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by Lia Lombardi

Make diversity into Inclusive: Youth and Migration in Europe

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This paper originates from a study presented in Hamburg in 2017 at the Haus Rissen association for the elaboration of the “Inclusion Village” project (Erasmus Plus Programme).

The aim of the paper was to establish, from a theoretical and documentary point of view, the meanings and intentions of the concepts of *inclusion* and *diversity*, through the analysis of laws, norms, projects and actions at European level.

The object of this study is to show how these two concepts, apparently antithetical, can instead be reconcilable and indeed make diversity a source of social inclusion. In particular the paper, like the project to which it relates, focuses on “inclusive diversity” of the youth of Europe: of course it means all young people living in Europe.

Key words: youth, migrants, inclusion, diversity, Europe.

1. Introduction: EU references and Social Inclusion

The concept of social inclusion is central to the European policy agenda, as well as the discourse and advocacy of other international organisations such as the International Labour Organization (ILO), the United Nations (UN), UNESCO and the World Bank (IILS, 1997; Estivill, 2003).

According to the Eurofound report 2015, In recent decades, the concept of social inclusion has continuously evolved within the policy agenda of the European Union and it is now firmly anchored in the European governance system. It was with the Lisbon Council conclusion of March 2000 that social exclusion became a major topic on the policy agenda.

Furthermore, with the Europe 2020 strategy EU heads of states and governments committed themselves to reducing poverty and social exclusion in the EU by at least 20 million people by 2020. This target is one of three integrated objectives (with *employment* and *education*) to contribute to inclusive growth in the EU, defined as ‘building a cohesive society in which people are empowered to anticipate and manage change and consequently to actively participate in society and the economy’ (*Council of the European Union, 2010*).

The EU strategy for inclusion has eight fields of action:

1. education and training,
2. employment and entrepreneurship,
3. health and well-being,
4. participation,

5. voluntary activities,
6. social inclusion,
7. youth and the world,
8. creativity and culture.

Social inclusion of all youngsters is a specific ‘field of action’, which is addressed in interconnection with the other fields in the wider ‘participation’ context (e.g. Youth Guarantee). The implementation of the “Youth Strategy” is characterised by a holistic perspective and by a broader approach towards social inclusion. This approach provides an extending support for youth participation by covering a large range of activities in social, cultural, educational or political field – by, with, and for young people.

2. Social inclusion: definition and concept

Since the beginning of the economic crisis in 2008, young people have experienced difficulties in gaining a foothold in the labour market. As a result of the crisis, young people are now the group at highest risk of social exclusion in Europe. The disengagement of youth can have serious consequences for an individual, for society and for the economy as a whole. While concepts of poverty and disadvantage have a long history, the use of the term ‘social exclusion’ is quite recent and originally emerged in France to describe those who were excluded from the social insurance system (Lenoir, 1974). These were the disabled, lone parents and the uninsured unemployed. The concept of social exclusion goes beyond the concept of poverty, taking on board the consequences of poverty which prevent the individual from participating fully in society.

The terms ‘social inclusion’ and ‘social exclusion’ are used in very different ways by different people. For some, social exclusion is synonymous with poverty, while others emphasise the aspect of inadequate social participation originating from a lack of social integration and lack of power. While the concepts of poverty, deprivation and disadvantage have a long history, despite its current centrality in the political discourse the concept of social inclusion is relatively recent.

According to Townsend, individuals can be considered as poor when their resources are so scarce that they are excluded from ordinary living patterns and activities (Townsend, 1979). Therefore, social inclusion is a broad concept with multiple definitions which have evolved continually over time and vary considerably depending on the policy context (Hayes et al, 2008). Actually, there is no generally accepted definition of what constitutes social exclusion/inclusion. So, the definition of social exclusion also varies in available literature.

- Social exclusion has been defined as ‘the process through which individuals or groups are wholly or partially excluded from full participation in the society within which they live’ (de Haan, 1998; Francis, 1997).
- Davis (2011) puts forward an argument that the notion of social exclusion has been developed to expand research on poverty beyond financial aspects.
- Silver (1994) argues that social inclusion stems from complex interactions

between status, class and political power. Interestingly, social exclusion has also been linked to both groups' social identity (such as gender, race and religion) and social location (rural areas, developing countries, etc.).

The UN has proposed yet another dimension to be kept in mind – social status (Weber, 1995), which can include health status or level of occupation (United Nations, 2004). Another common theme in discussions of social exclusion is that it is multidimensional and reflects a combination of interrelated factors (Saunders, 2003). The features outlined above also emphasise that social exclusion is a process rather than an outcome at a particular point in time (such as living in poverty), and understanding what is causing the social exclusion of an individual or group is important. Social exclusion can therefore be looked at from both an individual and a collective perspective.

In sum, it is important to recognise that social exclusion encompasses those who are excluded (individuals) and the excluders (more systemic factors). Furthermore, Levitas (2006) – according to Amartia Sen, offers the following definition:

Social exclusion is a complex and multi-dimensional process. It involves the lack or denial of resources, rights, goods and services, and the inability to participate in the normal relationships and activities, available to the majority of people in society, whether in economic, social, cultural, or political arenas. It affects both the quality of life of individuals and the equity and cohesion of society as a whole.

Despite the fact that social exclusion has been defined in many different and complex ways, there seems to be consensus that social exclusion goes beyond income poverty and that other dimensions are involved in.

3. Social inclusion/exclusion of European youth

Coming back to our main topic – young people inclusion – from the point of view of a young person, social inclusion can be understood as a process of realization of one's own potential within society and recognition of the potential of society. This contribution can be expressed through work, education, volunteering and other forms of participation. The concept of social inclusion takes on particular importance with young people from disadvantaged backgrounds. For these groups, social inclusion also means addressing specific and additional barriers (Eurofound, 2015).

The path to adulthood is often conceptualized as one in which different investments are made in human, economic and social capital (Eurofound, 2014a). For example, people are well integrated into the labor market and socially included thanks to their educational, social and psychological characteristics; to their resources and opportunities (Côté, 2000). In fact, Bourdieu (1986) explains that the possession of human, economic and social capital that defines the place of a young person in social topography.

As we discussed above, social inclusion is a multidimensional concept as it affects many fields of life: economic, cultural, social and more.

If social exclusion continues for a long time it can lead to permanent exclusion. For this reason, the social exclusion of young people should be a source of deep concern for society. This means that early exclusion from the labour market is not only a temporarily problematic situation, but can have large effects along the lives of people. In addition, the social exclusion of young people has negative consequences on their physical and mental health as feelings of loneliness, impotence, restlessness, anxiety and depression (Creed and Reynolds, 2001; Hagquist and Starrin, 1996; Hammer, 2000; Furnham, 1994; Becker, 1989).

Because the social exclusion prevents people from accumulating social and human capital, it is often associated with other risky behaviors such as drug and alcohol abuse. Research also reveals an inextricable link between disengagement and criminal activities (Fergusson et al., 2001; Mitchell et al., 2002; Winefield, 1997).

For girls, social exclusion is often associated with early motherhood and early marriage: Bynner and Parsons (2002) show that disengagement from the labour market and education has a negative effect on identity formation, in particular for young women.

As a result of these monetary and non-monetary barriers to participation in society, the youngsters freed from the labour market and education are more likely to accumulate traumatic experiences, which can turn into a general disaffection and resentment towards society.

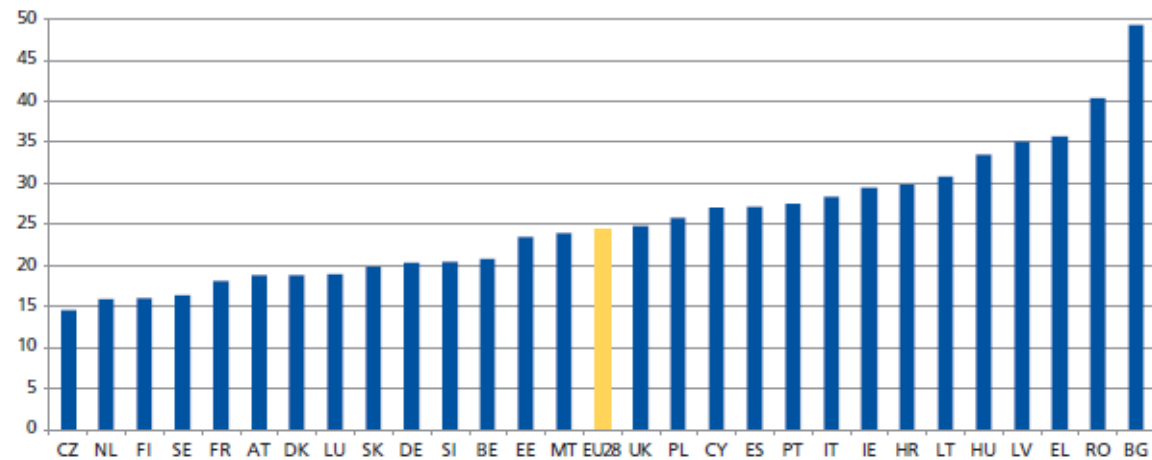
Research shows that education and employment are central in combating social exclusion: the first provides resources for young people (skills, knowledge and tools to build their future) and the second provides income to achieve economic independence and means for participating in social life.

4. Measuring the youth social inclusion

Assuming that social inclusion and exclusion are multidimensional concepts which go beyond poverty and labour market participation it is usually measured with different data sources and various indicators. It also can vary according to gender, location, age and nationality. Disaggregating outcomes by identity is a way of identifying the groups more at risk. So, the social inclusion of young people can be different, and measured with different indicators, than the social inclusion of adults or of elderly people (Eurofound, 2015).

Youth social inclusion is measured through 13 primary indicators as *employment, education, housing* and *deprivation* (Eurostat AROPE indicators) and one headline indicator. It deals with AROPE (“At-Risk-Of Poverty or social Exclusion” indicator), which measures the share/number of people at risk of poverty or social exclusion in EU. According to Eurostat, in 2013 there were about 122 million people in the EU28, equivalent to 24.5% of the entire population, who were at risk of poverty or social exclusion. Among them, 14 million were both at risk of poverty and living in households with very low work intensity; about 13 million were at risk of poverty and severely materially deprived; just under three million were both severely materially deprived and in households with very low work intensity; and eight million were experiencing all three poverty and social exclusion situations (Figure 1). (Eurofound, 2015).

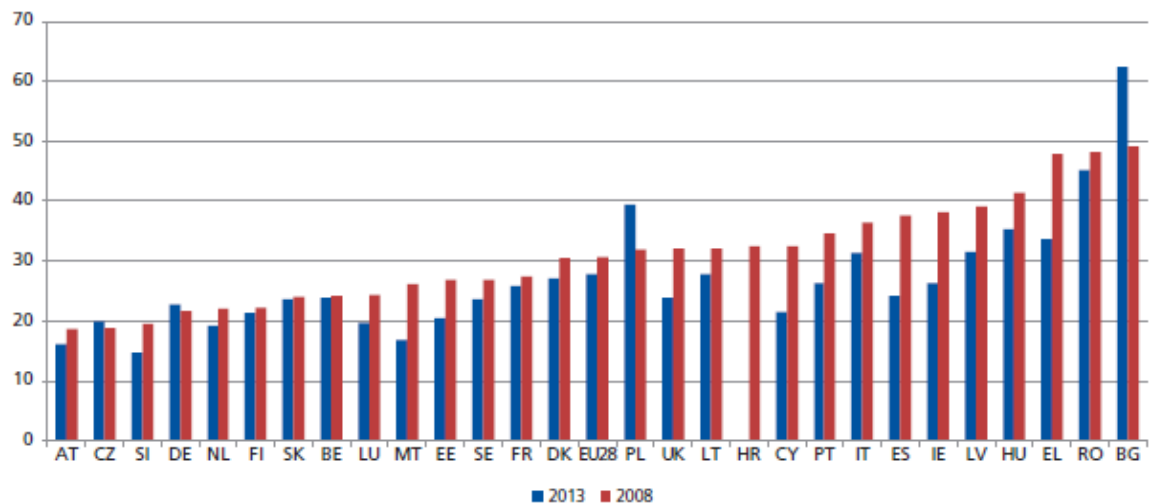
Figure 1: AROPE indicator, EU28, 2013 (%)



Source: Eurostat

Comparing data for this age group (16–24) with other age cohorts shows that young people are the group most at risk of poverty and social exclusion today. While 23 Member States had a higher proportion of young people in this category in 2013 compared with 2008 (Figure 2), the situation varies widely between countries. In 2013, the lowest proportion of at-risk youth was observed in Austria at 18.6%, while the highest share was reported in Bulgaria, where nearly half of all young people (49.1%) were at risk (Eurofound, 2015).

Figure 2: Youth AROPE rate, EU28, 2008 and 2013 (%)



Source: Eurostat

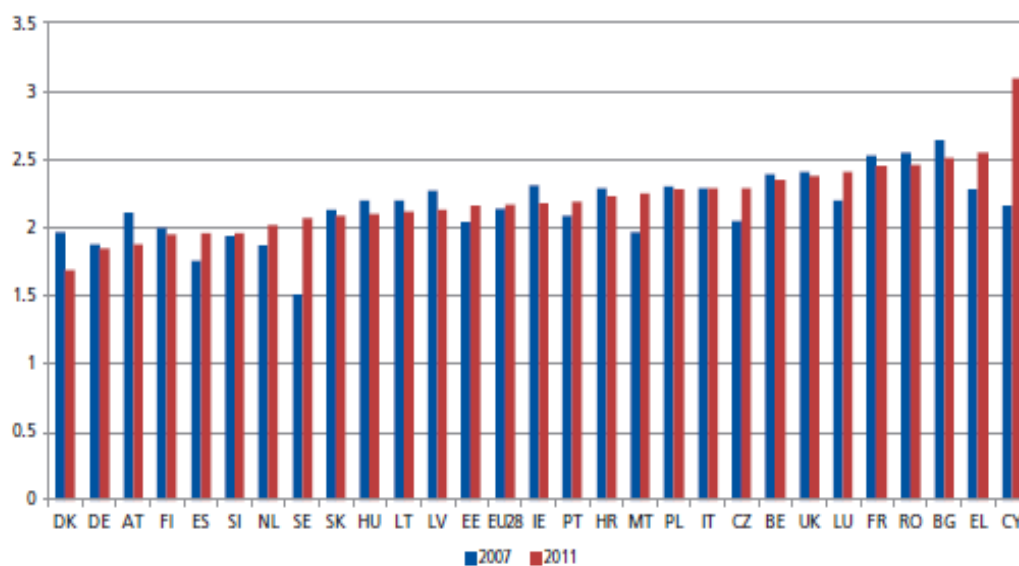
Given the multidimensional nature of social inclusion, to better understand the situation for youth today, it is necessary to provide a comparative picture of further indicators.

So, five dimensions of social inclusion can be analysed: *employment, education, housing, health and social participation*.

4.1 Perceived social exclusion

The perceived social exclusion index based on Eurofound's European Quality of Life Survey (EQLS) represents a valuable complement to the AROPE rate. The index measures the extent to which young people *feel* excluded, based on responses to several questions. In 2011, the lowest levels of perceived social exclusion were found among young respondents from Denmark, Germany, Austria and Finland and the highest among those from Cyprus, Greece, Bulgaria and Romania (Figure 3).

Figure 3: Perceived social exclusion index among young people, EU28, 2007 and 2011



Note: 1 = 'strongly disagree'; 5 = 'strongly agree'.

Source: Eurofound, 2015

Unemployed young people feel more the sensation of being excluded from society (13%), and the feeling of not being valued is more common among inactive young people (30%) (Eurofound, 2014b). The perception of social exclusion is more pronounced in southern European countries, such as Cyprus and Greece.

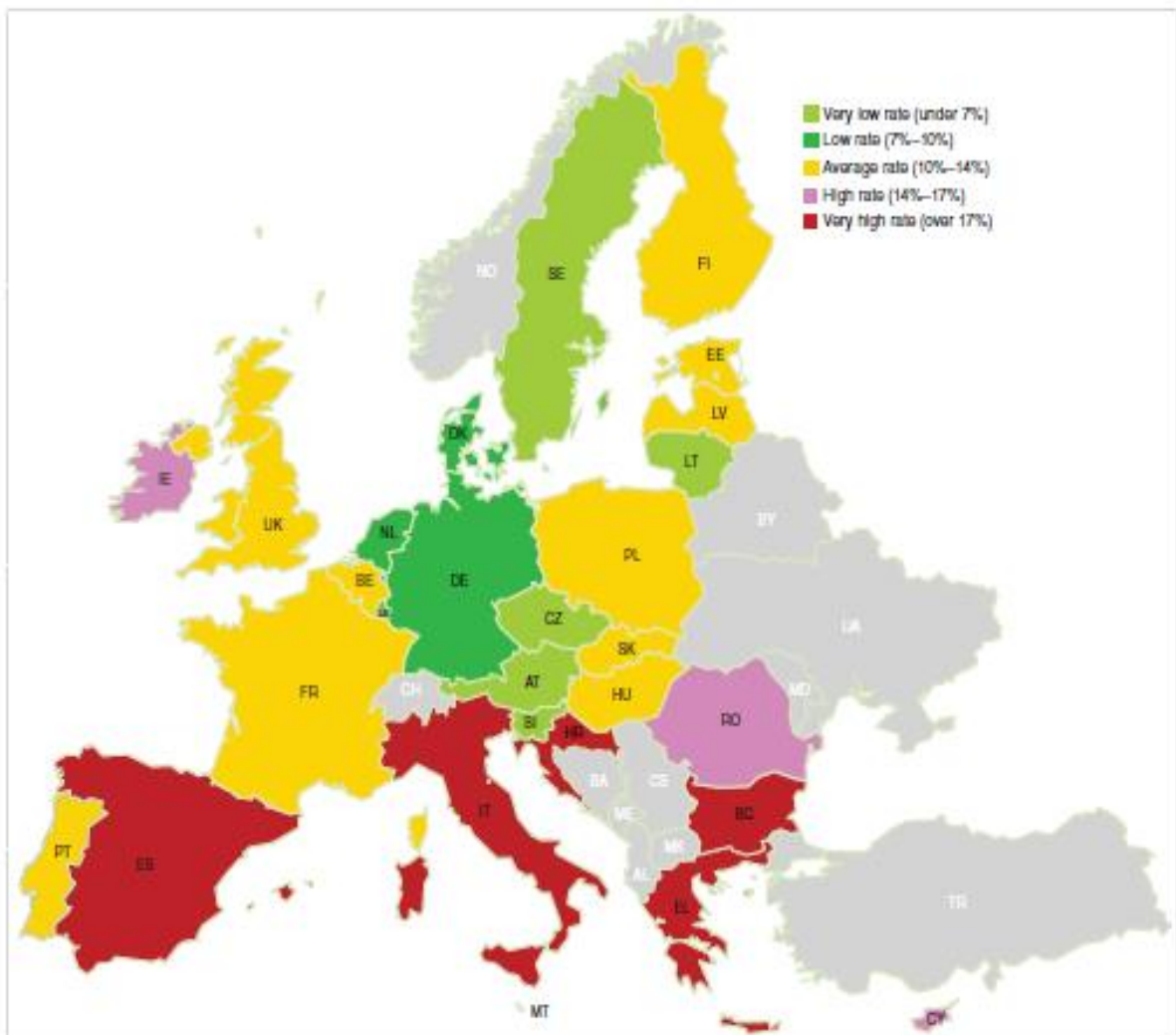
4.2 NEETs

NEETs are those young people who do not work, do not follow education and training, who do not acquire human capital through formal channels and are more at risk of accumulating disadvantages (Eurofound, 2012a). For these reasons, they are the social group most at risk of social exclusion. The list of NEETs at risk of social exclusion includes young unemployed, people with disabilities, young carers, young migrants, young homeless,

young prisoners and so on. Therefore, Eurofound (2012) identifies three categories of NEETs that are most at risk of social exclusion:

- the conventionally unemployed, which can be subdivided into long-term and short-term unemployed;
- the unavailable, which includes young carers, young people with family responsibilities and young people who are sick or disabled;
- the disengaged, which can be those young people who are not seeking jobs or education (discouraged workers; young people pursuing dangerous or asocial lifestyles).

Figure 4: NEET rate, age 15–24, EU28, 2014



Source: Eurofound, 2015

In many Member States, NEET rates are still high as recorded in 2008 (Bulgaria, Croatia, Cyprus, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Romania and Spain). In particular, the rate has risen

significantly from 2007 to 2014 in Greece (from 11.5% to 19.1%), in Spain (from 12% to 17.1%), in Ireland (from 10.7% to 15.2%); in Italy from 16.2% to 22.1%. Low and decreasing levels of NEETs are highlighted in Austria, Denmark, Germany, Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Sweden. Across the EU27, the percentage of NEETs is higher for the 20–24 age group than for the 15–19 age group (17.8% and 6.4% respectively in 2014). This is not surprising as many 15–19 year-olds are still attending school.

4.3 Labour market inclusion

Across the EU, youth unemployment rates are generally much higher than adults' unemployment rates (Eurostat, unemployment statistics).

Table 1: Youth unemployment rate, age 15–24, EU28, 2005–2014 (%)

Country	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
AT	11.0	9.8	9.4	8.5	10.7	9.5	8.9	9.4	9.7	10.3
BE	21.5	20.5	18.8	18.0	21.9	22.4	18.7	19.8	23.7	23.2
BG	22.3	19.5	15.1	12.7	16.2	23.2	25.0	28.1	28.4	23.8
CY	13.9	10.0	10.2	9.0	13.8	16.6	22.4	27.7	38.9	35.9
CZ	19.2	17.5	10.7	9.9	16.6	18.3	18.1	19.5	19.0	15.9
DE	15.5	13.8	11.9	10.6	11.2	9.9	8.5	8.0	7.8	7.7
DK	8.6	7.7	7.5	8.0	11.8	14.0	14.2	14.1	13.1	12.6
EE	15.1	12.1	10.1	12.0	27.4	32.9	22.4	20.9	18.7	15.0
EL	25.8	25.0	22.7	21.9	25.7	33.0	44.7	55.3	58.3	52.4
ES	19.6	17.9	18.1	24.5	37.7	41.5	46.2	52.9	55.5	53.2
FI	20.1	18.7	16.5	16.5	21.5	21.4	20.1	19.0	19.9	20.5
FR	20.6	21.6	19.1	18.6	23.2	22.9	22.1	23.9	23.9	23.2
HR	32.3	28.9	25.2	23.7	25.2	32.4	36.7	42.1	50.0	45.5
HU	19.4	19.1	18.0	19.5	26.4	26.4	26.0	28.2	26.6	20.4
IE	8.6	8.6	9.1	13.3	24.0	27.6	29.1	30.4	26.8	23.9
IT	24.1	21.8	20.4	21.2	25.3	27.9	29.2	35.3	40.0	42.7
LT	15.8	10.0	8.4	13.3	29.6	35.7	32.6	26.7	21.9	19.3
LU	13.7	16.2	15.2	17.9	17.2	14.2	16.8	18.8	15.5	22.6
LV	15.1	13.6	10.6	13.6	33.3	36.2	31.0	28.5	23.2	19.6
MT	16.1	15.5	13.5	11.7	14.5	13.2	13.3	14.1	13.0	11.8
NL	8.2	6.6	5.9	5.3	6.6	8.7	7.6	9.5	11.0	10.5
PL	36.9	29.8	21.7	17.3	20.6	23.7	25.8	26.5	27.3	23.9
PT	16.2	16.5	16.7	16.7	20.3	22.8	30.3	37.9	38.1	34.8
RO	20.2	21.4	20.1	18.6	20.8	22.1	23.9	22.6	23.7	24.0
SE	22.8	21.5	19.3	20.2	25.0	24.8	22.8	23.6	23.5	22.9
SI	15.9	13.9	10.1	10.4	13.6	14.7	15.7	20.6	21.6	20.2
SK	30.1	26.6	20.3	19.0	27.3	33.6	33.4	34.0	33.7	29.7
UK	12.8	13.9	14.3	15.0	19.1	19.9	21.3	21.2	20.7	16.9
EU28	18.7	17.4	15.6	15.6	19.9	21.0	21.5	23.1	23.5	21.9

Source: Eurofound, 2015

There is a wide variation in the youth unemployment rate between Member States, from 7.2% in Germany and 10.0% in Austria to 49.6% in Spain and 52.5% in Greece, in 2015: in general, more than 20% of young people are still looking for a job in EU member states.

5. Other factors affecting the social inclusion of young people

In addition to the employment situation of young people, the following four factors play a crucial role in the social inclusion/exclusion of young people.

5.1. Education and early school-leaving

Exclusion from education is a strong determinant of ending up NEET and may lead to further social exclusion. When it comes to inclusion in education, 12.7% of all young people aged 18–24 are early leavers from education and training across Europe (Eurostat data, 2012), but vast differences between Member States persist. The highest rates are observed in Spain, where 24.9% of young people are early school-leavers, while the lowest rates are in Croatia (4.2%) and Slovenia (4.4%).

5.2 Housing

Regarding the housing situation of young people, in 2012 50% of youngsters in the EU leave their parents' home at 26.3 years for men and 23.8 for women: in Greece, Malta and Slovakia, the young leave their parents' home at more than 30 years, while Swedish, Danish and Finnish youngsters leave their parents' home at around 22 years. In 2011, 8.2% of young people aged 15 to 29 in the EU live in a seriously deprived housing situation. According to Eurostat data, some EU countries show particularly high rates of youth housing deprivation in Romania (31.7% in 2012), Hungary (23.7%) and Latvia (21.2%).

5.3 Health

In 2011 a total of 8.1% of young people (aged 16–29) reported that they perceived their overall health as fair, bad or very bad across the EU28 (Eurofound's third EQLS). Self-reported health status was on average poorest in Latvia (15.1% fair, bad or very bad) and Portugal (14.5%), while fewer young people reported poor health status in Greece (2.3%), Cyprus (3.2%), Bulgaria (3.3%), Romania (3.8%) and Spain (4%). Moreover, the health status of young people within the lowest income quintile is lower than those in the highest quintile in all EU Member States, with the exception of Greece and Ireland. The gap between these two groups with regard to reporting fair, bad or very bad health status is larger than 10% in some Member States (in 2011: Portugal and Slovenia). (Eurofound, 2015).

According to the third EQLS report, although the level of psychological well-being of young people is generally higher than the total population, unemployed and inactive young people show a relatively low subjective well-being rate (Eurofound, 2014b). Young people have significantly better mental well-being in Eastern Europe and in some Southern European countries such as Bulgaria, Greece, Romania and Slovenia but, for example, in Sweden young people show six points less than the average rate of mental well-being of the population, according to the WHO-5 scale ranging from 1 to 100 (Eurofound, 2014b).

The EQLS report also highlights the difficulties of young people in accessing to health care. 44% of young people interviewed indicated that waiting time made access to medical care difficult, while 37% indicated that they had a delay in getting an appointment. 32% of young people find difficulties to find time to go to the doctor (due to work or care responsibilities) and 31% have problems with the cost of medical care. There is a variation between countries on these obstacles, for example: the cost of care is an important obstacle to Cyprus and Ireland, while in Greece and Italy delays, waiting times and costs seem to be the most obstacles (Eurofound, 2014b).

5.4 Social participation

Concerning participation and wider inclusion of young people in society, a 2012 Eurofound study on NEETs found that young people excluded from education, employment or training are at higher risk of political and social disengagement than their non-European peers (Eurofound, 2012).

They show lower levels of trust, political interest and political and social commitment than non-NEETs, although there may be differences between country clusters / types of welfare regimes.

The lowest level of political engagement is in Hungary (10.9%), Bulgaria (11%) and Malta (12.6%), while the highest is in Sweden (54.4%), Finland (42%) and Denmark (38.7%) (Eurofound, 2012). Occasional volunteering is relatively common among young people: however, there are many geographical differences in this field too: about half of the young population participate in voluntary actions in Austria, Finland and Ireland, but less than a quarter do so in Bulgaria, Greece, Hungary and Poland (Eurofound, 2012). Inactive and unemployed young people are less likely to volunteer, perhaps because they do not have access to such opportunities through employment or education.

6. Inclusion and Diversity: how to make diversity into inclusion

The European Commission, together with SALTO Inclusion and SALTO Cultural Diversity, organized an intensive consultation of stakeholders with experts. Based on this consultation, two new elements were introduced: a) diversity. Diversity in all its forms refers to everything, including inclusion. This ensures that there is a twofold objective: not only to include young people, but also to strengthen the knowledge, skills and behaviour nec-

essary to accept, support and fully promote differences in society. b) Practical guide: industry professionals emphasize the need to make information on the measurement of inclusion and diversity more accessible and user-oriented.

6.1 Understanding diversity

Diversity refers to differences of all kinds. Some types of diversity are more obvious than others, such as ethnicity, religion, culture and language. But diversity is wider. It also refers to different (dis) abilities, educational levels, social background, economic situations, health status, the place from which people come, as described in the definition of “young people with fewer opportunities”. The European Union is an example of people from different backgrounds and with different backgrounds, as suggested by the EU “Unity in Diversity” motto. Following the increase in immigration to and within Europe, racism and ethnic and religious stereotypes are on the rise in many countries. A solid strategy that embraces diversity among peoples can serve to challenge and address these problems.

The inclusion and diversity strategy aims to embrace and celebrate diversity in such a way that difference becomes a source of positive learning rather than the cause of negative competition and prejudice. Youth and youth workers should be equipped with the skills necessary to manage and work with diversity. This will encourage positive interactions between people of different social backgrounds and improve the situation of young people with fewer opportunities.

It is also essential to equip young people and youth leaders with the skills necessary to manage and successfully support diversity. This will contribute to positive interaction with different inclusion groups, regardless of their ethnicity, (dis)ability, religion, sexuality, skin colour, socio-economic background, appearance, level of education, spoken language and so on. Where the inclusion of everyone ensures that all young people can take part, the attention to diversity ensures that everyone can take part on their own terms, recognizing the value of differences in norms, beliefs, attitudes, life experience.

Focusing the attention on the issue of the inclusion of migrant young people, it is very interesting to quote to Laura Zanfrini and her research “The diversity value” (2015), through which she chooses to pursue the overall and long-term aim of “reinventing” the European approach to immigration, overcoming its historical paradox through three major changes (<http://www.ismu.org/2015/06/presentato-il-volume-diversity-value-reinvent-european-approach-immigration/>):

- a) encouraging a shift from the perception of migrants as contingently instrumental resources to the recognition of their human capital as a structural resource for the economic and social development of European societies,
- b) enhancing awareness among different types of organisations as to the importance and potentialities of Diversity Management (hereafter DM) strategies,
- c) improving TCNs’ social participation and civic engagement (and especially their participation in volunteer, non-profit organisations) in view of the construction of

an inclusive European society and in order to change TCNs common perception as people who need to be helped and assisted.

6.2 *Young people with fewer opportunities*

Inclusion and diversity projects should have a positive impact on the situation of vulnerable young people. These are young people who are at a disadvantage compared to their peers because they face one or more of the exclusion factors and obstacles listed below, preventing them from taking part in employment, formal and non-formal education, trans-national mobility, democratic process and society at large (European Commission, Directorate General for Education and Culture, 2014):

- *Disability* (i.e. participants with special needs): young people with mental (intellectual, cognitive, learning), physical, sensory or other disabilities etc.:
- *Health problems*: young people with chronic health problems, severe illnesses or psychiatric conditions etc.
- *Educational difficulties*: young people with learning difficulties, early school-leavers, lower qualified persons, young people with poor school performance etc.
- *Cultural differences*: immigrants, refugees or descendants from immigrant or refugee families, young people belonging to a national or ethnic minority, young people with linguistic adaptation and cultural inclusion difficulties etc.
- *Economic obstacles*: young people with a low standard of living, low income, dependence on social welfare system, young people in long-term unemployment or poverty, young people who are homeless, in debt or with financial problems etc.
- *Social obstacles*: young people facing discrimination because of gender, age, ethnicity, religion, sexual orientation, disability, etc.; young people with limited social skills or anti-social or high-risk behaviours, young people in a precarious situation, (ex-)offenders, (ex)drug or alcohol abusers, young and/or single parents, orphans etc.
- *Geographical obstacles*: young people from remote or rural areas, young people living on small islands or in peripheral regions, young people from urban problem zones, young people from less serviced areas (limited public transport, poor facilities) etc.

This list is not exhaustive, but gives an indication of the type of exclusion situations we are talking about. The causes of disadvantage can be manifold, and the solutions similarly so. The '*comparative disadvantage*' is important, because being in one of the situations referred to above does not automatically lead to fewer opportunities compared to peers. The risk of exclusion because of specific factors and obstacles varies according to country and context.

7. Well-being for Inclusion vs Inclusion for Well-being

As soon as migrants arrive and settle in a new society, they have basic needs such as finding a home, a job, schools for themselves and their children and access to healthcare. They also need to establish cooperation and interaction with other individuals and groups, and get to know and interact with institutions of the new society. This last element indicates receiving societies' crucial role in promoting integration.

However, the current picture of the state of integration in Europe shows that the responsibility "to integrate" is solely put on migrants' shoulders, while no effective role or duties are assigned to receiving societies (Gilarioni, D'Odorico, Carrillo, 2015). On the contrary, the latter are called upon both to provide services addressed to migrants, and to accept and manage diversity.

The acceptance of whom is "other by me" by receiving societies is a starting point for supporting successful integration paths. On the one hand, people need to get reciprocally closer and, on the other hand, chances – in terms of resources, opportunities and capitals – have to be enjoyed alike by migrants and natives so that integration can be fulfilled and a state of "well-being" in terms of inclusiveness can be achieved.

On the basis of the assumption that Health and Well-being are indicators of inclusion and of integration (Giarelli, Veneri 2009; Lombardi 2016), it is important to implement the promotion of the well-being of young people – natives, migrants, asylum seekers – with the ultimate aim of fostering the creation of inclusiveness/ inclusive attitudes. Such a focus allows to:

- a) highlight the *common generational* needs, behaviours, attitudes, expectations that these groups share in terms of life-styles and health, in order to valorize differences, decrease inequalities and tackle discrimination among them;
- b) concentrate on relationships with peers and on frequent interaction among youths with different cultural and ethnic backgrounds *as vectors* of inclusion.

7.1 Life-style and Well-being

Non-communicable diseases (NCD) are directly related to lifestyle, something which Max Weber linked to the concept of status, establishing a dialectic interconnection between life chances (determined by the social structure) and lifestyle choices, resulting from the selection carried out by the social actor among the life chances he can avail him/herself of. Thus, the lifestyle of a person is the result of the dialectic interaction between the individual freedom (lifestyle choices) and the possibilities determined by the social structure (life chances). NCD are caused by 4 behavioural risk factors: tobacco consumption, unhealthy diets, insufficient physical activity, alcohol abuse. The main effects of these risk factors are more pronounced in low and middle income countries and among the poorest people in each country (Global status report on non-communicable diseases, 2010).

The concept of well-being is closely interconnected with lifestyle and health promotion. In a sociological perspective, well-being is a complex dimension encompassing solidarity, sense of belonging to local community, inclusion, satisfaction in social and family relationships, at work, at school and other life contexts.

7.2 Well-being for inclusion

It needs to focus on the *well-being of young people* (migrant and natives alike) *as a key for fostering inclusion*. In particular, it will concentrate on the experimentation and the diffusion of good practices concerning at least two specific dimensions of well-being: nutrition and physical activity. Such practices are conceived as *keys* for creating the establishment of meaningful and respectful relationships with peers of any cultural and ethnic background – so as to promote the generation of *inclusiveness*.

Gender and inter-cultural perspectives is crucial for a correct understanding of the concepts of “inclusion” and “inclusiveness” through a “well-being” approach.

Concentrating on physical activity and nutrition allows to raise awareness and responsibility about one’s own health and well-being; in addition, physical activity and nutrition are both symbols of aggregation, friendship, conviviality, celebration and can stimulate the creation of inclusive attitudes by stimulating and improving relationships with peers. Young people must be encouraged to discuss and reflect on physical activity and nutrition through their direct participation in workshops, also through the use of tools and languages which are common and shared among them (e.g. social networks, films and videos, games, photos ...).

Well-being could be conceived as a *key* for inclusion because social inclusion constructed through these issues and practices can act as a deterrent to early pregnancies (in which girls are exposed), school drop out, drug use, involvement in criminal acts and instead promote integrated pathways for the construction of identity and of their future as protagonists.

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