

Commonwealth Youth Programme  
Diploma in Youth Development Work

## Module 9

# Policy Planning and Implementation

Commonwealth Secretariat  
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## The Commonwealth Youth Programme's Mission

CYP works to engage and empower young people (aged 15–29) to enhance their contribution to development. We do this in partnership with young people, governments and other key stakeholders.

Our mission is grounded within a rights-based approach, guided by the realities facing young people in the Commonwealth, and anchored in the belief that young people are:

- a force for peace, democracy, equality and good governance,
- a catalyst for global consensus building, and
- an essential resource for poverty eradication and sustainable development.

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## Introduction

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Welcome to *Policy Planning and Implementation*, which is Module 9 of the Diploma in Youth Development Work.

This module will enable you to develop the skills required to investigate, analyse and influence the policy-making processes that shape welfare services, particularly those that directly affect the quality of young people's lives. It will focus in particular on the nature and scope of youth policy – the common themes that underpin national youth policies and the characteristic tensions within such policies. The relationship between youth policies and the wider policy environment will be considered. The module will also look at the criteria for success or failure of youth policies and the evaluation of their outcomes.

Some of the content of this module is based on the work of Michael Hill, more specifically on his book *Understanding Social Policy*. This book, particularly chapter 2, is highly recommended if available as a study text, but not essential.

## Module learning outcomes

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Learning outcomes are statements that tell you what knowledge and skills you will have when you have worked successfully through a module.

### Knowledge

When you have worked through this module you should be able to:

- describe the origins, history and development of youth policies in at least two countries in your region
- compare and evaluate the similarities and differences between these two countries in regards to youth policies
- outline the main themes that underpin the formulation, development and implementation of youth policies
- demonstrate a broad awareness of the impact of youth policies on youth development work
- evaluate the effectiveness of youth policies.

### Skills

When you have completed this module, you should also have acquired the following skills. You should be able to:

- contribute to the strategic development of agencies in the youth development field through youth policy development
- evaluate the success of such policies through, for example, the use of performance indicators
- establish and/or work within partnerships created to achieve key objectives of youth policy at local level
- influence policy-making processes in a way that is appropriate to your role.

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## About this module

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The module *Policy Planning and Implementation* is divided into six units.

### **Unit 1: What is policy?**

Unit 1 provides you with the background and underpinning knowledge you need to be able to work through the rest of the units. In this unit you will gain an understanding of what policies are, how they are formulated and why they are necessary. An understanding of the nature of policy should help you to contribute effectively towards formulating the kinds of policies that will positively affect young people in the organisations and communities in which you work or live.

### **Unit 2: Defining social / welfare policy**

Unit 2 explores definitions of social / welfare policy and explores their relationships with other areas of public policy, particularly that of economic policy. You will examine the impact that social policies have on social and community development, especially in the area of youth development. This unit will also introduce you to some theories of social policy so that you can understand how certain social policies evolved and developed, especially in your own country.

### **Unit 3: What are welfare services?**

This unit will focus on welfare policy and services and attempt to explain the difference between welfare policy and social policy. It will also look at the origins of welfare services and the changes of outlook and attitude towards them that have occurred in recent times.

### **Unit 4: Nature and scope of youth policy**

Unit 4 looks at the nature of youth policies, focusing particularly on their essential qualities. You will examine the key elements that youth policies from different countries have in common and look at their similarities and differences.

### **Unit 5: Youth policy and the wider policy environment**

This unit will introduce you to the main elements of a youth policy and how such policies fit into the wider policy environment. You will also learn about the tools used for assessing policies. The purpose of this unit is to help you understand the importance of youth policy in the overall national development efforts of a country.

## Unit 6: Success and failure

In this unit, you will review the elements of a successful policy so as to enable you to examine and assess the ability of your country's national youth policy to successfully meet the needs of young women and men in your country.

This table shows which units cover the different module learning outcomes.

Module 9 Learning outcomes	1	2	3	4	5	6
<b>Knowledge</b>						
1 Describe the origins, history and development of youth policies in at least two countries in your region.	x	x				
2 Compare and evaluate the similarities and differences between these two countries in regards to youth policies.			x	x		x
3 Outline the main themes that underpin the formulation, development and implementation of youth policies.		x		x		
4 Demonstrate a broad awareness of the impact of youth policies on youth development work.				x	x	x
5 Evaluate the effectiveness of youth policies.						x
<b>Skills</b>						
6 Contribute to the strategic development of agencies in the youth development field through youth policy development.				x	x	
7 Evaluate the success of such policies through, for example, the use of performance indicators.						x
8 Establish and/or work within partnerships created to achieve key objectives of youth policy at local level.					x	
9 Influence policy-making processes in a way that is appropriate to your role.				x	x	x

# Assessment

## Methods

Your work in this module will be assessed in the following ways. These assessment methods will comprise 100 per cent of your learning requirements.

- 1 **Assignment 1** – A written assignment of 700 words maximum, which will require about 2 hours of work (worth 10 per cent of the final mark)
- 2 **Assignment 2** – A 1,500 word research assignment, which will require about 6 hours of work (worth 40 per cent of the final mark)
- 3 **Assignment 3** – A final written assignment of 1,000 words or a final written exam (worth 30 per cent of the final mark)
- 4 A review of the learning journal you keep (worth 20 per cent of the final mark).

Several exercises, some requiring field investigation and action, will be required in the course of your work on the units. You should do the first assignment after you complete Unit 2, the second after Unit 4 and the third after Unit 6.

**Note:** We recommend that you discuss the study and assessment requirements with your tutor before you begin work on the module. You may want to discuss such topics as:

- the learning activities you will undertake on your own
- the learning activities you will undertake as part of a group
- whether it is practical for you to do all of the activities
- the evidence you will produce to prove that you have met the learning outcomes – for example, learning journal entries, or activities that prepare for the final assignment
- how to relate the assignment topics to your own context
- when to submit assignments and when you will get feedback.

## Learning journal

Educational research has shown that keeping a learning journal is a valuable strategy to help learning development. It helps learners to reflect on learning, which supports them in developing a critical understanding of it. Your learning journal is where you will record your thoughts and feelings as you are learning and where you will write your responses to the study guide activities. The journal is worth 20 per cent of the final assessment. Your responses to the self-help questions can also be recorded here if you wish, though you may use a separate notebook if that seems more useful.

For this module the learning journal requires you to produce the following material:

- 1 The notes and records from the activities in each unit
- 2 At least 10 reflective entries that record reflections on your paid or unpaid face-to-face work with young people and/or other aspects of your work as a youth development worker (e.g., staff supervision, networking with other organizations). Each reflective entry should use the following format:
  - (a) Brief description of what happened and what you did.
  - (b) Brief reflection on why it happened and why you took the action.
  - (c) What ideas or theories explain (a) and (b).
  - (d) What would you do differently next time? What would you do in the same way next time? Why?

Again we recommend you discuss the assessment requirements with your tutor before you begin, including how your learning journal will be assessed.

## Self-test

Take a few minutes to try this self-test. If you think you already have some of the knowledge or skills covered by this module and answer 'Yes' to most of these questions, you may be able to apply for credits from your learning institution. Talk to your tutor about this.

**Note:** This is not the full challenge test to be held by your learning institution for 'Recognition of Prior Learning'.

Put a tick in the appropriate box in answer to the following questions:

	Yes	No	More or less
Can you describe the origins, history and development of youth policies in Commonwealth countries?			
Can you make a comparison of the similarities and differences between youth policies of countries in your region?			
Can you outline the main themes that underpin the formulation, development and implementation of youth policies?			

	Yes	No	More or less
Can you describe the implications of youth policies for youth development work?			
Are you clear on how youth policy can contribute to the strategic development of agencies that you work with in the youth development field?			
Can you evaluate the success of such youth policies?			
Can you establish and/or work within partnerships created to achieve key objectives of youth policy at local level?			
Can you influence policy-making processes in a way that is appropriate to your role?			

## Learning tips

You may not have studied by distance education before. Here are some guidelines to help you.

### How long will it take?

It will probably take you a minimum of 70 hours to work through this study guide. The time should be spent doing the activities and self-help questions, and completing the assessment tasks and studying the readings.

Note that units are not all the same length, so make sure you plan and pace your work to give yourself time to complete all of them.

### About the study guide

This study guide provides you with a unit-by-unit guide to the module you are studying. Each unit includes information, case studies, activities, self-help questions and readings for you to complete. These are all designed to help you achieve competence in the learning outcomes stated at the beginning of the module.

## Activities, self-help questions and case studies

The activities, questions and case studies are part of a planned distance education programme. It is vital that you take time to complete the activities and self-help questions as they occur in the study guide. Make sure you write full answers or take notes of any discussions. We recommend that you write your answers in your learning journal and keep it with your study materials as a record of your work. The activities may be reflective exercises designed to get you thinking about aspects of the subject matter, or practical tasks to undertake either on your own or with fellow students. Answers may be provided to some activities. A time is suggested for each activity (e.g., 'about 20 minutes'). This is just a guide. It does not include the time you will need to spend on any discussions or research involved.

The self-help questions are usually more specific and require a brief written response. Answers to them are given at the end of each unit. If you wish, you may also record your answers to these in your learning journal.

The case studies give examples, often drawn from real life, to apply the concepts in the study guide. They may be used as the basis for an activity or self-help question.

## Readings

There is a section of Readings at the end of the study guide. These provide additional information or other viewpoints and relate to topics in the units. You are expected to read these.

There is a list of references at the end of each unit. This gives details about books that are referred to in the unit. It may give you ideas for further reading. You are not expected to read all the books on this list.

**Please note:** In a few cases full details of publications referred to in the module have not been provided, as we have been unable to confirm the details with the original authors.

There is a list of Further Reading at the end of each module. This includes books and articles referred to in the module and are suggestions for those who wish to explore topics further. You are encouraged to read as widely as possible during and after the course, but you are not expected to read all the books on this list. Module 4 also provides a list of useful websites.

Although there is no set requirement, you should aim to do some follow-up reading to get alternative viewpoints and approaches. We suggest you discuss this with your tutor. What is available to you in libraries? Are there other books of particular interest to you or your region? Can you use alternative resources, such as newspapers and the internet?



## Unit summary

At the end of each unit there is a list of the main points. Use it to help you review your learning. Go back if you think you have not covered something properly.

## Icons

In the margins of the *Study Guide*, you will find these icons that tell you what to do:



### Self-help question

Answer the question. Suggested answers are provided at the end of each unit.



### Activity

Complete the activity. Activities are often used to encourage reflective learning and may involve a practical task. Answers are not provided.



### Reading

Read as suggested.



### Case study

Read these examples and complete any related self-help question or activity.

## Studying at a distance

There are many advantages to studying by distance education – a full set of learning materials is provided, and you study close to home in your own community. You can also plan some of your study time to fit in with other commitments like work or family.

However, there are also challenges. Learning at a distance from your learning institution requires discipline and motivation. Here are some tips for studying at a distance.

- 1 **Plan** – Give priority to study sessions with your tutor and make sure you allow enough travel time to your meeting place. Make a study schedule and try to stick to it. Set specific days and times each week for study and keep them free of other activities. Make a note of due dates for assessment pieces and plan for extra study time then.

- 2 **Manage your time** – Set aside a reasonable amount of time each week for your study program – but don't be too ambitious or you won't be able to keep up the pace. Work in productive blocks of time with regular rests.
- 3 **Be organised** – Have your study materials organised in one place and keep your notes clearly labelled and sorted. Work through the topics in your study guide systematically and seek help for difficulties straight away. Never leave this until later.
- 4 **Find a good place to study** – Most people need order and quiet to study effectively, so try to find a suitable place to do your work – preferably somewhere where you can leave your study materials out until next time.
- 5 **Ask for help if you need it** – This is the most vital part of studying at a distance. No matter what the difficulty is, seek help from your tutor or fellow students straight away.
- 6 **Don't give up** – If you miss deadlines for assessment pieces, speak to your tutor – together you can work out what to do. Talking to other students can also make a difference to your study progress. Seeking help when you need it is a key way of making sure you complete your studies – so don't give up!

## If you need help

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If you have any difficulties with your studies, contact your local learning centre or your tutor, who will be able to help you.

**Note:** You will find more detailed information about learner support from your learning institution.

*We wish you all the best with your studies.*

# Unit 1: What is policy?

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## Unit introduction

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Welcome to Unit 1 – *What is policy?* As this module is concerned with policy planning and implementation, this first unit will provide you with the background and underpinning information to enable you to study the rest of the units.

Unit 1 explains what a policy is and gives you a step-by-step overview of how policies are formulated, developed and implemented, and why they are necessary. It also aims to help you recognise the nature of policy so that you can contribute towards formulating and implementing the kinds of policies that will positively affect young people in the organisations and communities in which you work and live.

As you work through this unit, you will formulate your own working definition of ‘policy’ and be encouraged to discuss with others how policies are formulated and implemented in your community.

In order to complete Module 9, **it is important for you to find National Youth Policies from at least two different countries in your region (preferably your own country and one other)**. It will also be useful to find examples of economic and social policies, as well as national welfare policies. These documents will provide you with a broader understanding of the issues around policy planning and implementation. Speak to your tutor about locating these documents.

## Unit learning outcomes

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When you have worked through this unit, you should be able to:

- define ‘policy’
- describe youth policy development planning and implementation processes
- identify at least one youth policy and its formulation process.

## Policy defined

While working through the previous modules, you will have developed some of your own ideas about what policy and policy formulation mean. Take some time now to reflect on your own understanding of the word 'policy'.



### Activity 1.1

(about 5 minutes)

Before you read further, take your learning journal and write down your definition of the word 'policy'.



### Self-help question 1.1

(about 5 minutes)

Now, look at the four statements below. Which of the definitions agrees most with your understanding of the word 'policy'? Tick the definition or definitions you agree with.

- 1 A policy is a rule or law that a government hands down for a particular group of people to follow.
- 2 A policy is a commitment made by an individual or group of people to help them live or act in a certain way that is considered beneficial to their community.
- 3 A policy is a web of decisions, together with related actions, selected by a government, institution, group or individual.
- 4 A policy is a set of guidelines that help people to act or live in a certain way.

*Compare your answers with those provided at the end of the unit.*



## Activity 1.2

(about 10 minutes)

Now let's spend some time brainstorming everything you know about policy. Using your answer from Activity 1.1 and the cue words provided below, write down in your learning journal your own detailed definition of the word 'policy'. (Use these words only if they help you with your definition.)

**Cue words:**

Government	Committee
People	Participation
Action	Change
Organisation Plan	
Decision Agreement	

**Your detailed definition:**

Well done! This exercise shows that you do have some prior knowledge about policy. Now let's look at one dictionary's definition of policy. The Oxford English Dictionary defines policy as:

“an agreed position and/or a course of, or general plan of, action to be followed by government or party or individual.”



## Activity 1.3

(about 10 minutes)

Now consolidate your understanding of policy by doing the following activities:

- 1 If you have your own dictionary, look up the word 'policy' to find out if there are other meanings that will help you understand the word better.
- 2 Spend some time discussing your view of policy with a colleague at your workplace or in your community.

Remember to write notes in your learning journal to record your insights.

It is possible that different people will have different views of what policy is all about. There is nothing wrong with that – other people

may have good reasons for having a different view. Moreover, you may be able to use other people's views to expand your understanding of what policy is.

## Our definition of policy

In this module, we shall use the word 'policy' to mean:

“a set of guidelines or decisions that determine and underline the way individuals or groups of people think and behave in a certain social, cultural, economic and political environment. It is important to note that policy is not always in written form, but rather may be implied through practice. This is particularly true for individuals and informal group organisations.”

Policies help to determine our conduct in a particular setting so that social harmony and peace are maintained and our welfare is secured. While we may all be aware of formal policies that governments and agencies develop and implement, let's look in the following case study at how policies can impact community life too.



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### Case study 1.1

#### Leading the way

Visi is a young girl who lives with her mother in a village. Every day, Visi and her mother throw all their household rubbish into a big pit that they have dug in the earth behind their house. After throwing away the rubbish, they cover it with a little dirt so that the flies do not get at it.

After leaving secondary school two years ago, Visi taught her mother that it was important for them to deal with their rubbish in this way in order to prevent health problems. The only trouble, however, was that they could not get rid of the flies, which kept swarming in their kitchen every time they cooked and served their food. This was due to the fact that Visi's neighbours still threw their garbage onto uncovered heaps just outside their houses. This attracted a lot of flies to the whole neighbourhood. Visi and her mother therefore found it difficult to keep away the flies despite their own attempts to keep the place healthy.

Visi decided that it was time for her to do something about the problem. She visited the village chief and talked to him about it.

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## Activity 1.4

(about 15 minutes)

Discuss with a friend, your colleagues or fellow students the content of the conversation Visi might have had with the chief.

- What might Visi have said to and requested from the chief?
- How do you think the chief could help Visi to solve her problem?
- How could the chief help to bring about a change in the people's behaviour?

Don't forget to record your insights in your learning journal.

## Who plans and formulates policy?

Like the Oxford English Dictionary, many of us think that policy planning is only done by governments. But as we have found out, making or having a policy in place is not something confined to government. Policy planning is done all the time by many kinds of people in a variety of settings, including:

- businesses
- governments
- NGOs (non-governmental organisations)
- village councils
- committees
- families.

In the case study above, you may have worked out that the village chief, together with other stakeholders, could have formulated a policy to help solve Visi's problem. By sharing her problem with the village chief and offering a solution, Visi will also have participated in formulating the policy.

Policies that have an impact on our lives are being made every day by the different organisations and individuals around us. These include policies on:

- conception
- birth
- schooling
- voting

- parenting
- old age
- drugs
- natural resources.

So every part of our lives is affected by policies. Now let's apply this learning to our own lives. The following activity gives you a chance to find out about how policy affects you as an individual and as a member of an organisation or community. In later exercises in this unit, you will also find out who makes these policies, how they are made and why they are made in your own local context. Take some time to discuss the questions and compare answers with your fellow students, colleagues, friends or elders before finalising your notes in your learning journal.



### **Activity 1.5**

(about 15 minutes)

1. Use the space provided below to list three policies that affect you that are made by government agencies.
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
2. In the space below, list three policies that affect you that are made by non-government agencies (e.g., churches, village committees).

Write these reflections in your learning journal.

## Policy impact and implementation

So we now know that policies can be made by a variety of government and non-government agencies. However, what is the reason for policy implementation? Policies are made for various reasons, but they aim to have an impact on individuals or groups in a community. Therefore, policies need to be carefully planned to achieve the desired effects on people. A policy that is not carefully formulated or planned or that fails to address the concerns of almost all the stakeholders may bring about harmful effects.

To ensure that policies are properly implemented, planning and formulation should involve as many people as possible, especially those who will be affected by the policy.



### Self-help question 1.2

(about 5 minutes)

Tick True or False for each of these statements.

- |  | True                     | False                    |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1 Only governments and NGOs are involved in policy planning in an organisation or community. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2 As many people as possible should be involved in policy planning and formulation.          | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3 Policy planners only make policies that are to be implemented by the planners themselves.  | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

*Compare your answers with those provided at the end of the unit.*

The following task is a continuation of the one you did in Activity 1.5. Its purpose is to enable you to identify the policies that currently have an impact on your life.



## Activity 1.6

(about 20 minutes)

Look at the table below and complete it using the information that you provided in Activity 1.5. Again, we encourage you to talk to your colleagues, friends and elders to gather information on the policies that particularly affect young people.

We have started with two examples to give you an idea of what to do. Once you have completed your research, create a table like the one below in your learning journal, and add three more policies that have an impact on you.

Impact of policies on individuals	
Policies that have an impact on me	What impact they have on me
1 Youth Education Act	The Act says that I must start school at the age of 5 and stay until the age of 15.
2 Prohibition of noise in the village	No-one is allowed to make any noise in the village between 6 pm and 7 pm because this is the time that most families have prayers. Anyone who breaks this rule has to pay a fine to the village council.
3	
4	
5	

The next step in this process is to identify the organisation that made the policy and to determine how it was made. Below is another table for you to fill out the details for each of the three policies you added above.

Again, an example has been provided for you follow.

Who made the policy?	How was it made (the process)?
e.g., Noise in the village - The village council.	The policy was discussed at a council meeting and adopted by the village council.
1	
2	
3	

Now that you have all this information, you can put it together into one table using the following headings:

- Policy
- Impact
- Who made it
- How it was made

Use your learning journal to record your table of information.

Well done! You have now completed a simple analysis of three policies that have an impact on you. You may have discovered that policies are made in different ways, but that a key element to successful policy formulation is consulting with all the stakeholders to include their perspectives and assist in building a policy that will affect the community in a positive way. Keep this in mind as you review the following self-help question to clarify what you have learned about policies in the unit so far. Write down your answers then check them against those provided at the end of the unit. If your answers are very different from those given at the end of the unit, work through the relevant sections of Unit 1 again and have a conversation with your tutor.



### Self-help question 1.3

(about 35 minutes)

- 1 List the people and groups that are responsible for making policy within your organisation or community.
- 2 Explain the underlying reasons for formulating and implementing policy.
- 3 How do policies assist in promoting social harmony and goodwill within a community?

*Compare your answers with those provided at the end of the unit.*

In the examples used in Activities 1.5 and 1.6, you may have found it quite easy to determine how policies are made and how they have an impact on people. Later in this module, you will be introduced to a more complex analysis of policy formulation. This involves investigating how existing policies are going to affect any new policies that you wish to establish or introduce. As a youth worker, you will need to have a good understanding of existing policies so that you can initiate or formulate new ones that will be relevant and useful for youth development in your community and organisation.



Now turn to Reading 1 – *Young people and policy development* by Meg Westhorp – and look at some ideas of how you might become involved in this policy development.

Also read Reading 2 – *Solomon Islands Youth Policy Paper*. This will broaden your understanding of policy.

## Unit summary

In this unit, you have covered the following main points:

- the definition of policy
- a simple analysis of policies – i.e., who makes them, how they are made and the impact they have on a community
- how policies are formulated by government and non-government agencies
- how policies are made in order to bring about social harmony and balance within a community or organisation.

At the end of this Unit, you should have completed six Activities. From these, you must have registered at least three reflective entries in your learning journal for assessment.

Review the learning outcomes at the beginning of this unit and see if you are now able to do them. Look through your learning journal again and take this chance to review all your entries.

In the next unit, we will explore different categories of policies, and define social / welfare policy and determine how it is linked to other aspects of public policy. Unit 2 will also provide you with an opportunity to explore how social policy affects social and community development, especially for young women and men.

## Answers to self-help questions

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### Self-help question 1.1

We hope you agreed with all four of them, because they all help in some way towards an understanding of the word 'policy'.

### Self-help question 1.2

- 1 False
- 2 True
- 3 False.

### Self-help question 1.3

- 1 People and groups who are responsible for making policy include:
  - government
  - business organisations
  - village councils
  - committees
  - NGOs
  - individuals.
- 2 Some reasons include:
  - to provide guidelines on how individuals or groups should act in certain situations or contexts
  - to direct people's behaviour in an accepted manner
  - to help organisations to manage their human and physical resources more effectively
  - to help individuals and groups achieve certain objectives that affect their lives and situations.
- 3 Policies help to promote social harmony and goodwill within a community by setting out the rules and regulations under which people are to behave so that their actions and attitudes do not conflict with the interests and beliefs of others with whom they interact socially, culturally or economically.



# Unit 2: Defining social / welfare policy

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## Unit introduction

Welcome to Unit 2 *Defining social / welfare policy*. In this unit, we examine the nature, context and scope of social / welfare policies. The unit will explore the relationships between social policy and other areas of public policy. We will begin by tracing the history of the general changes in public policy in capitalist economies since the Second World War. We will also examine how these changes have been brought about by changes in the world political economy. You will learn the impact that social policies may have on social and community development, especially in the area of youth development.

This unit will also introduce you to several theories of social policy. Although none of these may directly describe the social policy system in your country, we hope that, by reading through them and thinking about them, you can start to develop a theoretical framework of your own to help you understand how the social policies in your country have developed, and how they fit into the rest of your social system. This knowledge will help you develop an understanding of what you can do, in your work, to influence the policy development process in your region.

As you progress through the study of this unit, we will assist you in developing a definition of social / welfare policy and identifying those agencies that determine these policies in your country. As you undertake the activities, we will ask that you find out about the social / welfare services provided in your country. You will also find out how social / welfare policy relates to other types of public policies that affect social and community development. As you complete this unit, you will recognise the important link between your country's social / welfare policy and its economic policy.

Assignment 1 comes at the end of this unit.

## Unit learning outcomes

When you have worked through this unit, you should be able to:

- in your own words, write a brief overview of the origins, history and development of youth policies in at least two countries in your region
- define social / welfare policy and describe how it relates to public policy
- compare at least two theories of social policy, referring to government involvement in its implementation.

## Defining social / welfare policy

More than thirty years ago, in an attempt at developing a philosophical understanding of the social / welfare policy development process at the national level, British educationist Maurice Kogan argued that:

- 1 National policy is the outcome of a country's values.
- 2 National policy converts the things that a society values highly into a prescription (or set of guidelines) about what must be done in practice in the course of running a society. (1975, p.55)

If and when you look at your own country's policy statements about education, health, the economy and so on, you should be able to see:

- 1 What your leaders think the values of your society really are.
- 2 How your leaders think those values can be made to fit into the real world in which you live.

Kogan's idea is a very simplified view of the social policy development process. If we are going to help you recognise this process as part of your essential understanding of youth development work, we need to closely examine how policy develops and why it changes. However, before we begin, you certainly already have an idea of what social policy is and how welfare policy fits into it. Write it down as part of Activity 2.1.



### Activity 2.1

(about 10 minutes)

In your learning journal, write down what you think is a good definition of social policy and welfare policy, according to your beliefs.

Well done. Now, let's start by focusing on part of the explanation of how social / welfare policy develops and why it changes, and some of the results of the process. To do this, we will examine the work done by Michael Hill (2003) in the area of social policy.



If you have access to Michael Hill's book *Understanding Social Policy*, Basil Blackwell and Martin Robertson and Co., Oxford, 2003 (7<sup>th</sup> ed.), we recommend that you now read the first chapter, as it is very relevant to what you are studying.

If you don't have access to a copy of Hill's book, don't worry, as the information provided in this unit will be enough for you to have a good understanding of the social / welfare policy development process and evolution.

## A focus on Hill

Although Hill (2003) presents only one of the many available views on the development and effects of social / welfare policy, we believe that the explanations and definitions that he provides are particularly relevant for this unit because he bases his analysis on the British system. As you know, the countries of the Commonwealth were formerly colonies of the British Empire, and so most of their administrative systems have followed the British system. When these countries gained their independence, each country recognised the need to adapt its system to meet its own local needs, but the fact remains that the British Empire provided the basis for the original structure on which these changes were made and developed. Additionally, contemporary changes in the political economy in the UK are soon fed through to many of the countries of the Commonwealth.

Hill (2003) treats social policy as an aspect of public policy. He argues that it is difficult to separate these two very precisely, but he also says that some areas of social policy – like education, housing and health – no longer fit easily into the category of ‘public’ policies. This is because it’s difficult to say to what extent these three services are nowadays provided by private enterprise rather than public funding. It is also difficult to determine how much government intervention there is, or how much government intervention is even legally acceptable, in the provision of these services by private enterprise.

In an interview (published on the internet) at the time of the publication of the seventh edition of his book (2003), Hill puts things this way:

“But it was the changes to the way in which social policy is delivered in the UK that have been most fundamental. From the mid-1980s onward there was a succession of changes – the privatisation of much policy delivery, the restriction of the role of local government, the development of agencies within central government – which made social policy delivery much more complex. This process of institutional change has continued since Labour came to power in 1997, proclaiming a pragmatic commitment to diverse policy delivery methods and the promotion of complex partnerships. Ironically, whilst politicians – of all parties – claim to be concerned about “participation” or “consumerism” and “joined-up government”, what has been done is to make these things more difficult to achieve. Where people once knew that services came from “the council” or from governmental agencies with recognisable names, they now encounter private companies, voluntary agencies or government offices that seem to change their names and their logos with every government reshuffle.”

These changes in the public / private arena have contributed to the important work of non-governmental organisations (NGOs) at the community level. NGOs and other not-for-profit organisations are

vital, even in the developed world, because so many gaps in welfare provision have appeared following the changes Hill talks about in the above interview. Welfare provision can be defined as the provision of a minimum level of support (income or services) for disadvantaged groups such as the poor, elderly, disabled, etc. In America – the world’s wealthiest country – NGOs have had to be formed, for example, just to provide people with clean water in cities like Detroit where water provision has been privatised.

Let’s look at the field of social welfare. We can define social welfare as the way in which people, communities, institutions and governments aim at providing assistance to maintain certain levels of income and well-being for individuals living in a society. It is generally about helping people facing difficulties. In Britain, like many other countries in the world, social welfare has become penetrated by private organisations motivated by profit. And this powerfully influences the availability of welfare for the poor. The present Labour Government in Britain has a key policy for bringing children out of the poverty that many of them have been in as a result of the privatisation policies of the Conservative governments of the 1980s and 1990s.

Based on what you’ve studied so far about Hill’s views of social / welfare policy, work on the following activity.



## Activity 2.2

(about 20 minutes)

Read the definition you wrote in your learning journal in Activity 2.1. Now write down a definition of social / welfare policy by focusing on the similarities and differences between what you have said and what Hill says. Discuss your ideas with your colleagues, friends or fellow students so that you get a broader understanding of social / welfare policy.

If you write down something that is different from Hill’s views, don’t worry. It does not make it wrong. The points that you have made may actually be more appropriate for your country or region.

Good job. Now, let’s look at other definitions of social / welfare policy.

## Other definitions

On the Robert Gordon University’s website, Professor Paul Spicker (2006) defines social policy as follows:

“Social Policy is the study of social services and the welfare state. In general terms, it looks at the idea of social welfare, and

its relationship to politics and society. More specifically, it also considers detailed issues in

- policy and administration of social services, including policies for health, housing, income maintenance, education and social work;
- needs and issues affecting the users of services, including poverty, old age, health, disability and family policy; and
- the delivery of welfare.”

The term ‘welfare state’ refers to the ideology that the welfare of citizens is primarily a state responsibility. This means that welfare services are provided mainly by the government. As you have been learning, over the last few years governments have started to shift some of those responsibilities to the private sector – hence the debate about whether welfare / social policy should be in the realm of national policy.

Let’s look at one more definition, that of Wikipedia, The Free Encyclopedia (2006), which has a very similar definition of social policy:

“Social policy relates to guidelines for the changing, maintenance or creation of living conditions that are conducive to human welfare. Thus social policy is that part of public policy that has to do with social issues such as public access to social programs. Social policy aims to improve human welfare and to meet human needs for education, health, housing and social security.”

On the basis of his own analysis, Hill (2003) decided that the following areas are defined primarily as fields of social policy:

- social security
- personal social services (social work and ‘social care’ services)
- health
- education
- employment
- housing

Modern welfare systems typically include all these areas. But it hasn’t always been like this. Let’s look at how modern welfare systems evolved in the last century.



Turn to the end of this module and read about the origins of the modern welfare system in Reading 3. This text will give you a good overview of the evolution of welfare systems over the last century. Read it with a critical eye and, if you have the opportunity, discuss with your colleagues some of the issues around the evolution of these systems and the political environments in which they developed.



## Activity 2.3

(about 20 minutes)

Here is an activity to help you find out what you can learn about the provision of social / welfare services in your country. Don't forget to jot down your answers and thoughts in your learning journal.

- 1 For each of the areas listed, name the government agencies with overall responsibility for providing these services in your community or country. An example has been done for you. (Note: in many countries, responsibilities are fragmented across several agencies, leading to several overlaps.)
  - Health: ... Ministry of Health and Medical Services ...
  - Social security:
  - Personal social services:
  - Education:
  - Employment:
  - Housing:
- 2 Now do the same for non-governmental agencies. If you do not know of providers from the non-governmental sector for any of these areas, write the words 'not known' next to it.
  - Health:
  - Social security:
  - Personal social services:
  - Education:
  - Employment:
  - Housing:
- 3 From the information you gather, what could you say about the extent to which government agencies provide these areas of social policy as compared to the non-governmental agencies? What are the effects of this balance?



## Analysing social / welfare policy

### The social democratic model

Hill (2003) puts forward several key points in analysing social policy. In his 2003 interview, he explains that his book was partly written to explore two issues:

- 1 the view that social policy could operate as an effective weapon against poverty and inequality
- 2 the acceptance of public bureaucracies as the main instrument of social policy delivery.

These two ideas were challenged in the UK from 1979 by successive Conservative governments, which argued that social inequality should be accepted – and so should high unemployment – in order to keep the country's capitalist economy growing. Hill found in his study that this had caused:

- a substantial increase in poverty
- a marked weakening of the capacity of social institutions to alleviate it.

In other words, the British social democratic welfare policies of the post-war era had succeeded in alleviating poverty through the agency of social institutions and social policies. These policies were social democratic policies influenced by Marxist welfare principles. Because of the change in the world's economy described in Reading 3, we are now in a situation – and this is one of the reasons for offering this Diploma – where Marxist ideas have lost their credibility throughout the capitalist world, paving the way for a powerful resurgence of Adam Smith's (1776) free trade ideas as the key to wealth creation. Smith's ideas advocate that the best way to guarantee economic growth is through promoting and safeguarding free trade policies.

Consequently, as social democratic institutions have lost much of their economic power to bring about improvements in equality and poverty reduction, they have also lost some of their ideological power. A socialist ideology is evident more in the not for profit sector, among groups dealing with problems like child poverty, while a belief in the effectiveness of internal and international trade to raise people's overall standards of living and to lift people out of unemployment and poverty is growing at government level. This view is clearly expressed in the UK Department for International Development booklet, *Trade Matters in the fight against world poverty* (Doney and Wroe, 2005).

The British state's social policies were never merely welfare oriented. As Hill (2003) said,

“...first, the policies that are identified as ‘social’ should not be interpreted as if they were conceived and implemented with

only the welfare of the public in mind; second, that other policies, not conventionally identified as social policies, may make a comparable, or even a greater, contribution to welfare; third, that public policy should be seen as a whole in which social policies are significantly interlinked with other public policies. Just because it is convenient to single out some policies for special attention...we should not thereby fall into the trap of seeing these as the main government contributions to welfare, or the 'general good'."

In other words, British social democratic social policy had been designed with the whole social and economic system in mind, of which welfare is only a part. The post-war Labour and then Conservative governments had also primarily aimed to boost industrial growth, in the understanding that it was the only way in which enough wealth could be created to support social welfare, and that much welfare was about making the workforce healthy and educated enough to work intelligently and productively.

Hill later goes on to say that other social policy writers, such as Cloward and Piven (1974), identify the purpose of social policy as a response to social unrest.

## **The Marxist model**

Cloward and Piven's (1974) perspective is consistent with a Marxist view that social democratic policy in capitalist societies is equivalent to policies of social control. Policies that are more obviously social control oriented are those that are designed to combat crime and disorder. Less obvious are those that are considered to be for the good of the nation, like education.

However, the willingness to combine welfare ideals with political expediency has always been a feature of social democratic social policy. For example, if we look at when the raising of the school leaving age was implemented in New Zealand and the UK, we find that this is linked to rising youth unemployment and measures to cut welfare payments. In New Zealand, there has been talk about raising the school leaving age from 15 to 18 years. This discussion is happening at a time when government is attempting to lower its spending on welfare. The implication of such a move is that if a young person remains at school, government's only expense is education. Parents continue to be responsible for their children's day-to-day living expenses.

What one sees here are social democratic social policies (influenced by Marxist ideas) compromised by being pursued in a capitalist rather than a state capitalist society such as the former Soviet Union, characterised by state interference in all aspects of national policy.

One has to turn to the example of a country such as Cuba, formerly a very poor Caribbean society dominated by American big business, to

examine actual Marxist social policy in action. An Oxfam America report describes Cuban social policy and its impact as follows:

“...the model of social development has underscored equity across society and universal access. Full responsibility rests on Government to fund and deliver social entitlements. These values have framed the development and implementation of social policy during the last forty years. During this time Cuba has instituted free and universally accessible health care and education and has built on its formerly weak pension system to develop a universal and government-sponsored one. Cuba’s safety net of benefits includes protection of workers’ employment and housing, food subsidies, utilities and other necessities, and mechanisms to assist vulnerable families without stigma. The results have been quite positive. Adult literacy is nearly 96% and schooling rates have risen dramatically. Infant mortality has decreased, drug use and crime are subdued compared with other countries, and youth violence is minimal.” (Uriate, 2002)

In the post-war socialist administration in the UK that set up the welfare state, these Marxist principles were at the heart of much government thinking and policy development. But the gradual shift to a capitalist society has made it difficult to sustain these welfare values in the last 30 years.



### Activity 2.4

(about 20 minutes)

What are your views on social policy in your country?

Discuss the social policy models you have learned about with your colleagues and friends and see whether there are any examples of social democratic, or even Marxist, policies put in place in your country that appear to be positive for social development, especially in the areas affecting young women and men.

Register what you think are the more meaningful results of the discussion in your learning journal.



## Self-help question 2.1

(about 5 minutes)

Look at the statements below and state whether they are true or false.

	True	False
1 Social policy is one aspect of public policy.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2 Social control policies only come in negative forms when applied to social policy.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3 Only social policies contribute towards social and community development in a country.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

*Compare your answers with those provided at the end of the unit.*

## Social policy in context

In Activity 2.3, you found out about the kinds of social services provided by the government and non-governmental agencies in your country. Using that information, you will have learned that the social and welfare services provided by your country are covered by its social policies. However, as Hill (2003) says, social policy is closely linked to other public policy that may have an important impact on it.

Two specific areas that he identifies are foreign affairs and economic policy. Hill (2003) argues that the area of foreign affairs is vitally relevant to all other policy areas since no country can consider internal matters if its national security is threatened. The role of economic policy is complex, and we will discuss its impact on social policy in more detail later in this unit.

The following self-help question is designed to help you review some of the major concepts you have covered. Take a few minutes to complete it now.



## Self-help question 2.2

(about 15 minutes)

Before you write down your answers to these questions, have a discussion with your student colleagues, friends or elders to get more information and clarify your ideas.

- 1 List two reasons why economic policy might have an impact on social policy.
  
  
  
  
  
  
  
- 2 Now list two reasons (other than the one outlined above) why foreign affairs policy might have an impact on social policy.

*Compare your answers with those provided at the end of the unit.*

## Policy areas are linked

This brings to our attention the fact that social policy should not be analysed or discussed in isolation. It is inextricably linked to other types of public policy. This link becomes clearer if we think of social and economic development. Just and equitable social development is founded on economic prosperity: economic growth is vital to economic prosperity and therefore to social development. Economic growth determines economic policy, which then determines the budget of the government and what it is prepared and able to spend on welfare. However, economic development does not necessarily guarantee social welfare and social protection. It is necessary, but not sufficient. Think of the plight of the poor in cities like Detroit and Paris, which boast a sound economy but fail to provide an equitable welfare system.

There are other policies (especially the sectoral ones such as housing policies, insurance policies, tourism policies, etc.) that may not be seen as social or welfare policy but that may in fact make an important contribution to social and community development. An example is trade policy, which can only be effective in poor countries

if rich countries' trade policies permit. For example, “if *European Union and United States cotton subsidies were removed, cotton exports from sub-Saharan Africa could increase by up to 75%*” (Doney and Wroe, 2005). This would improve economic growth and feed into higher incomes, improved health and better education.

In Self-help Question 2.2 above, you may have found out that the two areas of economic policy and foreign affairs, which were identified by Hill as having an indirect impact on social policy, do in fact have some crucial effects on it.



### Activity 2.5

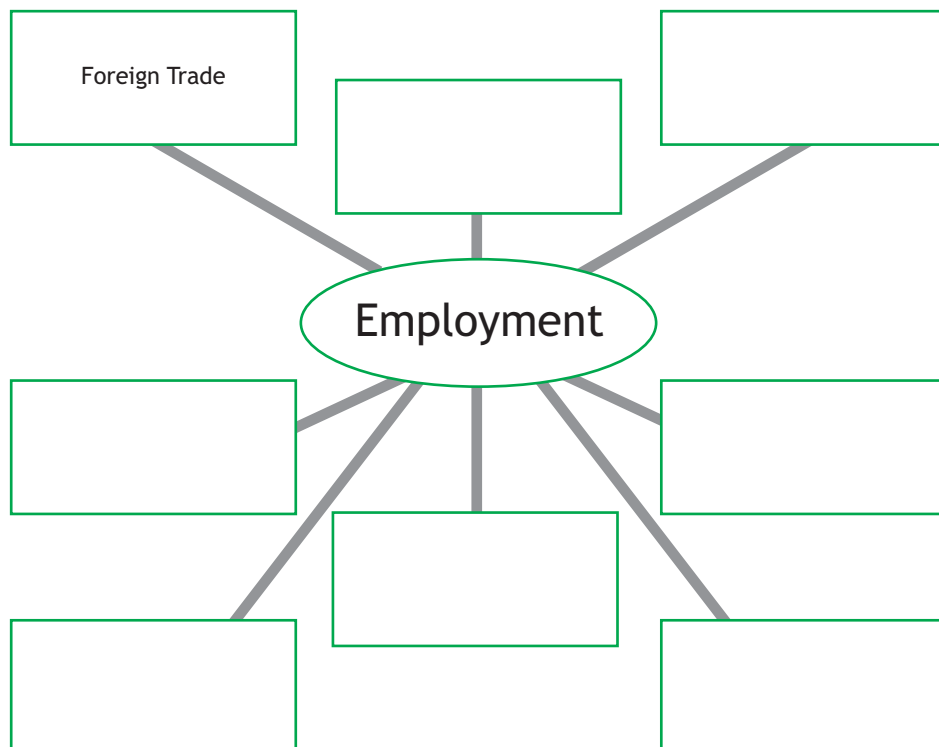
(about 20 minutes)

Can you identify any other types of policies that are not social policy but that still contribute to social/community development? What are they? Register your thoughts in your learning journal.

Below is a mindmap / diagram that has been developed around a youth employment policy. Think laterally and fill in the blanks indicating what other policy areas can be connected to the employment policy (see the example given). You can add more spaces if you can think of more policy areas of linkage.

The best way to do this exercise is to discuss it with people around you. The more people you discuss it with, the more information you will get.

Register your findings in your learning journal.



## Social policy and economic policy

The most important link that social policy makes with any other policy area in the public sector is with economic policy. In the activity above you discovered that foreign affairs policies affect social policy mostly through economic factors such as trade relationships and aid, which are provided by foreign governments with which the host country has fostered close relationships. Hill (2003) says that the key political issue in this context is who controls the economy.

The social implications of the linkage between social and economic policy are that:

- the main factors that determine welfare are economic
- the government's role in putting resources into social policy is closely linked to its role in economic management
- social policies are determined by views about the way the economy does or should operate: social-democratic, Marxist or free-market.

So specific social policies can be understood in terms of their relationship with economic policies.

### Public housing

One policy area that Hill (2003) has highlighted in social policy development is public housing. He raises the following issues:

- What are the effects of public housing on the market for housing?
- How far are market forces more influential in determining who gets what than state intervention?

This is particularly interesting in the UK, as well as in developed countries like Australia, Canada and New Zealand. In the UK, a major aspect of the social democratic welfare programme of the 1945–1980 period was the massive schemes of high quality council house building to replace the housing destroyed by wartime bombing and pre-war neglect and poverty.

When social democratic policies gave way to free market ideas in the 1980s, the first policy to be destroyed was that of council house building, and housing then became a matter for private investment or rent. Council houses were sold off where possible to their owners, a very popular policy among many who now became property owners for the first time. This led, however, to a buoyant housing market in which there was less supply, high demand and prices soaring out of reach of the poor – and especially young people who wanted to own their own homes. Today this constitutes a housing crisis of considerable significance and is arguably a major cause of social inequity.

Now let's apply the same principle to another social policy that affects youth in your country.



## Activity 2.6

(about 20 minutes)

Choose one policy affecting youth in your country and, in your learning journal, write down some questions that link it with economic policy. An example is given for you to follow:

Social policy (youth)	Economic implications
<p><b>Policy name:</b> Youth enterprise scheme</p>	<p>What are the lending conditions and implications? Is this a substitute benefit programme? How does it move people off benefit or redirect them from benefit?</p>
<p><b>Policy name:</b> Add your example here.</p>	

Use your learning journal to record your table of information.

Hill (2003) argues that there is more to social policy than welfare or the provision of social services; social policy does not stand alone, but is impacted upon by a number of factors. The most important factor is its link with economic policy.



## Self-help question 2.3

(about 15 minutes)

Explain in your own words the nature of the relationship between economic policy and social policy.

*Compare your answers with those provided at the end of the unit.*



## Government involvement in social policy

In his study of social policy, Hill (2003) suggests that we may use two methods to determine the level and extent of government intervention in social policy. The two methods involve the following steps:

- identifying institutions and the policies they administer
- posing questions that help to determine whether or not there are services and policies that care for the sick, disabled, elderly and dependent.

Let's do this now.



### Activity 2.7

(about 20 minutes)

Identify a policy that affects young women and men and then pose the questions Hill suggests by completing the following table. We have given you some examples.

Institution	Services and policies that care for the dependent
Ministry of Health	<b>Dental care to the age of 16</b> Is this care free and universally applicable? What contribution is made by families? Does the evidence suggest that it is widely used and easy to access?
Ministry of Youth Affairs	<b>Education policy</b> Is it policy that everyone takes national exams at Grade 10? Is the take-up affected by social class grouping, tribal grouping, etc?
Add your example in your learning journal.	

The two steps mentioned above, according to Hill (2003), are the first of a series in the whole process of determining government involvement in social policy. The next steps include:

- examining the apparent strengths and weaknesses of specific policies
- examining the extent to which the state meets people's actual social needs
- analysing the extent to which policies contribute to social equality.

Hill (2003) argues that there are intellectual traditions that help us answer these questions. He refers to defensive Fabianism, classical liberalism and Marxist / socialist theory.

In the next section we examine these and several other theories.

## Theories of social policy

---

Other analysts of social policy have put forward six theories. These are:

- 1 Classical liberalism (residual theory)
- 2 Industrial society theory (institutional theory)
- 3 Marxist / socialist theory (normative theory).

Because these first three theories are very broad in scope, related theories have been developed that are closer to the way the issues appear in reality. These are:

- 4 Welfare pluralism
- 5 Defensive Fabianism
- 6 Radical reformism.

In the next paragraphs, you will find some short definitions of each of these theories plus sets of questions / activities. The purpose of the questions and activities is to encourage you to think about the way in which your country has pursued social policy development and the impact it has had on young women and men. When thinking about and discussing these theories, you should try to put them into a social, political and economic context. This will give form to your ideas.

### 1 Classical liberalism

This theory is primarily concerned with the free market as the root of the economic system. The main assumption derives from Adam Smith's argument that the best way to guarantee economic efficiency, quality and growth is through the promotion and safeguarding of free trade (1776). Competition will ensure that only the efficient survive, and the laws of capitalist development mean that there will be continual growth as profit is ploughed back into ways of making production more competitive.

In other words, the role of government is to stimulate economic growth and recovery, in order to increase general social wealth. This means that the state will involve itself as little as possible in providing social welfare services, and, where it already does, it may withdraw to some extent from them.



## Activity 2.8

(about 20 minutes)

Now think about social policy in your country and answer the following questions. Record your answers in your learning journal.

- Does your country pursue a classical liberal philosophy? In what way?
- What implications does the classical liberal position have for young women and men in relation to the policies that affect them?

## 2 Industrial society theory

This theory recognizes the market as important but in need of regulation. So it argues against giving primacy to the economic system and for an equal balance between the economic and social systems. The public policy approach therefore is based on state management of the economy and social policy. The level of employment is the key economic and social indicator of how successful this approach is.



## Activity 2.9

(about 20 minutes)

- 1 Think about your own country.
  - How often is employment used as an indicator of the performance of the country's economy?
- 2 Find at least two articles in the newspaper and record (if you can) or listen to two radio or television newscasts where employment was discussed.
  - In what context was employment discussed?
  - What did the article or TV / radio broadcast say about the economy and employment?
  - What are the implications for young women and men in the short term and long term?

Register your insights in your learning journal.

## 3. Marxist / socialist theory

You have already learned what Marxist social policy looks like in a socialist society – Cuba. Marxist social theory in relation to our

societies is based on the idea that in capitalist societies there is a conflict between two major economic groups: one dominant social class, which owns or profits from the means of production, finance and distribution (the bourgeoisie); and one subordinate class, which provides the means of labour to make the system work (the working class or proletariat). The economy works through converting the profit from proletarian labour power into more and more capital-intensive production, which generates ever greater wealth, in spite of being subject to periodic crisis and breakdown.

The role of the capitalist state is to ensure the best conditions for this kind of capital accumulation, through the construction of infrastructure and the provision of services like education and health that will guarantee that the accumulation process occurs unhampered. The capitalist state is based in a capitalist economy, controlled by the government.



### Activity 2.10

(about 20 minutes)

Think about your country or region. Now reflect on the following questions in relation to Marxist / socialist theory and write down your answers in your learning journal.

- Is this effectively what the state is doing in your society, or does it also have a more altruistic side?
- What are the political, economic and social implications of such a system?
- How does this affect young women and men when the accumulation process is successful? What about when it is in crisis or breaks down?



### Self-help question 2.4

(about 10 minutes)

State one point of similarity or difference between the classical liberalism and the Marxist / socialist theories.

*Compare your answers with those provided at the end of the unit.*

## 4. Welfare pluralism

This theory is a mix of classical liberalism and industrial society theory where social / welfare services are provided by a mix of state, voluntary and commercial organisations.



### Activity 2.11

(about 20 minutes)

Think about your country or region and answer the following questions. Write down your answers in your learning journal.

- What countries in your region have a system of welfare pluralism in place?
- What are your reasons for stating this?
- What is the position of young women and men in this system?

## 5. Defensive Fabianism

This theory argues for social / welfare and economic policies to be given equal emphasis, with equitable redistribution as the goal of social policy. There are, however, two schools of thought as to how this can be done.

- 1 This should be achieved through centralised intervention agreed to by a consensus of the state, the business sector and the general population. The general population are described as 'labour' or 'the workers'.
- 2 This should be achieved through a decentralised system where needs are more precisely targeted and benefits and services are fine-tuned to actual needs.



### Activity 2.12

(about 20 minutes)

Once again, refer to the reality in your country or region before answering the following questions. Write down your answers in your learning journal.

- Is there any aspect of either of these two approaches of defensive Fabianism in your country?
- If your answer is yes, what are your reasons for saying this?
- If your answer is no, why do you think this is so?
- What might be the impact of either approach on young women and men in your society?

## 6. Radical reformism

This theory accepts the principle that the welfare state should be interventionist and should practice social control. However, it questions the idea that society is class-based in the way suggested by Marxists. It argues that society consists of a variety of groups and movements that are loosely connected, and these should be integrated into a process of participative decision-making in relation to social policies.



### Activity 2.13

(about 20 minutes)

Think about the following questions in general and write down your answers in your learning journal.

- How do you think radical reformism would work in practice?
- What is your reasoning?
- How would it impact on young women and men?

## Theories are value based

All these theories or positions are based on people's values. Much of the debate and discussion that occurs about social / welfare policy reflects the values of the analysts. Your own society, particularly at local and regional level, may well be based on other kinds of values from the ones we have been looking at, such as Buddhist or Islamic values.

For example, the most recently established welfare policy-oriented NGO we know about has been developed in Pakistani Kashmir. Its aims are to collect enough funds and other forms of welfare from Kashmiris at home and abroad, in order that these can be distributed to the poor in times of need, so that poor people will no longer have to experience the ignominy of begging. This NGO has been inspired by a reading by a small Koranic study group of several verses in the Koran and Hadith related to zakat, one of the five pillars of Islam (discussed further in Unit 3).

In the end, what you need to be clear about are:

- the particular policies and their underlying principles that your country, village, community or organisation is pursuing and the way this is likely to impact on your work
- the extent to which your approach in the field can embody local policies and principles and combine these fruitfully with the principles underpinning the Diploma

- the influence that both of these will have on how you develop and design your own ongoing response to social policy.



## Case study 2.1

### Youth engagement

Jonasi has just finished secondary school and now lives with his parents in his village. There are many other young people like Jonasi who have completed secondary school but who are not involved in any gainful employment, whether for themselves or their family. The people in his community, along with his parents, all consider Jonasi and his friends to be failures.



### Activity 2.14

(about 20 minutes)

Read over the case study and answer the following questions in your learning journal.

- What do you think is wrong with the values underpinning this kind of situation?
- How can the government help Jonasi and his friends to become useful members of their community?
- What kind of state and/or local social policy would enable and encourage Jonasi to utilise the skills he has learnt at school?



### Self-help question 2.5

(about 20 minutes)

From your reading in this unit, explain how you think social policy might have a direct impact on youth development.

*Compare your answers with those provided at the end of the unit.*

## Unit summary

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In this unit, you have covered the following main points:

- social policy as an integral part of public policy
- the nature of the relationship between economic policy, social policy and economic change
- how social policies contribute towards community development, and therefore youth development
- different theories underlying social policies
- certain social policies evolve depending on the historical and economic background of the countries concerned.

You have examined some definitions of social / welfare policy and learned about a number of theories underlying social policies. In the next unit, we will look at the nature of welfare services to determine how they differ from social services and find out about their historical development, especially in Commonwealth countries.

At the end of this unit, you should have completed fourteen Activities. From these, you should have registered at least two reflective entries in your learning journal for assessment.

Review the learning outcomes at the beginning of this unit and see if you are now able to do them. Look through your learning journal again and take this chance to review all your entries.



## Answers to self-help questions

### Self-help question 2.1

- 1 True
- 2 False
- 3 False.

### Self-help question 2.2

- 1 Reasons why economic policy might impact on social policy include:
  - The economic position of a country impacts on the level of wealth people have.
  - The economic policy affects how goods and services are distributed in a country.
- 2 Reasons why foreign affairs policy might impact on social policy include:
  - Links with other countries determine levels of trade between countries. That will determine levels of available wealth.
  - Aid from foreign countries impacts greatly on social / welfare services provided to the people of a country.

### Self-help question 2.3

The relationship between economic policy and social policy is considered to be inextricably linked, due to the fact that social and welfare services can only be provided and implemented where there is the infrastructure and means to fund them. The economic state of a country determines the level and extent of social / welfare services that both the government and non-government agencies can provide.

### Self-help question 2.4

#### Similarity

Both classical liberalism and Marxist theories about capitalist societies describe situations that are market driven, with an emphasis on the importance of economic growth for the country.

#### Difference

Classical liberalism believes in the effectiveness of the free market to solve all social policy issues if everyone participates and strives for economic growth, whereas in the Marxist theory the free market is seen to be subject to serious crises and breakdown and the welfare system is argued to be fundamentally unjust towards the working class who create the wealth.

## **Self-help question 2.5**

Social policy and welfare is crucial at the beginning and end of one's life. It has a direct effect on youth development due to the fact that most young women and men depend on services that are provided by the state to support them in terms of education and health. The state is in a position to improve their living conditions and to enable them to participate meaningfully in activities that affect them.

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## Assignment

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First, a reminder about the assessment requirements for this module. Your work in this module will be assessed in the following ways.

- 1 A written assignment of 700 words maximum, outlined below, which will require about 2 hours of work (worth 10 per cent of the final mark)
- 2 A 1,500 word research assignment, which will require about 6 hours of work (worth 40 per cent of the final mark)
- 3 A final written assignment of 1,000 words or a final written exam (worth 30 per cent of the final mark)
- 4 A review of the learning journal you keep (worth 20 per cent of the final mark).

*Note: make sure you discuss the assessment requirements with your tutor so that you are clear about what you are expected to do and when, and any particular requirements of your institution.*

### Assignment 1

Look back at the policies that you analysed in Activities 1.5 and 1.6 in Unit 1.

#### Part I

Choose one government policy and one non-government policy and plan to expand on the analysis you recorded in the activities, i.e., do some more research and complete details such as:

- How long did it take to be formulated?
- Who were the stakeholders consulted?
- How did the consultation take place?
- What was the initial impact of the policy?
- How is the impact of the policy being monitored?

Submit the completed table for feedback and assessment.

#### Part II

Choose one social policy in your country that affects young women and men. Explore the foundations of this policy's development in relation to the six theories of social policy. Which one underpins its development? Why?

Total length for the whole assessment task should be no more than 700 words.

# Unit 3: What are welfare services?

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## Unit introduction

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Welcome to Unit 3 *What are welfare services?* In Unit 2 we looked at social / welfare policy and the contribution it makes to social and community development. You will have noticed that the main content of that unit was on social policy rather than welfare policy. This unit will focus on welfare services and their complex links with welfare policy. This will help you to appreciate the difference between these and social policy. You will be given the opportunity to discuss the place of welfare in social policy and apply it to the social, political and economic status of young men and women. Unit 3 will also look at the origins of welfare services and the changes of outlook and attitude towards them in recent times.

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## Unit learning outcomes

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When you have worked through this unit, you should be able to:

- define the term 'welfare' and outline the origins of welfare policies
- describe the impact of welfare policies on youth
- recognise the shift from welfare policy to social policy and the reasons for such a transition.

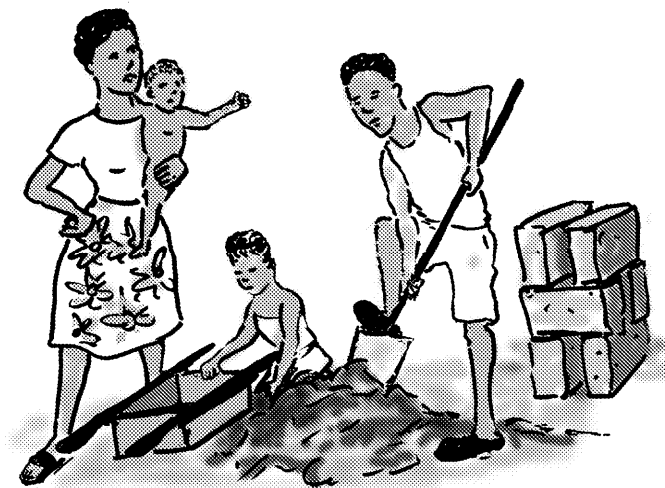
## What is welfare?

A simple definition of welfare is that it is the provision of services that enable a person or family to maintain a reasonable standard of living. Generally, this is seen primarily as the payment of money benefits by the state or an official agency, but it also includes state budget allocations, subsidies and grants to both government and non-government agencies in order to fund supportive social services.

These services might not be very prominent in your country. However, working through this unit will help you recognise the extent to which this kind of welfare is functioning even if it's not particularly visible.

### Welfare services – the role of the family

In traditional societies, where the family is still very important in the social structure, it is usually understood that this is the main unit that provides welfare services. Such provision is based on the pooling of all available resources within the social unit. Daughters tend to their sick and elderly parents, children work on the family farm or in the family business (particularly when they cannot find work elsewhere) and family members help one another, especially during the hard times associated with sickness and unemployment. When they are all affected, they tend to work together to support each other. This practice is more prevalent in some cultures than in others.



Traditionally the family worked together to support one another.

If each one of us looks at the history of our peoples, we can see that the notion of welfare has always existed in forms like these. The difference is that in the past we regarded most of the services that are now deemed to be welfare as acceptable functions of the family. However, in the process of modernisation, during which countries have become more industrialised, the provision of social services has progressively been taken over by agencies outside the family.



In traditionally oriented social groups, the extended family (i.e., a group of relatives, often living in close proximity) significantly increases the range of family welfare support from that found in the nuclear family (i.e., parents and their children), and close clan alliances increase the range even more.

For example, in Kashmiri Muslim families in the UK, an extended family – which may well include a number of other nuclear and slightly extended family groups in Pakistan – supports its members in both countries financially and socially. Those members living in the UK usually have more money and also have access to state welfare services such as health, education and state benefits, for which they pay significant amounts of tax. They often do not have much property in the UK, though the extended family will usually have land and property in Pakistan. The main economic aim will be to develop the family's wealth and social standing in both countries. Welfare in the family is combined with community and state welfare, intricately woven into the general cultural and economic relationships. The relationship between welfare and other features of the social formation has to be understood if you are to improve the welfare of young men and women.

Where the welfare principle is extended to clan and village alliances, it may take the form of non-interest-paying loans or services in kind. In the UK this has enabled many Pakistani families to buy houses and commercial property they would otherwise never have been able to access. Technical and professional welfare services are also exchanged throughout a clan and village group, often across a caste group, and the whole question of welfare looks quite different from the way it does for indigenous UK families. Let's look at a case study of a Kashmiri Muslim family to explore the meaning of social welfare further.



### Case study 3.1

#### Family welfare services in action

In 1985, Abdul Razaq was a young man of 29 who had left Pakistani Kashmir 12 years earlier to come and join his brother and father in Britain, working in unskilled and semi-skilled woollen mill work. Now he wanted to fulfil a childhood ambition to become a graduate of an English university and to raise himself and his children out of the poverty cycle of low-paid manual work, poor housing, low educational achievement and poor health. He was keenly aware also that the members of his extended family in Pakistan were not fully aware that the money he and his brother and father were able to send to them came from work some of which in Pakistan / India would have to be performed by 'untouchables'.

Abdul enrolled on an Access course that allowed mature entry to higher education, providing he could pass the course work tests. Access courses were developed to extend educational welfare to

families that had missed out on higher education, since the British state wanted to increase the numbers of educated people in the country to meet the challenge of the global market. This would give Abdul access to professional work in Britain and high status in Pakistan, so was psychologically important to him. But he was studying social sciences and found the language used very difficult to grasp. He knew he would never succeed without help. By chance he met James, a British social science graduate, a teacher in the local university and a youth and community consultant. When James heard the problem, he realised that Abdul's close extended family, clan relationships and position as a community leader meant that, by helping him, James could actually help raise socially a whole community whose welfare was suffering from the disappearance of low-skilled manual work in the declining local textiles industry. So he set about using all his knowledge of advanced learning skills to educate Abdul. In six months Abdul had changed from a semi-skilled mill worker with vision and ambition (but without educational skills) into an intellectually sophisticated undergraduate who went on to get an Honours degree in Social Sciences, a Social Work Certificate and an MPhil that was achieved with distinction. More importantly, Abdul had set the local community off on the educational and professional trail. Within ten years every local community family (particularly his clan, village and extended family members) and the extended family members in Pakistan all had university graduates in their nuclear families. And the example spread widely by word of mouth through other Kashmiri communities living in Britain.



### Activity 3.1

(about 20 minutes)

Case study 3.1 is a true story that demonstrates the complex nature of social welfare and how youth development work can be used to transform communities if the social structures underpinning welfare principles are understood and utilised.

Discuss this case with your colleagues and reflect on the following questions:

- What have you learned about social welfare and the role families play in its provision?
- How do other communities provide social welfare?

Use your learning journal to write down your thoughts.

## Welfare – the role of society

While the family provides social welfare services in different ways in different societies, Kogan (1975) suggests that the quality of a society's welfare is an outward demonstration of its core values. These societal values may be based on the underlying pragmatic principle of 'if we don't care for others, who will care for us?' (these are clan or community values), or one that says that 'we have a moral duty to care for those that need assistance' (religious or political values).

Whatever the underlying values, it is expected that the poor, needy, sick or disadvantaged will be assisted in some way through the provision of services provided by the rest of the social group. In the case of political and religious values, this is so that all the different groups in society are able to maintain a reasonable standard and quality of life. Let's explore three definitions of the different principles underlying welfare services in different societies:

- 1 In **Muslim societies** it is a religious obligation – one of the five pillars of Islam – to support the poor by *zakat*: giving a proportion of one's income. But this has to be understood in terms of the goals that Islam sets for human life. All things that help in achieving these goals increase social welfare, and are called *masalih* or 'utilities'. The Muslim scholars and jurists Al-Ghazali and later Al-Shatibi (1980), who scanned all the documents relating to the Hadith and the Koran, considered that *zakat* was one of the utilities that was a necessity to preserve the five foundations of the good individual and social life: religion, life, mind, offspring and wealth. All members of society must have access to these if Islamic values are to be upheld.
- 2 The **Marxist principle** says 'from each according to his ability, to each according to his need'. That would seem to be the determining value of the social welfare system in Cuba, as described in the Oxfam America report mentioned in Unit 2 (Uriate 2002), though it doesn't appear to have been like that in the state capitalist Soviet Union. The principle comes from the Marxist view that a fully human society is one in which the boundless potential of the human species can only be developed when there are no fundamental controls over human potential by powerful social classes. It needs to be a truly classless, fully cooperative society structured to share resources, of which human intellectual and creative capital is the key element.
- 3 A third principle underlying the provision of welfare services within a society is posited by **Adam Smith's theory of the free market approach** to a good society (1776). Smith argued for the moral value of giving power to free market forces. Those on the political right who support the free market approach describe what they see as the dangers of welfare dependency: of indiscriminate welfare creating a social underclass that loses its energy and creativity through dependency on the welfare

provided by the state. This debate is primarily concerned with the aim of politically right-wing governments to move people off welfare and into a state of independence and self-sufficiency.

There are examples of this in action in the USA, where workfare programmes compel people on welfare to take up low level, low-paid jobs or lose their benefits. In development terms, this is the equivalent of compelling poor countries to practice structural adjustment in economic policy (discussed below) or be refused aid. Of course, the free market thinkers are correct to argue that poor people and poor countries ultimately want the chance to make their own way, not to take handouts. But how does a young person get access to the training s/he needs? And how does a cotton producer in Burkina Faso compete with the massive resources of China and with America's cotton subsidies? While there are Fair Trade systems now being set up in the rich world to combat this problem, they are trivial in their economic effect.

Understanding the underlying principle of how welfare services are provided in different societies can greatly help our youth development work. For example, we may work in a community where welfare services are provided from an underlying principle we are not familiar with; therefore, it is important to understand the different ways in which society provides welfare services.



### Activity 3.2

(about 10 minutes)

Take time to review the underlying principle of welfare provision in your community. Discuss with your colleagues whether the Muslim, Marxist or free market perspective is evident.

Don't forget to capture your insights in your learning journal.

## Welfare dependency versus self reliance

In countries where the debate on welfare dependency has raged (mainly industrialised or developed nations), this has been linked to the fundamental belief that it is not the role of the state to provide welfare services but to facilitate market forces. Remember the definition of classical liberalism in Unit 2? This idea is part of that viewpoint. If we look at the countries that are pursuing an economic framework that promotes classical liberalism, then we see two things occurring:

- the state is withdrawing from providing social services
- it is also cutting back in many areas of public spending.

Each of the countries involved in pursuing such policies will provide figures showing that the numbers of their people who are dependent on welfare payments have increased, and that is why they are forced to cut welfare spending. What they do not show is how cuts in welfare spending are linked to other areas of public policy – for example, education and employment policies or even defence.

## Welfare policies and other public policies

In capitalist societies, rich or poor, the problems of running public welfare systems are complex, and this may well explain the growing preference for Adam Smith-type models. Governments have to be able to estimate the impact of welfare spending on other public policies. If one kind of welfare improvement is made, how will it affect structures that indirectly contribute to welfare, such as public works or education?

In South Africa, because of generally unacceptably low living standards among the 75 per cent of adults and children who are not beneficiaries of social security, the South African Government commissioned the Taylor Committee in 2000 to examine the possibility of developing its social security system further. The committee recommended comprehensive reform and the introduction of a basic income grant (BIG) of R100 per month, regardless of age or income level. James Thurlow (2000) describes the results of testing the Taylor Commission's ideas against a general equilibrium economic model for South Africa. This was meant to explore the intricate knock-on effects of what is undoubtedly a humanitarian and probably necessary welfare reform.

As the South African Government cannot increase the amount it already spends in order to finance the BIG, it has to consider one of three other options:

### Option 1: Increase the taxes on goods sold

If taxes on goods sold are increased by the necessary 3.8 per cent to pay for the BIG, this would drive up consumer prices. This would cause a reduction in household consumption spending, which would reduce the effect of the increase in sales taxes – although the transfer of government funds to households would counteract that to a certain extent, because poor families would now be buying more goods. This transfer of funds, therefore, means that low-income families benefit more because they are a much bigger proportion of the population. However, they also tend to be low savers, which means that the shift of funds to them reduces the overall levels of savings in the economy, which will cause a fall in investment spending and a reduced level of demand for imports. Overall, as a result of increased taxes on goods, the BIG will bring about (a) a fall in the returns to government, (b) increased unemployment and (c) a small reduction in real gross domestic product (GDP).

### Option 2: Increase direct taxes on households (income tax) and businesses (corporation tax)

This leads to decreased savings and investment by the well-off and companies, and an increase in consumption by low income families who receive the BIG. This would result in increased employment for unskilled labour and an increase in real factor returns for capital and a tiny increase in GDP.

### Option 3: Decrease Government's own consumption spending

If consumption spending is reduced by the required 20.2 per cent to pay for the BIG, there would be increased unemployment among lower income families and lowered poor family consumption because the Government is the largest employer of unskilled and semi-skilled workers, who tend to come from poor families. High income families would have higher levels of consumption and savings, but they are a small group relatively. There would be a decline of just over 1 per cent in real GDP.

Thurlow's (2000) paper advocates a solution to the problems by combining various aspects of the above options in a financing package that, according to the model, has the best effects.

The discussion above about South Africa's attempt to reform the social service system illustrates how important it is for us to understand the way in which welfare policy and practice has to be understood and negotiated by a government in relation to numerous interacting socio-economic variables.



#### Self-help question 3.1

(about 10 minutes)

Through the readings and your own experience, you will have formed your own idea of the nature of welfare services. In your own words, write down a definition of welfare services.

Welfare services refer to:

*Compare your answers with those suggested at the end of the unit.*

Well done! Now let's begin to use this knowledge to examine welfare services in the community in which you work.



### Activity 3.3

(about 50 minutes)

- 1 Look around in your community and find out the kinds of welfare services provided for those who are sick, elderly or disadvantaged in some way. Also consider who provides these services and to which particular groups. Consider to what extent the family provides welfare services in your community or country.

Use your information to fill out the table below. Two examples have been done for you.

Service provider	Service provided	Beneficiaries
Government	Immunisation	All children
Family	Care of elderly relations	All family members

- 2 Using the information you gathered and put in the table above, identify the main beneficiaries of welfare services in your community.

Summarise this information in a paragraph about welfare services in your learning journal.

## The origins of modern welfare

Welfare, as we know it today, is related to social, political and economic trends. The modern view of welfare, particularly in wealthy countries, is that where necessary it is the state's responsibility to provide services for those who are most disadvantaged. Philip McMichael (1996) in his book, *Development and Social Change: A Global Perspective*, says that the development of welfare states in rich countries came from a sustained drive by the organised working classes of those nations, after years of unjust exploitation by the ruling classes, demanding adequate wages, employment protection,

the right to organise unions and a voice in national politics. If we look at the history of industrialisation in the four countries within the Commonwealth that are recognised as still having welfare states – Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United Kingdom – we can observe this development.

## **A brief history of welfare in the United Kingdom**

During the 15th and 16th centuries, a number of significant social and economic developments occurred, namely, population movements, changes in agriculture and the growth of manufacturing towns. These developments all meant that the support that had been provided by the family was no longer as easily accessible. In other words, people had to become more self-sufficient within a much smaller unit than the traditional extended family. So when people fell on hard times, they had to look for other means of support. The church and other religious orders became significant players in providing social / welfare services.



Traditional, pre-industrial work methods.



Modern, factory-based work methods.



There was a clear need for these services to be organised. Laws were passed that made the smallest unit of local government, known as parishes, responsible for charity. Parishes had to levy rates to do this. Over time, with economic growth accelerating and the numbers of the poor growing, the local system became stressed. In the 19th century, means testing was introduced to determine levels of poverty and need. People who fell into poverty were given charitable aid and relief, but only after their property and money had been investigated, and anything not considered absolutely necessary was confiscated by the local authority. They were then able to apply to live in workhouses, institutions where they were housed and fed but had to do whatever work was requested by the local authority. Conditions were often miserable, and people were generally humiliated by the experience. They were very glad to take any employment, no matter the wages or conditions, that took them out of the workhouse. It has been claimed by socialists that the purpose of the workfare program today (most commonly experienced in the United States) is the same as that of the workhouses.

Today, welfare coverage in Britain is extensive, but benefits and services are very carefully rationed and are delivered at a low level.

## Welfare in the colonies

In the meantime, Britain was pursuing its foreign policy of expansion. It had colonised countries in just about every part of the world, and to each of these it took its particular world view on society, state administration and the provision of services to the poor and needy.

It is interesting to note that where people of British descent became the majority of the population, social reforms that introduced a system of welfare payments became the norm. McMichael (1996) says this happened because the workers, under the influence of trade union practices in Britain, became more organised and demanded not only the regulation of wages but the right to vote. Once they were able to participate in politics, they were able to ensure that certain social rights – like welfare benefits – were provided.

In other colonies, dissatisfaction in the labour force was ruthlessly suppressed, and provision of social welfare services was left to the churches and charities. Later they were joined by international aid agencies like Oxfam, War against Want and UNICEF. This suggests that welfare provision in some countries in the Commonwealth is structurally in the position it was in Britain prior to industrialisation and strong trade unionism.



## Activity 3.4

(about 50 minutes)

You have seen how the notion of welfare originated and evolved in Britain and other northern countries. Now we would like you to consider the development of welfare services in your own community or country.

- 1 Interview at least two people in your community or workplace, preferably people who are much older than you.

Here is a set of questions for you to ask your interviewees.

- What sort of social services were available to you for free ten years ago?
  - Who were the providers of these services at that time?
  - How were they able to provide these services?
  - Were the services provided adequate to your needs?
  - What sort of services do you get now that were not available ten years ago?
  - What sort of services do you not get now that were provided to you ten years ago?
- 2 From the information you gather, write two to three paragraphs in your learning journal comparing the provision of welfare services in your community or country at the present time with those provided ten years ago. Discuss possible reasons for any notable change/s.

## Welfare and social policy

In Unit 2, you had an opportunity to define social policy. In this section, we'll examine how welfare policy and social policy are linked.

### From welfare to social policy

'Social policy' and 'social services' are the terms for what was once described as 'welfare policy' and 'welfare services'. This change of terms is an ideological example of the kind of social class struggle that is today embodied in the welfare dependency debate. The change of terms was not driven by right-wing governments trying to move people off welfare benefits, but by left-wing activists promoting the idea that those who receive welfare have as much right to participate

in decision-making processes about their lives as people who are affluent.

This change happened in the 1970s. The world at the time was going through some quite far-reaching changes (discussed further below). Two noticeable ones were the number of countries that became independent of their colonial masters and the growth of the feminist movement.

Independence in countries that had been colonised gave the local people an opportunity to exercise self-determination and to participate in world politics. The feminist movement saw women demand the right to a greater participation in all aspects of society and not to be confined to child-rearing. Participation is the common strand here. This same concept of participation seems to have been applied to the change from welfare policy to social policy. What was seen as welfare policy in many countries has now become known as social policy because it allows people who benefit from such services to perceive themselves as participants in determining what social services they receive.

## Welfare and young people

The following activity asks you to look at the implications of welfare for young women and men. To help you do this, begin by discussing the issue with people around you.



### Activity 3.5

(about 15 minutes)

Choose two members of your community, one from the younger generation and one from the older generation. Ask them what welfare policies mean to them. Compare the similarities and differences of answers you receive back. Capture your insights in your learning journal.

Relatively little has been written about young peoples' view of welfare and social policies because, to a large extent, young people are seldom considered in material written about social policies. The focus tends to be on how successive governments handle welfare and its links with other policy. Ideally, the young, like the elderly, should be targeted directly by welfare programmes. In other modules, you have been reminded that the youth of today are the leaders and parents of tomorrow. It is therefore important that welfare programmes and services be created to break the vicious cycle of poverty that plagues many youth in the developing world, of which Abdul Razaq was so conscious when he sought to succeed in higher education (Case

study 3.1). So here you have an opportunity to develop an approach and material suitable to your country.

Some of you might argue that you do not have social / welfare policies in your country. Think again. Remember in Unit 1 you learned that a policy may be written or implied. You have churches and local home-grown charitable societies. In addition, you have a number of aid agencies that provide social / welfare services. You also have families, and even perhaps extended families, clans and cohesive village or suburban community organisations. Let's explore the impact of welfare policies on young people in more detail in the next activity.



### Activity 3.6

(about 20 minutes)

Here is a table looking at the social, political and economic implications of the availability of welfare for young women and men.

In your learning journal, rule up a table exactly the same as the one below and fill in the columns for young women and young men, showing the implications for each if welfare is available to them. Depending on your context, you can answer the question in terms of welfare generally or relate it to more specific welfare benefits, e.g. unemployment benefits, sickness benefits, housing benefits.

To get you started, we have given you some points to think about - then develop your own.

Type of welfare:		
	Impact on young women	Impact on young men
Social implications	Could move out of home if a victim of abuse because she would have an income and accommodation. The family is broken up. Any other social implications?	Implications are similar for young men.
Political implications	Makes own decision about whom she will vote for in the next elections rather than blindly following what her father tells her.	Implications are similar for young men.

Economic implications	If she is working, her income is her own. She may be eligible for an Independent Youth Allowance. Contributes to the national debt because she is paid an allowance, which comes out of the government budget.	Implications are similar for young men.
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While completing the table, remember that not everything will be the same for young men and women. Be specific about noting the differences. Talk to your tutor if you get stuck on identifying differences.

## Welfare and the limits of policy

Some people in society have more power and influence than others, but social policy in a democratic society is very rarely created to please one particular group, such as a social class or caste. What happens is that an 'issue network' (Laffin, 1986) develops around a policy issue.

An issue network is often an informal association of individuals and groups with a shared interest in a particular policy area. Within this issue network, a powerful 'policy community' (consisting of big players, e.g. education officials, chiefs etc.) usually takes the lead in policy formulation.

### Issue networks and you

Youth development workers like yourself may well become part of an issue network – for example, one that is concerned with the sufferings of young women caused by the inequity of gender relationships in your society during a period of structural adjustment. There may be no overall agreement within the issue network on what to do about the problem: this diversity of focus is a weakness of an issue network, but its strength is that, as a loose structure, it is likely to respond to changed conditions.

While a policy community within the issue network that focuses on education may be powerful enough to take a lead, it may find itself simply reflecting the inequality of gender relationships. As a youth development worker, you may well be aware of the international research results that illustrate this inequality, and you may be determined to do something about it. You can then penetrate the

relevant policy community and develop its understanding of the issues, so that it can be persuaded to take the lead to bring about the changes that are needed. Let's look at this action in Case study 3.2.



## Case study 3.2

### Leading the way

Ta'asi lives in a village that is close to a logging camp. A logging company has been felling trees near the village for almost two years and this has had a lot of negative effects on the lives of women in the village. One of the problems is that the water source close to the village has dried up and the women have to go further uphill to fetch the water for drinking, cooking and washing. The men are not at all concerned about this problem as they are not responsible for fetching water. In fact, they think that the logging activity has really improved their lives through the payment of royalties in the form of cash, which they can use to buy food and other necessities from the nearby shop. As a leader of one of the women's groups in the village, Ta'asi is very concerned about the water problem. The other women in the village are equally concerned but feel that there is little they can do about it.



### Activity 3.7

(about 20 minutes)

Discuss Case study 3.2 with friends, colleagues or fellow students, then answer the questions below.

- As a youth development worker in Ta'asi's village, how could you help address this problem? Remember that the men do not appreciate the women's problem.
- What would be the first step you would take in trying to help the men to understand and appreciate the women's problem? Relate your answer to the concept of 'policy community'.

Write down in your learning journal the results of your discussions.

## Economic, political and social realities

You will have recognised, from the example of South Africa's attempt to create a welfare state, that social policy cannot operate outside of the reality of economic, social and political conditions. In capitalist countries, the social policy has to operate within the fine balances of

the market system. The economic, social and political conditions of the market system include

- The oil crisis
- Globalisation
- Structural adjustment
- The effects of inequitable social structures on women.

### The oil crisis

Trade is the key to welfare in capitalist systems, and of course is the key to development in all systems. In the words of the UK Department for International Development (DFID):

“Trade means jobs – which means money coming into your household so that you can send the children to school or buy medicine if they are sick..... But if trade is to really benefit people in the poorest countries, it has to take place within a global trading system that gives everyone a chance to compete.”

(Doney and Wroe, 2005)

A major change in economic reality for all countries in the world began in the early 1970s, with the ending of the international monetary regime that had been put in place at the 1944 Bretton Woods Conference and governed currency relations among States (see Reading 3 from Unit 2). Until then, improved conditions of trade after the Second World War had led to steady if inequitable improvements in living standards throughout the developed and developing worlds. Women and children shared in this, though they remained significantly unequal with men. This was because the policy communities throughout the world responsible for social welfare mainly represented traditional male patterns of power and values.

The massive raising of the price of crude oil by the Organization of the Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC) in 1973 and again in the late 1970s led to serious deterioration in the terms of trade for all non-oil-producing countries, including many Commonwealth countries. At the same time, the international banks were flooded with masses of the extra wealth made by the oil producers so there was plenty of available capital for lending at low rates of interest. Poor countries were therefore encouraged to borrow capital to modernise their own economies.

Modernisation should have enabled them to boost their export earnings. However, rich countries like the United States and United Kingdom had also been affected by the rise in the price of oil. So, under pressure from businessmen and trade unions, they protected themselves against the import of goods from the poor countries. An example of this was the Multi Fibre Agreement (MFA) on the trade in textiles, which protected textiles firms in the developed countries (and some developing ones like Sri Lanka), by tariffs against, for

example, the import of cotton goods from India and China. That agreement has only recently ended – and its ending has caused consternation among textiles companies in Europe, where millions of tons of cotton goods from China have flooded the markets.

Protectionism led to slower growth in world trade and disadvantaged poor countries who could not now benefit from the expensive modernisation of their industries. This in turn meant that they had to use their capital to pay off their balance of payments deficits. They therefore dropped deeper and deeper into debt just to pay off their previous loans. Today, servicing those loans may take up as much as 25 per cent of a country's GDP. Borrowing more capital for investment became difficult because with slower world trade there was much less surplus money in the banks, and so interest rates rose and banks were no longer searching desperately for customers to lend money to. In this situation, the World Bank insisted that countries structurally adjusted their economies by cutting welfare, following which they would be allowed to borrow money for investment purposes.

This crisis is still with us. Various solutions have been suggested, the most hopeful of which is to cancel the debts. Some effort has been made to do this for the few countries that successfully paid off large amounts of debt. But, even if the debts are cancelled, there is still the problem of how to establish anything like fair and free trade for countries that have been damaged by the events of the last 30 years.

## Globalisation

Globalisation refers simply to the integration of economies around the world and, as we explained in Unit 2, is driven by the policy of neo-liberalisation (the Adam Smith (1776) model of the free market before everything else).

Those who support this policy argue that globalisation contributes to social protection through its boost to trade and therefore (i) contributing to poverty alleviation, (ii) allowing people to exploit their productive potential, (iii) assisting economic growth, (iv) generating technological change that could accelerate the development process and (v) increasing trade's effect of insulating against economic shocks. However, while DFID, for example, makes an ideologically powerful case for the efficacy of global trade, it has to admit that

“trade can help reduce poverty, but only if the conditions are right. Global trade must take place on a level playing field, and the trouble at the moment is that developing countries are being asked to play uphill and into a fierce wind.”

(Doney and Wroe, 2005)

Moreover, Bob Deacon, in his article on 'Globalisation and Social Policy: The Threat to Equitable Welfare' (2002), has argued that globalisation undermines social welfare in developing and transition economies by:



- generating indebtedness
- undermining the capacity of a government to secure education, health and social protection
- promoting greater inequalities
- threatening social and labour standards
- segmenting social policy.

Even the World Bank, the arch promoter of free market solutions to development problems, has come to accept the need for a welfare safety-net. As Eduardo Doryan (2001), the World Bank Vice President for Human Development, notes:

“Safety nets are vital to catch people who lose their jobs, become hungry or sick. But a system that solely concentrates on helping poor people deal with a crisis once it happens runs the risk of keeping them in a poverty trap by not providing any opportunities. We need to embrace a more holistic approach that makes social protection more like a springboard that lets people jump into more secured lives.”

Explore the impact of globalisation and social policy further by doing the reading that follows and completing Activity 3.8.



To increase your awareness of issues related to globalisation and social policy, visit the website and read the paper by Ian Gough on ‘Globalisation and Regional Welfare Regimes: The East Asian Case’, [http://issa.int/pdf/helsinki2000/topic1/2\\_gough.pdf](http://issa.int/pdf/helsinki2000/topic1/2_gough.pdf).



### Activity 3.8

(about 10 minutes)

Answer the following question:

- What are your views on the implications of globalisation for welfare in your own country?

Don't forget to write your reflections in your learning journal.

### Structural adjustment

In a situation of considerable debt, a state has no choice but to raise the capital for the investment it needs from inside its own system, so it has to embark on a programme of structural adjustment. Structural adjustment simply means that the state has to spend less to run the country than it gets in revenue, giving it a surplus for capital investment purposes or to pay off its debts. It generally does this primarily by cutting welfare spending – and if it wants to borrow more funds from the International Monetary Fund (IMF) or the World Bank, they will insist on this.

With the rapid globalisation of the world economy, particularly under the impact of new technology, structural adjustment has become almost a continuous process marked mainly by the replacement of state intervention with market-based mechanisms (Olukoshi, 2000). States have had to privatise former state companies and/or privatise aspects of education and health services. The phrases ‘user pays’, ‘cost recovery’, and ‘employment and wage freeze’ are familiar to most of us. It is generally agreed that the negative effects of structural adjustment are felt most by women and children.

A Commonwealth Secretariat paper, ‘Engendering Adjustment for the 1990s: Report of a Commonwealth Expert Group on Women and Structural Adjustment’(1989), puts it like this:

“The 1980s have been a period of almost continuous adjustment in many countries of Africa, Latin America and the Caribbean, but their external payments positions are still far from satisfactory. In Latin America, major improvements in the trade balance have been virtually wiped out by a massive outflow of resources (of around \$150 billion from 1982 to 1987), while in Africa imports have diminished by nearly 8 per cent per annum, with a devastating effect on investment. Per capita incomes have fallen substantially – by over a quarter in Sub-Saharan Africa and by around a sixth in Latin America and the Caribbean. In both continents, the human condition has worsened correspondingly. There have been declines in real expenditure per head on health and education services, rapidly rising food prices and falling real incomes among poor households. There is evidence in many countries of rising rates of malnutrition and falling educational attainments; in some, mortality rates have raised. With few exceptions, the previous steady progress in social indicators has been halted or reversed in both continents.”

“Women have been at the epicentre of the crisis and have borne the brunt of the adjustment efforts. They have been the most affected by the deteriorating balance between incomes and prices, by the cuts in social services, and by the rising morbidity and child deaths. It is women who have had to find the means for families to survive. To achieve this they have had to work harder and longer. Yet they have had no role in the design of adjustment programmes, which have in consequence ignored their needs and concerns.”

### **The effects on women**

The Commonwealth Expert Committee report makes a number of crucial points about the effects of the inequitable social structure on women and young people. In structural terms, women earn significantly less than men despite doing a great deal more work. Their household work is unrecorded in statistical terms, but this probably adds about a third to the value of world production. They

are the main welfare agency for children, ageing parents and in-laws, and they are significant in community organisation.

We have already seen in this unit that in countries where expatriate British people were in the majority, trade unions were better organised, and pressurised governments into creating a welfare state system. Yet gender inequities remained part of the deal. What had been a more reassuring system for men and for some families still left women creating a significant proportion of the value of welfare. So even in the best state welfare systems, the tradition of family support was continuing through the activity of women.

The Commonwealth report goes on to discuss further the consequences for women and young people of structural adjustment:

“The evidence shows that women have generally been ill-served by structural adjustment policies and programmes. As producers, many of them have lost their jobs in the formal sector; and when this has happened, they have found it more difficult than men to gain another, partly as a result of discrimination arising from the ‘male breadwinner’ ethic. The result of these changes in employment and in the labour force has been to throw many more women into insecure jobs in the informal sector. In this sector, however, there has been a drastic decline in earnings (often much greater than the fall in other sectors), even for longer hours of work. Yet despite the meagre returns, women’s informal sector earnings have been crucial to the survival of poor families during the crisis of the 1980s, especially in Africa, the Caribbean and Latin America, as our case studies confirm.”

“As home managers, women have been adversely affected by the reduction or abolition of subsidies on food and other basic goods, while their role as mothers has been made more difficult by reduced social services. The effects have been catastrophic. In Ghana, at the peak of the crisis in July 1984, even the upper middle civil service salaries could barely cover 10% of the minimum nutritional diet of a five-person household. And per capita health expenditure in 1982 was one-fifth of that in 1975/76, the country losing half its doctors between 1981 and 1984. In Zambia in 1985, despite free primary education, parental expenditure on basic items necessary for one child to attend school was over one-fifth of average per capita income. Children’s health and education have suffered accordingly, particularly if they are members of female-headed households, which have been among the worst affected.”

“Women’s own welfare has also suffered. Their use of time has been subject to special demands in trying to undertake each of their main roles with diminished resources and greater difficulties. Their health has been adversely affected by increased hours of work and by reduced availability of food and health care facilities.”



### Self-help question 3.2

(about 20 minutes)

- 1 Explain what is meant by the term ‘structural adjustment’.
- 2 What effect does a country’s structural adjustment policy have on welfare services?
- 3 According to the Commonwealth Expert Committee report, what is the main reason for women being disadvantaged in terms of welfare policies?

*Compare your answers with those provided at the end of the unit.*



A policy statement by the Commonwealth Expert Committee is included in this module as Reading 4 – *Engendering adjustment for the 1990s*. Read it now – we hope it will give you a broader overview of how structural adjustment policies halted or even reversed the gains made by women in the 1970s. This policy statement is a significant addition to the ‘issue network’ in your country, of which you may be a member. It may help tip the balance within that issue network so that the policy community has to respond by adjusting its policies in favour of redressing the gender imbalance towards women and their children.



### Activity 3.9

(about 30 minutes)

Here is a table of statistics on the differing effects of structural adjustment on different countries. Examine the table and suggest why countries experience such differences. You may wish to discuss the table of statistics and its implications with friends, colleagues or fellow students. In your learning journal, register your initial thoughts as well as the results of your discussions.

**Countries with the most severe cuts in per capita GDP and health and education expenditures (cumulative), as a result of structural adjustment**

	Health	Education	GDP
<b>Africa</b>	<b>1979-83</b>	<b>1979-83</b>	<b>1980-85</b>
Ghana	-40.3	-25.9	-20.1
Sudan	-32.9	-42.4	-12.3
Togo	-26.8	+13.9	-17.2
Malawi	-26.6	+31.1	-4.9
Liberia	-24.9	-2.4	-30.8
Mauritius	-23.9	-27.4	n.a.
Tunisia	-18.0	-42.0	+7.2
<b>Latin America</b>	<b>1980-84</b>	<b>1979-83</b>	<b>1980-84</b>
Bolivia	-77.7	-45.6	-27.5
Guatemala	-58.3	n.a.	-14.8
Dominican Republic	-46.5	-15.4	+1.8
Surinam	-44.2	n.a.	n.a.
El Salvador	-32.4	-28.7	-25.6
Chile	-23.8	+2.1	-6.7
Barbados	-21.3	n.a.	-5.0
Jamaica	-18.5	-24.1	-5.6
Costa Rica	-16.5	-41.8	-12.3
Honduras	-15.2	n.a.	-11.5
Argentina	-13.9	-24.4	-13.9
Uruguay	-13.4	-22.3	-12.0
<b>South and East Asia</b>	<b>1979-83</b>	<b>1979-83</b>	<b>1980-83</b>
Sri Lanka	-33.9	+4.9	+7.7
Philippines	-3.8	+2.4	-7.9
<b>Middle East</b>			
Israel	-11.0	-1.2	-0.3
Jordan	-9.0	+9.5	+4.0

(Source: Commonwealth Secretariat, 1989, p. 81.)

## Unit summary

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In this unit, you have covered the following main points:

- the definition of welfare
- the background and origins of welfare policies
- the distinction between welfare policy and social policy
- the reasons for the transition or movement from welfare policy to social policy
- the limitations of welfare policies
- the reasons for carrying out structural adjustment
- the implications of globalisation for social policy
- the effects of structural adjustment on welfare policies
- the general implication of welfare policies on the social and economic lives of young women and men
- the effects of structural adjustment on women and young people.

At the end of this Unit, you should have completed nine Activities. From these, you must have registered at least three reflective entries in your learning journal for assessment.

Review the learning outcomes at the beginning of this unit and see if you are now able to do them. Look through your learning journal again and take this chance to review all your entries.

So far in this module, we have looked at social and welfare policies as they impact generally on communities and countries. The next unit will allow you to focus more specifically on youth policies so as to gain an awareness of their essential qualities, especially their scope and range.

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## Answers to self-help questions

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### Self-help question 3.1

Here is our definition. Yours of course will use different words but should be similar in content.

Welfare services refer to the provision of social services to those who are in need, due to sickness or poverty or age, so that they can have an acceptable standard of living. They include services contributing to health and well-being, education and security.

### Self-help question 3.2

- 1 Structural adjustment refers to measures or strategies taken by a state to provide conditions whereby the state can increase its revenue for capital investment or to pay off its debts.
- 2 The effect of structural adjustment is that there is less money spent on running the state, which therefore has a direct impact on the level of welfare services that it can provide for its people, especially those in need or those who are disadvantaged.
- 3 The main reason for the negative impact of structural adjustment policies on women is the fact that in most situations, men or members of well-to-do families are the most influential in terms of making policies, including welfare policies.

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# Unit 4: Nature and scope of youth policy

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## Unit introduction

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Welcome to Unit 4 *Nature and scope of youth policy*. In this unit, you will explore the nature of youth policy – focusing on Commonwealth countries – and examine the scope and key elements of youth policies. As you work through the unit, you will be asked to consider what youth policies from different countries have in common. You will also be asked to gather youth policy documents from countries around the Commonwealth and summarise the differences and similarities between two of them (one preferably being from your own country), assessing their likely relative effectiveness, judged from the standpoint of your own experience. Note: if you have any difficulty obtaining these, ask your tutor or learning institution for help.

The unit aims to increase your understanding of the nature of youth policy so that you will be able to contribute to developing, planning and implementing youth policies in your own country. This will be part of your responsibilities as a youth development worker.

Assignment 2 comes at the end of this unit.

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## Unit learning outcomes

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When you have worked through this unit, you should be able to:

- compare and evaluate the similarities and differences between youth policies in two countries in your region
- explain the common characteristics of youth policy.

## The status of youth policy

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Youth policy in recent years has become an increasingly widespread feature of public policy, although the degree of importance assigned to it varies among countries. In some countries it is quite important; in others it is one of the minor portfolios; and in a few it does not feature at all. Nor is it usually considered of any great importance at local government, village and community levels. In the next section, we'll attempt to find out why there is this variation.

## The nature of youth policy

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When we use the term 'youth policy' we usually take it to mean a formal national written framework that gives form and direction to government action and through which the state promotes a particular philosophy and set of programmes for the cohort called 'youth'. The United Nations defines youth policies as those that

“(a) clearly define the place and role of youth in society and the responsibility of society towards youth; (b) consider the problems, needs and aspirations of youth comprehensively; (c) promote the establishment of appropriate structures and institutions to meet those needs and aspirations; and (d) encourage youth to participate actively at all levels of national life.”

(UNO, 1985)

Essentially, the plans and programmes that a government sets up for its young people are normally based on its political and social philosophy applied to how it believes that youths should behave and think, and what their role in society should be. Therefore you should remember that youth policies do not just spring out of nowhere. They are formulated on the basis of the general beliefs and customs that are held by a community and its government. One African youth worker, attending a CYP Africa Centre youth policy workshop (Windhoek, 1993), summarised his country's national youth policy as:

“A statement outlining our vision, the values and principles that guide us, the issues that challenge us and the initiatives, programmes and delivery mechanisms being planned and implemented to improve the socio-economic well being of our youth.”

To formulate a youth policy, therefore, requires a lot of discussion and consultation with different national groups, including youth development workers and youth groups themselves. This consultation is very important, as it will provide the basic information on which the youth policy will be framed.

## Initial action: define ‘youth’

Before it can formulate a youth policy, a government must define the term ‘youth’ and determine what proportion of the population this refers to. You may recall that in Module 2 *Young People and Society* we looked at different criteria used to define youth (for example, as an age category or a transition stage). It is therefore understandable that each government has its own definition of ‘youth’, and so it is important to note what these differences are when referring to the youth policies of different countries, even within the same region.



### Activity 4.1

(about 20 minutes)

The term ‘youth’ has different definitions in different countries. Do you know what it is in your country? If you do, write it down in your learning journal; otherwise, make a note to find out.

The definition of ‘youth’ in my country is:

The youth policy in my country was formulated by:

I don’t know the answers to these questions, so I need to find out by writing to:

The Minister for Youth and Sport in Namibia, Hon. Pendukeni Iwula-Ithana, provides this definition and purpose for the youth policy in his country:

“A national youth policy provides broad guidelines from which action programmes and services can be developed to facilitate meaningful involvement of youth in national development efforts that will respond to their various needs and problems .... [It is] a source of guidance to planners, whether on micro or macro economic planning level or human resource development, health services or any development planning whatsoever”



## Activity 4.2

(about 20 minutes)

Take some time to reflect on this definition provided by the Hon. Iwula-Ithana. Is it consistent with your own view of a youth policy?

Discuss this issue with other friends or student colleagues. Capture the results of your discussions in your learning journal.

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## The growing importance of youth policy

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Remember that to complete this unit you will need to have access to the youth policies of at least two countries – preferably your own, plus one other country in your region of the Commonwealth. You might find out that yours is one of the Commonwealth countries that are still in the process of completing their youth policies. If so, you would do well to get hold of a current draft, or any other document that is currently being used to guide youth policy.

Some countries of the Commonwealth that do not yet have a national youth policy have instead a range of policies from other policy sectors that either deal directly with young women and men or significantly influence their lives and well being. Education and health are two sectors whose policies affect young people in this way.

The low status accorded to youth policy in some Commonwealth countries may soon change as more people come to realise the importance of youth in the social, economic and political development of a nation. The Commonwealth Secretariat is committed to advocating youth issues across Commonwealth countries and promoting youth action, participation and inclusion in policy issues. In this regard, the Secretariat periodically organises Ministers' meetings that comprise senior government officials and youth representatives of the Commonwealth. These meetings are pivotal in involving youth in strategic decision-making and keeping governments accountable for the implementation of resolutions.

## The May 1995 Ministers Meeting

At their Meeting in Trinidad and Tobago in May 1995, the Commonwealth Ministers Responsible for Youth Affairs recommended that:

“All member governments of the Commonwealth should have their national youth policies formulated or updated by the year 2000, demonstrating their full commitment to the young people of their country. This political commitment is essential if implementation of the youth policies is to be ensured. It will also help to put youth issues on the national agenda.”

(Commonwealth Secretariat, 1995)

### The Ministers' recommendations

At that meeting, the Commonwealth Ministers made the following recommendations:

- that all Commonwealth governments should make a special commitment to youth development
- that this commitment should take the form of the development, refinement and implementation of national youth policies as instruments of change
- that representative young women and men should be actively involved in the process of policy formulation and implementation
- that youth non-governmental organisations (NGOs) as well as relevant arms of government be closely involved in this activity
- that this strategy promote the necessary mainstreaming of youth concerns across ministries such as education, employment, health and social services.

To help realise these goals, the Commonwealth Secretariat embarked on a National Youth Policy Development 2000 Project that seeks to provide:

- training and the development of resource materials to help build the capacity of Commonwealth countries to develop, implement, monitor and review national youth policies and programmes
- technical assistance through regional facilitators to Commonwealth governments who have expressed a desire to formulate, promote and implement new national youth policies or to upgrade existing ones.

## Advantages of having a youth policy

This commitment made by the Commonwealth Youth Ministers certainly brings a sense of hope to many youth development workers like ourselves. We know that having a youth policy in place that has the backing and support of the government will help improve our work and therefore bring about improvement to the lives of young women and men in our countries. It is an investment for the future.

But having a youth policy in place does not mean that everything will run smoothly for youth from then on. Such a policy can only be useful if the country to whom it belongs is very clear about what it wants to achieve. The goals of the policy therefore must be determined at the very first stages of planning and formulation so that the planned activities and strategies for youth are implemented successfully. To this end, the Commonwealth Handbook on Youth Policy (Commonwealth Secretariat, 2000) notes:

“The creation of a national youth policy is an acknowledgement of the specific needs of young women and men, as well as a formal recognition of their unique contribution to national development. It provides the means and a symbol for society as a whole to declare, document and intensify their commitment to their young citizens, and an opportunity to determine appropriate priorities, goals and strategies. It provides an opportunity to give expression to a nation’s understanding of values, rights and responsibilities as regards their young women and men.”

“There are several advantages to be derived by governments from a National Youth Policy. Chief among these are:”

- “It appeals to society to give priority to youth concerns and this may generate a spirit of cooperation among the young and old.”
- “It can have an overarching coordination role and give direction to all other policies that directly and indirectly affect young people.”
- “It fosters integration between Ministries and government departments involved in the promotion of youth needs and responses.”
- “It provides a reference point for youth to mobilise their resources and participate meaningfully in national development.”
- “It provides an opportunity to mainstream youth policies into other sectional ministries.”
- “It encourages strategic and forward planning.”





### Activity 4.3

(about 20 minutes)

- 1 Study the youth policies of the two countries that you have selected and state what the main goals are for each of their national youth policies. Fill in the table below.

Name of country	Goals of youth policy
Country 1:	
Country 2:	

- 2 Give two similarities and two differences in the goals of the youth policies of the two countries.

Similarities:

(i)

(ii)

.....

Differences:

(i)

(ii)

.....

- 3 Based on your experience in the field and what you've learned about youth policy in these two countries, assess which one has better chances to succeed. Why do you think so? Write your reflective answers in your learning journal.

## Common characteristics of youth policies

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In this section, we are going to explore what countries tend to want to accomplish through their national youth policies. An analysis of 13 national youth policies from the four regions of the Commonwealth (Asia, Africa, the Caribbean and the Pacific) identified several common elements in the youth policy framework:

- participation
- the transference of a set of values
- a sense of community
- nation building
- the need to control
- the environment
- tolerance
- high standards.

Let's take a look at these elements one by one.

### Participation

Participation is specified in almost every one of the policies – in particular, the participation of young people in decision-making about the activities and programmes in which they will be involved. All the policies refer to participation by all young people, and some also name specific groups.

### Transference of a set of values

You will already have read about values that are considered important in the Commonwealth in Module 6 *Commonwealth Values*.

The transference to young people of a set of values is not always mentioned in youth policies as such, but it is always implied at some point – for example, when values are referred to in different sections like 'employment' or 'civic education'. Values that are regularly referred to are:

- discipline
- patriotism, sometimes called 'citizenship'
- volunteering, sometimes called 'selfless service'
- leadership
- respect for the principles of democracy, human dignity and the environment
- tolerance

- equity
- pursuit of high standards.

## Sense of community

A sense of community is intrinsic to values. Almost all of the national youth policies talk about the need for community and stress the importance of promoting a sense of responsibility for the community among young people. This is embodied in programmes that encourage young people to volunteer to complete community projects and programmes that talk about ‘respecting each other’.

## Nation building

Nation building is linked to leadership, participation and volunteering. This is demonstrated through such activities as National Youth Days / Weeks, Youth Volunteer Schemes and National Cultural Days / Festivals. Sometimes there is support for an element of forceful persuasion, even coercion, when it is recommended that young people are organised through schools.

## Need to control

The need for social control of youth underpins most national youth policies. While this is not at odds with the underlying purpose of youth policy-making, it often seems to contradict the promotion of participation. It is a contradiction that you will have to resolve continually.

## The environment

Environmental citizenship, which translates our concerns for the environment into positive action, is linked to the worldwide call for a safer and better environment for people to live in. As a youth development worker, you should have a concern about the coming generations and appreciate the need to keep the world a safe and comfortable place for the young people of the future. You will learn more about what you can do when you work through Module 13 *Sustainable Development and Environmental Issues*.

## Tolerance

Tolerance refers to the need to appreciate and understand other people’s cultures and beliefs. This is related to values and the need to develop patience and understanding of the way people think, act or behave so as to promote social harmony and peace.

## High standards

Finally, the notion of high standards is related to values. Young people need to be encouraged to strive for the best in everything they do. This helps them to grow as characters, to increase in self-confidence and to be able to participate effectively in issues and activities that affect them.

All these common elements are essential in the process of developing a youth policy, be it a national public policy, broad in scope and impact, or an institutional policy with a more restricted scope in the field of practice.



You will have discussed these values in Module 2 *Young People and Society*. At this point, if you have access to that module now, you may wish to review the relevant parts of it, which deal with these values.



### Self-help question 4.1

(about 20 minutes)

- 1 Explain why and how the principle of social control can sometimes be at odds with the principle of participation.
  
- 2 Give an example from your own experience as to how the principles of social control and participation can conflict with each other.

*Compare your answers with those provided at the end of the unit.*



## Activity 4.4

(about 20 minutes)

Based on your experience as a youth development worker, write down in your learning journal an example that illustrates the importance of youth participation in policy development and how that participation can impact on your work.

## The scope of youth policy

‘Scope’ usually refers to the limits of the subject we are concerned with. In this case, we are talking about youth policy, so the question we are faced with here is ‘How much or how little about youth or youth development do we wish to include in this policy?’ The answer to this will be different for each country.

The scope of youth policy can be as wide or as narrow as a country or a policy writer deems it to be. Most countries define the parameters (limits) of their youth policy. They do this by identifying national principles or themes, which may be influenced by the availability of resources and political commitment as well as by a society’s values and principles. For example, Botswana identifies the following themes in its National Youth Policy (Ministry of Labour and Home Affairs, 1996):

- Democracy      Puso ya batha ka batho
- Development    Ditiro tsa dithlabololo
- Self-reliance    Boipelego
- Unity             Popagano ya sechaba.

In its document *Realising the Potential*, the Ministry of Youth Affairs of New Zealand (1996) identified its key themes in youth policy as:

- Family
- Learning
- Working
- Well-being
- Citizenship.

What the Ministry did in this document was to identify all government policies that fit into each of the themes. Government policies were identified as being either specific to youth or not. Those youth-specific policies were divided into policies that applied to all youth (generic) and those that applied only to targeted groups of youth. Policies that were not specific to youth were also similarly

divided into generic and targeted policies. The resulting table is called a Youth Policy Matrix.

The information was set out in the following framework:

### Youth Policy Matrix

Policy	Generic	Targeted
Youth (age) specific	Policies that relate to all young people in reference to a specific issue such as: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● providing schooling</li> <li>● voting age.</li> </ul>	Policies that target assistance to a specific subgroup of the youth population such as: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● special assistance for young job seekers (Youth Action).</li> </ul>
Non-youth specific	Policies that relate to all people in reference to a specific issue such as: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● increasing labour market flexibility (Employment Contracts Act).</li> </ul>	Policies that target assistance to a subgroup of the total population in reference to a specific issue such as: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● reduced health costs for low income individuals/families.</li> </ul>

In the New Zealand example, the scope of the policy appears wide but is set in a tight framework. This fits in with Recommendation (ii) of the Commonwealth Ministers of Youth meeting, May 1995, which said:

“The parameters and scope of the national youth policies should be determined by each country, as a response to its specific political set up, social situation and cultural ethos.”



### Activity 4.5

(about 20 minutes)

What are the themes for your country as they appear in your youth policy?

Look again at the youth policies of the two countries that you selected for Activity 4.3. Identify their common principles and register them in your learning journal.

Well done! This brings you to the end of Unit 4. We recommend that, if you have a chance, you read as widely as possible about youth policy development.

- Try to read newspaper and journal articles related to youth policy development.
- If you have access to the internet, you may also search the web on this issue.
- You can take the opportunity to review Readings 1 and 2 in Unit 1. These readings focus on young people and policy issues. Now that you have a broader understanding of the issues around youth and policy, you may find that these readings will consolidate your learning.

You will find that reading as much as you can on youth and policy will expand your views and provide you with background information for your assignment tasks.

## Unit summary

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In this unit, you have covered the following main points:

- Youth policy has different status in different countries of the Commonwealth: from very prominent in some to almost non-existent in others.
- The essential features of a youth policy are: participation, values, a sense of community, nation building, social control, the environment, tolerance and high standards.
- It is very important that all stakeholders involved in youth policy development reach a consensus on the definition of 'youth' before engaging in policy development. Remember that 'youth' can be defined in many different ways – for example, it can be defined as an age category or a transition stage.
- Youth policy, prompted by the May 1995 Ministers Meeting and the recommendations of that body, has gained increased importance in the Commonwealth. An example of this is the National Youth Policy Development 2000 Project, spearheaded by the Commonwealth Secretariat, which aims to provide training, develop local capacity and offer technical assistance in the creation, review and evaluation of youth policies in countries throughout the Commonwealth.
- There are similarities and differences between the youth policies of different countries. In your work, you compared two policies from two different countries.
- The scope of youth policy can be as wide or as narrow as the country or policy writers want it to be – specifically, you analysed the examples of two countries.

At the end of this Unit, you should have completed five Activities. From these, you should have registered at least two reflective entries in your learning journal for assessment.

Review the learning outcomes at the beginning of this unit and see if you are now able to do them. Look through your learning journal again and take this chance to review all your entries. You may find that you can add detail to some of them, or even cut something out.

In the next unit, we will look at youth policy as an area of the wider public policy arena. You will be introduced to a systematic process of analysing how government and NGO policies interact and interface with policies that affect the youth in your country.

Now it is time for you to do Assignment 2, which comes at the end of this unit.



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## Answers to self-help questions

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### Self-help question 4.1

- 1 The principles of social control and participation can conflict with each other due to the fact that in trying to keep youths under control, you inevitably confine their freedom to act with youthful commitment and energy to those things that will not threaten or unbalance the social order. Because young people do not always see the whole situation from their necessarily immature perspective, they may be tempted simply to withdraw some of their wholehearted commitment and participation. They may find it hard to reduce their levels of participation in things that affect them closely, and so experience frustration.
- 2 Answers to this question will vary depending on your experience. Make sure you discuss your examples with your tutor when you have a chance.

## References

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Commonwealth Secretariat (1995) 'Communiqué of Meeting of Commonwealth Youth Ministers, Port of Spain, Trinidad and Tobago, 17–19 May 1995', Commonwealth Secretariat, London.

Commonwealth Youth Programme (2000) *Youth Policy 2000. Formulating and Implementing National Youth Policies: A Commonwealth Handbook*, Commonwealth Secretariat, London.

Ministry of Youth Affairs (1996) *Realising the Potential: Whakatinana I te Pumanawa Nohopuku*, Ministry of Youth Affairs, Wellington, New Zealand.

Ministry of Labour and Home Affairs (1996) *National Youth Policy*, Republic of Botswana, February.

## Assignment

First, a reminder about the assessment requirements for this module. Your work in this module will be assessed in the following ways.

- 1 A written assignment of 700 words maximum, which will require about 2 hours of work (worth 10 per cent of the final mark)
- 2 A 1,500 word research assignment, outlined below, which will require about 6 hours of work (worth 40 per cent of the final mark)
- 3 A final written assignment of 1,000 words or a final written exam (worth 30 per cent of the final mark)
- 4 A review of the learning journal you keep (worth 20 per cent of the final mark).

*Note: make sure you discuss the assessment requirements with your tutor so that you are clear about what you are expected to do and when, and any particular requirements of your institution.*

### Assignment 2

Take the national social welfare policy for your country and critically evaluate its strengths and challenges.

Now, choose a social policy area (housing, for example). Create a questionnaire and interview young people, NGOs and government agencies providing youth programmes in your community to gather data about the impact of this policy on youth development. Make sure that your questions take into account the social, political and economic realities of your interviewees.

Write a 1,500 word report illustrating your findings and make recommendations on how the policy could be enhanced to bring about positive change for youth in your community.



# Unit 5: Youth policy and the wider policy environment

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## Unit introduction

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Welcome to Unit 5 *Youth policy and the wider policy environment*. In this unit, you will explore the relationship of youth policy to the wider policy environment. You will examine how youth policies influence and interact with other types of policies, whether made by government or non-government agencies. As you work through the unit, you will learn about the criteria and tools used for assessing youth policies and will appreciate the importance of youth policy in a country's national development plans. Specifically, you will identify the areas of linkage between the youth policy and other public sector policies in your country.

The main purpose of the unit is to help you understand the importance of youth policy in the overall national development of a country.

## Unit learning outcomes

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When you have worked through this unit, you should be able to:

- describe how to analyse youth policies using a specific framework and tools
- outline the essential elements of a successful youth policy
- describe grassroots policy development and the potential barriers to grassroots activism.

## Youth policy and the wider policy environment

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Youth policy, like other policies, does not stand alone. Youth policies are influenced by other public sector policies, both government and non-government, that deal with and affect young people. They therefore cannot be looked at in isolation but must be considered together with policies in other areas.

### Analysing how policy impacts on youth

Several tools are used to help analyse what policies in the wider policy arena impact on youth. The following tools have been adapted from *Realising the Potential*, a document on the status of youth policies in New Zealand (Ministry of Youth Affairs, 1996).

#### Consult reference documents

The following are reference documents that may be used by a government to help analyse what wider public policies may impact on youth.

- strategic results areas
- budget documents
- statements from various sectors
- international treaties
- international programmes and projects.

#### Identify the critical issues for youth

Critical issues for youth will be different for each country. Those that have been identified for youth in your country can be used to inform youth policy development and analysis. There are several helpful documents to which you can refer. These include the Commonwealth Youth Charter, the Commonwealth Plan of Action on Gender and Development, the Charter of the United Nations, the World Programme of Action for Youth to the Year 2000 and Beyond, the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, International Labour Organization (ILO) resolutions concerning young men and women, the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (Fourth World Conference on Women) and the International Charter of Physical Education and Sport (UNESCO 1978).

*Copies of these documents can be obtained through your Regional CYP Office (and see the references section).*

#### Create a youth policy matrix

This matrix identifies policies that are youth-specific and non youth-specific and then divides these into generic policies (applying to all



people) and those that target youth. See the end of Unit 4 for a full explanation and an example of this matrix.



### Activity 5.1

(about 20 minutes)

Think about the reference documents and tools suggested above and answer the following question.

- What research would you do if you wanted to explore the impact of a wider policy on youth in your community?

Discuss your ideas with your fellow students or colleagues. Remember to record your reflections and discussions in your learning journal.

## Elements of a successful youth policy

While it is very important to understand the impact of wider policies on youth, it is also vital to recognise the elements that make a successful youth policy. In discussions that the Commonwealth Youth Programme has had with youth policy specialists from the four regions of the Commonwealth, agreement has been reached that a national youth policy should be judged on its ability to be:

- “a statement that gives young women and men faith in the future”
- “a vision for youth development”
- “an opportunity for young women and men to shape their own future, assume responsibility and play an active role in the life of their country and community”
- “a statement of values and principles”
- “a gender-sensitive and holistic response to needs and aspirations”
- “an instrument to raise the profile of young men and women within the government and the wider community”
- “a vehicle based on the ideals, commitment, energy and creativity of young women and men”
- “a statement of the relationship between a country’s youth and national goals”
- “a framework for future action”

- “a catalyst for communication and co-ordination between government and non-government agencies concerned with youth development”
- “a document of relevance for all concerned for and involved with young women and men”
- “a benchmark to monitor and review policy and programme relevance and achievement.”

As you can see, there are many elements that a youth policy should have, and it is important that you understand what they mean, especially in relation to your own country.



## Activity 5.2

(about 20 minutes)

Consider the above elements of a successful youth policy. Review your understanding of the various elements with your fellow students or colleagues and answer the following questions.

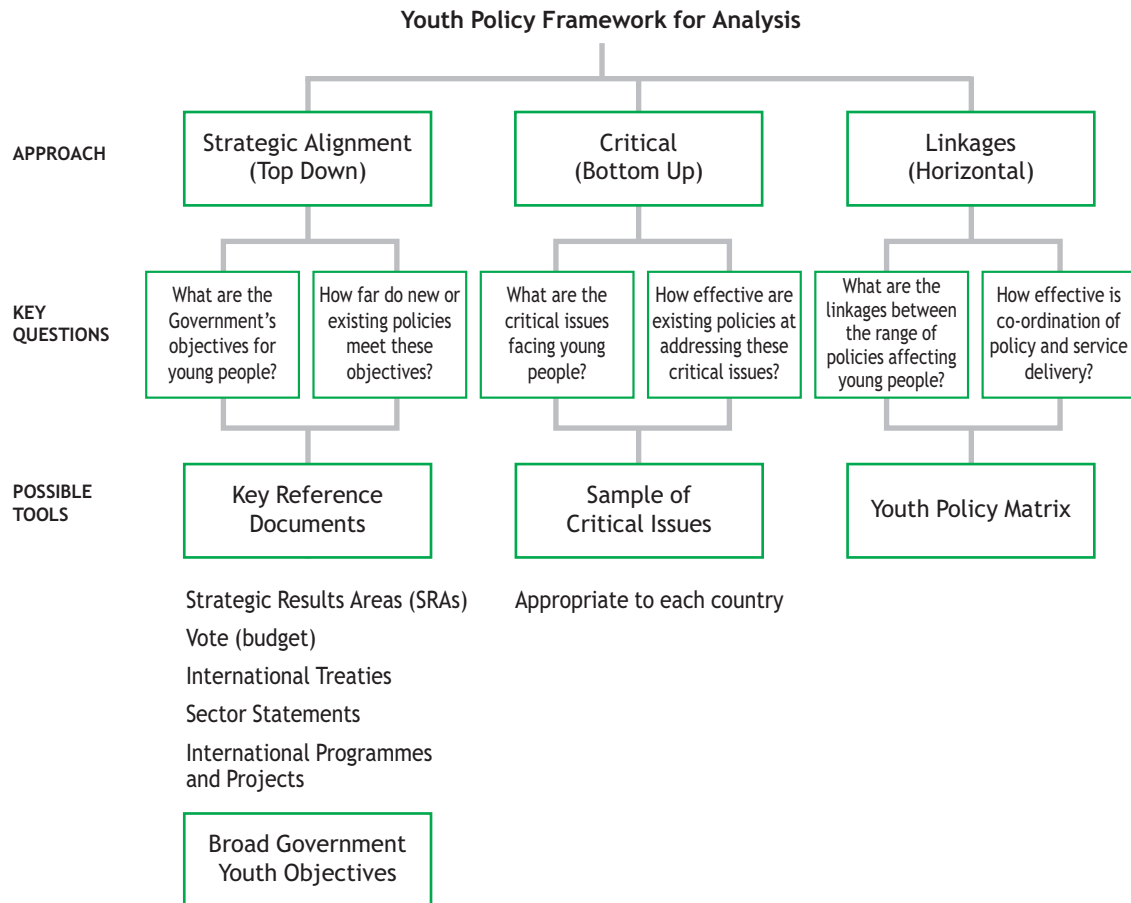
- 1 Do you agree with these elements? If not, which ones do you not agree with and why?
  
- 2 Are there some that conflict with each other? If yes, in what way/s?

Don't forget to register your answers and reflective thoughts in your learning journal. In Unit 6, you will look again at the essential elements of a youth policy and evaluate the youth policy of your own country (or one in your region) against them.

In this section, we have been introduced to various tools that are used to analyse the impact of a wider policy on youth. We have also explored what are the elements that contribute to a successful youth policy. Now let's look at a policy development framework in more detail.

## A policy development framework

As you have already seen, several tools are used to assist with analysing what policies in the wider policy arena impact on youth. Here is a simple yet effective framework based on Commonwealth approaches to formulating and implementing national youth policies, as outlined in a Commonwealth handbook (Commonwealth Youth Programme, 2000).



This framework identifies three things to analyse which policies in the wider arena impact on youth:

- the approach that will be taken;
- the key questions that are central to the development of youth policies;
- the tools that can be used in facilitating the analysis.

Let's take a look at each of these, remembering always that this is only one of several frameworks that can be used. Your own country might have used a different procedure to develop its youth policy.

### The approach

This has three dimensions to it: strategic alignment, critical issues and linkages. New Zealand applied these in the following ways:

- *Strategic alignment* was the top-down approach that involved identifying the strategic objectives of government for youth and youth development.
- *Critical issues* was the bottom-up approach that enabled discussion with the non-governmental sector and youth workers in the field.
- *Linkages* was the horizontal approach that enabled consultation with other government agencies that worked with young women and men.

## Key questions

Six key questions were identified that are central to the development of youth policies:

- What are the government's objectives for young people?
- To what extent do new or existing policies meet these objectives?
- What are the critical issues facing young people?
- How effective are existing policies at addressing these critical issues?
- What are the linkages between the range of policies affecting young people?
- How effective is co-ordination of policy and service delivery?



### Activity 5.3

(about 20 minutes)

Review the six key questions above, then answer the following questions:

- 1 What is the relevance of these questions to analysing which public policies impact youth in your country and the way the government makes youth policy?
- 2 If they are not relevant, why not?

Don't forget to record your answers in your learning journal.

## Possible tools

Remember that earlier in this unit, in Activity 5.1, you identified and discussed tools that can be used to help analyse a youth policy? These tools are listed as 'possible' tools and they included consulting key reference documents, identifying the critical issues that impact youth and creating a youth policy matrix.

You may have other possible tools to add – from either your reading or your own experience.



## Activity 5.4

(about 10 minutes)

Review the tools you identified in Activity 5.1 to analyse a youth policy. Now, think of other tools that you have used or found out about in your reading that can be used to understand how youth policy is part of the big picture of a government's public sector policies. Discuss with your colleagues what these tools are and write your ideas down in your learning journal.



## Self-help question 5.1

(about 20 minutes)

Check your understanding of the policy development framework by answering the following questions:

- 1 State the three things needed to be able to analyse a youth policy.
  
- 2 State in your own words how these three things relate to each other in order to make the analysis of policy effective.
  
- 3 Which of the three approaches (strategic alignment, critical issues and linkages) facilitates the greatest involvement of young women and men?

*Compare your answers with those provided at the end of the unit.*



## Activity 5.5

(about 60 minutes)

Now you are going to analyse the youth policy in your country, using the Youth Policy Framework for Analysis. You were asked to get a copy of this policy earlier in this module. If your country does not have a youth policy, get hold of one from a country in your region.

Using the information in this unit and anything else that you have gathered, plus the framework above, analyse the status of youth policy in your country. Don't forget to discuss your ideas with your friends, family, work colleagues, elders and just about anyone who is available. You will be amazed at what you come up with.

Summarise your findings in three paragraphs under these headings:

- Approaches used
- Key questions
- Tools used.

You should conclude your work with a statement on the status of your country's youth policy. Remember to capture this work in your learning journal.

## Grassroots policy development: another approach

This is policy development that has input from the people directly affected by its implementation. The Youth Policy Framework for Analysis has, as its central stem, the critical (bottom-up) approach. This is one aspect of grassroots policy development. A broader definition of grassroots development describes how initiatives that are not connected with the government or corporate-based can arise spontaneously in response to unmet local needs. Usually the initiatives are carried out by groups formed for that purpose. Such grassroots groups generally respond to local needs, but they may be involved in local, regional or global activities.

Grassroots development is particularly appropriate to youth. This is because young people are unlikely to be involved in the policy community, although of course they may well have access to that community and should exploit that access whenever possible. As a youth development worker, you might already be involved in some aspects of policy planning and formulation in your own community

or workplace. One way of becoming involved in learning about grassroots activism is to involve yourself in a programme that may already be up and running with a capacity for grassroots activism. The next reading will give you an idea of a programme that has this sort of scope.



Turn to Reading 5 *Jamaica's Social Development Commission*. This is a programme that has in it plenty of scope for grassroots activism, as outlined by the Social Development Commission in its Corporate Plan for 1995–96.

Look carefully at this policy document.



### Activity 5.6

(about 20 minutes)

Using your understanding of *Jamaica's Social Development Commission* (Reading 5), which outlines problem areas and suggests strategies for dealing with them, answer the following questions.

- Which of these problem areas do you have in your country?
- How might they be addressed? Note that problems might be solved entirely, reduced or prevented.

Register your thoughts in your learning journal.

## A case study revisited – grassroots activism explored

As we continue to explore grassroots activism, do you remember that in Unit 3 in Module 3 *Principles and Practice of Youth Development Work* you looked at the case study of the Jamaican women's group, Sistren, which was working among poor rural women in a conscientisation programme? The main barriers to that kind of grassroots activism were:

- the rural women's lack of education and low self-esteem
- the fact that structural adjustment had savagely reduced the flow of money into families and put women out of work
- the women's limited technical knowledge and lack of political or debating skills.

These barriers were largely overcome by using drama and film, techniques that helped the women to represent their situations to themselves. From this starting point, the women fixed on an order of priority for changing things – from repairing the village pumping system (borrowing the expertise of a village man who knew how the pump was made) through to challenging their local female councillor

to divert resources towards them (using debating and discourse skills learned through drama and role play).

The first barrier to overcome was to persuade the women that they could all be part of the change process. Sistren knew that people all have enormous untapped intellect, social intelligence and language. What they did was to set about creating the right accelerated learning conditions for those things to develop. The barriers to people's ability to learn and change are socially constructed barriers and can be broken down.



## Self-help question 5.2

(about 20 minutes)

- 1 List the names of organisations in your country that are involved in grassroots policy development and state what sectors of the population they aim to serve or promote. (One example has been done for you.)

**Example:** National Council of Women - All women's groups and networks in the country.

- 2 What sort of strategies and activities do they use to try to promote different issues that are important to the groups of people they serve?
- 3 What are two main problems that face grassroots policy development in your country?

*Compare your answers with those provided at the end of the unit.*



## Barriers to grassroots policy development

As you have seen from the Sistren example, grassroots policy development can do a lot to improve awareness and understanding among disadvantaged sections of a community or nation. However, there can be real barriers to grassroots policy development, such as:

- the unwillingness of those who have social advantages to share with those who do not have them
- the effect of bureaucracy
- the lack of social cohesion and cooperation
- the lack of capacity building
- a genuine lack of resources, particularly capital and land.



### Activity 5.7

(about 20 minutes)

Identify and summarise those barriers that you think stand in the way of grassroots policy development in your country.

Against each barrier, suggest strategies that might overcome it - e.g., a barrier may be too much bureaucracy for a grassroots youth group that wants to get a literacy programme going if they have to fill in forms for an agency to consider. One strategy may be to find other ways for the group to make their request of an agency through discussion and verbal story telling.

Record your answers in your learning journal.

Carry on your research into grassroots activism by reading the chapter in Reading 6.



In Reading 5 you learned that, as part of Jamaica's attempts to deal with poverty, at least from Norman Manley's time as Premier, the Social Development Commission has had a powerful role to play in grassroots work.

Now turn to Reading 6 'Planning Institute of Jamaica, Economic and Social Survey, 1991'.

Next, let's consider the following case study and what we can learn about grassroots activism and how it can involve youth.



## Case study 5.1

### Grassroots activism

In the Solomon Islands, there is an organisation called the Solomon Islands Development Trust (SIDT), which could be regarded as being involved in grassroots activism. It is a non-governmental organisation (NGO) dedicated to improving the conditions and awareness of people in rural communities. One of its aims is to raise awareness among people about issues that affect them.

These issues include:

- voting and political rights
- the effects of logging
- alcohol abuse
- teenage pregnancies.

As the SIDT workers are working mostly with people who have not had much education, they utilise activities like theatre groups and songs to ensure that the people understand the central issues that they are trying to promote.



## Activity 5.8

(about 20 minutes)

Answer and discuss the following questions with your colleagues. Record your answers in your learning journal.

- As a youth development worker, think of other issues that impact youth in your community.
- Are there grassroots organisations in your community that are raising awareness of youth issues? If so, is there a role for you to play with them as a youth development worker?
- Discuss with your colleagues how an organization like SIDT in the Solomon Islands could help raise awareness of such youth issues.

## Unit summary

In this unit, you have covered the following main points:

- how to analyse youth policies
- the three models used to analyse youth policies
- the essential elements of successful youth policies
- a framework for policy development
- the concept of grassroots policy development and how to apply it to your own country's situation
- the barriers to grassroots activism.

At the end of this Unit, you should have completed eight activities. From these, you must have registered at least three reflective entries in your learning journal for assessment.

Review the learning outcomes at the beginning of this unit and see if you are now able to do them. Look through your learning journal again and take this chance to review all your entries.

In the next unit, we will revisit the elements that make up a successful policy and examine the contents of a typical youth policy document. You will also be given an opportunity to look again at the youth policy of your country and to make an assessment as to whether it will become a successful policy for use in your country.

## Answers to self-help questions

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### Self-help question 5.1

- 1 Approaches, key questions and tools.
- 2 These three things all relate to each other and are interdependent in any policy analysis process as they help to make certain that all important considerations and consultations have been made to ensure the policy is effective.
- 3 Critical issues.

### Self-help question 5.2

- 1 Your answer will vary according to your specific country.
- 2 Strategies for promoting issues might include:
  - radio outreach programmes
  - action and theatre performances
  - community-based workshops.
- 3 The main problems may be lack of finance or low levels of recognition accorded to these organisations by government or communities.

## References

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- Commonwealth Youth Programme (1996) *Commonwealth Youth Charter*, Commonwealth Secretariat, London.
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- United Nations (1945) *United Nations Charter*, <http://www.un.org/aboutun/charter/>.
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- United Nations (2000) *The World Programme of Action for Youth to the Year 2000 and Beyond*, <http://www.un.org/events/youth98/backinfo/ywpa2000.htm>.



# Unit 6: Success and failure

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## Unit introduction

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Welcome to Unit 6 *Success and failure*, which is the final unit in this module. Here you will have an opportunity to examine the national youth policy of your country (or one in your region) to assess whether it is consistent with the recommended elements of a successful youth policy. Throughout the study of this unit, we will ask you to select those aspects of a policy that make it unsuccessful and suggest strategic and practical ways to improve it.

While working through this unit, it is important that you adopt a critical approach so that you can identify clearly those areas that need improvement in your country's national youth policy.

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## Unit learning outcomes

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When you have worked through this unit, you should be able to:

- evaluate the success of youth policies through, for example, the use of performance indicators
- establish and/or work within partnerships created to achieve key objectives of youth policy at local level.

## Measuring success or failure

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Often we do not get what we want despite planning carefully and making every effort. It is the same with policies. Not every policy is successful – there are failures. Sometimes the failure stares us in the face and other times it takes a while before we realise that something is wrong. This applies to any policy, whether of government or non-governmental organisations (NGOs).

In this unit, you will spend some time discussing the elements that make up a successful policy. You will remember these elements from Unit 5. To remind you of the details, here they are again.

### Elements of a successful policy

“A National Youth Policy should be judged against its ability to be:”

- “a statement that gives young women and men faith in the future”
- “a vision for youth development”
- “an opportunity for young women and men to shape their own future, assume responsibility and play an active role in the life of their country and community”
- “a statement of values and principles”
- “a gender-sensitive and holistic response to needs and aspirations”
- “an instrument to raise the profile of young men and women within the government and the wider community”
- “a vehicle based on the ideals, commitment, energy and creativity of young women and men”
- “a statement of the relationship between a country’s youth and national goals”
- “a framework for future action”
- “a catalyst for communication and co-ordination between government and non-government agencies concerned with youth development”
- “a document of relevance for all concerned for and involved with young women and men”
- “a benchmark to monitor and review policy and programme relevance and achievement.”

This is a framework against which you can measure the success of a national youth policy. In Unit 5, Activity 5.2 asked you to discuss these elements with other students or colleagues in order for you to

understand them better. Have a look at your learning journal to remind yourself of your findings.

## Key headings for a youth policy

Now let's look at some other people's concepts of what makes up a youth policy. Here is what has been identified by Peter Kenyon and Simon White (1996) of IDEAS in Australia as the subject matter that should go into a national youth policy. These can be used as key headings in a youth policy and can also be used as a framework for an NGO.

### KEY HEADINGS OF A NATIONAL YOUTH POLICY

- 1 Preface
- 2 Introduction
  - 2.1 Background rationale
  - 2.2 Definition of youth
  - 2.3 Youth profile
  - 2.4 Historical and contemporary issues impinging on youth
  - 2.5 Background to the development of youth services in the community
  - 2.6 Reference to other relevant policies documents
  - 2.7 Principles and values underlying policy
- 3 Goal(s)/mission statement
- 4 Policy objectives
- 5 Rights, responsibilities and obligations of young women and men
- 6 Key strategy areas
- 7 Priority specific target groups
- 8 Implementation mechanism
- 9 Conclusion
- 10 Additions/Appendix



### Activity 6.1

(about 20 minutes)

Look at your country's national youth policy. Does it have the same headings as those proposed by Kenyon and White? If there are some headings that are different, can you explain the reasons for the observed differences? Write down your thoughts in your learning journal.

## Essential features of a youth policy

Building on the two frameworks you've just looked at, policy analysts have also identified the following as essential features of a youth policy. Each of the features listed below also has a set of points showing how the particular feature can be demonstrated. These are called performance indicators and are used as a concrete way of measuring success.

Let's look at each of the essential features in turn.

- 1 *There is a manifestation of political will and commitment of the nation to the cause of all round development of youth and their integration with other sections of the society.*

This is demonstrated by:

- a government body responsible for youth policy and programmes
- a budget allocation.

- 2 *A clearly discernible linkage is established between the development of youth and the overall national development plan.*

This is demonstrated by:

- statements in the youth policy
- actual programmes set up
- budget commitments.

- 3 *The policy is based on an objective and realistic assessment of the existing as well as prospective areas of concern and issues of development for youth in particular, and the nation in general.*

This is demonstrated by objectives that are SMART – i.e.,

Specific

Measurable

Achievable

Realistic

Time bound.

- 4 *There is provision for critical and objective review of the policy from time to time so that it remains consistent with the changing scenario in youth work and ground realities of the country.*

This is demonstrated by:

- a statement in the policy that enables a review to take place
- the inclusion of the review in the strategic plan
- the report of the review.

- 5 *The policy must contain qualitative as well as quantitative targets to be achieved within a specified period of time.*

This is demonstrated by the inclusion of descriptive analyses of achievements.

- 6 *Only broad parameters of work and general outline of action are spelled out so that the implementing agencies, especially the NGOs, have adequate scope and freedom to evolve their own programmes and activities on the basis of their philosophy of work, objectives, needs of the beneficiary groups and resources.*

This is demonstrated by:

- the number of government and non-government agencies involved in the policy implementation
- all agencies stating publicly and privately (e.g., in their own newsletters) how satisfied they are with the policy.

- 7 *In the process of development of the youth policy, it will be desirable to consult all sections of the community, most importantly youth.*

This is demonstrated by:

- the number of consultations
- the number of agencies and young people involved
- the number of youth-specific agencies involved.

- 8 *Specific youth groups are identified for priority attention.*

This is demonstrated by:

- clear identification of specific youth groups
- clear identification of policy statements and programmes related to these groups.

- 9 *An integrated approach in the development of youth forums is one of the cornerstones of youth policy.*

This is demonstrated by:

- the number of youth and youth-related forums held
- the membership of the forums
- reports produced as a result
- the direct or indirect impact of the forums on youth policies, which may show up in changes and new programmes
- how well the policy is known by young women and men
- how often the policy makes the news
- whether the news it makes is positive or negative.

Of course, you can add further features by which you think a policy can be measured to judge whether or not it is successful – and don't forget to develop performance indicators. The purpose of this list is to

help you understand that each feature of policy must have indicators to show whether the policy is successful, or on its way to being a success, in the environment in which it operates.

All the elements and essential features, along with the performance indicators you have learned about, constitute a framework for the development of successful policies. Let's look at how you can apply this framework within your scope of practice.

## Frameworks in action

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Knowing the essential features and being able to work out whether a policy is successful are only the first steps. You also need to be able to apply frameworks to assist you with monitoring and evaluating the success of youth policies.

### An example

Imagine for a moment that you are a student in an under-provided primary school. A youth development initiative has been established to boost educational standards in your school. Think about what would indicate to you that the initiative has been successful.

### Possible performance indicators

Here are some possible performance indicators that would tell you how successful the programme had been:

- You would probably expect at a minimum to be literate and numerate.
- You should be able to make ready connections between school learning and the real world you live in, and to use school knowledge to improve that world. For example:
  - in the home, you would know how to improve conditions of hygiene, nutrition and family relationships
  - in rural work around the home, you would be able to use knowledge learned in school about soil, plants and vegetables/cereals etc. to evaluate methods of growing things.
- You should be able to go on with your studies when the opportunity arises.
- If employed in modern sector work, you should be able to analyse a situation quickly and adapt your behaviour to the labour process, so that you work safely, efficiently and to a high standard.

These are different kinds of indicators but they are essential in the development process. As a youth development worker, you need to be

able to develop indicators as concrete and specific as these. The following self-help question gives you an opportunity to try.



### Self-help question 6.1

(about 20 minutes)

Imagine you are part of an initiative concerned with helping poor urban women to deal with adolescent children on the edge of the drug scene.

- 1 What sort of assistance would you give to the women?
  
- 2 How would you spell out the effectiveness of the assistance in terms of performance indicators? Write down at least three indicators.

*Compare your answers with those provided at the end of the unit.*

## Evaluation of the effectiveness of policies

In an evaluation exercise, we try to measure the level of success or failure of an activity or process. It is the same with policies. Evaluation should involve the policy; it should also involve the means of implementation of the policy – that is, an action plan.

In Module 4 *Working with People in their Communities* you learned how to develop a workplan. An action plan for the purpose of policy implementation would use the same framework (setting goals and objectives, determining what needs to be done by what date, etc.). The work done in Module 8 *Project Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation* is also relevant.

A national youth policy should be accompanied by a national action plan, which is designed as a cooperative expression of all the stakeholders in youth development. As noted by the Working Group on Youth Policy Development, at the Commonwealth Ministers' Meeting in Trinidad and Tobago in 1995: *It is not enough to formulate national youth policies. What is more important is their implementation.... Resources should be made available to ensure that this plan of action is fully implemented.*

The evaluation process involves a systematic comparison and analysis of the original objectives against the results achieved. If we achieve the objectives, we know that the policy has gone according to plan. If we don't, then we know that the plan has gone wrong somewhere – so we need to look for the loopholes and gaps and try to improve the activities and strategies included in the policy.

There are two parts to the evaluation of a national youth policy.

1 A review of its successes and failures

It must be clear in the policy document that a review will be carried out to measure the policy's success or failure. The effectiveness of the policy should be measured primarily against the expected outcomes and performance indicators that have been articulated in the national action plan.

For those unfamiliar with the structure of a national action plan, the CYP Youth Policy Handbook (2000) identifies the following model structure:

- specific policy objective that provides the rationale for each set of actions (programmes, projects or strategies)
- programmes, projects and strategies that help achieve policy goals and objectives
- action steps that involve a detailed description of actual activities and tasks to implement the actions
- target group(s) that directs each action to a specific group in society (e.g., women, young people with disabilities)
- expected outcomes that anticipate the results of the actions
- responsible agency that identifies the body responsible for overall implementation and coordination of action
- support agencies that are also involved at different levels
- time frame that indicates when the action will occur and over what period
- resource implications that indicate the type and quantity of resources required.
- performance indicators that can be used to evaluate and monitor the degree of success within a specific period.

2 An assessment of the processes used in applying the policy

This is a more difficult matter and requires you to take a broader view of the policy. For example, many youth policies talk about 'participation' and 'empowerment'. Often the reality is far removed from either of these. A detailed analysis of the processes by which these two principles are applied and implemented in the policy, accompanied by an assessment of whether or not their objectives have been met, will demonstrate whether they have been achieved or not.



On a general note, the national youth policy focuses mostly on content and process, whereas the national action plan deals exclusively with implementation. Generally, translating policy into actions (implementation) requires actions that are:

- economic (finance)
- social (correct public attitudes)
- organisational (infrastructure)
- political (decision-making at local and national level).

All of these can present challenges during the implementation stage of a specific policy, as you most likely are aware of due to your experience as a youth development worker.



### Self-help question 6.2

(about 5 minutes)

Look at these statements and decide whether they are true or false.

	True	False
All policies, whether made by governments or NGOs, are successful	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Indicators help one to assess whether a certain feature of youth policy has been achieved or not.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Evaluation is an essential element of any policy, whether it is a youth policy or a public sector policy.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

*Compare your answers with those provided at the end of the unit.*



### Case study 6.1

#### Young women and power?

Here is a statement by a young woman called Asenate F. Samate, taken from the CYP Report of the Second Pacific Regional Youth Caucus, held in Apia, Western Samoa. In her frank statement she says:

*“So where are our young women? Either they are not given the opportunities to participate and to be involved in decision-making, or most of them have not received the type of education and training to empower them for these tasks and responsibilities... We also have to monitor their involvement and to make sure that they are actively participating in all levels of CYP and the society as a whole.”*



You will find the full paper by Asenate Samate in Reading 7 *Empowerment of Young Women*. Read this now.



## Activity 6.2

(about 20 minutes)

- 1 Having read Asenate Samate's remarks, see if you can pick out some very clear indicators that will tell her that this CYP initiative is working for young women. Identify two indicators and write them in your learning journal.
- 2 Could you develop additional indicators? Write them in your learning journal too.

## Final word

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You have now examined the planning and implementation stages of your country's national youth policy (or one from a country in your region). By this time, you should have a very good idea about the youth policy of your country and the various stages that are involved in its planning, implementation and evaluation.

How do you feel about your country's youth policy? Can you see real possibilities in it? Do you want to rush outside and announce it to everyone you see? Do you really think that it gives young women and men a place in the corridors of power?

If your country has a policy but no action plan, then you should be motivated to encourage its development by discussing with the relevant persons the importance of implementation and evaluation of the effectiveness of the youth policy. We hope you do.

## Unit summary

In this unit, you have covered the following main points:

- three different frameworks used to measure the success or failure of youth policies
- how to assess youth policies according to the criteria provided by the three frameworks
- how to construct indicators to judge whether a certain feature of policy is being implemented
- how to identify which framework works best for a particular situation
- how to determine the level of success or failure of the youth policy of your country (or one in your region).

At the end of this unit, you should have completed five activities. From these, you should have registered at least one reflective entry in your learning journal for assessment.

Don't forget to look back at the learning outcomes at the beginning of this unit and see if you are now able to do them. Look through your learning journal again and take this chance to review your entries.

## Answers to self-help questions

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### Self-help question 6.1

- 1 You could assist the women by:
  - providing them with information about the harmful effects of drugs on children and adults
  - helping the women to enact a role play demonstrating the harmful effects of drugs on children and families
  - talking with the village chief so as to ban the use of drugs in the community.
- 2 Possible indicators of success might be:
  - most of the women now know that drugs are harmful and must be discouraged
  - the women have an ability to recognise the symptoms of drug use and drug abuse
  - the majority of community members are now concerned about their children using drugs
  - a village ban on the use of drugs has been introduced.

### Self-help question 6.2

- 1 False
- 2 True
- 3 True.

## References

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Commonwealth Youth Programme (2000) *Youth Policy 2000. Formulating and Implementing National Youth Policies – A Commonwealth Handbook*, Commonwealth Secretariat, London.

Kenyon P. and White S. (1996) *National Youth Policies: A collection of Transparencies*, IDEAS, Western Australia.



# Summary

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## Module summary

In this module – *Policy Planning and Implementation* – you have explored the nature and scope of youth policy and examined the policy-making process. You have looked at the common themes that link youth policies and explored the links and interconnections with other national policies. The module has also looked at the criteria for success or failure of youth policies and the evaluation of their outcomes.

Now that you have completed this module you should be able to:

- describe the origins, history and development of youth policies in at least two countries in your region
- identify the similarities and differences between the youth policies of these two countries
- recognise the relationship of youth policy to other kinds of public sector policies
- debate the main themes that underpin the formulation, development and implementation of youth policies
- participate actively and positively towards the development, implementation and evaluation of your country's youth policy
- describe the special importance of youth policy in your country, especially its role in the improvement of the lives of young women and men
- recognise the importance of youth policy in national development of a country.

## Glossary

charity	An organisation set up to relieve the wants of the needy; the giving of help to those in need.
coercion	The act of compulsion or forced restraint.
formulate	To create or devise a strategy or proposal; to put ideas or information into a precise and comprehensive statement.
gender sensitive	To be conscious of the differences between males and females in terms of the way things are described and policies are formulated.
grassroots	The ordinary people at the local level, as opposed to those at the centre of power.
initiate	To start or begin an idea or practice.
philosophy	Belief or system of beliefs that underlie certain patterns of knowledge, ideas and attitudes.
policy	An agreed position and/or a course of action to be followed by government, party or individual.
procedure	An agreed way of acting.
qualitative	Measuring or measured by the quality of something – in research, it explains how and why.
quantitative	Measuring or measured by the quantity of something – in research, it explains what, where and when.
social policy	A government's formulated and agreed principle for dealing with a social issue or issues.
simplistic	An over-simplified way of expressing something complex.
social control	Monitoring and controlling the behaviour and actions of individuals or groups so that they abide by socially accepted rules of behaviour.
stakeholders	People who are (or might be) affected by any action taken by a community, agency, organisation or government.
stance	A position taken on a certain matter or idea.

structural adjustment	Making all social policy work according to the rules of the market rather than according to the principle of achieving socially desirable effects.
suppress	Prevent the development or expression of a idea, action, etc.
synthesise	To combine things together in order to form a whole.
welfare policy	A government's formulated and agreed principle for dealing with issues concerned with the social well-being of its population.

## Further reading

The following list of books and texts is meant to support your learning throughout this module. We suggest you discuss with your tutor how and where to find some of these publications so that you can read widely from this list to enrich your understanding of the subject-matter.

Briggs, D. and Grant, D. (1978) 'Developing a Positive National Youth Policy' in *The Value of Youth: A Call for a National Youth Policy*, ed. Pearl A., Grant D. and Wenk, E., International Dialogue Press, Davis, CA, <http://hcd.ucdavis.edu/faculty/visiting/Wenk/BriggsGrant.pdf>.

Commonwealth Secretariat (1989) *Engendering Adjustment for the 1990s: Report of a Commonwealth Expert Group on Women and Structural Adjustment*, Commonwealth Secretariat, London.

Hill, M. (2003) *Understanding Social Policy*, 7th edition, Basil Blackwell, Oxford.

Kenyon, P. and White, S. (1996) *Youth Policy 2000: Formulating and Implementing National Youth Policies*, Commonwealth Secretariat, London.

Kogan, M. (1975) *Educational Policy Making*, Allen and Unwin, London.

Laffin, M. (1986) *Professionalism and Policy: The Role of the Professions in the Central-Local Government Relationship*, Tavistock, London.

Latvia, R. (2003) 'The idea of youth policy: principles and practices'.

McMichael, P. (1996) *Development and Social Change: A Global Perspective*, Sage Publications, London.

Ministry of Youth Affairs (1996) *Realising the Potential: Whakatinana I te Pumanawa Nohopuku*, Ministry of Youth Affairs, Wellington, New Zealand.

Ministry of Welfare and Population Development (1997) *White Paper for Social Welfare in South Africa*, Government of South Africa.

Notley, M. (1996) *HRD for the New Millennium: A Strategy for the Commonwealth Youth Programme*, Commonwealth Youth Programme, Huddersfield.

Sercombe, H. (2003) 'Disciplining youth work: the professionalisation dilemma', paper presented at Promise into Practice International Child and Youth Care Conference, Victoria, Canada, 20–23 August.

Shannon, P. (1991) *Social Policy*, Oxford University Press, Auckland.

## National youth policies of the governments of:

Australia	A statement of Principles and Objectives – Commonwealth State and Territory Youth Ministers
Botswana	2nd Draft, December 1995
India	
Jamaica	Ministry of Local Government, Youth and Sports
Malawi	
Malta	Ministry for Youth and Arts, 1993
Malaysia	Ministry of Youth & Sports: Dasar Belia Negara
Namibia	Youth growing with the nation
Nigeria	1983
Solomon Islands	Youth Development Policy.
Zambia	National Policies and Strategies

# Assignment

A final reminder about the assessment requirements for this module. Your work in this module will be assessed in the following ways. These assessment methods will comprise 100 per cent of your learning requirements.

- 1 A written assignment of 700 words maximum that will require about two hours of work (worth 10 per cent of the final mark), found at the end of Unit 2.
- 2 A 1500 word research assignment that will require about six hours of work (worth 40 per cent of the final mark), found at the end of Unit 4.
- 3 A final written assignment of 1,000 words (Assignment 3 below) or a final written exam (worth 30 per cent of the final mark)
- 4 A review of the learning journal you keep (worth 20 per cent of the final mark).

*Note: make sure you discuss the assessment requirements with your tutor so that you are clear about what you are expected to do and when, and any particular requirements in your institution.*

## Assignment 3

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Word length: no more than 1,000 words. Choose two of the national youth policies from your CYP region (or any two available to you) and do the following:

### Part I

Check the policies against the elements and features of a successful policy. Analyse each policy and describe whether you think it is successful or not, citing reasons for your stance and identifying any opportunities for improvement or barriers to success.

### Part II

Develop some performance indicators that you think would measure the policy's success. Explain why you chose the indicators you've outlined, keeping in mind what you've learned about youth policy development frameworks.

# Readings

The readings in this section will help you develop your understanding of Module 9: Policy Planning and Implementation. The reading numbers, their titles and author(s) and the unit in which they appear are listed below.

- 1 'Young people and policy development'  
by Meg Westhorp (Unit 1)..... 153
- 2 'Solomon Islands Youth Policy Paper' (Unit 1)..... 157
- 3 'The origins of modern welfare systems' (Unit 2) ..... 162
- 4 'Engendering adjustment for the 1990s'  
by the Commonwealth Secretariat (Unit 3) ..... 165
- 5 'Jamaica's Social Development Commission' (Unit 5) ..... 189
- 6 'Planning Institute of Jamaica, Economic and  
Social Survey 1991' (Unit 5) ..... 200
- 7 'Empowerment of young women'  
by Asenati F. Samate (Unit 6) ..... 218





## Reading 1 Young people and policy development

by Meg Westhorp

The Commonwealth Youth Programme adopted policy development as one of five priority areas in 1989/90. It was agreed that work in this area would be undertaken within the next six years. One of the most important elements in the development of any policy should be input from the people who will be most affected by the implementation of that policy. Therefore, this paper looks briefly at how young people, and in particular how the Pacific Regional Youth Caucus, can be involved in the development of policies which will directly affect them. In order to do that effectively, this paper addresses five major questions:

- What is policy and what is it for?
- Who can participate in policy development and why should they?
- Where does policy development occur?
- How can young people and the Youth Caucus be involved?
- What do we need to achieve from this meeting?

### What is policy and what is it for?

Policy is fundamentally a plan or course of action adopted by an individual or group. It should also contain information about why that plan of action has been adopted – some statement of principle and/or philosophy which provides the history to, and demonstrates the need for, the particular action outlined. Because policy is action based, it needs to be regularly reviewed and updated. Frequently, the statement of philosophy or principles will remain the same, but the action plans will need to be modified as they are carried out and change the situation the policy is addressing.

Once adopted, a policy becomes a working document of an organisation, or group, which can be used to keep that organisation or group accountable. For example, if the Commonwealth Youth Programme adopts a policy stating that young women are a priority area for action, then we can hold the organisation accountable to that policy by checking on what action has (or has not) occurred. In the same way, we can ensure our own accountability by constantly checking any actions we undertake against our policy positions. Are the actions in line with and appropriate to the policies we hold? If not, are the actions or the policies inappropriate? And so on.

In addition, policies can be used to lobby other agencies, bureaucracies and governments in an attempt to influence their actions. Obviously, we need to be influencing those actions towards something – some particular goal which will contribute to the overall

(beneficial) change to the situation of young people, which we are seeking. Thus, policy is one of the tools we use to achieve our goals, much as a tradesperson may use a shovel or saw.

Obviously, we focus on youth policies, which can be generally applicable, based on a specific issue, or address the needs of a particular population group.

## **Who can participate on policy development and why should they?**

As was stated in the introduction, it is important that the people most affected by a policy should be involved in developing it. Effectively, anyone can be involved. It may be necessary to explain the policy in different language to different groups (e.g. children, young people, governments and politicians all require different styles of language), but their input to the policy is still valid, and vital.

Young people are the experts in being young. We are the ones who experience first-hand the rapid cultural changes, the impact of government policies, the social constraints and the impact of media and community attitudes. It is, therefore, vital that we contribute to the development of policies because we are most likely to understand their probable, grassroots impacts. This contribution should be made at as many different levels of policy development as possible and can occur in a number of different ways, which I will address later.

## **Where does policy development occur?**

Policy development occurs at all levels of society, from the individual, through small groups to bureaucracies (of all kinds) and political groups or parties. Where those policies affect young people, we should be consulted. If that is not happening, we need to be asking to be involved, regardless of where those policies are initiated.

With regular relevance to the CYP, policy can be developed by Regional Youth Caucuses, Regional Advisory Boards, Regional Centres, Commonwealth Youth Ministers Meetings, the Commonwealth Youth Caucus and the Commonwealth Secretariat. It can be developed in all of those places and can be adopted by them if it affects only them. I assume that, if it is to be a full CYP policy, it has to be adopted by Commonwealth Youth Ministers Meeting. Regardless, the list demonstrates that there are a number of places where we can input to policy development. In particular, we need to be using RYCs and CYC to make our contribution to policy development within the CYP.

## **How can young people and the Youth Caucus be involved?**

In general:

- Insist on consultation.

- Be prepared – by having our own policies, by having read theirs, by asking questions, and by reading the research.
- Have debates and discussion about the issues so as many people as possible are well informed.
- Write letters asking to be involved.
- Offer our policies for their consideration.
- Try to influence community attitudes (through the media for example) so that they choose to participate.
- Use the media as necessary.
- Participate in groups likely to have an influence.

There are two main points to be made:

- 1 Having your say in other people's policies is about *influence*; who, why and about what?
- 2 To be effective in our participation in policy development, we need support from organisations like the CYP and NYCs – support in training, resources, their commitment to consultation and so on.

As an example of how we can be involved, let's look at the Youth Caucus.

We're seeking to influence the development of policies within the CYP, specifically in the Pacific region. That means we need to follow up on the outcomes of Youth Caucus in Tonga, make sure that we're clear on what we believe any policies should be, seek information to back up our claims, seek to influence our country delegates to RAB and be *constantly offering* our ideas, action plans and information to CYP so that the policies do reflect our concerns. Not only that, we need to be consulting the young people of other countries to ensure that the information we bring to Youth Caucus is, accurately, what *they* want said.

## What do we need to achieve from this meeting?

The main things we need to achieve are: an understanding of how we contribute to CYP policy development; and the content we wish to contribute within our priority areas.

We need to look at what action we want Youth Caucus and the CYP to take. We need to be clear on the philosophy and principles underlying that action. We need to be committed to undertaking some of the responsibility ourselves. And we need to be planning ahead.

## Conclusion

I'd like to pick up on what was said by the previous speakers and highlight that policy development and lobbying are part of the

process for positive change – they are one aspect of our action plan for the future.

So, policy is a philosophy/principles and action document which is one tool (amongst many) we can use to achieve our goals. It is something in which we need to participate to ensure the relevance to young people of any policies developed. It occurs at all levels of society and should use any number of strategies available to us to ensure our participation, so that we contribute positively to the development of the future that young people want.

## Reading 2 Solomon Islands Youth Policy Paper

### 1. Introduction

This White Paper sets out the policy by which the Government hopes to encourage young people to participate more fully in the country's development.

### 2. Aims and methods

The aims and methods of this policy are:

#### 2.1 Aims

The Government's aims are:

- to recognise the potential, aspirations and expectations of all sections of young people
- to define goals and set priorities for all categories of young people in line with the National Development Policies
- to ensure that young people can and will take an active and positive part in all National Affairs
- to recognise the roles and functions of church and voluntary youth organisations
- to encourage young people to participate fully with members of their community in the social, economic, cultural, political and spiritual development of the country
- to provide relevant training for youths and other members of the community in skills needed for living in their own environment
- to ensure that economic development reaches out into the rural areas
- to ensure that mutual understanding for the purpose of establishing good relationships in developing the rural areas is established between young and other people in the community
- to encourage young people to offer valuable service to their immediate and respective communities
- to provide proper instructions and facilities for those young people who have come before the courts or are in conflict with the society.

#### 2.2 Methods

The principal methods will be:

- to establish a Solomon Islands National Youth Congress, Provincial Youth Councils, Area Youth Committees and Village Youth Associations

- to embark on a Training Programme for Youths, Youth Leaders and other members of the community at the National Youth Training Centre – Aruligo
- to examine ways of providing financial assistance for groups and individual youths who need such assistance for development purposes
- to set up an information bureau for collection of and disseminating information, ideas, and viewpoints of young people regarding the social, economic, cultural and political development in the country, and also to collect and disseminate information on new ideas regarding youth development and activities both locally and from outside
- to provide financial assistance by way of an annual grant to the Solomon Islands National Youth Congress to employ a field-worker to work with, help, advise and encourage existing and future youth organisations and groups in working together with other members of the community towards achieving their goals, both at local, provincial and at national levels
- to provide opportunities for further training and travelling fellowships for youth workers overseas, to gather information, learn, and gain experience from youth organisations overseas
- to provide opportunities for exchanges between provinces of young people to do voluntary community service by establishing a National Youth Service scheme.

### **3. Background**

**3.1** The 1976 Census revealed that more than half the total population of the Solomon Islands is young and that the annual population growth rate is 3.4 percent, a figure which ranks as one of the highest in the world.

**3.2** The large majority of Solomon Islanders are still living a traditional subsistence way of life, consuming food which they have grown or caught themselves from the land or sea. Apart from a few areas land is readily available. The notable exceptions are some atoll islands and urbanised areas, and areas where large cattle projects or industrial farming has eroded what were once traditional subsistence food growing areas.

Therefore in most areas where there are not yet sufficient opportunities for youths to fit themselves into the formal employment sector, opportunities could be made available for them (the youths) to become involved or absorbed into some form of non-formal, self help economic or quasi-employment project based on the land and sea as appropriate. What is needed is some planning, the provision of incentives, money and extensive staff assistance coupled with basic and appropriate technology.

Thus the purpose of introducing a National Youth Policy for the Solomon Islands is to define the position of young people in National Development, and clarify their roles and responsibilities and also to integrate their activities with those of other groups towards the overall aims of developing the Solomon Islands Nation.

## 4 Organisation

- The National Development Plan 1975–79 identifies the need to ‘co-ordinate the activities of young people’ in meeting the overall aims set out in the plan. The first National Development Plan will seek to consolidate these activities.
- Several attempts have been made in the past to establish a Solomon Islands National Youth Congress but these have failed and proved ineffective largely because of lack of understanding of the various functions of such a body and because of lack of support and commitment from Government, and different youth organisations. A united approach and support from the Government, Churches and youth organisations is being sought to be established and it is hoped that this body could work more effectively than the Solomon Islands National Youth Council has in the past.
- There is a need to set up a Solomon Islands National Youth Congress, Provincial Youth Councils, Area Youth Committees and Village Youth Associations for the purpose of co-ordinating all existing and future youth organisations at national and provincial levels.
- At the present various churches, voluntary and other youth organisations exist and engage in their own activities and programmes.
- In order for the policy direction to be meaningful and effective there is a great need for it to be understood right down at the village youth association level, and this is primarily a task for the National Youth Congress Office.
- There is a great need for a National Youth Congress representing all Provincial Youth Organisations, and Church and Uniform Youth Organisations for the purposes of representing the young people and to make their wishes known to the Government within the ambit of the country’s laws and to co-ordinate youth activities with those of the rest of the community.
- There is also a need for annual youth rallies and camps at provincial and national level for young people to get together, to exchange ideas and views. This would promote National Unity and National Pride amongst our young people.

## 5. Training

- There is a need for our young people to be trained to become good citizens, and in skills needed for living a full life, and to become useful in their own communities.
- There is a need for a full-time youth trainer and assistants to provide training in subjects which are relevant to the needs of our people for youth leaders and youths at the National Training Centre at Aruligo. The training they provide should be aimed at meeting the needs of young people at national level and at provincial level.
- There is also a need for our youths and youth leaders to have access to and utilise the training courses available overseas.
- The type of training to be given to our young people depends entirely on the prescribed needs of youths and their communities at a certain time.
- There is a need for corrective training for those young people who break the laws of our society to fit them back into our society.

## 6. Manpower

6.1 The National Youth Training Centre at Aruligo will require a full-time trainer and an assistant to run training courses and to develop intermediate technology, where possible, using local resources and on developing local skills.

- The National Youth Training Centre at Aruligo will require a full-time co-ordinator and supporting staff to implement the National Youth Policy at all levels, and to help, advise and provide assistance to youth groups in the country.
- The National Youth Congress will require field-workers to work in the provinces and they will liaise between various provincial services and village and provincial youth groups, and liaise between these groups and the central Government through the National Youth Congress in achieving an integrated effort in the fields of social and community development.

## 7. Finance

- Financial assistance will need to be provided by the National Government through annual grants to enable the National Youth Congress to employ adequate staff to carry out the Policy on youth development at national and provincial levels.
- Funds for completion of renovation work and future expansion of the Training Centre at Aruligo will also be sought from the National Government and from organisations overseas.



- Financial assistance through a grant or loan may be required to assist youth groups, organisations and individuals in the setting up of viable projects. A fund will be set aside by the National Youth Congress for this purpose and applications will be processed by the National Youth Congress.
- A Youth Service scheme which would operate on a voluntary basis would be set up and the purpose is to involve young people in projects within the community. Financial assistance will be required to cover travelling, victualling and other costs for young people who are prepared to offer their services in rural areas.
- One of the long-time aims of the National Youth Congress is to try and make every effort in raising its own revenue so that eventually it could become self sufficient and self reliant.
- The National Youth Congress may make contributions to voluntary organisations made in accordance with the basic needs of each one.

## 8. Conclusion

**8.1** It is believed that with the provision of the right kind of incentives and the relevant skills for our youth they will be able to participate in the country's development, and by providing avenues for development on both an individual and co-operative basis for our young people, we will not only be involving the majority of our population in development, but also encouraging the rural areas and providing opportunities for all sections of communities to work together to try and improve their villages, their communities, their lives and their standards of living and their Solomon Islands Nation.

## Reading 3: The origins of modern welfare systems

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by the module authors

To understand ‘structural adjustment’ of the economy and, consequently, how modern welfare systems are structured nowadays, we have to look back at the history of international trade. Because of the economic and social devastation caused throughout the world by the Wall Street Crash of 1929, the economists of the developed world changed their economic policies. Capitalist economies are always prone to suffer from a cyclical pattern of ‘boom and bust’, which is what caused the American banking system to collapse, triggering the Great Depression of the 1930s and creating the economic conditions for the rise of Fascism in Europe. So international governments set up the Bretton Woods System in 1944, just before the end of the Second World War.

This was an international economic system designed to get rid of the damaging high trade tariffs and competitive currency devaluations of the Depression. The idea was to keep trade flowing freely, and sudden major changes in the value of a country’s currency would stall the flow of trade. Whenever countries ran into problems with their budgets, they could borrow from a new international banking system – what became the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank. Countries had to repay their debt when their economies were stable again. The IMF set up a system of rules and procedures to prevent a country going too deeply into debt. This system was mainly designed to prevent poor countries from restricting their imports in order to reduce money leaving their countries and creating huge imbalances of trade. The real point of it was so that rich countries would be protected from disruptions to the international trade and growth on which their prosperity depended.

The United States used the international banking system after the Second World War to make enormous profits from trade with developing countries. These profits were used to expand US industry and acquire raw materials, as well as to lend dollars to Europe, which then was able to rebuild its economies and to export goods to the USA. In turn, the profits from this enabled the European countries as well as the USA to buy products from the developing world. This stable trade cycle created relative growth, stability and social welfare in both the developed and the developing world. This enabled countries in the developed world to set up welfare states. There was enough money available for governments to implement policies for the provision of social welfare programmes, such as housing, education, health care, among others. In defining the Bretton Woods system, Wikipedia highlights the following:

“The developed countries also agreed that the liberal international economic system required governmental

intervention. In the aftermath of the Great Depression, public management of the economy had emerged as a primary activity of governments in the developed states. Employment, stability and growth were now important subjects of public policy. In turn the role of government in the national economy had become associated with the assumption by the state of the responsibility for assuring its citizens a degree of economic well-being. The welfare state grew out of the Great Depression, which created a popular demand for governmental intervention in the economy, and out of the associated contributions of the Keynesian school of economics, which asserted the need for governmental intervention to maintain an adequate level of employment.”

However, the collapse of the Bretton Woods system in the early 1970s rapidly started to threaten public policy and the welfare state, whose stability depended on the existence of conditions that guaranteed stable exchange rates through the overarching strength and stability of the American dollar. The USA, whose successful economy had allowed the system to develop and survive, now had an ever increasing balance of trade deficit following the Vietnam War: the country could no longer persuade the money speculators around the world that it would eventually be able to balance its books.

From that point on, money became free of many of the controls that had stabilised it. Holders of money – private and public investors, bankers and pension funds – were forced because of the new volatility of money and bond markets to keep a very close eye on the markets, on fluctuations in interest rates, on new possibilities of putting money to work. If a large amount of money was not in use making interest just over a weekend, that could be considered as a significant financial loss. This process was accelerated by the computerisation of stock exchanges so that information about amounts and quality of production could be relayed from a producer anywhere in the world within minutes and appear straightaway in changes in prices on the floors of the world’s stock exchanges. The exchange value of commodities and services became the main way by which they were measured, not by how useful they were.

This had very rapid effects on the world social and economic system. Globalisation of the world economy spread much more rapidly, and the world began to become a financial global village. There were many countries and people who gained from this, but anyone or any group that found themselves in the wrong circumstances, could be damaged and destroyed. The ‘boom and bust’ patterns of economic crisis reappeared, and the world economy has almost gone into ‘meltdown’ on at least three occasions in the last fifteen years. Yet it has bounced back amazingly quickly.

Social policy has been profoundly affected by this economic pattern. The first thing to be challenged was the welfare state. In Britain, funding welfare is expensive, and growing more expensive as the population ages, presenting ever deepening problems for state pension

funding and for National Health Service spending. Over the last 30 years in the United Kingdom, successive governments have found great problems in generating enough revenue to pay their costs. The state has to have the money to fund the increasing requirements of social welfare, and at the same time must be in a position to cut taxes to enable companies to have the money to grow in competitive international markets.

To be able to balance the books, the government has had to enable private money to be attracted into state welfare provision. The numerous privatisations of public utilities such as energy and transport and the appearance of 'public/private partnerships' in areas of welfare provision (most schools will soon be controlled and funded by a combination of state and private agencies; the NHS is financially split between the parts that buy its services and the parts that provide those services) have all been caused by the desperate struggle by the UK Government to balance its economic books.

How does this affect Commonwealth countries other than Britain? Well, for example, water aid to Tanzania was tied to the privatisation of Tanzanian water under the leadership of a private British company (privatisation of the water industry was one of the major innovations in the UK). This company did a very successful job of rationalising and organising water resources in Tanzania, but it unwittingly generated formidable problems for the poor, many of whom could no longer afford clean water. On the other hand, water entrepreneurs suddenly became surprisingly wealthy, while shareholders in the company had a healthy return on their investments. It caused such a social policy crisis that the President of Tanzania had to eject the company and make water a public utility once more.

Another example of the crises caused by the latest shift in this phenomenon is the rise of private education in Africa. Schools are being run by entrepreneurs who are able to attract good teachers because they can pay them enough to live on, as opposed to the public system. This appears to be because many of the teachers in state schools are simply not paid enough, because their governments can no longer afford to pay them adequate compensation. They do not seem to do enough work in the school, and may in fact be moonlighting in multiple jobs to pay their way. So anyone who can afford to pay for education will send children to the private schools. For those who can afford to pay very little, the situation is not so good of course. This has been acclaimed by a British Professor of Educational Policy as evidence of the superiority of a market system for education. It should perhaps rather indicate to you the complexity of the way that educational policy is now being created.

## Reading 4: Engendering adjustment for the 1990s

by the Commonwealth Secretariat

### Chapter Five: Strategy for change

#### I. Introduction and guiding principles

**5.1** What is needed for the future emerges clearly from what has gone wrong in the past decade. As shown in Chapter 1, rapid economic and social development in all parts of the world led to considerable advances in women's health, education and often their economic situation, from the 1950s to the 1970s. As a result of parallel political developments, awareness of women's needs and rights also advanced during this period and into the 1980s, with changes in laws to assist and consolidate these gains. But though the political process has apparently continued, the economic crisis and the types of stabilisation and adjustment policies followed in the 1980s have brought to a standstill many of the practical advances which women had made earlier, and have actually reversed some of the most fundamental of them like education and health. Economic crisis and inappropriate adjustment has thus robbed women and society as a whole of much of the progress earlier achieved. It is also robbing women of what is currently promised under accepted policy. In this respect, the loss of women's welfare in the 1980s is a case not so much of daylight robbery as of theft by stealth in the night – a largely unintended by-product of the economic difficulties of the period.

**5.2** To restore the momentum in women's advance, three things are needed:

- a clearer focus on basic goals for women's advance in the longer run
- action to incorporate specific measures focused on women in current adjustment policy
- a system for monitoring women's progress, in order to ensure continuing advance.

It should be stressed that these are needed as a matter of economic efficiency and human welfare, not only of equity. As long as women's skills and energies are inefficiently deployed, under-used or over-used, everyone suffers: their husbands and families, men and children, as well as the women themselves.

**5.3** To provide the clearer focus required, our proposals for new strategies on structural adjustment have been guided by the following general principles:

**Greater support for women in all their roles, within a broader policy approach to adjustment, emphasising social equity and economic growth as well as efficiency.**

- This would require women having equal opportunity to that of men in the use of all productive resources, including land, credit and training. Special efforts and specific measures would be needed to overcome current imbalances and ensure adequate resources for women. We therefore recommend the use of 'structured' markets: that is, the reservation of a certain proportion of credit, foreign exchange and public expenditure to women, in order to ensure that they can obtain access to essential means of production. This can be facilitated by group action among women, in access to and use of productive resources (see para. 5.26). It would also require giving women more support in their roles as child bearers and carers and home managers. Enhanced access to social services, especially health and education, and basic goods, such as food and fuel, would enable women to utilise their time more effectively, allow them to contribute more to the national economy as well as to increase their own income and welfare. To date adjustment programmes have reduced social support systems at a time when an increase is needed to buttress the overall adjustment process and make it more effective.
- The main focus of the adjustment programmes should be shifted from short-term stabilisation to longer-term adjustment; this requires a much less deflationary bias in the balance of the programmes at a macro-level. The reforms themselves should be properly sequenced to ensure full effectiveness and minimise social costs on the poor and vulnerable.
- Together, equal opportunity in the use of productive resources, enhanced access for women to basic goods and services, and a longer-term, more growth-oriented adjustment process would mean an adjustment policy oriented towards the economic and social development of all of a country's people.

**Full integration of women into the decision-making processes on structural adjustment and elsewhere.**

Women should become an integral part of the decision-making process – in governments, international institutions and the private sector, as well as in the home. Achieving this is a necessary element in making structural adjustment and other macro-economic policies more effective in terms of our broader definition of structural adjustment. Here, too, group action can be useful by strengthening the voice and bargaining position of women.

**A supportive international environment**

Developing countries have suffered in the 1980s from very large adverse changes in the external environment, including capital flows, interest rates, exchange rates, trade access and commodity prices.

They need more time and resources to undertake structural adjustment. A supportive international economic environment, with greater resource flows, more effective procedures for debt reduction and less protectionism, is essential for a resumption of sustained economic growth and development.

**5.4** The policy reforms recommended below flow from these general principles. The range of policies covered is wide. Not every policy will be applicable to every country. Variations between situations mean that appropriate policies need to be designed for each context. Some of the proposals could be implemented within a short period of time, but others are longer term and are concerned with issues of development as well as adjustment. But both categories require urgent consideration at the highest level.

**5.5** There will be high economic as well as social returns from implementing the proposals, which are designed to ensure that women's full productive and social potential is realised. But there will also be some costs to be met in the short term. While certain of our proposals (such as legal changes) are almost costless, and others very inexpensive, others will need funding. Reallocation of expenditures within and between sectors, improved sources of revenue, including higher charges and taxes on inessential items and tax reform, would provide most of the necessary support; but extra international support may also sometimes be needed. The resource issue is discussed in more depth later (paras. 5.27 to 5.31).

## II. Domestic action

### Access to productive resources

**5.6** Women's role as producers is vital to the survival of many poor families, as well as to the national economy. Women face unequal access to productive resources and their role has been made more difficult during adjustment. Measures are needed to enhance support for women's productive role, especially during these difficult periods. Some measures would arise directly out of the adjustment process – for example special employment schemes. But others are a matter of correcting long-term inequities. These have an even more important part to play during adjustment, because they will permit women to avoid unnecessary hardships, to contribute to the sustenance of low income households, and to play a full role in increasing the productivity of the economy and thereby enhancing the adjustment process. While the specific changes recommended below are vital, the general macro economic environment is also of major importance to women as producers. A more expansionary economy would generate easier access to jobs at all levels, reducing the necessity for special employment schemes. Growth-oriented adjustment, with greater emphasis on long term structural change and less on short-term stabilisation, is a vital element of the broader approach which we support.

## Employment

**5.7** In the short run many stabilisation and structural adjustment programmes create unemployment, as a result of cuts in public expenditure, credit restraint, import liberalisation and changes in relative prices. To offset this loss of incomes and output we recommend:

- Special employment programmes. Public works schemes can be particularly beneficial to women as the Maharashtra Employment Guarantee Scheme in India has shown. More programmes guaranteeing wage jobs for women, while building up infrastructure, are needed. New types of programmes are also required, to cater for the special needs of women. These include sub-contracting with the formal sector, so as to expand income-earning opportunities for women. But mechanisms are needed to ensure that they are not exploited in the process;
- Selective assistance. Small and micro businesses in the formal and informal sectors can generate much additional employment. Special measures (ranging from the provision of grants to the furnishing of information) should be enacted to support them, and
- Unemployment benefits. Governments should where possible establish or improve employment provident schemes to compensate retrenched workers. In some cases such schemes could be wholly or largely self-financing through National Insurance Fund arrangements.

**5.8** Satisfactory standards at work should also be protected. Governments should enforce existing laws (or implement new ones) on employment protection as regards minimum wages, maximum hours, health and safety regulations, etc., and where possible ensure the provision of basic amenities such as crèches; they should also encourage the payment of maternity leave and pension schemes (see also paras. 5.20 and 5.25). ILO standards should be the aim and national standards should be reviewed regularly to ensure adequacy. In this respect we are particularly concerned that in many countries undertaking structural adjustment, minimum wages have become insufficient to cover even the most basic food and other essential requirements. Structural adjustment programmes should incorporate guidelines to remedy this. Women, like other workers, should not be discouraged from organising themselves.

## Credit

**5.9** Governments of developing countries should facilitate the provision of credit to, and offset the discrimination against, women. Women are not inherently a worse credit risk than men – they are often better (as the experience of the Grameen Bank shows) – but present regulations, and the underlying cultural mores, are biased against them. Women often lack collateral, sometimes because the



law prevents them holding the title of land or other property and sometimes because they are poor. Where they can borrow, it is usually at exorbitantly high rates of interest from money-lenders and other informal sources of credit. This is not only inequitable for women but inefficient for the economy and inimical to development. To remedy the present position we recommend that:

- Governments ensure a certain proportion of bank loans are reserved for women (and other needy groups). This could be facilitated by government guarantees. It should not be seen as discriminatory but as a means of improving the functioning of markets while enabling women to obtain the necessary capital to embark upon productive enterprises. Precedents exist as we have already shown (see above, para. 4.19);
- More bank or cooperative credit arrangements are set up, oriented mainly or entirely to satisfying the particular needs of women. Arrangements of this type would enable women to establish small-scale projects such as making clothes, or supplying personal services like laundering. For these and similar purposes women's organisations have set up savings clubs, cooperatives and credit unions (see above, para. 4.21). Formal banking or credit institutions have also been established mainly or solely for women (see above, paras. 4.19 and 4.21). Some of these institutions will need support or guarantees from governments, state or commercial banks and NGOs.

Structural adjustment policies should set out specific means by which women may overcome the conventional requirements for collateral through such arrangements. In addition we suggest the Commonwealth Secretariat circulate information on the experiences of member countries in this area and organise exchange visits to study the measures already taken.

## Foreign exchange

**5.10** Liberalisation of foreign exchange regulations is an almost universal component of structural adjustment policies. For some poor producers, including women, imports are vital to income-earning activities. Yet under newly liberalised arrangements – such as export earnings retention schemes or auction systems – they may be greatly disadvantaged in obtaining access to imports. We therefore recommend that measures should be introduced to ensure adequate access for sectors vital to women. This could be achieved through an allocation system which reserves some foreign exchange for priority sectors such as agriculture or health, and for special categories of producers including those operating small-scale enterprises.

## Infrastructure

**5.11** Most stabilisation and structural adjustment packages have involved cuts in expenditure on infrastructure. They have tended to provide more for the needs of large-scale enterprises and to give lower

priority to those of small enterprises and farms, and to the informal and service sectors. Yet these sectors will provide most of the employment-creating and income-earning opportunities for women. The provision of infrastructure for small-scale enterprises and farms should be protected and if possible extended during periods of adjustment, and their share of total investment increased.

**5.12** Specifically, we recommend that governments provide the means for making greater use of small-scale, decentralised sources of energy (including that from water, wind, the sun and biogas); for gaining easier access to clean water, so as to assist women in their domestic, manufacturing and agricultural activities; also for greater provision of feeder roads, which are vital to small-scale producers.

### Marketing

**5.13** Marketing is a particular problem in women's small-scale income earning activities. Privatisation of parastatal marketing organisations forms an important element of most structural adjustment programmes. This could provide new economic opportunities for small entrepreneurs, including women. Women should be assisted to exploit such opportunities through the provision of credit and appropriate training. But privatisation could also leave gaps in the provision of services like transport and storage, especially in remote areas. These gaps should be filled. We recommend that governments should take the necessary measures to ensure that the marketing services provided to women producers are not curtailed or made much more costly. This may mean retaining or adapting some parastatal organisations. Marketing cooperatives among women should be supported, as these provide better opportunities for women to retain the income from selling their products.

### Training

**5.14** Reductions in training or retraining, which often result from the public expenditure cuts associated with structural adjustment packages, occur at the very times when such activities are most needed, and lead to an immediate loss in production potential. This must not be allowed to continue. There should be special schemes to retrain retrenched employees, especially from the public sector, for productive work in other parts of the formal economy. Particular attention should be given to training women in technical and entrepreneurial skills. This is necessary if they are to understand and be capable of operating new and appropriate technologies, and thus able to participate fully in modern production processes. Innovative methods of delivering non-formal training should be encouraged, especially for women.

### Extension and technical services

**5.15** It is essential that women farmers are reached by extension services. We recommend that the programmes of field visits by

officers from these services should take full account of the high proportion of farmers who are women. To assist in this, the number of female extension officers should increase. Several countries have taken special measures to ensure that women farmers are able to make full use of extension services (see Box 5.1). These services should also give more attention to the crops and activities in which women specialise.

**5.16** Similar technical services should be instituted to help women set up and operate manufacturing and other enterprises, in rural and urban areas. Governments should increase support for:

- services offering information and other technical advice to entrepreneurs setting up and operating productive units, especially small-scale enterprises
- centres to service and repair machinery and electrical and mechanical equipment used mainly by small-scale producers for agriculture and other basic needs purposes
- facilities for women to acquire the skills required to establish service and repair centres (see also para. 5.14)
- co-operative institutional arrangements to assist women to gain access to technology as, for example, in the Cameroon for pumped water.

#### **Box 5.1 Agricultural extension services for women**

An increasing number of developing countries are making agricultural extension services available to women, some by innovative means. The following are a selection in Africa. **Kenya:** Government is now working through women's groups to double the quantum of extension services reaching women while reducing the cost. **Malawi:** Pilot schemes have been started to provide extension services and credit to groups of women farmers. **Sierra Leone:** In Pujehun, an integrated agricultural development project supported by technical assistance from Germany (FR) experimented by co-opting women farmers and training them to provide extension advice to their female colleagues. The experiment was successful as the message was given in terms which the other farmers could readily understand. The extension farmers also maintained village plots for seed multiplication and demonstration purposes. **Zimbabwe:** An extension worker to farmer ratio of 1:800 means that the farmers – who are predominantly women – receive their agricultural advice through groups or multi-purpose village community workers. Most of the latter are women and their prime responsibility is to stimulate communities, particularly the women among them, to participate in the identification of their needs and priorities and in the formulation of village development plans.

## Technology

**5.17** Most stabilisation and structural adjustment programmes lead to cuts in Research and Development (R&D), which generally already had an insufficient focus on technologies appropriate to the needs of women, both as producers and as consumers. To make adjustment more efficient and equitable we recommend governments should increase their support for R&D into:

- crops grown predominantly by women for consumption within the household or for sale within or outside the country (examples include ‘subsistence’ crops like sorghum/millet, pulses and cassava; and ‘out-of-season’ vegetables or cut flowers)
- improving the design and operation of technologies for small scale (and other) manufacturing processes which provide much employment and income to women (e.g. power-looms, sewing machines, crop-driers, milling machinery etc.) and for agricultural tools to reduce the burden of their food growing activities
- improving the design and operation of technologies embodied in goods and services which will help reduce the time and energy women have to spend on household chores (e.g. better wood burning stoves to speed up cooking as well as cut down on the fuel consumed and smoke inhaled during use).

## Land

**5.18** Ensuring women’s access to land is fundamental to improving their economic welfare, enabling them to deal better with crises, and increasing their access to other inputs into the productive process, notably credit. It would also facilitate women’s greater participation in community decision-making bodies, since economic position is usually of considerable importance to the degree of influence in such bodies. We recommend the reform of inheritance and land tenure laws to remove gender inequalities; the improvement of processes for implementing such laws; and the promotion, wherever possible, of a group approach to the ownership and use of land, especially that newly distributed under land reform programmes or land settlement schemes. In addition, recognising that community lands and forests are critical for enabling rural households in general and women in particular to acquire fuel, grazing, fodder, supplementary food etc., we recommend that such areas be protected from further privatisation and that women’s groups (especially from low income households) be granted preferential treatment in their use.

## Environment

**5.19** Measures to avoid environmental degradation – for example soil erosion, water contamination, atmospheric pollution – are essential if land and other natural resources are to be maintained in such a condition that access to them will be economically and socially

beneficial. This is too large a subject to discuss in detail here, but it is vital that in designing and implementing structural adjustment measures, policy makers take full account of the environmental implications of their actions. They should recognise, for example, the dangers of expecting countries to adjust by increasing their exports of natural resources, such as timber, at too rapid a pace, as well as the general and inextricable link between poverty and environmental degradation. As far as women are concerned, structural adjustment programmes should ensure that the commercial exploitation of forest and hydrological resources does not impair women's access to fuel, fodder and potable water.

## Legal

**5.20** Legal reforms are vital for improving the economic, social and political welfare of women. They are needed in relation to ownership and use of land and other immovable property, and to conditions of employment such as equal pay for work of equal value (see also para.5.8). We recommend such legal reforms, with the aim of improving women's welfare, supporting their productive roles, and promoting gender equality before the law. Such reforms would also help to empower women's organisations as well as strengthen the hands of officials responsible for implementing programmes to benefit vulnerable sections of the population. They would be a critical step towards ensuring that women get a larger and fairer share of a country's resources.

**5.21** Progress in many of these areas – notably technology development, land reform, environmental measures and legal reform – will contribute to an equitable pattern of development in the longer term, rather than to short-term adjustment. Nonetheless it is vital that they be incorporated into structural adjustment programmes, to ensure that the programmes are just, and lay the basis for full use of women's productive potential over the longer term.

## Access to basic goods and services

**5.22** The stabilisation and adjustment programmes undertaken have generally reduced access to basic goods and services, through the rises in prices, especially of food, that have accompanied fewer price controls and diminished subsidies; and through decreasing expenditure, and sometimes raising charges, on health and education services. These changes, which have increased women's problems as home managers and mothers, have sometimes had devastating effects on health and nutrition. Any policies towards women as producers which help sustain household incomes will also improve access to basic goods and services. Policies to maintain prices of basic goods, especially food and fuel, at a reasonable level are also needed, as are policies to improve access to social services.

## Basic household needs

**5.23** The devaluation of currencies, decontrol of prices and reduction or abolition of subsidies, typical of structural adjustment packages, often impact harshly on women's purchases of families' basic goods, especially staple foods but also fuel. Prices of these goods should be held at an affordable level for consumption by low income families, even if this involves subsidies. The budgetary cost need not be large. Nutritional and school feeding programmes should also be protected.

## Education

**5.24** The budgetary cuts on education which are typical of many structural adjustment packages militate against women. Not only do cutbacks in primary education adversely affect today's mothers, who in an already packed day have to spend more time teaching 'life-skills' to their children, but contraction of secondary and tertiary education means that fewer of tomorrow's mothers will have an opportunity to gain the knowledge necessary for a fulfilling and more productive life. These losses must not be allowed to continue. We recommend that governments restore and expand their education budgets and review their allocation of resources within the sector. It is, for example, essential that there is an assured supply of basic text books. We recognise this may involve some direct recovery of costs. This can be acceptable at secondary and especially tertiary level, where social rates of return are lower and the beneficiaries are usually not among the poor, but fees should not be charged on primary education. In addition, the social mores of some countries, and the lower enrolment of girls than of boys in all three developing regions of the world, mean that governments should make special efforts (by additional subsidies if necessary) to ensure that girls from poor households and rural areas receive education. Governments should also consider reorienting basic education curricula, concentrating on literacy, numeracy and some understanding of the scientific and social aspects of the local environment. We suggest that governments try to counter the reduced school attendance, which is an increasing problem in many adjusting countries, by such means as synchronising the academic calendar with the agricultural calendar, where children's labour is significant, and providing crèches in or near schools so that girls responsible for childcare can receive education. Provision of crèches at adult education centres would also help to improve mothers' attendance. Governments should encourage the broader provision of education for women. One way might be to give employers tax credits for running adult literacy schemes.

## Health

**5.25** Adjustment programmes should be designed to protect and extend the number and quality of basic health facilities. Free access to primary healthcare should be maintained and measures taken to ensure there are sufficient community health workers and an adequately resourced referral system accessible to all those in need.

Special attention should be given to improving maternal and child healthcare (including family planning services). The costs need not be prohibitive: according to the World Bank, less than US\$2 per person per year would cut maternal death rates by two-thirds. There should be an assured supply of basic drugs: UNICEF has shown that the 30–35 most basic drugs (including oral rehydration salts vital to overcoming diarrhoea) can be made available at around US\$0.50 per person per year, potentially saving three million lives every year. In this connection we welcome the Bamako initiative in Africa, which seeks to fund the entire maternal and child healthcare programme from sales of basic drugs at very low cost to users, and recommend that governments implement it urgently. Governments should increase their expenditure on potable water and efficient sanitation facilities, which should be provided ‘free’ or at a subsidised cost that poor families can afford. This would benefit the health of all and save women much time in drawing and carrying water (see Box 5.2). In addition, every government in a position to do so should consider enacting legal provisions ensuring sickness benefits for all employees and paid maternal leave and child benefits payable to mothers. National Insurance schemes could facilitate such provision.

### Group action

**5.26** We believe the ‘group approach’ is very important to women for a number of reasons (see Box 5.3) and recommend that structural adjustment programmes should include measures to promote and support productive and other activities organised by groups. These are especially important in enabling women to obtain loans without collateral and to use common land and other natural resources for productive purposes. Groups can also help in undertaking community projects such as reforestation and well-digging near villages, which would release women from spending so much time on firewood and water collection and enable them to undertake more remunerative work or enjoy leisure. Setting up communal child-care or cooking facilities are other examples of projects that would be particularly cost-effective and beneficial to mothers.

## III. Financing the programme

**5.27** Almost invariably, countries undergoing adjustment are faced with the necessity of reducing large budget deficits. Consequently, when there are such pressures to cut expenditure, it is difficult to preserve and increase resource allocations in certain areas.

**5.28** Much of the programme to incorporate women’s interests into adjustment, which we have described above, would cost governments very little, and important elements like legal changes, which are of critical importance especially in the longer run, would cost them almost nothing. Changes in the allocation of credit or foreign exchange would not involve governments in any expenditure, and by improving the efficiency of resource allocation, would increase income and revenue collection in the medium term. There are,

however, some vital areas related especially to expenditure on women's education and training; primary health services; technology dissemination and development, special feeding schemes and food subsidies for low income households, which would involve government resources and for which financing might present a problem, especially at a time of budgetary cuts. Nonetheless, this problem can be overcome, even during adjustment, by redirecting expenditure from low to higher priority areas, as many countries have shown. In Zimbabwe, for example, expenditure on primary education doubled during the 1980s, after resources had been redirected from lower priority areas, including defence.

### **Box 5.2 Women's unpaid work in water provision**

Millions of people depend mainly on women and girls for water supplies which they fetch, can by 20-litre can, and pitcher by pitcher every day. Little girls are taught how to balance containers on their heads and to carry them over anything from a mile to six miles of rough ground. They provide not only the small but vital amounts of water needed for drinking and cooking, but the far larger amounts required for laundry, bathing and cleaning. It is chiefly in non- and newly- industrialising countries that people depend for water supplies on the work of females. Women and girls in many Kenyan households spend 5–6 hours a day. The extent of this particular work and the huge numbers of people, chiefly female, engaged in it, may also be gauged from World Health Organisation statistics. They showed that in 1980, in predominantly peasant countries, hardly any of the rural population and only about 55 per cent of the urban populations had water supplies connected to their homes. A further 20 per cent had access to public taps, but supplies to these taps were intermittent.

In rural areas of African countries where women are responsible for providing water, they may organise the whole seasonal range of work in order to make water collection as easy as possible. In Southern Nigeria, for instance, house-building, path and farm clearance are done in the rainy season so that they are free of these jobs in the dry season when water carrying becomes more onerous.

Authorities have been prompted into making safe water available where local industries need large quantities of water, for example fish-processing in Kerala, the north of Sri Lanka and the coasts of some West African countries. Those forced to use stand-pipes by mischance will appreciate the work of fetching every drop of household water.

Extract from *Revaluation of Women's Work* by Sheila Lewenhak, 1987.



**Box 5.3 The group approach**

A critical component of measures to minimise the negative effects of structural adjustment on women is ensuring their greater access to and more effective use of productive resources. This requires a shift from an approach focused on the individual to one which gives greater scope to groups.

In credit disbursement, for example, NGO-sponsored loan schemes, such as those of the Grameen Bank in Bangladesh, the Self Employed Women's Association and the Working Women's Forum in India, have had notable successes in reaching poor women, generating additional income (often in significant amounts) and ensuring repayments. Loans are made exclusively to the poor, without collateral and often conditional on the recipients forming small groups. Though they are made to individuals, there is either group liability or implicit group responsibility for repayment. In the rare instances where government credit has been disbursed through a group approach, as in the Small Farmers' Development Project in Nepal, it has been a noteworthy success.

In land distribution programmes, the group approach can avoid fragmentation through inheritance laws or loss to money-lenders or male relatives. It gives members joint rights to the land, e.g. for cultivation or grazing, and allows no-one the right to despoil land. This approach has been successfully used by groups of poor rural women in parts of India, e.g. Bankura in West Bengal and Udaipur in Rajasthan. Other examples of group cooperation can be found in the traditional systems of common property resource management existing in many parts of South Asia, as in the distribution of water in irrigation systems, the protection or regeneration of forests, and the allocation of grazing rights on village pastures.

The forms that groups take (cooperatives, associations, trade unions etc.) and the sizes to which they grow, vary considerably, but certain common lessons can be drawn. First that groups require considerable economic and social homogeneity among their members. Secondly, the activity must not pose severe management problems when carried out on a group basis and the community of interest must outweigh conflicts of interest. Thirdly, that compared to approaches oriented towards individuals, those involving groups are more:

- efficient in channelling resources to the poor or for the purposes desired
- equitable in distributing benefits from the use of resources
- effective in providing incidental benefits (e.g. in improving the bargaining strength of the poor vis-à-vis the rich, or in exerting peer pressure against wasteful expenditure by individuals and groups, or in enabling women to challenge unequal relations within the family)
- able to exploit economies of scale.

- A. In designing public expenditure cuts, the budget needs to be looked at as a whole, and priorities explicitly determined, so that the cuts fall on low priority areas and resource allocations for higher priorities can be sustained. In practice, most countries have made cuts in a much more haphazard way, according to administrative ease, and without explicit consideration of priorities within or between sectors. Moreover, most stabilisation and adjustment programmes have placed excessive emphasis on expenditure cuts, and insufficient attention on finding additional sources of revenue. Increasing taxes, for example on cigarettes to help reduce the rapid rise in smoking, especially among women, offers one important source of potential revenue. Raising charges on non-priority government services offers another.
- B. In summary, domestic sources of finance for a programme such as we have proposed include:
- Reorienting expenditure within sectors. Examples include switching resources from urban hospitals to primary healthcare, or from tertiary to primary education. In Indonesia, for example, despite a 50 per cent cut in the overall budget, resources for child development and survival were maintained and those on immunisation increased. Most health expenditure cuts fell on urban hospitals.
  - Redirecting expenditure between sectors. Smaller allocations for sectors like armaments, which are not economically or socially productive, or for 'prestige' projects with low economic returns, can provide the resources for many official outlays. In Zimbabwe, an improvement in the security situation facilitated a shift from defence which fell from 44 per cent of the government's current expenditure in 1980 to 28 per cent in 1984; whereas that of education and health together rose from 22 to 27 per cent in the same period.
  - Introducing charges for non-priority services not used by the poor. Student loans for tertiary education, for example, have been introduced in Ghana.
  - Making greater use of community financing for local services. Community labour built 38,000 latrines in Ethiopia, for example, and has been used for school construction in much of West Africa. In one area of Benin, generic drugs were sold under community leadership at a substantial mark-up over costs, but still much below normal retail prices. The revenue financed not only the drugs but also 85 per cent of the operating costs of the primary health care undertaken.
  - Increasing taxes on the consumption of luxury goods and low priority items. In some parts of Australia the state governments have imposed a levy on cigarette companies (in addition to federal taxes on cigarettes), which is used for health and other socially beneficial programmes, some of which are specifically targeted at women. In Brazil the

government has created a fund for operating programmes in nutrition, health and education and for supporting small farmers. The fund is financed by an additional 0.5 per cent tax on sales and a 5 per cent surcharge on corporate income tax, and in 1982 it received \$300 million from these sources.

- Reforming the tax system through closing loopholes and simplifying procedures. Such reforms have raised considerable sums, for example in Australia, Ghana and Jamaica.
- Obtaining support from external donors (see next section). These sources can be of considerable importance. For example they committed \$85 million to Ghana's PAMSCAD, a scheme set up to help vulnerable groups during adjustment.

There is no question that the programmes we have proposed can be financed in these and other ways, given the requisite political commitment. The economic cost of not financing them is far greater than the accounting costs of doing so. Cuts in education, training, health and nutrition undermine future economic potential, while investing in women, in the ways suggested above, offers high economic returns (see Box 5.4) and would mean that the programmes became self-financing after only a few years.

#### IV. International action

**5.32** The external economic environment of the eighties, which has increased the need for developing countries to adjust their economies, has made it much more difficult for them to do so. Increasing debt, high interest rates, sharply diminished external resource flows, growing protectionism, inadequate commodity prices, adverse terms of trade – all need to be addressed by the international community. Improvements in each are vital if sustained global economic growth at an adequate rate is to be achieved in the 1990s. It is essential that a series of measures be taken which lead to a more supportive environment in the economic relations between nations, and give some renewed content to the phrase international economic cooperation for development.

##### **Box 5.4 The case for investing in women**

First, women already contribute heavily to the economy and family – usually far more than is reflected in official labour force and national income statistics. Women produce a large share of the developing world's food crops. They find almost all the fuel and water for household use. And almost everywhere, it is primarily women who care for children and meet the family's basic needs. Moreover, women are moving beyond agriculture and home-based activities; women now account for about one-quarter of the developing world's industrial labour force, and vast – albeit uncounted – numbers of women work as self-employed entrepreneurs in the fast growing informal manufacturing, trading and service sectors.

Second, women often lack the means to work at full or even moderate levels of productivity. They face special gender-based constraints (social, legal, administrative and technical) on access to information and technology, education and training, resources and services – in short, to factor and product markets. They also face special constraints on mobility and time use which limit their capacity to respond to the opportunities that do exist. The result is a loss in productivity and efficiency to the economy and reduced income for women and their families.

Third, expanding opportunities for women makes good economic sense and in some cases will be more cost-effective than making the same investment in men. Investing in women can make development programmes both more effective and more responsive to the poor; it can improve family welfare; it can improve the management of natural resources and so promote environmental sustainability; and it can reduce fertility and, hence, slow population growth.

(Extract from World Bank Sector Strategy Plan for Women in Development Division, FY89–91.)

## External resource flows

**5.33** Developing countries continue to require an increase in external resources to avoid detrimental cuts in short-term expenditure and to help build up the productive capacity necessary to expand output and exports. The fall of over one-half in total net flows of capital to the developing world between 1980 and 1987 has had disastrous consequences for economic growth and the poor, especially as it coincided with the implementation of adjustment policies. Both official and private net transfers have been falling; official net transfers\* were \$34 billion in 1981 but only \$8 billion in 1988; private net transfers were \$8 billion in 1981 and became negative in 1988 when there was a net outflow of resources of \$42 billion. It is vital that both improve, with an increase in official flows, and a reduced outflow on private account, through lower interest rates and debt reduction.

**5.34** We add our voice to the call for all member countries of OECD's Development Assistance Committee to adhere as soon as possible to the internationally accepted target of providing official development assistance (ODA) at a rate equivalent to at least 0.7 per cent of GNP. At present their average is under half this figure, with no Commonwealth developed country having achieved the target. We recommend in particular that countries set up intermediate targets with definite time frames so as to expedite a move towards the 0.7 per cent target. We also support a substantially increased share of ODA being channelled to low-income countries and through multilateral channels. Specifically we recommend larger funding for agencies such as UNICEF, UNFPA and WHO, which devote a high share of their resources to activities of benefit to women.

**5.35** Bilateral aid agencies should set aside a specific proportion of ODA to be used in projects and programmes of direct benefit to women, a concept already adopted by the United States. More generally, full account of women's interests must be taken when formulating all aid projects and programmes. In this respect we welcome the special measures some agencies have taken to ensure that women-in-development issues are fully integrated into planning procedures and operational modalities and recommend others to do the same.

**5.36** The IMF and the World Bank, which are the main sources of international finance during stabilisation and adjustment, also need enlarged resources. This is especially important because many countries have become heavily indebted to them, which is likely to impede country flexibility in implementing policies fostering growth and development.

The recently agreed general capital increase in the World Bank will enlarge the non-concessional resources available for structural and sector adjustment lending, particularly to middle income countries; a substantial expansion is also required in the resources of the Bank's concessional arm, the International Development Association (IDA), whose replenishment is currently under negotiation, if low-income countries are to receive sufficient resources for their programmes.

In addition a substantial expansion is required in the IMF's quotas, which determine the availability of its non-concessional resources, and in its concessional SAF/ESAF facilities. Both institutions have already recognised the need to take some account of the impact of adjustment on vulnerable groups; they should now give effect to this by paying much more attention to integrating women's concerns into the design, implementation, monitoring and appraisal of adjustment programmes (see para. 5.53 below). They should also devote more resources towards specific interventions to help support women to undertake their four main roles.

**5.37** Foreign direct investment is another vehicle for channelling resource flows to developing countries. Public sector agencies, such as the International Finance Corporation, have a major role to play as a catalyst enhancing such flows. The long-standing African and Caribbean Project Development Facilities and the IFC's recently-established African Enterprise Fund, help small entrepreneurs prepare and fund projects. These agencies should pay greater attention to women entrepreneurs so as to enable them to undertake more economically remunerative and productive activities.

**5.38** The debt overhang and huge debt-servicing obligations are among the main features inhibiting economic growth and development in many developing countries, especially in sub-Saharan Africa and Latin America/Caribbean. Debt reduction is essential. Some measures have been implemented but as yet they are on an inadequate scale. For some countries, the major problem arises from official debt; for others – especially in Latin America and the

Caribbean – the critical issue is debt owed to the commercial banks. We recommend that those OECD countries which have not already done so, should follow the lead of Britain, Canada and others which have undertaken a policy of ODA debt forgiveness for a number of low income countries. We also urge speedy implementation of the consensus, reached by industrial countries at Toronto in 1988, on relieving sub-Saharan low-income countries of their non-concessional official debt. This consensus should be broadened to cover debt-distressed countries outside sub-Saharan Africa. Moreover, it is important that the debt relief provided has an immediate impact in reducing transfers out of these countries and that it is not undertaken at the expense of reduced aid flows.

**5.39** Orderly debt reduction is also essential for middle-income highly indebted countries. We welcome the initiative by US Treasury Secretary Brady and support the introduction of new mechanisms to speed-up debt reduction. We strongly recommend that debt-swaps are encouraged for programmes related to the concerns of women.

### **International trading environment**

**5.40** In addition to a more supportive international financial environment, there are many other areas of the international agenda where much needed reforms would help the implementation of our recommendations. They are too numerous to mention here but one vitally important and topical area concerns the international trading environment.

**5.41** Protectionism is greatest or has increased most for many of the exports in which women are heavily employed. The Uruguay Round of multilateral trade negotiations in the GATT is not scheduled for completion until the end of 1990. But already sectors of critical importance to women's livelihoods are proving among those most difficult for the negotiators to make progress. In reviewing their strategy for the remainder of the Round, developed country (and other) negotiators should pay greater attention to the interests of women and the poor, especially in developing countries. For women, it is specially important that there is an early and full integration of the textiles and clothing sector into the 'normal' disciplines of the GATT, and that significant progress is made in reducing non-tariff measures (including those grey area 'voluntary' export-restraints taken outside GATT auspices, on such items as consumer electrical and electronic goods, and footwear). In agriculture, there should be improved access to industrial countries' markets for non-traditional products such as out-of-season vegetables, in which women are finding increasing employment.

**5.42** Other measures are also required to help women derive a better livelihood from the production of food and raw materials. Structural adjustment programmes have contributed to depressed international commodity prices by increasing supply (e.g. through World Bank SALs for cocoa tree planting in West Africa). These prices need

supporting. All policymakers should take full account of the effects of their commodity production and export decisions on international prices. We recommend that:

- national policymakers coordinate their actions internationally, if necessary through production controls
- international mechanisms (including the Second Account of the UNCTAD Common Fund for Commodities) be used more intensively and given greater support, to encourage commodity diversification
- a new international mechanism be established to make funds more directly available to compensate certain categories of producers, e.g., low income farmers, for falls in prices or earnings.

## V. Data and monitoring

**5.43** In the preparation of this Report the lack of accurate, regular and prompt gender-disaggregated data, both nationally and internationally, was immediately apparent to us. Better data are vital to formulate more effective and beneficial structural adjustment programmes, and to monitor and evaluate their effects. Data needed extend over a range of economic and social indicators, including the ownership of and access to productive resources such as land, housing and credit; employment and unemployment (in the formal and informal sectors); wages and earnings; literacy and education; morbidity and mortality; birth weights and infant mortality; life expectancy; and nutrition. Data on some of these items need to be collected fairly frequently, say quarterly; on others, at longer intervals. It is also important that such data are disaggregated by rural and urban areas and, to the extent possible, by income class. We recommend that governments and appropriate international organisations take the necessary steps to collect and disseminate such information.

**5.44** We also recommend that data on women's work and employment be gathered in such a way as to reflect the full extent of women's contribution to the economy and the household, taking explicit account of home-based economic production as well as domestic work. This would involve, among other things, redefining concepts of 'work', etc, and amending procedures for data collection to embrace all 'economic activity' undertaken by women, including that of a casual, part-time or seasonal nature. Suitable micro-level time-allocation studies could form the basis for improving the definitions used and questions asked in large-scale data collection procedures to better capture women's multiple roles and contributions.

**5.45** Regular monitoring of the impact of structural adjustment measures is also vital, so as to ensure that any negative effects are mitigated and there is maximum realisation of the opportunities provided for improving women's productivity and welfare. We

recommend the undertaking of base-line surveys at the start of adjustment and regular follow-up thereafter; also detailed case studies to examine the impact of specific adjustment measures on women.

**5.46** To ensure that the opportunities inherent in the adjustment process are seized widely requires publicity. We recommend that details of the programmes, schemes, legal and other reforms undertaken should be disseminated, not only nationally and regionally but especially at community level, and in different media.

## **VI. Securing implementation**

**5.47** A broadened approach to structural adjustment, so as to include more gender-sensitive policies, requires high-level commitment, in developed and developing countries, and in financial institutions and development agencies. It is essential that decision-makers recognise not only the need to reverse the negative effects of structural adjustment on women, but that women constitute a vital resource for carrying out the process. Making better use of this resource will entail modifications to the roles which women and men play in the economy and in society as a whole.

**5.48** This will require a political commitment which will be translated into administrative and institutional action. Greater control by women over their economic and social roles is a pre-requisite to improving their situation. Key elements of this process will be: the empowerment and organisation of women themselves; affirmative action to incorporate women into the decision-making processes, both nationally and internationally; institutionalising women's concerns, nationally and internationally; and general education on 'women's issues'.

**5.49** The empowerment and organisation of women requires, among other actions, dealing directly with women on all matters involving their lives. Planners must not assume that women's concerns are automatically taken care of; assisting women's organisations to make greater use of their political power in lobbying government. In Canada, women's groups have been successful in having women's issues debated prominently in federal elections; and ensuring legal recognition of women in their own right and not in relation to male family members. In most countries this is crucial in inheritance laws, and thus for land access.

**5.50** Affirmative action includes: establishment of targets for employing women in the public and private sector – as, for example, in Canada; appointment of women to key decision-making positions, nationally and internationally – as, for example, in UNFPA; reservation for women of parliamentary seats – as, for example, in Pakistan; or of places as trade union officials – as, for example, in Australia; assignment of women to areas of work where women's needs must be recognised – as, for example, of agricultural extension workers in Zimbabwe, where women form the majority of rural workers.



**5.51** Institutionalising women's concerns includes: strengthening government machinery, by placing women's organisations, especially women's bureaux, in strategically powerful positions within government and giving them wider-ranging powers to intervene in government (see Box 5.5 on the Zimbabwe experience); incorporating women's concerns in all aspects of government activity, through the establishment of women's units in all government ministries, reporting to centrally placed women's bureaux; establishing Cabinet and Parliamentary Committees to review legislation and programmes to incorporate women's concerns; strengthening machinery dealing with women's concerns in development agencies and in the multilateral system (not only in the UN but particularly in the international financial institutions), and ensuring that such machinery has the power to influence the system as a whole on all aspects of adjustment.

**5.52** General education on women's issues includes: supporting women's lobbies, as above, and groups involved in women's issues generally; removing gender bias from all educational and information material; and training staff on the role of women in development. A very successful short course developed by Harvard University has been used by a number of development agencies.

**5.53** Specifically, we emphasise that the negotiating process on structural adjustment must fully incorporate the interests of women, especially poor women. At present it is managed by central banks, finance ministries and the international financial institutions, which do not take women's interests into significant account. This must change.

We recommend that:

- Finance, budgetary, economic planning, 'aid' and other government departments establish women's units as an integral part of their administrative structures and consult women's affairs ministries, bureaux and other women's organisations when formulating, negotiating and implementing structural adjustment policies and programmes.
- Women's affairs ministries and women's national bureaux be strengthened in economic analysis and project appraisal. This would enable them better to negotiate with 'economic' ministries, so that all aspects of stabilisation and structural adjustment policies and programmes have gender dimensions, and to monitor the results.
- Women's organisations concerned particularly with economic issues (women's sections of trade unions, self-employed, business or professional women's associations, women's cooperatives, associations of women farmers, etc.) be adequately financed. The provision of resources directly to their members can enhance the sustainable growth of production.

- Other women's groups be assisted in the collection and dissemination of information, in lobbying and mobilising public opinion, and in promoting changes which lead to improved policies for women.
- International financial institutions (especially the World Bank) involve their women and development units more fully in the design, implementation, monitoring and appraisal of structural adjustment policies and programmes.

### **Box 5.5 Institutionalising women's concerns in Zimbabwe**

The Government of Zimbabwe is in the process of strengthening the planning and economic analysis function through national machinery for women's affairs. This is designed to incorporate women's concerns in the formulation and design of macro economic policies through the:

- establishment of focal points in ministries
- use of women's bureaux as focal points for monitoring and evaluating programmes to ensure that women's concerns are taken into account
- development of gender sensitisation in training programmes for personnel administering national machinery, including finance and economic planning ministries, and
- empowerment of women through using village community workers to:
  - encourage communities, particularly women, to participate in identifying their needs and priorities for local development
  - promote socio-economic activities and identify possible external technical resources – i.e. government or NGOs
  - assist in mobilising women to fill their quota in village and ward development committees
  - conduct meetings for disseminating information on women and communities.

## **VII. Proposals for Commonwealth follow-up**

**5.54** To ensure that the proposals we make in this Report are given the fullest consideration, we recommend the Commonwealth take steps to initiate and secure joint sponsorship with appropriate UN organisations for a small international meeting. This would consist of high-level officials involved in adjustment policies in a selection of countries. Officials from the international institutions – particularly the IMF, the World Bank and the United Nations bodies which have been involved in structural adjustment, such as UNICEF, UNDP and the UN Branch for the Advancement of Women – would also

participate. The meeting would seek to synthesise proposals for, and reach consensus on, the policy goals for a broader adjustment strategy fully reflecting women's interests; it would also focus on the ways in which such a strategy would be implemented.

**5.55** The Commonwealth should encourage intensive discussion of the issues concerned, using the opportunity provided by our Report. This could be done by supporting regional Commonwealth meetings, including at Ministerial level. These meetings could serve to help governments develop improved structural adjustment programmes and be better prepared to negotiate them with international financial institutions and bilateral donors. They should focus on the economic aspects of structural adjustment as well as on the socio-economic aspects arising from the impact on women. They could also serve as a preparatory process for the Commonwealth Meeting of Ministers Responsible for Women's Affairs in 1990, which we hope will make this subject a main agenda item. In addition, regional meetings could discuss and help to promote and to monitor and disseminate these ideas.

**5.56** Follow-up is required in other fora, not only to monitor the action taken but to assess the need for further modifications to structural adjustment strategies and packages. At a Commonwealth level this might best be done at meetings of Finance Ministers and Ministers Responsible for Women's Affairs. There are also opportunities for developing countries associated with the European Community to ensure that any new mechanisms for structural adjustment incorporate the women's dimension. At a more global level the United Nations will doubtless wish to further its involvement in the issue of women and adjustment through the Branch for the Advancement of Women, Centre for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs. This could also involve more wide-ranging bodies like the UN Second Committee or the Economic and Social Council and more specialist forums like the UN Commission on the Status of Women.

**5.57** Such follow-up, to be effective, will need political impetus. This would be assisted by a Commonwealth Declaration, defining structural adjustment in terms of how people – especially women – are affected; summarising the elements of broader policies and programmes which would minimise the adverse effects on the poor and vulnerable – especially women – and maximise the utilisation of the productive potential of available resources – again, especially women; and making proposals on how and when these new packages might be implemented.

**5.58** There are other vehicles for influencing events. The media are particularly effective. The women's dimensions to development and structural adjustment, and alternative adjustment policies giving greater attention to their requirements, need to be documented and disseminated in the popular press. Films may be an even more effective medium of communication, and to make our message more

graphic and compelling we requested the Commonwealth Secretariat to make a video. Its images will not only complement this Report but doubtless for many recipients tell the story far more persuasively. But whatever means of communication is used, the message is clear: action is needed now; “adjustment with a human face” is not enough; what is required in the last decade of the century is “development with a human face”.

## Reading 5: Jamaica's Social Development Commission

(Selections from descriptive account.)

### Mission statement

“To develop the capabilities of citizens within Communities; to identify and prioritise their social, economic, cultural and recreational needs, and to take collective action within the context of national goals; to satisfy those needs through self-help and in partnership with both Government and non-government organisations. Essentially a community empowerment programme embracing youth.”

### Historical background

The Social Development Commission is a statutory body operating under the aegis of the Ministry of Local Government, Youth and Sports. Founded as Jamaica Welfare Limited in 1937, largely through the efforts of Norman Manley, this limited liability entity was re-organised in 1949 and changed by law to become a statutory body.

In 1963, the name Social Development Commission was adopted following a major internal re-organisation.

Over the fifty-seven years of its existence, the Social Development Commission has made a significant contribution towards the establishment of the social institutional framework of the country. The organisation of community groups, the fostering of local level leadership, the promotion of cooperatives, literacy, culture and drama, sports and recreation, friendly societies, indigenous craft and cottage industries, are but some of the Commission's areas of direct contribution to rural and urban poor people and youth.

### Introduction

The Corporate Plan of the Social Development Commission has been developed as a tool of management. It incorporates the mission of the organisation and details the path to be taken by it in discharging its responsibility as the leading agency for implementing and guiding community development in Jamaica.

The Plan represents a collaboration of efforts of front-line staff who have daily, direct contact with the clients, supervisors of those persons in the field and senior staff who have had regular consultations with the Ministry of Local Government, Youth and Sports, the Ministry of the Public Service and other Government and non-Government organisations who provide services or in some other way contribute to the process of community development.

These efforts have been meticulously catalogued and point very frankly to the strengths as well as the limitations in the organisation and also to constraints and challenges at both the national and community levels.

Our focus, which forms a common thread throughout the document, speaks to a re-vitalisation of dormant communities, and to a re-awakening of energies for the achievement of national goals.

## **Outcome indicators**

### **1. Social development**

To establish communities in which the following characteristics are evident:

- Community leadership with the confidence in itself to take the initiative to mobilise citizens for co-operative action.
- A greater level of self-help in communities, facilitated by strong youth and community groups which can spear-head action to satisfy community needs.
- More collective action being employed to satisfy community needs of a social, economic, cultural and recreational nature.
- A significantly improved understanding by citizens of national goals and their role in nation-building, and a willingness to participate in the process.
- Greater use of conflict resolution strategies by citizens in settling differences resulting in better inter-personal and community relationships.
- A return to family values, traditions and behaviours that will mould the young into purposeful living, and enhance community and national life.

These family values include:

- affirmation of each other
- pursuit of joint spiritual, economic and social endeavours
- pursuit of domestic harmony
- promotion of wholesome parental roles and responsibilities
- adequate love and appropriate care of children
- a significantly smaller number of complaints concerning the presence of the Commission in communities
- an increase in the number of youth clubs affiliated to the Commission
- an increase in the number of adult groups serviced by the organisation and growth in youth clubs' membership.

## 2. Economic development

An increase in economic activities in communities, resulting in:

- more employment opportunities in the life of these communities
- sustained income earning activities
- greater access to ownership of economic resources
- more young people being engaged in productive work
- diversification in economic activities
- strengthening the economic base of rural and urban low income areas.

## 3. Sports and recreation

The Commission, working in tandem with the Institute of Sports and other bodies, will facilitate the growth of sports and recreational activities among community groups to the extent that there will be:

- more consistent participation by out-of-school youths as well as adult groups in sporting and recreational activities of a friendly as well as a competitive nature
- the emergence of disciplined individuals who, through their exposure in sports/recreational programmes, learn the rudiments of good sportsmanship
- the unearthing and moulding of natural talents and abilities
- improved climate for the emergence of persons who can serve as leaders and role models
- less involvement by citizens in passive and unwholesome forms of entertainment
- a society with a more heightened awareness of healthy living patterns, gained through the involvement of a greater number of its citizens in wholesome sports and recreational activities.

## 4. Cultural diversification and development

To promote initiatives that will:

- create among community members a greater awareness of the myriad forms of cultural expressions mirrored in our dance, music, drama and art
- instil an appreciation for things cultural so that there will be greater levels of participation in the process of cultural development
- strengthen linkages with organisations and groups (such as the Heritage Trust and Jamaica Cultural Development Commission) that will provide the fulcrum for change in the area of cultural awareness

- enhance the development of skills and techniques in the use of indigenous instruments and materials which form part of our cultural heritage.

## 5. Collaboration

Collaboration will be adopted as a conscious choice and is expected to result in greater levels of partnership between the community, Government and the Private Sector, in helping to realise the social, economic, cultural and recreational needs of communities.

## 6. Corporate services

The Social Development Commission will:

**i) Recapture** its role as the agency with primary responsibility for policy development, programme design and implementation in the areas of youth and community development services.

### ii) Research

Develop and test new methodologies and strategies for intervention through pilot projects and experiments and to disseminate these results for use by planners and service providers.

### iii) Operations

Improve its capabilities to provide effective community development services.

Collaborate with private and public sector persons engaged in complementary work to achieve its mission.

Develop mechanisms for the setting of standards, assessment and monitoring of public and private sector providers with whom the institution has to share authority.

## Situational analysis

“Community Development is the process by which the efforts of people themselves are united with those of Government authorities to improve the economic, social and cultural conditions of communities, to integrate these communities into the life of the nation and enable them to contribute fully to national progress.”

(United Nations' Definition)

In Jamaica, the process of community development is bedevilled with many problems which prevent the emergence of communities that are moving decidedly towards a better life for the citizenry.

### 1. No policy consensus

There is no policy consensus and little co-ordination so efforts are at best piecemeal, with many service providers having different agendas.



## 2. Lack of enthusiasm

In many instances, community people display little enthusiasm for sustaining any services once the providers have left. This is due mainly to the fact that communities are not trained for the governance of their resources.

## 3. Extreme poverty

Extreme poverty has resulted in a preoccupation by community people to employ short-term survival tactics which are highly individualistic, competitive and in some instances have deleterious effects on both man and the environment. Poverty has also led to mistrust and suspicion and an unwillingness to unite for community improvement.

## 4. Deterioration of family life

Family life has deteriorated and with that can be associated the problems of poor child-rearing practices, teenage pregnancies, lack of direction among youth, increase in crime and violence and a depletion of the skills and talents in certain areas necessary to sustain community development efforts.

## 5. Organisational issues

The Social Development Commission, because of its recent history, is perceived as being a very highly politicised organisation existing at the whim and dictate of changing political ideology. Its image is adversely affected.

The stigma affects the organisation in every respect:

- its ability to obtain quality staff
- the remuneration paid to staff
- the resources obtained from Government for programming
- the organisation's ability to obtain independent funding for new projects
- the morale of staff.

## 6. Some encouraging features

On the reverse side, there are some features which, if given encouragement, will contribute positively to the development of strong, vibrant communities:

### a. Interest in policy decisions

People are showing more interest in policy decisions and how these will impact on their lives. Talk shows and a plethora of newspapers help in this respect, so interest in development concerns is stimulated.

**b. Growth in citizen's groups**

Because of the upsurge in crime and violence in particular, Neighbourhood Watches and other citizens' groups have sprung up to defend life and property in communities. These can form the basis for addressing wider issues and concerns.

**c. Deregulation**

This is forcing people to adopt a new attitude to how they perceive Government and Government's ability to provide for their needs. Out of this should come a lessening of dependence on Government or other outside help and a development of internal (local) initiatives.

**d. A spirit of selflessness** still exists in the nation and is manifested in specific circumstances, particularly in rural Jamaica. The recapturing of this spirit can be achieved through a rebuilding of the basic units of the national life.

**Problems, issues and strategies**

**For the next five years**, the Social Development Commission will seek to address a number of problems and issues affecting both the organisation and its client groups island-wide. The measures to be adopted will reflect the mandate of the organisation as well as national policy on community development and youth.

- 1 Weak community groups that lack the confidence and ability to sustain community development activities.

**Proposed Action**

- Establish community groups along guidelines that will ensure their sustainability. This will be achieved by building them along areas of common interests and needs
  - Strengthen existing groups by building both adult and youth leadership. Such strengthening will be attained by giving keen attention to roles, responsibilities and relationships
  - Identify and develop leadership from all groups in communities by providing the potential leaders with management and organisational skills to undertake their roles
  - Form a skills bank, utilising inputs from Government, private sector and non-government organisations to enhance the community development process.
- 2 Perceived state of powerlessness by citizens who depend on external intervention to solve their problems.

**Proposed Action**

- Devise activities that will build self-esteem and confidence among citizens and inspire them to develop their potential to fulfil individual as well as community goals

- Highlight the successes of communities and of leaders who provide exemplary voluntary service
  - Adopt a multi-media approach to tackle issues of powerlessness.
- 3 Individualism, suspicion and mistrust which prevent community members from working co-operatively to achieve goals.

**Proposed Action**

- Conduct team building activities to engender community spirit.
  - Organise co-operative work plans such as community work days, Labour Day, Independence activities, and competitions such as those which are part of Youth and Community Month.
- 4 Lack of interest in and sensitivity towards national goals.

**Proposed Action**

- Conduct workshops, seminars and give talks on development issues at various community fora, such as those organised by Neighbourhood Watches, Youth Clubs and Senior Members' Council and zone meetings
  - Outline national goals and aspirations and help citizens to identify with these.
- 5 Divisiveness in communities fuelled by differences in personal and political ideology.

**Proposed Action**

Encourage and assist communities to plan and carry out discussions, work days, sporting and recreational activities which will foster tolerance and respect for the opinions of others and engender reflection and respect for self. Various techniques, including role play and other activity based techniques, will be used to outline, assess and resolve issues causing conflict among individuals, groups and communities.

- 6 Breakdown in family life thus giving rise to:
- dramatic increase in crime and violence
  - lack of purpose and direction among the youth
  - early entry into child-bearing / unplanned families
  - poor child rearing and family practices
  - spread of sexually transmitted diseases
  - drug use and abuse
  - lack of respect for authority and institutions.

### **Proposed Action**

- Family Life Education seminars and workshops using a multiplicity of techniques – oral, visual, role plays and simulations
- Establishment of family centres
- Provision of emotional supports for at-risk groups and individuals
- Peer group and individual counselling among community centre trainees, youth club members, unattached youths
- Distribution of contraceptives
- Training of volunteers to act as support for troubled teens and young adults.

7 Extreme poverty leading to:

- a sense of powerlessness and apathy
- absence of goals and vision of self and community
- actions and practices that degrade the individual, harm the environment and disrupt the ecological balance of the natural environment
- extreme individualism
- growth of squatter settlements and other unplanned communities.

8 Lack of organised sporting and recreational opportunities for a wide cross-section of youths and adults not in schools, church, service clubs, etc.

### **Proposed Action**

- Broaden the collaboration between the Commission and the Institute of Sports to involve more youths in sports
- Identify other resource – persons who can offer guidance, training in low-cost recreational skills development to generate new interest in a very passive population engaged largely in entertainment via television, camera, etc.

9 Proliferation of public sector, private and voluntary organisations offering their own brand of community development. This leads to:

- piecemeal efforts and a splintering of goals
- unnecessary competition
- duplication of efforts
- wasting of resources
- confusion among client groups.

**Proposed Action**

Advise the Ministry of Local Government, Youth and Sports in its establishment of a policy framework in community and youth development.

## 10 Corporate Problems

- Shifting ideology in policy direction which sometimes weakens the Social Development Commission and creates openings for the proliferation of groups attempting to carry out community development.
- Poor emoluments paid to staff of the Commission.
- Impatience by interest groups in the absence of quick results in the community development process. Abandonment of support.
- Lack of research capabilities prevent accurate long-term planning; organisation reactive rather than pro-active.

**Proposed Action**

Seek dialogue with each new Government to outline existing policy on community development.

Obtain endorsement for the continuation of programmes and projects which have proven to be beneficial to youth and community groups.

Employ staff with the skills and competence to undertake effective service delivery.

Lobby with the Ministry of the Public Service to provide remuneration to attract and retain staff to offer the level of intervention necessary.

Establishment of Research Unit in the organisation with the capability to:

- conduct tracer studies, employment and market surveys
- initiate local methods in community development
- give direction to weaker, newer community development organisations
- maintain successful linkages with private and Government organisations
- seek additional funding sources and technical support to assist in these ventures
- disseminate information on policy content, structure and approaches in community development to agencies involved in development work
- collaborate with these agencies in delineating roles for each service provider in the field.

## **Programme structure**

### **A. Community organisation building**

- 1 Community Education
- 2 Integrated Community Development Programmes
- 3 Networking activities (e.g. Festival, Labour Day, Women's and Population Issues)
- 4 Urban Youth Programme (Employment/ Personal Development)
- 5 Youth Exchange
- 6 Summer Employment
- 7 Youth Clubs Programme (Personal Development)
- 8 Youth and Community Month (showcase activity).

### **B. Economic development**

- 1 Small Business Management
- 2 Honey Bee
- 3 Fibre Craft Development
- 4 Learn to Earn
- 5 Project Development.

### **C. Cultural development**

Festival, Heroes and Independence Day activities – carried out in collaboration with other service delivery organisations, e.g. Jamaica Cultural Development Commission.

### **D. Sports and recreational development**

- 1 Community Sports.
- 2 Summer Camps.

### **E. Corporate development**

- 1 Organisational Development.
- 2 Staff Development.
- 3 Policy/Research Formulation.

## **Performance measures**

Each parish has been zoned based on population density, infra-structural development and geography.

The Corporate Plan has been and will continue to be the basis of operation for all staff members who are given specific targets to meet.

Performance will be measured by way of:

- monthly reports to be submitted by each division
- spot checks and planned visits to be made by responsibility centres to assess achievements and difficulties being encountered
- retreats to be held quarterly for programme assessment
- twice-yearly performance appraisals will be carried out for each staff member
- surveys will be conducted among client groups once every six months and once per year among other service providers to assess our effectiveness and to identify what elements of our project may need revising.

## Reading 6: Planning Institute of Jamaica, Economic and Social Survey, 1991

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### Chapter 22: Social development

#### Introduction

During 1991 a number of initiatives were put in place to improve the lives of Jamaican children. The Ministry of Youth and Community Development (MYCD) in collaboration with other Ministries, as well as Non Governmental Organisations (NGOs), both local and international, focused on a holistic approach to the development of programmes and projects which benefit children. In particular, the Child Support Unit of MYCD did preparatory work for implementation of the following components of the UNICEF Programme in Jamaica (1992–1995): Community Based Services for Disabled Children, Street Children, Home Based Nurseries and Advocacy, Policy and Infrastructural Strengthening.

In May 1991, the Government of Jamaica ratified the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child. Following this, the MYCD and NGOs developed the Plan of Action for implementing the World's Declaration on the Survival and Development of Children in the 1990s, which arose out of the UN World Summit for Children.

During the year measures were taken to offer opportunities to the youth for economic development, and to encourage economic growth within communities. The creation of the Micro Investment Development Agency (MIDA) and the Government of Jamaica/ Government of Netherlands Micro Enterprise Project, indicate government's commitment in this regard.

The year 1991 was a particularly active year for the Women's Movement in Jamaica. The National Household Workers Association was launched in April 1991. The Bureau of Women's Affairs, the Association of Women's Organisations in Jamaica and the Business and Professional Women's Club, among others, engaged in various activities at the policy making and at the community levels. They brought into sharp focus the high incidence of abuse of women, indiscipline in the society, and the need for changes in areas such as training opportunities for women, legal reform and employment equity. Emphasis was also placed on the impact of structural adjustment, and the gender approach to development was promoted.

The Chapter is structured as follows:

- (A) The child and the family
- (B) Youth
- (C) Women in development
- (D) Community development



(E) Support services for non-governmental organisations

## **(A)The child and the family**

### **1. Children's services**

The Children's Services Division of the Ministry of Youth and Community Development is the agency mandated by the Government to provide care and protection for children, 0 to 18 years, who come to their notice whether through referral or by direct intervention. These children are identified in the following categories:

- 1 Abandoned, neglected or abused
- 2 Offenders
- 3 Beyond parental control.

The Division administers the following services:

- (i) Intake and investigation
- (ii) Institutional care (i.e. Places of Safety and Children's Homes)
- (iii) Foster Care Programmes, and
- (iv) Home Supervision – the supervising of children in their own homes (i.e. those placed on supervision orders and those placed on Home-on-trial).

As indicated in the Five-Year Plan, the Division is committed to reducing levels of institutionalisation for children in care. However, this was hampered by difficulties experienced in identifying suitable foster parents, the inability of foster parents to cope with adolescents and the reluctance of some parents to take back children who had been in care. At the same time problems intensified in relation to institutional care. For example, the cost of maintaining children in institutions, both Government and Private, continued to increase and threatened the ability to meet basic needs of these children; additionally, delays in effecting repairs to buildings as well as staffing problems impacted negatively on the standard of care.

The Division therefore intends to accelerate its programme to reduce institutionalisation, and the media are expected to play a vital role in increasing the number of foster parents. Another important component of the programme is financial assistance to families to encourage them to keep their children at home under their supervision. This was continued during the year as also training in parenting skills, particularly for foster parents.

Other problems encountered by the Division included violence in some communities which made supervision by the Children's Officers difficult, and curtailed the investigations necessary to meet the court's requirements.

**(i) Intake, Investigation and Prevention**

At intake, the Children's Officers determine whether or not a case requires the services of the Division, referral to the court, or another agency. The primary function of the officer at this stage is a preventive one. For the year under review, the Division received 5,064 requests, 2,719 of which required investigation and follow up court action. Referrals to other agencies totalled 1,301, while Children's Officers assumed responsibility for 3,236 cases. The number of cases at intake for 1991 showed a significant increase of 2,143 or 73.4 per cent on figures for 1990. Amongst the factors requiring the services of the court were domestic problems within the family unit as well as an escalation of crimes of a more serious nature.

In 1991, Children's Officers completed a total of 1,784 new field investigations, an increase of 200 or 12.7 per cent over 1990. The number of social enquiry reports written totalled 1,498, an increase of 752 or 101 per cent over 1990. Of the total number investigated, 714 were males and 784 were females.

Those receiving Fit Person Orders increased by 3 per cent to 466; of this number 244 were males and 222 females. Supervision orders made totalled 316, an increase of 159 or 101.2 per cent over 1990. Of this number, 173 were males and 143 females. The court made 103 contribution orders towards the upkeep of the children who received Fit Person Orders. A total of 173 children were classified as being abandoned.

**(ii) Foster Care**

Foster Care is an important area of the Division's activity. It provides an alternative home for children up to 18 years of age. At December 1991, there were 579 foster homes providing accommodation for 1,180 children. This shows an increase of 179 over 1990. There was also a positive response in respect of those applying to be foster parents, as the number moved from 441 in 1990 to 530 in 1991. However, only 167 were considered suitable and 94 new foster care placements were made. The Division is planning a massive recruitment drive to attract 203 new foster parents.

**(iii) Institutional Care**

Institutional Care is the least preferred alternative for children who appear before the Courts. Such care is provided in both Places of Safety and Children's Homes when it is impossible to find Foster Parents or placement with relatives. There are 18 government operated institutions, nine Places of Safety and nine Children's Homes. Additionally, there are 27 privately owned and operated Children's Homes and five Places of Safety.

At December 1991, there were 1,492 children in Children's Homes, a slight increase of 54 over 1990. Places of Safety accommodated 786 children. The total number of children in residence at Government

and Private institutions continued to fall below the level of the licensed capacity.

#### **(iv) Home-on-Trial**

Youngsters are sent home-on-trial to complete their rehabilitation, if their home is willing and ready to accommodate them, and if the institution's staff and Children's Officers consider them ready. They are under the supervision of the Children's Officer until they have attained age 18 or if the order is revoked. During this period they may return to the formal school system, receive non-formal education or work, depending on their age and the level of support they receive from "significant others". At the end of December 1991, there was a total of 529 youngsters home-on-trial, 37 of whom were returned home in 1991.

## **2. Day care services**

### **(i) The National Day Care Services (NDCS)**

The programme which is implemented by the National Day Care Unit of the Ministry of Youth and Community Development is geared primarily towards prevention. It adopts an holistic approach, taking into account the physical, social, intellectual, aesthetic and spiritual development of the children. A total of 2,771 children in the age group 0–4 years benefited from the programme in 1991, an increase of 347 or 14.3 per cent. The number of privately operated centres moved from 49 in 1990 to 63 in 1991, thus increasing the total number of centres to 81 from 77 in 1990. Home based nurseries showed the biggest increase, moving from 10 in 1990 to 38 in 1991.

Training is an important component of the National Day Care Unit. During 1991, mothers involved in the outreach projects benefited from courses in child care and development, stimulation, skills training, budgeting and income generating strategies. Approximately 975 parents participated in parenting education sessions which were jointly executed by the Caribbean Child Development Centre and the NDCS.

The six Cluster Satellites which were established in 1990 continued to provide guidance and resources to home and neighbourhood nurseries. A total of 136 persons participated in 15 workshops organised within the Cluster Satellites.

### **(ii) Caribbean Child Development Centre (CCDC)**

The Caribbean Child Development Centre concentrated its effort on the following areas:

- Funded Projects
- Research on the Contribution of Caribbean Men to the Family

- A second course on Working Resourcefully with Parents, conducted through the UWIDITE system and benefiting 165 teachers, social workers, public health inspectors and other community based workers.
- The Urban Children and Mothers' Project, especially the Child Care Outreach and Parenting Components, which includes training for community participants. A total of 868 adults and 200 children benefited from the project. Workshops conducted included one for fathers only. Arising out of this workshop was the formation of a fathers' group which meets on a monthly basis.
- The fifth Parenting Programme, dealing with sexual abuse of Caribbean children, was also completed.

### ***Collaboration and consultation***

As a result of research conducted by the Save the Children Fund (UK), CCDC with other agencies established a new entity called Parenting Partners. CCDC's main role is to draft a manual for facilitators of parenting groups. CCDC was also instrumental in organising a one day seminar for over 80 government and private day care operators on the licensing of Day Care Centres. In addition, they participated with other organisations to assist the Ministry of Education to address parenting needs in the education system.

### ***Development, dissemination of materials***

The CCDC has developed new material for regional use, including the production of another parenting video programme in the Content Grove series and a Chapter on Group Counselling for the UWIDITE Fertility Management Course.

## **3. The Family Court system**

The Family Courts are located in Kingston/St. Andrew and St. James/ Hanover and serve both juveniles and adults. They provide both judicial and social functions and utilise the professional services of Clerks of the Courts, Children's Officers, Counsellors, Probation Officers, the Police and Support Staff.

During 1991, there was increased demand for social intervention, involving counselling and mediation through the courts. Although the resources and physical facilities at the courts need upgrading, officers continued to provide adequate service delivery.

### ***(i) Intake within the Court System***

A total of 10,676 new cases utilised the services of the courts in 1991, a slight decrease of 49 compared with 1990. Of these 6,251 were seen in Kingston/St. Andrew Family Court, a decrease of 162, and 4,425 in St. James/Hanover, an increase of 113. The demand from persons outside the jurisdiction of both the Kingston/St. Andrew and St.

James/Hanover Family courts continued to grow with St. Catherine accounting for the largest increase, a total of 406 out of 657 applicants.

The number of cases seen by the Family Counselling Service of the courts increased by 179 over 1990 to 4,730 in 1991. With regard to these cases, a total of 6,400 counselling sessions were held in the Kingston/St. Andrew Family Court. Over 250 counselling sessions were held in this court in a project for children under ten years old who exhibited behavioural problems. These included individual and group counselling which also involved parents. The Family Courts continued their programme of public education and conducted 130 lectures.

### ***(ii) Cases for Court action***

As in previous years, affiliation matters far outnumbered other cases but showed a decline from the 1990 figure, falling to 8,190 from 9,174 or by 10.7 per cent. The category 'Married Women's Property' was used the least, with only 41 cases being heard in the Kingston/St. Andrew Family Court while 'Declaration of Paternity' had 220 cases heard in the same court. There is therefore apparent need for a public education programme to inform women of their rights, particularly in relation to 'Married Women's Property' and the 'Declaration of Paternity' and also in relation to the other categories which can be used by the public.

### ***(iii) The Teenage Pregnancy Clinic***

This project is co-ordinated by the Kingston/St. Andrew Family Court in collaboration with the Women's Centre of Jamaica Foundation and the Victoria Jubilee Hospital. For the year 1991, 328 young mothers were seen. The main activities of the project included group and individual counselling sessions, fortnightly visits to the homes of the girls and their parents, counselling putative fathers and making referrals to educational centres.

### ***(iv) The Attendance Centre***

This facility provides training in home management, woodwork and family life education as part of the rehabilitative process for youngsters between the ages of 14–18 years who have been placed on non-institutional orders by the Family Court or Juvenile Courts. Daily devotional exercises and counselling are also important areas of the programme. Total on roll for 1991 was 40 with attendance varying between 18 and 35. Because of indiscipline, five were returned to court for alternative orders. In November, the Centre had its annual Open Day where work done by the students was displayed.

## **4. The Adoption Board**

The main objective of the Board for 1991 was to achieve a greater level of efficiency. This was partly realised with the acquisition of a

computer. The plan to organise a support group system for adoptive and prospective adoptive parents was not realised, due mainly to reduced staff. However, the Board's output showed an increase with 353 adoptions being granted locally over the 1990 figure of 329. Of the total amount granted, 158 were from the Corporate Area, 90 of them being girls. As in the case of fostering, there was a definite preference for girls. On the other hand, those who applied from other countries have shown a preference for boys. A total of 37 such applications were made, 25 for boys and 12 for girls; of this number 28 licences were issued – 18 for boys and 10 for girls. The United States of America accounted for the largest number of applications (16) with Canada next (12). The largest number of licences were granted to the USA – 12. Other countries applying for and receiving licences were St. Kitts, Denmark, Sweden, The Turks and Caicos Islands and the United Kingdom. As in previous years, aunts dominated in the number of orders received by relatives. Of the 353 orders granted, they received a total of 83, an increase of 42 over 1990.

The Adoption Board continued to work towards increasing the number of children for adoption by simplifying the processes as well as educating the public and encouraging more persons to adopt a child. During Adoption Week in May 1991, the Board focused on the adoption process including its associated difficulties and successes.

## 5. Children in especially difficult circumstances

The recognition by Government of its moral and social obligation to improve the lives of Children in Especially Difficult Circumstances has resulted in specific projects being undertaken in collaboration with NGOs. The projects which are funded by UNICEF and co-ordinated by the Child Support Unit in the MYCD are implemented within the Ministries of Health, Education and the MYCD. The Child Support Unit, which was established in October 1991, interfaces with and supports children's advocacy groups, and provides technical assistance. The Unit also has the mandate to establish and maintain a data bank for Children in Especially Difficult Circumstances and others at risk.

### *(i) Disabled children*

The Children's Services Division of the MYCD has responsibility for the care and protection of disabled children who become wards of the state. For the year under review there were 225 disabled children in care, 74 in Places of Safety and 151 in Children's Homes.

In addition to the services provided by MYCD, the Ministry of Health has responsibility for disabled children for those who need specialised care in health facilities. The Ministry of Education also accommodated 2,166 disabled children in the school system. (See Chapter 18).

There are three community based programmes caring for disabled children. These are the Early Stimulation Project operated by the Ministry of Labour, Welfare and Sport, with the Council for the Handicapped having special responsibility; 3D Projects Limited, and the programme operated by Voluntary Organisations Limited.

The Early Stimulation Project targets children 0–6 years old and operates in the parishes of Kingston, St. Andrew and St. Thomas. Its emphasis is on early identification of impairment, assessment, the formation and training of parent groups and manufacturing of assistance aids. A total of 626 children were enrolled in the project with about 40 per cent suffering from cerebral palsy.

The 3D Projects Limited operates in rural parishes and uses trained community rehabilitation workers to carry out its home based programmes with the disabled and their parents. Other activities include staff training, clinic attendance and the production of teaching aids. A total of 20 children are enrolled in this project.

Private Voluntary Organisations (PVO) Limited reach approximately 2,000 disabled children in the rural zones, utilising a staff of 10. Initial screening is carried out by the PVO team at rural health centres and appropriate placements made to programmes developed to assist the children and their parents.

The first residential facility for disabled children in Western Region became a reality in 1991 when it opened its doors to 11 children. Funds were donated by United States Agency for International Development (\$128,419.44), United Way of Jamaica (\$250,000) and Hanover Charities (\$100,000). This project was started in 1989 by a retired Senior Children's Officer and the Western Foundation for Disabled Children.

### **(ii) Abused children**

The abuse of children may be overt or covert and may sometimes be regarded as unintentional. Whatever the circumstances, the emotional and/or physical scars can have lasting negative effects. Cases of child abuse are treated at hospitals, clinics, and social work agencies such as the VOUCH Limited. Quite often, the treatment, whether medical or psychological, is administered by more than one agency and this creates difficulty in arriving at an accurate number of those children who have been abused. In order to address this problem, the Specialist Committee on Child Abuse, through the Child Guidance Clinic at the Comprehensive Centre, has started to establish a databank to accurately determine the number of children who are victims of abuse.

The Family Court in St. James/Hanover recorded an increase from four to 23 cases of child abuse for 1991, while the number of cases in the Kingston and St. Andrew Family Court declined by six to 140 cases, (82 girls and 58 boys). A Child Abuse Unit was also opened by an interdisciplinary Committee on the Children's Ward at the Cornwall Regional Hospital.

**(iii) Marginalised youth**

The Marginalised Youth Project was started in 1989 by the Save the Children Fund (UK) and was then known as the Street Children Project. As the project expanded, a number of children received assistance who did not fit UNICEF's description of Street Children, thus the name was changed. The project operates in Kingston, Spanish Town and Montego Bay and provides food, counselling, financial assistance, recreational activities and emergency services, such as assistance for rebuilding houses for flood and fire victims. A total of 650 children benefited from this project in 1991, 200 of whom received remedial education. Through the Street Children component, a total of 130 youths returned to the formal school system and 20 from the Corporate Area returned home and were placed in schools. Other agencies have also been facilitated by funds from SCF to carry on the work with Street Children.

In 1991, parenting education, a relatively new dimension to the SCF programme, was developed as part of a preventative approach to the problem of Children in Especially Difficult Circumstances. A parenting education curriculum developed for those persons engaged in counselling parents. Parenting Education Associations were formed in some parishes, and an experimental financial assistance project established to assist very poor parents in St. Catherine. The SCF, in collaboration with other Non-Government Organisations, also established a Parenting Partners group.

**(B) Youth**

Government's Five Year Development Plan reflects a concern for the total development of the youth population 15–29, which constituted approximately 31.1 per cent of the Jamaican population in 1991. Youth Programmes are therefore designed to facilitate:

- a) self-employment and economic development
- b) non-formal education and skills training, and
- c) social and personal development through recreational and cultural activities.

**1. Youth employment programmes****(i) Micro Investment Development Agency (MIDA)**

Youth employment programmes are vital for combating the persistent high unemployment among Jamaican youth who experienced an average unemployment rate of 32 per cent in 1991. During the year the Government established MIDA after terminating the Solidarity Programme which had been restarted in 1985. Like Solidarity, MIDA is intended to facilitate the development of Micro enterprises which are seen as a principal means of ensuring self-sustaining economic development among the youth. This Agency, however, is more broad-based and has a higher loan ceiling than Solidarity. It mobilises



funding from sources such as the government privatisation programme, to provide financial services through approved financial institutions. A principal objective of the Agency is to ensure that the micro-entrepreneur receives technical assistance in the design and management of viable projects. Its target clientele is persons in the 18–35 age group who are eligible for loans in amounts of up to J\$50,000 on an individual basis and up to J\$120,000 on a group basis. Interest rates are between 18–23 per cent. Between November and December 1991, loan applications were approved totalling over \$370,000 for the starting up of 17 projects in eight parishes.

The projects included garment manufacturing, dairy processing, poultry rearing, furniture manufacturing, vending retail outlets, food processing and food services. These projects generated employment for 34 people.

### ***(ii) Government of Jamaica/Government of Netherlands (GOJ/GON) Project***

This Micro-Enterprise project began in September 1991. It is intended to support the expansion and transformation of the micro sector of the Jamaican economy. A total of J\$43m is available for credit to 1,400 enterprises over a two-year period. Technical assistance includes training counsellors, accounting and book-keeping services, technology transfer, macro policy research, and a monitoring and evaluation mechanism. The project also provides the education and institutional strengthening for agencies involved in its implementation such as the College of Arts, Science and Technology.

The Project is designed as a two year pilot to be implemented in Eastern Jamaica, and Kingston and St. Andrew, and will run parallel to MIDA. The target groups are people with small business experience, women under 25 years, and micro entrepreneurs whose activities contribute to the protection of the environment.

### ***(iii) Inter-American Development Bank Loan Programme***

This credit assistance programme to Jamaica 4H clubbites was re-organised during 1991. Loans to benefit a further 1,000 young people, ranging from J\$500 to J\$5,000 were made available for projects in agriculture, home economics and handicraft. At December 1991, a total of 406 loans had been disbursed totalling over J\$1.4 million. A total of 57 beneficiaries had completed repayment of over J\$602,000.

## **2. Non-formal training**

### ***(i) Jamaica 4H Clubs***

During 1991, Jamaica 4H Clubs continued to provide assistance to young persons age nine to 25 years, towards the acquisition of skills in agriculture, homemaking, leadership development and citizenship. Training for clubbites included courses in nutrition, food preservation, plant propagation, kitchen gardening and livestock

rearing. A total of 2,500 youth have also received leadership and business training to support the self-employment thrust. Additionally, 680 training sessions were held for 840 leaders and 9,658 members.

The Jamaica 4H Club programmes operate primarily through school clubs and community-based clubs while 12 training centres are engaged in short term agricultural enterprises. Activities in the clubs increased as the 600 clubs in operation at December 1991, represented a 50 per cent increase over 1990. Likewise, membership showed an increase of 25 per cent, while the number of volunteer leaders increased by 75 per cent over 1990.

### ***(ii) Other government programmes***

Non-formal training is also provided by the Government under the Human Employment and Resources Training (HEART) and at Vocational Training Centres (VTCs). A total of 5573 and 938 respectively were trained under these institutions in 1991.

## **3. Socio-cultural programmes**

### ***(i) Youth Clubs/Youth Camps***

Youth Clubs are open to young men and women 11–25 years old and aim to facilitate the total development of young people. A total of 605 youth clubs remained in operation within the community centres with membership having increased to about 28,000 from 25,000 in 1990. Their activities incorporate community sports, youth exchange, and youth at community month activities outlined below.

In 1991, educational and recreational activities were initiated by the Social Development Commission in the two youth centres constructed in St. Elizabeth and Hanover. Of four youth camps, two were still being used by HEART Trust, Chestervale was being used by the Coffee Industry Development Company (CIDCo), and Cape Clear was still being refurbished.

### ***(ii) Jamaica/Canada Youth Exchange***

In 1991, equal numbers of young Canadians and Jamaicans, 42 in total, benefited from cross-cultural experiences for 3.5 months in each country. In Jamaica, the young people were based in St. James, Trelawny and St. Ann, assisting in upgrading several community facilities and teaching in junior schools.

### ***(iii) Youth and Community Month***

The theme for the month which was celebrated in November was 'Youth and Community Development through Discipline and Production'. The aim was to promote the concepts of discipline, service and production among the youth. Features of the month included an Island cyclethon and a sports extravaganza involving 2000 participants. A national production day engaged community

efforts in the planting of ornamentals, food and fruit crops at community locations; Best Clubs and Youth Leaders Competition; and an Initiative and Creativity Competition where original designs of tools and articles constructed from low cost indigenous and recycled materials competed for awards. The Jamaica 4H club also held a conference on 'Re-defining The Role of Youth in Rural Economy'.

#### **(iv) Community sports**

The programme pursued by the Social Development Commission during 1991 was geared mainly for out-of-school youth and those not belonging to formal sporting associations. The Commission provided gear for training and competition and identified and referred athletic talent to Insports and other agencies, for further development assistance. Community resources were also mobilised to improve sports facilities, which was undertaken as a Labour Day activity in May.

Co-ordination was effected with the National Council on Drug Abuse in their 'healthy lifestyle programme' and in staging six sports rallies during their week of celebration. Along with Insports, the Social Development Commission conducted athletics meets in all parishes with an average of 500 athletes participating in each parish. Sporting clinics were also held. Tribute was paid to 50 outstanding sports persons who originated from the Commission's youth clubs.

#### **(v) Summer camps**

In the summer, 28 day camps and two residential camps were held for 2,350 youngsters who benefited from planned leisure and development activities. The residential camps were held at Mile Gully in Manchester with 60 participants, and Buff Bay, Portland, with 96 participants.

### **(C) Women**

During the year under review, steps were taken to create a gender conscious approach to policies and programmes of the government as well as of Non-Governmental Organisations. Women were particularly concerned about the inequities which exist and which limit their participation at the decision-making level and their access to resources.

#### **The Bureau of Women's Affairs (BWA)**

The mandate of the Bureau of Women's Affairs is to promote the full participation of women in the development process of the country. In support of this mandate, special focus was placed on employment and training, targeting women in the 14–24 age group as being among the most vulnerable because of their higher unemployment rates and low technical capabilities. The Bureau conducted a study on employment and training opportunities as part of this and drafted a

submission to Cabinet for financial support towards providing such opportunities. The National Household Workers Association was launched in April 1991, and the Parish Advisory Committee (PAC) in St. James, one of the 14 across the island developed by the Bureau was instrumental in the training of 60 household workers in November. The Bureau conducted three workshops, one on the theme of building alliances, one on the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women and one on Violence against Women.

### **The Women's Centre of Jamaica Foundation**

In 1991, the Women's Centre Programme changed its status from being a government owned agency to becoming a Limited Liability Company, now known as the Women's Centre of Jamaica Foundation. However, it continues to operate under the Ministry of Labour Welfare and Sport with its main focus being that of providing education for young mothers between the ages of 11–16 years and encouraging the delay of second pregnancies.

A total of 1,484 young mothers benefited from the programme in the seven main centres and 12 outreach Centres across the island, 78 less than in 1990. The seven centres island-wide accommodated an increase of 21 per cent, while the number of young women who benefited from the 12 outreach centres decreased by 11.4 per cent. The decrease in the total number of young mothers using the centres is felt to be the result of high increases in transportation costs. The Kingston Centre started to board young mothers from the rural parishes, tutoring them for the CXC and O Level examinations. Dropouts from the Secondary and High Schools continued to dominate the numbers who benefit from the programme.

In an attempt to assist the students who travel long distances, the programme expanded its outreach facilities and extended its teaching sessions. The Public Education programme, which is manned by an ex-student, is now reaching rural areas as well.

### **The Crisis Centre For Women**

Established in 1985, the Crisis Centre offers counselling to women who are victims of rape, incest and domestic crisis. As in 1990, those who were affected by domestic crises made up the largest number and this figure showed a significant increase of 453 or 113.6 per cent compared with 1990. The reported cases of incest and domestic violence similarly increased by 74 per cent and 48.6 per cent respectively. The number of rape victims handled by the Centre however decreased from 140 in 1990 to 105 in 1991. But this is not necessarily an indication of the total picture, since the number of cases reported to the Police Rape Units for 1991 increased by 85 over 1990.

The Crisis Centre and Shelter are funded mainly from the proceeds of an annual trade fair organised by Women Inc., while the United Way

of Jamaica also provides financial support. Recently, a hostel/training centre was established for men 18–25 years old who have no family support and lack skills to equip them for the job market. This project was funded by the Norwegian Women's Group.

## **(D) Community development**

During the year under review, the integrated approach to community development was promoted. This approach was highlighted at a workshop held by the Ministry of Youth and Community Development at the Conference Centre in November. Governmental and Non-governmental Organisations undertook to increase collaboration to promote community development in Jamaica. These included the Kingston Restoration Company, the Mel Nathan Institute, Projects for People Ltd., and The Social Development Commission, which is the leading government agency responsible for community development.

### **Social Development Commission**

With staff receiving a range of technical and attitudinal training in 1991, the Commission re-emphasised its commitment to developing a spirit of self-will among community members and strengthening community organisations.

### **Community Centre programmes**

The Community Centre continued to be the focus of a range of socio-cultural activities. The 33 centres in operation cater to adults over 17 years and are biased towards female activities. In most centres, there was strong emphasis on training in needlework, home economics, personal development and culture/recreation. Garment construction and home-makers' programmes were the most popular as most of these graduates found employment with hotels, homes and garment factories. A total of 247 members of these programmes graduated in the summer of 1991. Other activities included participation in National Festival activities. Each community centre also has an outreach programme which takes training and community development activities into the surrounding areas.

In enacting one of its commitments for the year, the Social Development Commission began preparatory work with a number of communities towards organising themselves to take over the control and management of the community centres.

### **Rio Grande Development Project**

This project operates in the 18 communities of small farmers in the Rio Grande Valley in Portland. It is funded by the Dutch and Jamaican governments, and employs a bottom-up planning system, emanating from the village committees to the national co-ordinating committee, to ensure sustainability. Coupled with this strategy is an integrated approach to community development. In 1991 a review of

activities and achievements was conducted on Phase I of the project followed by planning for the 2nd phase. Achievements include the formation of a marketing co-operative, the establishment of a hatchery and fish farms and the setting up of a farm store. Career skills and leadership training have been taught and agricultural loans provided. Since its inception, over 2,600 persons have benefited from the project. Components in which women participated such as goat-rearing were particularly successful and will be expanded in the second phase to start April 1992. The first phase will end in March 1992.

### **Economic development**

As a part of the Government's employment promotion initiatives, the Social Development Commission's Economic Development Division was established in 1991. This Division has the mandate to assist in the development of economically viable projects, and has linkages with MIDA. Pilot projects were initiated in St. Elizabeth, Manchester and Clarendon. Technical assistance was offered in identifying investment opportunities, preparing business proposals, business training, project monitoring and evaluation. Cattle-rearing, light manufacturing, dress-making and retail ventures were some of the projects approved out of the 221 which were submitted by Division for funding during the year.

### **Kingston Restoration Company (KRC) Programme**

The Kingston Restoration Company aims at rejuvenating the physical, economic and social life of downtown Kingston. Private investment in downtown Kingston has been stimulated by the company's facade improvement programmes and direct investments in building restoration. Another key objective of KRC is its job creation effort which by September 1991 had 11,692 actual jobs from KRC's projects, 1,174 of which were new jobs. More than 50 per cent of all industrial jobs in KRC's factories went to the low-income central Kingston population. A primary purpose of this Project has been to benefit the 6,000 residents of the Kingston core area, through its Community Development Programme.

During 1991, community improvement activity continued to be sustained at a fairly high level. Activities supported have included sports programmes – a key element in defusing political antagonism, a health clinic, cultural activities, park improvement, linking unemployed residents to job opportunities, local job training programmes and job generation initiatives within the community. An endowment fund for the Youth and Educational Support System now stands at \$J200,000, and assists 90 high school students. Training in readiness for the job market and discouraging anti-social behaviour such as drug abuse are areas of focus for the new Teen Centre which was set up during the year.

## Mel Nathan Institute

As a development action programme of the United Church of Jamaica and Grand Cayman, the Mel Nathan Institute sees its mission as that of facilitating human and community action throughout Jamaica. It commenced operation in Hannah Town, West Kingston, in 1978, and now operates island-wide.

For 1991, new developments were centred in two main areas in the field of economic development. These were: “Jamaica Journeys”, an alternative tourism programme; and the provision of business development and employment facilities, servicing not only Hannah Town and surrounding areas, but enabling viable economic projects for the Institute itself and development programmes island-wide. This latter area received financial support from the Government through the Social and Economic Support Programme. It is reported that 154 persons (59 per cent female) approached the Institute for business assistance. The Placement Services catered to 165 persons (56 per cent females) who sought employment, and of those seeking permanent jobs 53 per cent were successful. There was increased intake of both males and females in the Vocational Skills Training Community College for the year.

## Projects For People Ltd (PFP)

Established in 1979, Projects for People is a non-profit community development organisation, which aims to promote and support a variety of income-generating projects in depressed communities as a means of improving the quality of life. PFP works with youth, women, small farmers and disabled people, and supports a broad range of projects in cash crop cultivation, small scale livestock rearing, food processing, light manufacturing and crafts, in both rural and urban areas.

PFP has three larger projects which present examples of integrated development but which are in need of immediate capital investments and thus form the main thrust of PFP’s current request for funding assistance. These projects are:

- (a) The Salisbury Plain Young Farmers Project located in the NW hills of St. Andrew. Focus is placed on pig and chicken farming, and egg production, on 4¼ acres. Chicken and pig houses were rebuilt for 1991 following devastation by Hurricane Gilbert in 1988. Egg production from over 2,000 layers now exceeds pre-1988 levels.
- (b) The Hillside Farmers Association, which is a co-operative of sugar workers engaged in the production of cash crops and livestock on 740 acres of land leased from government, on the Monymusk Sugar Estate in Clarendon.
- (c) The Three-M Cheese Making and Dairy Improvement Project in three adjoining districts of Maidstone, Mayfield and Medina in Manchester. This directly employs 21 persons plus 77 small

producers registered with the Maidstone plant. The two phases of this project include cheese-making and dairy improvement involving a 20-acre Demonstration Farm, with Extension Services, which was expanded in 1991.

## **Support services for non-governmental organizations**

### **(i) Council of Voluntary Social Services (CVSS)**

For the year under review the Council focussed its attention on strengthening its relationship with local and international agencies. The Council continued its programme of youth advocacy and development with special emphasis on the Jamaica Coalition on the Rights of the Child. Various Ministers of Government, legal executives and staff of the Planning Institute of Jamaica participated in a Closed Door session which examined the laws related to children. This took the process of legal reform a step further as agreement was reached regarding some areas of legislation to be addressed. The Coalition's activities also included public education as well as an advocacy workshop in St. James which dealt with issues relating to legal reform, education, social welfare and disabilities.

The Ministry of Youth and Community Development and the Coalition, were jointly responsible for developing the World Summit Plan of Action. The Plan seeks to establish a methodology for the implementation of the Convention on the Rights of the Child.

A project sponsored by the International Planned Parenthood Association called Youth for Sexuality (YES) was initiated and administered by the Jamaica Red Cross Society and CVSS. Twelve PVOs participated in this programme which aimed at encouraging PVOs to make family life/sex education an integral part of their programmes.

The CVSS carried out training programmes with PVOs on "Managing the Not-for-Profit Organisations" and began working on a manual for effective project development. It also addressed issues of the environment and sustainable development, facilitated a meeting of Caribbean and Canadian PVOs to prepare them for participation in the first ever Commonwealth NGO Forum held in Zimbabwe in August. The NGO Forum submitted strong recommendations to the Commonwealth Heads of Government Meeting on matters related to poverty and the environment in developing countries.

Funds donated by the Jamaica Support Foundation were channelled through CVSS for the Western T Ward at Bellevue Hospital, to encourage a Foster Grandparents project aimed at having older, more rehabilitated patients provide special care to young, severely retarded children.



## **(ii) United Way of Jamaica**

The United Way of Jamaica has been in existence since 1985. As a non-profit voluntary organisation its main emphasis is on strengthening the management skills in the Voluntary Sector, alleviating poverty and facilitating economic development by funding grass roots programmes. Health care and skills training, including agriculture, are areas which United Way of Jamaica has targeted for financial assistance.

Funds are disbursed through other voluntary organisations such as the Council of Voluntary Social Services, and in 1991 these totalled \$2.7 million, allocated to 36 projects. The campaign pledges totalled \$12.3 million which exceeded its target by over \$1,000,000. Technical assistance and research techniques are also offered by the Voluntary Sector.

## **(iii) Association of Development Agency (ADA)**

This organisation consists of 14 members and aims to support the efforts of its member organisations in undertaking development activities. It contributes to debate and action in the field of development, encouraging Jamaicans to exercise effective control over decisions affecting their lives.

Activities for 1991 included the launching of a Debt Campaign with the production of a video entitled 'Debt, an Unnatural Disaster'. This public education campaign on the national debt also involved the publication of a handbook, 'Hooked on Debt'. Among other highlights for the year were a summer residential workshop on Issues in Community Development, the publication of the 'Disaster Preparedness Tool Box', and representation at a CARICOM Workshop on popular education.

## Reading 7: Empowerment of young women for development

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by Asenati F. Samate

I am sorry to say that I have no expertise in this area except that I am a young woman. First of all, I would like to ask the question: 'Why do we bother about young women? Why has the issue of young women become one of the priority areas for CYP?' In an attempt to answer this question, I would like to outline some thoughts on it.

Young women are often the victims of various social crimes like sexual abuse and harassment, of rape and domestic violence, of unwanted pregnancies and prostitution, of exploitation and discrimination. Of course there are lots of examples of these from the Pacific but let me give one example to illustrate this. It came out in the discussion in the Youth Caucus Meeting in Tonga that in some countries in the Pacific, if there are pregnancies at school, it is always the girl that is asked to leave the school and the boy stays on. This is outright discrimination against young women and very irresponsible action on the part of the father. After all, he is partly responsible.

For those of you who have read the report from the Youth Caucus meeting in Tonga, there is a story there of a young woman. In many Pacific societies, especially in the village, the life of a young girl is a vicious circle: she goes straight from childhood to motherhood. There are no choices, no alternatives, no other opportunities in life for her. There is no opportunity to grow or develop and no time to enjoy life and God's creation. I am sure most of us here wouldn't want to be in such a situation.

In society as a whole, young women are not often recognised, let alone given equal treatment and realisation. In the Pacific setting, young people have to respect and listen to older people. They do whatever they are told. Their voice is not heard and obedience is a virtue. Well, that is Pacific culture and I can't see anything wrong with it. However, today, most of our Pacific young people are educated. Modern education has given them opportunities to think independently and say what they think and make their own decisions. This is of course a direct contrast to our Pacific way. Therefore I think if young people are not given the chance to voice out their thoughts, feelings and insights then we shouldn't be surprised at where they would expend all their energies; they will find other places and avenues, and more often it's those places and activities that we don't like to see.

As for young women, they are often the 'minority' in whatever level. This Youth Caucus Meeting is a very good example of it. If we look around the table, only about a quarter are young women. And this is the case in so many meetings I have been to, whether regional or international. So, where are our young women? Either they are not

given the opportunities to participate and to be involved in decision-making, or most of them haven't received the type of education and training to empower them for these tasks and responsibilities.

So, if this is where most of our young women are, then the next question is: 'What are we to do to empower the young women of the Pacific to be actively involved in development?' And let me attempt to put some answers to that.

First of all, we have to start from us here. We have to push the participation of young women in all levels of CYP and its programmes. In the Tonga Meeting, there was a strong recommendation from the Youth Caucus to push the 50/50 in the selection process of males and females to the CYP Diploma Course. But how many of us are committed to pushing that recommendation in our own countries and to make sure that it is effected? If we make recommendations regarding the full participation of young women in all levels of CYP, we also have a responsibility and a commitment to it.

We should also make allowances and opportunities for young women to come together and meet, discuss, share and make decisions on what they want to do for themselves and for other young women in their countries. In Tonga, we have just started a YWCA (Young Women's Christian Association). The reason for this is because this is the only organisation where young women can come together. In Tonga, there are so many women's groups and youth groups, but in both young women are not often recognised or used. There are so many capable young women in Tonga but their skills, knowledge, talents and gifts are not very much used. So, we hope YWCA is the place for them and continues to be that way.

In my experience working with women, older women are not often forward-looking and future-oriented in their outlook. I think older women should be giving younger women a chance to grow and develop especially in the leadership roles. One can only learn by doing it and making mistakes. Sometimes the thinking is: 'they are too young, wait until they become old'. If we want reliable and responsible women leaders in the future, the young women of today should be corrected, monitored, guided and directed, as they're given a chance to do it.

And of course, young women should be included in all the training programmes of CYP in whatever form and level. They need to be trained in whatever skills are required. And above all girls should be given opportunities to be educated as education is seen as a liberating force. The questions we should ask in the Pacific are: 'Does every Pacific boy and girl have access to schooling? If so, do boys and girls have equal opportunities to education or do boys have the priority?' Girls should be given the right to choose who to get married to, to choose how many children they want, to choose whether to go back to the village or stay in town. However, as being involved in education, I sometimes question the type of education we provide for

our children. It is our responsibility to give our young girls the type of education that helps them to make responsible choices for their own lives and for their future so that we might avoid people saying: 'maybe our daughters were better off in the village than in the town'.

Yes, we should give the young girls of the Pacific opportunities to make choices, to grow and develop and to become responsible women in our Pacific societies. We do this by giving them equal opportunities for education and training, opportunities to meet, share, discuss and make decisions and also the chance to take leadership roles. We also have to monitor their involvement and to make sure that they are actively participating in all levels of CYP and the society as a whole. I believe that young women have so much to contribute actively and positively if only they are given the chances to do so.

(CYP Report of the Second Pacific Regional Youth Caucus at Apia, Western Samoa,  
pp. 44–46)