YOUTH UNEMPLOYMENT AND ACTIVE LABOUR MARKET POLICIES IN EUROPE: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF SPAIN AND GERMANY

Anusha Simkhada

E-mail: ansimkhada@stud.mruni.eu

Mykolas Romeris University, Lithuania

Riga Stradins University, Latvia

Catholic University in Ruzomberok, Slovakia

ISCTE University Institute of Lisbon, Portugal

DOI: 10.13165/MMS-25-03-01-15

Abstract. Globally, youth unemployment has become a critical issue, affecting not only individuals but also the broader economy, labour market and society. In Europe, structural differences in economies, educational systems and labour market policies have contributed to disparities in youth unemployment among countries. While Spain has struggled with persistently high youth unemployment rates, Germany has maintained relatively low rates. This article examines youth unemployment trends in Spain and Germany, focusing on active labour market policies (ALMPs) implemented to address the issue. The analysis shows key differences in ALMP expenditure, with Germany prioritising public employment services and vocational training, whereas Spain places more emphasis on employment incentives and start-up support. The findings suggest that Germany's tailored and integrated approach, with a focus on public employment services and skills training, shows more effective outcomes than Spain's generalised approach. While it can be seen that ALMPs play a role in shaping youth employment outcomes in these countries, it is essential to consider broader structural factors, economic conditions, educational systems, and the effectiveness of training

programmes to better understand and mitigate the issue of youth unemployment.

Keywords: Youth unemployment, active labour market policies, Spain, Germany, NEET rate, Temporary employment.

Introduction

Globally, youth unemployment has become an increasingly pressing issue, affecting not only individuals but also the broader economy, labour market and society. Youth unemployment, defined as the joblessness of individuals aged 15–24 years who are actively seeking work, serves as a key indicator of market vulnerabilities, with young people often bearing the brunt of economic changes and inefficiencies[1]. Beyond personal consequences such as lasting economic strains, loss of social capital and the undermining of future career prospects[2], widespread youth unemployment poses a potential threat to the stability of democratic societies in the medium and long term[3]. According to data from the World Bank, the global youth unemployment rate stood at 13.6% in 2023, representing almost 65 million people without work[4]. Additionally, 20.4% of young people globally were not in employment, education or training (NEET). In the European Union (EU), youth unemployment reached 16.1%, while 9.6% of youths were NEET[5].

In EU countries, structural differences in economies, educational systems and labour market policies have contributed to disparities among countries. Spain,

1 Tayo Fashoyin, Michele Tiraboschi, Pietro Manzella, and Lisa Rustico, *Productivity, Investment in Human Capital and the Challenge of Youth Employment* (Cambridge Scholars Publishing, 2011), 3-10, Adapt International.

2 Wiji Arulampalam, "Is Unemployment Really Scarring? Effects of Unemployment Experiences on Wages", *The Economic Journal* 111 (2008): 585–606, https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-0297.00664.

3 Del Roy Fletcher, "Ex-Offenders and the Labour Market: A Review of the Discourse of Social Exclusion and Consequences for Crime and the New Deal", *Environment and Planning C: Government and Policy* 17, 4 (1999): 431-444, https://doi.org/10.1068/c170431.

4 "Unemployment, Youth Total (% of Total Labor Force Ages 15-24)", World Bank Data, accessed 21 November 2024, https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SL.UEM.1524.ZS?locations=DE-ES-1W.

5 "Share of Youth Not in Education, Employment, or Training, total (% of Youth Population) - World, European Union", World Bank Data, accessed 21 November 2024, https://data.worldbank.org/indicator/SL.UEM.NEET.ME.ZS?locations=1W-EU&name_desc=true.

for example, has long faced high youth unemployment, which reached 28.8% in 2023, whereas Germany has consistently maintained lower youth unemployment, at just 5.9% that year[6]. This gap can be attributed to structural differences in these countries' educational systems, labour market policies and economic conditions. Spain's traditional educational system, which incentivises school dropouts, hinders a smooth transition for young people into the labour market, while rigid labour market institutions driven by high public debt exacerbate the problem. In contrast, Germany's robust vocational training system and more flexible labour market policies help mitigate youth unemployment, highlighting the need for Spain to address these structural issues to close this disparity[7]. One of the key policy tools for addressing youth unemployment is active labour market policies (ALMPs), which include training, employment incentives, public employment services, direct job creation and start-up incentives. However, the allocation of ALMPs differs considerably between Spain and Germany, affecting their employment outcomes.

Focusing on these disparities, this paper aimed to analyse and compare youth unemployment trends in Spain and Germany, with an emphasis on their approaches towards ALMPs. The paper analysed key indicators such as youth unemployment rates, NEET rates, temporary employment, and ALMP expenditure patterns, along with the key policy approaches adopted in each country. It used a comparative analysis research method, using secondary data from international organisations, academic literature, government reports and news media. By identifying effective ALMP approaches, particularly from Germany's sustained low youth unemployment rates and contrasting this with Spain's persistent challenges, this study offers evidence-based insights to policymakers that could inform

6 "Unemployment, Youth Total (% of Total Labor Force Ages 15-24)", *supra note*, 4.

7 Elena Pellegrini, "Generation Jobless: Youth Unemployment and the Disparate Cases of Germany and Spain", *Trinity College Digital Repository* (2019): 1-13, https://jstor.org/stable/community.38593976.

labour market reforms in contexts where youth unemployment remains a persistent challenge.

1. Youth Unemployment Trends

1.1. Youth Unemployment Rates and Historical Trends

The youth unemployment trends in Spain and Germany from 1991 to 2023 highlight considerable disparities between the two countries (Figure 1)[8].

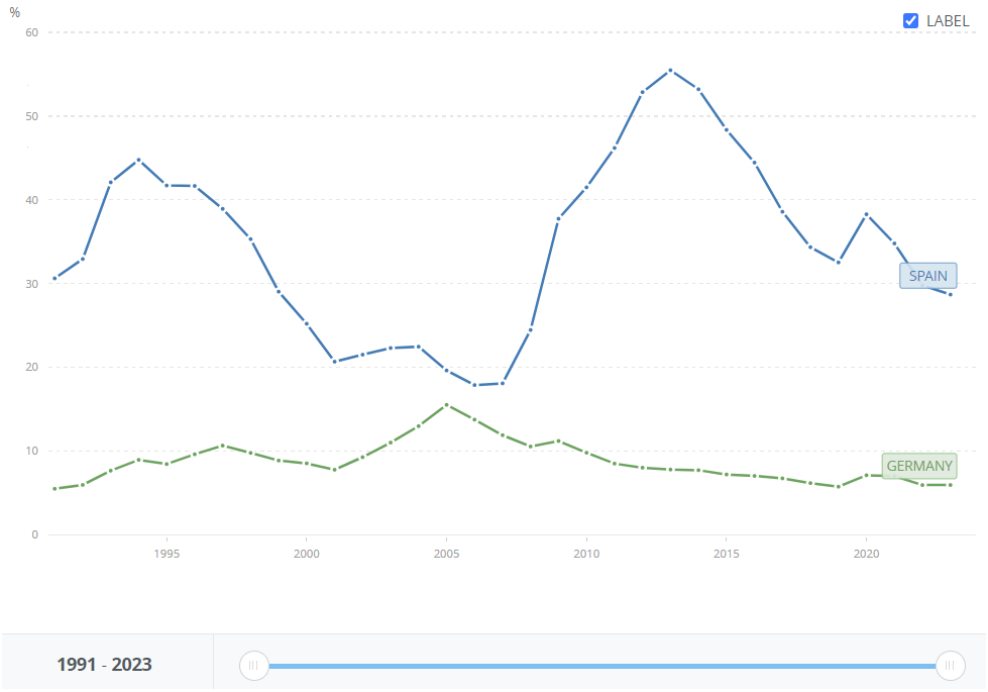


Figure 1: Youth unemployment trends from 1991-2023 (modelled International Labour Organisation estimate)[9], World Bank data

In Spain, youth unemployment has been high for decades, at around 30% in the early 1990s and peaking at 44.2% in 1994. A period of economic growth in the early 2000s, largely driven by a construction boom, temporarily brought youth

8 "Unemployment, Youth Total (% of Total Labor Force Ages 15-24)", *supra note*, 4.

9 *Ibid.*

unemployment down to 17.9% by 2006. However, the 2008 global financial crisis had a devastating impact on Spain's economy, particularly its construction sector, causing youth unemployment to surge to a record high of 55.6% in 2013. Although there has been a gradual recovery since then, youth unemployment in Spain remains elevated, standing at around 29% in 2023. The COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 further disrupted Spain's labour market, causing another spike in youth unemployment, but the long-term effects appear to have been more moderate compared with those of the 2008 crisis.

In contrast, Germany's youth unemployment rate has remained consistently lower over the same period. Throughout the 1990s and early 2000s, it fluctuated between 6 and 10%. The Hartz labour market reforms and Germany's strong vocational training system contributed to the country's resilience during economic downturns, including the 2008 financial crisis, when youth unemployment remained below 10%. Even during the COVID-19 pandemic, Germany's labour market showed remarkable stability, with only a slight uptick in youth unemployment, which soon returned to pre-pandemic levels.

By 2023, Germany's youth unemployment rate had dropped below 7%, reflecting the resilience of Germany's structure and policies. The contrast between Spain and Germany underscores how structural factors such as labour market policies, the reliance on temporary contracts, and the role of vocational education shape youth employment outcomes, particularly during economic crises.

1.2. The rates of youths not in employment, education, or training (NEET)

A clear disparity between youth unemployment in Spain and Germany can be observed in their unemployment rates and other key indicators, such as share of youth in NEETs, temporary employment, and participation in vocational training. For instance, the NEET rates for Germany and Spain between 2010 and 2022 revealed a striking contrast in youth engagement in employment and education

(Figure 2)[10]. According to the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) data archive[11], Spain has had consistently higher share of NEETs, particularly among 20–24-year-olds. In 2013, the proportion of NEETs in this group peaked at around 32%, reflecting the aftermath of the 2008 financial crisis and Spain's sluggish recovery. By comparison, Germany's proportion of NEETs for the same age group has remained low throughout, staying at less than 10%, even during global economic disruptions. For younger individuals (15–19-year-olds), both countries show slightly lower share of NEETs, but the gap between Spain and Germany persists. In 2022, the proportion of NEETs for 15–19-year-olds in Spain was around 8%, while in Germany it was around 4%. Despite the challenges posed by the COVID-19 pandemic, both Germany and Spain only showed slight increases in the proportion of NEETs in individuals aged 20–24 years in 2021. By 2022, both countries had shown improvements, with Spain experiencing an additional 2% decline in proportion of NEETs compared with Germany. Nonetheless, the gap remains.

10 "NEET Rates from 2010 to 2022", OECD Data Archive, accessed 21 November 2024, https://www.oecd.org/en/data/indicators/youth-not-in-employment-education-or-training-neet.html?oecdcontrol-dec63071aa-var6=15_19.

11 *Ibid*.

1.3. Temporary Youth Employment

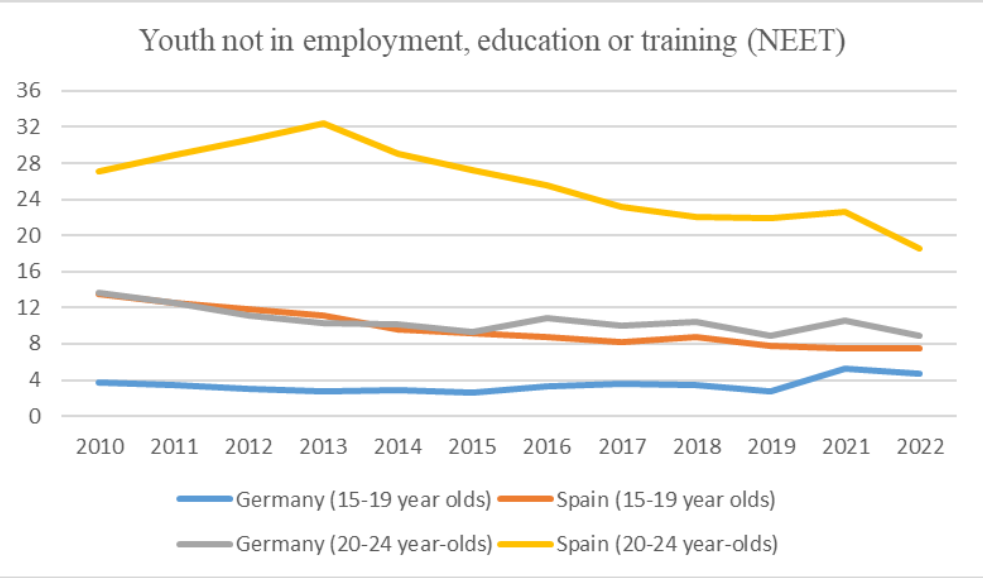


Figure 2: NEET rates from 2010 to 2022, OECD Data Archive

A major factor contributing to the differences in youth unemployment in the two countries is the prevalence of temporary employment. The OECD defines temporary employment as wage and salary workers whose jobs have a predetermined end date. According to OECD data, Spain has consistently had a much higher rate than Germany of temporary employment for young workers (Figure 3)[12].

12 "Temporary Employment from 1990 to 2022", OECD Data Archive, accessed 21 November 2024, https://www.oecd.org/en/data/indicators/temporary-employment.html.

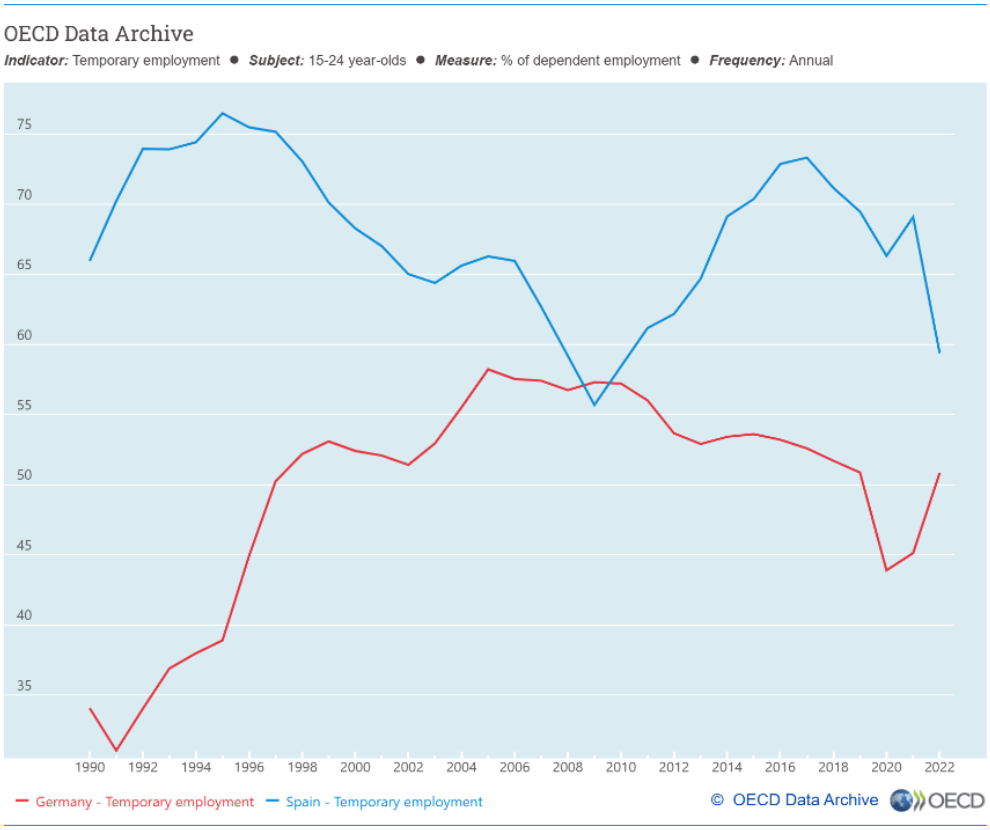


Figure 3: Temporary employment from 1990 to 2022, OECD Data Archive

In 2020, more than 60% of employed youth (15–24 years old) in Spain were on temporary contracts, whereas in Germany the rate was considerably lower, at approximately 50%. This trend has persisted for decades, with temporary employment rates peaking in Spain at around 75% in the early 2000s, while Germany saw a lower peak of approximately 55%. Even though the rate of youth in temporary employment in Spain was showing a downward trend by 2023, it remains considerably higher than that in Germany. Since the 2000s, Germany has stabilised this rate, maintaining it below 55%, and has seen a further decline in recent years. The COVID-19 pandemic also impacted both countries' rates of youth in temporary employment. Spain saw a marked decline in temporary employment for employment for the youth, probably due to the pandemic's severe impact on tourism and

other industries reliant on short-term contracts. Germany also saw a reduction in temporary employment; however, the country demonstrated resilience by returning to its pre-pandemic levels by 2023.

The high level of temporary employment in Spain reflects its reliance on flexible, short-term contracts, especially in sectors such as tourism and construction, which have traditionally employed young people, but this has also led to labour market instability. It can also be attributed to the fact that in Germany, the term temporary employment includes any training periods (e.g. as apprentices or trainees), whereas in Spain, it is not a part of training periods, young people take a fixed-duration contract because they are unable to find a permanent job[13]. Additionally, temporary contracts in Spain tend to form a 'chain' of consecutive short-term agreements, often trapping young workers in a cycle of precarious employment with limited prospects to transition to stable, permanent roles[14]. While temporary contracts are commonly used in many countries as an entry point into the labour market, young people in Spain tend to remain on these contracts for extended periods. However, Germany's focus on long-term employment and vocational training pathways, including apprenticeships, has helped youths to transition into stable jobs and has contributed to a more moderate rate of temporary youth employment.

2. Comparative Analysis of Active Labour Market Policies (ALMPs)

2.1. ALMPs in Spain and Germany

ALMPs comprise a range of public programmes aimed at increasing employment, enabling people to move into jobs, and achieving a better match between

13 María Ramos, and Carlos Victoria, "Youth Unemployment and Job Insecurity in Spain: Problems and Policy Options", *DGAP* (2016): 3-10, https://dgap.org/system/files/article_pdfs/2016-10-dgapanalyse_ramos-victoria.pdf.

14 *Ibid*.

labour supply and demand[15]. These policies generally entail training, employment incentives, direct job creation, public employment services, and start-up incentives. They are crucial for addressing youth unemployment, as various interventions, including skills training and entrepreneurship promotion, can greatly enhance employment rates and earnings for young people[16]. Programmes that combine multiple components, such as skills training, counselling, and job placement services, tend to be more effective than those that focus on a single aspect[17]. However, some studies have shown that intensifying ALMPs does not always lead to improved outcomes[18].

Both Spain and Germany have allocated substantial resources to ALMPs, although their priorities and expenditure breakdowns differ considerably, reflecting varied approaches to addressing youth unemployment (Figure 4).[19] In 2022, Spain invested a slightly larger share of its GDP (0.6%) in ALMPs than Germany did (0.4%). Looking more closely at how the funds were distributed, public employment services and administration (PES) emerged as the largest expenditure component in both countries. However, in Germany, PES alone accounted for more than half of the total ALMP spending; PES accounted for slightly less spending in Spain. For Germany, training programmes represent the second-largest ALMP expense (0.16%), reflecting their focus on upskilling and reskilling the workforce to align with labour market demands.

15 Jochen Clasen, Daniel Clegg, and Alexander Goerne, "Comparative Social Policy Analysis and Active Labour Market Policy: Putting Quality before Quantity", *Journal of Social Policy* 45, 1 (2015): 1-18, DOI: 10.1017/S0047279415000434.

16 Jochen Kluve, et al., "Interventions to Improve the Labour Market Outcomes of Youth: A Systematic Review of Training, Entrepreneurship Promotion, Employment Services, and Subsidized Employment Interventions", *Campbell Systematic Reviews* 13, 1 (2017): 24-41 https://doi.org/10.4073/csr.2017.12.

17 Macro Caliendo and Ricarda Schmidl, "Youth unemployment and active labor market policies in Europe", *IZA Journal of Labor Policy* 5, 1 (2016): 2-3, https://doi.org/10.1186/s40173-016-0057-x.

18 Torben M Andersen and Michael Svarer, "Active labour market policies in a recession", *IZA Journal of Labor Policy* 1, 7 (2012): 1-19, https://doi.org/10.1186/2193-9004-1-7.

19 "Labour Market Programmes", OECD Data Archive, accessed 21 November 2024, https://data-explorer.oecd.org/.

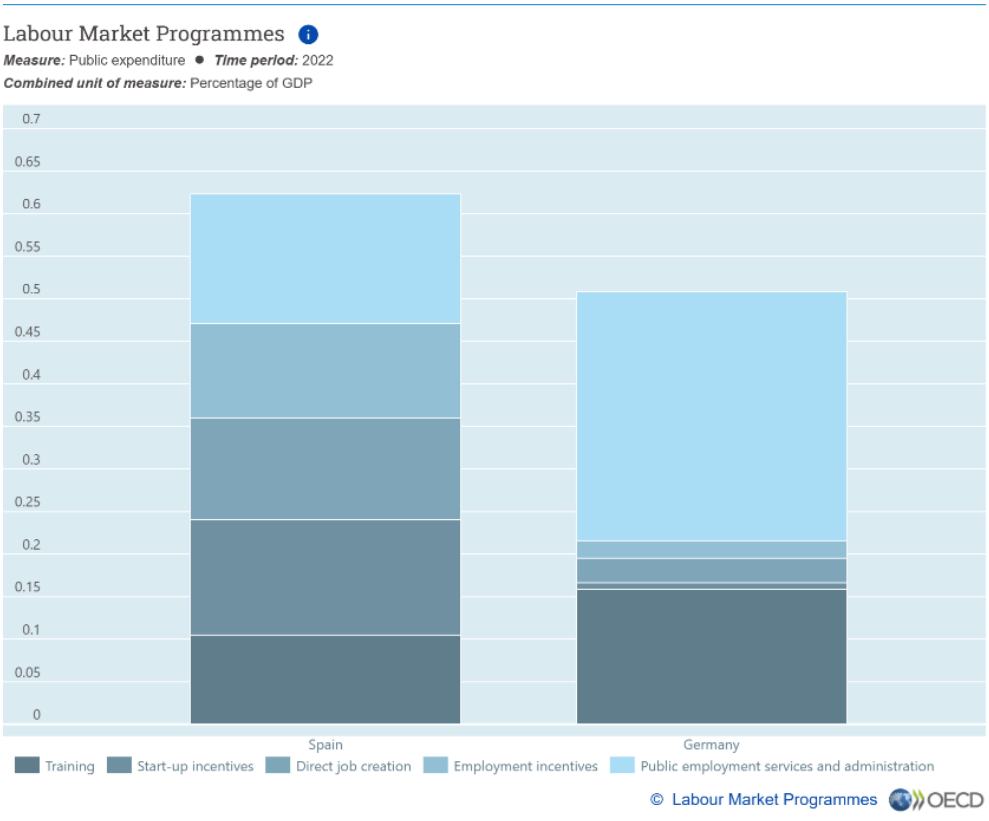


Figure 4: Expenditure on ALMPs in Spain and Germany as a percentage share of GDP, OECD

Conversely, Spain invested the least in training programmes (0.11%), showing a different approach by prioritising other areas over workforce training. Both Spain and Germany had direct job creation and employment incentives as their third and fourth largest ALMPs expenditure categories. However, Spain spent more on these two categories, indicating a greater emphasis on incentivising employers and creating job opportunities through direct intervention. Start-up incentives saw the least investment in Germany; in contrast, start-up incentives were the second-highest expense in Spain, showing a different view of entrepreneurship as a pathway to combat unemployment.

2.2. Trends of Expenditure on ALMPs

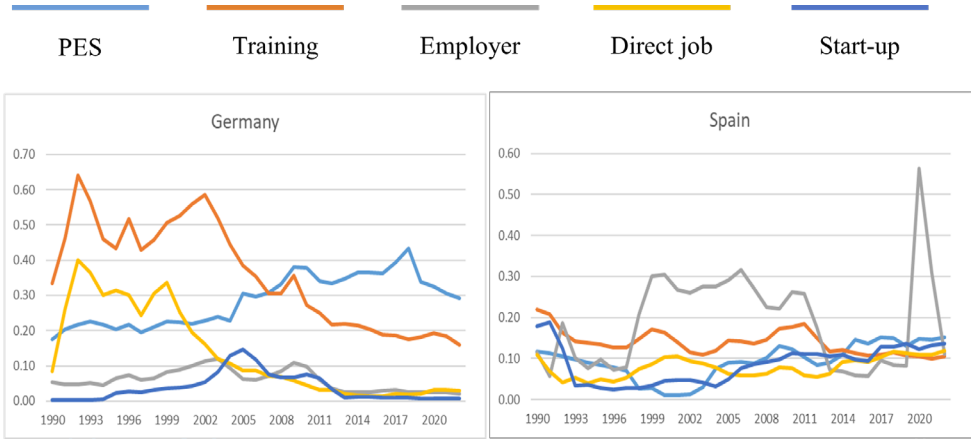


Figure 5: Trends in expenditure on ALMPs as a percentage share of GDP in Germany and Spain, OECD

Looking at the trends (Figure 5)[20], public expenditure on ALMPs in Spain shows fluctuations across different categories, although most remain comparatively steady. However, employment incentives stand out from other policies, with a repeating pattern of notable spikes and declines. The most pronounced spike occurred in 2020, probably in response to the economic disruption caused by the COVID-19 pandemic. Other categories, such as training, direct job creation, start-up incentives and PES, show relatively steady trends with minor fluctuations over time, indicating less emphasis on these approaches in Spain's ALMP spending.

Meanwhile, Germany shows distinct patterns in its spending on ALMPs. In the early 1990s, expenditure on training and employment incentives was notably high, reflecting Germany's focus on upskilling its workforce and incentivising employment. However, these expenditures declined after the mid-2000s, with expenditure on training gradually reducing and expenditure on employment

20 "Public spending on labour markets", OECD Data Archive, accessed 21 November 2024, https://www.oecd.org/en/data/indicators/public-spending-on-labour-markets.html?oecdcontrol-38c744bfa4-var1=DEU%7CESP.

incentives experiencing a sharp decrease. PES became a prominent area of spending over time, particularly post-2005, showing Germany's sustained commitment to job placement services. Limited funding for direct job creation and start-up incentives, with only minor increases around 2005 and 2010, indicates that these approaches have been comparatively less prioritised in Germany over the past three decades.

In summary, while Spain and Germany have both engaged in ALMPs, their approaches have diverged. Spain has shown a focus on employment incentives in recent years, possibly as a reactive measure to economic shocks, whereas Germany has placed a more consistent emphasis on PES, with reduced reliance on training and employment incentives over time. These patterns reflect differing national priorities and responses to economic conditions, influencing the effectiveness of ALMPs in addressing youth unemployment in each country.

3. Key Approaches of ALMPs

3.1. Spain

Several training-focused ALMPs have been developed to provide young people with skills and qualifications. The Professional Training Reform (Act 30/2015) introduced dual vocational education and training (VET) system, individual training accounts, and training leave to help young people gain skills more aligned with labour market demands. Additionally, the 'Classroom Mentor' (Aula Mentor) programme provided distance learning opportunities for youths[21]. The Comprehensive Qualification and Employment Program (Programa Integral de Cualifición y Empleo- PICE) launched in 2014 under the Youth Guarantee scheme, targets young people with or without qualifications or work experience who wish to receive appropriate vocational training to improve their skills, find

21 OECD, *Getting Skills Right: Spain* (OECD Publishing, 2018), 1-79, https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264282346-en.

employment or start their own business. The youths are supported through vocational training, dual VET, and a mobility component that includes three-month job placements in other European countries[22]. Spain also has training and apprenticeship contracts for youths aged 16–30 years who lack appropriate qualifications, which combine paid employment with both theoretical and practical training[23].

Regarding PES in Spain, the Youth Guidance programme, introduced under the Action Plan for Youth Employment (2019-2021), involved training approximately 3,000 employment counsellors to guide young people in their job search. The programme trained counsellors in career guidance, activation measures, gender equality, and assistance for vulnerable youth[24]. The Youth Guarantee Plus Plan (2021-2027) further strengthens PES support by offering personalised guidance to equip youth with essential skills for labour market integration[25]. However, despite these efforts, Spain's PES remains understaffed, with an average of 721 job seekers per counsellor, leading to considerable delays in service provision[26].

Spain's ALMPs also include various employment incentives to encourage companies to hire young workers. Employers who hire young people on permanent contracts benefit from reduced social security contributions, making it more financially viable to provide stable employment opportunities for youths.[27] Incentives are provided for companies that engage youth through training contracts,

22 "Spain - PICE Programme for Youth Employment", CEDEFOP, 2017, https://www.cedefop.europa.eu/en/news/spain-pice-programme-youth-employment.

23 Alberto Vaquero Garcia et al., "Evaluation of Training Contracts for Young People in Spain, Germany, and France", *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal* 36 (2024): 385-399, https://doi.org/10.1007/s10672-024-09495-4.

24 Youth Wiki, "Youth Policies in Spain", *National Policies Platform* (2021), https://national-policies.eacea.ec.europa.eu/sites/default/files/2023-04/Spain_2021.pdf.

25 "The Government of Spain Approves the Youth Guarantee Plus Plan 2021-2027", *La Moncloa*, 8 June 2021, https://www.lamoncloa.gob.es/lang/en/gobierno/councilministers/Paginas/2021/20210608council.aspx.

26 OECD, „Getting Skills Right: Spain", 1-79.

27 Anita Wölfl, "Improving Employment Prospects for Young Workers in Spain", *OECD Economics Department Working Papers* 1040 (2013): 5-25 https://doi.org/10.1787/5k487n7hg08s-en.

which are promoted by the Madrid Community to give young people professional experience and a regular salary[28]. Furthermore, through the 'first professional experience in public administration programme', Spain offers youth their first employment experiences in public administration roles, bridging the gap between training and employment[29]. In the past, workshop schools and trade house programmes also offered training and work experience for young people who lacked qualifications, focusing on employment within community service, public utility activities, and nonprofit organisations[30].

To support young entrepreneurs, Spain has implemented various start-up incentives under the Youth Guarantee Plus Plan. One notable initiative, the ENISA Young Entrepreneurs programme, offers financing without the requirement for collateral, along with guidance services for young entrepreneurs unable to access traditional credit sources[31]. Additionally, the start-up law was enacted in 2022 to reduce corporate tax rates for new businesses and provide tax deductions for start-up investments, further fostering entrepreneurship among all[32].

3.2. Germany

One of the cornerstones of Germany's approach to youth employment is its dual VET system, which combines practical work experience with theoretical education, equipping young people with relevant skills and qualifications. Following the introduction of the Hartz I reforms, the focus on ALMPs included training and job creation initiatives aimed at equipping unemployed individuals

28 'Subsidies to Hire Young People', Comunidad de Madrid, accessed 21 November 2024, https://sede.comunidad.madrid/en/ayudas-becas-subvenciones/subvenciones-contratar-jovenes.

29 La Moncloa, 'Government of Spain Approves the Youth Guarantee Plus Plan 2021-2027'.

30 OECD, *Jobs for Youth/Des emplois pour les jeunes Spain* (OECD Publishing, 2007), 39-134, https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264032439-en.

31 La Moncloa, *op. cit.,* 29.

32 *Ibid*.

with relevant skills and supporting them in securing employment[33]. This VET system offers more than 350 career paths through apprenticeships lasting two to four years, ensuring that young people gain industry-specific knowledge, thereby enhancing their employability upon graduation[34]. Moreover, the WeGeBau programme, introduced by the Federal Employment Agency in 2006, has since expanded to include younger workers and provides grants for training without interrupting employment contracts. This training-based model has proven effective both for workers and employers, the latter benefiting from highly qualified employees[35].

Germany's PES, one of the highest-funded components within ALMPs, provides a range of job search assistance, career counselling, and placement services for young job seekers. With the Hartz III reforms, the PES was restructured to increase caseworker-to-client ratios, enabling more personalised guidance and support for job seekers[36]. A key initiative within this framework is the integration agreement, mandated by the German Social Code, which outlines tailored steps for vocational training or employment and is reviewed every three months to ensure effective progress[37]. These agreements serve as accountability tools, maintaining a structured focus on individual employment goals and offering personalised support to help young people enter the labour market[38]. Additionally, pro-

33 Gael De Moraes, Sofia Gomez Tamayo, and Andrea Petrelli, "The Delivery of Employment Services in a Multi-Country Case Study Series: Germany", World Bank, (2021/2022), https://documents1.worldbank.org/curated/en/099120123110015557/pdf/P1765530ba701a02208b090ac60549d9a0d.pdf

34 Graeme Young, "Lessons from Germany on Youth Employment Policy", 1 May 2018, https://policyoptions.irpp.org/magazines/may-2018/lessons-from-germany-on-youth-employment-policy.

35 OECD, "Institutional and Regulatory Set-Up of Active Labour Market Policy Provision in Germany (Research note)", OECD Publishing (2021) : 1-12, https://www.oecd.org/content/dam/oecd/en/topics/policy-issues/employment-services/germany_almp_institutional_set-up.pdf

36 De Moraes, Gomez Tamayo, and Petrelli, "The Delivery of Employment Services in Germany".

37 "Integration Agreements: Supporting Job Seekers", Bundesagentur für Arbeit, accessed 21 November 2024, https://www.arbeitsagentur.de/.

38 "Integration of Young People in the Labour Market", National Policies Platform, accessed 21 November 2024, https://national-policies.eacea.ec.europa.eu/youthwiki/chapters/germany/36-integration-of-young-people-in-the-labour-market.

grammes such as Jugend Stärken (Encouraging Youth) offer socio-educational support to young people who are beyond the reach of traditional education and employment services, assisting them in transitioning from school to work[39].

Germany also offers incentives to employers who hire and train young people, particularly those who come from disadvantaged backgrounds or who have a disability. These incentives include grants and subsidies for companies that create apprenticeships or offer training opportunities for marginalised groups[40]. Although less common, Germany also employs direct job creation schemes, particularly during economic downturns, to provide temporary employment opportunities for disadvantaged groups, including young people, targeting regions with high youth unemployment to mitigate the impacts of economic instability[41]. To encourage youth entrepreneurship, Germany has implemented various programmes that offer financial support, mentoring and guidance for young entrepreneurs[42].

Conclusions

To sum up, youth unemployment rates in Spain and Germany highlight considerable disparities, with Spain consistently experiencing higher rates compared to Germany's relatively stable, low levels of youth unemployment. While Spain's youth unemployment rate remains above 26%, Germany maintains a considerably lower rate of around 6.5%. This contrast also reflects how ALMPs, alongside structural factors, shape youth employment outcomes in each country. The comparison presented in this paper makes it evident that the degree of reliance on PES and the availability of substantial funding can influence outcomes. For instance,

39 "Children and Youth", BMFSFJ (Federal Ministry for Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth), 10 July 2024, https://www.bmfsfj.de/bmfsfj/meta/en/youth.

40 OECD, *Institutional and Regulatory Set-Up of Active Labour Market Policy Provision in Germany*.

41 European Commission, "The Youth Guarantee Country by Country – Germany", *Employment, Social Affairs & Inclusion* (2020), https://ec.europa.eu/social/BlobServlet?docId=13639&langId=en.

42 OECD, "Institutional and Regulatory Set-Up of ALMP Provision in Germany".

Germany's tailored and individualised approach, with a focus on PES and skills training, shows better outcomes. In contrast, Spain's generalised approach with comparable funding of all of the ALMPs has not achieved the same level of sustained success. This disparity highlights that PES-based policies are most effective when combined with other well-funded policies rather than being treated as an individual component. As Caliendo and Schmidl suggest, programmes that integrate multiple components, such as skills training, counselling and job placement services, are more effective than those focusing on a single aspect, which is evident in the case of Germany[43]. Additionally, Andersen and Svarer's (2012) argument that merely intensifying ALMPs does not guarantee better outcomes is particularly evident in Spain's case.[44] These findings emphasise the need for a balanced, multidimensional approach to ensure long-term improvements in youth employment outcomes.

While ALMPs play a role in shaping these outcomes, broader structural factors also contribute greatly to youth employment opportunities. While this article has only explored ALMPs, it is essential to consider additional factors influencing youth unemployment, including economic conditions, educational systems and the effectiveness of vocational training programmes, to better understand the full landscape of youth employment and the range of policy responses.

43 Caliendo and Schmidl, *supra note*, 17: 2-3.

44 Andersen and Svarer, *supra note*, 18: 1-19.

JAUNIMO NEDARBAS IR AKTYVIOS DARBO RINKOS POLITIKA EUROPOJE: LYGINAMASIS ISPANIJOS IR VOKIETIJOS TYRIMAS

Anusha Simkhada

Mykolo Romerio universitetas, Lietuva

Rygos Stradinio universitetas, Latvija

Ružomberoko katalikiškasis universitetas, Slovakija

ISCTE Lisabonos universiteto institutas, Portugalija

Santrauka. Pasauliniu mastu jaunimo nedarbas tapo kritine problema, darantį įtaką ne tik atskiriems asmenims, bet ir platesnei ekonomikai, darbo rinkai ir visuomenei. Europoje struktūriniai ekonomikos, švietimo sistemų ir darbo rinkos politikos skirtumai prisidėjo prie jaunimo nedarbo skirtumų tarp šalių. Nors Ispanija nuolat kovojo su aukštu jaunimo nedarbo lygiu, Vokietijoje jis išliko santykinai žemas. Šiame straipsnyje nagrinėjamos jaunimo nedarbo tendencijos Ispanijoje ir Vokietijoje, daugiausia dėmesio skiriant aktyvios darbo rinkos politikai (ADRP), įgyvendintai šiai problemai spręsti. Analizė atskleidžia pagrindinius ADRP išlaidų skirtumus: Vokietija teikia pirmenybę valstybinėms užimtumo tarnyboms ir profesiniam mokymui, o Ispanija daugiau dėmesio skiria užimtumo skatinimui ir paramai pradedant verslą. Išvados rodo, kad Vokietijos pritaikytas ir integruotas požiūris, daugiausia dėmesio skiriant valstybinėms užimtumo tarnyboms ir įgūdžių mokymui, duoda veiksmingesnių rezultatų nei apibendrintas Ispanijos požiūris.

Reikšminiai žodžiai: jaunimo nedarbas, aktyvi darbo rinkos politika, Ispanija, Vokietija, NEET rodiklis, laikinas darbas.