

**The Historical Development
of the
Youth Service**

Early Developments of Youth Work

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The origins of youth work are to be found in the early Victorian era where it is identified by a culture of philanthropic activity underpinned by a middle class perception of moral order. This early history has been described by Butters and Newell (1978), Jeffs (1979), and Smith (1988), as a time when work with young people was characterised by both appalling social and employment conditions and by rapid social change caused by the development of an industrialised urban society. This period was also a time of growing awareness of the need to introduce a more clearly defined state controlled education service as a method of social control that was able to:

“capture the patterns of thought, sentiment and behaviour of the working class.”

Davies (1986, p18)

The need for this politically motivated intervention was caused by a growing concern that working class young people did not have the necessary respect for middle class order or for the church taught ideals of “honesty, chastity, industry, and familiar order” (Butters and Newell, 1978, p40).

As this state interest in education grew, a number of government reports were produced and in 1839 a Committee of Council for Education was formed to promote four principle objectives for Normal and Modern Schools which were religious, moral and general instruction and the development of habits in industry. A report was also produced in 1847 on the state of education in Wales, which highlighted both the poor level of elementary education and the equally poor moral state of the population (MacClure, 1973). This perceived attack was seen in Wales as part of a wider campaign to devalue both the Welsh language and non-conformist religion. Within this context of social, industrial and political change the role of youth work was described (Jeffs, 1979; Davies, 1986) as being concerned with the rescue and rehabilitation of young people, which included the teaching of basic education. This approach continued with youth work being delivered through a wide range of settings which included Sunday schools, the Ragged Schools Union, the Young Men’s Christian Association, and benevolent institutions including Dr. Barnardo’s Homes (Pate, 1972). Major changes did take place, however, following the passing of the Education Act , 1870 (see MacClure, 1973) when it became compulsory for parents to ensure

that their children, over the age of five, were educated to a suitable standard. The Act also attempted to achieve a better balance between church-based education and growing state intervention, which was concerned with both wider denominational interests than the Anglican Church and the interests of dissenters. The importance of this debate for youth work was the emphasis placed by the Church on the maintenance of the existing system which saw religion as the basis of education which was exercised in both philanthropic and utilitarian ways to control young people.

In a general sense, three main developments affecting both youth work philosophy and practice, evolved between the Education Act (1870) and Circular 1486 HMSO, 1939) which signalled government's recognition of the importance of youth work. The first of these was associated with the gradual introduction of welfare provision with the introduction of the Workman's Compensation Act 1897, described by Titmus in Jeffs (1979), as the start of "Social Security". Changes in social welfare reforms continued during 1906 and 1914 when the Liberal Party was in power. Codified protection measures were initiated in an attempt to counteract the many causes of childhood destitution, and school meals and school medicals were introduced. 1908 saw the introduction of the Children Act, the creation of juvenile courts which were given responsibility for the rescue of children in need and for the reform of offenders. In 1913 the Poor Law Institutions Order came into existence, which allowed children 3-16 years old to be contained within workhouses for more than six weeks before being boarded out or placed in children's homes. The effects of this legislation, and the changes in the social climate, altered the functions of youth work considerably by removing many of its core rescue and basic education responsibilities (Jeffs, 1979). This caused workers to change the focus of their work towards the growing leisure time needs of young people.

The growing importance of leisure, which is the second general development, was recognised by Davies (1986) and Smith (1988) who claim that the modern concept of leisure began to take shape in the second half of the nineteenth century. This was caused by a number of factors including the development of less labour intensive industry and the introduction of more protective employment legislation. It was also affected by the growth of a commercial leisure sector which was interested in attracting young working class customers. Football and cricket became important aspects of working class culture as did variety theatres and public houses.

From the late nineteenth century, youth work responded to this development by taking an active role in the leisure time activities of young people. Organised by

middle class volunteers, who understood the value of moral order and church-taught ideals, work was carried out to effect Christian conversion and to divert young people into a better way of life (Foreman, 1987). This action was considered necessary to establish control over the leisure time activities of young working class people who were seen as being removed from middle class influence.

“They were said to be completely free from restraint or guidance; they mixed with friends of their own choosing (and often with undesirable adults) and they were thriftless with money.”

Hendrick in Smith (1988, p.5)

Concern was also felt by the dominant class about the use of leisure as a means of improving the standard of health of working class young people both as a means of providing soldiers for war and workers for industrial and economic development. This led to the formation of many uniformed youth organisations who subscribed to the “Muscular Christianity of Dr. Thomas Arnold” (Jefferies, 1979, p5). Included within this group was the Boys’ Brigade whose aim was to promote:

“habits of obedience, reverence, discipline, self-respect and all that tends towards true Christian manliness.”

Davies and Gibson (1967, p.38)

The third general development which also had an impact on the practice of youth work was associated with the concept of adolescence which attempted to identify a section of population between a perceived view of childhood and adulthood. This has not been an easy process. Davies, (1986); Coleman, Warren and Adamson, (1992); and Garnett, Roche and Tucker, (1997) have all described the difficulty society has had in making the distinction. British society lacks the clarity found in some cultures where rites of passage from childhood to adulthood involve explicit rituals which confer adult status within a short space of time. Industrialised societies have, in the main, removed these rituals and with them a clear definition of the period of adolescence. In an attempt to bring clarity to this situation, efforts have been made to construct bench marks which define the parameters of this difficult to describe period. Simple, pragmatic solutions have been tried, which include the onset of puberty, the dependence on parental support, or age confined within teenage years, or by compulsory school attendance. None of these solutions adequately contain, because of a great deal of individual difference, a definitive description of adolescence. Neither do they provide a satisfactory end-point. Nevertheless, the concept has

not only been in existence since the late nineteenth century, it has, since that time, developed a particular identity:

“Adolescents, as a category, have been seen and treated as possessing inherent characteristics, immature, unstable, unreliable (indeed capricious and fickle) and irresponsible. In dealing with the adolescent crisis, boys are liable to be aggressive, often - maybe even usually - to the point of being delinquent; while girls are moody and withdrawn.”

Davies (1986, p.7)

These early influences, which included the introduction of the welfare state, the development of leisure, the concept of adolescence, underpinned by a culture of social control was to affect youth work policy and practice to the present day. Recurring themes related to the control of young people, who were identified as a threat to middle class society because of their lack of respect for authority, were also highlighted, as was the need to develop compliant and healthy young people for both industrial and military battles with the competitors of the British Empire.

State Policy Development

Youth work in Wales has obviously been affected by both historical influences and by the introduction of politically inspired policy. These recent developments, introduced by the election of a Conservative government in 1979, were described by Davies (1981), as being focused on rolling back the state, a process which set out to challenge the relationship between the state policy with its resources and social policies and society. In the case of young people, however, it is claimed by Davies (1986), and Jeffs and Smith (1994), that there was a growing cohesion between government policies and the control of young people. This was to affect a wide range of focused provision directed at young people, which included schools and colleges, criminal justice, housing, health, employment and training, and Social Security.

Schools and Colleges

The 1988 Education Reform Act made major politically motivated changes to education by introducing a National Curriculum and regular assessment of pupils at 7, 11, 14 and 16 years of age. Local Management of Schools (LMS) was also developed, which devolved funding and resource management to governing bodies of individual schools. The powers of local education authorities was dramatically reduced. Open enrolment was introduced which allowed parents to choose, in theory, the school their children would attend,

subject only to the physical capacity of the school. Budgets of schools were linked to pupil numbers which encouraged schools to compete. League tables of good and bad schools were produced as an aid to determining parental choice. Criteria for league position included academic achievement and truancy rates of individual schools. Schools were also encouraged to 'opt out' of local education authority context and become grant maintained. This would result in budgets being received direct from a central government funding agency. The Act also saw the incorporation of Further Education Colleges as autonomous bodies independent of local education authorities. Four year inspection cycles by the Office for Standards in Education, were also detailed in the Act.

Other less obvious actions were also taking place within education which affected, in the opinion of Jeffs and Smith (1994), both the lives of young people and the impression that the government was determined to control them within the education system. Truancy patrols, including the police and, in some instances, youth workers, compulsory school uniform as a means of identification, electronic monitoring of students' movements within school, and the development of the fortress campus, are examples given to highlight the change in government emphasis.

Criminal Justice

It is generally recognised (Worthington, 1993; Gibson, 1995; Williamson, 1996) that criminal justice policy in the 1980s emphasised the importance of diverting young people away from the formal criminal justice system. This approach was driven by the Criminal Justice Act (HMSO, 1982) which encouraged inter-agency decisions aimed at diverting young offenders from acts of crime, the court system and from formal sentencing. Central to this approach was the increased use of informal action by the Police and by an extension of cautioning. This development was generally endorsed by both the Children Act 1989 (HMSO, 1991) and the Criminal Justice Bill HMSO, 1991). Differences were beginning to become apparent between the 1982 Act and the 1991 Act however, due to the increased media coverage which focused public attention on crimes committed by young people. The Conservative Party, which promoted itself as the party of law and order, reacted quickly to the murder of Jamie Bulger by introducing a noticeably harsher climate within the youth justice system.

“Criminal justice became a media issue Little had changed on the crime front, but there was now political capital to be made. Young offenders became a ready-made target”

Gibson (1995, p65)

This new climate saw new cautioning guidelines issued to the Police in order to reduce the use of related cautions. Revised national standards for the supervision of offenders in the community, which reinforced the element of punishment, were also introduced. The Criminal Justice Act (HMSO, 1993) developed as a result of media generated moral panics. MacDonald (1995) saw an increase in the importance of punishment and the introduction of a number of new custodial powers. The rate of legislative change has shown little sign of slowing down. Neither is the change from a treatment/rehabilitation to a punishment/retribution system been promoted entirely by the Conservative Party. The Labour Party has also been quick to judge the mood of the media-created image of young people as a threat against decent society by promoting their policy on juvenile crime as being

“tough on crime - tough on the causes of crime”

MacDonald (1995, p2)

The culmination of this punitive directed approach to date has been the introduction of the Criminal Justice and Public Order Act (HMSO, 1994). Included in this Act is a wide range of provision which affects how young people are dealt with by the courts. They include the secure training order which introduces new secure training for 12-14 year olds, changes to Police detention which allows 12-14 year olds to be held overnight in Police cells and binding over of parents to ensure the child complies with the requirements of a community sentence. Central to the introduction of these and other provisos contained within the Act is:

“..... a policy stance that locking up more young people at younger ages, for longer periods and in a wider range of custodial settings, will help reduce youth crime.”

Cavadino (1995, p83)

Housing

Policy with regard to housing in Britain has been dominated by the expansion of home ownership (Malpass, 1989). This has resulted in the rapid reduction in the availability of public housing through the introduction of the right-to-buy schemes for council house tenants and the cessation of house building by local authorities.

“Under Conservative housing policies in the 1980s and 1990s, council house building programmes were cut and over a million council houses were sold under the right-to-buy.”

McCluskey (1994, p711)

Although the lack of appropriate, affordable housing is the main difficulty young people have in finding a home, other government policies have played their part. This was recognised by Donnison (1980), and Andrews and Jacobs, (1990), who suggested that the link between youth unemployment and social security changes was a major influence on young homeless people. Youth homelessness increased significantly with the implementation of the Social Security Act 1986 which introduced an age related system of benefits. The adult rate would not be paid until the age of 25, presumably because of government assumption that young people would be living at home until that age. There was considerable criticism of this move in a report by the Social Security Advisory Committee (1992) who said there was no evidence available to suggest food, clothing, or housing were no cheaper depending on age. A coherent or strategic housing policy has never been a priority for central government. Williamson (1996), suggests that this was due in part to the view of Margaret Thatcher who believed that there was no need to make housing provision for young people because they already have the homes of their parents to live in.

Although it is generally recognised that young homeless people are a high risk, vulnerable group (O'Mahoney, 1988, Strathdee, 1992, Killeen, 1992, Hutson and Liddiard, 1994), available legislation, including the Housing Act 1985, part III has failed to protect, help or support them Kay (1994). young people who are a low priority within the legislation can only be housed if they are seen to be vulnerable. Housing departments' responsibility towards most young people without dependents was only to offer advice and assistance (McCluskey, 1994).

The Children Act does, however, contain a number of sections relevant to the needs of 16 and 17 year old homeless young people. A key statement says:

“Every local authority shall provide accommodation for any child in need who has reached the age of 16 and whose welfare that authority considers is likely to be seriously prejudiced if they do not provide him with accommodation.”

Section 20 (3)

Financial restrictions have, however, seriously affected the ability of local authorities to meet the stated requirements of the Act (McCluskey, 1994). It has been stated in the same research that the positive outcomes of the Act have included improved joint working, and raised awareness of youth homelessness which has helped the problem to be taken more seriously at local level.

Policy for the future will be determined by the government's intention to amend homelessness legislation which will affect 16 and 17 year olds. Included in these changes will be regulations to remove the entitlement to assistance for those

asked to leave accommodation by friends or relatives. Authorities will also have to secure temporary accommodation only for a period of twelve months. Both these developments would have serious consequences for the most vulnerable young people (McCluskey, 1994).

Health

Policy regarding health provision has been radically altered by the underlying values of the government. Changes introduced since the early 1980s have included the introduction of specific health targets set out in such documents as 'Health of a Nation, 1992' and 'Health for All in Wales, 1990'. Many of the targets included in these documents and the Health of the Young Nation Campaign, are focused specifically on youth related issues. These include sexual health, which is concerned with early pregnancy, sexually transmitted diseases, and teenage smoking. Other politically motivated changes have included designating general practitioners as fundholders, there has also been a change in balance between the decreasing numbers involved in health service delivery and the increasing numbers involved in health service management (Spicker, 1995). Increases in prescription costs, eye tests and dental charges, continue to promote the demise of state welfare in favour of a more market-led approach.

Research carried out by the National Children's Home (NCH) in 1993 into the lifestyle of young people with few resources and low incomes indicated the following. One in three young people involved in the survey who were living independently had only eaten one meal or no meal during the previous 24 hours. Of 17 women in the study eating one meal or less the previous day, five had babies and three were pregnant. It was also claimed that, due to ignorance about good nutrition, virtually all were eating a diet which failed to meet minimum criteria for a healthy diet. The great majority involved in the research were depressed, worried or anxious, escapism was a strong temptation with high levels of smoking, drinking, use of illegal drugs and self-harm being described.

Employment, Unemployment and Training

The reasons for the dramatic rise in unemployment during the late 1970s and early 1980s are well recorded (NACYS 1987, Williamson, 1988).

The even more dramatic rise in unemployment for young people has also been recognised:

“youth unemployment has increased from 3% of the 16-18 year old

age group in 1975 to 15% in 1986. A third of all the unemployed in 1987 were under 25. Nearly one quarter of young people aged 16-19 who were unemployed in July 1987 had been out of work for between 26 and 52 weeks. Around 15% had been out of work for over a year."

Williamson (1988, p3)

Government response to this was the introduction of job creation, work experience and training schemes. This development was based on the politically motivated assumption that young people could not find employment because they were deficient in both skills and aptitude. These schemes did not provide the necessary support for young people during their transition from school to work (Furlong, 1994). This was reflected in the first year of the Youth Training Scheme (YTS) when it was estimated that up to 50%, approximately 100,000 young people, became unemployed on leaving a YTS course (Youthaid, 1985). Serious criticism was also levelled at both the quality of training and its appropriateness to subsequent employment prospects. Poor quality training led to schemes having a negative effect on young people, many of whom claimed to have had no supervision and nothing to do (MacLagan, 1992). Young people were also placed on schemes in the more traditional and declining industries where they acquired skills that soon became redundant (Williamson, 1993).

These schemes continued until 1990 when they were replaced by Youth Training (YT). Almost entirely funded by central government, these training schemes for young unemployed people are delivered locally through Training and Enterprise Councils (TECs) and Local Enterprise Councils (LECs). Participation by young people on this scheme was encouraged by changes to income support entitlement which was withdrawn from 16 and 17 year olds because of the income they would receive from a guaranteed place on a training scheme. By making income dependant on participation within the YT programme the government implied that 16 and 17 year olds are lazy, lacking in motivation and choose to remain idle (MacLagan, 1992). The government in the 1990s continued to introduce refinements to the YT scheme but still contained almost totally within a framework of compulsion. Strategies for controlling the education training and subsequent employment or in many cases unemployment of young people who had completed training, was also being considered. Workforce style programmes and the development of the Foyer movement which links accommodation, usually in hostels, to training and employment, was seen as:

"..... an intensification of the monitoring of young, while simultaneously fuelling demands for it.."

Jeffs and Smith (1984, p27)

Changes were also affecting those young people who were able to obtain 'real

work' on completing their education. Driven by government's intention to develop an enterprise economy within which all members of society would benefit, historical protection for young people in the labour market were removed. The Wages Council, which had responsibility for trying to set minimum wage levels, was abolished and a number of legislative changes affecting Trade Union activity were introduced. A result of these actions was the reduction in wages for young people who were seen as competing in a market heavily biased in favour of those wanting to buy labour at the lowest price (Davis, 1986). Regulations affecting young people's rights in a number of areas, including night-time working and entitlements to rest breaks, were also removed.

The lines of young people have been radically, and perhaps permanently affected by the actions of Conservative Party policy with regard to employment, unemployment and training. Identified as inadequate for the current job market, offered in many instances, poor quality training and little hope of permanent employment, many will remain outside the labour market permanently (Williamson, 1996).

Social Security

“Social Security changes have dramatically worsened the position of many young people and probably left many 16 and 17 year olds feeling that they are a particular target of government malevolence.”

Childright (1988, p11)

The Social Security Acts of 1986 and 1988 and the Employment Training Initiative are three separate but related pieces of legislation that caused dramatic changes in the lives of many young people. The 1986 Act, which did not come into force until April 1988, brought with it both a new language and a new culture. These were designed to fundamentally change the provision of benefits from an entitlement to a welfare model designed to end the benefit culture. This change was designed to increase self-sufficiency and self-respect by changing attitudes to work and benefits by removing dependence on the state (NYB, 1988). Income Support became the basic means-tested benefit for the unemployed and replaced the previous system of Supplementary Benefit. Applicable amounts also became banded by age; 16-17 years olds, 18-24 year olds and over 25s. Higher rates paid to those householders living in their own home disappeared, as did long-term rates of benefit previously paid to single parents and the long term ill. Special payments to assist individuals pay for items such as high heating costs, laundry and special diets, were also removed as were urgent needs payments used for emergency accommodation or to secure advance payment for rent.

The Social Security Act 1986 introduced in September 1988 included a clause to raise the age of entitlement to Income Support from 16 to 18. With the

introduction of this section of the Act the main circumstances within which 16-17 year olds could claim benefit was through their involvement on a government training scheme. Arrangements for Youth Training Schemes (YTS) were not affected by changes in the Social Security bill. Significant changes did, however, affect the structure of the scheme because of the significant rise in school leavers joining the scheme as Income Support was removed for 16-17 year olds. This had obvious implications for both the quality and the relevance of training as an aid to obtaining permanent employment.

“The main thrust of these policies is at young people who are caught in the pincers of different pieces of legislation, namely the Social Security Act and the Employment Training Initiative.”

West (1989, p36)

Other effects of removing the general entitlement to Income Support included excluding young people from part-time study because of the 21 hour rule which requires individuals to be available for work. Arrangements within which 16 and 17 year olds could study up to ‘A’ level standard and claim benefit were also abolished. Another area of significant change which affected the lives of young people was connected with Housing Benefit. The rationale behind the introduction of these changes was to encourage young people under 25, and particularly those under 18, to continue living with their parents by making it financially difficult for them to live independently (McCluskey, 1994). Included in the changes was the need for young people claiming Income Support to make a separate claim for Housing Benefit. Housing Benefit ‘needs allowances’ were set, with few exceptions, at the same level as Income Support but with the added responsibility placed on the individual for 20% of general rates, 20% of the poll tax and 100% of the water rates. This level of ‘applicable amount’ placed an added burden on those under 25 because they were entitled to a lower rate of Income Support than those over 25. New methods of calculating non-dependent deductions, i.e. other adults living in the home, were also introduced. Board and lodging criteria for young people funded by the DHSS was also under review which would reduce the level and type of payments, length of payment and the ability of young people to use this type of accommodation as an alternative to setting up home independently.

“It is young people under the age of 25 who are most affected by these changes. A new age of majority has been declared and for many a rather degrading and lengthened rite of passage from school to adulthood has been established.”

West (1989, p39)

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Despite the development of these individual policies, there is not obvious or coherent government youth policy (Jeffs and Smith, 199). Each of the areas described, and others including sport and leisure, have been developed within a framework of isolation with no apparent consideration being given to the

relationship between policy development and the effects these relationships have on the lives of young people.

“Most housing problems are really problems of unemployment, poverty and inequality.”

Donnison (1980, p283)

There is a concern, however, highlighted by Davies (1986) that there is a growing cohesion with regard to state developed youth policy driven by an underlying philosophy of containing the young. Marsland (1993) argues that the reason for this continuing development which seeks to control young people, is associated with the way young people are treated generically as both a nuisance and a threat to society. As a result of this negative perception, policy has been developed principally concerned with the management and control of young people within an entrenched position of power and conformity. Policy in the 1990s has also been affected by the development of what has been described by Jeffs and Smith (1992) as the “underclass thesis” which further promotes the existence of a threat to society from an identified group of young people. Promoted initially in the USA by Murray (1990) the thesis suggests that central to an underclass are communities with large numbers of young people which have been reared without the benefit of a father's discipline by sexually promiscuous teenage mothers who are both incompetent and incapable. They, the underclass, are also recognised by:

“... familiar characteristics, such as inner city poverty, dependency on welfare, crime, teenage pregnancy, high truancy rates, permanent or long term unemployment and drug addiction.”

Jeffs and Smith (1992, p21)

The outcome of this situation in the view of Murray described in Holman (1995) is a continuum of young people who are academic underachievers and school refusers who have no wish to work, lack family values and are criminal. It is also suggested by Holman that this view should be taken seriously because it has significant influence within government. An example of this can be found in the statement made by John Redwood, Secretary of State for Wales, at a visit to the St. Mellons estate in Cardiff.

“Single mothers should be denied benefits until absent fathers had been pressed to return home to support them.”

John Redwood quoted in The Independent on Sunday (1993, p1)

and,

“Ministers, it emerged, are considering capping welfare and housing benefits to single mothers, whom they portrayed as feckless young parasites who get pregnant deliberately to jump housing queues and whose aim thereafter is to breed with abandon - and a multitude of partners - on income support. Michael Howard, the Home Secretary, insisted that the demise of the two-parent family was responsible for the rise in crime.”

Braid in The Independent on Sunday (1993, p3)

Murray was also keen to promote the view that a state of war existed between a numerically large underclass and a group he described as the ‘New Victorians’ who were responsible for the protection of traditional British morality. Murray further suggested that in this war the underclass was funded by the welfare state and that strategies were required by government to eliminate or restrict access to benefits by, what he described as the “young barbarians”. However, Mann (1992), and Williamson (1996) claim that the underclass theory promotes a misguided and inaccurate explanation of the origins of poverty, unemployment, crime and drug taking involving young people. Mann was concerned to link criminal statistics, levels of illegitimacy amongst teenage women and unemployment rates at the height of Victorian enterprise, to the availability of almost non-existent state welfare. He concluded that there was no straightforward link between expenditure on state benefit and “social malaise”. Williamson claims that recent changes in social policy had resulted in the marginalisation, impoverishment and exclusion of only a minority of young people. The majority of young people, he states, are well able, despite a growing complexity, to make the transition to adulthood with relatively few problems. He does suggest, however, (Williamson, 1995) that an analysis of youth policy during the period of Conservative government would show it to have been driven, primarily, by ideological and economic considerations. This, Williamson claims, has been to the detriment of any strategic development of youth policy, including a recognition of the importance of the “interconnectedness” of different policy developments and the ways those relationships affect the lives of young people. A means of addressing this situation has been suggested by Coleman and Warren-Adamson (1992) who propose both a Minister of Youth and a ‘youth impact statement’ because:

“After the last decade, Britain urgently needs to invest in its young people and urgently needs to like its young people.”

Warren-Adamson (1992, p2)

This, they suggested, would be best achieved within an holistic Approach to youth affairs, including family, school work and leisure. Communication would be improved between a wide range of organisations involved in working with young people including Education, Police, Social Services, Probation, etc. Grave doubts have been cast on this view (Marsland, 1993; Jeffs and Smith,

1992) claiming the premise is wildly unrealistic in practical and political terms for a whole range of reasons. These include undermining the power and authority of existing ministers, constructing an effective mechanisms for the new service and a lack of support by practitioners for increased centralisation.

The Political Context of Youth Work Management within a Local Education Authority

Conservative Party strategy, which affected the Local Authority of Dyfed for almost all of its existence, has been to reduce public expenditure and increase public accountability. This dogma, which became deeply entrenched, emphasised the need for all public sector departments to demonstrate a practical understanding of the 3 Es of performance indicators, i.e. efficiency, economy and effectiveness. Publicly funded work was also directed to develop systems that provided evidence to ensure that agreed outputs had been reached, measured against identified targets. The attainment of these agreed outputs was also used to determine resource inputs and to measure the effectiveness of practice. A culture of financial stringency was also developed with annual reductions in public expenditure budgets becoming the norm. These reductions would, in the view of central government, be made up by organisational efficiency and improved management systems. A result of this strategy was to place under threat many of those services which have neither a statutory base nor a clearly defined way of demonstrating the outcomes of their work. Youth work would be included in this group as would certain areas of non-statutory social work and community development. Publicly funded work was also being directed to develop service level agreements leading to a competitive tendering process based on a contract between purchaser and provider. Within this process, financial arrangements related to agreed outcomes were obviously stated. Research carried out in the USA (Gutch, 1991) on the effects of a contract culture in the public sector identified a number of negative issues including the loss of provision to those most in need, reductions in funding and an increase in bureaucracy. Despite these results and the findings of Small (1989), who argued that contractual arrangements were not always rational but helped current political efforts to reduce public expenditure, the development continued unabated. The introduction of this politically motivated market system for public services as a means of reducing the role of local government as monopoly providers of certain services, was reinforced by the Local Government Act (1988). This shifted the role of the local authority from a direct provider of services to an enabler. Despite widespread opposition to his development by the Labour controlled local authorities in Wales, some potential benefits of the process were identified by Green and Williams (1992). Included in these were the possibility of greater consumer involvement and user-led services, more chance for longer term funding under contractual agreements and the development of real partnership between local authorities and the voluntary

sector for the delivery of community services. There was, however, a great deal of cynicism by the youth service at the introduction of this system on the grounds that a market could not be constructed because of the lack of available structure relating to purchaser/provider/consumer. This was supported to some extent by Coopers, Lybrand Deloitte (1991), who believed that contract funding was a radical approach that required a considerable amount of preliminary work. They also recognised that, in many instances, only parts of youth work would be open to a bidding process. Both for philosophical and for practical reasons, opposition was voiced by youth work practitioners in Wales (WYWP, 1991) on the grounds that the market process would not enhance practice. It was also believed that increased bureaucracy, including time spent on bidding applications, would further affect the practice of youth work by driving the full-time professional workers away from young people for a greater period of time.

There were, therefore, a number of key issues affecting how youth work would be managed. These included a tightening of government policy which affected schools and colleges, criminal justice, housing, health, employment, unemployment and training, and social security. The impact of the changes on young people was, in many instances, draconian. Policy development, where it affected young people, was also driven by a perception of young people as a problem and a potential threat to society. The introduction, within a local education authority context, of a contract culture, service level agreements and greater accountability of a reducing public expenditure budget were also affecting both the management and delivery of youth work.

The introduction of these powerful state-directed developments would suggest that youth work provision within a local education authority would be, as all public bodies had become, subject to greater levels of accountability. These changes would also suggest that more overt management systems would need to be available to ensure that organisational aims, as specified in policy, were being met.

The 1990s have provided difficult and challenging times for the youth service in Wales. Reductions in the funding of youth work provision and changes in full-time workers responsibilities by the introduction of community education placed great strain on the contact time given by full-time workers to young people. The Government's drive to improve standards, to widen choice and increase accountability also affected the youth service and a new language was introduced which included Performance Indicators, Learning Outcomes, Business Plans, Service Level Agreements and other new ideas and concepts. New legislation introduced by a government committed to fundamental changes with regard to Local Authorities becoming enabling organisations for securing provision, rather than being the main providers of services, also affected the youth service. This legislation started with the new Education Act 1986 (No. 2) which changed the composition and increased the powers of school governing bodies, giving them almost total control over school premises. The

repercussions of this move for the youth service was to place in jeopardy the traditional free, or heavily subsidised use of the service made of school premises. Local Education Authorities were also required by the Act to delegate most of the financial control of school premises to governing bodies who would have as a core responsibility, the provision of the best possible facilities for school children. There was a fear that the youth services use of premises would cause conflict with this responsibility by over-use of equipment and accommodation.

Following this major change came the Education Reform Act (HMSO, 1988) which introduced the delegation and control of finances to schools and colleges. The introduction of the Act and the Local Management of Schools (LMS) and Local Management of Colleges (LMC) had a number of key effects which included:

- The establishment of a national curriculum;
- Severely restricting local authority representation on college governing bodies;
- Schools becoming able to opt out of LEA control;
- All Higher Education being removed from local authority control.

In theory, the Act also gave parents greater freedom to send children to the school of their choice. A number of issues were raised by both the 1986 and 1988 Acts which had still not been answered as youth work struggled to maintain an identity in the 1990s. These included the possibility of accidental damage to the youth service as youth work was ignored and further marginalised by a system focusing on mainstream education. This situation was exacerbated by the 1988 Act which talked of strategic planning, but made no mention of policy and which did not, despite attempts to table an amendment, mention the youth service at all.

“The omission of any specific mention of the youth service in this Bill which seeks to reform all aspects of the education service is, in itself significant, and not without its implications. The service remains discretionary and without a legal base. Some youth service colleagues would welcome an amendment which provides a legislative basis for the youth service as outlined in the Thompson Report.”

Swain (1988, p9)

Obvious concerns were also felt about the financial arrangements that would be necessary to support a youth service currently using school premises, these arrangements, it was felt by youth work managers, would need to be clearly separated out to ensure that original contributions were recognised.

In 1991, a White Paper, “Education and Training for the 21st Century”, was presented by the government. Explicit references to youth work, or to the youth service, were few and youth workers were once again left to feel that their work with young people had been marginalised.

“When is the government going to recognise the potential the youth service has to offer and, indeed, acknowledge the commitment it already makes to the better education and training of young people.”

Paraskeva (1991, p503)

The lack of youth work recognition within the White Paper not only did injustice to some key areas of youth work, such as providing information to young people about careers, further education and training opportunities, it also did little to secure the future location and organisation of the service, or give direction about how existing and potential partnerships could be developed - particularly with those who overlap and duplicate work with the same young people who are involved with the youth service.

The final legislation to affect the youth service at this time was “The Further and Higher Education Act (1992). Following unsuccessful attempts by youth workers and politicians, including Baroness Lockwood to make amendments to this Act, to strengthen the legislative base for the delivery of youth work, the Act received Royal Assent in March 1992. Although the amendments failed, detailed debate was held in Parliament about the youth service, the value of its work and its legislative base which was described by the Under Secretary of State for Education:

“The Bill will safeguard the legal base of the youth service within further education. The service’s present legal base has allowed local authorities to develop their services flexibly in the way that is most appropriate to local needs and circumstances and to the changing needs and interests of young people. There is no reason why it should not continue to do so while local education authorities and young people recognise the value and relevance of the youth service to local needs.”

NYA (1992, p1)

The youth service did not prosper as a result of the legislative changes affecting education at this time. Little emphasis had been placed on securing an appropriate location for informal social education for young people within the changes taking place. The problems that had faced the service from its earliest days had still not been resolved. No clear identity was available and the public’s perception of youth work continued to suffer from the inability of the service to describe its work adequately.

“The youth service has traditionally found it difficult to demonstrate its achievements in an unequivocal fashion. At a time of change it becomes all the more important that the service should be able to demonstrate its ability to deliver services of a high quality in an efficient and effective manner.”

Foreman (1992, p9)

A core reason for the inability of the youth service to describe its work is the wide base of its delivery. Young people come to the youth service for a wide range of reasons that reflect the complex nature of the society within which they live. It may be reasonable to assume that, within this situation, no corporate identity which encapsulates the practice of youth work and its underlying principles and values, is possible. It has been suggested by HMI that:

“The clearest policy statements are often based on analysis of need at neighbourhood level against an unambiguous set of principles. At best, such statements have realistic targets and outcomes based on firm evidence of need and resources”

HMI (1990, p2)

The historical development of the youth service up to this point in time had, because of budget cuts and new responsibilities, replaced the full-time worker within a community education service with a service delivered by part-time workers. These part-time workers were uncertain, perhaps because of their experience and limited training, of the need to develop their role in to one that included developing, or implementing, local policy for the delivery of youth work practice. These changes, which gave greater responsibility to part-time youth workers, do not figure, to any great extent, in the current literature relating to the development of the youth service in Wales. It is believed that this is a key development within youth work which is providing major difficulties for the delivery of work with young people.

By the early 1990s, a number of new developments highlighted the growing importance of the part-time youth worker. The ‘Survey of Youth Workers in Wales’ provided factual information about the changing role of the worker.

Within this scene it was clearly recognised that, if quality youth work was to be developed and maintained, additional support of part-time workers through training would be required. It was also believed by a steering group of the Wales Youth Agency that this training would need to carry both academic and professional recognition as a way of providing an additional incentive to the part-time worker to continue training.

This development ensured that the historical divisions in training for youth and community workers were closing. Traditionally, training for part-time and voluntary workers has followed a path separate from that which has led to professionally qualified status. Increasingly, employees and workers are asking for all forms of training to be within nationally recognised frameworks, so that knowledge and skills become transferable currency. The purpose of the coherent route is to create a system which will enable individuals to engage in a continuous and progressive programme of training throughout their career in youth and community work and to gain awards which carry national and

European recognition. This continuous and progressive route has been designed to take the part-time worker through a Foundation Course, to a Certificate of Higher Education (Cert. H.E.), and to a Diploma of Higher Education (Dip. H.E.) which is the minimum qualifying level for professionally qualified youth workers. The purpose of the coherent route is:

- 1) To improve the quality of youth work delivery to young people by ensuring high levels of quality support through training;
- 2) To give part-time workers an opportunity for personal development by involving them in a recognised form of progressive education and training;

The introduction of the Coherent Route is a positive development for the youth service in Wales insomuch as it recognised the important role of the part-time worker and accepts the responsibility for providing support.

The Local Government Reorganisation Bill for Wales came into effect on 1 April 1996. At which time Dyfed County Council and, therefore, Dyfed Community Education Department, ceased to exist. As a result of reorganisation the existing eight county councils and the 37 district councils, which made up a two-tier system of local government in Wales, gave way to 22 single tier unitary authorities.

Following Royal Assent of the Bill in 1994, a number of steps were put in place to prepare the unitary authorities for their new role, which included managing services previously under the control of county or district councils. It was expected, at the time of Royal Assent, that elections for the 22 authorities would take place in the Spring of 1995 with elected members taking up their new responsibilities on 1 April 1996. It was also expected that Transitional Committees, made up from elected members of existing councils that encroach on new council areas, would be in place by the Autumn of 1995. Transitional Committees would be encouraged by the Welsh Office to plan for the new structure of local government in order that 'shadow authorities' formed after the election in 1995 would have materials to draw on for the construction of service plans to be submitted for Welsh Office approval by 31 October 1995. These service plans would outline the administrative and management structures of the unitary authorities and would indicate how they intended to secure or provide services.

Within this scene, questions were being asked about how the youth service would be affected. In 1993, the White Paper on the reorganisation plans made only a brief mention of youth work under the Education Section where it referred to the Further and Higher Education Act 1992, saying that the new authorities would work with voluntary organisations in the development of youth service. Confidence was not boosted by this limited statement and the decision was taken by the Wales Youth Agency to bring together an Advisory Group to:

“Prepare a strategic plan that will secure the future of the youth service in Wales, ensure its high profile and its promotion, and create an environment in which the service will be safeguarded and can flourish”

Wales Youth Agency (1994, p9)

The group was made up of representatives from the maintained and voluntary sectors and included both practitioners and youth work managers. A representative of the Welsh Office attended as an observer. After the first meeting of the Advisory Group in February 1994, the following was agreed:

- 1) The youth service would be promoted as a core service of the unitary authorities;
- 2) The youth service would be one of the few education services that the unitary authorities would totally control;
- 3) There should be a strong partnership between the maintained and voluntary sectors;
- 4) The youth service already had a recognised legislative base;
- 5) Transitional committees be given an audit of youth work provision, and of assessed need, and a statement about how deficits in provision could be made up;
- 6) A strategic document would be produced for circulation to new Directors of Education and elected members which would include a statement of youth work and youth service values, a description of social / economic factors affecting young people, and an arrangement for providing youth work in Wales.

This action was necessary because, in the words of Jones (1994, p9):

“We now have an opportunity to put youth work very clearly on the map - and it should be the responsibility of those involved in youth work to advocate their work at local level. Publicise what you are doing, and help the young people to make their case as well”

The major success of the Advisory Group was the production of ‘Building the Future’ a briefing paper on the youth service and the reorganisation of local government in Wales. This document, supplemented by three regional conferences, became the focus of the campaign to promote youth work to elected members.

The success of the 'Building the Future' campaign and its effects on protecting the youth service within the context of local government reorganisation will be assessed at a future date. Judgements will, no doubt, be made against where the youth service is located within the new authorities, and by practical issues such as budget allocations and direct access to elected members via appropriate committee structures. The vision of the campaign can perhaps be encapsulated in the concluding comment of the Building the Future document.

"The reorganisation of local government in Wales is an opportunity to build upon the existing strengths of the youth service. The Agency, therefore, urges the new authorities to create a new vision for youth work in their area and to secure the resources to make that vision a reality, for the immediate benefit of young people and the ultimate benefit of their communities."

Wales Youth Agency (1995, p.15)

Further developments up to local government reorganisation (1996)

Since the early 1990s a number of key trends have emerged within the youth service in Wales which have impacted on youth work in Dyfed. These trends have included:

- 1) The development of partnership arrangements which have moved away from the traditional links between maintained and voluntary youth work, to a situation that includes a range of organisations who work with young people. These include social services, health, employment and training, leisure and recreation, schools, housing and crime prevention.
- 2) The introduction of methods of working within the youth service which encourages the greater participation of young people.
- 3) The introduction of more stringent methods of monitoring and evaluation to comply with the procedures relating to the OHMCI (1995) inspection requirements for the youth service. Since 1992 the curriculum debate had also created an awareness among those involved in the youth service of the need to develop more formalised systems of monitoring and evaluation.

Difficulties were experienced by the service by both the search for external funding and by the development of new partnership arrangements. Central to these difficulties was the perceived need of the youth service to compromise the underpinning principles and values of the service to obtain some sources of external funding. This issue will be considered further within the research.

Building the Future (1993)

This document was produced by the Wales Youth Agency to promote youth work during the period of change leading up to the introduction of single tier local authorities following local government reorganisation. The document was produced by a working party of managers and youth work practitioners in Wales and it was widely distributed to decision-makers including elected members. More detailed information on the document is contained in Chapter 1.5.3.

The Needs of Young People Aged 15 - 19 and the Youth Work Response (1996)

This report is an important milestone for the youth service in Wales as it is the first report produced by a research partnership of the University of Wales (Cardiff) School of Social and Administrative Studies and the Wales Youth Agency. Produced in 1996, the purpose of the research was:

“To illuminate the ways in which youth work practice responded to the expressed needs of young people within the 15 - 19 age range”

Williamson (1996, p.i)

Related to this purpose were a number of key points which related to how young people themselves defined their need, how local youth work provision responded to that need and in what way. These questions, which examined the perspectives of young people on the relevance of youth work, were not only very unusual but also brought into focus, at a different level, the way youth work was determined and managed. Other areas within the report which are of interest to this research are the comments made about the competence and quality of staff. It was noted by Williamson that there were:

“Massively different staffing levels and very different balances between paid staff and volunteers in different youth work settings”

Williamson (1996, p.84)

Wales Youth Work Partnership

Historical Background

The origin of the Wales Youth Work Partnership can be traced to a number of initiatives which took place between 1977 and 1986. In addition to HMI short courses, these initiatives included a day conference at Llandrindod Wells in November 1978 entitled "The National Youth Bureau - Links and Services in Wales." This led to a second conference in September 1980 which considered a report "Young People in Wales - A New Perspective," and which made a proposals for the establishment of a Welsh Youth Affairs Unit/Secretariat.

Following these developments the Welsh Office invited the Welsh Joint Education Committee (WJEC), the Council for Wales of Voluntary Youth Services (CWVYS), the Council for Education and Training in Youth and Community Work (CETYCW), and the National Youth Bureau (NYB), to put forward a submission suggesting ways in which a national initiative might be structure. At a Welsh Office Invitation Conference in May 1985 the then Minister of State, Mr. John Stradling Thomas MP, announced that funding constraints had prevented all of the proposals being accepted but that sufficient funds had been set aside to allow the appointment of two professional officers to cover training and staff development and to promote the dissemination of information and good practice, with administrative support.

Structure

The Partnership was established in 1986 as an independent organisation funded by the Welsh Office for a three year rolling period reviewed annually by the Secretary of State for Wales. The conditions governing the conduct of the Partnership being set out in a Memorandum of Administrative and Financial Arrangements agreed between the Secretary of State and the Management Committee.

At the time of its establishment, the Management Committee consisted of:

- **the Chair**, appointed by the Secretary of State for Wales;
- **two persons** nominated by the Council for Education and Training in youth and Community Work (CETYCW);
- **two persons** nominated by the Council for Wales of Voluntary Youth Services (CWVYS);
- **two persons** nominated by the National Youth Bureau (NYB);

- **two persons** nominated by the Welsh Joint Education Committee (WJEC);
- **additional co-opted members;**
- **two persons** nominated by the Secretary of State who act as assessors of the work of the Partnership, including on member of HM Inspectorate.

The Management Committee also proposed to invite co-options which would provide the Partnership with views from the main interest groups involved in youth work. These included young people, youth officers, youth workers and training agencies.

Initial funding enabled the Partnership to appoint three staff members, a Training and Development Adviser, a Field Information Officer and a Clerical and Administrative Assistant.

Aims and Purposes

The AIM of the Partnership was to provide an infrastructure for the co-ordination and development of youth work practice throughout the voluntary and statutory youth service in Wales.

The PURPOSES were:

- to promote and provide support for social education and youth work responses to the needs and aspirations of young people throughout Wales;
- to establish effective co-operation between statutory, non-statutory and voluntary organisations seeking to meet those needs;
- to create increased opportunities for effective participation by young people building on initiatives started in International youth Year (1985).
- to provide servicing and support for local networks through information, training and development;
- to facilitate the development of in-service training and staff development for full-time youth service staff, and part-time and voluntary youth workers throughout Wales;
- to publish accounts of useful and innovatory practice in addition to making available other information relevant to those working with young people;

- to provide a forum for discussion, decision and joint action on youth issues in Wales; to arrange, or co-operate in the arrangement of conferences, seminars and study groups on priority issues and on specialist areas;
- to work with the staff of the Council for Education and Training in Youth and Community Work, the Council for Wales of Voluntary Youth Services, the Welsh Joint Education Committee and the National Youth Bureau, in order to improve youth work practice, policy and provision and to seek to promote the availability of their services, publications and expertise.

In translating its purposes into methods of work, forms of delivery and criteria for evaluation, the Partnership, in consultation with youth service providers, prioritised within these eight purposes.

Reports of Significance to the Work of the Partnership

Youth Service Provision in Wales, Education Survey 13, HMSO 1984

Survey 13 provided extensive information and analysis about the state of youth work in Wales. Of particular relevance to the Partnership were comments concerning staff development and training which were summarised in paragraph 7.2.18:

“Information obtained on training opportunities and staff development arrangements raises questions about objectives and their relationship to the roles performed, about how content, emphases and sequences are determined, and how methodology is decided; about appropriate levels, frequency and progression; about recruitment and selection procedures; about the transfer of learning from courses to practice, and about tutor selection, preparation and support.”

A Strategy for the In-service Training of those who work full-time in the youth service in Wales, WJEC/CETYCW. 1986.

The final report of the WJEC/CETYCW working group on the above subject was considered at a day conference in March 1986. The working group made recommendations to youth service employers and to the Partnership. The recommendations to the Partnership were as follows:

- A priority should be to establish a national programme for the training of officers

- To establish a group charged with the development of training
- To promote a learning network of those responsible for implementing the recommendations in the report
- To promote a wider awareness of the modes of training which can be utilised in staff development and the materials that would assist (this)
- It should consider how best to produce a scheme whereby modules of accredited training could lead to a national award

Starting from Strengths - The report of the panel to promote the continuing development of training for part-time and voluntary youth and community workers, NYB 1984.

The significance of this report is that it argues for a move away from basic training courses for part-time youth workers of the 'Bessey' type towards a credit accumulation system through the construction of a 'portfolio' of training and experience. It provides an agenda for action at unit level, at authority or organisation level, at regional level and at national level, with the greatest emphasis on unit level:

"It will be clear that we place great emphasis on support and training at unit level. No amount of courses can substitute for sustained support of the kind described. It is this that should form the bedrock of the youth service's response to the learning and support needs of the part-time and voluntary worker."

Report of the feasibility study on a regional resource and development unit for North West England, NYB, 1985.

This study was conducted by NYB in conjunction with Manchester Polytechnic and involved extensive consultation with youth and community interests throughout the North West. Many of its findings are of relevance to the work of the Partnership in Wales. A central principle to emerge was that such a unit should be **enabling** and its work should be based on needs as identified by its clients.

Milestones in the Development of Youth Work

Chronological Table

There is no agreed definitive starting point for youth work, mainly due to the fact that it grew from a number of individual organisations.

- 1700s** **Sunday School and Day School Movement**
e.g. Griffith Jones, Llandowror
 1731 'Circulating' Day Schools
 Day School opened in Southwark 1790.
- 1833** **Althorp's Act** to regulate the labour of children and young people in mills and factories.
 A motion before parliament for universal and national education was withdrawn. First government grant for education was made - £20,000
- 1839** **Government grant raised to £30,000**
- 1842** **Mines Act** prohibited child and female labour: boys under 10 not to be employed.
- 1844** **Formation of the YMCA** - 'concern for the spiritual welfare of young men in drapery and other trades by the introduction of religious services among them.'
- 1852** **YMCA introduced into Wales**
- 1853** **Formation of the YWCA**
- 1856** **Formation of the Prayer Union**
- 1861** **Formation of the Association for Girls.**
 Newcastle Commission revealed no real diffusion of elementary education among poor classes - hundreds of parishes without schools.
- 1870** **Elementary Education Act (Foster)**
 • position of existing voluntary schools to be secured;
 • school boards to be established
 • secure attendance of children between 5-13 years of age.
- 1870 onwards** **Clubs and institutes founded in Lancashire for young unemployed girls** (cotton famine).

- 1872 Kensington Boys' Club**
- 1875 Girls' Friendly Society**
- 1876 School attendance made compulsory**
- 1880 YMCA Boys' Department established**
- 1883 Boys' Brigade formed - William Smith.**
Most substantial organisation of its day which emphasised good character through drill and discipline.
- 1886 Hulme and Chorlton Lads' Club formed**
- 1888 London Federation of Working Boys' Club formed.**
T W Pelham "to offer to the poor what public schools and universities have been to the rich. They develop as no other agency can, the *esprit de corps* in which the poor for the most part are so lamentably lacking."
- 1890 Housing of Working Classes Act.**
Local authorities empowered to build houses.
- Clubs for Working Girls - Maude Stanley**
- 1899 School leaving raised to 12 years**
- 1900 School leaving raised to 14 years**
- 1902 Education Act.**
County Councils and County Boroughs given duty to administer elementary and secondary education according to local needs and circumstances.
- 1906 Education Act.**
Local Education Authorities empowered to make arrangements for school meals and to recover costs when parents could afford to pay,
- 1907 Boy Scout movement and first Scout camp - Robert Baden-Powell** "work for the good of your country, or for the business in which you are employed, and as you do this you will find that you will be getting all the promotion and all the success that you want it is your duty to your country to improve yourself."

Education Act.

Compulsory schemes of medical inspection in local education authority schools.

1908 **‘Working Lads’ Clubs.** Charles Russell

1909 **‘Eight Hours Act’ - working day eight hours.**

Scouting for Boys: A Handbook for Instruction in Good Citizenship. R Baden-Powell.

1910 **Girl Guides Movement.**

‘Choice of Employment Act’

Local education authorities empowered to establish juvenile employment panels to offer guidance in the choice of employment

1914 **Start of World War 1**

1916 **National and Local Juvenile Organisations’ Committee established.**

‘to concern themselves with the physical and moral welfare of the young in time of war.’

The setting up of the ‘Juvenile Organising Committee’ was the start of the government intervention and the development of a policy for youth work. They were not successful in combating delinquency.

The Scout Movement was extremely popular during the war years as it appealed to the patriotism of the time of doing good for the community and country.

1918 **End of World War 1**

Education Act (Fisher)

- school leaving age 14 but local authorities were allowed to make by-laws raising it to 15;
- education free regardless of income;
- education authorities empowered to give assistance to voluntary youth organisations.

1920 **Young Farmers’ Clubs formed in England and Wales**

1922 **Urdd Gobaith Cymru (Welsh League of Youth)**

Treharris Boys Club opened

1925 National Association of Boys' Clubs

Boys Village opened in St. Athan - Boys Clubs of Wales

There was a movement away from the uniformed organisations and a movement towards physical fitness and health.

1928 Boys' Clubs of Wales founded

Funded by the welfare section of the Ocean Coal Company

1930 Youth Hostel Association set up

1933 Hitler comes into power in Germany

1934 Cardiff and District Federation of Girls' Clubs

'Forerunner of the Welsh Association of Youth Clubs'

1936 Standing Conference of National Voluntary Youth Organisations (SCNVYO) set up.

1939 Start of World War 2

Board of Education Circular 1486 'In Service of Youth'

1940 Board of Education Circular 1516 'The Challenge of Youth'

1941 Air Training Corps scheme set up

1942 Wartime registration of all young people 16-18

1943 National Association of Training Corps for Girls

The onset of World War 2 saw a rapid growth in the number of young people attending voluntary organisations which provided them with the *raison d'être* that had previously been lacking. Grant aid was immediately available from the LEAs and from the Board of Education for capital expenditure maintenance and help towards full-time salaries.

1944 Education Act (HMSO 1944)

- foundation of the present education system primarily/secondary / further education
- 'government intention is to become a full and active partner in the provision of facilities for youth work no longer willing to entrust the social education of the adolescent population solely to existing voluntary organisations staffed overwhelmingly by well meaning amateurs.'

- provided for all local education authorities to: 'provide for the leisure and recreational needs of young people over compulsory school leaving age.'
- this set the youth service age range as 14-21.

1945 Methodist Association of Youth Clubs set up.
McNair report (HMSO 1944): The supply, recruitment, training of teachers and youth leaders.

1946 Outward Bound Trust set up

1949 Jackson Report: The Recruitment, Training and Conditions of Service for Youth Leaders and Community Centre Wardens.

1951 Fletcher Report: The Recruitment and Training of Youth Leaders and Community Centre Wardens.

General Election

5% cut in expenditure by local education authorities

1950s Development of a 'youth culture' - Teddy Boys and Coffee Bar era

High employment and money in their pockets.
Consumer Society. Challenging Society?

1956 Duke of Edinburgh's Award Scheme launched

1958 'Albemarle' Committee appointed: its whose main aim was 'to offer young people a constructive alternative,' consisting primarily of 'association, training and challenge.'

Committee members '**saw the problem as one of social control.**' It was perceived to be urgent and the report was completed within 12 months without much research.

1960 Albemarle Committee Report (HMSO 1960) leads to expansion within the youth service.

- building programme of purpose built centres
- full-time workers
- National College for the Training of Youth Leaders set up in Leicester
- setting up of Youth Service Development Council

The new National Training College which had no previous existing tradition upon which to establish itself, began to develop a particular style and philosophy of youth work which was often at variance with the values of the voluntary organisations.

- professional ethos of non-directiveness, non-judgementalism, acceptance

This led to a gap between the 'professional statutory' sector and the 'voluntary' sector.

- 1962** **Bessey Report** on the Training of Part-time Youth Workers
- Abercrave Outdoor Centre** opened (Boys Clubs of Wales)
- 1964** **Life of National College for the Training of Youth Leaders** extended to 1970-71
- 1965** **Sports Council set up** to advise on the development of amateur sport and physical recreation: foster co-operation between statutory and voluntary sectors
- 1968** **Age of majority lowered to 18**
- 1960s** A period of expansion with some authorities building youth wings on school campuses. These were not uniformly successful- 'The education production line has its refuse: that's where the youth service comes in.' The Education Line. Youth Review No. 25.
- 1968** **Labour Government commissioned two reports** which were amalgamated into the single Milsom and Fairburn Report 'Youth and Community Work into the 1970s.' (HMSO 1970)
- 1970** **General Election**

The new Conservative Minister of Education, after an eight month delay, decided not to accept the report (Margaret Thatcher). Instead, the Minister proposed a strengthening of the relationship between LEAs and the voluntary sector.

National Training College for Youth Leaders closed

- 1972** **History of YMCA in Wales produced (Pate)**
- 1973** **The Story of the Urdd published (Davies)**
- 1974** **Local government reorganisation**
- 1976** **Major cuts in local government spending**

Late 1970s High Youth Unemployment

- 1978 Youth and Community Work Training Course started at Cartrefle College (NEWI), Wrexham**
- “The National Youth Bureau - Links and Services in Wales”**
National Conference held at Llandrindod Wells
- 1979 General Election**
- 1980 Youth Service Bill to Parliament rejected.**
Proposed by a Conservative back-bencher
- Young People in Wales - A New Perspective.** A national conference which made proposals for the establishment of a Welsh Youth Affairs Unit / Secretariat
- 1981 Thomson Report (HMSO 1982) (England) published**
Not accepted by government
- 1984 Survey 13 (HMSO 1984).** By HMIs in Wales published
- 1985 Canllaw/On Line youth information booklet published**
- Youthlink Wales formed**
- 1986 National Advisory Council for Youth Service (NACYS) set up**
- Wales Youth Work Partnership (WYWP) set up**
- Youth Work Strategy document produced for youth work in Wales (WJEC/CETYCW)**
- 1988 Wales Youth Forum formed**
- Stage Two Course** introduced at the University of Wales, Cardiff, for the training of part-time workers.
- 1989 The Curriculum debate begins**
- 1990 Coopers, Lybrand and Deloitte reports on England and Wales. Management Structures**
- 1991 Welsh Federation of Boys’ and Girls’ Clubs founded**
- National Youth Agency (NYA) set up in Leicester**
Takes over the roles performed by the National Youth Bureau (NYB): dissemination of information and research into youth services issues.

Survey of Youth Workers in Wales carried out (Wales Youth Work Partnership)

Rural Youth Work Curriculum Project - YMCAs of Wales

Council for Education and Training of Youth and Community Workers (CETYCW)

- accreditation and endorsement of training courses for youth and community workers
- this role taken over by the NYA - Educational Standards Board

1992 Wales Youth Agency set up

Curriculum Statement for Wales produced

1993 Youth Work in Rural Areas (WYA)

1994 Quality Standards for Implementing the Youth Work Curriculum Statement for Wales developed (WYA)

Building the Future (WYA)

Education and Training Standards Committee formed in Wales

Guidelines to Endorsement of Initial Training for Youth and Community Work in Wales (ETS Wales)

National Lotter became a significant financial contributor to youth and community work in Wales

1995 A Scheme for the Validation of Initial Part-time Youth Work Training introduced (WJEC)

1996 Local Government Reorganisation

Framework for the Inspection of Local Education Authority Maintained Further Education produced (OHMCI)

Agenda for a Generation (UK Youth Work Alliance)

John Rose
Wales Youth Agency

October 1997

