V." (IKAB) (Institute for Applied Communication Research in Non-formal Education), Bonn, were put in charge of the evaluation for Luxembourg.

The "Centre d'Études sur la Situation des Jeunes en Europe" (CeSiJe) (Study Centre on the Situation of Young People in Europe) was invited to support the evaluation work.

From the very beginning, the "Conseil Supérieur de la Jeunesse" (Higher Youth Council), the "Conférence Générale de la Jeunesse Luxembourgeoise" (General Conference of Luxembourg Youth) and the country's youth organisations were involved in the evaluation process.

The work was carried out simultaneously with the work on the preparation of the European Commission White Paper on the youth policy of the European Union.

Within this framework, gatherings of young people were held at the beginning of 2000 at regional level and a national youth forum was held on 25 May 2000.

At the same time, the "Conférence Générale de la Jeunesse Luxembourgeoise" mobilised its members.

On 25 November 2000 a special forum relating to the evaluation of the youth policy of the Council of Europe was organised in Luxembourg.

We hope that this evaluation will give a new impetus to the development of our youth policy.

I would like to take the opportunity now to thank all those involved in this evaluation process.

The Minister of the Family, Social Solidarity and Youth
Marie-Josée JACOBS

Preamble

The objectives of this report are essentially threefold:

- to provide information about Luxembourg (chapter I)
- to describe the living conditions of young people in Luxembourg (chapter II)
- to give information on the legal basis and the structures of youth policy in Luxembourg; to describe and evaluate its implementation (chapters III and IV)

The choice of the chapters presented in this report, as well as the structure of the book, has been influenced by a number of different factors. The broad outline of the structure was determined by the recommendations of the Council of Europe and is reflected in the national reports of the other countries. Into this structure, which is shared with earlier reports, we have integrated the major points of the situation in Luxembourg. Secondly, the content of the report has been influenced by the documentation on young people available in Luxembourg and collected by the CeSiJe over the last few years. As the team responsible for this report was also taking part in the "Étude sur la condition des jeunes et sur la politique pour la jeunesse en Europe" (Study on the condition of young people and youth policy in Europe) commissioned by the European Communities and entrusted to the IARD in Milan, it is clear that this source also influenced the structure and the content of the chapters of the national report.

The first chapter briefly describes the history of Luxembourg and certain selected aspects such as the demographic, linguistic and economic situation. It seemed to us important to give some substance to these aspects with a view to providing accurate information about a small country, which in encyclopaedias is often dealt with only superficially.

In the second chapter we have tried to gather together as much information as possible on the living conditions of young people. We have deliberately limited ourselves to the presentation of quantitative data emanating from official statistics or surveys carried out as part of research concerning young people.

According to the "Lignes directrices de la politique du Ministère de la Jeunesse" (Youth Ministry Policy Guidelines) youth is defined as the age group between 12 and 25 years. We have therefore confined ourselves to this definition in the description of the living conditions of young people.

It should be noted that generally speaking studies of young people constitute quite a recent field of research in Luxembourg; it follows therefore that for certain aspects of the living conditions data are relatively rare, whereas other aspects are better documented. The result is a disparity in the length of the different subchapters.

As a rule we have tried to mention in preference studies carried out on representative samples. Given the paucity of such studies, we are obliged sometimes to quote studies carried out on samples of a regional nature. The characteristics of those samples and the ensuing limits on interpretation are indicated on a case by case basis.

In order to be as comprehensive as possible, we have sometimes quoted studies as yet unpublished, but made available to us by the authors, whom we would like to thank at

this juncture. This concerns in particular Mrs Yolande Wagner of the Ministry of Health (Survey into the well-being of young people in Luxembourg), Mrs Christiane Meyers of the CeSiJe and Mr Ralph Schroeder of the Ministry of the Family (results of the Municipal Youth Plan survey).

It should be noted that the data on young people provided concern young people living in Luxembourg and not young people with Luxembourg nationality. In a country where over one third of the young people are of foreign nationality, but attend Luxembourg schools and take part in the social and economic life of the country, it is important to make this point. The logical consequence of this fact would have been to make a systematic comparison of the data provided according to nationality. Unfortunately in most of the studies used such information is lacking.

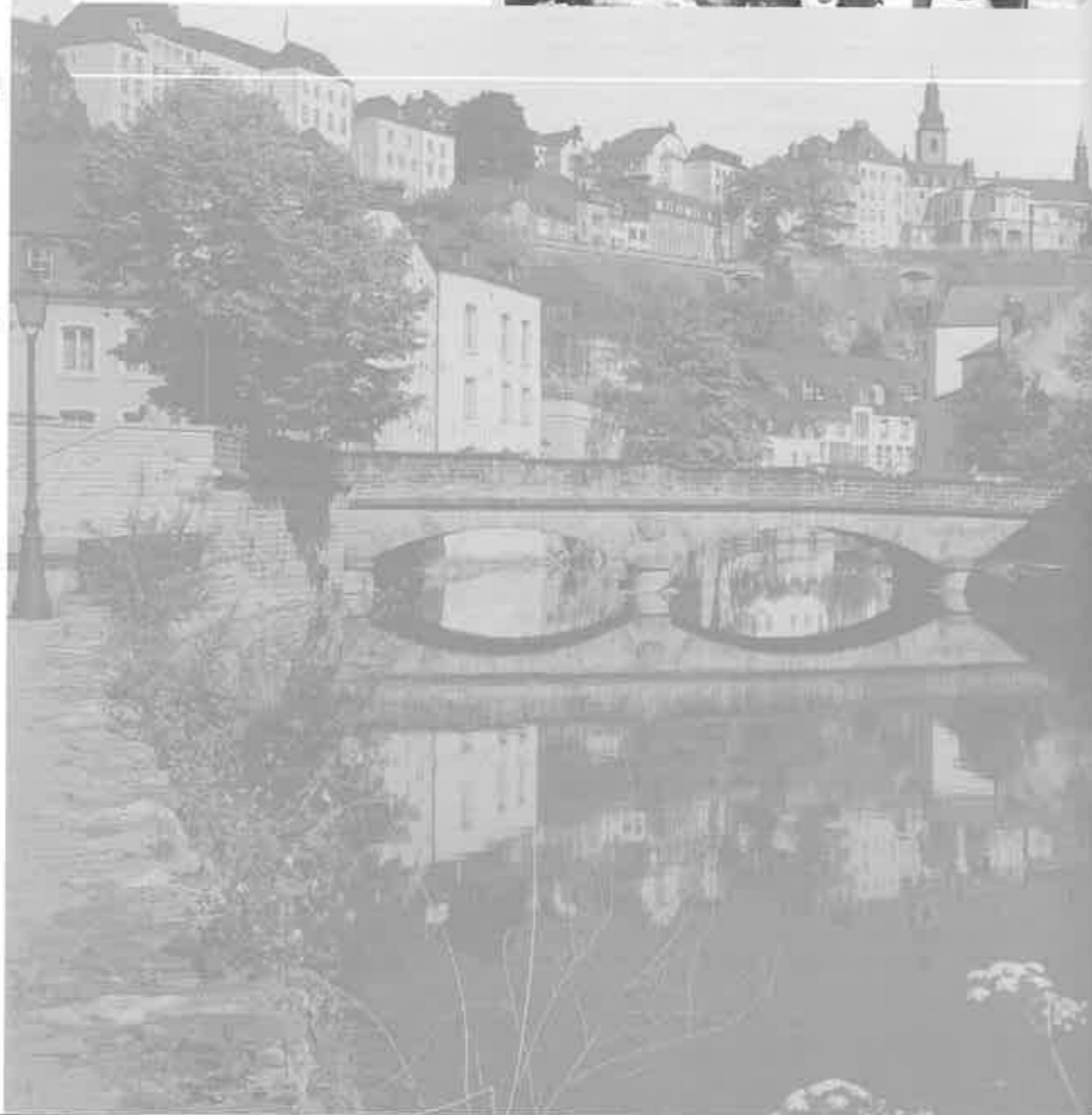
On the basis of data collected about young people, it would have been tempting to give the general characteristics of young people and to paint a picture of the young people living in Luxembourg. We have deliberately avoided this pitfall; in our opinion, there is hardly such a thing as a typical young Luxembourger. Given the diversity of the population from the point of view of nationality and of the economic situation, there is a whole varied range of young people in Luxembourg with their own characteristics. The research data are currently too inadequate for us to venture an exhaustive description and it would be rash to hold too much store by qualitative impressions.

Chapter III reviews the structures and the legislation relating to youth policy in Luxembourg. The players in this policy at national and local level are considered as well as the legal framework within which they work. Chapter IV describes the broad lines of the policies of the Ministry of Youth and their implementation thanks to different plans of action, which have in turn emphasised youth participation (1997), communication with young people (1998) and youth work, voluntary work and partnership (1999). The role of youth centres within the framework of Luxembourg's youth policy is particularly emphasised, because these are structures which involve the cooperation of the State, town authorities, private sector institutions or associations and young people themselves.

The final chapter seeks to highlight the challenges for the future of youth policy in Luxembourg and outline the means of meeting them.

Finally, we would like to thank once more all those who have contributed to the production of this report either by supplying us with information or documents, or by sharing their reflections and critical remarks with us, or by translating into English the texts written in French or German.

Chapter 1



Luxembourg: portrait of a small country



Brief notes on the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg

The Grand Duchy of Luxembourg is a sovereign state located between Belgium to the west, France to the south and Germany to the east. It is extremely small, with a total area of just 2 586 km². It has a population of 435 700 . It has only been independent since 1839. Its capital is Luxembourg City.

We shall deal briefly with a number of points here, namely the history, demography, political and administrative system, the economy and the linguistic situation of the country. Knowledge of these factors will make it easier to understand the living conditions of young people in Luxembourg described thereafter.

Historical background²

A brief glimpse at the history of Luxembourg will make it possible to better understand the geographic, demographic, linguistic, political and economic situation of the country.

Early history

Going back to the early historic period, the region covered by present-day Luxembourg was inhabited by Celts and until the fifth century formed part of the roman empire. After the Germanic Invasions, the Riparian Franks settled in the area.

During the feudal period, Luxembourg was part of the Holy Roman Empire. In 963 Count Sigefroi of Ardenne acquired a rocky promontory on which he built a castle; this was the beginning of the city of Luxembourg. The Counts of Luxembourg managed to extend their territory gradually, until it covered the entire region between Trier, Metz, Liège and Namur. Until 1443 the county and subsequently the duchy remained an autonomous entity within the Holy Roman Empire. In the course of the 14th century, four members of the house of Luxembourg were elected as emperors of the Holy Roman Empire (Henry VII, Charles IV, Wenceslas and Sigismund).

Foreign domination (1443-1815)

After a long period of domination by foreign powers, Luxembourg obtained national independence in 1815.

Before that date it was under the domination of a number of foreign powers:

- Burgundian era (1443-1506)

- Spanish era (1506-1684)
- first French era (1684-1697)
- second Spanish era (1697-1714)
- Austrian era (1714-1795)
- second French era (1795-1814)

The gradual move towards independence

At the Congress of Vienna (1815), the duchy of Luxembourg was raised to the status of a grand duchy and attributed to the King of the Netherlands, William I of Orange-Nassau "to be possessed perpetually and personally by him and by his legitimate successors". The area covered by the country was, however, reduced; the entire area east of the Moselle, Sauer and Our rivers was attributed to Prussia. The country was moreover integrated into the German Confederation and the capital, Luxembourg, had a Prussian garrison. The remaining territory at that time comprised what is now the Grand Duchy and the Belgian province of Luxembourg.

William II's policy of assimilation introduced Dutch as the second national language, and the introduction of a harsh system of taxation did not encourage sympathy for him on the part of the population. When the Belgian revolution broke out in 1830, a large part of the country – with the exception of the city of Luxembourg – joined the revolutionary movement against the Netherlands. At the Conference of London (1831), the Grand Duchy had to renounce its western part (the Walloon section) to Belgium, although this amputation only took effect in 1839. From then onwards, Luxembourg was de facto a German-speaking country, although French was retained as the administrative language.

The year 1839 is considered the key date inaugurating the independence of the Grand Duchy in its present territorial boundaries. In 1842 the country joined the Zollverein, a customs union of the member states of the German Confederation. Belonging to this economic organisation was very favourable for the development of Luxembourg's economy, which was too weak to survive on its own.

The system of personal dynastic union between Luxembourg and the Netherlands was nevertheless maintained, and lasted until 1890. It was during this period that the democratic institutions were gradually set up. In 1842 the Grand Duchy obtained its own administrative apparatus, and in 1848 a liberal constitution inspired by that of Belgium.

11 May 1867 is one of the most important dates in the country's history. The Treaty of London reaffirmed the territorial integrity of the Grand Duchy and decided that it would be "an independent State, perpetually neutral and placed under the collective guarantee of the signatory powers" (Treaty of 10 May 1867). The Treaty of London also required the fortress of Luxembourg to be dismantled and the Prussian garrison to leave.

When he died in 1890, William III had no male heir. By virtue of the Nassau family pact, no female could succeed while there remained a male heir in any branch of the House of Nassau. Thus the successor of William III was Adolf I of the House of Nassau-Weilbourg, who had lost his duchy of Nassau under Bismarck. Since this date, the Grand Duchy has had its own dynasty, to which it is very attached.

Luxembourg during the two World Wars

Despite its neutral status, Luxembourg was invaded twice by German troops during the two World Wars. Whereas the status of the country did not change during the First World War, it disappeared during the Second World War as it was integrated into the Third Reich. Grand Duchess Charlotte, followed by most of the members of the government, went into voluntary exile in the United States, and this was a very good thing for the country as it saved national sovereignty. Luxembourg suffered much during the Second World War. As in Alsace and Lorraine, young men were forced to join the German army and sent to the front line. Many Luxembourgers were deported to eastern Germany or imprisoned in concentration camps. It is therefore hardly surprising that Luxembourg suffered the third highest percentage of victims in the 1940-1945 war, after the Soviet Union and Poland. During the Battle of the Bulge the whole of the northern part of the country was ravaged.

The international integration of Luxembourg

After the Zollverein was dissolved in 1918, Luxembourg concluded a close economic union in 1921 with Belgium, the Economic Union of Belgium and Luxembourg (U.E.B.L.). This union comprises a customs union and a monetary union, guaranteeing a common monetary policy. Towards the end of the war, in 1944, the decision was made to form an economic union together with Belgium and the Netherlands – "Benelux".

On the political scene, Luxembourg has also been keen to join international organisations. It became a member of the United Nations Organisation (UNO) in 1945 and of NATO in 1949.

Luxembourg was one of the founding members of the European Union. In 1951 it took part in the foundation of the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC) and in 1958 the European Economic Community (EEC – Treaty of Rome). In 1952, by accepting to host the provisional headquarters of the ECSC, Luxembourg City became the first capital of Europe. Nowadays, it is one of the major axes of the European Community on a par with Brussels and Strasbourg. It is home to a number of institutions, including more particularly the Court of Justice of the European Union, the European Investment Bank (EIB), the Court of Auditors and the Statistics Office of the European Communities, and the General Secretariat of the European Parliament.

Demographic situation

The table below gives details of the evolution of the population over the last 20 years¹.

Population censuses		1981	1991	1999*	2000*
<i>Evolution of the population of the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg since 1981</i>	Total population	364 600	384 400	429 200	435 700
	Of which: women	186 700	196 100	217 900	221 000
	Luxembourg nationals	268 800	271 400	276 300	276 300
	foreigners	95 800	113 000	152 900	159 400
	(foreigners as %age)	26.3	29.4	35.6	36.6
	Of which: Portuguese	29 300	39 100	55 900	57 000
	Italians	22 300	19 500	20 000	20 100
	French	11 900	13 000	17 500	18 800
	Belgians	7 900	10 100	13 800	14 500
	Germans	8 900	8 800	10 300	10 500
	British	2 000	3 200	4 400	4 600
	Dutch	2 900	3 500	3 800	3 800
	other EU countries	10 600	6 600	9 300	9 600
other countries		9 200	17 900	20 400	

*figures calculated by Statec (situation at 1.1)

The table shows that the population has increased by some 71 000 over the last 20 years, and by almost 100 000 since 1971. This increase is due above all to immigration. Between 1980 and 2000, the number of nationals increased by no more than approximately 8 000, whereas the number of foreigners rose from 95 800 to 159 400. In terms of percentage of foreigners, Luxembourg, at 36.6%, tops the list of all the countries in the European Union. Portuguese form the largest single group with 57 000 individuals, followed by Italians (20 100), French (18 800), Belgians (14 500) and Germans (10 500).

In any case, the increase in the country's population has been much more rapid than Statec forecast in its publication entitled "Projections de la population luxembourgeoise 1987-2030" (population projections for Luxembourg) published in 1988². The table below³ gives the results for two projections called 'floor' and 'ceiling' variants.

The 'floor' variant is based on the hypothesis of fertility falling to 1.3, mortality remaining constant, a net annual migration of - 500 and 400 naturalisations or options per year. The 'ceiling' variant is based on fertility rising to 2.1, mortality falling, a net annual migration of + 1 500 and 850 naturalisations or options per year.

Table 2

Year	Total population	Population of Luxembourg nationals	Foreign population	Percentage of foreigners
2000	369 740-381 010	266 920-274 430	102 830-106 580	27.8-28.0
2010	361 840-386 600	257 930-273 970	103 900-112 630	28.7-29.1
2020	348 680-390 190	247 450-274 690	101 230-115 500	29.0-29.6
2030	330 290-395 420	234 420-277 210	95 870-118 210	29.0-29.9

Population of Luxembourg nationals and foreign population - prospective evolution (1987-2030), 'floor' and 'ceiling' variants³

Even the 'ceiling' variant for 2030 is exceeded considerably or at the least neared in 2000, as the total population of 435 700 comprises a population of Luxembourg nationals numbering 276 300 and a foreign population of 159 400. This illustrates the fact that a number of the presuppositions were wrong, particularly that concerning the net result of migration; the 'ceiling' variant was based on 1 500 persons per year, whereas the real figure is well in excess of 3 500 per year. The highest forecast for Luxembourg nationals in 2030 has nearly been reached already in 2000 because of an increase in the number of births in the past ten years.

Given the higher birth rate of foreigners, whose number includes many more young couples and a very positive net migration figure, it is to be expected that the number of foreigners will gradually come closer to the figure for native Luxembourgers. It is, however, extremely difficult to forecast when this point will be reached since the predictors such as the net migration figure or the birth rate can change very easily.

We may at any event wonder, with Calot⁴, whether Luxembourg nationality will still have any meaning in a few decades' time. "Whatever surprises the future holds, it seems to be clear that the concept of 'native Luxembourger' will gradually dissolve in the present-day melting pot ... The Luxembourger/foreigner dichotomy is increasingly inappropriate; the 'native' population is, in any event, bound to become a minority in the more or less distant future ...".

The low birth rate and the considerable extension of life expectancy produce a population distribution by age that is very different to that observed at the beginning of the 20th century. In 1910, there were 4.5 times fewer persons over the age of 60 than young people under the age of 20⁵.

The table below illustrates the evolution of the ratio between young people under the age of 20 and people over the age of 60.

Table 3

	Year	Under 20 years (Y)	Over 60 years of age (O)	Ratio (Y / O)
<i>Ratio of young people to the elderly⁹</i>	1910	108 172	23 813	4.54
	1930	99 031	29 743	3.33
	1947	81 525	41 093	1.98
	1960	87 041	51 414	1.69
	1970	99 724	62 917	1.59
	1987	87 476	67 955	1.29
	1991	87 861	71 689	1.23

It can be seen that the ratio Y : O fell between 1920 and 1991, the date of the most recent census, from 4.54 to 1.23. It cannot be denied that the population is ageing; the day will come when there are more people over the age of 60 than young people under the age of 20. This situation will cause many problems in terms of financing retirement pensions, health care and accommodation for the elderly.

Since 1991, however, we may observe a relative stability in the proportion of elderly people, as the table below shows.

Table 4

	Population censuses	1981	1991	1999*	2000*
<i>Population according to age¹⁰</i>	Children aged 0-14 years	18.5%	17.3%	18.8%	18.9%
	Active/aged between 15 and 64	67.9%	68.4%	66.9%	66.8%
	Elderly – over 64 years	13.6%	14.3%	14.3%	14.3%

*figures calculated by Stateg (situation at 1.1)

It can be seen that the percentage of children has increased slightly in the past ten years, that the number of the elderly has remained stable over the same period, and that the number in the active population is tending to fall.

Political system

Luxembourg is a constitutional monarchy. Its present Constitution dates back to 1868; it has been revised about ten times since it came into force. Grand Duke Henri has been the Head of State since October 2000.

The Grand Duke chooses the Prime Minister, who submits a list of members of the

government to the Grand Duke. The Grand Duke then formally appoints the ministers, who are answerable to the Chamber of Deputies. Since the last elections on 13 June 1999, the Luxembourg Government is a coalition formed by the CSV ("Chrëschtlesch Sozial Vollekspartei" – Christian social party) and the DP ("Demokratesch Partei" – democratic party). The Government is headed by Mr Jean-Claude Juncker of the CSV.

The Chamber of Deputies comprises 60 members elected for a five-year term of office by universal suffrage and a proportional vote. Voting is compulsory for all Luxembourg nationals over the age of 18.

In addition to the Chamber of Deputies there is a Council of State that functions as a second chamber to some extent; it is required to give its opinion on all draft legislation. Its 21 members are appointed by the Grand Duke on the basis of a list of three candidates proposed in turn by the Government, the Chamber of Deputies and the Council of State itself.

The legal system in Luxembourg, based on the separation of powers advocated by Montesquieu, is completely independent of the political system. It comprises an order of civil and administrative courts similar to those of the French and Belgian systems. The judges of the Supreme Court of Justice and the Administrative Court are appointed for life by the Grand Duke.

Language situation

The language situation of the country, positioned as it is on the border between Germanic languages areas and areas where Romance languages are spoken, is highly specific and reflects the country's complex history. The main feature of the Grand Duchy is its multilingualism, codified in the Language Act of 24 February 1984. Article 1 states that "the national language of the Luxembourg people is Luxembourgish". According to Article 2, "legislation and corresponding regulations are drawn up in French". French, German or Luxembourgish may be used in administrative or legal matters (Article 3). In responding to an application, the administration is supposed, as far as possible, to use the same language as the applicant (Article 4). The wording of the Act deliberately avoids using the term "official language".

Given the considerable number of inhabitants of various nationalities, the language situation in everyday life is even more complex than the national trilingualism would suggest. In 1985 the Educational Innovation and Research Department of the Ministry of Education carried out a survey of habits and requirements in terms of language in the Grand Duchy in private life, at work, and in a cultural environment¹¹. To simplify matters, account was only taken of the languages most widely used by migrants, namely Portuguese and Italian. The percentages shown are for the competitive use of the different languages, i.e. their use in a given situation with, possibly, other languages.

- In peoples' private lives at home, the order of frequency of language in oral communication is as follows: Luxembourgish (80.6%), French (12.8%), Portuguese (7.9%), Italian (5.6%), German (3.4%) and English (1.3%). If account is also taken of oral communication with friends and acquaintances, German moves up into third place. The order of frequency is somewhat different for written commu-

nication: German takes the lead (51.6%), followed by French (43.9%), Luxembourgish (25.4%), Portuguese (8.2%), Italian (6.3%), and lastly English (3.3%). The difference between the use of the languages for oral and written communication is due above all to the habits of Luxembourgers, who prefer to write their letters in German or French rather than in Luxembourgish, although there is a visible trend since 1985 towards using Luxembourgish more frequently for written communication; indeed, the order given may be slightly different by now¹².

- In their professional lives, in the workplace, we find the following ranking for oral communication: Luxembourgish (73.6%), French (58.9%), German (24%), English (7.1%), Portuguese (6%) and Italian (4.8%). For written communication, the order is different, with French in the lead (72%), followed by German (45.4%), English (10.4%), Luxembourgish (6.9%), and lastly Portuguese (3.7%) and Italian (1.6%). It can be seen that Luxembourgish, still strong for oral communication, falls back considerably for use in written communication, while English is more important than Portuguese and Italian for both oral and written communication. This is due to the presence of a considerable number of American or British banks and companies where English is the normal language of communication¹³.
- In social contexts, Luxembourgish is the most important spoken language; more than 70% of those interviewed use it for communication with the administration and with the staff of cafés, restaurants and shops. French stands in second place (55%) for oral communication, particular for communication with the staff of cafés, restaurants and shops which employ many foreigners. French is much more important than the other languages in relations with the administration and private companies (55%). German plays a negligible role in oral communication (8.9%), but takes first position for private correspondence. Portuguese, Italian and English are of virtually no importance in public and social life¹⁴.
- In cultural, political and religious contexts, French is dominant as regards preference for cassettes and records, television programmes and cinema films¹⁵, whereas German is dominant in the press and literature, and for radio programmes (followed closely by Luxembourgish). In religious ceremonies, speeches and lectures, Luxembourgish is dominant. English plays an important role for cassettes and records, and to a lesser degree for films¹⁶.

A more recent study by Fehlen, Piroth and Schmit¹⁷ allows us to confirm these results and to be more specific. This study was undertaken as part of the "Baleine" project carried out by the public research unit of the University Centre, the aim of which was to study the integration of foreigners in the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg, by exploring in particular certain areas of integration, use of languages, the migration trajectory, and participation in associations.

We will see later the most important results of this study, during which 2 002 people were interviewed by telephone. The following table gives figures for the use of the most widely used languages in various situations.

Table 5

Language	French	German	Lux'ish	English	Italian	Port'ese
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Use of languages – total sample ¹						
Used more or less regularly in everyday context ¹	95.8	80.8	80.4	57.4	24.9	17.7
Spoken at work ²	29.9	3.4	57.9	3.5	0.9	3.5
Spoken with friends ²	12.2	2.2	70.5	1.4	2.3	9.2
Used when shopping ²	36.0	2.0	60.4			1.1

¹ more than one reply possible

² only one reply possible – the main language spoken

- Language skills: In order to explore the level of language skills, the people interviewed were asked to say which languages they used more or less regularly in an everyday context. The table only shows the six most widely used languages. The survey reveals that French is clearly in the lead, followed by German and Luxembourgish.
- In the workplace, Luxembourgish is predominant, followed by French; the other languages trail far behind. It should be noted that, taking the age of the people interviewed into consideration, French is more widely used among young workers than among older workers. This is evidence of changes in working conditions, as young people are recruited more readily by companies with multilingual staff.
- In relations with friends, in terms of the overall population, Luxembourgish is far and away the most frequently used language, followed by French and Portuguese. The breakdown of these results by nationality allows to some extent an appreciation of the degree of integration. It may indeed be supposed that those who are integrated are already able to communicate in Luxembourgish and have friends who are Luxembourg nationals. Among the Portuguese population, 11.5% state that they mainly use Luxembourgish with their friends; the figure for the Italian population is as high as 34.8%. These may in fact be people who have been in the Grand Duchy for many years, probably including the time they spent at school.
- For shopping, French occupies a dominant role after Luxembourgish. None of the other languages are of any importance in this context.

Unfortunately, it is hard to compare the results of the 1985 and 1998 studies because the content and form of the questions in the two surveys do not correspond exactly. In the 1985 survey the people interviewed had to name the languages used in the various situations, where in the 1998 survey all that was required was the name of

The economy and the labour market

the main language used in certain contexts. The percentages obtained are therefore not directly comparable.

Despite these differences, we can see that the order of languages used in communication in the workplace is identical as regards Luxembourgish (first place) and French (second place). Whereas German ranked as the third language in 1985 (24%), way in front of English (7.14%) and Portuguese (6.5%), in the 1998 survey it ranked almost on a par with English and Portuguese as the main language used ($\pm 3.5\%$).

Similarly, Luxembourgish and French are the two most important languages used for oral communication in shopping situations.

We may then state that the situation as it existed in 1985 for the oral use of languages is still basically the same; it would nevertheless seem that for communication in the workplace German has lost some ground, while French has consolidated its position.

If we look at the written use of languages, the situation is very different; as the 1985 study showed. German plays an important role in the press and above all at school.

This multilingual situation, which is one of the features of the Grand Duchy, obviously has a considerable effect on the school system. Children first learn to read and write in German, and start to learn French in the second year of primary school. German remains the main language throughout the lower cycle of secondary education. French becomes the main language from the upper cycle of secondary education onwards¹⁹.

Situation in the 19th century

Until the end of the 19th century, Luxembourg was a poor agricultural country. Because of the considerable demographic pressure, large-scale emigration to the New World was inevitable. One Luxembourger in six emigrated in the 19th century or at the beginning of the 20th century.

Economic take-off

It was true that the country had considerable supplies of iron ore, but its high phosphorus content made it unsuitable for producing steel. In 1877 the English engineer Sidney Gilchrist Thomas invented a process for dephosphorising pig iron that made the use of Luxembourg iron ore an economic proposition, thereby enabling the country to take off in economic terms. It is from this date onwards that it was possible to say that "Luxembourg is a gift of iron as Egypt is a gift of the Nile"²⁰. A sizeable iron and steel industry developed in the southern part of the country, and the main economic centre shifted from the capital southwards. As the labour force of Luxembourgers was not sufficient, it was necessary to bring in thousands of foreign workers from Italy, Germany, Belgium and France.

The economic and social well-being of the country indeed has its origin in the development of the iron and steel industry. The sector was nevertheless flawed from the

outset by a number of factors, including the lack of coal in the country, ore with a low iron content (<30%), and relatively high wages. Despite the considerable reduction in the labour force as a result of the crisis in the iron and steel industry (the number of labourers involved in production and maintenance fell from 14 379 in 1970 to 2 595 in 1999²¹), the ARBED group still remains the largest private employer in the country. Over the years it has become one of the largest iron and steel producing groups not only in Europe, but also in the world.

Policy of diversification and expansion

Large-scale initiatives have been carried out since the end of the Second World War in order to diversify the industrial sector as a means of combating the monolithic nature of the economy. The economic infrastructure has been improved with a view to attracting foreign investors – enlargement of the airport, electrification of the railways, canalisation of the Moselle and the construction of a port; dams have been built at Esch-sur-Sûre and Rosport. There is a large hydro-electric power station at Vianden. In order to encourage industrial diversification and expansion, the framework law of 2 June 1962 enables the State to take such measures as "contribute directly to the creation, conversion and rationalisation of industrial, craft and commercial undertakings inasmuch as these improve the general structure and regional balance of the national economy and stimulate expansion"²². Such measures may include cash grants, preferential interest rates, specific subsidies, State guarantees, etc. This framework law has been renewed regularly since 1962 and has contributed to the installation of many new undertakings in the Grand Duchy. Even before the first framework law was adopted, the multinational company Goodyear moved to Colmar-Berg. Taking advantage of the geographical position of the Grand Duchy in the centre of Europe, other foreign groups such as Dupont de Nemours, TDK and Lux-Guard have decided to invest there. The objectives of the framework law have been adjusted each time it has been prolonged. Whereas the initial framework law was directed exclusively at industry, it has subsequently been expanded to include small- and medium-sized undertakings in the industrial and craft sector as well, and finally undertakings in the tertiary sector.

However, the establishment of new undertakings was not enough to compensate for the loss of jobs in the iron and steel industry. New outlets had to be found in the tertiary sector, notably in banking.

The financial marketplace

The origin of the financial marketplace goes back to the early 1960s. A growing number of banks had been attracted by a number of not inconsiderable advantages such as the geographical location at the heart of the EU, the communications infrastructure, the healthy state of the economy, a low unemployment level ensuring a calm social situation, and lastly a number of tax advantages and legislation favourable to holding companies and insurance activities²³.

Because of these factors, the Grand Duchy has become an international financial centre. In 1960 there were less than 20 banks in the Grand Duchy, whereas in November 2000 there were 203¹⁴. In addition, some 13 000 holding companies and 1 400 investment funds have chosen to settle there, and a number of major insurance and re-insurance companies have opened branches there.

The Grand Duchy has carved out an enviable place for itself in the telecommunications field; the Luxembourg Government, in compliance with the European Union's Directive on "Television without Frontiers", has encouraged the private company SES ("Société Européenne des Satellites"), which was set up in 1985, to operate a system for broadcasting television programmes by satellite covering the whole of Europe.

A final area where there is considerable expansion is the film industry, which benefits from tax incentives adopted in recent years. The number of films being made in the Grand Duchy is increasing.

The economic evolution of recent decades is reflected by the fact that at present 83.2% of the working population is employed in the tertiary sector, 14.3% in industry and a mere 2.5% in agriculture.

Employment market

The considerable development of the tertiary sector produces a continual creation of jobs which the Grand Duchy cannot always satisfy. The development of the Luxembourg economy is closely linked to the need to bring in foreign workers. This explains why the percentage of foreigners resident in the Grand Duchy, which has risen from 26.3% in 1981 to 36.6% in 2000. Many foreigners from areas adjacent to the Grand Duchy nevertheless prefer to live outside the Grand Duchy and come in as cross-border workers. Their number is increasing constantly; it rose from 13 400 in 1980, to 33 700 in 1990, and to 78 400 (estimated) in 1999 – this figure corresponds to almost a fifth of the population of the entire Grand Duchy²⁵.

Because of this expanding employment market, it is not surprising that the level of unemployment is low (2.6% in April 2000).

Brief overview of the economy²⁶

GDP in 1999..... LUF 731 800 million

GDP (at market price) in PPS..... 35 980

Belgium 23 343

France 21 395

Germany 22 463

Growth rate of GDP (1999)..... 7.5

Distribution of GDP in 1999.....

Agriculture 0.7%

Industry 18.3%

Services 81.0%

Average unemployment rate..... in 1999: 2.9%
in 2000: 2.6%

¹ statec (2000). *Le Luxembourg en chiffres*.

² GENGLER, Claude (1991). *Le Luxembourg dans tous ses états*.

ALS, Georges (1980). *Le Luxembourg-Profil Historique, Géographique, Économique*.

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³ statec (2000). *Le Luxembourg en chiffres*.

⁴ LANGERS, Jean (1988). *Projections de la population luxembourgeoise 1987-2030*, pp.259-280.

⁵ quoted from CALOT, Gérard (1992). *L'évolution démographique au Luxembourg*, p.47.

⁶ CALOT, Gérard (1992). *L'évolution démographique au Luxembourg*.

⁷ id., p.48.

⁸ id., p.47.

⁹ statec (1990). *Statistiques historiques: 1839-1989*.

statec (1995). *Le recensement de la population au 1er mars 1991: principaux résultats*.

¹⁰ statec (2000). *Le Luxembourg en chiffres*, p.7.

¹¹ Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale et de la Jeunesse (1986). *Enquête sur les habitudes et besoins langagiers au Grand-Duché de Luxembourg*.

¹² id., p.7.

¹³ id., p.12.

¹⁴ id., p.16.

¹⁵ id., p.19.

¹⁶ id., p.18.

¹⁷ FEHLEN, Fernand, PIROTH, Isabelle & SCHMIT, Carole (1998). *Les langues au Luxembourg*.

¹⁸ id., pp.132-135.

¹⁹ BERG, Charles & THOSS, Robert (1996). *Une situation de multilinguisme. Le cas du Luxembourg*.

²⁰ ALS, Georges (1980). *Le Luxembourg-Profil Historique, Géographique, Économique*, p.27.

²¹ statec (2000). *Annuaire statistique*, tableau E.408.

²² quoted from statec (1987). *Mutations structurelles et politiques de diversification économique*.

²³ GENGLER, Claude (1991). *Le Luxembourg dans tous ses états*, p.171.

²⁴ see site of the "Banque Centrale du Luxembourg": www.bcl.lu

²⁵ statec (2000). *Le Luxembourg en chiffres*.

²⁶ id.

Chapter 2



Living conditions of young people in the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg



Demographic data

Nationality

Among the population of young people (12 to 24 year olds), the proportion of foreigners is slightly different from the proportion in the total sample, with 57.4% Luxembourg nationals and 42.6% foreigners¹. The distribution by nationality is similar to that of the total population: 19% are Portuguese nationals, 3.6% Italian, 4% French, 3.2% from Yugoslavia or Bosnia, 2.6% Belgian; the rest belong to more than 100 different nationalities, the most important, in decreasing order, being German, British, Dutch and Spanish.

Geographical distribution

The distribution of young people by nationality reveals considerable disparities in the various "cantons" (administrative areas). In Luxembourg City young Luxembourg nationals represent no more than a third of young people, young Portuguese one quarter, and other young foreigners approximately 40%. In R edange, however, 75% of young people are Luxembourg nationals.

Age

In the age pyramid, young people represent 15% of the population between the ages of 12 and 24 years, 8% of the 12-18 years age group and 7% of the group aged between 19 and 24 years. The percentage of young people in Luxembourg is relatively low compared to that of other countries. With 11% of the population being made up of young people between the ages of 15 and 25 years, the U.S. Bureau of Census (2000) rates the Grand Duchy together with Germany in the last position in Europe, whereas Ireland takes first place with a level of 17%.

The demographic forecasts appear less pessimistic, however, if we take account of the surplus migration balance experienced for a number of years now. Allowing for this situation to continue to 2010, the forecasts made by Eurostat in 1996 could indeed materialise. The statistics office of the European Union forecasts that the group of young people between the ages of 15 and 24 years will increase to 13% by 2010 in the Grand Duchy, which would then rank among the three countries in the EU with the highest rate of young people, ahead of France and Belgium with a rate of just 12% and Germany with 11%.

Thus the forecasts made by Calot have been wrong, since at the time he was carrying out his research the fertility rate of women was only 1.52, whereas in 1997 it was 1.71 and in 1998 1.67. The rise in fertility rates is largely due to immigrants, most of whom belong to the group of young adults of an age to start a family.

In the next ten years, then, we should in all probability look to an increase in the number of young people. In view of the impact of migrants on demographic evolution, young people will be even more multicultural than they are at present. Education and youth policies will have to take these phenomena into account and make provision for sufficient resources to ensure structures suited to this diverse and complex population of young people in the future.

¹ Centre Informatique de l'État (1.1.2001). *Répertoire général des personnes physiques* (General list of natural persons).



Education

Structure and functioning of the educational system¹

Compulsory schooling comprises two years of kindergarten, six years of primary education and three years of secondary education, giving a total of eleven years.

For the past two years, pre-school education has been preceded by "early education", an optional scheme for children who have reached the age of three. The main objective is to provide the child with a better environment for socialisation. Foreign children can also become more familiar with Luxembourgish, and this helps their social integration as much as their scholastic integration. This early education forms an integral part of the educational system; it is provided free of charge, and responsibility for its organisation lies with the municipal authorities.

On completion of primary education, the child takes one of two possible directions:

General secondary education, lasting seven years, prepares pupils for further education at university; it leads to the "diplôme de fin d'études secondaires" (secondary education completion diploma) which opens the door to higher education in all disciplines. There are three cycles in this level of education:

- A lower cycle lasting three years. The first year of this (first year of secondary school), called "classe d'orientation" (orientation class) is intended to enable pupils to adapt to secondary education and to estimate their chances of success. In the next year (second year of secondary school), pupils opt for either a "classical" education with Latin as a third language, or for a "modern" education with English as a third language. Pupils in the classical section start to learn English in the next year thereafter (third year of secondary school).
- A polyvalent cycle in the upper division (fourth and fifth years of secondary school) with a humanities group and a science group. The basic syllabus is the same for both sections, except in mathematics. By choosing one or two options, pupils are able to give a certain direction to their studies.
- A specialisation cycle (sixth and seventh years of secondary school) comprising a number of sections within the two previous groups. The humanities group includes sections A1 (languages, social sciences), A2 (human and social sciences), E (art) and F (music); the science group includes sections B (mathematics and physics), C (natural sciences and mathematics) and D (economics).

Technical secondary education ("EST") is extremely complex; it comprises a number of cycles.

- The lower cycle last three years (first three years of secondary education). It is intended to round out pupils' general education and guide them towards a training scheme or a profession that corresponds to their abilities and preferences. From the second year onwards, practical courses are designed to familiarise pupils with the major groups of professions and help them in making their own choices subsequently. After completing this cycle successfully, pupils are directed towards one of the schemes in the middle and higher cycles of EST.

- The middle and higher cycles of EST. The middle cycle serves a dual purpose, to either prepare the young people for the "certificat d'aptitude technique et professionnel" – CATP (certificate of technical and vocational proficiency), or enable those capable of assimilating more theoretical and abstract subjects to move on to the higher cycle of EST. Depending on the scheme followed, the middle cycle lasts either two or three years. To allow for different types of training, it includes three schemes – the vocational scheme, the technician training scheme and the technical scheme.
- The vocational scheme prepares directly for a vocational qualification – the CATP. For some professions, the three years of training take place exclusively in school, while for others the young people are trained on the job by an employer and follow courses at technical school in parallel with their work. There is also a mixed scheme, where apprentices spend one or two years at technical school full time and then complete their training with an employer.
- The purpose of the technician training scheme is to train a highly skilled labour force capable of participating in the planning of technical projects. The technician's diploma is obtained after four years of study (two years in the middle cycle and two years in the upper cycle) and enables young people to get a job immediately. It also allows them to continue their studies at college in the speciality corresponding to the diploma they have earned. They may choose from a number of areas – administrative and commercial work, agriculture, artistic work, chemical industry, electro-technical work, civil engineering, the hotel and tourist trade, mechanics and IT.
- The technical scheme, lasting four years, leads to a technical examination for awarding a "diplôme de fin d'études secondaires techniques" (technical secondary completion diploma). It is intended firstly to train administrative and technical managers capable of assuming tasks involving a relatively high degree of responsibility, and secondly to prepare the young people for continuing their studies at college or university.

The Grand Duchy has only limited possibilities for studying at a higher level. The higher education system currently comprises three colleges at which full higher education studies may be completed. These are:

- the "Institut Supérieur de Technologie" (institute for technological studies), which offers a four-year course leading to a qualification as an industrial engineer. It is organised in four sections, covering the electro-technical field, civil engineering, mechanics and applied IT;
- the "Institut Supérieur d'Études et de Recherches Pédagogiques" (institute for teaching studies and research), which trains teachers for primary schools and for pre-school education. Candidates for admission must hold a secondary (ordinary or technical) education diploma; entrance is by competitive examination based on the results of the diploma examination and language tests. Training lasts three years and leads to the "certificat d'études pédagogiques" (teaching certificate);

- the "Institut d'Études Éducatives et Sociales" (institute for educational and social studies), which offers a three-year course for training graduate educators or educators in different sections. Admission to the section of post-secondary education leading to the "diplôme d'éducateur gradué" (graduate educator diploma) is open to students holding a secondary (ordinary or technical) education. Students may follow a full-time training scheme lasting three years or a training scheme in addition to employment in the socio-educational field, lasting six years.
- The Luxembourg University Centre does not enable students to complete their university careers in Luxembourg, as it only offers an initial cycle that lasts one or two years, depending on the subject. It has departments of law and economics, letters and humanities, and science. Students who start their university studies at the University Centre have to continue them elsewhere in order to achieve a qualification in their chosen field. Most students from the Grand Duchy are therefore obliged to spend a number of years in another country.



Graph 1

The structure of education in the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg¹

Age						Class																								
21/22	institute for educational and social studies	institute for technological studies	institute for teaching studies and research	University centre	higher technical training courses																									
20/21																														
19/20																														
18/19	<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th colspan="2"></th> <th>Technical secondary education</th> <th>General secondary education</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>14/15</td> <td rowspan="4">Preparatory scheme</td> <td rowspan="4"></td> <td rowspan="4"></td> </tr> <tr> <td>13/14</td> </tr> <tr> <td>12/13</td> </tr> <tr> <td>11/12</td> </tr> <tr> <td>10/11</td> <td colspan="3" rowspan="4">Primary education</td> </tr> <tr> <td>9/10</td> </tr> <tr> <td>8/9</td> </tr> <tr> <td>7/8</td> </tr> <tr> <td>6/7</td> <td colspan="3" rowspan="3">Pre-school education</td> </tr> <tr> <td>5/6</td> </tr> <tr> <td>4/5</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>							Technical secondary education	General secondary education	14/15	Preparatory scheme			13/14	12/13	11/12	10/11	Primary education			9/10	8/9	7/8	6/7	Pre-school education			5/6	4/5	
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Key statistical data

The most recent data on numbers in education is for the year 1998/99².

Distribution of pupils in the various levels of education

31.11% of all pupils are in general secondary education, and 68.67% in technical

secondary education; the ratio is therefore approximately 1:2. This is due to the fact that technical education is considered to be less demanding and is therefore advised by the schools' guidance counsellors for a greater number of pupils than general secondary education.

In the last four years, school guidance counsellors directed 39.1-40.5% of all young people towards the general secondary education, 51.8-53.3% towards the technical secondary education, and 7.3-8.7% towards the preparatory classes for technical secondary education³.

During the first few years of post-primary education, technical education gradually absorbs those pupils unable to cope with the general scheme, producing a final ratio of 1:2.

Distribution by gender and by nationality

Table 6

		Gen. secondary education	Tech. secondary education
Distribution of pupils by gender and by nationality within general and technical secondary education ⁴	gender		
	male	44.8%	52.4%
	female	55.2%	47.6%
nationality	Luxembourgers	87.4%	63.3%
	foreigners	12.6%	36.7%

It is clear from this that the number of pupils in the two types of secondary education differs according to both gender and nationality. There are more girls than boys in general secondary education whereas the opposite is true in technical secondary education. This may be partly due to the fact that boys are more interested in technical subjects, but it should not be forgotten that technical secondary education is considered to be less demanding and that school guidance counsellors tend to advise it for pupils with learning difficulties. Is it not also possible that girls make more of an effort and are more ambitious than boys, and have better marks to show at the end of their primary education?

As regards nationality, the percentage of foreign pupils is much higher in technical education than in general education. As these pupils experience considerable difficulties in learning languages, it is understandable that they should tend to choose – and tend to be advised to choose – the type of education in which languages are relatively less important.

Over the years a constant, albeit slow, increase is visible in the percentage of foreign pupils in general secondary education. The percentage increased from 7.1% in 1973/74 to 12.6% in 1998/99.

The "SeSoPI – Centre Intercommunautaire" (intercommunity centre) highlights the risks inherent in this situation. A report by the centre states that particular attention needs to be paid to the mechanisms of marginalisation at work in Luxembourg society, and argues that the – highly selective – education system in the Grand Duchy always results in the under-achievement of a large number of children who speak Romance languages, or in their being shunted into short-term further education. According to the report, there is a risk of these communities feeling that they have been deliberately left out, with the concomitant risk of their becoming increasingly ethnicised.⁶

Distribution by age

Distribution by age makes it possible to draw up a balance sheet of under-achievement at school in relation to the normal age, i.e. the age the children would have if they had not had to repeat any of their years of schooling (which happens if the child is not up to standard at the end of the school year). In general secondary education, the proportion of pupils of normal age (or younger) drops from 90% in the first year to 58% in the final year. The corresponding figures for technical secondary education are 61.2% in the first year and 23.2% in the thirteenth year of compulsory schooling (the final year in most sections). These figures show that all post-primary education is highly selective and features a high level of under-achievement. In general secondary education, for example, the level of under-achievement is relatively stable, with approximately 10% of pupils repeating the year; this peaks at 15% in the third year. By the end of the seven years, only half the pupils have never had to repeat a year.

Reasons for under-achievement

This situation is partly due to the bilingual nature of teaching, requiring all pupils, whether Luxembourgers or foreigners, to learn both German and French to a very high level. Pupils who speak Romance languages (Italian and Portuguese) have a very high failure rate in German, while Luxembourgers are more likely to fail in French in technical secondary education⁶.

Success in the final school examination

Over the last six years the failure rate in the examination at the end of general secondary education has been in the order of 10 to 14%. Prior to that, the rate had been closer to – and on occasions even greater than – 20%. Changes in the examination, introducing oral tests and compensatory mechanisms, produced an improvement in results; this was also observed in a Eurostat study which shows that the percentage of pupils successfully completing secondary education has increased in the past ten years⁷.

Unfortunately, corresponding data for technical secondary education is not available.

University or higher education

There are few reliable statistics on the number of university students. This is due to the fact that most young people following a university course do so outside the

Grand Duchy. The only precise statistics are those concerning the young people attending the colleges within the Grand Duchy, i.e. ISERP, IST and IEES, or enrolled for the initial two-year course at the University Centre. As these students constitute a mere fraction of the total student body, the proportion of young people between the ages of 20 and 25 years in post-secondary education has to be estimated. The best estimate may be obtained by calculating the proportion of young people in this age group receiving family allowance benefit for study purposes⁸. This gives a percentage of 33.2% for the year 1998. As the information obtained from the National Family Benefit Fund refers to the working population and not to all families resident in the Grand Duchy, this figure may be over-generous as the number of cross-border workers who work in the Grand Duchy but live in the three neighbouring countries is very high. Of the young people receiving family allowance benefits, one-fifth do not live in the Grand Duchy; as it is probable that university students are somewhat under-represented in this group, we may assume that the margin of error will not be in excess of 20%. The true percentage of young people aged between 20 and 25 years enrolled in higher education is therefore somewhere between 26.6 and 33.2%.

These estimates are confirmed by a study carried out by CEPS/Instead in 1997⁹ in the PSELL ("Panel socioéconomique "Liewen zu Lëtzebuerg" – socio-economic panel on living conditions in Luxembourg) sample, which produces figures of 36.6% for students and 3.3% for apprentices in the age group of 20 to 24 year olds.

Basic problems facing education in the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg

It transpires from the foregoing that a number of problems are endemic to education in the Grand Duchy. The main problem is the **high level of under-achievement**; the authorities are fully aware of it and measures have been proposed to combat it, including:

- making moving up to the next class more flexible by relaxing the corresponding criteria;
- improving the assessment process by determining precisely the objectives to be attained; pupils who have fallen behind but are making good progress should be allowed to catch up within a period which could extend beyond the academic year but not require an unnecessary repetition of the entire year.

New methods for producing a more detailed assessment are to be explored:

- taking account of progress made;
- taking account of skills already acquired;
- diversifying the assessment according to the desired objectives;
- use of a systematic back-up system, at least in the classes in the lower cycle¹⁰.

A further major problem in education in the Grand Duchy is the **very high proportion of children of foreign extraction**.

This is behind a number of sensitive questions that arise:

Should young foreigners be integrated into the Luxembourg system or should more appropriate arrangements be made specifically for them?

Because it is bilingual, education in the Grand Duchy is very demanding even for Luxembourg nationals. What about foreign children whose language situation is even more complex?

The Luxembourg authorities have opted for the integration of foreign pupils into the Luxembourg school system. The publication "Demain l'école" (School tomorrow), published in 1991 on the initiative of the Minister for Education, Marc Fischbach, sets out the arguments for this decision in the following terms: "... schools in the Grand Duchy should on the whole stay the same for everyone, since growing up together is the best way of giving everyone the feeling that they belong to the same society".¹¹

Should foreigners be integrated or should their cultural identity be protected?

Although there is greater emphasis placed on integration, attempts are nevertheless made to enable foreign children to maintain a link with their cultural background. Thus at primary school level a number of municipalities have experimented with the inclusion of classes in the native language and culture in the normal syllabus. However, nothing similar exists at secondary school level.¹²

To resolve this dilemma, the concept of intercultural education has been developed; its objectives are the following:

- "developing among all children awareness and acceptance of the multicultural society;
- pointing to the concept of culture as a dynamic process and promoting exchanges between cultures;
- preventing intolerance and racism from a very early age by a better knowledge and understanding of others and oneself".¹³

Intercultural education is a frame of mind that should be included in all the different subjects taught at school and take account at all times of the diversity of our multicultural society.

Principles for the future of Luxembourg society – their application at school

As we have seen, the education system in the Grand Duchy has to deal with complex problems caused not only by its relatively rigid structure, but also by the high level of the demands it makes and its multilingual, multicultural pupils. In order to gradually achieve a better adaptation of the school system to its pupils, the Ministry of Education has for many years had to introduce both short sharp reforms and reforms on a larger scale.

So that these reforms can be properly targeted, the Ministry has drawn up a set of guiding principles intended to inspire any reform in the education system. These are

the following principles, set out in the publication "Pour une école d'intégration" (1998) (For a school of integration), which is more particularly devoted to the problems raised by the integration of young foreigners in schools.

- **Principle of social cohesion.** In a small country like ours, where the proportion of foreigners is so high and the language situation so complex, the first objective lies in maintaining social cohesion. This means giving priority to measures favouring integration and avoiding those likely to lead to any polarisation of society. In particular, the three languages used traditionally in our country should become the shared heritage of all, and all children attending school in the Grand Duchy should learn Luxembourgish.
- **Principle of equality.** Our objective should be one school for all, adapted to the diversity of pupils and their needs. Equality of rights in education is only possible by giving particular attention and resources to those who have most need. Any measure adopted in order to eliminate discrimination or handicap of any kind must be valid for all children, whether they are Luxembourg nationals or foreigners.
- **Principle of effectiveness.** Ever since it became independent, the simultaneous use of three languages has been a feature of the Grand Duchy. This multilingualism is a constituent part of our national identity as well as a valuable advantage for our country and for all those who live and work in it. This advantage should not only be maintained; it should be developed further. This means a targeted investment in the quality and differentiation of language teaching, without this resulting in additional selection at school or curbing vocational training. Multilingualism should constitute an opportunity and an enrichment for all, rather than either an obstacle or a privilege for a minority.
- **Principle of enhancing the identity of each child.** The meeting of different cultures constitutes a source of mutual enrichment. School is a particularly important element in this; each child, whether of Luxembourg or foreign origin, has its own identity and should have the possibility of learning about its own environment and culture and those of the people it lives alongside. This cultural diversity has an effect on the socialisation process that takes place within both society in general and school in particular – mutual understanding and tolerance take on increasing importance.¹⁴

¹ HARSCH, Raymond (1997). *Aperçu sur le système d'enseignement luxembourgeois*.

² LEVY, Jérôme (2000). *Examen de fin d'études secondaires 1999. Comparaisons et analyse*.

LEVY, Jérôme (2000). *L'enseignement secondaire général 1998/99. Statistiques globales et analyse des résultats scolaires*.

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⁴ LEVY, Jérôme (2000). *L'enseignement secondaire général 1998/99. Statistiques globales et analyse des résultats scolaires*.

LEVY, Jérôme (2000). *L'enseignement secondaire technique 1998/99. Statistiques générales et analyse de la promotion des élèves.*

⁵ BESCH, Sylvain (Ed.) (1997). *Luxembourg, pays immunisé contre le racisme? Le débat face au racisme et à la xénophobie au Luxembourg entre 1993 et 1996*, p.56.

⁶ www.script.mert.lu

⁷ MEYERS, Christiane & SCHENK, Manfred (1997). *Kinder und Jugendliche im Großherzogtum Luxemburg. Lebenslagen, Perspektiven und Hilfsangebote*, p.52.

⁸ statec (1.1.1999). *Estimations de population.*

⁹ Caisse Nationale des Prestations Familiales (1999). *Les prestations familiales au Grand-Duché de Luxembourg. Compte rendu de l'exercice 1998.*

¹⁰ HAUSMAN, Pierre (1999). *La situation des résidents sur le marché de travail en décembre 1997*, p.2.

¹¹ Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale et de la Formation Professionnelle (1998). *Pour une école d'intégration. Constats-questions-perspectives*, pp.15-17.

¹² Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale (1990). *Demain l'école. Le système éducatif luxembourgeois face au changement*, p.36.

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¹⁴ id., pp.2-3.



The passage from education to employment

Statistical data

Young people in the labour market

The IGSS ("Inspection Générale de la Sécurité Sociale" – general inspectorate of social security) gives the employment rate of young people aged between 16 and 25 years as 32% in 1997. The rate obviously varies with age – a mere 14% of 18-year-olds are in employment, whereas half the number of 22-year-olds work.

Eurostat notes another interesting point regarding young people entering the labour market – they are doing so later and later. In 1987, half the total number of young people were employed by the age of 19, whereas the age for this level in 1995 was 21. According to the IGSS, the corresponding age in 1997 had increased to 22.

Table 7

	Age\gender	women	men	Total
Employment rate of young people (March 1997) ¹	16	3%	3%	3%
	17	6%	8%	7%
	18	13%	15%	14%
	19	19%	22%	21%
	20	29%	28%	28%
	21	35%	37%	36%
	22	49%	48%	48%
	23	60%	55%	57%
	24	58%	59%	59%
	Total		31%	32%

Unemployment among young people

The number of jobseekers is published each month by the employment authorities ("Administration de l'Emploi" – ADEM). We have used this data as the basis for calculating the average number of jobseekers in various age groups for the years 1998, 1999 and 2000.

This shows that the total number of jobseekers has fallen over the past three years, and this is also true for the various groups of young people.

Table 8

		< 20 years	21-25 years	26-30 years	31 years & over	Total
Average numbers of job-seekers between 1998 and 2000	1998 (number)	426	748	778	3 584	5 536
	1998 (%)	7.70%	13.51%	14.05%	65.74%	100%
	1999 (number)	384	661	706	3 602	5 353
	1999 (%)	7.17%	12.34%	13.19%	67.30%	100%
	2000 (number)	339	570	585	3 472	4 960
	2000 (%)	6.83%	11.47%	11.78%	69.92%	100%

We can see that a large proportion of jobseekers is made up of young people. The group comprising young people up to the age of 25 represents on its own approximately one-fifth of the total number of jobseekers. Taking into account all young adults up to the age of 30, this proportion increases to as much as one-third of all jobseekers.

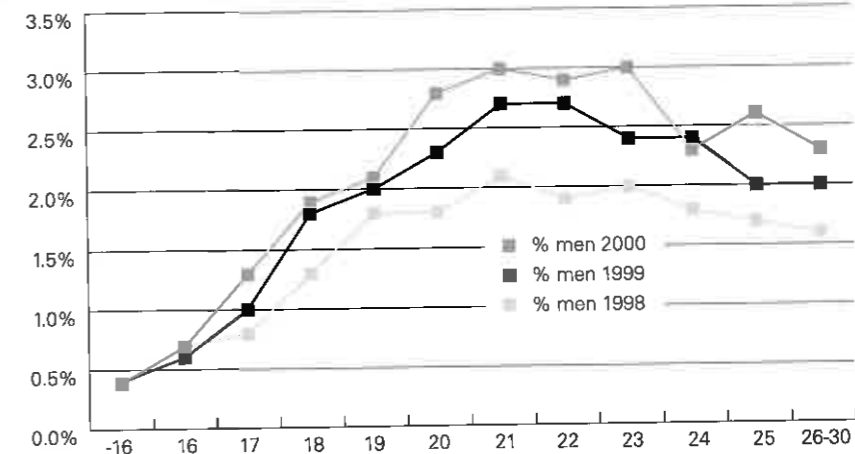
In the absence of Statec statistics on unemployment levels by age, we have calculated for each age group the percentage of young people and young adults who are jobseekers. The table below gives the level of jobseekers in the various age groups between 1998 and 2000. The percentages indicated should not be interpreted as unemployment rates (= ratio of jobseekers to the active population).

Table 9

		1998	1999	2000	
Percentage of young job-seekers in relation to young people of the same age in the population (average for the years 1998, 1999 and 2000) ²	15-20 years	men	1.5%	1.3%	1.1%
	15-20 years	women	1.5%	1.4%	1.2%
	15-20 years	Total	1.5%	1.4%	1.2%
	21-25 years	men	2.7%	2.4%	1.9%
	21-25 years	women	3.1%	2.8%	2.5%
	21-25 years	Total	2.9%	2.6%	2.2%
	26-30 years	men	2.3%	2.0%	1.6%
	26-30 years	women	2.4%	2.2%	1.9%
	26-30 years	Total	2.3%	2.1%	1.8%

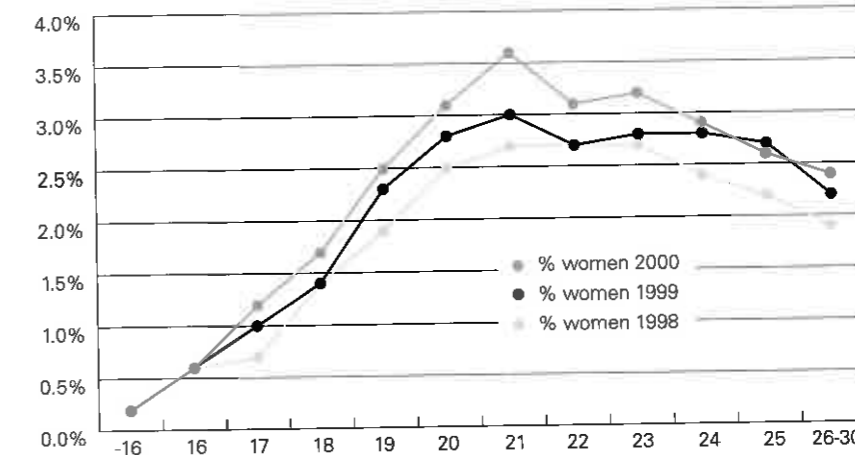
Graph 2

The percentage of young unemployed men between 1998 and 2000



Graph 3

The percentage of young unemployed women between 1998 and 2000



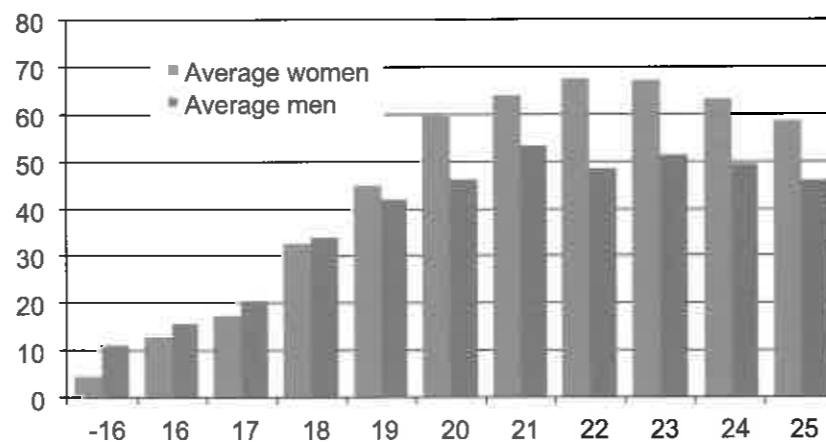
The above table and graphs lead to the following conclusions:

- Up to the age of 19 years, the level of jobseekers is low; this is easily explained by the fact that many young people are still undergoing training and are therefore not seeking a job.

- The overall percentage of jobseekers fell steadily during the period from 1998 to 2000. For young men in the 20-23 years age bracket, the number of jobseekers fell by 1% over this period; the reduction is less for young women, but amounts nevertheless to more than 0.5%.
- Overall, the percentage of young jobseekers is low compared with other countries. The true level of unemployment is obviously higher, since it expresses the relation between the unemployed and the active population plus the number of those looking for a job, but we do not have data on this for the three years under consideration here.
- Comparison between men and women reveals that there are more jobseekers among women than among men. The difference is negligible for the 15 to 20 years age group, but is much more definite in the 21 to 25 years group (1998: 0.4%; 1999: 0.4%; 2000: 0.6%), and slightly less again in the 26 to 30 years group (1998: 0.1%; 1999: 0.2%; 2000: 0.3%).

Graph 4

Annual average number of unemployed by age and gender for 2000²

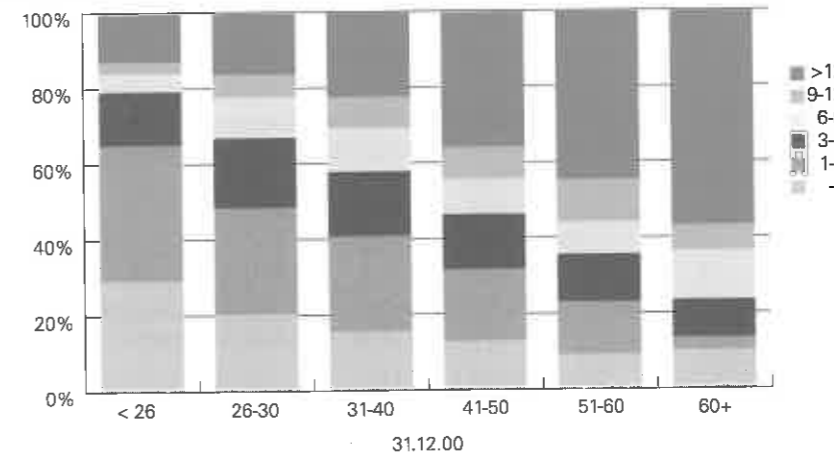


Duration of registration as unemployed

Since the economic situation of the Grand Duchy is favourable at present, the number of young unemployed people is relatively low, and the length of time they take to find a job is relatively short.

Graph 5

Duration of registration as unemployed for various age groups among jobseekers as a whole²



The graph shows that 65% of young people under the age of 26 are registered for no more than three months before finding a job. The length of time is considerably longer for the other age groups, and is indeed directly related to the age of the jobseekers. Among young people under the age of 26 there remains a group of 12% who remain unemployed for more than a year. We may presume that these are mainly young people with very little training to their credit.

Characteristics of jobseekers

Although the proportion of jobseekers is relatively low compared with other countries, account should nevertheless be taken of the fact that young people form a large part of the overall number of jobseekers. It is therefore necessary to investigate the characteristics of this group.

Table 10

Training	<26 years	>26 years	Total
Low level (compulsory schooling)	49.1%	56.2%	54.9%
Average level (full secondary education)	45.1%	32.3%	34.7%
High level (education beyond secondary school)	5.4%	11.2%	10.1%
Not indicated	0.4%	0.2%	0.3%
Total	100%	100%	100%

Young jobseekers according to training and age group for 2000²

A low level of training appears to be the most frequent reason for unemployment. The table indicates that more than half the number of young jobseekers have gone no further than compulsory schooling. These are young people who have not been successful in either the preparatory classes for technical secondary education (formerly called "complementary education") or the lower cycle of technical secondary education.

A study by Kop³ (1993) provides very interesting additional information on this point. It is based on data supplied by a panel survey carried out on Luxembourg households (PSELL) and analyses the factors related to the duration of the non-employment of young people on completion of their schooling. The author notes that the duration of non-employment depends on the characteristics of the individual. Entry into the professional environment is positively influenced by:

- the fact of having followed an apprenticeship after an education in the vocational stream of technical secondary education;
- intense social contacts;
- the household's good socio-cultural integration;
- a high level of education.

This study shows that the social contacts of the individual or the family make it easier to look for a job; they increase the opportunities for hearing about a job, or enable young people to mention the fact that they are looking for a job. Similarly, the fact of having followed an apprenticeship enables young people to meet people who can make it easier for them to look for a job.

The study by Allegrezza-Carvoyeur and Kop⁴ (1991) highlights a number of other factors. A comparison between a group of people who have found jobs within a nine-month period of observation and another group of people who have not highlights, apart from differences in educational levels, factors such as the educational level of the head of the household and the number of people in the household. Children in homes where the head of the household has a low educational level or where a large number of people live together have the least likelihood of finding a job.

It transpires from these studies that the basic characteristics of the young unemployed person are the following:

- a low level of education (first cycle of technical secondary education not successfully completed);
- belonging to an unskilled manual worker environment.

It is a fact that these characteristics are most frequently found among young people with an immigrant background.

Measures in favour of employment of young people

Description of the unemployment situation of young people would not be complete if mention were not made of the existence of various measures in favour of the

employment of young people. This is all the more important in that the young people who benefit from these measures are not included in the statistics on the number of jobseekers set out above.

In the National Action Plan in favour of employment ("PAN") drawn up in 1998, a number of measures are proposed with a view to reducing the number of young people leaving the school system at a very early stage and providing young people with a greater ability to adapt to changes in terms of technology, economics and the qualifications corresponding to the needs of the employment market.

These measures draw on older measures that had been in existence in some cases for more than twenty years, aimed at facilitating the transition of young people from a school environment to a working environment. In 1995 the "Comité de Coordination Tripartite" (tripartite coordination committee) decreed that all young people who had not found a job after being registered with the ADEM for three months would be automatically allocated to one of these measures.

The first three of these measures are directed at young people under the age of 30 registered with the ADEM, guaranteeing them benefit amounting to 80% of the minimum social wage.

- "Contrat d'Auxiliaire Temporaire du secteur public (CAT PU)" (contract as a temporary auxiliary in the public sector), formerly called "Division d'auxiliaires temporaires (DAT)" (division of temporary auxiliaries). For a period of between 12 and 18 months, the young people are employed by the State, a public establishment, a municipality or a State-authorized establishment, or any other body, institution or group of persons pursuing a not-for-profit aim; this makes it easier for them to find a stable job subsequently.
- "Contrat d'Auxiliaire Temporaire du secteur privé (CAT PR)" (contract as a temporary auxiliary in the private sector), formerly called "Stage d'insertion (SI)" (insertion traineeship). For a period lasting not longer than one year, young people can carry out an insertion traineeship in a company; this helps them to enter the working environment and enables them, either during the year or subsequently, to obtain an employment contract.
- "Stage d'insertion en entreprise (SIE)" (company insertion traineeship), formerly called "Stage de préparation en entreprise (SP)" (preparatory company traineeship). Young people follow a practical training programme in a company after a theoretical introduction lasting a month, and stand a good chance of obtaining an employment contract, often with the same company.

The following measure is directed more particularly at young people who have had a higher education.

- "Pool des assistants à la direction (PA)" (pool of headmasters' assistants). The target group here are jobseekers registered with the ADEM who have successfully completed further or university education lasting at least one year and have a good knowledge of the three "official" languages of the Grand Duchy. These

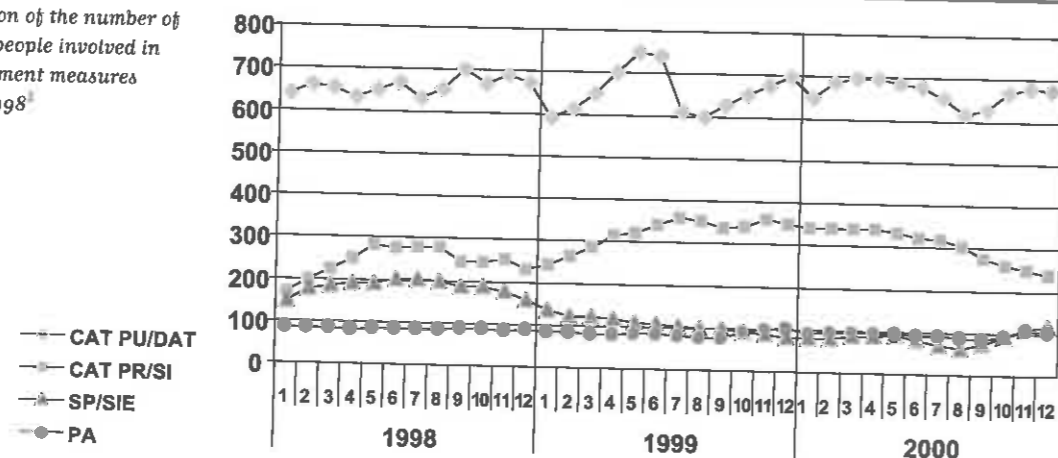
young people assist the headmasters of post-primary schools in supervisory tasks and in extra-curricular and administrative activities, for which they receive a fixed payment (twice the minimum social wage). Full funding is guaranteed by the "Fonds pour l'emploi" (employment fund).

Table 11

		CAT PU / DAT	CAT PR / SI	SP / SIE	PA	Total
Average number of young people involved in the various employment measures over the last three years ¹	1998	660	245	183	85	1 173
	1999	659	323	106	85	1 173
	2000	668	306	87	94	1 155

Graph 6

Evolution of the number of young people involved in employment measures since 1998²



¹ Inspection Générale de la Sécurité Sociale (mars 1997). Banque de données de la Sécurité Sociale. statec (1.1.1997). Estimations de population.

² Administration de l'Emploi (janvier 1998 à décembre 2000). Bulletin luxembourgeois de l'emploi. statec (1.1.1998-1.1.2000). Estimations de population.

³ KOP, Jean-Luc (1993). Approche socio-économique de l'éducation au Grand-Duché de Luxembourg. Analyses à partir du panel des ménages luxembourgeois.

⁴ ALLEGREZZA-CARVOYEUR, Laure-Suzanne & KOP, Jean-Luc (1991). L'analyse de la transition formation-emploi: le cas du Grand-Duché de Luxembourg.

Economic situation, income, poverty

Sources of income

As the Luxembourg statistics office does not publish information on sources of income by age group, we can only refer to smaller-scale sources of information such as the Eurobarometer or the "Plan Communal Jeunesse" (Municipal Youth Plan) survey.

Table 12

Source	Eurobarometer	"Plan Communal Jeunesse"
Sources of income of young people according to two different surveys		
Age	15-24 years	15-20 years
Year of survey	1997	1999
Sample	Random sample representative of the whole country	Random sample in the municipalities of Wiltz, Lorentzweiler, Sanem and Dudelange
Size of sample	N= 200	N=1 050
Regular work	37.3%	17.4%
Unemployment/social security benefit	1.4%	Family allowance: 3% Unemployment benefit: 1% Orphan's allowance: 0.8%
Grants of various kinds	4.7%	0.8%
Parents/family	58%	Parents: 84.4% Member of family: 49%
Occasional work	23.2%	Holiday job: 43% Occasional work: 18%
Partner	5.3%	2.3%
Undeclared work	7%	

The two sources of information produce results that differ considerably. This is obviously due to the fact that the two samples vary as to the age of the persons interviewed and their representativeness in geographical terms.

Differences between the sexes

A study by CEPS/Instead¹ (1995) shows that there are differences as regards personal income. The sources of income considered are those of a professional activity, unemployment and social security benefits and grants. In the group of young people aged 15-19 years, 87.5% of the girls but 97.2% of the boys have personal income. In

the group of young people aged 20-24 years, the corresponding percentages are 90.7% and 97.7%. The difference noted may be due to the fact that young men are more likely to be involved in a professional activity than young women are.

If we take the 20-24 years, 25-29 years and 30-34 years age groups, we see that for the men the percentage of those with personal income increases steadily up to 100%, whereas for the women the percentage falls steadily (90.7%, 71.4%, 52.7%). This may probably be explained by the fact that a certain number of women stop working when they get married. It nevertheless remains true that there is a drop in the economic independence of women in the age groups under consideration.

Young people's wages

As in many other countries, there is a difference between the wages paid to men and to women in the Grand Duchy. According to the study by Engel and Lejealle², the average ratio between the wages of women and those of men varies according to profession (after making allowance for structural effects). The disparity between the wages paid to women and to men is greatest among skilled labourers, as women receive only 74.4% of a man's wage, and the least among administrative employees, where the percentage is 95.5%.

To know whether this disparity is constant throughout a person's lifetime or varies according to age, we may refer to a study by Langers³ (1999), which indicates the average gross wage by socio-economic category, age group and gender.

Table 13

Ratio women/men (as % age)	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50-54	55-59
Management	101	99	89	90	83	73	75	67
Technicians	91	99	97	89	92	84	83	77
Administrative employees	98	99	94	86	88	82	72	77
Skilled labourers	84	78	76	69	71	69	70	67
Unskilled workers	88	88	79	80	69	74	77	69

Ratio between gross wages of women and men by socio-economic category and age group⁴

The structural effects are not neutralized.

A number of comments need to be made:

- the difference in wages is the least in the 20-24 years and 25-29 years age groups;
- there is in general in all the socio-economic categories a gap that grows wider with age between the gross wages of men and of women; this is partly due to

- the fact that women often stop working for a time, thereby delaying their careers;
- the differences in wages depend on socio-economic category; they are particularly marked among skilled and unskilled workers.

Trend towards lower wages for young people

Since the middle of the last decade income from a professional activity has tended to fall. A comparison of young people aged 16 to 24 years in 1985 with the same age group in 1993 shows that on average the young men earn 4.7% less and the young women 8.7% less than in 1985, if we maintain a constant standard of living. The differences noted may vary considerably from one sector to another. Thus we note that income is higher in the services sector (+2.5%) and small undertakings (1-10 persons; +9.3%); in the other sectors losses are in the order of 2 to 14%⁵.

Poverty

Despite the low level of unemployment and relatively high wages, a certain number of young people are living in a poverty situation.

The European Household Panel Survey indicates for 1996 a figure of 10% of young people aged 16-24 years in a poverty situation, taking as the criterion 40% of the average income, and 12% if the criterion is set at 50% of the average income instead. According to these indicators, the Grand Duchy occupies a favourable position in comparison with the other countries of the EU, among the least poor third.

The number of young people in a poverty situation is nevertheless much lower if we take as our criterion allocation of the "Revenu Minimum Garanti" (RMG) (guaranteed minimum income) to the young person's family or to the young person in his/her own right. Before 1999, only persons over the age of 30 years could apply for the RMG, but the lower age limit has since been dropped to 25 years. Exceptions are made for persons under this lower age limit if because of illness or infirmity they are unable to earn a living or if they are raising children.

According to IGSS statistics, the number of young people aged between 15 and 24 years dependent on the RMG was 679 in 1998 and 647 in 1999, which corresponds to 1.42% and 1.34% respectively of the total age group⁶.

The proportion of young people in a poverty situation therefore varies greatly according to the criteria used. Nevertheless, youth policy should concentrate on these young people, who risk definitive marginalisation, and make further arrangements for their support and integration.

- ¹ HAUSMAN, Pierre (1995). *Les Femmes au Grand-Duché de Luxembourg, No. 3. Revenus, conditions de vie.*
- ² ENGEL, Danielle & LEJEALLE, Blandine (1999). *Les femmes et le marché de l'emploi. Étude statistique II, p.77.*
- ³ LANGERS, Jean (1997). *Enquête sur la structure des salaires 1995, p.274.*
- ⁴ id., p.274.
- ⁵ GAILLY, Bernard (1996). *Revenus du travail des Jeunes en 1993. Équivalents à ceux de leurs aînés?*
- ⁶ Inspection Générale de la Sécurité Sociale (1999). *Rapport général sur la sécurité sociale.*



Health and well-being

Subjective perception

One general criterion for judging health and welfare consists of a person's subjective appreciation of his/her own health and the feeling of being well-adjusted.

The Eurobarometer survey¹ (1996) gave the following results for young people aged between 15 and 25 years in the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg: 31.1% considered their health to be very good, 45.4% good, 18.5% satisfactory, 4.2% as poor and lastly 0.8% extremely poor. Thus more than three quarters of all young people felt they were in good or very good health, which would seem to be most satisfactory. The Eurobarometer, by allowing comparisons with other countries in Europe, nevertheless reveals that the Grand Duchy is placed quite low on the list, as only the young people of France, the United Kingdom, Sweden and Portugal have a lower opinion of their health.

A similar question² was raised in the course of recent research (1999) not yet published, entitled "Das Wohlbefinden der Jugend in Luxemburg – Le bien-être des jeunes au Luxembourg" (The well-being of young people in Luxembourg), initiated by the Ministry of Health and the Ministry of Education. The survey was carried out on a sample representative of all pupils in secondary education from the first to the second to last year. The questionnaire corresponds to that used in the HBSC (Health Behaviour of School-aged Children) study; the total sample numbered 7 672 subjects.

47.6% of the boys felt that their health was very good, 48.4% good, and 4% "not very good". The corresponding figures for the girls were 30.1%, 60.1% and 9.8%. There was a significant difference between the boys and the girls, as the girls felt they were less healthy. This tendency for the girls increased with age. Pupils of the general secondary school felt they were healthier than those in other types of education.

The main results of these two surveys confirm each other. The vast majority of young people have the impression that their health is good, while a small minority complains of poor health. It is difficult to make a precise comparison because those questioned were allowed to express themselves differently, on a scale of either three (the "well-being" study) or five (the Eurobarometer survey).

Further on in the questionnaire the young people were asked to state the frequency of suffering from headache, stomach-ache, back-ache, insomnia and dizziness. The table below gives the percentages for boys and girls suffering from these "every day", "once a week", etc.

Table 14

Illnesses	every day			once a week			once a month			rarely		
	M	F	total	M	F	total	M	F	total	M	F	total
Headache	2.0	6.7	4.3	18.8	33.7	26.1	28.6	27.4	28.0	50.7	32.1	41.5
Stomach-ache	1.3	3.4	2.4	10.8	21.4	16.0	25.9	51.9	38.7	61.9	23.4	42.9
Back-ache	3.8	6.9	5.3	15.4	20.5	17.9	20.8	22.2	21.5	60.0	50.5	55.3
Insomnia	3.9	7.5	5.6	17.5	24.1	20.8	17.2	16.9	17.1	61.4	51.6	56.6
Dizziness	2.2	5.4	3.8	9.0	18.9	13.9	13.2	18.1	15.6	75.5	57.6	66.7

How often have you suffered from the following in the course of the past year?³

We can make the following comments on the table:

- If we consider the answer "at least once a week", the order of the illnesses mentioned is as follows: headache, insomnia, back-ache, stomach-ache, dizziness; the order is almost the same for the boys as for the girls, although the latter suffer more frequently from stomach-ache.
- The girls suffer significantly more often from illnesses than the boys do, and the frequency of their headaches increases considerably with age. Compared with boys, girls seem to be more sensitive and more likely to react psychosomatically to the demands made of them by school and by society in general.

Complaints of a psychological nature⁴ involving unhappiness, bad temper, nervousness and fatigue are very frequent. 55% of all the young people admitted to being nervous, and 75% said they felt tired at least once a week. These complaints were also more frequent among the girls. There was scarcely any difference according to age.

Girls took more medicine⁵ for their headaches than did the boys, and the girls increased their use of pain-killers as they grew older.

Health and eating habits

An attempt was made to determine the frequency of consumption of a number of foods or beverages set out in a list⁶. If we group these products in two categories – those that are good for health and those which are not – a number of observations stand out.

Pupils at general secondary schools had more healthy eating habits than the other young people; the number of pupils consuming more than one carbonated drink per day and eating sweets or crisps or chips every day was lower than that of pupils in technical or vocational education. Inversely, the number of pupils eating breakfast regularly and eating cooked vegetables every day was higher among the general secondary school pupils.

Girls tend to pay more attention to healthy eating habits than boys do. These obser-

vations indicate that it would be desirable to direct an information campaign at young people, and that particular attention should be paid to boys and in general to pupils in the technical and vocational streams.

Young people and drugs

The most detailed research on the drug problem among young people in the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg was published in 1995 by Matheis, Prussen and Reuter⁷, and covers fifth-year classes in secondary education. The data was gathered in 1992, which means that the results are no longer particularly recent. The average age of the 1 400 participants was 17.6 years. The sample was representative in terms of gender, nationality and distribution over the various types of education.

The objective of the research was to investigate both the knowledge young people have of legal and illegal drugs and their behaviour in relation to drugs.

The term "drug" was used in its widest sense, covering not only substances authorised by law such as alcohol and nicotine, but also prohibited substances such as derivatives of cannabis and heroin, cocaine, LSD, crack and ecstasy, as well as substances intended for other purposes but used as drugs (e.g. glue-sniffing and abuse of medicines such as pain-killers and tranquillisers).

As regards the knowledge young people have of drugs, the following points emerged:

- Many of the pupils claimed they knew the various drugs, but in fact they did not know what many of the drugs actually looked like.
- Whereas the law (1992 Act) prohibits all contact with illicit drugs, a fairly large proportion of the pupils believed that there was nothing wrong in trying them (46.6%), accepting them as a gift (24.1%) or even consuming them regularly (25.1%).
- In answer to the question if they knew the risks involved in the consumption of drugs, the percentage of those admitting ignorance ("no idea") was high for crack (29.2%) and ecstasy (65.6%) but much lower (between 2.2 and 12.2%) for the other drugs (alcohol, hashish, heroin, nicotine, cocaine, marijuana and LSD).
- The pupils felt the most dangerous drugs were (in descending order) heroin (98.5%), cocaine (96.6%), crack (95.9%), LSD (93.8%), ecstasy (90.1%), hashish (74.8%), marijuana (73.7%), inhaled substances (72.2%), stimulants (62.1%), alcohol (60.4%) and nicotine (57.9%).

Although we may be pleased to see that young people are aware of the danger of illegal drugs, it is nevertheless cause for worry that they show much less reserve in respect of alcohol, nicotine and stimulants. When asked whether they considered it dangerous to drive a car after consuming drugs or alcohol, they gave the following replies: more than half the young people asked felt it was dangerous to drive after consuming drugs, but as far as alcohol was concerned they felt it was not dangerous (16.4%) or not particularly dangerous (49.1%) to drive after drinking three glasses of beer or two glasses of wine.

There was a significant difference between boys and girls in their evaluation of the risk of certain drugs (hashish, marijuana, cocaine, alcohol and nicotine); the girls felt that these substances were significantly more dangerous.

The causes for the consumption of drugs, according to the young people, fall into a number of categories:

- combating unpleasant feelings (46.3% of answers) such as fear, boredom, inner tension;
- curiosity (20.1%);
- the feeling of belonging (14.4%): the need to feel accepted and respected by the peer group;
- stimulation (9.9%): to feel brave, to feel physically in good form;
- rebellion (5%) against society and the adult world;
- expansion of personal experience and awareness (3.1%).

Most of the reasons given fall within the emotive and affective field. It is interesting to note that the reasons that used to be put forward by many of the young people involved in the hippy movement now come last on the list of reasons given by young people today.

As for the actual consumption of drugs, we may note the following facts:

- 18.1% of young people state that they have taken illegal drugs at least once in their lives. More boys (22%) than girls (15.1%) say that they have done so. There is no significant difference between Luxembourg nationals and foreigners, except for contact with stimulants, consumed more often by Luxembourgers. The number of young people taking drugs increases steadily with age, and is particularly high over the age of 19 years.
- The number of regular users of illegal drugs is obviously not as high. 6% of young people said they consumed cannabis products, and 3.5% stimulants. For all other drugs, the percentage is considerably lower (around 0.5%).
- It can be seen that those young people who say they have used heroin or cocaine all state that they have also used cannabis products. Although it is not possible to state that there is a cause/effect relation, it is nevertheless obvious that there is a link between the consumption of hard drugs and the consumption of cannabis.
- The first contact with illegal drugs usually takes place in the company of young people of the same age. It is often friends or classmates who offer drugs.
- As for the consumption of alcohol, 12.5% of young people stated that they never drank, 75.5% said that they drank very occasionally, and 12% regularly. The number of girls who drank regularly was considerably lower than the number of boys.
- 27.7% of the young people smoked. Here again, more of the boys smoked than the girls (31.6% compared with 24.3%). The numbers increased considerably

with age. Slightly more than one-third of the smokers could be considered as heavy smokers (at least one packet of cigarettes a day).

- Two-thirds of the young people had already take pain-killers, a quarter had used tranquillisers and a tenth sleeping tablets. The girls used these products more frequently (83.3%) than the boys (70%).

Characteristics of young people consuming large quantities of legal and illegal drugs

This group comprises those young people who have a high consumption of alcohol, nicotine, pharmaceutical products or illegal drugs. The authors of the study attempt to compare this group with other pupils in order to highlight any differences that might be characteristic of the group. A number of points are worth mentioning. The members of this group:

- are more likely to consider that illegal drugs are "not dangerous", or at least "not particularly dangerous";
- believe to a lesser degree that it is possible to become addicted to drugs;
- consider more often that driving a car after consuming alcohol or drugs is not particularly dangerous;
- think that the consumption of cannabis products should be legalised.

At school there are also considerable differences between them and other pupils:

- they are often under-achievers;
- they are more likely to consider themselves poor pupils;
- they show less interest in school and have poor relationships with their teachers;
- they are more likely to know where to get drugs, either outside or inside the school;
- they know other pupils who take drugs and tend to consider them as friends.

In the family the following differences appear:

- the parents are more often separated;
- the young people feel that they have a poor relationship with their mothers and that the atmosphere within the family is not good;
- they have the impression that their parents do not understand them;
- they do not particularly like spending time with their families.

In their spare time:

- they spend more of their spare time with friends;
- they are more frequently part of a regular group that visits bars or discos;
- they claim more often that they have a relationship with a boyfriend/girlfriend and feel that contact with the opposite sex is relatively easy.

Comparison between 1983 and 1992

Comparison with a similar study carried out about ten years earlier⁹ reveals a number of changes in behaviour as well as a certain degree of continuity.

For the **consumption of alcohol**, the results are relatively stable. The proportion of pupils in contact with alcohol is over 85% in both studies. The number of occasional consumers (1983: 77.2%; 1992: 75%) and regular drinkers (1983: 12%; 1992: 12.2%) is practically the same. There are still more boys than girls consuming alcohol regularly, and the increase in the consumption of alcohol with age may be observed in both samples.

The **consumption of tobacco**, however, has changed over the period under consideration. In 1983, 41.2% of young people smoked, whereas in 1992 the percentage had fallen to 27.7%. The number of heavy smokers had halved, and the number of the others had fallen by a seventh. The decrease in the number of smokers was greater among the girls than the boys.

On the whole, the percentage of pupils in contact with certain drugs fell. This was particularly noticeable for cannabis products and LSD. On the other hand, the number of young people using stimulants had increased considerably. The number of boys using drugs was still higher than the number of girls.

These results, dating from 1992, correspond broadly to the data obtained in the study entitled "Das Wohlbefinden der Jugend in Luxemburg – Le bien-être des jeunes au Luxembourg"¹⁰ (The well-being of young people in Luxembourg). Part of the questionnaire used for this survey explores the behaviour of young people in relation to tobacco, alcohol and drugs. The results of these two studies may only be compared over comparable samples. It is for this reason that a sub-sample of pupils in the third year of secondary education has been taken from the "well-being" study (N=1 117).

- Of all the young people between the ages of 12 and 20 years included in the sample (N=7 352), 24.5% of the boys and 25.8% of the girls smoke every day. The number of regular smokers increases significantly with age, among both girls and boys. At the age of 14, 16.3% of the boys and 13.6% of the girls smoke regularly (every day), at the age of 17 the respective percentages are 33.5% and 29.8%, and at the age of 19, 43.7% and 47.8%.

In the research carried out by Matheis et al., we see that girls smoke significantly less than boys. It would appear that between 1992 and 1999 the girls had caught up and even overtaken the boys in their consumption of tobacco. After the drop noted between 1983 and 1992, the consumption of tobacco is again on the increase, according to the results of this research. There are still differences according to the type of schooling; pupils in general secondary education smoke the least, followed in ascending order by those in the technical and then the vocational streams. There are remarkable links with other types of behaviour. Regular smokers are more likely to drink alcohol at least once a week, to go out with friends often

(more than three times a week) or to have consumed an illegal drug within the previous twelve months. They also have more pocket money.

- According to the data in the "well-being" study, the **consumption of alcohol** (at least once a week) also increases significantly with age. Unlike the consumption of tobacco, the increase among girls stops at 16 years (32%), whereas among the boys the increase continues until the age of 19 years, reaching a figure of 65.2%. The difference between the sexes is very clear – the number of girls drinking alcohol is nearly half that of boys. It is also the boys who consume alcohol to excess more frequently; 14.6% of boys state that they have been drunk more than ten times, while the figure for the girls is no more than 4.8%. The same differences between the types of schooling as those noted for the consumption of tobacco exist for the consumption of alcohol. There is also a link between this and regular smoking, going out often with friends and having quite a lot of pocket money. Since 1992, when the study by Matheis et al. was carried out, the percentage of heavy drinkers (young people who state that they have been drunk more than ten times) has risen from 16.7% to more than 18% in 1999.
- The results of the "well-being" study vary considerably between the percentages of those who have taken a drug "at least once in their lifetime" or "once in the previous year" or "several times/often". As for consumption on a single occasion, there is a steady and considerable increase for certain drugs in the 13-20 years age group, including cannabis (from 3.5% of 13-year-olds to 46.8% of 19-year-olds) and mushrooms (from 0.3% of 13-year-olds to 9.9% of 19-year-olds). For other drugs such as ecstasy, amphetamines, heroin, pharmaceutical products, cocaine, glue and LSD, consumption remains low under the age of 18 years (between 1 and 4% of users) with an increase after the age of 19. There is a significant difference between the sexes, with boys being more keen to experiment. As was observed earlier in respect of tobacco and alcohol, pupils in general secondary schools use drugs less than the pupils of other types of school.

If we look at the proportion of young people who had used drugs regularly ("several times" or "often") during the previous year, the sample overall produced a rate of consumption of 15.1% for cannabis (17.7% for girls and 12.4% for boys) and rates mainly less than 1% for the other drugs.

Here again there appears to be a link between other behaviour patterns such as smoking, drinking alcohol, going out often with friends and having quite a lot of pocket money.

Among the reasons young people give for consuming illegal drugs, curiosity is largely predominant (52.8% for boys and 54.8% for girls). Other reasons are rarely given. The answer "because I had problems" was given by 14.4% of the girls and 7.3% of the boys.

Comparison with the 1992 study shows that the consumption of illegal drugs has increased over the past ten years. In the study by Matheis et al., 18.1% of young people in the fifth year of secondary school (and the corresponding classes in the

technical and vocational streams) said that they had had contact with drugs, whereas in the 1999 survey, the figure had risen to 41.1%. This may be due to their having easier access to certain drugs, including cannabis, consumption of which has become commonplace. Happily, the consumption of truly hard drugs is still relatively limited in the Grand Duchy.

The most recent research in the field of drugs refers exclusively to cannabis and falls within the context of the debate on the possible decriminalisation of soft drugs in the Grand Duchy¹¹. The purpose of the study was to obtain information on the current situation (awareness of the legal situation, attitudes in respect of cannabis, consumption), on the people using it and their living conditions, and on the need for preventing addiction.

The method used was that of "rapid assessment", a means of rapidly gathering information from various sources on a specific topic. In the context of this study, the following information was obtained by means of a number of surveys – a survey of the inhabitants of a number of municipalities taking part in the "Suchtprävention an der Gemeng" (addiction prevention at municipality level) programme, another survey using a sample of pupils in the eighth (N=290) and twelfth (N=272) years of compulsory schooling, a survey of people visiting a multi-screen cinema, interviews with cannabis users, surveys carried out in various institutions (e.g. SPOS, services dealing with young drug users), and lastly interviews with general practitioners and psychiatrists as well as with representatives of the police and the courts.

The following results should be noted in the present context¹²:

- Consumption of cannabis: according to the survey carried out in the municipalities, 3.2% of young people in the 12-16 years age group, 5.8% in the 17-25 years age group and 3.9% of adults in the 26-40 years age group use cannabis. The sample of classes produces the following results: 4.7% of young people in the eighth year of compulsory schooling (average age 13.5 years) said that they occasionally or regularly used cannabis, while the percentage for young people in the twelfth class (average age 18 years) was 13.3%. The fact that these figures are higher than those in the municipalities may be explained by the fact that the municipalities are on the whole rather small and contact with drugs is not as easy. The percentage of those who state that they have used cannabis at least once in their lives is obviously much higher; for the classes in the eighth year the figure was 14.5% and for the twelfth year 43.4%.
- Awareness of the effects of cannabis: 41.3% of the pupils in the eighth class and 21.1% of the pupils in the twelfth class said that they did not know much about the effects of cannabis.
- Awareness of the legal situation: Most of the young people knew that the consumption of cannabis was against the law (eighth year: 75.7% of the boys and 59.7% of the girls; twelfth year: 63.4% of the boys and 59.5% of the girls). A considerably larger percentage knew selling cannabis was against the law (eighth class: 90.1% of the boys and 79.4% of the girls; twelfth year: 90.1% of the boys

and 89.6% of the girls). As for the possession of small quantities of cannabis, approximately one third of pupils in the eighth class (30.2%) and one quarter of those in the twelfth class (24%) did not know if this was permitted.

- Motivation for consumption: Curiosity is the main reason given by those who have tried cannabis once; those who use it regularly refer to the way it calms mood changes, promotes relaxation, and enables them to forget their problems. The motives given for not using the drug are mainly not feeling any need to do so ("Verlangen"), lack of interest in experimenting with consumption ("kein Interesse an Drogenerfahrung"), not wanting to lose control, and the danger of addiction. Fear of the legal consequences or financial reasons come last on the list, and seem not to have any notable influence on consumption.
- Conditions of consumption: Cannabis is usually used at the weekend (57.4%) and in the evening (52%); it is usually used "outside, in the open" (63.3%), at a party (60.5%), in a public place (44.2%) or at home (30.6%). This order is approximately the same for both regular and other users.
- Link between consumption of cannabis and living conditions: Those young people who did not use cannabis felt that they were on the whole more satisfied with school, home and their lives in general than users did. Users tended to feel that the way their parents were bringing them up was not sufficiently democratic.
- Evolution of consumption: The Luxembourg drug addiction prevention centre, which initiated this study, has been carrying out surveys regularly since 1994 on the consumption of cannabis both in the municipalities and among samples of pupils. Despite the important fluctuations due to the different samples, the prevention centre takes the view that the consumption of cannabis among the considered age groups of young people (12 to 16 years and 17 to 25 years) is progressing steadily.

¹ Eurobaromètre 44.3 (1996), quoted from HACKAUF, Horst & WINZEN, Gerda (1998). *On the state of young people's health in the European Union*, p.70.

² "How do you rate your health - very good, good, not very good?"

³ Ministère de la Santé (1999). *Le bien-être des jeunes au Luxembourg*, Question 28.

⁴ id., Question 29.

⁵ id., Question 31.

⁶ id., Question 10.

⁷ MATHEIS, Jos, PRUSSEN, Paul & REUTER, Paul (1995). *Schüler und Drogen. Eine repräsentative Untersuchung bei den Schülern der 5. Klasse des allgemeinen und technischen Sekundarunterrichts in Luxemburg. Ausmaß, Zusammenhänge, Vergleiche, Präventionsmaßnahmen*.

⁸ id., pp.166-167.

⁹ MATHEIS, Jos, PRUSSEN, Paul & BINTENER, Gina (1985). *Nos élèves devant la drogue. Étude faite auprès des élèves de la 5^e année d'études des enseignements secondaire et secondaire technique du Grand-Duché de Luxembourg*.

¹⁰ The results of this study, carried out in 1999, have not been published yet. We therefore thank Dr Yolande Wagener for authorising us to use the data from the survey that she has analysed for her postgraduate thesis on the state of health of young people in the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg - legal and illegal drugs (2000).

¹¹ FISCHER, Uwe Ch. & JUNG, Claudia (2000). *Cannabis in Luxembourg*.

¹² id., p.112 ff.

Young people and their families

Changes

A number of changes have taken place since the 1980s in respect of families; the most important are set out below:

- The **age** at which people marry has risen; in 1980 43.7% of men and 51% of women were aged between 20 and 24 years at the time they married, whereas in 1994 the respective figures were 15.9% and 29.1%, and in 1997 11% and 21.2%¹.
- The number of married couples in which one of the partners is a foreign **national** has increased; in 1980 in 68.2% of cases both partners were Luxembourg nationals, in 1994 this was true of just 54.5% of couples and in 1997 in 48.2% of cases².
- Among young people, **living together** has become increasingly frequent. Whereas only 9% of all couples are not married, among young people under the age of 35 years (age of the male partner) the percentage is 17%. Obviously we do not know how many cases of a couple living together will continue or how many will lead to marriage³.
- The number of **divorces** has increased; the figure has risen from 582 in 1980 to 1 043 in 1999. The figure has therefore almost doubled during this period⁴. The number of divorces per thousand inhabitants (divorce rate) has increased regularly since 1950, and a degree of stability is noticeable from 1990 onwards⁵.
- Type of **family** and number of children: the statistics on households show that the most frequent type of family is the couple with no children (31.8%), followed by the couple with one child (24.5%) or two children (22.8%). In families with children, 48.1% have one child, 37.6% have two children, 11.3% have three and 3% have more than three⁶.

Single-parent families

According to the labour force survey carried out in 1992, 7% of households with children were single-parent families with one child under the age of 18 years. In 90% of cases, the head of the household was a woman. The average age of these women was 39 years. In 1997 the rate of single-parent families had increased to approximately 10% of all families with children.

Working mothers

Over the last twenty-five years women have played a considerably more active role in employment. Between 1975 and 1994, the employment rate of women aged between 25 and 44 years doubled⁷. It should however be noted that the overall employment rate of women between the ages of 16 and 64 years has remained relatively stable, at approximately 47%, since 1992⁸.

In 1997, according to the labour force survey, the employment rate of men was 75.9% while that of women aged between 15 and 64 years was 46.8%. In compari-

son with the average for Europe as a whole, which is 57.6%, the employment rate of women in the Grand Duchy is still relatively low¹⁰. The percentage varies considerably according to the marital status of the women. Thus the employment rate of divorced or separated women is 70.6%, that of single women 54.6%, and that of married women 43.7%¹¹.

Conclusion

The family has undergone significant changes in the past twenty-five years in the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg. Given the frequency of divorce, the number of single-parent families and step-families has increased. Families have become more multicultural and multilingual as a result of the high number of marriages where one of the partners is of foreign extraction. Mothers are increasingly likely to have a job and are no longer available full-time to look after their children. All these changes in the family are bound to have an impact on the psycho-social development of young people. In addition, like other industrialised countries, most families have few children. Young people no longer grow up within a large group of siblings. Social relations with siblings or with peers in the neighbourhood are more limited than used to be the case, and this no doubt influences the socialisation process.

Atmosphere within the family

It is not enough to discover the objective structure of families and the way they function. We need to know how the young people perceive the atmosphere within the family.

In the survey by Matheis et al. on young people and drugs, a number of questions on this point were put to young people in the 16-20 years age bracket. When asked how they considered the atmosphere in their families, 42.4% replied that it was "good", 47.7% "fairly good", 7.9% "bad" and 2% "very bad".

As for relationships with their mothers, 49.3% said that this was "very good", 42.8% said it was "good", 6.1% "bad" and only 1.8% "very bad". The quality of the relationship with their fathers was considered to be slightly less good: 35.3% felt it was "very good", 49.4% "good", 10.6% "bad" and 4.8% "very bad". We observe that the efforts young people make to detach themselves psychologically from their family environment and become more autonomous rarely lead to a poor relationship with their parents. As the young people's replies to the questionnaire were anonymous, there is no reason to doubt their veracity.

Communication with mothers is considered to be good; 76.4% of young people felt they could talk to their mother about almost anything, while only 52.7% felt they could do this with their father.

These results are confirmed by the more recent survey entitled "Plan Communal Jeunesse" (Municipal Youth Plan) (1999), which demonstrates that most young people value their parents. They were asked to assess their estimation on a five-point scale (1=completely unimportant; 5=very important) of the importance of certain persons.

The following order of importance was obtained (the levels of "very important" and "important" were aggregated): mother (89.8%), friend (88.8%), father (85.3%), group of friends (75.1%), friend of the opposite sex (70.3%), classmate (63.1%), partner (62.9%), instructor, Scout leader, etc. (35%), doctor (29.8%) and lastly teacher (19.2%). This demonstrates that it is the mother who is considered to be the most important person, with the father and the group of friends also occupying an important place.

Confirmation of the relatively good relations between young people and their parents is provided by the "Wohlbefinden der Jugend – Le bien-être des jeunes" (The well-being of young people) survey (1999). The quality of the relationship with their parents may be estimated on the basis of the replies given to the question on whether the young people joked with their parents, discussed matters with them, took part in family activities and contributed to family decision-making¹². The percentages of positive replies by all young people on these various points were 71%, 55.8% 52.8% and 38.3% respectively. More than half the young people communicated with their parents and played an active role in family duties. For all these forms of interaction, young people in general secondary education registered higher percentages than the other groups; differences between the sexes were however negligible.

To the question "how do you feel about being with your mother?"¹³, 95.3% of boys and 89.9% of girls replied "very good" or "good". The replies to the same question about their fathers were 90% for the boys and 81.7% for the girls. Thus a very large majority of young people feel comfortable in their family environment. It should be noted that boys seem to have a better relationship with their parents than girls do, and that both boys and girls seem to get on better with their mother than with their father.

A further measure of communication with parents is provided by the answers to the question "is it easy for you to talk about your problems with your father or with your mother?"¹⁴. 53.4% of boys felt that they could talk to their father easily or very easily, and 68.2% with their mother. In 34.7% of cases, girls talk to their father about their problems and in 65.3% to their mother.

Despite a good overall relationship with parents, the ability to communicate decreases with age. It remains more frequent to be able to confide in the mother than the father. Young people in the 15-17 years age bracket tend to prefer to talk about their problems with their friends.

Housing and the family

Living with parents and leaving the parental home

As has been observed in other countries, there is a tendency for young people to stay in the parental home for longer. In 1985 half the number of young people had left the family home by the time they reached the age of 23, whereas in 1997 this proportion was not reached until beyond the age of 24 years.

Young people were asked in 1983 and in 1993 what the advantages of living with their parents were¹⁵. The reasons remained broadly the same throughout this period. In 1993 young people said that this situation was to their advantage because:

- it provided them with accommodation (96%);
- it saved them money (95%);
- it allowed them to pay for food (90%);
- it allowed them to pay their expenses (91.4%).

It should indeed be noted that recognition of these advantages has increased since 1983¹⁶. Thus the main reasons for staying longer in the parental home are basically of a financial nature. In fact it is a way of life that provides a suitable response to present-day socio-economic changes.

The age at which young people leave the parental home is linked with a number of factors, highlighted in research carried out by Berger (1998)¹⁷. One of the main factors is nationality; 25% of young Luxembourgers between the ages of 21 and 25 years but 60% of young foreigners in the same age bracket had left the parental home. Is this perhaps because many young foreigners do not have their parents in the Grand Duchy? Living with one's parents also varies according to gender; 45% of young women but only 33% of young men have left home by this age. Professional activity obviously also plays a role in this; among those with a job, 52% have left the parental home while nearly all those who are students still live with their parents. Lastly, mention should be made of marital status; young couples, whether married or not, rarely live with their parents. These factors were evident in both 1985 and 1997.

According to Berger, structural changes have taken place since 1985 that explain the increasing length of time spent living in the parental home. Studies now last longer; in 1997 young people were finishing their studies two years later than in 1985, resulting in starting work that much later. Young people are taking longer to form a couple; in 1985, half the number of 24-year-olds were living in a couple, whereas in 1997 this figure was not reached until the age of 27 years.

¹ statec (2000). *Annuaire statistique*, table B.310.

² statec (2000). *Annuaire statistique*, table B.312.

³ LEJEALLE, Blandine (1999). *Histoires de couples: la place de l'union libre dans le paysage familial luxembourgeois*, p.5.

⁴ statec (2000). *Le Luxembourg en chiffres*, p.8.

⁵ LEJEALLE, Blandine (1999). *Histoires de couples: la place de l'union libre dans le paysage familial luxembourgeois*, p.2.

⁶ statec (1994). *Recensement de la population au 1er mars 1991. Volume 4. Ménages et familles*, p.29.

⁷ statec (1994). *Recensement de la population au 1er mars 1991. Principaux résultats*, table T.81.

⁸ Ministère de la Promotion féminine (1995). *Rapport National du Grand-Duché de Luxembourg - Quatrième Conférence mondiale sur les femmes*, p.6.

⁹ LEJEALLE, Blandine (1999). *Histoires de couples: la place de l'union libre dans le paysage familial luxembourgeois*, p.7.

¹⁰ ENGEL, Danielle & LEJEALLE, Blandine (1999). *Les femmes et le marché de l'emploi. Étude statistique II*, p.7.

¹¹ id., p.91.

¹² Ministère de la Santé (1999). *Le bien-être des jeunes au Luxembourg*. Question 43.

¹³ id., Question 39.

¹⁴ id., Question 41.

¹⁵ HAUSMAN, Pierre (1996). *Le mode de vie des jeunes adultes. Cohabitation avec les parents et départ du foyer parental*.

¹⁶ id., p.7.

¹⁷ BERGER, Frédéric (1998). *Habiter ou ne plus habiter chez ses parents*.



Leisure

The leisure activities of young people are documented by the Eurobarometer 47.2 survey of the European Communities; this makes it possible to establish a number of comparisons with other countries in the EU. Further information is provided by a study, not yet published, by the Ministry for Young People entitled "Plan Communal Jeunesse" (Municipal Youth Plan), the purpose of which is to explore locally the needs of young people in order to allow the State and municipal authorities to take account of them in developing local infrastructures.

Eurobarometer

In Eurobarometer 47.2¹ the following question referred to leisure activities: "Among the following activities, which, if any, do you practice regularly in your spare time?" Young Luxembourgers have as their most frequent activities:

- meeting friends (70.4%);
- watching TV (64%);
- sport (59%);
- listening to music (57.3%);
- going to the cinema, the theatre or concerts (45%).

We may note that at least three of these activities take place outside the home and involve spending time with friends. The need for social contact would therefore appear to be a serious motivation for young people in the Grand Duchy.

If we attempt to draw a comparison with other young people in the EU, we may note that young Luxembourgers spend more time on sport than young people in the rest of the EU. The reasons for this are many. The local infrastructure for sport is generally good. Both primary and secondary schools offer young people the possibility of playing a range of sports in their free time. The LASEP ("Ligue des Associations Sportives de l'Enseignement Primaire" – league of sports associations in primary education) and the LASEL ("Ligue des Associations Sportives Etudiantines Luxembourgeoises" – league of sports associations in secondary education) provide young people with the instructors and the sports facilities necessary for practising a wide range of sports. Moreover, all municipalities of any considerable size have sports clubs that are only too keen to enrol young people.

Young people in the Grand Duchy are also considerably above the EU average for the following leisure activities: "going to the cinema, theatre, concerts" (45.9% /European average: 37.6%), "doing paid odd jobs" (23.5% /European average: 15.8%) and "playing a musical instrument" (15.3% /European average: 10.7%). As young people in the Grand Duchy have sufficient pocket money, it is understandable that they are able to visit the cinema or the theatre without having to worry about the cost. They are also among those who carry out "paid odd jobs" the most. That they should be above the average for playing a musical instrument may no doubt be explained by the fact that at school MUSEP ("Musique à l'école primaire" – music at primary school) offers them musical activities in their free time and that the country

is well provided with conservatories and municipal and private music schools where young people can learn to play a musical instrument.

According to the Eurobarometer, young Luxembourgers are below the EU average for the following activities: "reading" (34.8% /European average: 40.7%); "listening to music" (57.3% /European average: 63.7%) and "helping at home" (21.5% /European average: 26.9%). This would seem to add weight to the argument that young people prefer activities that enable them to get out of the home.

"Plan Communal Jeunesse" (Municipal Youth Plan)

The results of this study, which are indeed most interesting, cannot be considered as being applicable to all young people, since the sample is only representative of small towns; it does not apply to Luxembourg City or to rural areas.

In this research, young people between the ages of 12 and 20 years (N=1 050) were asked to indicate on a scale of five their preferences for various types of activities. The following table indicates the activities they indulge in most frequently (5=very often; 1=never).

Table 15

<i>Leisure activities of young people</i>	1. Listening to music	4.29	14. Reading a book	2.92
	2. Being with friends	4.22	15. Going to parties	2.85
	3. Watching television	3.91	16. Playing on the computer	2.84
	4. Being with family	3.82	17. Painting/ drawing/ photography/filming	2.58
	5. Watching videos	3.41	18. Hobbies	2.49
	6. Sport/fitness/sauna	3.40	19. Going to nightclubs/dancing	2.41
	7. Shopping/ window shopping	3.32	20. Writing letters/ keeping a diary	2.24
	8. Going to the cinema	3.29	21. Playing on fruit-machines	2.01
	9. Doing something together as a family	3.17	22. Going to rock/pop concerts	2.01
	10. Being with my girlfriend/boyfriend	3.16	23. Going to a youth centre	1.79
	11. Being alone and relaxing	3.11	24. Theatre, museums, art exhibitions, classical music concerts	1.63
	12. Reading the newspaper	3.00	25. Playing an instrument/ making music	1.57
	13. Repairing car/bike or driving/riding	2.95		

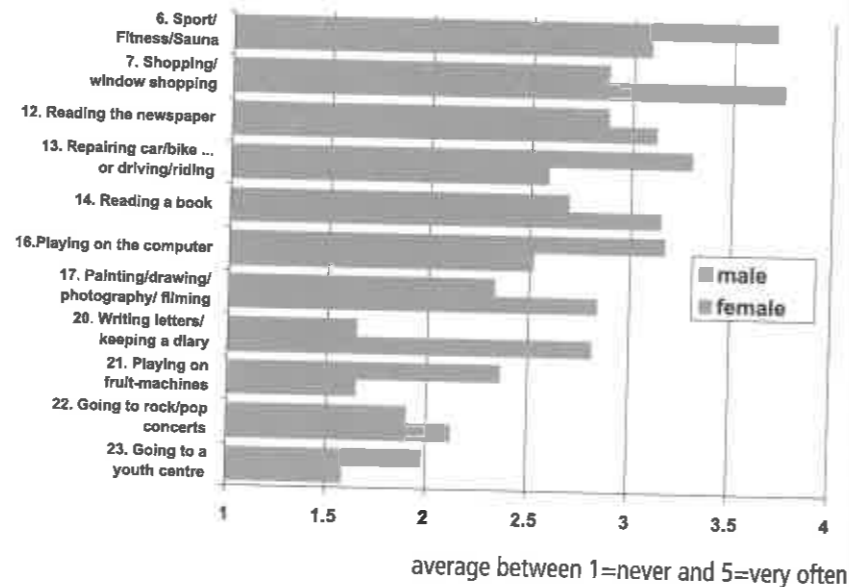
average between 1=never and 5=very often

Obviously it is not possible to compare this with the result of the Eurobarometer, as the items, method and sample are not immediately comparable. Nevertheless we can note that the preferences listed in the Eurobarometer are also at the top of the list in the table above, although in a slightly different order. We may therefore say that the two research studies confirm each other.

The Municipal Youth Plan survey adds further detail as it highlights differences according to gender and age. Boys prefer sport, repairing cars and bikes and driving or riding, and playing on the computer, while girls prefer window-shopping, reading books or the newspaper, writing letters or keeping a diary, painting, photography or filming.

Graph 7

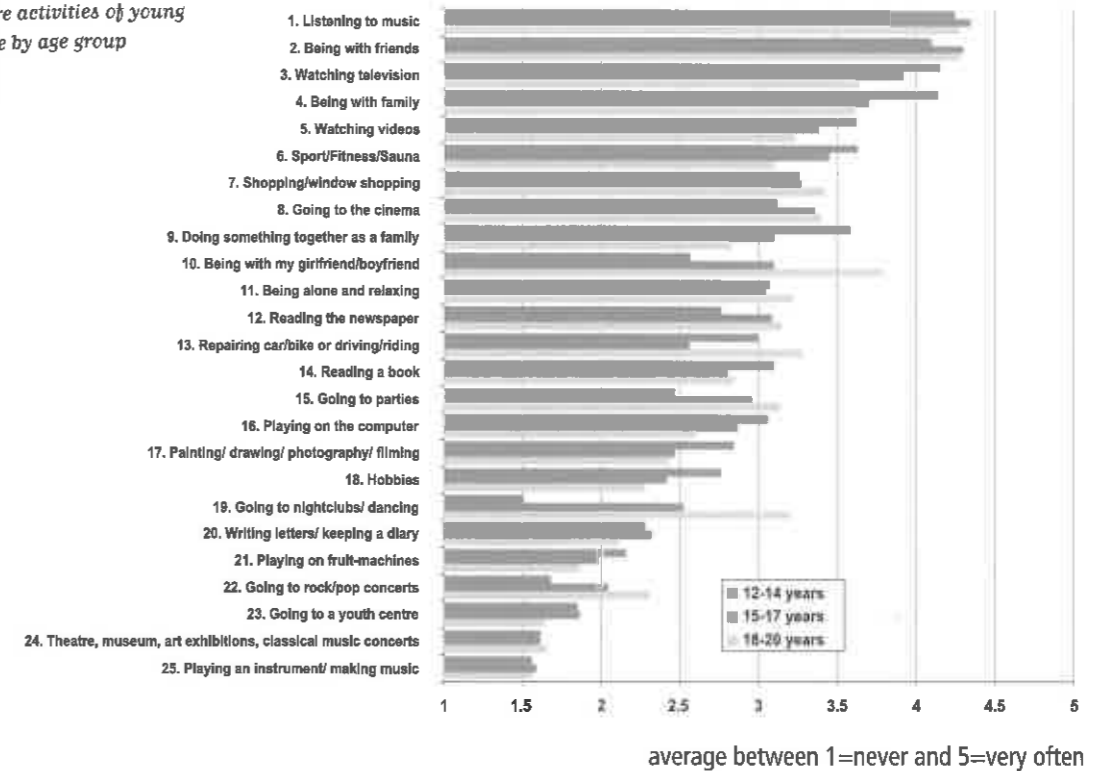
Leisure activities of young people by gender



Some activities, such as watching TV or videos, being with one's family, doing something together as a family and sports tend to become less important with age, whereas going to the cinema and spending time with one's girlfriend/boyfriend become more important with age.

Graph 8

Leisure activities of young people by age group



The study on the well-being of young people

The most recent results are provided by the study, not yet published, entitled "Le bien-être des jeunes au Luxembourg" (The well-being of young people in Luxembourg). A list of leisure activities was proposed and the young people were asked to indicate to which of these activities they devoted more than one hour per week outside school time. This is the ranking obtained by order of preference and by gender.

Table 16

	Boys		Girls		
<i>Leisure activities of young people by order of preference and by gender (Study "The well-being of young people in Luxembourg")</i>	1)	sport	82.9%	sport	64.0%
	2)	music	28.5%	music	38.9%
	3)	youth group	19.4%	dancing	32.0%
	4)	painting, drawing	16.0%	painting, drawing	29.2%
	5)	dancing	11.1%	youth group	13.1%
	6)	Scouts	8.4%	Scouts	7.7%
	7)	aid organisations	4.2%	aid organisations	4.4%
	8)	parish group	3.7%	theatre	4.0%
	9)	theatre	2.9%	parish group	3.5%
	10)	political group	2.0%	political group	0.9%

Here again, the results are not directly comparable with those of the earlier studies since the list of leisure activities proposed is considerably shorter. On the whole, however, we note that our previous observations are confirmed. Sport is far and away the favourite leisure activity of both girls and boys, followed by music. Artistic activities such as drawing and dancing are still comparatively popular with girls, whereas the boys spend less time on these activities, preferring to participate in youth groups. Groups involving a social or political commitment are not very popular. Young people in general secondary education devote more time to sports than other young people do, whereas interest in youth groups is greater among pupils in technical and vocational education than among those in general secondary education.

Research carried out by Steffgen and Schwenkmezger (1995)² looks in detail at the social and personal reasons for involvement in sport. Unfortunately, their results cannot be generalised as the sample is of members of sports clubs only. The purpose of the study was in fact to look into the conditions in which sports are practised with a view to making recommendations to promote young people with a gift for sport.

In this context it is worth referring to the motivations young people have for participating in sports activities, as no other study gives any worthwhile indications on this point. With all due reservations, given the biased nature of the sample, it may nevertheless be stated that it is the social element of sport that appears to motivate young people most, followed by the belief that sport is healthy and helps reduce inner tension. Competition is considered to be a powerful motivation. Half the young people are also attracted by the risk involved. The vast majority of young people (>90%) state that they enjoy sports.

There are differences in motivation between the sexes. Girls are more motivated by the social aspect of sport and by its aesthetic element. For boys, the attraction of risk and competition are the most motivating factors, as well as the conviction that sport is good for the health.

With increasing age, the health factor, the attraction of risk and the possibility of reducing inner tension become increasingly important as motivating factors.

According to this study, the attitude of parents to sport is ambivalent. On the one hand they encourage young people to train harder, yet on the other they limit the amount of time spent on sport as soon as school marks start to slide. This authoritarian attitude appears to be more marked among Luxembourg national parents than among the German parents studied in a parallel, but more limited, sample.

The study of the well-being of young people³ also points to the fact that a large number of young people watch TV; it indicates that 23% of boys and 18% of girls are TV fans and watch more than four hours per day. There is no significant correlation with age. There is, however, a strong link with the type of school attended; pupils in general education watch less than those in technical and vocational education.

A study carried out in February 2000 by pupils of the Lycée Hubert Clement in Esch-sur-Alzette⁴ on a sample of 589 pupils in their school (256 boys and 333 girls) allows us to relativise a number of observations in the previous study. For most of the young people, two hours watching is normal; those who watch TV more than this often have a TV set in their room. 43% of young people have their own television set. Films are the favourite category of watching for everyone. The girls also prefer soaps, while the boys prefer programmes such as "The Simpsons" and sports programmes. The ranking of the various channels in fact is the result of these preferences, and is therefore subject to change. It is nevertheless striking to note that most of the German-language channels rank before the French-language channels. It is not certain that this preference is due exclusively to the fact that the young people have a better command of German; it is rather that most of the favourite programmes of young people happen to be shown on the German-language channels.

In view of the enthusiasm of young people for sport, it is surprising to note that the sport channel DSF comes last in the ranking and is only watched by serious sports enthusiasts. The music channels MTV and Viva rank in fifth and seventh position out of a total of 16 channels put in order of preference. It is very interesting to note the criticisms made by the young people when they are asked what they would change about the programmes if they had the possibility. They would like to reduce the amount of violence on TV, and the amount of advertising, and the number of chat shows. The boys would prefer more sports programmes and fewer soaps.

Lastly, we should mention that pupils in Luxembourg City have taken part in four comparative surveys carried out by the Grinzane Cavour Award body in six European capitals (Lisbon, London, Madrid, Paris, Rome and Luxembourg City). These surveys have covered the cultural activities and interests of young people as regards reading (1997), the cinema and literature (1998), favourite books (1999) and music (2000 -

survey still being analysed). The young people who took part in this were in classes in the last three years of secondary education in schools in the capital cities mentioned. Given the differences between the school systems in the respective countries, the samples are unfortunately not comparable. Any comparisons can only be indicative and do no more than indicate tendencies. At any event, the results cannot be generalised to refer to the whole country as the sample is essentially an urban one. Some interesting information nevertheless transpires from these surveys.

Thus a typology of readers has been built up on the basis of the results of the survey on reading. There are those who read only rarely, those who read vast quantities of books, those who read for entertainment and lastly those who read to widen their culture. The first two categories of readers are under-represented in the Grand Duchy and the last two are over-represented in relation to the distribution for the sample as a whole. Young readers in the Grand Duchy read in a number of languages, which is understandable in view of the linguistic and multicultural situation of the country; national authors, however, are not frequently read.

The survey on literature and the cinema (1998) shows that young Luxembourgers do not perceive any conflict between these two means of expression and believe that there is a favourable mutual influence between the two arts. Two-thirds of the young people said that the cinema aroused more emotion than books did, but also that films did not leave so much to the imagination. The multicultural approach noted in reading also applied to film consumption. Productions from other countries, particularly the United States, were widely known.

Conclusion

The table that results from all the studies mentioned is relatively coherent. There is a high degree of concordance as to the preferred leisure activities of young people. Typical behaviour in relation to age and gender are evident in the choice of leisure activities. In the research mentioned, the role of the family environment appears to be of little importance; it does appear, however, that parents tend – at least as far as sport is concerned – to intervene as soon as school work starts to be unsatisfactory.

Whereas there is a considerable body of information on young people as consumers of culture, there is little specific data on their active participation in cultural activities. Although we are not able to produce precise figures, it should nevertheless be emphasised that a certain number of young people are members of musical groups, youth orchestras and theatre groups and are active at municipal level in leading cultural activities.

- ¹ Commission Européenne (1997). *Les jeunes Européens. Eurobaromètre 47.2.*
- ² STEFFGEN, Georges & SCHWENKMEZGER, Peter (1995). *Jugend und sportliche Aktivität. Soziale und persönliche Determinanten sportlicher Aktivität jugendlicher Sportvereinsmitglieder in Luxemburg und im internationalen Vergleich.*
- ³ Ministère de la Santé (1999). *Le bien-être des jeunes au Luxembourg.*
- ⁴ BANDULET, Anne et al. (2000). *TV Total? Umfrage im Lycée Hubert Clement, Esch/Alzette.*



Values and prospects for the future

Research on the values and the ideals of young people are comparatively rare in the Grand Duchy. The information set out below is mainly taken from surveys where the primary objective was something other than exploring the values of young people.

An early survey, entitled "Déi Jonk" (The young people), commissioned by the Tageblatt daily newspaper, was carried out in 1988 by the IReS opinion poll institute¹. Young people were asked to answer the question "which of the following fields are the most important for you?" Their answers are set out below as percentages.

1. health:	68%
2. friends:	59%
3. high earnings:	42%
4. partners:	41%
5. leisure activities:	38%
6. interesting job:	37%
7. stable environment:	33%
8. personal freedom:	29%
9. intact natural environment:	28%
10. family life:	22%
11. sex:	16%
12. comfortable home:	16%
13. car:	12%
14. education:	11%
15. religion:	5%
16. technology:	3%

The Grand Duchy did not, unfortunately, take part in the "World Value Survey" (WVS). Despite the differences in sample and choice of items, it is still worth comparing the results of the "Déi Jonk" (The young people) survey with those of this international study. There are indeed marked similarities. The importance given to friendship (59%) and the low position of religion (5%) are also to be found in the WVS.

The reason for family life being so low on the list does not seem to be due to poor relationships with parents. Indeed the "Plan Communal Jeunesse" (Municipal Youth Plan) (see page 60) indicates that most young people have a good opinion of their parents. It could be concluded that the ranking given to family life is quite simply due to the fact that they consider family activities to be less attractive than those carried out with their friends.

The low value placed on technology and education in this survey is very striking. It

seems strange that these areas are relegated to the bottom of the list of values while the advantages derived from them in terms of employment, leisure activities and health are highly valued.

Purpose in life

The table of values of young people may be rounded out by considering their answers to a question in the "Plan Communal Jeunesse" (Municipal Youth Plan) survey². Young people were asked to choose from a list the three most important objectives they wished to achieve in the course of their lives. The five objectives most often selected were (in descending order) having children (68.9%), an interesting job (55.4%), lots of friends (34.6%), seeing the world (30.8%) and earning lots of money (23.8%).

Optimism/pessimism about prospects for the future

The "Plan Communal Jeunesse" (Municipal Youth Plan)³ also provides some information on how young people view the future. 43.9% said that they had confidence in the future, 2.6% saw a grim future, and 59.6% felt it was mixed – sometimes positive and sometimes negative. In a country where there is almost no unemployment, it is understandable that the number of pessimists is small, although it must be noted that a large number of young people are not sure about their future.

The way in which they view the present, on the other hand, is quite positive. They were asked in the same questionnaire⁴ to rate their agreement with the following two statements "I am satisfied with what I have got" and "I feel completely happy" (1=disagree totally; 5=agree totally). The average score on both points was 4.0, a sign that the general feeling about the present was positive.

In the research for the "well-being of young people in Luxembourg" survey⁵, a large proportion of the young people once again considered themselves to be "happy" or "relatively happy" (92% of boys and 85.5% of girls). There is a significant difference between the sexes; the number of girls who felt unhappy was almost twice that of the boys.

Despite a relatively general feeling of well-being, there is nevertheless a feeling of unhappiness among a not inconsiderable number of young people. The percentage of boys who regularly felt unhappy (at least once a week) was half that of the girls (50.3%). There was no relation with age and the type of school attended.

These results correspond to a large extent to those obtained on the basis of a sample of 1 311 subjects in the research carried out by Matheis et al. on young people and drugs⁶. The young people were asked to express their attitude as regards the future on an 11-point scale ranging from extremely pessimistic (-5) to extremely optimistic (+5). 73.1% of the young people were optimistic and of this group 13.1% even selected the "extremely optimistic" answer; rather more than one-fifth of young people saw the future in a somewhat more pessimistic light.

During this same research, the young people were asked about their past experience;

they were asked to indicate if they felt "very good", "fairly good", "fairly bad" or "very bad". The following answers were given: 21.6% felt "very good", 47.5% "good", 29% "fairly bad" and 1.9% "very bad". The girls tended to be more unhappy than the boys did. There was also a noticeable difference between the types of education; pupils in general secondary education felt less happy than those in technical education.

Conclusion

As already stated, no thorough study devoted primarily to the values and the aspirations of young people has yet been carried out. It is therefore inevitable that the table given above is incomplete and in part incoherent. A number of interesting points may nevertheless be noted:

- Even if the concordance between the various sources of information is not perfect, we may observe that certain values come to the fore: having children, having good social relations with friends, parents and partners, and having an interesting job.
- Most young people view the future in a positive manner and feel happy in themselves.
- There are clear differences between the sexes; girls feel sad or unhappy significantly more often than boys do.

More systematic research in this field is necessary in order to study in depth the development of the system of values of young people in interaction with the socio-economic situation and the currents of thought to which they are exposed. Specific studies could be devoted to the differences noted between the sexes concerning their feeling of well-being and their prospects for the future, as well as a clarification of some of the incoherencies observed.

¹ ILReS & tageblatt (1988). *Dél Jonk*.

² MEYERS, Christiane & SCHROEDER, Ralph (study not yet published). *Résultats de l'enquête du Plan Communal jeunesse dans les communes de Dudelange, Lorentzweiler, Sanem et Wiltz*, Question 35.

³ id., Question 36.

⁴ id., Question 33.

⁵ Ministère de la Santé (1999). *Le bien-être des jeunes au Luxembourg*.

⁶ MATHEIS, Jos, PRUSSEN, Paul & REUTER, Paul (1995). *Schüler und Drogen. Eine repräsentative Untersuchung bei den Schülern der 5. Klasse des allgemeinen und technischen Sekundarunterrichts in Luxemburg. Ausmaße, Zusammenhänge, Vergleiche, Präventionsmaßnahmen*.

Adolescence and violence

Violence at school

No research has been carried out exclusively on the violent behaviour of young people in the Grand Duchy. Some interesting quantitative indications on violence at school are given in the study on the well-being of young people in Luxembourg¹. When asked if they have been hit since the beginning of the school year², most pupils said no (86.1% of boys and 94.9% of girls); 9.4% of boys and 3.4% of girls said that they had been hit once or twice during that period; a small number (1.6% of boys and 0.5% of girls) said that they had been hit regularly (at least once a week). We may observe that as they grow older there is much less of this type of violence, which is particularly frequent among boys.

The number of boys and girls who have been harassed at school³ is higher. 32.4% of the young people had been harassed in the course of the previous school year, 4% of them on a regular basis. Differences are apparent between the types of school; pupils in general secondary schools seem to be less exposed to harassment than other young people.

At any event, the feeling of being safe at school is no longer universal. Only 40.5% say that they always feel safe, 31.9% often feel safe, 16.8% sometimes, 6.1% occasionally, and 4.7% never. These results provide food for thought – more than 10% of secondary school pupils feel threatened most of the time. Although there is little difference between the sexes, there is a difference between the types of school. It is the young people in the technical stream and more particularly those in the vocational stream who feel threatened. Perhaps this is why they are also the largest group to carry a weapon "sometimes or frequently" in class (general secondary schools: 8.8%; technical stream: 9.4%; vocational stream: 14.6%). It should be noted that girls very rarely carry a weapon.

The acts of violence observed in class over the previous thirty days were, in order:

• We ganged up against another pupil	9.0%
• I had a fight with other pupils	7.1%
• I had something stolen from me	6.5%
• Other pupils ganged up on me	4.2%
• I was being bullied for money	1.8%
• A teacher hit me	1.6%
• I/We hit a teacher	1.3%

Since there are no earlier quantitative results, it is difficult to evaluate the increase in violence among young people. Society – rightly or wrongly – has the impression that aggressiveness, violence and vandalism on the part of young people have escalated in recent years.

The Grand Duchy also participated in research work commissioned by the "Erziehung

und Wissenschaft" (education and science) group and carried out by the Department of Sociology at Saarbrücken University in 1993-1994⁴. The target population was young people in the 15-17 year-old age bracket in the major cities of the "SaarLor-Lux" region, i.e. Saarbrücken, Metz and Luxembourg City. The purpose of the study was not so much as to list the acts of violence, but rather to explore how young people perceived violence and determine their attitude to it (indifference, refusal, acceptance and even readiness to act violently), their observation of acts of violence, the frequency of their own aggressive behaviour towards others or of such behaviour towards them. These variables were correlated with school and family variables. A questionnaire given to the young people described numerous acts of violence and aggressiveness, to which they were to indicate either their refusal, disapproval, indifference, acceptance or even their tendency to carry them out in person. A typology of the different sorts of violence was drawn up using factor analysis. There were four separate types of violent behaviour:

- spontaneous aggressive acts provoked by emotional reasons (e.g. damage to school furnishings, graffiti);
- deliberate acts of a serious nature (e.g. theft, bullying for money, possession of weapons);
- acts of dominance over other pupils (e.g. those belonging to other ethnic groups or to the opposite sex);
- acts of resistance to the school system (e.g. insulting teachers, disturbing teaching).

Eight activities were condemned or disapproved by approximately 80% of the young people: the threat of physical violence or actual violence, action taken on the grounds of race or gender, psychological attacks on fellow pupils, bullying for money, theft, and the possession of weapons. These acts were condemned on average by 83% of the pupils in Luxembourg City, by 81% of the pupils in Metz and by 79% of the pupils in Saarbrücken. The pupils in Luxembourg City were particularly severe in their disapproval of bullying for money, theft, and the possession of weapons. On the other hand, they were more lenient about disturbing teaching, insulting teachers, and graffiti. There were considerable differences between the attitudes of girls and boys in all three cities on the following points: attacks on sexist grounds, psychological attacks, and the possession of weapons, which the girls viewed much more severely.

On the other hand, if we consider acceptance of such acts or the tendency to carry them out, we see that in general the figures are very low. The acts that are most readily accepted or most likely to be carried out are insulting teachers, disturbing teaching, and graffiti. 35% of the pupils in Luxembourg City, 33% of those in Saarbrücken and only 21% of those in Metz found these acceptable or were prepared to carry them out. The girls were more severe than the boys.

The acts least readily accepted were bullying for money, acts of aggression on the grounds of race, vandalism in the school, theft and physical violence. 7% of the pupils in Saarbrücken, 5% of those in Luxembourg City and 3% of those in Metz said that

they accepted or were prepared to carry out such acts. Here again, the girls were less ready to accept such behaviour or act in this way themselves (7% compared with 3%). Those boys who considered themselves very bad pupils were more likely to accept this behaviour or be prepared to act in this way themselves. This was not true of the girls who considered themselves bad pupils; they displayed no correlation with these specific types of behaviour.

The study also reveals that there is a certain relationship between acceptance of violence at school and the type of reaction from the parents in the event of poor school results. Parents' reactions were classified in four groups: understanding, indifference, argument and penalty. Those young people who accepted violence at school and were prepared to act violently were the least likely to have understanding parents in the event of poor school results.

The study also investigated the attitude of young people to the future, to see if there was any correlation with violence. Generally, there was no correlation except in one case; curiously, those young people (particularly boys) who accepted aggressiveness on racist grounds tended to have a confident view of the future. These results are in line with those of Heitmeyer (1989) and Rommelspacher/Holzcamp (1991), who identified young people living in stable conditions as tending to be racist⁵.

Juvenile delinquency

As in other countries, acts of delinquency are committed by young people acting either in groups or individually. These are often acts of vandalism, theft, vagrancy, and the consumption or sale of drugs.

However, the term "juvenile delinquency" is not one used by the Luxembourg courts.

It should be noted that the jurisdiction that deals with young people does not come under the ordinary court system, but is governed by the Young People's Act⁶. Minors (under the age of 18 years) who have broken criminal law are referred not to the ordinary courts but to a special youth court.

The public prosecutor's office that centralises taking into custody does not automatically refer cases to the youth court, however. If the matter is considered too insignificant to merit pressing charges, it may be shelved by the public prosecutor's office.

If a case is taken further, the public prosecutor's office still has a number of possible routes open to it before referring the matter to the youth court. It may, for example, refer the matter to the Centre for Mediation. Under recent legislation on mediation⁷, the public prosecutor may open mediation proceedings if he believes that such a step "is likely to ensure reparation for the harm caused to the victim, or put a stop to the nuisance resulting from the offence, or contribute to the re-grading of the offender". The mediator designated by the public prosecutor convenes the parties in writing, listens to them and proposes a solution to the conflict. The mediator must inform the public prosecutor of the results of the mediation within eight months. In the event of mediation being unsuccessful, the public prosecutor may decide to open court proceedings.

In many cases when a person is taken into custody for using drugs, the public prosecutor requests, for example, that the case be taken up by "Médecins sans Frontières – Solidarité Jeunes" (Doctors without borders – Solidarity with Youth) or "Jugend- an Drogenhëllef" (Youth and Drugs Community Work).

Should the public prosecutor refer the matter to the youth court, it in turn has a range of options open to it; these are set out in the Young People's Act of 10 August 1992 (Art. 1):

"The youth court shall take steps to take care of, educate and protect minors appearing before it. According to circumstances, it may:

- 1) reprimand them and leave them or return them to the persons in whose care they are, instructing those persons, as appropriate, to supervise them better in future;
- 2) subject them to a scheme of supervised freedom;
- 3) place them under supervision with any trustworthy person or in an appropriate establishment, even outside the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg, with a view to their accommodation, treatment, education, instruction and vocational training;
- 4) place them in a State rehabilitation establishment."

Under the terms of Article 7 of the Act, the court may adopt "one of the measures specified in Article 1 or place the offender in an establishment for the treatment of minors who are habitual truants, commit immoral acts, seek their course of income in gaming, trafficking, in occupations that expose them to prostitution, begging, vagrancy or crime, or whose physical or mental health, education or social or moral development are endangered".

In extreme cases the court may place a young person in a State disciplinary establishment, i.e. prison. This is authorised by Article 6 of the Act, which states that "if a measure for placement in an ordinary establishment for taking care of, educating and protecting them is inadequate because of the bad conduct or dangerous behaviour of the minor, the Court shall order detention in a State establishment".

Statistics

Unfortunately the statistics published by the Luxembourg statistics office or other bodies (Police, Ministry of Justice) are somewhat incomplete, which makes it difficult to gain an exact idea of the scale of juvenile delinquency. Statistics on delinquent acts are rarely broken down according to age.

The following table sets out the total number of offences recorded by the police and broken down according to gender and age group (adults/minors). To a certain extent the table makes it possible to compare the proportion of delinquent acts carried out by minors with the total number. As the adult age group is not broken down into age brackets, we have no information on the proportion of young people in the 18-25 years age bracket in the total of adults taken in for questioning by the police.

Table 17

Year	Number of cases	Adult offenders				Under-age offenders				Total no. offenders
		Male	Female	Total	%	Male	Female	Total	%	
1980	11 725	4 945	651	5 596	90.14	537	75	612	9.86	6 208
1981	11 893	4 795	592	5 387	89.80	554	58	612	10.20	5 999
1982	13 363	5 093	719	5 812	88.25	695	79	774	11.75	6 586
1983	14 488	5 301	686	5 987	90.45	583	49	632	9.55	6 619
1984	15 787	5 421	606	6 027	92.23	474	34	508	7.77	6 535
1985	17 172	4 930	552	5 482	95.42	233	30	263	4.58	5 745
1986	17 850	6 115	835	6 950	90.93	605	88	693	9.07	7 643
1987	21 128	7 138	870	8 008	87.17	1 081	98	1 179	12.83	9 187
1988	22 611	6 840	999	7 839	91.38	653	86	739	8.62	8 578
1989	23 689	7 348	1 139	8 487	92.64	623	51	674	7.36	9 161
1990	24 679	7 331	1 179	8 510	91.39	744	58	802	8.61	9 312
1991	25 847	8 785	1 252	10 037	89.42	1 137	51	1 188	10.58	11 225
1992	26 768	9 273	1 453	10 726	92.87	746	77	823	7.13	11 549
1993	28 338	10 220	1 588	11 808	95.47	490	70	560	4.53	12 368
1994	29 166	10 091	1 754	11 845	93.82	707	73	780	6.18	12 625
1995	28 380	10 481	1 564	12 045	93.08	798	98	896	6.92	12 941
1996	27 566	10 428	855	11 283	90.87	884	249	1 133	9.13	12 416
1997	24 355	9 637	1 466	11 103	91.26	871	192	1 063	8.74	12 166
1998	27 155	10 430	1 617	12 047	91.54	886	228	1 114	8.46	13 161
1999	26 957	9 897	1 988	11 885	91.56	832	264	1 096	8.44	12 981
		87.35%	12.65%	176 864	91.64%	87.56%	12.44%	16 141	8.36%	

Statistics on the evolution of juvenile delinquency in the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg 1980-1999

This table enables us to make a number of points:

- Overall, the crime rate almost doubled for both adults and minors in the period from 1980 to 1999.
- This increase was proportionately greater for women than for men; the number of offences committed by adult women has tripled, and those committed by girls has almost quadrupled, in the space of twenty years. The disparity between the age groups is largely due to the fact that the girls are taken in for questioning for

using drugs more often than adult women are.

- Despite the increase in the crime rate among women, there is still a considerable gap between the sexes. In the adult group, the ratio of women to men is less than 1:5, whereas among minors it is somewhere between 1:4 and 1:3. The fact that men have a much higher crime rate than women corresponds to international observations.
- The crime rate among young people has varied quite considerably over the past twenty years. In 1981, 1982, 1987 and 1991 it topped 10% of the total number of offences, while in 1985 and 1993 it was below 5%. There does not seem to be any clear trend. Since 1997 it appears to have stabilised at around 8.5%. Whatever the actual figure, we may therefore state that juvenile delinquency is relatively substantial, since at present approximately one person in twelve taken in for questioning is a minor.

The police has produced annual figures since 1991 of the major categories of offences, indicating the percentage of minors within each category. The table below covers the following categories: wounding, theft (all types), armed or violent robbery, car theft, and drug offences.

Table 18

Offences	Offenders	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Injury	% minors	1.81	5.48	3.80	3.35	4.97	6.98	6.19	5.75	9.32
	Tot. offenders	608	657	527	1 580	1 488	1 504	1 195	1 408	1 384
Theft (total)	% minors	26.37	16.86	10.32	15.73	20.96	20.63	22.55	27.01	20.94
	Tot. offenders	3 250	2 509	3 082	2 492	2 395	2 728	2 124	2 577	2 163
Armed robbery	% minors	15.85	12.95	16.39	5.65	16.67	23.84	14.39	20.00	35.25
	Tot. offenders	183	139	122	177	120	130	132	185	156
Car theft	% minors	9.67	15.65	2.31	5.88	3.28	14.52	26.53	12.09	17.20
	Tot. offenders	269	262	260	153	186	62	98	91	93
Drug offences	% minors	4.77	2.93	4.90	4.86	4.75	4.24	4.07	4.00	11.23
	Tot. offenders	1 258	1 504	857	1 174	1 263	1 368	1 205	1 151	1 219

Of the young people taken in for questioning by the police, only a minority are brought to court. In 1999/2000 the youth court delivered just 253 judgments, but unfortunately these are not broken down according to type of offence.

The table below gives the figures over a number of years for the number of young people whom the court has requested be taken in charge or placed in a State socio-educational centre¹⁷.

Table 19

	1990	1994	1999	2000
<i>Young people placed in the socio-educational centres</i>	Young males			
	Minors taken in charge	-	-	122
Population of the socio-educational centre in Dreibern (1 January)	21	24	35	32
	Young females			
	Minors taken in charge	48	75	90
Population of the socio-educational centre in Schrassig (1 January)	15	23	22	21

number of persons

A number of young people have been placed temporarily in the State penitentiary because of their bad conduct or their dangerous behaviour (Art. 6); the table below gives their number¹².

Table 20

Year	Total*	< 18 yrs.		18-21 yrs.		22-25 yrs.	
		male	female	male	female	male	female
1995	314	2	0	16	2	65	0
1996	287	6	1	15	0	46	3
1997	298	9	0	17	0	40	1
1998	255	7	0	4	0	39	1
1999	225	5	0	6	0	27	1

number of persons
*of convicted prisoners

Debate on the Young People's Act

Despite its praiseworthy approach, this Act – and in general all the measures adopted in respect of young delinquents – has been the subject of debate for some time. A number of points are criticised¹³.

The very principle of removing young people from their family environment, deemed incapable of bringing up the young person, and taking steps to take care of or place him/her is strongly contested. A policy that emphasises the family is preferred. Socio-educational assistance schemes should be developed with a view to supporting

problem families so that they are better able to carry out their role in respect of young people.

The infrastructure necessary for the Young People's Act to be effective is not sufficient. For example, the youth protection service does not have the necessary staff to carry out properly the social investigations ordered by the youth court in respect of young people in difficulty and to monitor young people in educational assistance schemes; the State does not have enough places in specialist establishments for the rehabilitation of certain categories of young people; because of the lack of a suitable infrastructure, young people are placed in the State penitentiary when their behaviour is deemed "dangerous", making it impossible to keep them in the socio-educational institutions for boys (Dreiborn) or girls (Schrassig).

The judge of the youth court is a jurist; he has had no special training to prepare him for his difficult role. As there is only one judge at the youth court, it is always the same person who has to make decisions about young offenders. In a report requested by Parliament in 1998 on the functioning of the judicial system, the rapporteur Lucien Weiler proposed a collegiate panel for the youth court. This would enable the judge to discuss cases with other professionals – psychologists, social workers, doctors – and decide on better steps to be taken in respect of young people and in this way the burden of responsibility for the decision would be shared.

¹ Ministère de la Santé (1999). *Le bien-être des jeunes au Luxembourg*.

² id., Question 68.

³ id., Question 65.

⁴ SCHERER, Dagmar (1996). *Gewalt in der Schule. Eine Studie in der Interregion Saarland- Lothringen-Luxemburg*.

⁵ HEITMEYER, Wilhelm (1989). *Rechtsextremistisch motivierte Gewalt und Eskalation*.

⁶ ROMMELSPACHER, Birgit (1999). *Rechtsextreme als Opfer der Risikogesellschaft. Zur Täterbelastung in den Sozialwissenschaften*.

⁷ Mémorial A (1992). *Loi du 10 août 1992 relative à la protection de la jeunesse, modifiant la loi du 12 novembre 1971*.

⁸ Mémorial A (1999). *Loi du 6 mai 1999 relative à la médiation pénale et portant modification des différentes dispositions a) de la loi du 7 mars 1980 sur l'organisation judiciaire, b) du code des assurances sociales*.

⁹ Mémorial A (1999). *Loi du 6 mai 1999 relative à la médiation pénale et portant modification des différentes dispositions a) de la loi du 7 mars 1980 sur l'organisation judiciaire, b) du code des assurances sociales, art. 1er*.

¹⁰ The data of this table was supplied by the police.

¹¹ id.

¹² Table compiled on the basis of Statec data (2000). *Annuaire statistique*, table U.105.

¹³ Source: Activity reports of the Ministry of Justice for 1995 to 1999.

¹⁴ Forum (2001). *Jugendschutz am Ende? Ein Gesetz hat ausgedient*.

LATASTE, Stéphane (2001). *Le placement judiciaire des mineurs*.

SCHNEIDER, Camille (1998). *La délinquance juvénile au Grand-Duché de Luxembourg*.

European dimension and mobility

The European dimension is best expressed by young people in their knowledge of more than one of the languages spoken in the EU and in their interest in travel enabling them to get to know the various countries of the EU. It is of course obvious that the first of these factors greatly facilitates travel, and we may suppose there to be a correlation between these two variables. Since the Grand Duchy cannot offer full university facilities, a very large number of young people are obliged to spend all or part of their time as a student outside the Grand Duchy, mainly in French- or German-speaking countries, but occasionally in English-speaking countries.

Knowledge of languages

If we recall the important place occupied by languages in the school curriculum for young people in the Grand Duchy, we will understand that all young people having attended school in the Grand Duchy are able to speak French and German, and English as well in most cases. They are therefore well-equipped for travelling or studying in other countries. Their answers in Eurobarometer 47.2¹ are revealing in this respect. 76.4% of young Luxembourgers said that they were capable of participating in a conversation in English, and 96.5% in a conversation in French. These results put them at the top of the list of young people in the EU for the use of French and immediately after young people in Scandinavia and the Netherlands for the use of English.

The influence of school is backed up by factors outside school such as television (channels are available by cable in seven languages – German, French, English, Dutch, Italian, Spanish and Portuguese), radio and the press, as well as the presence of a large number of foreigners.

In addition, many Luxembourgers live from birth in a multilingual environment since the number of mixed households is very high.

In the multilingual environment of the Grand Duchy, young people quickly acquire a range of valuable language skills that facilitate contact with foreigners, namely the ability to change rapidly from one language to another and to use the other speaker's language or another language known to him. Nobody ever expects a foreigner to be able to speak Luxembourgish.

Travel

Given the standard of living in the Grand Duchy and the language skills of its young people, it is not surprising that they enjoy travelling. According to a Statec survey², approximately 80% of young people in the 15 to 19 years and the 20 to 29 years age groups undertake tourist travel, particularly in the months from July to September. This percentage increases only very slightly in the 30 to 39 years age group, and then decreases gradually thereafter. Young people in the 15 to 24 years age group tend to travel in larger groups (ave.=4.2) than people in the 25 to 44 years age group (ave.=3.5). Eurobarometer 47.2³ lists the destinations of young people over the past two years. Most travel to neighbouring countries – Belgium (81.8%), France (75.4%) and Germany (70.2%). Countries further south obviously constitute an attractive des-

tionation – Spain is mentioned by 48.2% of the young people, Italy by 33.4% and Portugal by 20.6%. The Netherlands (31%) and the United Kingdom (26.2%) also have a certain power of attraction. Other countries were mentioned less often.

Studying outside the Grand Duchy

The figures given above do not include foreign travel for study purposes. Since there are no full university facilities in the Grand Duchy, but only a number of further education colleges (see page 27), it is not surprising that there is an impressive number of young Luxembourgers outside the Grand Duchy. Their countries of preference are Belgium and France, in that order. For the 1998/99 academic year, we may calculate on the basis of data supplied by Statec⁵ that 75.2% of young people in university or higher education were studying outside the Grand Duchy. This figure is an estimate, and probably errs on the low side. The only information Statec has on students at university outside the Grand Duchy are those supplied by the financial assistance authorities, but not all students apply for financial support for their studies and those who do not are not recorded anywhere else.

Conclusion

It transpires from the foregoing that young people are well-equipped from a language skills point of view for being mobile. Their behaviour indeed shows that they use their skills and that they often travel outside the Grand Duchy. If we also take into account the fact that a large number of young people are obliged to go abroad for their studies, we may indeed claim that young Luxembourgers are the most mobile in the entire EU.

Does that also mean that they value the EU most? According to the results of Eurobarometer 47.2⁴, this is not the case. In answer to the question of what the EU represented for them personally, 33.9% of young Luxembourgers in the 15 to 24 years age group selected the reply "it creates a better future for young people", whereas the overall average for all the countries in the EU was 34.17%; they were thus fairly close to the average, as the French (32.4%) and the Germans (33.5%). In comparison, countries such as Ireland, Portugal, Italy, Greece and Austria reach and even exceed the 40% mark. We therefore cannot state categorically that young people in the Grand Duchy have a particularly favourable attitude towards the EU.

In fact we have little information about the real attitude of young people in the Grand Duchy towards the EU and the possibilities it opens up by promoting mobility. In particular, we do not know whether mobility is perceived as something positive or negative, if it fosters open-mindedness, or on the contrary provokes a feeling of anxiety or even rejection.

¹ Commission Européenne (1997). *Les jeunes Européens. Eurobaromètre 47.2.*

² Europäisches Tourismus Institut (2000). *Tourismusvolumen und Reiseverhalten der Wohnbevölkerung des Großherzogtums Luxemburg 1998*, p.21.

³ id., p.43.

⁴ Commission Européenne (1997). *Les jeunes Européens. Eurobaromètre 47.2.*

⁵ statec (2000). *Le Luxembourg en chiffres.*

⁶ Commission Européenne (1997). *Les jeunes Européens. Eurobaromètre 47.2.*



Multiculturalism and tolerance

Because of the considerable number of foreigners belonging to different language groups and different cultures living together in the Grand Duchy, we may use the term "multicultural" to refer to the situation experienced on a day-to-day basis by the country's inhabitants and more particularly by young people in the educational system.

In all classes in secondary education – slightly more in technical education and slightly less in general education – young Luxembourg nationals are constantly in contact with young people of other nationalities and cultures who use other languages.

The results of the Eurobarometer (1997) at any event allow us to conclude that young Luxembourg nationals are tolerant of people belonging to other nationalities or other races. Only 2.5% of young people say that they are uncomfortable about meeting people of another nationality, and 1.1% are uncomfortable about contact with people of another race. In comparison with the young people of other European countries, Luxembourgers appear to be the most tolerant of other races and are less disturbed by foreigners than the average for the countries included in the Eurobarometer. These rough indicators of tolerance do not however provide any information on what young people think about the multicultural society in which they live.

Unfortunately there is very little specific information available on this point. The only relatively recent study in this field was carried out as part of the "Multi Culti" project, a Youth Initiative Project (YIP) promoted and supported by the Commission of the European Communities. Alongside other activities, the project carried out a survey designed to explore the thoughts of young people on a multicultural society and their experience of it². As one of the specific aims of the survey was to make the young people think about the inherent problems facing a multicultural society, it is understandable that sampling considerations did not constitute a major concern of this Youth Initiative Project. It is therefore not possible to generalise the results of the survey; they should be considered rather as an expression of trends.

The sample comprised 1 300 subjects aged between 10 and 25 years (average age 16 years), of which 55% were girls and 45% boys. The questionnaire used was an open one; answers were grouped together in categories subsequently.

The first question ("What do you think constitutes a multicultural society?") was designed to explore the content they attributed to the concept of a "multicultural society". The answers more frequently given referred to "having friends of other nationalities" (66%) or to "people of different nationalities doing things together"³. The direct question of "Are you in favour of a multicultural society with the cohabitation of a large number of different cultures?" drew 84% of positive answers and 6% of negative answers, with 10% not expressing an opinion. The majority of the 16% of young people who were against a multicultural society or who did not want to give an answer define a multicultural society as "living alongside each other"⁴. A general question of this kind is obviously non-committal and does not perhaps reveal their innermost attitude. There was nevertheless the same response to the more specific

question "Could you have a partner (girlfriend/boyfriend) of a different nationality?" Here 89% gave a positive answer, 7% didn't know, 1% gave a negative answer and 3% gave no answer at all. Of those who gave less enthusiastic answers, there was in fact a higher proportion of Luxembourg nationals.

The question "Do you have any acquaintances/friends of other nationalities?" indicated whether the young people had any experience of a multicultural society and, to some extent, authenticated their answers to the previous questions. 93% answered "yes" to this key question, 2% answered "no" and 5% gave no answer. In the questionnaire, 90% of the young people went on to say that they had a positive attitude towards other nationalities, and 86% had no problem in dealing with foreigners.

The young people not in favour of a multicultural society were mostly in technical secondary education and came from a manual or agricultural background.

It transpires from this survey – although the results should not be over-generalised – that overall the multicultural society is seen in a positive light and nationality is considered relatively unimportant in establishing acquaintanceships or friendships, and even forming a couple.

On the basis of these results we may have the impression that there is to some extent a mutually positive attitude among the various communities in the Grand Duchy. An earlier study carried out some twenty years ago⁵ produced rather different results. It is true that it is difficult to compare the data, since there were only 150 subjects, all of whom were younger (10-12 years old) and lived in Luxembourg City, where they attended the fourth year of primary education. Using a scale of appreciation with five possibilities, the children had to express their attitude towards various national groups (Luxembourgers, Italians, Portuguese, and other foreigners). 51.7% of the Luxembourg children had an unfavourable or very unfavourable attitude towards Italian children, while the figure in respect of Portuguese children was 57.8%. It is striking that the Italian and Portuguese children displayed similar mutual rejection; 50% of the Portuguese children rejected the Italian children and 61.1% of the Italian children were not in favour of their Portuguese counterparts. On the other hand, the Luxembourg children came off quite well, since they were rejected by only 14.2% of the Portuguese children and 11.2% of the Italian children.

Should we disregard these differences between the two studies by claiming that it is difficult to compare the results because of the differences in the samples and the considerable amount of time that has passed since 1981? Or could it be argued that over these last twenty years there has been a favourable evolution, with the children having become so used to living in a multicultural environment that they no longer pay attention to nationality, but get on together or reject each other primarily on the basis of personal criteria? As no recent research has been carried out on this, it is hard to reach a decision. The feeling nevertheless remains that the results of the study published by the Caritas charity do not give a sufficiently thorough appreciation of the reciprocal attitudes of young Luxembourgers and young foreigners.

Since the attitudes and behaviour of young people are influenced by their environ-

ment, and particularly by their families, further information could be obtained by consulting a number of studies that are not specifically focused on young people but on the general population; these studies are also instructive in that they make it possible to draw a comparison between young people and older age groups.

The main objective of a survey carried out in 1986-87 by the Pedagogical Innovation and Research Service of the Ministry of Education⁶ was to explore the opinions of the native Luxembourg population on language learning in the context of a demographic situation featuring a very high proportion of foreigners. This questionnaire was supplemented by questions on contact between native Luxembourgers and foreigners, their prejudices in respect of foreigners, and their degree of xenophilia. The sample used for analysing the results comprised 813 subjects representative of the population in the 15 to 75 years age group.

It transpires from this survey that there is more contact with foreigners in the age groups of young people (15 to 24 years) and young adults (25 to 34 years), whether at work/school, during the holidays or in their spare time, whereas contact diminished gradually with age. Contact with foreigners remained a function of the level of education; the more advanced a person's education, the more regular his/her contacts with foreigners⁷.

Although there is less contact with foreigners as age increases, the level of friendliness towards foreigners changes very little. In the overall sample, 83% said they were very or relatively xenophile⁸. The percentage varied only slightly in the various age groups. The remainder of the sample was divided between 7% who were relatively not xenophile, 2% not at all xenophile and 8% who did not answer. As this latter group appeared to have an ambiguous attitude to say the least, we may include them with the two preceding categories to form a single group counting for 17% who said that they did not feel friendly towards foreigners⁹.

This percentage is similar to what was observed earlier in the above mentioned "Multi Culti" project published by Caritas. Approximately one-sixth of the population of Luxembourg nationals appears to have an attitude to the presence of foreigners that is ambiguous to say the least.

This brings us back to the same figure of 15% for replies to a question intended to investigate the impression Luxembourgers have about living in proximity to foreigners; here again, 15% of the sample were of the opinion that "it's impossible to live together with foreigners". Indeed this prejudice becomes increasingly prevalent with age; among young people in the 15-24 years age group only 4% subscribed to this prejudice, whereas at the other end of the scale, in the group over the age of 65 years, the figure was 23%¹⁰. It is not easy to explain this correlation with age. The most probable explanation is perhaps that young people are in contact with foreigners on an everyday basis, in class or at work, and are used to living in a multicultural environment, at least as soon as they start kindergarten. The older age groups have not had this experience and are able to compare the present situation with the situation they knew when they were children, when the number of foreigners was negli-

gible compared with today's level.

The same correlation with age is found in the replies to other questions intended to investigate the personal prejudices of the Luxembourg population. Thus 27% of the sample were of the opinion that "foreigners constitute a threat to Luxembourg's identity", but the figure was only 18% among young people in the 15 to 24 years age group whereas it was 33% among those over the age of 65 years. The statement "foreigners have too many children" was agreed with by 23% of those interviewed – 18% among the younger age groups, and 35% among the oldest age group.

This research provides additional information; it points out clearly that a very small percentage of people are openly against the presence of foreigners, and that there is a larger section of the population whose xenophobia is latent and only revealed when their prejudices are investigated. Happily, this proportion appears to be much smaller among young people than among adults.

The survey also shows that the ambiguous or negative attitude towards foreigners depends on a person's level of training or study, professional standing and the household's income level. People who have spent a long time in training or study, who have high-level jobs and incomes are less prone to prejudice and xenophobia than the rest of the population.

The results of the survey referred to above are confirmed by a survey carried out in 1994 by the ILReS opinion poll institute for the C.L.A.E.¹¹ Its purpose was to appreciate the effect of the presence of foreigners in relation to the following areas: cultural identity, standard of living, situation of the Luxembourg language, and demographic evolution. The presence of foreigners constituted relative cultural enrichment for 68% of Luxembourgers, a guarantee of the standard of living for 53%, potential for demographic renewal for 53%, and a threat to the Luxembourg language for just 36%. Like its predecessor, this survey reveals that the presence of foreigners is considered more favourably by those people whose level of education is higher. Lastly, we see that young people view the presence of foreigners much more favourably than their elders do.

A survey carried out in the spring of 2000 in the north of the Grand Duchy by youth groups in a number of political parties (Social Christian Party, Democratic Party and Socialist Party)¹² caused a stir as some of the replies could be interpreted as revealing xenophobia. The sample, which cannot be considered representative, comprised 1 723 young people between the ages of 12 and 25 years, both Luxembourgers and foreigners. In answer to the question whether the Grand Duchy was a welcoming country for foreigners, 26% replied "very welcoming", 30% "sufficiently welcoming", 6% "not welcoming enough", 35% "too welcoming", and 3% did not reply. Similar answers were given to the question whether the Grand Duchy was a xenophile country; 24% said "very xenophile", 37% "sufficiently xenophile", 10% "not xenophile enough", 25% "too xenophile", and 4% did not reply.

Obviously, it is rather difficult to compare these results with those of other studies, because the alternatives from which a reply was to be selected were not the same.

The choice of "too welcoming / too xenophile" does not appear in any other study; it is difficult to interpret this type of reply unequivocally. It certainly expresses a critical point of view, but there is a world of difference between that and considering this result as proof of xenophobia.

On the basis of these surveys we may conclude that the Grand Duchy is not entirely immune to all forms of xenophobia, which would indeed be surprising given the impressive proportion of foreigners (>35%). It nevertheless appears that the percentage of those who say openly that they are not in favour of the presence of foreigners is very low, and that young people in particular are less likely to display xenophobia.

- ¹ Commission Européenne (1997). *Les jeunes Européens. Eurobaromètre 47.2*.
- ² Caritas (1995). *Les jeunes en situation multi-culturelle*.
- ³ id., p.8.
- ⁴ id., p.24.
- ⁵ MEISCH, Nico (1981). *Sozialisation zwischen zwei Kulturen*.
- ⁶ LEVY, Jérôme & KAISER, Lex (1990). *Population étrangère, langues et enseignement vus par les Luxembourgeois*.
- ⁷ id., pp.13-16.
- ⁸ Comment: The word "xenophilia" has been used to prevent any block provoked by use of the word "xenophobia" with its very negative connotations.
- ⁹ LEVY, Jérôme & KAISER, Lex (1990). *Population étrangère, langues et enseignement vus par les Luxembourgeois*, pp.17-18.
- ¹⁰ id., pp.126-128.
- ¹¹ quoted from: BESCH, Sylvain (1997). *Luxembourg, pays immunisé contre le racisme? Le débat face au racisme et à la xénophobie au Luxembourg entre 1993 et 1996*, p.33.
- ¹² CSJ, JDL & JSL (not yet published). *Jugendenquête Norden 2000*. - survey carried out in the spring of 2000 in the north of the Grand Duchy by groups from different political parties (social Christian party, democratic party and socialist party).



Chapter 3



Youth policy today - a survey of statutory bases and structures



Involvement in youth policy

Ministry and administration

At national level, youth policy falls within the competence of the Ministry of the Family, Social Solidarity and Youth. This is a result of the Grand Ducal Decree of 11 August 1999, which reassigned competences among the ministries in the context of the 1999 coalition government between the Christian Socialists and the Liberals. This Decree also merged the "Service National de la Jeunesse - SNJ", the National Youth Service, which had already existed by statute since 27 February 1984, into the Ministry. While the general initiatives of youth policy and the approaches to it are direct tasks of the Ministry, the SNJ tends to take over their operational implementation and realisation.

In practice this continues a tried division of effort, as the SNJ has acted as the contact and support structure for young people in connection with training and support since 1984, within the formal competence of the Ministry responsible for youth affairs. The SNJ promotes co-operation nationally between youth associations and organisations on the one hand and the Government and government bodies on the other. Locally the Ministry plays a major role especially in co-operation with municipal authorities which maintain youth centres ("Maisons des Jeunes - MJs") or pursue other local youth policy initiatives such as implementing the "Plan Communal Jeunesse" (Municipal Youth Plan). Practical aspects handled by the SNJ include major tasks in out-of-school educational provision, socio-cultural activities and specific training for those working with young people as a main or secondary occupation or as volunteers. We discuss these aspects in chapter IV.

Local politics matter in Luxembourg. Unlike in most other European countries, they rank second only to national politics. This also applies to youth policy initiatives, for which the 118 municipalities are largely responsible themselves. The state offers its support in the form of funding, advice and monitoring, but it is the municipalities which decide which national initiatives to implement locally, and how far. It is therefore up to them, also, whether to use a local youth committee to plan and implement youth projects. Not only the local authority, but young people and other citizens can participate in this.

This widespread practice of subsidiarity necessitates constant initiatives at national level if the main points of youth policy are to be established nationwide. Thus the Ministry then responsible for youth proposed the formation of local youth committees

as early as 1982. In 1985 there followed a proposal to create local youth parliaments to encourage young people to participate in municipal affairs. Further initiatives ensued, including the creation of local youth services and children's and young people's councils. Since 1997 three Action Plans² have been devised and published. They are discussed in detail in the next chapter, as fundamental to present-day youth policy.

Suffice it to say here that many municipalities' level of commitment has fallen far below expectation, and many of the initiatives have found only very limited resonance. Though recently a debate over the necessity for new youth-political concepts for the rural space is to be observed, which should oppose the present concentration on conurbations.

Private non-profit making organisations and associations

These have played a central role in the field of youth and social policy in Luxembourg since time immemorial, because the promotion of honorary involvement has always been an official priority. The latest Action Plan therefore devotes a special chapter to voluntary work and refers to the many initiatives, especially of family aid and in the context of social welfare measures. The state as a rule confines itself to initiatives, setting outline conditions and financial support of the private structures responsible for the specific implementation.

This principle holds good in the youth field, though to some extent there is a stronger link with the state through the nature of the sponsorship (institutional) and/or participation on steering committees. The structures involved have the form of a non-profit making association, but really act only as quasi non-governmental organisations (QuaNGOs), because the principal scope of their tasks is the pursuit of national approaches to youth policy. These organisations include the "Centre National d'Information et d'Echange pour Jeunes" – CNIEJ, (the National Information and Exchange Centre for Young People) and the "Réseau Luxembourgeois des Centres de Rencontre, d'Information et d'Animation pour Jeunes" – CRIAJ (the Luxembourg Network of Meeting, Information and Leisure for Young People). Luxembourg's youth research institute, the Study Centre on the Situation of Young People in Europe – CeSije, works within this structure.

CNIEJ was founded as early as 1987 and reflects a priority of youth policy in Luxembourg: information for young people. The task of CNIEJ is to provide a low threshold of availability for young people which they can cross as they need without having to overcome major barriers to access. Information is provided with a view to supporting and advising young people. It is not that other people solve their problems. Rather, the intention is to enable them to have the necessary information to decide for themselves or carry out their own projects. CNIEJ is equipped, and its staff trained, accordingly.

Unlike CNIEJ, CRIAJ is not oriented towards young people themselves, but acts as an umbrella association for the operators of the MJs in the municipalities. More than 20 operating institutions belong to CRIAJ, and the trend is upward. Given the outstanding importance of MJs in Luxembourg youth policy, from the practical viewpoint, their work

is appraised in detail in the next chapter. There we shall return to other points of contact for young people, such as the "Centre de Médiation" (Mediation Centre) and "Centre de Prévention des Toxicomanies" (Drug Addiction Prevention Centre).

Official policy affords special recognition to youth organisations and associations because ultimately it is they which are best placed to achieve the active involvement of young people in the affairs of their immediate community.

They also meet the youth policy requirement of honorary service or voluntary commitment. As in other European countries, these organisations and associations vary to some extent in emphasis (e.g. socio-cultural, social, spiritual/religious, economic or even political), but they share the goal of offering young people fields of learning outside school, in which they can develop personally and learn to "experience democracy at first hand".

Most youth associations and organisations belong to an umbrella association, the "Conférence Générale de la Jeunesse Luxembourgeoise" (CGJL) (General Conference of Luxembourg Youth). This was founded in 1961, has experienced long periods of internal feuding, given the wide variety of its members, and was restructured into a non-profit making association in 1987. Member-associations range from political and unionized groupings, through scouting associations, student associations, youth clubs and voluntary organisations such as Young Firefighters, Caritas and the Red Cross to vocationally-oriented groups such as Young Farmers and Young Winegrowers – even ecological movements³.

Its current role in Luxembourg's youth policy is broached in the next chapter. It need only be noted here that CGJL in principle represents young people's interests with official bodies at national and European level. The latter is achieved especially through membership of the European Youth Forum.

Consultative and decision-making structures of youth policy

The Ministry of the Family, Social Solidarity and Youth is generally responsible for coordinating all aspects of relevance to youth, without directly encroaching on the areas of work of the other ministries which also deal with youth affairs. This explains the variety of youth policy initiatives already mentioned. These are intended to ensure that other ministerial departments take account of youth aspects coherently and in line with general approaches. As for the catch-phrase "participation by young people" – the theme of the first Action Plan of 1997 – it can be shown that such a strategy can be successful with regard to training and employment (more of this in the next chapter).

The most important structure in the pursuit of this strategy is the "Conseil Supérieur de la Jeunesse" (Higher Youth Council), which brings together various ministries and umbrella associations. As a multi-level discussion forum, the Higher Youth Council advises the Youth Ministry on youth affairs. Some of its proposals have led to Government legislation. Its members serve for two years. The Higher Youth Council also traces its origin to the Act of 27.2.1984 which also set up the SNJ, because this was the time when the first more comprehensive youth policy action plan was being devised.

The Higher Youth Council has no official decision-making power. As far as youth issues are concerned, such power rests with members of the Government in cabinet. Nevertheless, the Higher Youth Council's political influence should not be underestimated, because it serves as a forum for the discussion of other aspects with only an indirect bearing on youth. These fall within the sphere of activity of other ministries and may induce them to change their perceptions of problems. Official Youth Ministry documents reflect the importance of the Higher Youth Council, e.g. the Action Plans on which the Higher Youth Council gives an opinion in the run-up to publication.

The Ministry also consults the youth organisations and associations by involving CGJL if it needs to raise intended pilot projects in the youth field or devise basic youth policy documents. The specific form of the right of participation is up to the associations and depends on many coincidental factors. Moreover, no legal challenge of the Ministry's response to and implementation of stated recommendations is possible. However, Luxembourg's clear structures have brought a process of mutual information and consultation into play at national level. This means that, as a rule, the Ministry's youth policy initiatives can count on a broad consensus when presented to the public. National fora on all major youth issues also contribute to this consensus, as they not only involve the specialist organisations but everyone who may be affected in the broadest sense – not least young people themselves.

The structure of co-ordination between national and local levels is not so clear: indeed it is always a challenge. There has been positive experience in two fields. One is that of MJs, which receive both national and local funding and which, through the operating institutions responsible for them, have a contractual relationship with both Ministry and Municipality. Also, the content of the work is reviewed in mixed-membership committees known as the 'Platforms'. The second positive example of concerted action between local and national levels is the implementation of the "Plan Communal Jeunesse". The next chapter contains further information about the content of this plan.

Very few statutory provisions have hitherto regulated the youth policy of the Youth Department of the Ministry of the Family, Social Solidarity and Youth. Mention should be made of the National Youth Service Act of 1984, the most important and comprehensive act in this field. We have already referred to it repeatedly and will do so again in the next chapter as part of the discussion of youth policy in practice.

Two further acts also relate to the field of youth policy directly. They are the Training Leave Act ("Congé-Éducation"), introduced as a bill in 1969, passed as a law in 1973, amended and extended in 1984 and again adapted and unanimously endorsed by the Deputies in 1989. The law enables young people who have a job or are engaged in a career to claim a specific period of training leave to receive further education in the fields of civic education, training of youth leaders and management of youth groups and associations. It is also possible to take this training leave to catch up on formal training qualifications in special adult classes. The general age limit is 30, but this does not apply to youth leader courses or official adult education classes.

The statutory framework of youth policy in Luxembourg

The maximum entitlement is 60 days, of which not more than 20 can be taken in any two-year period. The young people must remain in employment with the same employer for at least six months. The employer must consent to the leave and declare that the participant's absence does not cause serious operational difficulties. If all conditions are met, the state pays the employer's costs for the employee for the period of his or her absence.

The second act dates from 1999 and concerns the use of opportunities in the context of the voluntary services. While in harmony with the European Union's programme on European Voluntary Service (EVS), as a national act it goes well beyond that programme and the national laws of countries such as Spain or Germany. For example, it governs the important issues of volunteer status and retention of entitlements to unemployed financial benefits.

The Act sets out to form part of the solidarity measures and the promotion of active involvement of young people in society. Like the EVS Programme, Luxembourg's national act sees voluntary service as an opportunity to improve education and employment prospects for young people, by such measures.

Statutes of relevance to young people

To complete this brief outline, mention must also be made of statutes which do not directly relate to youth policy, but which indirectly address children and young people. They are, primarily, the Children and Young People Protection Act of 10 August 1992 (amended by Act of 18 August 1995) and the Act of 20 December 1993 ratifying the UN Convention on Children's Rights. The present legislation originates from the Act of 12 November 1971, which abolished the distinction between crime and contravention of the law. The legislator wanted to focus on the social behaviour and not the deed done by minors to protect young people. Even less serious matters had to be submitted to the juvenile court in order for the latter to detect cases of maladjusted young people that would justify its intervention and thus prevent possible delinquency.

Through this same law the juvenile court also received more power to extend its preventive action. It now had the possibility to intervene when minors were exposed to danger by educational shortcomings and lack of supervision by their parents, or because the latter neglected to take the appropriate measures concerning physical and psychological disorders in their children.

The 1992 act, voted on after many debates in the Chamber of Deputies, only made limited amendments to the act of 1971 (legal draft No. 4137 on the promotion of children's rights and the social protection of childhood, Chamber of Deputies, 1995-1996).

The law of 10 August 1992 thus defines on the one hand the measures to be taken in the interest of young people. Curbing of violent acts, whether sexual or other, committed against minors is instituted through the amendments of articles 371, 372, 375 and 378 of the penal code. Sexual harassment of minors aged less than 16 and rape of minors aged less than 14 are severely punished. On the other hand the law provides measures to be taken in the interest of minors and society in the event of minors com-

mitting actions violating the penal law. The young offenders are then put under the jurisdiction of the juvenile court, and not of the common law courts. It judges the severity of the actions committed, and takes appropriate measures, going from reprimand to confinement in a disciplinary institution of the State. Measures taken by the juvenile court come to an end by full right when the minor reaches majority, except in certain cases defined by law. Children and young people aged less than 18 are defined as minors. Young people aged 16 to 18 may nevertheless be treated as adults in certain cases, and be, for example, judged by the common law courts.

The protection of young people in Luxembourg is thus closely linked to the competence and attributions of the juvenile judge and court. As has been pointed out here above, the law allows the juvenile court to take "measures of wardship, education and preservation concerning minors appearing before it".

It may thus, in the interest of minors, order them to be kept in their environment (under certain conditions), subject them to an educational assistance regime, put them under supervision "with any trustworthy person or in an appropriate institution", or even put them into one of the State's re-education centres.

It exercises its competence "towards minors who habitually elude the obligatory school attendance, indulge in corruption, gamble, are involved in trafficking, in occupations exposing them to prostitution, begging, or crime, or whose physical and mental health, education or social or moral development are jeopardised". The juvenile judge may also take appropriate measures concerning any minor who seeks its help and assistance when these measures are necessary in the interest of the minor⁴.

Even though Luxembourg ratified the *Convention on children's rights* very late, the Chamber of Deputies was unanimous about its importance. Nevertheless the law was voted with five minor reservations. Within the framework of the ratification of the *Convention on Children's Rights* the Chamber of Deputies adopted four motions asking the government to take measures concerning the institution of an ombudsman for children, parental authority, pornography involving children and anonymous childbirth.

Through the law of 31 May 1999, aimed at reinforcing the measures against slavery and sexual exploitation of children, Luxembourg has, among others, also adapted the national legislation to the *Convention on Children's Rights*. Henceforth the penal code not only punishes incitement to debauchery, corruption or prostitution of young people, but also the exploitation of a minor for prostitution or the production of pornographic spectacles or material. The law also provides for the punishment of the circulation, as well as the fabrication, transport, import or export of material with a pornographic subject. The fact that this material implies a minor is considered an aggravating circumstance.

Even the possession of objects with a pornographic subject implying or presenting minors and the exhibition of indecent objects to children under 16 may henceforth be punished. The legislator has also been given the means to fight prostitution networks and sex tourism more efficiently on an international level.

The legislation described in the previous paragraph is, until today, the only of the four

motions adopted by the Chamber during the ratification of the *Convention on children's rights* which has been put into practice. The discussion about the institution of an ombudsman for children in Luxembourg has been going on since 1996, but the political and social actors have not yet reached a conclusion as to its form and contents.

As regards young people's training and employment, Luxembourg has had relatively few problems compared with other European countries. Overall unemployment averaged 2.9% for the year 1999; the level for young people in the age-group up to 25 was 12.34%; and even adding the 26-30 age-group, the total was around 200 youths and young adults. At present there is actually an excess of job vacancies over labour supply. Nevertheless, the legislation provides for young people in recessionary or difficult labour market situations. As part of our discussion of the youth work of the Ministry of the Family, and specifically of the SNJ, the next chapter examines this in greater detail. Two measures should be mentioned at this stage because they typify the effort towards global or multi-level youth policy initiatives. They are measures in the context of the 1999 National Employment Plan ("*Plan d'Action National en faveur de l'emploi*" - PAN) which are intended to integrate young people more quickly into working life. One is the temporary auxiliary contract ("*contrat d'auxiliaire temporaire*"); the other the insertion traineeships ("*stages d'insertion*").

Young people under 30 registered at the Labour Office have the opportunity to participate in these schemes while receiving 80%-100% of the minimum income ("*Revenu Minimum Garanti*" - RMG) for a period of 3-12 months. During this time they can make up for any personal, social and vocational shortcomings which detract from their employability. As we shall see, the youth sphere is especially important in this context, because it involves many such schemes.

In general the legal entitlement to a minimum income is intended only for people aged at least 25. Persons who are raising a child or persons unable to work are entitled to receive the minimum income aged below 25.

To conclude this introduction it should be noted that youth policy initiatives and the approaches and moral concepts underlying them have influenced many other areas of society.

One example are the comprehensive socio-cultural facilities of secondary schools, including School Councils, which derive from an act of 1997 and provide for more democracy in schools, as many very recent projects reflect. At national level there is the National Conference of School Students ("*Conférence Nationale des Élèves*"), representing their interests vis-à-vis the Ministries of National Education, Vocational Training and Sport. The School Councils at each secondary school and technical secondary school send one delegate to the National Conference.

Mediation and prevention plans developed in the youth sphere have to some extent also been adopted by the training system. Peer-group education is now systematically

promoted. A top priority of schemes (including co-operation schemes) operated by the Labour Administration, such as Vocational Orientation ("Orientation Professionnelle des Jeunes" - OP) or by the Ministry of Education, such as Local Action for Young People ("Action Locale pour Jeunes" - ALJ) is to make the transition from school to training and working life as smooth as possible. Efforts to reduce scholastic failure rates should also be seen in the context of making the transition from school to training and working life as efficient as possible. These efforts range from a new, three-year stage of instruction in primary schools which replaces the previous first and second year in pilot stages² to close forms of co-operation between technical secondary education institutions and university education³. Logically, the same intentions govern action in other departments of the Ministry responsible for youth (i.e. the Family and Social Solidarity Departments). Examples are the expansion of childcare and young people's facilities such as day nurseries, crèches and kindergartens, school boarding facilities and structures such as school canteens, which make all-day care and provision possible.

Dealing with young people as an integral group, rather than dividing responsibilities for them, is a strategy which has found widespread acceptance. This consensus helped agreement to be reached on payment for financial support for children, to which all minors living in Luxembourg are entitled.

Young people continue to benefit from this support after the age of majority until age 27, provided they are studying. As a rule the parents receive these resources, though the young person may, on application, also be the recipient. Individual subsidies for housing are also paid, the level of which depends on the income of the main breadwinner in the household. In 1999, at any rate, one-quarter of beneficiaries of the housing subsidies were under the age of 25⁴.

Finally reference should be made of a growing number of initiatives in the health field, from the prevention of drug abuse to AIDS prevention and work with handicapped children and young people. As stated, it is common in Luxembourg for these to be implemented by private institutions with state financial support. Wherever possible, the emphasis is laid on primary prevention.

The integral approach described is also apparent in the initiatives for the disabled. While there are no exact figures, it is estimated that 1 300 people are involved. The National Programme for Handicapped Persons, adopted by the "Conseil de Gouvernement" on 30 July 1993, led to major changes, not least in the school system. Under the 1912 Schools Act, the exclusion of handicapped children from ordinary schooling was the norm (this applied until revision by a 1973 act concerning special education). The act was again amended in 1994 with a view to the integration of disabled persons and solidarity with them. The amendment included the creation of facilities to allow the disabled maximum autonomy in all areas of life. Many specialised installations and care facilities have acted on this concern. As with many other initiatives of relevance to young people, the State has in this instance also been inspired or guided by European initiatives. The European dimension is reflected in Luxembourg's youth policy in many ways.

The next chapter goes on to discuss the practical relevance of these statutory bases, general approaches and youth policy initiatives.

¹ The term "youth centre" is used in this context as translation for "maison de jeunes (MJ)" or "Jugendhäuser". The mission of these centres has three essential aspects: information, activities and meeting. The centre must, above all, be an open meeting place where young people can choose to participate in free, non-structured activities. The centre also proposes an activities programme to young people. Activities have as a goal to wake young people's interest, to motivate them to engage themselves, maybe in an association. Finally, the centre is also the first contact point for young people where they can find easy access to information and the social structures of the country.

² Ministère de la Jeunesse (1997). *Participation des Jeunes - Plan d'Action No.1.*

Ministère de la Jeunesse (1998). *Communication avec les jeunes - Plan d'Action No.2.*

Ministère de la Jeunesse (1998). *Travail de jeunesse, bénévolat, partenariat. Plan d'action No.3*

³ BECSKY, Stefan & MULLER, Marc (2000). *Jeunesse: politiques et structures au Grand-Duché de Luxembourg.*

⁴ id.

⁵ Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale, de la Formation Professionnelle et des Sports (2000). *Rapport d'activité 1999.*

⁶ Ministère de la Culture, de l'Enseignement Supérieur et de la Recherche (2000). *Rapport d'activité 1999.*

⁷ Ministère du Logement (2000). *Rapport d'activité 1999.*

Chapter 4



Youth policy today: plans, initiatives and trends



Introduction

The last chapter described the statutory bases, structures and responsibilities necessary to a formal characterisation of current youth policy in Luxembourg. The present chapter now attempts to identify the guiding points of social policy and areas and instruments of action which mark youth policy in practice. This is done in the form of a critical discussion of theory and reality as perceived by the authors, the main players and those affected. We see this approach as a necessary part of the review of national youth policy, as this programme is known in the context of the Council of Europe.

The chapter draws on evaluation studies and other research of relevance to youth policy in recent years as a source of information, in addition to the annual reports for 1998 and 1999 of all the ministries dealing with a hand in youth affairs, including records of various national fora and events and results of talks and interviews with those responsible and young people themselves. The leading questions, which were also on the agenda of the "Conseil Supérieur" for referral to and discussion in the structures it represents, were as follows:

1. What status do youth organisations have in youth work in Luxembourg (in theory and in practice)? Do they play a role in youth policy? What contribution do they make in general to community life, and how can their development over the past five years be evaluated?
2. Two essential features of Luxembourg society are multi-lingualism and multi-culturalism. Do young people's behaviour patterns reflect these features? Are they seen as positive incentives to learn, or do they intensify problems such as xenophobia, racism, violence and social exclusion? How has youth work reacted to these social traits in recent years? What have been the initiatives of youth policy so far?
3. Active participation by young people in their community life is a declared aim of youth policy. How are the social and political commitment of young people in Luxembourg seen today? Have there been notable changes in recent years? What opinions are there of the widespread view: "political apathy typifies the behaviour of many young people"?
4. "Société civique" (civil society) and "Citoyenneté européenne" (European citizenship) are key terms as far as the democratic development of Europe is concerned. Without the input of young people, such terms remain devoid of substance. What are youth work and youth policy doing to interest young people in European

aspects and interests, to raise their awareness of them and enhance their mental flexibility? What assessment can be made of the opportunities of promoting active inter-cultural learning through youth work, so that the necessary balance between identity formation and European citizenship can be struck?

5. A general appraisal of youth policy in Luxembourg; cohesion between national and local levels; evaluation of the practical relevance of the subsidiarity principle; synergies or competition between school and out-of-school youth work; opinions on the relationship between the necessary honorary involvement in youth work and the professionalisation of youth work, which is also becoming necessary; what are the perceived shortcomings of youth work and youth policy? what direct needs for action/initiatives exist in youth policy and research?

The aim is to intensify the national debate concerning the best possible use and further development of the existing potential and, at the same time, to probe how far current youth policy is in practice appropriate to the lives of the young people of Luxembourg – both to everyday life at present and to foreseeable future developments and circumstances. The national level is related to the European as necessary. The chapter "Challenges for future youth policy" draws possible conclusions and systematically discusses them.

Youth policy as global policy

This aspiration has only been formally defined since 1996, when the "Lignes directrices de la politique du Ministère de la Jeunesse" (Youth Ministry Policy Guidelines) were published. There have been earlier attempts to understand Youth policy as global policy. Punctual approaches and isolated indications can be found in governmental declarations and also in the change of name from the then Ministry of National Education to National Education and Youth.

The "Lignes directrices" expressly refer to the need to overcome compartmentalised access and viewpoints in order to meet the needs of young people. They recognise that there is no such thing as the youth of Luxembourg, that social conditions are changing more radically than in the past and that specific provision must be made for young people in the stage of transition to adult life. The "Lignes directrices" set the political objectives which must guide all measures of youth policy:

- Participation by young people in society;
- Equal opportunities for all young people; and
- The promotion of basic values such as democracy, solidarity and tolerance.

The following are identified as priority measures for the achievement of these objectives:

- The promotion of social inclusion and participation of all young people in society;
- Support for youth organisations which provide a social space and encourage young people to participate in city life;
- Active co-ordination and co-operation between the government authorities and

youth organisations, especially in the field of information for and leadership of young people, training of youth leaders and prevention;

- Decentralisation of youth policy by the development of the Municipal Youth Plan;
- Regional leadership and, in co-operation with the municipalities and youth organisations, of the network of centres for meetings, information and leadership for young people; and
- The development of infrastructure for young people such as residential centres, young people's accommodation and youth centres.

To make these objectives and intentions specific and achieve them, three Action Plans have been devised since 1997. They have been publicly discussed and taken as the basis of practice. They are:

- the Action Plan for Participation by Young People ("Plan d'Action participation des jeunes");
- the Action Plan for Communication with Young People ("Plan d'Action communication avec les jeunes"); and
- the Action Plan for Youth Work, Voluntary Action and Partnership ("Plan d'Action travail de jeunesse, bénévolat, partenariat").

This is therefore the background in which the practice of youth policy must be presented and discussed. Since an independent Youth Ministry was only set up with the formation of the Government of 1994 – until which there was only the National Youth Service (SNJ) – a largely uniform, coherent plan for a policy for young people has been devised in a fairly short space of time, and that plan has been broadly accepted by the vast majority of those involved. There is a democratic tradition in Luxembourg of discussing youth issues in the public at large before passing ministerial proposals in these matters. Accordingly, national fora were held about the Action Plans and the opinion of the "Conseil Supérieur de la Jeunesse" was sought (see page 96).

These preliminary comments would be incomplete without again referring to the important role of the National Youth Service ("Service National de la Jeunesse" – SNJ), the guarantor of continuity of support and qualification of youth work in Luxembourg. Constituted under the Act of 27 February 1984, it is largely independent of the party-political composition of the government of the day. The coalition treaty of 12 August 1999 assigned the previous Youth Ministry and the SNJ to the new Ministry of the Family, Social Solidarity and Youth, to which they now belong.

This raised the political profile of youth policy and strengthened it in general. It also led to a closer involvement of the SNJ in the operationalisation and implementation of the policy guidelines in youth work. The significant improvement in the staffing of the SNJ is one sign that the political intentions are going to be implemented in practice.

Admittedly, on the other hand, there are practical limits to the aspiration of youth policy to be global. Important aspects of relevance to youth are also handled by other ministries. While the Youth Ministry has been competent for co-ordinating all activities

of relevance to youth policy since 1994 (horizontal competence) and also has a right of proposal, but de facto there is no institutionalised inter-ministerial co-operation within the Government.

Nevertheless it must be stated that, in the "Conseil Supérieur de la Jeunesse", representatives of the Youth Ministry and of the SNJ currently work alongside representatives of the Ministries of Justice, National Education and Vocational Training, Labour, Health and of the Ministry of Culture, Higher Education and Research. In addition to these ministries, the following are represented: the "Conférence Générale de la Jeunesse Luxembourgeoise" (General Conference of Luxembourg Youth); the "Onofhängeg Gewerkschaftsjugend" (Independent Trade Union Youth Movement); the "Lëtzebuerger Gewerkschaftsjugend" (Luxembourg Trade Union Youth Movement); and the "Chrëschtlech Sozial Jugend" (Christian Social Youth). Hence all the sectors competent for youth affairs in the various ministries are involved. The main youth organisations can also contribute their own, specific viewpoints. Views differ as to the actual effect of this co-operation in the "Conseil Supérieur", and its consultative status imposes compromises. But there is no disputing its important function as a forum for concerted action by the youth associations in the interest of all. Indeed they would like to see the "Conseil Supérieur" involved more systematically and closely as a partner in dialogue with the Government. Developments over the past year lend the impression that the present Government, hesitant at the start in consulting the "Conseil Supérieur", now accepts it as an important partner in the implementation of global strategies of youth policy. Thus Luxembourg has found a way of making the implementation of youth policy initiatives as part of global policy more feasible than in many other European countries, at least in theory.

Before we describe the fields of action and measures which characterise youth policy in practice today, and are also of interest to a discussion from an external standpoint, let us digress to examine some initiatives and measures which the Youth Ministry has adopted itself on the basis of the three Action Plans.

Action Plan 1: Youth Participation (1997)

One way of structuring the content of this report is to distinguish between participation in the form of institutionalised representation and the participation of young people in activities, structures and projects. The "Conseil Supérieur", as the most important representative body, belongs to the former. Then various advisory committees ("commissions consultatives") must be mentioned in which the recognised youth organisations can participate. A certain stagnation must be recorded here over the past years – there is less willingness to participate in these committees. In principle there are two possible explanations.

One is the very subdued attitude of state intervention about the youth sector, as it is

formulated by the National Federation of Scouts of Luxembourg ("Fédération Nationale des Éclaireurs et Éclaireuses du Luxembourg" – FNEL), the Luxembourg Guides and Scouts ("Lëtzebuerger Guiden a Scouten" – LGS) and other scouting organisations, which instead merely call for the creation of favourable conditions.

Another explanation certainly applicable to most associations and organisations is the clarity of Luxembourg's structures and the frequent closeness of youth organisations to political decisionmakers. If a specific project of an association or organisation has to be implemented, this is generally feasible without having to involve the various committees. The policy of the Association of Girl and Boy Scouts, as far as can be discerned from outside, is clear proof of this. From the immediate perspective of the associations, this approach is certainly seen as advantageous. But with a view to consolidating the "vie associative" as a formative influence in the development and implementation of a global youth policy, in other words in the interests of all, this is too short-sighted.

The first Action Plan (Youth Participation) says the following in this regard:

"In the community life of young people, the terms 'active participation' and 'learning through participation' are fundamental. They represent an opportunity for young people to participate in programmes and structures which take account of their commitment to local, regional and national decision-making.

It is recognised that, by virtue of the informal nature and flexibility of their approach to education, youth organisations and groups can create an atmosphere appropriate to social and political education of young people and foster the development of tolerance and co-operation, indispensable qualities to an understanding of what democracy is."

Municipal Youth Plan

One reaction on the part of the Government to the clear lagging of practice behind the planning aspiration and in order to give new impetus to more active participation has been an extensive devolution of youth policy in recent years to municipal level. This devolution certainly reached its first culmination in the Municipal Youth Plan ("Plan Communal Jeunesse", published in December 1997). This tries to institutionalise co-operation between national and local levels. While participation in the "Plan Communal Jeunesse" has not yet been made a statutory requirement, the Government incentives in terms of financial sponsorship of implementation are nevertheless considerable.

Initiated and financially supported by the Youth Ministry, the plan gives the municipalities an instrument for needs-oriented medium-term planning of youth policy according to the specific circumstances of the municipality and the young people living in it. The initiative for participation in the "Plan Communal Jeunesse" may originate from young people in a municipality, from their parents, an MJ, a youth organisation or the local administration itself. In any case a formal decision by the town council is required.

The next stage is to form a small steering group with the task of producing a survey of young people in the municipality which is as pluralist and comprehensive as possible. Based on an analysis of weaknesses, projects and initiatives are then developed to change the situation positively. Publishing various documents and deliberately involving young people locally ensure transparency.

A final document is put to the town council for official endorsement. Then it is referred to the Youth Ministry for verification of its consistency with the official guidelines on participation. As in all important matters, the opinion of the "Conseil Supérieur" is then obtained. Then the proposed action can be taken.

Eight municipalities participated in the implementation of the plan from 1998-2000. A rough evaluation of the data obtained is available; preparation in context is being handled by the Luxembourg youth research institute CeSije (Study Centre on the Situation of Young People in Europe). On average around 45% of all young people from these municipalities took part in the comprehensive interviewing using questionnaires. Data were obtained especially on the following aspects:

- The young person's age, sex, nationality, training and/or employment situation and present way of life (including economic aspects)
- Young people's living environment (municipality/town and infrastructure ranging from school to medical care, public transport etc.)
- Young people's family situations and nexus of relationships;
- Leisure behaviour – individual, with reference to community life and with reference to the specific facilities of the municipality in which the young people live;
- Questions and problems of priority importance and daily relevance;
- Future planning: own goals, values to realise and basic approaches; and
- Political attitudes and personal political commitment.

Other municipalities are now in the planning stage for implementing the "Plan Communal Jeunesse". Some, e.g. Dudelange, have meanwhile begun to act on the results in the form of an action plan actively involving the relevant young people. Others are in the preparatory stage for this. In any case the "Plan Communal Jeunesse" is an innovative measure with potential for discussion, also, at European level.

Subsidiarity and commitment

The promotion of active participation by young people is not the only reason for devolving youth policy, though it is certainly the most vital aspect, as it is the only way of keeping the threshold of access as low as possible and respecting the primacy of equal opportunity for all young people. The principle of subsidiarity also plays a role. It must be said that the application of this principle in previous Luxembourg youth policy has not led to the state relinquishing its right of initiative. Devolution hitherto has clearly led to more intensive and better qualified youth labour in the country. It has helped open discussion of comparable quality standards in the retention or even diversifica-

tion of provision for young people and in the conditions of their active participation.

But what has been said elsewhere also holds good here: far less use is made of the opportunities provided than would be necessary genuinely to achieve the set objectives. The Government seems to treat the youth associations as far more important than young people do themselves. The willingness to participate actively and in positions of responsibility in community life is slight. Purely leisure-oriented provision (e.g. sports associations), on the other hand, is heavily used. Awareness and training measures should help here and lead to greater commitment at local level (e.g. for participation in the Local Youth Forum).

Decreasing commitment from young people, clear under-representation of girls and young women in the associations and the general absence of foreign young people from the membership are indicators of more than merely internal inadequacies or lack of strategy in these associations. They show how far there is real success in turning the theoretical ideas of youth policy into social practice and devising forward-looking policy drafts for local action. This, too, reflects the fact that, so far, little thought has been given to the active involvement of the growing number of foreign young people in municipal life. Institutions (e.g. ASTI, CLAE and SESOPI) which have committed themselves to special integration work must be exempted from this criticism.

The other side of the coin is the attitude of the youth associations themselves and their organisation at national level. In recent years it must be noted that they have deprived themselves of their scope for influencing policy and have thereby become less attractive. Only very recently can a U-turn be discerned – of which more later.

The centrally adopted ministerial initiatives to facilitate direct participation by young people include the reduction of the age of eligibility to stand for election to 18, the initiative to involve vocational trainees in workplace-level elections and the introduction of voluntary service for young people. National conditions were simultaneously created for this – an all-time first (the Act was passed unanimously on 8 December 1998. Based on the German and Spanish legal provision for a social or ecological year of voluntary service, this legislation went beyond that). The Act implemented the European Commission Programme for a European Year of Voluntary Service for Young People, without contradictions between national law and European initiative, and in a spirit of cohesion. This initiative, too, offers specific opportunities for young people to participate actively in community life.

The basic approaches of youth policy, as stated, also include the principle of equality between girls or young women and boys or young men. From the point of view of youth policy as global policy this approach necessitates horizontal action. Accordingly, co-operation between the Youth Ministry and the Ministries of Women's Advancement and of National Education is close, and also exists to some extent with the Ministry of Labour and Employment.

Another horizontal mission of youth policy is to promote young people's active participation in achieving healthy living conditions. In co-operation with the Ministry of Health, an effort is being made to develop global strategies and implement them with

the help of the youth associations and organisations.

The principle of equality between young men and women in all areas of participation in society, promoted not only in the "Lignes Directrices", has so far been too little followed in practice. There are shortcomings both in the school system and outside it, ranging from a lack of sex education to a male-dominated community life.

In certain other European countries, satisfactory allowance has not yet been made for gender issues either, but at least there is more public discussion of them. In Luxembourg a need for remedial action emerges here with regard to the possibilities which civil and social education can offer outside school. This is an important starting point for youth work, which we shall consider further in the 'challenges' chapter.

There are interesting initiatives to create equal opportunities in the labour market or equality between men and women in the context of participation in society. We would refer to projects of the Ministry of Women's Advancement which are designed in principle to anchor gender issues in education and training policy. "Education in equality" ("éducation à l'égalité") should be a normal part even of pre-school education. In vocational training and on the labour market the phrase is "training in equality" ("formation à l'égalité") and reference is made to the necessary interplay between the ministries, the trade associations, the trade unions and the training institutions. These initiatives have not yet had a wide impact, but important trends have been started.

The Youth Ministry is realising its own ideas especially in the fields of information, leadership in out-of-school initiatives and training of youth workers. Since November 1999 the SNJ "Group Leadership" work party has co-operated with the Ministry of Women's Advancement systematically over the scope for involving more girls and young women in the activities of the youth centres. This initiative was taken on the basis of the results of a survey at the time. The most recent projects are showing good effects in this respect, and show that concerted action is possible. Even so, there is much more to do here to eliminate the imbalance which exists in youth and association work, as criticised above.

Framework conditions for representative participation

The ASFT (Act regulating the relations between the state and organisms acting in the social, familial and therapeutic field) falls within the context of the state regulations for representative participation of young people. Passed by the "Conseil de Gouvernement" on 18 December 1998, it governs the conditions of state recognition and promotion of certain activities by organisations in the form of agreements with the Government. Committees ("comités de concertation") meet regularly with a joint membership of state representatives and delegates from the respective organisation/institution to define the task, the methods of its implementation and review results.

On the one hand, this leads to greater state control of the detailed work but, on the other, institutions and organisations have security of planning and budget. Not to be underestimated, either, is the new possibility also created by the Act of introducing

comparable quality standards in widely differing fields of youth work.

Finally, the Luxembourg network of meeting, information and leisure centres for young people (CRIAJ) should also be mentioned. It brings together the local and central operators of these centres and, as such, is a direct partner in dialogue with the Youth Ministry. The work of the institutions is discussed elsewhere in connection with the work of the youth centres, which has a special status in the practice of youth policy in the country.

The close connection of the "Lignes directrices" with Action Plan 1 "Participation" – imparting basic values by promoting democratic forms of participation by young people – becomes especially clear in the aim of intensifying action against social exclusion, racism and intolerance in the context of this plan. With reference to the sustained effects of Luxembourg's participation in the campaign of the European Council, the increasingly marked character of a multi-cultural society in Luxembourg is recognised. From it, the conclusion is drawn that all players of relevance to youth work must co-operate closely with the Government. The priority is becoming the basic and further training of group leaders and social workers, plus peer-group education and work on teaching material.

Many young people in ordinary everyday life are obviously unaware of the special situation of a multi-cultural society, though this does not mean they would actively have accepted it, but the presence of nearly 43% of foreign young people is not reflected nearly proportionately in community life or other youth work provision. We shall therefore state in relation to the work of the youth centres and the training and further training provisions of the SNJ, and in our concluding chapter, that present practice is not always appropriate to the needs and aspirations of a multi-cultural society, and that awareness of the implications of a multi-cultural social structure for youth work needs to be raised at regional and local levels.

Finally it can be said that this Participation Action Plan has without doubt given direction to youth policy and opened up many possibilities. The potential of central initiatives at Youth Ministry level under this heading seems to have been exhausted in view of present ministerial competences. It would be desirable for the Youth Ministry to have further competences to realise the aspiration of Youth policy as global policy. The institutionalisation of an inter-ministerial co-ordination group on all aspects of relevance to youth with the power to introduce directives and impose approaches on other departments would certainly be an essential qualitative step forward. The question is how to appeal to young people who do not belong to organisations or associations or clubs, to attract them to the openings for participation in their communal life. We would mention here the many young people who attend the youth clubs at local level, but are hardly catered for by other existing youth work structures and institutions. More attention will have to be paid to this potential in future, with regard to the Action Plan.

Below we present certain youth policy emphases which have been developed from Action Plan 2.

Action Plan 2: Communication with Young People (1998)

Youth information policy

Like the others, this Action Plan is based on the "Lignes directrices" and addresses the following youth policy objectives: participation by young people in society; equal opportunities; and promotion of basic values. It embraces availability of information for young people, advice for young people, mediation and prevention.

Action plan 2 returns to young people's basic right to information as a human right and feature of a democratic society, as stated in Action Plan 1, and derives specific initiatives accordingly. The reference to corresponding ministerial decrees or opinions on the significance of information for young people at the level of the European Union and European Council is relevant to action. The United Nation Convention on Children's Rights is given as the legal basis. Luxembourg ratified this in December 1993. Article 10 of the Act in Establishment of the SNJ of 27.2.1984 is taken as the legal basis. This says: "the service shall create a centre of information and documentation relating to its various objectives." In making this provision the "Conseil d'État" (State Council) assumed that the increasing social changes create uncertainties for young people and their parents which can only be tackled by proper information, guidance and permanent serious provision of advice.

It is a feature of the information policy aimed at young people in Luxembourg that the highest value is placed on promoting active use of information by young people themselves. Questions of access and appropriateness to need are therefore crucial. Young people are players, not consumers of information.

The primary instrument for this are the young people's information centres, which provide nationwide coverage and are co-ordinated by the CNIEJ ("Centre National d'Information et d'Échanges pour Jeunes", founded 1987. The texts and documents also use the acronym CIJ for this institution, which was used in the original registration of the association).

The CNIEJ's work follows a specific philosophy. The main goal is to ensure open provision for young people, which as far as possible should not be reminiscent of the civil service. Young people can safeguard their anonymity; nothing should restrict them in their search for information. Advice is offered but not imposed, and should be as unbiased as possible. If they want it, young people can find the help they need in reaching their own decisions. The content of the information has to be as complete as possible, cross-referenced and freely accessible. Such information is not provided by other private, semi-governmental or governmental bodies.

The Municipal Information Points or PICs ("Points Information Communal") were conceived as a pilot project, but have become a permanent part of information policy. Their task is to provide information facilities in young people's immediate living environment (and for all other interested citizens too).

Youth information as an aid to career induction

The special feature of this youth policy initiative is the pursuit of a dual objective: the creation of the PICs has gone hand in hand with the creation of jobs for the young

unemployed. The idea for the project arose from the National Employment Plan ("Plan d'Action National en faveur de l'emploi" – PAN) and was implemented in 1998, based on the special measures for the employment of young people known as CAT, the contract of temporary auxiliary employment ("contrat d'auxiliaire temporaire") at the initiative of the SNJ. The SNJ is also responsible for training the holders of jobs in PICs and has devised a special curriculum for this, based on the principles of learning by doing, by carrying out a complex information project at all stages. The successes have been clearly visible in the past two years. In late 1999 there were already twelve PICs in the country, mostly associated with a youth centre. And the number is rising.

This project is a successful example of the implementation of central youth policy objectives at local level. It combines general youth policy approaches (optimum preparation of young people as active citizens) with specific goals (securing a first job and preparing for longer-term employment by offering a largely protected space).

The PICs highlight the possibility of overcoming compartmentalisation in the interest of the global aspiration. Even if the measure cannot involve large numbers – indeed in Luxembourg there is not too much scope for these – the PICs do exemplify further conceivable projects in youth work which mitigate the pressure on young people in especially difficult living conditions, by offering alternative points of entry to training and employment.

In the past two years the CNIEJ has developed into the central resource centre for the network of local youth centres, and has invested above all in the professionalisation of information work. The influence of the principles formulated in the European Charter on Youth Information (ERYICA – the European Youth Information and Counselling Agency) cannot be ignored here. A fully-fledged curriculum of five modules is in use in training seminars with youth information officers in youth centres and PICs. Variety and flexibility of instruments and methods are an important precondition for compliance with the requirement of active appropriation of information by young people. One example is the project www.youthnet.lu, a website which has been set up with databases and national and international information on the initiative of the SNJ, by young people for young people.

Another example is the youth information bus. This is available for work with youth centres, municipalities, youth clubs and organisations of all kinds nationwide. Information material is available, plus videos, personal counselling or specific leadership. Access to and hands-on experience of modern information technologies is of course part of all CNIEJ's information and training provision.

Its tasks also include operating the youth card (Carte Jeunes/Carte Jeunes Euro <26). This is very popular in Luxembourg because it not only offers comprehensive access to information, but numerous concessions in a socio-cultural context. CNIEJ is also responsible for editing and publishing many magazines and brochures for young people and is now the central agency for all aspects of youth-related information policy.

Information for young people is not only worthwhile in itself, but has traditionally enjoyed high status in Luxembourg's youth policy, because ultimately actively



obtaining information nurtures the capacity for participation which is expressed in living citizenship ("citoyenneté").

To create synergy and cohesion between the various youth policy initiatives and structures, in 1999 the Youth Ministry concluded an agreement with the Alliance of the Youth Centres' Administrators ("Entente des Gestionnaires des Maisons de Jeunes"), which is with the network called CRIAJ ("Le réseau luxembourgeois des centres de rencontre, d'information et d'animation pour jeunes") (Luxembourg network of meeting, information and leisure centres for young people) the most important provider of decentralized youth work on the local and regional level.

By late 1999 CRIAJ had brought together more than 20 non-profit making associations which manage the various local and regional centres, plus CNIEJ and the institutions responsible for the youth centres. The latter are privileged partners in dialogue with the Youth Ministry in the drafting, implementation and monitoring of joint guidelines and procedures connected with staff and finance administration. The interest of many municipalities in working with CRIAJ by founding their own local centres leads to the conclusion that this Agreement has made adequate provision for co-operation between the national level (the Youth Ministry) and the local level.

Mediation and Prevention

Mediation and prevention are the other major areas dealt with in the Action Plan "Communication with Young People". Part One of this chapter has already said something about this and introduced the structures. The innovative potential of the meas-

ures taken will now again be reviewed.

Centre for mediation

The concept of mediation has developed from the work of SIJS, the "Service Informations Juridiques et Sociales" (Legal and Social Information Department). Its services have been used increasingly for a wide variety of questions and problems since 1992. It works in the following fields: information, education, prevention and social integration. This, too, is the origin of the initiative in the special commitment of all governments of Luxembourg to protect children and recognise the principle of their autonomous development appropriate to age. Thus in the first years of the work of SIJS, the main requests for information from children and young people themselves have concerned their rights and how to avail themselves of them. The aim here is not to bring children's rights into conflict with those of their parents. Dialogue between parents and children should be shaped by the recognition of children's status as having legal rights of their own, not as subjects of laws. Clearly what SIJS has to offer meets a real need: the number of specific inquiries from children, young people, parents, teachers and educators rose from 151 in 1993 to 660 in 1999.

In recent years it has increasingly emerged that the requests for information contain a potential for conflict (in 1999 mostly in the context of relations between parents and children and the exercise of parental authority). Information alone cannot resolve this, and further advice and support are necessary to meet the needs of those concerned. Consequently the Youth Ministry launched the "Centre de Médiation" (Mediation Centre) jointly with the SNJ in 1998, after the SNJ had already offered specific training for 15 mediators in 1997, which was completed with further training in 1998. This first trained group will in future itself be available to train other interested parties, though further targeted advanced training will be necessary for this. The "Centre de Médiation", initially under the auspices of CNIEJ, is now an independent association with the backing of the Ministries of Youth and Justice. In its brief existence its performance has been remarkable and highly appreciated.

The plan based on the Mediation Act of 6 May 1999 has proved itself. The need is to devise alternative conflict-resolution strategies in the widest variety of family, social, educational and criminal situations. The primary objective of mediation is to restore dialogue between all involved, so that they can find their own solutions.

Drug Addiction Prevention Centre

Prevention has been one of the essential tasks of SNJ since its inception. Given the variety of tasks and the limited resources, this preventive work had to confine itself to a few multiplier activities at the start. Besides, prevention in the broadest sense is an inter-disciplinary task involving co-operation between a variety of players. An inter-ministerial working group on 'Drugs' was deployed. The Government also founded the "Centre de prévention des toxicomanies" (Drug Addiction Prevention Centre) on 25 November 1994. The Youth Ministry now works with it in this field, especially at its own Marienthal centre.

The centre's main tasks are to develop and actively disseminate plans and strategies for healthy living conditions, especially in relation to drug abuse and addiction. Provisions range from special information days for educators from youth centres to in-service training for teachers and courses for school classes in which elements of teaching by experience are applied. Prevention is understood broadly. It is not only concerned with legal and prohibited drugs, but pursues a holistic approach which therefore also deals with violence, exclusion and racism. The centre's work also includes co-ordination between all bodies tackling these problems, and regular investigations of the development of the drug situation in Luxembourg. The centre's consultancy work systematically involves the municipalities, so that they can offer primary prevention programmes at local level and thus inform young people early about the risks and dangers.

By securing a share of the responsibility for the areas of intervention of mediation and prevention, the Youth Ministry has clearly signalled the need to implement global strategies in youth work. The inclusion of these areas in the Action Plan "Communication with Young People" also makes it clear that the issues here are not moralising or purely legal aspects, but achievement of the higher goal to support young people through important stages of their socialisation by strengthening their independence and promoting their sense of responsibility.

The underlying plans, the selected procedures and the structures set up have certainly contributed to the minor role that violence now plays in Luxembourg. Juvenile delinquency has so far been kept at a low level and work is proceeding jointly throughout the country on raising awareness of responsible handling of stimulants and drugs. With its open frontiers, it is inevitable that Luxembourg now also has a 'drugs scene'. But the criminality associated with it in many other countries has so far been kept under control – certainly due to the controllability of a country with a small territorial extent. However, it cannot either be ignored that these problems are intensifying. The SNJ has undertaken ground-breaking initiatives and invitations have been extended to the State Railways, those responsible for public road transport, the Police, representatives of the cities and municipalities and youth workers to join in dialogue about possibilities for preventing violence. This expresses the existing awareness of the potential for conflict and the political will to take positive measures.

Action Plan 3: Youth Work, Voluntary Action and Partnership (1999)

Action Plan 3, "Travail de Jeunesse, Bénévolat, Partenariat" (Youth Work, Voluntary Action and Partnership) is the most recent. It was published in January 1999 after prior hearing by the "Conseil Supérieur de la Jeunesse" and much discussion in seminars, conferences and a thorough airing at the third National Youth Forum in October 1998. This Action Plan reflects the effort to review all Luxembourg's previous youth policy with a view to synergy and coherence and above all to adapt it to the latest social developments in the youth field.

The Action Plan lists the following as core areas of youth work: leadership, training, communication and research, documentation and evaluation. The voluntary nature of

youth work is always emphasised. Voluntary action relates both to the freedom to take up what is offered or not and to the activity of those working with the young people – a central feature of Luxembourg's youth policy.

Group leadership as a socialisation factor

This third Action Plan uses a significantly broader definition of the term group leadership than many other European countries. We can discern from the texts an understanding of group leadership as a positive socialisation factor – at school, in associations and organisations and in the context of informal training and leisure activities. Schemes such as the European Youth Programme (formerly the European Community programme Youth for Europe or the European Voluntary Service) are therefore counted among group leadership provision. In the national context the Action Plan counts above all on the contribution of the associations and their honorary officers who, to quote Tocqueville, can be described as the nerve of democracy in relation to the social fabric of Luxembourg¹.

In accordance with the repeatedly presented understanding of youth policy as global policy, the co-operation of all players is also required here. This has found specific expression in certain training measures (we shall return to the key word training).

This global aspiration is also expressed in the objective set by the Action Plan for group leadership²:

- To ensure the socialisation of young people and their preparation for the many changes in the economic and cultural domains;
- To improve the social environment;
- To prevent deviancy; and
- To channel energies towards participation and encourage the advent of a multi-cultural society.

In this respect we return to the actual role of the youth associations and organisations in youth policy today. To do this it is necessary to discuss Luxembourg's central umbrella organisation for these associations and organisations, the General Conference of Luxembourg Youth ("Conférence Générale de la Jeunesse Luxembourgeoise" – CGJL – a non-profit association). First it must be noted that this umbrella organisation has partly missed the opportunities for an active political contribution to the Action Plans. Without going into excessive detail, the main cause can be identified as follows: in recent years the political infighting between the associations and organisations it brought together was so extreme that joint outside representation was impossible. There was no mandate to adopt political positions, and the conference's failure to respond to the first Action Plan marked a high point of this withdrawal. Political ideologies of the associations contributed to this internal blockade as the lack of willingness of influential associations to put the commitment for a common matter before the own interests of the association. A reversal of the trend has only emerged in the past two years and an effort to get involved in youth policy discussions and adopt

a stance has re-emerged. This has certainly been stimulated by the youth clubs forming an umbrella organisation of their own so that they constitute a very large (though not the largest) group in CGJL, present mainly at local level throughout the country.

The first result to take seriously from this recovery of the Conference's senses is the submission of a document dated 2001, "Contribution à la consultation dans le cadre de l'établissement d'un Livre-Blanc de l'Union Européenne sur la Politique de la Jeunesse en Europe" ("A Contribution to consultation in the context of the preparation of a European Union White Paper on Youth Policy in Europe"), in which CGJL adopts a stance on various youth-related issues and problems. They are: school and work, democracy and participation, health and well-being, discrimination, gender equality, youth in need, voluntary action, infrastructure and Europe.

The document raises a number of questions of relevance to the future development of a global youth policy in Luxembourg and which should therefore be discussed by the public at large. We will return to some of them in the final chapter.

The only further comment which need be made here is that all – associations, organisations and Government – should have an interest in creating sound structural conditions for their work, in order to reduce the still strong influence of incidental personal factors in the youth policy of Luxembourg, and pursue political strategies more in the interest of those involved and to meet the needs of young people.

We now proceed to the next section in which we discuss the work of youth centres, based on the results of an external evaluation and monitoring in 1998 - 1999. Implementing the plans concerned with group leadership in this central area of youth work also plays a role in this, as will be shown.

Youth Centres in Luxembourg – a central instrument of youth policy devolved to local level

The work of the youth centres is, in every sense, a priority of youth policy approaches in Luxembourg. The context of their work is the "Lignes Directrices" and the Action Plans already described.

The following is a brief description of the framework conditions followed by a critical appraisal of youth policy objectives. The MJs differ in external and internal appearance. The majority are representative or utilitarian buildings with sufficient space for a very wide range of activities in bourgeois residential areas. But there are also restricted premises, some in need of renovation. As a rule MJs are centrally located and easily accessible. Those which currently still have to serve a larger catchment area are the exception. Young people from neighbouring municipalities then have to use their own means of transport, because public transport is only very limited in the evenings, or does not allow mobility at all.

Mention should also be made in this connection of the regional disparity identified in 1998-99, with a clear concentration of MJs in and to the south of the immediate environs of Luxembourg City and more 'voids' to the north and north-west. Even so, the number of MJs again rose in 1999-2000 to its present level of 24, thus balancing the regional representation.

As a rule the premises used by the MJs are provided free of charge by the municipality and, in some cases, by the State of Luxembourg. The municipality usually also maintains the premises. The task and role of the MJ institutions (the relevant non-profit organisation) and their staffing are discussed in a separate section. But in this connection it should be noted that the young people involved in this report mentioned bigger and better availability of space as one of the three most important points to them with regard to the work of the MJs. Longer opening hours are another priority for young people, and they are dissatisfied with present practice.

Office equipment and administrative assistance from the relevant institutions also differ. In some cases, much office and administrative work is done by educational staff, in addition to the actual pedagogical work.

Advertising targeting specific groups to win new visitors to an MJ are still the exception. Offers to specific target groups, e.g. young women or young foreigners could be more numerous, as the educational staff are aware of specific work on target groups and initial projects have been launched successfully in some MJs, say for work with girls. It is also observed that more and more foreigners take on leader functions as "éducateurs" in youth centres (Belgian, French, German).

There is provision for foreigners in the MJs. Its targets are mostly young foreigners, with girls severely under-represented. The reasons for this under-representation are not always clear, but some may be culture-specific, given the large proportion of Portuguese girls. From a teaching point of view, this is a big challenge, which needs to be tackled with new plans, such as integrating work with parents into youth work.

All MJs have the necessary minimum equipment for open youth work. There is increasing use of materials for pedagogical projects e.g. production of a video film by young people on the problem of co-existence in a multi-cultural society or on carrying out a co-operation project with another youth group elsewhere, even abroad, using the Internet. Teaching material based on role-play/drama is still not sufficiently available everywhere, and the young people themselves perceive this as a shortcoming.

This is a major though not the only reason why MJs in practice offer much more open, leisure-oriented activities and less led activities as intended by Action Plan 3. Taught or monitored specific project-oriented activities in the sense of group leadership as "educative and promotional action" require certain qualifications of the person responsible for the education, and a decisive policy on the part of the institution. A few comments are made about this elsewhere.

Since the vast majority of MJs are of recent foundation, it is fair to say that their achievements have been considerable. This is even more true because the MJ is a new concept in youth policy development in Luxembourg and based on administrative structures which also represent new territory: co-operation between the state, the participating municipalities, independent institutions and above all local youth.

Action Plans 1 and 2 form the frame of reference here, as the primary objective of the

work of the MJs locally is to promote active participation by young people and provide premises in which they can express and fulfil themselves with a large degree of autonomy. The systematic involvement of the local level in the country's general youth policy development is a logical consequence of this *primacy of participation*. As developed in the "Plan Communal Jeunesse", it constitutes an innovation for which no similar experience exists as a reference. Clearly, such high aspirations cannot be implemented in a relatively short time without the problems of a mismatch between theory and practice.

That is also why evaluation is a feature of the youth work defined in Action Plan 3, as only ongoing evaluation can help achieve a qualitative consolidation at the same time as a quantitative expansion of the structures of youth work.

While MJs are as a rule initiated by the Youth Ministry or a municipality, all MJs are run by a non-profit making association. This institution is thereby also responsible for employing the educational staff. The detail of responsibility for the MJs is governed by an agreement between the Youth Ministry, the relevant municipality in which the MJ is being formed and the non-profit making association.

A committee ("plateforme") consisting of representatives of the municipality, the ministry and the operating institution has general responsibility for the content, finance and administration of the MJ.

To ensure coherence and a uniform image of MJs at national level, all MJs are required to co-operate within a national MJ network. This is governed by another agreement between the Youth Ministry and the "Entente des MJ", again a non-profit organisation. This agreement also governs the nature of the co-operation with the Youth Ministry.

Strict application of the subsidiarity principle and the large degree of freedom of the municipalities in youth work explain why no uniform, binding criteria of eligibility for an institution operating an MJ have been applied so far.

MJs, as an effective point of intervention to ensure quality standards at local level in accordance with the Action Plans do require criteria, so that they are not operated on a 'do as you please' basis. Clear statements were made about this at the National Youth Forum of 25 November 2000 and stronger cohesion was called for. Compulsory training for the operating institutions might contribute to a direct extension of their competence coupled with more systematic safeguarding of the Ministry's interests. The content of such training would cover both the approaches to youth policy and the scope for their operational implementation in the work of an MJ, and the administrative, legal and financial aspects of operating an MJ. Discussions in various fora and seminars show that the vast majority of those involved would welcome such a measure. The SNJ has already initiated a great deal with regard to pedagogical activities. More could be done jointly with the "Entente".

Co-operation between national and municipal levels is in line with government deci-

sions concerning youth policy. More devolution is a trend noted in most European countries. *Partnership* is one of the features of youth work in Luxembourg named in Action Plan 3, though it is not automatically established, nor always free of conflict. There is therefore a need for ongoing dialogue between the Youth Ministry and the Entente on the one hand and young people at local level on the other. Everyone concerned should be involved in this: educators, group leaders and the young people themselves. Consideration should be given to appropriate methods, in terms of age and function, to ensure such dialogue. The November 2000 Youth Forum expressed a clear need for discussion here and also called for stronger co-operation between the MJs and youth organisations, clubs and associations at local level.

The institutions operating the MJs face a difficult task. On the one hand they are, as a rule, interested in the smoothest possible functioning of the MJ and its co-operation with the other participating institutions. On the other hand they have to balance local/municipal interests with the superordinate national ones. That is not always easy, as financial factors carry greater weight than others.

The revision of the agreement between the parties, carried out in the context of the Socio-Familial and Therapeutic Action Act, unfortunately failed to give a clear specification of the services to be provided, the rights and obligations of all concerned and especially the arrangements and qualifications required of the operators and educational staff. This would have given everyone involved in an MJ more security of action, and would thus constitute a quality improvement.

Of course, in an area as sensitive as the co-operation between the state and municipal tiers of government, especially in an educational field (out of school), there can be no absolute separation between purely formal aspects and curriculum. Given the aim of recognising the different interests of those involved, the implications of such a decision should always be borne in mind.

The main educational staff in an MJ are usually qualified as "éducateur gradué" or "éducateur diplômé" (graduate educator or educator). A distinguishing feature of the approaches of youth policy to the work of the MJ, as stated already herein and as formulated as a principle of Action Plan 3, is active involvement of people classed as volunteers in working with the young people (in the roles of assistant group leader, monitor, leisure leader, voluntary group leader etc.).

Full-time staff have the education to give them the necessary basic knowledge of general group leadership. In many discussions with MJ staff, however, they identify a pressing need to close gaps in their own training and knowledge – of a curricular and methodological/didactic nature – in the field of out-of-school youth work. If the MJ is actively working with special problem groups, a lack of training in the fields of conflict management, drug work, crisis intervention and general aspects of motivation and communication is mentioned.

The Youth Ministry has responded to this through the SNJ in the last two years and launched some advanced training events. The specific training situation in Luxembourg

needs to be considered here, and special ongoing training measures are necessary. Otherwise the only alternative to the currently available teacher training, with its specific heavy slant towards working with children and young people in the leisure area, is to study elsewhere in Europe.

The proportion of those undergoing such teacher training who aim at working later in an MJ will always be very small. A fundamental alteration or extension of the training curriculum cannot therefore be expected at present. Alternatives are therefore urgently needed which take such training as a starting-point for targeted further training and, where applicable, supplementary qualification.

Personal accumulation and regionalisation of competences in the SNJ have enabled the staff working for it to monitor individual MJs more systematically in their daily work and hence to respond to current challenges more quickly.

Training of those working in MJs on an honorary basis or as a second occupation has been a top priority in the past two years. This report will return to this under the heading of Training. Even so, it should be noted that the approaches to youth and training policy (the "Lignes directrices" and the Action Plans) ought to impinge on training practice more systematically than in the past. The Plan in itself is conclusive and constitutes an innovation even at European level. But practice still lags behind, both as regards curriculum and due to the present framework conditions. Action Plan 3 takes the weaknesses found at the time seriously and indicates routes to further qualification. The increase in funding for youth work – up 13% from 1998 to 1999 – is another clear sign. Political consensus exists that quality requires an investment in human resources and infrastructure.

The "Service National de la Jeunesse" plays a central role in relation to the MJs. It holds general responsibility within the Youth Ministry for pedagogical curriculum and staff in MJs. This overall responsibility has become clear more recently by appropriate wording in an external context, such as the agreements between the Ministry, the relevant municipalities and the non-profit organisations. The integration of the SNJ in the Ministry of the Family, Social Solidarity and Youth will continue to help those responsible for youth policy to present a united front to the outside.

A clearly defined and published description of the tasks and field of intervention of the SNJ with a practical impact is of special importance to the training for which the SNJ is responsible. It is also important to the status and framework conditions of the educational staff, both full-time, part-time and honorary, in the MJs and other institutions. Now that all players are under one umbrella, the desired transparency of youth policy measures and approaches will be enhanced.

The synergy effects gained mean that the innovative youth policy initiatives in Luxembourg – including quantitative and qualitative aspects of running the MJs – can overall be implemented more systematically and quickly than before. All the Action Plans state

this intention.

It must also be noted that the recommendations of the evaluation reports, that the working capacity of the SNJ should be strengthened, have largely been acted upon and were implemented in the past year. This shows that evaluation, which Action Plan 3 mentions as a feature of current youth policy, is relevant in practice.

Mention can be made, for example, of the introduction of professional supervision and the implementation of multi-stage specific further training in the special aspects of out-of-school youth work, focusing on the conditions of an MJ.

Associated with the aspiration for innovation in youth policy is that of professional quality. The further training activities of the past two years for people working in an MJ show the serious intent to overcome weaknesses and reduce gaps between youth policy aspiration and training in practice.

Clearly, priority will be given to dealing with infrastructure and organisational aspects in the start-up and development stage in which many new MJs currently find themselves. On the other hand, the MJs have a special educational and youth policy mission which justifies their special treatment by the state.

It must also be noted on the positive side here that in the past two years there has been success in obtaining at least acceptance by the MJs of the need to make fully worked out pedagogical ideas public and to base their work on them.

This is an essential step towards implementing Action Plan 1 and towards more participation by young people, who should as far as possible determine and configure the specific work of an MJ themselves.

The need for permanent discussion of the special mission of the MJs also emerges in contributions at various specialist fora and advanced training sessions with group leaders: the importance and relevance of the youth policy guidelines (the "Lignes directrices" and the Action Plans) are de facto not everywhere consciously followed as the frame of reference of working, either by full-time educational staff or by the operators. Much more systematic use could be made of these guidelines as an explicit plan which could be made operational in training practice.

What the state is currently working on – completely in line with the requirement for global policy – is to create transparency which permits the conclusion that all MJs fall within a certain bandwidth based on operator-specific, target group-specific or other local conditions, that they feel associated with and implement a shared youth policy framework plan with special pedagogical implications. These efforts also relate to honorary involvement in youth work, as this is one of the pillars of the youth policy guidelines. Since it has been elevated to a requirement in Luxembourg, it constitutes an innovative approach within this system.

The pedagogical justifications for this approach to youth work, as the relevant docu-

ments show, are clear and comprehensible, especially with regard to conditions and structures for communication and interaction. They are: relevance to the interests and needs of the young attendees, youth-specific language, problem situations etc., but also to the learning goals for young people associated with this requirement at cognitive and behavioural level (e.g. a sense of responsibility, self-motivation and action in solidarity). There is a gap between theory and practice in this requirement of complementarity. Work is under way to rectify this by better and more systematic training, so that this innovative potential can be used as a concept everywhere.

There was consensus in all national fora that the existence of the MJ must be viewed in principle as an important factor in the professionalisation of youth work in Luxembourg. The consequent devolution responds to a wish for responsive youth work and for low-threshold, direct-access facilities.

The appointment of educational staff has also led to a new pattern of working in recent years. There is a character change, albeit slow, from facilities seen as for individual leisure use to activities which develop the personality and create identity. Such activities, despite their educational emphasis, are intended to meet the wishes, interests and needs of young people. There is an increasing sense of obligation to realise the objectives of the Action Plans.

In summary, the following aspects justify the view of MJs as playing a special role in youth policy in Luxembourg today: the MJs meet an existing need of young people for informal youth work without commercial pressure to consume and give an innovative form to youth work in Luxembourg overall, by combining goals of youth policy with practical training aspects.

The content of this innovative approach is currently still to some degree variable, reflecting different framework conditions and competences of operators and staff. Defined operator competences, more systematic direction, central supervision and institutionalised educational discussion with full-time and honorary staff are seen as the central elements in turning the political will for a uniform image and maximum synergy in the use of financial and human resources into practical reality. The present state initiatives for the qualification of all players show how seriously these aims are taken.

The Youth Ministry and SNJ play the central role in fulfilling these tasks. Given the existing variety of tasks, therefore, their staffing and the infrastructure with which they work have been consolidated and re-oriented in the past year.

The youth and training policy guidelines in Luxembourg will in future play their intended practical role. Especially, the newly defined initiatives and basic assumptions of youth policy contained in Action Plan 3 (youth work, voluntary action and partnership) will be the subject of a binding and systematic debate between all involved in youth policy.

To ensure that the innovative theoretical basis of youth work and policy in Luxembourg also proves its credibility in practice, state subsidy is necessary to pay for the

operationalisation of these basic assumptions in the practice of youth work, which requires availability of training and further training, local case studies and ongoing evaluation and supervision.

Basic and advanced training

Another distinguishing area of involvement of Luxembourg's youth policy is training. First we summarise current measures; and go on to examine the results of evaluations and discussions, looking at the underlying goals, formulated mainly in Action Plan 3, and their realisation in present practice.

The main focus of training for those who wish to engage in youth work are measures aimed at volunteers and honorary office-holders. Most youth work is still done by this group, and the proportion of full-timers with the appropriate vocational training qualifications is growing only slowly. Basic training as an assistant group leader ("aide animateur") or group leader ("animateur") is governed by Grand Ducal Decree of 18 December 1985 and is aimed at those who want to be active in leisure activities (as "animateurs de loisirs bénévoles").

The Youth Ministry issues a state certificate ("brevet d'aide animateur" or "brevet animateur"). A first training course comprises three weekends plus a several-day seminar on socio-pedagogical and socio-psychological aspects of working with children and young people. This leads to the assistant group leader's certificate, while attendance at a further course of the same structure leads to the group leader's certificate. Further training on specific aspects of youth work is aimed at group leaders, whether voluntary or salaried.

Bearing in mind that the participants in these training courses are themselves young people aged 16-20, the training itself is structured on the pattern of youth work (training with pedagogy of group leadership). It is therefore not an abstract imparting of say, group leadership techniques, but a reflection based on the effects they themselves have experienced from the methods applied. This calls for a high degree of flexibility, methodological versatility and assurance on the part of trainers, coupled with a basic knowledge of group teaching processes and dynamics. All trainers are submitted to and appointed by the Youth Ministry by a consultative committee convened for a two-year term by the Ministry and chaired by the Director of the SNJ.

As Luxembourg's resources are limited, training experience from other European countries is used as far as possible, whether in the form of participation by trainers from outside Luxembourg or by participation by trainers from Luxembourg in European further training measures.

Not only the SNJ offers the basic training described. Major youth work institutions also sit on the consultative committee (from Caritas to Young Firefighters). This has led to the basic training being recognised by all as a rule, regardless of provider. Though, the relevance of practice in the training of different providers is evaluated differently, so that free places tend to be filled by persons having accomplished a training by a

specific provider. The annual report for 1999 of the Ministry of the Family, Social Solidarity and Youth quotes a figure of 3 536 certificates issued to young people since 1987 on successful completion of one or both courses.

Through the SNJ, the Youth Ministry maintains its own training centre with one full-time trainer in Eisenborn, because the SNJ holds the primary responsibility for further training of professionally trained educators and volunteers in the MJs. Nevertheless, the centre and the trainers are also available to other organisations and associations for co-operative qualification measures.

In recent years the Youth Ministry, in partial co-operation with other ministries, has launched a series of new training courses. They include training as a mediator and special training of young people devised, like the PIC measures, as peer-group education. These young people act as mediators in schools, as a first point of contact for other young people in situations of conflict (AIDS, sex, violence). This is another example of co-operation with the Ministry of Education, which trains teachers interested in school mediation on similar lines to the training of the young people.

With a view to pursuing global youth policy objectives, there have recently been several Youth Ministry initiatives for the social and vocational integration of young people. These have taken account of discussions at European level (the 5th European Conference of Youth Ministers held in Bucharest in April 1998 formed the background to the new European Union Youth Programme, in force since 2000).

All these considerations start from the intention not only to take account of what knowledge, skills and experience young people have acquired from initial or further training but, above all, to use the abilities which they gain in the context of out-of-school education. It is no longer a secret that mainly social and communication skills can be learned from these informal training situations, and these are also necessary and useful in a vocational context. Consequently the aspect of promoting young people's employability is also playing a growing role in youth work in Luxembourg.

The discussion at the National Youth and Employment Forum on 7.3.1998, jointly organised by the Youth Ministry and the Labour Office, formulated a clear stance on this point and expressly urged recognition of skills gained from information training situations, where appropriate in the form of a certificate. This aspect was to receive thorough discussion: recognition of greater qualification in the personal and possibly also technical sphere is affirmed, but formal certification, although in the form of an assessment/score, tended to be rejected, as in some circumstances it would detract from the advantages of the hitherto largely unregulated field of 'informal training'. Account should be taken of these consequences.

The Youth Ministry also played an active part in devising the National Employment Action Plan in 1998. As a result of this Action Plan, the SNJ has the task of devising and offering specific basic training and further training in line with the objectives of

improving 'employability', facilitating vocational induction and promoting social integration. The last chapter made a few comments on this (see page 112).

The potential of Luxembourg's voluntary service is also viewed in the same context – that of employment/solidarity/young people. Based on a Youth Ministry bill, they offer projects in the fields of conservation, culture, sport and social and educational work. Thus, while it has an educational slant, what they offer is tantamount to work experience, though unpaid.

Training as a Junior Assistant ("Aide-Junior") is planned on a larger scale. The idea derives from the field of socio-family activities, which use Senior Assistants ("Aide-Senior"). The purpose of training as a Junior Assistant is to qualify for work with young people, where this training takes place in the frame of the existing training as "aide socio-familiale". This training leads to a diploma and is thus of direct relevance to the employment market. It addresses especially the long-term young unemployed, who can find access to stable employment with this training.

Generally it is found that the latest youth policy initiatives and action reflect a clear trend away from compartmentalised thinking and action, policies concepts which have proved inadequate for the real social challenges and problems faced by an increasing number of young people today.

The global aspiration, and vertical and inter-sectoral initiatives since the last Action Plan form clear parameters for present-day youth policy in practice. The policy intention was formulated in the "Lignes directrices" and made specific to certain areas of interaction in the first two Action Plans. In view of this, it is only logical that the most recent Action Plan again expressly refers to the need for partnership. The need for co-operation between all concerned is implicit in all documents relating to youth policy, with a special bias towards co-operation with associations and organisations. But this has not yet solved one fundamental problem: how the organisations and associations can actually directly reach more young people locally.

At the Youth Forum of 25 November 2000, the association delegates present themselves noted the declining interest of many young people and considered possibilities of involving 'non-organised' young people in informal provision. The delegates felt the actual financial support of the associations needed reconsidering, with a view to fewer major youth policy events at national level and stronger promotion of local work. More about this later.

First we shall give a somewhat more detailed appraisal of assistant group leader and group leader training, because this is addressed at what is still the most important group at present, that of volunteers in youth work. They therefore also involve the largest numbers. We draw on the results of a two-year, ongoing evaluation, discussions with young people who have participated in the training offered, and appreciations by trainers.

The formal structure and statutory bases of these training courses have already been described. Hence the following comments on the content and didactic structure of the two training weeks Cycle I and Cycle II, which constitute the 'core' of group leader training. As youth work in Luxembourg is largely provided by honorary workers and volunteers, appropriate standards have to be set for training them, too.

The general purpose of Cycle I is to give the young people themselves an opportunity for communication and interactive experience in a group, to elicit and promote fun and creativity with regard to games and thus attune them to their work as group leaders. The content focuses on building up a sound repertoire of games, preliminary teaching of group leader skills and raising awareness of possible difficulties in working with children and young people. These weeks are therefore conducted whenever possible in conjunction with a camp, to give some examples of training content in direct contact with the children. Cycle I training weeks are generally conducted by experienced schoolteachers, mostly accompanied by an existing group leader so that the latter can gradually also grow into the trainer function (learning by doing). The vast majority of young participants are aiming at working with children on holiday and in holiday camps, though the training also addresses those who want to work in an MJ.

Cycle II training weeks aim to consolidate what was learned in the first week and supplement it. Above all, they introduce some systematic periods of reflection, intended to involve participants as active players (meta-communicative elements). These weeks are conducted as a rule by full-time SNJ officers. Cycle II is also open to anyone with an interest, regardless of their chosen field of activity.

As the majority of youth work takes place in a free-time educational context, the training weeks focus on educational aspects of children and young people's leisure time. The training is professionally organised and, by the end of the seminar, according to feedback from participants, the goals are generally achieved. This appraisal is also based on the expectations stated by participants at the beginning of each seminar.

From the point of view of youth and training policy, looking at the perspectives, the stated objectives of the Action Plans and the desirable qualifications for action, there is an inner coherence between all the modules which must be passed to obtain the Group Leader's Certificate. In practice, that coherence does not always exist. Despite the co-ordination work of the Advisory Committee on Basic and Further Training, inevitably both trainers and operators of training schemes sometimes work independently of each other.

Even in the narrower circle of the measures for which SNJ is responsible, most training teams act autonomously (especially if they come from outside, which is so in most schemes). In the case of other operators, the range of possible interpretations of what the sense and purpose of a training course should be is even wider. The part-time trainers of SNJ themselves refer to this dilemma: everyone does what he or she believes right in the training measures, with the best of intentions and competently, given their

own working backgrounds. In the past no mandatory written curriculum existed, either for individual training modules or the course as a whole. This has not made the tasks of the training teams any easier: they are left to plan their own learning objectives.

This does not just depend on individual interests, but on the available skills, present more or less at random. As those involved themselves report, hardly anyone has specific training in the special situations and learning conditions of informal, out-of-school education which most youth policy documents in Luxembourg identify as a special opportunity and socialisation stage.

The wish for joint reflection, the need for more knowledge about the success and benefits of what is learned, and the confessed need for further training as trainers, have been receiving more attention of late. Regular further training for trainers is planned. Advanced training in individual aspects of out-of-school youth work is already taking place.

There is also a preliminary draft curriculum dated May 2000, entitled "La Formation pour animateurs d'activités de loisir et pour animateurs des maisons de jeunes" ("Training for leisure activity leaders and group leaders in Youth centres").

This draft tries for the first time to interpret the bearing of the Action Plans and "Lignes directrices" on curriculum and to provide structure for the whole training. More work is currently being done on this, with participation by trainers, especially on didactic instructions and help on achievable learning goals and qualifications for action.

As far as the debate on youth policy is concerned, it is important to note that any didactics of group leader training in the context of the country's specific youth policy priorities (from the Action Plans to the "Plan Communal Jeunesse") are political and therefore require political discussion. A curriculum intended to train people for youth work can readily derive the most important learning goals from these parameters of youth policy and identify them as qualifications for perception and action and as procedural arrangements. Then central policy terms of this pre-set, general approach, such as rationality, solidarity and joint determination are reflected in the context of training and educational policy. They are re-interpreted in the light of the specific situations in which the trainees will work in future. One desirable consequence of such a sociologically structured curriculum is the assurance of a systematic reference for the individual training sections, which then have the status of modules in a framework curriculum.

There is increasing awareness of the potential of the youth policy priorities for education and educational science. The latest Action Plan with its versatile but complementary measures is a reflection of this awareness.

Another aspect is the current discussion of the curricular structure of the two training courses: it is a question of the relation of theory and practice in training. Hitherto system-

atic discussion of the relationship of theory and practice in informal educational situations had largely been overlooked. Education policymakers saw it as a 'pan-European' problem rather than one affecting Luxembourg, because the potential of informal educational provision was seen as slight compared with formal or formalised education. The discussion now ongoing among those responsible for training shows consensus that theory is not an end in itself, but has a practical purpose. It makes it possible to gain knowledge in fields of practical action (the areas of work of the group leaders) and to reflect on them specifically (by situational or action-related evaluation) and generally (in meta-levels and by contextual analysis).

Further training in these matters is necessary, since, until the recent past, training seminars concentrated one-sidedly, to a great extent, on methodological guidance as a dominant theme. This was justified by the stated aim of being practical, but in reality it excluded half of practice – the setting of goals. By doing this it ran the risk of the methods taught being adopted and applied as blueprints. This left the parameters of youth policy without practical relevance.

The present-day practice of both courses as a rule follows this structure: The training team systematically allows a stage of reflection to follow each practical exercise. In this stage, the subjective feelings of participants about what they have experienced is discussed. Then the actual purpose is presented and discussed in relation to the suitability of the adopted method.

Further interludes of theory are included for the relevant context in a suitable way for the participants (who are young!), regardless of the exercise situation. These may include communication aspects, motivational problems, interaction aspects, the relationship of individuals to the group, sense of responsibility, participation and educational purpose).

This makes a reasonable didactic link between theory and practice: practice receives qualifying input through the theoretical, largely explanatory elements which are in turn reviewed for practical relevance in a specifically defined context.

There is a need for action with regard to the need systematically to prepare the intercultural dimension of youth work in Luxembourg for training. For the school sphere, appropriate plans are ready ("éducation interculturelle"), but the out-of-school field has so far been insufficiently receptive to this dimension. The current draft curriculum, dating from 2000, mentions "inter-cultural trainer training" in the context of exchange schemes. No doubt this is an important dimension of training, but it is clearly unsuited to the basic assumptions of youth policy. Society in Luxembourg is far more marked than other European societies by multi-cultural structures. Clear indicators of this are the existing high proportion of foreigners (36.6% in 2000), demographic predictions of future population segments (the state predictions for the year 2030 are already superseded), the special geographical concentration and the multi-lingualism, as mentioned. Accordingly, youth work cannot be guided by visibly mono-cultural values. Young people's daily lives are multi-cultural. Whether this is accepted and deliberately experienced or

ignored is another issue, highly relevant to youth work in both holiday camps and MJs. We shall return to this in the final chapter.

Those responsible for training have for some time faced a question of principle. Is the present training system, which makes no basic distinction between the two main areas of deployment of group leaders (leisure and MJs), adequate for the participants and their fields of work? Do these special weekend provisions for group leaders in MJs suffice to give them the necessary tools and problem awareness for this work? Should two deliberately separated training courses be devised and operated, or are combinations conceivable and sensible?

There are two reasons for these questions. One is that MJs in Luxembourg have an elevated position in youth work as a whole in Luxembourg, as described. They are materially and financially better off, because they have superordinate educational and youth policy functions and thus help meet the priorities of state youth policy.

The debate at the "Maisons de Jeunes" Forum of 1.7.2000 made clear their special role and task, in the shared view of the Ministry, the municipal representatives, the representatives of the non-profit organisations and the educators. They also highlighted the further need for discussion and action concerning educational content and administrative and legal aspects. Aspects of quality improvement and assurance assume special importance here.

In many municipalities the MJs have become part of the everyday social life of young people. Sometimes they represent the only possibility of spending free time in the group of their choice, especially where there are no youth clubs in the municipality. Luxembourg is no longer exempt from increasing use of these facilities by some young people in difficult situations of upheaval, with orientation problems or looking for future prospects in terms of relevant vocational training or employment.

Open youth work, as in an MJ, sometimes requires different qualifications additional to those for structured free time for children and young people in a defined space. Deliberate and systematic use of out-of-school situations to initiative and monitor informal learning processes also require at least quasi-professional action and behaviour from the (volunteer) group leaders. This requires a certain degree of personal maturity (ego identity and ego strength) combined with a capacity for critical appraisal of oneself and others. Without a basic level of social skills, such as empathy, role distance and tolerance of ambiguity, they cannot cope with the situations in an MJ.

Such basic social skills are learnable (we do not mean young people with developmental disorders and social behavioural problems, but those who want to work as volunteers). They should form part of training.

The current work on a new curriculum will make due allowance for these considerations. A framework curriculum will allow the development of training units which are both built on each other and specifically supplement each other, as part of a coherent plan. This will ensure a common basic training plus specific extra training in the rele-

vant field of work.

In addition, specific units could be planned and offered as necessary, leading to further qualifications, e.g. international youth work in the context of the European programmes, drug prevention, public speaking, conflict pedagogy, specific psychological aspects of learning for specific age-groups, etc. The emphases of further training to be developed for trainers logically derive from this structure and must include didactics as well as technical aspects of content.

The basic and further training of volunteers and honorary office-holders and their deployment in MJs, holiday camps, leisure activities of municipalities and associations and in schemes supplementing school is a core of Luxembourg's youth policy. This plan is a major challenge in the light of the goals of youth and educational policy, formulated in the "Lignes Directrices" and Action Plans. It also offers interesting potential to try out alternatives and possible configurations, compared with countries which do work partly with a high proportion of personnel with conventional professional training (in social work and social pedagogy), such as France or the German Federal Republic, but which have less political scope for transverse initiatives and the development and implementation of youth policy strategies. In Luxembourg there is broad consensus that the various training provisions made for young people should be implemented as professionally as possible, in view of their importance for youth policy. This also shows the willingness of the Youth Ministry to provide the necessary human and material resources, as far as possible, in the competent bodies and structures.

Thus it can clearly be said that the training units for group leaders managed by the Youth Ministry/SNJ have achieved a *qualitative improvement* in various aspects in recent years. The potential of creating a coherent and efficient instrument of youth policy from this exists; so does the political will to tap it. With the SNJ finally incorporated in the new Ministry, the Youth Ministry will exercise its responsible role in basic and further training systematically and with a high profile. That role includes:

- Co-ordination of curriculum work;
- Initiating, deciding the content and co-ordinating all stages of training;
- Organisation and/or co-operative supervision of all trainers;
- Initiating and co-ordinating their further training;
- Implementing and auditing quality standards in training and practical fields; and
- Preparing suitable measures for practical educational implementation of the Youth Ministry's policy aims in the practical fields of youth work.

Chapter V attempts, as a conclusion to these comments, to outline some challenges facing youth policy in the next few years.

- ¹ Ministère de la Jeunesse (1999). *Travail de jeunesse, bénévolat, partenariat. Plan d'action No.3*, p.11.
- ² *id.*, p.9.
- ³ *id.*, p.9.



Chapter 5



Challenges facing youth policy in the next few years



Let us start with a quotation about social development from the French sociologist André Malraux, who once said: "Nous sommes la première civilisation qui soit en désaccord avec elle-même" (we are the first civilisation in disharmony with itself).

A good many young people nowadays feel hemmed in or abandoned and have lost confidence in society. This creates an unparalleled challenge for any consideration of future policy on behalf of young people. While it cannot be said that we face widespread dissidence on the part of young people, it is true that we are seeing a break with and disappearance of traditions, social frameworks and stable attitudes and an increasingly radical rejection of these. This is most apparent in micro-societies of young people.

It is a situation which will change even more in future: the trend towards individualism, combined with a certain egoism, will become more accentuated. The origin of this socio-cultural uprooting does not lie with the young people, though they are directly affected by it. They have to live with the consequences of all these changes in which they have had no say. Therefore they either come to terms with the powers that be, or actively hate them and create their own multi-faceted (secondary, micro- or sub-) culture, even justifying acts of violence, or simply give up. The latter is a case of 'migration to within' or opting out. The growing number of young people in difficult living conditions, facing serious problems before they commence working life or long-term, hopeless unemployment, are likely to join the group of the opted out.

A forward-looking policy for young people ought to ask questions such as: how can these young people learn to be themselves and develop an identity which goes beyond defensiveness and the attempt to be different? How can these young people understand the interaction between individual and collective characteristics? How can these young people create their own, stable personalities based on socio-cultural values specific to their country, coupled with a sense of regional belonging, while at the same time agreeing to become citizens of Europe?

We should remember that young people are not problems and the need is not to think up systems for dealing with them. Rather, it is necessary to think about creating room for action and openness. Young people need to be trusted – in their ability to take the initiative, to assume responsibility, in their aspirations for justice and democracy. Future policy on behalf of young people should meet these challenges even more systematic-

ally than at present. It should contribute to social cohesion and the practice of democratic principles strengthened and renewed in daily life. This is an essential adjunct to any competition and economic growth. To achieve it, a coherent youth policy should encourage, foster and support the systematic initiatives in formal and, more particularly, out-of-school education. It is above all out-of-school education which opens the way to apprenticeship in democracy and allows the trial of new models for young people's participation. We need these; young people without access to employment and the labour market, with no socio-cultural environment to support them in their transition from adolescence to adulthood are obviously at greater risk than others of loss of motivation.

It is therefore necessary, here and now, to undertake a thorough review of a series of themes and problems relating to the development of an integrated approach to a youth policy for the future. There is no question of launching a debate on social or any other area of policy. What needs to be considered is the role which a policy can and must play when its cornerstone is the very concept of citizenship. A new policy concept must be more than the set of independent, isolated activities. It must be visionary, innovative and lead to a better understanding of the need for new forms of social involvement. Such a concept accepts that the fields of group leadership and youth training are political and associated with a vision of society. This should be the start of a debate about society between all those involved.

After these summary thoughts, here are a few further comments on the challenges which emerge from analysis of the actual situation – in the clear knowledge that conclusions projected into the future are even more tentative than those based on the present, and have no claim to finality.

An added difficulty lies in relating these challenges to a national policy plan. Much of what Luxembourg is doing today already falls into a European context. The country's geographical position and size and the necessary mental and physical mobility in the face of economic and labour market requirements leave no apparent alternative to this. In relation to the introductory comments to this chapter, it is also possible to speak of global challenges for a youth policy which will in future deal especially with what Ulrich Beck once called the "new fragility of social situations and biographies". What he meant was the increase of social and state uncertainties, threats and uncertainties about the future. A multi-cultural society like Luxembourg is almost bound – in Beck's terms – to anticipate the potential for this fragility. In what other European country can it be safely assumed that in the foreseeable future the proportion of foreigners will equal that of the 'original Luxembourgers'? Even today, roughly one marriage in two is with a partner who is not 'Luxembourg-born' and in Luxembourg City two-thirds of young people are of foreign origin.

Luxembourg has so far seen no ethnic clashes, and in principle young foreigners are not demonstrably more socially excluded than those originally from Luxembourg. What can be proved is that the proportion of foreigners rapidly falls in higher schools and further qualifying training. This is not a consequence of discriminatory conditions of access, which do exist in the legal system, but of the shortcomings of the conditions of

socialisation which lead to inequality of opportunity. Politics are also to blame for this: the manner in which many foreign young people de facto grow up does not enhance the communication and interactive skills which an equal entitlement to use all education and training institutions, and an equal entitlement to social participation, would bring. We therefore submit that Luxembourg's present-day multi-cultural society is marked much more by living alongside at a distance (already an improvement on some other European societies!) than by living with each other.

Signs that a growing number of people are increasingly insecure about their own attitudes, emotional dispositions and how to act towards growing sections of the population who are foreign nationals cannot be ignored. They will present a major challenge if not taken seriously and countered, for attitudes of segregation and ultimately exclusion arise from such initial insecurity. That is why there is no alternative in the short and medium term to living together, as the questions of the future justification of social and cultural identities can only be tackled positively this way, if at all. Imparting an understanding of culture as an expression of specific interactions in social contexts will therefore be very important in all educational situations in future, because questions of differences and common factors aimed at creating an understanding of culture-specific socialisation and its expressions only make sense if that understanding exists.

To make policy, especially youth policy, solely responsible for creating the necessary rapprochement would over-strain state resources. What policy has to do is prepare the necessary framework conditions, including adequate curricula, suitably trained teachers and group leaders and promote pilot initiatives up to 'production readiness' (the requirement for 'favourable conditions' is appropriate here). Policy must also show a readiness to understand the relationship between institutionalised policy and social movements not as a *fait accompli*, but as a process requiring constant adaptation to challenges. The converse is also true: the youth organisations, associations and groups must systematically consider the question how young people with little or no willingness to join organisations can still be involved in such a social contract.

Luxembourg has good potential which can be built upon. The basic recognition of the value of voluntary commitment "Pour les jeunes avec les jeunes" can be much more than just the title of the "Lignes directrices", which have been quoted. Nevertheless, this will need a plan which incorporates and supplements the previous action and initiatives.

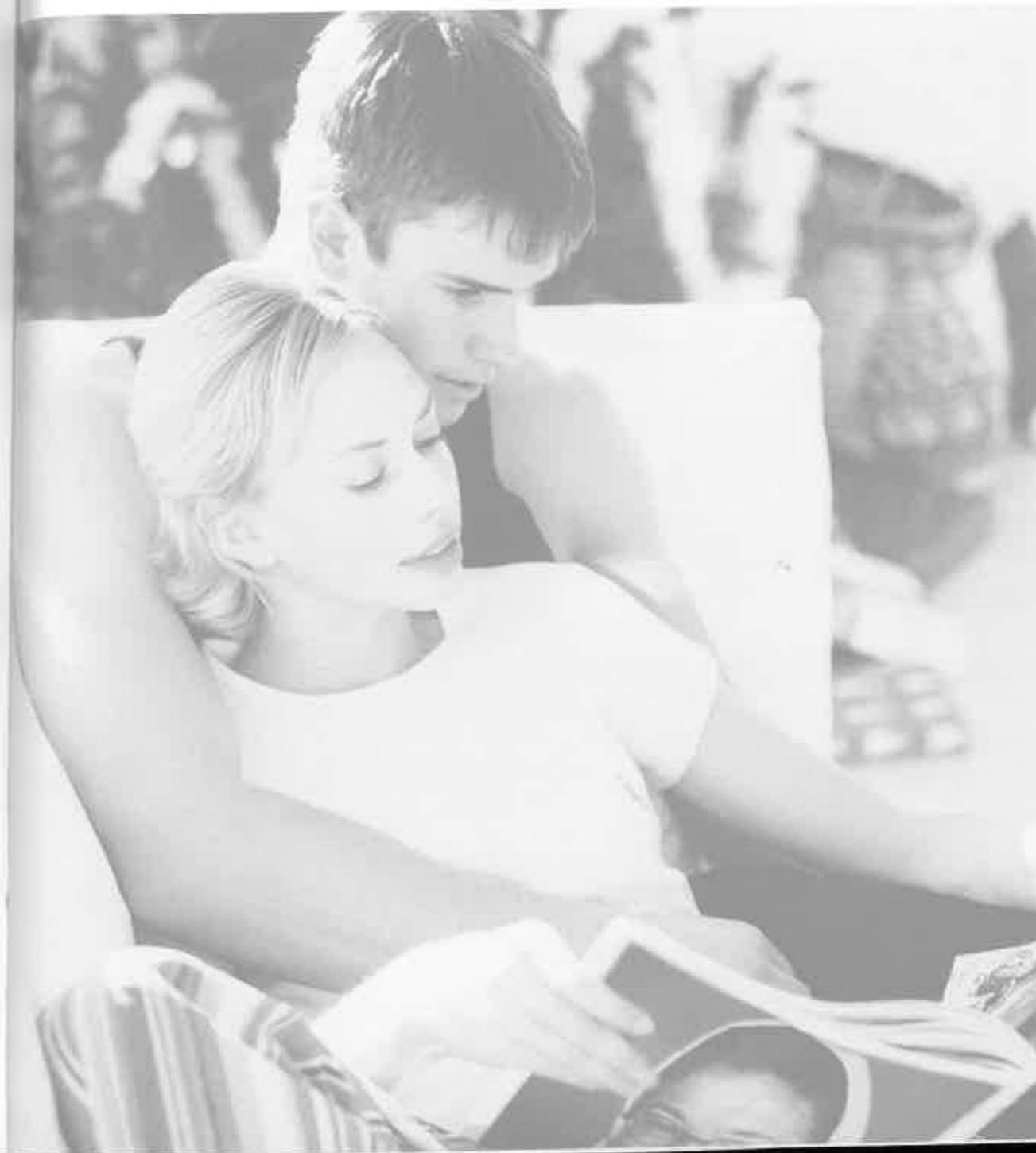
Here we plead for the development and implementation of a specific plan of civic education. This does not mean simply lifting concepts, say, from the German Federal Republic, Scandinavian countries or the United States, because not all these are based on the principles developed in Luxembourg. These principles – of participation, autonomy and responsibility – are seen as fundamental, and those of other countries do not incorporate them to the extent required, at least by official approaches in Luxembourg.

Such a plan is more than a compartment of teaching, more than a specific educational situation. It expresses a general goal of education, to live and learn democracy. Thus it can be the lynchpin of formal education situations (in school and at work) and out-of-

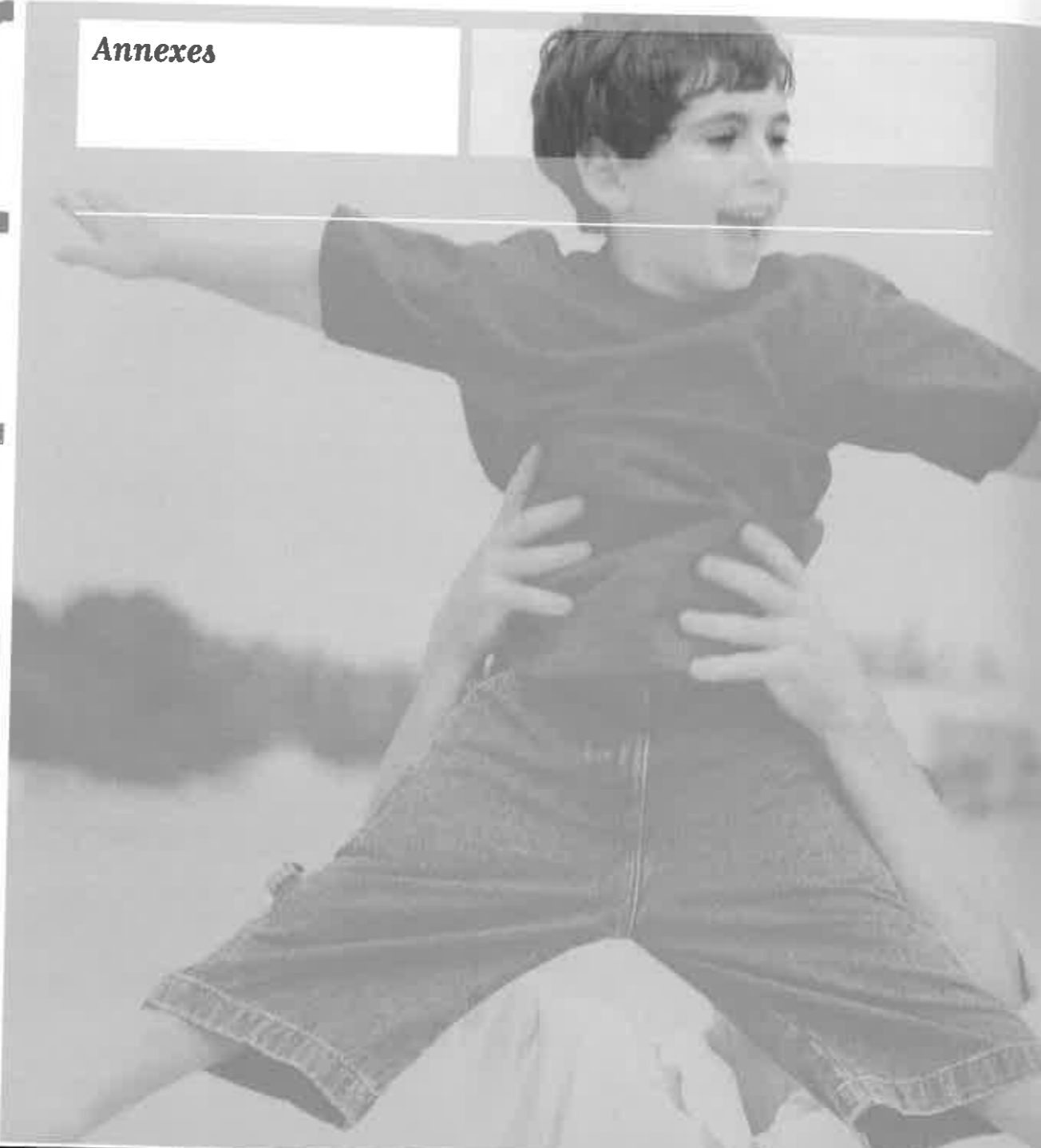
school education. School does not stand still: democratic participation by young people in school is desired and should be systematically promoted. But such a plan can ensure that what school initiates at cognitive level complements the areas of experience offered principally by out-of-school educational situations, including MJs. It will aim to allow largely unpenalised exemplary action, in order to promote the desired autonomy of young people while simultaneously nurturing in them a sense of responsibility for the common good. Such a plan might finally also offer a common framework for all youth policy action and initiatives, by providing a transparent connection between premises, goals, methods, areas of knowledge and interests in action with regard to general policy approaches and basic values and the relevant action-specific objectives. This would also avoid the common hiatus between civic education in the strict sense and that where facts, problems and behaviour patterns of political relevance are in the foreground. In view of its size and available resources, Luxembourg has the chance of developing and applying such a plan to give youth policy conditions a proper, coherent pedagogical framework. In our opinion this necessary coherence also necessitates more intensive formal co-operation between all responsible for youth policy.

In view of the comments made at the start about the expected problems increasingly facing young people, such close co-operation is achievable primarily between the Ministries of Youth, Education, Vocational Training/Employment and Culture. Inter-departmental initiatives can successfully be carried out. One future challenge is certainly that of creating structures which systematically allow such initiatives, without becoming depending on party politics or incidental personal groupings.

In our opinion, therefore, what is needed is a debate about opportunities, viewing social change as a challenge in response to which new relationships can be created between men and women. It is a challenge which calls for trust in human moral fibre, in the knowledge that the history of European humanism and the cultural tradition of the Age of Enlightenment continue to illumine the path of our political action – even if day-to-day political events make such an act of trust hard to make. We should be guided and inspired by a liberating questioning and critical reasoning, with the immediate result of greater commitment, less minding our own business and more looking at things as they are, rather than turning away.



Annexes



Annexes



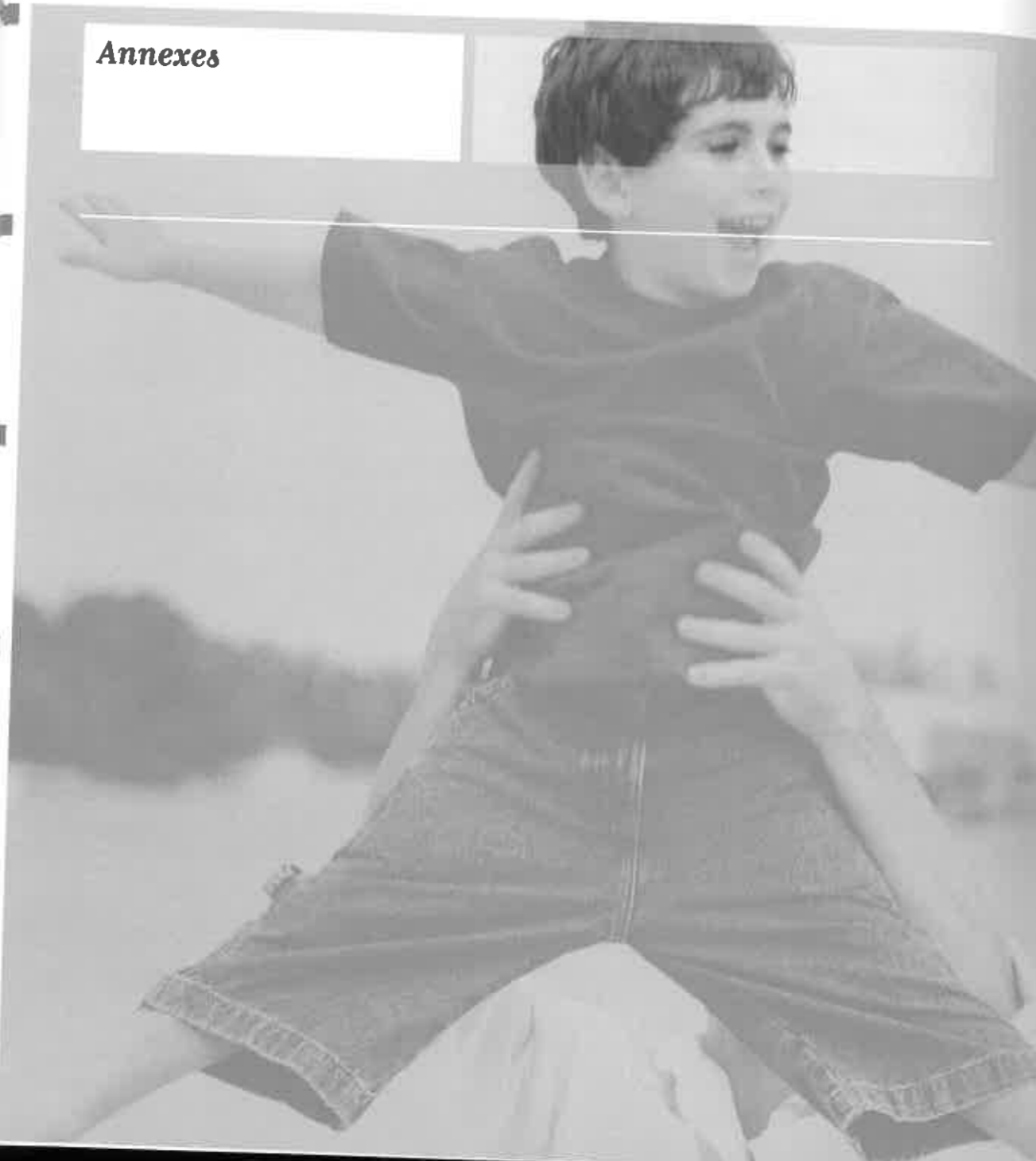
The National Report on Young People in Luxembourg can also be consulted and downloaded on the Internet site of the National Youth Service: www.snj.lu.

During the evaluation process the associations' multiple comments and points of view could not be integrated in the report, but are available on the Internet site.

Abbreviations

ADEM:	Administration de l'Emploi
AGGL:	Association des Girl Guides Luxembourgeoises
C.L.A.E.:	Comité de Liaison et d'Action des Étrangers
CAT PR:	Contrat d'Auxiliaire Temporaire du secteur privé; ancienne dénomination SI: Stage d'insertion
CAT PU:	Contrat d'Auxiliaire Temporaire du secteur public; ancienne dénomination DAT: Division d'auxiliaires temporaires
CATP:	Certificat d'Aptitude Technique et Professionnelle
CEPS/Instead:	Centre d'Études de Populations, de Pauvreté et de Politiques Socio-Économiques / International Networks for Studies in Technology, Environment, Alternatives, Development
CeSije:	Centre d'Études sur la Situation des Jeunes en Europe
CGJL:	Conférence Générale de la Jeunesse Luxembourgeoise
CNIEJ:	Centre National d'Informations et d'Échanges pour Jeunes
CRIAJ:	Centres de Rencontre, d'Information et d'Animation pour Jeunes
CSJ:	Chrëschtlech Sozial Jugend
CSV:	Chrëschtlesch Sozial Vollekspartei (parti chrétien-social)
DP:	Demokratesch Partei (parti démocratique)
EST:	Enseignement secondaire technique
FNEL:	Fédération Nationale des Éclaireurs et Éclaireuses du Luxembourg
IEES:	Institut d'Études Éducatives et Sociales

Annexes



Annexes



The National Report on Young People in Luxembourg can also be consulted and downloaded on the Internet site of the National Youth Service: www.snj.lu.

During the evaluation process the associations' multiple comments and points of view could not be integrated in the report, but are available on the Internet site.

Abbreviations

ADEM:	Administration de l'Emploi
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CeSiJe:	Centre d'Études sur la Situation des Jeunes en Europe
CGJL:	Conférence Générale de la Jeunesse Luxembourgeoise
CNIEJ:	Centre National d'Informations et d'Échanges pour Jeunes
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EST:	Enseignement secondaire technique
FNEL:	Fédération Nationale des Éclaireurs et Éclaireuses du Luxembourg
IEES:	Institut d'Études Éducatives et Sociales

IGSS:	Inspection Générale de la Sécurité Sociale
ILReS:	Institut Luxembourgeois de Recherches Sociales et d'Études de Marché
ISERP:	Institut Supérieur d'Études et de Recherches Pédagogiques
IST:	Institut Supérieur de Technologies
JDL:	Jeunesse Démocratique Luxembourgeoise
JSL:	Jeunesses Socialistes Luxembourgeoises
LASEL:	Ligue des Associations Sportives Estudiantines Luxembourgeoises
LASEP:	Ligue des Associations Sportives de l'Enseignement Primaire
LGS:	Lëtzebuenger Guiden a Scouten
MJ:	Maison de Jeunes
PA:	Pool des assistants à la direction
PAN:	Plan d'Action National en faveur de l'emploi
PIC:	Point Information Communal
PSELL:	Panel socioéconomique "Liewen zu Lëtzebuerg"
RMG:	Revenu Minimum Garanti
SeSoPI-CI:	Service Socio-Pastoral Intercommunautaire - Centre Intercommunautaire
SIE:	Stage d'insertion en entreprise; ancienne dénomination SP: Stage de préparation en entreprise
SIJS:	Service d'Informations Juridiques et Sociales
SNJ:	Service National de la Jeunesse
SPOS:	Service de Psychologie et d'Orientation Scolaires
STATEC:	Service central de la statistique et des études économiques
U.E.B.L.:	Union économique belgo-luxembourgeoise

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