National Youth Federation
Cónascadh Náisiúnta na nÓg

UNDERSTANDING YOUTH WORK TRAINERS HANDBOOK

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UNDERSTANDING YOUTH WORK TRAINERS' HANDBOOK

By Ossory Youth and the National Youth Federation

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Introduction

The purpose of this manual is to provide a trainers' training manual aimed at youth work trainers that would provide them with resources to enable them deliver a FETAC Level 2 in Understanding Youth Work. The target group for this training includes CE participants, volunteers and young people interested in undertaking a supervised leadership role with young people.

The manual is set out in three parts.

Part 1 is an introductory section aimed at trainers. It provides an overview of the training task and back background information on facilitation skills and the planning of training.

Part 2 provides core-training materials based on the module descriptor for the trainer. It is set out in four discrete units as follows:

Unit 1   The Context of Irish Youth Work
1.1   Introductory Session and Group Boundaries
1.2   Historical Development of Irish Youth Work
1.3   Policy, Structure and Funding of Youth Work in Ireland

Unit 2   Youth Work Principles and Practice
2.1   Youth Work Values and Principles
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Unit 4   The Delivery Context of Youth Work
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4.3   Undertaking an organisational/community profile

Each unit is further divided into three/four session plans which aim to provide the trainer with all the material required to run training sessions with groups of learners aimed at introducing them to key learning objectives contained in the module descriptor.

Part 3 provides information on the FETAC level 2 award and aims to provide the trainer with information on how the award system operates as well as the assessment process. It is intended that this section would be useful for trainers who wish to support learners gain a credit for undertaking training in *Understanding Youth Work* as a discrete unit in itself or as part of the Level 2 Youth Work Award.

Part 1   Planning Your Training

1   Trainers' Role

2   Principles of Adult Learning

3   Preparing, Planning and Designing Sessions

4   Planning a Session

Part 1   Planning Your Training Programme

1   Trainers' Role

The role of the trainer is complex and vital to the learning process. The role incorporates the skills of enabling, supporting, challenging, teaching, managing and evaluating. It requires energy, enthusiasm, commitment, self-awareness and creativity. Central to the training experience is the opportunities provided for learners to assimilate new information and to reflect on their developing skills as youth workers. The role of the trainer, then, is partly to teach and partly to facilitate the learners to learn for themselves. An important part of the trainer's role is to be able to recognise barriers to learning, on the one hand, and spurs to learning on the other. In order to facilitate the carrying out of this role, the trainer needs to develop an understanding of how learners learns and the styles and patterns of learning they adopt. A key requirement of trainers, therefore, is a thorough understanding of how adults learn.

2   Principles of Adult Learning

Adult learning can be seen as significantly different from conventional school-based learning. The principles of learning contained in this manual are based on problem-based learning where the process of learning is seen as a key dimension of the learning experience. Learning continues to take place throughout our lives spurred by the new problems and issues we have to face and tackle and the reflective process which forms the basis for new understandings and new ways of acting.

The cycle of problem-based learning is a four-stage process for learning that can be enhanced or diminished at each stage. The four stages are as follows:

Concrete experience

This can take a variety of forms. It can be an attempt at non-formal learning – outing, group work, and creative opportunities. It can also be the informal learning opportunities that arise in the day-to-day interactions between youth workers and young people – conversations, day-to-day experiences. These aspects of concrete experience are the basic building blocks of learning.

Reflective observation

Concrete experience needs to be interpreted. The stage of reflective observation involves the youth worker teasing through what the experience means to the young person.

Abstract conceptualisation

Reflective observation opens the door for a broader and deeper consideration of the issues arising from one's experience. The experience can be linked to other experiences, beliefs and attitudes and thus integrated into one's overall life experience. This entails considering the implications of the concrete experience and evaluating its relevance and validity. Such conceptualisation frequently entails forming a hypothesis or a working model of the situation.

Active experimentation

This is the stage at which the hypotheses formed at the previous stages are tested out in practice. The ideas arising from the progression through the three previous stages are now tried out as the learner actively experiments with what s/he has learned.

The first cycle of learning is complete when the learner goes through these stages. Kolb's model is not, however, a linear and static model. It is dynamic and continuous, for the end of the first cycle is also the beginning of the second. The active experimentation of one cycle of learning is the basis of the concrete experience stage of the next cycle.

Diagram 1: The Educational Learning Cycle

New Concrete
Experience

Concrete
Experience

Active
Experimentation

Reflective
Observation

Abstract
Conceptualisation

The curriculum materials and session plans provided in Part 2 of this manual have been based on the above stages of learning. Specifically, attention is given within the session design to create a systematic approach to providing the learner with opportunities to go through each of the learning stages outlined above.

Each session theme attempts to provide a structured experience, or a role-play or a real-life situation that has the potential to involve the learner in the first stage of the learning process. The objective of the structured exercise is to generate sensing, thinking, feeling, wanting or doing in the learner. This initial experience is a crucial part of the learning and is the basis for the entire process.

Following the experience itself, opportunity is given for participants to share their reactions and observations with others in the group. This is the first attempt at processing and is aimed at making sense of the experience generated at an individual and at a group level. The dynamics that emerge in the experience are explored, discussed and evaluated with other participants in pairs, small groups or large groups. This phase attempts to challenge learners to actively go through the stage of reflective observation.

The next phase is the need for participants to make sense of the experience and to develop or be introduced to principles or abstract generalizations. This is usually the part of the session where it is most appropriate to introduce learners to the theoretical content/information contained in the unit. It is essential that the trainer, in assisting the learners to generalize or form abstract concepts, use the experiences and the insights shared by

the learners to elaborate on the content of the session. In this way, the trainer is challenged to be absolutely familiar with the content of the trainers' notes and use the experiences and points raised by the learners to illuminate the general principles rather than delivering content through lecture type input.

The final phase is applying the knowledge. Typically, during the course of an individual session, learners are asked to reflect on their practices as youth information workers and to use the learning from the session and to review and amend their practice in accordance with the principles and management of good youth information practice. Throughout the training module learners should have the opportunity to go away from the session and implement changes in their practice, based on the learning that has occurred through the programme of learning. The opportunity to try out new practice will challenge the learner with further learning needs which the trainer should encourage them to bring back to the group and which may form the basis of the content of subsequent sessions. The programme, therefore, whilst laid out in self-contained and sequential sessions is *NOT* meant to be a fixed programme. It, rather, offers trainers with ideas and course materials which might provide useful in designing particular sessions, the themes of which have been chosen to reflect learning outcomes detailed in the module descriptor and that most trainers will find themselves covering at some stage during the life of the group. However, because the needs of each training group will be different it will be necessary for each trainer to amend session plans included in this manual and to develop new ones.

3   Preparing, planning and designing sessions [1]

Preparation is vital, whether for a once-off session or for a series of sessions. Some aspects of preparation may be completed during consultation with the group you are working with but others must be addressed before detailing the contents of any session. These include the preparation of the room and one's own preparation.

Room preparation checklist
- Is the room bright and spacious with sufficient fresh air?
- Is the room warm but not hot?
- Is the room large enough for the group to move around?
- Is there easy access to toilet facilities?
- Are there sufficient and suitable chairs?
- Is the room needed by any other group?
- Will there be interruptions?
- Is the room as soundproof as possible?
- Does the room meet the needs of any group members(s) with a physical disability?
- Will the room e set up each time the group meets?
- Is there any equipment needed which must be set up in advance so that no time is wasted during the session?
- Will flipchart notes or overhead stencils be prepared in advance?
- Are writing or other materials available for the group members before starting any activity?
- Are writing or other materials available for the group members before starting any activity?

Preparation checklist
The facilitator must know what s/he is doing and must have the session designed and planned so that s/he knows what is to happen next. The facilitator should:

- Arrive early, allow time to prepare the room/equipment and to relax;
- Concentrate on the group and the task at hand.

Some facilitators use deep breathing, others stretching or have a cup of tea. Whatever method a facilitator chooses it is important that s/he focuses on the aim of the session.

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[1] These notes are reproduced from Prenderville, Patricia (1995) *Developing Facilitation Skills – A Handbook for Group Facilitators* (Dublin: Combat Poverty Agency, pp. 28-33)

Timing

Getting the timing of a session right is one of the issues that concern people who are beginning to develop facilitation skills. Too much time can be frustrating when carrying out an activity. Too little time can be equally so. When a facilitator decides how much time to allocate to any exercise it is wise to propose this to the group. If more, or perhaps less, time is requested, a revised time may be agreed. Participants must know the consequences of taking more time to complete an exercise – other aspects of the session may have to be deferred or curtailed. If this happens in a session the facilitator should remember to evaluate the session plan in terms of estimated times – perhaps s/he didn't allow sufficient time to begin with or s/he was over-optimistic about what could be achieved in the time allocated. For the purposes of planning a session there are tow considerations: firstly, when to do what and, secondly how long to give to each part of each session.

i) When to do what

Deciding on the sequence of events in a session is an important aspect of the preparation for any session. Active participation is what every facilitator wants, therefore, enough time must be allocated for this to happen. Exercises should be scheduled so that there is no rush and as many people as possible should be involved in each part of the each session.

Remember, when planning the time sequence keep in mind:

- The agreed task of the group.
- The number of people in the group.
- The period of time the group has been together.
- The nature of the exercises and the type of activity in the session.
- How people are working together.
- Any points of resistance or conflict evident or reported to the facilitator prior to the session.

ii) How long to give each session

Deciding how long to give each exercise may be daunting when the facilitator is starting out, but as s/he gains experience in group-work her/his instincts will be sharpened and her/his confidence will grow.

Common fears about time and group work include:

- Giving too much time to one person and running out of time for others.
- Running out of material because members took less time than anticipated.
- Failing to cover everything because members took longer to do the exercises than anticipated.

Remember,

- Do listening/trust-building exercises at the start.[2]
- If a session is long (more than two hours), take a break or do an energizer, play fun games, do self-massage or movement.
- Employ a variety of working methods so that people change partners, groups or techniques regularly.
- Don't' leave major times for discussion until too late in the session. People have more energy at the outset.
- Don't pack too much material into a session. Negotiate the workload. How much is it possible to cover? How many sessions might this take?
- If people are talking in pairs, allow 5-10 minutes per person, depending on the subject.
- If people are working in small groups (3-4), allow 5 minutes per person. If small groups consist of five persons or more, give 3-4 minutes per person. This will vary according to the topic and activity.
- Opening a programme/session, including introductions, the opening round and reminding people of group rules can take up to 15 minutes.

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[2] Examples of trust building and listening exercises that the facilitator might draw on are included in Chapter 12 of Patricia Prenderville's book above.

- Be clear with the group how much time is being allocated for any exercise or discussion and remind them of the time a few minutes before they must return to the larger group or end the activity. Remind them again one minute before they break up.
- Speed up the small group feedback to the larger group by appointing one person as recorder and one as reporter before the exercise is begun. These tasks may be performed by one person.
- Encourage the recorder to write notes, preferably on flipchart. Alternatively, the notes may be read back and the facilitator may write them up. Only write up the different ideas to avoid duplication. Acknowledge where each idea came from.
- Plan extra activities to take care of spare time. Allow some flexibility in the plan so that omissions and additions may be made as needs dictate.
- Some exercises may come with recommended times – follow the advice given, otherwise as much time as is thought necessary should be allowed. If the group finishes an activity sooner than anticipated, don't panic. Move on with the programme and add something in later.

Planning a Session

The following framework may be useful when planning any facilitated session or series of sessions. The facilitator should begin his/her plan by working under each of the following headings:

Overall aims
What group members want to achieve, both task and process. (For example, to create a plan of work for a year).

Specific objectives
Details of the aims of the session(s). It helps to break the aims down into constituent parts. So the plan might read as follows:

> To establish the group's needs;
> To establish the group's priorities.

Method
The techniques, exercises and materials to be used. (For example, group discussion, role-play, and games).

Contents
i)   Opening slot (usually called a round where members get to say their name).
ii)   Introductions (to each other).
iii)   Session outline (according to planned objective).
iv)   Each exercise, question and group formation showing allocated time.
v)   Next step slot (chance for group to plan what they want to do next).
vi)   Evaluation slot (opportunity for feedback on session and assessment of achievement of stated objectives).
vii)   Closing slot (particular space to finish the session and close the group).

Remember, before starting any session, that the facilitator must read over the plan and check the following:

- Whether or not the plan meets the agreed aims and objectives?
- Are there a sufficient variety of methods so that concentration is stimulated not dulled?
- Does the plan include situations where people interact and participate actively?
- Is the timing reasonable? Does the plan allow for running over or under time? Are break times appropriate? Do they interfere with the flow of the session?
- Does the session follow a logical sequence from beginning to end?
- Does the plan have an identifiable beginning, middle and end?
- Does each part of the session follow on from the one before? Do techniques vary in the plan?

▢   Will individuals be encouraged and supported by the planned programme?

SAMPLE PLANS

Sample plan 1
Designed for the first encounter of a working group that will continue to meet.

Aim
To get to know each other.
To begin working together as a group.

Objectives
To discuss the group aims.
To agree on a time-frame for the work to be done.
To agree the tasks and divide them out between members.

Methods
Name exercise
Icebreaker exercise
Creation of group contract
Getting to know you exercise
Trust building exercise
Brainstorming
Group discussion

Detailed Contents Plan

Time	Activity
8.00 p.m.	Starting time
5 minutes	Introduction of facilitator and of session plan.
5 minutes	Name game
10 minutes	Introductions/icebreaker exercise – 'in pairs and what you hope to achieve by participating in this group.
10 minutes	In the large group each person introduces his/her partner to the group.
5 minutes	Establish expectations of the group. Brainstorm on what they would like to achieve in the session.
15 minutes	Establish what they need to work well together as a group. Brainstorm on good ways of working. (This forms a group contract by getting agreement on the items listed).
9.00 p.m.	BREAK (10 minutes)
30 minutes	Large group discussion

List of jobs/work involved in achieving aims. Ask people to propose the division of work for the different tasks). |
10 minutes	Recap on the agreements and see that all agree.
10 minutes	Evaluation. Do a round of completing the sentence 'What I got out of this session was…. and 'What I did not get out of this session was…..'
5 minutes	Closing round. Each person makes a wish for the group.
1 minute	Remind group of the time, place and duration of the next meeting.
10.00 p.m.	Close meeting.

PART 2   Trainers' Notes and Session Plans

Note to Trainer

This part of the trainers' manual provides core-training materials based on the module descriptor included in the appendices of this manual for the trainer. It is set out in four discrete units as follows.

Unit 1   The Context of Irish Youth Work
Unit 2   Youth Work Principles and Practice
Unit 3   Youth Work Issues
Unit 4   The Delivery Context of Youth Work

Each unit is further divided into three/four session plans which aim to provide the trainer with all the material required to run training sessions with groups of learners aimed at introducing them to key learning objectives contained in the module descriptor.

For each session plan a number of resources are provided.

Firstly background material is provided for the trainer. The purpose of this material is to provide as comprehensive a set of notes for the trainer to enable him/her respond to queries from the learners that might arise in the context of delivering that particular theme. It is for the trainer him/herself to decide how much or how little of this material is relevant to the learning needs of his/her particular group of learners.

Secondly a session outline is presented. This provides the trainer with some ideas on how a training session, based on that particular theme, might be run with a group of learners. The session outlines presented are not meant to be prescriptive. It is anticipated that the trainer will review the session outlines presented in this manual and amend/alter the session plan as appropriate to the needs of the group s/he is working with.

Thirdly material, based on the trainers' notes, are presented that might be useful for the trainer to use as acetates during the session's delivery and/or as handouts for the learner.

Whilst each of the units is set out sequentially, each is presented as a discrete unit in its own right. Thus, the trainer him/herself can choose the sequence within which each of these is delivered. Furthermore, should the group of learners not form a group that is undertaking the module as part of the FETAC Level 2 Award in Understanding Youth Work, the trainer may decide to omit some units and replace these with other units entirely.

Contact Hours

The session plans presented are predominantly based on training sessions of 2 ½ to 3 hours in duration. The contact hours required to deliver the unit as part of the FETAC Level 2 Understanding Youth Work is **80 contact hours.**

Unit 1   Context of Irish Youth Work

Introduction

1.1   Introductory Session and Group Boundaries

1.2   Historical Development of Irish Youth Work

1.3   Policy, Structure and Funding of Youth Work in Ireland

Introduction

This unit provides three sessions. The first is an introductory session. The principal purpose of this session is to provide learners with the opportunity to come together for the first time, to meet with each other and to clarify the nature of the course of study they will be undertaken as well as the assessment process.

The second and third sessions provide material and suggestions as to how learners might be provided with an overview of the development of youth work in Ireland as well as its operating structures. These sessions are contextual and aim to provide learners with some basic knowledge of the youth sector, its historical development how it is structured and resourced in Ireland.

Since these sessions are contextual it is not suggested that learners focus on aspects of these sessions when producing evidence of learning. Learners, should, however, keep a record of the learning that pertain to each session of these sessions for inclusion in their portfolio.

1.1 Introductory Session and Group Boundaries

Session Plan

Time: 2 Hours

Equipment/Resources Required
Flip Chart and Markers
Copies of Participants' Handouts: Course Content (Summary)

Objectives
Learners will:
- Have been introduced to each other.
- Have been provided with an overview of any youth work experience they have had.
- Have had an opportunity to clarify their expectations of the programme.
- Have been provided with an overview of the course aims, objectives, course content and method of assessment.
- Have established group boundaries for the ongoing operation of the group.

Process

Introductions
Basic name round (5 mins.)

Divide the groups into pairs and ask them to share a little bit about themselves with another member of the group. Ask them to allocate five minutes for each person to share (10 mins.)

As the group to reassemble and ask each person in turn to introduce the person they paired with to the group (15 mins.)

Expectations
Divide the group into small groups of five to six people each (30 mins.)
Ask each person to:
- Describe his/her own youth work background.
- What they wish to achieve from doing the course.
- What their expectations are of the learning outcomes.

Feedback from small groups (15 mins.)
- Expectations of learning outcomes.

Brainstorm (5 mins.)
- When the feedback has been completed ask the group if anybody would like to add anything not already listed which might have been triggered by the feedback from other groups.

Input (Course Content and Structure)

Input on course content (30 mins.)

- Distribute content sheet.
- Allow discussion and clarification.
- Draw attention to aspects of the course that are and are not negotiable in terms of FETAC Award for those who wish to pursue this award.
- Allow participants identify additional sessions they would like to see included in the course.
- Reinforce that the course will not lead to a professional qualification and, in particular, that while it will deal with listening skills they will *not* be professionally trained in these areas.

Course Assessment

Input on FETAC level 2 Award Assessment Procedure and Requirements (5 mins.)

- Portfolio
- Minimum Attendance

Group Boundaries

Brainstorm (5 mins.)

Ask the group to identify what expectations/rules etc. they might wish to have built in as part of the operation of the group and record these on a flip chart.

Go through each suggestion, clarify and secure agreement from the group that this is what the group expects and wishes to have in place. Summarise the main boundaries suggested by the group (15 mins.)

The usual types of boundaries that groups draw for themselves are outlined overleaf. On the basis of the brainstorm, if you are aware of particular items that you yourself would like to see included add these to the list and negotiate their inclusion with the group.

Typical Group Boundaries

Confidentiality:	Agree that personal details and disclosures are not discussed outside the group. Participants may talk about themselves, their own learning and the course content.
Respect for difference:	Participants have the right to be different, as do all members of the group.
No interrupting:	Give each other time to clarify thoughts and articulate them. Wait until the other is finished before speaking.
Equal time, equal space:	Take responsibility for how often you speak in the group and for allowing others equal time and space.
No advice:	Come to your own conclusion about what is right and appropriate for you. Speak from your own experience and do not give advice to others, e.g. *if I were you I would… you should….*
Listen:	Pay close attention to what each person is actually saying, rather than what you want to hear said.
Challenge:	The trainer and members of the group have the right to challenge each other's behaviour, understanding and attitudes if they find it inappropriate or prejudiced. Members also have the right to challenge the orientation of the course and to contribute to amending the course content to better suit their needs if they so wish or to challenge the pace at which the content oriented sessions are delivered.
Speak in the first person:	Speak directly out of your own experience and use *I* or *I feel* rather than *everybody says or most people feel.*
Responsibility:	Take responsibility for what you think, do say and feel in each session. Equally take responsibility for what you do not say in each session.
Disclosure:	Only say what you are comfortable with, no matter what others disclose.
Time-keeping:	Establish time-keeping rules, for example, sessions will begin on time regardless of the number of people present etc.
Smoking:	Make participants aware of any rules that apply within the premises you are using and ask participants to refrain from smoking within the sessions.

1.2　Historical Development of Irish Youth Work

Tutors' Notes

Historical Development of Irish Youth Work – Key Dates

Early Youth Work Movements

Late 1800　　Boy Scouts, Boys Brigade and Girl Guide Movements

1800　　Na Fianna Eireann (Sons of Ireland) founded by Bulmer Hobson (pioneer of Sinn Féin Movement) and Countess Markievicz.

1900　　Inghindhe Na hEireann (Daughters of Ireland)
Objective: The establishment of the independence of Ireland by means of training young people mentally and physically by teaching scouting and physical exercises, Irish history and Irish language. They formed an alternative to British Scouting and Guiding movements.

1884　　GAA (founded by Michael Cusack).
Objective: Encourage native Irish games and assist Irish people assert their Irishness. Aimed to build an active and athletic manhood and establish a strong connection between sport and military drill.

Early 1900s
　　　　a)　　Uniformed groups (Scouts, Guides) – originating in Britain
　　　　b)　　Boys Clubs and Girls Clubs which had a strong Catholic ethos.
　　　　c)　　Revolutionary National Groups. Uniformed like Na Fianna Eireann, Inghinidhe Na hEireann and non-uniformed like the GAA.

Modern Youth Work Movements

1920s-1930s　　St. Vincent de Paul and Legion of Mary, coordinating inner city youth club activities in Dublin.

1930　　Vocational Education Act.

1942　　Establishment of Comhairle le Leas Óige

1950s – 1960s　　Catholic Church prominent in promoting boys clubs and girls supported by Religious Orders such as the Salesians, John Bosco and lay movements like the Legion of Mary.

Late 50s/60s
　　　　Growth of major youth club organisations.
　　　　NFYC established in Limerick in 1961
　　　　Macra Na Tuaithe established in 1952.

1968　　Establishment of NYCI
　　　　Employment of first paid youth workers

1969　　Parliamentary Secretary Appointed.

1970　　First Youth Work Grants

1.2　Historical Development of Irish Youth Work

Session Plan

Time: 2½ Hours

Equipment/Resources Required
Flip chart and markers
Copies of Participants' handouts: The Historical Development of Youth Work in Ireland (1900-2002)
Copies of Participants' Self-Evaluation Sheets.

Objectives
Learners should be able to:
- Outline the historical development of youth work in Ireland.
- Outline the historical development of youth information provision in Ireland.
- Describe the key provisions of the Youth Work Act 2001

Process
Introductory/Warm up Game (15 mins)

Small Group Exercise (45 mins.)
Divide the group into small groups of 3-4 persons each.

a) Ask groups to discuss the main social/political influences that would have been dominant within the following periods and how these might have shaped the provision of youth work at that time:
- 1900 – 1940
- 1940 – 1950
- 1950 – 1960
- 1960 – 1970
- 1970 – 1980
- 1980 – 1990
- 1990 – current day

b) Get groups to chart these on the chart paper as follows:
Period　　　　　　　　　Social/Political Influences　　　　　Expression of Youth Work

c) Get groups to discuss what they feel the main impact those developments would have had on:
- Young people
- Types of services that would have been provided for young people.

d) Feedback from groups (30 mins.)

Tea/Coffee (15 mins.)

Input and Clarifications (30/40 mins.)
- Using the overhead acetates provided, the trainer summarises the main developments in youth work as well as in youth information provision within the various periods, drawing on examples from the participants' charts and drawing attention to points of historical significance.

Individually (5 mins.)
- Identify the main strands within their own experience of youth work and historically where these have come from.

Personal Self-Assessment Sheets
- Participants complete self-assessment sheets for inclusion in their portfolio.

Acetates/Handouts - Historical Development of Irish Youth Work

Early Youth Work Movements

Late 1800   Boy Scouts, Boys Brigade and Girl Guide Movements

1800   Na Fianna Eireann (Sons of Ireland) founded by Bulmer Hobson (pioneer of Sinn Féin Movement) and Countess Markievicz.

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        a)   Uniformed groups (Scouts, Guides) – originating in Britain
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Late 50s/60s

        Growth of major youth club organisations.
        NFYC established in Limerick in 1961
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1968   Establishment of NYCI
        Employment of first paid youth workers

1969   Parliamentary Secretary Appointed.

1970   First Youth Work Grants

1.3 Policy, Structure and Funding of Youth Work in Ireland

Tutors' Notes

The Development of Irish Youth Work Policy

In the past thirty years or so major efforts have been made to establish a National Youth Work Policy in Ireland, acknowledging youth work as part of the educational process and committing it to a partnership between the State and voluntary youth work agencies in the provision of non-formal education services for young people. Whilst there were attempts to formulate Government Policy on youth work in the 1970s and 1980s (principally through the Bruton Report *A Policy for Youth and Sport* (1977) and the O' Sullivan Committee Report *Development of Youth Work Services* (1980), the major landmark in terms of youth work policy was in 1984 when the *Final Report of the National Youth Policy Committee*, [usually referred to as the Costello Committee Report (1984) was published]. The Costello Committee was, in the youth work context, regarded as an important and prestigious committee, the members of which were directly appointed by the Taoiseach and chaired by a High Court Judge, Justice Declan Costello. Its significance lay in the breadth of its remit which spanned the full range of policies and programmes affecting young people and the fact that it set out for the first time in the Republic of Ireland a proposed structure for the delivery of a comprehensive youth service. Even though the principal recommendations of the Costello Committee were not implemented, the report itself has continued to be an important statement about the value of youth work and the possibilities that youth work, properly resourced and co-ordinated, can effect in the lives of young people.

In Partnership with Youth (1995) was the Government's response to the Costello Committee Report and was published in 1985 at the close of International Youth Year. It adopted as its central strategy the development of a National Youth Service, proposed in the Costello Committee Report (1984). However, the implementation of *In Partnership with Youth* (1985) was implemented very partially and when there was a change of Government in early 1987, the incoming Government decided against the implementation of a National Youth Service. It opted instead for the establishment of a network of local services only. In 1987, at a conference in Carysfort College, the Minister presented plans for the introduction of Local Voluntary Youth Councils, initially on a pilot basis.[3]

In 1992, with the publication of the Green Paper *Education for a Changing World,* the need for an integrated approach for youth work provision again emerged. The Green Paper proposed a comprehensive integrated youth work provision on a nation-wide basis and envisaged a major role for the VECs in such provision. Towards the end of 1992 a Consultative Group which involved representation of the National Youth Council of Ireland (NYCI), the National Youth Federation (NYF), Foróige, the VECs and officials of the Department of Education & Science was established. Its purpose was to formulate a strategy for the future development of youth work taking into consideration the broader changes in education being discussed in the context of the Green Paper on Education. Its report, *Report of the Consultative Group on the Development of Youth Work* was published in 1993 and reached broad agreement on most issues confronting the future development of youth work. However, it did not agree on either the precise nature of the desired relationship between VECs and voluntary youth work organisations or the need for a national agency for local youth services. In 1994, the NYCI's policy document *Towards the Development of a Comprehensive Youth Service* was published. This policy is broadly in keeping with the proposals of the Costello Committee Report (1984) proposing as it does a National Youth Work Advisory Committee, Local Youth Boards based on voluntary/statutory partnership, a National Agency and Local Voluntary Youth Councils.[4]

In 1995, the White Paper *Charting Our Education Future* envisaged the establishment of new Education Boards and promised separate legislation setting down the statutory responsibilities of the Minister for Education and the proposed Education Boards with respect to youth work. These responsibilities were set down in the Youth Work Act, 1997 which was passed in May of that year. This paved the way for youth work services to be established under statute and was intended as a subsidiary act to the proposed Education Act, 1997 which provided for the establishment of Education Boards and the extension of statutory responsibility for youth work to these Boards.

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[3]   Currently, eleven such Councils exist.
[4]   This policy was re-adopted by the Assembly of the NYCI in 1999.

Whilst the Youth Work Act 1997 was enacted it, with the exception of one provision, has not been implemented. This provision relates to the establishment of a national advisory committee for youth work. This particular provision was implemented and The National Youth Work Advisory Committee (NYWAC) was established in 1997 prior to the departure of the last Government from office.[5]

However, as a consequence of the anomalies which have arisen in the context of the subsidiary Act being passed without the infrastructure envisaged in the Education Act the incoming Government considered the Youth Work Act, 1997 inoperable and promised amending legislation. This amending legislation is the Youth Work Act 2001, the main features of which are summarised below.

The Youth Work Act 2001 together with the proposed National Youth Work Development Plan provide the main legislative and policy contexts likely to shape the development of youth work at national and local level over the coming decade. This section provides an overview of the Youth Work Act 2001 as well as the current stage of progress in the formulation of the National Youth Work Development Plan 2002-2006.

Youth Work Act 2001
The Act provides a legal framework for the provision of youth programmes and services by the Minister and the Vocational Education Committees. The principal features of the Act are:

⇒ The definition of the functions of the Minister regarding youth work;
⇒ The definitions of the functions of vocational education committees (VECs) regarding youth work;
⇒ The establishment of Youth Committees for each VEC;
⇒ The establishment of Local Voluntary Youth Councils for each VEC;
⇒ The definition of the role of the Assessor of Youth Work;
⇒ The broadening of the composition and functions of the National Youth Work Advisory Committee; and
⇒ The establishment of a Prescribed National Representative Youth Organisation.

Definition of Youth Work
Within the Youth Work Act, 2001 youth work is defined as a planned programme of education designed for the purpose of aiding and enhancing the personal and social development of young persons through their voluntary participation, and which is:
    a)   Complementary to their formal, academic or vocational education and training; and
    b)   Provided primarily by voluntary youth work organisations.

The Act prioritises the development of youth work services for young people between the ages of 10-21 but also provides scope for youth work providers to work with those under the age of 10 and between the ages of 21-25. Particular regard within the Act is given to those who are socially and/or economically disadvantaged.

Definition of the functions of the Minister regarding Youth Work
Under the definition of the functions of the Minister regarding youth work, the Minister will have responsibility for the development and co-ordination of youth work programmes and services. The Minister will also have responsibility for research, monitoring and assessment of programmes and services in youth work.

The functions and role of the VECs regarding Youth Work
Under the provisions of the Act the Vocational Educational Committees will be given statutory responsibilities for the development of youth work in their area. The VECs will be required to ensure that the provision of youth work and youth services is co-ordinated with 'approved, designated and authorised' voluntary and local youth organisations by providing assistance including financial assistance to them. The future of youth work provision

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[5]   The National Youth Work Advisory Committee comprises a 50:50 partnership advisory mechanism between the State and the Voluntary Youth Work Sector. The 50% representation from the Voluntary Youth Work Sector is drawn from the National Youth Council of Ireland. Statutory representation draws from relevant Government departments and agencies and includes representatives of the Department of Education & Science, the Department of Justice, Equality and Law Reform, the Department of Health Children.

locally will be determined by a three-year development plan produced by the Youth Committee of the VEC in consultation with the local communities and the Voluntary Youth Council. In addition, the VECs will have responsibility for ensuring co-ordination of youth work programmes and youth services with other educational programmes and services for young people. This role is reflected in the proposed changes to the composition of the Youth Committee of the VECs which are to include representatives of the Gardaí, the health boards, FÁS, County Councils and/or County borough Corporations. The VECs will also have a role in monitoring and assessing the youth programmes or youth work services and examine the effect and efficiency of youth work services and youth work programmes provided within its area.

The Assessor for Youth Work
Under the provisions of the Act the Minister is empowered to appoint an Assessor of Youth Work. The Assessor has two principal functions, the assessment and monitoring on behalf of the Minister of youth programmes and services in receipt of funding under the Act and the review of the functions relating to the Minister and the VECs administration of the various youth work programmes and services.
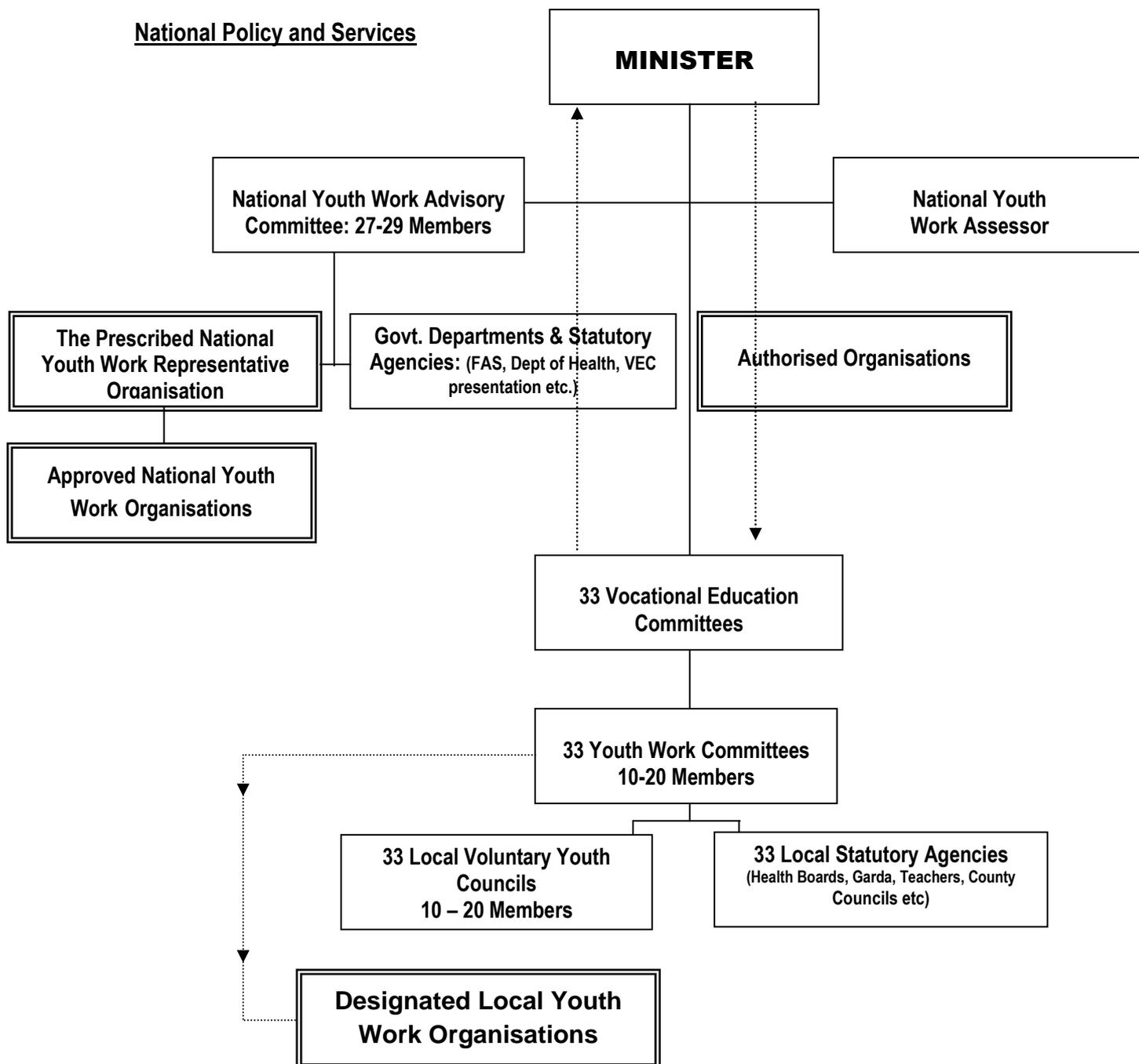
The National Youth Work Advisory Committee (NYWAC)
The National Youth Work Advisory Committee (NYWAC) will be the advisory mechanism for the development of youth work nationally. It is proposed that NYWAC will have between 31 and 33 members and apart from 1-3 persons appointed by the Minister for Education (including the chairperson). Half of the nominees, excluding the chairperson, to NYWAC will be selected based on them being nominated by the *Prescribed National Youth Work Representative Organisation*. (The National Youth Council of Ireland, NYCI is the first prescribed such body). The other half of the Committee will be statutory representatives to be drawn from the following: the Department of Education & Science; the IVEA; the Departments of Enterprise Trade and Employment; Social, Community and Family Affairs; Justice, Equality and Law Reform; Health & Children; Tourism, Sport and Recreation; Arts, Heritage, Gaeltacht and the Islands; and FÁS. The National Youth Work Advisory Committee will advise the Minister on the following matters: provision and co-ordination of youth work; youth work policies; co-ordination of youth work with formal education; co-ordination of youth work with other services for young people; gender balance in the provision of youth work; criteria for the approval or designation of national or local youth work organisations; guidelines for the Voluntary Youth Councils; and any other matters which the Minister may request.

Diagram: Youth Work Act (2001)

Funding and Status

<u>**National Policy and Services**</u>

MINISTER

National Youth Work Advisory Committee: 27-29 Members

National Youth Work Assessor

The Prescribed National Youth Work Representative Organisation

Govt. Departments & Statutory Agencies: (FAS, Dept of Health, VEC presentation etc.)

Authorised Organisations

Approved National Youth Work Organisations

33 Vocational Education Committees

33 Youth Work Committees 10-20 Members

33 Local Voluntary Youth Councils 10 – 20 Members

33 Local Statutory Agencies (Health Boards, Garda, Teachers, County Councils etc)

Designated Local Youth Work Organisations

National Youth Work Development Plan (2002-2006)
At national level, proposals for a National Youth Work Development Plan was been prepared for the attention of the Minster of State with responsibility for Youth Affairs, of the previous Government, Mr. Willie O'Dea. The current stage of development of the Plan is that it has been agreed by the National Youth Work Development Committee and was presented to the Minister O'Dea who in turn circulated the recommended plan to all youth work organisations for final comment prior to decisions being made by the Department of Education and Science (Youth Affairs Section) and the new Minister about its implementation.

Whilst the detail of the Plan and the particular provisions in it that will be implemented will not be publicly available until it receives the approval of the new Minister, it is expected that the Plan will include the following:

> ➤ The establishment of a Youth Work Development Unit at national level:
> ➤ The establishment of a framework for the recognition and awards of qualifications in youth work;
> ➤ The conduct of a funding review of youth work so that agreed criteria and funding levels will be standardized across all Departments and Government Agencies funding youth work;
> ➤ A programme for the development of rural youth work;
> ➤ The development of a charter of rights for young people;
> ➤ A national award scheme for youth work volunteers;
> ➤ The establishment of an equality initiative for youth work; and
> ➤ Actions to promote the political and social development of young people within youth work and within society in general.
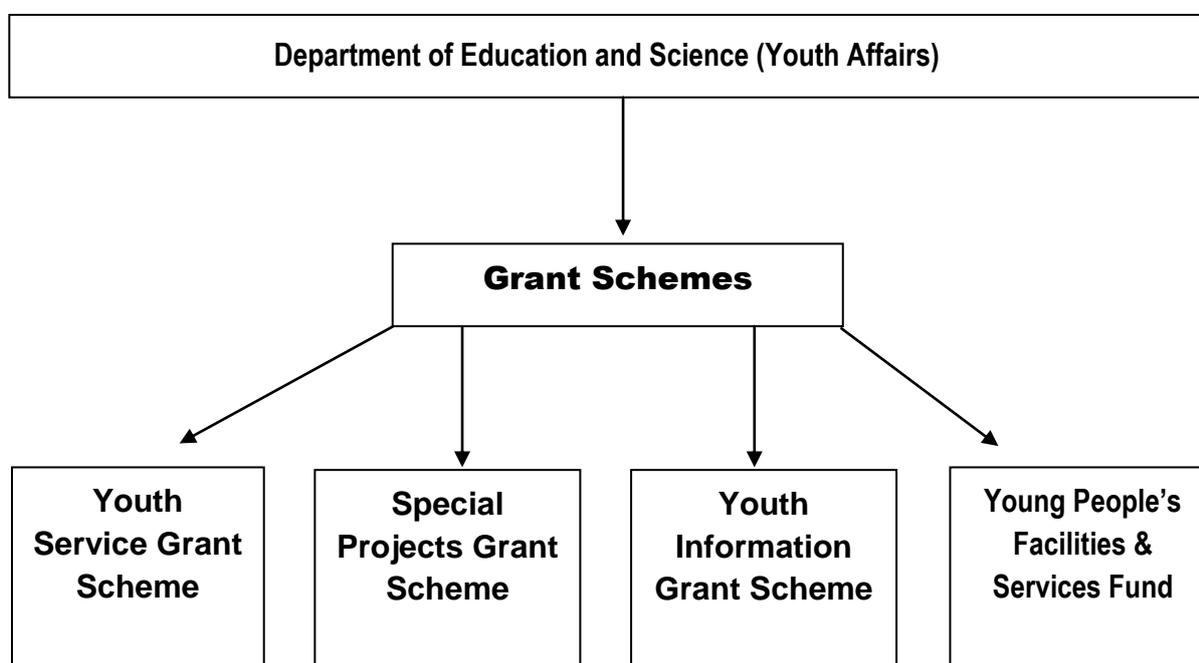
The Structure of Youth Work Provision
The number, range of interest, size and nature of youth work organisations that operate in Ireland represents a complex set of organisations. At one end of the spectrum voluntary youth organisations are simply groups of individuals who have come together for a common purpose. At the other end are larger organisations that have hundreds of paid staff, thousands of volunteers and a turnover of many million pounds. Very many of these work closely with public bodies in what can be regarded as conventional social services such as health, education, social work and so on. Some organisations maintain a strong ethos based on religious denominational values that underline their work. Others have a tradition of independence and are concerned with the promotion of alternative lifestyles. Many of the voluntary youth organisations are national and international in scope. This contrasts with the greater majority of local organisations that carry out their activities in regions or localities.

At national level the **National Youth Council of Ireland** is the recognised, representative and umbrella youth work organisation to which most youth organisations of national scope are affiliated. The bulk of youth work is implemented and coordinated by three to four large organisations that had their origins in the youth club movement of the late 1950s and 1960s and many of which are traditionally associated with geographical areas of the country. These include the **National Youth Federation,** which is a federation of 19 independent Regional Youth Organisations, operating outside of Dublin. Examples of NYF federal regions include, Kerry Diocesan Youth Service, Ferns Diocesan Youth Service, Clare Youth Service, Louth Youth Federation etc. **Foroige** is another large youth organisation that operates within parts of Dublin (for example, Tallaght, Blanchardstown) and which has regional offices spread in various parts of the country including Cork, Mayo, and Donegal etc. **Catholic Youth Care** operates youth services within the diocese of Dublin and also has regional youth services in Bray and East Wicklow. Finally, **Ógra Chorcaí** is a regionally based youth service based in Cork. The vast bulk of other youth organisations include the uniformed groups such as the Girl Guides, the Scouting Association of Ireland, Scouting Ireland and specialist interest youth work, for example, National Association of Youth Drama and ECO.

Funding for Youth Work

The Department of Education (Youth Affairs Section) is the principal Department that funds youth work. The main funding lines under which organisations receive grant aid from this Department are summarised in *Diagram: Funding for Youth Work.* The principal features of each of the grants are also summarised.

Diagram: Funding for Youth Work

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│       Department of Education and Science (Youth Affairs)     │
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│    Youth      ││    Special    ││    Youth      ││ Young People's│
│ Service Grant ││ Projects Grant││  Information  ││  Facilities & │
│    Scheme     ││    Scheme     ││ Grant Scheme  ││ Services Fund │
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The Youth Services Grant Scheme (YSGS)

The YSGS is mechanism through which the work of voluntary youth organisations is resourced as part of the broader education system. Recipients of grant aid under the scheme must operate services/activities for people under 25 years. They must also be a *recognised national or a major regional youth work organisation* and should operate using democratic principles. The YSGS is primarily used to fund administration and staff, and for organisational development. The achievement of objectives and targets, the success of its strategies, the size, range and geographical spread of its membership, the proportion of funding utilised from other sources, and the learning outcomes of the organisation's programme are among the criteria for annual reporting.

The Disadvantaged Youth Scheme (DYS)

This scheme funds between 120 and 137 Special Projects in disadvantaged areas around the country. The scheme aims to provide out of school activities for disadvantaged young people. The projects supported by the scheme are primarily in disadvantaged geographical areas. However, initiatives aimed at communities of interest such as young Travellers and targeted groups including young substance users and homeless youth are also funded under this scheme. Grants are paid through the intermediary agency, that is, the VEC in most areas. However, in the case of NYF projects a block grant is made to the NYF at national level and distributed to its regional affiliates.

Local Youth Club Grant (LYCG) Scheme

This scheme aims to support youth work activities in local areas and is made available to youth clubs by the local Vocational Education Committees. There are no particular target groups, but priority is to be given by the VECs to disadvantaged and marginal groups, and further priority to young people aged between 10 and 21 years. The maximum grant to be made available is £2,500.

Young People's Facilities and Services Fund (YPFSF)

This fund, which is administered by the Department of Education and Science (Youth Affairs), is part of the funding programme co-ordinated by the Department of Tourism, Sport and Recreation to tackle drug misuse. The funding is generally available to provide diversionary activities for young people in those areas where a drug problem exists or has to potential to develop. The fund is targeted at young people aged 10 to 21 years at risk of drug use. In addition, the guidelines for eligible measures under the fund stipulate that those in contact with the justice system, who are early school leavers and have poor educational attainment, are target groups for projects to be supported by the Fund. The guidelines for the Fund are largely applicable to the Local Drug Task Force (LDTF) areas.

Youth Information Centre (YIC) Grants

The Department of Education (Youth Affairs) operates a scheme to provide resources to youth organisations and other agencies for youth information centres. The scheme supports the development of youth information and also directly supports the networking of these centres through the operation of a resource unit based in the Department of Education and Science. Youth Information Centres provide information to young people in relation to employment, welfare, education, migration and working abroad as well as providing an Internet access service. Youth Information Centre staff also typically engage in outreach activities in local communities and in schools through youth information points based within schools and community centres.

1.3 Policy, Structure and Funding of Youth Work in Ireland

Session Plan

Time: 2½ Hours

Equipment/Resources Required
Flip Chart and Markers/ Overhead projector/ Input Acetates
Copies of Participants' Handouts: Youth Work Act 2001 and Funding for Youth Work
Copies of Participants' Self-Evaluation Sheet
Copy of Yes, No, Unsure Exercise/Copy of fishbowl question per group

Objectives
Learners should be able to:
- Outline policy developments with regard to youth work in Ireland.
- Outline the main provision in the Youth Work Act, 2001.
- Identify the major organisations, both statutory and voluntary, involved in the provision of youth work and youth information services in Ireland.
- Locate youth information work within the overall context of youth services.

Process

Ice Breaker (10 mins)
Divide participants into two groups:
- Simple name round
- Cushion game

Yes, No, Unsure Exercise (15 mins.)
- Assemble participants as a full group in the centre of the room.
- Section room into designated yes, no, unsure corners
- Trainer calls out list of possible purposes of youth work and asks participants to go to the corner they feel best represents their belief in that purpose (list attached).
- Throughout this exercise participants are asked to explain why they have chosen to opt for various answers and the trainer generates discussion amongst participants if sufficiently different perspectives are raised.

Input (45 mins.)
Input and clarifications on:
- Evolution of youth work policy, drawing on key purpose of youth work as defined by various policy documents.
- Youth Work Act, 200, emphasizing the purpose of youth work as defined in the act and the intended role of the VECs in supporting youth work at local level.
- Structure of youth work provision, emphasising role of the Dept., NYCI and major youth work organisations.

Tea/coffee (15 mins.)

Group Discussion (1 hour)
- Divide group into two to prepare point for fish bowl question (15 mins.)
- Fish bowl discussion, chaired by trainer (20 mins.)
- Once the discussion has finished the trainer bring the full group together to brainstorm the major points of difference within each group's argument (10 mins.)
- Open discussion on the strengths/difficulties of supporting local youth information centres through volunteer structures and their views on same (15 mins).

Self-Evaluation Sheets (15 mins.)
- Participants complete self-evaluation sheets for inclusion in their portfolio.

Yes, No, Unsure Exercise

The purpose of youth work is:

        The personal development of young people.

        To contribute towards social change in society.

        To keep young people occupied and off the streets.

        To provide recreational outlets for young people.

        To divert young people away from drugs and other harmful activities.

        To enable young people grow from childhood to adulthood in a safe environment.

        To challenge inequality in society.

        Add others of your own.

Fish Bowl Exercise

The information needs of young people today are so great that the Government should now put in place an amendment to the Youth Work Act 2001 which would encompass the following provisions:

- 100% funding for youth information centres, to be based in schools, thus, making youth information workers part of the formal education system and no longer the employees of various youth work organisations.
- Establish that youth information becomes part of young people's civic and political education and an obligatory part of the school curriculum.
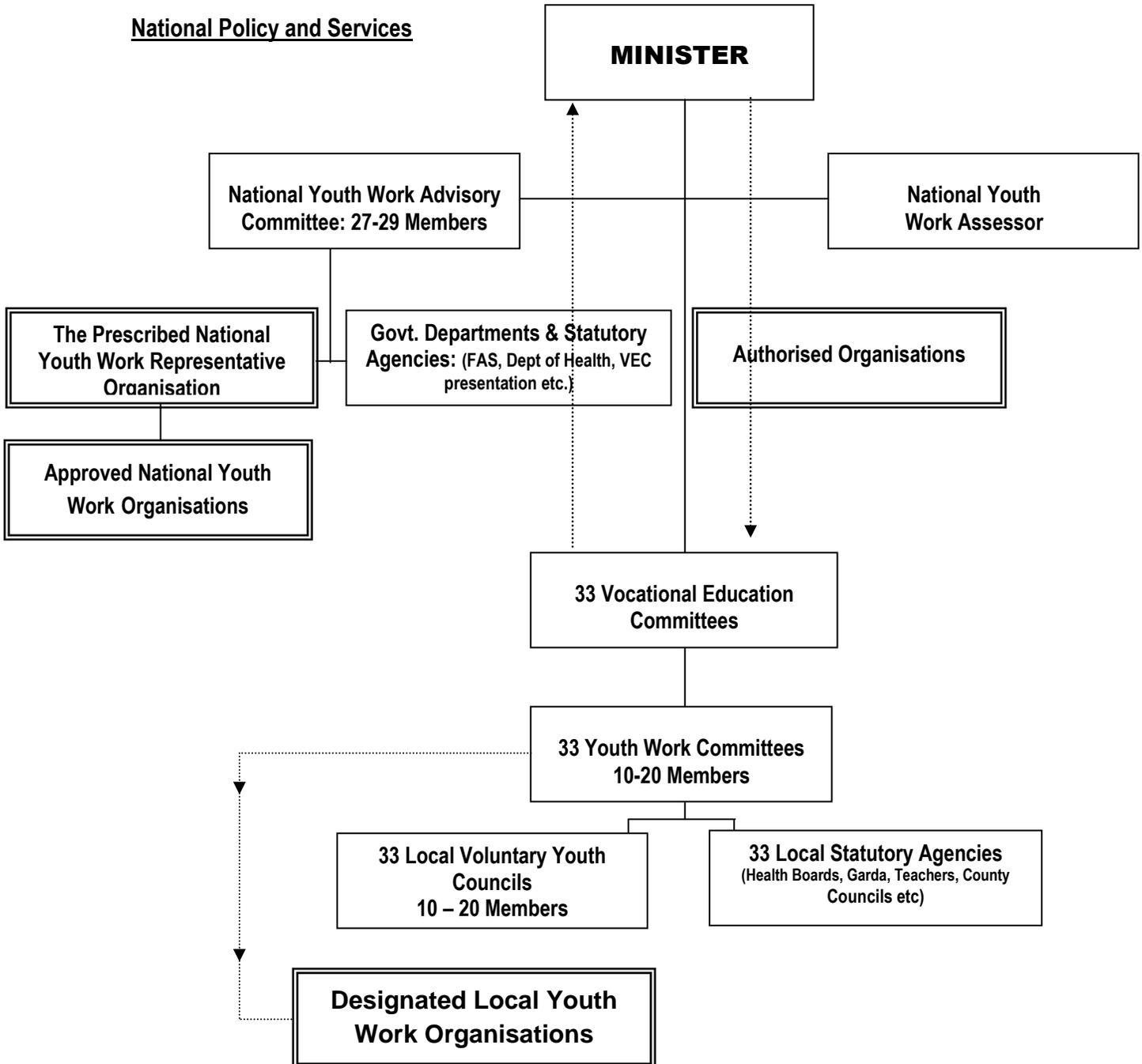
Group 1   **For**
Group 2   **Against**

Acetates/Handouts
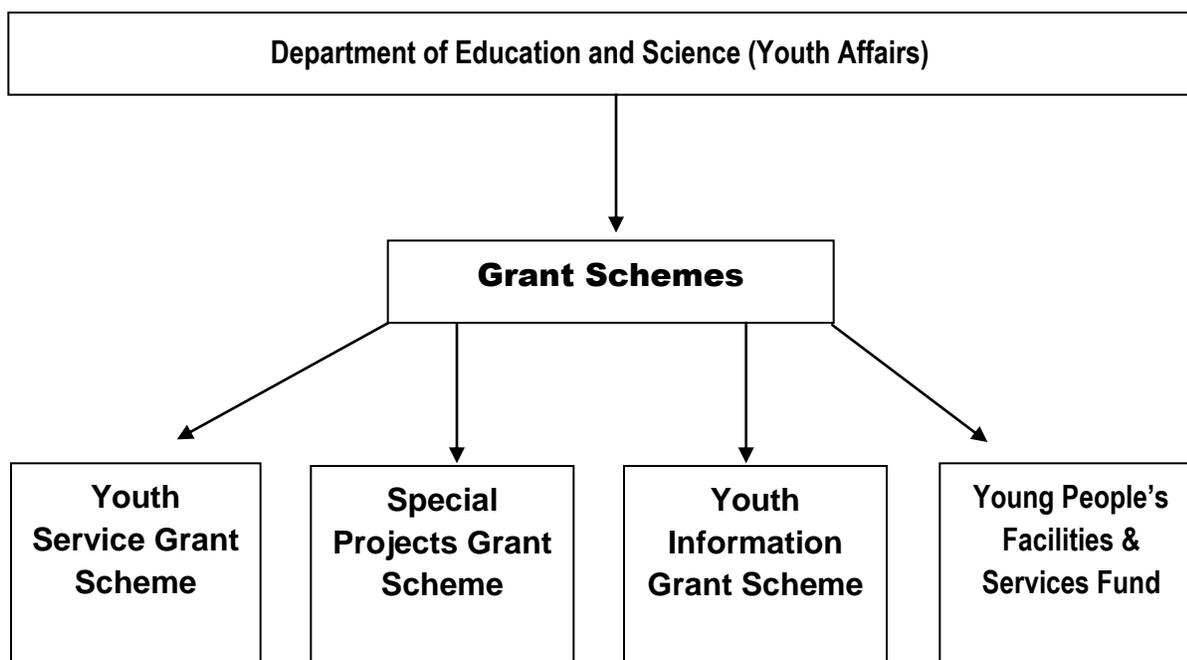
Diagram: Youth Work Act (2001)

Funding and Status

National Policy and Services

MINISTER

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Diagram: Funding for Youth Work

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│        Department of Education and Science (Youth Affairs)       │
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                      │    Grant Schemes     │
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│   Youth     │ │   Special   │ │   Youth     │ │Young People's│
│Service Grant│ │Projects Grant│ │ Information │ │ Facilities & │
│   Scheme    │ │   Scheme    │ │Grant Scheme │ │Services Fund │
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Unit 2   Youth Work Principles and Practice

Introduction

2.1   **Youth Work Values and Principles**

2.2   **Social Learning in a Youth Group**

2.3   **Youth Participation and Decision Making**

2.4   **Understanding Leadership and the Role of Youth Workers**

2.5   **Methods/Models of Youth Work**

2.1   Youth Work Values and Principles

Tutors' Notes

Concept of Youth Work
The definition of youth work currently used to describe youth work is that which is set forth in the most recent youth work legislation, the Youth Work Act, 2001. The values and underlying principles of youth work that further describe this definition are outlined in this session.

Definition of Youth Work
The Youth Work Act (2001) is the most recent legislation governing the delivery of youth work in the Republic of Ireland. Within this Act, youth work is defined as a planned programme of education designed for the purpose of aiding and enhancing the personal and social development of young persons through their voluntary participation, and which is:

a)   Complementary to their formal, academic or vocational education and training; and
b)   Provided primarily by voluntary youth work organisations.

The Values of Youth Work
The values of youth work outlined below are underpinned by a commitment to equality, social inclusion and justice for young people in society where youth work is understood both a philosophy and a methodology. It is essentially concerned with providing developmental opportunities for young people to further their human and social rights in society. It is a participative process that empowers young people to work collectively for social change by:

- Identifying their common needs and problems;
- Analysing the underlying causes of their marginalisation; and
- Supporting them to plan and implement action for change.

Youth work recognises that young people learn through four components of youth work practice:

> The value system that underlines the process
> Methods and approaches
> Programme content
> Opportunities for participation

Aspects of each of the above four components are summarised below.

Value system
It is acknowledged that the process of youth work is interpreted differently based on different concepts and beliefs about society, thus, giving rise to different models of practice [6] and to differing ethos and diversity of practice in the emphasis given within the process [7].

However, *ten core values* on which youth work is based are that the process:
> Is participative;
> Is empowering;

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[6] These models are outlined in Hurley, L. & Treacy, D., *Models of Youth Work: A Sociological Framework,* (Dublin: Irish Youth Work Press, 1993).
[7] Typically, differing ethos is informed by particular denominational and religious values.

Is based on the voluntary engagement of young people;
Is based on a relationship of mutual respect between adults and young people;
Has boundaries.
Is structured;
Has the welfare of young people as priority;
Is community-based;
Recognises and values diversity; and
Promotes social responsibility.

What is meant by these ten core values is summarised below.

Participative
The participatory approach in youth work is undertaken through a voluntary relationship with young people in which they are engaged as partners in the learning process and decision making structures which affect their own and other young people's lives.

Six conditions for participation are identified as essential for promoting participation of young people as follows:

- Youth workers operate from a position of positive intention to transfer power to young people;
- The group purpose and group goals are based upon, or arise out of, the young people's interests and aspirations;
- The group, as far as possible, is constitutionally and financially independent;
- The young people have adequate knowledge and skills relevant to the tasks they have to undertake;
- The youth worker has the ability to enable group members to make full us of their existing knowledge and skills and to develop further knowledge and skills in areas where they are deficient; and
- The organisation should provide a support system to enable young people to develop further their knowledge and skills to participate actively in the decision making processes within the organisation at local, regional and national level.

The structures and systems in place in youth groups, thus, provide mechanisms and opportunities which enable young people to:

- Develop self-reliance, through real opportunities to take responsibility and make decision as well as accepting responsibility for the consequences; and
- Develop progressively towards full participation as partners with adults in the running of the youth group.

Empowering
Empowering refers to both the *methodology and outcome* of youth work where young people feel more in control of their lives, are able to make more informed decisions as a result of being more informed, know where they can go to if they need information. It is also about equipping young people with the knowledge and skills to change things in their lives that affect them.

Voluntary engagement of young people
This is a fundamental value of youth work. It is what gives what gives young people ultimate control within their relationship with youth workers – *they* can decide whether or not to enter into the process and once in the process whether or not they wish to continue it and when it may finish. This is what gives youth work its *unique* characteristic, the unique relationship between young people and adults.

Mutual respect

This is the basis of the relationship between youth workers and young people. Through positive interaction with young people youth workers can establish acceptance and trust and then be in a position to promote *dialogue* about responsibilities, rights, attitudes, behaviour and consequences.

Has boundaries

Youth workers operate within professional and legal boundaries. There are limits to the role they can adopt with young people. Thus, while they can befriend young people they clearly are not young people's peers or friends. Equally, youth workers need to establish boundaries of behaviour where young people cannot be misled into thinking that there are circumstances where unacceptable behaviour will not be challenged. The boundaries are established with reference to mutual respect.

Structured

Youth work well implemented is delivered through structured well-planned responsive programmes designed around the needs of young people in differing circumstances. Well implemented it is underpinned by high expectations of young people's responses and is motivating. It is also an enabling process through which young people are encouraged to take responsibility and to develop skills and understanding.

Young people's welfare

Youth workers have a legal duty of *care* for young people with whom they work. In all circumstances, the emotional, physical, sexual and mental welfare of young people is priority. In this respect, youth workers have to ensure that they work with young people in physically safe environments and that young people have emotional security within that environment. They are also governed by child-care legislation in how they respond to the safety needs of young people in their care.

Community-based

The concept of community is one that recognises that young people are part of families and communities. Communities are understood not just to refer to communities that are defined on the basis of geography but also to communities that are defined by interest, ethnicity and collectives. Community-based youth initiatives are youth initiatives that are developed and managed by communities themselves rather than service providers.

Recognises and values diversity

Youth work recognises that society itself is not homogenous and that young people in society come from different social, cultural, family, community and religious contexts. In responding to the differing needs of young people from diverse backgrounds youth work is grounded in a commitment to providing multi-cultural approaches to its work.

Promotes social responsibility

Youth work recognises that young people learn by doing through a relationship with adults who value who they are in their own right. It also, however, promotes social responsibility, that is, the belief that society operates on the basis of collective responsibility rather than individualism. By being involved in the process of youth work the value of social responsibility is passed from one generation to the next and the young people who have been learners in the process go on to teach others in the future because they have gained something valuable from being involved themselves.

2.1   Youth Work Values and Principles

Session Plan

Time: 2½ Hours

Equipment/Resources Required
Flip Chart and Markers
Overhead projector
Input Acetates
Copies of handouts for each participant

Objectives
- To explain values and principles underpinning youth work.
- To familiarise participants with the basic concept of how young people learn.

Process

Introduction (15 mins.)
Refer to the session *1.3 Policy, Structure and Funding for Youth Work in Ireland* which explored the definition of youth work contained in the Youth Work Act, 2001. Ask participants to recall what they remember of the definition and principles of youth work contained in the Act and chart these on flip charts. Place these on the walls and add to these if there are omissions or the need to correct information recalled.

Small Groups (15 mins.)
Then in groups of three/four ask participants to reflect on the following questions:

- What role they think youth work can play in the lives of young people.
- What role they think youth work can play in meeting the needs of the wider community.

Large Group Discussion (15 mins)
Take feedback from the groups and facilitate the group to arrive at five/six points on the potential role of youth work in the lives of young people and the wider community.

Small Groups (30 mins)
Each group is asked to draw up a list of reasonable expectations that they believe a young person would expect should they decide to become member of a youth group/ youth centre/project. Ask each group to consider the following when drawing up their list:

- The centre/project itself
- The staff of the centre and how they engage with and relate to young people
- The programme of activities of the centre/project and how this is organised.
- Issues with regard to confidentiality.
- The role of young people in managing the centre/project and its activities.
- Any other points the group wants to add.

Ask each group to choose someone from the group to take part in a fishbowl exercise after the break.

Tea/Coffee (15 mins)

Fishbowl (30 minutes)

Those nominated from the various groups are asked to come to the centre of the room and form a fish bowl. The trainer facilitates a discussion which has as its aim the compilation of key principles that should underpin the provision of good quality youth work provision. The trainer should encourage those taking part in the exercise to refer to members of their own group for support in drawing up the list. This is particularly advised when the group is nearing completion and you and/or when you are aware that important principles have been overlooked by the group.

Input (20 mins)

The trainer distributes a copy of the Youth Work Values and Principles and generates a discussion on how closely or otherwise this is to the list generated by the group. Draw particular attention to the values of youth work that relate to:

- The community context of youth work
- The aims of promoting social responsibility and equality as well as the recognition of diversity
- Promoting the empowerment and participation in youth work by young people
- The conditions for participation and decision-making by young people.

Evaluation (10 mins)

Participants complete self-evaluation sheets.

Acetates/Handouts

Ten Core Values of Youth Work

Ten core values on which youth work is based are that the process:

Is participative;
Is empowering;
Is based on the voluntary engagement of young people;
Is based on a relationship of mutual respect between adults and young people;
Has boundaries;
Is structured;
Has the welfare of young people as priority;
Is community-based;
Recognises and values diversity; and
Promotes social responsibility.

What is meant by these ten core values is summarised below.

Six conditions for participation are identified as essential for promoting participation of young people as follows:

- Youth workers operate from a position of positive intention to transfer power to young people;
- The group purpose and group goals are based upon, or arise out of, the young people's interests and aspirations;
- The group, as far as possible, is constitutionally and financially independent;
- The young people have adequate knowledge and skills relevant to the tasks they have to undertake;
- The youth worker has the ability to enable group members to make full us of their existing knowledge and skills and to develop further knowledge and skills in areas where they are deficient; and
- The organisation should provide a support system to enable young people to develop further their knowledge and skills to participate actively in the decision making processes within the organisation at local, regional and national level.

2.2   Social Learning in a Youth Group

Tutors Notes

Concept of Youth Work
The concept and definition of youth work currently used to describe youth work was outlined in the Session 1.3 Policy, Structure and Funding for Youth Work. The values, methods and underlying commitments of youth work that further describe this definition were outlined in Session 2.1 Youth Work Values and Principles. This session focuses on the process of learning that is involved in youth work.

The process of youth work
*The process of youth work is one within which **young people** in non-formal contexts are engaged through a variety of **methods and approaches** and through which they are enabled to participate as their **right** in all aspects of their development as they progress from childhood to adulthood to take their place as **active and equal citizens of society**.*

Process

The process of youth work defines what is and what is not youth work. The process is based on the educational learning cycle and principles of youth work practice. The educational learning cycle predominantly draws on the work of Paulo Freire. From the beginning, young people are recognised as thinking, creative people with a capacity for action. The role of the youth worker working at the level of the individual young person is to help the young person identify aspects of his/her live that s/he wishes to enhance and, through the process of dialogue, assist him/her to reflect upon themselves, understand his/her situation more clearly, the role s/he currently plays in the situation, as well as practical ways in which s/he can work towards enhanced roles in such situations.

The process is, however, also group-based. Thus, the whole experience of the group is seen as a common search where the youth worker creates a learning atmosphere within which participants have the opportunity to share their experience, listen to and learn from others. The youth worker therefore acts in the role of animator who provides a frame-work for thinking, creative, active participants to consider a common problem and find solutions, that is, problem-based learning. The cycle of problem-based learning is a four-stage process for learning that can be enhanced or diminished at each stage. The four stages are as follows:

Concrete experience

This can take a variety of forms. It can be an attempt at non-formal learning – outing, group work, and creative opportunities. It can also be the informal learning opportunities that arise in the day-to-day interactions between youth workers and young people – conversations, day-to-day experiences. These aspects of concrete experience are the basic building blocks of learning.

Reflective observation

Concrete experience needs to be interpreted. The stage of reflective observation involves the youth worker teasing through what the experience means to the young person.

Abstract conceptualisation

Reflective observation opens the door for a broader and deeper consideration of the issues arising from one's experience. The experience can be linked to other experiences, beliefs and attitudes and thus integrated into one's overall life experience. This entails considering the implications of the concrete experience and evaluating
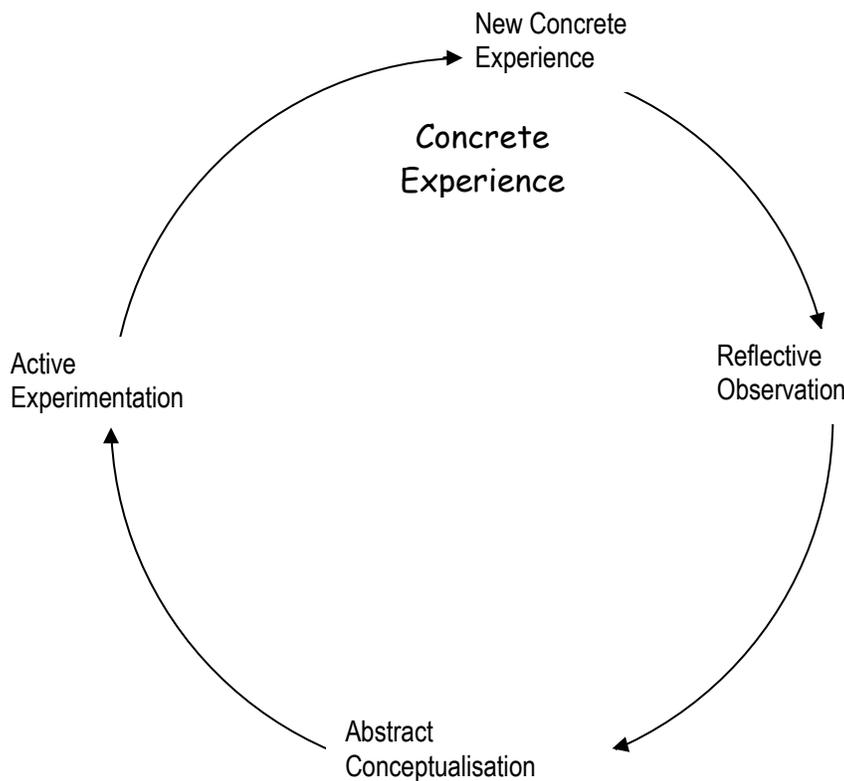
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its relevance and validity. Such conceptualisation frequently entails forming a hypothesis or a working model of the situation.

Active experimentation

This is the stage at which the hypotheses formed at the previous stages are tested out in practice. The ideas arising from the progression through the three previous stages are now tried out as the learner actively experiments with what s/he has learned.

The first cycle of learning is complete when the learner goes through these stages. Kolb's model is not, however, a linear and static model. It is dynamic and continuous, for the end of the first cycle is also the beginning of the second. The active experimentation of one cycle of learning is the basis of the concrete experience stage of the next cycle.

Diagram 1: The Educational Learning Cycle

New Concrete
Experience

Concrete
Experience

Reflective
Observation

Active
Experimentation

Abstract
Conceptualisation

Learning

Learning typically occurs through a variety of contexts: formal, non-formal and informal. Formal learning environments are those that we are perhaps most familiar with and centre around the learning which occurs through the formal school environment and other education institutions. Non-formal education, by contrast refers to the planned learning which takes place in an out-of-school context. Finally, informal learning refers to the incidental learning which takes place through the everyday encounters between people. In a youth group context, learning primarily occurs through non-formal and informal means. The notes which follow refer to learning in an *informal* context.

Social Learning in a Youth Group

Within the youth group context, informal opportunities for learning occur in a variety of ways:

> (i) The social relationships in the group
> (ii) Value system of leaders
> (iii) The methods and approaches used by leaders
> (iv) The programmes
> (v) The opportunities provided for the young people to be involved in decision-making and taking responsibility for the running of the club.

These are described below.

(i) The Social Relationships in the youth group

Social learning occurs around the personal encounters and situations, which occur amongst members and between members themselves and the adult leaders. Some of the situations are planned, such as discussion groups, but the majority of learning situations for young people occur in the natural encounter, which arise in the normal youth group night, for example:

- Having an argument over the pool table
- Refusing to pay subs
- Winning a competition
- Volunteering to help
- Being left out of things

All of these incidents centre on relationships in the group, between members themselves as well as between adults and members. The leadership thus need not just concentrate on the administration and 'smooth running' of the programme, but recognise that learning occurs within the youth group environment. The leadership team must thus be conscious of creating an atmosphere which encourages both the forming of relationships and the opportunities and expertise in dealing with issues as they arise. It is advisable for leadership teams to meet and discuss recent happenings in the group and their own and members reactions to them. This type of regular monitoring is vital, if the 'team is 10 ensure that the group is a positive experience of the young people. Without this monitoring situations in the group will at best allow go unchallenged some of the perceptions, attitudes and biases which develop amongst members in relation to each other and towards other members of society. At worst the group can reinforce the rules of the street which emphasises that bullies win out in this instance a youth group can be a negative experience for young people.

(ii) The Value system of Youth Workers

The core values of youth work should reflect the core principle established. The Costello Committee Report on youth work stresses that with youth work:

- Young people have the right to identify options/choices and choose the most appropriate one for them in any given situation
- Young people are perceived as a resource in the community and not a problem
- Young people have the right to self determination
- Young people have the right to develop their own values and attitudes
- Young people have the right to develop the capacity to analyse critically the world around them and to take action in response
- Young people have the right to challenge the youth worker and to be challenged by the youth worker, in areas such as attitudes expressed and ways of behaving
- Young people have the right to be treated as equals

(iii) Methods and Approaches

Youth workers should operate from a code of practice which reflects the principles and values of youth work and give guidance to the leader in how s/he relates:

- to individual young people
- to groups of young people
- to other agencies and groups within the community

Emphasis should be placed on working with small groups of young people ideally working with a defined target group with clearly stated aims and objectives for each group.

Objectives for groups should be based on:

- a concern for and appreciation of the young person as a whole person.
- give weight and attention to how young people feel
- allow young people to control the conditions and pace f the youth work process
- start where young people's interests 'are at' and negotiate the objectives with them on this basis.

(iv) Programmes

Programmes should be used as a means to an end not an end in themselves. They should be based on the interests of young people involved and lead to new opportunities and experiences and

- be challenging
- be fun and enjoyable
- actively involve them in all aspects of the operation
- have the opportunity included for young people to reflect upon their experiences and learn from it.

Youth workers need to be conscious of striking a balance between the initial interests expressed by young people, and their need to develop new interests and be challenged to do so. Some programmes should be used to promote a relationship between the young people with the local community, and use locally based resources for learning and personal development. Recognition should be given to the special needs of both young women and young men and the issues of gender. This should be reflected in both the programmes and processes of the project.

Programmes should include opportunities where young people are:
- involved in a process learning through participation and then reflecting upon their experiences
- encouraged to recognise and develop their own strengths
- enabled to assess alternatives and choose the most appropriate one in a given situation
- encouraged to develop an understanding of the world around them and develop political awareness
- encouraged to participate in addressing issues at local level through voluntary action

- offered a variety of physical, creative and aesthetic experiences which encourage their personal growth and development
- encouraged to develop a spiritual dimension to their lives
- encouraged to experience other environments and lifestyles outside their own immediate neighbourhood
- encouraged to establish and sustain deep and satisfying interpersonal relationships

The programmes developed are therefore a means to and end and not an end in themselves. It is important that in all circumstances the learning outcomes are reviewed by the youth workers. The question that the youth worker must always consider is what the young people gained/learned from participating in the programme and, what if anything the leader contributed to the learning process.

(v) Opportunities for decision-making
Stuart Gordon (1989) listed five conditions for participation to happen in a group.

1. The youth worker has the positive intention to transfer power to the young people.
2. The group purpose and group goals are based upon, or arise out of, the young interests and aspirations.
3. The group, as far as possible, is constitutionally and financially independent.
4. The young people have adequate knowledge and skills relevant to the tasks they have to undertake.
5. The youth worker has the ability to enable group members to make full use of their existing knowledge and skills and to develop further knowledge and skills in areas where they are deficient.

This has serious implications for the roles and responsibilities for young people and leaders. This philosophy implies that the leadership team's primary responsibility is to facilitate through their relationship with young people both individually and in small groups the planning, preparation and implementation of activities of interest to them. Facilitator means aiding a group or individual make informed decision and to identify and take the necessary steps to put it in to action. An important part of this process is the creation of an opportunity for the group or young person to evaluate the action, reflect on its consequences and learn from the experience.

Sources
COSTELLO COMMITTEE, (1984) National Youth Policy Final Report. Dublin: Government Publications

GORDON S., (1989) *Balancing Acts: How to Encourage Youth Participation.* Leicester, National Youth Bureau

TREACY, D., (1992) *Youth Work Practice in Community-Based Projects: A Report for the Youth Affairs and Adult Education Section, Department of Education* (Dublin: Department of Education, 1992)

NATIONAL YOUTH BUREAU, (*1983) Curriculum Development in the Youth Club,* Leicester, National Youth Bureau

2.2　　　　Social Learning in a Youth Group

Session Plan

Time: 2½ Hours

Equipment/Resources Required
Flip Chart and Markers
Role Play Cards
Copies of Participants' Handouts:　　Social Learning in Youth Group
Copies of Participants' Self-Evaluation Sheet
Overhead projector
Input Acetates

Objectives
Learners should be able to:

- Identify the various informal opportunities in which social learning can occur in a youth group.
- Examine their own practice and identify opportunities which might be exploited to create social learning for the young people they themselves work with.

Process

Role Play Preparation (15 mins)
Divide the group into three small groups of 6/7 and ask them to construct a role-play of a pool table dispute where strong language with sexist and racist content develops between the members and where the leader in frustration and the potential for violence to emerge within the group throws two of the members out and instructs the remaining members that the pool table is off limits for the rest of the event.

Allow groups fifteen minutes to discuss and prepare their role-play.

Role-play – Pool Table Dispute (5 mins)
Group 1 is asked to enact role-play while other participants are asked to observe.

Role-play Analysis (10 mins)
Divide the group into four to five groups of 4 people each. Ask each group to:

- Identify what was learned by the various members involved about the following issues: how conflict is resolved, sexism, use of aggressiveness etc.

Role-Play Re-examined – Preparation (15 mins)
Using the points raised through discussion the groups are asked to plan to replay the situation where the leader intervenes positively and creates a positive learning situation in the following areas: Conflict resolution, sexism, use of aggression etc.

Role-Play Re-examined – Enacted (5 mins)
Group two re-enact the role-play concentrating on interventions the leader might use to create positive learning.

Discussion (10mins)
Once the role-play has been completed the tutor generates a discussion with the full group on how effective they felt the interventions by the lead in the second role-play might have been and other ideas they might have used themselves given the same situation.

Tea/Coffee (15 mins)

Brainstorm (10 mins)
Participants are asked to brainstorm the situations where learning occurs in a youth group.

Input (20 mins)
Using the points raised in the brainstorm, the tutor gives an overview of the following:
- The difference between formal, informal and non-formal learning contexts;
- The situations in which learning occurs in a youth group: social relationships; structures for participation and opportunities for decision making;
- Clarification and discussion.

Application (20 mins)
Individually participants are asked to recall two episodes where they feel negative learning took place in their group.
Participants are asked to record the main development in the episodes, who was involved, what was said, etc.
Participants are finally asked to reconstruct the episodes concentrating on a positive intervention they could make.

Sharing in Pairs (20 mins)
Participants are asked to share their situations and to seek suggestions from each other as to how the reconstruction might be improved.

Self Evaluation Sheets (5 mins)

ACETATE/HANDOUT - Social Learning in a Youth Group

Within the youth group context, informal opportunities for learning occur in a variety of ways:

    (i)   The social relationships in the group

    (ii)   Value system of leaders

    (iii)   The methods and approaches used by leaders

    (iv)   The programmes

    (v)   The opportunities provided for the young people to be involved in decision-making and taking responsibility for the running of the club.

2.3   Youth Participation and Decision Making

Tutors' Notes

Levels of Participation

Sherry Arnstein, writing in 1969 about citizen involvement in planning processes in the US, described a ladder with eight steps as follows:

```
Citizen control    )
Delegated Power  )   Degrees of Citizen Power
Partnership        )

Placation          )
Consultation       )    Degrees of Tokenism
Informing          )

Therapy            )     Non Participation
Manipulation       )
```

Step 1 Manipulation and Step 2 Therapy are both regarded non-participative. The aim is to cure or educate the participants. Within these steps the proposed plan of the leader is regarded as best and the job of the participation is to achieve public support by public relations.

Step 3 Informing is regarded as the first step to legitimate participation. However, too frequently the emphasis is on a one-way flow of information with little or no attention to developing channels for feedback.

Step 4 Consultation again is regarded as a legitimate step in consultation. Attitude surveys, neighbourhood meetings, public enquiries are all part of the approaches taken to consult in this step.

Step 5 Placation Examples of placation are strategies that include co-options of handpicked individuals onto committees. This form of participation allows citizens to advise or plan but retains power holders to judge and make decisions on the legitimacy and feasibility of the advice.

Step 6 Partnership Power is in fact redistributed through negotiation between citizens and power holders. Planning and decision-making responsibilities are shared through joint committees.

Step 7 Delegated Power This form of participation involves citizens holding a clear majority of seats on committees with delegated power to make decisions. In this form of participation the public has power to assure accountability to them.

Step 8 Citizen Control In this form of participation citizens handle the entire job of planning, policy making and managing responses. Examples of this form of participation are neighbourhood corporations with no intermediaries between them and the source of funds.

Initiation and Process of Participation in Youth Groups

Participation in youth groups does not happen of its own accord, it is initiated. Someone (termed below the youth worker) then manages a process over time and allows other involved more or less control over what happens.

The youth worker is in a strong position to decide how much or how little control to allow to others, for example, just information or a major say in what happens. Thus, the decision to initiate a participation process will involve an initial decision as to which step on the ladder the participation process begins with. In taking this decision the youth worker comes to and understanding that participation involves the **understanding of power** and the ability of the different interests to achieve what they want. Power depends on who has information and money. It also depends on people's confidence and skills. Many organisations are unwilling to allow people to participate because they fear loss of control or because they believe that there is only so much power to go around and because give some to others means losing their own. To this end, it is useful to think of **stakeholders.** Stakeholders are those who have a stake in a project/youth group and in what happens in it. By considering stakeholders youth workers are forced to think about who will be affected by the project, who controls the information, skills and money needed, who may help and who may hinder. It does not follow that everyone affected has an equal say – the idea of using the ladder and considering stakeholder is to think about who has most influence. Using the term 'young people in the community' may not be a helpful starting point in determining at what level participation will be initiated since there are many groups of young people within communities, defined by shared interests, age, gender, ethnicity, background etc. Thus, it is important to think in terms of 'what young people' participate in the youth group because different young people will be interested in different issues.

Partnership with young people is another term worth considering when deciding on a participation strategy. In particular, it is worth remembering that partners don't have to be equal in skills, funds or confidence but they do have to trust each other and share some commitment. In participation processes, as in our personal and social lives, building trust and commitment takes time. **Commitment** is the other side of apathy - people are committed when they want to achieve something and are apathetic when they don't. In general people care about what they are interested in and become committed when they feel they can achieve something. Thus, if young people are apathetic about proposals it may simply be that they don't share the interests or concerns of the proposer. People are more likely to be committed to carrying something through if they have a stake in the idea. The task here is to allow young people say 'we thought of that'. In practice this means running brainstorming workshops, helping young people think through the practicality of ideas and negotiating with others a result which is acceptable to as many as possible. Clearly this isn't possible if the youth worker simply provides young people with information about his/her own ideas, or by consulting them on a limited number of ideas. Apathy is directly proportional to the stake people have in ideas and outcomes.

Confidence and capacity Ideas and wish lists are little use if they cannot be put into action. The ability to do that depends as much on people confidence and skills as it does on money. Many participation processes involve breaking new ground and setting up new forms of organisations. It is unrealistic to expect that young people will suddenly develop the capacity to make complex decision and become involved in major projects since they will need training and the opportunity to learn as well as opportunities to develop confidence and trust in each other.

Promoting Youth Participation

If attempting to operate this philosophy of active participation the youth work team faces the dilemma of needing to give freedom and responsibility to young people while at the same time meeting the expectations of parents and the community that the club will be run in a well ordered fashion. In general five guiding principles may help them when decided on the appropriate starting point for promoting the participation of young people in the youth group:

Five guiding principles:

- The leadership team have overall responsibility for ensuring that no one group of members in deciding what it wants to do, is free to ignore the legitimate rights of other members of the club or community. A way of ensuring this is to involve members in drawing up their own set of rules to be adhered to.
- The limitations of the responsibility given to young people must be clearly spelled out. It is important that within these limitations young people should be given full authority and supported to make informed decisions and implement their action.
- The areas of responsibility delegated, should be important and relevant to the young people and not reduced to issues of little consequence.
- The youth workers need to motivate and support the group of young people to complete the steps of decision-making effectively. The role is, therefore active not one of passively letting them get on with making their mistakes.
- The structures of the youth group should thus enhance opportunities for participation and decision-making and not hinder it.

Gordon's Conditions for Participation
Stuart Gordon (1989) listed five conditions for participation to happen in a group.

1. The youth worker has the positive intention to transfer power to the young people.
2. The group purpose and group goals are based upon, or arise out of, the young interests and aspirations.
3. The group, as far as possible, is constitutionally and financially independent.
4. The young people have adequate knowledge and skills relevant to the tasks they have to undertake.
5. The youth worker has the ability to enable group members to make full use of their existing knowledge and skills and to develop further knowledge and skills in areas where they are deficient.

Promoting the Development of Young People as Members
It is evident from the above that the development of members and the opportunities for participating in decision making within the group will very much depend on how and whether the youth worker intentionally creates opportunities for participation by young people within the youth group/project. A youth group structure may also aid or hinder the participation of young people in decision-making processes.

Model Youth Club/Group Structure
A Model Youth Club/Group Structure concentrates on the leadership team working in a supportive way with various task groups. The task groups are made up on the basis of the functions which need to be fulfilled for the proper running of the club, for example, the hiring of the hall, collection of membership subscriptions, programmes groups as well as task based on the interests and skill of members. A Model Youth Club/Group Structure does not propose a hierarchical committee structure which is a feature of many youth groups, since hierarchical structures on the whole only offer developmental opportunities for those involved in committees and largely, therefore, ignore the vast majority of the members.

2.3   Youth Participation and Decision Making

Session Outline

Time: 3 Hours

Equipment/Resources Required
Flip Chart and Markers
Role Play Cards
Copies of Participants' Handouts:
      Arnstein's Ladder of Participation
      Gordon's' Conditions for Participation
      Model Youth Group Structure
Copies of Participants' Self-Evaluation Sheet
Overhead projector
Input Acetates

Objectives
Learners should be able to:
- Identify the various steps to participation and reflect on their experience of participation opportunities.
- Examine their own practice and identify opportunities which might be exploited to create greater opportunities for young people to participate in their youth group/project.

Process
Exercise (30 mins)
Ask participants to draw a circle in the middle of a page and write down the word *participation* in the circle. Then spidering out from the circle jot down about ten words or ideas that come to mind related to participation. Form group of 4-5 people and share what each person has written. Note the similarities and the differences. Each small group reports on the similarities and the differences to the large group. A discussion follows on the different understandings of participation.

Experience of Participation (1 hour)
Ask each person to take a few minutes alone to reflect on a good experience of participation that they had. It may have been in an organisation, at a meeting, at some special occasion. Ask them to reflect on the following questions:

- Why it was a good experience of participation;
- What elements could they name that made it good;
- What conditions they believed were necessary and part of the experience that made it happen.

Form groups of 4/5 and share their findings. After sharing ask each group to draw up a list of 6 conditions necessary for participation. Then each group chooses a leader and al the leaders gather in a central fishbowl, with all the others sitting in the outer circle. The central group is asked to share its group lists and to work together to draw up a list of 10 conditions for good participation.

Tea/Coffee (15 mins)

Input (15 mins)
Trainer provides an input based on Arnstein's ladder of participation and Gordon's conditions for Participation whilst drawing from the ideas already noted by the group.

Member Participation Structures (30 mins)
Participants are asked to describe a variety of structures which operate within their youth group situations.

Samples of these are recorded on the flip chart.

Generate discussion on the advantages and disadvantages of the various models proposed.

Model Youth Club/Group Structure (5 mins)
Describe the model youth club/group structure and outline how it can relate directly to promoting participation within a youth club/group by linking the developmental needs of members to a type of leadership which promotes participation through the support of interest and task group rather than through traditionally elected 'member committee structures'.

Application (20 mins)
Using their own youth group situation, participants are asked to apply the model to their own situation.
For each task group, participants are asked to identify the leadership style appropriate to that group.

Sharing (10 mins)
In pairs, participants share the results of their work.

Completion of self-evaluation forms (5 mins.)

ACETATE/HANDOUT – Youth Participation and Decision Making

Levels of Participation

Sherry Arnstein, writing in 1969 about citizen involvement in planning processes in the US, described a ladder with eight steps as follows:

```
Citizen control    )
Delegated Power  )   Degrees of Citizen Power
Partnership        )


Placation          )
Consultation       )    Degrees of Tokenism
Informing          )


Therapy            )    Non Participation
Manipulation       )
```

Additional Handout (Model Youth Club/Group Structure)

Tutor will provide an example from their organisation.

2.4   Understanding Leadership and the Role of Youth Workers

Tutors' Notes

Theories of Leadership
A number of theories have been developed in relation to leadership. These include:

    a) Trait Theory: Leadership involves both inherited and acquired characteristics - leaders are born and not make.

    b) Style Theory: Certain ways of behaving in leadership situations are more effective than others.

    c) Contingency Theory/Situation Leadership: Leadership style can and should change to fit different situations.

a) Trait Theory
Early theories suggest that there are certain qualities, personality characteristics or 'traits', which make a good leader. These might be aggressiveness, self-assurance, intelligence, initiative, a drive for achievement or power, appearance, interpersonal skills, administrative ability, imagination, a certain upbringing and education, the 'helicopter factor' (ie the ability to rise above a situation and analyse it objectively) etc.

This list is not exhaustive, and various writers attempted to show that their selected list of traits were the ones that provided the key to leadership. The full list of traits is so long that it appears to call for a man or woman of extraordinary, even superhuman, gifts to be a leader.

Jennings (1961) wrote that 'Research has produced such a variegated list of traits presumably to describe leadership, that for all practical purposes it describes nothing. Fifty years of study have failed to produce one personality trait or set of qualities that can be used to distinguish between leaders and non-leaders'. Trait theory although superficially attractive, is now largely discredited.

b) Style Theory
 Four different types of leadership were identified by Huneryager and Heckman (1967)

Dictatorial Style: the leader forces discipline on members by threatening punishment and penalties.   The psychological contract between the members and their youth group would be coercive. Dictatorial leadership might be rare in commerce and industry, but it is not uncommon in the style of government in some countries of the world, nor in the style of parenthood in many families.

Autocratic Style: decision-making is centralised in the hands of the leader himself, who does not encourage participation by members; indeed, member ideas might be actively discouraged and obedience to orders would be expected from them. The autocratic style is common in many organisations, and you will perhaps be able to identify examples from your own experience. Doctors, matrons and sisters in hospitals tend to practice and autocratic style; managers/directors who own their company also tend to expect things to by done their way.

Democratic Style: decision-making is decentralised, and shared by members in participative group action. To be truly democratic, the members must be willing to participate. The democratic style is described more fully later.

Laissez-faire Style: members are given little or no direction at all, and are allowed to establish their own objectives and make all their own decisions. The leader of a research establishment might adopt a laissez-faire style, giving

individual research workers freedom of choice to organise and conduct their research as they make themselves want (within certain limits, such as budget spending limits).

These four divisions or 'compartments' of management style are really a simplification of a 'continuum' or range of styles, from the most dictatorial to the most laissez-faire.

Dictatorial		Autocratic		Democratic		Laissez-faire	
Leader makes decisions and enforces them	Leader makes decisions and announces them	Leader sells his decisions to members	Leader suggests own ideas and asks for comments ideas as a result	Leader suggests his sketched ideas, asks for comments and amends his decision from the ideas	Leader presents a problem, asks for ideas and makes a choice to solve it	Leader presents a problem to his group of members and asks them	Leader allows his members to act as they wish within specific limits

This continuum of leadership styles was first suggested by Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958).

There are differing views as to which of these leadership styles (especially (a), (b) or (c)) is likely to be most effective. The probable truth is that the degree of effectiveness of a particular leadership style will depend on the youth group, the leader himself and his members.

A slightly different analysis of leadership styles, based on this continuum, was made by the Research Unit at Ashridge Management College, based on research in several industries in the UK (reported in 1966). This research distinguished four different management styles.

Ashridge Studies
a) The autocratic or 'tells' style. This is characterised by one-way communication between the leader and the members, the leader telling the subordinate what to do. The leader makes all the decisions and issues instructions, expecting them to be obeyed without question.

b) The persuasive or 'sells' style. The leader still makes all the decisions, but believes that members need to be motivated to accept them before they will do what he wants them to do. S1 therefore tries to explain his/her decisions in order to persuade them round to his/her point of view.

c) The *consultative* style. This involves discussion between the leader and the members involved in carrying out a decision, but the leader retains the right to make the decision himself. By conferring with the members before making any decision, the leader will take account of their advice and feelings. Consultation is a form of limited participation in decision-making for members.

d) The democratic or *'joins' style*. This is an approach whereby the leader joins his group of members to make a decision on the basis of consensus or agreement. It is the most democratic style of leadership identified. However, it assumes equal knowledge, skills and experience for it to be effective. Overleaf are listed some of the strengths and weaknesses of each type of style.

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Lewin, Lippitt and White (1939) carried out research in boys clubs to see which style of leadership was appropriate in a youth club situation. In the study youth club leaders were trained to act as autocratic, democratic or laissez-faire leaders, and the purpose of the experiments was to learn how the children reacted to different styles of leadership. The leaders were moved from one club to another every six weeks and by means of rotation each club (consisting of 10 year old boys) experienced three different styles of leadership, under three different leaders.

(a) The *autocratic* leader tended to give orders, and to interrupt the activities of the boys by giving commands to do something else. Criticism and praise were given out non-objectively, ie at the whim of the leader.

(b) The *democratic* leader suggested what the boys should do, showed concern for each boy's individual welfare, participated in the activities of the group, but left the decisions about what to do to the boys themselves.

(c) The *laissez-faire* leader also made suggestions, but was more 'stand-offish' and did not involve himself with the boy's welfare, nor did he join in the group activities, so that the boys were effectively left to do what they wanted by themselves.

Lewin, Lippitt and white were particularly interested in aggressive social behaviour, either within the group or shown to outsiders. Their findings may be summarised as follows:

(a) In one experiment, aggressive behaviour was very much more common among the autocratic group than the democratic group, but none of the aggression or hostility was directed at the leader himself.

(b) In a subsequent experiment, boys in four out of five autocratic groups showed 'apathetic' behaviour and lack of aggression. This apathy was attributed by the experimenters to the repressible style of the club leader.

(c) 95 per cent of boys preferred a democratic to an autocratic leader, and 70 per cent preferred a laissez-faire leader to an autocratic one.

(d) Aggression is only partly caused by leadership style. Other factors arousing hostile behaviour are tension, restriction of physical space and the cultural background of the boys in the group. Nevertheless, leadership style contributes towards such behaviour.

STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES OF EACH TYPE OF STYLE

	STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES
A) Tells Style	1. Quick decisions can be made when speed is required 2. It is the most efficient type of leadership for highly-programmed not routine work	1. It does not encourage the member to give his opinions when these might be useful 2. Communication between the leader and the member will be one-way and the leader will not know until afterwards whether his orders have been properly understood.
B) Sells Style	1. Members are made aware of the reasons for decisions 2. Selling decisions to members might make them ore willing to co-operate. 3. Members will have a better idea of what to do when unforeseen events arise in the youth group because the leader will have explained his intentions.	1. Communications are still largely one-way. Members might not buy his decisions. 2. It does not encourage initiative and commitment from members.
C) Consultative Style	1. Members are involved in decisions before they are made. This encourages motivation through greater interest and involvement. 2. An agreed consensus of opinion can be reached and for some decisions consensus can be an advantage rather than a weak compromise. 3. Members can contribute their knowledge and experience to help in solving more complex problems	1. It might take much longer to reach decisions. 2. Members might be too inexperienced to formulate mature opinions and give practical advice.
D) Joins Style	1. It can provide high motivating and commitment from members. 2. It shares the other advantages of the consultative style - decisions might be difficult to reach. 3. Members might lack enough experience.	1. The authority of the leader might be undermined. 2. Decision-making might become a very long process and clear.

c) Situational Leadership

Usually when people talk about leadership style, they identify the two extremes -autocratic (directive) and democratic (supportive). Autocratic leadership is seen as based on a position of power and the use of authority, while democratic leadership is usually associated with personal power and participation in problem-solving and decision-making process. As outlined earlier thee two extremes are argued to form the extremes of a continuum from very authoritarian on one end to very democratic at the other end.

Situational leadership theory argues that leadership styles tend, to vary considerably from situation to situation. While behaviour of some leaders is characterised mainly by directing activities (directive behaviour) other leaders concentrate on providing emotional support in terms of personal relationships between themselves and their members (supportive behaviour). In other situations various combinations of directive and supportive behaviour are evident Thus, situational leadership theory argues that patterns of leadership behaviour can be plotted which indicate different combinations of directive and supportive leadership behaviour. Four such combinations can be plotted as shown below:

FIGURE 1

Four Basic Leadership Styles

S U P P O R T I V E	Hi Supportive Low Directive Behaviour S3	High Directive High Supportive Behaviour S2
	Low Supportive Low Directive Behaviour S4	High Directive Low Supportive Behaviour S1
	(Low)	**DIRECTIVE** (High)

In terms of the diagram on the previous page the four leadership styles are distinguishable on the basis of:

(i)   The amount of direction the leader provides
(ii)   The amount of support and encouragement the leader provides
(iii)   The amount of member involvement in decision making

Directive Behaviour is defined as
The extent to which a leader engages in <u>one-way</u> communication, <u>spells out</u> the members role and <u>tells</u> members what to do, where to do it, when to do it, how to do it and closely supervises their performances.

Supportive Behaviour is defined as
The extent to which a leader engages in <u>two-way</u> communication, <u>listens</u>, provides <u>support</u> and <u>encouragement,</u> <u>facilitates interaction</u> and <u>involves the members</u> in decision making.

In S1, a leader is high on direction, low on support, the leader provides specific instructions for members and closely supervises the accomplishment of the task. S2 leaders are high both on direction and support - explaining decisions getting suggestions from members but continuing to direct the accomplishment of the task. S3 leaders are characterised by high supportive and low directive behaviour. The leader makes decisions with members and supports their efforts to accomplish the task. In S4 leaders provide low support and direction, turning over decisions and responsibility for the implementation of tasks to members. These are often summarised as follows:

S1 - Telling

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S2 - Consulting
S3 - Participating
S4 - Delegating

➤ 'Best' Leadership Style??

It is generally agreed that there is no best leadership style and effective leaders are able to adapt their style to fit the situation. If "it all depends on the situation" then how do you know when to use which style. While a range of variables will influence which leadership style will be appropriate in what situation. The most important factor will be the members. In particular, the amount of direction and support that a leader should provide depends on the development level of members.

➤ Development Level of Members

When we speak about the development level of members we are trying to define the members ability and willingness to perform a specific task without supervision.

Ability will be improved by gaining confidence and experience
Willingness will be improved by gaining confidence and through motivation.

It is important when considering the development level of members that we are relating it to specific task and that members will be at different levels depending on the task and that members development level can be improved by leaders creating opportunities to develop both ability and willingness.

Situational leadership then focuses on deciding on what style of leadership is appropriate to the development level of members. By dividing the development levels of members into four levels

Low -D1
Low to Moderate -D2
Moderate to High -D3
High -D4

Some benchmarks are provided, using a combination of ability and willingness as illustrated below:

FIGURE					
	Development level of members				
DEVELOPED	Able and willing	Able but unwilling or lacks confidence	Unable but willing	Unable and unwilling or lacks confidence	**DEVELOPING**
	D4	D3	D2	D1	

➤ How to assess which Leadership Style is Appropriate?

First: Determine what responsibility or task you want to focus on with this person (or group).
ASK: What responsibility or task do I want to influence?

Second: Specify clearly the level of performance that you want this person to accomplish in this responsibility or task.
ASK: What constitutes good performance in this responsibility or task?

Third: Determine the development level of the person in that task.

ASK: Does the individual have the necessary knowledge and skill {ability) along with the confidence and motivation (willingness) to perform at the desired level?

Once determined………….

MARK THE DEVELOPMENT LEVEL OF THE FOLLOWER OR GROUP WITH AN "X"
 D1?   D2?   D3?   D4?

Fourth: Draw a straight line from the development level up to the leadership style curve. The point where the straight line intersects the curve indicates the most effective LEADERSHIP STYLE that is appropriate for influencing that follower or group in a particular responsibility or task. D1? D2? D3? D4?

Give the individual or group the appropriate combination of DIRECTIVE BEHAVIOUR and SUPPORTIVE BEHAVIOUR. These combinations differ in three areas: (1) the amount of direction, (2) the amount of support and encouragement, and (3) the amount of follower involvement in decision-making.

➤ **Promoting the Development of Members**
It is evident from the above that the development of members will very much depend on the use of appropriate styles of leadership within the youth group. In addition, the development of members can be promoted by combining appropriate leadership styles with a youth group structure which promotes the development of young people. The Model Club Structure illustrated overleaf concentrates on the leadership team working in a supportive way with various task groups. The task groups are made up on the basis of the functions which need to be fulfilled for the proper running of the club, for example, the hiring of the hall, collection of membership subscriptions, programmes groups ~ well as task based on the interests and skill of members. The Model Club Structure does not propose a hierarchical committee structure which is a feature of many youth groups, since hierarchical structures on the whole only offer developmental opportunities for those involved in committees and largely, therefore, ignore the vast majority of the members.

Sources
BLANCHARD, KENNETH H., *Situational Leadership Revisited* (Blanchard Training and Development Inc. USA)

BPP PUBLISHING LIMITED, *Management Principles* and *Policy -ICSA Study Text* (BPP, 1990)

TREACY, DAVID *A Strategy for Club Development* (National Youth Federation, Unpublished, 1988)

2.4 Understanding Leadership and the Role of Youth Workers

Session Plan

Time: 2½ Hours

Equipment/Resources Required
Flip Chart and Markers
Video record and TV
Copy of 'Club Talk' Video (Available on loan from the IYWC, NYF)
Copies of Participants' Handouts: Leadership and the Development of Young People
Model Youth Work Structure
Copies of Participants' Self-Evaluation Sheet
Overhead projector
Input Acetates

Objectives
Learners should be able to:
- Identify the main tasks of youth leaders.
- Identify the various leadership styles.
- Identify appropriate leadership styles for the developmental level of members.
- Examine their youth group structure with a view to identifying a model youth group structures that promotes the participation of young people and aids their development with the group.

Process

Club Talk Video (20 mins)
The Club Talk which is a single unit covers three themes: the objectives of youth work and the needs of young people; the need for the leadership team to be involved in the planning and the coordination of the leadership team as a team and finally leadership styles. You will need to have reviewed the video prior to presentation to establish the sections of the video which cover each theme so that you are in a position to start and stop the presentation at various stages.

Instructions
a) Show the video in separate sections and for each section generate a group discussion taking in the following points:
  General reaction.
  Main points being made in the video.

b) Re-play the section dealing with differing approaches to leadership:
  Point to two styles of leadership: directive and consultative.   Which was right?
  Generate discussion on this and focus questions on participants own leadership style and why they think it is appropriate.
  If possible, draw out differences in opinion on the overhead chart and use these to illustrate the various emphases, which emerged in the discussion while giving the input on Leadership Theory and Styles (Acetates)

      Theories
      Style

Ashridge Studies
Situation Leadership

Tea/Coffee (15 mins)

Individual Task (15 mins)
- Ask participants to select three contrasting tasks which they regularly undertake in their group.
- For each task selected, ask participants to specify what exactly needs to be done to accomplish the task.
- For each task described, ask participants to assess the developmental level of particular members whom they could encourage to perform that task and to identify the appropriate leadership style for that situation.
- For any of the tasks that require a directional style illustrate what supports (experiences could be in-built to current activities to allow for a different style in the future).

Sharing (10 mins)
Participants share the results of their exercise with a particular focus on what developmental tasks they would build into working with a group in developing skills/confidence to require a less directional style from the leader in the future.

2.5   Models/Methods of Youth Work

Tutors' Notes

MODELS OF YOUTH WORK PRACTICE: THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS

Learning in a Youth Group
Within the youth group context, informal and non-formal opportunities for learning occur in a variety of ways:
   i.   The social relationships in the group
   ii.   Value system of leaders
   iii.   The methods and approaches used by leaders
   iv.   The programmes
   v.   The opportunities provided for the young people to be involved in decision-making and taking
   vi.   Responsibility for the running of the club.

Values
The **values** of youth workers will determine how the methods, social relationships in the group as well as the programmes and opportunities for decision-making will be determined. These values result in four principal **models of youth work** as follows:

> **Model One:**   **Character Building**
> **Model Two:**   **Personal Development**
> **Model Three:**   **Critical Social Education**
> **Model Four:**   **Radical Social Change**

The application to youth work of each of these four models is summarised below.

Application to Youth Work - Model One: Character Building
> **The Analysis of Youth Problems/Adolescence within this model is that:**
> Young people are in a stage of transition from childhood to adult life
> Within a stage of transition, young people have the capacity to rebel and thus need to have rebellious capacity directed towards socially acceptable ends.
> An underlying concern of this approach is the apparent decline in moral values and the need for young people to have contact with adults of good moral character as role models.

> **The Programme Emphasis will concentrate on:**
> Character formation within an existing moral code
> Inculcating a particular moral code and the 'accepted norms' of society
> Place a high value on diverting young people from rule breaking and disorderly or unacceptable behaviour

> **The Relationship Base between Young people and Adults with in this model is that:**
> The youth worker is viewed as a role model concerned with guiding young people alone a path which society and their local communities desire.
> The relationship is usually authoritarian with the group rules and values decided in advance by the adults.

> **The Outcomes, intended or unconscious will thus be**

> **Young People who:**
> Are disciplined

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Have accepted the moral values of society

Contribute to the maintenance of social order through their allegiance to existing social institutions and structures

A Society:

Where the status quo is maintained

The institutions of Church, family and state remain unchanged

Values which underpin these institutions are inculcated in the younger generation and maintained as a result.

Application to Youth Work - Model Two: Personal Development

The Analysis of Youth Problems with in this model is that:

Young people are passing through a transitory period from childhood to adulthood

Young people need to surmount the tasks that go hand in hand with that stage

The key developmental tasks for young people are to develop positive self-images, stable interpersonal relationships and the social skills necessary to participate within existing structures of society

The Programme Emphasis with in this model will be:

To help young people explore and clarify their own values related to the choices they make in terms of health, sexuality, faith etc and to understand the consequences of their choices

The support of young people to make their own choices with reference to social norms but in a way that does not undermine social stability

Central to the programme emphasis is the belief that the programme is a means to an end rather than an activity in itself. As such workers will be conscious to use the programme as a means of challenging values, attitudes and relationships amongst the youth people, thereby, contributing to their growth and development.

The Relationship Base between Adults and Young People within this model is:

Young people are treated as equals by the adult youth workers

The youth worker performs the role of confidante, supporter, motivator, counsellor and group worker

The Outcomes of this model intended or unconscious are:

Young People who:

Are prepared for an active role in society

Have developed the ability to build and maintain relationships

Have a positive sense of their own identity and personal values

Have a sense of control over their life and believe that they can succeed if they try hard enough

A Society

Where the status quo remains largely unchanged

Participation within the institutions of the state of based in personal choice

Application to Youth Work - Model Three: Critical Social Education

The Analysis of Youth Problems/Adolescence within this model is that:

Structural factors impede the personal development of groups of young people

Inequalities which exist in society impact adversely on the life chances of groups of young people, particularly the socially disadvantaged

If changes can be made through existing institutions, the position of young people can be improved.

The Programme Emphasis within this model will be:
To raise the consciousness of young people to the forces which exist in society that create situations of disadvantage for them as a group
Work with minority or oppressed groups of young people
To work with young people to mobilise change within institutions to improve their life situation

The Relationship Base between Adults and Young People within this model is:
Adults have the positive intention to transfer power to young people
Relationships are undertaken with young people to engage them as partners
Self-managing groups of young people are supported through the advice and encouragement of adults

The Outcomes of this model intended or unconscious are:

Young People who:
Have developed the ability to analyse how decision, power groups etc. operate within society
Have developed the capacity to define 'their position' in society and have acquired the skills to act to change this if they wish
Are active in mobilising groups at local level to seek change within the existing structures of society

A Society within which:
Institutions are challenged to undergo adaptation in response to demands for change
Institutions within which tensions exist as they undergo reflection and adaptation.

Application to Youth Work - Model Four: Radical Social Change
The Analysis of Youth Problems/Adolescence within this model is that:
Young people are socially exploited group in society
The interests of powerful economic and social groups have the impact of marginalising sectors of young people and reducing their life chances.
Equality for young people cannot be achieved until institutions are made to change their forms, rules and power bases.

The Programme Emphasis with this model will focus on:
Promoting a socialist manifesto an achieving the objective of socialist transformation
The experiences of young people are explored to help them locate themselves as an exploited group in society

The Relationship Based between Adults and Young People is one:
Where young people are recruited as activities to lobby and campaign groups
A pre-set revolutionary agenda is set into which young people are given active roles in developing

The Outcomes intended or unconscious are:

Young People who:
Have developed skills to act as lobbyist and campaigners in the objective of social transformation.

Society where:
The institutions will be overthrown and replaced.

Source:

HURLEY, LOUISE and TREACY, DAVID (1993), *A Framework for Understanding Youth Work Practice,* Dublin: Irish Youth Work Press

2.5   Models/Methods of Youth Work

Session Plan

Time: 2½ to 3 Hours

Equipment/Resources Required
Flip Chart and Markers
Copies of Participants' Handouts
Copies of Participants' Self-Evaluation Sheet
Overhead projector
Input Acetates

Objectives
Learners should be able to:
- Name and describe the principal models of youth work
- Apply these to a non-formal training programme.

Process

Input (30 mins)
Trainer provides an overview and summary of the content of the previous sessions and its focus on the principles and values of youth work as well as an overview of how young people learn in a youth group and in particular, highlighting how young people learn in a youth group, that is, through:

i. The social relationships in the group
ii. Value system of leaders
iii. The methods and approaches used by leaders
iv. The programmes
v. The opportunities provided for the young people to be involved in decision-making and taking responsibility for the running of the club.

Specific attention is given to the fact that, in terms of how young people learn, exploration has been given to three of these features, that is, the social relations of young people in a youth group, opportunities for participation and the structures for promoting decision-making within the previous sessions. This session will, thus, focus on the three remaining themes, that is, values of workers, programmes and methods.

Models of Youth Work
Trainer provides an overview of the four models of youth work, based on the programme emphasis of each using the following as a guide, but drawing on the tutor notes provided also:

Model 1: Character Building
Programme Emphasis
Preventative
Focus energy of young people in a constructive way
Role of Youth Worker
Organiser/Role Model
Outcome

Disciplined
Moral values of society adopted by young people

Model 2: Personal Development

Programme Emphasis
Promotion of personal responsibility for actions
Role of Youth Worker
Group Worker
Confidante/Counsellor
Outcome
Young people's self-esteem is enhanced
Young people takes choices and responsibility for their lives

Model 3: Critical Social Education

Programme Emphasis
Young people's issues explored in a collective way.
These are linked with societal and global issues of inequality
Role of Youth Worker
Enabler
Social analyst
Consciousness raiser
Outcome
Young people are active in and mobilising for change

Model 4: Radical Social Change

Programme Emphasis
Indoctrination into revolutionary perspective
Role of Youth Worker
Radical activist
Outcome
Young people are engaged in anti-establishment social activism
Change and institutional reform

Group Task (1 hour)
In groups of 3-4 individuals per group, each group is asked to outline a broad programme which focuses on how the **programme content** of the programme would differ based on the four models about using the following themes: sex education *and* drugs education. The groups are asked to illustrate the difference between the programme emphasis of each model with examples of ideas/activities that would illustrate these differences.

Tea/Coffee (15 mins)

Feedback (1 hour)
The trainer facilitates feedback from each of the groups *on a per model basis*. The trainer uses the differing feedback to draw attention to key features of each model (drawing on the trainers' notes) and how these would apply in practice.

ACETATE/HANDOUT – Models of Youth Work

It is suggested that the tutors' notes be reproduced as participants' handouts for this session.

Unit 3   Youth Work Practice Issues

3.1   Youth Work and Social Inclusion

3.2   Voluntarism and Professionalism in Youth Work

3.3   Fundraising

3.1   Youth Work and Social Inclusion

Tutors' Notes

Poverty and Social Exclusion
General
⇒ There is no one single definition that has been fully accepted as defining poverty and social exclusion in a comprehensive way. Nor is there, at present, one agreed definition that is in common use for policy purposes by national governments within the EU or generally:
⇒ However, there is much agreement about some of the key elements that need to be incorporated into a definition.
⇒ Within the Irish context definitions of poverty and social exclusion, currently the basis of anti-poverty and social inclusion measures, are defined as follows:

Definition of Poverty (Irish Social Policy)
People are living in poverty, if their income and resources (material, cultural and social) are so inadequate as to preclude them from having a standard of living, which is regarded as acceptable by Irish society generally. As a result of inadequate income and resources people may be excluded and marginalised from participating in activities which are considered the norm for other people in society (National Anti-Poverty Strategy, (1997, p.3)

Definition of Social Exclusion (Irish Social Policy)
[Social exclusion is defined as] *cumulative marginalisation: from production (unemployment), from consumption (income poverty), from social networks (community, family and neighbours) from decision-making and from and adequate quality of life.* (Partnership 2000, p.17)

Definition of Social Exclusion (European Observatory on National Policy to Combat Social Exclusion)
We define social exclusion in relation to, first of all, to social rights. We investigate what social rights the citizen has to employment, housing, health care, etc.; how effectively national policies enable citizens to secure these rights; and what are the barriers and processes by which people are excluded from these rights (Room, 1992, p.1).

The Concept of Social Exclusion
⇒ There is no agreed definition of the term social exclusion;
⇒ In Western Europe the meanings of the term are rooted in French debates about the nature of exclusion and the emergence of new forms of poverty associated with economic restructuring, technological change and the institutional history of the European Union (Gore, 1995);
⇒ The term *social exclusion* was first coined in 1974 by Rene Lenoir (to refer to a range of individuals who were unprotected by social insurance and generally labelled as 'social misfits';
⇒ By social misfits, Lenoir meant those who were *mentally and physically handicapped, suicidal people, aged individuals, abused children, substance abusers, delinquents, single parents, multi-problem households, marginal, asocial persons* (Silver, 1995). Originally, then the term was a stigmatising one;
⇒ Evolution of the concept moved beyond this stigmatising concept to refer to more and more disadvantage and 'new poverty' which was resulting from economic restructuring throughout Europe and is now more used to refer to *a process of social disintegration between individuals and society*. This disintegration is particularly linked to long-term unemployment;

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⇒ The concept of exclusion that relates to and describes a **process of social disintegration** is linked to the related concepts of **integration and citizenship** (Silver, 1995).

⇒ How the term social exclusion has appeared in European Commission literature on the subject increasingly defined it in a way that focuses on issues with regard to **inadequate participation, lack of social integration and lack of power.** It is understood as a concept which is **related to** but **distinguishable** from poverty, inequality and unemployment.

⇒ Whilst there is no agreed definition what is agreed is that social exclusion:

> is multi-dimensional;
>
> is simultaneously social and economic;
>
> is deeply inter-connected with developments in economic and social organisation (that are at the same time transforming the nature of poverty and deprivation by **deepening social inequalities and labour market divisions;** and significantly alters **degrees of participation and marginalisation** of individuals and groups of individuals in civil and political society.

Pattern of Social Exclusion

Rogers (1995) proposes that the pattern of exclusion can be focused around five types of exclusion as follows:

⇒ Goods and services;
⇒ Labour markets;
⇒ Land security;
⇒ Human rights;
⇒ Macro-economic development strategy.

Goods and Services

Low levels of consumption of goods as a result of inadequate income but is also a function of housing and location (for example, residence in a particular area may stigmatise, lead to poor health, make integration difficult or where access to services is affected because individuals are distant from places where services are offered).

Labour market

Labour market contributes to social exclusion since employment provides both an income and a social role. Where labour market participation is denied through involuntary unemployment, individuals are excluded not only from jobs and income but also from opportunities to form a social identity. (This is often associated with increasing violence, insecurity and helplessness amongst those effected).

Land security

This relates to both livelihood and social integration and in Ireland is particularly evident in rural areas because of the declining availability of productive land due to consolidation of holdings as well as family inheritance practices. This has a particular effect on women because they do not always have access to land arising from traditions related to inheritance and their status in the family. Exclusion from land security also relates to the freedom from *risk of violence, environmental insecurity and illness as well as security of livelihood.*

Human rights

The attainment of adequate living standards effects individuals' freedom to exercise their human rights. Where there is an extreme level of inadequate basic living standards, individuals and groups often have diminished capacity to defend their assets and civil rights. This form of exclusion most often affects minorities who in the face of extreme need may abandon rights to legal protection and freedom of association making them vulnerable to exploitation.

Macro-economic development

This relates to exclusion from power and political processes and is rooted in how societies function. Because institutional arrangements are crucial in how economic and social development are mediated, groups and sectors of

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society are often excluded from the processes of decision-making which results in them not benefiting from the results of economic growth.

Relationship between Poverty and Social Exclusion
⇒ Related but distinguishable concepts;
⇒ The risk of social exclusion is very closely related to an individual's exposure to and/or experience of poverty;
⇒ Social exclusion is linked to social rights and to poverty but is concerned with an attempt to *link standards of living with the possession of social rights to employment, housing, health care etc.*

Relationship between Social Exclusion and Social Inclusion
⇒ Social inclusion is both *process and outcome* orientated;
⇒ The process of social inclusion starts with those who are deemed to be at risk of social exclusion. The process is one of capacity building where people are encouraged to identify, develop and use their skills, knowledge and experience to address their experience of exclusion;
⇒ The orientation of the social inclusion process is change focused and aims to promote positive change in society in favour of those who usually benefit least; and
⇒ The focus of change is on all aspects/institutional arrangement of society that contribute to social exclusion (macro-economic policies, rights and legislation, practices of institutional bodies etc.)
⇒ Thus, social inclusion whilst linked to social rights and poverty is also concerned with increasing the capacity of persons and groups to exercise and promote those rights and has these safeguarded.

Relationship between Social Inclusion and Youth Development
Youth development adopts a social focus, particularly with regard to groups and individuals who experience social exclusion because of unequal treatment and denial of rights such as:

Travellers;
People with disabilities.

Or because of their circumstances

People who parent alone without sufficient resources;
Unemployed people or those who are excluded from the labour market;
Elderly people who live in isolated circumstances;
Women who lack opportunities for their own growth and development;
Marginalised young people; and
Homeless people.

Young People and Social Exclusion
There is little available research on the well-being of adolescence. However, drawing on research on well-being and children we know that this is composed of both the objective conditions for well-being (for example, environment, family supports, income adequacy) as well as the individuals own innate capacities and experiences and how these impact on objective conditions.

Factors and indicators of well-being and social exclusion amongst young people
The following are critical factors that contribute to the well-being and its reverse of children and young people:

➢ Perinatal factors;
➢ Poverty and physical well-being;
➢ Childcare and family characteristics;
➢ Quality of care, emotional, physical and spiritual experienced;

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> ➤ Maternal/paternal use of time.

Indicators of young people's well-being include:

Family factors, such as family structure, income status, relationship between separated parents, presence of role model for children in lone parent families and the length of active time spent between child and parents.

Community factors, such as the availability of play space, the capacity to form friendships, the nature of youth sub-cultures, the proximity of community resources to home and the possibilities for mobility within and outside the immediate communities.

Thus, the capacity for individual young people to attain and cope with adulthood reflects not just his/her own capacity, but also the resources available to him/her, through informal social networks, family, extended family, the community and services available for young people. While no indicators for social exclusion amongst young people exist it is accepted that when single or combined factors come together to impede the normal development of young people that they are vulnerable to social exclusion. Indicators that young people may be 'at risk' of social exclusion include the following:

> ➤ Leaving school early and without formal qualifications;
> ➤ Unemployment and/or entry into low-skilled and low-paid employment;
> ➤ Alcohol and drug misuse;
> ➤ Involvement in petty crime and youth offending;
> ➤ Membership of ethnic minorities who may be the subject of racism and prejudice;
> ➤ Gay, lesbian and bisexual young people;
> ➤ Young people from families who experience income poverty;
> ➤ Young mothers parenting alone;
> ➤ Young people isolated in rural communities;
> ➤ Young people in communities with few leisure and other facilities and who lack the resources to access these on a commercial basis;
> ➤ Young people living in domestically violent situations; and
> ➤ Young people living in lone parent families where the relationship between parents is poor and/or non-existent.

Profiles of socially excluded young people
Typical profiles of young people who experience social exclusion will include the following:

> ➤ Young men and women who perhaps have left-school early, are regarded as unmanageable by their parents and as nuisances within their community and who hang around in gangs causing disruption and distress within communities and who come to the attention of the gardaí, perhaps ending up in court for petty and/or more serious offences.
> ➤ Young women who become mothers at a very early age, who drop out of school because they find it difficult to cope with the demands of school and parenting and who become increasingly isolated from friends and marginalised from the labour market.
> ➤ Young Travellers as well as young people from ethnic minorities who may experience prejudice and discrimination and who find access to recreational and other services difficult because it is denied to them or they do not have the financial resources to access such services.

- Young men and women who may have left home because of violent and/or insecure family situations and who end up sleeping rough on the streets and who become the targets of those wishing to attract young people into a life of prostitution.
- Young men and women who live in isolated rural areas and do not have access to adequate public transportation and other social infrastructures to be able to take up social and recreational opportunities and who, thus, become isolated from peer and other supports.
- Young men and women struggling with their identity as gay and lesbian young people and who may develop mental health problems and emotional difficulties associated with this.
- Young men and women, who for a variety of social and personal circumstances become involved in alcohol and drug misuse and depending on the nature of drug misuse involved may become infected with HIV.

Implications for youth work with marginalised young people

The principal purpose of youth work is to provide non-formal educational opportunities for young people, which are aimed at assisting them to progress to become independent, equal and active adults in society. The primary emphasis of programme interventions that comprise a youth work programme will fundamentally be based on an assessment of on young people's development capacities (social, emotional, intellectual, spiritual, vocational, cognitive), and the kinds of activities that are appropriate to those capacities. These may or may not be linked to age since not all young people progress and develop at the same stage. Irrespective of young people's social situation and sense of well-being the developmental tasks of adolescence remain the same. Thus, youth work with marginalised young people will have a similar focus to that undertaken with young people who do not suffer the same levels of marginalisation.

Youth work with marginalised young people, whilst similar in emphasis to that undertaken with young people more generally, however, requires sophisticated skills that enable youth workers work with marginalised young people in a manner that also address the very complex issues that impinge on their lives. This will typically involve youth workers devising programmes and responses that are based on working with extremely small numbers of young people at a time and building into such programmes and responses the capacity for high levels of individual work. It may involve youth workers developing responses that draw on very specific forms of expertise available through other professionals, for example, counselling and mediation services including addiction counselling, preventative health interventions aimed at risk groups of young people, family supports for young people parenting alone, expert legal interventions aimed at young offenders and so on. Such responses require careful partnership planning agreements for the interventions developed so that youth workers do not inadvertently work with young people in a manner and in situations for which they have not been trained. Careful attention to the boundaries and roles adopted by youth workers with such young people will thus be central to strategies and actions developed as part of developmental youth work responses targeted at marginalised young people.

3.1 Youth Work and Social Exclusion

Session Plan

Time: 2¾ Hours

Equipment/Resources Required
Flip Chart and Markers
Copies of Participants' Handouts:
Copies of Participants' Self-Evaluation Sheet
Overhead projector
Input Acetates

Objectives
Learners will have had an opportunity to explore:
- The concept and pattern of social exclusion;
- How various groups in society experience social exclusion;
- How a community youth project might work with socially excluded groups of young people.

Process

In Pairs (15 mins)
In pairs participants are asked to focus on the word social exclusion and what it means to them and to identify six words that might be included in a definition of social exclusion.

In plenary (30 mins)
The trainer facilitator takes feedback from pairs and draws a list of words (do not repeat ones already noted) and uses these to draw up a draft definition of social exclusion.

Input (15 mins)
Summary of social exclusion (concept, patterns, groups affected) based on trainers' notes.

Group task (30 mins)
1 Consider how the group experiences exclusion related to the five forms of exclusion: goods/services; land security; rights; political-decision making fora; and labour market.
2 Consider how a Community Youth Project might respond using community development processes on each form of exclusion identified.

5 Groups as follows:
Gay/Lesbian   Travellers   Lone Parents   Early-School Leavers   Refugees/Asylum Seekers

Tea/Coffee (15 mins)

Feedback (1 hour)
Each of the groups is allocated 10 mins.

Plenary (15 mins)
Relationship between social exclusion, social inclusion and youth work responses.

Closing round (15 mins)
 Closure round - feelings around the purpose of youth work and how their practice fits into youth work that is targeted at socially excluded young people.

PARTICIPANTS' Handout – Social Exclusion and Young People

Typical profiles of young people who experience social exclusion will include the following.

> ➢ Young men and women who perhaps have left-school early, are regarded as unmanageable by their parents and as nuisances within their community and who hang around in gangs causing disruption and distress within communities and who come to the attention of the gardaí, perhaps ending up in court for petty and/or more serious offences.
> ➢ Young women who become mothers at a very early age, who drop out of school because they find it difficult to cope with the demands of school and parenting and who become increasingly isolated from friends and marginalised from the labour market.
> ➢ Young Travellers as well as young people from ethnic minorities who may experience prejudice and discrimination and who find access to recreational and other services difficult because it is denied to them or they do not have the financial resources to access such services.
> ➢ Young men and women who may have left home because of violent and/or insecure family situations and who end up sleeping rough on the streets and who become the targets of those wishing to attract young people into a life of prostitution.
> ➢ Young men and women who live in isolated rural areas and do not have access to adequate public transportation and other social infrastructures to be able to take up social and recreational opportunities and who, thus, become isolated from peer and other supports.
> ➢ Young men and women struggling with their identity as gay and lesbian young people and who may develop mental health problems and emotional difficulties associated with this.
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3.2   Voluntarism and Professionalism in Youth Work

Tutors' Notes

These notes focus on the voluntary and community sector and specifically the following:

- Types of voluntary and community organisation
- Tradition and extent of voluntarism in Ireland
- Motivations for volunteering and its rewards. Implications of motivation for recruitment of volunteers
- Ways by which volunteering can be encouraged
- Problems and issues generated by introducing paid work into sectors which were traditionally voluntary
- Professionalisation of voluntary/community work.

Definition and Classification of Voluntary Organisations
There are three levels at which people typically become active in local communities:

- Firstly, people can speak or act as individuals or as members of families or households. Individuals and members of households or families engage in many different strategies to get what they need and want. Many of these strategies are concerned with self-interest. Others may be more altruistic e.g. individuals engaging in letter campaigns to ministers over issues considered to affect the common good.

- Secondly, they can speak or act through informal networks at neighbourhood level or the wider level. Most of us are connected to some other people within our localities. At the very least, we receive information from these people. Informal caring networks are one such example. Informal networks or relations are the 'gel' that keeps society cohesive and prevents the development of conditions such as isolation and anomie.

- Thirdly, they may become members of groups or organisations that represent their interests or engage in activities in which they are interested. Many of these groups are voluntary in nature. Many people choose to become members of groups, but the reasons for joining are very varied, and can range from the altruism to considerations of self-interest.

Groups have certain advantages over individuals or informal networks. In their book Social Change and Local Action, Chanan and Vos note one of these advantages as follows: *Local groups and organisations are the aspect of local action which is most visible to policy makers. The latter want to deal with tangible actors who in some way or other represent a constituency* (1990, p. 33).

The terms "voluntary sector", "voluntary organisations" "voluntary groups" and "NGOs" are used in youth and community work interchangeably. "NGO" stands for "Non Governmental Organisation" i.e. an organisation or agency which is unrelated to government and operates independently of government. The term NGO is used more frequently for referring to those agencies which operate in developing countries, but the term applies equally to voluntary agencies in developed countries. Whatever term is used, voluntary organisations may be defined in the following way by Diana Robbins in her article "The Core of the Community: Volunteers, Voluntary Organisations and the Social State" from the conference Partners in Progress: *which do not distribute profits to their owners or members, which often but not necessarily involve volunteers, and which may provide services (including information and networking) or campaign for better service provision* (p.8).

Types of Voluntary Organisation
The following are typical of the range of voluntary groups in operation within the voluntary sector in Ireland.

Service-oriented voluntary organisations: These are organisations which are "primarily dedicated to helping others or doing things for others" (Cull and Hardy, 1974, p. 112). This is the traditional form of voluntarism. Social service councils and other voluntary social service organisations are service-giving groups

Issue-oriented or cause-oriented voluntary groups: These are involved in voluntary action that is "primarily directed at some kind of public issue, usually at making some kind of change in society" (Ibid, p. 112). Community councils tend to lobby local government on issues such as roads and water supply, while local development associations have focused on bringing industry to their localities. Of course, some community councils also provide services. The activities of the group depend to a great extent on its level of sophistication.

Consummatory or self-expressive voluntary groups: These aim at 'enjoyment of activities for their own sake and for the sake of personal self-expression and self-realisation, without any major focus on altruism or external goals" (Ibid, p. 113). This type includes sports organisations and social clubs.

Occupational/economic self-interest voluntary groups: This is "that form of voluntary action that is primarily aimed at furthering the occupational and/or economic interests of its participants" (Ibid, p. 114). The Community Workers Co-operative is a good example of an occupational voluntary group. It is fair to say that the Community Workers Co-operative focuses more on networking, highlighting prominent issues in community work, and provision of information than it does on furthering the economic interests of its members.

Philanthropic/funding voluntary groups: This type of voluntarism aims to raise funds for non-profit and voluntary organisations. Examples include the ISPCC, the Irish Heart Foundation, and the Hospice Movement.

Overview of Voluntarism in Ireland
There is a common perception that the voluntary sector in Ireland is more extensive and stronger than in other countries, but this is not strictly the case. In her paper "Voluntary Organisations in the Social Services Field"(one of the papers to the conference Partners in Progress, Pauline Faughnan notes that over half of the adults in the Republic of Ireland are members of voluntary organisations (1990, p.22). While this is higher than for other parts of Europe, it is partially attributable to the fact that many more Irish people are involved in religious organisations than their European counterparts e.g. organisations such as the St. Vincent de Paul Society. Faughnan notes that in 1990 the St. Vincent de Paul Society had over 10,000 members and 1,100 conferences throughout the country (Ibid, p. 20). It is true, however, that countries where Catholicism is the main religion tend to have more active voluntary sectors than those where other religions predominate. For example, Denmark is a Protestant country and has relatively little voluntary activity. The state provides most of the necessary services, and voluntary organisations just provide supplementary services for certain groups. For example, there are charitable groups such as the YMCA and the Salvation Army, and other groups that provide services for disabled people. Most of these voluntary groups receive the majority of their funding from the state, so that fund-raising accounts for a minority of their income. It is difficult for us, in a country where voluntary activity is so common and unremarkable, to imagine a society where the contribution of voluntary activity is much less significant. It is also difficult to imagine a society where the state funds most of the voluntary activity.

The voluntary tradition in Ireland may be traced to two main influences. These are:

  ▪ The charitable tradition of this country, of which we spoke last year. Hospital provision, poor relief and service provision for the mentally handicapped have always been provided, to a very great extent, by the voluntary sector. This was particularly evident prior to the development of the

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welfare state. Voluntary hospitals have been a feature of Irish society since the early nineteenth century, and they were accompanied by a range of charitable services aimed at supplementing inadequate state provision for the poor during the Famine years and after. The large institution providing residential care dominated until the 1970s, when Community Care policy dictated the need for a move towards care in the community.

- The self-help tradition of the country, which existed in rural areas and which was exemplified by the work of Muintir Na Tire. Muintir Na Tire's work through parish councils and later community councils was almost wholly voluntary in nature. While Muintir is no longer as influential as it was, the self-help tradition has persisted, and community councils, development associations and community enterprise have continued to operate in rural and urban settings throughout the country.

Volunteerism as a Form of Participation
Why do people participate and what do people gain from participating in voluntary and community activities? While such activity is stronger in Ireland than in other European countries, this is partially attributable to the fact that many Irish people are involved on a voluntary basis with religious organisations, such as the St. Vincent de Paul Society. Taking a look at some figures from the 1994 <u>Reaching Out</u> survey, we can see that Ireland has a significant percentage of people who engage in voluntary work (20%). This compares with 25% in Canada, 20% in the U.S.A., and 15% in Britain. Irish volunteers devote 2.5 mean hours per month (i.e. on average) to voluntary work, compared with 5.2 mean hours for Canadian volunteers, 2.2 for American volunteers, and 1.8 for British volunteers (1995, p. 103).

The most frequent activity of Irish volunteers is committee work, compared with unpaid work in Canada, religious service in the U.S.A., and organisation of clubs in Britain. In Ireland, the sports and recreation sector benefits most from voluntary work, compared with the religious sector in Canada, the U.S.A. and Britain (Ibid, p. 103).

If we take a look at the types of voluntary activity in which Irish people engage, we can see that visiting the elderly is the most common form of voluntary activity, followed by visiting the sick, helping in a club, committee work and collecting things for charity. Other types of activity are considerably less common, although raising money directly is also quite common. Interestingly, community work and youth work are not among the most common types of voluntary activity (Ibid, p. 47).

What does the nature of the voluntary work in which people engage tell us about voluntary work in Ireland? The charitable and religious ethos is still very strong. There appears to be an element of paternalism, as evidenced by the strength of voluntary work with older people and the sick. Collective and non-charitable activities such as youth and community work do not receive the same level of support from voluntary workers.

On the question of the rewards from volunteering, over one third (36.6%) of the respondents indicated that the main reward is that they have a feeling of doing good. Another third (32.7%) indicated that their reward is the satisfaction of seeing results. Interestingly, nearly one tenth (9.2%) indicated that they do not experience any rewards (Ibid, p. 68). The idea of one's reward being in heaven (just 1%) is one which obviously carries very little weight in post-modern society.

Motivations for Volunteering

In their book The Volunteer Community, Schindler-Rainmann and Lippitt suggest three main classifications of volunteers, on the basis of their motivations for engaging in voluntary work:

- First, there are volunteers who place emphasis on the notion of service or duty i.e. to serve others and society. These are contrasted with volunteers who volunteer for reasons of self-actualisation i.e. personal growth.
- Second, there are inner-oriented and other-oriented volunteers. Inner-oriented volunteers place more emphasis on inner forces such as feelings, values, etc. Other-oriented volunteers are more interested in outside reasons, e.g. the status of the voluntary activity, the consequences of the activity for their relationships with other people, etc.
- Third, there are volunteers for whom action is important, and those for whom reflection is important. Many volunteers like to have direct contact with the people at whom the voluntary activity is being directed. Others prefer to be removed from direct involvement with clients and are happier to sit on committees, etc.

Some people suggest that voluntary activity is a 'gift' which the volunteer gives to the person at whom the activity is directed. They suggest that gifts always have strings attached. The example is given of the giving of gifts at Christmas time. Claude Levi-Strauss, the anthropologist, points out that people spend huge amounts of money at Christmas time on themselves and others, often putting themselves into the 'red' for months afterwards. Do they do this purely for altruistic reasons? In the book The Gift Relationship, Richard Titmuss suggests that everything that is given is a means of gaining something in return. If we give gifts at Christmas, we show that we have wealth to give away. We also get back things which we need, such as gratitude and affection. Thus, can gift giving be characterised as a wholly altruistic activity? Much of voluntary activity could be classed as selfish in some way because it yields benefits for the volunteer, whether in terms of gaining prestige, gaining friends, or gaining personal fulfillment. In the case of the many Irish volunteers who want to give to others, it is surely true that they receive something in return e.g. gratification, thanks, prestige?

Why Motivation for Volunteering is Important

In the previous section it was noted that many people volunteer out of a sense of service to others– because they want to do things for other people or because they want to be neighbourly.

Two issues arise:

(a) Are people acting in a wholly altruistic manner when they engage in voluntary activity? Is there such a thing as pure altruism?
(b) Why bother to study people's motivations for volunteering? Is exploration of motive necessary or useful?

Certain theorists suggest that, instead of referring to altruistic behaviour, we should refer to *pro-social* behaviour. Whereas altruism implies complete selflessness or self-sacrifice, pro-social behaviour refers to behaviour which is aimed at the well-being of others, but which also confers benefits on the giver. Volunteering could be said to be a pro-social behaviour, because it confers benefits on both the volunteer and the recipient of the voluntary action. If we classify volunteering as pro-social behaviour, we are acknowledging that volunteers' motives are mixed and multi-dimensional, rather than simple or one-dimensional.

On the second issue, as to the usefulness of examining people's motives for volunteering, we can offer one reason why such an examination can be useful. It has played some part in determining how volunteers will behave when they join the organisation. Often, volunteers who join with apparently altruistic motives reassess their motives once they have spent some time in the organisation. They may come to the organisation full of enthusiasm and anxiety to help others, but their motivation may change over time. Some volunteers who express a desire to help others as their main reason for joining develop other, completely different, motivations for remaining in their organisations. For example, some volunteers become more interested in the social aspects of the organisation, once they have been

there for a time. They may make friends with other volunteers, and the social aspects of the organisation may come to constitute their primary motivation for remaining in the organisation. This has implications for organisations which recruit volunteers by appealing to their desire to help others. If the organisation has not considered the possibility that its volunteers will need more than a single incentive for joining and staying, then it may not ensure that other motivations are catered for e.g. provision of opportunities to socialise.

In her book Volunteers: The Organisational Behaviour of Unpaid Workers, Pearce observes that: *volunteer-staffed organisations which depend primarily on service-based recruitment appeals need to consider that this initial burst of enthusiasm, alone, is probably not sufficient to maintain organisational commitment'* (1993, p. 78). She also notes that volunteers who have the ''purest'' motives for joining an organisation are more likely to receive recognition and respect from their fellow volunteers.

Characteristics of Volunteers

Pearce sums up the principal characteristics of volunteers as follows:

> *Those with higher income, educational level, occupational status, and family/lineage status and those who own more property are more likely to volunteer, to volunteer for multiple associations and organisations, and to assume leadership roles in their organisations than are those who have fewer of these advantages* (p. 65).

Whilst Pearce's research is American-based it is nonetheless borne out by research in Ireland and Britain which suggests that middle-aged people are more likely to volunteer than younger or older people, women are more likely to volunteer than men, and married people are more likely to volunteer than single people. In addition, unemployed people are much less likely to volunteer than employed people, and people from minority groups are far less likely to volunteer than people from the mainstream population. For example, in Britain it has been established that black people are seriously under-represented as volunteers. In a 1981 survey it was discovered that, while 45% of white people in Britain were engaged in voluntary activities, just 20% of black people were involved in such activities.

What are the implications of these figures for participation? If volunteers are more likely to be middle-aged, middle-class, employed and from the mainstream of society, where does this leave younger and older people, working-class people, unemployed people and minority groups such as Travellers? Social exclusion is the lot of many of these people, and their lack of involvement is a cause for serious concern.

The Green Paper on Voluntary Activity notes that younger people are less likely to get involved in community life on a voluntary basis but suggests in recruiting volunteers youth organisations should attempt to ensure that young people are representative of the local community or the users of the organisation's services.

Recruitment of Volunteers

Recruitment of volunteers is becoming increasingly difficult for organisations. The introduction and expansion of CE schemes is obviously one of the reasons for this trend, although there are others. Some of these reasons are as follows:

- The declining birth rate, which means fewer young people to take over voluntary positions from older people;
- Greater numbers of women entering the workforce, so that women have less time to devote to volunteering;
- Higher rate of marriage breakdown. Married people are more likely to volunteer than single people. A higher rate of marriage breakdown means that there are more single people and fewer married people available to volunteer;

- The decline in Catholic Church influence. The Church and the associated charitable tradition have always contributed to the significance of voluntarism in Ireland. Now that Church influence is on the wane, it is possible that this is affecting people's willingness to volunteer;
- Individualism within society, and the tendency for people to become preoccupied with private affairs and interests.

In the Powell and Guerin book, a survey of voluntary organisations was conducted, and 42% of the organisations stated that they have fewer volunteers than they require. In addition to the reasons explored above, Powell and Guerin suggest that some youth organisations indicated that it is now more difficult to recruit volunteers because of the heightened awareness of child abuse and its implications since people fear becoming involved in youth work in case they may be accused of irregular or illegal activity. Other problems included the fact that many volunteers do not stay in the organisations for very long and, while they are there, work few hours each week.

Retention and Management of Volunteers

The organisations in the Powell and Guerin survey were asked to state the things which are needed in order to recruit and retain volunteers. Volunteers need the following:

- selection/screening
- equal opportunities
- job descriptions
- training and information
- regular support and supervision
- someone to talk to about any problems or queries
- out-of pocket expenses
- health and safety
- insurance cover.

Arguably, another need which volunteers have is the need to participate in the running of the organisation. For some volunteers, it may not be sufficient just to participate in an activity or in delivering a service. They may experience a need for self-actualisation, or a need for self-esteem and recognition. This may be provided through opportunities to participate in decision-making or management of the organisation. In their study for C.M.R.S. The Voluntary Sector and the State Pauline Faughnan and Patricia Kelleher note that just one third of the voluntary organisations they surveyed had democratic representative structures, while just over one fifth pursued positive staffing policies (i.e. recruitment of consumers to staff positions). Just 14% of organisations saw participation as an integral part of their philosophy, and used participative strategies in all aspects and at all levels of the organisation (no date, p.p. 108-111).

One barrier to greater volunteer participation may relate to the relationship between volunteers and paid staff. In organisations where there are both volunteers and paid staff, tensions and friction can arise. Paid staff may be accorded greater status than volunteers. This is particularly likely to be the case when volunteers work side by side with professionally qualified staff. There can be difficulty in integrating the work of volunteers and professional workers. Often volunteers may be left to undertake the more menial or less desirable jobs. Organisations must be aware of these problems and actively seek ways to overcome them.

Despite the potential difficulties between professional staff and volunteers, volunteers are more likely to stay in organisations which are run in a professional and efficient manner. Rodney Hedley, in his article 'Organising and Managing Volunteers' in the book Volunteering and Society. Principles and Practice (Off-print) states that: *No one wants to be associated with an organisation that's disorganised; it makes you feel as if no one cares'. The sample of respondents wanted a more 'professional' and 'organised' approach to be taken by the volunteer-using bodies* (1992, p. 99-100).

Another recurrent issue concerns the problems which may arise when professional managers are employed by voluntary committees. Popple makes the following remarks on this issue: *As a long-term solution, Peatfield suggests that the performance of management committees could be improved. In the meantime, the author argues, agencies should reduce the range of tasks they expect their managers to tackle, and provide them with more systematic induction, supervision and support* (1995, p.p. 94-95).

For further reading on these issues, see Chapter 6 of **Analysing Community Work. Its Theory and Practice** by Karl Popple.

3.2 Voluntarism and Professionalism in Youth Work

Session Plan

Time: 2½ Hours

Equipment/Resources Required
Flip Chart and Markers
Copies of Participants' Handouts: Working with Volunteers: A Good Practice Check List
Overhead projector
Input Acetates

Objectives
Learners should be have discussed and explored:
- The motivation for volunteering;
- Difficulties encountered by those recruiting volunteers.

Process

Individually (10 mins)
Ask participants to reflect on any prior experience they had of being a volunteer in an organisation. Ask them to focus on the following:
- What prompted them to volunteer;
- What was it about the organisation that made them choose that particular organisation to become a volunteer;
- What rewards they gained from being a volunteer;
- What difficulties they experienced in being a volunteer;
- If they were managing a group of volunteers what incentives they would put in place to aid their retention.

In three groups (20/30 mins)
In 3 small groups ask participants to share their reflections and to prepare group feedback on the following questions:
1.   The reasons they believe individuals are motivated to volunteer.
2.   The benefits they believe individuals gain from volunteering.
3.   The difficulties they believe volunteers regularly encounter that make continuing with volunteering difficult.
4.   The reasons they would put forward for a general reduction in the levels of volunteering in Irish society.
5.   Incentives/supports they believe should be put in place to encourage volunteering.

Feedback (30 mins)
Facilitate a discussion based on the feedback from each of the small groups on a per question basis using the feedback to provide input on the various issues raised from the tutor's notes.

Tea/Coffee (15 mins)

Input (15 mins)

Working with Volunteers: A Good Practice Check List
Trainer provides an input on a checklist to consider in terms of conditions that might be in place within an organisation to value and enhance the role of volunteers as follows:

1   Partners

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The relationship between volunteers and paid staff should be complimentary and of mutual benefit to both volunteers and paid staff of organisations.

2   Expenses
Volunteers should be paid out of pocket expenses (e.g. travel, meals etc.)

3   Influence
Volunteers should have access to and play a part in influencing the work and the decision making of the organisation they are working with, for example, this might be representation on the management committee. Every voluntary organisation should ask themselves the question: how will the voice of volunteers be heard in the organisation.

4   Insurance
Organisations should have adequate insurance cover for individuals employed as volunteers, e.g. Public Liability.

5   Job Description
This is sometimes called a *'volunteer agreement'*.

6   Management
Volunteers should have a named person who they are responsible to within the group/organisation for their work. They should be clear as to how they can contact this person and how often they meet with this person to discuss their work. It should ideally be a paid employee of the organisation.

7   Partners
Volunteers should be recruited on the basis that they are to complement paid employees of the organisation. They should not be seen as a cheap option.

8   Police Check
How this is done varies considerably within organisations. However, it is good practice that all volunteers who work with children and vulnerable groups (for example the disabled) should have been put through a screening process. Check the Department of Education & Science Screening Procedures for current procedures for youth work organisations in this regard.

9   Recruiting Volunteers
Good practice in recruiting volunteers is ensuring that everybody in the community has the right to apply to become a volunteer. Staff and volunteers of organisations should reflect the cultural and ethnic composition of the community it is based in and the users of the organisation when decided on a recruitment strategy.

10   Supervision
Volunteers should receive regular supervision, either one to one or group supervision with a member of the organisation's staff.

11   Support
Volunteers will need support with their work to help them maintain their motivation, maximise their contribution and involvement to the organisation's work. This means identifying their support needs and building support systems for them (e.g. regular meetings of volunteers).

In Small Groups (30 mins)
Ask participants to reflect on their experience of being a previous/current volunteer against this checklist with a view to identifying gaps that require attention.

Feedback (30 mins)

The trainer facilitates a discussion on key gaps in their volunteering experiences and assists the group to identify steps that they might take to have these gaps addressed by their organisation.

HANDOUT – *Working with Volunteers: A Good Practice Check List*

1   Partners
The relationship between volunteers and paid staff should be complimentary and of mutual benefit to both volunteers and paid staff of organisations.

2   Expenses
Volunteers should be paid out of pocket expenses (e.g. travel, meals etc.)

3   Influence
Volunteers should have access to and play a part in influencing the work and the decision making of the organisation they are working with, for example, this might be representation on the management committee. Every voluntary organisation should ask themselves the question: how will the voice of volunteers be heard in the organisation.

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This is sometimes called a *'volunteer agreement'*.

6   Management
Volunteers should have a named person who they are responsible to within the group/organisation for their work. They should be clear as to how they can contact this person and how often they meet with this person to discuss their work. It should ideally be a paid employee of the organisation.

7   Partners
Volunteers should be recruited on the basis that they are to complement paid employees of the organisation. They should not be seen as a cheap option.

8   Police Check
How this is done varies considerably within organisations. However, it is good practice that all volunteers who work with children and vulnerable groups (for example the disabled) should have been put through a screening process. Check the Department of Education & Science Screening Procedures for current procedures for youth work organisations in this regard.

9   Recruiting Volunteers
Good practice in recruiting volunteers is ensuring that everybody in the community has the right to apply to become a volunteer. Staff and volunteers of organisations should reflect the cultural and ethnic composition of the community it is based in and the users of the organisation when decided on a recruitment strategy.

10   Supervision
Volunteers should receive regular supervision, either one to one or group supervision with a member of the organisation's staff.

11   Support
Volunteers will need support with their work to help them maintain their motivation, maximise their contribution and involvement to the organisation's work. This means identifying their support needs and building support systems for them (e.g. regular meetings of volunteers).

3.3   Fundraising

Tutors' Notes

Note: Since the sources of funding change continuously it is suggested that trainer access a current copy of: *The Irish Funding Handbook (Café/CAN/Combat Poverty Agency)* for an up to date list of Foundations, Trusts as well as an overview of monies available from the EU as well as Corporate Social Sponsorship.

A fund-raising strategy is the backbone of good fund-raising. The purpose is to define where you are now and where you want to be by answering the question 'how are you going to get there?' In its initial stages it can be time consuming but it will save hours of fruitless activity on the longer term. It defines the needs of your organisation, the sources from which you can seek funds, the limitation in terms of time and resources that my constrain you. On that basis you will make choices that shape your strategy.

Fundraising cannot function effectively in isolation. Staff of organisations should discuss their ideas with other staff, volunteers and the various committees that comprise the organisation's decision-making structure. Agree your fund-raising strategy and stick to it, reviewing its course at 3-6 monthly intervals. If one part of your strategy is performing badly review it urgently, ascertain the reasons and either continue to put effort into it or abandon it for new ideas.

A fund-raising strategy should contain the following:
- A description of the organisation;
- An outline of its mission;
- A list of its major achievements;
- A summary of its strengths and weaknesses;
- A description of the organisations goals and major projects;
- The barriers to effective fund-raising;
- A financial plan to cover the funding needs of the organisation over 2-3 years;
- Sources of income the organisation can tap into;
- The resources required;
- How the success of the funding strategy will be measured.

No fund-raising strategy is static. No fund-raising is static. New trends and ideas come and go and you must adapt your strategy to allow for this. However, do not make changes just for the sake of change but work your way through the following to help you decide what to do next:
- Plot your income of the last three years;
- Chart sources that are increasing;
- Chart sources that are decreasing;
- Are there any obvious reasons for any perceptible change?
- If yes, can you capitalize on these?
- Has any source of income peaked?
- If not, can you stimulate this source of income further?
- Have you reached a dead-end? Why not try something new?
- Have you been given a budget for expenditure set against projected income?
- Can you cut your costs?
- Set yourself realistic targets for each source of income and monitor the results.

No two organisations/groups have exactly the same income profile. Organisations in similar fields of work may tend to draw income from certain sources rather than others. A bit of research will help you decide which types of fundraising are more appropriate for your organisation.

Reference: ACW Skills Manual (1999, Section 18 pp 1-3)

3.3   Fundraising

Session Outline

Time: 2½ Hours

Equipment/Resources Required
Flip Chart and Markers
Copies of Participants' Handouts:
Overhead projector
Input Acetates

Objectives
Learners should be have discussed and explored:
- The need for a fundraising strategy;
- The core elements of a fundraising strategy.

Process

In small groups (15 mins)
Divide the group into small groups of 3-4 individuals. Ask them to imagine that they have been appointed as a task group for the organisation they are working with or a volunteer in, to devise a fundraising strategy for a three-year period for that organisation. Ask them to list the principal things such a group should consider when devising a fundraising strategy.

Feedback and Input (30 mins)
Generate feedback from the group on the lists they have compiled and use this as the basis on which input is provided on the core elements of a fundraising strategy contained in the tutor's notes.

In two large groups (1 hour)
Drawing on the list of elements that should be included in a fundraising strategy, ask participants to draw up an outline strategy for a three-year period for their organisation.

Tea/Coffee (15 mins)

Sharing Ideas (1 hour)
Ask a nominee from each of the groups to provide an overview of the strategy proposed by the other group. Allow each group approximately 10 minutes each for this task. Then ask groups to swap their strategies and provide critical feedback to the other group on their strategy. This should identify strengths and weaknesses of the strategy *as well as* concrete ideas on how the strategy might be strengthened. Allow about 20 mins for each group to complete this task. Finish by asking each group to provide critical feedback to each other and complete the session by doing a round asking each individual to identify the principal learning from the session.

HANDOUT – Fundraising Strategy

A fund-raising strategy should contain the following:

- **A description of the organisation**

- **An outline of its mission**

- **A list of its major achievements**

- **A summary of its strengths and weaknesses**

- **A description of the organisations goals and major projects**

- **The barriers to effective fund-raising**

- **A financial plan to cover the funding needs of the organisation over 2-3 years**

- **Sources of income the organisation can tap into**

- **The resources required**

- **How the success of the funding strategy will be measured.**

Unit 4   The Delivery Context of Youth Work

Introduction

4.1   Understanding Community

4.2   Inter-Agency Approaches to Youth Work

4.3   Undertaking an organisational/community profile

4.1   Understanding Community

Tutors' Notes

Introduction
Despite the development of literature that has accompanied the increase in the range and type of organisations involved in community work there is little agreement about what community work is. As Lees and Mayo (1984) argue the field of community work analysis is characterised by debate, disagreement and the use of terms that whilst appearing to bring a degree of clarity to the practice of community work, in fact are used and understood in very different ways. The purpose of this section is to clarify what is understood by community development. In so doing, the concept of community is first examined. Secondly, the theoretical foundations of community development are explored. Thirdly, some current models of community work are outlined.

The concept of community
The term *community* contains many different meanings, values, ideologies and assumptions and therefore agreement about its meaning is difficult to arrive at. Indeed, arriving at any agreement about what the term community means becomes even more problematic when it involves what Bell & Newby (1971) call the 'subjective feelings', which lead to confusion between viewing community as it, is (empirical description) and viewing it as it should be (normative prescription). This particular section does not intend to examine in great detail the ambiguity and contradictions of the term which has both descriptive and evaluative meanings (Plant, 1974; Willmott, 1989). Neither does the section intend to discuss the concept from different perspectives such as ecological, integrative, regulatory or political-stratificational approaches (Chatterjee & Koleski, 1970). Rather, the intention is to explore some common definitions used in studies of community development and community work.

The term *community* is commonly used to denote a sense of belonging, cohesion and rootedness (O'Connell, undated).[8] These notions are contrasted with what O'Connell (undated) refers to as *the absence of community* (p.2), that is, the anonymous, impersonal existence of individuals living in urbanised society so often characterised by estrangement, alienation, anomie and fragmentation. The term community, however, is also associated with geographical boundaries, geographical proximity, shared interests, common cultural and ethnic values, ideas and beliefs (O'Connell, undated; Meade, 1996; Crickley & Devlin, 1989; Hamilton, 1985; Lees & Mayo, 1984; Hillery, 1955; Willmot, 1989). In tracing the development of the concept of community by social theorists, O'Connell (undated) argues that for the Greeks the notion of community was very much interwoven with the concept of the wholeness of the individual. For the Greeks, this ideal of wholeness was seen as possible only in a society which was cohesive, homogenous, participatory and rooted and where the individual was not fragmented because of the various roles he was expected to undertake.[9] This contention that fragmentation disrupted community is explored in the writings of Rousseau and Marx. Rousseau, for example, described how sectional interests arising from the division of labour disrupted the notion that a homogenous community existed. This he argues ultimately resulted in the segmentation of the person in modern society and contrasts with forms of communal living of more traditional

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[8] In *Keywords,* Raymond Williams (1976) pointed out that the term community has been used in the English language since the fourteenth century. In his review of the usage of the term community he outlines that the term was originally used to exclusively refer the common people, as opposed to those of rank. By the sixteenth century the term change in its usage and was used to refer to the 'quality of having something in common' and to a sense of common identity and characteristics'. Yeo and Yoe (1988) propose that the nineteenth century usage of the term community was similar to that used in the sixteenth century and referred to the sense of holding something in common, a feeling of common identity and mutual caring in human relationships. Raymond Williams (1976) argues that the broadening of the usage of the term coincided with the changes in society that accompanied the industrial revolution when the term community referred not just to the quality of relationships and mutual caring but also to a fundamental distinction between community and what he refers to as civil society on the one hand and the state on the other.
[9] Christenson & Robinson (1980) reflecting on the meaning of the word community argue that Aristotle in this regard asserted that people came together in a community setting for mutual association, enjoyment and in order to fulfill basic needs as well as to discover the meaning of life.

societies (Rousseau, 199?) The theme of fragmentation is taken up by Marx who in his analysis of the fragmentation of society developed the notion that not alone did society become fragmented arising from the process of industrialisation but that individuals within such societies also became fragmented and alienated from that society.

It is the German sociologist, Ferdinand Toennies, writing in the early twentieth century, who had, however, most influence in the theoretical formulations about the word community. He argued that the concept of community itself is not a neutral one but in fact provokes a strong positive feeling (Toennies, 1974). He uses the terms *Gemeinschaft* and *Gesellschaft* to describe the concept of community and distinguish this from the concept of society. For Toennies, because the term *Gemeinschaft* (community) was traditionally understood as the primary unit of social organisation it came to refer to the face-to-face community that implies intimacy in relationships, the wholeness of the individual and a coherent society governed by custom and tradition in which roles were clearly defined and where conflict is minimal (Meade, 1996; O'Connell, undated; Christenson & Robinson, 1980; Mayo, 1994). However, as modern development and social change undermined the significance of community, the larger *Gesellschaft* (society) emerged as the unit of social organisation and came to refer to the impersonal, fragmented, conflictional world of large scale modern societies where relationships were no longer governed by tradition and habit, but by legal contract (O'Connell, undated; Mayo, 1994; Christenson & Robinson, 1980). [10] Within these definitions, *Gemeinschaft* is seen as the ideal which existed in the past, the break-up of which he argues is to be regretted since increasing migration to cities would result in impersonal relationships which would replace traditional close community bonds as and result in fragmentation and alienation (Toennies, 1974).[11]

The Definition of Community
When we speak of community, not alone is there confusion about the concept of community itself and whether community exists at all (Stacey, 1974), there is also confusion about where community is located and how it might be defined. In reviewing ninety-four definitions of community Hillery (1955) concludes that the common components of community are area, common ties and social interest. Willmot (1989) refers to these components as territorial community, interest community and community of attachment. Mayo (1994) argues that although many definitions of the word community are used what all definitions have in common is their reference to people. Christenson & Robinson (1980) drawing on Hillery, 1955; Sutton & Kilaja, 1960 and Willis, 1977) suggest four main components for defining the concept of community as follows: people; area/territory; social interaction and attachment. Building on these components recent classifications now refer to three broad definitional categories of community described by Varley (1988) as defined by:

⇒ Geographical/spatial aspects;
⇒ Relationships that occur within a specific geographical location; and
⇒ Relationships that occur both within graphical boundaries but which also transcend these boundaries.

Spatial Definitions
'Place' features strongly in this definition of community and is used to portray a community, based in a particular area that contains all or most of the elements of community life: the political, the economic, the social, that is, a small scale

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[10] Toennies (1974) further developing this distinction argues that the concept of community refers to the more direct and significant relationships between individuals within a community in contrast to the more formal, abstract and instrumental relationships of the state in modern societies.

[11] Toennies (1957) was concerned in this regard with the possibility of reintroducing traditional personal ties within modern societies and with the disintegration of primary groups as well as the decline of 'community'. Bell (1956) argues that inherent in such concerns was a romantic conception of the past that was viewed as having been made up of small organic homogenous communities, shattered by the industrial revolution. Bulmer (1987) argues, in support of Bell by illustrating that empirical studies, based on the concept that community has been lost, found that people in industrial cities still tend to draw on similar sources of support as those of pre-industrialised communities, most notably, family, neighbours and friends.

social system.[12] This notion of community draws on Ogburn & Nimkoff (1964; MacIver 1924; and Worsley, 1977) and is often the definition of community used for economic and political purposes. For example, electoral constituencies are designated on the basis voters within geographical areas. However, this definition of community is critiqued at a number of levels. For instance, those in interest-based groups argue that it is inappropriate to circle an area on a map and declare that all who reside in that area constitute a community since all residents within an area may have no regard for or connection with each other (Meade, 1996; Mayo, 1994; Castells, 1977; Lowe, 1986). Furthermore, Harvey (1989) argues that definitions of community based on spatial concepts tend to ignore the fact that different class groups within society construct their sense of space and territory in very different ways. In support of such a view he argues that low-income groups, usually without the means to overcome the constraints of space, find themselves trapped within territories. Thus, he argues that whilst the experience of community within such spaces may be positive it can also lead to highly conflictual interpersonal relationships and negative bonding, leading to racial tensions.

Geographical Definitions

'Place' also features strongly in the second definition and draws from the social systems approach to understanding community (MacIver, 1924).[13] Proponents of this definition emphasise the existence of interpersonal relationships between individuals within towns, parishes, villages, estates and so on.[14] In the Irish context, Muintir Na Tire which had its origins in the 1930s advocated this type of concept of community. They proposed that not alone would community organisation through Muintir na Tire guilds help strengthen the important bonds that formed on the basis of individuals knowing and interacting with each other but that community activism would also produce tangible bonds for community members (Devereux, 1993).

Relationship Definitions

Definitions of community that focus on relationships are less concerned with the significance of geography. Rather, they emphasise the feeling of shared identity and the sense that community is reflected in and promoted by membership of a social group that may or may not be confined to a specific geographical area. [15] Definitions of community based on the importance of 'relationship' as a defining characteristic include communities based on gender, class, ethnicity, race, sexual orientation, religion, political identity (Meade, 1996). Furthermore, Worsley (1992) argues that 'relationship' definitions of community include communities of individuals who may never have met each other, for example, women committed to feminism who may not have met each other.

The difficulties in coming to a shared agreement about what constitutes a community have been referred to by Bell & Newby (1971) above. However, in summarising the arguments in favour of viewing community from different perspectives Fear & Schwarzwellar (1985) propose that viewing community from the first perspective (empirical) enables researchers to understand community as subject. Thus, this conception of community allows the 'local social

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[12] This concept of community is defined by Ogburn & Nimkoff (1964), for example, as *a total organisation of social life within a limited area. Human social life is characteristically carried on in such communities* (p.245). Similarly, Worsley (1977) describe community as *people inhabiting a certain locality, having some degree of political autonomy, a sense of fellowship, a uniform set of religious beliefs, perhaps ethnic homogeneity and often a dominant occupational function* (p.333).

[13] Using a social systems definition of community MacIver (1924) refers to community as *a social unity whose members recognise as common a sufficiency of interests to allow of the interactivities of common life......out of which association arise......(and) is the whole incalculable system of relations* (p.109-129).

[14] For example Hawley (1950) proposes that *community refers to the structure of relationships through which a localised population provides its daily requirements* (p.257-258). Similarly, Sjoberg (1956) refers to community as *a collective of actors sharing a limited territorial area as the base for carrying out the greatest share of their daily activities* (p.115).

[15] Sussman (1959) proposes that a *community is said to exist when interaction between individuals has the purpose of meeting needs and obtaining group goals...the feature of social interaction, structures for the gratification of physical, social and psychological needs, and limited geographical area are basic to the definition of community* (p.42). Bulmer (1987), drawing on Wellman's (1979) term 'community liberated' argues that this definition takes account of the wider framework of networks where relationships between family, work and residence are not necessarily combined. This he argues frees the concept from one that is rooted in local geographical terms to allow for ties that are based on informal relationships and social networks.

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system (Stacy, 1974) which embraces the social, economic and political life of a group of people within a particular locality, the community life, associations etc to be grasped in detail by the researcher (Samah, 1997). In contrast, the second perspective (normative prescriptive) enables the researcher to view community as an object of change and allows for the examination of people's lives and their activities as well as the micro-processes of participation and how that effects change in their community life (Samah, 1997).

4.1 Understanding Community

Session Plan

Time: 3½ Hours

Equipment/Resources Required
Old magazines and newspapers, glue, markers, newsprint, blutack.

Objectives
Learners should be able to:
- Define what community means to them.
- Define the different types of community and the type of community they themselves are working with.
- Identify the approach they might take to building community.

Process
A Good Experience of Community (1 ¼ hours)
1. Each person is asked to remember an experience of community they once had, when they said: 'Yes, that is what community is really about'. They should be encouraged to remember as many details as possible, as to what made it a positive experience:
- Who were the people/group involved?
- Where did it happen?
- When did it happen?
- What was it about it that made you say it was a good community?
- Was there anything else interesting about the situation?
2. Divide the group randomly, into small groups of five people and ask each person to share their community experience. Allow 30 minutes asking groups to make sure that each person gets at least 5 minutes to share.
3. Then when everyone has shared, ask each group to draw up a list of what they, from their experience, consider to be the *five or six elements of a good community.*
4. Return to large group and invite each small group to present their list. Note what is common and open the discussion for general discussion.

Tea/Coffee (15 mins)

Creating Community (2 Hours)
1. Divide participants into random groups of five or six people. Give each group a large selection of old magazines and newspapers. The task of the group, using headlines and pictures, is to create two collages, one describing good community and one describing bad community. Allow about 30 minutes for this.
2. Display all collages on the walls and invite everyone to take a gallery walk, perhaps with a companion, chatting about what they see.
3. Next each group is told that they are going to be assigned to collages of another group for further work. This is so that each group can pay particular attention to their designated collages. Then each group is asked to describe their collages. After the descriptions, swap collages around between groups.
4. Each group is asked to look at the picture of good and bad community they have been assigned, to recommend steps a community could take, to move from bad to good community. Allow about 15-20 mins.
5. All return to the large group with their recommendations. After the presentations, ask people to note the common recommendations made, and whether these are standard steps that might improve any community.

Source Maureen Sheehy (2000, pp. 85-86) *Partners Training for Transformation* (Dublin: Partners Training for Transformation)

HANDOUT

Since this session is very much an opportunity for participants to reflect on their own experiences of community a handout is not recommended for this session.

4.2 Inter-Agency Approaches to Youth Work

Tutors' Notes

Introduction

These notes provide an overview of the wider policy and legislative context that currently impacts on youth and development in Ireland and which form the context in which multiple agencies now fund and/or support the development of youth work at local level. Six principal policies/initiatives are highlighted as follows:

1   **Local Government Reform**
2   **National Strategy to Reduce the Demand for Drugs**
3   **RAPID**
4   **Local Development Social Inclusion Programme**
5   **The Equal Status Act, 2000**

For each policy/initiative
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 > **Firstly,** background contextual information is provided. This background information summarises the nature of the changes (proposed or effected) related to each policy development;
 > **Secondly,** the key implications in terms local development are highlighted. This should enable those undertaking youth work training to enable learners reflect on the likely impact of developments on the delivery of youth work locally.

1   Local Government Reform

Background Information

Local Government in Ireland consists of a number of local and regional authorities at three levels. These are:

> **At county/city level:** thirty-four local authorities are the main providers of local government services. Of these thirty-four, twenty-nine are county councils and five are cities.
> **At sub-county level:** eighty town authorities carry out a representational role for the town with a varying range of local government functions.
> **At regional level:** eight regional authorities co-ordinate some of the county/city and sub-county activities. They play a monitoring role in relation to the use of EU structural funds.

In addition to the above, **Two Regional Assemblies** were established in 1999 under new structures for regionalisation, as designated under Ireland's agreement for the dispersal of EU Structural Funds for the current round.

The recommendations of *the Task Force on the Integration of Local Government and Local Development Systems* regarding the avoidance of duplication of effort, the filling of gaps and the provision of co-ordinated delivery of services at local level as especially important in terms of how services at local level will be delivered in the future. A *Senior Officials Working Group* which is representative of all relevant Government Departments and which reports to the *Task Force on the Integration of Local Government and Local Development Systems* has reviewed the planning and delivery mechanisms with a view to improved co-ordination in the delivery of social inclusion measures at local level. The recommendations of the working group in relation to an integrated approach are reflected in the detailed arrangements set out in the Operational programmes. In this regard, *County and City Development Boards* **(CDBs)** have a key role to play in co-ordinating social inclusion strategies and measures.

CDBs operate on the partnership principle with *Regional Assemblies* and under the local government umbrella with membership drawn from local development organisations, social partners, local representation of State agencies and local government itself.

The CDBs:

> ➢ Work towards and formulate an agreed county/city strategy for economic social and cultural development.
> ➢ Develop a vision at local level to encompass the various local and sectoral plans.
> ➢ Provide the focus for co-operation on a continuing basis at county/city level in the work of the various agencies and promote co-ordination at this level so that overlap and duplication is avoided.
> ➢ Bring together the various interests in order to maximise the effectiveness of spending on programmes and projects at local level.

The County Development Boards consist of a number of Policy Committees, referred to as Strategic Policy Committees, through which plans are priorities are to be progressed. All the relevant programmes and projects and their delivery mechanism covered by the NDP will be expected to accord with this framework. Key underlying principles of the framework will be the use of common delivery areas (e.g. county/city and, where appropriate, local electoral areas for community development/ social exclusion) and of a single agency designated for delivery of specific components (e.g. micro-enterprise) of local development in any one area so as to avoid overlap, confusion and competition between agencies.

Core Issues Arising

In the context of local government reform the current role, administrative and development responsibility of youth organisations with respect to the development of youth work is changing. Envisaged, within the wider changes is a much greater role for local authorities, which are now responsible for developing and coordinating county/city plans in the areas of housing, environment, transport and infrastructure as well as community and enterprise development. In addition, many local authorities are in the process of or already have established social inclusion units to guide the work of the various Strategic Policy Committees. Within the various local authorities different arrangements are in place to represent the interests of community and youth interests on the various Strategic Policy Committees. Area Partnerships/Community Groups are contributing to the development of these strategies through, for example, their participation of Social Inclusion Working Groups of CDBs and by supporting the community development sector more generally. Together with the proposed change in the role of the VECs locally with respect to the coordination and development of youth work services at local level (outlined in the previous section), changes within Local Government systems and institutional mechanisms signal substantial and pervasive change with regard the range of organisations, representative groups and officials whom Local Education Coordinators need to consider as key-stake-holders for the development of community-based youth initiatives locally.

2   National Strategy to Reduce the Demand for Drugs

Background Information

Two reports set the specific policy context for Government's approach to reducing the demand for drugs. These are the First and Second Ministerial Task Force Reports to Reduce the Demand for Drugs (1996 and 1997 respectively). In the first of these reports, emphasis was given to identifying the nature and extent of drug misuse in Ireland. That report concluded that heroin use was by far the most significant aspect of drug misuse at that time and acknowledged that heroin use is almost exclusively a Dublin phenomenon. Proposals set forth in that document included: the establishment of a Cabinet Drugs Committee, chaired by an Taoiseach, to give overall policy direction in the fight against drugs; the establishment of a National Drugs Strategy Team to advise on and implement that policy; the setting up of Local Drugs Task Forces in the worst affected areas and mandating them to develop comprehensive anti-drugs strategies for those areas; the introduction of a range of measures with respect to the treatment of heroin users

including the proposal to eliminate the waiting lists for methadone maintenance; proposals to enhance the rehabilitation opportunities available to heroin misusers who have stabilised; a series of drug education/awareness measures to complement and build on existing prevention strategies; and estate improvement programme to assist authorities in tackling environmental and related problems in severely run-down housing estates and flat complexes where the drugs problem is particularly severe. *The Second Task Force on Measures to Reduce the Demand for Drugs* (1997) examined the misuse of non-opiate drugs and in particular their association with youth culture was explored. The misuse of drugs in prisons and the role of therapeutic and other rehabilitation services also formed a focus for the second Task Force. The report concluded that: *whereas heroin abuse is confined almost exclusively to marginalised areas in Dublin, the misuse of non-opiate drugs such as cannabis and ecstasy is a nation-wide phenomenon and is closely associated with youth culture* (p.52*).* The Second Task Force Report also concluded that while treatment is provided by the psychiatric services to help those who are addicted to deal with their problem, concentration should be given to the development of preventative strategies.

The overall aim of the Government's drugs policy is to provide an effective, integrated response to the problems posed by drug misuse. Strategically, the implementation of the policy is based around the ***Local and Regional Drugs Task Forces***, which were established in areas experiencing the highest levels of illicit drug use, in particular, the areas where heroin abuse is most prevalent. These areas were defined on the basis of the following criteria: drug treatment data from the health services; Garda crime statistics; data relating to school attendance/drop-out; and other relevant data on the levels of social and economic disadvantage in the area.

The objective of projects devised as part of the Local/Regional Drugs Task Forces is to prevent the growth of heroin use in those areas particularly affected by this problem. In addition, projects are being developed in other areas to prevent at-risk children/young people from engaging in various forms of anti-social behaviour by providing inter-agency responses to support these young people and their families. Two key elements underpin this approach: the establishment of formal collaborative structures involving relevant public agencies, the voluntary sector and the local community ***and*** the identification of local centres which will act as a focal point for the delivery of services for children and young people.

Most of the remaining funding is channeled through the ***Young People's Services and Facilities Fund,*** which is targeted at local areas outside the task Force Areas where serious drug problems exist or has the potential to exist. The primary focus, in this regard, has been on major urban areas. The relevant **VECs** have taken a lead in preparing strategies in developing responses/initiatives funded through the Young People's Services and Facilities Fund. These initiatives include the Grant Scheme for Special Project to Assist Disadvantaged Youth, the Community Development Programme and the Social Integration Project for young people, involved or likely to become involved in drug use and/or crime.

Core Issues Arising
Following recent awareness about the nature and extent of drug use in area and the risk of exposure to drugs by young people, the Government's Drugs Strategy sets out the major legislative changes to deal with the issue. The Young People's Services and Facilities Fund is likely to be the source of funding for youth projects in many areas where Area Partnerships/Community Groups are operating. In addition, through the Local/Regional Drugs Task Forces collaborative structures involving the community sector are likely to be in place. Finally, local centres which act a the focal point for the delivery of services for children and young people are, perhaps, already identified as part of Task Force Plans.

3   RAPID

Background Information
Despite the improvements in economic and social standards, which Ireland has enjoyed over recent years there are still many people who have not shared in that prosperity. The RAPID Programme, which stands for Revitalising Areas

by Planning, Investment and Development, aims to deliver a range of measures to the 25 most deprived communities in the country. Factors such as unemployment, income levels, family and social structure, educational disadvantage and high levels of rented local authority housing were used to identify the priority areas. These include communities in Dublin, Cork, Limerick, Waterford, Bray, Drogheda and Dundalk. The targeted areas have been prioritised for investment and development in relation to health, education, housing, childcare and community facilities including sports facilities, youth development, employment, drug misuse and policing. Area Implementation Teams have been formed in each of the RAPID Areas. These bring together local State Agency personnel (Health Board, Local Authority, VEC, Department of Social, Community and Family Affairs, FÁS etc.) the local Partnership Company, residents of the local community and where they exist Local Drug Task Forces. These have drawn up an implementation plan. In addition a coordinator has been appointed in each area who is working with the local community to:

    a) Draw up an audit of local needs.
    b) See how best to tackle the problems.
    c) Ensure provision and co-ordination of services and investment, involving the kinds of services and facilities that are most urgently needed in the area and can be delivered within three years.

At city/county level, a Monitoring Group comprising State Agency personnel, representatives of the local development sector and each pillar of the Social Partners and local public representatives will have an input into devising a plan for the area and ensuring the delivery of services. Overall there will be a National Monitoring Committee to report regularly to the Government. RAPID will be followed by two further initiatives to help disadvantaged areas in provincial towns and in rural Ireland. These are referred to as CLAR which will operate in rural areas and RAPID 2 which will operate in provincial towns. Both these initiatives will operate in a similar manner to the urban-based RAPID areas. Smaller and larger towns covered by RAPID are: *Smaller towns* – Athy, Ballinasloe, Carrick-on-Suir, Cavan, Longford, Mallow, New Ross, Tipperary, Tuam, Youghal; *Larger towns* – Athlone, Carlow, Clonmel, Ennis, Galway, Kilkenny, Navan, Sligo, Tralee, Wexford. It is anticipated that priorities for funding and targeting communities experiencing social exclusion within the remainder of the National Development Plan Period, that is, until 2006 of the will be based on RAPID/CLAR areas.

Core Issues Arising
The RAPID and CLAR Programmes aim to respond to a wide range of issues faced by marginalised groups within communities, including young people. The responses that are currently being devised and developed will be based on existing plans, for example, Area Partnership/Community Groups Plans, Local/Regional Task Force Plans, Health Board Plans etc. The responses that are being developed aim to provide services on coordinated services and also aim to maximize the effectiveness of a variety of statutory and voluntary bodies locally in making services available to those most in need. For Area Partnerships/Community Groups operating in these areas the RAPID/CLAR Plans are likely to inform the key communities/target groups, including young people, which are to be targeted for enhanced service delivery through a range of state and voluntary agencies operating in these areas.

4   The Local Development Social Inclusion Programme

Background Information
The Local Development Social Inclusion Programme is the provision that enables funding to be made available to Partnerships (38 area-based partnership companies funded by ADM) and Community Groups (34 Community Groups funded by ADM). The Local Development Social Inclusion Programme encompasses three action areas as follows:

    Measure A – Services for the Unemployed
    Measure B – Community Development
    Measure C – Community Based Youth Initiatives

Whilst all three of the above measures are relevant to young people the Community Based Youth Initiatives measure specifically focuses on addressing the needs of children and young people at risk of early school leaving, underachievement, drugs misuse, becoming involved in anti-social activities and long-term unemployment.

Community Based Youth Initiatives Measure
The specific objectives of the Community Based Youth Initiative Measure are:
a)   To assist local analysis of long-term needs to effect change in the level and type of service provision.
b)   To facilitate local networking activities that ensure the inclusion of children and young people in the design and delivery of local services.
c)   To support local communities in developing long term strategic plans for the provision of services to children and young people.
d)   To highlight tailor-made approaches addressing the needs of children and young people with target groups who are already at risk e.g. Travellers, refugees, ex-prisoners, and drug users.
e)   To promote a co-ordinated collaborative approach to the provision of services to children and young people in local communities.
f)   To develop mechanisms to enhance the relationship between formal education system and the informal sector in providing additional supports and services to children and young people at risk.
g)   To build capacity at local level to provide integrated supports to children and young people.
h)   To promote local and national strategies to ensure appropriate and adequate responses to children and youth at risk.
i)   To support local communities and service providers to develop a greater range of creative and experimental opportunities for children and youth at risk.

5   Equal Status Act, 2000

Background Information
The Equal Status Act, 2000: promotes equality; prohibits certain kinds of discrimination (with some exceptions); prohibits sexual harassment and other forms of harassment (on the discriminatory grounds). This covers people who buy goods, use services, obtain accommodation and attend educational establishments. Clubs, which discriminate, may lose their license to sell alcohol. The Equal Status Act, 2000 prohibits discrimination on the following nine grounds:

- Gender: a man, a woman or a transsexual;
- Marital status: single, married, separated, divorced or widowed;
- Family status: pregnant or resident primary carer;
- Sexual orientation: gay, lesbian or bisexual;
- Religion: different religious belief, background outlook or none;
- Age: different ages (this does not cover people under 18);
- Disability: this is broadly defined including people with physical, intellectual, learning, cognitive or emotional disabilities and a range of medical conditions;
- Race: a particular race, skin colour, nationality or ethnic origin; and
- Membership of the Traveller community: people who are commonly called Travellers.

Core Issues Arising
Central to the Equal Status legislation is that service providers can now be prosecuted for discriminating against individuals covered under the nine ground covered under the legislation. Thus, services developed through actions developed as collaborative approaches with other agencies or by the Area Partnership/Community Group as the sole provided are required to comply with Equal Status Legislation.

4.2   Inter-Agency Approaches to Youth Work

Session Plan

Time: 2½ Hours

Equipment/Resources Required
Flip Chart and Markers
Copies of Participants' Handouts: Inter-Agency Approaches to Youth Work

Objectives
Learners should have reflected on:
- ▭ The range of initiatives for young people supported by Departments other than the Department of Education Youth Affairs and how these can be harnessed to add value to their work with young people.

Process

Input (30 mins)
Trainer provides an overview of the principal initiatives currently in place for tackling issues of exclusion within communities that impinge on the work of youth work organisations. This should cover the following:
- ▭ CDBs and Strategic Policy Committees
- ▭ Area Partnership Companies and ADM funded community groups;
- ▭ Rapid/Clar
- ▭ Drugs Task Force Initiatives

Small Groups (1 hour)
In small groups of three to four participants are asked to identify the initiatives/organisations that are present in their area.   Once these have been listed participants are then asked to consider the following:
a) What research has been conducted on the needs of young people in the area?
b) Have marginalised young people been involved in such research? If not, what strategies might be undertaken to facilitate their input into the planning of strategies to meet their needs?
b) Does basic research into current provision and gaps in provision as well as age and targeted provision need to be conducted as a starting point to developing actions?
c) If research has been undertaken what gaps have been identified in terms of:
  - o age
  - o range and type of provision
  - o provision targeted at specific groups of young people
  - o geographic spread of provision
  - o existing capacity to build locally owned community-based responses to the needs of young people in areas.
d) If research has not been undertaken what is there 'sense' of the needs/gaps in provision for young people?
d) Do any of the initiatives that they have listed have the capacity to resource the filling of gap identified through research or on perceived need?
e) If so, what strategic alliances might be made to resource the filling of that gap in partnership with existing providers?
f) What actions are built into the measure to ensure that it is capable of being mainstreamed on the longer term?
h) How are these actions being proofed to ensure they are targeted at young people most in need in the area?

Tea/Coffee (15 mins)

Feedback (45 mins)

The trainer facilitates feedback from the group drawing together ideas generated from the various groups with particular regard to how strategic alliances might be made and specific actions proposed by the various groups.

HANDOUT Inter-Agency Approaches to Youth Work

It is suggested that given the technical and specific nature of current government funded inter-agency initiatives operating at local level that the entire notes prepared for tutors (or relevant sections if all initiatives are not relevant to the area) for this session is reproduced as appropriate.

4.3   Undertaking an organisational/community profile

Tutors' Notes

A)   Research Project

The following are broad headings which should be followed when presenting a research type project.

➤ **Outline**
   -Title
   -Objectives
    -Review of literature
   -Method of Research
   -Record of Findings
   -Discussion of Findings
   -Recommendations
   -Conclusion
   -Bibliography
   -Appendix

Outlined below is a description of what each section will involve.

Objectives

Once you have chosen your research theme, the most important part of the work you will do in planning your research is to establish your objectives. The most common problem in this respect is that people chose a topic that is too broad. Most people start with an idea which is much too big, for example, 'drugs'. The topic drugs might include medicinal drugs, various types of drugs, their characteristics, the medical, psychological, social & economic effects of each type of drug on the user, his family and society; causes of drug taking; the characteristics of drug taking; legal aspects of drug taking to name a few. Since you have no intention of covering all these, you need to be as specific as you can ~ to what exactly you intend covering in your research. As far as possible, the objectives should state the desired outcome of the project. As such, they should be:

- short
- specific
- measurable

Review of literature

You will be expected to illustrate that you have done some background reading in the area of your choice. In the review of literature, you are simply required to illustrate key aspects of differing authors views on your subject. You should not get into a commentary.

Method of Research

This will involve you explaining what research techniques you used, the members of people involved, problems you had e.g. A simple rule of thumb is to imagine that you are trying to explain exactly what you did, the stages involved etc. to somebody totally unaware of what you were doing.

Record of Findings & Discussion of Findings

This is the main body of your project. You can choose to organise this in a number of ways: you might give all your material first, and then the analysis. Alternatively, you might divide the findings into sub- theme headings and present the findings for each sub-theme together with the analysis to form separate sections. If you take this approach, it is usual to gather all the analysis together at the end, re-present briefly in summary form at the end of the paper. A few points to remember in the presentation:

(i) Most research papers are presented impersonally in the passive rather than active form: e.g. "This material was collected in the autumn of 1992" rather than "I collected this material in the autumn of 1992"

(ii) Keep judgemental adjectives out of your presentation as much as possible: e.g. "The Youth Club sits in nice surroundings" is unnecessarily judgemental. Simply describe the surroundings and let the reader decide if the surroundings are nice or not.

(iii) Use charts, tables, diagrams, illustrations whenever they simplify the presentation. If an understanding of the physical layout of the place is important, e.g. the layout of the Youth Club, a floor plan drawn to scale will complement or even replace the need for a written description.

Recommendations
On the basis of your findings, you will have drawn some conclusions on what specific aspects of your theme need to be followed up and have suggestions as to what you think might be done. These should be highlighted at the end of your study.

Conclusion
In some purely descriptive study, the paper has no conclusion. It may instead have a brief summary of the main ideas or facts in the paper. In any other kind of study, you will use this section to make analysis and draw inferences. Avoid the temptation to present conclusions which you cannot support and do not omit conclusions which are contrary to what you had expected or desired.

Bibliography
Keep a copy of the references of all books, articles etc you read, (preferably on a separate index card or piece of paper), record the following information related to each book/article you read:
- Author
- Title
- Date of publication -Publisher
- Page number of quotation cited

For articles, you will also need the following information:
- Author of article
- Title of article in -Book Author
- Book Title
- Date of book publication
- Publisher of book
- Page numbers of articles

When citing your quotations and references, use the following format:

Reference example, that is, you are summarising what a particular author has to say on the subject but you are not making a direct quote from the authors work.

> Within this view, Durkheim centres his analysis on the concept of the ideal man. This ideal is defined by society's needs. He thus stresses the role of educations as fixing a degree of homogeneity which the 'collective' life demanded. (Durkheim, 1956)

Quotation example, that is, you are quoting from the authors work.

In introducing the findings of his analysis of trends in poverty, Roche noted that:

> "Unless the rise in unemployment is halted and reversed, poverty will intensify and anti-poverty policy will become a holding operation." (Roche, 1984, p.4)

Bibliography
On the basis of the examples used above, your bibliography will be listed according to author and in alphabetical sequence. The following is an example of a bibliography.

BAILEY, KENNETH D., (1978) *Methods of Social Research* (New York, Free Press)

BALES, ROBERT, F ., (1989), 'Some Uniformities of Behaviour in Small Social Systems' in *Readings in Social Psychology Social Psychology and Social Systems,* by Kagan, F. (New York, Educational Press).

Note 1: The following conventions apply to simple book references.
 Author: Capital letters, arranged in alphabetical order by surname and with surname preceding forenames.
 Publication Date: Follows author's name and is enclosed in brackets. In cases where you are quoting from the same author with titles published in the same year the date is followed by a,b,c, for example, (197Oa), (197Ob). In these instances ensure that the relevant letter is including within your text reference.
 Title of main publication: In italics
 Publisher: In ordinary case, within brackets

Note 2: The following convention applies to articles within another publication, either a book or journal. The second reference above refers to an article within another publication. In this case, the title of the article in a sub-title and will not be recorded in italics. The italics are reserved for the main title which in this case is the book Social Psychology and Social Systems. The title of the sub-article is thus presented between inverted commas.

Appendix
The appendix is a section at the end of the project which is reserved for documentation that stands alone as an item or does not readily fit in as part of the body of the project report, or would interrupt the flow of presentation of the project itself. For research projects it is essential to include a copy of the questionnaire or other research tool you have used.

B) Practical Project

The purpose of a practical project is to put in place a project with the young people you work with. The main point of evaluation for practical projects is that you demonstrate that you have learned new skills through conducting the project. The presentation of a practical project should thus centre on demonstrating this learning. The following is an example of how a practical project might be presented.

    i   Title of project
    ii   Background on the group you have chosen to work with
    iii The type of programme that was operating within the group prior to you deciding on your specific project
    iv Programme Analysis
    vi Project Summary
    vii Record of learning
    viii Bibliography
    ix Index

Background
This will involve the presentation of details about the group:

- The location of the club, its environment, where it meets etc.; a general profile of the area, for example, a large housing estate on the suburbs of a large urban area characterised by high unemployment etc.
- The numbers involved;
- The age range and sex of participants;
- Where the club meets; how long it is in operation; whether it is part of a larger project or an independent club;
- How long you have worked with them.

Previous Programme
In this section you should outline in summary form the main types of activities and programme undertaken within the group. Ideally you should be able to present a picture of what happens on the regular club night together with details of occasional activities which happen throughout the calendar year of the club.

Programme Analysis
The analysis of the programme should centre on your assessment of the quality of the existing programme and its effectiveness in addressing the needs of the young people involved in the group. You might for instance state that you think that there is an overly recreational emphasis within the programme and that educational objectives are not being met enough. You might identify a particular group who seem to be getting very little from the programme and suggest that a different type of programme might be more suitable for their needs.

Project Summary
This will involve a summarised version of your programme and should detail:

- The nature of the project, for example, a development group works project, an exchange visit, an arts project etc.
- The objectives of the project (in clear and concise terms)
- What you did, for example, a developmental group work project; an exchange visit with an international project
- The specific group the project was aimed at and some summary details of the group: their ages; the number involved; the sex of the group; the development capacity of the group, for example, high or low literacy levels, verbal communications abilities etc.
- Project details: duration of project; time involved; meeting place etc.

Record of learning

Assuming that you have implemented a developmental group work programme with the young people, or a group of young people you work with, the following would be a method of recording your learning. For each topic or session you conducted with the group you should outline the following information:

- The specific objectives of the session
- The outline of the session
- The methods you used
- Demonstration of learning

Objective, outline of session and methods used
The objectives, outline and methods should be documented as clearly as possible. If needs be, use the session outlined in Session 15: Designing Developmental Group Work with Young People.

Demonstration of learning
The crucial element of your project will centre on the demonstration of your personal learning or your own personal evaluation of the sessions you have put in place. The point of this is that the experience of running a session or putting in place a practical programme is unique to the youth worker who has implemented the programme and as such is the only person who can assess what actual learning has taken place. The key task in demonstrating what learning has been achieved is to show that they have learnt. If course participants want to have some assessment of their strengths of their learning, then they need to be able to show that they have actually used what they have learnt through their project. This is not always easy, but can be achieved if you ask yourself the question 'what concrete evidence have I got to show that you have learned something from this experience?

For example: You might wish to illustrate that you learned about the value of maintaining silence as a means of active listening within a group and how this contributes to your maintenance function as group facilitator. Recording such an incident might be as follows:

During the session a general discussion about how the young women felt about the pressures they felt from their boyfriends to engage in a full sexual relationship that they were not comfortable about was *in progress. The discussion was quite open and participants were in general speaking freely about their own relationships. I noticed, however, that 'N' was reticent to speak and wanted to create space for her to speak if she wished. I felt from my personal knowledge of 'N' that the issue for her was that she had difficulty establishing relationships that were based on friendship with young men and that her only experience of relationships with young men were based on sexual relationships with them. To this end, I asked the group to consider what difficulties they had in establishing 'friendships' with young men. Complete silence ensued when this question* was *posed and it felt as if an eternity was passing by while no one was saying anything. Eventually, I myself* became *uncomfortable with the silence and ended it by asking another question. I knew that just as I had asked the question that 'N' seemed to be on the verge of saying something and that I had missed an opportunity by my own discomfort with the silence. In fact it seemed that the flow for the rest of the session did not appear to be as it had been for the earlier section.*

Learning: As a facilitator I am uncomfortable with long silences in the group
Application of learning: Between this and the next session I practiced being silent with people I was comfortable and used the next session to allow silences become part of the group. To this end, I was not constantly on my guard to have the next question ready, but allowed reflection to take place when people had spoken. I found that a number of the young women in the group would were not ready contributors began to take part in the discussion more through the use of this technique.

Bibliography
The format and conventions for the bibliography illustrated in the previous section will apply.

Ossory Youth   Understanding Youth Work Trainers' Handbook   National Youth Federation

Appendix

The appendix is a section at the back of the project which will include any material you wish to enclose that does not appropriately fit in ~ part of the main report. For instance, you might include your session outlines, evaluation forms completed by the participants, a copy of the youth group's constitution, programme etc.

C)   Setting Up and Carrying Out a Local Profile

Basic Information Required for a Local Profile
Just as a body needs a skeleton, so a local profile needs its basic social and economic information. For all profiles some basic information will be needed. When you first set out to compile a local profile, you should decide:

i	The purpose for which you are doing it
ii	Apart from the basic profile, the topics you wish to include or highlight. It is a good idea at this stage to draw up a list.
iii	The approximate length an format of the profile

A good filing system is essential before any information is collected, so that ~ it come in information can be sorted and organised in the most efficient way.

Remember that a profile is not only for people who know the area, but also or people who do not event now where it is or its principal features. There are three sets of information that are essential to any local profile, almost independent of its specific purpose.

1.   Definition and Description of the locality
This can be broken into three parts:

i	A definition of the boundaries of the locality
ii	A brief description of the locality so defined
iii	An outline of the history of the locality showing how it has developed

2.   Statistical information
There are usually two broad headings under which statistical information is detailed:

i	Social and economic information: population and population characteristics, housing an accommodation, occupations and employment, socio-economic characteristics of the population (social class, poor/prosperous, etc.)
ii	Information about the main services in or available to the people in the locality: education, health, shopping facilities, transport.

3.   Information on further development
This will include any information that is available on further development planned for the area and existing plans for the locality. Once the basic information is included, subsequent sections can be expanded depending on the specific focus of the profile. For example, you might wish to include detailed descriptions of occupations and highlight the skills and experiences of the local work force if the profile is intended to try and create more jobs locally or to show the local extent of unemployment. Alternatively you may want to give details about a particular development and how it might affect the locality if the purpose is to try and influence planning decisions.

Basic Materials
Below is a list of the main materials needed to compile a local profile:
Boundary Map: Showing DEDs/Wards in locality
Features Map of the Locality:
Statistical Printout: Containing information on all major topics in the DEDs/wards
Local Population Report for the county or borough
Listing of Local National and Post-Primary Schools
Local History Sources and other Local Reports

Main Sources of Information for Local Profile
There are a number of nationally collected data sources which will inform you profile. These are:
a) The Census of Population
b) b) The Census of Agriculture
c) c) The Labour Source Survey
d) The Household Budget Survey

The Census of Population is the main source of population statistics for the whole country. It is carried out every five years. Since 1961 the census material has been computerised which makes it more accessible. After each census the information collected is analysed and national results are published in a series of volumes organised round different themes. The information is produced in three forms:
- National reports which cover the whole country
- Local reports which cover counties
- Small area printout which cover wards/DEDs

A detailed breakdown of information based on Census can be obtained for small areas within all counties and county boroughs. These Small Area Population Statistics, SAPS are available for each DED or ward, towns of over 1,000 population and Gaeltacht areas. The details they contain are:

- Age
- Sex
- Industry
- Marital Status
- Travel to Work
- Economic Status
- Family Units
- Rooms in Dwelling
- Socio-Economic Group
- Family Cycle
- Ability to Speak Irish
- Age Education Ended
- Occupation
- Households
- Cars in Household
- Social Class
- Family Size

The Labour Force Survey contains very detailed and up-to-date information about the Irish labour force, households and families. The Household Budget Survey contains detailed information on spending patterns, being based on record dept for a period of two weeks by a sample of householders throughout the country on how the money available to the household is spent. The information from both these surveys is not so useful at a local level because detailed breakdowns are not available for small areas.

Main Sources of Information by Subject
Subject Source
Agriculture, Forestry   Department of Agriculture
and Fisheries   Teagasc: National Farm Survey

CSO: Various agricultural censuses

Department of Energy (annual report on the Forest and Wildlife Services)

Bord lascaigh Mhara

Education

Department of Education (Statistics Branch)
CSO Census of Population (Age left school)
Economic and Social Research Institute
Various Universities (Education Departments)/Higher Education Authority
Teachers' Unions (INTO, TUI, ASTI)
Union of Students in Ireland
EOLAS (Science and technology statistics)
Aontas (Adult Education)

Emigration

CSO: Population statistics
Department of Labour School Leavers' Survey

Environment

Department of the Environment
Local Authority Planning Department
Environmental Research Unit
CSO (Statistical Bulletin)
An Taisce

Health

Department of Health (annual report)
Local health boards
Social Studies Departments in Universities
Health Research Board

Housing

Department of Environment (planning statistics)
CSO Census of Population (housing conditions)
Social Studies Departments in Universities
Local authorities (housing sections)

Labour and Occupations

Department of Labour
FAS
CSO Census of Population (occupations)

Local History

Local library services/Local history groups

Maps

Ordinance Survey Office
Local authority (planning office)
Local political party branches
Map shops
Local library
Geography department of universities

Population

CSO population Census

Social Welfare

Department of Social Welfare

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Local social welfare offices/employment exchanges
National Social Service Board
Combat Poverty Agency
Local Parish Offices

**Tourism, Transport
and Communications**   Bord Failte
                          Department of the Environment
                          Department of Communications
                          Department of Tourism and Transport
                          Local authority (planning office)

Unemployment   CSO Monthly Release
                          Local employment exchange/social welfare office

4.3   Undertaking an Organisational/Community Profile

Session Plan

Time: 2½ Hours

Equipment/Resources Required
Flip Chart and Markers/Overhead projector/Input Acetates
Copies of Handout: Project Design, Presentation and Research Sources

Objectives
Learners should be able to:
- Discuss and decide upon project ideas.
- Explore current research sources.
- Explore various methods for a community survey.

Process

Brainstorm (10 mins)
Ask participants to brainstorm the range of ideas they are thinking about as a project/community survey theme. When the list has been complete choose 4 themes from those listed, identifying broad themes, e.g., Drugs, Crime.

Small Groups (30 mins.)
Divide the group into four working groups and ask them to suggest a focus for three different projects using the same theme (10 mins per topic) and using the following format for their presentation:
- Project Theme
- Project Objectives
- Project Method

Feedback and Comments (30 mins)
Take feedback from each group drawing attention to the following common pitfalls:
- Theme too broad;
- Objectives not states clearly enough; and
- Method inappropriate to meet objectives.

Break (15 mins.)

Input (15 mins)
Distinguish between the following:
- Project themes
- Project objectives

In Small Groups (15 mins)
Using the feedback task which preceded the tea/coffee break, facilitate the full group to identify a number of very narrow objectives for three different projects using the same theme.

Input (30mins)
Outline the format (provided in the trainers' notes) for both essay type and practical projects as well as the method of recording, bibliography conventions and sources of information.

Project Proposal (5 mins)
Outline how you wish learners to present project proposals and assign a time-frame within which they should return project proposals.

Part 3   FETAC Level 2 Award and Assessment

1   FETAC Level 2 Award
Introduction
Awards
Understanding Youth Work Module

2   Assessment
Assessment Policy and Practice
Practical Guidelines on Assessment
Level 2 - Assessment
Devising Briefs and Instructions
Briefs
Instructions
Preparing for Assessment
Assessment Techniques
> 1. Assignment
> 2. Collection of Work
> 3. Examination
> 4. Learner Record
> 5. Project
> 6. Skills Demonstration

Understanding Youth Work Module Assessment

3   Marking and Grading
Guidelines for Marking Evidence
Grading
Grading Statements

4   Assisting Learners Devise a Project
Session Plan

Part 3   Assessment

FETAC Level 2 Award

Introduction
In June 2001, the Further Education and Training Awards Council (FETAC) was set up as a statutory body by the Minister for Education and Science in line with the provisions to do so under the Qualifications (Education & Training) Act, 1999. Under the 1999 Act, FETAC makes awards previously made by the NCVA, FAS, and CERT/NTCB. Teagasc and BIM. In the short term, FETAC has adopted all of the processes and procedures of the NCVA. This arrangement is for a transitional period to allow for continuity of service to learners and to allow time for FETAC to develop its own processes. In the medium-term, a new national framework will be developed by the National Qualifications Authority, facilitating the recognition of achievement across a broader spectrum than ever before in the history of education and training in Ireland. The development of its own assessment processes by FETAC and the development of a framework for recognising achievement across sectors are likely to influence assessment procedures in the future. Thus, trainers need to ensure that they keep abreast of such changes and modify their assessment procedures and develop quality assurance standards as required.

Awards
FETAC awards Certificates and Records of Achievement.

> **Certificates** are awarded at each of four levels – Foundation, Level 1, Level 2 and Level 3.

> **A Record of Achievement** is awarded to a candidate who achieves the required standard in one module. A module is a statement of the standard.

FETAC specifies the requirements for all certificates. All certificates are modular in structure.

A Module is a statement of the standard to be achieved to gain a FETAC award. Candidates are assessed to establish if they have achieved the required standards. Credit is awarded for each module successfully completed. The standards in a module are expressed principally in terms of specific learning outcomes, i.e. what the learner will be able to do on successful completion of the module. The other elements of the module – the purpose, general aims, assessment details and assessment criteria – combine with the learning outcomes to state the standards in a holistic way.

While FETAC is responsible for setting the standards for certification in partnership with course providers it is the course providers who are responsible for the design of learning programmes. The duration, content and delivery of learning programmes should be appropriate to the learners' needs and interests, and should enable the learners to reach the standard as described in the modules. Modules may be delivered alone or integrated with other modules. Centres providing training modules must follow the **current** version of the module.

Understanding Youth Work Module
The Understanding Youth Work is a mandatory module for the National Vocational Certificate Level 2 in Youth Work and those who successfully complete the module receive a credit for the Certificate. The module is designed to promote learners' understanding of the context of youth work, youth work issues and approaches. It should enable learners to acquire the knowledge and attitudes required to work effectively, under direction in youth work settings.

This module is ideally integrated with Work Experience and the other mandatory modules in this Award area but may be offered as a stand-alone module. The module may also be used as an elective module in a range of vocational areas.

Ossory Youth   Understanding Youth Work Trainers' Handbook   National Youth Federation

Assessment

Assessment Policy and Practice
The FETAC approach to assessment includes the following key features:
- Assessment is locally devised.
- The internal assessor is responsible for assessing and recording the achievement of learners.
- The FETAC operates a modular system and assessment can take place at a time suitable to the candidate and the centre.
- Assessment is criterion-reference – candidates' results are dependent only on whether they have reached the required standard expressed in terms of assessment criteria.
- A broad range of assessment techniques used is valid, assessing the actual learning that has taken place. They are reliable, providing consistent and accurate results. They are also transparent, in that full information on assessment can be provided to all involved in the process, particularly the learners.
- Assessment has been designed as an integral part of the learning process.
- Assessment techniques have been grouped into six categories. The overall approach is now consistent across all module areas in that:
     Individual modules have a maximum of three assessment techniques.
     Any one technique has a minimum percentage weighting of 20%.
     Assessment techniques for a range of modules may be integrated with each other.
     Integration is encouraged across modules.
- Assessment can be completed in a variety of settings as appropriate to the learning that has taken place, for example, in the work place or in an education/training setting.
- Evidence can be gathered in a range of media, for example, oral, written, audio, subject to the requirements in the module descriptor.
- A range of mechanism is in place to enhance the quality of the assessment process. These include a support service, an assessment handbook [16] and external monitoring/moderation.

Practical Guidelines on Assessment
This section provides practical guidelines for internal assessors (primary tutors usually) in planning and administering a quality assessment system. Reference is made throughout this section to a number of key documents which should be used in conjunction with this handbook, for example, the module descriptor (included in the appendices), the Guide to FETAC Awards and the Regulations for Centres and Candidates. These documents are available on the website www.ncva.ie

Level 2 - Assessment
Assessment techniques in Level 2 modules are now groups into the following categories:
- Assignment
- Collection of Work
- Examination
- Learner Record
- Project
- Skills Demonstration

A minimum of one and a maximum of three assessment techniques will be found in all Level 2 modules. The assessment technique should be appropriate to the type of learning being assessed; for example, a skills demonstration assesses candidates' practical skills. Guidelines on devising each of these techniques are outlined in later sections.

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[16] Details with regard to assessment in this manual are drawn from the abovementioned handbook.

Devising Briefs and Instructions

Briefs
Some assessment techniques, such as assignments and projects, require assessors to devise a **brief** for candidates. A brief is generally made available in written form. The brief provides candidates with all of the information they need to demonstrate achievement of a range of specific learning outcomes. Briefs contain guidelines on the production and presentation of evidence, for example, information on size, length, scale, number of words, duration, media, or whether a text document should be word processed/handwritten. General guidelines for briefs are provided in the module descriptor. The brief should be clear and unambiguous, allowing candidates to identify exactly what they are required to demonstrate.

Instructions
In examinations or skills demonstrations, a set of **instructions** is generally required to provide detailed information for candidates, for example, the number of questions in an examination or file names. These instructions are generally provided in written form. For example, candidates completing a skills demonstration in Funds Administration at Level 2 are provided with a set of instructions on five particular elements that will be assessed as well as the date, duration, location and/or resources or equipment provided for the skills demonstration. Similarly, a theory-based examination in Child Development will be accompanied by a set of instructions with details of the module title, the location date of the examination, its duration, and its format, for example, the number of sections and the percentage weighting of the examination. A sample cover page for use in examinations is included in this handbook and is available on www.ncva.ie.

Preparing for Assessment
Prior to assessing candidates, the internal assessor should note the following:
- The current module descriptor is the primary source of information and guidelines on assessment techniques and gathering evidence. The module descriptor for the Youth Information Skills module is included in the appendices of this handbook.
- The Regulations for Centres and Candidates provide important information on assessment requirements and regulations and should be read by all assessors in conjunction with the module descriptors.
- Key dates such as the deadlines for candidate entries and monitoring and moderation dates as printed in the Guide to FETAC Awards.
- A schedule for assessment should be drawn up within the centre, in conjunction with course coordinators and other assessors. This helps to space and sequence the collection of a candidate's portfolio of assessment.
- Sufficient opportunities should be offered to candidates to enable them to achieve the specific learning outcomes as described in each module.
- Candidates should be provided with all relevant information.

Information for Candidates
Prior to assessment, internal assessors should ensure that candidates are provided with all the relevant information. This includes:
- Relevant module descriptors, assessment criteria and deadlines for submission of evidence.
- Comprehensive assessment briefs or instructions.
- Formal notice of the centre's policy on deadlines and locations for submitting evidence, the practice of providing receipts (e.g. Date stamped) on submission of coursework, or statements from candidates testifying to the originality of evidence presented for assessment, avoiding plagiarism and acknowledging sources used for research purposes.
- Information for candidates with disabilities. See *Regulations for Centres and Candidates.*
- Information on the appeals process. See *Regulations for Centres and Candidates.*

Assessment Techniques
The following sections describe the six assessment techniques that are included in Level 2 modules. The details and guidelines provided are designed to assist the internal assessor in devising assessment.

1   Assignment
The following details and guidelines outline best practice when devising assignments.

An assignment is an exercise carried out in response to a brief with specific guidelines and is usually of short duration. It is based on a brief provided by the internal assessor which includes specific guidelines for candidates. The assignment is carried out over a period of time specified by the internal assessor.

Assignments have a minimum weighting of 20% and a maximum weighting of 30%. Assignments may take a number of forms, for example, a practical activity, a research exercise, or an evaluation following investigation of a topic.

Guidelines for devising an assignment brief
The internal assessor should ensure that the assignment brief:
- Reflects a range of specific learning outcomes as described in the module descriptor.
- Reflects the guidelines provided in section 11 of the module, including the percentage weighting of the assignment.
- Is clear and unambiguous.
- Takes into account the availability of resources and/or materials that will be required by candidates.
- Includes notice of an agreed deadline for submission of the evidence by candidates.
- Includes information such as the requirements for presentation of evidence and/or details on the integration of assessment techniques.
- Contains assessment criteria.

2   Collection of Work
The following details and guidelines outline best practice when gathering a collection of work.

A collection of work is a collection and/or selection of pieces of work produced by the candidates over a period of time that demonstrates the mastery of skills. Using guidelines provided by the internal assessor, candidates compile a collection of their own work. The collection demonstrates evidence of a range of specific learning outcomes or skills.

This body of work may be self-generated rather than carried out in response to a specific task, for example, artwork. Some collections of work require candidates to make a selection of their work and present their selection in a structured way. Collections of work have a minimum weighting of 20% and a maximum weighting of 100%.

Guidelines on gathering a Collection of Work
The internal assessor should ensure that candidates are provided with:
- A clear and unambiguous brief or instructions that reflect the specific learning outcomes as identified in the module descriptor.
- Guidelines on the range of evidence candidates are expected to compile.
- Guidelines on the format and presentation of the collection (may be proposed or negotiated).
- The assessment criteria.
- Any relevant information on resources and/or materials that candidates will require.
- Notice of an agreed deadline for submission of evidence.

3   Examination

The following details and guidelines outline best practice when devising examinations.

An examination provides a means of assessing a candidate's ability to recall and apply skills, knowledge and understanding within a set period of time and under clearly specified conditions.

Examinations may be:
- Practical, assessing the mastery of specified practical skills demonstrated in a set period of time under restricted conditions.
- Interview-style, assessing learning through verbal questioning, one-to-one or group.
- Aural testing listening and interpretation skills.
- Theory-based, assessing the candidate's ability to recall and apply theory, requiring responses to a range of question types, for example, objective, short answer, structured essay. These questions may be answered in different media for example, in writing or orally.

An examination has a minimum weighting of 20% and a maximum weighting of 100%.

Guidelines for devising an Examination

When devising an examination, the internal assessor should ensure that:
- Questions or tasks reflect the specific learning outcomes as identified in the module descriptor.
- Where appropriate, examinations have a cover page outlining details, for example, date, duration, choice and number of questions. A sample cover page is available on the website www.ncva.ie
- Instructions are clear and unambiguous.
- Confidentiality is maintained during preparation and handling of examination documents.
- Groups of candidates being assessed at different times are provided with a different examination.
- Sufficient opportunity is provided to candidates to enable them to reach the required standard. Each opportunity requires a different examination to be presented to candidates.
- Where specific resources or equipment is required, for example, computers or audio/visual equipment, these are available and in good working order.
- An outline solution and marking system has been devised.
- The allocation of marks is clear to candidates.

Practical Examinations

Practical examinations are used in a range of modules where a set period of time is allocated to candidates to demonstrate their practical skills and knowledge, for example, *database methods.* Practical examinations can also take place in the outdoors, for example, Hillwalking Proficiency.

To ensure that candidates are adequately prepared for a practical examination, they should be provided with a set of instructions outlining:
- The location and duration of the examination.
- Details of the specific learning outcomes that will be assessed and/or instructions to carry out the assessment, for example, file names.
- Materials an/or equipment that candidates are required to have or that will be provided.
- The allocation of marks.

Practical Examinations – Preparing an Audiotape

When devising a practical examination, internal assessors may be required to prepare material for use by candidates, for example in Audio Transcription. When preparing this type of material, internal assessors should ensure that:
- Appropriate instructions and information are provided for candidates.

- In the case of an examination or task, an introduction is included with clear instructions regarding the requirement of separate elements/tasks.
- Individual tasks are clearly identified by number.
- A slight pause is left between each task, and clear and unambiguous diction, tone and pace is used.

Interview-Style Examinations

When devising an interview-style examination, the internal assessor should ensure that:
- A full range of potential questions is devised that are clear and unambiguous and are based on the specific learning outcomes.
- 'Open questions' are asked, requiring a detailed answer that provides an opportunity for candidates to demonstrate their knowledge of the topic(s).
- Candidates are aware of the outcomes being assessed and how marks are allocated.
- The interview adheres to a similar format and length for all candidates.

Aural Examinations

Aural examinations are used in modules; for example, languages where listening skills are being assessed. To ensure that candidates are adequately prepared for an aural examination, they should be provided with a set of instructions, generally in writing, outlining:
- The title, location and duration of the examination.
- Details of the specific learning outcomes and/or skills that will be assessed.
- Instructions on how the examination will proceed, for example, candidates will have a set period of time to read text prior to commencement and the tape will be played a set number of times.
- Details on dictionaries or other reference materials that candidates are required to have.
- The allocation of marks.

Theory-Based Examination

Theory-based examinations assess candidates' ability to recall and apply specific theory and knowledge. They may comprise a range of question types, such as short answer, structured, or essay type questions. Examinations may be answered in different media, for example, in writing or orally.

Short answer questions require a response of limited length and can take a number of forms. Some short answer questions may seek specific words or phrases in the response, for example: *name three types of food preservatives that are used commercially.*

Structured questions are divided into a number of related parts and generally require candidates to demonstrate more in-depth knowledge and understanding of a topic. They also can seek evidence of cognitive skills such as the ability to discuss, compare, analyse, evaluate, translate or solve an issue, problem or topic.

Essay-type questions, like structured questions, require candidates to demonstrate an in-depth knowledge and understanding of a topic. They usually focus on one particular area of knowledge or understanding and seek evidence of cognitive skills such as the ability to discuss, compare, analyse, evaluate, translate or solve an issue, problem or topic.

Guidelines for Devising Examinations

The internal assessor should ensure that the examination:
- Includes a cover sheet with all relevant information pertaining to the examination for example, duration, number of questions, and use of examination stationery.
- Contains questions that are based on a range of specific learning outcome.
- Is clear and unambiguous.
- Indicates clearly what type of answer is expected – e.g. short answer or structured.

- Provides all information required for candidates to attempt each question.
- Contains questions that are self-contained, and not dependent on candidates attempting an earlier section or question.
- Indicates how marks are allocated.
- Where appropriate, is accompanied by examination stationery and/or equipment for example, answer books, specialist paper, and tape recorder.

4   Learner Record
The following details and guidelines outline best practice when preparing learner records.

A learner record is a candidates' self-reported record, in which /she describes specific learning experiences, activities, and responses, skills acquired. A learner record can take a number of forms. It can be a structured logbook, a diary, a selective record of events or experiences over a period of time, a learning journal, a laboratory notebook or a sketchbook.

Structured logbooks such as those completed in outdoor pursuits modules, provide instructions to candidates on what details should be included. A *diary or selective record* is less structured but is accompanied by guidelines on what details or activities should be included by candidates. A *learning journal* requires candidates to reflect specifically on the learning that has taken place. A *laboratory notebook* records specific scientific tasks or activities carried out and the analytical results obtained. *Sketchbooks* contain candidates' original drawings, paintings or sketches and can provide evidence of the process of reaching a finished art, craft or design piece.

The learner record must be maintained and updated by the candidate, and verified by the internal assessor.

Guidelines on Preparing a Learner Record
The internal assessor should ensure that:
- Candidates have a clear brief or set of instructions on the format of the learner record and are aware of what details should be included.
- The brief is based on a range of specific learning outcomes.
- Candidates are aware of any requirements on the preparation of the learner record, for example, format – a structured logbook or an artist's sketchbook.
- A process for maintaining and updating the learner record is agreed with candidates, as well as a deadline for submitting the completed learner record.
- Appropriate verification of candidates' records and/or statements is carried out.

5   Project
The following details and guidelines outline best practice when devising projects.

A project is a substantial individuals or group response to a brief devised by the internal assessor, and is usually carried out over a period of time specified as part of the brief. Projects may involve research, requiring investigation of a topic, issue or problem, or may involve process such as a design task, a performance or practical activity or production of an artefact or event.

The brief for a project may be negotiated with candidates or may be devised by the internal assessor based on the guidelines in the module descriptor. Where projects are undertaken by a group or as a collaborative piece of work, the individual contribution of each candidate should be clearly identified in the evidence presented. This can be achieved by identifying in advance individual components that will be completed by candidates or by including self and/or peer assessment as part of the evidence. Candidates participating in a group project may also be required to keep a personal diary as part of the project which documents and corroborates their participation.

Projects enable candidates to demonstrate achievement of a range of specific learning outcomes which include understanding and application of concepts, use of research and information, the ability to analyse and evaluate, the ability to produce or construct, mastery of tools and techniques, design skills, presentation or display skills and team working or participation skills.

Guidelines for Devising a Project Brief
The internal assessor should ensure that the project brief:
- Reflects a range of specific learning outcomes.
- Is based on the guidelines provided in section 11 of the module and indicates the percentage weighting of the project.
- Is clear and unambiguous.
- Takes into account the availability of resources and/or materials that will be required by candidates such as access to research sources.
- Includes notice of an agreed deadline for submission of the evidence by candidates.
- Includes relevant information for example requirements for presentation of the project, guidelines on group or collaborative work, and/or details on the integration of assessment techniques.
- Contains assessment criteria.

6   Skills Demonstration
The following details and guidelines outline best practice when devising a skills demonstration.

A skills demonstration enables candidate to demonstrate a broad range of practical skills and knowledge. These skills can be assessed at any time during the learning process by the assessor. The assessor may be the internal assessor or another qualified person appointed by the internal assessor, for example, the workplace supervisor. A skills demonstration may be carried out in several parts.

A skills demonstration is used in a wide range of modules to assess practical skills and knowledge, such as laboratory skills, interpersonal skills, care skills, or information technology skills.

Devising a Skills Demonstration
The internal assessor should ensure that candidates:
- Are given a brief or set of instructions that are based on a range of specific learning outcomes and the guidelines provided in section 11 of the module descriptor.
- Understand the format and content of the skills demonstration prior to it taking place.
- Are aware of the percentage weighting of the skills demonstration and the marks allocated for each aspect of the skills demonstration.
- Have access to the resources and/or materials required.
- Have sufficient opportunity to enable them to reach the required standard.
- Receive appropriate feedback on skills demonstrated.
- Are aware of the assessment criteria.

Skills Demonstration – Observation
Some skills demonstrations take the form of a structured observation, for example, in childcare.

When using a structured observation format, the internal assessors should ensure that:
- The format and method is explained to candidates.
- Candidates are provided with a clear brief or instructions describing the specific elements that will be observed.
- Candidates are informed in advance how the observation will be recorded, for example, through structured note taking.

- The requirements for gathering evidence to accompany the observations are clear.

Skills Demonstration – Oral

Some skills demonstrations focus on candidates' oral skills, for example, in the language and communications modules. Internal assessors should ensure that:
- A full range of potential questions is devised which are clear and unambiguous and are based on the specific learning outcomes described in the module descriptor.
- Questions are formulated so that candidates have adequate opportunity to demonstrate their oral skills.
- Candidates are aware of the outcomes being assessed and how marks are allocated.
- The oral skills demonstration adheres to similar format and length for all candidates.

Skills Demonstrations – Workplace or Simulated Environment

A skills demonstration can be carried out in the workplace. In this environment, the internal assessor may be the trainer or tutor, the workplace supervisor, mentor or job coach. In some cases it may be appropriate to use a simulated environment using role-play, simulation games or scenarios. Internal assessors should ensure that:
- The environment enables candidates to demonstrate a broad range of specific learning outcomes as described in the module descriptor.
- Candidates receive clear instruction and guidelines on how the assessment will proceed and what will be assessed, for example, duration, inclusion of oral questions, as appropriate.
- The environment is carefully prepared and necessary material and/or equipment is available to candidates.
- Candidates are informed in advance how marks will be allocated.

Understanding Youth Work Module Assessment

The assessment of the Understanding Youth Work Module is carried out in accordance with the FETAC regulations. Assessment is devised by the internal assessor, with external moderation by FETAC. The assessment involves a project, learner record and an assignment. The percentage weighting for each of these assessment methods is as follows:

Project	45%
Learner Record	30%
Assignment	25%

The assessment criteria for each of the above are included in the appendix of the module descriptor.

Marking and Grading

The following details and guidelines outline best practice when marking and grading evidence.

It is important that the marking and grading process is clear and transparent.

The **Individual Candidate Marking Sheet** in the module descriptor outlines the assessment criteria and allocation of marks. It is used to record the achievement of each individual candidate.

The assessment criteria state in qualitative terms what the learner has achieved.

Guidelines for Marking Evidence
- Mark the candidate's evidence according to the assessment criteria outlined in the module.

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- Mark the candidates work clearly. There should be marks, comments etc. on the actual evidence, or a note showing where candidates gained/lost marks if evidence is not paper based, for example, art piece, photograph or science experiment.
- Marks skills demonstration using assessment criteria and, where appropriate supporting evidence as outlined in the module descriptor.
- Ensure that marking calculations are accurate.

Grading

Internal assessors assign marks based on the evidence and the assessment criteria outlined on the Individual Candidate Marking Sheet. The sum of the marks outlines the candidate's grade. A candidate is awarded a Pass grade if they achieve greater than or equal to 50%, a Merit if they achieve greater than or equal to 65%, a Distinction if they achieve greater than or equal to 80%.

Internal assessors use their judgement and experience to grade evidence according t0 the standards outlined in the module descriptor. The final grade should represent a true statement of the candidate's achievement. The final grade is the sum of the marks of all the techniques.

Grading Statements

In general, the following statements indicate broadly what candidates have achieved at each grade at Level 2.

Pass

This indicates that the candidate has:
- Reached the standard as outlined by the assessment criteria in the module descriptor – a pass in the minimum acceptable standard.
- Used the language of the vocational areas competently.
- Attempted to apply the theory and concepts appropriately.
- Provided sufficient evidence which has relevance and clarity.

Merit

This indicates that the candidate has:
- Reached the standard as outlined by the assessment criteria in the module descriptor – a merit implies a good standard has been achieved.
- Used the language of the vocational area with a degree of fluency.
- Expressed and developed ideas clearly.
- Demonstrated initiative, evaluation and analytical skills.
- Presented coherent and comprehensive evidence.

Distinction

This indicates that the candidate has:
- Reached the standard as outlined by the assessment criteria in the module descriptor – a distinction implies that an excellent standard has been achieved.
- Used the language of the vocational area with fluency and confidence.
- Demonstrated in-depth understanding of the subject matter.
- Demonstrated a high level of initiative and evaluation skills.
- Demonstrated analytical and reflective thinking.
- Expressed and developed ideas clearly, systematically and comprehensively.
- Presented coherent, detailed and focused evidence.