

CHANGES IN FAMILY AND EDUCATION OF YOUNG PEOPLE IN GLOBAL SOCIETY

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Abstract.

We are currently living in a situation of extreme economic complexity that is transforming family configurations and their duties in financially supporting their dependent members. Economic changes transform the *NEET* by expanding their education cycles. The education cycle has been extended and that has several consequences on the family and on training these individuals for work. It also involves the increasing incorporation of unconventional students, with very specific interests and preferences that educational systems must value.

The current analysis firstly sets out the data for dependent young people in Europe. After a comparative analysis of the available data, alternatives are offered regarding the future of training.

Statistical data on families and social welfare budgets are presented as well as the cost of training in different countries.

It deals with a possible mismatch in terms of integrating models developed by the Higher Education system in Europe. The debate also arises on a financial level suggesting subsidy lines or strategies to support the role of families.

Families have been transformed from production units to consumer units and are now moving closer to becoming maintenance units. This is an innovative function of families. It corresponds to a level of specialisation that is difficult to sustain. It also implies substituting services that welfare states could initially offer.

Keywords: Economic Changes by Globalisation- Transformation of Dependence- Youth and Training- Financing Studies- Globalization

JEL Classification: Z1 Economic Sociology

1. Introduction: New types of family structures as a result of the economic crisis.

The concept of family has undergone a major transformation in recent years and this has made other family structures possible. Alternative forms of understanding the concept of family are increasingly accepted and recognised even if some sectors of society continue to resist these new family models. We must not forget that family groups are diverse and

constitute dynamic units that cannot be analysed using rigid conceptual tools (Chant, S., 1997)¹.

As shown by Alemán Bracho (2005),² the family changes in form and structure with new shapes and models of family emerging. The range of family models has expanded with economic changes, fostering and adoption as well as blended or single-parent families. These have been gaining social legitimacy slowly but surely and subsequently have gained legal legitimacy too.

The existence and increase in family types and forms that break away from the traditional model of family seem to be part of a much broader process of change, which includes but is not limited to the institution of the family. The risks of child poverty are substantially higher in countries with higher rates of working-age unemployment, (Chzhen, y (Chzhen, Yekaterina) ³(2017) so the economic crisis has had a direct impact on family structure. These multiple transformations are already a reality and many innovations will take place both in the short and long term.

In all of this, we can see the effects of economic stability/instability and dual residence within the process of forming new ways of being family. The traditional model of a couple with children is losing its prominence and within apparently similar family types, new ways of living as family and new family relationships are emerging as shown by Esping-Andersen, G & Billari, F. C., 2015)⁴ young couples are establishing as a common-law partner not only as initial trial periods, but also as alternative forms of family life. In addition to the uncertainty and flexibility of the relationships heralded by Bauman (2009, 120-121)⁵, the increasing attention given to diverse conceptual frames of reference (Donati, P.)⁶ is reflected in the intention to involve the family in social policies, but only with regards to the underlying issue of family transformation. Yet, the alleged disappearance of the family, regardless of ideological or moral perspectives, is very unlikely due both to its relevant significance and to its development in diverse forms and functions that are growing within the second modernity where intermittent and diverse structures are adopted.

In the midst of this panorama, young people can be found who are not synchronised with the various stages of life. According to Requena, M. (2013, p.65)⁷ this emphasizes the conflict between aspirations and expectations among dependent youth. If we really thought in such a way that is consistent with the lives of young people and new times of modernity that are more flexible and adaptable to precariousness, economic fluctuations, social and work mobility, we would come up with the types of family that are developing in today's world. It includes protection, dependency, responds to job instability (not only among young people) and is opposed to scant or inefficient social policies. Family as a social group is interested in the needs and well-being of their offspring. This is experienced in diverse ways and in Spain it causes the longest period of dependency in Europe, which is even more apparent when compared with other cultural systems.

2. Data analysis and interpretation

Data presented by Eurostat (2017)⁸ shows that Spain is at the later end of the scale regarding when children from different countries leave their parents' home with the average age in Spain being 29.4. We can find a significant difference between men (30.4) and women (28.3).

The age at which children become independent affects their parents' evolution into the older adult stage of life as well as prolonging the adolescent stage for the children who remain

under their influence. This prevents the development of individuality and creates new family structures and networks. Added to this is the problem of delayed parenthood. Samir K. C. & Lutz W. (2017)⁹, they consider the dimensions of gender, age and education influence the social vulnerability of people. According to the 2014 report on social exclusion and development in Spain, Spanish women have one of the lowest birth rates (1.27 children per woman in 2013), with women having their first child at the average age of 30.3 years old and men at 33.5. Similarly, the data shows that since the 80s when almost all children were born after marriage, today 39% of babies are born outside the legal framework of marriage, for example in domestic partnerships.

The age of university students has been broadened as more undertake postgraduate studies (this will be developed further below). This is another element that encourages extended periods at home, as well as economic instability and the proliferation of an employment system based on temporary work.

The 2016 Eurostat report, points to Spain as one of the EU countries with the highest incidence of temporary employment. All of this leads to a new family and social structure that risks leading us into a process of naturalising poverty and establishing permanent mediocrity. In the *VIII Observatorio de Realidad Social* (Social Reality Observatory) report (2013:5)¹⁰ it is expressed in this way:

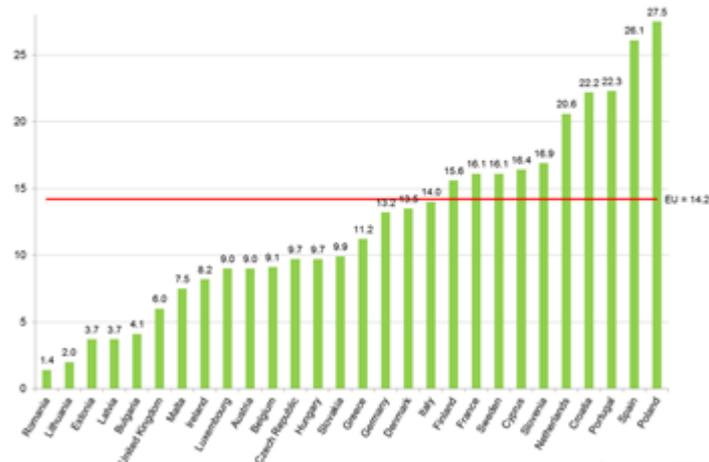
Growing social inequality and economic impoverishment are two processes that are affecting Spanish society, fracturing its structure and putting its cohesion at risk. (...) this trend highlights the construction of a new social model which moves the focus away from the social elements and towards commercial engagement, away from collective solidarity and towards meritocratic individualism, changing the welfare structure which was founded on rights".

The spread of poverty and the existence of extreme poverty in our country, along with the permanent situation of low resources, inevitably halts a social issue that should not escape the university sphere; either as a generator of social research or to respond to a reality that affects, makes difficult and influences both access to and continuity in university programs. On the other hand, obtaining good grades, not leaving school and not being excluded, is important for young people's future transition. (Sanders J. & Munford Robyn & Boden Joe, 2017)¹¹

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2.1 Changes in youth and student profile in higher education. Knowledge society and young people

Diagram 1: Share of temporary employees aged 15-64 in the EU Member States, 2016(%)



Source: Eurostat (2017)

Education has been made more democratic with a high percentage of young people accessing higher education (Elzo J., Feixa C. & Giménez Salinas, E., 2008, 92)¹². Also could be possible educational transition rates by country (Lutz, W & Goujon, 2001)¹³. However, in the last ten years there has been a significant shift in the student profile. The consequences are very diverse, and the causes are not only due to the economic crisis with important events such as what happened with the Lehman Brothers. Instead, they feature a fusion of complex changes which have taken place simultaneously in various world regions. Since the political uncertainty according to Baker, S.R. Bloom, N; Davis, S.J (2016)¹⁴ presage declines in investment, production and employment

Cultural work (economic activity and jobs related to the cultural sector), estimated in percentages for Spain in 2015, is characterised by higher rates of higher education nationally, reaching 67% according to the 2016 *Anuario de Estadísticas Culturales* (Annual Cultural Statistics for Spain) (MECD, 2015)¹⁵. Spending linked to press, magazines and books has risen in relation to the Consumer Price Index from 2011.

The number of students registered at Spanish universities according to the Data and Figures from the Spanish Educational System (2005-2006)¹⁶ is going down due not only to a visible population decrease in the birthrate since the 80s but also to the increasingly popular choice to attend private universities. This is one of the symptoms of the change in the university student body.

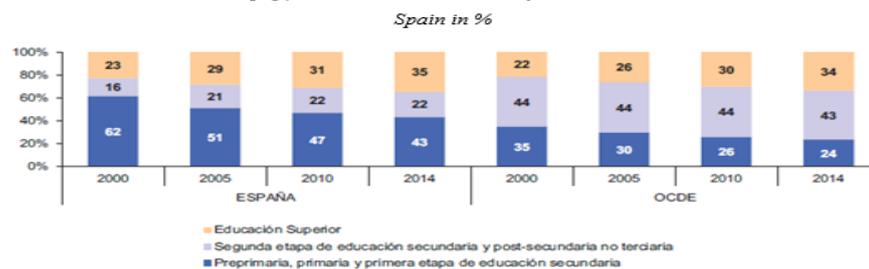
The change in the university student body is not so much related to the starting features or competences of

students but more to a highly significant demographic change in university populations. According to data from the *Sistema de Formación Integrada* (Integrated Training System) (Data and Figures from the Spanish Educational System from 2015-16)¹⁷, the widest percentages of the adult population (in other words the biggest difference between the level attained by 25-34 year olds and that of those aged 55-64) are found in Spain, France and Ireland (this final example has the highest percentage within the EU and the OCDE). However, the narrowest percentages are those from Germany and Finland and when compared, for example, with the USA, this would be the non-European country with the highest percentage among the least broad.

Levels of adult education between 2004-2014 have been gradually transformed both in Spain and Europe.

The evolution of the student body in Spain between 1994 and 2005 according to the Data and Figures report from the Spanish Educational System 2005-2006 has varied among age groups, moving from 16.6% in the first period (1994-95) to 22% in 2004-05 for 25-30 year olds. The over 30s also saw a change in the first period from 8.9% to 13.5%. Therefore, if we consider the age group 25-30 year olds and over (16.6% +8.9%) it has gone from 25.5% to

Diagram 2: Evolution in the level of training in the adult population between 25 and 64 years old in



Source: *Integrated Training System in Data and Figures from the Spanish Educational System from 2015-2016*

35.5% (22% +13.5%) for this cohort. In ten years, the change has been surprising but this transformation has remained consistent.

The latest data published in the report on the Integrated Training System in Data and Figures from the Spanish Educational System (2015-16) states that during the year 2014-15, the number of students registered in Spain between the age of 22-30 years old was 519,529 whilst those between the ages of 18-21 years old, (the age when studies are usually finished), totalled 624,081. In this period, the percentage of women aged 22-25 years old was 53%. One of the greatest consequences of this ageing student population is that the class group is less homogenous, both in terms of age and also in prior educational levels, training interests and especially with regards to skills such as self discipline and self motivation. In addition to all this, we must add the increase in the teacher/student ratio as a consequence of economic restrictions as public universities tend to have large class sizes which make teaching more difficult. This is an issue which is not only related to university financing and teaching quality but also with the internal management of the university itself.

From the analysis, it is also impossible to ignore the striking fact that in a period of serious financial crisis, which has been the case since around 2007, private universities have seen an unexpected increase according to the CRUE Report for 2014/15.¹⁸

The data shows that on-site courses at public universities were down by 10.74% and all courses by 9.24%. However, private institutions have recorded an increase of up to 20.99% in distance courses and 14.27% in on-site ones. The data really leads to important questions as this increase in private universities in an impoverished society as previously described, was not expected. Angoitia and Rahona (2007)¹⁹ suggest that the reasons for this increase are diverse and include the non-requirement of a specific mark in university entrance exams or even the ability to access certain studies without having to sit these exams. The authors believe that the marketing campaigns for these institutions have sought to differentiate their product by offering smaller class sizes to favour the teacher-student relationship, extensive connections between private universities and the business world which makes it easier for graduates to gain employment, a wide range of sporting facilities and new technologically equipped buildings.

3. Results and Discussion

Consequences of the crisis: Youth in an era of crisis and globalisation

Features which characterise young people born in Spain from 1994 onwards, known as Generation Z, include influence and connection; immediacy and short-term thinking; innovation and creativity; irreverence and contrast; and concern, change and capacity to share as set out by Espiritusanto Nicolás (2017)²⁰. They are present on social networks and specifically on those where they are understood, their conversation is heard and they can share content. They also dictate rules for new media, new consumers and producers and new "zitizens". These aspects are related to the global world in which they are growing up in. Christensen, HS (2017)²¹ also talks about the public sphere and the participation of citizens.

In addition, it is important to emphasize the high percentage of young people aged 15-29 years old who neither work nor study. Therefore, we find ourselves faced with a social situation that is difficult to understand from a socio economic perspective: on the one hand, there is the upward trend in continuing university education, whilst on the other hand, there is

a large cohort of inactive young people and a third who are unemployed or employed in precarious temporary work. A difficult social scene for overcoming a financial crisis.

Employment rates according to employment statistics from Eurostat (2015) for all EU-28 also vary

depending on level of training (broken down by level of studies). Among 24-65 year olds it shows that 83.4% completed higher education in 2014, much higher than the rate of those who only have primary education or the first half of secondary. Comparing 2008 to 2014, the most significant decreases in employment rates since the start of the financial and economic crisis correspond to those with primary education or the first half of secondary. Institutionally, the European Commission has introduced several measures to incentivise the youth market, disillusioned with their future expectations at this time of crisis. Uncertainty and issues with flexibility and security are a curse which has impacted our young people. The support strategy has been revised in Copenhagen (2002), Maastricht (2004) and Helsinki (2006) with the revision of strategies and formulation of challenges recorded in the Helsinki communication (2006)²² on European cooperation in terms of professional training.

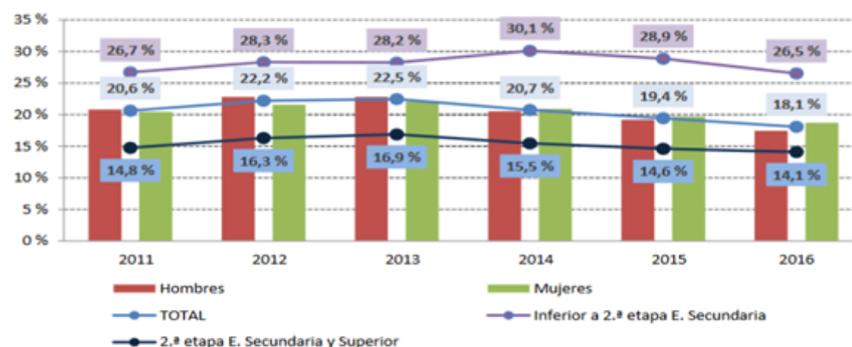
4. Conclusion

The context of the economic crisis in Spain is leading us to a new society where a new type of family structure is being established. In addition, the employment system is fundamentally based on salary precariousness linked to temporary employment, backed by a law of free dismissal. All this leads, as the data shows, to the later economic independence of their children. In addition, the promotion system makes it necessary to extend their time spent at university in postgraduate studies which may further delay young people from embarking on their working life. Furthermore, the delay in having the first child leads to the ageing family which remains under the influence and/or financial aid of their respective families due to the fact that total independence and purchasing housing is impossible.

The recovering economic situation has educational and social repercussions and we could be close to discovering a mass of young people who have completed university education but also display dubious personal development and job training. According with Beck, Ulrich (2016)²³ it is important aspect to consider in order to keep their own educational foundations.

The fact that private universities have grown unexpectedly reveals the prevalence of the informal economy and the failure of the Spanish education system where some young people leave secondary education without the necessary knowledge and qualifications to attend

Diagram 3: Evolution in the percentage of the population of 15 to 29 year olds who neither study nor work separated by gender and education



Source: Survey of Working Population. INE (National Statistics Institute)²²

public university. This brings us to question what profile of professionals will be available in the future.

Finally, it seems that Spanish universities are not responding to social developments. The increase in university fees, the obligatory attendance to class and the lack of modernisation in teaching and learning methods are turning it into a qualifications dispatcher which has lost its mission. In addition, even though the number of registered students is increasing in Spanish universities in general, data from the Spanish Educational System (Data and Figures 2014/15) shows that a high number of them are abandoning their university studies. According to the report, 22.1% leave their courses in the first year at public universities. This percentage goes down to 15.9% at private universities for those who began their studies in 2010/11. This could be due to financial motives; an increase in fees and the price of degrees in public universities; the need to enter the world of work earlier than expected; or simply due to being disappointed by the course and having little hope of finding employment.

One way or another, the scenario we are faced with demonstrates that we are not experiencing the sustainable social development that we should be; students and their family income types are being polarised; inequality is becoming commonplace; and we have an overqualified population as described by Marqués Perales and Gil- Hernández (2015)²⁴. We understand and propose that the university takes responsibility to transition to incorporating qualifications to the workplace.

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