

PERSPECTIVES ON YOUTH

Young people in a digitalised world



Volume 4

Youth Partnership

Partnership between the European Commission
and the Council of Europe in the field of Youth



EUROPEAN UNION

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Contents

EDITORIAL	5
<i>Matina Magkou, Reinhard Schwalbach and Bram Spruyt</i>	
1. THE TRANSFORMATION OF YOUNG PEOPLE'S ONLINE AND OFFLINE LEISURE TIME, SPACES AND MEDIA USE IN HUNGARY	9
<i>Ádám Nagy and Anna Fazekas</i>	
2. LEADING ENTREPRENEURIAL YOUTH – LEADERSHIP AND ENTREPRENEURIAL SKILLS FOR SHAPING THE MARKETS AND THE JOBS LANDSCAPE IN A MOBILE AND COLLABORATIVE ECONOMY IN GREECE	29
<i>Betty Tsakarestou, Lida Tsene, Dimitra Iordanoglou, Konstantinos Ioannidis and Maria Briana</i>	
3. DIGITAL AND MOBILE TOOLS AND TIPS FOR YOUTH EPARTICIPATION	45
<i>Evaldas Rupkus and Kerstin Franzl</i>	
4. OPEN YOUTH PARTICIPATION – A KEY TO GOOD GOVERNANCE IN THE 21ST CENTURY	55
<i>Daniel Poli and Jochen Butt-Pošnik</i>	
5. MOROCCO – DIGITAL AND SOCIAL MEDIA PROMOTE YOUTH CITIZEN ENGAGEMENT IN DEMOCRACY	67
<i>Karima Rhanem</i>	
6. ONLINE COMMUNICATION TOOLS LEADING TO LEARNING, IDENTITY AND CITIZENSHIP FOR DIGITAL NATIVES	71
<i>Adina Marina Călăfăteanu</i>	
7. TOWARDS DIGITAL LITERACY FOR THE ACTIVE PARTICIPATION AND ENGAGEMENT OF YOUNG PEOPLE IN A DIGITAL WORLD	77
<i>Nuala Connolly and Claire McGuinness</i>	
8. REFLECTIONS ON THE START OF THE NO HATE SPEECH MOVEMENT	93
<i>Antonia Wulff</i>	
LIST OF CONTRIBUTORS	105
ABOUT THE EDITORIAL TEAM	111
ABSTRACTS	113

Editorial

Matina Magkou, Reinhard Schwalbach and Bram Spruyt

The *Perspectives on youth* series aims to function as a forum for information, discussion, reflection and dialogue on European developments in the field of youth policy, youth research and youth work.

Following this principle, for the fourth issue of *Perspectives on youth*, we took a conscious decision to link the publication with the Symposium on Youth Participation in a Digitalised World, a major event of the partnership between the European Commission and the Council of Europe in the field of youth, which took place at the European Youth Centre in Budapest from 14 to 16 September 2015. It was rather a deliberate choice to maximise the impact of the Symposium and the publication in order to give further life to discussions that started with the Symposium as a framework and to invite more people to reflect on the results.

The call for papers invited interested authors to submit proposals touching upon these axes and relate their arguments to one or more of the key messages of the Symposium. The questions we wanted to tackle were:

- ▶ What is the role and/or form of digital participation in the creation and implementation of a holistic participation agenda for active citizenship among youth?
- ▶ How can we work towards blended teaching and learning approaches based on participatory principles that incorporate new instruments and educational tools (for example digital tools)?
- ▶ How can the transition of young people to the labour market be supported for increased, better employment and democratic participation in the economy? What are the skills needed for future jobs? How can we support quality jobs and entrepreneurship initiatives in the digital era?
- ▶ What approaches, policy efforts or initiatives are taken or should be enhanced to empower and protect young people in the digital era?
- ▶ How can marginalised and excluded groups of young people be part of the digital era? How can digitalisation help societies become more inclusive regarding vulnerable groups? What challenges and barriers remain?
- ▶ What is the role of youth work and youth workers as “connectors” and mediators between digital resources, stakeholders and young people?

In attempting to answer the questions above, the authors of the following chapters contribute to building knowledge and/or raising further questions with regard to youth participation in a digitalised world. From different corners of Europe (and beyond) they share with us findings from research, practitioners’ experiences and policy recommendations.

Digitalisation and new media create new opportunities for leisure-time consumption. Typically, this raises questions regarding the relationship between online and offline forms of activity. Does online activity reduce possibilities for offline activity? Or does one type of activity generate spillover effects regarding the other? The chapter “The transformation of young people’s online and offline leisure time, spaces and media use in Hungary”, by Ádám Nagy and Anna Fazekas, addresses these questions from a generational perspective. Building on the work of Mannheim and Prensky it focuses on the leisure-time consumption of so-called “digital natives”. The chapter presents empirical findings of youth research undertaken in Hungary that demonstrate a shift from spending time at shopping malls, typical of Generation Y, to the screen-intensive activities of Generation Z. The findings show how electronic media has become increasingly important in young people’s non-institutionalised leisure time and consider differences in usage between the generations, along with social and emotional backgrounds.

Touching on the topic of the economic sphere and working life Betty Tsakarestou, Lida Tsene, Dimitra Iordanoglou, Konstantinos Ioannidis and Maria Briana discuss the findings of research conducted in Greece focusing on the skills of young leaders in the context of a mobile and entrepreneurial culture. In the chapter “Leading entrepreneurial youth – Leadership and entrepreneurial skills for shaping the markets and the jobs landscape in a mobile and collaborative economy”, the authors compare their findings with similar research undertaken in other European countries and make recommendations for skills development to address this situation.

Including the voice of practitioners has always been an aim of the *Perspectives on youth* series. In their chapter “Digital and mobile tools and tips for youth eParticipation” Evaldas Rupkus and Kerstin Franzl present the rationale and initial processes behind the project EUth – Tools and Tips for Mobile and Digital Youth Participation in and across Europe, which aims to create a digital and mobile eParticipation toolbox and provide support for those willing to initiate eParticipation processes. The chapter describes what the project offers through its digital online platform OPIN and how one can develop an eParticipation project using this platform.

Daniel Poli and Jochen Butt-Pośnik, in their chapter “Open youth participation – A key to good governance in the 21st century”, take stock of the experience gained through two multilateral co-operation projects to address the issue of open participation. More specifically, they make reference to the project Youthpart, wherein European guidelines were developed for the successful eParticipation of young people and the project Participation of Young People in the Democratic Europe, which focused on the new forms of and forums for participation. Based on these experiences, the authors reflect on what components a “holistic participation agenda” should include.

Social media and the internet offer an avenue of opportunities that young people take up eagerly (as in the Arab Spring and other social movements around the world), although it is not always one paved with roses. The chapter by Karima Rhanem, “Morocco – Digital and social media promote youth citizen engagement in democracy” traces what happened after the Arab Spring in regard to how young Moroccan activists and civil society actors explored the internet and social networking to

mobilise, debate and advocate for change. The chapter also explores to what extent these initiatives have influenced policies and raises questions about the ethics of social media use and issues of trust.

For this issue, we invited two people who had a significant role in the Symposium to be part of the editorial team. Manfred Zentner and Adina Marina Călăfăteanu were part of the preparatory team and had written two of the analytical papers that provided knowledge of the Symposium's thematic areas. They reviewed some chapters and provided comments on how to improve them as well as how the conclusions of the Symposium resonated with them.

Adina Marina Călăfăteanu's contribution "Online communication tools leading to learning, identity and citizenship for digital natives" is based on the analytical paper she wrote for the Symposium's thematic area of communication. She approaches the topic by examining the role that identity, citizenship and learning play in shaping the preference of "digital natives" in using non-traditional communication tools and underlines that this needs to be taken into consideration when designing youth policies and engagement strategies for young people.

Going a step further in the discussion regarding education, learning and skills in a digitalised world, Nuala Connolly and Claire McGuinness, in their chapter "Towards digital literacy for the active participation and engagement of young people in a digitalised world", claim that the original digital divide of physical access to the internet has evolved into a skills divide. They describe the components of and need for meaningful digital literacy education and reflect on the situation around Europe in both formal and informal settings, while highlighting recommendations for policy and practice.

On the one hand, digital literacy allows one to express opinions, share ideas and quickly organise a large number of like-minded people. On the other hand, it carries the risk of online hate speech, bullying and other sorts of crime. We could not close this issue of *Perspectives on youth* without referring to the No Hate Speech Movement, a flagship campaign of the Council of Europe. Editorial team member Antonia Wulff reflects on the initial stages of the conception of the No Hate Speech Movement, which took place when she was still President of the Advisory Council for Youth (2009-11). The rise of the extreme right, hateful online spaces and discussions and the wish to challenge the view of young people as just victims while exploring new ways of working with and supporting them were the driving factors behind conceptualising the No Hate Speech Movement, endorsed by the Joint Council on Youth and officially launched by the Council of Europe in 2013. Menno Etemma, No Hate Speech Movement co-ordinator on behalf of the Council of Europe, provides a perspective on the campaign, how it relates to the core values and programmes of the Council of Europe, and how to get involved.

Besides Antonia's and Menno's perspectives, we wanted to see how the campaign has been experienced in different countries around Europe. Therefore we asked Manu Mainil from Belgium, Ivett Karvalits from Hungary, Anne Walsh from Ireland and Aleksandra Knežević from Serbia – all campaign co-ordinators in their respective countries – to answer questions on the campaign's importance, national outcomes and challenges in implementation.

All in all, the contributions in this issue of *Perspectives on youth* illustrate nicely how the digitalisation of contemporary European societies offers opportunities and poses considerable challenges. While, for example, digitalisation removes formal barriers in terms of time and space, it also increases the risk of self-exclusion and the further homogenisation of social networks. In this way digitalisation bears the potential to both reduce and reinforce existing social inequalities. Similarly, new media and digital techniques allow for different and more accessible forms of learning and participation and provide a stepping stone for those groups that have traditionally faced difficulties in finding opportunities to learn and participate. However, more pessimistic interpretations suggest that new media can contribute to personal isolation and prejudices, reinforcing disillusionment and culminating in a loss of social capital. More examples are offered in the following contributions, but the main message seems to be clear: technical innovations such as digitalisation trends are not intrinsically good or bad. It is what we do with them that really matters.

In conclusion, we want to recognise the important contribution of Hanjo Schild in the making of *Perspectives on youth*. Hanjo is leaving the Partnership as these words are being written. An enormous thank you goes to him for his engagement, dedication to youth causes, knowledge of the field and warm heart. Hanjo, you are one of a kind and will definitely be missed.

Chapter 1

The transformation of young people's online and offline leisure time, spaces and media use in Hungary¹

Ádám Nagy and Anna Fazekas

INTRODUCTION

An age group can be considered to be a generation if it is characterised by some common immanent quality, generation knowledge and community feature, and three conditions are necessary for this: common experience; an actual orientation to each other of its members; and a shared interpretation of their situation, attitudes and forms of action (Mannheim 1978). Prensky has interpreted belonging to such an age group in relation to the information society (2001). We consider the development of Prensky's digital natives-digital immigrants model and incorporate it into the Strauss-Howe model (1991), according to which generation change in Mannheim's sense takes place in society roughly every 15 to 20 years. Through a theory of socialisation (Nagy 2013b), leisure time and media is seen to play the same role in post-modern society as school socialisation did in modern society and the family did in the pre-modern era. Thus, from the data on youth leisure time we can try to draw a picture of today's young (Y and Z) generations through their activities and media usage in this regard, confirming the differences between generations. We make use of Hungarian data here, because it derives from large-scale youth research conducted every four years and has been running for one and a half decades (Ifjúság 2000; Ifjúság 2004; Ifjúság 2008; Magyar Ifjúság 2012). This provides an overview of an 8 000-person sample that is representative of age, gender and settlement type in relation to the life situations and way of life of Hungarian youth.

1. This article is supported by a Bolyai Research Fellowship (Hungary).

YOUNG PEOPLE IN SOCIETY: XYZ GENERATIONS

Since the proliferation of information and communication technologies (ICTs), the world of young people has become quite distinct from that of young people from earlier eras. Their time structuring, family, education and labour market status has been transformed; they construct their free time differently and use it for different purposes and have different information-gathering and communication strategies. Their concepts of relationships, community and entertainment have also been transformed. One of the major problems of the information society era is how the generations born into the digital age transform their “knowledge society” and how they are influenced by it (Rab, Székely and Nagy 2008).

According to Mannheim (1978), an age group can be considered to be a generation if it is characterised by some common immanent quality, generation knowledge and community feature, and three conditions are necessary for this: common experience; an actual orientation to each other of its members; and a shared interpretation of their situation, attitudes and forms of action. Mannheim locates generational logic in parallel with the concept of class (i.e. a person does not enter a class but is born to it, and does not step out of it intentionally, only doing so if his/her status changes). This certainly does not mean that in case of the validity of generation logic all members of the age group show specific characteristics, but that a generational pattern exists.

Although the concept and classification of a generation is controversial, the present chapter does not analyse and evaluate their theoretical soundness. It presents the orientations of the different age groups, built on generational logic.²

According to Strauss and Howe’s model (1991), generation change in Mannheim’s sense is cyclical, taking place in society roughly in every 15 to 20 years. Prensky (2001) also interpreted in the generational dimension the relationship with the information society. We reflect on and discuss in this chapter the development³ (Székely 2014) of Prensky’s “digital natives-digital immigrants model” and incorporate it into the Strauss–Howe model.⁴

Generation X (digital immigrants, McDonald’s generation)

Forming the main body of today’s labour market, the members of Generation X were born in the second half of the 1960s and in the 1970s encountered the information technology (IT) toolbox at a young age; they were immersed, from the very start of their lives, in the digital world. They witnessed how computer technology developed

2. Defining the boundaries between generations by year of birth is rather arbitrary, since change in society is not so discrete. However, in this study, it is not the quantitative data that are important; they merely confirm the true essence, or the emerging reflection, of a generation.
3. In the original model, young people are called “digital natives” (digital natives, N-Gen, Net Generation), as opposed to the older generation of “digital immigrants”.
4. According to Strauss and Howe, the basis of the cyclical nature of these generations and their social characteristics is social structure and attitude changes, and four generation features can be identified in it.

into IT, then into the information society. During their lives, the internet has been more or less present. In the West, they have grown up under the impact of electronic media. Its central and eastern European members may have grown up under state socialism, but during its final, liberalising phase.

Generation Y (digital natives)

The members of the age group born in the '80s and '90s encountered the internet in their childhood; as digital natives, they are confident in the management of tools and in orientating themselves in network space; the digital universe is their natural medium; their web/internet identity is consciously formed. They are characterised by strong media dependence, and they respond quickly to technological changes. This age group is the generation of the information society, as its members naturally started to use ICTs in their childhood. Their social relations are taking place at the same time in real and virtual life; with the usage of mobile phones and the internet, their place dependence is much less than that of previous generations. Generation Y differs in many ways from previous generations: its members are receptive to cultural content; are attracted to group activities and to community space; are performance-oriented, confident and highly qualified (for most, school and good school performance is important). They receive information quickly; they prefer image and sound rather than text; they prefer random contacts (hypertext); they strive for the immediate and frequent satisfaction of their needs; they prefer games instead of "serious" work; and they consider technology a necessary companion (Prensky 2001). Members of this generation are moving with global trends, and are among the first to master the use of new technical devices, sometimes even changing the educational direction; they feel at ease in the digital world: "The Hungarian Generation Y practically caught up with the delays that were common before. Generation Y grew up from being children to being young people after the change of regime; this generation got acquainted with computers and the internet, if not at home, then surely at school" (Székely 2014).⁵

Generation Z (the Facebook generation)

Members of Generation Z were born at the turn of the millennium and after the year 2000. When they lost their "computer virginity", they discovered Web 2.0⁶ and the entire social networking space; they do not know what life is like without the

5. In Hungary, most identify with their parents' values, too (Nagy and Tibori 2016).

6. The term Web 2.0 refers to such second-generation internet services that are mainly based on the activity of online communities, and more precisely on the content generated and shared by users. The importance of Web 2.0 applications lies mainly in the fact that content becomes important, as opposed to technology. The characteristic of Generation Y services was that their content could be read, listened to and viewed by users online – similar to conventional, one-way media – and had fewer creators (while Generation X content did not exist in digital space). By contrast, the essence of Web 2.0 is that the content is created and shared by the users themselves. A good example is the open-source Wikipedia, editable by anyone, as opposed to Encyclopaedia Britannica online (Generation Y), and even (Generation X) offline versions of classical lexicons, or torrent sites (Rab, Székely and Nagy 2007).

internet (or mobile phones); their primary communication tool is no longer e-mail but the social network. This generation is not only characterised by networking behaviour, the use of the internet as a digital socialisation channel, and information consumption, but also provides information services through platforms like YouTube, Facebook, Twitter and torrent sites. Their device management is a basic skill; they are characterised by multitasking and parallel actions (writing blogs, listening to music and following e-mail and social network turnover); and they make quick decisions. Generation Z not only embraces ICTs and their associated content, it adapts them to its own needs for everyday life; practically speaking, it is not stationary. At the same time, members “consume” via multiple channels (multitasking); their combined consumption exceeds the quantity “physically” available to one person; and most do not have any reflective awareness of the legal and institutional environment of their typical and regular internet use (for example downloads, exchange of files). In addition, changes in the world not only influence the rational part of their psyche but fundamentally influence their emotional lives, too. Many of them “pour out” their emotional tension without having a cathartic experience (see the term “emotional incontinence”, an expectation that “other people should diaper us emotionally”, coined by Tari in 2010). So we experience our own feelings through them (we can think of one part of the blogosphere and thousands of comments, but also of certain identity situations, relationship aspects or the world of work). As regards Hungary, the former difference between generations – between the West and Hungary – has disappeared; and a sense of global youth culture is developing, as innovations typically appear on the Hungarian market with a few months’ delay.

Alpha-generation

This refers to those born in 2010 and thereafter, although we do not know yet if they will be distinct from Generation Z, and can be characterised as an autonomous generation in the Mannheimian sense.

In the remainder of this chapter we study the habits in media and leisure-time consumption of young Hungarian people. More specifically, we assess whether there are indeed generational differences. We rely on data from three waves of the Hungarian youth study, run every four years. Ifjúság 2000 can help us investigate Generation X, while Ifjúság 2004 allows us to investigate Generation Y. The unique situation of Generation Z is reflected by the fact that we could only represent a fraction of young people belonging to it.

Thus, Generation X consists of young people born between 1971 and 1980 (N = 5 726); Generation Y consists of those born between 1981 and 1989 (N = 4 254); and the sub-pattern for Generation Z was provided by those born between 1995 and 1997 (N = 1 368).⁷ As members of Generation X no longer belong to the category

7. The different questions posed in the three surveys raise the problem of limited comparability. We have tried to minimise this risk throughout the analysis. The totally different response options (following different interviewing logics) were therefore not compared; the conclusions’ focus on the orientation of habits and preferences were taken into account, rather than the specific differences. However,

of young people, we focus in the empirical analysis mainly on Generations Y and Z. Based on the available data, we studied the media consumption and characteristics of leisure-time preferences of young people of these two generations. Against this background, we addressed the question of whether and how offline leisure-time consumption became less important for Generation Z and to what extent the media, or more precisely the online world, took control of their leisure time. When answering this question we include information from the broader European context by discussing three thematic Eurobarometer publications (Eurobarometer 2003, 2013, 2015). These Eurobarometer data enabled us to compare changes across more than a decade, namely the results of 2002 and 2014, and to study short-term changes in media and leisure-time consumption of young people (based on data from the 2012 and 2014 queries).

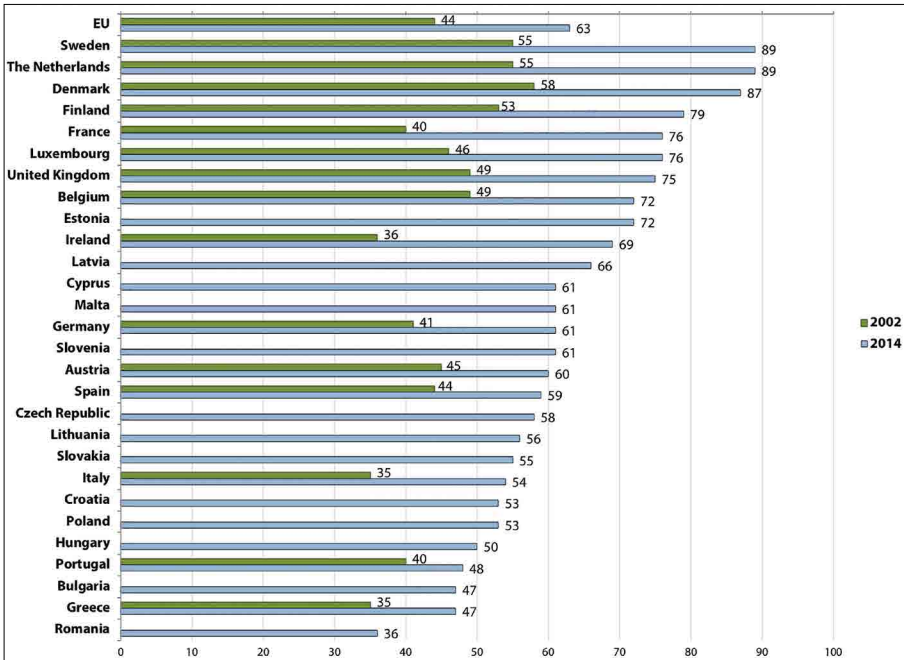
ALTERING LEISURE TIME: ONLINE CONSUMPTION IN THE EUROPEAN UNION

In 2014, 63% of the EU population used the internet daily or almost on a daily basis; this number was 19 percentage points lower in 2002 (Eurobarometer 2003, 2015) (Figure 1).⁸ In 2002, Denmark, the Netherlands and Sweden were at the forefront in this area, while in 2014, European internet use was highest in Sweden and the Netherlands. In contrast, in 2002 Greece, Italy and Ireland had the lowest internet penetration. In 2014, internet use was least common in Romania, with only a third of the population visiting a virtual space at least once a day. During the 12-year observation period, France has made the greatest progress: the number of daily internet users increased by 36 percentage points between 2002 and 2014. A similar, albeit somewhat less pronounced, evolution characterised the Netherlands, Sweden and Ireland. In contrast, Portugal experienced a minimal increase (about 8 percentage points) with respect to the use of the online space.

the longitudinal studies – even if they followed a different age-group breakdown – basically allow follow-up of the transformation of leisure habits, and the aim of this chapter was just to explore this. The numbers making up the sub-samples created for the imaging of the three generations vary considerably, particularly for Generation Z, and thus do not really allow for reliable comparison. However, the tendencies and differences in the strong generational consumer and leisure-time habits are outlined in this form as well. The practical limitations of age determination were provided by the patterns of individual data collection. For Generations X and Y, the age-based categorisation we used made relatively wide age limits possible, but for Generation Z (sample 2012) the size of sub-samples was reduced by only three years (born between 1995 and 1997). The reason for this is that, at the time of the survey in 2012, only a fraction of Generation Z were questioned (these are young people born after 1995); the limits imposed by the original sampling meant that only this narrow age group could be assigned, and the comparison with two other generation sub-samples (Generations X and Y) made. A deeper, more detailed analysis of Generation Z will be made possible by the next cycle of youth surveys in Hungary.

8. While in 2002 the EU average was calculated based on the data of 15 member states, for the 2014 data this average was based on 28 countries.

Figure 1: Changes in daily or almost daily internet use in EU member states, 2002-14 (% among people older than 15)

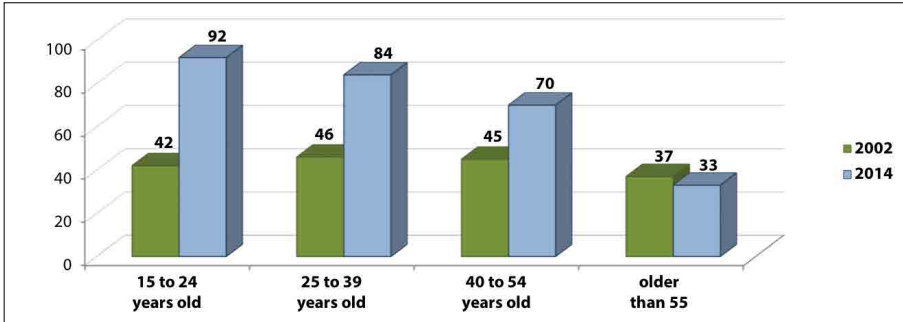


Source: Eurobarometer 2003, 2015

If we focus on the internet use of young citizens living in the EU, we find a 50 percentage-point increase in daily internet users during the 12-year period of observation. Indeed, whereas in 2002 only about 42% of 15- to 24-year-olds used the internet on a daily basis, this number rose to 92% in 2014 (Eurobarometer 2003, 2015). Because older age groups did not experience a similar increase in their internet use, the 12-year period saw also the growth of an age gap in terms of internet use. Whereas in 2002 age differences were very small, in 2014 daily internet use of the youngest cohort was about 60 percentage points higher when compared with the oldest (55+) cohort (Figure 2).⁹

9. In addition to age, the level of education also correlates with the frequency of internet use (Eurobarometer 2003, 2015). The rate of those using the internet daily is highest among those who finished their studies after the age of 20 (2002: 52%; 2014: 83%) and those who are still in education at the time of the survey (2002: n.a.; 2014: 95%). The lowest internet use is found among people who have a maximum of a primary level of education (completing their studies before the age of 15) (2002: 33%; 2014: 23%).

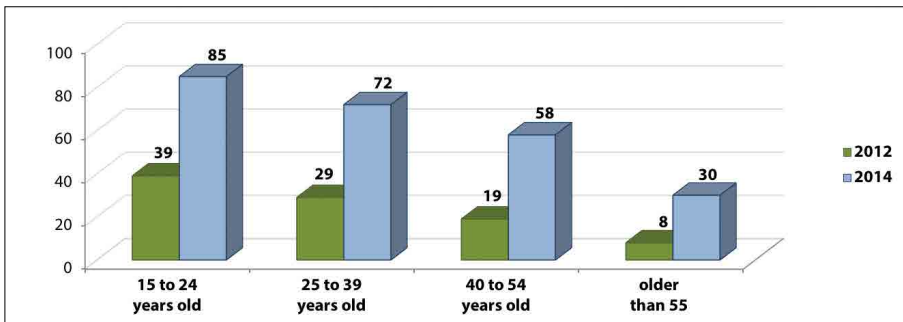
Figure 2: Changes in daily or almost daily internet use in the EU by age group, 2002-14 (% among people older than 15)



Source: Eurobarometer 2003, 2015

Recent studies have also identified more short-term trends. Europeans in the EU increasingly use the internet outside home. Whereas in 2012 about 80% of internet use took place at home (Eurobarometer 2012), this percentage decreased to 74% by 2014 (Eurobarometer 2015). This change is mainly due to the increased popularity of portable devices combined with the development and availability of Wi-Fi systems in public places. While desktops and laptops remain by far the devices most used to access the internet (92% of Europeans using the internet relied on a desktop or laptop in 2014), about 61% of Europeans entered virtual space by means of a smartphone, while 30% used a tablet. In 2012, only 6% of people living in the EU used a tablet, and 24% used smartphones (Eurobarometer 2013). We also find a clear age gap. No age differences are found between desktop and laptop use, but the age differences in accessing the internet by means of smartphones or tablets are substantial (Eurobarometer 2013, 2015), particularly with the former (Figure 3).

Figure 3: Changes in use of the internet on smartphones in the EU by age group, 2012-14 (% among people older than 15)

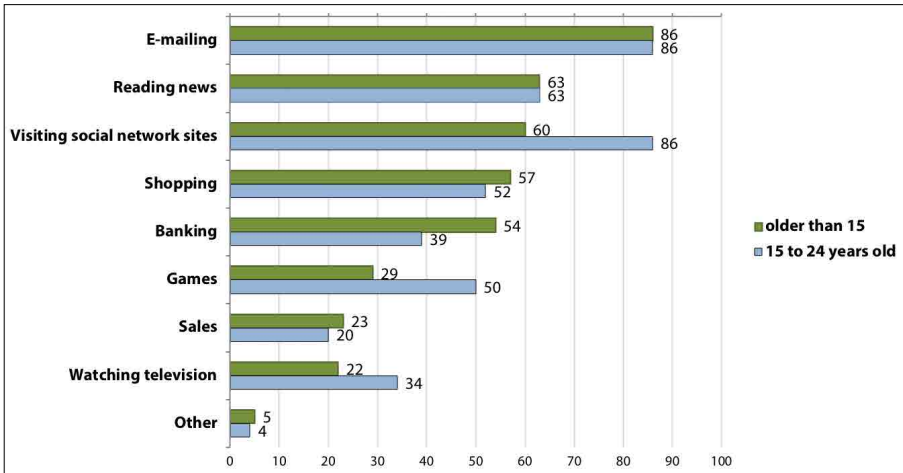


Source: Eurobarometer 2013, 2015

The most popular online activities are exchanging e-mails and reading news, closely followed by visiting social network sites and online shopping (Eurobarometer 2015) (Figure 4). Over half use online banking, but gaming engages the attention of only 3 out of 10 users. The least frequently practised online activities are online shopping and watching TV. When it comes to young people, virtual space is predominantly

used for communication purposes: e-mailing and visiting social network sites are the most common online activities. In addition, collecting information, online gaming and shopping are also frequently performed activities in cyberspace. The age gap is most pronounced for visiting social network sites, watching television and gaming (more popular among young people) and banking (more popular among older respondents).

Figure 4: Popularity of online activities in the EU, 2014 (% among people older than 15 and young people/15 to 24 years old)



Source: Eurobarometer 2015

THE LEISURE-TIME HABITS OF GENERATION X YOUTH IN HUNGARY¹⁰

Regarding the leisure time of the formerly young people of Generation X we can say, first, that they are dominated by offline activities. This is primarily due to the fact that in 2000, only 8% of the families of young people had internet access at home (Ifjúság 2000). At that time, one third (34%) of Hungarians who belonged to

10. The limitation of using sub-samples representing specific generations is that this presents the lifestyle habits and leisure preferences of certain groups of young people at different stages in the life cycle. From this perspective, Generation Y provides the optimal sub-sample, as besides teenagers, young adults in their early 20s are also included. In contrast, the sub-sample provided by the 2012 survey of Generation Z only includes teenagers, while the Generation X sub-sample includes only young adults. However, it is important to note that mere age-based categorisation does not provide an accurate description of young people's biological, psychological and social maturity (see Nagy and Tibori 2016; Nagy 2013a). Thus, if the validity of our methodology of using different age groups is disputed from this point of view, we should see that the sub-samples examining single age groups may reveal generational differences in the generations (on the spread of the post-adolescence phenomenon see Nagy and Tibori 2016). It is further noted that several other comparisons can provide relevant answers, but those either cannot be examined because of the special features of the questionnaires, or they do not really provide a characteristic pattern (e.g. the media consumption of those 20 years of age and over, respectively, differ only in less important categories).

Generation X believed that neither they nor their families needed the World Wide Web, irrespective of whether the household had a computer or not. When the members of Generation X were young, they used the computer mostly at home (30%) or at the school/workplace (37%); the options provided by public spaces were only an alternative for a few people (3%). People who did not have a computer justified the lack in terms of costs: 65% did not have internet access because of the high subscription fees. More generally, the number of consumer devices was quite low. Only 32% of Generation X youngsters had their own TVs, and only 34% of them had their own mobile phones. While there was a TV in 95% of the families of young people, mobile devices could be found only in half of the families.

Moreover, only 5% of the young people of Generation X were in the best position (referring to the ownership of audiovisual/digital devices), because they had their own televisions, owned mobile phones and had home internet access at the turn of the millennium. The proportion of those having their own mobile phones and colour television was 13% (there are only two variables here).¹¹ The possession of media assets was strongly correlated with financial situation: those with a better financial situation were three times more likely to own mobile phones and colour televisions when compared to their poorer peers. At the turn of the millennium, young people belonging to Generation X spent most of their free time at cinemas and bookstores (Table 1). They also regularly visited libraries, cultural institutions and museums and attended concerts. In contrast, only half of the age group attended clubs or dance parties, and the citadels of high culture (theatre, concerts) fell almost entirely outside the sphere of young people’s recreational spaces.

Table 1: Time since last visit to recreational spaces in 2000 (20- to 29-year-olds; N = 5 534 to 5 691; %)

	Less than 2 months	4-6 months ¹²	More than 6 months	Never visited
Bookstores	50	14	31	5
Cinemas	44	15	40	1
Discos	34	11	46	9
Balls, parties	30	16	44	10
Cultural institutions	29	13	49	9
Libraries	28	9	56	7
Museums	20	14	59	7
Music concerts	17	14	53	16
Theatres	12	13	64	11
Concerts	5	4	46	45

Source: Ifjúság 2000

11. The question was initially “Do you own a colour TV?”; later, it was simply “Do you have a TV set?” The distinction between colour and black-and-white TV was no longer relevant.
12. The survey questions did not include a “2-4 months” category.

Among leisure-time activities, reading newspapers, listening to the radio and watching TV were the most prevalent. Newspapers appeared to be more popular than books: the former were read by 74% (several times a week) of young people belonging to Generation X, while the latter were read regularly by 22%.¹³ It is important to note, however, that 7% of the youth of Generation X did not read newspapers at all and 8% did not read books. Listening to the radio on weekdays was more popular than watching television: on average they spent roughly 2.5 hours a week listening to the radio (151 minutes on average), and about the same time during the weekend (153 minutes on average). Watching television on weekdays (133 minutes on average) was less important compared to the weekends (205 minutes on average).

THE LEISURE-TIME HABITS OF GENERATION Y YOUTH IN HUNGARY: A DOMINANCE OF OFFLINE ACTIVITIES

In 2004, 55% of Generation Y youth had up to three hours of free time; 39% had four to eight hours of free time after having fulfilled their obligations. In contrast, young people had more free time during the weekend: 42% had half a day at their disposal, and 29% had no obligations at all. As for recreational spaces, spending time at home was the most popular activity (Table 2). On weekdays and during the weekends, the youth of Generation Y spent their free time mostly at home. During the weekend, however, going out was more common. The same applies to meeting friends and relatives, visiting clubs and going on trips.¹⁴

Table 2: Most popular¹⁵ recreation spaces in 2004 (15- to 23-year-olds; N = 4 213 weekdays, N = 4 215 weekends; %)

	Weekdays	Weekend
Home	71	56
Friends' places	30	42
Street	6	5
Sports grounds	6	4
Relatives	3	8
Clubs	3	12
Outdoors	3	7
Cultural institutions	1	1
Cinemas	1	2
Shopping malls	0	0

Source: Ifjúság 2004

13. Objective response options, referring to the quantifying of frequency (e.g. 15 minutes per weekdays or 27 minutes per weekend), were not included in this question.
14. The causes of this phenomenon may be diverse (e.g. they are forced to stay at home). Unfortunately, our data provide no information on these causes.
15. The question was asked in an open format. Young people could name the two most visited recreation spaces. Thus, it is possible that the frequency of certain response options yields an overall result higher than 100%.

As far as activities are concerned, watching television took up a considerable amount of free time. On weekdays, Generation Y youth spent an average of 2.5 hours (139 minutes) watching television. During the weekends this increased to almost 4 hours (226 minutes). Subjective financial status was important for two reasons¹⁶ (Table 3). First, people living in a financially more comfortable situation watched much less television than people who lived in an economically deprived situation. On weekdays and during the weekends, young people facing regular financial problems spent approximately 40 minutes more watching television than their peers in the most stable financial position. However, it is also obvious that the television consumption of those living in the most precarious situations was very low.

Table 3: Average amount of time spent on television, by subjective financial status, in 2004 (15- to 23-year-olds; N = 4 138; p ≤ 0.001; minutes)

	Weekdays	Weekend
Live without problems	128	217
They get along well with their income by budgeting	133	221
They hardly get along with their income	147	229
They have financial problems month after month	166	259
Live in deprivation	140	202

Source: Ifjúság 2004

With respect to computer use, only 12% of this age group did not use the internet. Only one fifth (22%) used the internet on a daily basis, while a quarter used it several times a week (24%). Using the internet was basically considered to be an activity that varied by financial situation, in 2004. Against that background it is not surprising that status perception was strongly related to young people’s internet use (Table 4). Among those people living in a secure financial situation the proportion of frequent internet users was three times higher than among those living in a precarious situation. In 2004, one out of three 15- to 23-year-olds living in an economically deprived family did not use the internet at all and just one fifth spent time on the internet several times a week.¹⁷

16. Based on the data analysis, we found that the most significant differences can be detected on the basis of subjective financial status. Therefore, the analysis of correlations with other variables (e.g. gender, type of settlement) falls beyond the scope of this chapter. Subjective financial status is measured on a five-point, self-reporting scale. Obviously, this question has different meanings for adolescents and young adults.
17. Residence clearly influenced internet consumption habits among Generation Y youth. Those living in the capital Budapest recorded a significant advantage in this area in 2004; two thirds were regular internet users, compared to just a third of those living in villages (for the entire 15 to 23 age group the figure is 47%). The type of settlement is not strongly related to differences in access, in terms of those not using the internet at all; we cannot see a significant difference in relation to the size of the settlement. About 6% of young people living in the capital, and about 16% of those living in villages, stated that they did not use the internet at all in 2004 (for the entire 15 to 23 age group it is 12%).

Table 4: Frequency of internet use, by subjective financial status, in 2004 (15- to 23-year-olds; N = 3 301; $p \leq 0.001$; minutes)

	Several times a week	Less often	Never
Live without problems	58	35	7
They get along well with their income by budgeting	48	42	10
They hardly get along with their income	42	42	15
They have financial problems month after month	35	48	17
Live in deprivation	21	45	35

Source: Ifjúság 2004

THE LEISURE-TIME HABITS OF GENERATION Z IN HUNGARY: DOMINATION OF ONLINE ACTIVITIES?

The young people of Generation Z have about 3.4 hours of spare time on weekdays. During the weekends this equals 9.2 hours. A glance at how this time is spent makes it clear that simply staying at home remains important throughout the week (Table 5). This observation may be explained by the fact that home is where people have access to mediated tools (for example multiplayer games, consoles). Time spent outside of the home and active forms of leisure are less important, which is indicated by the fact that while young members of Generation Y prefer to leave the house on the weekend, Generation Z prefers to stay indoors on Saturdays and Sundays.

Table 5: Most popular¹⁸ recreation spaces in 2012 (15- to 17-year-olds; N = 1 301 weekdays, N = 1 344 weekends; %)

	Weekdays	Weekend
Home	85	76
Friends' places	45	62
Sports grounds	6	7
Relatives	4	8
Outdoors	4	5
Street	3	2
Shopping malls	2	2
Cultural institutions	1	3
Cinemas	0	1
Pubs	0	1

Source: Magyar Ifjúság 2012

18. The question was asked in an open format. Young people could provide (an unlimited number of) answers by naming the most visited recreation spaces. Thus, it is possible that the frequency of certain response options yields an overall result higher than 100%.

Spending time with friends is a more common activity during the weekend compared to weekdays. But it can also be seen that free time shared with peers is more important for the young people of Generation Z than for those of Generation Y (Table 5 and Table 2).

However, spending time on the street and in public spaces, including the world of shopping malls, attracts only a small fraction of the age group. The same applies to visiting pubs (Table 5).

One fifth of Generation Z spend most of their free time “doing nothing” (Table 6). A specific characteristic of this generation’s leisure-time consumption is the dominance of time spent watching TV and using the internet. The latter is more important when compared to watching TV: 6 out of 10 young people indicated internet use as the most popular form of leisure-time activity compared to 5 out of 10 who preferred watching television. Overall, however, these mediated forms of leisure-time consumption are much more important than offline activities such as doing sports, going on trips or reading. Even listening to music is a much less popular activity compared to using the internet or watching TV. Some caution, however, is warranted, as some of these activities can be done online. Unfortunately, the 2012 data do not allow separating online and offline forms of leisure-time activities, so we are not able to assess to what extent these activities are increasingly carried out online.

Table 6: Most popular¹⁹ leisure-time activities in 2012 (15- to 17-year-olds; N = 1 301 weekdays, N = 1 344 weekend; %)

	Weekdays	Weekend
Using the computer or the internet	61	62
Watching TV	49	52
Being with friends	39	57
Listening to music	26	30
Reading	23	23
Doing nothing	21	19
Doing sports	19	19
Playing with computer games	6	7
Creative hobby	4	5
Going on a trip	2	6

Source: Magyar Ifjúság 2012

In general, the amount of time spent watching television among people belonging to Generation Z is lower than in Generation Y youth, with the former spending on average 122 minutes watching TV on weekdays and 216 minutes during the weekend (Hack-Handa and Pintér 2015). This implies that television continues to be a key element of free time for the younger generation, but that its relative importance has decreased significantly. Our data strongly suggest that this is compensated by a much higher use of computers and the internet by Generation Z.

19. The question was asked in an open format. Young people could provide an answer by naming the two most visited recreation spaces. Thus, it is possible that the frequency of certain response options yields an overall result higher than 100%.

If Generation Y youth used computers and the internet on a non-daily basis, Generation Z uses them on average several hours a day. Indeed, Generation Z spends an average of 121 minutes in cyberspace on weekdays, and 214 minutes during the weekend. This is virtually the same amount of time they spend watching television.

These averages, however, conceal important social differences. Subjective financial status, for example, is clearly related to television consumption (Table 7). Both on weekdays and during the weekends, young people in the worst financial situation spend most of their time watching TV. Roughly speaking, we find a 50% to 60% difference in television consumption between young people in the best and worst economic situations. More difficult financial situations bring with them a decrease in cultural expenditure, as well as a lack of diverse experience in spending free time. An examination of the effect of subjective financial status on leisure-time preferences and activities indicates that economic status is significant in determining the choice of leisure-time uses (Fazekas 2014). After all, it is not only status management of the current situation but also future prospects that have a strong influence on the habits of young people in relation to leisure time. The worst financial situation is clearly associated with resignation, and a negative vision of the future is in favour of home leisure time as well as passive pastimes. In contrast, an economically secure situation goes with diversified leisure-time consumption. An optimistic perspective makes it more likely that one will be engaged in active pastimes, including those outside the home.

Table 7: Average amount of time spent watching television, by subjective financial status, in 2012 (15- to 17-year-olds; N = 1 200; p ≤ 0.001; minutes)

	Weekdays	Weekend
Live without problems	99	188
They get along well with their income by budgeting	105	193
They hardly get along with their income	130	220
They have financial problems month after month	152	271
Live in deprivation	158	286

Source: Magyar Ifjúság 2012

An examination of the relationship between young people’s internet use and their financial position clearly shows that financial difficulties reduce the amount of time spent on the internet (Table 8). Young people experiencing the living conditions of their families as secure spend (both on weekdays and during the weekend) nearly thrice the amount of time in cyberspace than their peers living in deprivation.

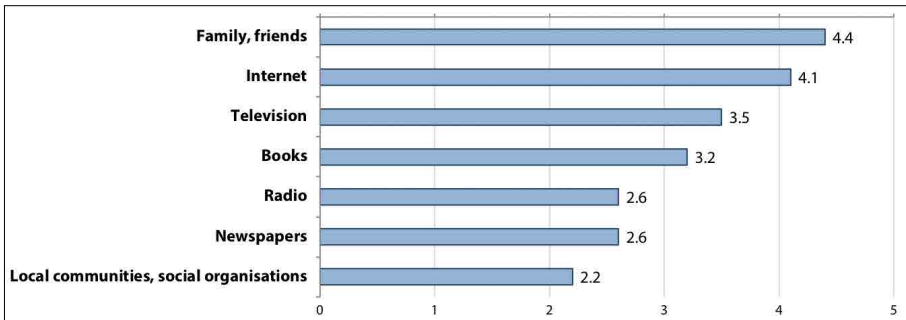
Table 8: Average amount of time spent on the internet, by subjective financial status, in 2012 (15- to 17-year-olds; N = 1 200; p ≤ 0.05; minutes)

	Weekdays	Weekend
Live without problems	147	294
They get along well with their income by budgeting	129	231
They hardly get along with their income	126	215
They have financial problems month after month	101	165
Live in deprivation	54	108

Source: Magyar Ifjúság 2012

Obviously, Generation Z is attracted by online space: 47% have a smartphone with internet access; 77% were members of a social network site in 2012; 74% considered the internet a very important source of information. Indeed, these young people considered the internet the second most important source of information (after family and friends, Figure 5). Although television has not lost its significance it is considered less important as a source of information compared to the internet. Traditional information channels like radio and newspapers play only a minor role in providing young people with information.

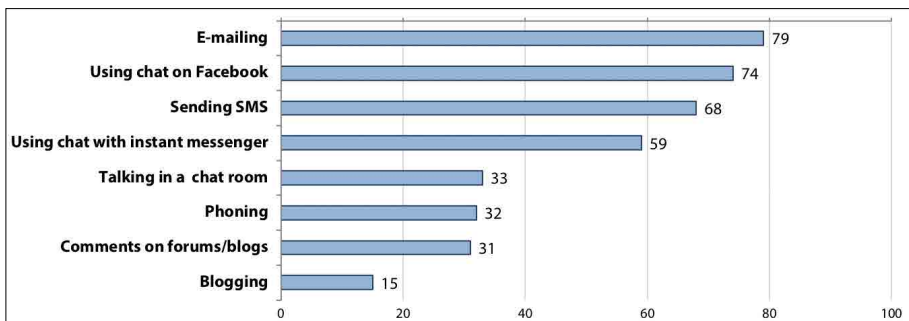
Figure 5: Importance of sources of information in 2012 (15- to 17-year-olds; N = 1 271 to 1 341; from 1 = not important at all, to 5 = full importance)



Source: Magyar Ifjúság 2012

Young people use virtual space mostly for communication purposes (Figure 6). Online mailing, chatting and the exchange of messages occupy a key role. People engage less in the world of blogs and online forums.

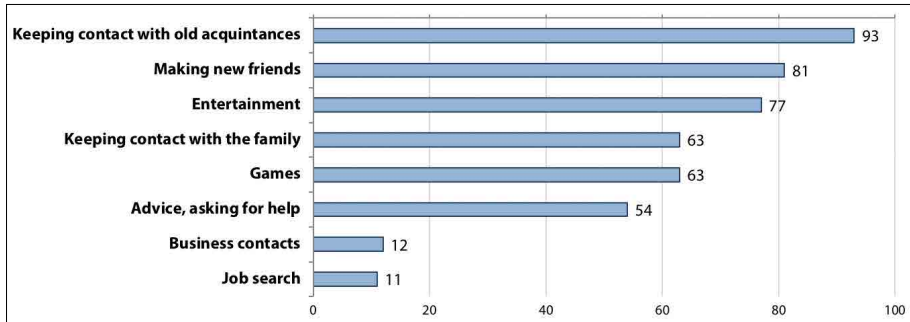
Figure 6: Importance of online forms of communication in 2012 (15- to 17-year-olds; N = 1 320 to 1 326; %)



Source: Magyar Ifjúság 2012

Generation Z uses social network sites primarily as a communication tool (Figure 7). Most visit these sites to keep in touch with old friends and acquaintances and make new friends. Besides this, entertainment, gaming and communicating with family were also important goals for using social network websites. Only about half used social network sites for counselling reasons, and 11% to 12% used them for work-related purposes.

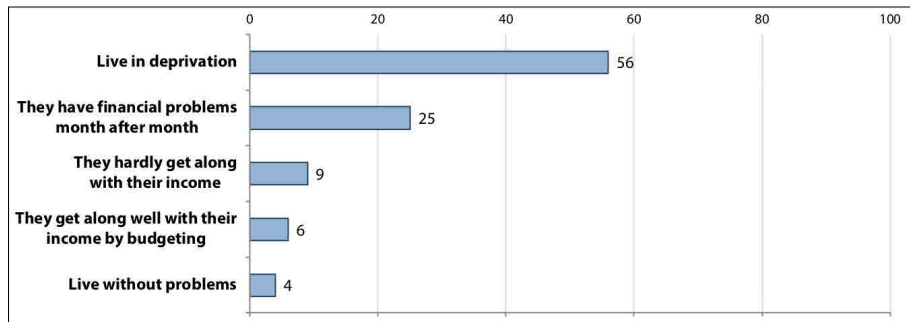
Figure 7: Aims in using social networking sites in 2012 (15- to 17-year-olds; N = 1 013 to 1 017; %)



Source: Magyar Ifjúság 2012

Against the background of the increasing availability of ICT tools, it is surprising to find that on average, about 12% of Generation Z does not use the internet at all. This average conceals a clear social gradient (Figure 8). Indeed, more than half of the young people who struggle with serious financial problems do not use the internet at all. Among those with a stable material situation this was just 4%. As a result, we can say that the World Wide Web (as well as the acquisition of skills necessary for using it) is not equally available to the members of Generation Z. Financial difficulties clearly go together with the partial or non-acquisition of digital skills and with a low degree of proficiency in cyberspace.

Figure 8: Ratio of young people who do not use the internet, by subjective financial status, in 2012 (15- to 17-year-olds; N = 1 204; $p \leq 0.000$; %)



Source: Magyar Ifjúság 2012

DISCUSSION

The internet has, to various degrees, become an integral part of everyday life for European citizens. This is especially true for young people who are also very receptive to innovations in virtual space. For young people, online tools and the internet provide many opportunities for keeping contact with friends and relatives. They use the internet primarily for communication. For the EU as a whole, Sweden and the Netherlands are the most active and most open towards online space. Citizens of

these countries reported the highest number of internet consumers both in 2002 and 2014. Moreover, the growth in the overall share of internet users between 2002 and 2014 was highest in these countries. These observations contrast with those found for central and eastern European countries.²⁰ In the latter, only 5 to 6 people (older than 15) out of 10 use the internet on a daily basis.

We found that there were generational differences in the Mannheimian sense in Hungary and it became clear that the consumption patterns of Generation X were more homogeneous compared to the two younger generations. For the young people of Generation X, online tool use was much less diverse and consumption was basically determined by access. Financial concerns dictated the forms and frequency of online space use and only a small amount of leisure time was spent online. In contrast, in the case of Generation Y youth, access was not really a major problem as the internet had been introduced into nearly every household. For Generation Z, virtual space and online activities are an integral part of their socialisation. In their case, the question is no longer whether to use the internet, but how, when and for what. Therefore, gathering detailed information concerning young people's online activities should occupy a central place in the next wave of youth research.

As with Generation Y, Generation Z spends a considerable part of its leisure time outside the home. While time spent in front of a computer screen is constantly growing, other cultural spaces remain closed to many; diverse leisure time is narrowing. Media consumption thematises the habits and activities of leisure time, and for a significant proportion of young people, idleness is the primary leisure-time activity (Table 6). The use of television and especially the internet, as determined by financial situation, draws attention to a major phenomenon. From the data in this chapter it is clear that labour market success, social inclusion, and digital literacy and the use of tools (providing space for equal access of knowledge) remains unattainable for some young Hungarians. Though a whole range of information and communication tools exists that can enable the fulfilment of these criteria, for disadvantaged young people, the minimal use of online tools does not result in, or only does so to some extent, their useful, conscious and knowledge-based use.

In terms of access to the tools of the information society, disadvantaged social groups are seen to be disadvantaged in other dimensions as well. Several studies have confirmed the recognition that digital inequality – the so-called digital gap – can be reproduced along traditional lines, and that these dimensions interact with each other:

Therefore, the existence of knowledge related to ICT tools, primarily the existence of knowledge needed for the use of computers and the internet, can directly affect the social status of the individual. Even if knowledge related to ICT tools does not provide an advantage, its lack can be a disadvantage in other dimensions such as the labour market (Székely and Urbán 2009: 21-2).

What also became apparent from our analysis, in addition to the fact that a growth in internet use supports social equality, is that the difference of the online-type

20. Based on data from the Eurobarometer report of 2015 (see Figure 1), in addition to Hungary, Romania, Poland, Croatia, Slovakia and the Czech Republic occupy a low ranking terms of internet use frequency.

consumption is significant: for young people who regularly experience financial problems there is much less opportunity to exploit the opportunities provided by online space than for their peers in a comfortable situation. And the dangers of the virtual world concern mostly those young people who are the least familiar with it: it is fair to say that in this regard we can speak about the most vulnerable group.

CONCLUSION

In this chapter, building on Mannheim's concept of generations, we attempted to distinguish the different age groups based on their leisure-time consumption and their use of ICTs. The results indicate that the "youth of camps" of previous years, by all indications, have morphed into "screenagers" – while revealing many new features about themselves as autonomous culture-creating generations. Data collected in 2004 already show that the vast majority of young people can basically be reached at home or at their friends' (Szabó and Bauer 2005). As Nagy (2013c: 226) concludes:

From the waves of previous large-scale youth research we can see that young people typically consider free time to be that time when they engage in some kind of passive activity, especially in their homes in a largely mediated environment (and much less activities that are active, authentic leisure-time activities). The 2012 data on Hungarian youth lifestyles also reinforce the conclusion that in non-institutionalised youth leisure time, electronic media is becoming increasingly important; in the beginning this was radio, then television, and today, it is the internet that takes up a large proportion of leisure time.

This also means that the sociological discourse discussed here is transformed into a youth drama: the spaces where young people are present, and the effective ways of addressing young people, are fundamentally different from those used in earlier times, and this has a fundamental impact on youth work, its approaches and methods.

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Ifjúság 2004 youth research database

Ifjúság 2008 youth research database

Magyar Ifjúság 2012 youth research database

Chapter 2

Leading entrepreneurial youth – Leadership and entrepreneurial skills for shaping the markets and the jobs landscape in a mobile and collaborative economy in Greece

Betty Tsakarestou, Lida Tsene, Dimitra Iordanoglou, Konstantinos Ioannidis and Maria Briana

We are living in an era where young people face everyday challenges deriving both from the global financial crisis and from digital technologies. On the one hand, the business environment is becoming more and more unstable, while on the other hand, digital and mobile culture offers a series of opportunities. In both cases, young people need to be equipped with an array of skills in order to adapt to the constantly changing landscape.

Our chapter discusses the findings of two studies, one self-funded and the other with EU support. Both were conducted in Greece, and focused on young leaders and their new characteristics and skills as described within the context of the emergence of mobile (Stald 2008) and entrepreneurial culture, as well as the collaborative trends of the sharing economy (Botsman and Rogers 2010). The questions we address explore awareness and attitudes regarding the use of mobile technologies in each of the following clearly segmented areas – consumption; gaming; work; start-ups and entrepreneurship; democracy and social/political activism – while investigating the association of Emotional Intelligence (EI) (Petrides and Furnham 2001) with emerging collaborative practices and culture. In addition, we attempt to map the new set of skills young leaders should develop within the digital economy landscape in terms of future employability as well as during economic crisis.

A mixed research methodology was employed with a sequential exploratory design (Creswell 2003). The initial phase of the study included quantitative data collection (a sample of 470 participants) and analysis. An online survey technique was preferred as the most appropriate to reach online users and examine attitudes and behaviours in the above-mentioned sectors of the digital environment.

In the qualitative stage, in-depth and semi-structured interviews were used, necessary to acquire elaborated and detailed responses (Gillham 2000). In addition, scaling questions with 41 leadership skills – identified by the literature review as the most important – were included in the discussion guide (Cox et al. 2010; Whetten and Cameron 2007; Perth Leadership Institute 2008). These were organised in three categories: self-management, business management and people management skills. The sample for the interviews consisted of 48 experts, namely start-up founders, human resources managers and leadership academics/researchers. A judgmental non-probability sampling technique was applied to recruit the participants. The population elements have been purposely selected based on the judgment of the research team. For this study, broad population inferences were not required; however, we needed to focus on experts in specific fields. The discussion guide for the interviews was divided into three main areas (Iordanoglou and Ioannidis 2014):

- ▶ important leadership skills for future leaders;
- ▶ important leadership skills in times of economic crisis;
- ▶ leadership skills observed in young professionals and entrepreneurs in the workplace.

Results from the quantitative research provided an outline of the emerging mobile generation in Greece. In addition, EI was found to be a significant predictor of collaborative consumption. Results from the qualitative research showed that among the most important leadership skills for young leaders were passion, trustworthiness, flexibility, inspiring others, self-confidence, strategic thinking, collaboration and teamwork. In times of economic turmoil, most of the important skills remain the same, with adaptability and innovation entering the top-10 list. Furthermore, a gap between required and observed leadership skills in the workplace was revealed, mainly in people management skills. The results are compared with those derived from similar research conducted in four other European countries (Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Bulgaria) and the implications for educating the next generation of young leaders and entrepreneurs are discussed.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The rise of social networks and generally of Web 2.0, as well as mobile networks, which enable participation and collaborative production and consumption of content in novel, unprecedented ways, is multifaceted. It represents a convergence of technological innovations and of a new architecture of social life. It is hard to think of another invention with such a profound impact on the daily lives of its users. Though perhaps an evolution of known concepts rather than altogether unique inventions, the cell phone and the tablet are essential tools for people in the developed countries of the West as well as in emerging and developing countries that, according to a recent Pew Research Center survey, “are quickly catching up to those in advanced nations in terms of access to technology” with “a median of 67% [using] the internet and 43% [owning] a smartphone” (Poushter 2016). In developed countries, smart devices are even perceived as a status symbol for their holders, and are devices that carry out an ever wider sample of daily activities as well as communication tools and enablers of a new dimension in the life of an individual. In the developing and emerging countries, smartphone and internet users, according to the above-mentioned Pew report, “are

more frequent users of social networks compared with the US and Europe". According to GSMA's latest report on the mobile economy (2016), mobile technologies in the developing world are the "dominant platform for internet access", providing opportunities for growth and addressing social challenges from access to mobile money services to education, health care, disaster response, social ventures and tech start-ups.

Both cell phones and tablets are devices through which the mobile identity (Stald 2008) of the individual manifests itself. According to Stald, young people's identities are influenced by the use of mobile phones, as they are "ubiquitous in youth cultural contexts as a medium for constant updating, co-ordination, information access and documentation" (ibid.). Individuals who regard the cell phone as a central, defining characteristic of their lives cannot really consider their lives without this device and without its influence on them; the absence of such devices seems to create stress. Those currently under 40 or even younger, in particular, have gradually adapted to living a double social life, both offline and online.

What are the major trends that contributed to this paradigm shift? Following Stald, we may discern four major traits of this new identity tied to wider trends in the societal context.

The crux of this new mobile identity is one's constant availability for a number of activities that range from the personal to the social. People are able to communicate literally all the time, day and night. With cell phones operating even when their owners are asleep (since hardly anyone turns them off), people send a signal that they are reachable. Norms of when and how one might set aside some personal mobile-free time have emerged, although they are not always enforced or respected.

People are thus surrounded by devices that communicate with networks or with themselves all the time. It seems only natural that, given the opportunity, we will communicate in the same way ourselves. It has been several centuries now that people have broken the natural day/night cycle that directed their activities and split their lives into neat, discernible patterns of work and rest. More recently, our activity has tended to follow cycles directed by other entities, such as the media industry. Shirky (2010) notes for instance how people tended to follow television programming cycles, memorising their patterns. Just think how some people went to great lengths to make sure they were home in time in order to watch their favourite shows on TV. Certainly on-demand video, internet broadcasting and streaming have quickly rendered that cycle obsolete.

Moreover, despite what has been said, such deep interconnection is considered desirable by many and it has been made possible via mobile technologies. In other words, people tend to create and then use parallel channels for communication. One could argue that despite what Shirky says about technologies like television that tend to drain people's time, the content of these so-called old technologies is the enabler of creativity. Let us consider a globally popular series such as *Game of Thrones*, which creates an enormous volume of content (for example fan fiction) and metacontent (speculation about what is next in the series) that is channelled exclusively via networks. Further, one cannot ignore the collaborative effort required to rapidly create, edit and disseminate subtitles for such a series in multiple languages literally within hours of the original airing. In short, several years since Shirky's original, glum analysis, old media and (new) networks are not necessarily competing for one's time and creativity, and this is particularly true for younger people using networks.

Virtual mobility, on the other hand, grants presence or rather virtual omnipresence to the individual. Being always available and also being selectively exclusive makes us appear to be beyond the bounds of any physical constraint. People are connected physically with their devices and, on a deeper level, within their devices. This is creating connective action, as Bennett and Segerberg (2012) have described it.

People do not merely appear, they are everywhere and they can move freely. This has a political angle as well. People perceive freedom of movement to be equal to freedom of expression; they cannot separate one from the other in their implications. Since the Second World War people have increasingly considered physical freedom of movement to be an integral part of their lives. The ease of travel from one continent to another, and political institutions like the EU that enable the crossing of borders, were followed by technological breakthroughs for easier and near-instantaneous communication across the world. Physical mobility and especially cross-border mobility is, in fact, political. People would find it quite strange to be able to travel hassle-free from Athens to Paris (as they are part of the same political union) if, upon reaching their destination, they were subject to laws that severely curtailed free speech. This has been apparent in the Arab Spring: younger people with experience of a life beyond their country felt there was too much dissonance between, say, Egypt and the United Kingdom regarding free speech. However, this makes them more visible to themselves.

A third important dimension, following on from this, concerns the extension of these devices from mere record-keeping devices to enablers of societal change. It is hard to say whether the features themselves (such as being able to connect to the web and perform text- and video-editing tasks via a service) were responsible for bringing about change or whether an undercurrent for societal change expressed itself via these devices. In any case, record-keeping in the form of text, images, or video evolved towards a kind of history logging or at least, news tracking.

People are creating and consuming more text and multimedia content as well. From the explosion of text, as manifested a little before Web 2.0, to the explosion of creativity via mobile devices, even to selfies, people seem to love to consume, even if superficially. This consumption becomes collaborative for both tangible and intangible material. Botsman and Rogers (2010) provide an impressive list of schemes including swaps, peer-to-peer currencies, time swaps, crowdfunding and food co-ops that could not really exist without being supported by mobile technology and assistance.

These schemes come at a time of profound rethinking and even distrust regarding capitalism and its logic. While on a small scale, it may be subversive enough to make a dent in the logic of economic action, which seems to be at odds with the logic of these swapping schemes.

To summarise: at a deeper level, the ever extending use of mobile devices in order to forge and express a mobile identity creates new kinds of norms for the individual. Again, it is hard to tell which came first. In the grander scheme of things, the logic of a collaborative economy follows several undercurrents that were already present in society – and it may have forged several of them. Essentially, it is a matter of the right thing at the right time: a collaborative economy provides a timely answer or – better yet – is the glue that binds several disjointed solutions and answers to outstanding issues.

Terms like the “sharing economy” or “peer economy” or even “collaborative economy” seem to overlap both in common usage as well as in stricter settings. There is a fluidity in these concepts, notes Botsman (2013). However, she states that they attempt to describe a common core of ideas and adds that despite the lack of more formal definitions, it is essential not to misunderstand the space these ideas and initiatives cover and the power of the always-on generation whose activity is “fuelled by enjoyment, economic incentive, reputation and self-fulfilment” (Hamari, Sjöklint and Ukkonen 2015). In a nutshell, the transformation of classic market behaviours in ways and on a scale not possible before the internet (Botsman 2015) seems to unlock the “idling capacity” of society.

At the same time, the current socio-economic landscape affects young people in multiple ways. Unemployment and difficulties in getting a job are issues that concern the majority of youth on a global level. According to the European Commission (2015a), 8.7 million young Europeans cannot find work. In addition, “finding a long-term contract or a stable job is reported as a concern by 31% of respondents, and having to move to find a job is a concern among 16%”, as highlighted by another survey on European youth (European Commission 2015b).

Within the EU, there is also a shift towards entrepreneurship. The Entrepreneurship 2020 Action Plan or programmes such as Erasmus for Young Entrepreneurs and the European Confederation of Young Entrepreneurs (YES) aim to revolutionise the culture of entrepreneurship in the EU and to create a more supportive environment for future and existing entrepreneurs to grow with a pervasive sense of connection in the natural fabric of everyday life, also building “the confidence to be an initiator, a designer, a problem-solver” (Erickson 2012), all critical elements for an entrepreneurial mindset.

On the other hand, we are facing a paradigm shift, as “growing numbers of young people are making an about face – turning their backs on working for ‘the man’ and creating their own ventures” (Sanford 2011). This implies that younger people are more willing to take on the risk of establishing their own entrepreneurial presence than previous generations. This new generation of entrepreneurs seems to list leadership skills as part of the DNA of a successful contemporary entrepreneur.

Youth leadership is a challenging concept as “the nature and meaning of leadership is changing in response to a dramatically changing society, and the rise of complex challenges. Leadership is increasingly seen as situational and as an inherently collaborative, social and relational activity” (Kahn, Hewes and Ali 2009). In addition, “examining youth leadership, specifically, adds another layer of complexity, tied as it is in popular conception to other ideas such as youth development, citizenship, youth action and engagement, and participation” (ibid.).

What are the competences that young leaders should develop today? Strategic thinking (39%), being inspirational (37%), strong interpersonal skills (34%), vision (31%), passion and enthusiasm (30%) and decisiveness (30%) are among the most popular for Millennials (Deloitte 2015). According to other studies, vision, passion, drive, integrity and innovation are the top qualities of successful entrepreneurs, while innovation, risk-taking, resilience, proactiveness and ability to team, flexibility, a relentless focus on quality and loyalty came next (Ernst and Young 2007). In addition, the European Commission’s report on entrepreneurship competence (2015c) highlighted decision making, innovation, collaboration, problem solving, negotiation and networking as

skills associated with leadership and entrepreneurship. Iordanoglou et al. (2014) found that in times of crisis, the 10 most important leadership skills are self-confidence, trustworthiness, optimism, analytical decision making, strategic thinking and planning, creative problem solving, collaboration and teamwork, interpersonal communication, building networks and connections, and motivating others.

Collaborative leadership is a model of leadership that has emerged in the last few years (Chrislip 2002). Inspired by the theories and trends of the collaborative and sharing economy, this new leadership model proposes a shared decision-making process. Chrislip and Larson listed several principles for collaborative leaders, including peer problem solving, sustaining hope and participation, and inspiring commitment and action (Chrislip and Larson 1994, Miller and Miller 2007). According to research conducted by Ibarra and Hansen (2011) for the *Harvard Business Review*, collaborative leadership “requires strong skills in four areas: playing the role of connector, attracting diverse talent, modelling collaboration at the top, and showing a strong hand to keep teams from getting mired in debate” (Ibarra and Hansen 2011).

The aforementioned leadership skills and collaborative behaviours require an underlying set of emotional abilities and traits that can be described by the popular concept of EI, which has emerged in the last decade as a significant component of human interaction in many different contexts. The term was introduced by Salovey and Mayer (1990), who define it as “the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and actions”. However, it was Goleman (1995) who popularised the concept, describing EI as consisting of four dimensions: two personal (self-awareness, self-management) and two social (social awareness, relationship management).

The theory of trait EI (or trait emotional self-efficacy) emerged from the distinction between two EI constructs: ability EI and trait EI (Petrides and Furnham 2000). Trait EI is formally defined as a constellation of emotional self-perceptions located at the lower levels of personality hierarchies (Petrides, Pita and Kokkinaki 2007). It essentially concerns people’s self-perception of their own emotional abilities. Numerous studies that have investigated trait EI have yielded significant associations with important outcomes, including academic performance (Laborde, Dosseville and Scelles 2010), scholastic achievement and deviant behaviour at school (Petrides, Frederickson and Furnham 2004), cognitive appraisal of stressful events (Mikolajczak, Luminet and Menil 2006), burnout (Mikolajczak, Menil and Luminet 2007), stress levels in athletes (Laborde et al. 2011) and body image (Swami, Begum and Petrides 2010).

QUANTITATIVE FINDINGS

Collaborative consumption

Toffler (1980) has investigated how the roles of consumer and producer can be blurred, introducing the idea of “prosumption”. In the 1990s, the trend for tailoring and customisation (Pine 1999) led to the conclusion that owning is not an end in itself but a means to personalisation and creativity (Ahuvia 2005). The high penetration of mobile networking technologies over the last decade has totally reshaped the relationship

between producers and consumers. Botsman and Rogers (2010) have documented collaborative consumption trends, where individuals can find active and engaging ways to fulfil desires, not by possessing, but by co-creating, sharing and exchanging not only goods and services but also information, know-how, lifestyles, risks and attitudes.

In our survey, following the research by Botsman and Rogers (2010), we found that a discrete segment among the respondents has particular traits associated with collaborative consumption (hereby labelled the High Collaborative Consumption Index), since they are very keen to exchange products or services with others; share or exchange space, time and skills; and pay for the use of a product or service, instead of ownership. In addition, the vast majority of respondents believe that collaborative consumption practices develop personal skills such as experimentation (73%), open-mindedness (71%), risk-taking (70%) and an entrepreneurial mind (64%).

Gaming

According to the global literature (for example McGonigal 2011), games can cultivate emotional and collective intelligence, strategic planning, decision making, collaboration and creativity, and act as catalysts for social change. In Greece, however, gamers appear to need more time, information and experience to adopt games as a force for social collaboration and change; they tend to underestimate the concept of playing and gaming as a serious tool for learning and developing skills. In our survey, less than half of online gamers (44%) had utilised gaming as a tool for real life. Users declare benefitting from gaming experiences in terms of social and personal skills, yet they do not see these benefits as motives for engagement in gaming. Two out of three respondents believe gaming can be addictive (63%) and that it can reinforce solitude (62%), though the majority play online games to “get away from daily anxiety” (60%). Others, however, believe they can develop skills by playing, such as becoming more decisive (38%), more competent (36%) or more organised (32%), skills that could help them to develop a leadership profile in their professional environments.

Start-ups

In the last decade start-ups have become a trend in the business world and have monopolised the interest of the biggest businesses. A start-up is “an organization formed to search for a repeatable and scalable business model” or “a culture and mentality of innovating on existing ideas to solve critical pain points” (Blank 2013; Ries 2011). Start-ups have become popular in Greece only in recent years, where they often appear as solutions to economic crisis. In our research, we found that the start-up community in Greece is likely to grow, since one out of three respondents (37%) “would like to create their own start-up”. In addition, the vast majority (70%) are interested in crowd-funding schemes.

Work 2.0

Social media has reshaped job markets and changed the way individuals search for jobs, interact with companies and communicate with professionals and colleagues (Kaplan and Haenlein 2010). Social networks have been transformed from

simple databases of personal information to enriched biographical narratives and many users shape their online identities to gain popularity and recognition. Individuals engage rapidly and simultaneously with contacts, leverage relationships and demonstrate their skills and abilities. According to our survey, two out of three respondents use social media and networks for professional purposes (68%). The vast majority use social networks to inform themselves about labour market trends (75%), to create a network of people (75%) and to exchange ideas/opinions within professional groups (72%). These trends seem to be similar across Europe. According to a Eurostat report (2015), 33% of young people in the EU use the internet to look for a job or submit job applications (compared to 17% for the whole population in 2013).

Social and political activism 2.0

In recent years, there have been many examples of people using social networks during protests that influence connective action (Faris and Etling 2008; Bennett and Segerberg 2012). Platforms for social activity can significantly lower the cost of co-ordination and help diffusion. Alternative media, essentially produced outside the established journalistic field, is a key component of Activism 2.0 (Kahn and Kellner 2004). In Greece, mass anti-austerity protests exhibit widespread use of mobile technologies for co-operation, propaganda and cyber-activism. In our survey, almost all respondents (83%) would think to participate in a protest organised online and half of the total sample (53%) had already participated. Online technologies do not give permanence to a social movement, though they can keep members alert and informed: 92% read news regarding online protests, while 69% shared information, and 62% commented online.

Correlation of collaborative consumption and emotional intelligence

Our research hypothesis was that trait EI is a positive predictor of the collaborative consumption (CC) index. A linear regression analysis was performed to investigate the direct influence of trait EI on the CC index (see Table). Trait EI was found to be a significant positive predictor of CC (beta = .31, t = 2.67, p < .001).

Table 1: Linear Regression analysis with the Trait Emotional Intelligence Entered at Step 1 as Predictor of Collaborative Consumption Index

Dependent variable CC Index				
Parameter	B	Std. Error	t	Sig.
Intercept	3.179	.457	6.961	.000
EI	.317	.119	2.671	.001

*p < .001

QUALITATIVE FINDINGS

Important leadership skills for young leaders and entrepreneurs

Interviews with Greek experts revealed the 10 most important leadership skills in terms of future employability, with passion, collaboration and teamwork, and trustworthiness named as the top three skills (Table 9).

Table 9: Important leadership skills for future leaders in terms of future employability

Passion
Collaboration and teamwork
Trustworthiness
Inspiring others
Flexibility
Strategic thinking and planning
Creative problem solving
Self-confidence
Setting specific goals and targets
Conflict management

Interestingly enough, the least important leadership skills were international mobility and implementing organisational change, although the first was included in the top-10 list of the skills observed in young professionals in the workplace and the latter in the top-10 list of the most important leadership skills in times of crisis, which are presented below.

Important leadership skills in times of economic crisis

Especially in times of crisis, some of the aforementioned skills remain in the top-10 list, such as flexibility, and collaboration and teamwork, with new skills listed as well (Table 10).

Table 10: Important leadership skills in times of economic crisis

Adaptability
Flexibility
Innovation
Defining and solving complex problems
Inspiring others
Strategic thinking and planning
Collaboration and teamwork
Motivating others
Creative problem solving
Implementing organisational change

The least important leadership skills in times of crisis were giving speeches and presentations, and conducting meetings.

Leadership skills observed in young professionals and entrepreneurs in the workplace

Table 11 lists the leadership skills observed in young professionals and entrepreneurs in the workplace. Among the skills least observed were gaining and using power, and managing diversity.

Table 11: Leadership skills observed in young professionals and entrepreneurs in the workplace

Passion
Adaptability
International mobility
Resilience
Optimism
Trustworthiness
Flexibility
Building networks and connections
Interpersonal communication
Collaboration and teamwork

A comparison between the Greek results and those derived from four other European countries, namely Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania and Bulgaria (Iordanoglou et al. 2014), reveals both similarities and differences regarding the importance given to certain skills. More specifically, collaboration and teamwork, strategic thinking and planning, creative problem solving and motivating others were among those listed across the board, while skills such as adaptability, flexibility, innovation, and implementing organisational change were found to be of particular importance only for Greek youth. Furthermore, a gap between required and observed leadership skills in the workplace was revealed in all five countries, mainly in people management skills.

DISCUSSION

This chapter aimed to discuss the leadership skills, required and observed, among young leaders in the converging contexts of an emerging mobile and optimistic entrepreneurial culture within the collaborative and sharing economy and the aftermath of a crisis-driven global economy, exemplified by the notorious and persistent Greek crisis. We observe the concurrence of two disruptive forces – mobile, collaborative technological, social and entrepreneurial innovations and the crisis-driven dismantling of traditional organisational and entrepreneurial models – that are shaping the awareness and attitudes of young mobile generations regarding the skills needed to successfully anticipate present challenges and empower them to build their futures in the workplace and the labour market.

In Greece, based on our quantitative research findings, we can provide evidence of the emergence of a mobile generation engaging in collaborative economy practices. A key predictor trait for this collaborative and mobile culture is EI, along with the ensuing development of experimentation, open-mindedness, risk-taking and an entrepreneurial mindset. These characteristics provide some evidence about a culture shift in the making within Greek society, more in tune with global developments in the field of mobile and collaborative economies, despite the fact that the country is enduring a long period of crisis-driven policies and economic repercussions, high percentage unemployment being one of the negative future predictors.

The 10 most important leadership skills for young leaders and entrepreneurs for future employability that we identified, with passion, collaboration and teamwork, trust, and inspiring others topping the list, are very similar to the skills reported by published research by other organisations such as Deloitte (2015) and the European Education and Training Strategy 2020. This is a sign of a broad global consensus about the leadership skills needed for our times.

Despite this normative consensus about the leadership skills for young leaders and entrepreneurs, we should also “mind the gap” between the required and observed leadership skills (see Tables 9, 10 and 11). Although the top three required skills (passion, collaboration and teamwork, trustworthiness) were also observed to be necessary for young professionals and entrepreneurs, other important skills such as inspiring others or strategic thinking and planning were not observed. This can be explained by the lack of working experience or the lack of education and development of these skills in universities. The latter explanation may in fact reveal a gap between the skills and competences developed in universities and those required by the industry today. Future research could contribute to a deeper understanding of the complex and correlated factors that might boost or hinder the transformation of perceptions into actual behaviours in different organisational and social contexts.

When new challenges come into the picture, such as an economic crisis or concerns over employability, then new skills top the list, such as adaptability, defining and solving complex problems, innovation and implementing organisational change. In our fast-changing global, networked societies, where we are faced with complex challenges, we can find a connecting thread between these skills, with an almost global “faith” in experimenting with innovative start-ups and businesses and collaborative leadership. Taken together, leadership skills, innovative entrepreneurship and collaborative leadership are more inspiring to youth development, citizenship, action, engagement and civic participation. Greek respondents have related their desire to start up their own businesses as a response and a “way out” of the crisis. The “crisis” context might be a triggering factor, but does not reveal the full potential for entrepreneurial youth to shape the markets and jobs landscape in a mobile and collaborative economy.

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Chapter 3

Digital and mobile tools and tips for youth eParticipation

Evaldas Rupkus and Kerstin Franzl

How are youth participation habits and trust in politics changing and what has technology to offer? The project EUth – Tools and Tips for Mobile and Digital Youth Participation in and across Europe presents its first findings and the newly launched digital toolbox OPIN.

CHANGE IN THE FORMS OF POLITICAL PARTICIPATION

Young Europeans do not seem to be the biggest fans of voting, either during EU-level elections, or during national ones:

72% of 16/18-24 year-olds do not vote but more than 50% of 65+ year olds do ... the level of youth absenteeism remains surprisingly high, and the gap between youth and other age groups changes marginally. Youth prove to be worryingly absent from national elections. (Deželan 2015)

However, voting – a rather traditional form of political participation – is not the only expression of civic engagement. While in Germany, for example, the satisfaction with democracy and trust in institutions are slowly increasing (Shell Deutschland Holding 2015: 173-82), the general interest of young Europeans in politics is stable at a low level (EU 2016: 248-9). Also, civic engagement in non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and volunteering – other traditional forms of participation – are losing interest for youngsters (Shell Deutschland Holding 2015: 195-6) or not increasing (EU 2016: 254-8).

Practice and research show that “we are witnessing a diversification of the range, forms and targets of political expression” (Deželan 2015: 29). The latter addresses especially the technological change in political participation through digital and mobile media. It is observed that, in general, interest in political action is increasing, and only the traditional forms of expression are shifting. For example, 59% of 12- to 25-year-old Germans have been taking part in unconventional forms of political participation, such as consumer boycotts, online petitions and demonstrations (Shell Deutschland Holding 2015: 199-200). Online tools are seen as introducing new opportunities for a low threshold of engagement of young people: in 2014, for example, half of young Europeans had used the internet to contact public authorities (EU 2016: 250-1).

THERE IS NO ONLINE WITHOUT OFFLINE

eParticipation can be defined as interactive online decision making in action (IJAB 2014a: 4). Hence, eParticipation should not be seen as an alternative to face-to-face participation, but rather as a complementing element offering new tools and opportunities for initiators of such processes, and also for civil society itself. The experiences from projects like Youthpart and Youthpart #lokal show that, for ensuring targeted outreach of online participation, offline activities are essential (IJAB 2014b: 8). Especially on the local level and/or for young people with less experience in eParticipation processes, offline activities help one become active (EUth 2016) and not see online tools as an obstacle (IJAB 2014b: 8) to participation.

EUth – TOOLS AND TIPS FOR MOBILE AND DIGITAL YOUTH PARTICIPATION IN AND ACROSS EUROPE

Two out of three teenagers own a smartphone (Mascheroni and Ólafsson 2013: 14). The widespread use of smartphones indicates a need to consider the implementation of not just digital but also mobile tools in participation processes. However, using just online or mobile tools is not sufficient to ensure the motivation of participants and the facilitation of eParticipation processes. The research and innovation project EUth – Tools and Tips for Mobile and Digital Youth Participation in and across Europe looked into providing an answer to these challenges. The project developed a digital and mobile eParticipation toolbox, as well as tips and support for anybody interested in becoming an initiator of eParticipation processes.

The EU's Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme is supporting the project EUth to address challenges to young people's participation and to foster their trust and engagement in politics. EUth aims to contribute to increased youth participation by providing user-friendly and comprehensive tools and support, one of these being the digital and mobile eParticipation toolbox OPIN. Since EUth is an innovation project, its experiences and findings could contribute to further reflections on these themes.

Usually, there are three kinds of actors involved in public participation – whether it is youth or adult participation, online or face-to-face participation. First, there are the participants who discuss or introduce their opinions, then the decision makers who wrap up the discussion and third, those who facilitate communication between the participants and decision makers. Of course, participation projects can be created and run from the bottom up, but in most cases it is not the participants who start a participation project, organise the gatherings, moderate discussions, etc. It is usually an organisation in between, the so-called initiators, who take on this role. For youth participation this is mostly administrations or youth organisations. OPIN aims at supporting both: participants and initiators.

We strongly believe that young people or people in general have great ideas that can help solve their local problems. However, setting up a participatory project is a different thing – it requires knowledge about and experience with public participation in general and with youth eParticipation in particular. A badly planned participatory project will most likely fail, no matter how dedicated the participants

are. Young people, youth organisations and administrations should not be afraid to get active and set up their own participatory process. With some support, anybody is capable of running such a project. Accordingly, in EUth we develop tools and tips for eParticipation to:

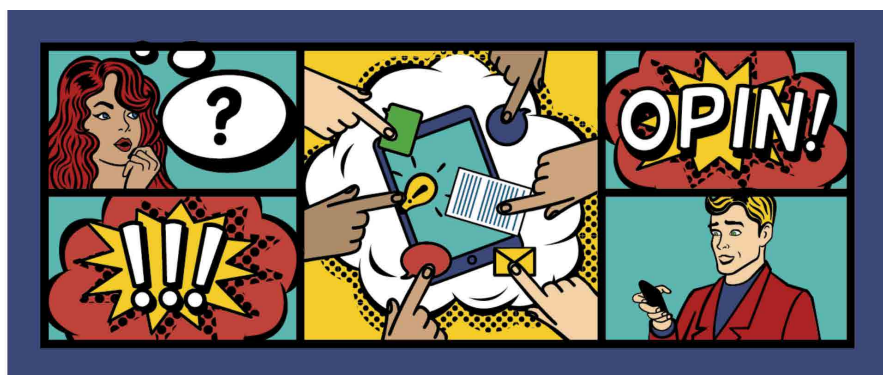
- ▶ offer participants appealing digital and mobile participatory engagement tools;
- ▶ support initiators in planning and implementing their individual eParticipation project.

These are available in the toolbox OPIN – a digital online platform where individual eParticipation projects can be hosted.

Making eParticipation tools appealing to youth

The project EUth puts a lot of effort into the development of a visual design that is attractive to young users. OPIN was designed with the help of the International Youth Service of the Federal Republic of Germany (IJAB) and the European Youth Information and Counselling Agency (ERYICA), which both have long-standing experience in working with young people.

Figure 9: OPIN.me toolbox landing page visual



Besides visual identity, usability is decisive in making a digital tool appealing. EUth has a set of ongoing pilot projects testing the tools for functionality and usability. For instance, young people from the European Students' Forum (*Association des Etats Généraux des Etudiants de l'Europe* – AEGEE) in France, Italy and Slovenia have given feedback on the sitemap and website structure in order to help OPIN improve its usability and design.

The functionality – or utility – of eParticipation tools is indeed a big challenge, as current participation projects are often unique in their fields. For instance, available staff resources can vary greatly, leading to differing organisational structures in terms of roles and responsibilities for co-ordinating projects, activating networks, facilitation, etc. Also, the structures of the projects are diverse: some are based on a competition model (participants' ideas compete for funding), while others are based on continuous issue management. This may change in the future, when

eParticipation becomes more widespread and has clearer standards. Currently, however, the youth eParticipation landscape is rather diverse. There are differences in the size and duration of projects, the aim of participation and communication structures, the involvement of different target groups and network actors, etc. Local conditions, it seems, require very specific project structures and tools.

Moreover, it is simply too expensive to create individual tools for each eParticipation project. OPIN thus strives to keep a balance between predefined participation project structures and eParticipation tools that are still sufficiently flexible. The solution to this is the workflow principle.

Workflows – Modular eParticipation tools

The software behind OPIN is Adhocracy, developed by Liquid Democracy e.V. It is embedded in the OPIN platform, offering several participation tools. When a group decides to use OPIN for its participation project, it can register on <http://opin.me> and an “instance” is set up on the platform. This instance does not include all the digital tools that are, in principle, available on the platform. Instead, only those features needed in the specific case are visible to the user. However, the activation of features does not take place feature by feature, but rather in bundles, according to the overall aim of the participation project. These bundles are called “workflows”. So far, three workflows are available on OPIN:

- ▶ idea collection: users can enter ideas on a topic (for example how to improve local youth centre activities), comment and vote on the posts;
- ▶ collaborative text work: texts can be uploaded, and sections can be commented on and voted on by users;
- ▶ mobile polling: a mobile app to quickly gather young people’s opinions on a given question.

The first two workflows have been the most in demand at Liquid Democracy since 2011 and have become the basic participation features on OPIN. The integration of mobile polling was the first big update to Adhocracy in EUth. The app was developed for another European project (FlashPoll, funded in the EIT/ICT scheme 2013-15) by Alfstore. The response from the users to the app was very positive, as it is a way to quickly interact with participants by using mobile phones, so it was decided to integrate it with Adhocracy.

In the future, more workflows will be developed. Currently, the focus lies on workflows that enable the combination of online and offline participation. For each workflow, some basic features are provided by default and additional features can be activated if the initiator asks for them. This modular structure enables the quick and cheap set-up of individual eParticipation projects.

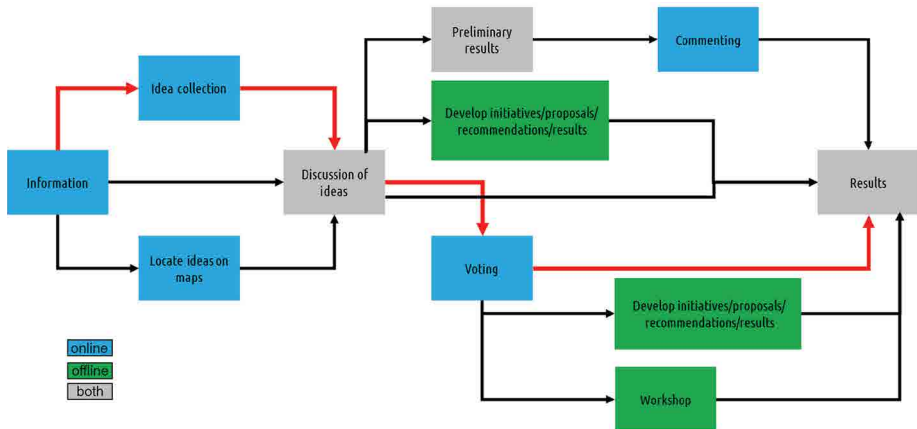
Defining the right workflows with the right features

Workflows and features will be amended, improved and enriched during the EUth project. In order to identify the workflows that cover most applications, comprehensive research is being carried out by the nexus Institute, in which youth eParticipation

projects in Europe are analysed with regard to their design and structure. The following questions are considered: what is the aim of a eParticipation project? What steps are being taken to achieve this aim? The analysis will provide structural insights on the most frequent requirements for workflows and which features should be developed.

The research is ongoing. However, Figure 10 shows the results for the workflow “idea collection”, which map the average process elements of participatory projects that aim to gather ideas from participants. The most frequent element combination is marked in red.

Figure 10: Idea collection



We can see that the phase of “idea collection” follows an “information” phase, but it could also be replaced by “locate ideas on maps”. The results are discussed afterwards in an offline event or using an online platform. The collected ideas are voted on using online tools and results are produced for both online dissemination or face-to-face lobbying work with decision makers.

Based on an analysis of completed eParticipation projects, these schemes visualise genuine participation structures and mechanisms. Such generalisations allow the identification of the most useful workflows and addressing them as a priority while creating innovations. It also provides an overview of the variety of strategies that can be used in digital participation projects in practice and indicates the need for support in even more complex situations.

Guiding initiators to put workflows into practice

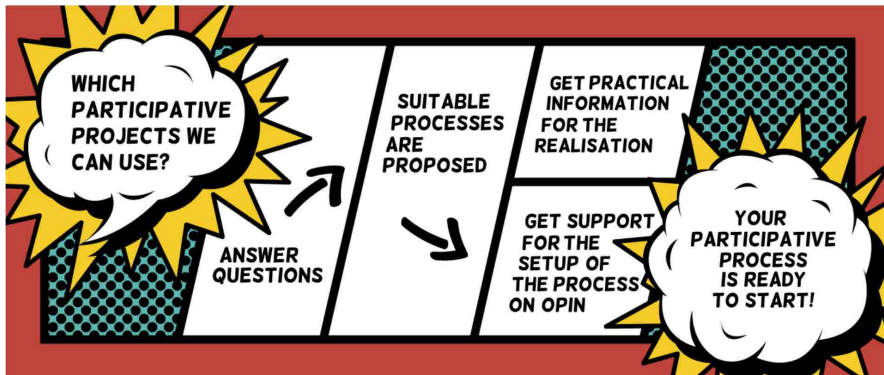
On the OPIN platform, initiators do not have to choose from the workflows themselves. A Decision Support Tool is available that activates a suitable workflow according to the initiator’s needs. The initiator has to fill in a short query on the aim of the planned participation project and the workflow is chosen automatically (Figure 11).

The idea behind the Decision Support Tool is to empower people without extensive competences to become initiators of participatory projects. We hope that by providing a tool that delivers individually adapted participation schemes for successful digital youth participatory projects we will increase the quantity and quality of youth eParticipation. This would be a real innovation in the landscape of participation in

general, and youth eParticipation in particular.

In general, modular planning, that is a free choice between modules, is preferable to an automatised set-up of a process. However, only people with experience in public participation actually have the knowledge to reasonably combine available modules. Considering that people without extensive competences in eParticipation may not always know how to combine modules and steps in the process, the main challenge here is how to establish predefined processes that can produce good participation results. On the other hand, practice has shown that participation projects only work when they are adapted to local conditions, such as available resources and group size. Full modularity would enable such an adaptation. But if non-professional initiators make use of this full modularity the risk of creating participation schemes that do not lead to successful participation is very high. The Decision Support Tool thus offers half-modularised, adaptable propositions for shaping a participatory project. By entering some basic data on local conditions and specifying the aim of the process, the user can influence the automatic set-up of the project structure.

Figure 11: Graphic of decision support tool



The Decision Support Tool not only leads to an automatic set-up of an instance, it also delivers a basic version of a project management plan. The main steps of the youth eParticipation project are listed chronologically and practical advice is given on how to put into practice what the software provides technically. This is supported by eParticipation guidelines developed by the Danish Board of Technology on the basis of available publications such as the well-known standards published by the Austrian Council of Ministers (2008) or the quality criteria for public participation published by the German-based network for public participation (Netzwerk Bürgerbeteiligung 2013). These publications formulate general standards for the organisation of participative processes (for example transparency of the process, traceability of results, room for manoeuvre, balanced information, equal opportunities) that ensure a high quality for the whole process. Furthermore, we also refer to youth-specific standards for participatory processes, such as those developed by the Participation Workers' Network for Wales (2014) and Save the Children (2005).

These guidelines are structured along the main phases of a participation project:

- ▶ idea phase;
- ▶ preparation phase;

- ▶ participation phase;
- ▶ dissemination and communication phase.

Guidance and best-practice examples encompass topics such as resource planning, communication strategies, privacy and data protection, moderation and many more.

The guidelines are developed on the basis of long-standing experience in facilitating participatory processes, as well as on the basis of the results from workshops with end-users to make sure that pitfalls, barriers and challenges are addressed comprehensively.

THERE IS NO FUTURE WITHOUT EPARTICIPATION

Even though eParticipation in general is still developing, it is clear that it is not replacing offline participation. Rather, it enriches it and helps adjustment to changing participation patterns, providing necessary technological solutions relevant for today's realities. eParticipation of young people can only be successful if all stakeholders are involved in the process and trust in politics can be encouraged by demonstrating the impact of young people's input. Increased usage of mobile devices clearly indicates the need to develop responsive software for participation in decision making.

Through its first year, the innovation project EUth has gathered the experiences of other online participation projects and its own "living lab" with five pilot projects. The results were fed into the development of guidelines for successful eParticipation processes and identification of the most-needed software solutions.

The development of OPIN has followed a participatory and iterative approach. New versions of the software are released as quickly as possible to be tested by real end-users. Their feedback is included in ensuing development cycles to make improvements and identify new needed features. This procedure has been repeated twice, leading to three launches of OPIN, starting in March 2016.

With the additional support of the Decision Support Tool and eParticipation guidelines, the project follows the motto "Have a professional eParticipation process without being a pro!"; creating a better environment for more active youth involvement in decision-making processes.

The project has had two years full of actions and findings to be shared with the eParticipation community²¹ and its initiators. In autumn 2016, an open call for 10 eParticipation projects was launched, providing the possibility of using OPIN.me with the support of EUth. Public administrations, youth and youth work organisations at any level from 49 countries were invited to apply with their eParticipation idea, use the OPIN toolbox, obtain support and implement their projects in the course of 2017. Projects were assessed through different aspects, most importantly ensuring the link between participants' input and the impact on decision making.

21. Follow us on www.euth.net and join the eParticipation community in the "eParticipation" group on Facebook. This article reflects only the authors' views and the Research Executive Agency or European Commission is not responsible for any use that may be made of the information it contains. Figures 9, 10 and 11 are created in the framework of the project EUth – Tools and Tips for Mobile and Digital Youth Participation in and across Europe and bear its copyright.

An Open Summit for the eParticipation community to sharing EUth experiences is due to take place by the end of 2017. EUth pilots and 10 open call projects will present their achievements and practice. Space for networking and envisioning the future of eParticipation developments all over Europe will be encouraged through the invitation and participation of various stakeholders.

ABOUT EUth

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Chapter 4

Open youth participation – A key to good governance in the 21st century

Daniel Poli and Jochen Butt-Pośnik

Our representative democracies in Europe are, with a few exceptions, regulated by an “electoral threat potential” (von Winter 1997). The right to vote gives citizens the possibility to choose (and hence, also to choose not to vote for) parliamentary representatives who can ensure that decision-making processes respect voters’ interests. Most young people under 18 in Europe do not have the right to vote. Their interests are thought to be represented by their parents or legal guardians. However, young people have their own specific interests that are not automatically shared by their guardians; they are linked with their living environments as young persons, for example in areas like urban planning, family and education policy focus on young people’s leisure interests (Hurrelmann 2001). When it comes to issues such as the fair distribution of resources, government debt, pensions, climate protection, the internet and participation, there can be conflicts of interest between the generations.

With current demographic trends, even young adults with the right to vote do not have a sufficient “threat potential” as they are a decreasing minority. A Eurostat report (Eurostat 2017) notes that the total population of the EU-28 will keep growing until 2050, reaching 525.5 million. However, the share of children and young people will decrease from 33.5% in 2013 to 30.8% in 2050. This results in a deficit of representation for the younger generation, which does not have the same possibilities as older generations to introduce ideas, lifestyles and interests into the entrenched, if democratic, systems of which they are a part.

How then are young people expected to learn democratic behaviours if they are unable to have the positive experience of bringing their interests into established decision-making processes? The effects of this are already visible, with a decline in the number of young people involved in political parties or elections. A Eurobarometer survey from 2012 indicates that only about one in two young people thinks elections are among the most valuable ways of expressing political preferences; only 47% of 15- to 24-year-olds and 50% of 25- to 34-year-olds believe that voting is one of the two best ways to ensure that their voices are heard by decision makers.²²

22. Signing a petition was the second most effective means, according to respondents, though this had a far lower score (14%).

Additionally, only 13% of young people support the statement that joining a political party is an effective way to channel their interests. A democratic society needs to establish new forms and methods of youth participation that are accepted and used by young people, and that support them so that their voices are heard by decision makers and established political structures.

The continuous and increasingly rapid development of information communication technologies (ICTs) over the last few decades is a distinct feature of modern societies. In the digital age, ICTs play a key role in creating and exchanging knowledge and information around the globe. ICTs affect the everyday lives of citizens in many fields – at school, in the workplace and in the community. New ways to communicate, new spaces to share cultural experiences and new methods to make people’s voices heard have been introduced and have become a normal part of life, especially for young people. In the context of the digitalisation of our living environment, there is no distinction between the offline and online communication (and life) of a young person today.²³ Interaction with the local environment takes place via mobile devices and online platforms, participation in social life, going to school or to work, and taking part in training and other non-formal activities.

If young people understand technology to be a normal part of their everyday communication and engagement, they also transfer some of their experiences of the digital sphere into the real world. This refers especially to the possibilities of non-hierarchical relations, to direct peer-to-peer communication and to a positive attitude towards sharing and collaboration within the community: these are forms of interaction that are not the core characteristics of established political structures.

If we want to keep democracy alive, we need to open up governmental structures to make participation the “new normal” and not the exception; we need open methods to make decision-making processes and participation transparent and accessible for all and we need to be open to the realities of young people. Taking participation seriously means sharing power, knowledge and resources in a more collaborative way than traditional hierarchical structures have offered to date. In this regard, we have to see open youth participation as key to good governance in the 21st century.

In order to analyse these issues and challenges, we will look at the findings of two projects focused on improving youth participation. The projects also resulted in recommendations and guidelines on youth participation and on the role youth work plays in helping young people acquire competences useful for their engagement in society and in decision-making processes. Our conclusion points to the need for youth work to have a stronger role in the connection between young people and decision-making processes.

23. For Germany, see DIVSI (2014). However, European surveys tend to conclude that there is a digital divide among youth: “The digital divide is still a reality for excluded young people who are not attending school or further education” (LSE Enterprise 2013: 14).

MULTILATERAL PEER LEARNING TO IMPROVE YOUTH PARTICIPATION

In 2011, the German Federal Ministry for Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth adopted a new approach towards international co-operation. It created multi-lateral co-operation projects to function as cross-border think tanks to provide input for current youth policy topics. To this end, the concept of peer learning – essentially, a reciprocal learning activity – offered an ideal framework as one of the EU Youth Strategy's strongest instruments for promoting youth policy co-operation in Europe.

Youthpart²⁴

The project Youthpart, a multilateral co-operation project by the International Youth Service of the Federal Republic of Germany (IJAB), was established to start an international dialogue on how more young people can be encouraged to participate in decision-making processes in today's digitalised society. The project has produced a set of guidelines for successful eParticipation by young people (IJAB 2014).²⁵

The work began in December 2011 and ended in April 2014. During this time, project partners attended four international workshops to develop the guidelines and organised two events to gather feedback from European experts and young people. The process also included input from national advisory councils and reflected the views of a range of stakeholders including young people, youth organisations, researchers, administrative bodies, software developers and youth workers. The guidelines for successful eParticipation by young people provide those who plan an eParticipation process for young people with a set of factors they should take into consideration to make the process more effective. They were designed as a reference framework to support initiators of eParticipation processes.

Participation was defined by the project partners as a process of sharing, becoming involved and taking action. This implies that citizens choose to actively participate in and contribute to public decision making at different levels. In the case of eParticipation, this involvement and participation in decision making takes place electronically through the use of online information and internet-based technology. Two dimensions of participation were distinguished:

- ▶ transitive participation: political decisions are influenced directly and structural links to political decision-making processes are enabled;
- ▶ intransitive participation: intransitive activities reach out to the public and encourage citizens to support certain issues and positions. In return, they also contribute to the development of political opinions and democratic

24. The following section has been taken from the "Guidelines for successful e-participation for young people" (IJAB 2014) and has been slightly edited.

25. IJAB produced the guidelines with the German Federal Ministry for Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth, the Austrian Federal Ministry of Economy, Family and Youth, the British Youth Council, the Spanish Institute for Youth (INJUVE) and the Finnish Development Centre for Youth Information and Counselling (Koordinaatti), with the support of the European Commission's Directorate General for Education and Culture (Youth Unit).

citizenship. This includes activities that are designed to encourage and empower young people to participate in political matters.

Both dimensions, which are inseparable and complementary, include activities created by young people, youth organisations and youth work structures, and also educational and citizenship projects and participation processes that are initiated by institutions and decision makers.

The structure of participation processes may vary depending on the intensity of the decision makers' involvement:

- ▶ consultation and information, through consultative processes;
- ▶ co-determination, through decision-making processes with equal voting rights;
- ▶ self-determination, through agenda-setting (meaning that young people are involved in deciding what issues get to the political agenda) and decision-making processes with exclusive decision-making powers (meaning that the decision is entirely up to the young people, who do not need to consult others).

The guidelines also include principles considered necessary for successful eParticipation processes:

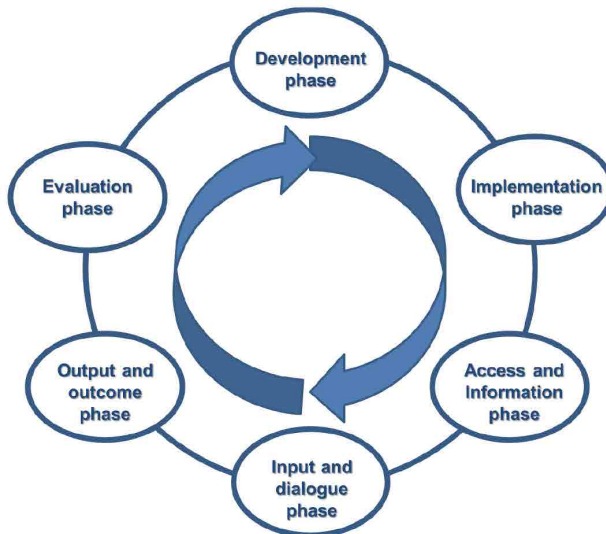
- ▶ alignment with young people's realities: eParticipation processes need to be aligned with young people's lives. This relates to matters such as content, information and time management, but also to design and technical implementation. The processes should be designed to interest, stimulate and motivate young people, in order to ensure their continuing involvement;
- ▶ applicable within current administrative procedures: if a structural link to political decision-making processes is to be implemented, eParticipation processes need to be practical. This relates to matters such as time management, compliance with legal requirements and authorisations, staff training, expectation management, and overall political strategies and acts on national or international levels promoting youth participation;²⁶
- ▶ resources: eParticipation processes require sufficient resources such as expertise, time, funding and technology, as well as staff to provide guidance and advisory services;
- ▶ effectiveness and direct influence: eParticipation processes need to have an outcome. A structural link to decision-making processes is essential;
- ▶ transparency: the overall process needs to be transparent for everyone. This requirement extends to all information related to the process, as well as to the software and tools used;
- ▶ end-to-end involvement of young people: young people need to be involved in all stages of the process. This includes a feedback option in all phases of the process.

26. Besides national youth policy regulations on youth participation, the EU Youth Strategy and the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child are important documents to ensure youth participation in decision-making processes.

Ideally, all types of eParticipation processes should have the following phases (Figure 12):²⁷

- ▶ a development phase, where the general parameters and common principles of the process are defined;
- ▶ an implementation phase, where the general parameters are put into practice;
- ▶ an access and information phase, where the tools and information are made available to the target audience;
- ▶ an input and dialogue phase, focusing on the topic at hand and the associated discussions;
- ▶ an output and outcome phase, focusing on the results of the process and how these results can be made visible for the participants and a public audience;
- ▶ an evaluation phase, with an assessment of the eParticipation process to improve the quality of future processes.

Figure 12: Phases of an eParticipation process



Participation of Young People in the Democratic Europe

This multilateral co-operation project was a common two-year effort by partners from Israel, Lithuania, Poland, the United Kingdom (represented by the British Youth Council) and Germany. It aimed to answer the following:

- ▶ how can apolitical young people and those with fewer opportunities be reached to increase their participation in the democratic system?
- ▶ what are the new forms and new spaces of youth participation and what will be their role in the future?

27. These phases may also be visualised at www.youtube.com/watch?v=8rjalQHY11U, accessed 21 September 2017.

- ▶ what innovative methods and forms of civic education and youth participation exist that function to foster young people's participation?

Partners explored new challenges in youth participation and learned from each other's experience, knowledge and good practice during three peer learning seminars, meetings of the co-ordinators and a final conference. The project resulted in a number of recommendations to "amplify the participation" of young people (Jugend für Europa/Butt-Pošnik 2015).²⁸ These were based on the findings of the Reflection Group on youth participation of the partnership between the European Commission and the Council of Europe in the field of youth.²⁹

The recommendations call on European institutions, national, regional and local governments and administrations, and civil society to support the following five areas:

- ▶ participation takes place in various forms and arenas: understand and embrace the diversity of ways in which young people participate. It is necessary to use and spread those examples that lead to a real impact and sharing of power, such as Young Mayors (United Kingdom) or Students Budgets (Italy, Portugal, France, Germany). The Austrian model of the Youth Check is supported as a possible legislative way to make youth participation a legal obligation;
- ▶ learning to be a democratic citizen is key. There is a need for lifelong learning of democracy in all areas of formal, non-formal and informal education, so that young people can experience deliberations and practise democracy at an early age;
- ▶ it takes a whole society to rear a democrat! As part of good governance in the 21st century, a change of attitudes is required in politics and administration – participation has to be explicitly welcomed and made possible. The limits of participation also need to be communicated frankly. Further effort is required to reach underprivileged and excluded young people;
- ▶ there are many good projects and approaches – make use of them! What is still needed is peer learning to exchange good practices and the dissemination of the knowledge and experiences that already exist and can be used elsewhere. The problem is not the lack of practical experience or tailored methodology; it is in the first place a lack of political will to provide space for youth participation;
- ▶ further research is needed to better understand the new and alternative forms of participation that exist today.

During a public presentation at the Permanent Representation of the Federal Republic of Germany in October 2015 in Brussels, these recommendations were handed over to the representatives of the European Commission, the Council of Europe and the European Parliament. The presentation was organised in the framework of the final conference, Make me Heard, which had approximately 80 participants from 13 countries. The brochure with recommendations was published in collaboration with Support, Advanced Learning and Training Opportunities for Youth (SALTO-YOUTH)

28. See www.youtube.com/watch?v=CUHpGEEHSM&feature=youtu.b., accessed 21 September 2017.

29. See <http://pjp-eu.coe.int/en/web/youth-partnership/reflection-group?inheritRedirect=true>, accessed 21 September 2017.

Participation and the partnership between the European Commission and the Council of Europe in the field of youth. It was translated into German, too, and distributed to stakeholders active in the implementation of the EU Youth Strategy. The recommendations have been subject to discussions in the Knesset of Israel, a public workshop with representatives of the British Government in London and the Bund-Länder Working Group in Germany.

CONCLUSIONS FROM BOTH PROJECTS

Both projects came up with the following conclusions, which can serve as food for thought for all those involved in participation processes or willing to engage further.

Open government

There is a need for real sharing of power – funding nice lonely islands of participation is not enough. The participation of those who are affected by political decisions is not only fair, but rational: early participation of those who will use services and/or premises, or will be affected by changes, can reduce objections later, and even costs. This goes beyond the idea of “making politics” of the 20th century, when it was ideally a single leader or a small elite of decision makers who were perceived as capable of making the right decisions for all. In many areas, citizens are now accustomed to being asked for their input, to having influence or co-creating (for instance, Wikipedia). Furthermore, politics as it exists today is incapable of facing up to the challenges of a complex, interconnected future. We need a new form of “good governance” in the 21st century in order to have citizens participate in decision making and to create opportunities for young citizens to enter decision-making processes. In some cases, a direct influence has to be possible – most probably at the local level, but also at regional, national and European levels. Support and resources have to be allocated, especially to support the participation of those who are underprivileged and excluded.

Open method

This different mode of governance has to be accompanied by suitable methods to enable (young) citizens to participate offline and online. It requires thinking about 360-degree processes of consultation, deliberation, implementation, evaluation and follow-up, so that those who give their opinion in the first place get to know what happened to their ideas and which of them were realised. It is necessary to understand various forms of protest as new ways of dialogue about the society we want to live in. This requires us to transcend our “filter bubbles”, both online and offline, and listen.

Open for all

What is there to decide upon – and what is restricted to the decision making of elected parliamentarians? Transparency is required to make the open space for participation visible, and identify the limits of participation as well. Political or civic education is

necessary in this context to enable young members of society to understand and assess critically the functioning of democracy. It takes a special effort (comprehensive language, interactions of young people with politicians, etc.) to reach those young people who feel disconnected from politics.

Open to young people's realities

Using youthful gadgets to reach young people is not enough! If we really want young people to be involved, we have to take into account their different needs, the tempo at which they operate, the language they use and the places they meet; not everything fits into the template of decision-making processes. This requires investment in something in between, namely in youth work. We consider that youth work has a lot of potential in this respect and we will now explore its role and the ways in which it can support young people's involvement in decision-making processes and in democratic societies in general.

WHAT IS THE ROLE OF YOUTH WORK?

The Declaration of the 2nd European Youth Work Convention in 2015 emphasised that youth work plays an important role in advancing democracy, citizenship and participation. The common understanding of youth work in Europe was expressed as follows:

Youth work is about cultivating the imagination, initiative, integration, involvement and aspiration of young people. Its principles are that it is educative, empowering, participative, expressive and inclusive. Through activities, playing and having fun, campaigning, the information exchange, mobility, volunteering, association and conversation, it fosters their understanding of their place within, and critical engagement with their communities and societies. Youth work helps young people to discover their talents, and develop the capacities and capabilities to navigate an ever more complex and challenging social, cultural and political environment.³⁰

Youth work can play the role of connector and translator in the field of youth participation in both ways: with and for young people, and in close connection to decision makers at local, regional, national and European levels. Youth workers have to take a decisive and self-confident stand as political players and advocates for young people – that is, as catalysts. They link the various realities of young people with the world of politics and administration that affects young people's lives, and vice versa. Youth workers therefore need to include political and civic education, and competences to empower young people and knowledge about online and offline methods of participation, in their professional portfolio. Youth workers need to be "political educators",³¹ which means that they should be able to explain, for example, that disappointment with democracy can be an inherent part of how democracy functions. They may have to explain why it takes so much time in a democracy to take decisions and why the interests of young people might not always be taken on

30. See http://pjp-eu.coe.int/documents/1017981/8529155/The+2nd+European+Youth+Work+Declaration_FINAL.pdf/cc602b1d-6efc-46d9-80ec-5ca57c35eb85, accessed 22 September 2017.

31. Using this term here does not imply any idea of political indoctrination, of course.

board. They may have to explain to young people that it is sometimes only possible to gain political solutions that are “probably just disappointing in a different way, but not less disappointing” solutions (Hedtke 2012). And they need to strengthen their position as partners for political stakeholders.

Youth work has to support and initiate activities that enable transitive and intransitive participation processes, but it also has to strengthen the participation competences of young people (EU–Council of Europe youth partnership 2015).³²

Transitive participation activities that are supported or initiated by youth work in co-operation with decision makers:

- ▶ information activities: projects that offer youth-friendly information and data as a precondition to taking part in decision-making processes;
- ▶ consultation processes: activities to gather expertise, opinions or votes for specific topics, decisions or planning processes;
- ▶ co-operation processes: forms of participation that are directed at the development of mutual solutions in the framework of governance structures leading to political decisions.

Intransitive participation activities supported or initiated by youth work:

- ▶ creating transparency, adding value: the provision of information about the activities of governmental or non-governmental institutions, of individuals, or about socio-political issues;
- ▶ activism, campaigns or lobbying: forms of participation that aim to develop public awareness or support socio-political issues and positions, and thus contribute to the formation of political will;
- ▶ petitions and complaints: participation processes that allow direct suggestions or complaints to decision makers with the aim of influencing concrete political decisions.

These different forms of projects and activities have to fulfil specific criteria to create successful and youth-friendly participation processes. This implies that young people:

- ▶ have to be involved at all stages (for example shaping the goals and the implementation of the project);
- ▶ can change the existing situation and create something new;
- ▶ can actually decide on something;
- ▶ enjoy their participation rather than being passively entertained;
- ▶ determine their democratic structures by themselves;
- ▶ can understand the results because the decisions and goals were transparent;
- ▶ observe the close time limit between planning and implementation.

32. In this sense the key messages of the Symposium on Youth Participation in a Digitalised World organised by the EU–Council of Europe youth partnership in Budapest 2015 reflects on the role of youth work in a digitalised world: youth work should activate young people in the digital sphere, provide education about participation and e-participation and become a hub for different stakeholders.

In addition to supporting and initiating different forms of transitive or intransitive participation processes that fulfil the criteria mentioned above, youth work has the role of empowering young people and strengthening their participation competences. This means that young people get to understand the possibilities for participation and can assess their chances of success in concrete situations. Through participation competences, young people can frame their opinions and interests in relation to socio-political questions, and reflect on them so they can advocate for them in public, and take part in current discussions as active citizens. In this regard, three dimensions of participation competences are relevant for youth work and have to be improved.

Knowledge

Young people need knowledge about political and societal structures, decision-making processes and possible modes of participation. This could be called political literacy: to have a basic understanding of how democracy functions, who is responsible for which political decisions, and how these decisions can be influenced. It is useful to know that various binding national and international documents exist, too, such as the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, the EU Treaty of Lisbon, the Europe 2020 strategy or the EU Youth Strategy, which offer a good basis for open youth participation. Beyond this, knowledge about current tools, like eParticipation technologies or new methods of offline participation and how to use and implement them, is needed to initiate participation processes. In short, knowledge is required about societal and political communication structures, means and techniques in order to use them to raise public awareness and motivate others to take part.

Reflection

For young people to achieve critical engagement in their communities and societies, they have to learn how to take a critical stance and form their own positions and interests, challenging current political and societal conventions. They have to evaluate the established decision-making processes of the political system. Furthermore, it is important that young people – as active citizens – are able to advocate for their interests, evaluate different forms of participation and introduce their views into decision-making processes. Disagreement with established political positions should not be a reason for punishment or exclusion in schools, universities or the leisure and working spaces of young people.

Action

As a third dimension, the active use of different tools, methods and communication techniques must be supported. Young people need to have a positive experience with different forms of transitive or intransitive participation processes to initiate their own activities according to their positions and interests. Beyond this, they need to identify the potential of everyday life communication tools and engagement for successful political participation.

If youth work actively takes over this role as an advocate and agent for empowerment of young people it could find itself in a position of pressure from public authorities,

sponsors or political bodies. These institutions may well feel that the role of youth work is limited to keeping young people out of trouble, helping those who are already in trouble and opening the doors of local youth centres from time to time so young people can entertain themselves.

Neither the current state of democracy in most European countries nor the general state of the EU (unfortunately or not) allow us to reduce youth work to such a role. We might say it's time to get political.

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Chapter 5

Morocco – Digital and social media promote youth citizen engagement in democracy

Karima Rhanem

Since 2011, when Morocco's King Mohammed VI announced a series of constitutional reforms in response to the protests led by Moroccan youth on 20 February, there have been a number of initiatives by youth and civil society actors to promote citizen engagement via a mix of offline and digital platforms. This chapter explores how young Moroccan activists and civil society actors used the internet and social networks to mobilise, debate and advocate change. It will also explore to what extent these initiatives have influenced policies.

Morocco has among the highest rates of internet penetration in Africa, with over 10 million internet users (El Barakah 2015). According to the National Telecommunications Regulatory Agency, internet use exceeded 60%, and there are 44 million registered mobile users. The use of social media has also increased, with over 7 million Facebook users.³³ The infrastructure for 4G internet and other technologies has made it possible for millions of Moroccans – social activists as well as government employees – to engage online and voice their opinions about the most pressing issues of democracy and human rights in the country.

During the constitutional reform process in 2011, Tarik Nesh-Nash, a Moroccan computer engineer and innovator, created the participatory platform *Reforme.ma*, which enabled thousands of Moroccans to contribute to the drafting of the new constitution (Urquiza 2013). The comments and proposals submitted online were presented to the advisory committee in charge of constitutional reform. According to Nesh-Nash, 40% of the contributions were taken into account in the new constitution. After the adoption of the constitution, the government prepared several draft laws to implement the constitutional provisions. Some of these laws took into account citizens' input, others did not.

33. See www.internetworldstats.com/stats1.htm, accessed 23 September 2017.

In 2013, a social media campaign in Morocco – using a mix of strategies targeting decision makers – influenced the government to drop controversial digital code. The draft law sparked intensive cyber-protest, mainly by young internet users, who believed its provisions would put an end to online anonymity and limit freedom of expression. The campaign,³⁴ which used the hash tags #Code_Num [#almodwana rakmiya lan tamor], forced the government to put the law on hold. The case clearly showed that the government had begun to engage with an important online community voice in relation to the public policy-making process.

Other instances exist of the government reacting to cyber-protests in Morocco. The controversial case of minor Amina Filali,³⁵ who committed suicide after she was forced to marry her rapist, is a good example. Activists started an online campaign demanding a change in Article 475 of the penal code, which enabled a rapist to avoid prosecution if he married his victim. The online campaign discussed this case, which took place in a small town in Morocco, went beyond borders via social networks and turned it into an international cause célèbre; this then led to offline protests and advocacy before the government to change the law, and in 2014 the Moroccan Parliament repealed Article 475.

These initiatives sparked an important debate over the influence of social media in politics. Analysts noted that social media in Morocco played a major opposition role and had proved effective in influencing public policies, as seen in several measures taken by the government in response to online advocacy.

In 2016, the Moroccan Parliament passed two laws that allow citizens to present petitions and motions to the government and parliament (Zaireg 2016). The two laws will need time, in addition to other legal measures, to be implemented. But Moroccan activists are already using online petitions through Avaaz³⁶ and other sites. Online petitions via social networks are not yet recognised, but represent a powerful tool to pressurise the government, given the number of signatures that can be collected and their global reach.

In May 2016, an online petition³⁷ influenced a draft bill recently voted on by the Moroccan Parliament that allowed household labour for girls as young as 15. The e-advocacy campaign against child labour led the National Observatory for Children's Rights, chaired by Princess Lalla Meryem, to call for the revision of the age limit to 18. Despite the controversy, the parliament voted in June 2016 to fix this age at 16, albeit with conditions attached. Advocacy is still ongoing, with activists hoping to repeal and amend certain articles in line with civil society concerns (HuffPost Maroc 2016).

34. See www.facebook.com/DesobeissanceElectronique/?fref=ts, accessed 23 September 2017.

35. On the suicide of Amina Filali, see https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Suicide_of_Amina_Filali, accessed 26 February 2018.

36. Avaaz is a US-based civic organisation that promotes global activism.

37. See the online petition *Aux Parlementaires du Royaume du Maroc: Non à l'exploitation des mineures dans le travail domestique*, available at http://secure.avaaz.org/fr/petition/Aux_Parlementaires_du_Royaume_du_Maroc_Non_a_l'exploitation_des_mineures_dans_le_travail_domestique/?pv=25, accessed 26 February 2018.

An online petition³⁸ protesting the reception and burning of 2 500 tonnes of Italian waste on Moroccan soil, however, was more successful. The petition attracted the signatures of over 20 000 citizens concerned about their health and the environment, and the government moved to stop the future importation of foreign waste into the country. With Morocco hosting the 2016 United Nations Climate Change Conference (COP22), this issue has led thousands of Moroccans to participate in online and offline discussions over environmental policies.

Another online petition with significant impact is the online campaign against aggression and vandalism in Morocco, #Zero_Grissage. The campaign aims to increase public safety and eradicate crime on the streets and calls for the security forces to be more effective. The Ministry of the Interior issued a press release after the launch of the campaign in July 2016 and is already taking measures to improve citizens' security. The authorities have also warned against the misuse of false images or unverified videos showing violent attacks against people in public spaces.

There is no doubt from the above-mentioned examples that the internet has become an alternative tool with a significant role and effective power to influence policies, even more than institutions. After the attempted military coup d'état in Turkey was literally defeated by a FaceTime call from President Erdogan's phone (Hearst 2016) calling on Turks to take to the streets, Moroccans who had anxiously followed these developments through social media reignited their e-campaign protesting against the Moroccan Government's ban on mobile calls through free internet apps such as WhatsApp, Viber and Skype (Al Hussaini 2016), making the argument that a VoIP call could save democracy, and lives.

For the legislative elections in October 2016, hundreds of individuals and civil society organisations (CSOs) were trained in election monitoring and engaged in political discussions over elections. Political parties in Morocco promoted their candidates online, who in turn are following youth trends and using online platforms to recruit supporters. There have also been campaigns by the government and CSOs to encourage youth participation in elections via online debates about government formation.

Social media has become an effective tool to promote democratic citizenship and human rights values, enabling citizens to hold governments accountable, monitor elections and engage each other in political debate. But issues of ethics and privacy, in addition to governmental concerns over security that often lead to control and censorship, remain challenging. Social media can be a platform for the dissemination of misleading information. Online users should be aware of their ethical responsibility to provide accurate, objective and reliable information without attacking the personal liberty and privacy of others.

Imaging technology also raises ethical concerns. Citizens and professional journalists connected to smartphones have new technologies for altering and manipulating images, which has created a huge trust problem regarding whether photos taken by citizens and citizen journalists online are true or fake. The convergence of traditional

38. See the online petition *FMDH : Refus de la gestion des déchets Italiens sur le territoire Marocain*, available at www.change.org/p/refus-de-la-gestion-des-d%C3%A9chets-italiens-sur-le-territoire-marocain, accessed 26 February 2018.

and new media as a means of information dissemination has raised questions regarding where to draw the line between regulation and censorship and how to protect freedom of expression, while safeguarding against inflammatory speech.

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Chapter 6

Online communication tools leading to learning, identity and citizenship for digital natives

Adina Marina Călăfăteanu

Digital Natives are communicating differently: email, IM, chat! ... Digital Natives are sharing differently: Blogs, webcams, camera phones. (Prensky 2004)

DIGITAL NATIVES AND ONLINE COMMUNICATION

Information and communication technologies (ICTs) play an increasingly significant role in young people's lives. But it is important to understand these new forms of communication and to employ them for positive purposes as ICTs are a defining feature of modernity in the digital era (Bauman 2004). Terms such as "digital natives", "Net Generation", "Google Generation" or "Millennials" have been used to highlight the significance of these new technologies for younger generations. "Digital natives", for instance, mainly refers to those born in the last two decades, who had the opportunity to interact closely with the new technologies, and grew up speaking the digital language of computers (Prensky 2001).

Research conducted so far has defined digital natives through their date of birth or their level of exposure, experience or expertise with new technologies (Helsper and Eynon 2009). Some of this research has considered the concept of neuroplasticity, studying the effect of ICTs on the brain's ability to form new neural connections. But only a limited number of studies are looking at the challenges generated by the use of ICTs in young people's lives. Digital natives challenge teachers to use different tools corresponding to their new educational needs; employers, by asking for different working conditions corresponding to their new communication needs; and community and state structures, as they use virtual forms of participation extensively.

Research on the use of the internet by young people varies from a focus on the ICTs employed to create new instruments for social inclusion, freedom from discrimination and violence, and access to resources, to studying how young people use online communication tools to disengage from traditional structures and create new communities (Wyn and Cuervo 2005). Digital natives are using the internet to communicate rather than just to get information (Prensky 2001). The exchange of e-mails and of instant messages has become the preferred mode of communication. The primary factors underlying the youth preference for online communication

tools are their availability, the experience of social presence, their use as a personal log and using these tools to learn social norms (Stald 2008). However, access is still unequal and critics claim that this preference exposes young people to harassment and other risks. Others have addressed the lack of capacity of young people to choose appropriate virtual spaces, as they are still developing critical thinking skills (Stald 2008; McKay et al. 2005).

Young people choose different forms of online communication for specific reasons. For information on the internet, Google is the first port of call. For engaging with friends, over 82% of young Europeans have profiles on social networking sites (Eurostat 2015) and prefer using Facebook, mostly ignoring the advertising displayed (Barefoot Creative 2008). Mobile instant messaging (MIM) applications have also gained considerable importance for young people. Consequently, applications like WhatsApp or Viber that allow digital natives to send real-time text messages both to individuals and groups at no cost have essentially changed the preferences of young people, determined by low cost, intent, community, privacy, reliability and expectation. This change is perceived as having improved communication within the youth group. In addition to co-ordinating with friends and peers, young people use these tools to exchange wishes and “gifts” via text message (Church and de Oliveria 2003).

Three related themes are oft-discussed with regard to the preference of digital natives for online communication tools: identity, citizenship and learning (Stald 2008; Wyn et al. 2005), covered in the following sections.

Learning

The Net Generation, split between “ICT haves” and “ICT have-nots” (McKay et al. 2005), has the opportunity to develop new skills and competences (for example related to communication or communication in a foreign language). Having grown up in an era where the nature of social interaction has changed, this generation can learn these skills through the use of online communication tools (World YOUTH Report 2003). Social behaviour has become about socialising online. Even if cyberspace exposes young people to hate speech and discrimination and in some cases online violence transfers to the offline world, most young people still prefer to use synchronous forms of chat and online discussion. This preference is mainly determined by the fact that in the online world what you say and what you produce is the basis of the judgment of others, while “lookism” remains highly rated in the offline world (Prensky 2004). Their learning process is definitely influenced by media culture but together with their peers, they get to build new communities. These online communities have been defined as “social aggregations that emerge from the Net when enough people carry on public discussions long enough, with sufficient human feeling to form webs of personal relationships in cyberspace” (Rheingold 1993). Communities of gamers, social activists, bloggers and so on have different boundaries, but users of specific communities, no matter where they are situated, can contribute and support the other members.

Young people, in mastering online communication tools, thus create online communities that transcend traditional class and gender boundaries in a non-physical

space. They are able to get involved, find opportunities to participate, and be part of international movements for human rights, social rights or environmental protection, as well as other communities of interest. Consequently, the online approach brings them closer to the theories of maximal citizenship in offering them new means of political involvement and active citizenship. Essential for the online communities is the fact that young people see them as spaces where they can learn, both sharing information and acquiring knowledge. Accordingly, some youth organisations and initiatives have begun to train their members using online communication tools. For example, MaYouth Civic Education Initiative is a training platform developed by the Global Leaders Network of Zimbabwe, training youth leaders aged 16 to 35 through WhatsApp.³⁹ The platform uses open-source material of documents and videos, sharing them on WhatsApp groups, and aims to increase youth civic participation through knowledge empowerment leveraging.

Identity building

Internet and online communication tools ensure access to youth, and introduce them to new ways of expressing themselves – even introverts can be heard in cyberspace. Young bloggers and vloggers are followed by thousands of young people and influence policies and processes worldwide (Wyn et al. 2005). As with online communities, the new cyber-identities that are being built through online communication tools are global and dynamic, essentially determined by other types of interaction that are happening in the online world. Online communities allow young people to link among themselves and build up an identity based on belonging to a wide range of groups, with access to international movements or youth-led campaigns across the world. This is an opportunity that was not open to generations prior to that of the digital natives.

Citizenship and participation

Using messaging, e-mails, blogs and websites, the Net Generation is able to create new forms of political participation and civic engagement. Young people often use the internet to build up meaningful social networks. Using synchronous forms of chat and online discussion allows young people to discuss subjects that haven't been invested with great interest by the "offline generations". These digital natives meet in discussion groups, and are able to co-operate and plan activities that can decisively contribute to social change.

If "Europe's future depends on its youth" (EU 2009), then it is high time for European countries to focus on encouraging the social and political participation of young people. Different measures and policies (such as the "structured dialogue" mechanisms) have been put in place to ensure dialogue between decision makers and young people and a few of these mechanisms permit online dialogue and offer online communication tools that the latter are keen on using. Most of the national working

39. See www.coe.int/en/web/world-forum-democracy/2016-lab-8-digital-education-for-democracy, accessed 26 February 2018.

groups involved with the structured dialogue processes, in order to involve as many young people as possible in shaping European priorities in the youth field, have set up online consultation mechanisms, including online questionnaires to reach out to and gather responses from young people. In Germany, participants' posts were immediately made available to the other participants and the best contributions were voted on by their peers, while in Estonia young people were motivated to participate through rewards for respondents (over 800 young people responded to the questionnaire in just 20 days) (European Youth Forum 2012).

In the digital era, where young people are constantly present in the online space through video streams, chat rooms, blogs or social media, their exposure to risk is inevitable. In this context, the way risks are managed is of concern for decision makers. The No Hate Speech Movement⁴⁰ has been an excellent tool for raising the awareness of young people and promoting equality, dignity and diversity in online space. With all the concerns regarding the isolation and disengagement of young people in the digital era, it is essential for practitioners, policy makers and the adults around them to understand that the digital natives have different preferences for communication tools from that of previous generations. Young people communicate differently, build up identities that allow them to be in several places at the same time, and create and develop online communities through new modes of participation based on online participation and click-activism. Consequently, digital natives' preferences for new communication tools call for a new approach to youth policies and new mechanisms to involve them in decision-making processes.

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Chapter 7

Towards digital literacy for the active participation and engagement of young people in a digital world

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INTRODUCTION

Variously identified as the “Google Generation” (Nicholas and Rowlands 2008), “Net Geners” (Tapscott 1998) and “digital natives” (Prenksey 2001), young people today have grown up in a world dominated by the internet, with new opportunities for participation and engagement. The prevailing research discourse has tended to report that young people inherently possess digital skills. Despite this, some evidence points towards a disparity between young people’s perception of their digital skills and their ability to navigate this complex landscape in a safe and meaningful way (Christophides et al. 2009). Because the internet is largely regulated by a generic approach to “users”, namely adults, policy often fails to consider the rights of children and young people (Livingstone et al. 2016). It has also been argued that focusing on the discourse of digital natives obscures the need for support in developing young people’s digital skills (ECDL 2014). This may result in essential skills being omitted from the education agenda.

The original digital divide of physical access to the internet has evolved into a skills divide (Van Deursen and Van Dijk 2011). Responding to the skills divide will increase the opportunities for young people to participate in a meaningful way in the digital world. Young people require additional skills to meet their informational needs, and to better understand the norms of the online environment. The provision of education in the context of technology is often associated with functional-level skills – using software packages; browsing and searching for skills; and the ability to discern the quality of information found online. Meaningful digital literacy education should encompass a broader suite of skills reflecting young people’s social and cultural engagement in a networked society, their self-expression, identity formation and participation in the online world.

This chapter will explore the digital literacy of young people in the European context, investigating where and how digital skills can support the inclusion, engagement and participation of young people in the digital world. The research will draw on examples of mechanisms for digital literacy education, from both formal and informal education. The case of Ireland will be examined for illustrative purposes. The chapter will reframe issues of youth participation in a digital world in the context of digital literacy, contributing to theory development and the body of knowledge and providing policy-related insights and recommendations for best practice.

WHAT DOES IT MEAN TO BE LITERATE IN THE 21ST CENTURY?

The definition of digital literacy, the focus of our chapter, is situated within the broader discourse surrounding the evolution of literacy and literate practices in the 21st century. Implicit in emerging articulations of 21st-century literacies are, firstly, an acceptance of the transformative impact of digital and social media technologies on virtually all areas of life (the “digital”), and secondly, an understanding that the knowledge, skills, abilities and aptitudes that individuals need in order to effectively navigate these changes are continually evolving. Multiple, overlapping terms, definitions and frameworks exist, which attempt to capture the essence of literacy in a world where information and communication practices are in a constant state of flux (Anstey and Bull 2006; Jones and Hafner 2012; Belshaw 2012; Meyers et al. 2013; JISC 2014; National Forum for the Enhancement of Teaching and Learning 2015a). Much like the debate about the meaning of information literacy at the end of the last century, a universal conceptualisation of 21st-century literacy has proved elusive, and the discourse reflects this (Meyers et al. 2013). Many of the existing frameworks present an aspirational state, gained through the acquisition of knowledge, skills and attitudes, and demonstrated in the performance of context-specific tasks to a prescribed level of competence. For example, the EU’s Digital Competence Framework (Ferrari 2013) is structured dimensionally as a series of five broad “areas of digital competence” (information, communication, content creation, safety, problem solving), under which specific competences are identified (for example “Browsing, searching and filtering information” and “Managing digital identity”). An accompanying self-assessment grid enables users to rate their own perceived proficiency levels with regard to the different areas of competence. Other articulations seek to unpack the elements that constitute the whole; for instance, a JISC⁴¹ visual map (2014) identified seven core elements of digital literacy, reflecting different, but interrelated dimensions of awareness, practice and competence. This has been superseded by a more refined iteration which refers to six elements of “digital capability”, including information, data and media literacies; digital creation, innovation and scholarship; digital identity and well-being; communication, collaboration and participation; digital learning and self-development; and information and communication technology (ICT) proficiencies (JISC 2015).

41. Formerly the Joint Information Systems Committee.

Digital literacy is also often described in terms of the social, educational or economic benefits it may afford to those who attain it; for example, this definition in the Irish Digital Strategy for Schools (DES 2015: 5) articulates digital literacy as a tool of empowerment and active participation in society the aim of which is to:

Realise the potential of digital technologies to enhance teaching, learning and assessment so that Ireland's young people become engaged thinkers, active learners, knowledge constructors and global citizens to participate fully in society and the economy.

Recently, increased attention has been paid to the social contexts in which literate practices exist, and that imbue them with meaning. In their discussion of "multiliteracies", Anstey and Bull (2006: 20) suggest that many definitions of literacy do not adequately:

address what a literate person needs to know, and be able to do to operate successfully in the contexts in which literacy is used [including] using literacy for work and leisure; active citizenship; participation in social, cultural, and community activities; and personal growth.

Similarly, Jones and Hafner (2012: 12) frame digital literacy in terms of socially constructed identity and practice, stating that:

using media is a rather complicated affair, that influences not just how we do things, but also the kinds of social relationships we can have with other people, the kinds of social identities we can assume, and even the kinds of thoughts we can think. When we talk about being able to use the media in this broader sense, not just as the ability to operate a machine, or decipher a particular language or code, but the ability to creatively engage in particular *social practices*, to assume appropriate *social identities*, and to form or maintain various *social relationships*, we use the term "literacies".

Belshaw's in-depth work on digital literacies (2012) concurs with this contextual framing of the term; he suggests that rather than constituting a binary state (literate or not literate), digital literacy exists instead on a continuum, and is reflected in "eight essential elements" that represent different ways of thinking about the term, within different domains of meaning, practice and engagement. These elements are identified as cultural; cognitive; constructive; communicative; confident; creative; critical; and civic. Belshaw supports a fluid approach to defining the term, stating that "digital literacies are plural, context-dependent, and should be co-created" (Panke 2015). Many of the emerging definitions, therefore, tend to emphasise context, suggesting that an overarching awareness of the competences, tools and practices that are required in any specific circumstances, as well as a metacognitive appreciation of one's own information and learning behaviours, are at the core of being digitally literate. So digital literacy means:

being able to communicate and represent knowledge in different contexts and to different audiences (for example, in visual, audio or textual modes). This involves finding and selecting relevant information, critically evaluating and re-contextualising knowledge and is underpinned by an understanding of the cultural and social contexts in which this takes place. (Hague and Payton 2010: 3)

Meyers, Erickson and Small (2013: 360) highlight the principle of participation that underpins digital literacy conceptions that are based on socially constructed and situated practices, and are:

expressed in terms of the general capabilities individuals have for living, learning and working in a digital society, which recognizes the constantly changing nature of technology, and the evolving expectations we have of digital citizens.

They note that the route to successfully building digital capacity in young people, therefore, lies in finding “new avenues of participation in digital culture” (ibid.) that would support this form of learning. It is clear that the first step towards a framework that will support young people’s growth as digital citizens must be an understanding of how they authentically experience and engage with digital media, and how they perceive their current and future role in the digital society and economy. To date, a true picture of digital youth, and therefore a genuine appreciation of their needs, has been partially obscured by the narrative surrounding the so-called “digital native”, which posits a model of engagement that is not reflected in actual experience. These issues are discussed below.

THE MYTH OF THE DIGITAL NATIVE

Young people in Europe are living and engaging in an increasingly digital world, often referred to as the network society (Castells 2011: 11). Such a society, as imagined by Castells, is characterised by social structures and social organisation around information networks and technology. This has a unique impact on the lives of young people, with technology and, increasingly, mobile technology, ubiquitous in their day-to-day lives. By 2014, 81% of households in the EU-28 had internet access, with broadband used by 78% of households (European Commission 2014a). Mobile technology is pervasive, with smartphones the devices that children are most likely to own or use to go online (Mascheroni et al. 2013). Similarly, the age of first internet use is dropping, as is the age at which children are using their first smartphone. In addition, computers are increasingly popular in the school environment, with the EU average at between three and seven students per computer (Holloway, Green and Livingstone 2013). The ubiquity of technology represents a new condition of social life for young people. Digital media affords young people new opportunities for self-expression, networking, collaboration and participation. User-generated content and information sharing dominates the internet. Social network sites depend and thrive on user-generated content. In April 2016, after Google, YouTube ranked as the second most popular website globally, with Facebook the third most popular; Twitter, Wikipedia and LinkedIn also rank among the top 20 sites globally (Alexa 2016). Young users are actively sharing, adding and building content. Facebook, for example, has 9.8 million users in the 13- to 17-year-old age bracket, with a further 42 million in the 18- to 24-year-old age bracket (Pew Research Center 2016).

We also know that young people are encountering unwanted content online. A study by Pew Internet found that 95% of those surveyed had witnessed cruel behaviour online and 41% reported a negative outcome of information disclosure online (Lenhart and Madden 2007). A European Commission study found that 22% of children in

Ireland have experienced bullying, with 13% of 13- to 14-year-olds reporting being bullied on a social networking site (O'Neill and Dinh 2014). This transformation in young people's lives requires new competences and a new skills orientation, through navigating, processing and evaluating information (Buckingham and Willett 2013). A recent symposium organised by the EU–Council of Europe youth partnership explored youth participation in the digitalised world, reflecting on the opportunities and risks that young people face (EU–Council of Europe youth partnership 2015).

While the term “digital native” is often associated with an assumed level of knowledge and skills among young people to navigate the digital world, the accuracy of the term has been disputed. It has been found that young people's engagement with technology can be varied and even unspectacular and that a misplaced determinism often underpins current portrayals of children, young people and digital technology (Selwyn 2009). Research has also highlighted the disparity between young people's perception of their digital skills and their ability to negotiate the landscape safely (Christofides et al. 2009). Protecting privacy and reputations online is of increasing importance in the context of user-generated content and information sharing. Risks may arise from young people's willing self-display of personal information, their confidence in their online relationships, or confusing or poorly designed site settings (Livingstone 2008).

Emerging as a key public concern in young people's rights online is the protection of privacy and information privacy. As young people participate in the digital world, through the creation of content or the sharing of personal information or media, efforts to safeguard young people in digital spaces have become complicated (Berson and Berson 2006). There is a latent ambiguity surrounding the concept of privacy and this is reflected in how it is protected. Privacy as a valuable social interest has been recognised since the 19th century, when Warren and Brandeis wrote *The right to privacy* (1890). Today, privacy is protected at various levels, through human rights legislation, constitutions and data protection legislation. There is some agreement on information privacy and the right to determine what information about you is made available to others, and to whom (Belotti 1997: 66). Parent (1983: 269) describes this as “the condition of privacy”, wherein “a person's privacy is diminished exactly to the degree that others possess this kind of knowledge about him”. In an information society, this lattice of information networking can result in individual digital dossiers that have profound implications, where seemingly innocuous information can be turned into a personal biography (Solove 2004). The problem is that this biography is “only partially true and very reductive” (ibid.: 46). From the perspective of information-gathering practice and personal information privacy, issues of trust permeate human–computer interaction. Surveillance and data collection are commonplace in our everyday lives and at the same time, young people actively choose to disclose information for personal gain. In reality, “privacy is a value that must often be traded off against some other desirable social value or good” (National Research Council 2007: 318). For younger users, this process is particularly complex.

Nosko, Wood and Molema (2010) studied a cross-section of Facebook users and found that younger people tend to disclose more online while older users are more cautious about privacy. As age increases, the amount of personal information in profiles decreases. Christofides et al. (2009) explored the predictors of information

disclosure in social media, finding that youths are likely to disclose more information. They also found that adults are more likely to control their information and that this may be accounted for by differences in knowledge about privacy settings. Younger users are also making active choices not to use privacy settings. Hugel (2010) found that adults are more concerned about potential privacy threats than younger users and policy makers should be alarmed by the large proportion of users who underestimate the risks to their information privacy on social networks. For both youth and adults, the strongest predictor of information control on Facebook is a greater awareness of the consequences of sharing information (Christophides et al. 2009). A nationally commissioned representative telephone survey of 18- to 24-year-olds in the US (Hoofnagle et al. 2010) found that young adults, despite this evidence of disclosure, share beliefs with older adults that online privacy deserves protection.

In fact, though the evidence shows that users value privacy in online environments, it has also been found that they tend to avoid control settings such as privacy settings if they are too complex or too ambiguous (Karahasanovic et al. 2009). It has also been found that “the Google generation is impatient and has zero tolerance for delay; information and entertainment needs must be fulfilled immediately” (Nicholas and Rowlands 2008: 164). It has been reported that young people tend to overestimate their skills, are not always aware of their skills gaps, are spending more time engaged in digital lifestyle skills than workplace skills, and do not have access to formal, structured digital literacy education (ECDL 2014). In this sense, they may compromise their privacy, not because it is of no value to them, but because they do not possess the knowledge and skills to navigate the online environment. In newer social media environments, users may find that effort expended in ensuring privacy outweighs any perceived costs. It has also been found that younger users believe incorrectly that the law protects their privacy more than it actually does (Hoofnagle et al. 2010).

The original meaning of the term “digital native” differs from the popular understanding of it. Prensky (2001) argued that changes in the way students accessed and processed information necessitated changes in the learning environment. In this context digital natives required a media-rich learning environment. Prensky has since argued that the question to ponder is no longer whether to use the technologies of our time but how to use them to become better, wiser people. Prensky (2012) calls this “digital wisdom”, exploring the role of technology in teaching in the classroom and new types of learning. This is reflected in research that highlights the potential for media literacy skills to support online learning and participation, and protect young people from risks online (Livingstone 2008). Studies have shown that enhanced knowledge can support the capacity to use digital media competently and exercise rights in and with digital media (UNICEF 2014). In addition, it is acknowledged that enhanced user knowledge has strong predictive powers regarding privacy control behaviour (Park 2011). Specifically, interventions targeted at increasing specific skills may also enhance the take-up of online opportunities (Livingstone and Helsper 2009).

There is a need for increased privacy literacy education for young people on issues of participation, information disclosure, reputation and information security. It is necessary to provide this education at a member state level, advocating for privacy literacy awareness across the youth demographic. There is the potential, for example, for short

courses in digital literacy to be designed and introduced. Education is vital to agency in participation in the online world and providing for this at secondary level would facilitate individual vigilance in privacy protection. Capacity building towards digital literacy education will support young people who are digitally literate in thinking carefully about what they are participating in. Ultimately, they will be able to exercise choice in how they participate in the digital world (Hague and Payton 2010).

THE DIGITAL SKILLS POLICY AGENDA

The need to develop digital skills is reflected in a range of policies across Europe. For example, the European Commission Digital Agenda for Europe emphasises the need for digital skills “to participate fully in society” (European Commission 2014b: 3). The Agenda has a focus on the digital divide, and has also introduced the Safer Internet Programme, a set of actions to be undertaken by the Commission, the member states and industry. The Agenda recognises the need for recognition of digital competences in formal education and training systems. Digital competence has been acknowledged as one of the eight key competences for lifelong learning as part of the European Commission’s Lifelong Learning Programme. Defined as “the confident, critical and creative use of ICT to achieve goals related to work, employability, learning, leisure, inclusion and/or participation in society”, digital competence is considered a skill that should be acquired by all citizens to support their “active participation in society and the economy” (Ferrari 2013). In addition, the European Commission Communication “A renewed EU Strategy 2011-14 for corporate social responsibility” calls on enterprises to take responsibility for their impact on society. It highlights the importance of responsible behaviour with respect to society at large and the enterprise itself. The ICT4Society online platform, meanwhile, creates a space for ideas, experiences and recommendations. Digital literacy is the topic of an ongoing discussion (European Commission 2016).

The EU’s Digital Competence Framework (DigComp) was launched by the Information Society Unit of the Joint Research Centre (JRC) in 2013 with the aim of contributing to the better understanding and development of digital competence in Europe. A range of activities were undertaken towards a roadmap for a digital competence framework and descriptors of digital competences. The roadmap identifies and details all the competences necessary to be proficient in digital environments, and describes them in terms of knowledge, skills and attitudes. As mentioned above, it also provides a self-assessment grid, including assessment of information, communication, content creation, safety and problem solving (Ferrari 2013).

A number of examples at a national level highlight how digital skills are increasingly part of the policy agenda:

- ▶ in the United Kingdom, the Digital Skills Committee has emphasised the need to make digital literacy a core school subject, alongside English and Maths. The Digital Inclusion Strategy (2014) recognises the importance of the skills needed for digital inclusion, and the need for enhanced media literacy;
- ▶ in Ireland, the ICT Skills Action Plan (2014) and the National Skills Strategy 2025 (2016) set out a vision and a number of practical actions and steps to support more citizens to get online. Such policy developments support the

use of digital media in education. The Department of Education and Skills (DES) oversaw the development of a series of successful Switch On workshops, inspiring second-level schools to do more with digital media in the classroom;

- ▶ the Digital Italy Agency (Agenzia per l'Italia Digitale) promotes digital skills, to which a section is dedicated in the Strategy for Digital Growth (2015). The Coalition for Digital Skills is the primary instrument of the Strategy to promote digital literacy initiatives. The Digital Italy Agency ran a contest on Actions for Digital Culture to promote digital literacy and inclusion. The 10 award-winning applications (out of a total of 101) range from digital inclusion projects to working digital skills projects and digital culture projects;
- ▶ the French Digital Plan for Education (2015) aims to mainstream digital technology in schools. In order to succeed in transforming teaching and learning practices with digital technology, four pillars have been identified: training, equipment, resources and innovation. Teachers will receive training in computer science, digital project management, digital applications and digital literacy;
- ▶ in Norway, the Programme for Digital Literacy 2004-2008 (2004) supported the integration of digital literacy in all levels of education. The Knowledge Promotion Reform was a comprehensive curriculum reform introduced in 2006 (Erstad 2007). Five basic skills are now integrated and adapted for each subject of the curricula as part of the reform. These skills are: the ability to express oneself orally, the ability to read, the ability to work with numbers, the ability to express oneself in writing, and the ability to use digital tools;
- ▶ while Turkey has rolled out an ambitious educational technology project incorporating interactive whiteboards and tablet computers, it has been reported that insufficient attention has been paid to teachers' skills and competences in using the technology (Hobbs and Tuzel 2017). Middle school students in Turkey have the option of undertaking elective courses in ICT literacy and media literacy (ibid.).

The range of initiatives at a national level is broad, incorporating strategic developments and policy, in addition to upskilling and training. Key to realising the strategic direction of the digital skills agenda is to consider in more detail what effective implementation should look like. In practice, this necessitates an understanding of the complexity of digital literacy as a subject but also the diversity in young people's lives and experiences of technology.

SUPPORTING DIGITAL LITERACY DEVELOPMENT IN YOUNG PEOPLE

The emphasis on social context, participation and meaning in emerging articulations of literacy (and cognate terms) is of particular importance for the engagement of children and youth, as it points to the need for learning experiences that are immersive, authentic and relevant when it comes to digital literacy and the use of digital technologies in formal educational settings. The urgent need for such experiences

has been discussed above, since – contrary to the accepted narrative of the digital native – young people may in fact struggle with issues of privacy, risk and identity in particular, despite their prolific use of digital technologies. Significantly, it has been suggested that there is a disconnect between young people’s experience of technologies at home and in everyday life, and that which they experience in school:

the use of technology [young people] experience in schools often bears little relevance to the ways in which they are communicating and discovering information outside of school ... Young people’s own knowledge, ideas and values are not reflected in the education system and school learning can have little or no bearing on their lives, concerns, interests and perceived or aspirant futures. (Hague and Payton 2010: 11)

This is further illustrated by the results from the 2009 Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) survey, which showed that “the frequency of computer use at home, particularly computer use for leisure, is positively associated with navigation skills and digital reading performance, while the frequency of computer use at school is not” (OECD 2011: 21), suggesting that young people are developing digital competence primarily through activities at home, rather than at school.

Meaningful integration of digital technologies into learning for children and youth calls for a flexible, constructivist approach, which reflects real-life authentic experiences and activates prior knowledge, provides opportunities for peer collaboration and sharing, and fosters an inquiring, independent mindset. This is acknowledged in Ireland’s Digital Strategy for Schools 2015-2020 (DES 2015), where it is stated that a significant barrier to the effective integration of digital technologies in the curriculum has been the traditional “teacher-directed practices” still used in classroom settings, despite the student-oriented, constructivist teaching philosophy to which the majority of teachers aspire. The provision of education in the context of technology is often associated with functional-level skills; for example, using software packages, browsing and searching skills, and the ability to discern the quality of information found online. By contrast, JISC (2014) asserts that digital literacy education should rather look “beyond functional IT skills to describe a richer set of digital behaviours, practices and identities.” However, the discussion around digital literacy in the formal educational setting is often dominated by a focus on the need for students to develop particular skill-sets, linked to future employability and marketplace requirements, such as coding, information architecture, and so forth. In Ireland, major strategy documents such as the ICT Skills Action Plan (2014) and the National Skills Strategy 2025 (2016) highlight skills shortages in areas such as ICTs and Science, Technology, Engineering and Medicine (STEM), noting that “enterprise policy in Ireland is strongly oriented towards knowledge-intensive industries and there will be an increasing demand for people with STEM related skills and qualifications, at a range of levels across different sectors of the economy” (DES 2016: 74). The European Computer Driving Licence (ECDL), however, separates “digital literacy skills” from skills classified as “computer science” (including coding), and expresses concern about the prioritisation of the latter in educational agendas. They insist that a standardised approach to instruction should be applied across nations, to “encompass both computing and digital literacy as two substantial areas of digital skills” (ECDL Foundation 2015: 8).

Ideally, effective digital literacy education for youth would encompass a broad suite of skills reflecting their social and cultural engagement in a networked society, their self-expression, identity formation and participation in the online world. Research into this demographic, variously known as the Millennials, Net Gen, Google Generation and digital natives, has begun to shed light on the preferences, expectations and learning behaviours of young people, particularly around the use of digital technologies and e-learning, although this is constantly shifting as new technologies, tools and practices emerge. Generally, although it varies across national and socio-economic boundaries (OECD 2011), the use of digital and social media technologies among this demographic in daily life is pervasive, and they have high expectations in terms of how these technologies should blend with and enhance their lives. Constant connectivity and access to Wi-Fi, rapid retrieval of information, mobility, and tools for all types of social interaction and entertainment are important considerations that define young people's engagement with digital technologies. However, despite this apparently intensive use of digital and social media in informal settings, "many learners do not have a clear understanding of how courses could or should use technology to support their learning" (Knight 2011). One of the common myths associated with this generation is that they are inherently well-disposed towards the idea of technology-enhanced learning, and unequivocally welcome the digitisation of their learning spaces; often, however, "students separate social and formal digital usage, and technology use for entertainment does not necessarily imply readiness to learn through digital systems" (National Forum for the Enhancement of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education 2015a: 7). Meyers, Erickson and Small (2013: 359) note that while digital literacy is often perceived as a competency that must be primarily instilled in formal educational settings, the reality is that it is also developed in less formal, unstructured spaces such as the home, online communities, museums, libraries, public amenities, etc. In this context, they assert that these informal spaces should be harnessed to increase motivation and engagement, by providing "an alternate venue for skills instruction, overcoming some of the motivational challenges, often by re-contextualizing skills in terms of learner interests or providing different incentives to practice and attain mastery".

The influence of digital media on youth work is also recognised, both as an innovative mode of youth work delivery, but also as a legitimate alternative space for digital literacy development outside of formal education structures. A meta-analysis of studies investigating youth work and digital media use across different countries revealed varied use of digital technologies, from basic e-mail and texting to social media apps, digital photography, film making and gaming. The purposes served by these technologies included communication, the provision of advice and guidance to young people, "learning a new skillset; training and education; animation; film making; photography and creative writing" (National Youth Council of Ireland 2016: 12), in addition to citizenship-focused activities such as lobbying and campaigning, which resonate strongly with the emerging conceptions of digital literacy outlined above. In 2016, a National Youth Council of Ireland report on ICT, digital and social media in youth work emphasised that "[y]outh work has the opportunity to fill the gaps that sometimes occur within the home and school in supporting young people to understand technology and the risks that might be involved" (2016: 13). Findings reported in the study underline the opportunities afforded by digital and social media technologies in "supporting citizenship, life skills and thinking skills, and

participation and advocacy” in the context of youth work, in addition to acknowledging the potential of these channels for forging genuine, authentic connections with youth, whose lives are “entrenched” in technology (ibid.).

The idea of participation is further reflected in the “All Aboard” programme in Ireland that is focused on “building digital capacity to enhance teaching and learning” in higher education (National Forum for the Enhancement of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education: 2015b). A key principle underpinning the project aim is that of the “engagement of students as partners”, which acknowledges the critical importance of including the student voice in the implementation of technology-enhanced learning. Recognising and reflecting on their own role and engagement as active participants and creators in relation to digital technologies and tools is at the heart of young people’s development as digitally literate citizens; in the words of Meyers et al. (2013: 362), “a digitally literate citizen must be an active and ever-vigilant participant, constantly evaluating those opportunities for their benefits and their downsides”. Learning activities should therefore give students the opportunity to see themselves as active and powerful agents in the creation of a digital society and economy.

Creating learning environments that support these activities, however, requires a fundamental transformation of the traditional pedagogical culture of educational institutions, and in Ireland, for example, there is a significant gap between research and practice in terms of digital literacy education. Research on a sample of Irish primary school teachers found that “digital literacy in Irish classrooms often remains synonymous with the technical skills needed to operate computers” (McCarthy and Murphy 2014: 23), and that the prevalent approach to literacy teaching in the classroom is based on print literacy, rather than the multi-modality required in digital literacy learning. A significant policy focus remains the technical infrastructure required to support technology-enhanced learning – for example broadband, availability of Wi-Fi, supply of devices and tools – rather than the pedagogical change required to transform learning. McCarthy and Murphy’s study found that the greatest classroom change in recent years has been the introduction of interactive whiteboards to the primary school classroom; however, their results showed that the majority of teachers use them primarily to support traditional print-literacy focused lessons, or as a replacement for whiteboards.

Despite the barriers that exist, there are signs of progress, and new initiatives have emerged that point to a deeper, more transformative shift in practice when it comes to digital literacy. In 2013, a secondary school in the Dublin region introduced a short course on digital literacy at Junior Certificate level (students aged 14 to 15), including a module on the “digital citizen” with a focus on safe and responsible online behaviours, and reflection on one’s identity in the online world. The programme also involved the students in the design and creation of a dedicated “21st century learning space”, with movable seating and technological tools to support collaborative learning (Keating 2015). A more general Junior Certificate level short course on digital media literacy, in which “students learn to use digital technology, communication tools and the internet to engage in self-directed enquiry”, is also available to roll out to schools. This course encourages students to consider their attitudes, rights and responsibilities in relation to the online world and social media, and to reflect on how and where they “fit in” with

the digital environment (NCCA 2014). At primary school level, the Digital Schools of Distinction programme aims “to promote, recognise and encourage excellence in the use of technology in primary schools” (Digital Schools of Distinction 2016). To gain this status, schools are evaluated against five criteria, including: leadership and vision; ICT integration in the curriculum; school ICT culture; continuing professional development (for teachers); and resources and infrastructure. To date, 283 Irish primary schools have been awarded Digital School of Distinction status. In higher education, the theme of partnership and responsibility through digital literacy is supported by the recently launched Student Digital Ambassadors project at University College Dublin (UCD), which has a dual purpose; first, to provide training for student recruits “to develop and enhance their digital skills in a number of relevant areas, for example social media, educational technologies (including apps), digital identity and digital research skills,” and second, for the student ambassadors to then promote digital skills to the wider UCD community and provide peer support for other students in the context of digital skills development, through sharing their skills and expertise (UCD Teaching and Learning 2016). This initiative is a part of UCD’s involvement in the All Aboard Digital Skills in Higher Education project (National Forum for the Enhancement of Teaching and Learning 2015b), and represents an innovative approach to skills development, moving outside the classroom model and into the real lives of students, where peers can relate to each other on their own terms. It is hoped that the project will result in a more engaging and embedded digital culture in the university at large, and will contribute to the overall All Aboard project goal of building digital capacity in higher education nationwide.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

Effectively supporting digital literacy development in young people means first understanding who they are, how they engage with digital and social media on a day-to-day basis, and the gaps that exist in their awareness of the risks and opportunities that new technologies afford. The myth of the “digital native”, born with the innate ability to expertly harness new technology, has led to unhelpful assumptions about the digital capability of youth, and the implementation of practical, skills-based learning frameworks that fail to adequately address more abstract concerns such as privacy, ethics, online identity and risk. Emerging articulations of digital literacy focus to a greater extent on the contextual and social aspects of the term, pointing to a need for models that are immersive, meaningful and linked to young people’s lived experience. Participation in digital culture, social responsibility, ethical awareness and digital citizenship are lenses through which the state of being digitally literate can be viewed; learning opportunities that focus on these elements can offer engaging and authentic experiences for young people, in addition to the traditional classroom model.

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Chapter 8

Reflections on the start of the No Hate Speech Movement

*Antonia Wulff*⁴²

There were three things we wanted to do: counter the rise of the extreme right, particularly online, where it was becoming good at spreading its messages, recruiting people and intimidating others. Online spaces and discussions were becoming more hateful – which, in turn, was having far-reaching consequences for our societies.

Secondly, we wanted to explore new ways of working with and supporting young people in this regard. It wasn't that the values of the Council of Europe – human rights, democracy and the rule of law – were irrelevant, but rather that some approaches to defending these values seemed outdated, starting with what we viewed as the artificial separation of the online and offline worlds.

Thirdly, we wanted to challenge the view of young people as victims only, and show that one can be both vulnerable and, at the same time, among those best positioned to challenge and change things. We were inspired by the work that youth organisations and networks were already doing to combat hate speech, such as reporting racist websites and training police in recognising neo-Nazi graffiti.

The discussions within the Advisory Council on Youth took place in the broader context of the Council of Europe undergoing a reform process. All Council of Europe sectors were being encouraged to find new ways of doing things, and as part of this process, the youth sector had been asked what its added value was. We were deeply offended and felt generally misunderstood; how could they fail to see the impact of the youth sector?

So we set out to design a project that would support young people in combating hate speech online. We would build capacity to recognise hate speech, racist rhetoric and symbols; to understand the difference between hate speech and freedom of speech; and to be informed about the legislation and mechanisms for reporting hate speech in different countries. We would develop and share tools for online monitoring, reporting and activism; offer peer training; and build a community of activists. We called the project Online Human Rights Defenders.

42. The author was Chair of the Advisory Council on Youth from 2009 to 2011. The 2009-11 mandate of the Advisory Council proposed the No Hate Speech Movement, which was endorsed by the Joint Council on Youth and officially launched by the Council of Europe in 2013.

Up to that point, the Council of Europe had not done much work on hate speech online, despite it being a central threat to human rights, democracy and the rule of law. By working to reclaim the internet as a public space, we believed, the values and work of the Council of Europe could be translated into something tangible in the everyday lives of young people. At the same time, the work of the institution would provide a broader framework and contribute to a feeling of community, with many different actors fighting for the same cause, albeit using different tools.

While we considered the legal nature and definition of hate speech a strength, we were conscious of its limitations, especially given the varying legal frameworks across countries. In a worst-case scenario, our activism would be limited and halted by arguments over what really constitutes hate speech. Ideally, the legal frameworks would provide support and additional artillery for our struggle.

This was particularly important, considering the risks of the project implicitly framing hate speech as a symptom of individual ignorance and lack of education, and denying the ideological nature of many extreme right movements, which could give the impression that the issue could be easily solved by a friendly anti-racist or pedagogical human rights project. While we need to foster and promote dialogue as a transformative tool, hate speech as a phenomenon has political and structural roots, and we need to attack it on those fronts, too.

The backing of an intergovernmental human rights institution such as the Council of Europe was therefore key to the campaign. But that required both the Organisation and its member states to step up their work; not only did we need them to support and protect human rights defenders, we needed them to prevent human rights abuse and violations in the first place. We expected our defence of human rights to be reinforced at the highest political level.

Little did we know then that the governments of some of these member states would actually go on to contribute to a worsening of the human rights situation in Europe, often adopting policies and language that are helping to normalise hate speech online and offline. Sadly, the No Hate Speech Movement has never been needed more than it is today.

NO HATE SPEECH MOVEMENT

A contribution from the Council of Europe

Menno Etemma, No Hate Speech Movement co-ordinator

Since its launch in 2013, the No Hate Speech Movement, the youth campaign for human rights and against hate speech online, has been considered a priority project of the Council of Europe.

With the increasing integration of the internet into our daily lives, the need for our human rights to be ensured online has become evident. The internet gives us new opportunities to enjoy our rights to express our opinions, assemble, form new communities and learn from each other, free from practical burdens such as travel costs

or visa regimes. But it also allows individuals and groups to promote discrimination and intolerance through the expression of hate speech online. Hate speech is not a new human rights issue; but online hate speech has added an extra dimension to the problem, because it takes place day and night and is difficult to monitor, measure and prevent.

The freedom to express ourselves and participate fully and equally in democratic society, in other words to be a full and equal member of European society free from discrimination and fear of violence, are at the core of what the Council of Europe aims to realise for all Europeans. The Organisation therefore works with the governments and civil society organisations of all its member states towards the promotion and protection of human rights, democracy and the rule of law in Europe.

In the first paragraph of Recommendation CM/Rec(2014)6 on a guide to human rights for internet users, the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe made clear that the rights and freedoms enshrined in the European Convention on Human Rights equally apply to the online space. The 47 member states of the Organisation should therefore ensure that we can fully enjoy our rights to express our opinions, to assembly, to privacy and to use the internet to gain knowledge, free from cybercrime.

Indeed, more and more public services are delivered through online tools, such as paying taxes or applying for social services as well as public debates or consultations. We turn to the internet for news through online papers but social media platforms are also a source of information. Many of these news channels are interactive; the reader can leave comments and contribute to the information exchange. Sadly, all too often we see expressions of hate posted online, targeting individuals and groups just because they are perceived to be different or for having a different opinion.

Hate speech targeting women, for example female journalists or politicians, is a clear example. For this campaign we have termed this sexist hate speech because it targets women not for what they say but simply because they are women and dare to say something. Sexist hate speech aims to humiliate and objectify women, destroy their reputations and push them into silence and submission. Those that are targeted by hate speech often feel threatened and too often stop participating online. Hate speech therefore undermines the right to express oneself and to equality (for example gender equality). The Council of Europe Convention against violence against women and domestic violence, also known as the Istanbul Convention, addresses sexism online and sexist hate speech, recognising it as a form of violence against women. The Council of Europe Gender Equality Strategy, too, supports governments and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) in addressing sexist hate speech and promotes women in media, among other initiatives. Sexist hate speech is therefore one of the thematic priorities of the No Hate Speech Movement. But hate speech can target anyone. Therefore we also continue to address anti-Semitic hate speech, hate speech targeting refugees and asylum seekers, Islamophobic hate speech, homophobic hate speech and Romaphobic hate speech.

To address hate speech, we need a multi-layered and multi-stakeholder approach. Various sectors of the Council of Europe therefore work together within this campaign to promote awareness, run educational projects and provide support with the

implementation of human rights conventions and treaties. During the last Action Day against Hate Speech Targeting Refugees, on 20 June 2015, we worked with the Special Representative of the Secretary General (of the Council of Europe) on Migration and Refugees and various campaign partners on raising awareness that refugees have the human right to seek asylum from violence and prosecution, and that they also have the right to a fair hearing, treatment and decent accommodation, language support, etc. We also worked with members of the Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe in the No Hate Parliamentary Alliance on an action against political hate speech targeting refugees. Naturally, the arrival of so many new people in a community leads to questions and concerns, so campaign partners organised (educational) activities that promote intercultural communication and building understanding between people across Europe.

As a youth campaign, one of our main focuses is on increasing the knowledge of young people through human rights education about the risks hate speech poses to human rights and democracy, and empower them to reject hate speech and promote human rights online. *Bookmarks*, a manual on combating hate speech through human rights education, supports youth workers, educators and youth leaders to this end. It is part of the long-running Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights Education (EDC/HRE) for all young people in Europe. This programme builds on the publication of *Compass*, a manual for HRE with young people, *Gender Matters*, a manual on addressing gender-based violence affecting young people, and *Mirrors*, a manual on combating anti-Gypsyism through human rights education, to name just a few. All these manuals are used in the campaign's educational activities.

The No Hate Speech Movement is not the first campaign of the youth sector of the Council of Europe against discrimination. In 1995, the first All Different, All Equal campaign was launched, its success being followed by a second one-year campaign in 2006. The experiences, manuals and practices of those campaigns remain relevant as tools to challenge hate speech today.

Of course, our awareness-raising and educational work does not stand by itself. Appropriate youth policies developed with and for youth are essential for success. The youth sector of the Council of Europe aims to encourage co-operation to develop and harmonise youth policy across its member states and set quality criteria for its implementation to provide youth with "equal opportunities and experience that enable them to develop the knowledge, skills and competences to play a full part in all aspects of society" (Agenda 2020, 2008).

The campaign therefore wants all Council of Europe member states to implement the Charter on Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights Education and include education about the human rights of internet users. It is actually not so difficult to do, as integrating the campaign manual *Bookmarks* would be easy and could have potentially big results.

The campaign also supports the implementation of the General Policy Recommendation No. 15 on combating hate speech issued by the European Commission against Racism and Intolerance (ECRI) of the Council of Europe. The document provides guidelines to understand what constitutes hate speech, incitement and freedom of

expression. The policy recommendation includes encouraging speedy reactions by public figures to hate speech, withdrawal of support to political parties that actively use hate speech, self-regulation on the part of media, and awareness raising on the dangerous consequences of hate speech.

It is important that more countries sign the additional protocols of the Budapest Convention on Cybercrime, which cover the criminalisation of acts of a racist and xenophobic nature committed through computer systems. In addition, the campaign contributes to the Council of Europe Internet Governance Strategy, which advocates for an open, inclusive, safe and enabling online environment. We believe that young people should be active partners in the decisions taken on the governance of the internet.

So how can young people be involved? While the No Hate Speech Movement is a youth campaign of the Council of Europe, it is composed of national campaigns in over 43 countries across Europe, Morocco, Quebec and Mexico that implement it with over 60 European partners and online activists. The national campaigns are implemented with the active involvement of youth organisations, human rights NGOs and governmental representatives through national campaign committees or campaign support groups. Through this approach the national campaigns can be adapted to national contexts and languages.

Together, we organise educational activities, conferences, youth events, youth camps, street activities and festivals. Offline events in specific countries are listed on the campaign website www.nohatespeechmovement.org or the Facebook pages of national campaigns, listed on www.nohatespeechmovement.org/ncc. Online activities can be found on the campaign site and www.facebook.com/nohatespeech, and the hashtag #nohatespeech is used on Twitter. To summarise:

- ▶ the online campaign platform www.nohatespeechmovement.org is an open space for self-made videos and photo messages from young people of all ages about their personal experiences of hate speech. Users of the platform can subscribe to the newsletter and find out how to take part in the campaign;
- ▶ Hate Speech Watch – www.hatespeechwatch.org – allows users to link in any hate speech content from the internet. Users can tag and comment on the posted messages. Counter-narratives and information on national mechanisms for reporting hate speech are being included;
- ▶ the Campaign in Action Blog – www.nohatespeechmovement.org – allows users to upload information and share activities at national and European level. It provides an overview of what is being done by activists and partners of the campaign.

Human rights and democratic participation online is a concern to us all and we can all be targets of hate speech. Being silent is not an option, because this allows hate speech to be visible and spread.

THE NO HATE SPEECH CAMPAIGN IN HUNGARY

Interview with Ivett Karvalits, campaign co-ordinator for Hungary

Why was the campaign important to launch in your country?

Hatred, incitement to hate, and hate speech against vulnerable groups in society, based on xenophobia, intolerance and prejudice, are some of the most crucial problems of our age, both online and offline. In Hungary, the phenomenon is widespread and has worsened in the past decade due to the consequences of the economic crisis: a high level of unemployment among youngsters, a lack of alternative career paths, poverty, a lack of citizenship education, a democratic deficit and radicalisation, which usually go together with scapegoating towards marginalised groups of society. This has all contributed to a climate of intolerance.

According to the data of a Hungarian youth report published in 2012, the majority of young Hungarians live a significant part of their social life online, in a virtual world that is full of risks, challenges and ambiguous information and messages. One of these risks is (the creation of or sharing of targeted) hateful content, that is hate speech. Cyber-bullying, abuse and verbal violence in the online environment are the most negative consequences of young people's active presence in the social life of the virtual space, which may result in actual physical and psychological harm to individual personalities and the community.

The recent migration crisis has provided an excuse for these voices of hate, and Hungary's leading political parties have legitimised them by their open rejection of refugees along with their oft-voiced narratives about the nation state based on a homogenous culture. Public polls show that the most radical, right-wing political party is the most popular among Hungarian youth, although their political awareness and participation is generally very low. This is to be deplored, but citizenship education and learning about human rights is a grey area in Hungarian public education. Teachers lack training in innovative and effective methods in this area and there is a dearth of resources for appropriate curricula. Moreover, citizenship education is not included in the core curricula as an independent subject, and schools do not prioritise it when selecting extra-curricular activities.

That is why the No Hate Speech Movement in Hungary is important in terms of its objectives regarding human rights education or education for active citizenship. Our aim is to spread a culture of human rights: to sensitise the public, and above all young people, about the importance of human rights online and offline. We try to contribute to the development of an inclusive and respectful youth and school culture; draw attention to the significance of online communities in the life of young people; and raise awareness of the risks and responsibilities related to online actions and expressions. We want to teach young people to become critical, make informed decisions and stand up for the values we all believe in and respect. We also aim to reach out to organisations and professionals who work with young people in formal and non-formal education and involve them in achieving the above-mentioned goals.

Can you give an example of the positive impact of the campaign at local/national level?

Hungary joined the No Hate Speech Movement in March 2013. A campaign committee involving several different youth organisations (including members of the National Youth Council) was set up and has been actively working on sensitising young people about human rights, internet safety and active citizenship by organising events, trainings, online and offline actions and non-formal activities on different issues related to the campaign. These include solidarity with the targets of hate speech, counter-narratives to hate speech, human rights protection, and education for active participation. In the past three years 10 national training sessions were organised in the framework of the campaign, involving more than 150 youth workers and young people, and seven local model projects were developed by youth country-wide, along with a national online democracy competition dedicated to the campaign involving 20 secondary school classes and school communities in relevant activities. We organised a road show to Hungary's top universities, holding lectures and round table discussions to sensitise graduate students about human rights online. The members of the campaign committee engage in international co-operation, and several international youth exchanges/trainings/seminars have been organised. Further, 10 video messages have been produced by the campaign, including a popular song and video clip dedicated to the campaign, and three flash mobs were organised, reaching out to hundreds of young people and the larger public with messages supporting human rights. Some of the model projects gained wider public attention; these included a travelling photo exhibition and random acts of street activism using the methodology of invisible theatre. Young volunteer activists also took the campaign to major summer festivals. Active partners of the campaign include national youth organisations, local youth clubs/centres, local youth-led organisations and NGOs working with human rights education or targeting young people.

In terms of impact, we may assume that young people involved in the implementation of campaign activities and projects have developed their social and organisational competences, and are more actively participating in their local communities. Those who have been targeted/reached by the activities are more responsible for their online and offline actions towards different vulnerable groups in society, and have become aware of the importance of human rights and knowledgeable about the risks and consequences of online hate speech.

What challenges have you faced?

The Hungarian campaign committee was set up by the Ministry of Human Resources and comprises NGOs or youth organisations that depend on funds provided by various donor institutions. From the very beginning, the campaign lacked financial support from the state, so all the work that was carried out by the organisations involved was financed by them from their own resources or from project funding that they obtained, mainly through EU grants or from the Council of Europe. Hungarian NGOs are used to this situation, but this does not help in terms of the predictability, continuity and sustainability of the campaign. In spite of all this many excellent initiatives were implemented, and from 2016 the campaign committee was offered an annual budget by the Youth Department of the Ministry of Human Resources for basic operations.

Another challenge is the sensitiveness of the issues we are talking about, and how to talk to young people about them. When we have tried to involve organisations working with targets of hate, or other organisations with years of experience in the protection of human rights, they have always questioned or doubted the depth and efficacy of such a “youth campaign”. The visuals and messages used and the dominance of “social media” tools in the campaign, which we consider assets when talking about young people as a target group, are sometimes perceived as superficial and banal. Often, in approaching new stakeholders, we have had to convince them about the legitimacy and necessity of our mission and our methods. At the same time, we have also experienced great openness on the part of young people towards our activities and messages, especially the logo of the movement, which is increasingly recognised in Hungary.

THE NO HATE SPEECH CAMPAIGN IN BELGIUM

Interview with Manu Mainil, campaign co-ordinator for Belgium

Why was it important to launch the campaign in your country?

Whether in French-speaking Belgium or elsewhere, our multiple identities are constantly developing in the virtual sphere. This virtual sphere is an integral part of the real world and our internet connection follows us like a shadow wherever we go. Young people are all the more likely to act through imitation and to replicate the behaviour they see there. Several surveys confirm that they come across online hate speech on a daily basis (in the form of images, text, videos, etc.) and they do not necessarily know how to react or who to turn to for help.

This is why we felt it was essential to launch the campaign in Belgium in order to assist young people in learning about active, critical, creative and supportive cyber-citizenship, and to provide their adult role models (educators, parents, teachers, etc.) with educational resources to enable them to organise awareness-raising activities on their own, ensuring a climate of trust and respect.

Since March 2013, our platform of associations and activists has been undertaking substantive work developing tools (illustrations, games, videos, etc.) and has organised multiple activities (citizen-based action, events, exhibitions, training courses, seminars, etc.).

Can you give an example of the campaign’s positive impact at local/national level?

The No Hate Speech Campaign has enabled us to build up a vast network of players willing to take firm action to ensure human rights are upheld online.

Since November 2015, spurred on by the International Youth Office that now coordinates the campaign, this networking has expanded significantly and become much more diversified. This has given us a better picture of what is happening on the ground, providing us with a solid foundation on which to establish intersectoral partnerships and a much higher profile.

There are now 350 members on our platform of associations and activists, which functions as a testing ground, making it possible to express one's needs, share good practices, compile documentation, take advantage of training and practical tools, and take joint action for certain events.

What challenges have you faced?

Without a doubt, the main challenge has been the constantly changing nature of the digital environment. The multiplication of platforms and applications means that we constantly need to be up to date in a vast variety of contexts, including security settings and confidentiality, the way users interact, and reporting mechanisms.

This has an impact on how those helping young people approach the online hate problem: initially, there is a tendency to feel uncomfortable with the new technologies that are constantly evolving. So it is imperative for our awareness-raising activities to address this and provide means of discussing, without any inhibition, the way young people use their computers and smartphones. We feel that it is vital for us to offer them an opportunity to speak out and discuss topics that can at times be sensitive, taking a necessarily objective approach and being fully aware that everything happening in the virtual world has consequences for everyone as individuals. These may have negative or even dramatic consequences, but it is never too late to reverse the trend and use the internet, which is a formidable tool, to combat all forms of discrimination!

THE NO HATE SPEECH CAMPAIGN IN IRELAND

Interview with Anne Walsh, campaign co-ordinator for Ireland

Why was the campaign important to launch in your country?

The National Youth Council launched the No Hate Speech Movement in Ireland in response to a call from the campaign team in the Council of Europe. My first thought was that we don't have a lot of hate speech in Ireland compared to other countries in Europe since we are lucky not to have a far right political wing. But scratch the surface and hate speech is as prevalent in Ireland as elsewhere. It is especially noticeable in relation to Travellers, our indigenous, traditionally nomadic fellow citizens, who are openly discriminated against. (In Europe, Irish Travellers are described under the broader term of Gypsy.) We have also seen a significant increase in Islamophobia and of course there is the endemic issue of sexist hate speech.

When we first got involved in the campaign Ireland was preparing to vote on legislating for same-sex marriage and we wanted to counter the hate speech that was bound to erupt. Having learned lessons from that campaign we anticipate that the next trigger for increased hate speech will be a proposed referendum to repeal the ban on abortion in Ireland. It is a contentious issue and will be hurtful for many. The No Hate Speech Movement will be fighting to make sure it is carried out with respect from both sides.

We are also fighting to have hate crime legislation put in place. We are one of only two countries in Europe without hate crime legislation. We don't believe that hate speech can be legislated against as it is so hard to define but this further necessitates a strong campaign against hate speech at community level.

Can you give an example of the positive impact of the campaign at local/national level?

Despite having no core funds and a very small team of Youth Ambassadors we see that we are making a difference. People know we exist, they know there is a bystander who cares and who acts. By taking action as role models and observing trends we see more and more people standing in solidarity against hate mongers; there are more online posts supporting victims and standing up against hate speech. The culture online is shifting to one where people aren't afraid to call out discrimination when they see it.

We have had politicians apologise for offensive comments and some have been removed from their parties or barred from standing for election. Twitter have engaged with us really well, as have Facebook.

At local level we see youth groups carry out activities such as flash mobs that directly reduce hate speech and prejudicial language that would have been present in the groups before their involvement in the campaign. Other groups have made videos that send out a strong message on the importance of solidarity and in standing up for others. Young people tell us that they now stop themselves from writing hateful stuff online when they are angry, finding more constructive ways to disagree with people.

In the framework of our campaign in Ireland, we have trained Youth Ambassadors who run a social media rota on our own No Hate Speech Movement Facebook and Twitter platforms. Mainly, they post counter-narratives to keep positive anti-discrimination messages alive and active. They also give presentations to schools, youth groups and colleges.

What challenges have you faced?

There are many challenges in running the No Hate Speech Movement campaign in Ireland. We have no core money so there is no full-time or even part-time co-ordinator for the campaign. All of our Youth Ambassadors are busy with college, school or work so their time is limited. This reduces the impact that we could be having. We rely a lot on being involved in European-wide projects to upskill our Youth Ambassador team.

It is a difficult campaign to run – who wants to ask young people to search for hate speech? We are lucky that some members of our National Campaign Committee take on some of this task, taking screenshots, alerting us to incidents, and keeping a note of repeat offenders. Also, as an online campaign, it operates largely in the same organic space that online communication happens, a space that is hard to manipulate and make inroads into as non-professional volunteers. As humans we tend to gravitate towards like-minded people so our online circle of influence usually comprises people of a similar mind frame. Reaching out beyond those circles means

making more visits to youth groups, schools and colleges. However, it takes time and money to build this capacity. We have a great vision for the campaign in Ireland – in particular we want to work more with Northern Ireland, but we are still looking for a key partner there. Nevertheless, with very little we have made an impression far larger than we ever thought possible.

THE NO HATE SPEECH CAMPAIGN IN SERBIA

Setting the proper foundations as a precondition for campaign sustainability

Aleksandra Knežević, campaign co-ordinator for Serbia

We embraced the idea of launching a campaign that would combat hate speech and other negative phenomena in the online community as soon as it appeared at the European level, seeing in it the proper instrument for introducing the topic in our national and local realities. We were looking at research that told us that young people in Serbia were spending up to 15 hours per day online, and were not properly informed and educated about cyberspace: that was the trigger for us to join the campaign as soon as it was officially launched.

We saw in it a two-fold purpose: to teach young people that negative behaviour on the internet has the same weight and consequences as in the real world, seriously affecting young people's lives; and to show them how useful a place the internet can actually be, for the access it provides to information important for their education, mobility, activism and leisure time. Simply put, the campaign message is: do not use cyberspace to vent your anger and frustration on other people behind a mask of anonymity; if you are there, work on yourself and improve your knowledge, expand your horizons, and make new contacts. We decided, on the basis of a situation analysis at the national level, to follow two tracks – combating negativity and confronting it with all the positivity of the internet.

Much time was dedicated to setting the proper foundations. We followed guidelines to form a multisectoral working body that would work according to the principle of co-management, aiming to have everybody's voice heard and everybody's ideas included; we educated and trained different stakeholders (for example teachers, journalists, NGOs, students), counting on the effect of multiplication for their further engagement within the campaign; we encouraged specific local activities, both offline and online, fully believing that each of our partners responded to needs and priorities in their own context; and we pushed inclusion of topics addressing hate speech in strategic acts at the local level, knowing that a proper strategic framework would contribute to the durability of such topics on the local agenda. Laying such foundations proved to be extremely important for the sustainability of the campaign at a later stage, when the first challenges appeared.

At the same time, we used different communication channels and instruments to approach our main target group and put the issues of cyber-security and combating hate speech on the internet on the agenda of local and national actors. We knew that we could not separate educational aspects from the promotional component and

we tried to put the same focus on the content as well as on visibility. The imperative was to reach as many people as possible in a way that presented the campaign as something useful, understandable and accessible. We wanted to bring the ideas and goals of the campaign closer to citizens, so we needed to use channels that would reach ordinary people. Our greatest success was achieved through sport, and though a superficial glance might have led one to question the link between sport and combating hate speech online, the public was receptive to the ideas presented. After all sport is an important communication channel for the dissemination of information and the promotion of positive social values. Seeing their favourite players wearing T-shirts with strong messages against hate speech (first online, then in both the real and virtual worlds), influenced many members of the public to pay attention to other activities we were implementing. Famous sports personalities were engaged with the campaign, and they promoted messages about the proper use of the internet, including the risks and negative consequences of online expressions of aggression or violence towards different groups on social networks. Given our national passion for sports, these messages were heard by the Serbian public.

These positive experiences in relation to the campaign at the national level drew on activities taking place at the local level, including sessions to disseminate information and knowledge and build capacity: over 80 municipalities implemented their own activities addressing hate speech. Investing in people was the best part of the campaign, because it helped it stay relevant and active once the first challenges appeared on the national level. In Serbia, this took place when the institution in charge of implementation changed its focus and removed the campaign from its priorities. Losing the benefit of clear guidance and co-ordination was fortunately only a short-term problem – local structures soon started to organise themselves on their own, providing the resources from local governments, as well as from other national and international donors. This was the best proof that the foundations of the No Hate Speech Movement had been laid properly, in a way to protect the campaign's sustainability no matter what.

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Abstracts

ONLINE INSTEAD OF OFFLINE LEISURE TIME? THE TRANSFORMATION OF YOUNG PEOPLE'S LEISURE-TIME SPACES AND MEDIA USE IN HUNGARY

Ádám Nagy and Anna Fazekas

An age group can be considered to be a generation if it is characterised by some common immanent quality, generation knowledge and community feature, and three conditions are necessary for this: common experience; an actual orientation to each other of its members; and a shared interpretation of their situation, attitudes and forms of action (Mannheim 1978). Prensky has interpreted belonging to such an age group in relation to the information society (2011). We consider the development of Prensky's digital natives-digital immigrants model and incorporate it into the Strauss-Howe model (1991), according to which generation change in Mannheim's sense takes place in society roughly every 15 to 20 years. Through a theory of socialisation (Nagy 2013), leisure time and media is seen to play the same role in post-modern society as school socialisation did in modern society and the family did in the pre-modern era. Thus, from the data on youth leisure time we can try to draw a picture of today's young (Y and Z) generations through their activities and media usage in this regard, confirming the differences between generations. We make use of Hungarian data here, because it derives from large-scale youth research conducted every four years and has been running for one and a half decades (Ifjúság 2000; Ifjúság 2004; Ifjúság 2008; Magyar Ifjúság 2012). This provides an overview of an 8 000-people sample that is representative of age, gender and settlement type in relation to the life situations and way of life of Hungarian youth.

Keywords: generations, leisure-time activities, online and offline leisure time

LEADING ENTREPRENEURIAL YOUTH – LEADERSHIP AND ENTREPRENEURIAL SKILLS FOR SHAPING THE MARKETS AND THE JOBS LANDSCAPE IN A MOBILE AND COLLABORATIVE ECONOMY IN GREECE

*Betty Tsakarestou, Lida Tsene, Dimitra Iordanoglou, Konstantinos Ioannidis
and Maria Briana*

We are living in an era where young people face everyday challenges deriving both from the global financial crisis and from digital technologies. On the one hand, the business environment is becoming more and more unstable, while on the other hand, digital and mobile culture offers a series of opportunities. In both cases, young people need to be equipped with an array of skills in order to adapt to the constantly changing landscape.

Our chapter discusses the findings of two studies, one self-funded and the other with EU support. Both were conducted in Greece, and focused on young leaders and their new characteristics and skills as described within the context of the emergence of mobile (Stald 2008) and entrepreneurial culture, as well as the collaborative trends of the sharing economy (Botsman 2010). The questions we address explore awareness and attitudes regarding the use of mobile technologies in each of the following clearly segmented areas – consumption; gaming; work; start-ups and entrepreneurship; democracy and social/political activism – while investigating the association of Emotional Intelligence (EI) (Petrides and Furnham 2001) with emerging collaborative practices and culture. In addition, we attempt to map the new set of skills young leaders should develop within the digital economy landscape in terms of future employability as well as during economic crisis.

A mixed research methodology was employed with a sequential exploratory design (Creswell 2003). The initial phase of the study included quantitative data collection (a sample of 470 participants) and analysis. An online survey technique was preferred as the most appropriate to reach online users and examine attitudes and behaviours in the above-mentioned sectors of the digital environment.

In the qualitative stage, in-depth and semi-structured interviews were used, necessary to acquire elaborated and detailed responses (Gillham 2000). In addition, scaling questions with 41 leadership skills – identified by the literature review as the most important – were included in the discussion guide (Cox et al. 2010; Whetten and Cameron 2007; Perth Leadership Institute 2008). These were organised in three categories: self-management, business management and people management skills. The sample for the interviews consisted of 48 experts, namely start-up founders, human resources managers and leadership academics/researchers. A judgmental non-probability sampling technique was applied to recruit the participants. The population elements have been purposely selected based on the judgment of the research team. For this study, broad population inferences were not required; however, we needed to focus on experts in specific fields. The discussion guide for the interviews was divided into three main areas (Iordanoglou and Ioannidis 2014):

- ▶ important leadership skills for future leaders;
- ▶ important leadership skills in times of economic crisis;
- ▶ leadership skills observed in young professionals and entrepreneurs in the workplace.

Results from the quantitative research provided an outline of the emerging mobile generation in Greece. In addition, EI was found to be a significant predictor of collaborative consumption. Results from the qualitative research showed that among the most important leadership skills for young leaders were passion, trustworthiness, flexibility, inspiring others, self-confidence, strategic thinking, collaboration and teamwork. In times of economic turmoil, most of the important skills remain the same, with adaptability and innovation entering the top-10 list. Furthermore, a gap between required and observed leadership skills in the workplace was revealed, mainly in people management skills. The results are compared with those derived from similar research conducted in four other European countries (Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Bulgaria) and the implications for educating the next generation of young leaders and entrepreneurs are discussed.

Keywords: mobile culture, leadership skills, digital economy, entrepreneurship

DIGITAL AND MOBILE TOOLS AND TIPS FOR YOUTH EPARTICIPATION

Evaldas Rupkus and Kerstin Franzl

Young Europeans do not seem to be the biggest fans of voting, either during EU-level elections, or during national ones:

72% of 16/18-24 year-olds do not vote but more than 50% of 65+ year olds do ... the level of youth absenteeism remains surprisingly high, and the gap between youth and other age groups changes marginally. Youth prove to be worryingly absent from national elections (Deželan 2015).

However, voting – a rather traditional form of political participation – is not the only expression of civic engagement. Practice and research show that “we are witnessing a diversification of the range, forms and targets of political expression” (Deželan 2015: 29). The latter addresses especially the technological change in political participation through digital and mobile media.

The widespread use of smartphones indicates a need to consider the implementation of not just digital but also mobile tools in participation processes. However, using just online or mobile tools is not sufficient to ensure the motivation of participants and the facilitation of eParticipation processes. The research and innovation project EUth – Tools and Tips for Mobile and Digital Youth Participation in and across Europe looked into providing an answer to these challenges. The project developed a digital and mobile eParticipation toolbox, as well as tips and support for anybody interested in becoming an initiator of eParticipation processes.

Usually, there are three kinds of actors involved in public participation – whether it is youth or adult participation, online or face-to-face participation. First, there are participants who discuss or introduce their opinions, then the decision makers who wrap up the discussion and, third, those who facilitate communication between the participants and decision makers. Participation – whether it is targeted at a certain group such as young people or at using specific technology like digital tools – can only work when all three actors are involved. However, there are many reasons why this often does not happen: participants (especially youth) may be very sensitive about mismanagement, false promises and unattractive engagement activities or tools; decision makers may not be used to open decision processes involving citizens, especially young citizens; and initiators often lack the knowledge and resources to plan and execute a complex eParticipation project.

Accordingly, in EUth we develop tools and tips for eParticipation to:

- ▶ offer participants appealing digital and mobile participatory engagement tools;
- ▶ support initiators in planning and implementing their individual eParticipation project.

These are available in the toolbox OPIN – a digital online platform where individual eParticipation projects can be hosted. This set of tools to involve participants was developed following comprehensive research. Additionally, a project management tool was developed to help initiators to set up individual participatory processes,

along with guidelines and practical tips – approved in many workshops with end-users – to empower initiators.

The chapter provides detailed information on:

- ▶ the project management tool: what are the most-used participatory project designs? Which methods are suitable for which scenarios?
- ▶ tips/guidelines: what are the main steps in planning and executing eParticipation projects? What are the pitfalls and how can they be overcome?
- ▶ software merging and workflows: technical features and innovative tools.

Keywords: youth, eParticipation, participation, innovation, Europe

“OPEN PARTICIPATION”: A KEY TO GOOD GOVERNANCE IN THE 21ST CENTURY

Daniel Poli and Jochen Butt-Pošnik

If we take the expression “holistic participation agenda” seriously, there can’t be a divide between offline and online participation anymore. With the digitalisation of our lifeworld, there is no distinction between the offline and online communication (and life) of a young person today. Interaction with the local environment takes place both via mobile devices and online platforms: through participation in social life, or going to school, work, training or non-formal activities. Integrating these perspectives into one coherent picture is the purpose of this chapter, which draws on experiences and knowledge gained in two multilateral co-operation projects that enabled ministries responsible for youth, participation experts, representatives of youth participation organisations and others to learn from each other. In the project Youthpart, European guidelines were developed for the successful eParticipation of young people. An outstanding recommendation was to align youth participation formats with young people’s realities in a digital world. The multilateral co-operation project Participation of Young People in the Democratic Europe had a stronger focus on the various new forms and arenas where participation takes place nowadays, many outside of the ballot box. Recommendations deal with new challenges in learning to be a democratic citizen and how all educational stakeholders have a role to play here. Both European projects describe youth participation as key to good governance in the 21st century.

What would such a “holistic participation agenda” look like? To begin with, it is a challenge for decision makers in governments and administrations: taking participation seriously means sharing power, knowledge and resources. This is less idealistic than it might sound: various binding international documents, such as the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, the EU Treaty of Lisbon, and others such as the Digital Agenda in the Europe 2020 strategy, the EU Youth Strategy, etc. have put strong emphasis on open participation. To amplify the implementation of youth participation we need:

- ▶ open governments and governing: making participation the rule and not the exception;
- ▶ allow direct influence and impact of participation;

- ▶ reallocate resources to strengthen participation and have something real to decide on;
- ▶ open methods: making decision making and participation transparent and accessible for all and taking into account a mixture of online and offline methods;
- ▶ open to young people's realities: finding formats, tools and a language that suits young people's realities and directly involves young people.

What is the role of youth work on this behalf? It plays a crucial role if taken seriously and used as a means for reaching out and working with young people. Youth work can play the role of connector and translator in the field of youth participation in both ways: with and for young people, and in close connection to decision makers at local, regional, national and European levels. Youth workers have to take a decisive and self-confident stand as political players and advocates for young people – that is, as catalysts. They link the various realities of young people with the world of politics and administration that affects young people's lives, and vice versa. Youth workers therefore need to include political and civic education, and competences to empower young people and knowledge about online and offline methods of participation in their professional portfolio. And they need to strengthen their standing as partners for political stakeholders: we have way more to deliver than just providing fun and leisure time for bored kids!

Keywords: youth participation, digital participation, youth policy, youth work, civic/ political education

MOROCCO – DIGITAL AND SOCIAL MEDIA PROMOTE YOUTH CITIZEN ENGAGEMENT IN DEMOCRACY

Karima Rhanem

After the Arab Spring, a number of youth-led organisations in Morocco and the Middle East and North Africa region used social media as a means of mobilisation, exchange and promotion of civic participation and democratic values. Several of these youth-led organisations conducted advocacy campaigns to initiate public debate around pressing socio-economic and political issues, campaign for or against certain issues, and propose change in legislation and public policies. It is certain that the use of social media has become an important tool used by youth to promote change in their communities and a means to ensure transparent and democratic participation in decision making. The chapter highlights concrete examples of initiatives that constitute best practices.

Keywords: social media, Morocco, Arab Spring, participation

ONLINE COMMUNICATION TOOLS LEADING TO LEARNING, IDENTITY AND CITIZENSHIP FOR DIGITAL NATIVES

Adina Marina Călăfăteanu

Information and communication technologies (ICTs) play an increasingly significant role in young people's lives. Terms such as "digital natives", "Net Generation", "Google

generation” or “millennials” have been used to highlight the significance of the new technologies in shaping the preference of young people for online communication tools. This chapter examines the role of the three cross-cutting themes: identity, citizenship and learning in shaping the preference of digital natives in using non-traditional communication tools.

Keywords: communication, digital natives, ICT, no hate speech

TOWARDS DIGITAL LITERACY FOR THE ACTIVE PARTICIPATION AND ENGAGEMENT OF YOUNG PEOPLE IN A DIGITAL WORLD

Nuala Connolly and Claire McGuinness

Variously identified as the “Google Generation” (Rowlands et al. 2008), “Net Geners” (Tapscott 1998) and “digital natives” (Prenkys 2001), young people today have grown up in a world dominated by the internet, with new opportunities for participation and engagement. The prevailing research discourse has tended to report that young people inherently possess digital skills. Despite this, some evidence points towards a disparity between young people’s perception of their digital skills and their ability to navigate this complex landscape in a safe and meaningful way (Christophides et al. 2009). Because the internet is largely regulated by a generic approach to “users”, namely adults, policy often fails to consider the rights of children and young people (Livingstone et al. 2016). It has also been argued that focusing on the discourse of digital natives obscures the need for support in developing young people’s digital skills (ECDL 2014; Livingstone 2011). This may result in essential skills being omitted from the education agenda.

The original digital divide of physical access to the internet has evolved into a skills divide (Van Deursen and Van Dijk 2011). Responding to the skills divide will increase the opportunities for young people to participate in a meaningful way in the digital world. Young people require additional skills to meet their informational needs, and to better understand the norms of the online environment. The provision of education in the context of technology is often associated with functional-level skills – using software packages; browsing and searching for skills; and the ability to discern the quality of information found online. Meaningful digital literacy education should encompass a broader suite of skills reflecting young people’s social and cultural engagement in a networked society, their self-expression, identity formation and participation in the online world.

This chapter will explore the digital literacy of young people in the European context, investigating where and how digital skills can support the inclusion, engagement and participation of young people in the digital world. The research will draw on examples of mechanisms for digital literacy education, from both formal and informal education. The case of Ireland will be provided for illustrative purposes. The chapter will reframe issues of youth participation in a digital world in the context of digital literacy, contributing to theory development and the body of knowledge and providing policy-related insights and recommendations for best practice.

Keywords: youth participation, digital media, digital literacy, digital citizenship

REFLECTIONS ON THE START OF THE NO HATE SPEECH MOVEMENT

Antonia Wulff, Menno Ettema, Manu Mainil, Ivett Karvalits, Anne Walsh and Aleksandra Knežević

The No Hate Speech Movement was launched in 2013 as a flagship project of the Council of Europe, following a proposal made by the Advisory Council on Youth. The campaign – for human rights and against hate speech online – has only become more relevant since its launch and this series of contributions looks at the campaign, its scope, strengths and weaknesses from different perspectives, aiming to do justice to the complexities of a European youth campaign.

Antonia Wulff describes the context in which the campaign was initially designed and what the Advisory Council of that time wanted to achieve with the project. Campaign co-ordinator Menno Ettema looks at the campaign from an institutional perspective and describes the shape that it has taken at the European level. National campaign co-ordinators – Manu Mainil from Belgium, Ivett Karvalits from Hungary, Anne Walsh from Ireland and Aleksandra Knežević from Serbia – look at the relevance of the campaign in their national contexts and reflect on the achievements to date as well as the struggles that they have faced in their respective campaigns.

Keywords: No Hate Speech Movement, Council of Europe, hate speech online, Belgium, Hungary, Serbia, Ireland

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Youth participation in the digitalised world is nowadays a topic of high interest in the public sphere. The authors of this publication aim to bring new perspectives and varied visions to the key questions of understanding how young people interact with all the opportunities the digital space has to offer, and how they can use this space for causes relevant not only for themselves, but also for the democratisation of the societies in which they live. By doing so, the authors strive to build knowledge on this topic, illustrating how the digitalisation of contemporary European societies simultaneously offers significant opportunities and poses considerable challenges.

The *Perspectives on youth* series aims to function as a forum for information, discussion, reflection and dialogue on European developments in the field of youth policy, youth research and youth work. This issue is linked with the Symposium on Youth Participation in a Digitalised World, organised by the partnership between the European Commission and the Council of Europe in the field of youth.

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